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Design of a two-echelon freight distribution system in an urban area considering third-party logistics and loading-unloading zones

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Citation

YU, Vincent F.; WINARNO; LIN, Shih-Wei; and GUNAWAN, Aldy. Design of a two-echelon freight distribution system in an urban area considering third-party logistics and loading-unloading zones. (2020). Applied Soft Computing. 97, (B),.

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[Applied Soft Computing Journal xxx \(xxxx\) xxx](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2020.106707)

Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](http://www.elsevier.com/locate/asoc)

Applied Soft Computing Journal

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/asoc

Design of a two-echelon freight distribution system in an urban area considering third-party logistics and loading–unloading zones

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 3 March 2019 Received in revised form 13 January 2020 Accepted 5 September 2020 Available online xxxx

Keywords: Two-echelon freight distribution system Third-party logistics Loading–unloading zones Simulated annealing

A B S T R A C T

This research examines the problem of designing a two-echelon freight distribution system in a dense urban area that considers third-party logistics (TPL) and loading–unloading zones (LUZs). The proposed system takes advantage of outsourcing the last mile deliveries to a TPL provider and utilizing LUZs as temporary intermediate facilities instead of using permanent intermediate facilities to consolidate freight. A mathematical model and a simulated annealing (SA) algorithm are developed to solve the problem. The efficiency and effectiveness of the proposed SA heuristic are verified by testing it on existing benchmark instances. Computational results show that the performance of the proposed SA is comparable with that of another state-of-the-art algorithm. The model and algorithm are then used to design a two-echelon freight distribution system in Taipei City, Taiwan. Results of the case study indicate that the proposed model and algorithm provide a better distribution system.

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1. Introduction

A two-echelon freight distribution system (FDS) is an efficient strategy for freight delivery in urban areas, in which the freight is consolidated at an intermediate facility before arriving at its destination. Two-echelon FDSs can be applied in express delivery companies, grocery and hypermarket product distribution, spare parts distribution companies and newspaper distribution companies. However, the design of a two-echelon FDS in urban areas cannot be separated from existing business strategies and city developments. One business strategy for increasing the competitiveness of a company is to collaborate with third-party logistics (TPL) [\[1](#page-13-0)] and the literature has reported TPL involvement in designing a two-echelon FDS model [[2\]](#page-13-1).

Providing loading–unloading zones (LUZs) in a city is also one form of city development to facilitate freight loading–unloading activities, however few studies have explored LUZs. Dezi et al. [[3\]](#page-13-2) and Pinto et al. [[4\]](#page-13-3) optimized the distribution and size of LUZs according to the demand and location of business activities. The application of an LUZ system was also studied by Muñuzuri et al. [\[5](#page-13-4)], Alho and Silva [\[6\]](#page-13-5) and Gardrat and Serouge [\[7\]](#page-13-6).

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2020.106707> 1568-4946/© 2020 Published by Elsevier B.V.

To the authors' knowledge, no study has considered TPL and LUZs simultaneously in designing a two-echelon FDS. This study fills this gap by proposing a two-echelon open location routing problem (2E-OLRP) considering TPL and LUZs. The proposed 2E-OLRP differs from that described by Pichka et al. [\[2](#page-13-1)]. [Fig.](#page-2-0) [1](#page-2-0) illustrates the difference between the two problems. [Fig.](#page-2-0) $1(a)$ $1(a)$ shows how the TPL is involved in both echelons in the problem proposed by $[2]$, while it can be seen from [Fig.](#page-2-0) $1(b)$ $1(b)$, that the TPL is involved only in the second echelon, meaning that only the second echelon vehicles (SEVs) arrive at customers.

This study considers the use of LUZs as temporary satellites in a 2E-OLRP. When a company utilizes a usual (permanent) satellite to connect its depot and customers, the activation cost of the permanent satellite increases the total distribution cost. Therefore, utilizing LUZs reduces the total distribution cost for the company because these facilities can be accessed freely.

There may be conflicting cost components in the system. For example, more satellites may result in smaller traveling cost of the second level vehicles, while increase the traveling cost of the first level vehicles. Therefore, the objective of the 2E-OLRP is to minimize the total costs of the distribution system consisting of the satellites' set-up cost, the activation cost of vehicles and routing cost for both first and second echelon vehicles. The 2E-OLRP is an NP-hard problem because it generalizes

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Fig. 1. Illustration of the 2E-OLRP solution in [[2\]](#page-13-1) and in this paper.

Fig. 2. Example of solution representation.

[Fig.](#page-2-1) 3. Visual illustration of the solution presented in Fig. [2.](#page-2-1)

several known NP-hard problems: the two-echelon facility location problem, the two-echelon vehicle routing problem and the capacitated location-routing problem. Therefore, heuristic solution approaches are efficient and effective alternatives for solving medium- and large-scale 2E-OLRPs.

The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows. First, this paper proposes a 2E-OLRP that considers TPL in the second echelon. Second, it proposes an efficient and effective SA heuristic to solve the 2E-OLRP. In addition, SA has been used

successfully by many researchers to solve distribution system problems [\[8–](#page-13-7)[12](#page-13-8)]. Finally, a case study of designing a two-echelon FDS in Taipei City, Taiwan is presented to illustrate the advantage of utilizing LUZs.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section [2](#page-3-0) summarizes the related literature. Section [3](#page-3-1) presents a mathematical model for the 2E-OLRP. Section [4](#page-4-0) discusses the proposed SA heuristic for the 2E-OLRP. Section [5](#page-5-0) presents the

computational study. Section [6](#page-8-0) discusses the case study. Finally, Section [7](#page-11-0) offers conclusions and suggestions for future research.

