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# **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

# Hybrid Metaheuristic Approaches for the Multi-Depot Rural Postman Problem With Rechargeable and Reusable Vehicles

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**ABSTRACT** The limited battery life of unmanned autonomous vehicles and ground robots necessitates efficient routing strategies that enable periodic recharging to extend operational range. To address this issue, this paper studies an extension of the classical rural postman problem, where a fleet of rechargeable vehicles with limited battery capacity stationed at multiple depots must traverse required edges in a weighted graph through multiple trips, minimizing the total travel time. Existing heuristic approaches yield poor solutions with a high optimality gap due to the NP-hard nature of the problem. We propose a new Mixed Integer Linear Programming (MILP) formulation for the problem, which is used to obtain optimal vehicle routes and introduce new techniques to enhance existing metaheuristics, such as simulated annealing, tabu search, and genetic algorithm, to solve the problem. The routes obtained by testing the metaheuristics on benchmark and real-world instances based on roadmaps were compared to the optimal solution. Experimental results for benchmark instances showed that the simulated annealing and genetic algorithm kept the optimality gap within 1%. For real-world instances, simulated annealing and tabu search improved route quality by 54.1% and 49.9%, respectively, over routes obtained by only using heuristic approaches.

**INDEX TERMS** Multi-vehicle route planning, capacity constraints, metaheuristics, rural postman problem, rechargeable and reusable vehicles.

#### **I. INTRODUCTION**

The Multi-Depot Rural Postman Problem with Rechargeable and Reusable Vehicles (MD-RPP-RRV) addresses a critical real-world challenge - enabling efficient route planning for battery-operated unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) tasked with inspecting potentially icy road segments across a given area of interest (AOI). This problem is motivated by the need to utilize UAVs equipped with onboard sensors to inspect hazardous icy road segments, based on historical data

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<span id="page-0-0"></span>analysis and expert insights, to warn drivers and prevent accidents [\[1\].](#page-15-0)

The road network within the AOI is represented as a graph, with base stations forming a subset of nodes called depots and potentially icy road segments forming a subset of edges called required edges that need to be traversed. The research objective is to develop an optimized strategy for routing a fleet of UAVs with limited battery capacities to traverse these required edges while periodically returning to the depots for recharging. This ensures the UAVs maintain operational range, ensuring continued functionality during their inspection mission.

The MD-RPP-RRV presents an arc routing problem [\[2\]](#page-15-1) on an undirected weighted connected graph containing rechargeable vehicles with limited capacity stationed at multiple depots. The objective is to minimize the time needed to traverse the required edges of the graph at least once with a set of feasible routes for the vehicles. A vehicle can perform multiple trips; each trip begins at a depot, visits a sequence of nodes and possibly required edges, and ends at a depot, where the vehicle can recharge.

<span id="page-1-2"></span>This paper formulates the MD-RPP-RRV into a MILP model and presents simulated annealing, tabu search, and genetic algorithm metaheuristics to improve the initial solution produced by the multi-trip algorithm (MT) heuristic [\[3\]. T](#page-15-2)he MD-RPP-RRV is a challenging combinatorial optimization problem that belongs to the class of NP-hard problems (Section  $\mathbf{II}$ ). Hence, the MT heuristic solutions exhibited poor quality with an average optimality gap of 162%, necessitating the use of metaheuristics to reduce this gap. Furthermore, the paper reports on a comparative analysis of performance for optimal solutions derived from MILP formulations utilizing the Gurobi optimizer [4] [and](#page-15-3) the proposed integrated metaheuristic approaches.

The main contributions of this paper are the following:

- 1) A new class of arc routing problem called MD-RPP-RRV wherein rechargeable and reusable vehicles conduct multiple trips across various depots. While previous literature explores similar concepts in node routing problems [\[46\],](#page-16-0) [\[47\],](#page-16-1) [\[48\],](#page-16-2) [\[49\],](#page-16-3) [\[50\]](#page-16-4) and multi-trip CARP [\[21\],](#page-16-5) [\[32\], t](#page-16-6)his paper integrates rechargeability and reusability aspects for solving multi-depot arc routing problems with multiple trips.
- <span id="page-1-7"></span>2) The formulation of the problem as a MILP that can be used to find optimal routes.
- 3) Introduction of new ways to apply metaheuristics to solve the problem that notably enhances the heuristic solutions provided by the multi-trip algorithm. These metaheuristics demonstrate effectiveness across various instances, including those based on real-world roadmaps.
- 4) Experimental evaluation and comparison with optimal solutions generated by the Gurobi optimizer reveal that the simulated annealing algorithm is scalable and consistently produces reliable results for both benchmark and real-world instances.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section [II](#page-1-0) presents a literature review of related works. Section [III](#page-2-0) provides the assumptions considered and presents a MILP formulation for the MD-RPP-RRV. Section [IV](#page-3-0) briefly describes the proposed metaheuristics. Section [V](#page-9-0) provides the results obtained from testing the metaheuristics on instances for the MD-RPP-RRV. Section [VI](#page-15-4) concludes the paper.

#### <span id="page-1-0"></span>**II. LITERATURE REVIEW**

This section reviews the literature related to the MD-RPP-RRV. The MD-RPP-RRV is a variant of the Rural Postman <span id="page-1-6"></span><span id="page-1-5"></span><span id="page-1-4"></span><span id="page-1-1"></span>Problem (RPP) [\[6\], w](#page-16-7)hich is an arc routing problem that aims to find the minimum-length tour of a postman traversing a subset of arcs in a graph. Unlike the Chinese Postman Problem (CPP) that requires traversing all edges and can be solved in polynomial time [\[7\], th](#page-16-8)e RPP is proven to be NP-hard [\[8\]. Th](#page-16-9)e MD-RPP-RRV inherits the NP-hardness of the RPP, as it reduces to the RPP when considering only a single depot and restricting vehicles to a single trip, forming a Hamiltonian cycle. The MD-RPP-RRV can represent many real-world problems, such as routing vehicles optimally for snowplowing or routing UAVs to inspect leaky gas lines or finding deformed railway tracks.

<span id="page-1-13"></span><span id="page-1-12"></span>CPP and RPP are special cases of the well-studied Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP). The CARP involves efficiently servicing a street network with capacity-constrained vehicles from a central depot, with the objective of minimizing total routing costs. While numerous strategies have been developed for the single-depot CARP variant [\[29\],](#page-16-10) [\[30\],](#page-16-11) [\[33\],](#page-16-12) [\[35\],](#page-16-13) [\[36\],](#page-16-14) [\[37\], r](#page-16-15)esearch on the multi-depot CARP remains relatively scarce in the literature. The literature review focuses on the approaches developed for solving multi-depot versions of RPP and CARP, highlighting the differences from the studied problem.

<span id="page-1-23"></span><span id="page-1-22"></span><span id="page-1-21"></span><span id="page-1-20"></span><span id="page-1-19"></span><span id="page-1-18"></span><span id="page-1-17"></span><span id="page-1-16"></span><span id="page-1-15"></span><span id="page-1-14"></span><span id="page-1-10"></span><span id="page-1-8"></span><span id="page-1-3"></span>The Multi-Depot CARP (MD-CARP) [\[22\]](#page-16-16) is a variant of the classical CARP, where vehicles are stationed at multiple depots and must start and end their routes from those locations. The typical scenario involves vehicles returning to their respective depots, although variations exist where vehicles can return to any depot. MD-CARP often involves a heterogeneous fleet of vehicles and finds application in various fields, such as package delivery and waste management. Kansou and Yassine [\[24\]](#page-16-17) proposed new upper bounds for the MD-CARP by developing a new memetic algorithm based on a special crossover and an Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) metaheuristic with an insertion heuristic. Hu et al. [\[23\]](#page-16-18) proposed a Hybrid Genetic Algorithm with Perturbation (HGAP), which produced competitive solutions on MD-CARP benchmark instances compared to [\[24\]. Y](#page-16-17)u et al. [\[25\]](#page-16-19) provided several theoretical guarantees by proposing exact and constant-ratio approximation algorithms for MD-CARP.

