

40 improving the efficiency of the network. Generally, system wide indexes such as the
41 total travel cost (TTC) are taken as the objective of the optimal toll design problem.

42

43 Nearly all the existing studies use the equilibrium flow to calculate the TTC, and then
44 evaluate each toll pattern based on the calculated TTC. However, any new toll pattern
45 will affect travelers' route choice decisions, and the network flows cannot achieve an
46 equilibrium state overnight. Cho and Hwang (2005) tested a small numerical network
47 and revealed that it nearly takes 200 days to reach equilibrium state, thus it would take
48 much longer time in a big urban area to achieve equilibrium. In addition, after such a
49 long period, the network demand and infrastructure are largely changed, thus a new
50 design of the optimal toll is needed again. Hence, in the whole study period of an
51 optimal toll design problem (denoted by D), the day-to-day models can better capture
52 the network flow conditions, rather than the final equilibrium state (He et al., 2010).
53 Note in passing that in practice, to avoid the confusions from travelers on the toll, it is
54 necessary to implement an unchanged toll in the whole period D ; for instance,
55 Singapore's ERP toll is adjusted every three months (Olszewski and Xie, 2005; Liu et
56 al., 2013), and kept unchanged in-between, thus D equals three months in this case.

57

58 During the planning horizon D , the TTC is changing each day due to the change of
59 traffic flows. Therefore, no toll pattern can give rise to a minimal TTC in each day of
60 D . It is not reasonable to implement the toll pattern that gives rise to the minimal TTC
61 on a certain day while neglecting the other days. From the viewpoints of policy-makers,
62 the deterioration of some worst cases is more harmful than the loss of efficiency on the
63 good cases, both temporally and spatially. The most desired toll pattern is the one that
64 considers the traffic conditions of every day in the planning horizon D . This paper
65 aims to cope with this problem of optimal toll design caused by the fluctuation of traffic
66 flows, where the concept of robust optimization is taken for the modelling. On a
67 particular day, each toll pattern τ can give rise to a corresponding $TTC(\tau)$. We first
68 define the concept of *regret* for such a toll pattern on each day, which is the gap between
69 the minimal TTC and $TTC(\tau)$. Then, a minimax model which minimizes the maximum
70 regret on each day, is proposed for the robust optimal toll design. Note that, the minimal
71 average TTC can also be taken as an alternative objective.

72

73 Since in the planning period D the network flow is fluctuating each day, it is difficult
74 for the travelers to have an accurate prediction on the travel time. Thus, stochastic user
75 equilibrium (SUE) is more suitable to capture their travel behaviors, compared with
76 user equilibrium (Meng et al., 2014). In addition, for the optimal toll design considering
77 SUE flows, it is more rational to take the stochastic system optimum (SSO) as the
78 objective (Liu et al., 2014a), compared with the deterministic system optimum. Hence,

79 in this paper we assume that the flow evolution process follows day-to-day dynamics
80 under SUE constraints, and take travelers' expected total travel cost (ETTC) as the
81 system wide index. However, formulating and solving day-to-day models or SUE/SSO
82 models individually are known to be very challenging. The optimal design of distance-
83 based tolls in a network considering stochastic day to day dynamics is thus difficult to
84 address, which is still an open question in the literature and tackled in this paper.

85 86 1.1 Literature review

87 Due to the inequity of flat pricing patterns which undercharge long journeys and over-
88 restrain short journeys (Meng et al., 2012), a distance-based pricing pattern was
89 recommended by May and Milne (2000) as an alternative for flat toll patterns. In a
90 distance-based congestion pricing scheme, the toll is levied in terms of the travel
91 distance, either linearly (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2005; Namdeo and Mitchell, 2008) or
92 nonlinearly (e.g., Wang et al., 2011; Lawphongpanich and Yin, 2012). Linear models
93 assume that the toll is linearly proportional to the travel distance, making it easier for
94 analysis due to the additivity of the toll charge. However, according to
95 Lawphongpanich and Yin (2012), the actual congestion toll, in most cases, is nonlinear,
96 i.e., the total charge for a trip cannot be proportionally divided to be the charges on its
97 component links (Meng et al., 2012). For the distance-based toll charge function, no
98 practical data could be collected for the analysis of a proper functional form or the
99 calibration of such a function. Hence, it is proper to assume that it is generic to any
100 positive and nonlinear function, which includes the fixed toll rate. Thus, this paper also
101 adopts the nonlinear function form for the distance-based tolls.

102
103 A nonlinear pricing pattern known as the two-part tariff, which can be regarded as a
104 special case of the piecewise linear toll scheme, was adopted by Lawphongpanich and
105 Yin (2012) to study the nonlinear pricing on transportation networks. Meng et al. (2012)
106 and Liu et al. (2014a) extended the piecewise linear toll scheme from only two linear
107 intervals to multiple intervals. Sun et al. (2016) investigated the equity issues of
108 distance-based tolls. However, all these formulations are based on static traffic
109 assignment theory, either deterministic or stochastic. Recently, Daganzo and Lehe
110 (2015) studied the distance-dependent, time-varying congestion pricing scheme based
111 on the macroscopic fundamental diagram theory of traffic dynamics. However, this
112 model is a within-day dynamic model, which cannot reflect the day-to-day flow
113 evolution process after implementing a new toll pattern.

114
115 For the congestion toll design problem with day-to-day dynamics, Wie and Tobin (1998)
116 solved it by formulating a convex control model of the dynamic system optimal traffic
117 assignment on general traffic networks. Sandholm (2002) proposed a dynamic

118 congestion pricing considering road users' learning behavior and day-to-day route
119 choice adjustment process to guarantee an efficient utilization of the entire network.
120 Thereafter, Friesz et al. (2004) studied the day-to-day dynamic toll with the objective
121 of maximizing the net present value of social welfare and the constraint of a minimum
122 revenue target. Yang et al. (2007) and Wang et al. (2015) considered the convergence
123 speed and rapidity of restoring the normal state after disruption, respectively. More
124 recently, Guo et al. (2015) proposed a concise and practical day-to-day dynamic pricing
125 pattern based on Friesz et al. (2004) and Yang et al. (2007), and the tolls on each day
126 were merely determined by the flows and tolls on the previous day. However, as
127 claimed in Ye et al. (2015), all of these day-to-day dynamic toll patterns required either
128 an explicit mechanism for road users' route choice adjustment process or adjustable
129 tolls. Ye et al. (2015) studied the marginal-cost pricing scheme with day-to-day
130 dynamics, and proposed a trial-and-error method for the optimal tolls, where the
131 information of network attributes is not required. Xu et al. (2016) also adopted a trial-
132 and-error method to study the global convergence of traffic-restraint congestion-pricing
133 scheme with day-to-day flow dynamics. Tan et al. (2015) investigated the day-to-day
134 congestion pricing with the objective of minimizing the total system cost and time
135 considering the day-to-day route flow evolution and user heterogeneity which can be
136 captured by road users' value-of-times. However, all of the aforementioned studies
137 focus on deterministic day-to-day dynamic pricing. Rambha and Boyles (2016)
138 investigated the dynamic congestion pricing considering users' stochastic day-to-day
139 route flow evolution process. Cheng et al. (2016) made a comprehensive review of
140 urban dynamic congestion pricing and emphasized that it was an emerging research
141 needs to investigate the dynamic congestion pricing problem.

142

143 Generally, day-to-day dynamic traffic models can be classified into two major
144 categories: deterministic dynamics and stochastic dynamics. Since stochastic dynamics
145 can capture the variability associated with the random nature of the day-to-day dynamic
146 flow evolution process, they can better reflect the practical circumstances than the
147 deterministic day-to-day dynamics (Watling and Hazelton, 2003). Many of the existing
148 stochastic day-to-day dynamics follow Markov processes (e.g., Cascetta, 1989;
149 Cascetta and Cantarella, 1991; Cantarella and Cascetta, 1995; Watling, 1999; Hazelton,
150 2002; Hazelton and Watling, 2004; Watling and Cantarella, 2013; Smith et al., 2014),
151 and Davis and Nihan (1993) and Hazelton et al. (1996) provided a Gaussian multi-
152 variant autoregressive process as well as a Markov Chain Monte Carlo method to solve
153 these day-to-day dynamic models, respectively. Interested readers can refer to Watling
154 and Cantarella (2013, 2015) for comprehensive reviews of day-to-day dynamics with
155 Markov process. Due to the non-additive property of the nonlinear distance-based toll,

156 path-based (instead of link-based) models are more suitable for the day to day dynamics
157 problem in the context of distance-based toll.

