

Transportation Infrastructure Restoration Optimization Considering Mobility and Accessibility in Resilience Measures

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Disruptive events lead to capacity degradation of transportation infrastructure, and a good
3 restoration plan could minimize the aftermath impacts during the recovery period. This is
4 considered one aspect of resiliency for transportation systems. Although unmet demand has been
5 proposed as one measure of resilience for freight transportation, it has rarely been used for general
6 transportation systems. This study takes unmet demand and total travel time as two measures in
7 modeling the restoration plan problem and proposes a bi-objective bi-level optimization
8 framework to determine an optimal transportation infrastructure restoration plan. The lower-level
9 problem uses Elastic User Equilibrium to model the imbalance between demand and supply and
10 measures the unmet demand for a given transportation network. The upper-level problem,
11 formulated as bi-objective mathematical programming, determines optimal resource allocation for
12 roadway restoration. The bi-level problems are solved by a modified active set algorithm and a
13 network representation method derived from Network Design Problems. The Weighted Sum
14 Method is adopted to solve the Pareto Frontier of this bi-objective optimization problem. The
15 proposed restoration plan optimization method was applied to a typical road network in Sioux
16 Falls, to verify the effectiveness of the methodology. For a given failure scenario, the Pareto
17 Frontier of this bi-objective bi-level optimization problem with various budget levels, cross-
18 referring to the travel efficiency of each solution, was illustrated to demonstrate how the proposed
19 method can support decision-making for road network restoration. To further study the
20 performance of the proposed method, different scenarios were generated with one to five links
21 disrupted and the proposed methodology was applied with different budget levels. The statistical
22 analysis of the optimized solutions for these scenarios demonstrates that a higher budget could
23 help reduce unmet demand in the system by providing more restoration options.

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29 *Keywords:* Transportation system resilience, Bi-level optimization, Bi-objective optimization,
30 Elastic User Equilibrium, Criteria space analysis
31

1. Introduction

2 The resilience of Critical Infrastructure (CI) is essential for society to resist, respond to, and
3 recover from disruptive events. A transportation system is one of 16 CI systems identified by
4 Presidential Policy Directive 21 (White House, 2013). Efficient operation of a transportation
5 system is particularly important in alleviating the impacts of disruptive events, and the repair and
6 reconstruction of transportation infrastructure consumes tremendous material and human power;
7 for example, Hurricane Katrina was estimated to cost more than \$32 billion for the restoration of
8 transportation infrastructure. Therefore, the effective planning of transportation infrastructure
9 restoration tasks and resource allocation are of great concern for rapid and cost-efficient recovery
10 in the aftermath of disruptive events. This work focuses on the restoration stage of a transportation
11 system to provide effective decision-making methodologies to improve system resilience.

12 In proposing decision-making methods acting as force multipliers for effective system
13 restoration, the first step is to determine the measurement of restoration work effectiveness. In this
14 study, both total travel time and unmet demand in a transportation system are considered as
15 resilience measures. A disruptive event such as an earthquake, flood, hurricane, landslide, or
16 malicious act could lead to capacity degradation for some links and complete cutoff for others.
17 This leads to increased travel time for some travelers compared to normal days. Furthermore, due
18 to capacity degradation or loss, partial travel demand cannot be served by a devastated road
19 network, termed as unmet demand, which has a serious impact on travelers, regulatory agencies,
20 and industries.

21 Unmet demand has not been properly considered or included in most resilience measures
22 in the existing literature. As one of the few works considering travel demand that cannot be served
23 after a disruptive event, Chen and Miller-Hooks (2012) defined system resilience as demand that
24 can be satisfied with a hard capacity constraint for the freight network flow model. In another work,
25 Miller-Hooks et al. (2012) refined the aforementioned model and followed the same resilience
26 measure based on unmet demand for freight transportation with further consideration of the
27 balance between funds allocation to preparedness and recovery activities. However, network-wide
28 traffic flow modeling and the strength of capacity constraint of freight transportation are essentially
29 different from those of a general transportation system. (For more details about these differences,
30 see Section 2). Therefore, although the concept of unmet demand can be borrowed from freight
31 transportation literature, the methodology to quantify unmet demand and then measure system
32 resilience accordingly is not applicable in this work. In addition to freight transportation system
33 resilience analysis, unmet demand has been used in network-wide system performance evaluation
34 and strategy optimization during the evacuation stage (Naghawi & Wolshon, 2014). However, the
35 time scale and objective functions of evacuation problems are different from those of the
36 restoration planning problem.

37 In this work, a bi-objective bi-level optimization problem was formulated to enhance
38 transportation system resilience in the restoration phase after a disruptive event. This phase is
39 different from the response phase shortly after the disruptive event. During the restoration phase,
40 the infrastructure is waiting for repair, but daily travel demand has recovered to a relatively normal
41 level, although some demand cannot be satisfied by the degraded infrastructure network, i.e.,
42 unmet demand. In reality restoration tasks could have multiple capacity recovery levels
43 corresponding to various resource consumption (Vugrin et al., 2014), partially due to limited
44 budget and resources and the need to restore multiple road sections to serve regional needs. In this
45 study, the objective of the upper-level problem is to minimize total travel time and to minimize
46 unmet demand by determining road sections to be restored and corresponding capacity recovery
47 levels. The lower-level problem is to model road user travel behavior and address the imbalance

1 between degraded supply and recovered demand of the transportation system after the event.
 2 Elastic User Equilibrium (EUE) traffic assignment is applied to this circumstance to provide
 3 network-flow assignment that result as input for the upper-level problem. The bi-level formulation
 4 serves as a constituent part for the overall bi-objective bi-level problem formulation. The Weighted
 5 Sum Method was adopted to solve the formulated bi-objective bi-level problem iteratively.

6 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 includes a thorough literature
 7 review that focuses on various resilience measures and the intrinsic connection and difference
 8 between the Network Design Problem (NDP) and the Restoration Plan Optimization (RPO)
 9 problem. Section 3 presents the bi-objective bi-level optimization formulation of the RPO problem
 10 and minimizes the two aspects, i.e., total travel time and unmet demand, as two objective functions.
 11 Section 4 proposes the solution algorithm for the optimization problem, and Section 5 applies the
 12 RPO method to a typical road network to illustrate the implementation procedures, verify the
 13 effectiveness of this method, and further interpret the empirical analysis results from a criteria
 14 space analysis perspective for the bi-objective optimization. Results clearly show how the two
 15 different optimization objectives (minimize total travel time and minimize unmet demand) trade
 16 off with each other and how the budget for restoration work could influence optimization results.
 17 The last section summarizes the contributions of this work and discusses future research directions.
 18

19 **2. Literature Review**

20 **2.1. Resilience Measurement**

21 There are two types of resilience measures for transportation systems, network topology-based and
 22 system performance-based. Network topology-based measures include origin-destination (O-D)
 23 connectivity (Zhang et al., 2015a), average reciprocal distance (Zhang et al., 2015a), average
 24 degree (Leu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2015a), diameter (Zhang et al., 2015a), cyclicity (Zhang et
 25 al., 2015a), betweenness (Leu et al., 2010), network coverage (Chang and Nojima, 2001), and
 26 travel alternative diversity (Xu et al., 2015). System performance-based measures include travel
 27 time, travel cost, and environmental factors (Omer et al., 2013), travel demand (Chen and Miller-
 28 Hooks, 2012; Miller-Hooks et al., 2012), and consumer surplus-based (Soltani-Sobh et al., 2015)
 29 resilience measures. As both total travel time and unmet demand are considered to evaluate the
 30 restoration plan in this research effort, it falls into the system performance-based resilience
 31 measures category.

32 Among these existing system performance-based resilience measures, travel time-based
 33 measures are the most widely applied (Faturechi and Miller-Hooks, 2015; Morohosi, 2010; Zhang
 34 et al., 2015a). For instance, Faturechi and Miller-Hooks (2014) defined resilience as the network's
 35 ability to resist and adapt to disruption, with total travel time employed in assessing system
 36 resilience. As illustrated in Fig. 1, system resilience is measured by travel time resilience, $R_{T,B}$,
 37 which is formulated as the reciprocal of total travel time at the end of the response stage (tt_f)
 38 divided by the reciprocal of total travel time at the time just before the event occurred (tt_0). System
 39 resilience optimization methods with the objective to maximize travel time-related measures were
 40 proposed accordingly (Faturechi and Miller-Hooks, 2014), which aid decision-makers from a
 41 mobility perspective.