<span id="page-1-11"></span><span id="page-1-9"></span>Polacek et al. [\[33\]](#page-16-12) explore a variant of the MD-CARP known as the CARP with Intermediate Facilities (CARP-IF). In this problem, there's one depot, but additional nodes called intermediate facilities (IF) are introduced. Vehicles start and end their routes at the depot but can recharge at any intermediate facility. These facilities can serve practical purposes like waste disposal sites or storage for winter gritting materials. The authors propose two lower bounds and two heuristics for CARP-IF. Another similar variant of CARP with mobile depots is the CARP with Refill Points (CARP-RP) which can be seen as a variation of the MD-CARP where the depots are travelling to the vehicle to recharge. In this setup, there are two types of vehicles: regular service vehicles that travel along edges to provide service and refill vehicles that travel to meet service vehicles anywhere

on the graph for refueling. Amaya et al. [\[34\]](#page-16-20) presents a mathematical model for CARP-RP and proposes a Cutting Plane algorithm to solve the problem. In the MD-CARP and its variants, the vehicles only perform single trips from multiple depots, but in MD-RPP-RRV, vehicles are recharged and reused to perform multiple trips from multiple depots.

Multi-trip CARP, where each vehicle is capable of performing multiple trips, has also been studied in the literature but with single depots, not multiple depots. Tirkolaee et al. [\[32\]](#page-16-6) created a Mixed-Integer Linear Programming model for the multi-trip CARP to minimize total costs for urban waste collection. Their model placed depots and disposal sites strategically within urban areas. To solve this, they introduced a hybrid algorithm using the Taguchi parameter design method with an Improved Max-Min Ant System (IMMAS). Their approach proved highly effective in solving both standard test problems and large-scale instances, showcasing its efficiency. An extension of this problem was studied by Tirkolaee et al. [\[21\]](#page-16-5) proposing a Hybrid Genetic Algorithm for the multi-trip green CARP with the objective of minimizing the total route cost including the cost of generation and emission of greenhouse gases and the cost of vehicle usage. Multi-trip CARP and Multi-depot CARP have been separately studied in the literature but MD-RPP-RRV combines the multi-trip and multi-depot aspects of these two problems.

<span id="page-2-3"></span>Compared to multi-trip and multi-depot variants of the CARP, Multi-Depot RPP (MD-RPP), has been less extensively studied in the literature. Fernández and Rodríguez-Pereira [\[20\]](#page-16-21) studied the MD-RPP on undirected graphs and presented a Mixed-Integer Linear Programming formulation with two different objective functions: (i) minimize total routing costs and (ii) minimizing the length of the longest route, by proposing a branch-and-cut algorithm that solves 95% and 99% of the instances optimally respectively for these objective functions. Chen et al. [\[26\]](#page-16-22) formulated the Min-Max MD-RPP (MMMDRPP) and developed an efficient tabu-search-based algorithm and proposed three novel lower bounds to evaluate the routes. The algorithm was tested to design routes for police patrolling in London, and the results demonstrate the efficiency of the algorithm in generating balanced routes. An important area for further investigation is the exploration of the Multi-Depot RPP (MD-RPP) in conjunction with multi-trip variants, a research gap that has yet to be fully addressed. MD-RPP-RRV aims to bridge this gap.

Due to the NP-hard nature of both the MD-CARP and the MD-RPP, most of the approaches proposed in the literature are metaheuristic and exact approaches. Since exact approaches require significant computational effort and their computational complexity increases exponentially, they are not suitable for solving larger instances. Hence, we choose to develop metaheuristics to solve the MD-RPP-RRV. As the MD-RPP-RRV differs from both the MD-RPP and MD-CARP, the metaheuristics developed in the literature <span id="page-2-5"></span>cannot be directly used to solve the MD-RPP-RRV. Additional motivation to solve the MD-RPP-RRV can be attributed to the increasing prevalence of battery-operated unmanned vehicles, particularly in surveillance operations. Given their reliance on batteries, optimizing the routing of these vehicles is crucial, considering their limited battery life and the necessity for frequent recharging to ensure efficient task completion.

## <span id="page-2-0"></span>**III. PROBLEM FORMULATION AND ASSUMPTIONS**

This section outlines the key assumptions underlying the formulation of the optimization problem.

#### <span id="page-2-1"></span>A. ASSUMPTIONS

For the MD-RPP-RRV, the following assumptions are made:

- 1) All vehicles start from their respective depots with full battery capacity.
- 2) The AOI is represented as a weighted connected graph.
- 3) Vehicles navigate within the AOI solely by traversing edges of the graph.
- 4) The depots at which vehicles start, stop, and recharge are located at nodes of the network (such as intersections of roads).
- 5) If an edge is required, at least one vehicle must traverse the edge.
- 6) All vehicles have the same capacity (operating time when fully charged).
- 7) All vehicles move at the same speed.
- 8) The time to recharge the vehicle battery is the same at all depots. Partial recharging is not possible.
- 9) The time required to traverse an edge depends only upon the length of the edge and the vehicle speed.

<span id="page-2-4"></span>Note that the description in this paper uses the term "recharge" because our work was motivated by batterypowered UAVs. More generally, this also refers to refueling operations for vehicles that run on gasoline or other fuel, and thus the formulation is also valid for such vehicles.

#### <span id="page-2-2"></span>B. PROBLEM FORMULATION

The motivation to formulate the MD-RPP-RRV comes from the increasing deployment of rechargeable autonomous vehicles like UAVs, ground robots, and electric vehicles in various applications, which necessitates optimized routing strategies that account for their limited battery capacities and recharging requirements. Failing to consider these constraints can lead to inefficiencies, higher costs, and mission failures. The MD-RPP-RRV formulation aims to minimize the total time required for a fleet of rechargeable vehicles to traverse all required edges while allowing periodic recharging at designated depots, adhering to battery constraints. Solving this MILP model enables optimal resource utilization, cost savings, and improved reliability in applications involving rechargeable autonomous vehicles for tasks such as monitoring, inspection, transportation, and delivery.

Let  $G = (N, E, T)$  be the undirected weighted connected graph that models the road network in AOI where *N* is the set of nodes (road intersections), *E* is the set of edges  $((i, j) \in E)$  that connect nodes  $(i, j \in N)$ , and *T* is the set of edge weights  $(t(i, j) \in T)$ . An edge represents a road segment; let  $l(i, j)$  be the length of the road segment in meters. All vehicles traverse road segments at a constant speed *S* meters per second, and the edge weight  $t(i, j)$  represents the time taken by a vehicle to traverse edge  $(i, j)$ , calculated as  $t(i, j) = \frac{l(i, j)}{S}$  $\frac{l(J)}{S}$ .

Let  $E_u \subseteq E$  be the set of required edges that need to be visited. Let  $N_d$  be the set of depots where vehicles can start, stop, or recharge.  $N_d \subseteq N$ . Let C be the maximum time that a vehicle remains operational after charging; this is finite because a vehicle's battery has finite capacity. Let *K* be the number of vehicles. Let  $R_T$  be the time taken to recharge a vehicle. Let  $F$  be the maximum number of trips that a vehicle can make, which is determined using an iterative solution procedure (Section [V-A1\)](#page-9-1).

To formulate the MD-RPP-RRV as a MILP model, three sets of binary decision variables are introduced:

- 1)  $x(k, f, i, j) = 1$  if vehicle *k* traverses edge  $(i, j)$  from node *i* to node *j* during its *f* -th trip, and 0 otherwise.
- 2)  $y(k, f, d) = 1$  if vehicle *k* ends its *f*-th trip at depot node  $d$  ∈  $N_d$ , and 0 otherwise.
- 3)  $z(k, f) = 1$  if vehicle *k* uses its *f*-th trip, and 0 otherwise.

 $B(k) \in N_d, \forall k = 1, \ldots, K$  is an array of constants representing the depot vehicle *k* is initially located at the start of the mission. The values of  $B(k)$  are given. The objective function  $\beta$  represents the maximum total time needed by any vehicle to complete all its trips and recharge between trips. Let  $\delta$  be a constant that is much greater than  $|E|$ , the number of edges.

