# SAFE: Intelligent Online Scheduling for Collaborative DNN Inference in Vehicular Network

Ruiting Zhou<sup>\*†</sup>, Ziyi Han<sup>\*</sup>, Yifan Zeng<sup>\*</sup>, Zhi Zhou<sup>‡</sup>, Libing Wu<sup>\*</sup>, Wei Wang<sup>§</sup>

\*School of Cyber Science and Engineering, Wuhan University, China

<sup>†</sup>School of Computer Science and Engineering, Southeast University, China

<sup>‡</sup>School of Computer Science and Engineering, Sun Yat-sen University, China

<sup>§</sup>Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, China

Email: ruitingzhou@seu.edu.cn, {ziyihan, yifanzeng}@whu.edu.cn, zhouzhi9@mail.sysu.edu.cn, wu@whu.edu.cn, weiwa@cse.ust.hk

Abstract-Recent years have witnessed a widespread use of deep neural networks (DNNs) in providing various intelligent services, and vehicular networks are no exception. Given the limited computing capabilities of vehicles, collaborative vehicle-edge DNN inference has emerged as a viable alternative. This approach employs DNN partitioning, where a part of DNN is computed on vehicles, and the other part on the edge, e.g., roadside unit (RSU), aiming to enhance the inference accuracy and reduce the inference latency. In this setting, deriving an optimal DNN partitioning scheme becomes critical, yet challenging given the constant movement of vehicles and the highly dynamic wireless connections. Furthermore, vehicles may move out of the signal coverage of an RSU, making it difficult to receive the inference results. To this end, we propose a two-stage intelligent scheduling framework named Soft Actor-critic for discrete actions (SAC-D) based collaborative DNN inference FramEwork (SAFE). SAFE engages multiple RSUs to assist vehicles in completing inference tasks sequentially and ensuring reliable data transmission. It can learn the dynamic vehicular network and make scheduling decisions to minimize the overall latency of vehicle inference tasks. Extensive experimental results show that SAFE can reduce up to 80% of the overall latency with a lower failure rate, compared to four baselines.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The recent technological advancement of deep neural networks (DNNs) has enabled an increasing number of intelligent services in vehicular networks. However, DNN inference tasks are usually compute-intensive [1] and latency-sensitive [2], making it infeasible to deploy complex models and independently execute them on vehicles with only limited onboard computing resources. In contrast, roadside units (RSUs) equipped with edge servers possess stronger computational and storage capabilities. This opens up a potential opportunity for collaborative vehicle-edge inference, in which a DNN model is partitioned into two parts, one computed on the vehicle and the other on a nearby RSU. The vehicle computes the first part and transfers the intermediate output to the RSU, which computes the remaining part and returns the result back to the vehicle [3]. Collaborative vehicle-edge inference not only reduces the inference latency but also effectively combines the dynamic information from vehicles with the

Corresponding author: Ziyi Han.

static information from RSUs, resulting in significantly better inference results. For example, vehicle-mounted cameras and sensors capture data, and collaborative vehicle-edge inference can be employed to reduce latency and enhance the accuracy of video analysis and object detection/tracking, thereby ensuring safe driving [4].

However, collaborative DNN inference in vehicular networks faces several challenges. First, DNNs have chain or directed acyclic graph (DAG) topologies, where each layer's operation depends on the previous layers' outputs [5]. The computing demand and the size of the intermediate data generated at different layers in DNN models vary dramatically. Optimally partitioning DNNs is hence essential for efficient computation and data transfer during collaborative inference. Second, as the environments of vehicular networks change dynamically. such as uneven workload distribution and unstable wireless connections [6], the allocation of computing resources and wireless bandwidth to vehicles should be adjusted accordingly, so does the DNN partitioning scheme [7]. Third, vehicles are constantly moving, while some inference tasks require a few seconds to finish computing, e.g., trajectory prediction with a large-scale model and data [8]. The vehicle may move out of an RSU's signal coverage before the inference completes, making it unable to receive the inference results.

Existing work in achieving efficient DNN inference with edge collaboration includes methods like model partition [9], [10], which focus on DNN partitioning in an end-edge-cloud environment, without considering the mobility of vehicles, which may lead to task failures. Research on vehicular networks, mainly addresses task offloading and resource allocation [11], [12], but these approaches primarily target general computing tasks and do not exploit the unique characteristics of DNN inference tasks. To our knowledge, there are only a few studies on DNN inference in vehicular networks. Notably, Wang *et al.* [7] proposed an algorithm to select one RSU for collaborative inference, but did not address the potential failures of data transmission caused by vehicle mobility.

In this paper, we design a <u>Soft Actor-critic</u> for discrete actions (SAC-D) based collaborative DNN inference <u>FramEwork</u> (SAFE) to achieve reliable and low-latency DNN inference

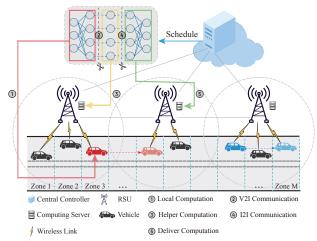


Fig. 1: Collaborative DNN inference in vehicular networks.

in vehicular networks. To our knowledge, this is the first formal study of online scheduling design for collaborative DNN inference across multiple RSUs in vehicular networks. To better illustrate this idea, we refer to Fig. 1. For the red vehicle, the first RSU is selected to execute part of DNN inference as the helper and the second RSU is used as the deliverer for the remaining part of computation and result delivery; in contrast, for the blue car, only one RSU is selected.