158

159 As claimed before, considering the fluctuation of traffic flows, the concept of robust
160 optimization should be taken for the congestion toll determination problem. However,
161 most of the existing robust congestion pricing schemes (to name a few, Gardner et al.,
162 2008; Gardner et al., 2010; Lou et al., 2010) focus on static traffic conditions, while
163 only a few researches focus on dynamic toll problems. Recently, Chung et al. (2012)
164 investigated the dynamic congestion pricing with demand uncertainty using a robust
165 optimization approach, and the proposed robust dynamic solutions outperformed either
166 the nominal dynamic or the robust static solutions according to their numerical results.
167 Zheng et al. (2012) studied the dynamic congestion pricing with macroscopic
168 fundamental diagram and an agent-based traffic model. The tolls are determined in
169 terms of actual traffic dynamics, rather than the conventional models based on marginal
170 cost and demand-supply curves. The gaps of the existing robust dynamic pricing models
171 include: (i) the existing studies focus on a within-day time scale, rather than a day-to-
172 day time scale; (ii) only a flat pattern is accounted for, while the more equitable and
173 efficient distance-based tolls are not addressed and (iii) optimal pricing considering the
174 path-based day-to-day dynamics model under SUE constraints is still an open question.
175 Consequently, it is a timely topic to address the robust optimization of distance-based
176 congestion pricing considering the day-to-day flow dynamics under SUE constraints.

177

178 1.2 Objectives and contributions

179 This paper aims to solve the optimal toll design problem in a dynamic network
180 considering the day-to-day flow evolution process under SUE constraints. After an
181 implementation/adjustment of a congestion pricing scheme, the network flows in a
182 certain period of days are not on an equilibrium state, thus it is problematic to take the
183 equilibrium-based indexes as the pricing objective. Therefore, the concept of robust
184 optimization is taken for the congestion toll determination problem, which takes into
185 account the network performance of each day. First, a minimax model which minimizes
186 the maximum regret on each day is proposed (Wang et al., 2016). Taking as a constraint
187 of the minimax model, a path-based stochastic day to day dynamics model is then
188 proposed. It is worth noting that the proposed minimax model is also a bi-level
189 programming model since the calculated route flows in terms of the day-to-day
190 dynamics are deemed as the lower level of the robust optimization to minimize the
191 maximum regret on each day.

192

193 It is difficult to handle the nonlinear distance-based toll problem because there is no
194 specific function form to describe the toll function, thus a piecewise linear function is

195 used as an approximation to solve the nonlinear distance-based toll problem. It is very
 196 challenging to solve the robust optimization model: not only because the bi-level
 197 programming model is an NP-hard problem, but also due to the fact that the day-to-day
 198 flow evolution mapping has no closed form. Let $d = 1, 2, \dots, D$ refer to the d th day
 199 of the study period, and $f(\mathbf{y}, d)$ denote the path flow on day d in terms of a toll
 200 pattern \mathbf{y} . With a given initial flow pattern $f(\mathbf{y}, 1)$, the day-to-day flow model
 201 $f(\mathbf{y}, d)$ has no closed form when $d > 2$, which is common for all the existing day-
 202 to-day dynamics models. Due to the implicitness of the flow map function, it is difficult to
 203 solve this problem using a gradient-based method. Therefore, a two-phase artificial bee
 204 colony (ABC) algorithm is developed in this paper, of which the first phase solves the
 205 minimal *ETTC* of each day and the second phase handles the minimax robust
 206 optimization problem.

207

208 To sum up, contributions of this paper are twofold: (i) a robust optimization model is
 209 built for the optimal distance-based toll in an urban network with day-to-day dynamics
 210 under SUE constraints; (ii) a two-phase ABC algorithm is developed for the highly
 211 complex problem considering the implicit day-to-day flow map function with a distance
 212 toll. This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 first introduces the nonlinear distance
 213 toll which can be approximated by a piecewise linear toll function. In Section 3, a path-
 214 based day-to-day dynamics model under SUE constraints is proposed. A minimax
 215 model for the optimal toll pattern that minimize the maximum regret on each day is
 216 introduced in Section 4, and a two-phase ABC algorithm is proposed as a solution
 217 method for solving the bi-level minimax model in Section 5. A numerical experiment
 218 is provided in Section 6 to demonstrate the application of the proposed approach, and
 219 finally conclusions are drawn in Section 7.

220

221 **2. Problem Statement**

222 Consider a strongly connected network, denoted by $G = (N, A)$, where N denotes
 223 set of nodes and A is the set of directed links. The notation in this paper mostly
 224 follows that in Liu et al. (2014a), which is summarized as follows:

225

Notation	Explanations
D	The total planning period for one toll pattern.
d	The number of days after the toll implementation, $d = 1, 2, \dots, D$.

W	The set of origin-destination (OD) pairs.
R^w	The set of paths between an OD pair $w \in W$.
\mathbf{f}	The column vector of all the path flows over the entire network, $\mathbf{f} = (f_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$.
f_{wr}	The traffic flow on path $r \in R^w$ between OD pair $w \in W$.
\mathbf{q}	The column vector for all the travel demands, $\mathbf{q} = (q^w, w \in W)^T$.
q^w	The travel demand between $w \in W$.
$\mathbf{t}(\mathbf{v})$	The column vector of the link travel time functions, $\mathbf{t}(\mathbf{v}) = (t_a(v_a), a \in A)^T$.
$t_a(v_a)$	The travel time function of link $a \in A$, assumed to be increasing, convex and continuously differentiable.
\mathbf{v}	The column vector of all these link flows, $\mathbf{v} = (v_a, a \in A)^T$.
v_a	The traffic flow on link $a \in A$.
δ_{ar}^w	$\delta_{ar}^w = 1$ if path $r \in R^w$ contains link a , and $\delta_{ar}^w = 0$ otherwise.
\mathbf{y}	The vertex values, $\mathbf{y} = (y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k, \dots, y_K)^T$ of the stepwise linear toll function.
$\phi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$	The toll charge function.
K	The total number of the intervals in the toll function $\phi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$.
$\boldsymbol{\eta}$	Column vector for the travel distance of all the paths in the cordon, $\boldsymbol{\eta} = (\eta_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$.
$\boldsymbol{\tau}$	Column vector of the distance-based toll $\boldsymbol{\tau} = (\tau_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$.

226

227 For the ease of presentation, it is assumed that there is only one cordon in the network.

228 Yet, the proposed methodology can be easily extended to the cases with multiple

229 cordons. Let η_{wr} denote the length portion of path $r \in R^w$ in the cordon, and that of

230 all the paths are grouped into the column vector $\boldsymbol{\eta}$. The distance-based toll function

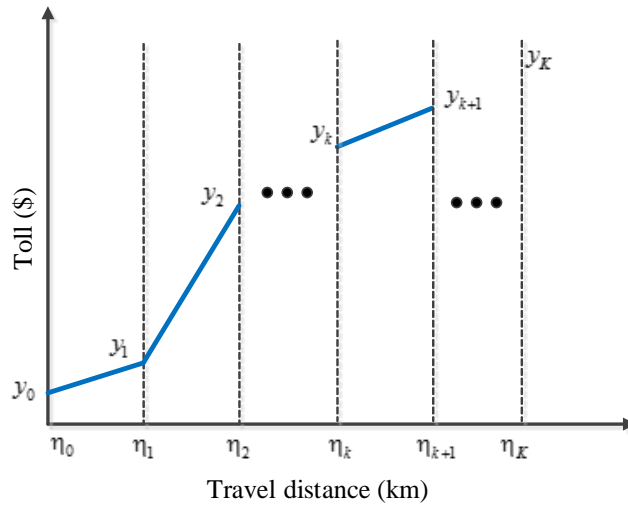
231 $\phi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ is assumed to be piecewise linear with respect to the travel distance $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, which is

232 an approximation of any form of nonlinear functions. The function $\phi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ is defined on
 233 the range $[\eta_0, \eta_K]$ with K equal intervals as shown in Figure 1. The maximal and
 234 minimal travel distance length of paths in all the L cordons are η_K and η_0 ,
 235 respectively.