In the MILP formulation given below, constraint  $(1)$ ensures that if vehicle *k* has initiated its first trip from depot node  $B(k)$ , it is tracked using  $z(k, 1)$ . Constraint [\(2\)](#page-3-2) restricts unnecessary trips by ensuring that trip  $f + 1$  is used only if trip  $f$  is used by vehicle  $k$ . Constraint  $(3)$  keeps track of the depot node  $d \in N_d$  where each trip  $f$  of vehicle  $k$  has ended using  $y(k, f, d)$ . Constraint [\(4\)](#page-3-4) forces vehicle *k* to start its trip *f* from the same depot node  $d \in N_d$  it ended its previous trip  $f - 1$  if necessary. Constraint [\(5\)](#page-3-5) ensures that vehicle  $k$ , if it begins trip  $f$ , must end in any of the depot nodes  $d \in N_d$ .

Constraint [\(6\)](#page-3-6) enforces an upper bound for maximum trip time for all vehicles considering recharge time. Note constraint  $(6)$  only adds recharge time for used trip  $f >$ 1 determined using the  $z(k, f)$ . Constraint [\(7\)](#page-3-7) ensures that no trip is too long (exceeds *C*). Constraint [\(8\)](#page-3-8) ensures that all trips made by each vehicle enter or leave depot nodes the same number of times. Constraint [\(9\)](#page-4-0) makes sure all trips of each vehicle have a continuous flow. Constraint [\(10\)](#page-4-1) ensures that all trips made by all vehicles traverse each required edge at least once.

Constraint [\(11\)](#page-4-2) ensures that a vehicle traverses no edges during a trip that is not used. Constraint [\(12\)](#page-4-3) is a subtour elimination constraint that is based on one used by Chen et al. [\[26\]. T](#page-16-22)he set *S* is a set of nodes that are not depots,  $E(S)$  is the set of required edges between nodes in *S*, and  $\delta(S)$ is the set of edges that have only one node in the set *S*. This constraint ensures that, if a vehicle traverses a required edge  $(p, q) \in E(S)$ , then it also traverses edges that enter and leave *S*. Unfortunately, the size of this MILP grows exponentially with the number of nodes. For constraint  $(12)$  alone, there are  $2^{|N/N_d|}$  subsets *S*, so the formulation requires a total of  $2^{|N/N_d|} \times K \times F$  copies of this constraint.

The following section describes the proposed metaheuristics to solve the MD-RPP-RRV.

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**IV. SOLUTION APPROACHES**

This section describes a route design allocation heuristic that designs feasible routes to the MD-RPP-RRV and metaheuristics, simulated annealing, tabu search, and genetic algorithm by presenting their pseudocode and how it improves the initial solution constructed from the MT algorithm heuristic for the MD-RPP-RRV.

min  $\beta$ 

subject to:

*d*∈*N<sup>d</sup>*

$$
\sum_{(B(k),j)\in E} x(k, 1, B(k), j) = z(k, 1), k = 1, ..., K
$$

(1)  
\n
$$
z(k,f) - z(k,f+1) \ge 0, \ k = 1, ..., K, f = 1, ..., F - 1
$$
\n(2)  
\n
$$
\sum_{\substack{(i,d) \in E, \\ d \in N_d}} x(k,f,i,d) = y(k,f,d), \ k = 1, ..., K, f = 1, ..., F
$$

$$
y(k, f - 1, d) \ge \sum_{(d,j)\in E} x(k, f, d, j) k = 1, ..., K,
$$
  

$$
f = 2, ..., F, d \in N_d
$$
  
(4)  

$$
z(k, f) - \sum y(k, f, d) = 0, k = 1, ..., K, f = 1, ..., F
$$

<span id="page-3-8"></span><span id="page-3-7"></span><span id="page-3-6"></span><span id="page-3-5"></span><span id="page-3-4"></span>
$$
(5)
$$

<span id="page-3-3"></span><span id="page-3-2"></span><span id="page-3-1"></span>(3)

$$
\sum_{f=1}^{F} \sum_{(i,j)\in E} x(k, f, i, j)t(i, j) + (\sum_{f=1}^{F} z(k, f) - 1) \times R_T \le \beta,
$$
  

$$
k = 1, ..., K
$$
 (6)

$$
\sum_{(i,j)\in E} x(k,f,i,j)t(i,j) \le C, \ k = 1,\ldots,K, f = 1,\ldots,F
$$
\n(7)

$$
\sum_{\substack{(i,j)\in E,\\i\in N_d}} x(k,f,i,j) - \sum_{\substack{(i,j)\in E,\\j\in N_d}} x(k,f,i,j) = 0, k = 1, ..., K, f = 1, ..., F
$$
 (8)

<span id="page-4-4"></span>

FIGURE 1. (a) A sample instance of MD-RPP-RRV, (b) Vehicle V<sub>1</sub> getting closer to the required edge. (c) Vehicle  $\boldsymbol{V}_1$  traversing the required edge.

$$
\sum_{j \in N} x(k, f, i, j) - \sum_{j \in N} x(k, f, j, i) = 0, \ k = 1, ..., K,
$$
  

$$
f = 1, ..., F, i \in N / \{N_d\}
$$
 (9)

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{f=1}^{F} x(k, f, i, j) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{f=1}^{F} x(k, f, j, i) \ge 1, \ \forall (i, j) \in E_u
$$
\n(10)

$$
\sum_{(i,j)\in E} x(k, f, i, j) \le z(k, f) \times M,
$$
  

$$
k = 1, ..., K, f = 1, ..., F
$$
 (11)

$$
\sum_{k=1, \ldots, n, j=1, \ldots, 1} x(k, f, i, j) \geq 2 \times x(k, f, p, q), k = 1, \ldots, K,
$$

(*i*,*j*)∈δ(*S*)

$$
f = 1, \dots, F, \forall S \subseteq N / \{N_d\}, (p, q) \in E(S) \tag{12}
$$

$$
x(k, f, i, j) \in [0, 1], \ k = 1, \dots, K, f = 1, \dots, F, \forall (i, j) \in E
$$
\n(13)

$$
y(k, f, d) \in [0, 1], \ k = 1, \dots, K, f = 1, \dots, F, d \in N_d
$$
\n(14)

 $z(k, f) \in [0, 1], k = 1, \ldots, K, f = 1, \ldots, F$  (15)

$$
\beta \in R^+, \ \delta \gg |E| \tag{16}
$$

#### A. MULTI-TRIP ROUTES

This section describes with an example a feasible solution to the MD-RPP-RRV to help the reader better understand the upcoming sections. A feasible solution specifies a route for each vehicle. A route includes one or more trips; each trip begins at a depot and ends at the same or different depot. The length of a trip is limited by the capacity constraint. Although its mission is to cover required edges, a vehicle might need to make a trip that includes no required edges in order to get closer to one or more required edges.

Consider an instance of the problem consisting of an undirected graph *G* with 8 nodes, 12 edges, 2 depot nodes, and 1 required edge, shown in Figure  $1(a)$  $1(a)$ . There is only one vehicle  $(V_1)$ , which begins at the depot at node 1;  $C = 7$  time units; and  $R_T = 1.1$  time units.

Due to the capacity constraint, the vehicle cannot directly traverse the required edge (2, 4) in one trip. The best possible trip to cover this edge is {1-2-4-6}, but this requires 7.5 time units, which exceeds vehicle capacity  $C$ , so it is infeasible.

<span id="page-4-5"></span>**TABLE 1.** Nomenclature.

<span id="page-4-2"></span><span id="page-4-1"></span><span id="page-4-0"></span>

<span id="page-4-3"></span>In a feasible multi-trip route, the vehicle travels from its current depot to another depot (node 6) to move closer to the required edge (Figure  $1(b)$ ), recharges at that depot, and then completes a trip that includes the required edge (Figure  $1(c)$ ).

The first trip {1-2-6} takes 3.8 time units for the vehicle to complete. Then, the vehicle recharges at node 6, which takes 1.1 time units. Finally, the vehicle takes the second trip {6-2-4-6}, which takes 6.7 time units to complete. Both trips are feasible because each one's duration is less than *C*. Completing the route and traversing the required edge requires 11.6 time units, which is the sum of both trip times and the recharge time and also the maximum trip time.