We summarize our main contributions as follows:

- Collaborative DNN Inference Model. We analyze the characteristics of DNN models and the mobility of vehicles and an average latency minimization problem is formulated to evaluate the performance of SAFE.
- Two-stage Collaborative Inference Framework. To solve the formulated problem, SAFE first decomposes the problem into two subproblems, workload distribution and resource allocation. For the first subproblem, SAFE utilizes SAC-D to determining RSU selection and DNN partitioning. In the second stage, by leveraging Karush–Kuhn–Tucker (KKT) conditions, SAFE makes the optimal resource allocation decisions for each RSU in linear time.
- We evaluate the effectiveness of SAFE through extensive experiments. The results show that i) SAFE achieves the low average latency and the high success rate; ii) SAFE significantly outperforms four baselines in various vehicular network scenarios; iii) SAFE improves the success rate by up to 65% while reducing the average latency by up to 80%, compared to four baselines.

## **II. SYSTEM MODEL**

## A. DNN Inference in Vehicular Networks

System Overview. As shown in Fig. 1, we consider a vehicular network along a road with a number of RSUs, denoted as S. Each RSU  $s \in S$  is equipped with a computing server and has a signal coverage of radius r. Denote the computing resource and the wireless bandwidth capacity of **RSU** s as  $C_s$  and  $B_s$ , respectively.

Vehicle Information. On the road, I vehicles travel at constant speeds and can communicate with a nearby RSU and execute DNN inference tasks in cooperation with RSUs. To model the mobility of vehicles, we adopt zone-based and time-slotted models. The road is divided into M zones with equal lengths. Let  $L_s^m \in \{0,1\}$  denote whether zone m is within the signal coverage of RSU s. Over a time span  $\mathcal{T}$ , vehicles generate DNN inference tasks randomly and request processing. We assume that there will not be two uncompleted tasks on a vehicle at the same time. Therefore, each vehicle  $i \in \mathcal{I}$  can be represented by a tuple  $\{v_i, c_i, a_i, l_i(t)\}$ , where  $v_i$  denotes the travel speed of vehicle *i*,  $c_i$  represents the computing capacity of vehicle  $i, a_i \in \mathcal{T}$  indicates the request time for the task of vehicle *i*, and  $l_i(t) \in \mathcal{M}$  denotes the location of vehicle i at time slot t.

Collaborative Inference Model. To overcome the significant latency incurred by resource-limited vehicles in completing inference tasks independently, we adopt a collaborative model that leverages the resources of RSUs to accelerate the inference process. Considering the mobility of vehicles, a vehicle may leave the signal coverage of the cooperative RSU when the RSU completes the task, such as the red vehicle in Fig. 1. To address this, we extend the collaborative model by selecting two RSUs, referred to as the helper and the deliver [13]. Both the helper and the deliver can assist the vehicle in completing the inference task sequentially, with the deliver responsible for sending the results to the vehicle. Note that one RSU can be selected as the helper and the deliver simultaneously, such as the blue vehicle in Fig. 1.

DNN Model Partition. DNN models are well-trained and pre-installed on both vehicles and RSUs. Due to limited computing and memory resources in vehicles, the deployed models on vehicles are compressed, reducing the computing workload while preserving models' topology and intermediate data size [14]. Conversely, RSUs deploy complete and uncompressed models. The architecture of a DNN model is structured as a sequence of logical layers. The DNN model of vehicle *i* consists of  $K_i$  logical layers. The output of k-th layer is called the intermediate data of k-th layer, which is required as the input by the (k + 1)-th layer. Each layer  $k \in \mathcal{K}_i$  can be represented by a tuple  $\{x_{i,k}, x'_{i,k}, d_{i,k}\}$ .  $x_{i,k}/x'_{i,k}$  indicates the complete/compressed computing workload of k-th layer, which is determined by the layer type, input size, and output size.  $d_{i,k}$  denotes the intermediate data of the k-th layer. Based on the settings of helper and deliver, it is necessary to select two partition layers to divide the model into three parts.

Decision Variables. After the DNN inference task of vehicle i arrives at time slot  $a_i$ , the decisions made by the central controller include: i)  $h_{i,s}, d_{i,s} \in \{0, 1\}$ , binary variables which represent whether RSU s is selected as the helper/deliver for vehicle i; ii)  $p_{i,k_1}, e_{i,k_2} \in \{0,1\}$ , binary variables which indicate whether layers  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are selected as two partition layers for vehicle *i*; iii)  $\alpha_{i,s}^t, \beta_{i,s}^t \in [0,1]$ , the ratio of computing resources/ wireless bandwidth allocated to vehicle i in RSU s at t; For convenience, let  $\kappa_{i,1}$ ,  $\kappa_{i,2}$  denote the partition layers of vehicle *i*, *i.e.*,  $\kappa_{i,1} = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_i} k \cdot p_{i,k}$  and  $\kappa_{i,2} = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_i} k \cdot e_{i,k}$ .