2. Literature review

The two-echelon open location routing problem is a variant of the two-echelon location routing problem (2E-LRP). The 2E-LRP was introduced by Jacobsen and Madsen [[13](#page-13-9)]. Cuda et al. [[14\]](#page-13-10) surveyed papers for the 2E-LRP before 2012. Jacobsen and Madsen [[13](#page-13-9)] designed a heuristic algorithm for the 2E-LRP in a newspaper distribution system. They proposed three sequential heuristics for the problem. These three heuristics were then analyzed in depth [[15](#page-13-11)]. Lin and Lei [[16\]](#page-13-12) considered a two-level routing-location problem in the design of a national finished goods distribution system for a Taiwanese label-stock manufacturer. They proposed a hybrid genetic algorithm embedded with a routing heuristic to solve the problem. These authors reported that customers with larger demand should be served directly from the depot.

Boccia et al. [[17](#page-13-13)] designed a two-echelon FDS as a 2E-LRP model. The authors reported the basic assumptions of the 2E-LRP. A tabu search (TS) was proposed to solve the problem for small-, medium- and large-scale instances. The study was continued in Boccia et al. [[18](#page-13-14)] by providing three mixed integer linear programming models using one-, two- and three-index formulations. The authors solved only the of two- and three-index models using XPRESS-MP for small- and medium-scale instances.

Nguyen et al. [\[19\]](#page-13-15) presented a multi-start evolutionary local search to solve the 2E-LRP. They examined the method on three sets of instances with up to 200 customers. Nguyen et al. [[20\]](#page-13-16) subsequently introduced two new sets of instances for the 2E-LRP and implemented a greedy randomized adaptive search procedure (GRASP) with path relinking. In Nguyen et al. [\[21\]](#page-13-17), they improved their findings on the same instances by using a multi-start iterated local search with tabu list and path relinking.

Crainic et al. [[22](#page-13-18)] tackled the 2E-LRP using a TS heuristic. Their objective was to define the location and number of two kinds of capacitated facilities: the size of two different vehicle fleets and the related routes in each echelon. Contardo et al. [[23\]](#page-13-19) solved the two-echelon capacitated location routing problem (2E-CLRP) using a branch-and-cut algorithm and an adaptive large neighborhood search. Schwengerer et al. [[24](#page-13-20)] presented a variable neighborhood search (VNS) for the 2E-LRP, adapted and extended VNS for the location routing problem [[25](#page-13-21)].

Winkenbach et al. [[26](#page-13-22)] solved the 2E-LRP in order to guide the strategic decision making of postal operators. The problem was addressed using a heuristic that splits the optimization problem into two interdependent subproblems. Breunig et al. [[27](#page-13-23)] proposed a large neighborhood search (LNS) to solve the two-echelon vehicle routing problem (2E-VRP) and the 2E-LRP.

Furthermore, several researchers have added other aspects to the 2E-LRP in order to bring it closer to real-world application. Nikbakhsh and Zegordi [\[28\]](#page-13-24) presented a 2E-LRP with soft time windows. They proposed four-index formulation to model the problem. A heuristic consisting of neighborhood search and an Or-opt heuristic was proposed to solve the problem and tested on five classes of instances with up to 100 customers. Time windows were also considered by Govindan et al. [\[29](#page-13-25)] in designing a 2E-LRP for a sustainable supply chain network of perishable food. The problem was solved using a hybrid of multi-objective particle swarm optimization and adapted multi-objective variable neighborhood search. The algorithm was tested on small-, mediumand large-scale instances. The performance of the algorithm was compared with genetic algorithm based methods.

Dalfard et al. [\[30\]](#page-13-26) considered vehicle fleet capacity and maximum route length constraints in the 2E-LRP. A hybrid of genetic algorithm and SA was applied to solve the problem. The effectiveness of the algorithm was compared with that of LINGO on their own five instances with up to 100 customers.

Rahmani et al. [\[31\]](#page-13-27) formulated a multi-product with pickup and delivery system as a 2E-LRP. They proposed two types of local search to improve the routing and the processing center locations. A 2-opt was extended to tackle the pickup demand, delivery demand and multi-product constraints. A local search, called product merging, was especially designed for the problem. The performance of the algorithm was tested on five groups of instances with up to 200 customers.

Vidović et al. [\[32](#page-13-28)] presented a variant of the 2E-LRP considering a collection of non-hazardous recyclables under a profit and distance-dependent collection rate. The model defines the collection of non-hazardous recyclables from end users to transfer points, passing through collection points. The authors proposed a two-phase heuristic to address the problem. The number and location of collection points, end user allocation and quantities collected are determined in the first phase, while optimal routes of collection vehicles and transfer station locations are determined in the second phase. The proposed heuristic was tested on small-, medium- and large-scale instances.

Pichka et al. [\[2\]](#page-13-1) proposed a 2E-LRP considering TPL in the first and second echelons. The concept of closed and open routes was defined in both echelons of the model. The authors introduced the 2E-OLRP term to model the problem and proposed a twophase algorithm to solve it. The first phase sets opened satellites, assigns customers to those opened satellites and constructs the first echelon vehicle routes, while the second phase constructs vehicle routes in the second echelon. To improve solutions in the first phase, an SA heuristic was proposed and another SA heuristic was used to improve solutions in the second phase.

3. Mathematical model

The components of the 2E-OLRP include a depot with unlimited capacity, a set of customers with given coordinates and demands, a set of potential satellites with known coordinates and capacities and a set of homogeneous vehicles in the first and the second echelons. This study defines 2E-OLRP on a complete undirected graph $G = (V, A)$. The node-set V is partitioned into a depot (node 0), a set $M = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ of potential satellite locations and a set $T = \{n+1, n+2, n+r\}$ of customers. Each arc (i, j) in the arc-set *A* has a traveling cost c_{ij} . W_m and σ_m denote capacity and set-up cost of satellite *m*∈*M*, respectively. Each customer *t*∈*T* has a demand *d^t* . *F* is a set of identical first echelon vehicles (FEVs) based at the main depot, each with capacity *H* and activation cost *K*. *E* is a set of smaller identical second echelon vehicles (SEVs), each with capacity *L* and activation cost *B*. A_1 and A_2 are the arcs in the first and second echelon, respectively.