The following section describes a heuristic used by the metaheuristics to design routes for the MD-RPP-RRV, and Table [1](#page-4-5) provides the nomenclature used in the following sections.

#### B. ROUTE DESIGN ALLOCATION ALGORITHM (RDA)

As defined earlier, the MD-RPP-RRV requires a subset of required edges  $E_u$  in the undirected weighted connected graph

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

*G* to be traversed at least once by the *K* rechargeable vehicles with limited capacity *C* from their respective depot nodes  $N_d \subseteq N$  by minimizing maximum trip time. A feasible solution for the MD-RPP-RRV will have a set of routes *P* for *K* vehicles such that each vehicle route  $P_k$  for vehicle *k* will traverse a sequence (follows order) of the required edges  $\Lambda_k \subseteq E_u$  such that  $\cup_{i=1}^K \Lambda_i = E_u$ . Let  $\Lambda = \{\Lambda_1, \ldots, \Lambda_K\}$ represent the set of allocations of required edges for all vehicles. Hence, the problem of designing routes to solve the MD-RPP-RRV can be converted into an allocation problem of allocating *E<sup>u</sup>* required edges among *K* vehicles such that routes resulting from the allocation minimize the maximum trip time the most.

However, determining maximum trip time requires knowing the routes of *K* vehicles. The allocation route design algorithm (Algorithm [1\)](#page-5-0) takes in the allocated sequence of required edges  $\Lambda_k$  of each vehicle *k* as input and plans the routes of each vehicle *k* to traverse all the edges in  $\Lambda_k$  in order with one exception. The exception is if while trying to traverse a required edge  $e_1 \in \Lambda_k$ , which is at index 1 in  $\Lambda_k$ , the vehicle during its trip also traverses the required edge  $e_3 \in \Lambda_k$ , which is at index 3, the allocation algorithm will remove both the edges from  $\Lambda_k$  to avoid redundant traversal of required edges in subsequent iterations and also keeps track of actual sequence  $A_k$  in which the required edges were traversed. In  $A_k$ , which shows the actual sequence of traversal of required edges by vehicle  $k$  in routes  $P_k$ , the edges will be ordered  $[e_1, e_3, \ldots]$ . The edge  $e_3$  will appear after *e*1.

This allocation route design algorithm loops over each vehicle *k* with its respective allocation  $\Lambda_k$  (Lines 2-4) and

<span id="page-5-1"></span>

tries to design trips to traverse the sequence of required edges in  $\Lambda_k$  in order using the trip subroutine (Line 5). The subroutine returns the routes for vehicle *k* consisting of trips  $T_p$ , each satisfying vehicle capacity  $C$ , the updated allocation  $\Lambda_k$  after removing the required edges traversed during the trips, and finally, the order in which the required edges were traversed  $E_t$ .  $T_p$  and  $E_t$  are used to update the routes of the vehicle  $P_k$ , the vehicle's current position  $\alpha_k$ , and the actual allocation  $A_k$  if the trip  $T_p$  traversed any required edges in the sequence  $\Lambda_k$  (Lines 9-14). If vehicle *k* is not able to traverse a required edge in  $\Lambda_k$ , the closedepot() subroutine (Line 7) moves the vehicle to a depot closer to traverse required edge in  $\Lambda_k$ . The trip  $T_p$  used to move the vehicle *k* to a closer depot is also checked for required edge traversal in  $\Lambda_k$  (Line 9), as it is possible that vehicle *k* may traverse a future required edge in the sequence  $\Lambda_k$ . The pseudocode focuses on how, after allocating the required edges to the vehicles, the RDA algorithm will plan routes of vehicle *k*. The following section describes the simulated annealing metaheuristic, which uses the RDA and MT algorithm to design routes for the MD-RPP-RRV.



<span id="page-6-0"></span>

## <span id="page-6-2"></span>C. SIMULATED ANNEALING (SA) ALGORITHM

The SA algorithm [\[52\]](#page-16-23) takes a set of allocations  $(\Lambda)$  mapping vehicles to required edges and their associated routes (*P*) as input. The algorithm (Algorithm [2\)](#page-5-1) seeks a better solution by reallocating the required edges among the vehicles.

A temperature parameter  $(T)$  is set (Line 5) to control the probability of accepting worse solutions during the optimization process. The algorithm then enters the main loop (Line 6), where it iteratively explores different allocations (Line 9) of required edges and associated routes of vehicles (Line 10) using the triptimes() subroutine and the RDA algorithm (Algorithm [1\)](#page-5-0) respectively till the temperature parameter is greater than the minimum temperature  $(T_{\min})$  (Line 7). The initial allocation  $\Lambda$  is either randomly generated or can be obtained using the MT algorithm by examining the routes.

The new allocation method (Algorithm [3\)](#page-6-0) operates on an allocation  $\Lambda$  representing required edges assigned to a set of vehicles, a set containing trip times of all vehicle  $Y =$  $[Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_K]$ , and the total number of vehicles *K*. This procedure has two main operations (INSERT and SWAP), and it chooses one randomly; each has a probability of 0.5.

The INSERT operation (Lines 2-6 in Algorithm [3\)](#page-6-0) identifies the vehicle with the maximum trip time and removes its last assigned required edge. Then, it randomly selects another vehicle and inserts the removed edge into its allocation.

The SWAP operation (Lines 7-12 in Algorithm [3\)](#page-6-0) randomly selects two different vehicles, *k*<sup>1</sup> and *k*2, and swaps a randomly chosen required edge from *k*<sup>1</sup> with an edge in  $k_2$ . The procedure returns the updated allocation  $\Lambda$ . This algorithm dynamically reallocates required edges among vehicles, which might improve the solution.

The SA algorithm (Algorithm [2\)](#page-5-1) then updates the routes of vehicles that have new allocations (Line 10). Algorithm [1](#page-5-0) is used to design the new routes  $(P_{K_n})$ , taking in the new allocation  $(\Lambda_n)$ , and also updating the allocation based on

<span id="page-6-1"></span>

the routes produced. If the new allocation produces routes with better maximum trip time (Line 11- 13), the new routes and allocation are updated with the current values (Lines 14-16), and the best routes and allocation area are also stored (Lines 18-20). However, if the new allocation results in a worse objective function, the algorithm will accept it with a probability that is determined by the Boltzmann criterion [\[52\]](#page-16-23) (Lines 23-25). This probabilistic acceptance allows the algorithm to escape local optima and explore more of the search space.

As the algorithm proceeds, the temperature parameter decreases geometrically by the cooling rate  $(C_r)$  (Line 29), which reduces the probability of accepting worse solutions. This cooling schedule ensures that the algorithm eventually converges to a locally-optimal allocation. The SA algorithm finally returns the best allocation  $\Lambda_{\text{best}}$  and its associated vehicle routes  $P_{\text{best}}$  it converged to after the iterative process.

The following section describes the tabu search metaheuristic to solve the MD-RPP-RRV.

# D. TABU SEARCH (TS) ALGORITHM

TS is a powerful metaheuristic algorithm widely employed for solving combinatorial optimization problems. It operates by iteratively exploring the solution space while maintaining a short-term memory, known as the ''tabu list,'' to guide the search process and prevent revisiting previously explored

solutions. This memory mechanism facilitates effective solution exploration and diversification, helping the algorithm avoid getting trapped in local optima.

The TS algorithm developed to solve the MD-RPP-RRV (Algorithm [4\)](#page-6-1) takes in an allocation  $(\Lambda)$  as input and determines its corresponding routes *P* using algorithm [1](#page-5-0) (Line 2). It then initializes variables to store the best routes and corresponding best allocation found so far, *Pbest* and  $\Lambda_{best}$ , and adds the initial allocation to the empty tabu list  $t_l$  (Lines 3-6). It then computes the initial objective value *yb*, which is the maximum trip time for the initial routes *P* (Line 8).

In the subsequent loop (Lines 9-21), the algorithm iterates through a fixed number of iterations  $M_i$ , generating new allocations of vehicles to required edges and updating solutions accordingly. Within each iteration, a new allocation  $\Lambda_{new}$  is computed (Line 10), followed by determining the corresponding routes *P*newusing the RDA algorithm (Line 11).