## B. Latency Model

Inference Latency. The total latency of the processing task for vehicle *i* consists of three types of computation latency and two types of data transmission latency, which is calculated as:

$$\mu_{i} = \mu_{i}^{l} + \mu_{i}^{o} + \mu_{i}^{h} + \mu_{i}^{g} + \mu_{i}^{d}, \qquad (1)$$

where  $\mu_i^l$ ,  $\mu_i^h$  and  $\mu_i^d$  are the computation latency for executing the first, second and third part of vehicle i's DNN model at local, helper and deliver, respectively;  $\mu_i^o$  is the communication latency for transferring intermediate data of the first partition layer from vehicle i to helper to continue execution; and  $\mu_i^g$  is the communication latency for transmitting intermediate data of the second partition layer of vehicle *i* from helper to deliver.

Computation Latency. i) Local Computation: The local computation latency is the execution time of the first part of the DNN model (from layer 1 to the first partition layer  $\kappa_{i,1}$ ), which can be calculated as  $\mu_i^l = \sum_{k:k < =\kappa_{i,1}} x_{i,k}'/c_i$ . ii) Helper Computation: In the helper computation phase, the latency of vehicle *i* consists of the execution time of layer  $\kappa_{i,1}$  to layer  $\kappa_{i,2}$ , which can be represented by  $\mu_i^h = \sum_{s \in S} \sum_{k:\kappa_{i,1} < k < =\kappa_{i,2}} \frac{x_{i,k}}{\alpha_{i,s}^{t}h_{i,s}C_s}.$  iii) Deliver Computation: The latency of vehicle i in the deliver computation phase is the execution time of the remaining layers, which can be given by  $\mu_i^d = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{k:k > \kappa_{i,2}} \frac{x_{i,k}}{\alpha_{i,s}^t d_{i,s} C_s}$ .

Communication Latency. i) Vehicle-to-infrastructure (V2I) communication: Vehicles communicate with RSUs via a wireless network connection (e.g., 4G, 5G, and wifi). In this paper, the orthogonal frequency division multiple access technique is used to achieve network slicing, which enables simultaneous transmission of multiple signals without causing interference [15]. Then, the data rate between vehicle i and RSU s at time slot t is obtained by the Shannon formula as  $r_{i,s}^t$  =  $\beta_{i,s}^t B_s \log_2(1 + \frac{\rho_i g_{i,s}^t}{\sigma^2}),$  where  $\rho_i$  indicates the transmission power of vehicle  $i, g_{i,s}^t$  represents the channel gain between vehicle *i* and RSU *s* at time slot *t*, and  $\sigma^2$  denotes the power of the Gaussian noise. The wireless transmission latency between vehicle *i* and the helper can be calculated by  $\mu_i^o = \sum_{s \in S} \frac{d_{i,\kappa_{i,1}}}{h_{i,s}r_{i,s}^t}$ . ii) Infrastructure-to-infrastructure (I21) communication: RSUs communicate with each other through wired links (e.g., optical fiber). Due to the stability of wired links, we assume that the transmission rate remains constant. Let  $R_{s,s'}$  denote the data rate between RSU s and RSU s'. The communication latency between the helper and the deliver is  $\mu_i^g = \sum_{s \in S} \sum_{s' \in S} \frac{d_{i,s',l}}{h_{i,s}d_{i,s'}R_{s,s'}}$ . It is worth noting that the transmission latency for result delivery is ignored due to the relatively small size of the result [16].

## C. Problem Formulation

**Problem Formulation.** Our objective is to minimize the DNN inference latency while ensuring task delivery, subject to the mobility of vehicles and the limited communication range of RSUs. The online problem for DNN inference in vehicular networks can be formulated as follows.

minimize 
$$\frac{1}{I} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mu_i$$
 (2)

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \alpha_{i,s}^t \ll 1, \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, \forall t \in \mathcal{T},$$
(2a)

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \beta_{i,s}^t \ll 1, \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, \forall t \in \mathcal{T},$$
(2b)

$$\sum_{\forall s \in \mathcal{S}} h_{i,s} L^s_{l_i(a_i + \mu^l_i)} = 1, \forall i \in \mathcal{I},$$
(2c)

$$\sum_{\forall s \in \mathcal{S}} d_{i,s} L^s_{l_i(a_i + \mu_i)} = 1, \forall i \in \mathcal{I},$$
(2d)

$$\sum_{\forall s \in \mathcal{S}} h_{i,s} = 1, \sum_{\forall s \in \mathcal{S}} d_{i,s} = 1, \forall i \in \mathcal{I},$$
(2e)

$$\sum_{\forall k \in \mathcal{K}_i} p_{i,k} = 1, \sum_{\forall k \in \mathcal{K}_i} e_{i,k} = 1, \forall i \in \mathcal{I},$$
(2f)

$$t <= t' < t'', \forall t : \beta_{i,h_i}^t > 0, \forall t' : \alpha_{i,h_i}^{t'} > 0,$$

$$\forall t'': \alpha_{i,d_i}^{t''} > 0, \forall i \in \mathcal{I},$$
(2g)

$$h_{i,s}, d_{i,s}, p_{i,k}, e_{i,k} \in \{0, 1\}, \forall i, \forall s, \forall k.$$
 (2h)

Constraints (2a) and (2b) guarantee the allocated computing resources and wireless bandwidth within the capacity of each RSU. To ensure reliable communication, constraints (2c) and (2d) ensure that vehicles are within the signal coverage of the corresponding RSUs for data transmission. Constraint (2e) means that only one RSU is selected as the helper/deliver for each vehicle. Constraint (2f) represents that only one layer is selected for each partition point. Constraint (2g) enforces the execution sequence of vehicles' inference phases.