This study formulates 2E-OLRP as a mixed integer linear program using the following variables:

- $x_{ij}^f = 1$ if FEV f traverses (i,j) , 0 otherwise;
- $y_{ij}^e = 1$ if SEV *e* traverses (*i*, *j*), 0 otherwise;
- $z_m = 1$ if satellite *m* is opened, 0 otherwise;
- *qmt* = 1 if satellite *m* serves customer *t*;
- $b_m^f \geq 0$: amount delivered to satellite *m* by FEV *f* ;
- u_m^f, s_t^e : auxiliary variables.

The mathematical model of the 2E-OLRP is as follows:

Min
$$
\sum_{m \in M} \sigma_m z_m + \sum_{m \in M} \sum_{f \in F} K x_{0m}^f + \sum_{m \in M} \sum_{t \in T} \sum_{e \in E} B y_{mt}^e + \sum_{(i,j) \in A_1} \sum_{f \in F} c_{ij} x_{ij}^f + \sum_{i \in A_2} \sum_{j \in T} c_{ij} y_{ij}^e
$$
 (1)

$$
\sum_{i \in M \cup T} \sum_{e \in E} y_{ti}^e = 1, \forall t \in T \tag{2}
$$

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$$
\sum_{j \in M \cup T} y_{ji}^e = \sum_{j \in M \cup T} y_{ij}^e, \forall i \in M \cup T, e \in E
$$
\n
$$
\sum \sum \sum y_{i,k}^e < 1, \forall e \in E \tag{3}
$$

$$
\sum_{m \in M} \sum_{t \in T} y_{mt}^e \le 1, \forall e \in E \tag{4}
$$

$$
\sum_{t \in T} \sum_{j \in M \cup T} d_t y_{tj}^e \le L, \forall e \in E
$$
\n(5)

$$
s_t^e - s_j^e + r y_{tj}^e \le r - 1, \forall e \in E, [t, j] \in T : t \ne j \tag{6}
$$

$$
\sum_{i \in T} y_{mi}^e + \sum_{i \in M \cup T} y_{it}^e \le 1 + q_{mt}, \forall m \in M, t \in T, e \in E \tag{7}
$$

$$
\sum_{m \in M} q_{mt} = 1, \forall t \in T \tag{8}
$$

$$
\sum d_t q_{mt} \leq W_m z_m, \forall m \in M \tag{9}
$$

$$
\sum_{i \in M \cup \{0\}}^{t \in T} \sum_{f \in F} x_{mi}^f = z_m, \forall m \in M
$$
 (10)

$$
\sum_{j \in M \cup \{0\}} x_{ji}^f = \sum_{j \in M \cup \{0\}} x_{ij}^f, \forall f \in F, i \in M \cup \{0\}
$$
 (11)

$$
u_m^f - u_j^f + nx_{mj}^f \le n - 1, \forall f \in F, [m, j] \in M; m \ne j \tag{12}
$$

$$
\sum_{f \in F} b_m^f = \sum_{t \in T} d_t q_{mt}, \forall m \in M \tag{13}
$$

$$
\sum_{m \in M} b_m^f \le H, \forall f \in F \tag{14}
$$

$$
b_m^f \le H \times \sum_{i \in M \cup \{0\}} x_{mi}^f, \forall m \in M, f \in F
$$
\n(15)

$$
x_{ij}^f \in \{0, 1\}, \forall (i, j) \in A_1, f \in F
$$
\n(16)

$$
y_{ij}^{e} \in \{0, 1\}, \forall (i, j) \in A_2, e \in E
$$
\n(17)

$$
z_m \in \{0, 1\}, \forall m \in M \tag{18}
$$

$$
q_{mt} \in \{0, 1\}, \forall m \in M, t \in T
$$
\n
$$
(19)
$$

$$
b_m^f \ge 0, \forall m \in M, f \in F \tag{20}
$$

$$
s_t^e \geq 0, \forall e \in E, t \in T \tag{21}
$$

$$
u_m^f \ge 0, \forall m \in M, f \in F \tag{22}
$$

The objective function [\(1](#page-3-2)) includes satellite set-up costs, vehicles activation costs and vehicle travel costs. Constraint ([2\)](#page-3-3) ensures that each customer is visited once. The second echelon route continuity constraint [\(3\)](#page-4-1) guarantees that a vehicle returns to its satellite of origin. Constraint [\(4\)](#page-4-2) ensures that each SEV leaves one satellite at most. Constraint [\(5](#page-4-3)) is an SEVs' capacity constraint. Constraint ([6\)](#page-4-4) is the sub-tour elimination constraint. Constraint ([7\)](#page-4-5) ensures that satellite *m* serves customer *t* if an SEV *e* leaves satellite *m* and arrives at customer *t*. Constraint [\(8\)](#page-4-6) assigns each customer to a single satellite. Constraint ([9\)](#page-4-7) ensures that no customer is assigned to a closed satellite and the total demand served by an opened satellite cannot exceed its capacity.

Constraint ([10](#page-4-8)) states that each opened satellite must be visited by one FEV. Constraint (11) (11) ensures trip continuity for each FEV used. Constraint [\(12\)](#page-4-10) prevents sub-tours. Constraint [\(13](#page-4-11)) is flow conservation constraint. Constraint (14) (14) (14) is the FEV capacity constraint. Constraint [\(15\)](#page-4-13) ensures that if FEV *f* does not visit satellite *m*, then the amount brought by FEV *f* to satellite *m* must be zero. Constraints [\(16\)](#page-4-14)–([22](#page-4-15)) define decision variables.