The algorithm evaluates the feasibility of the new allocation and computes its objective value  $(y_n)$  (Lines 15). If the new solution improves upon the current best solution, the algorithm updates the best solution, best allocation, and the best objective value (Lines 16-19). Finally, the algorithm returns the best set of routes *Pbest* and the corresponding allocations  $\Lambda_{best}$  (Line 20). Through its systematic exploration and refinement process, TS efficiently navigates the solution space, aiming to minimize the objective function while adhering to problem constraints. The use of a tabu list prevents revisiting previously explored solutions, enhancing the algorithm's effectiveness in finding optimal or near-optimal solutions within a reasonable computational time.

The following section describes the genetic algorithm metaheuristic developed to solve the MD-RPP-RRV.

## E. GENETIC ALGORITHM (GA)

This section describes the GA with the help of a pseudocode (Algorithm [5\)](#page-7-0). It starts with an initial random allocation  $(\Lambda)$  of vehicles to required edges and tries to converge to an allocation  $(\Lambda_{best})$  with better maximum trip time by iteratively improving the allocation with each generation using reproduction, crossover, and mutation operations. GA starts by creating a population (Lines 8 - 17), which is a set containing *P<sup>s</sup>* number of uniquely random allocations  $\lambda_p$  along with their associated routes ( $\rho_p$ ) and maximum trip times  $(\gamma_p)$  using RDA algorithm (Algorithm [1\)](#page-5-0).

At the beginning of each generation, the GA makes a copy of the current population (Line 20) to decide if a particular member of the population needs to be replaced by new candidates at the end of the generation after undergoing reproduction, crossover, and mutation operations. In each generation, reproduction, crossover, and mutation operations are done probabilistically based on reproduction  $(p_r)$ , crossover  $(p_c)$ , and mutation  $(p_m)$  probabilities. After undergoing operations, the resulting population is evaluated

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

<span id="page-7-1"></span>(Lines 30 -36), and if they exhibit enhanced performance (Line 31), they may replace existing individuals in the population with a certain probability *p<sup>e</sup>* (Lines 32-33). This follows the elitism concept [\[53\]](#page-16-24) to retain some of the bad solutions along with the better solutions in the population to preserve diversity and escape local minima.



<span id="page-8-0"></span>

The reproduction step (Algorithm  $6$ ) involves making copies of individuals in the population with better fitness using tournament selection to create a new population  $(\lambda_{\text{new}}, \rho_{\text{new}}, \gamma_{\text{new}})$  with better individuals. In tournament selection, tournaments are played by selecting two allocations  $(\lambda_i, \lambda_k)$  (Lines 13 -14) from the population based on their fitness, where the probability of selection is proportional to their fitness values (Lines 5 -11). The individuals with better fitness are placed in the mating pool ( $\lambda_{\text{new}}$ ) (Lines 15 -22). As the selection of individuals is based on fitness, a fitter individual gets selected to participate in more tournaments, resulting in a mating pool with copies of individuals with better fitness and eliminating weaker individuals. The resulting mating pool is the updated population (Line 25) returned as a result of the reproduction step.

The crossover step (Algorithm [7\)](#page-8-1) involves iterative selection of two allocations  $(\lambda_i, \lambda_j)$  (Lines 5-6) from the population and combining them to produce a better allocation ( $\lambda_{\text{new}}$ ). This is done by computing the trip times  $(Y_i, Y_j)$ (Lines 7-8) for both allocations and comparing the trip times of each vehicle  $k \in \{1, ..., K\}$ . The trip time  $Y_i[k]$  is the total time taken by a vehicle *k* takes to traverse all of its allocated required edges using single or multiple trips. The allocation with a better trip time out of  $\lambda_i$  and  $\lambda_j$  for vehicle *k* is added to a new allocation  $(\Lambda_{\text{new}})$ . Of course,

<span id="page-8-1"></span>



<span id="page-8-2"></span>

the new allocation  $(\Lambda_{\text{new}})$  may contain the same required edges allocated to multiple vehicles and, in the worst case, missing unallocated required edges. This is rectified using the *feasibleallocation*() subroutine (Line 16), which makes sure that the new allocation covers all the required edges. The crossover step is performed on the entire population, so in the end, a new population with better allocations is obtained.

The mutation step (Algorithm  $8$ ) makes use of the *newallocation*() (Algorithm [3\)](#page-6-0) to alter each allocation in the population using INSERT and SWAP techniques to get a better allocation. After performing the reproduction, crossover, and mutation for  $N_g$  generation, the best routes  $P_{\text{best}}$  alongside its associated allocation  $\Lambda_{\text{best}}$  is returned. The GA explores a wider search space through reproduction, crossover, and mutation operations in each generation,

<span id="page-9-2"></span>

**FIGURE 2.** (a) A MD-RPP-RRV instance where required edges with one or both of its nodes as depot nodes, (b) Modified MD-RPP-RRV instance with dummy nodes and edges.

maintaining diversity. This approach may yield superior solutions compared to TS and SA, though it requires more computational effort. The following section discusses the results obtained from proposed metaheuristics on benchmark and real-world instances and compares those solutions with the optimal solutions obtained by solving the MILP.

#### <span id="page-9-0"></span>**V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

This section provides details about the instances that we used in our experiments and describes some important steps followed to obtain optimal results using the Gurobi optimizer version 10. Finally, the section discusses the results from the proposed metaheuristics, along with an analysis of the improvement in solution quality produced by each metaheuristic compared to the MT algorithm heuristic and the decrease in solution gap with respect to the optimum obtained by solving the MILP. The instances can be accessed from this GitHub repository [link.](https://github.com/Eashwar-S/multi_trip_multi_depot_RRP_instances)

#### 1) SET A INSTANCES

We created the Set A instances by converting 23 CARP instances with undirected graphs [\[17\]](#page-16-25) to multi-depot capacitated RPP instances using the instance generation process. In these instances, *C* was set to equal twice the maximum edge weight of the instance. This was done so that a vehicle should be able to traverse the longest edge if it were chosen as one of the required edge.

#### 2) SET B INSTANCES

Set B has eight instances created from real-world roadmaps of different regions with cold weather. We converted the roadmaps to undirected graphs and then to testing instances using the instance generation process. In these instances, *C* was set to 31 minutes, the listed capacity of the DJI Mavic Pro 2 UAV [\[54\].](#page-16-26)

#### <span id="page-9-4"></span>3) SET C INSTANCES

Set C has eight instances created from the Set B instances by adding the effect of wind on the edge travel times, which requires relaxing assumption 8 (Section [III-A\)](#page-2-1). In these instances, each edge had two weights (travel times): one

<span id="page-9-5"></span>for one direction and a second for the opposite direction. We determined the different weights by considering the impact of wind on a vehicle's travel time. In one direction, the wind may increase the vehicle's speed (relative to the ground), which reduces the travel time; in the other direction, the wind may decrease the speed and increase the travel time. Sathyamurthy [\[55\]](#page-16-27) described the details of these calculations. For set C instances, as only the graph type is changed from undirected to directed, we decided to keep the number of vehicles  $(K)$ , number of required edges  $(E_u)$ , and the number of depot nodes  $(N_d)$ , the same as set B instances. For required edges  $(E_u)$ , only one direction of the edge, i.e., either  $(i, j)$ or  $(i, i)$ , is randomly chosen to be the required edge as edge weights in either direction are different.

#### A. OPTIMAL SOLUTIONS USING GUROBI

This section describes the procedure used to determine the number of trips  $(F)$  needed by Gurobi to produce optimal solutions and also modifications done to the instances provided as input to the Gurobi optimizer.

#### <span id="page-9-1"></span>1) DETERMINING NUMBER OF TRIPS (*F* )

<span id="page-9-3"></span>From the MILP formulation (Section [III-B\)](#page-2-2), in order to define the decision variables programmatically in Gurobi, fixed values for the number of vehicles  $(K)$  and the number of trips (*F*) are needed. However, *F* cannot be known beforehand as each vehicle might take a different number of trips to traverse the required edges. Hence, *F* needs to be an upper bound of the number of trips of *K* vehicles. In order to find the upper bound, a simple iterative procedure is followed.