236

237 We can see that the distance-based toll function is composed by K intervals. This
 238 piecewise linear toll function can be uniquely defined by the two vertexes of each
 239 interval. It should be noted that the piecewise linear approximation method of the
 240 nonlinear distance-based toll function can be easily adjusted for the case of unequal
 241 intervals from the minimal path length to the maximal path length in the pricing cordons.
 242 The distance-based toll should be a non-decreasing function of the travel distance:

243
$$y^{\min} = y_0 \leq y_1 \leq y_2 \leq \dots \leq y_k \leq \dots \leq y_K \leq y^{\max} \quad (1)$$



244

245

Figure 1: Piecewise linear distance-toll function

246 Suppose that for a particular path $r \in R^w$, its travel length in the cordon η_{wr} locates
 247 in the k th distance interval of the distance-based toll function shown in Figure 1, then
 248 the distance toll of path $r \in R^w$ can be computed by:

249
$$\tau_{wr} = \phi(\eta_{wr}) = y_{k-1} + \frac{\eta_{wr} - \eta_{k-1}}{\eta_k - \eta_{k-1}} (y_k - y_{k-1}) \quad (2)$$

250 The total/generalized travel cost on path $r \in R^w$ between OD pair $w \in W$:

251
$$c_{wr} = \sum_a t_a \delta_{ar}^w + \tau_{wr} / \kappa \quad (3)$$

252 where κ is the travelers' value-of-time.

253

254 From Eq. (2) we can see that each toll pattern τ is uniquely determined by the vertex
255 values $\mathbf{y} = (y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k, \dots, y_K)^T$. Let Ω_y be the set of all the feasible \mathbf{y} . Then, the
256 toll design problem is to determine the optimal $\mathbf{y}^* \in \Omega_y$. Before introducing the model
257 for the optimal \mathbf{y}^* , a path-based stochastic day-to-day dynamics model is first
258 discussed in the next section.

259

260 3. A path-based day-to-day dynamics model

261 When a particular toll pattern $\mathbf{y} \in \Omega_y$ is implemented at day $d=1$, it will cause
262 changes on the commuters' route choice decisions, thus giving rise to a new day to day
263 flow evolution trajectory. In order to evaluate the toll pattern \mathbf{y} , a mechanism is needed
264 to predict the flow evolution trajectory caused by \mathbf{y} . Due to the existence of nonlinear
265 distance-based toll, the path travel cost (3) is not additive to the link costs. Therefore,
266 path-based (instead of link-based) models are more suitable for the flow prediction
267 problem in the context of distance-based toll.

268

269 In a day-to-day dynamics model, on any day d each traveler's route choice decisions
270 are affected by the forecasted path travel time, denoted by
271 $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d) = (h_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$. $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d)$ is obtained based on his/her historical
272 information in the long-term memory as well as limited observation to the on-going
273 traffic conditions (Xie and Liu, 2014). Therefore, the forecasted path travel cost for the
274 next day $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$ is usually considered as a weighted combination of the current
275 day's actual and forecasted travel cost (Cantarella, 2013; Cantarella and Watling, 2016).
276 Then the following expression is given for $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$:

$$277 \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1) = \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + (1 - \beta) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d) \quad (d = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \quad (4)$$

278 where $\mathbf{c} = (c_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$ is the actual path travel costs on day d , as defined
279 by Eq. (3). β is a weighting parameter and it satisfies $0 < \beta \leq 1$.

280

281 To get a general form for $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$, we expand Eq. (4) recursively:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1) &= \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + (1-\beta) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d) \\
&= \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + (1-\beta) \cdot [\beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-1) + (1-\beta) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d-1)] \\
&= \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \beta \cdot (1-\beta) \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-1) + (1-\beta)^2 \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d-1) \\
282 \quad &= \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \beta \cdot (1-\beta) \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-1) + (1-\beta)^2 \cdot \\
&\quad [\beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-2) + (1-\beta) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d-2)] \\
&= \dots\dots \\
&= \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \beta \cdot \sum_{k=2}^{d-1} [(1-\beta)^{k-1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-k+1)] + (1-\beta)^{d-1} \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, 2)
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

283 and for day $d = 2$:

$$284 \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, 3) = \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, 2) + (1-\beta) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, 2) \tag{6}$$

285 As for day $d = 1$, we assume that

$$286 \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, 2) = \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, 1) + \xi \tag{7}$$

287 where $\xi = (\xi_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$ is a vector of random variables reflecting commuters'
288 perception errors on the path travel times (Liu et al., 2014b). Thus, Eq. (5) becomes

$$289 \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1) = \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \beta \cdot \sum_{k=2}^{d-1} [(1-\beta)^{k-1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-k+1)] + (1-\beta)^{d-1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, 1) + \xi$$

290 (8)

291 Hence, $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$ is also a vector of random variables with the same distribution type
292 of ξ .

293

294 For the day-to-day dynamics model, a reasonable assumption is further made as follows:

295 **Assumption 1:** After any day d , only a proportion $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ of travelers will

296 reconsider their previous day's route choices, based on $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$; and the proportion

297 $1-\alpha$ of travelers will insist on choosing the same routes on the previous day.

298

299 Based on Assumption 1, then we have the following dynamic route choice process (e.g.,
300 Cantarella and Watling, 2016):

$$301 \quad \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d+1) = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)) + (1-\alpha) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d) \quad (d = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \tag{9}$$

302 where $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$ is the path flows of day $d+1$, $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)$ denote the path flows of

303 day d . $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)) = (p_{wr}, r \in R^w, w \in W)^T$ is the route choice probabilities in
 304 terms of the forecasted route travel costs $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)$. In this paper, ξ is assumed to
 305 follow the Gumbel distribution, thus the route choice probabilities can be obtained by:

$$306 \quad p_{wr}(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)) = \frac{\exp(-\theta h_{wr}(\mathbf{y}, d+1))}{\sum_{l \in R^w} \exp(-\theta h_{wl}(\mathbf{y}, d+1))}, r \in R^w, w \in W \quad (10)$$

307 where θ is a dispersion parameter.

308

309 From Eq. (8), it is clear that given an initial toll pattern and route flow on day $d=1$,
 310 we can obtain the corresponding forecasted travel costs on any day. We can see that the
 311 route choice decisions of day $d+1$ depend on *all* of the previous days' route choices,
 312 which implies that travelers never forget any experiences in the past. Such a model is
 313 regarded as an infinite learning process (Cantarella and Watling, 2016). The infinite
 314 learning process is apparently not realistic, especially when d becomes large. In fact,
 315 the commuters' route choice decisions are highly affected by the unexpected incidents
 316 occurs *more recently*; for instance, unexpected network disruptions and adverse weather
 317 conditions. Thus, a finite learning process is more suitable, as shown in Assumption 2:
 318 **Assumption 2:** Travelers' route choice decisions are largely influenced by what
 319 happened in the most recent days, which is called a finite memory length m , and m is a
 320 pre-determined constant. Hence, only the most recent m days' route choice decisions
 321 are considered in the current day's route choice decision.

322

323 Based on the Assumption 2, then Eq. (8) is further transformed to:

$$324 \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1) = \beta \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \beta \cdot \sum_{k=2}^m [(1-\beta)^{k-1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-k+1)] + \xi \quad (11)$$

325 It is worth noting that the coefficients of $\mathbf{c}(\cdot)$ on the right hand side of Eq. (8) sum to
 326 1, while in Eq. (11), the summation of coefficients on the right hand side does not equal
 327 to 1 due to the finite memory length m . In order to ensure the convergence of the
 328 proposed model, a scaling factor is imposed on the right-hand side of Eq. (11) to make
 329 the coefficients sum to 1. Hence, Eq. (11) becomes:

$$330 \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1) = \frac{\beta}{1-(1-\beta)^m} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \frac{\beta}{1-(1-\beta)^m} \cdot \sum_{k=2}^m [(1-\beta)^{k-1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d-k+1)] + \xi \quad (12)$$

331 Note that it is easy to find that $\frac{\beta}{1-(1-\beta)^m} + \frac{\beta}{1-(1-\beta)^m} \cdot \sum_{k=2}^m (1-\beta)^{k-1} = 1$.