4. Simulated annealing heuristic for 2E-OLRP

Metropolis et al. [\[33\]](#page-13-29) introduced SA and Kirkpatrick et al. [\[34\]](#page-13-30) popularized SA by applying it to combinatorial optimization problems. SA has been successfully applied to solve numerous hard combinatorial optimization problems [\[11,](#page-13-31)[12](#page-13-8)[,35–](#page-13-32)[43](#page-13-33)]. Although rich algorithms [[2](#page-13-1)[,21,](#page-13-17)[25,](#page-13-21)[27](#page-13-23),[30,](#page-13-26)[44](#page-14-0)] have been proposed by researchers to solve such problems, SA's capacity to enlarge the solution space by exploring worse solutions is promising in addressing problems like the 2E-OLRP. This study therefore proposes an SA-based heuristic for solving the 2E-OLRP.

4.1. Solution representation

A set of number strings is employed to represent a 2E-OLRP solution. It consists of *n* customers indicated by the set {1, 2, . . . , *n*}, *m* potential satellites indicated by the set $\{n+1, n+2, \ldots, n+m\}$ and *Ndummy*¹ stars (*) and *Ndummy*² zeros (0). These dummy stars and zeros are used to separate routes in the first and second echelons, respectively, even though the capacity of the current vehicle is not exceeded. N_{dummy1} and N_{dummy2} are calculated as $\left[\sum_i \frac{d_i}{Q_1}\right]$ and

 $\left[\sum_i \frac{d_i}{4Q_2}\right]$ respectively, where d_i is the demand of customer *i*, Q_1 and Q_2 ^{\tilde{Q}} are the capacities of the vehicle in the first and second echelons, respectively and $\lceil \bullet \rceil$ denotes the smallest integer bigger than or equivalent to the enclosed number. The *i*th number in $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ indicates the *i*th customer to be served. The first number in a solution is always in $\{n+1, n+2, \ldots, n+m\}$, indicating the first satellite under consideration.

Each satellite serves customers between the satellite and the next satellite in the solution representation. The first route of a satellite is started by serving the first customer after the satellite. Subsequent customers are added to the current route one after the other. If including a customer will exceed the current SEV's capacity, the current route is ended. In the event that the next number in the solution representation is a dummy zero, the current route is ended. A new route will then start by serving the next customer after the dummy zero. It should be noted that the vehicles in the second echelon do not need to return to the satellite from which they start.

After determining the satellites to be opened and the service sequence of customers, the visiting sequence to the used satellites can be obtained as follows. The FEV departs from the depot to the first used satellite. If including a used satellite exceeds the FEV's capacity, then the current route ends and the FEV returns to the depot. A new route is then started from the depot to serve the remaining used satellites. The current route also ends if the next entry in the solution representation is a dummy star. After serving the last used satellite, the FEV returns to the depot.

This solution representation scheme always gives a 2E-OLRP solution without exceeding the capacity of FEVs or SEVs. However, the capacity of satellites may be exceeded, which will result in an infeasible solution whose objective value will be penalized.

4.2. Illustration of solution representation

This study uses the 20-5-1 instance of Prodhon's 2E-LRP dataset to illustrate the solution representation. The number of depots, satellites and customers are one, five and twenty, respectively. Each satellite has the same capacity but different activation costs. The capacities and activation costs of FEVs and SEVs are homogeneous. The customers' demands and coordinates of the depot, satellites and customers are known.

[Fig.](#page-2-1) [2](#page-2-1) illustrates an example of the solution representation. In the first echelon, the solution consists of two routes. The routes start and terminate at node *d* (depot). Because satellites 1 (21), 4 (24) and 5 (25) have customers to be served, they will be opened, then the visiting sequence of the FEV is satellites 1, 5 and 4. Because there is a dummy star between satellite 5 and satellite 4, the FEV returns to the depot after visiting satellite 5, then the

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second FEV route starts from the depot to satellite 4. After visiting satellite 4, the FEV returns to the depot.

In the second echelon, there are five routes. The first route starts from satellite 1 and terminates at customer 14, because the next element after customer 14 in the solution string is satellite 2. Note that the dummy zero following satellite 1 has no effect because there is no customer to be served. In the fourth route, visiting customer 19 will violate the vehicle's capacity. Consequently, the fourth route terminates at customer 18 and the fifth route starts from satellite 4 by visiting customer 19 as its first customer and terminates at customer 11. New routes are built until all customers are served. [Fig.](#page-2-2) [3](#page-2-2) is a visual illustration of the distribution network corresponding to the sample solution representation illustrated in [Fig.](#page-2-1) [2.](#page-2-1)

4.3. Initial solution and neighborhood

The initial solution is randomly constructed. This study uses a standard SA procedure with a random neighborhood structure that uses three types of move, namely insertion, swap and 2-opt. $\mathcal{N}(X)$ denotes the set of neighboring solutions of *X*. In every iteration, a new solution *Y* is chosen from $\mathcal{N}(X)$ either by insertion, swap, or 2-opt moves as follows.

The insertion move is carried out by arbitrarily choosing an element of *X* and inserting it into the position immediately before another arbitrarily selected element of *X*. The swap move is carried out by arbitrarily choosing two elements of *X* and then switching their positions. The 2-opt move is carried out by arbitrarily choosing a substring of *X* and then reversing the order of the substring. The probabilities of choosing these moves will be self-tuned.

Let P_i be the probability of choosing the *i*th move, computed as $f_i/\sum_{j=1}^3 f_j$, where f_i is the average score of the *i*th move. f_i is calculated as $\sum_{j=1}^{C_i} \frac{1}{Obj(x_j)}/C_i$, where C_i is the number of times that the *i*th move is used and *Obj*(*xj*) denotes the *j*th objective function value obtained by the *i*th move.

A move will be discarded if it results an infeasible solution. In this case, a new move will be selected until a feasible solution is obtained.