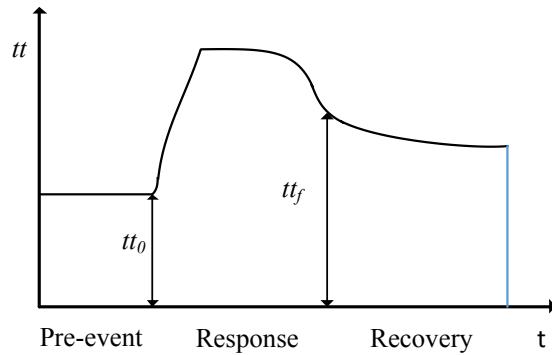


Fig. 1. Travel time-based resilience measures.

* tt_0 and tt_f : total travel times at the end of pre-event and response stages (Faturechi and Miller-Hooks, 2014)

4 However, after catastrophic events such as flood or earthquake, roadway performance can
5 be seriously affected, with huge capacity reduction of links and total loss of some links. There
6 exists the possibility that partial travel demand cannot be accommodated by the degraded
7 transportation system, and unmet demand has a critical impact on system level of service.
8 Therefore, evaluation of network resilience performance without considering unmet travel demand
9 can be biased and may lead to less cost-effective restoration plan results. To evaluate total travel
10 time and unmet demand, it is necessary to properly model traffic flow assignment to capture the
11 travel behavior to be integrated into system level performance representation. Until 2005, all
12 previous resilience studies lacked consideration of traffic flow assignment mechanism. This gap
13 was addressed in a study by Murray-Tuite (2006), in which a measure of transportation system
14 resiliency was introduced and was composed of 10 dimensions, i.e., redundancy, diversity,
15 efficiency, autonomous components, strength, collaboration, adaptability, mobility, safety, and the
16 ability to recover quickly. The influence of traffic assignments, both system optimal and user
17 equilibrium, were examined on four dimensions of the resilience measurement. In the present work,
18 to model the imbalance between supply and demand more specifically, Elastic UE is adopted to
19 capture traveler behavior and support the calculation of total travel time and unmet demand.
20

The concept of unmet demand has been applied in freight transportation system resilience analysis and optimization. For example, Miller-Hooks et al. (2012) defined system resilience as demand that can be satisfied with a hard capacity constraint for the freight network flow model. However, the traffic flow assignment mechanism and the strength of capacity constraint of freight transportation are essentially different from those of a general transportation system. The network flow models for freight transportation system resilience analysis in Chen and Miller-Hooks (2012) and Miller-Hooks et al. (2012) were formulated as maximum flow problem (Liu and Mu, 2015; Righini, 2016). However, the network flow model for general traveler transportation systems applies either user equilibrium or system optimum. The other difference between freight transportation and general transportation problem formulation is capacity constraint. Capacity constraints for most freight transportation flow assignment models are hard capacity constraints, restricting flow on each arc to be less than the capacity (for example, Chen and Miller-Hooks, 2012, and Miller-Hooks et al., 2012). In general transportation network design or operational optimization problems, traffic flow assigned on a link is allowed to be larger than the capacity, and the link performance function (such as the Bureau of Public Roads [BPR] function) is used to calculate the travel time of the link. Therefore, capacity constraint for the general traffic flow assignment model is a relatively soft constraint.

In addition to freight transportation system resilience analysis, the concept of unmet demand has also been used in network-wide system performance evaluation and strategy optimization during the evacuation stage (Zhang et al., 2015b). For instance, Xie et al. (2010) used “percentage of evacuees arrived at destination” curves to evaluate system performance under different evacuation strategies. More recently, Zhang et al. (2015b) and Zockaei et al. (2014) leveraged the macroscopic productivity function—the Macroscopic Fundamental Diagram (MFD)—to perform network performance evaluation for evacuation strategy optimization. To reduce the likelihood of over-saturation in a transportation network during evacuation, an optimization model was proposed in Zhang et al. (2015b) to maximize evacuation throughput traffic for regional networks. The difference between transportation network performance analysis during the evacuation and restoration stages stems from both the time scale and the main concerns for performance evaluation. The evacuation stage is much shorter than the restoration stage; therefore, although mobility, accessibility, safety, etc., are common perspectives for performance evaluation of different stages, the evacuation stage performance evaluation needs more dynamic information due to a shorter time period and highly unstable system performance (Dixit and Wolshon, 2014). Therefore, most studies applied dynamic traffic assignment or traffic simulation to obtain dynamic traffic information for system performance evaluation during the evacuation stage (Cova and Johnson, 2002; Jahangiri et al., 2014; Lim and Wolshon, 2005; Murray-Tuite and Mahmassani, 2004; Murray-Tuite, 2006; Naghawi and Wolshon, 2010; Wolshon et al., 2015; Wolshon, 2009). This work focuses on the restoration stage (part of the recovery stage) of a transportation system when the infrastructure is still damaged or disrupted but daily travel demand has recovered to a relatively normal level. As the restoration stage has a longer time scale, a more macroscopic network flow model (Elastic UE) is adopted to obtain traffic flow information for restoration performance evaluation.

In addition to the literature in the context of freight transportation and evacuation, Nogal et al. (2016) and Nogal et al. (2017) analyzed the impact of demand variation on transportation network resilience. However, system resilience in those studies was quantified by travel time increase and traffic flow variations in the system without involving unmet travel demand.

In summary, there have been extensive studies on transportation system resilience, and some researchers proposed to consider unmet demand in the context of freight transportation or evacuation strategy optimization. However, the problem setting, modeling, and system performance evaluation are different from a general transportation system in the context of restoration plan optimization. Therefore, in this study, we propose to enhance transportation system resilience in the restoration stage in terms of both mobility (to reduce total travel time) and accessibility (to reduce unmet demand) through a bi-objective bi-level problem formulation. As the constituent bi-level problem formulation is similar to the Network Design Problem (NDP), the literature on NDP was briefly reviewed; the connection and difference between the NDP and RPO problems are described in the next subsection.

2.2. Connection and Difference between NDP and RPO Problems

The RPO problem is a type of NDP under special circumstances. The objective of a typical NDP is to make investment decisions to optimize a given system performance measure, such as total travel cost in a network, while accounting for the route choice behavior of network users (Yang and Bell, 1998). Due to the complexity of problem formulation and computational challenges, NDP has been recognized as one of the most difficult problems in the transportation area. However, as NDP has great potential for solving planning, design, and congestion pricing problems, it has drawn abundant attention and effort from the transportation research community (Boyce and

1 Janson, 1980; Mingyuan and Attahiru Sule, 1991; Zhang et al., 2009a). NDP has been classified
 2 into two different forms—Discrete NDP (DNDP), concerning the addition of new links to an
 3 existing road network (Boyce and Janson, 1980; Mingyuan and Attahiru Sule, 1991; Zhang et al.,
 4 2009a), and Continuous NDP, concerning the optimal capacity expansion of existing links (Friesz,
 5 1985; Hai, 1995). DNDPs are modeled as nonlinear integer programming models constrained with
 6 network equilibrium. Typical DNDP solution algorithms include Bender's decomposition, branch-
 7 and-bound methods, and heuristics.

8 NDP and RPO problems have some similarities. As road section capacities decrease after
 9 an earthquake, flood, or hurricane, the imbalance between network-wide transportation service
 10 supply and travel demand emerges. This is similar to the imbalance between transportation service
 11 supply and travel demand caused by economic growth and land use relocation in NDP. However,
 12 these two problems are also different. As previously noted, the cause of the imbalance between
 13 transportation service supply and travel demand is different for NDP and RPO problems.
 14 Furthermore, the magnitude of the short-term impact of natural disasters on the network can be
 15 much more intense than the short-term impact of economic growth and land use relocation. Due
 16 to sudden capacity degradation or loss, there is sharp imbalance between supply and demand after
 17 disruptive events, leading to partial travel demand that may not be served by the devastated road
 18 network. To recover from catastrophic events, a basic concern of restoration is reducing unmet
 19 demand in the system. Therefore, the objective of RPO is to reduce not only total travel time but
 20 also unmet demand. Consequently, the tradeoff between reducing total travel time and unmet
 21 demand should be taken into account in RPO problem formulation.

