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Transportation Research Procedia 12 (2016) 26 - 39



The 9th International Conference on City Logistics, Tenerife, Canary Islands (Spain), 17-19 June 2015

Synchronized multi-trip multi-traffic pickup & delivery in city logistics

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Abstract

The paper introduces the first methodology addressing with a single fleet of vehicles the routing of the three different types of transportation demands encountered in City Logistics, inbound, outbound and intra-city traffic. We propose a tabu search meta-heuristic calling on various neighbourhoods, dynamically selected, to provide an efficient search combining exploration and exploitation capabilities. The result analysis of extensive computational experiments qualify the impact of a number of major problem characteristics and search strategies on the quality of the meta-heuristic, the behaviour of the solutions, and the management of the City Logistics system.

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Peer-review under responsibility of the organising committee of the 9th International Conference on City Logistics

Keywords: Vehicle routing, pickup and delivery, synchronization, inbound, outbound and intra-city City Logistics transport, tabu search

1. Introduction

Most City Logistics (CL) literature and projects address inbound movements only, reflecting the dominant position the traffic proceeding from the exterior of the city towards its centre occupies within the travel patterns observed in most cities. Yet, the volumes of freight produced within the city and shipped to locations within or

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outside it may be significant. Moreover, addressing the needs of these different types of transportation demands in a comprehensive manner and with a unique fleet of vehicles, may greatly contribute to achieve the CL mobility, environmental, and quality-of-life objectives. It is therefore relevant to investigate the possible integration of these traffic types into "normal" CL operations. The goal of this paper is to contribute to this investigation.

To our best knowledge, Crainic *et al.* (2012) were the first to investigate this issue within the context of twotiered City Logistics systems (Crainic *et al.*, 2009). They examined, at a conceptual level, several integration strategies of three types of traffic, the *customer-to-customer* (*c2c* for traffic with origin and destination at customers located within the CL-controlled part of the city, i.e., the city centre), the *customer-to-external zone* (*c2e* from the city centre to destinations outside the city limits), and the "classical" *external zone-to-customer* (*e2c*). They discussed methodological and managerial challenges associated to the integration, but no problem definition was provided, nor any modelling or algorithmic contribution. We formally introduce and define the *Multi-trip Multitraffic Pickup and Delivery Problem with Time Windows and Synchronization* (*MTT-PDTWS*) addressing the three traffic types.

The first algorithm for the MTT-PDTWS is our second contribution. We extend the work of Nguyen *et al.* (2013, 2015a) to address the challenges of integrating c2c operations into route planning. Computational results are discussed to qualify the impact of a number of major problem characteristics, parameters and search strategies on the quality of the meta-heuristic, the behaviour of the solutions, and the management of the City Logistics system.

The paper is structured as follows. We define the problem and set it within the literature in next section. The tabu search meta-heuristic and its components are presented next, followed by the section dedicated to the experimental results, and the conclusion.

2. Problem Description

In the MTT-PDTWS, a homogeneous fleet of vehicles of capacity Q operates out of a single garage g to perform multiple-tour delivery and pickup routes servicing three types of customer requests: e2c, c2e and c2c. The MTT-PDTWS is a new variant in the vehicle routing problem class, the original characteristics setting it apart from and generalizing most *Vehicle Routing Problems with Backhauls* (e.g., Cherkesly *et al.*, 2014; Vidal *et al.*, 2014) being 1) multicommodity demand defined as time-dependent origin-to-destination customer requests; 2) synchronization of activities at facilities; and 3) multi-tour routes.

We model the time-dependency characterizing demand and operations in the MTT-PDTWS through time windows. We first model facilities, which become available to receive vehicles for loading and unloading operations at particular time periods only. Such facilities correspond to the main City Distribution Centre/Platform for singletier City Logistics and to satellites for two-tier ones. A particular set of loads destined to specific customers may be available at each such time period to be taken away and distributed. Then, as a given facility may be open at several moments during the schedule length considered, with a different set of loads at each occurrence, we define supply points as particular combinations of facilities and availability time periods. Each supply point $s \in S$ has a no-wait, hard opening time window $[t(s) - \eta, t(s)]$ specifying the earliest and latest times a vehicle may arrive at *s*, respectively. The vehicle may stop at a waiting station (e.g., a parking lot) $w \in W$ before moving to *s*.

The second time-dependency phenomenon concerns customers requesting different services: 1) receive e2c loads from different supply points, possibly within different time windows; 2) ask for c2e loads to be picked up and transported to one of a given subset of supply points; 3) specific pairs of customers may ship c2c loads between them. Each customer may require more than one of these three service types. We model this time dependency by identifying each particular load as a customer demand and defining 1) The set of *delivery-customer demands*, $d \in C^{D}$, each being characterized by the supply point where it is available, the customer it must be delivered to, and the time window when the delivery must be performed; 2) The set of *pickup-customer demands*, $p \in C^{P}$, each characterized by the customer shipping it and the time window within which the pickup must be performed, as well as by the set of admissible supply points $S_p \in S$ to which the load may be delivered, the choice of a particular one being part of the decisions characterizing the MTT-PDTWS; and 3) The set $(\overline{p}, \overline{d}) \in \mathcal{R}$ of *c2c-customer demands*, each request requiring a load to be transported from a *c2c-pickup-customer* demand $\overline{p} \in C_{c2c}^{P}$ to a *c2c-deliverycustomer* demand $\overline{d} \in C_{c2c}^{D}$. Let $(i, q_i, \delta(i), [e_i, l_i])$ stand for the quantity $q_i > 0$ $(q_{\overline{p}} = -q_{\overline{d}}$ for $(\overline{p}, \overline{d}) \in \mathcal{R})$ to be delivered or picked up at the customer demand $i \in C^P \cup C^D \cup C^P_{c2c} \cup C^D_{c2c}$ within its hard time window $[e_i, l_i]$, with a service time $\delta(i)$.