Because the impact of satellites on solution quality are more significant than that of customers, the probability of choosing a satellite in the insertion and swap moves are set to 20%.

4.4. The SA procedure

[Table](#page-5-1) [1](#page-5-1) summarizes the five parameters used in the algorithm. The algorithm is described as follows. The current temperature (*T*) is set to be the initial temperature T_0 at the onset of the proposed SA heuristic, whereas the best solution (*Xbest*) and the current solution (*X*) are set to obj(*X*, *P*). Each iteration at a certain temperature generates a neighborhood search mechanism as de-scribed in Section [4.3.](#page-5-2) Let Δ be the objective function difference between the new neighborhood solution and the current solution, i.e., $\Delta = \text{obj}(Y, P)$ - $\text{obj}(X, P)$. If $\Delta < 0$, then the new neighborhood solution is better than the current solution; otherwise, the new neighborhood solution is accepted if a random number *r* between 0 and 1 is smaller than exp($-\Delta/T$). If the new neighborhood solution satisfies these conditions, then *Y* replaces *X* as the current solution; next, the probability of choosing different moves is re-calculated.

The current temperature declines to αT , 0< α <1, after running *Iiter* iterations at the current temperature *T*. The algorithm ends if the best solution has not been improved after *Nnon*-*impro*v*ing* consecutive temperature reductions. The best solution (*Xbest*) and its objective function value (*Fbest*) are updated when a better feasible solution is found. The best 2E-OLRP solution is derived from *Xbest* when the heuristic ends. [Fig.](#page-5-3) [4](#page-5-3) depicts a pseudo code explaining the proposed SA heuristic.

Table 1

Begin

μ. Input: T_0 , <i>Iiter</i> , <i>Nnon-improving</i> , P , α , and $2E$ -OLRP instance;				
12. Generate initial solution X by random,				
3. $T \leftarrow T_0, I \leftarrow 0; N \leftarrow 0; F_{best} \leftarrow obj(X); X_{best} \leftarrow X;$				
A. while $N < N_{non-improving}$ do				
5. for $I \leftarrow 0$ to I_{iter} do				
6. Generate $p =$ random (0,1);				
7. Case $p \leq P_1$: generate a new solution Y from X by swap move;				
8. Case $P_1 \leq P_2$: generate a new solution Y from X by insertion move;				
9. Case $P_2 \leq p \leq 1$: generate a new solution Y from X by 2-opt move;				
10. if $obj(Y, P) - obj(X, P) \leq 0$ then				
11. $X \leftarrow Y$				
12. else				
13. Generate $r =$ random (0,1);				
14. If $r \leq \exp(\Delta/T)$ then				
15. $X \leftarrow Y$:				
Update the probability of choosing move, P_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$); 16.				
17. if obj $(X, P) \le F_{best}$ and X is feasible then				
18. $X_{best} \leftarrow X$; $F_{best} \leftarrow obj(X, P)$; $N \leftarrow 0$;				
19. end for				
20. $T \leftarrow \alpha^* T: I \leftarrow 0: N \leftarrow N+1$:				
21. end while				
22. return X_{best} and F_{best} ;				
End				

Fig. 4. Pseudo code for the proposed SA heuristic.

5. Computational study

The 2E-OLRP model is solved by CPLEX 12.8.0.0 on a computer equipped with an Intel Xeon E5-1620v2 CPU at 3.70 GHz and 40 GB of RAM running Windows 10. The proposed SA heuristic is implemented using Microsoft Visual C++ 6.0 and run on a computer equipped with an Intel Core i7-920 CPU at 2.67 GHz and 8 GB of RAM running Windows 10.

5.1. Test instances

This study adopts two well-known 2E-LRP datasets presented by Nguyen et al. [\[21](#page-13-17)] as 2E-OLRP instances. These instances are available at [http://prodhonc.free.fr/Instances/instances0_us.htm.](http://prodhonc.free.fr/Instances/instances0_us.htm) [Table](#page-6-0) [2](#page-6-0) summarizes the datasets. As in Breunig et al. [[27](#page-13-23)], the first echelon distance has a higher weight than the second echelon distance.

The 8 small 2E-OLRP instances are solved by CPLEX and the results are compared with those achieved by the proposed SA heuristic. Furthermore, the performance of the proposed SA heuristic is compared with that of the state-of-the-art algorithm on the two well-known 2E-LRP instances.

Table 2 Summary of test instances.

Table 3

Table 4

Comparison of CPLEX and SA heuristic based on Nguyen's and Prodhon's instances.

 a Time-c = Time $* 1.973/1.166$.

Table 5

Computational results for the first dataset adopted from Nguyen's datasets.

 a Time-c = Time $*$ 1.606/1.166.

5.2. Parameter setting

The proposed algorithm uses five parameters and the Taguchi method of experimental design [[45](#page-14-1)] is applied to obtain the best parameter combination. Each of the five parameters has four levels. The SA algorithm is executed five times for each of the 10 randomly selected instances. The relative percentage deviation (RPD) from the best solution is obtained using the design of the experiment. The RPD is calculated as RPD = (*ObjMethod* − $Obj^{Best})/Obj^{Best} × 100%, where *Obj^{Method}* is the average objective$ value of five replications obtained using a certain parameter

combination and *ObjBest* is the minimum objective value among five replications obtained using all parameter combinations.

This study performed sensitivity analysis to observe the effect of parameter values on solution quality and computational time. [Fig.](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0) shows the results of the sensitivity analysis. Solid and dash curves in the subfigures indicate the average relative percentage deviation (ARPD) values and the computational times, respectively. As shown in the figure, *Iiter* and *Nnon*-*impro*v*ing* significantly affect the computational time.

It is further noted that *T*0, *Iiter* and *Nnon*-*impro*v*ing* significantly influence solution quality. If these three parameters are high, solution quality will be better. However, increasing the values of

 a Time-c = Time $*$ 1.606/1.166.