Challenge. The above problem (2) is a mix-integer nonlinear optimization problem. Integer linear programming (ILP), which is known as NP-hard [17], is reducible to it. So the problem (2) is also NP-hard even in the offline setting, which is challenging to solve by conventional optimization methods. Moreover, the network condition dynamic changes and the arrival of vehicles are unknown. Finally, problem (2) is time coupled, making it more difficult to be addressed.

## III. THE DESIGN OF SAFE

In order to solve the average latency minimization problem (2), we first decouple the problem into two subproblems: workload distribution and resource allocation. Then, a twostage SAC-D based framework, SAFE, is proposed.

## A. Solution for Workload Distribution

Problem Transformation. We first reformulate the workload distribution subproblem into an MDP. An MDP can be denoted by the tuple  $\{S, A, P, R, \gamma\}$ . In our scenario, the central controller is considered an agent. The MDP can be defined as follows.

i) State. At each time slot t, the agent observes the state information from the current vehicular network environment. The state  $s_t$  includes the state of all RSUs and  $\mathcal{V}_t$  represents the information of currently arriving vehicles' tasks  $\mathcal{I}_t$ . The state of each RSU s includes: the computing resource capacity  $C_s$ , the bandwidth resource capacity  $B_s$ , and the workload already assigned to RSUs at the current time slot  $D_{s,t}^{load} = \sum_{t':t'>=t} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \alpha_{i,s}^{t'} C_s, \ i.e., \ \mathcal{S}_t = \{C_s, B_s, D_{s,t}^{load}\}_{s \in \mathcal{S}}.$ The information of vehicle i includes: the travel speed  $v_i$ , the computing resource capacity  $c_i$ , the transmission power  $\rho_i$ , and the location  $l_i(t)$ , *i.e.*,  $\mathcal{V}_t = \{v_i, c_i, \rho_i, l_i(t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}_t}$ .

ii) Action. Given the observed state  $s_t$ , the agent determines the action  $a_t$  of the workload distribution (RSUs selection and DNN partition) for all vehicles  $\mathcal{I}_t$  at time slot t, *i.e.*,  $a_t = \{h_{i,s}, d_{i,s}, p_{i,k}, e_{i,k}\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}_t, s \in \mathcal{S}, k \in \mathcal{K}_i}$ .

iii) *Reward*. Given the state-action pair, the agent will receive a reward  $r_t$  from the environment to evaluate the quality of action  $a_t$ . The reward function is defined as follows:

$$r_{t} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{I}_{t}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_{t}} r_{t,i}, \text{ where}$$
(3)  
$$r_{t,i} = \begin{cases} -\mu_{i}, & \text{constraints (2c) and (2d) are satisfied,} \\ -\omega\mu_{i}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

 $r_{t,i}$  denotes the reward of vehicle *i*, and  $\omega$  indicates the penalty factor. When the constraints (2c) and (2d) are satisfied, the reward is the negative value of the latency. And an extremely small value  $-\omega\mu_i$  is returned as a penalty for violating constraints. Note that there must be  $\omega >> 1$  to incentivize the agent to select actions that satisfy the constraints. The specific set of parameters is listed in Sec. IV.

**Challenge and Solution.** In vehicular networks, it is challenging to model the environment state accurately due to the limited knowledge of transition probability and task arrival patterns of all vehicles. High-dimensional continuous state spaces and *high-dimensional discrete action spaces* further exacerbate convergence issues due to their computational cost [18]. Traditional dynamic programming solutions are ineffective in solving this MDP problem. DRL has emerged as a promising approach for MDP problems [19]. In this paper, we exploit the SAC-D [20], an off-policy actor-critic algorithm with soft policy updating based on the maximum entropy RL framework, to address the above MDP problem. It is specifically designed for discrete action spaces and can be applied in large-scale networks without requiring statistics on network dynamics, which is described in detail in Sec. III-C.

#### B. Solution for Resource Allocation

Since the workload distribution strategy is obtained through the SAC-D based algorithm, and the DNN inference phases are executed sequentially, the start time of each phase can be obtained. Therefore, resource allocation on each RSU is independent and can be decomposed into a series of singleslot wireless bandwidth allocation problems and computing resource allocation problems.