22 The following sections propose a bi-objective bi-level formulation to solve the RPO
 23 problem for a transportation system to enhance both mobility (by minimizing total travel time) and
 24 accessibility (by minimizing unmet demand). The bi-objective problem is solved by the Weighted
 25 Sum Method and the componential bi-level problems (to minimize the two objectives respectively
 26 or to minimize the combination of them) is solved by a modified active set algorithm and a network
 27 representation method.

29 **3. Restoration Plan Optimization Problem Formulation**

30 **3.1. Two Resilience Measures—Total Unmet Demand and Total Travel Time**

31 As noted, existing research efforts involving unmet demand in resilience analysis are not sufficient
 32 to draw firm conclusions about how to improve system resilience accordingly, especially for a
 33 general transportation system in the restoration stage. To address this issue, the following two
 34 resilience measures are proposed in terms of both total unmet demand and total travel time:

$$35 \quad R_1 = D = \sum_{rs} \hat{D}_{rs} \quad (1)$$

$$36 \quad R_2 = T = \sum_a x_a^* \cdot t_a(x_a^*, c_a)$$

37 where $D = \sum_{rs} \hat{D}_{rs}$ defines total unmet demand in the system and $T = \sum_a x_a^* \cdot t_a(x_a^*, c_a)$ defines total
 38 travel time in the system (x_a^* is the equilibrium flow on link a , c_a is the capacity for link a). The
 39 unmet demand is quantified by the elastic demand traffic assignment model, as elaborated in
 40 Section 3.3. These two resilience measures contradict each other; therefore, a bi-objective
 41 optimization problem formulation is adopted to tackle the RPO problem with two contradicting
 42 objectives given that these two objectives have different units, i.e., travel time and number of trips
 43 not satisfied by the infrastructure system.

1 **3.2. Formulation of RPO as a Bi-objective Bi-level Optimization Problem**

2 Taking the proposed resilience measures as the two objective functions, restoration plan
 3 optimization after a disruptive event is formulated as a bi-objective bi-level optimization problem.
 4 The bi-level problem serves as the building-block for the overall problem formulation. Bi-level
 5 optimization is also known as the Stackelberg leader-follower problem, which represents a
 6 situation involving two decision-makers, with the behavior of the leader influencing the follower's
 7 choice. In this problem, the upper-level decision-maker is a city administrator who decides which
 8 road sections of the network will be repaired after the event given a limited budget. The lower-
 9 level decision-makers are road users who are affected by road network capacity degradation or
 10 link loss due to the event. As the restoration plan changes the road capacity, it alters the network-
 11 wide level of service that will influence a traveler's decision-making; given the restoration plan,
 12 updated traveler decisions result in re-assigned traffic flows on the restored transportation network
 13 and corresponding system performance after the restoration effort. This updated network-wide
 14 system performance according to traveler decision-making is taken into account for the city
 15 administrator's decisions in terms of the restoration planning. Therefore, a bi-level optimization
 16 problem is appropriate for modeling the RPO building-block problem. The formulation of the
 17 overall bi-objective bi-level RPO problem proposed in this work is illustrated as follows.

18 Upper-level problem:

$$20 \quad \min \left(\begin{array}{l} \sum_{rs} \hat{D}_{rs} \\ \sum_a x_a^* \cdot t_a(x_a^*, c_a) \end{array} \right) \quad (2)$$

$$24 \quad \text{s.t. } \sum_{a \in \bar{A}} M_{a,1} \cdot y_{a,1} + M_{a,2} \cdot y_{a,2} \leq B \quad (3)$$

$$25 \quad y_{a,1} + y_{a,2} \leq 1, \forall a \in \bar{A} \quad (4)$$

$$26 \quad y_{a,l} \in \{0, 1\}, \forall a \in \bar{A}, l = 1, 2 \quad (5)$$

$$28 \quad \text{where, } x_a^* = \arg \min \sum_a \int_0^{x_a} t_a(\omega, c_{a,0} + c_{a,1}y_{a,1} + c_{a,2}y_{a,2}) d\omega - \sum_{rs} \int_0^{q_{rs}} D_{rs}^{-1}(\omega) d\omega \quad (6)$$

$$29 \quad \sum_{rs} \hat{D}_{rs} = \sum_{rs} f_{rs,p} \quad (7)$$

30 Lower-level problem:

$$32 \quad \min \sum_a \int_0^{x_a} t_a(\omega, c_{a,0} + c_{a,1}y_{a,1} + c_{a,2}y_{a,2}) d\omega - \sum_{rs} \int_0^{q_{rs}} D_{rs}^{-1}(\omega) d\omega \quad (8)$$

$$33 \quad \text{s.t. } \sum_k f_{rs,k} = q_{rs} \quad \forall r, s \quad (9)$$

$$34 \quad f_{rs,k} \geq 0 \quad \forall k, r, s \quad (10)$$

$$35 \quad q_{rs} \geq 0 \quad \forall r, s \quad (11)$$

$$36 \quad x_a = \sum_{rs} \sum_k f_{rs,k} \delta_{a,k}^{rs}, \forall a \quad (12)$$

37 Referring to Equation (2), the objective function of the upper-level problem is to minimize the two
 38 system resilience measures, i.e., total unmet demand and total travel time (note that in this study
 39 smaller resilience measurement indicates better resilience performance). The total budget for the
 40 whole restoration plan is restricted in constraint (3). Constraints (4) and (5) guarantee that for each

1 candidate link, either restoration work with higher (level 1, $l=1$) or lower (level 2, $l=2$)
 2 resource consumption is adopted (when $y_{a,1}+y_{a,2}=1$) or no action is taken (when $y_{a,1}=0, y_{a,2}=0$).
 3 $t_a(x_a, c_a)$ in Equation (2) is the travel time function.

4 The Bureau of Public Roads (BPR) function is adopted as the travel time function in this
 5 work:

$$6 t_a(x_a, y_a) = t_a^0 \left\{ 1 + 0.15 \left[\frac{x_a}{c_a^0 + c_{a,1}y_{a,1} + c_{a,2}y_{a,2}} \right]^4 \right\} \quad (13)$$

7 Table 1 summarizes the notations used in the bi-objective bi-level problem formulation.

9 **Table 1** Notations in proposed bi-objective bi-level problem formulation.
 10

Notation	Explanation
a	Link index
x_a	Flow on link a ; $X = (\dots, x_a, \dots)$
t_a	Travel time on link a ; $t = (\dots, t_a, \dots)$
$c_{a,00}$	Original capacity of link a before disruptive event
$c_{a,0}$	Capacity of link a at the moment after disruptive event
\bar{A}_1	Candidate links with capacity augment level 1
\bar{A}_2	Candidate links with capacity augment level 2
$\bar{A} = \bar{A}_1 \cup \bar{A}_2$	All candidate links
$c_{a,1}, \forall a \in \bar{A}_1$	Capacity augment for link a with level 1
$c_{a,2}, \forall a \in \bar{A}_2$	Capacity augment for link a with level 2
$M_{a,1}, \forall a \in \bar{A}_1$	Cost for link a with capacity augment level 1
$M_{a,2}, \forall a \in \bar{A}_2$	Cost for link a with capacity augment level 2
$y_{a,l}, \forall a \in \bar{A}_1 \cup \bar{A}_2, l=1,2$	Binary variables, 1 indicates that corresponding plan is adopted, 0 means not
N	Node (index) set
A	Arc (index) set
K_{rs}	Set of paths connecting O-D pair $r-s$; $r \in \mathfrak{R}, s \in \Psi$
$f_{rs,k}$	Flow on path k connecting O-D pair $r-s$; then for each O-D pair $r-s$, $f^{rs} = (\dots, f_{rs,k}, \dots)$; for all O-D pairs $f = (\dots, f^{rs}, \dots)$
$t_{rs,k}$	Travel time on path k connecting O-D pair $r-s$; $t^{rs} = (\dots, t_{rs,k}, \dots)$; for all O-D pairs $t = (\dots, t^{rs}, \dots)$
q_{rs}	Trip rate between origin r and destination s ;