The different types of customer transportation requests and the representation introduced above of the corresponding demands earns the MTT-PDTWS the "multi-traffic" attribute, each type of customer demand representing a traffic flow (i.e., freight movement) moving either in, out, or through the city.

Each supply point s may service a group of either pickup-customer demands $C_s^P \subseteq C^P$, or delivery-customer demands $C_s^D \subseteq C^D$, or both. The loads collected from pickup-customer demands in C_s^P are brought to s during one of its time windows. Similarly, the freight to be delivered to delivery-customer demands in C_s^D has to be loaded at s during the time window. This leads to the division of the city into a number of time-dependent customer zones (hence, the multiple zones of the title), each serviced by a unique supply point. Let $\varphi(s)$ and $\varphi'(s)$ be the times required, to load and unload a vehicle at s, respectively.

Let a *c2c leg* be a route servicing one or a sequence of requests following the last-in-first-out (LIFO) policy to ensure that no handling is required while unloading freight from the vehicle. Let a *pickup* or *delivery leg* be a route that links one or a sequence of pickup- or delivery-customer demands, respectively, and a supply point. Fig. 1 represents the possible vehicle loading and unloading activities at supply point *s*, the dashed lines standing for empty moves. Fig. 1a and 1b depict the case of pickup legs with "unload only" operations when the vehicle arrives with the collected freight from pickup-customer demands, unloads it and leaves empty for its next tour or the garage to end its activity. The two instances differ in the level of synchronization only. The vehicle goes directly to the supply point from the last serviced customer demand if it can arrive within the time window $[t(s) - \eta, t(s)]$ (Fig. 1a), or waits at waiting station w_I for the facility to open (Fig. 1b), otherwise. Fig. 1c represents a delivery leg with the "load only" case when the vehicle arrives empty and loads. Fig. 1d and 1e depict instances of "unload & load" operations, when the vehicle performs a pickup leg (unloading all the freight collected from pickup-customer demands), then a delivery leg (loads freight and delivers it to the designated delivery-customer demands) at *s*.



Fig. 1. Activities at supply points.

A sequence of legs, starting and ending at the garage and performed by a single vehicle, is called a *work assignment*. Vehicles operate according to the *Pseudo-Backhaul* strategy (Crainic *et al.*, 2012), in which a leg must be completed before another one may start.

Fig. 2 illustrates a six-leg work assignment, where s_1, s_2, s_3 are supply points, g and w_1 are the garage and waiting station, respectively, $C_{s_1}^{D} = \{d_1, d_2, ..., d_5\}$, $C_{s_2}^{P} = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_5\}$, $C_{s_2}^{D} = \{d_6, d_7, ..., d_{11}\}$, $C_{s_3}^{P} = \{p_6, p_7, ..., p_{10}\}$ and $C_{s_3}^{D} = \{d_{12}, ..., d_{15}\}$ are pickup- and delivery-customer demand sets, and $(\overline{p_1}, d_1)$, $(\overline{p_2}, d_2)$, $(\overline{p_3}, \overline{d_3})$, $(\overline{p_4}, \overline{d_4}), (\overline{p_5}, \overline{d_5}) \in \mathcal{R}$ with c2c-pickup-customer demands $\overline{p_1}, ..., \overline{p_5} \in C_{c2c}^{P}$ and c2c-delivery-customer demands $\overline{d_1}, ..., \overline{d_5} \in C_{c2c}^{D}$. Dashed lines stand for empty travel. The vehicle operating this work assignment performs a sequence of six legs $\{r_1, r_2, ..., r_6\}$ where $r_1 = \{s_1, d_1, d_3, d_4\}$ and $r_2 = \{s_2, d_6, d_7, d_9, d_8\}$ are delivery legs, $r_3 = \{p_1, p_3, p_4, w_1, s_2\}$ and $r_4 = \{p_6, p_8, p_7, s_3\}$ are pickup legs, $r_5 = \{\overline{p_4}, \overline{p_3}, \overline{d_3}, \overline{p_5}, \overline{d_5}, \overline{d_4}\}$ and $r_6 = \{\overline{p_1}, \overline{p_2}, \overline{d_2}, \overline{d_1}\}$ are c2c legs. The vehicle first moves empty out of the garage g to supply point s_1 and starts loading delivery demands. After loading for a time $\varphi(s_1)$, it leaves s_1 to service delivery-customer demands (d_1, d_3, d_4) in $C_{s_1}^{D}$, then moves empty to pickup customer zone $C_{s_2}^{P}$ for collecting freight at pickup-customer demands (p_1, p_3, p_4) . For synchronization reasons, the vehicle goes from customer demand p_4 to the waiting station w_1 and waits there in order to arrive at s_2 within its opening time window. Once at s_2 (at some arrival time t), it unloads for a duration of $\varphi'(s_2)$, loads from time $t + \varphi'(s_2)$ for a duration $\varphi(s_2)$, and leaves s_2 to service delivery-customer demands

 (d_6, d_7, d_9, d_8) in $C_{s_2}^D$. After servicing customer demand d_8 , it services three requests $(\overline{p_3}, \overline{d_3}), (\overline{p_4}, \overline{d_4}), (\overline{p_5}, \overline{d_5})$, in the LIFO order $(\overline{p_4}, \overline{p_3}, \overline{d_3}, \overline{p_5}, \overline{d_5}, \overline{d_4})$. The vehicle then moves empty to the next pickup customer zone $C_{s_3}^P$. There, after loading freight at pickup-customer demands (p_6, p_8, p_7) , the vehicle moves to supply point s_3 within its opening time window. Once at s_3 , the vehicle starts unloading freight for a duration of $\varphi'(s_3)$. The vehicle finally executes its last c2c leg, collecting freight at $(\overline{p_1}, \overline{p_2})$ and delivering it to their c2c-delivery-customer demands $(\overline{d_2}, \overline{d_1})$. At the end, the vehicle moves empty back to g to complete its work assignment.



Fig. 2. An integrated route illustration.