332

333 From the route choice process (9), we can see that the route flow on day $d+1$ is
 334 determined by two components: the first term in the right hand side of Eq. (9) is the
 335 portion of travelers who will reconsider their previous day's route choices (i.e., $\alpha \cdot \mathbf{q}$)
 336 and choose routes different from the previous day's routes in terms of the route choice
 337 probabilities \mathbf{p} , reflecting the *regret* of their decision making behavior; and the second
 338 term is the portion of travelers who do not change their previous day's route choices,
 339 interpreted as the *inertia* of their decision making behavior. It is worth noting that in
 340 the reconsideration part of travelers, one may change to another other route, but he/she
 341 may also repeat the previous day's route choice.

342

343 From an aggregate point of view, we define the actual route choice probabilities $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}$ as
 344 follows, which is a composite of the two types of route choice probabilities \mathbf{p} and $\bar{\mathbf{p}}$
 345 on the right-hand-side of Eq. (13):

346
$$\tilde{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)) = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{y}, d+1)) + (1-\alpha) \cdot \bar{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{y}, d) \quad (13)$$

347 where $\bar{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{y}, d) = \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)}{\mathbf{q}}$. Eq. (13) is in fact a transformation of Eq. (9) by dividing

348 the demand \mathbf{q} on both sides of Eq. (9). The two terms in the right hand side of Eq.
 349 (13) reflect the regret and inertia, respectively. From Eqs. (9)-(13), we can see that with
 350 a given toll pattern and route flow on day d , the next day's route flow can be obtained
 351 recursively.

352

353 The model introduced above in this section is termed as a path-based day to day
 354 dynamics model under SUE constraints. In the context of SUE, it is defined that $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{q}\tilde{\mathbf{p}}$,
 355 namely, \mathbf{f} is a deterministic value. This definition is made on the basis of the weak
 356 law of the large numbers (Daganzo and Sheffi, 1977), in view that the number of
 357 commuters is large enough and also they act independently. However, if we don't
 358 consider the weak law of the large numbers here, the path flows are in fact random
 359 variables following a multinomial distribution. We use $\bar{\mathbf{f}}$ to denote the path flows in
 360 this case, it gives:

361
$$\bar{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{y}, d) \sim \text{Multinomial}(\mathbf{q}, \bar{\mathbf{p}}) \quad (14)$$

362 where $\bar{\mathbf{p}}$ is similarly defined as Eq. (13). We can see that $\mathbf{f} = E(\bar{\mathbf{f}})$.

363

364 Model (14) is consistent with many other stochastic process models for day to day
 365 dynamic traffic assignment in the literature, including Watling and Hazelton (2003),
 366 Hazelton and Watling (2004), and Cantarella and Watling (2016). The recursive traffic
 367 assignment model (12) is an m -dependent Markov chain (Hazelton and Watling, 2004).

368

369 **4. A minimax regret model for the optimal toll pattern**

370 As discussed in the Introduction, after a certain period D (say $d = D = 90$) the
 371 network environment (both supply and demand) is evidently changed. Then, a new
 372 assessment of the optimal toll should be performed, thus giving rise to a new toll pattern

373 $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$, in which a new day-to-day flow evolution occurs and d should be reset to 1.

374 Hence, in this paper, the study period is from $d = 1$ to $d = D$.

375

376 As an important ingredient in the travelers' route choice decisions, any toll pattern \mathbf{y}

377 would give rise to different day-to-day path flows. Let $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)$ denote the column

378 vector of path flows on day d in terms of a toll pattern \mathbf{y} , which is determined by

379 Eq. (9). The objective of the authorities is to improve the network performance of each

380 day rather than merely that of the equilibrium condition. Since the commuters' route

381 choice behavior follows logit-based SUE, the optimal network performance is reflected

382 by the one with minimal expected total travel cost (Liu et al., 2014a). On day d , the

383 optimal toll pattern is thus given by:

384
$$ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d) = \min_{\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)^{\top} \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) + \frac{1}{\theta} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)^{\top} \cdot \ln \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)}{q^w} \quad (15)$$

385 where the objective is to minimize the expected total travel cost.

386

387 Let $\mathbf{y}(d)$ be the optimal toll pattern of day d , namely,

388
$$\mathbf{y}(d) \in \arg \min_{\mathbf{y} \in \Omega_{\mathbf{y}}} ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d) \quad (16)$$

389 It is unlikely that a particular toll pattern can be the optimal toll pattern of all the

390 days/scenarios (from day 1 to day D). Thus, if an arbitrary toll pattern \mathbf{y} is

391 implemented, there would be a gap between the corresponding total travel cost and the
 392 optimal $ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d)$. This gap is defined as the *regret* from the viewpoint of the
 393 network authorities.

394

395 For any toll pattern $\mathbf{y} \in \Omega_y$, its regret on day d equals

396 $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)^T \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) - ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d)$, and its maximum regret value among the whole

397 planning period D is given as $\max_d \left[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)^T \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) - ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d) \right]$. Therefore, to

398 minimize the maximum regret, we propose the following robust programming model:

$$399 \quad \min_{\mathbf{y}} \max_d \left[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)^T \cdot \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, d) - ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d) \right] \quad (17)$$

400 subject to the day-to-day route flows introduced in Section 3.

401

402 The above model can be deemed as a bi-level model, where the lower level reflects the
 403 predicted network flows, which is discussed in Section 3. The optimal solution to model
 404 (17) is a robust pattern that takes into consideration the network performance on each
 405 day of the study period.

406

407 **5. A two-phase ABC algorithm**

408 The bi-level models are commonly used to formulate network design and toll design
 409 problems, which are well recognized to be an NP-hard problem and hard to solve. In
 410 the literature, some existing solution methods usually have the same techniques which
 411 is to convert the bi-level problem to a single-level one, by replacing the lower level
 412 using the first-order Taylor approximation (sensitivity analysis method, see Yang and
 413 Bell, 1998) or relaxing the lower-level and gradually adding back (system optimal
 414 relaxation method, see Wang et al., 2013) or replacing the lower level by a gap function
 415 (see, Li et al., 2012), etc.

416

417 However, none of the existing solution methods discussed above is valid to use for the
 418 proposed robust programming model (17). This is mainly caused by the complexity of

419 the term $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)$. With a given initial flow pattern $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, 1)$, the day to day flow model

420 $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)$ has no closed form when $d > 2$, which is true for all the existing day to day

421 dynamics models. For instance, from model (9), we can see that the first-order

422 derivative of $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d)$ also has no closed form because we do not have a closed form

423 of $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}, d-1)$; thus the sensitivity analysis method is not applicable to the problem. To
424 solve the optimal toll design problem under a network with day to day flow dynamics
425 is still an open question in the literature. However, this problem is of considerable
426 significance for the studies of congestion pricing problems, thus this paper aims to
427 provide some initial investigations of this difficult yet important problem. With the
428 main focus on the modelling framework, the optimization level of the final solution is
429 to some extent compromised.

430

431 The ABC algorithm was recently used to solve transportation problems, see e.g., Szeto
432 et al. (2011), Szeto and Jiang (2012, 2014), Chen et al. (2015) and Huang et al. (2016).
433 Compared with extant evolutionary algorithms like genetic algorithm (GA), the ABC
434 algorithm has a better local search mechanism that enhances the solution quality (Chen
435 et al., 2015), because GA conducts the crossover operations to produce new or
436 candidate solutions from the present ones, while the ABC algorithm produces the
437 candidate solution from its parent by a simple operation based on taking the difference
438 of parts of the parent and a randomly chosen solution from the population. This process
439 increases the convergence speed of searching into a local minimum. In this paper, a
440 numerical algorithm, which is called a two-phase ABC algorithm, is proposed to solve
441 the robust programming model for the optimal toll design. The first phase is used to
442 calculate the minimum total travel time of each day d as shown in model (15). Then,
443 taking the $ETTC(\mathbf{y}, d)$ as an input, the second-phase is used to solve the robust
444 programming model (17). The detailed procedures of the algorithm are summarized as
445 follows.

446

447 Procedures of the first-phase for solving the minimum expected total travel cost of each
448 day:

449 **Initialization**

450 **Step 1:** (Initialization of the parameters). For simplicity, we set the colony size N_c ,

451 the number of employed bees N_e , onlookers N_o ; the limit, which is the
452 predetermined number of iterations; the initial value of iteration counter $I = 1$,
453 and its maximum value I_{\max} . Set the interval number of the distance toll and
454 the planning period to K and D , respectively. Set the lower bound and
455 upper bound of congestion toll to y_{\min} and y_{\max} , respectively. Set the initial
456 day to $d = 0$.