$\delta_{a,k}^{rs}$	$\delta_{a,k}^{rs} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if link } a \text{ is on path } k \text{ between O-D pair } r-s \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
	$\Delta^{rs} = (\dots, \delta_{a,k}^{rs}, \dots)$ is for O-D pair $r-s$
	$\Delta = (\dots, \Delta^{rs}, \dots)$ is for all O-D pairs
u_{rs}	Minimum travel time between $r-s$
$D_{rs}(\cdot)$	Demand function between $r-s$
$D_{rs}^{-1}(\cdot)$	Inverse demand function between $r-s$
r	Origin node index
s	Destination node index
$t_{rs,p}$	Travel time on the pseudo link between O-D pair $r-s$
$f_{rs,p}$	Flow on pseudo link between O-D pair $r-s$
\bar{D}_{rs}	Total demand between O-D pair $r-s$ before special event
\hat{D}_{rs}	Unmet demand between O-D pair $r-s$
T_0	Total Travel Time in the system before restoration
T_f	Total Travel Time in the system after restoration
\hat{D}_0	Total Unmet Demand in the system before restoration
\hat{D}_f	Total Unmet Demand in the system after restoration

3.3. Formulation of Lower-level Problem by EUE Model

For the lower-level problem, to quantify unmet travel demand, the EUE model (Daskin and Sheffi, 1985) was applied to depict traveler route choice behavior and address the imbalance between transportation service supply and travel demand.

Traditionally, NDP models assume that travel demand is given and fixed, and driver route choice behavior is characterized by a User Equilibrium (UE) problem (Yang and Bell, 1998). The UE problem with a fixed demand can be formulated as follows (Daskin and Sheffi, 1985):

$$\min z(x, q) = \sum_a \int_0^{x_a} t_a(\omega) d\omega \quad (14)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_k f_{rs,k} = q_{rs} \quad \forall r, s \quad (15)$$

$$f_{rs,k} \geq 0 \quad \forall k, r, s \quad (16)$$

$$q_{rs} \geq 0 \quad \forall r, s \quad (17)$$

However, as the NDP generally involves long-term investment in a road network that consequently influences travel demand in the system, assuming a given and fixed travel demand is not realistic. Therefore, the EUE model was developed to incorporate the elasticity of travel demand into the NDP (Gartner, 1980). In the EUE model, travel demand between an O-D pair varies with travel cost between that O-D pair under user equilibrium, which is depicted by a demand function. For NDP with elastic demand, the equilibrium travel demands between all O-D pairs and their traffic flow distribution on the network under a given capacity expansion plan can be obtained by solving the elastic-demand UE model.

In this work, the EUE model is used to depict traveler behavior and address the imbalance between transportation service supply and travel demand in the lower-level RPO problem formulation. As the event leads to a large-scale or severe degradation of road capacities within a short time period, a significant imbalance between travel demand and network capacity supply emerges. Moreover, travelers are more sensitive to road restoration status in the system within the RPO context. Therefore, although the time scale of RPO is relatively shorter than that of NDP, there is plenty of demand elasticity in the RPO problem. Hence, EUE is appropriate for modeling traveler behaviors and addressing the imbalance between supply and demand after a disruptive event.

The lower-level objective function of the RPO problem is shown in Equation (8). $D_{rs}^{-1}(\cdot)$ is the inverse of the monotonically decreasing demand function $D_{rs}(\cdot)$ between the O-D pair $r-s$.

The demand function relates the number of trips D_{rs} to the minimum travel time u_{rs} on the road network between r and s . The Elastic Exponential Demand Function is adopted in this work (SATURN, 2012):

$$D_{rs} = D_{rs}^0 \exp(\beta(u_{rs}/u_{rs}^0 - 1)) \quad (18)$$

D_{rs}^0 and u_{rs}^0 are defined as the travel demand and travel cost (minimum travel time in this work) between O-D pair r,s at a referencing scenario. The cost matrix is defined as costs with the unit of second. In a typical elastic traffic assignment model, it is widely accepted to select the (D_{rs}^0, u_{rs}^0) at the base year where the demand matrix, road network topology, and link capacities are known, and the costs are acquired by user equilibrium accordingly. Thus, (D_{rs}^0, u_{rs}^0) lies on both the supply curve and the demand curve. In this work, (D_{rs}^0, u_{rs}^0) is selected as the corresponding variable at the user equilibrium before the event occurs.

Accordingly, the Inverse Demand Functions can be defined as:

$$u_{rs} = u_{rs}^0 + (u_{rs}^0/\beta) \ln(D_{rs}/D_{rs}^0) \quad (19)$$

Similar to typical UE model, Equation (9) is an O-D flow conservation constraint. Equations (10) and (11) are non-negative constraints for path flows and O-D demand, and Equation (12) relates link flows to path flows through link-path incidence matrix.

4. Solution Algorithms for Proposed Bi-objective Bi-level Restoration Plan Optimization Problem

4.1. Solution Algorithm for Lower-level EUE Problem

In this subsection, a network representation method is proposed to solve the Elastic-demand UE problem. The traditional UE problem can be efficiently solved using the Frank-Wolfe method (Daskin and Sheffi, 1985). Sheffi summarized two different network representations that can be applied to transform the EUE problem to an equivalent traditional UE problem—zero-cost overflow formulation and excess-demand formulation (Daskin and Sheffi, 1985), as illustrated in Fig. 2(b) and Fig. 2(c), respectively. For the zero-cost overflow formulation, Fig. 2(b) shows a modification of the basic network in which every O-D pair is augmented to include a “dummy” origin node (designated r' in Fig. 2(b)). For the excess-demand formulation, the variable $f_{rs,p}$

denotes the excess demand, i.e., the trips cannot be accommodated between origin r and destination s ($f_{rs,p} = \bar{D}_{rs} - D_{rs}(u_{rs})$). In this network representation, a pseudo link carrying the flow $f_{rs,p}$ is defined as directly connecting the origin to the destination for each O-D pair, as shown in Fig. 2(c) (Daskin and Sheffi, 1985).

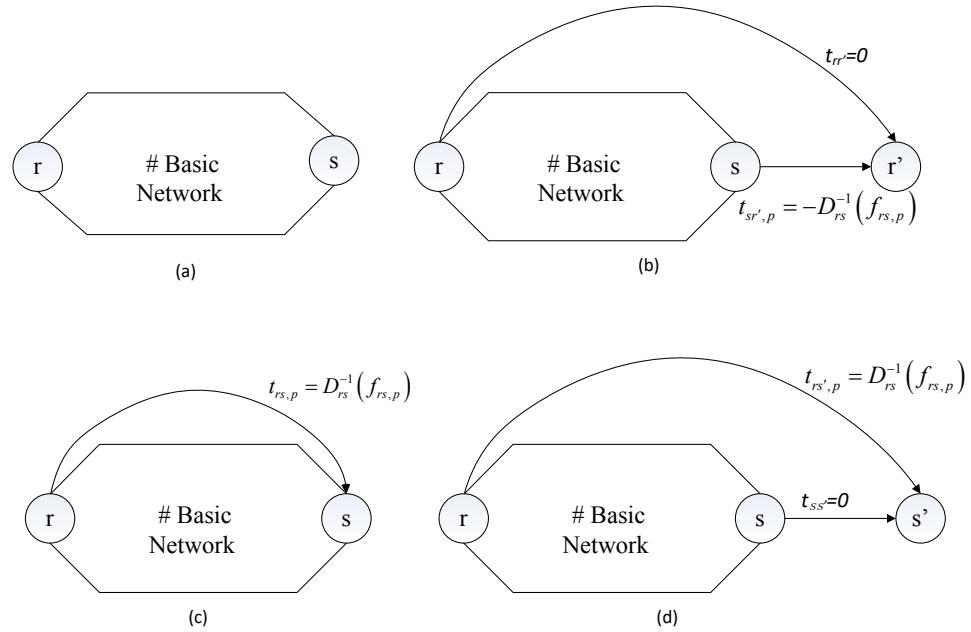


Fig. 2. Network representations: (a) basic network; (b) added node and links for O-D pair $r-s$ in zero-cost overflow network representation; (c) excess-demand network representation for O-D pair $r-s$; (d) modified excess-demand network representation.