*Wireless Bandwidth Allocation.* The wireless bandwidth allocation problem of RSU *s* at *t* can be modeled as follows:

$$\operatorname{ninimize} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_{s,t}} \mu_i^o \tag{4}$$

$$\sum_{i\in\mathcal{I}}\beta_{i,s}^t <= 1,\tag{4a}$$

where  $\mathcal{I}_{s,t}$  denotes the set of vehicles that need to allocate bandwidth by the RSU *s* for intermediate data transmission at time slot *t*. The above problem (4) is a convex optimization problem, which can be addressed directly by a convex solver, *e.g.*, CVX. But, considering the low latency requirement of online inference, we derive the following equations to quickly calculate the optimal solution according to the convex optimization theory and KKT condition [11], [21]:

$$\nabla (\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_{s,t}} \mu_i^o + \delta (\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \beta_{i,s}^t - 1)) = 0,$$
  
$$\delta \ge 0,$$
  
$$\delta (\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \beta_{i,s}^t - 1) = 0,$$
  
$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \beta_{i,s}^t - 1 \le 0.$$
  
(5)

By solving the equations, the optimal bandwidth resource allocation for vehicles  $i \in \mathcal{I}_{s,t}$  can be obtained as follows:

$$\beta_{i,s}^{t} = \frac{\sqrt{\eta_{i}}}{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_{s,t}} \sqrt{\eta_{i}}}, \forall i \in \mathcal{I}_{s,t}, \text{ where}$$
$$\eta_{i} = \frac{d_{i,\kappa_{i,2}}}{B_{s} \log_{2}(1 + \frac{\rho_{i}g_{i,s}^{t}}{\sigma^{2}})}, \forall i \in \mathcal{I}_{s,t}.$$
(6)

*Computing Resource Allocation.* Similar to the problem (4), computing resource allocation is also a convex optimization problem, and its solution is given by:

$$\alpha_{i,s}^{t} = \frac{\sqrt{\zeta_{i}}}{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}'_{s,t}} \sqrt{\zeta_{i}}}, \forall i \in \mathcal{I}'_{s,t}, \text{where}$$
$$\zeta_{i} = X_{i,s}/C_{s}, \forall i \in \mathcal{I}'_{s,t}.$$
(7)

where  $\mathcal{I}'_{s,t}$  denotes the set of vehicles that need to allocate computing resources by the RSU *s* for task inference at time slot *t*,  $X_{i,s}$  indicates the computation workload of vehicle *i* in RSU *s*. In helper computation phase,  $X_{i,s} = \sum_{k:\kappa_{i,1} < k < = \kappa_{i,2}} x_{i,k}$ , and  $X_{i,s} = \sum_{k:k > \kappa_{i,2}} x_{i,k}$  for deliver computation phase.

#### C. SAC-D Based Collaborative Inference Framework

Design of SAFE. We propose a two-stage SAC-D based collaborative inference framework, SAFE, to handle the problem (2). SAFE includes four crucial elements to enhance performance: 1) An actor-critic architecture with an actor network, a pair of evaluative critic networks, and a pair of target critic networks. The actor makes action decisions based on its policy  $\pi_{\phi}(s)$ . The evaluative critic networks provide a pair of Qvalues  $(Q_{\theta_1}, Q_{\theta_2})$  to evaluate the actor's actions, while the target critic networks calculate  $(Q_{\theta'_1}, Q_{\theta'_2})$ . 2) An off-policy way with the experience replay technique to accelerate the convergence efficiency. 3) Discrete actions that are suitable for our transformed MDP problem. In the output layer of the actor network, decision elements are addressed via discretization. Critic networks output the Q-value of each possible action rather than simply providing the action as input. 4) Maximum entropy framework to ensure exploration and stability. For our algorithm, the goal of the agent is to find a policy  $\pi^*$  that maximizes the maximum entropy objective:

$$\pi^* = \arg\max_{\pi} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \mathbb{E}_{(s_t, a_t) \sim \xi_{\pi}} [\gamma^t (r_t + \lambda \mathcal{H}(\pi(.|s_t)))], \quad (8)$$

where  $\lambda$  denotes the temperature parameter that balances the reward and entropy,  $\xi_{\pi}$  indicates the distribution of trajectories induced by policy  $\pi$ , and  $\mathcal{H}(\pi(.|s_t))$  represents the entropy of the policy  $\pi$  at state  $s_t$ .

Algorithm Details. Our SAC-D based collaborative inference framework, SAFE, is presented in technical report [22].

#### **IV. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION**

## A. Experiments Setup

Vehicle-edge System. We implement a vehicle-edge system with two types of devices: MacBook Pro 2020 with chip M1 and desktop PC. We take ten MacBook Pros (which utilize only one CPU core) to emulate vehicles. Five desktop PCs are employed as the RSUs. Each desktop PC is equipped with 12 CPU cores, 16GB RAM, 500GB HDDs, and a dualport 1GbE NIC. We consider a road with five RSUs whose signal coverage radius is 300 m. The length of each zone is 20 m. The wireless bandwidth capacity of RSU is [5, 20]MHz (default  $B_s = 10$  MHz). The travel speed  $v_i$  is [36,72] km/h. Due to budget limitations, we cannot deploy physical vehicles and RSUs. Therefore, we used a data simulation approach to realize the movement of vehicles and wireless communication. The transmission power  $\rho_i$  is set within [5, 10] dBm, the channel gain  $g_{i,s}^t$  follows  $-(128.1 + 37.6 \log_{10} d)$ , where d (in km) indicates the distance between vehicle i and RSU s, and the Gaussian noise  $\sigma^2$  is set to -174 dBm/Hz.