457 **Iteration Procedure**

458 **Step 2:** (Initial route flows). Obtain the initial route flow by averagely assigning the
459 demand to each feasible route for each OD pair.

460 **Step 3:** (Initialization of employed bees). Generate randomly distributed initial food
461 sources (i.e., congestion toll patterns) for every employed bee.

462 **Step 4:** (Evaluation).

463 **Step 4.1:** (Calculate the toll values). Based on the piecewise linear toll function
464 of Eq. (2), calculate the value of toll charge on each internal path of
465 the cordon in term of the total length of each internal path.

466 **Step 4.2:** (Calculate the route travel times). Obtain the link flows based on the
467 route flows. Calculate the link travel times with the link travel time
468 functions. Obtain the route travel times according to the calculated link
469 travel times.

470 **Step 4.3:** (Network loading procedure). Conduct the stochastic network loading
471 procedure based on the toll charge and the measured route travel time
472 in terms of the stochastic day-to-day dynamics model.

473 **Step 4.4:** (Evaluation). Calculate the *ETTC* for all of the employed bees based
474 on Eq. (15). Set the limit counter of each food source be zero.

475 **Step 5:** (Employed bee phase). Conduct a neighborhood search based on the food
476 sources generated by employed bees. Evaluate the fitness for each neighbor
477 solution. If the fitness of the neighbor solution is better than the current food
478 source, replace the current food source by the neighbor solution, and set the
479 limit counter be 0; otherwise, keep the current food source generated by
480 employed bee and increase the limit counter by 1.

481 **Step 6:** (Onlooker phase). Each onlooker chooses a food source based on the quality of
482 the solutions. A roulette wheel selection method is adopted for onlookers to
483 determine which food source they should choose. In other words, generate a
484 uniformly distributed random number $r \in [0,1)$, if $p_i > r$, then the onlooker
485 will execute a neighborhood search. Evaluate the fitness of the neighbor food
486 source. If the fitness of the neighbor food source is better, replace the current
487 food source by the neighbor food source; otherwise, keep the current food
488 source generated by employed bee and increase the limit counter by 1.

489 **Step 7:** (Scout bee phase). Based on the current food sources, find the best one with the
490 highest fitness (i.e., lowest *ETTC*). If one food source cannot improve its
491 quality within the predetermined maximal trial number limit, and it is not the
492 best food source at the same time, then the associated employed bee becomes
493 a scout. It will execute a neighbor search again, generate a new randomly
494 solution and set the corresponding limit counter be zero.

495 **Step 8:** (Convergence test). Set the iteration number $I = I + 1$. If $I < I_{\max}$, then return
496 to Step 4; otherwise, let the minimal value of $ETTC$ equal $ETTC(y, d)$ on
497 day d and record the corresponding food source, and then go to Step 9.
498 **Step 9:** (Stop test). If $d \geq D$, then stop and output the minimal $ETTC$ and its
499 corresponding optimal toll function for each day; otherwise, set $d = d + 1$ and
500 go to Step 2.

501

502 Then, the second stage for solving the minimax regret model is described below:

503 Initialization

504 **Step 1:** (Initialization of the parameters). For simplicity, we set the colony size N_c ,
505 the number of employed bees N_e , onlookers N_o ; the limit, which is the
506 predetermined number of iterations; the initial value of iteration counter $I = 1$,
507 and its maximum value I_{\max} . Set the interval number of the distance toll and
508 the planning period to K and D , respectively. Set the lower bound and
509 upper bound of congestion toll to y_{\min} and y_{\max} , respectively. Set the initial
510 day to $d = 0$.

511 **Step 2:** (Initialization of employed bees). Generate randomly distributed initial food
512 sources (i.e., congestion toll patterns) for every employed bee. Calculate the
513 corresponding fitness based on the day-to-day dynamic mechanism introduced
514 in this paper. Set the limit counter of each food source be zero.

515 Iteration Procedure

516 **Step 3:** (Employed bee phase). Conduct a neighborhood search based on the food
517 sources generated by employed bees. Evaluate the fitness for each neighbor
518 solution. If the fitness of the neighbor solution is better than the current food
519 source, replace the current food source by the neighbor solution, and set the
520 limit counter be 0; otherwise, keep the current food source generated by
521 employed bee and increase the limit counter by 1.

522 **Step 4:** (Onlooker phase). Each onlooker chooses a food source based on the quality of
523 the solutions. A roulette wheel selection method is adopted for onlookers to
524 determine which food source they should choose. In other words, generate a
525 uniformly distributed random number $r \in [0, 1)$, if $p_i > r$, then the onlooker
526 will execute a neighborhood search. Evaluate the fitness of the neighbor food
527 source. If the fitness of the neighbor food source is better, replace the current

528 food source by the neighbor food source; otherwise, keep the current food
 529 source generated by employed bee and increase the limit counter by 1.

530 **Step 5:** (Scout bee phase). Based on the current food sources, find the best one with the
 531 highest fitness. If one food source cannot improve its quality within the
 532 predetermined maximal trial number limit, and it is not the best food source at
 533 the same time, then the associated employed bee becomes a scout. It will
 534 execute a neighbor search again, generate a new randomly solution and set the
 535 corresponding limit counter be zero.

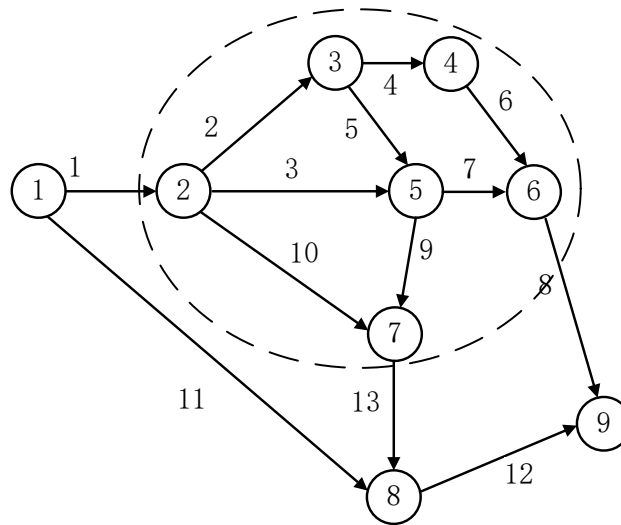
536 **Step 6:** (Convergence test). Set the iteration number $I = I + 1$. If $I < I_{\max}$, then return
 537 to Step 3; otherwise, terminate the algorithm and output the best solution.

538

539 6. Numerical Experiments

540 As shown in Figure 2, a network example proposed in Liu et al. (2014a) is used to
 541 validate the proposed model and method in this section. This network contains 13 links
 542 and 9 nodes, with a congestion toll cordon indicated by the dashed line. There are two
 543 OD pairs: $1 \rightarrow 8$ and $1 \rightarrow 9$, each of which has an OD demand of 16,000. The
 544 incidence of links and paths for the network is provided in Table 1.

545



546

547

Figure 2: Network structure of the numerical example

548

549

Table 1: Link-path incidence relationship

OD pair	Path No.	Link sequence
(1,8)	1	1,2,5,9,13
	2	1,3,9,13
	3	1,10,13
	4	11

(1,9)	5	1,2,4,6,8
	6	1,2,5,7,8
	7	1,2,5,9,13,12
	8	1,3,7,8
	9	1,3,9,13,12
	10	1,10,13,12
	11	11,12

550

551 The link travel time is defined by the Bureau of Public Roads (BPR) function as follows:

$$552 \quad t_a(v_a) = t_a^0 \left(1 + 0.15 \times \left(\frac{v_a}{H_a} \right)^\rho \right), \quad a \in A \quad (18)$$

553 where t_a^0 is the free flow travel time on link a , H_a is the capacity of link a , and

554 ρ is the exponent. The relevant link attributes are summarized in Table 2.