The excess-demand network representation is more straightforward for quantifying the unmet demand for resilience analysis of a transportation network. However, if there is a link connecting the origin to the destination of an O-D pair in the original network, it is necessary to distinguish the origin link a_{rs} and the pseudo link $a_{rs,p}$. Therefore, a “dummy” destination node is proposed (designated s' in Fig. 2(d)) for the excess-demand network representation. The new network representation—the modified excess-demand network representation—is illustrated in Fig. 2(d).

Therefore, the pseudo link cost-flow function is defined as follows to relate the cost $u_{rs,p}$ on the pseudo link to its flow $f_{rs,p}$.

$$u_{rs,p} = u_{rs}^0 + (u_{rs}^0 / \beta) \ln((\bar{D}_{rs} - f_{rs,p}) / D_{rs}^0) \quad (20)$$

where \bar{D}_{rs} is the total demand between O-D pair r,s before the special event. D_{rs}^0 is a referencing point on the demand function, which is also chosen as the total demand between O-D pair r,s before the special event. Therefore, \bar{D}_{rs} and D_{rs}^0 have the same value in this study.

With the network representation and the link cost-flow function (i.e., inverse demand function) defined for the pseudo links, the EUE problem can be solved using the Frank-Wolfe algorithm.

4.2. Solution Algorithm for Single Objective Upper-level Restoration Plan Optimization Problem

The modified active set algorithm (Wang and Pardalos, 2017) is applied to solve the single objective upper-level optimization problem to minimize one of the two resilience measures or their combination. Binary variables $y_{a,l}$, $\forall a \in \bar{A}_1 \cup \bar{A}_2$, $l = 1, 2$ are introduced to denote the control variables in the upper-level problem. $y_{a,l} = 1$ indicates that the corresponding plan is adopted, $y_{a,l} = 0$ otherwise, where a is the link index to perform this restoration and l is the indicator of two resource allocation levels. $l=1$ indicates restoration work with higher-level resource and more capacity restored, $l=2$ indicates lower-level resource assignment and less capacity restored.

Then, all binary variables $y_{a,l}$ are classified into two active sets:

$$\Omega_0 = \{(a, l) : y_{a, l} = 0\} \quad (21)$$

$$\Omega_1 = \{(a, l) : y_{a, l} = 1\} \quad (22)$$

The restoration work plan can be represented by these two active sets. Changing one or several (a, l) from Ω_0 to Ω_1 indicates a change in the restoration work plan. Then, constraints (4) and (5) of the upper-level problem can be reformulated as:

$$y_{a,l} = 0, \quad \forall (a,l) \in \Omega_0 \quad (23)$$

$$y_{a,l} = 1, \quad \forall (a,l) \in \Omega_l \quad (24)$$

$g_{a,l}$ and $h_{a,l}$ are introduced to alter the representation of restoration work plan, Ω_0 and Ω_1 . $g_{a,l}=1$ means shifting (a,l) from Ω_0 to Ω_1 , $h_{a,l}=1$ means shifting (a,l) from Ω_1 to Ω_0 . Then, the change of the upper level objective function is estimated by the following expression:

$$\sum_{(a,l) \in \Omega_0} \lambda_{a,l} g_{a,l} - \sum_{(a,l) \in \Omega_1} \mu_{a,l} h_{a,l} \quad (25)$$

where $\lambda_{a,l}$ and $\mu_{a,l}$ are the multipliers corresponding to constraints $y_{a,l} = 0$ and $y_{a,l} = 1$, respectively. $\lambda_{a,l}$ and $\mu_{a,l}$ can be calculated through:

$$\begin{cases} y_{a,l} = 0 : \lambda_{a,l} = R' - R & \mu_{a,l} = 0 \\ y_{a,l} = 1 : \lambda_{a,l} = 0 & \mu_{a,l} = R - R' \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

where R is the value of upper-level objective function before the change of Ω_0 and Ω_1 . R' is the objective function value after the change, indicated by $g_{a,l}$ and $h_{a,l}$. Referring to Equation (27), R could be R_1 indicating Total Unmet Demand (*UMD*), R_2 indicating Total Travel Time (*TTT*) corresponding to two resilience measures, or the combination of them with more details explained at the end of Section 4.3.

After obtaining all feasible $(g_{a,l}, h_{a,l})$ pairs subject to Constraints (3)–(5) and corresponding changes of the upper-level objective function estimated by Equation (25), the $g_{a,l}$ and $h_{a,l}$ to reduce the resilience measure is found. Then, active sets Ω_0 and Ω_1 leading to the minimized upper-level objective function can be calculated iteratively. More details about the implementation procedure and the pseudo code of the modified active set algorithm can be found in Wang and Pardalos (2017).

4.3. Solution Algorithm for Bi-objective Optimization Problem

1 The weighted-sum method (Aneja and Nair, 1979) is adopted to find all supported non-dominated
 2 points for the overall bi-objective optimization problem. More details regarding this solution
 3 method are illustrated through the pseudo code and the step-by-step introduction. The basic idea
 4 is that firstly the two extreme endpoints R^T and R^B on the Pareto Frontier are obtained through
 5 solving the Lexicographic Optimality Problem (Ben-Tal, 1980). Then, by iteratively solving the
 6 following intermediate optimization problem to search a rectangle area defined by the extreme
 7 points R^1 and R^2 of the rectangle area, it can obtain all supported non-dominated points in the
 8 criteria space.

9
$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{\lambda_1 R_1(x) + \lambda_2 R_2(x)\} \quad (27)$$

10 subject to $R(x) \in Rec(R^1, R^2)$

11 where $R_1(x)$ and $R_2(x)$ indicate two objective functions, i.e., minimizing two resilience
 12 measures; R^1 and R^2 indicate two extreme points; $Rec(R^1, R^2)$ indicates the rectangle with two
 13 extreme endpoints R^1, R^2 . The objective function of the intermediate problem is parallel to the
 14 line that connects the extreme points, R^1 and R^2 , of the current rectangle area to be searched,
 15 $Rec(R^1, R^2)$, in the criterion space. Therefore, the weights to get the objective function of the
 16 intermediate problem are calculated as follows: $\lambda_1 = R_2^1 - R_2^2$ and $\lambda_2 = R_1^2 - R_1^1$, where R_2^1
 17 indicates the second objective value for the extreme point R^1 , R_1^2 indicates the first objective value
 18 for the extreme point R^2 , etc.

19 **Algorithm** Weighted Sum Method

Procedure

Step 1. Compute endpoints R^T and R^B .

Step 2. Create list $List.create(L)$.

Step 3. Add points R^T and R^B to list L , $List.add(L, R^T)$, $List.add(L, R^B)$.

Step 4. Create queue P with rectangles to be searched, $PQ.create(P)$. Add rectangle $Rec(R^T, R^B)$ to queue, $PQ.add(P, R(R^T, R^B))$.

Step 5. Optimize weighted sum single objective optimization problem $\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{\lambda_1 R_1(x) + \lambda_2 R_2(x)\}$;
 if optimized point in criteria space satisfies criteria shown below, this point is newly-found non-
 dominated point that will separate the original rectangle to smaller rectangles to be searched.

While queue is not empty, Step 5 will be performed iteratively.

while queue P is not empty, not $PQ.empty(P)$ do

$PQ.pop(P, Rec(R^1, R^2))$

$x^* \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} (R_2^1 - R_2^2)R_1(x) + (R_1^2 - R_1^1)R_2(x)$

$R \leftarrow R(x^*)$

if $(R_2^1 - R_2^2)R_1 + (R_1^2 - R_1^1)R_2 < (R_2^1 - R_2^2)R_1^1 + (R_1^2 - R_1^1)R_2^1$ then

$List.add(L, R)$

$PQ.add(P, R(R^1, R))$

$PQ.add(P, R(R, R^2))$

return L

end while

end procedure

20
 21 This intermediate optimization problem returns either one of R^1 and R^2 or a convex
 22 combination of R^1 and R^2 . If the optimized result in the criteria space (R_1^{new}, R_2^{new}) satisfy the
 23 following criteria $\lambda_1 R_1^{new} + \lambda_2 R_2^{new} < \lambda_1 R_1^1 + \lambda_2 R_2^1$, the optimum point R^{new} is a newly found

1 non-dominated point which will separate the original rectangle to smaller rectangles to be searched.
 2 The pseudo-code for the algorithm designed for the Bi-objective RPO problem is illustrated as
 3 follows.