Initially, we set  $F = 1$  and use Gurobi to find an optimal solution to the instance. If a feasible solution exists, then the instance is solved. If Gurobi reports that there are no feasible solutions, we increase *F* by 1 and attempt to solve it again. This continues until Gurobi finds a feasible, optimal solution.

The number of variables and the Random Access Memory (RAM) required to solve the problem increase as *F* increases. By starting with  $F = 1$  and increasing it only as needed, this approach avoids solving any unnecessarily large instances, which is more efficient.

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#### 2) MODIFIED GUROBI OPTIMIZER INPUT

Because of the subtour elimination constraint (Constraint 12), if a vehicle traverses a required edge in the subset *S*, then it also traverses edges that enter and leave *S*. This is true for all possible subsets formed by the node set  $N/N_d$ . A problem occurs if a required edge has one or both of its nodes as depot nodes (Figure  $2a$ ). In this scenario, there are no subsets possible as subsets do not include depot nodes  $(N_d)$ . To avoid this scenario, we added dummy nodes and edges with zero edge weights to modify any instance with such a required edge.

For example, in Figure  $2b$ , the required edge  $(1, 3)$  has node 1 as the depot node, and hence, a dummy node 9 and dummy edge (1, 9) is inserted with an edge weight of 0, and the dummy node 9 is made the depot node instead of node 1. Note that the insertion of dummy nodes and edges has no effect on the quality of routes produced. A similar example is shown in Figure  $2b$  with the required edge  $(6, 7)$  where both of its nodes are depot nodes. Hence, two dummy nodes and edges are inserted and made depot nodes. The idea here is to isolate depot nodes from the instance so that it does violate any constraints of MILP formulation (Section [III\)](#page-2-0) thus restricting the search space of the Gurobi optimizer.

#### B. RESULTS

This section presents the results from our tests of the proposed metaheuristics and solving the MILP using Gurobi version 10.03 on the instances in Sets A, B, and C. These tests were run on an AMD EPYC 7763 64-core Processor with 128 physical cores, 128 logical processors, and 8 CPU cores. Up to 32 threads were used, and 8 GB of memory was allocated to each CPU core.

#### 1) PARAMETER SETTINGS

The parameters used in the proposed metaheuristics were configured empirically from numerous tests performed with the benchmark and real-world instances. Table [2](#page-10-0) presents the parameters used to test the metaheuristics on benchmark and real-world instances and their respective values.

#### 2) BENCHMARK INSTANCES RESULTS

Table [3](#page-10-1) describes the set A instances, and tables [4](#page-11-0) and [5](#page-12-0) provide the results obtained by testing these instances on the proposed metaheuristics.

Table [4](#page-11-0) shows the results obtained by metaheuristics SA and TS for 500 iterations, starting with the initial solution produced by the MT algorithm. Table [5](#page-12-0) shows the results obtained by metaheuristics SA and TS for 500 iterations and GA.

The optimal objective function value, which is the optimal maximum trip time  $(M_{\text{opt}})$  obtained from solving MILP using Gurobi for 19/23 set A instances, is also provided. For set A instances A.20 - A.23, the Gurobi optimizer could not produce optimal solutions using the MILP formulation as it ran out of allocated memory after running for more than

#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>**TABLE 2.** Parmeter setting.



#### <span id="page-10-1"></span>**TABLE 3.** Set A instances information.



30 hours. For these instances, the results are represented as \* in the table. Each set A instance is run 10 times, and the average  $(M)$ , the best (best), and the standard deviation (STDEV) of maximum trip time along with the average execution time (ET) in seconds are provided in tables [4](#page-11-0) and [5](#page-12-0) to capture the stochastic nature of the metaheuristics.

To measure the quality of the metaheuristics solutions relative to the quality of the optimal solutions found by solving the MILP using Gurobi, we calculated the relative difference as follows. Let *M* be the average maximum trip



<span id="page-11-0"></span>**TABLE 4.** Benchmark Instances Results of SA and TS using MT heuristic. Instances where the metaheuristic converged to the optimum are denoted by bold highlighting in both the ''Gap'' and ''B Gap'' columns.

time of a solution obtained from metaheuristics (SA, TS or GA). Let  $M_{\text{opt}}$  be the maximum trip time of an optimal solution of the MILP. The metric Gap is the percentage relative difference between these values:

$$
Gap = \frac{M - M_{opt}}{M_{opt}} \times 100
$$
 (17)

The B Gap is the best gap obtained by taking the best value of the maximum trip time obtained by the metaheuristics in 10 runs.

$$
B\text{ Gap} = \frac{\text{best} - M_{\text{opt}}}{M_{\text{opt}}} \times 100\tag{18}
$$

When relying solely on the MT algorithm, the average gap for these 19 instances stood at 162% [\[3\]. Ho](#page-15-2)wever, employing metaheuristics made a significant difference. Metaheuristics MT+SA and MT+TS, starting with solutions generated by the MT algorithm (Table [4\)](#page-11-0), led to better outcomes, reducing the average gaps to 17.5% and 29.4%, respectively, with the best average gaps further diminishing to 0.9% and 16.2%, respectively. While metaheuristics SA, TS, and GA exhibited similar patterns when commencing from a random solution, the average percentage gaps for SA and TS rose to 23.2% and 75%, respectively, compared to using solutions from the MT algorithm as starting points. The same could be said about the best percentage gap for SA and TS, which are 11.9% and 31.2%, respectively. This suggests that providing the metaheuristics with a suboptimal heuristic solution (MT algorithm) instead of a randomly generated one as the starting point can, on average, lead them to converge to a better solution.

GA, on the other hand, could achieve a better average and best percentage gap, which are 13.7% and 0% compared to other metaheuristics. In fact, GA was able to converge to the known optimum for all 19 set A instances. However, this came at the cost of computational time, where GA took an average of 84.7 seconds to solve each set A instance, and all the other metaheuristics took an average of under 5 seconds. This represents a 1600% increase in computational effort for smaller set A instances with the number of edges ranging between 11 and 55. This shows that GA, however effective in converging to a better solution, the heavy reliance on computational resources makes it a less favorable option to solve larger instances.

The following sections provide the results of the metaheuristics for set B and set C instances.

#### 3) REAL-WORLD INSTANCES RESULTS

Tables [6](#page-12-1) describe the 16 real-world instances in Sets B and C, and tables [7](#page-13-0) and [8](#page-13-1) provide the results obtained by metaheuristics on those instances. Because these instances have many more nodes and edges than the benchmark instances, we were unable to obtain optimal solutions to the MILP using Gurobi due to the large compute and memory requirements.

Since the optimal maximum trip times of the set B and set C instances could not be determined, the solution quality produced by the metaheuristics was measured by considering the MT heuristics solution as the baseline. Let *MMT* be the maximum trip produced by the MT algorithm heuristic and *M* and best be the average and best maximum trip produced

<span id="page-12-0"></span>**TABLE 5.** Benchmark Instances Results of SA, TS and GA using randomly generated initial solutions. Instances where the metaheuristic converged to the optimum are denoted by bold highlighting in both the "Gap" and "B Gap" columns.