Let *F* stand for the fixed cost for operating a vehicle, c_{ij} the cost associated with each pair of sites (supply points, waiting stations, and customer demands), and $i, j \in \{g \cup C^D \cup C^P \cup C^P_{c2c} \cup C^D_{c2c} \cup S \cup W\}$ making up the set of nodes of the complete space-time network describing the problem. The MTT-PDTWS (see Nguyen *et al.*, 2015b, for a complete mathematical model) can then be seen as the problem of (1) assigning pickup-customer demands to supply points, and (2) selecting a set of work assignments (pickup, delivery and c2c legs), each to be performed by one vehicle. The objective is to minimize the total cost, made up of the routing cost of operating the work assignments and the fixed cost of using the vehicles, while the following conditions are satisfied:

- Every vehicle starts and ends its work assignment (leg sequence) at the garage g;
- Each pickup-customer demand p is assigned to exactly one supply point $s \in S_p$;
- Every vehicle required to service (1) customer demands in $C_s^P \cup C_s^D$ must reach the supply point $s \in S$ within its hard time window (it may wait at a waiting station, eventually); (2) customer demands in $C_{c2c}^P \cup C_{c2c}^D$ must satisfy the LIFO policy;
- Every customer demand $i \in C^P \cup C^D \cup C_P^{c2c} \cup C_D^{c2c}$ is visited by exactly one vehicle (it belongs to exactly one leg) with a total load not exceeding Q, and is serviced within its hard time window.

Putting aside for a moment the synchronization of vehicles at supply points, it is easy to see the relations between the MTT-PDTWS and the Pickup and Delivery problem classes. The latter has been extensively studied, see, e.g., the surveys by Savelsbergh and Solomon, 1995 and Berbeglia *et al.*, 2007, 2010; and the book by Toth and Vigo, 2014). Based on the difference in the sequence of customer service, Parragh *et al.* (2008) divided this class into two subclasses: the first refers to transportation of goods from the depot to delivery customers and from pickup customers to the depot (e.g., Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP) with Backhauls, VRP with Mixed Linehauls and Backhauls, VRP with Simultaneous Delivery and Pickup), while the second refers to those problems where goods are transported between pickup and delivery locations (e.g., Dial-a-Ride problem, Capacitated Pickup and Delivery Traveling Salesman Problem). The MTT-PDTWS addresses both subclasses, where the pickup and delivery legs represent the former, while the c2c legs stand for the latter, making the problem significantly more difficult to solve.

The MTT-PDTWS also generalizes the routing problems typically studied in the City Logistics literature. It extends, in particular, the Time-dependent Multi-zone Multi-trip Vehicle Routing problem with Time Windows (TMZT-VRPTW; Crainic *et al.* 2009; Nguyen *et al.*, 2013) and the Multi-trip Pickup and Delivery Problem with Time Windows and Synchronization (MT-PDTWS; Nguyen *et al.*, 2015a) by integrating the three main types of

customer requests. The MTT-PDTWS thus brings the literature closer to the actual requirements of a City Logistics system.

3. Solution Method

We propose a tabu search meta-heuristic for the MTT-PDTWS. It extends the solution method of Nguyen *et al.* (2015a) for the MT-PDTWS to address the challenges of treating c2c operations. New neighbourhoods are thus proposed tackling the movements within c2c legs, and between these and the other two types of legs.

3.1. General structure

The overall structure of the MTT-PDTWS tabu search algorithm is given in Algorithm 1. An initial feasible solution z is generated first using a greedy method seeking to fully utilize vehicles and minimize the total cost. At each iteration of the TS method, one neighbourhood is selected probabilistically based on the current value of the neighbourhood-selection parameter \overline{r} , then the selected neighbourhood is explored, and the best move is chosen (lines 5-6; an aspiration criterion is used). The algorithm adds the new solution to an elite set \mathcal{E} when it improves z_{best} , records the corresponding value of the parameter \overline{r} , and updates the elite set \mathcal{E} by removing a solution based on its value and the difference between solutions (lines 9-10).

| 1 | Generate an initial feasible solution z |
|----|--|
| 2 | $z_{best} \leftarrow z$; Elite set $\mathcal{E} \leftarrow \emptyset$; STOP \leftarrow False |
| 3 | Probability of selecting routing neighbourhoods relative to leg neighbourhoods $\overline{r} \leftarrow 1$ |
| 4 | repeat |
| 5 | Select a neighbourhood based on the value of \overline{r} ; |
| 6 | Find the best solution z' in the selected neighbourhood of z ; |
| 7 | if z' is better than z _{best} then |
| 8 | $z_{best} \leftarrow z';$ |
| 9 | $\overline{r}_{best} \leftarrow \overline{r};$ |
| 10 | Add $(z_{best}, \overline{r}_{best})$ to the elite set \mathcal{E} ; update \mathcal{E} ; |
| 11 | end if |
| 12 | $z \leftarrow z';$ |
| 13 | if z_{best} not improved for IT_{cNS} iterations then |
| 14 | if z_{best} not improved for C_{cNS} consecutive executions of <i>Control</i> procedure then |
| 15 | if $\mathcal{E} = \emptyset$, $STOP \leftarrow True;$ |
| 16 | else |
| 17 | Select randomly $(z, \overline{r_z})$ (and remove it) from the elite set \mathcal{E} ; |
| 18 | Diversify the current solution <i>z</i> ; |
| 19 | Set $\overline{r} \leftarrow \overline{r_z}$ and reset tabu list; |
| 20 | end if |
| 21 | else |
| 22 | Apply <i>Control</i> procedure to update the value of \overline{r} ; |
| 23 | $Z \leftarrow Z_{best};$ |
| 24 | end if |
| 25 | end if |
| 26 | until STOP; |
| 27 | $z_{best} \leftarrow Post - optimization(z_{best});$ |
| 28 | Return z_{best} . |

Fig. 3. Algorithm 1. The Tabu Search meta-heuristic for the MTT-PDTWS.