4 Following the pseudo-code, the Weighted Sum Method can be implemented to solve the
 5 proposed bi-objective bi-level RPO problem, within which the intermediate problem
 6 $\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{\lambda_1 R_1(x) + \lambda_2 R_2(x)\}$ is solved by the modified active set algorithm and the network
 7 representation method introduced in Subsections 4.1 and 4.2. More specifically, the upper-level
 8 objective of the intermediate problem is $\min R_1(x)$ when computing the endpoint R^T , $\min R_2(x)$
 9 when computing the endpoint R^B for solving the Lexicographic Optimality problem in Step 1, or
 10 $\min \{\lambda_1 R_1(x) + \lambda_2 R_2(x)\}$ for solving the intermediate problem in Step 5.

11 5. Numerical Experiments

12 Numerical experiments are performed to demonstrate the validity, capability, and flexibility of the
 13 proposed bi-objective bi-level optimization model for solving the RPO problem. The proposed
 14 RPO method was applied to a typical road network in Sioux Falls, to illustrate the implementation
 15 procedures and verify the effectiveness of this method.

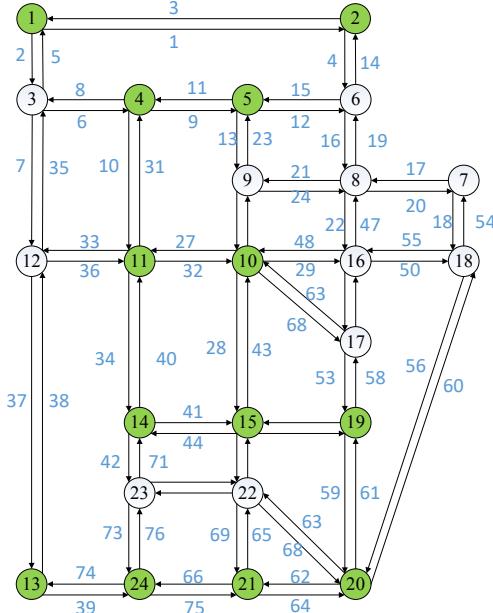
16 5.1. Sioux Falls Network and Damaged Links Selection (Failure Scenarios Generation)

17 The Sioux Falls network comprises 24 nodes and 76 links. In the topology shown in Fig. 3, 14
 18 nodes marked in green serve as both origins and destinations in the system. In total, the network
 19 has 182 O-D pairs. The O-D trip matrix is referenced as Table 2 in Wang and Pardalos (2017), and
 20 the link capacity and free-flow travel time under normal conditions are referenced as Table 1 in
 21 Wang and Pardalos (2017).

22 The Sioux Falls network is a typical network in the existing literature, and there could be
 23 many different combinations of damaged links. To generate experimental scenarios with
 24 acceptable computing expense while reserving the diversity of the combinations of damaged links,
 25 15 potentially damaged links in the system were selected as a subset of links from three different
 26 categories—edge links, links in the central area of the network, and links connecting the edge and
 27 the central area. As a result, links with indexes 1, 2, 4, 11, 13, 14, 17, 26, 27, 31, 36, 37, 39, 56,
 28 and 60 were chosen as the subset with 6 links (1, 2, 37, 39, 56, 60) at the edge of the network, 5
 29 links (11, 13, 31, 26, 27) at the central area of the network, and 4 links (4, 14, 17, 36) connecting
 30 the edge and central areas of the network. This selection of potentially damaged links made it
 31 possible to represent different types of disruptive events, given that a hurricane or sea-level rise
 32 tend to induce capacity degradation at the edge of the network, an earthquake tends to cause
 33 collective disruption, and floods could affect a more disperse area. The selection of 15 potentially
 34 damaged links made it possible to generate various failure scenarios within this subset and to
 35 perform statistical analysis for the generated scenarios later. For each experimental scenario, N_{dam}
 36 links were randomly selected from the noted 15 links.

37 After a given disruptive event, the capacity of the selected link(s) was assumed to be
 38 decreased to 1/3 of the original link capacity. In other words, the damaged links were selected
 39 randomly, whereas the capacity deterioration ratio was deterministic in this work. Note that some
 40 disruptive events could cause the capacity degradation of some links and complete loss of capacity
 41 of some other links, i.e., the capacity deterioration ratios for links in the network could vary. The
 42 methodology proposed in this study could be applied to those experimental cases as well.
 43 Furthermore, it was assumed that the damaged links could be restored to two levels of capacity
 44 with corresponding two levels of restoration expenditure (see Table 2). This numerical experiment
 45 configuration enables verification of effectiveness and flexibility of the restoration plan

1 optimization method proposed in Section 3 and Section 4.



2
3
4
5
6 **Fig. 3.** Sioux Falls network topology.

Table 2 Potential damaged links and their repair costs.

Link index	Free-flow travel time (min)	Capacity (10^3 veh/h)	Cost1	Increased capacity1	Cost2	Increased capacity2
1	3.6	6.02	8	6.02	4	4.01
2	2.4	9.01	8	9.01	4	6.01
4	3	15.92	14	15.92	7	10.61
11	1.2	46.85	32	46.85	16	31.23
13	3	10.52	10	10.52	5	7.01
14	3	9.92	10	9.92	5	6.61
17	1.8	15.68	12	15.68	6	10.45
26	1.8	27.83	20	27.83	10	18.55
27	3	20	16	20	8	13.33
31	3.6	9.82	10	9.82	5	6.55
36	3.6	9.82	10	9.82	5	6.55
37	1.8	51.8	34	51.8	17	34.53
39	2.4	10.18	10	10.18	5	6.79
56	2.4	8.11	8	8.11	4	5.41
60	2.4	8.11	8	8.11	4	5.41

7 * Cost assumed as unit-less.

8

In the follow two subsections, the optimized solutions for a given failure scenario through criteria space analysis (see Section 5.2) are presented to demonstrate how the proposed method can support decision-making for road network restoration. Furthermore, to examine system performance enhancement after the restoration effort, an additional five groups of experiments were conducted assuming there are 1 to 5 links damaged, i.e., $N_{dam} = 1 \sim 5$ for each group, and three budget levels, $Budget=15, 35, 55$. As shown in Section 5.3, for all the scenarios, system resilience measures, both TTT and UMD , were computed before and after the restoration of infrastructure, as well as the corresponding restoration costs with optimal restoration plans.

5.2. Numerical Experiment Results

We take a specific failure scenario with links (1, 2, 4, 14) damaged as an example to show the bi-objective RPO optimization results and also to interpret the impact of budget level on the results. The feasible sets of the RPO problem with different budget levels are calculated. Then, the feasible solutions are shown in the criteria space with x-axis indicates the UMD and y-axis indicates the TTT . More specifically, for a feasible solution $Y = (\dots, y_{a,l}, \dots)$, $\forall a \in \bar{A}_1 \cup \bar{A}_2, l = 1, 2$ satisfying the budget constraint, we can obtain the corresponding UMD and TTT after restoration and then draw the solution points (UMD, TTT) in the criteria space accordingly. Fig. 4 (a) shows the feasible set enabled by different budget levels in the criteria space. The feasible set with higher budget F_{i+1} contains that with lower budget F_i . The feasible set enabled by additional budget is the difference between F_{i+1} and F_i . Suppose the feasible set enabled by budget level B_{i+1} is denoted as \bar{F}_{i+1} , then $\bar{F}_i = F_i$, $\bar{F}_i = F_i - F_{i-1}$, for $i = 2 \dots 5$. In Fig. 4, we plotted $\bar{F}_i, i = 1 \dots 5$ with various colors indicating each \bar{F}_i . The circle marker indicates the points on the Pareto Frontier that can be found by the Weighted Sum Method. Due to the non-Convexity of the Pareto Frontier in criteria space, not all solution points on the frontier can be found.