Workload. In our experiments, three well-known DNN models, AlexNet [23], VGG-16 [24], and ResNet50 [25] are considered (VGG-16 is used by default). We implement all DNN models with PyTorch in Python. Both training and inference of DNN models are performed using the Berkeley Deep Drive data set (BDD100k) [26]. Specifically, the input data is a 1280 \* 720 image with 3 channels.

TABLE I: Parameter Setting of SAFE

Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
Number of episodes $E$	3000	Number of steps T	200
Replay buffer size $ \mathcal{D} $	10000	Mini-batch size $U$	100
Learning rate $\ell_Q, \ell_\pi, \ell_\lambda$	0.0001	Discount factor $\gamma$	0.99
Temperature initial $\lambda$	1.0	Target entropy $\hat{H}$	$-\log(1+\iota)$
Soft update factor $\tau$	0.01	Optimizer	Adam
Hidden layer act.	ReLU	Actor output act.	Softmax

Algorithm Networks. In our DRL, the actor network and critic networks of the agent are all four-layer neural networks. The number of neurons in the hidden layers are 512 and 256, The penalty factor of reward  $\omega$  is set to 3. Other parameters of SAFE are listed in TABLE I.

Baselines. To evaluate the performance of SAFE, the following four baselines are compared.

- Local: all DNN inference computations are completed on vehicles without any assistance.
- *Edge*: vehicles directly upload the input data to the nearby RSU, and all computations are done on this RSU.
- DSL [27]: DSL is a state-of-art DNN partition scheme, which executes the inference tasks with the cooperation of the nearby RSU. In this approach, both RSUs and vehicles are capable of running only one task at a time, utilizing all available resources.
- INSGA [28]: INSGA is a specialized algorithm designed for resource allocation in vehicular networks. It offloads inference tasks to nearby RSUs and makes resource

allocation decisions based on an improved non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm.

## B. Evaluation Results

Evaluation Metrics. Given that vehicles may be driven out of the signal coverage of the assist RSU, not all vehicles can complete the inference task computation and delivery. Therefore, we consider the following metrics to evaluate the performance of SAFE. i) Success rate, which is defined as the number of completed tasks over the total number of inference tasks. ii) Average latency of all completed tasks.

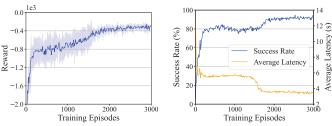
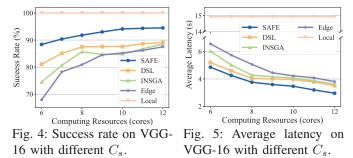


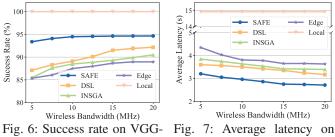
Fig. 2: The convergence performance of SAFE.

Fig. 3: The convergence performance details of SAFE.

Convergence of SAFE. The convergence performance of our framework SAFE is presented in Fig. 2. The light blue region represents the standard deviation. We can observe that as the number of training episodes increases, the reward value rises gradually until it reaches a relatively stable value. It validates that SAFE converges after parameter iterations for 1800 episodes. Specifically, we plot the success rate and the average latency under each iteration in Fig. 3. It can be observed that the average latency decreases and the success rate rises gradually as the number of episodes grows, which further proves that SAFE has a good convergence effect, *i.e.*, small average latency with a high success rate.



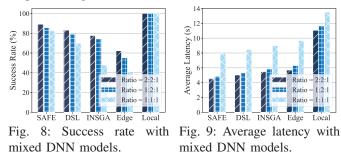
Impact of Computing Resources. After well offline training, we evaluate the online performance of SAFE. Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 illustrate the success rate and the average latency of all algorithms with VGG-16 in terms of the computing resources capacity in each RSU, respectively. The results show that the average latency decreases as the amount of resources increases, while the success rate increases gradually. This is attributed to the fact that the computation latency on RSUs is influenced by the available resource capacity. With sufficient resources, the latency decreases, reducing the likelihood of vehicles traveling out of RSU signal coverage and thereby increasing the success rate. In addition, SAFE performs better than the four baselines. This is due to SAFE's ability to capture dynamic changes in the environment, such as vehicle location, RSU workload, and channel conditions. The DRL-based framework SAFE targets the long-term performance to adapt to a dynamic environment, while baselines focus only on the immediate performance.



16 with different  $B_s$ .

VGG-16 with different  $B_s$ .

Impact of Wireless Bandwidth. Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 present the impact of wireless bandwidth on the performance of SAFE. It can be observed that as bandwidth grows, average latency decreases, and the success rate rises. The reason is that sufficient wireless bandwidth resources reduce the data transmission latency in V2I communication. Furthermore, SAFE consistently outperforms the four baselines and can adapt to changes in the available wireless bandwidth.