Initially, the search freely explores the solution space by assigning the same selection probability ($\overline{r} = 1$)to each neighbourhood. Whenever the best TS solution z_{best} is not improved for IT_{cNS} TS iterations (line 13), the *Control* procedure reduces the probability \overline{r} of selecting leg neighbourhood (line 22). Routing neighbourhoods are then proportionally selected more often, giving customer moves more opportunity to fully optimize routes. The search is re-initialized from the current best TS solution z_{best} after the execution of the *Control* procedure (line 23). Moreover, after C_{cNS} consecutive executions of this procedure without improving the current best solution, a solution z is selected randomly (and removed) from the elite set, the value of \overline{r} is reset to the value it had when the corresponding elite solution was found, the tabu lists are set to the empty state, and a Diversification mechanism is applied to perturb z (lines 17-19). The search then proceedure is performed to potentially improve the current best solution z_{best} .

3.2. Search space

We allow the search to explore infeasible solutions with respect to the vehicle capacity and the time windows of customer demands and supply points, infeasible solutions being penalized proportionally to the violations of these restrictions.

For a solution z, c(z) stands for the total traveling cost, q(z) for the vehicle-load violation, $w_c(z) = \sum_{i \in z} \max\{(a_i - l_i), 0\}$ and $w_s(z) = \sum_{s \in z} \max\{t(s) - \eta - a_s, a_s - t(s), 0\}$ for the time-window violations at customer demands and supply points, respectively (with a_i and a_s as the arrival times at customer demand *i* and supply point *s*, respectively). Let L_{io} be the set of pickup and delivery legs, L_{c2c} the set of c2c legs, and $L = (i_0, i_1, ..., i_k)$ a leg in solution *z*. The vehicle load violation for a leg is $q(L) = \max\{\sum_{i \in L'} q_i - Q, 0\}$, when $L \in L_{io}$, and $q(L) = \sum_{j=0}^{k} \max\{load(i_j) - Q, 0\}$, when $leg \ L \in L_{c2c}$, the vehicle load must be computed after node visit $(load(i_j) = load(i_{j-1}) + q_{i_j}, 1 \le j \le k$, with $load(i_0) = q_{i_0}$). The violation for solution *z* then is $q(z) = \sum_{L \in \{L_{c2c} \cup L_{io}\}} q(L)$. The solution *z* is evaluated according to the weighted fitness function $f(z) = c(z) + \alpha^Q q(z) + \alpha^C w_c(z) + \alpha^C w_c(z)$.

The solution z is evaluated according to the weighted fitness function $f(z) = c(z) + \alpha^{c}q(z) + \alpha^{c}w_{c}(z) + \alpha^{s}w_{s}(z) + F * m$, where m is the current number of vehicles used and α^{Q} , α^{C} , α^{S} are penalty parameters adjusted dynamically during the search (Cordeau *et al.*, 2001). The values of α^{Q} , α^{C} , α^{S} are modified at each iteration. Each is either multiplied by $1 + \beta > 1$, when the current solution is feasible with respect to the corresponding restriction, or it is divided by $1 + \beta$; otherwise.

3.3. Initial solution

To obtain an initial solution, the supply points are sorted and indexed in increasing order of their opening times $(t(s_1) \le t(s_2) \leftrightarrow s_1 < s_2)$. We first assign each pickup-customer demand to a supply point by using the strategy in Nguyen *et al.* (2015a), aiming to balance the pickup and delivery demands at supply points, thus increasing the possibility of "unload & load" activities, which then helps to reduce empty movements. Each work assignment of the initial solution is then built sequentially. First, the supply point *s* with earliest opening time and unserviced customer demands is assigned as the initial supply point of the first leg of the current work assignment. Next, one or a sequence of legs between *s* and either another supply point *s'* or the garage *g* is created using the greedy algorithm described below. If these leg(s) end at a supply point *s'*, the greedy algorithm is applied again to build the next leg(s) with *s'* as the initial supply point. Otherwise (the first created leg(s) end at the garage), the current work assignment is completed, and a new one is initiated. If all pickup- and delivery-customer demands are serviced but unserviced c2c-customer demands still exist, the greedy algorithm is used to create new work assignment(s) servicing them. The process is repeated until all customer demands are serviced (assigned to a vehicle route).

The greedy algorithm builds legs for a given supply point s by first identifying the set of supply points $S' = \{s' \in S | s' \text{ with unserviced customer demands and } t(s') > t(s)\}$, and then proceeds for each pair (s, s') (when $S' \neq \emptyset$). Currently unassigned customer demands are candidates for insertion into the leg, which is attempted in the order 1) c2c-customer demands, 2) pickup-customer demands of s, 3) delivery-customer demands of s, 4) c2c-customer demands and 5) pickup-customer demands of s' (Fig. 4). Time windows at supply points and customer demands, distances between them, and vehicle capacity restrict the generation.



Fig.4. Generating a sequence of legs between two supply points.

Customer demands are assigned by applying the I1 heuristic of Solomon (1987) until the vehicle is full, the treatment of c2c requests $(\overline{p}, \overline{d})$ being more complicated as two customer demands \overline{p} and \overline{d} , have to be inserted under the LIFO rule. More precisely, the feasible positions for the c2c-pickup-customer demand \overline{p} are first computed, \overline{p} is inserted at the first position found, and the best feasible insertion for \overline{d} is determined using the heuristic I1 of Solomon (1987). The process is reiterated with the second position found for \overline{p} , and so on until all feasible positions for \overline{p} are tried out and the best insertion is identified.

The leg with the smallest average unit cost (ratio total traveling time over total demand carried by the vehicle between s and s; demand = 1 for empty legs) among the feasible legs generated between all pairs of (s, s') pairs is assigned to the current work assignment. When there are no feasible legs or $S' = \emptyset$, the greedy algorithm builds the last leg (s, g) by applying the heuristic I1 of Solomon (1987).