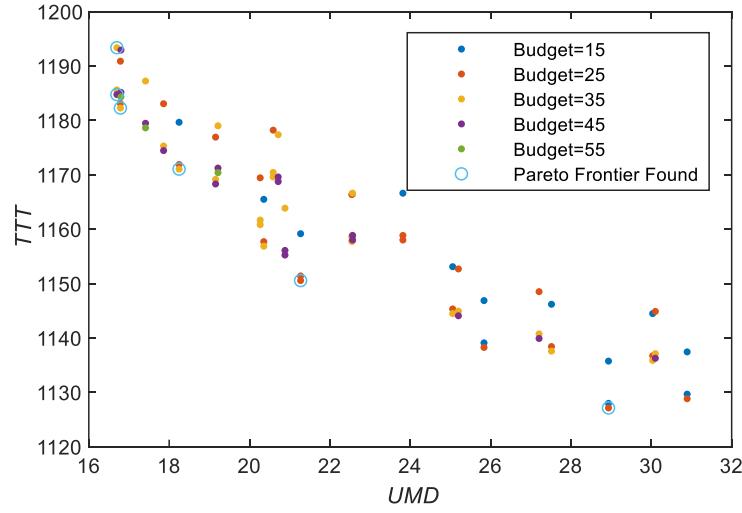


Fig. 4. Feasible solutions in criteria space enabled by different budget levels and solution points on Pareto Frontier found by Weighted Sum Method.

Fig. 5(a) and Fig. 5(b) shows Pareto Frontiers for $Budget=15$ and $Budget=55$, respectively. It is observed that the two system performance metrics (UMD and TTT) contradict each other, and a higher budget level enables denser and better solutions on the Pareto Frontier. With $Budget=55$, more solutions with high TTT and low UMD are obtained, such as those in dashed-line circle at the upper left corner of Fig. 5(b).

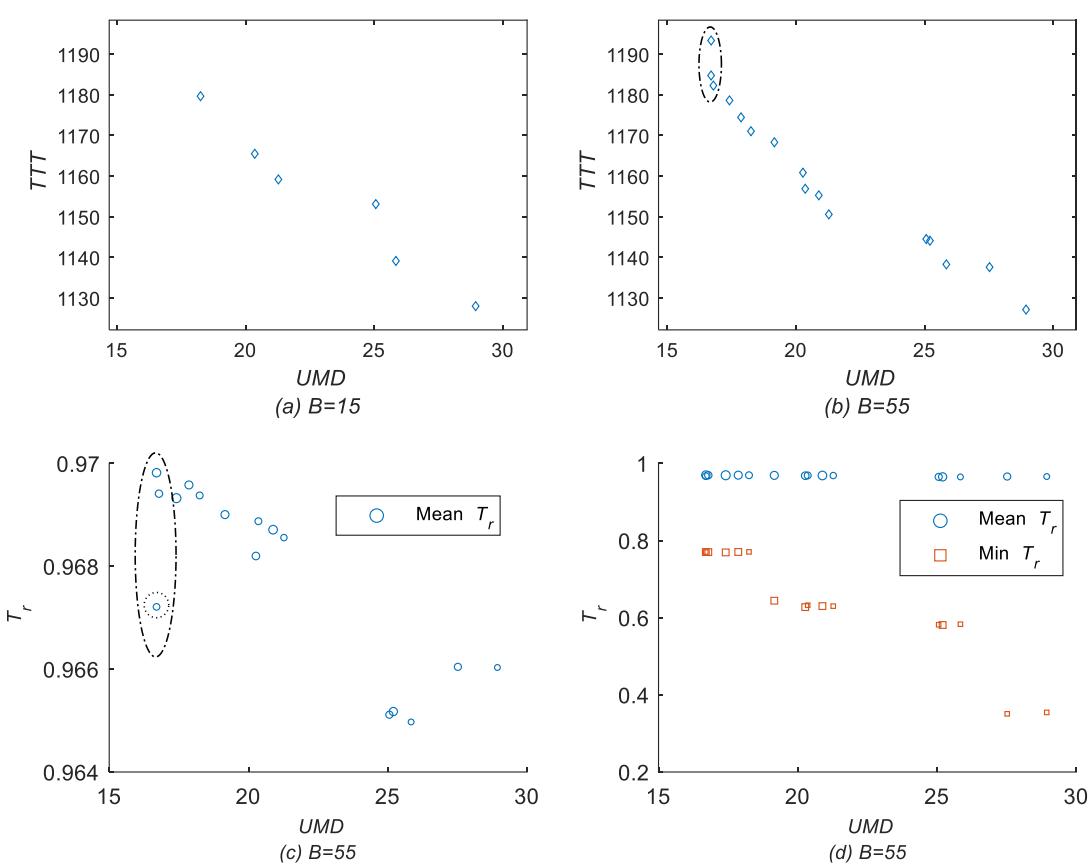


Fig. 5. Criteria space analysis (a) Pareto Frontier with $B=15$; (b) Pareto Frontier with $B=55$; (c) Mean T_r vs. UMD with $B=55$; (d) Min T_r vs. UMD with $B=55$.

Furthermore, we define travel time ratio $T_{r,a} = \frac{t_{0,a}}{t_a}$ to measure the efficiency of the system.

For each link a , $t_{0,a}$ is the free flow travel time on link a and t_a is the travel time on link a after restoration. Given each restoration solution, Mean T_r and Min T_r , are calculated as follows:

$$\text{Mean } T_r = \frac{\sum_a T_{r,a}}{N_L}$$

$$\text{Min } T_r = \min(T_{r,a}), \quad a \in A$$

where A indicates the link set, $N_L = |A|$ is the number of links in the system. Higher Mean T_r indicates better “efficiency” on average for all trips in the system. Min T_r indicates worst case performance at single link level.

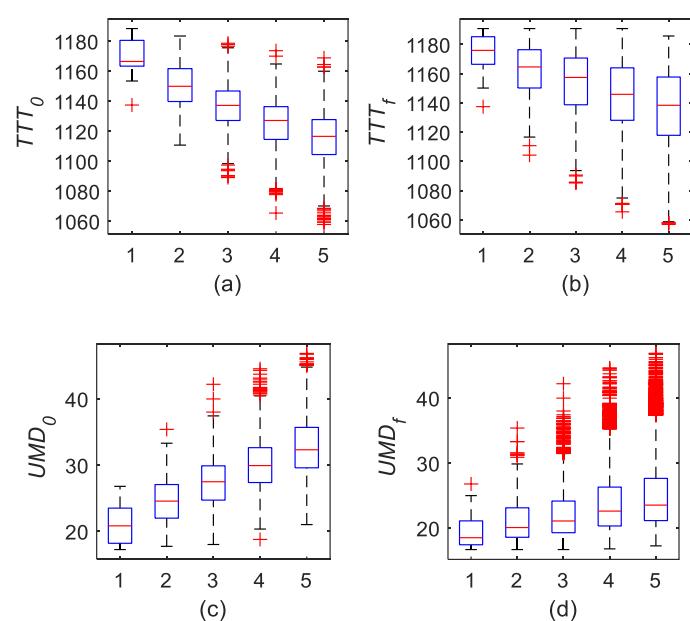
Then, we plot the Mean T_r and Min T_r vs. UMD in Fig. 5(c) and Fig. 5(d), respectively.

The marker size in these two subfigures indicates the cost of the restoration plan for each solution. In Fig. 5 (c), it is observed that the budget constraints are not always binding. The three solutions marked by the dash-dotted ellipse in Fig. 5 (b) and Fig. 5 (c) are corresponding to each other. Although the three solutions show similar TTT and UMD in Fig. 5(b), their Mean T_r is quite different. Thus, Mean T_r provides more information to decision makers. In Fig. 5(d), Min T_r vs.