Mixed DNN models. In real-world scenarios, vehicles often employ a variety of DNN models. To address this, we conducted experiments using mixed DNN models. The task's DNN model type  $u_i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  employed by vehicle *i* is added to the state so that SAFE can adapt to different model features. The results under the different ratios of the three models used for inference tasks (*i.e.*, ratio = AlexNet : VGG-16 : ResNet50) are presented in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9. It can be seen that SAFE enhances the success rate by 10% to 20% while reducing the average latency by up to 50%.

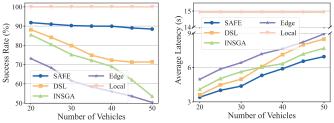


Fig. 10: Success rate on VGG-16 with different *I*.

Fig. 11: Average latency on VGG-16 with different *I*.

Large Scale. To assess the effectiveness of SAFE on a broader scale, we conducted experiments with 10 RSUs and [20, 50] vehicles. The results are presented in Fig. 10 and Fig. 11. It can be observed that SAFE consistently outperforms the

four baselines, especially in larger-scale scenarios. In addition, as the number of vehicles increases, average latency of DSL becomes worse compared to INSGA. This is because suitable resource allocation strategies effectively improve resource utilization, reducing latency in resource-constrained scenarios.

## V. RELATED WORK

## A. DNN Inference Acceleration

DNN Model Optimization. To support latency-sensitive applications, collaborative DNN inference [5], [29] have been used to reduce inference latency by leveraging DNN partitioning and offloading partial computation from the resourceconstrained local to nearby edge devices [30], edge servers [9], and powerful cloud [31]. Mohammed et al. [10] design a finegrained adaptive DNN partitioning strategy and a distributed offloading algorithm based on a matching game to minimize latency. Hu et al. [32] propose a distributed inference mechanism with progressive model partitioning to enhance run-time performance on edge devices. Huang et al. [33] present a novel adversarial group linear bandits algorithm for collaborative edge inference. However, these works overlook the mobility of vehicles in dynamic vehicular networks, which may lead to inference task failures.

## B. Vehicular Edge Computing

In recent years, great efforts have been paid to computation offloading and resource allocation in vehicular networks [11], [12]. Wu et al. [34] propose a dynamic radio access network (RAN) slicing framework for different latency-sensitive vehicle network tasks. Considering the vehicle mobility dynamics, Li et al. [35] present a stochastic scheduling scheme to minimize the traveled distance of vehicles. There are few existing studies on DNN inference tasks in vehicular networks. Wang *et al.* [7] design a chemical reaction optimization based algorithm with the best partition point selection scheme for joint vehicle-edge DNN inference. However, they only focus on the allocation of computing resources and ignore the wireless bandwidth, which is scarce and unstable in the edge environment. The above DNN inference researches all neglect the dynamic mobility of vehicles, which is a major feature of vehicular networks.

## VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a collaborative DNN inference framework, SAFE, for vehicular networks. Our goal is to reduce the inference latency under the limited computing resource and wireless bandwidth capacity constraints of RSUs. We decouple the problem into two subproblems: workload distribution and resource allocation. We first present a SAC-D based algorithm to solve the workload distribution subproblem to decide the RSU selection and DNN partition. Second, the resource allocation subproblem which calculates the amount of allocated computing resources and wireless bandwidth of selected RSUs to the vehicle is solved by convex optimization theory. Extensive experiments show that SAFE can adapt to a highly dynamic environment and significantly reduce inference latency.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This work is supported in part by the NSFC Grants (62072344, U20A20177and 62232004).