3.4. Neighbourhoods

A solution to the MTT-PDTWS is a set of work assignments, which consist of sequences of legs, which are sequences of customer demands. We thus define two types of neighbourhoods, routing to change the sequence of customer demands in at least one leg, and leg to change the sequence of legs in at least one work assignment. The (re)assignments of pickup-customer demands to supply points are performed within these neighbourhoods. Due to the limited space of the paper, we focus on the new developments addressing c2c demands.

Routing neighbourhoods execute different intra- and inter-route moves on customer demands. The *Relocation*, *Exchange* and *2-opt* neighbourhoods for pickup- and delivery-customer demands were defined in Nguyen *et al.* (2015a). Two new ones are introduced for c2c-customer demands:

- Relocation move considered for each request (p, d) and c2c-customer demand x ≠ p, d (x is either a c2c-pickupor a c2c-delivery-customer demand, belonging to the same or a different leg with respect to (p, d). We shift p from its current position to the position after x, and d is then relocated to a position in the same leg such that the LIFO constraint is satisfied and the fitness of the solution after the move is minimized.
- Exchange move concerns two requests $(\overline{p_1}, \overline{d_1})$ and $(\overline{p_2}, \overline{d_2})$. Let pos(i) give the position of i in the leg. Three alternatives are considered: 1) swap the positions of $\overline{p_1}$ and $\overline{p_2}$, and of $\overline{d_1}$ and $\overline{d_2}$; 2) place $\overline{p_1}$ at $pos(\overline{p_2})$ and $\overline{d_1}$ at $pos(\overline{d_2})$, then place $(\overline{p_2}, \overline{d_2})$ at either $pos(\overline{p_1})$ or $pos(\overline{d_1})$; 3) place $\overline{p_2}$ at $pos(\overline{p_1})$ and $\overline{d_2}$ at $pos(\overline{d_1})$, then place $(\overline{p_1}, \overline{d_1})$ at either $pos(\overline{d_2})$.

Two *leg neighbourhoods* focus on repositioning supply points, and the legs assigned to them, between work assignments: *Relocate supply point* to move a supply point, and the legs and customer demands assigned to it, from their current work assignment to another work assignment, and *Exchange supply point* to swap two supply points, and the customer demands assigned to them between two work assignments. Nguyen *et al.* (2015a) details the procedures for pickup and delivery legs, which are assigned to the supply points where the vehicle returns the collected freight and loads new freight, respectively. Two possibilities are evaluated in the MTT-PDTWS for each c2c leg, enriching the neighbourhoods: consider it for repositioning together with the supply points or not. In the former case, one must determine to which supply point to assign the c2c leg. Fig. 5 and 6 depict all possible positions of a c2c leg within a work assignment. When in first (Fig. 5(a)) or last position (Fig. 5(b)) of a work assignment, it is assigned to the first (last) supply point *s* of the work assignment. Otherwise, it is in a middle position between two supply points *s* and *s'* (Fig. 6) and assignments to both are evaluated.



Fig. 5.First position c2c leg; (b) Last position c2c leg.



Fig. 6. Middle position c2c leg.

The tabu search meta-heuristic explores the solution space of MTT-PDTWS selecting probabilistically, at each iteration, one of the ten neighbourhoods described previously. Routing and leg neighbourhoods receive the selection probabilities $\overline{r}/(2+8\overline{r})$ and $1/(2+8\overline{r})$, respectively. At the beginning of the search, leg and routing neighbourhoods receive the same selection probability (setting $\overline{r} = 1$), to allow the algorithm to freely explore the solution space. Given that the number of supply points is much smaller than the number of customer demands in most MTT-PDTWS instances, the algorithm should perform more customer than leg moves to ensure adequate optimization of routes. Consequently, after the initial phase, the probability of selecting leg neighbourhoods becomes gradually lower than the probability of selecting routing moves. The neighbourhood selection probability is controlled by the parameter \overline{r} . The *Control* procedure varies the value of \overline{r} during execution to monotonically reduce (increase) the probability of selecting leg (routing) neighbourhoods after each IT_{cNS} iterations without improvement in the best solution. A linear scheme $\overline{r}_{new} = \overline{r}_{last} + \Delta \overline{r}$ is used, where $\Delta \overline{r}$ is a user-defined parameter.

We use five tabu lists, one for each type of routing and leg move. A tabu status is assigned to each tabu list element forbidding for θ iterations to change its new position, unless it would improve the current best solution (aspiration criterion). The tabu duration θ is randomly selected (uniform distribution) from a particular interval.

There are O(m'|S|) possible leg moves. The interval for leg moves is then set to $[m'|S|/a_1, m'|S|/a_2]$, where m' is the number of vehicles used in the initial solution, and $a_1 > a_2$ are user-defined parameters. The intervals for routing moves are specific for delivery-customer demands, $[a_3\log_{10} |C_s^D|, a_4\log_{10} |C_s^D|]$, pickup-customer demands, $[a_3\log_{10} |C_s^D|, a_4\log_{10} |C_s^D|]$, pickup-customer demands, $[a_7\log_{10}(|C^{c2c}|), a_8\log_{10}(|C^{c2c}|)]$, where $a_3 < a_4$, $a_5 < a_6$, $a_7 < a_8$ are user-defined parameters. The number of iterations during which a delivery-customer demand routing move within the delivery zone of a supply point s remains tabu is only counted each time the algorithm deals with delivery-customer demands in that zone.

3.5. Diversification strategy

Diversification is triggered after a number of iterations without improvement in the current best solution, to direct the search to potentially unexplored promising regions. The procedure uses an elite set and a frequency-based memory.