1 *UMD* are plotted. *Min T_r* has larger variance over solutions, compared to *Mean T_r*. The solutions
 2 could be grouped to four clusters in terms of *Min T_r*, with larger *UMD* leading to lower *Min T_r*.
 3 Therefore, the solutions with less *UMD* can not only serve more travel demand but also improve
 4 the worst-case performance of the system. These observations show that the cross-reference among
 5 *TTT*, *Mean T_r* and *Min T_r* vs. *UMD* can help decision-makers compare the solutions through three
 6 different aspects, which leads to more comprehensive choice of restoration plan.
 7

8 5.3 Statistical Analysis of Experiment Results for Various Failure Scenarios

9 More failure scenarios were generated to perform statistical analyses of the *TTT* and *UMD* before
 10 and after restoration work. For each failure scenario, we calculated the *TTT* and *UMD* before and
 11 after the restoration work, indicated as (T_0, \hat{D}_0) and (T_f, \hat{D}_f) , respectively. There are $C_{15}^5 = 3003$
 12 cases when randomly selecting 5 links to be damaged from the 15 potential links. The box plot for
 13 the resilience measures, both *TTT* and *UMD* before and after restoration work and the cost-
 14 efficiencies of the restoration plan with 1–5 damaged links are shown in Fig. 6. As shown in Fig.
 15 6(a) and 6(b), the median, upper quartile, and lower quartile of TTT_0 and TTT_f all monotonically
 16 decrease with the increased number of damaged links. Furthermore, the median, upper quartile,
 17 and lower quartile of TTT_f are larger than those of TTT_0 . As shown in Fig. 6(c) and 6(d), the
 18 median, upper quartile, and lower quartile of UMD_0 and UMD_f all monotonically increase with
 19 the increased number of damaged links. The median, upper quartile, and lower quartile of UMD_f ,
 20 are smaller than those of UMD_0 . These phenomena can be interpreted jointly with the observation
 21 in Fig. 4 showing that the two objectives, $\min TTT$ and $\min UMD$, do contradict each other.
 22



23 **Fig. 6.** Box plots of *TTT* before (a) and after (b) restoration
 24 and *UMD* before (c) and after (d) restoration
 25

26 The two objectives, minimizing total unmet demand and total travel time provide decision-
 27

making support to choose an optimal restoration plan while balancing mobility and accessibility. As TTT and UMD have different units, we further define the total travel time reduced percentage, TTT_{Rd} (%), and the unmet demand reduced percentage, UMD_{Rd} (%), to better indicate the system performance in terms of two different measures in spite of their different units.

$$TTT_{Rd} = \frac{T_0 - T_f}{T_0}$$

$$UMD_{Rd} = \frac{\hat{D}_0 - \hat{D}_f}{\hat{D}_0} \quad (28)$$

Fig. 7 shows the bivariate histograms of TTT_{Rd} and UMD_{Rd} with 4 or 5 links damaged in the system and budget levels of 15, 35, and 55. The motivation to do this visualization was to demonstrate how the optimized (TTT_{Rd}, UMD_{Rd}) jointly and statistically distributed over all the failure scenarios with N_{dam} links damaged and different budget levels. It is observed that with the increase of *Budget*, the grid cells with higher occurrence frequencies move from the lower right corner to the upper left corner, with the lower right corner indicating higher TTT_{Rd} and lower UMD_{Rd} and the upper left corner vice versa. Such observation means that with a higher budget, there are more optimized restoration plans that can reduce the unmet demand. Nevertheless, lower budget levels could also lead to diverse options in terms of trading off between TTT_{Rd} and UMD_{Rd} . This observed trend is even more clear with $N_{dam} = 5$ compared to those with $N_{dam} = 4$.

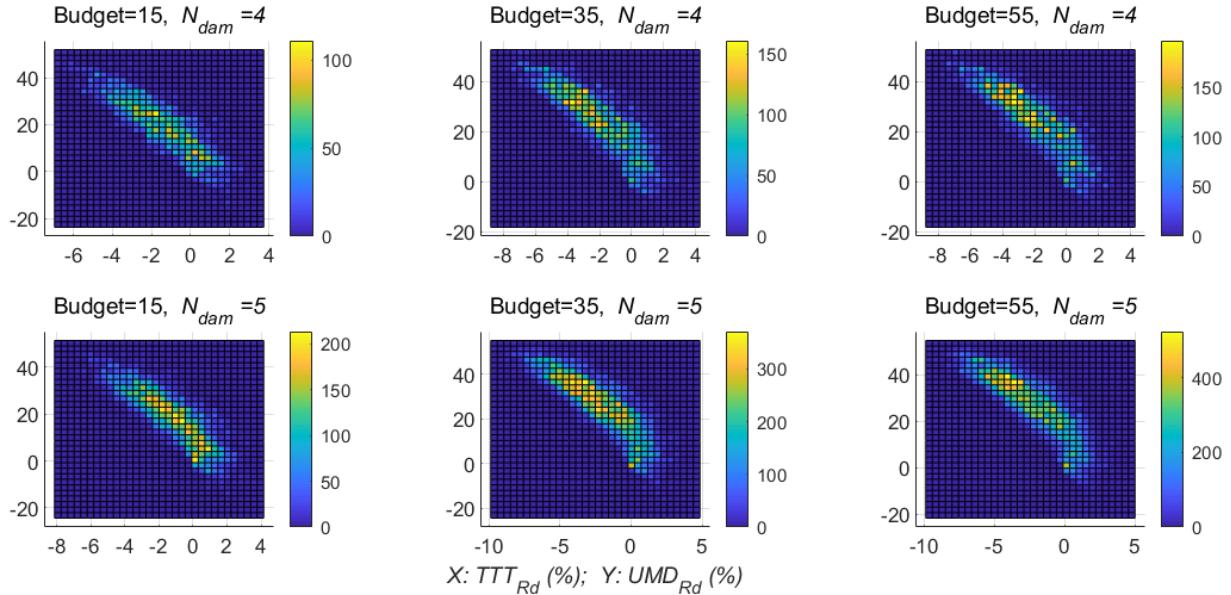


Fig. 7. Bivariate histogram of Reduced Percentages of TTT and UMD for $N_{dam} = 4$ and 5 and $Budget = 15, 35, 55$. X axis indicates the TTT reduced percentage (%) after restoration. Y axis indicates the UMD reduced percentage (%) after restoration. Color bar indicates frequency of solutions' occurrence in this grid cell.

6. Conclusions

1 In this study, a roadway infrastructure restoration plan optimization method is proposed,
 2 formulated as a bi-objective bi-level optimization problem, to enhance system resilience
 3 performance in terms of total unmet demand and total travel time. This method makes it tractable
 4 to reduce not only total travel time from a mobility perspective but also unmet demand in a
 5 damaged system from an accessibility point of view. The bi-objective problem is solved by the
 6 Weighted Sum Method and by decomposing the problem into bi-level problems that are solved by
 7 a modified active set algorithm and a network representation method.

8 Numerical experiments were performed to demonstrate the validity, capability, and
 9 flexibility of the proposed bi-objective bi-level optimization model for solving the restoration plan.
 10 The restoration plan optimization method was applied to a typical road network to illustrate the
 11 implementation procedures and verify the effectiveness of the method. The criteria space analysis
 12 of one failure scenario demonstrates that two perspectives to measure system performance (*UMD*
 13 and *TTT*) contradict each other. Furthermore, travel time ratio, the ratio between free flow travel
 14 time and real travel time after restoration for each link, is defined and can provide further
 15 information to distinguish solutions that have similar performance in terms of *TTT* and *UMD*. The
 16 results demonstrate that cross-reference the travel time ratio with *TTT* and *UMD* can help decision-
 17 makers make more comprehensive solution choices. Furthermore, statistical analysis over five
 18 groups of failure scenarios were performed with 1–5 links damaged in the system. To address the
 19 different unit issue of *TTT* and *UMD*, we defined the reduced percentages of *TTT* and *UMD*
 20 compared with those before restoration. Bivariate histograms of the optimized reduced percentages
 21 of *TTT* and *UMD* are drawn to demonstrate how they are jointly and statistically distributed over
 22 all failure scenarios. The results show that although the lower budget could provide diverse
 23 solutions on the frontier trading off between reducing *TTT* and *UMD*, higher budget levels provide
 24 more options to further reduce *UMD*.

25 This study could be extended and strengthened in the following directions. First, it would
 26 be interesting to evaluate the performance of the proposed method on different typical road
 27 networks to validate some observations in this work. Second, given the outcomes from different
 28 representative road networks, a study could be conduct on if and how the network topology, design
 29 features, and demand distribution patterns of the system impact the optimal restoration plan and
 30 corresponding system resilience performance. This study focused on the resilience analysis of
 31 transportation systems without considering their interdependence with other CIs; a promising
 32 direction would be to model the interdependence between different CIs and propose effective
 33 decision-making support methodologies for restoration planning considering pooled budget and
 34 resource constraints for interdependent CIs.

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 39 Restoration Strategy Optimization for Resilient Transportation Systems to Enhance Mobility,
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 41 findings, and conclusions reflected in this paper are the responsibility of the authors only and do
 42 not represent the official policy or position of NSF or USDOT, or any other entity.

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