555

Table 2: Link data for the numerical example

Link ID	Tail	Head	Distance (km)	Free Flow Travel Time	Capacity	Exponent ρ
1	1	2	2	2	6000	4
2	2	3	7	2	4000	4
3	2	5	8	8	6000	4
4	3	4	2	2	2000	4
5	3	5	4	4	2000	4
6	4	6	6	6	1000	6
7	5	6	2	2	4000	4
8	6	9	6	6	6000	4
9	5	7	3	3	4000	4
10	2	7	9	9	2000	4
11	1	8	26	26	3000	4
12	8	9	4	4	3000	4
13	7	8	5	5	3000	4

556

557

Table 3: List of internal paths

Internal path ID	Component links	Total length
1	10	9
2	3,9	11
3	2,5,9	14
4	3,7	10

5	2,5,7	13
6	2,4,6	15

558

559 As shown in Figure 2, there are 8 links in the cordon area, including links 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,
560 7, 9, and 10. The 8 links compose 6 different internal paths connecting three entry nodes,
561 which are nodes 2, 6 and 7. Table 3 provides the details of these internal paths.

562

563 The travelers' value-of-time is assumed to be $\kappa = 1.0$ in this example. According to
564 the data of internal paths in Table 3, we can find that the minimum and maximum path
565 distance in the cordon are 9 and 15km, and the range of travel distance difference is
566 6km. Hence, the piecewise linear toll function is assumed to have 6 intervals with 7
567 boundary distance values, and the length of each interval is 1km. It is worth noting that
568 all the internal path distances are integers with a difference range of 6km in this example,
569 thus 6 intervals are enough. When the number of internal paths and the difference range
570 of internal path distances become larger, the number of intervals can also be larger to
571 ensure a better characteristic of the nonlinear distance-based toll scheme. The upper
572 and lower bounds of the distance toll are $y_0 = y^{\min} = 1.0$ and $y_6 = y^{\max} = 5.0$,
573 respectively. The value of relevant parameters used in the two-phase ABC algorithm
574 are summarized in Table 4. The numerical experiment is coded in Matlab R2016a
575 running on a laptop with Inter(R) Core(TM) i7-5500U CPU @ 2.40GHz, 2.39GHz and
576 8.00G RAM.

577

578

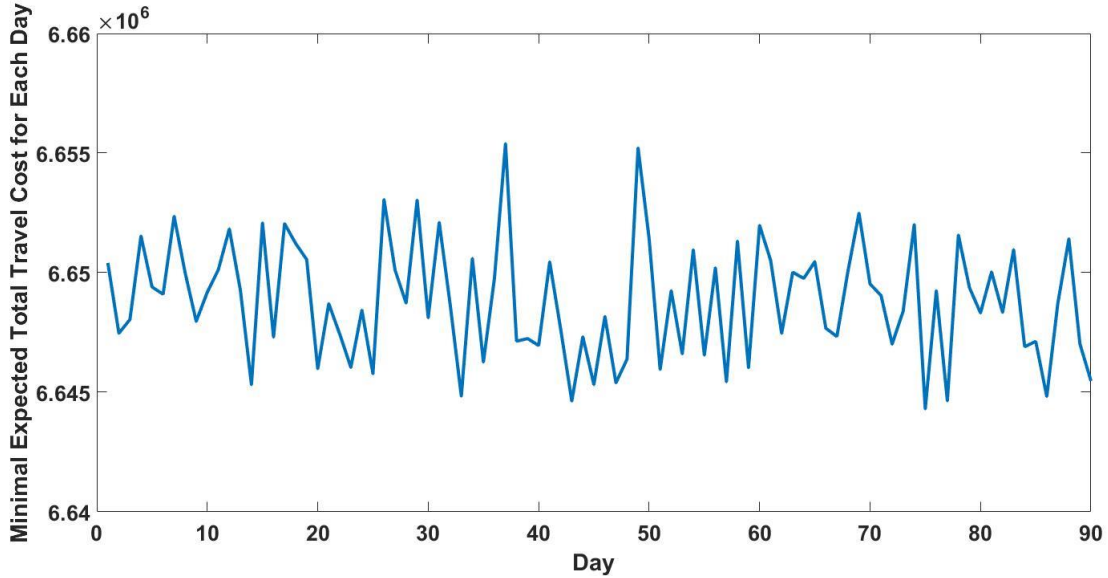
Table 4: Parameters used in the two-phase ABC algorithm

Parameters	Value	Parameters	Value
Planning period	$D = 90$	Colony size in ABC	$N_c = 40$
Interval number of distance toll	$K = 6$	Number of employed bees in ABC	$N_e = 20$
Lower bound of congestion toll	$y^{\min} = 1.0$	Number of onlookers in ABC	$N_o = 20$
Upper bound of congestion toll	$y^{\max} = 5.0$	Limit in ABC	limit = 2
Memory length	$m = 3$	Maximum iteration value in ABC	$I_{\max} = 500$
Reconsideration rate	$\alpha = 0.6$	Weighting parameter	$\beta = 0.4$

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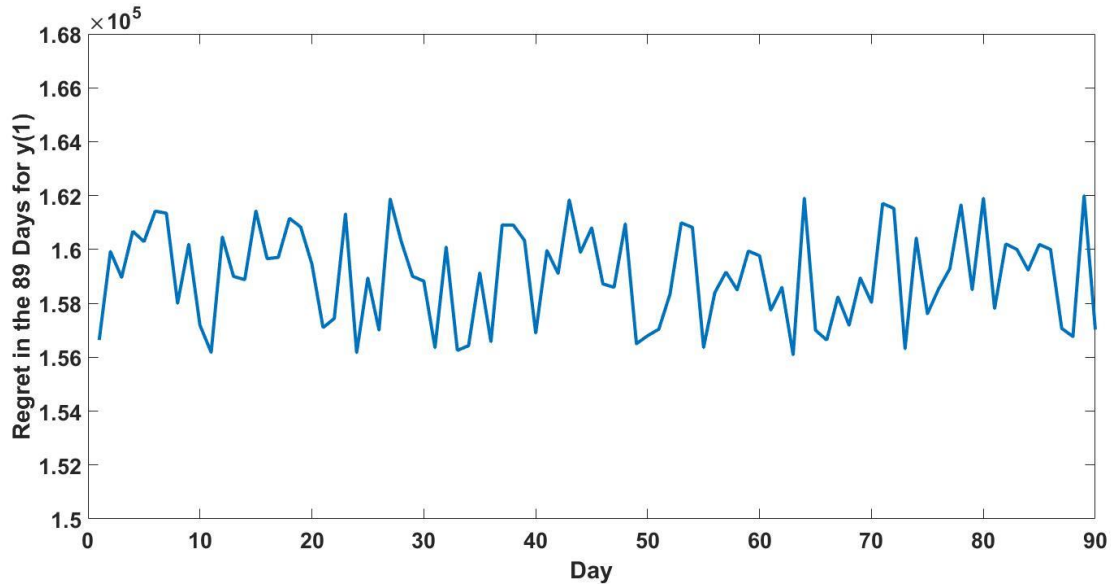
580 As introduced in Section 5, we need to calculate the minimal *ETTC* for each day, which

581 is an input in the second phase of the algorithm. Figure 3 depicts the minimal *ETTC*
 582 with the proposed stochastic day to day dynamics model, based on the first phase of the
 583 ABC algorithm from $d=1$ to $d=90$. We can find that the minimal *ETTC* has an
 584 evident fluctuation with the minimum (maximum) equal to 6.647×10^6 (6.655×10^6).
 585 Note that the corresponding optimal toll pattern of each day (see $\mathbf{y}(d)$ in Eq. (16))
 586 is also varying.



587
 588 Figure 3: Minimal expected total travel cost for each day based on the first phase of
 589 the solution method
 590

591 To further show the varying impacts of a particular toll pattern on the network, we use
 592 the optimal toll pattern of day 1 as an example; here
 593 $\mathbf{y}(1) = (1.08, 1.24, 1.69, 2.35, 3.01, 3.55, 4.32)$. Figure 4 then gives the value of regret
 594 from day 2 to day 90 for $\mathbf{y}(1)$ and the regret value of day 1 is zero. After the
 595 implementation of the optimal toll pattern of day 1, the regret is not a stable value
 596 because the optimal toll for day 1 is no longer optimal for other days.