The elite set is a diversified pool of high-quality solutions found during the tabu search. The elite set starts empty and is limited in size. The quality and diversity of the elite set is controlled by the insertion of new best solutions z_{best} produced by the search and the elimination of solutions in the elite set. The elimination is based on the Hamming distance computed according to Equation (1), where T(cond) is a valuation function that returns 1 if the condition *cond* is true, 0, otherwise; $N_z[i]$ is the next place (i.e., a customer demand, the garage, or a supply point) visited by the vehicle after servicing customer demand *i* in solution *z*; and $S_z[i]$ is the supply point assigned to pickup-customer demand *i* in solution *z*. The solution *z* most similar to the newly inserted z_{best} , i.e., the one with the smallest $\Delta(z, z_{best})$, is eliminated (when the elite set is not full, elimination occurs only when the similarity is very strong, $\Delta(z, z_{best}) \leq 0.05(|C^{D}| + 2|C^{P}| + |C^{P}_{c2c}| + |C^{D}_{c2c}| + |S|)$.

$$\Delta(z_1, z_2) = \sum_{i \in C^P \cup C^D \cup C^P_{C2C} \cup C^D_{C2C}} T(N_{z_1}[i] \neq N_{z_2}[i]) + \sum_{i \in C^P} T(S_{z_1}[i] \neq S_{z_2}[i])(1)$$

The long-term frequency memory keeps a history of the arcs most frequently added to the current solution as well as the supply-point assignments of pickup-customer demands most frequently used. Diversification then proceeds to perturb the search that starts from the solution taken from the elite set by removing arcs with high frequency and inserting arcs with low frequency and promoting never-seen supply-point assignments (see Nguyen *et al.*, 2015b, for details). The diversification mechanism is executed IT_{div} iterations.

3.6. Post optimization

The best solution obtained through the tabu search is enhanced by applying a local search *Supply-point-improvement* procedure followed by a *Leg-improvement procedure*. The former assigns a new supply point to each pickup-customer demand, keeping those that actually improve the solution. The latter aims to improve routing through inter- and intra-route moves applied to legs of the solution. For pickup and delivery legs, two intra-route operators, the 2-opt of Lin (1965) and the Or-opt of Or (1976), and two inter-route operators, the λ -interchange of Osman (1993) where $\lambda = \{1, 2\}$, and the CROSS-exchange of Taillard *et al.* (1997), are used. More details could be found in Nguyen *et al.* (2015a). For c2c legs, four operators are used either within one leg or between two legs:

- Request relocate moves a request (p, d). First, p and d are removed from their current positions. Next, feasible positions for p are computed. p is then inserted at the first position found, and the best feasible insertion for d is determined. The process is repeated with the second position found for p, and so on until all feasible positions for p have been tried out. The best relocation is executed if it improves the solution.
- *Request exchange* for two requests $(\overline{p_1}, \overline{d_1})$ and $(\overline{p_2}, \overline{d_2})$. It works as described in the *Exchange move* in Section Neighbourhoods. All relocations of the two requests are considered and the best one is implemented if it improves the solution.
- *Multiple request relocate.* For each request $(\overline{p}, \overline{d})$, it moves the sequence of requests starting at \overline{p} and ending at \overline{d} (Fig. 7), and executes the best relocation if it improves the solution.
- Multiple request exchange. Exchanges, for each pair $(\overline{p_1}, \overline{d_1})$ and $(\overline{p_2}, \overline{d_2})$, two sequences of requests, one starting at $\overline{p_1}$ and ending at $\overline{d_1}$, the other starting at $\overline{p_2}$ and ending at $\overline{d_2}$. When the two requests belong to the same c2c leg, they do not overlap (Fig. 8).



Fig. 7. (a) Initial leg; (b) New legs created by multiple request relocate on $(\overline{p}, \overline{d})$.



Fig. 8. (a) Initial leg; (b) New leg from multiple request exchange on $(\overline{p_1}, \overline{d_1})$ and $(\overline{p_2}, \overline{d_2})$.

4. Experiments

We study the impact of a number of major problem characteristics and search strategies on the quality of the meta-heuristic, the behaviour of the solutions, and the management of the CL system.

The instance set consists of the two sets A1 and A2, with 15 instances each, proposed by Nguyen *et al.* (2015a) for the MT-PDTWS, to which we add $(|C^P| + |C^D|)/3$ c2c requests (Nguyen *et al.*, 2015b). Table 1 summarizes the characteristics of these instances.

| | | | Customer demand $i \in C^D \cup C^P \cup C^P_{c2c} \cup C^D_{c2c}$ | | | | | |
|----------|-----|----------|--|------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------|-------------|
| Test set | /S/ | <i>W</i> | $ C^{D} $ | $ C^{P} $ | $ \mathcal{R} $ | [X,Y] coordinates | q_i | $\delta(i)$ |
| A1 | 4 | 4 | 400 | 44 171 400 | 150 100 270 | [0 100] | [5 25] | 20 |
| A2 | 8 | 4 | 400 | 44,171,400 | 130,190,270 | [0,100] | [3,23] | 20 |

The tabu search meta-heuristic is implemented in C++. Experiments were run on a 2.8GHz Intel Xeon 4-core processor with 16GB of RAM. The user-defined parameters $(\alpha^{Q}, \alpha^{C}, \alpha^{S}, \beta, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}, a_{7}, a_{8}, \Delta \overline{r}, IT_{div}, IT_{CNS})$ were set to (1, 1, 1, 0.3, 7, 5, 6, 8, 7, 10, 5, 7, 5log₁₀ (*n*/|*S*|), *m*'|*S*| + *n*, 3*m*'|*S*| + *n*), where *m*' and *n* are the numbers of vehicles used in the initial solution and of customer demands, respectively.