<b>Instance</b>		<b>SA-500</b>						<b>TS-500</b>						GA					
Name	$M_{\rm opt}$	$\overline{M_{M}}_{T}$	<b>STDEV</b>	best	Gap	<b>B</b> Gap	ET	M	<b>STDEV</b>	best	Gap	<b>B</b> Gap	ET	$\overline{\mathbf{M}}$	<b>STDEV</b>	best	Gap	<b>B</b> Gap	ET
A.1	64	68	$\Omega$	68	6.3	6.3	0.0	68	$\Omega$	68	6.3	6.3	0.0	64	$\mathbf{0}$	64	0.0	0.0	9.1
A.2	148	148	$\Omega$	148	0.0	0.0	3.6	224.8	38.7	148	51.9	0.0	3.6	148	$\Omega$	148	0.0	0.0	16.1
A.3	15	15.1	0.3	15	0.7	0.0	3.2	27.1	18.3	15	80.7	0.0	3.1	15	$\mathbf{0}$	15	0.0	0.0	32.8
A.4		7	$\Omega$	7	0.0	0.0	3.0	7.9	0.9	7	12.9	0.0	3.3	7	$\mathbf{0}$	7	0.0	0.0	38.6
A.5	126	128	2.4	126	1.6	0.0	3.3	149	$\mathbf{0}$	149	18.3	18.3	3.8	126	$\Omega$	126	0.0	0.0	21.2
A.6	16	17	0.8	16	6.3	0.0	3.9	28.9	17.5	16	80.6	0.0	3.9	16.2	0.4	16	1.3	0.0	43.0
A.7	34	61.5	40.3	34	80.9	0.0	2.9	102.6	44.5	35	201.8	2.9	2.7	43.1	26.6	34	26.8	0.0	28.3
A.8	41	51.2	28.6	41	24.9	0.0	3.5	131.5	29.7	43	220.7	4.9	3.8	41.4	0.8	41	1.0	0.0	21.8
A.9	134	135.4	1.4	134	1.0	0.0	2.9	140.1	3.2	136	4.6	1.5	2.9	134.6	0.9	134	0.4	0.0	28.7
A.10	59	100.6	63.7	59	70.5	0.0	3.5	203	$\mathbf{0}$	203	244.1	244.1	4.4	73.5	43.2	59	24.6	0.0	20.0
A.11	120	121	0.8	120	0.8	0.0	4.1	124.4	5.6	120	3.7	0.0	3.9	121.4	$\overline{2}$	120	1.2	0.0	47.2
A.12	40	128	2.7	124	220.0	210.0	4.3	138.3	6.7	124	245.8	210.0	4.5	116.2	25.5	40	190.5	0.0	45.6
A.13	141	142.1	1.3	141	0.8	0.0	4.8	149.4	3	144	6.0	2.1	4.6	142.2	1.2	141	0.9	0.0	32.0
A.14	48	48.1	0.3	48	0.2	0.0	5.4	53.9	5.5	48	12.3	0.0	5.7	48	$\Omega$	48	0.0	0.0	89.9
A.15	12	12.5	0.5	12	4.2	0.0	4.6	16	$\bf{0}$	16	33.3	33.3	4.5	12.3	0.5	12	2.5	0.0	75.6
A.16	10	10	$\mathbf{0}$	10	0.0	0.0	4.3	10.5	0.7	10	5.0	0.0	4.1	10	$\mathbf{0}$	10	0.0	0.0	86.1
A.17	15	15	$\theta$	15	0.0	0.0	5.4	16	$\theta$	16	6.7	6.7	5.8	15	$\theta$	15	0.0	0.0	87.9
A.18	13	14	0.6	13	7.7	0.0	5.9	30.4	18.3	14	133.8	7.7	6.2	13.4	0.5	13	3.1	0.0	117.5
A.19		12.6	0.5	12	14.5	9.1	6.5	17.2	0.4	17	56.4	54.5	7.0	11.9	0.5	11	8.2	0.0	211.7
A.20	宋	34.6	2.1	29	$\frac{1}{2}$	家	6.6	137	$\theta$	137	永	$\frac{1}{2}$	9.0	33	$\mathbf{2}$	29	*	宋	164.4
A.21	*	64.3	3.4	58	$\ast$	*	10.1	103.2	34.4	64	sk.	$\pm$	10.6	62.7	3.1	56	*	$\mathcal{R}$	131.9
A.22	宋	61.4	3.3	58	$\ast$	*	10.7	92.3	19.1	69	永	$\ast$	11.4	60.3	3.7	57	*	宋	256.2
A.23	索	13.9	0.7	13	$\ast$	*	8.4	43.5	13.8	16	永	$*$	8.6	13.6	0.7	13	*	*	341.7
<b>Average Gap</b> for 19 instances					23.2	11.9					75.0	31.2					13.7	0.0	

<span id="page-12-1"></span>**TABLE 6.** Set B and C instances information.



by the metaheuristics for set B and set C instances. Then, we define percentage improvement  $(\%$  I) and best percentage ( $%$  B I) improvement (in 10 runs) of maximum trip time of the metaheuristics w.r.t to MT algorithm heuristics as follows:

$$
\% I = \frac{M_{MT} - M}{M_{MT}} \times 100 \tag{19}
$$

$$
\% \text{ B I} = \frac{M_{MT} - \text{best}}{M_{MT}} \times 100 \tag{20}
$$

Table [7](#page-13-0) showcases the results obtained from employing MT+SA and MT+TS, utilizing the MT algorithm's heuristic solution as their initial starting point. Notably, both SA and TS demonstrate considerable enhancements in optimizing the

<span id="page-12-2"></span>

**FIGURE 3.** (a) Convergence plot of SA and (b) MT+SA for 1000 iterations, for instance, A.13.

maximum trip time of instances in set B and set C. On average, MT+TS improves the maximum trip time by 49.9%, while MT+SA achieves a slightly higher improvement of 54.1%. However, delving deeper into the best percentage improvement reveals MT+TS outperforming MT+SA with a notable 88.5% improvement compared to MT+SA's 69.2%. Despite this, MT+TS exhibits more variability in solution quality, as evidenced by its higher average standard deviation across instances (28.3 for MT+TS compared to 12.8 for MT+SA). This variability suggests that while TS can achieve better improvements, its convergence may be less consistent than that of SA within the same 500 iterations.

Table [8](#page-13-1) contains the results of SA, TS, and GA when initiated with a random feasible solution rather than leveraging the MT algorithm's heuristic. Interestingly, none of the metaheuristics manage to surpass the solutions obtained from the MT heuristic for all instances in set B and set C. With the exception of a few instances (B.2, B.5, C.2, and C.5), the metaheuristics predominantly yield negative values in both percentage improvement (% I) and percentage best improvement (% B I) columns.

<b>Instance</b>	<b>MT</b>			<b>MT+SA-500</b>				<b>MT+TS-500</b>						
Name	$\overline{M_{MT}}$	M	<b>STDEV</b>	best	$\%$ I	%B I	ET	М	<b>STDEV</b>	best	$\%$ I	$\%$ BI	ET	
B.1	28.7	28.7	0.1	28.6	0.0	0.3	51.5	28.7	0.0	28.7	0.0	0.0	46.1	
B.2	356.7	275.0	48.5	199.0	29.7	79.2	111.3	228.6	28.1	203.5	56.0	75.3	97.1	
B.3	30.8	23.9	1.2	21.7	28.9	41.9	195.1	15.8	1.5	14.0	94.9	120.0	199.8	
<b>B.4</b>	127.2	30.6	0.0	30.6	315.7	315.7	271.5	37.3	0.0	37.3	241.0	241.0	190.1	
<b>B.5</b>	809.5	333.7	43.0	262.1	142.6	208.9	489.4	552.3	171.5	272.5	46.6	197.1	385.9	
<b>B.6</b>	130.3	129.5	1.1	127.8	0.6	2.0	650.8	106.2	6.0	103.1	22.7	26.4	513.0	
B.7	343.0	298.8	33.4	256.2	14.8	33.9	889.1	224.5	24.5	200.2	52.8	71.3	737.4	
B.8	122.6	122.6	$0.0\,$	122.6	0.0	0.0	1366.0	95.8	22.2	33.3	28.0	268.2	987.3	
C.1	25.2	25.2	0.0	25.2	0.0	0.0	50.4	25.2	0.0	25.2	0.0	0.0	42.1	
C.2	578.2	270.3	21.7	232.4	113.9	148.8	113.5	425.3	0.0	425.3	36.0	36.0	117.3	
C.3	28.6	27.2	1.6	24.5	5.1	16.7	391.9	20.9	2.2	18.8	36.8	52.1	355.1	
C.4	135.8	135.8	0.0	135.8	0.0	0.0	281.8	127.0	4.3	120.5	6.9	12.7	181.8	
C.5	808.1	366.3	29.8	325.4	120.6	148.3	497.8	420.8	150.5	269.3	92.0	200.1	452.7	
C.6	30.7	30.5	$0.0\,$	30.5	0.7	0.7	743.2	30.7	0.0	30.7	0.0	0.0	634.7	
C.7	449.3	233.3	24.5	212.4	92.6	111.5	1435.0	267.8	34.5	244.5	67.8	83.8	856.8	
C.8	122.2	122.2	$0.0\,$	122.2	0.0	0.0	1349.2	104.1	7.8	92.5	17.4	32.1	1043.2	
Average %					54.1	69.2					49.9	88.5		
Improvement														

<span id="page-13-0"></span>**TABLE 7.** Set B and C Instances Results of SA and TS using MT heuristic.