597

598

Figure 4: Value of the regret from day 2 to day 90 for $y(1)$

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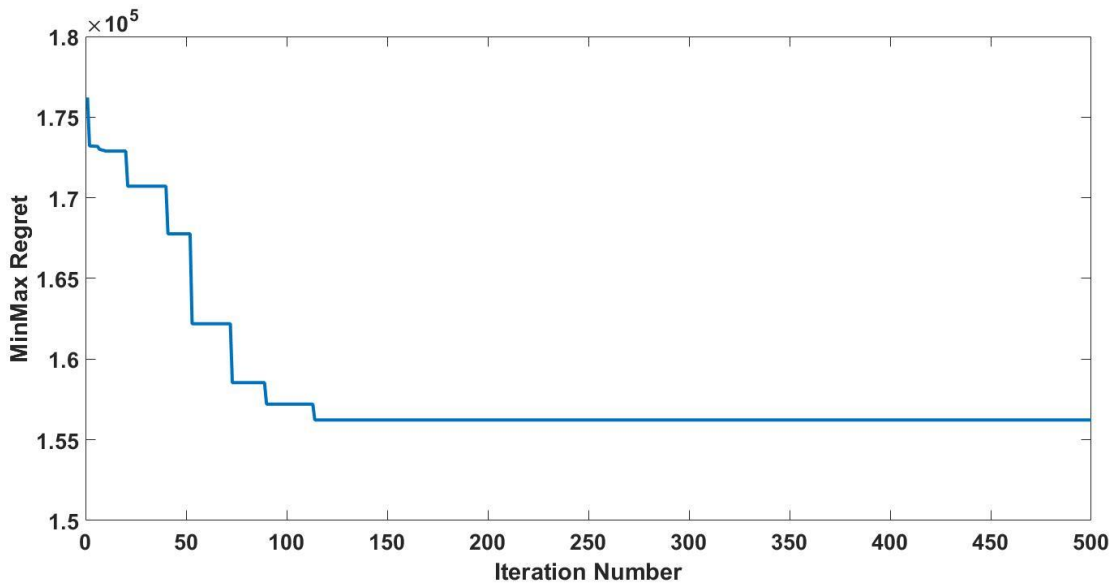
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The optimal toll can be obtained by minimizing the maximum regret in Eq. (17) and this proposed minimax regret model can be solved by the second phase of the ABC algorithm with the minimal *ETTC* for each day as an input. Figure 5 shows the convergence process, which converges after 114 iterations. The optimal toll is a robust pattern which takes into consideration the network performance on each day. Figure 6 depicts the optimal distance toll patterns for the proposed stochastic day to day dynamics model, which is clearly a nonlinear toll form: $y^* = (1.45, 2.22, 3.51, 3.83, 4.20, 4.29, 4.44)$.



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608

Figure 5: Convergence process of the minimax regret

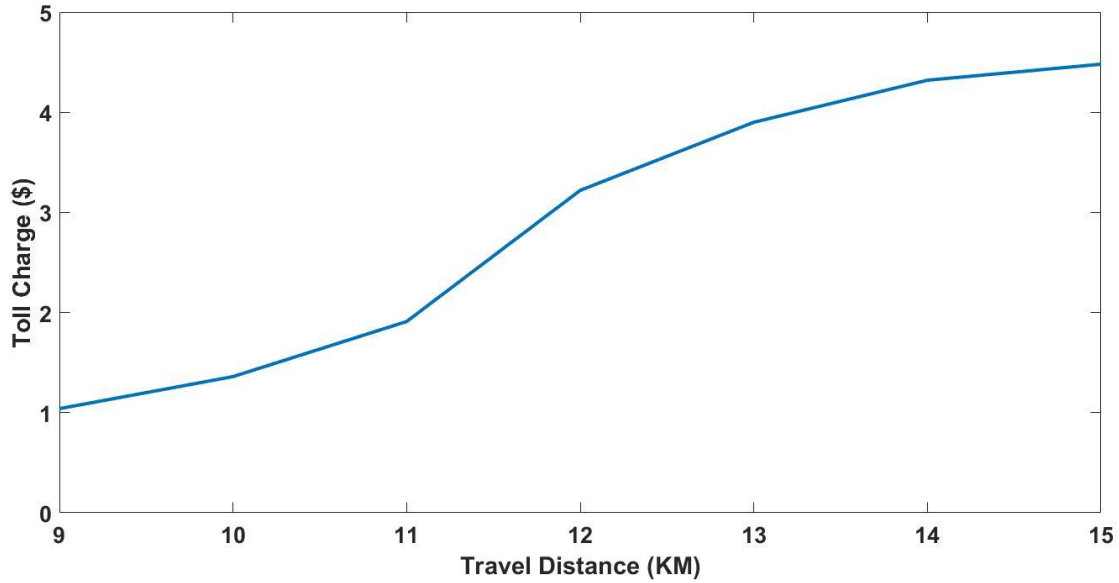
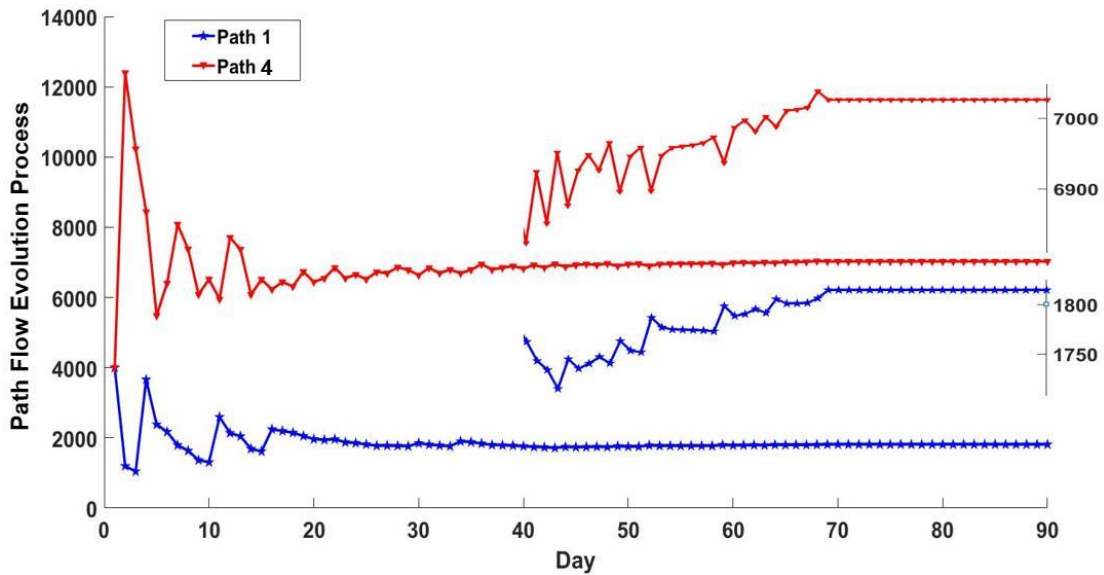
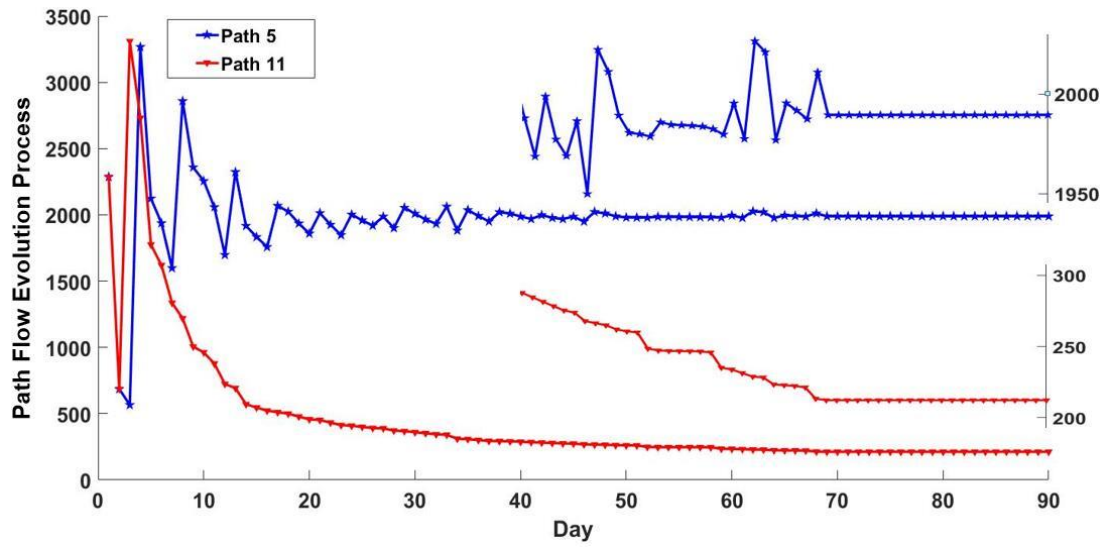


Figure 6: Optimal distance toll

We further analyze the flow evolution process in the network. For simplicity, we choose 4 typical paths which are path 1 and 4 for OD pair (1, 8) and path 5 and 11 for OD pair (1, 9). Among these four paths, path 1 and 5 are internal paths, while path 4 and 11 are external paths. Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the day-to-day flow and cost evolution trajectories over the whole planning period, and the top right corners are the partial enlarged details from day 40 to day 90. It is clear that both the day-to-day flows and costs converge to a stationary state, which follows the logit-based SUE principle, within 70 days. This evolution process also indicates the essence of the day-to-day dynamics with flows and costs evolving from disequilibrium to equilibrium states. It should be noted that the convergence speed will slow down when the network becomes larger.