4.1. Elite set calibration and diversification

Four variants of the algorithm were studied corresponding to the different ways to set an elite solution as the new working solution and the inclusion, or not, of the diversification phase. The first two variants simply select an elite solution z at random and re-start the algorithm from it. The diversification mechanism is applied in the last two variants, the alternatives being defined by the initialization of the \overline{r} parameter, which was set to either the full or half the value at which z was found, respectively (i.e., $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z$ or $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z/2$). Table 2 displays the performance comparison between the four variants with the three different values for the elite set size (1, 5, and 10). For each variant and elite-set size, the table displays the average gap of the cost of its best solution relative to the best solution of the case without the elite set and diversification, together with the corresponding average computation time in minutes over 10 runs.

| Elite | Without diversification | | | | With diversification | | | | |
|----------|---------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------|------|---------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------|------|--|
| set size | 1 st variant | | 2 nd variant | | 3 rd variant | | 4 th variant | | |
| | $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z$ | | $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z/2$ | | $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z$ | | $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z/2$ | | |
| | GAP (%) | Time | GAP (%) | Time | GAP (%) | Time | GAP (%) | Time | |
| 0 | 0 | 38 | | | | | | | |
| 1 | -0.47 | 46 | -0.49 | 67 | -1.16 | 62 | -1.18 | 87 | |
| 5 | -0.68 | 71 | -0.64 | 86 | -1.77 | 94 | -1.71 | 126 | |
| 10 | -0.82 | 106 | -0.78 | 134 | -1.79 | 152 | -1.74 | 197 | |

Table 2. Performance comparison between diversification settings

Table 1 Characteristics of the MTT-PDTWS instances

As expected, results indicate that guidance using elite solutions and diversification using long-term memory contribute significantly to improve the performance of the algorithm. Without them, the algorithm requires the lowest computation effort but produces the worst solutions compared to other variants. Comparing the two variants corresponding to the two values at which \overline{r} is reset, one observes that the solution quality is not very sensitive to this value, but computing effort is increasing when the value of \overline{r} is lower ($\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z/2$). Setting the size of the elite set to 5 achieves a better balance between solution quality and computation time, compared to a larger size of 10.

Indeed, doubling the size of the elite set improves only slightly the solution quality, 0.02%, but requires 61% more time. We therefore set the size of the elite set to 5 and reset $\overline{r} = \overline{r}_z$.

4.2. Numerical results and analyses

Table 3 displays the results obtained by the proposed tabu search meta-heuristic over 10 runs for each group of instances: average cost (Avg10 column), best solution cost (Best10), number of vehicles (#Veh), % of times vehicles move directly to supply points without using waiting stations (DM(%)), % of times vehicles perform both unload and load once they arrive at supply points (PD(%)), % of c2c-customer demands serviced by work assignments that also containing pickup- or delivery-customer demands (c2cInter(%)), and average CPU times in minutes (Time).

| Test set | Avg10 | Best10 | #Veh | DM(%) | PD(%) | c2cInter(%) | Time |
|----------|---------|----------|------|-------|-------|-------------|------|
| A1 | 31774.3 | 31524.03 | 26 | 45.65 | 38.12 | 92.75 | 115 |
| A2 | 29073.1 | 28895.85 | 21 | 48.20 | 42.03 | 96.09 | 72 |
| Average | 30423.7 | 30209.94 | 24 | 46.95 | 40.08 | 94.42 | 94 |

Table 3. Performance of TS on all instances

The experimental results in Table 3 show that the proposed meta-heuristic performs well and achieves the objective of integrating the multiple types of demands. The small differences in the values of the average and best solutions indicate the method is stable even though it includes a number of random choices. They also show that 94.42% of c2c-customer demands can be served together with pickup- and delivery-customer demands by the same vehicles. Overall, 705 vehicles are used in the 30 problem instances, operating a total of 3,881 legs, each vehicle servicing 6 legs on average, each leg consisting of 7 customer demands. Moreover, operations at supply points are balanced, vehicles performing both unload and load operations 40.08% of the times on average. This contributes to reduce not only the number of empty moves but the travel cost as well.

4.3. The benefits of combining three types of transport demand

To evaluate the value of integration, of servicing several types of travel demands with the same vehicles, we evaluated three policies: 1) e2c&c2e&c2c, all three types of customer demands serviced by the same vehicles; 2) (e2c&c2e) + c2c, pickup and delivery customer demands serviced by the same vehicles and c2c-customer demands by different vehicles; 3) e2c+c2e+c2c, disjoint service, each type of customer demand being serviced by its own set of vehicles. Table 4 compares the best solutions of these policies, displaying average results for all instances over 10 runs. The average number of vehicles, travelling cost, and total cost of the integrated policy are given in columns #Veh, Travel cost, and Total cost, respectively. Three values are displayed for each of the two other policies, giving the gaps for the same three measures relative to those of e2c&c2e&c2c.

| Test | e2c&c2e&c2c | | | (e2c&c2e) + c2c | | | e2c+c2e+c2c | | |
|---------|-------------|-------------|------------|-----------------|------|---------|-------------|-------|-------|
| set | #Veh | Travel cost | Total cost | GAP (%) | | GAP (%) | | | |
| A1 | 26 | 18557.36 | 31524.03 | 30.00 | 0.63 | 12.85 | 73.07 | 13.28 | 37.21 |
| A2 | 21 | 18362.51 | 28895.85 | 30.50 | 7.15 | 15.61 | 61.90 | 20.92 | 35.68 |
| Average | 24 | 18459.94 | 30209.94 | 30.25 | 3.89 | 14.23 | 67.49 | 17.10 | 36.45 |

Table 4. Comparison of disjoint and combined traffic types

Not surprisingly, the figures in Table 4 indicate that the more one integrates the service of different demand types, the larger the gain in performance, and the gains are impressive. Integration reduces empty movements and waiting times, and allows vehicles to perform more "unload & load" operations at supply points (i.e., increases the synchronization at supply points). As a result, the e2c&c2e&c2c strategy provides the best solutions in terms of both

the number of vehicles and the travel cost. It is noticeable that the average work assignment composition for this strategy is 6 legs, on average, as compared to 5 for the e2c+c2e case and only 4 when e2c and c2e customers are serviced separately. The intermediary strategy, where only c2c customers are handled disjointly, already shows significant deterioration in performance, particularly relative to the waiting time and costs. Without integration, the e2c+c2e+c2e+c2e strategy gives the worst solutions, with an average increase in the total cost of 36.45%.