Table 6

these parameters, especially *Iiter* and *Nnon*-*impro*v*ing* , will increase computational time drastically, as shown in [Figs.](#page-9-0) $5(b)$ $5(b)$ and $5(d)$. For α , as shown in [Fig.](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0)(c), 0.975 is the best value.

Computational time is not significantly affected by α , while the value of *P* influences the probability of accepting an infeasible solution during the execution of the algorithm. As shown in [Fig.](#page-9-0) [5\(](#page-9-0)e), if *P* is too large, then the algorithm tends to reject infeasible solutions and is prone to being trapped in local optima. On the other hand, if *P* is too small, then the algorithm is more likely to accept an infeasible solution.

In order to obtain a comparable computational time with the previous method, parameter values are set based on the average computational time (ACT) of LNS in solving the 2E-LRPs of the Nguyen and Prodhon datasets [[27](#page-13-23)]. The result shows that the ACT for the former dataset is 480 s, while the latter is 564 s. The faster ACT of the two datasets is chosen as the computational time upper bound (λ) for parameter setting. As long as the computational time of the smallest ARPD does not exceed λ , the parameter value used will be chosen as the final parameter values. Otherwise, the parameter values are chosen from the next smallest ARPD in the same manner and so on. [Fig.](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0) shows that using the final parameter values, $T_0 = 5$, $\alpha = 0.975$, $I_{iter} = 12000$ L, $N_{non-improwing}$ = 15 and P = 0.003B, chosen in this way, the computational time is smaller than λ.

5.3. Computational results

The performance of the proposed SA heuristic is compared with those of CPLEX and LNS proposed by [[27](#page-13-23)]. Due to the different hardware used by the three solution methods, a conversion of the computational time is conducted in order to allow a fair comparison. Refer to [https://www.cpubenchmark.net/](https://www.cpubenchmark.net/singleThread.html) [singleThread.html,](https://www.cpubenchmark.net/singleThread.html) which shows that each different hardware has a different CPU single thread performance (STP). In line with the information on the website, [Table](#page-6-3) [3](#page-6-3) summarizes the STPs of the different hardware discussed in this paper. Note that the higher the STP value, the faster the hardware will operate.

5.3.1. Results for 2E-OLRP instances

The CPLEX results of the 2E-OLRP model are compared with those obtained by the proposed SA heuristic on 8 small instances of Nguyen et al. [[21](#page-13-17)]. As shown in [Table](#page-6-4) [4](#page-6-4), CPLEX obtains 6 optimal solutions in an average of about 1686 s, whereas the proposed SA heuristic obtains 5 out of 8 optimal solutions in 14.1 s, on average. CPLEX cannot solve two of the problems within 8.46 h. Note that the computational times listed in the Timec column of the table have been converted from the original computational times in the Time column using the STP values in [Table](#page-6-3) [3.](#page-6-3)

5.3.2. Results for 2E-LRP instances

To verify its effectiveness, the proposed SA heuristic is tested on two sets of 2E-LRP instances and the results can be found at <http://web.ntust.edu.tw/~vincent/lrp/>. The results are then compared with those obtained by LNS [\[27\]](#page-13-23). [Tables](#page-6-5) [5](#page-6-5) and [6](#page-7-1) list the average solution value, the best solution value and the running time of 20 runs for LNS and the proposed SA heuristic. The Time-c column lists the computational times converted from the original computational times in the Time column using the STP values in [Table](#page-6-3) [3.](#page-6-3) It can be seen that the performance of the proposed SA heuristic is comparable with that of LNS, with lower computing time. The time complexity of the proposed SA heuristic is $O((n^2+n)$ log *n*). The determination of the SA time complexity can be seen in [\[46\]](#page-14-2). The LNS consists of three nested loops at most, thus, its time complexity is $O(n^3)$.

Statistical tests are conducted to determine whether the proposed SA heuristic outperforms LNS. For each test, the performances of SA and LNS are compared on the same dataset, thus,

Results of the Wilcoxon signed-rank tests on average solution value, the best solution value and the running time.

*Indicates that significant difference exists.

two related samples are observed. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test can be used to test the related samples [\[47\]](#page-14-3). The Wilcoxon signedrank tests are conducted on average solution value, the best solution value and the running time. [Table](#page-8-2) [7](#page-8-2) shows the statistical test results at the confidence level of $\alpha = 0.05$. The P-values of average solution value and the best solution value for Nguyen's, Prodhon's and all datasets are all more than α implying that the proposed SA heuristic and the LNS have the same performance in terms of solution quality. Whereas, the P-values of the running time for Nguyen's, Prodhon's and all datasets are all less than α . It implies that the running time for the two algorithms are different. Based on the running times shown in [Tables](#page-6-5) [5](#page-6-5) and [6,](#page-7-1) the proposed SA is faster than LNS in solving 2E-LRP.

5.3.3. Sensitivity analysis

This subsection presents the sensitivity analysis results. In particular, (i) the varying cost of satellite set-up and (ii) the varying activation cost of SEVs are considered. For both analyses, experiments were conducted on 100-10MN and 100-10-2b instances, consisting of 100 customers and 10 satellites. A summary of the abbreviations used in tables of this section can be found in [Table](#page-9-1) [8.](#page-9-1)

The results of the first analysis are presented in [Tables](#page-10-0) [9](#page-10-0) and [10](#page-10-1), showing the effects of varying satellite set-up costs and cost percentages, respectively. As shown in [Table](#page-10-0) [9,](#page-10-0) the number of satellites used is influenced by satellite set-up cost. If satellite set-up cost is less than 100%, then the number of satellites used tends to increase. This means that some potential satellites with normal cost (100%) are close to customers, but are not chosen by the algorithm, because the satellite set-up cost is high. When the satellite set-up cost is zero, more potential satellites can be opened close to customers. In addition, both instances show an increase in the number of satellites used when satellite costs drop to zero.