<span id="page-13-1"></span>**TABLE 8.** Set B and C Instances Results of SA, TS and GA using randomly generated initial solutions. For GA, the results of the instances containing \* are the best results obtained within 3600 seconds.



<span id="page-13-2"></span>

**FIGURE 4.** (a) Convergence plot of TS and (b) MT+TS for 1000 iterations, for instance, A.13.

<span id="page-13-3"></span>

GA encounters additional challenges, failing to solve some instances altogether. To address this, a time limit of 3600 seconds was set for GA, representing the upper bound of computational time for all other metaheuristics. Instances where GA reached this time limit without converging are marked with an asterisk. The computational complexity of GA in a large practical real-world set B and set C instances is due to the generation of a unique initial population ( $P_s = 25$ ),

**FIGURE 5.** (a) Convergence plot of GA for 50 generations, for instance, A.13.

which is equivalent to solving the instances 25 separate times. On average, SA, TS, and GA demonstrate improvements in the solution quality for 4/16, 3/16, and 3/16 instances, respectively. This shows, for bigger instances, a limitation of metaheuristics in the form of dependence on a heuristic

<span id="page-14-0"></span>

**FIGURE 6.** Box plot of average percentage gap (Gap) of metaheuristics for Set A instances.

to give a good initial starting point to converge to a better solution.

#### 4) ALGORITHM BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS

This section provides insights into the convergent behaviors of the proposed metaheuristics.

Figures [3a](#page-12-2) and [3b](#page-12-2) present the convergence graph with the averages of the temperature curves, the objective function for the current iteration (Local Best), and the objective function (maximum trip time) till the current iteration (Global Best) for 10 executions of set A instance A.13 SA starting with random initial and MT (MT+SA) solutions, respectively. From both these graphs, during initial iterations, there's a significant variation in the objective function value for the best local solution. This variation is mainly because of the higher temperature, which allows for the acceptance of poorer solutions (diversity), promoting exploration across the search space. As the temperature decreases, there's a decline in the acceptance of poorer solutions, indicating that optimization is narrowing down to a specific region and converging to the optimal solution.

Figures [4a](#page-13-2) and [4b](#page-13-2) present the convergence graph with the averages of the tabu list lengths and the objective function till current iteration (Global Best) for 10 executions of an example instance (A.13) for tabu search starting with random initial (TS) and MT solutions (MT+TS), respectively.

Initially, the length of the tabu list increases, indicating exploration of the search space for new solutions. Eventually, this growth subsides, signaling convergence, where no new solution is found, and the best solution obtained is returned. An important distinction arises in figure [\(4a](#page-13-2)), where the starting objective function value of the random initial solution is 401, significantly distant from the optimal value of 141. This underscores the importance of using a heuristic solution (MT) as the starting point of the metaheuristic, as depicted in figure [\(4b](#page-13-2)), where the heuristic solution yields an objective function value of 162 as the starting point of tabu search.

<span id="page-14-1"></span>

**FIGURE 7.** Box plot of best percentage gap (B Gap) of metaheuristics for Set A instances.

Figures [5](#page-13-3) present the convergence graph with averages of the objective function for the current generation (Local Best), and the objective function (maximum trip time) till the current generation (Global Best) for 10 executions of set A instance A.13 for GA. The mutation  $(p_m)$ , reproduction  $(p_r)$ and crossover  $(p_c)$  rate (Table [2\)](#page-10-0) are specifically chosen after trial and error in a way to aggressively explore the search space to converge to a better solution with 50 generations. While the convergence graph shares similarities with those of other metaheuristics, GA's distinctive characteristic lies in its modification of 25 solutions (population) in each generation. The local best corresponds to the minimum objective function value among these 25 solutions in each generation. Consequently, the fluctuations observed in the local best reflect the continuous exploration of the solution space by GA's diverse population.

For numerous instances across sets A, B, and C, the solutions generated by all metaheuristics showed no improvement after 500 iterations. Consequently, we set the number of iterations  $(M_i)$  to 500 and the number of generations for GA to 50  $(N_g)$ . This decision was guided by the aim to strike a balance between achieving effective optimization and minimizing computational effort, particularly for larger instances within Sets B and C.

#### 5) DISCUSSION

This section discusses some important observations noticed during the experimentation and provides insights.

In set A, finding high-quality solutions for instance A.12 was a challenge for many of the metaheuristics (except GA and MT+SA), which had a best gap of over 200% for this instance. Their poor performance on this instance significantly affected their average performance, as shown in Figures  $6$  and  $7$ , which show the average (Gap) and best percentage (B Gap) gaps for set A instances for all the metaheuristics, respectively.

We can see the effect of instance A.12, which resulted in the maximum average and best percentage gaps for all

<span id="page-15-5"></span>

**FIGURE 8.** Box plot of average percentage improvement (% I) in solution quality of metaheuristics for Set B and C instances.

<span id="page-15-6"></span>

**FIGURE 9.** Box plot of best percentage improvement (%B I) of metaheuristics for Set B and C instances.

metaheuristics, causing variability in the results by increasing the average standard deviation. The highest standard deviation in the average percentage gap for the set A instance was found in TS, which was 11.3 on average for each instance. On the other hand, SA+MT produced the best results in terms of solution quality, second only to the GA, requiring significantly less computational effort than GA. The results also showed the metaheuristics converged to a better solution if started from a solution with the MT heuristics rather than starting with a random solution.

This observation becomes even more pronounced for larger Set B and C instances. Figures [8](#page-15-5) and [9](#page-15-6) show the average and best percentage improvement in maximum trip time of metaheuristics with respect to the MT algorithm for set B and set C instances, respectively, and the MT solution is shown as a dotted line at 0 % on the y-axis. In both these graphs, we can see that, on average, only MT+SA and MT+TS converge to a better solution than the MT heuristic. For SA, TS, and GA, which started from an initial random solution, converged to a worse solution than the MT heuristic, which is apparent as

the box for these metaheuristics in both graphs lies below the dotted line.

Furthermore, the graphs highlight the substantial variability in the performance of these metaheuristics for larger instances, as evident from the wide ranges of the boxes and whiskers. For instance, the box plot for SA-500 in Figure [9](#page-15-6) shows a wide range, with a maximum improvement of around 176.5% and a minimum of around -87.2% with a mean of -9.4% and a standard deviation of 69.5%. This variability can be attributed to the stochastic nature of these algorithms and their sensitivity to initial solutions (random in this case) and parameter settings.

#### <span id="page-15-4"></span>**VI. CONCLUSION**

In summary, this paper introduced the MD-RPP-RRV problem, a variant of the arc routing problem, and formulated it as a MILP. It presented SA, TS, and GA metaheuristics designed to solve MR-RPP-RRV by improving the solution quality obtained by the MT heuristic. Optimal solutions were obtained for smaller instances by solving MILP formulation using Gurobi; for larger real-world instances, memory and computing limitations prevented finding optimal solutions. Experimentation revealed that, for smaller instances, SA, TS, and GA significantly improved solution quality, reducing the initial optimality gap of MT heuristic from 162% to 0.9%, 16.2% and 0%, with GA converging to optimal solutions but requiring substantial computational effort. However, for larger instances, SA and TS improved solution quality by 54.1% and 49.9%, respectively, relative to MT, when initialized with MT solutions. Yet, when initialized with a random solution, SA, TS, and GA failed to enhance solution quality for large instances, highlighting the dependence of metaheuristics on the initial heuristic solution for larger instances. Future directions include exploring robust solutions considering multiple vehicle failures, integrating temperature effects on batteries, and addressing facility location and fleet size problems.

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