4.4. Impact of time windows at c2c-customer demands

Each c2c-customer demand *i* in the MTT-PDTWS has a hard time window $[e_i, l_i]$, i.e., the vehicle may arrive before e_i and wait to begin service, but must not arrive later than l_i . We analyze the impact on solution quality of the time windows for c2c- customer demands, $(\overline{p}, \overline{d})$, by comparing cases with time windows and settings with due-times only.

Four variants of the problem were thus studied corresponding to the existence or not of the earliest start-ofservice times at \overline{p} and \overline{d} . Table 5 sums up the solution-quality variations for the base case with time windows for both \overline{p} and \overline{d} (the double [*sTW*, *eTW*]), to three cases where the earliest start-of-service time does not exist for \overline{p} , \overline{d} or both (single or double *eTW* column heading). The table displays the solution-quality variations in terms of the number of vehicles, travel cost, and total cost (average % over all instances) with respect to the base case. The percentage number of c2c-customer demands being serviced by work assignments including also pickup- or delivery-customer demands (*c2cInter* (%) column) is also given.

Table 5. Impact of time windows at c2c-customer demands on solution quality

| | c2c-pickup customer demands | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|------------|--------|--|--|--|
| | [sTW, eT | [W] | eTW | | | | |
| c2c-delivery customer demands | [sTW, eTW] | eTW | [sTW, eTW] | eTW | | | |
| #Vehicles (%) | 0 | -1.23 | -1.91 | -7.49 | | | |
| Travel cost (%) | 0 | -0.13 | -1.38 | -19.1 | | | |
| Total cost (%) | 0 | -0.51 | -1.56 | -15.19 | | | |
| c2cInter (%) | 94.42 | 94.62 | 96.22 | 100 | | | |

Results indicate that solutions with flexible (longer) service-period requirements at both customers making up the request are better than the cases when only one customer is flexible, the latter being better than the case when neither is flexible. For the most flexible case, all c2c-customer demands could be integrated with pickup- and delivery-customer demands in the same work assignments, eliminating the need for additional vehicles for their service. As even in the most constrained case the c2cInter percentage is very high, the gain in efficiency would have to be measured against the cost of customer flexibility.

4.5. Synchronization at supply points

In all previous experiments, the time period availability at each supply point s was characterized by one time window only $[e_s, l_s]$, used for both unloading and loading operations. In order to analyze the impact of the availability requirements without modifying the time windows at customer demands, we introduce into the model two time windows at each supply point, one for unloading and one for loading, but keep the total availability time unchanged. More precisely, we use $[e_s^u, l_s^u]$ and $[e_s^l, l_s^l]$, specifying the earliest and latest times at which a vehicle has to be available at s for unloading collected demands and loading delivery demands, respectively, where $l_s^u + \varphi'(s) \leq l_s^l$, $e_s^u = e_s$ and $l_s^l = l_s$. These time windows are defined by two parameters: the *length* of each unload and load time window (noted *len_u* and *len_l*, respectively; *len_u = len_l = L* in our experiment), and the *distance D* between e_s^l and l_s^u . The total availability time at supply points was kept to the length of the time window (100 in all instances) in the base case (single time window), and we performed three runs with (L, D) equal to (20, 60), (30, 40) and (40, 20), respectively.

Table 6 sums up the solution-quality variations (averages for all instances) for the three cases of two time windows compared to the base case. The table displays the increase (in %) in the values of the number of vehicles, travel cost, and total cost of each of the two-window variants relative to the single-window one. The % of times the vehicles both unload and load at supply points (PD(%) row) and the % of times vehicles move directly to a supply point without using waiting stations (DM(%)) are given for all variants.

Results indicate that solutions with two time windows are worse than those with one time window with respect to all performance measures. Thus, separating in time the unloading and loading operations at satellite facilities is detrimental to system performance, even when the distance is small (variant (40,20)), the performance deterioration increasing with the increase in distance and the decrease in time window length. Moreover, longer activity and waiting-time capabilities at supply points result in increased system performances, vehicles moving directly to supply points more frequently and performing more "unload & load" operations (maximum increase of 46.95% and 40.08% respectively, relative to the base case).

| | One time window | | Two time windows | |
|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| | L = 100, D = 0 | L = 20, D = 60 | L = 30, D = 40 | L = 40, D = 20 |
| #Vehicles (%) | 0 | 1.24 | 0.87 | 0.63 |
| Travel cost (%) | 0 | 2.62 | 1.04 | 0.87 |
| Total cost (%) | 0 | 2.97 | 1.83 | 1.66 |
| PD (%) | 40.08 | 33.64 | 35.27 | 36.13 |
| DM (%) | 46.95 | 42.51 | 42.96 | 44.02 |

Table 6. Impact of synchronization at supply points on solution quality

5. Conclusions

We have addressed the issue of considering simultaneously, with a single fleet, the routing requirements of the three main types of transport demand, customer-to-customer with origin and destination at customers located within the City Logistics-controlled part of the city, the customer-to-external zone from the city centre to destinations outside the city limits, and the "classical" external zone-to-customer inbound demand.

We proposed the Multi-trip Multi-traffic Pickup and Delivery Problem with Time Windows and Synchronization to address the issue. The MTT-PDTWS is a new pickup and delivery vehicle routing variant where vehicles perform routes made up of multiple sequences of visits at facilities and customers at given time moments, modelled through supply points and customer demands, respectively, under strict time synchronization restrictions. We also proposed a tabu search meta-heuristic for this problem, integrating multiple neighbourhoods targeted to the decision sets of the problem and the different pickup and delivery sequences involved.

The computational study performed on a set of benchmark instances with up to 8 supply points and 1340 customer demands, indicates that the proposed methodology achieves the goals of efficient integration of the three types of customer service. They also numerically qualify the interest of integration and of carefully designing and negotiating the time restrictions at facilities and customers.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Discovery Grant and the Discovery Accelerator Supplements Program of the Natural Science and Engineering Research Council of Canada, and the Strategic Clusters program of the Fondsquébécois de la recherche sur la nature et les technologies for supporting this research.

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