[Table](#page-10-1) [10](#page-10-1) shows that the percentage of satellite set-up costs negatively affects the percentage of all other components' distribution costs. If the percentage of satellite set-up costs decreases, then the percentage of all other components' distribution costs increases. It can thus be concluded that designing a twoechelon distribution system in urban areas is strongly influenced by the satellite set-up cost, because property prices in urban areas is very high. Thus, free LUZs support more efficient and less expensive distribution systems in urban areas.

The second analysis's results are presented in [Tables](#page-10-2) [11](#page-10-2) and [12](#page-11-1), showing the effects of varying SEV activation costs and SEV cost percentages, respectively. As shown in [Table](#page-10-2) [11,](#page-10-2) if the SEV activation cost decreases, then the number of SEVs used increases. Variation of SEV activation cost does not significantly affect the number of vehicles used in the first echelon for both instances, but does exhibit different effects on other components of the total distribution cost. Variation of SEV activation cost does not affect the vehicle travel cost in the first echelon and the satellite set-up cost in 100-10-2b, but does affect those in the 100-10MN instance. For the 100-10MN instance, if the vehicle activation cost of the second echelon increases, then the satellite set-up cost tends to increase; whereas when the vehicle activation cost of the second echelon is less than or greater than 100%, the vehicle travel cost of the second echelon decreases in 100-10MN and remains steady in 100-10-2b.

As shown in [Table](#page-11-1) [12](#page-11-1), the proportion of SEV activation cost affects all cost components in 100-10-2b. When the SEV activation cost proportion increases, all other cost components decrease, whereas in 100-10MN, the proportion of SEV activation cost only affects the FEV activation cost proportion and SEV travel cost proportion. When the SEV activation cost proportion increases, the proportion of both these cost components decreases.

6. Case study

This case study presents the design of a two-echelon FDS in Taipei City, Taiwan considering TPL and LUZs. The LUZs were provided by the Taipei City government along some major roads in commercial areas. Trucks could park temporarily in these facilities while loading or unloading. [Fig.](#page-11-2) [6](#page-11-2) shows an employee of a logistics company unloading packages from a box van to a courier motorcycle at an LUZ. The LUZs can be used for free by anyone, including logistics companies. As described in Section [1](#page-1-7), the LUZs function as temporary satellites.

In this case study, a logistics company has one depot located at the outskirts of Taipei City and customers are located throughout the Taipei City area. A number of potential permanent (temporary) satellites are located in the Taipei City area. The company uses a two-echelon system to deliver freight from the depot to customers. The freight is delivered from the depot to satellites by a truck (first echelon). Afterwards, from the satellites the freight is shipped to customers by a motorcycle (second echelon). The company's objective is to minimize the total distribution cost by optimizing the number and locations of the selected permanent (temporary) satellites as well as delivery routes in both echelons. In addition, the total distribution cost of using permanent satellites is compared with that of using temporary satellites.

[Tables](#page-11-3) [13](#page-11-3) and [14](#page-11-4) summarize the data from the permanent and temporary satellites, respectively. Here, "PR" and "TR" in [Tables](#page-11-3) [13](#page-11-3) and [14](#page-11-4), respectively denote permanent satellites and temporary satellites. The tables show that the numbers of permanent and temporary satellites are 12 and 24, respectively. 402 customers are spread throughout the districts of Taipei City. The

Table 7

Fig. 5. The effect of each parameter on the solution quality.

Table 8

A summary of the abbreviations used in the tables of this section.

customer demands, depot coordinates (X,Y), permanent satellite, temporary satellite and customer data are provided at [http://web.](http://web.ntust.edu.tw/~vincent/lrp/) [ntust.edu.tw/~vincent/lrp/](http://web.ntust.edu.tw/~vincent/lrp/). [Table](#page-11-5) [15](#page-11-5) presents truck and motorcycle data. Note that all costs in the table are daily costs. In addition, the trucks are owned by the logistics company, whereas the motorcycles are owned by the delivery persons of a TPL company.

In this case study, the two-echelon distribution network operations as follows. The first echelon routes start from the depot, visit each of the selected permanent (temporary) satellites exactly once and return to the depot without violating the capacity constraint. Each selected permanent (temporary) satellite receives the number of packages requested by the customers assigned to the satellite. Second echelon routes start from a permanent (temporary) satellite and visit each of the customers exactly once without violating the capacity constraint. Each motorcycle serves one route. After serving the final customer on the route, the motorcycle does not return to the TPL company. The freight delivery process in the second echelon finishes when all customers have been served.

This case study is solved by the proposed SA heuristic and the results can be accessed at [http://web.ntust.edu.tw/~vincent/lrp/.](http://web.ntust.edu.tw/~vincent/lrp/) The routes obtained using permanent and temporary satellites are depicted in [Figs.](#page-12-0) [7](#page-12-0) and [8](#page-12-1), respectively. A solution results comparison between permanent satellite utilization (PSU) and

Table 9 Effects of the use of varying cost of satellite set-up.

Table 10

Effects of the use of varying cost of satellite set-up (in percentage).

Table 11

Effects of the use of varying activation cost of SEVs.

Instance	Cost	25%	50%	75%	100%	125%	150%	175%	200%
	VAC-1 $(NV-1)$	8000 (2)							
	$VTC-1$	34185	37169	34337	27006	35001	34337	35001	34337
100-10MN	SC (NS)	27397 (4)	28206 (4)	33864 (5)	32643 (4)	33864 (5)	33864 (5)	33864 (5)	33864 (5)
	$VAC-2$ $(NV-2)$	4250 (17)	8500 (17)	12000 (16)	16000 (16)	18750 (15)	22500 (15)	26250 (15)	30000 (15)
	$VTC-2$	81787	77976	79074	85884	79277	80237	78541	80265
	TC	155619	159851	167275	169533	174892	178938	181656	186466
	$VAC-1$ $(NV-1)$	15000 (3)							
	$VTC-1$	39006	39006	39006	39006	39006	39006	39006	39006
$100 - 10 - 2b$	SC (NS)	149940 (3)							
	VAC-2 $(NV-2)$	3250 (13)	6000 (12)	9000 (12)	11000 (11)	13750 (11)	16500 (11)	19250 (11)	22000 (11)
	$VTC-2$	32829	33485	33534	34026	33967	33698	34062	34210
	TC	240025	243431	246480	248972	251663	254144	257258	260156

temporary satellite utilization (TSU) is summarized in [Table](#page-12-2) [16](#page-12-2) and analyzed below.