(a) Flow evolution process of path 1 and path 4



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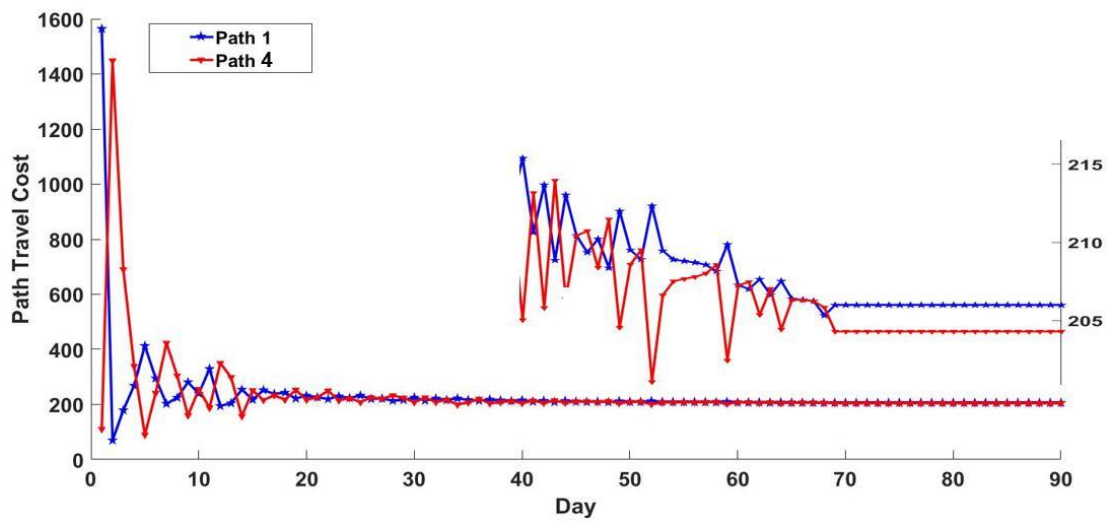
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(b) Flow evolution process of path 5 and path 11

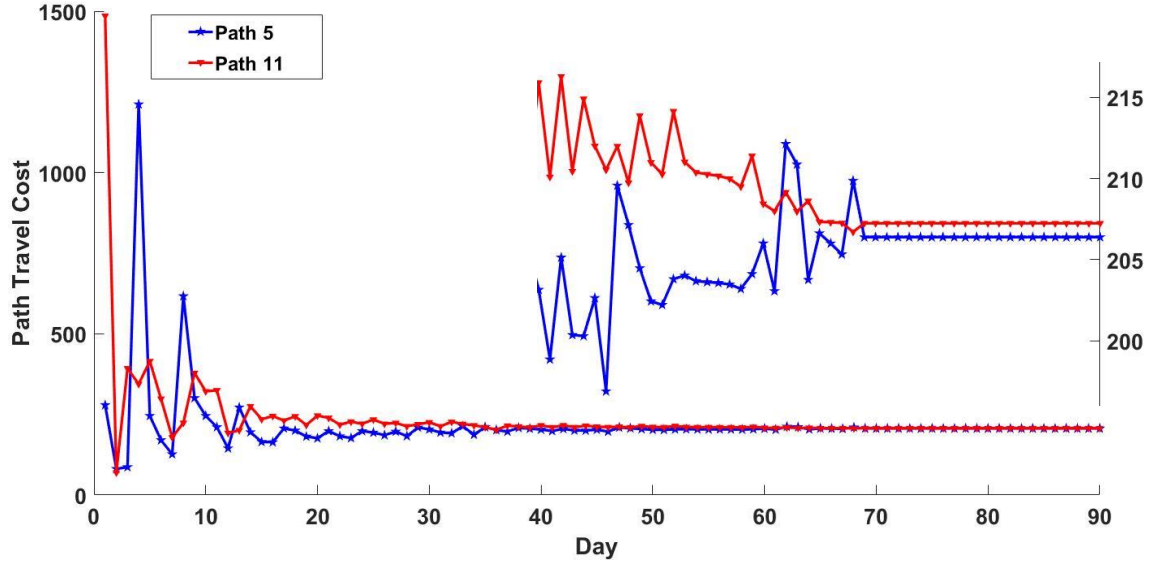
Figure 7: Path flow evolution trajectories over the planning period



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(a) Travel cost of path 1 and path 4



(b) Travel cost of path 5 and path 11

Figure 8: Path travel cost evolution trajectories over the planning period

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The result of this numerical test verifies the validity of the proposed model and algorithm. After the implementation/adjustment of a congestion pricing scheme, the network flows cannot achieve an equilibrium state overnight, thus it is problematic to take the equilibrium-based indexes as the pricing objective. Therefore, the concept of robust optimization is taken for the congestion toll determination problem, which takes into account the network performance of each day. For each day, it has an optimal toll pattern which minimizes the *ETTC* of that day, and thus has a relevant regret of that day. The objective is to find one robust optimal toll pattern which minimizes the maximal regret in the whole planning period. We can see from Figure 7 and Figure 8 that the path travel cost will be stable and equal for each OD pair after a certain period of days (which is 70-days in this small test network), and the flows of internal paths is much lesser than the external paths because of the tolls in the cordon areas. This result is also consistent with travelers' day-to-day route choice adjustment and learning behaviors.

7. Conclusion

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This paper solves the robust optimization problem for nonlinear distance-based congestion tolls in a network considering stochastic day-to-day dynamics. After an implementation/adjustment of a congestion pricing scheme, the network flows in a certain period of days are not on an equilibrium state, thus it is problematic to take the equilibrium-based indexes as the pricing objective. Therefore, the concept of robust optimization is taken for the congestion toll determination problem, which takes into account the network performance of each day. Hence, a minimax model which minimizes the maximum regret on each day is proposed. Taking as a constraint of the

657 minimax model, a path-based stochastic day to day dynamics model is proposed. Note
658 that this minimax model is a bi-level programming model, with the upper level of
659 minimizing the maximum regret and lower level of day-to-day dynamics processes.
660 Due to the implicitness of the flow map function, it is difficult to solve this minimax model
661 by exact algorithms. Therefore, a two-phase ABC algorithm is developed to solve the
662 bi-level model in this paper, of which the first phase solves the minimal total travel cost
663 for each day and the second phase handles the minimax robust optimization problem.

664

665 For further researches on day-to-day dynamic pricing, several extensions need to be
666 considered. On the one hand, the path flow adjustment ratio should be calibrated from
667 real world data, one of which is social media data (Rashidi et al., 2017). On the other
668 hand, efficiency, environment, as well as equity issues should be taken into
669 consideration at the same time in the optimal toll design of congestion pricing problem.
670 The distance-based tolls addressed in this paper are path-based, yet it is of considerable
671 interest to further investigate the link-based distance tolls that is additive to the links.
672 As a future work, the methodology and concepts provided in this paper are worthwhile
673 to further study such sort of link-based distance tolls.

674

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679

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832 **Appendix**

833 Table A: List of terminologies

ABC	Artificial bee colony
ERP	Electronic road pricing
ETTC	Expected total travel cost
GA	Genetic algorithm
SSO	Stochastic system optimum
SUE	Stochastic user equilibrium
TTC	Total travel cost

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