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Self-driving Safety Report, 2020, https://resources.nvidia.com/ en-us-auto-safety/auto-safety-report.
- [2] Y. Zhang, L. Zhao, G. Zheng, X. Chu, Z. Ding, and K.-C. Chen, "Resource allocation for open-loop ultra-reliable and low-latency uplink communications in vehicular networks," IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology, vol. 70, no. 3, pp. 2590-2604, 2021.
- [3] J. Chen and X. Ran, "Deep learning with edge computing: A review," Proceedings of the IEEE, vol. 107, no. 8, pp. 1655-1674, 2019.
- [4] E. Arnold, O. Y. Al-Jarrah, M. Dianati, S. Fallah, D. Oxtoby, and A. Mouzakitis, "A survey on 3d object detection methods for autonomous driving applications," IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems, vol. 20, no. 10, pp. 3782-3795, 2019.
- [5] N. D. Lane, S. Bhattacharya, P. Georgiev, C. Forlivesi, L. Jiao, L. Qendro, and F. Kawsar, "Deepx: A software accelerator for low-power deep learning inference on mobile devices," in Proc. of IPSN, 2016.
- [6] B. Ma, Z. Ren, and W. Cheng, "Traffic routing-based computation offloading in cybertwin-driven internet of vehicles for v2x applications," IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology, vol. 71, no. 5, pp. 4551-4560, 2022.
- [7] Q. Wang, Z. Li, K. Nai, Y. Chen, and M. Wen, "Dynamic resource allocation for jointing vehicle-edge deep neural network inference," Journal of Systems Architecture, vol. 117, p. 102133, 2021.
- [8] T. Salzmann, B. Ivanovic, P. Chakravarty, and M. Pavone, "Trajectron++: Dynamically-feasible trajectory forecasting with heterogeneous data," in Proc. of Springer ECCV, 2020.
- [9] E. Li, L. Zeng, Z. Zhou, and X. Chen, "Edge ai: On-demand accelerating deep neural network inference via edge computing," IEEE Transactions on Wireless Communications, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 447-457, 2020.
- [10] T. Mohammed, C. Joe-Wong, R. Babbar, and M. D. Francesco, "Distributed inference acceleration with adaptive dnn partitioning and offloading," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2020.
- [11] P. Dai, K. Hu, X. Wu, H. Xing, and Z. Yu, "Asynchronous deep reinforcement learning for data-driven task offloading in mec-empowered vehicular networks," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2021.
- [12] J. Zhang, S. Chen, X. Wang, and Y. Zhu, "Deepreserve: Dynamic edge server reservation for connected vehicles with deep reinforcement learning," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2021.
- [13] M. Li, J. Gao, L. Zhao, and X. Shen, "Deep reinforcement learning for collaborative edge computing in vehicular networks," IEEE Transactions on Cognitive Communications and Networking, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 1122-1135, 2020.
- [14] N. Shan, Z. Ye, and X. Cui, "Collaborative intelligence: Accelerating deep neural network inference via device-edge synergy," Security and Communication Networks, vol. 2020, pp. 1-10, 2020.
- [15] F. M. C. Forum, "5g vehicular communication technology," 2017.
- [16] Y. Chen, Z. Liu, Y. Zhang, Y. Wu, X. Chen, and L. Zhao, "Deep reinforcement learning-based dynamic resource management for mobile edge computing in industrial internet of things," IEEE Transactions on Industrial Informatics, vol. 17, no. 7, pp. 4925-4934, 2021.
- [17] A. Schrijver, Theory of linear and integer programming. John Wiley & Sons, 1998.
- [18] W. Zhang, D. Yang, H. Peng, W. Wu, W. Quan, H. Zhang, and X. Shen, "Deep reinforcement learning based resource management for dnn inference in industrial iot," IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology, vol. 70, no. 8, pp. 7605-7618, 2021.
- [19] A. Mekrache, A. Bradai, E. Moulay, and S. Dawaliby, "Deep reinforcement learning techniques for vehicular networks: Recent advances and future trends towards 6g," Vehicular Communications, vol. 33, p. 100398, 2022.
- [20] P. Christodoulou, "Soft actor-critic for discrete action settings," CoRR, vol. abs/1910.07207, 2019.
- [21] S. Boyd, S. P. Boyd, and L. Vandenberghe, Convex optimization. Cambridge university press, 2004.
- [22] Technical report, https://hzy718.github.io/SAFE/tr.pdf.
- [23] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton, "Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks," Proc. of NIPS, 2012.

- [24] K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman, "Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition," arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.1556, 2014.
- [25] S. Xie, R. Girshick, P. Dollár, Z. Tu, and K. He, "Aggregated residual transformations for deep neural networks," in Proc. of IEEE CVPR, 2017.
- [26] F. Yu, W. Xian, Y. Chen, F. Liu, M. Liao, V. Madhavan, and T. Darrell, "Bdd100k: A diverse driving video database with scalable annotation tooling," arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.04687, vol. 2, no. 5, p. 6, 2018.
- [27] C. Hu, W. Bao, D. Wang, and F. Liu, "Dynamic adaptive dnn surgery for inference acceleration on the edge," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2019.
- [28] W. Wei, R. Yang, H. Gu, W. Zhao, C. Chen, and S. Wan, "Multiobjective optimization for resource allocation in vehicular cloud computing networks," IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems, vol. 23, no. 12, pp. 25536-25545, 2022.
- [29] Y. Kang, J. Hauswald, C. Gao, A. Rovinski, T. Mudge, J. Mars, and L. Tang, "Neurosurgeon: Collaborative intelligence between the cloud and mobile edge," ACM SIGARCH Computer Architecture News, vol. 45, no. 1, pp. 615-629, 2017.
- [30] N. Chen, Z. Shuai, S. Zhang, Y. Yan, Y. Chen, and S. Lu, "Resmap: Exploiting sparse residual feature map for accelerating cross-edge video analytics," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2023.
- [31] S. Laskaridis, S. I. Venieris, M. Almeida, I. Leontiadis, and N. D. Lane, 'Spinn: synergistic progressive inference of neural networks over device and cloud," in Proceedings of MobiCom, 2020.
- C. Hu and B. Li, "Distributed inference with deep learning models across [32] heterogeneous edge devices," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2022.
- [33] Y. Huang, L. Zhang, and J. Xu, "Adversarial group linear bandits and its application to collaborative edge inference," in Proc. of IEEE INFOCOM, 2023.
- [34] W. Wu, N. Chen, C. Zhou, M. Li, X. Shen, W. Zhuang, and X. Li, "Dynamic ran slicing for service-oriented vehicular networks via constrained learning," IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Communications, vol. 39, no. 7, pp. 2076-2089, 2021.
- [35] M. Li, J. Gao, L. Zhao, and X. Shen, "Adaptive computing scheduling for edge-assisted autonomous driving," IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology, vol. 70, no. 6, pp. 5318-5331, 2021.