In the first echelon, because temporary satellites have smaller capacities than those of permanent satellites, the number of opened satellites in TSU is greater than that of PSU. However, the number of opened temporary satellites does not affect the satellite set-up cost because they are free, thus a satellite set-up cost

reduction of 100% is compared with that of PSU. Furthermore, even though the number of temporary satellites visited is greater than that of permanent satellites, distances between temporary satellites are smaller than those among permanent satellites, thus the truck travel cost of TSU is smaller (8.69%) than that of PSU.

In the second echelon, the use of temporary satellites can maximize the motorcycle load, so the number of motorcycles used is

Table 12

Effects of the use of varying activation cost of SEVs (in percentage).

Instance	Cost	25%	50%	75%	100%	125%	150%	175%	200%
	$VAC-1$	5.14%	5.00%	4.78%	4.72%	4.57%	4.47%	4.40%	4.29%
	$VTC-1$	21.97%	23.25%	20.53%	15.93%	20.01%	19.19%	19.27%	18.41%
	SC	17.61%	17.65%	20.24%	19.25%	19.36%	18.92%	18.64%	18.16%
100-10MN	$VAC-2$	2.73%	5.32%	7.17%	9.44%	10.72%	12.57%	14.45%	16.09%
	$VTC-2$	52.56%	48.78%	47.27%	50.66%	45.33%	44.84%	43.24%	43.05%
	TC	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	$VAC-1$	6.25%	6.16%	6.09%	6.02%	5.96%	5.90%	5.83%	5.77%
	$VTC-1$	16.25%	16.02%	15.83%	15.67%	15.50%	15.35%	15.16%	14.99%
	SC	62.47%	61.59%	60.83%	60.22%	59.58%	59.00%	58.28%	57.63%
$100-10-2b$	$VAC-2$	1.35%	2.46%	3.65%	4.42%	5.46%	6.49%	7.48%	8.46%
	$VTC-2$	13.68%	13.76%	13.61%	13.67%	13.50%	13.26%	13.24%	13.15%
	TC	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

Table 13

The data of the permanent satellites.

PR	Capacity (kg)	Set-up cost (NT\$)	District	PR	Capacity (kg)	Set-up cost (NT\$)	District
	1650	1000	Songshan		1000	900	Xinvi
	1000	750	Zhongshan	8	1650	1000	Zhongzheng
	1650	1000	Shilin	9	2300	750	Datong
4	2300	750	Wanhua	10	2300	1000	Nangang
	1000	900	Daan	11	1650	1000	Neihu
6	1650	800	Wenshan	12	1650	800	Beitou

Table 14

Fig. 6. A temporary satellite in a free loading–unloading zone in Taipei City, Taiwan.

smaller than that of a scenario of using permanent satellites. As a result, the cost of motorcycle activation and motorcycle travel are also decreased by 4.00% and 7.17%, respectively. Finally, the last row of [Table](#page-12-2) [16](#page-12-2) shows that the utilization of temporary satellites can reduce the total distribution cost by up to 21.75%.

7. Conclusions and future research

This paper presents a design for a two-echelon freight distribution system in an urban area considering third-party logistics (TPL) by formulating a mathematical programming model of the problem and developing an efficient SA heuristic for the problem. Small instances taken from two well-known 2E-LRP datasets are solved by CPLEX and the proposed SA heuristic, showing that the proposed SA heuristic outperforms CPLEX in terms of computational time. In addition, the proposed SA heuristic was tested on two well-known 2E-LRP datasets. According to the computational results, the performance of the proposed SA heuristic is comparable with that of another state-of-the-art algorithm in terms of solution quality, while using less computational time.

A case study of a 2E-OLRP utilizing LUZs (temporary satellites) was conducted in Taipei City, Taiwan. The proposed SA heuristic was used to solve the case study problem. The case study shows

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Fig. 7. Visualization of routes by using permanent satellites.

Fig. 8. Visualization of routes by using temporary satellites.

Table 16

A solution results comparison of two-echelon FDS by permanent and temporary satellites utilization.

that the utilization of LUZs reduces the total distribution cost by up to 21.75%.

Future research may consider a 2E-OLRP with more practical constraints, such as time windows, multiple depots, allowing for two-level routes and simultaneous pickup and delivery to bring the problem closer to real-world application. Uncertainties in customer demands, as well as travel and service times are common in real-world applications, considering these aspects in a 2E-OLRP will be interesting. More effective and efficient heuristic methods and multi-objective optimization can also be developed for the 2E-OLRP.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Vincent F. Yu: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Supervision. **Winarno:** Data curation, Writing - original draft, Visualization. **Shih-Wei Lin:** Supervision, Software, Validation. **Aldy Gunawan:** Writing - review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgments

The work of the first author was supported in part by the Ministry of Science and Technology of the Republic of China (Taiwan) under grants MOST 106-2410-H-011-002-MY3 and MOST 108- 2745-8-011-004. The second author would like to acknowledge to the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia, which grants a beneficial opportunity and supports his study in the doctoral program at National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. The work of the corresponding author was supported in part by the Ministry of Science and Technology of the Republic of China (Taiwan) under grant MOST 107-2410-H-182-005-MY2.

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