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The Impact of Location, Fleet Composition and Routing on Emissions in Urban Freight Distribution

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Abstract. This paper investigates the combined impact of depot location, fleet composition and routing decisions on vehicle emissions in urban freight distribution. We consider a city in which goods need to be delivered from a depot to customers located in nested zones characterized by different speed limits. The objective is to minimize the total depot, vehicle and routing cost, where the latter can be defined with respect to the cost of fuel consumption and CO2 emissions. A new powerful adaptive large neighborhood search metaheuristic is developed and successfully applied to a large pool of new benchmark instances. Extensive analyses are performed to empirically assess the effect of various problem parameters, such as depot cost and location, customer distribution and heterogeneous vehicles on key performance indicators, including fuel consumption, emissions and operational costs. Several managerial insights are presented.

Keywords: Location-routing, fuel consumption, Co_2 emissions, heterogeneous fleet, city logistics, supply chains, adaptive large neighborhood search metaheuristic.

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1 Introduction

City logistics poses challenges to governments, businesses, carriers, and citizens, particularly in the context of freight transportation, and calls for new business operating models. It also requires an understanding of the public sector and private businesses, and collaboration mechanisms to build innovative partnerships. Trade flows within cities exhibit a high variability, both in the size and shape of the shipments. Cities often possess a transportation infrastructure that allows traffic flows within their boundaries, but this infrastructure is often inadequate for freight transportation, which translates into congestion and pollution. For relevant references and more detailed information on city logistics, the reader is referred to the books of Taniguchi et al. (2001) and of Gonzalez-Feliu et al. (2014).

Depot location, fleet composition and routing all bear on emissions in urban freight transportation. Some of their interactions are well documented. However, whereas there exists an extensive body of knowledge on the integration of location and routing, on the effect of route choice on pollution and on the impact of fleet composition on emissions, the combined effect of depot location, fleet composition and routing decisions on emissions has not yet been investigated. Yet, these decisions are clearly intertwined, especially in a city logistics context. Our purpose is to analyze these three interrelated components of urban freight distribution within a unified framework. Before we proceed with our study, we briefly review the relevant literature on some of the interactions just mentioned.

1.1 A brief review of the literature

Depot location and vehicle routing are two interdependent decisions. The joint study of these two problems was first suggested by Von Boventer (1961) and has since evolved into what is now commonly known as the Location-Routing Problem (LRP) (see Laporte, 1988; Min et al., 1998; Nagy and Salhi, 2007; Prodhon and Prins, 2014; Albareda-Sambola, 2015; Drexl and Schneider, 2015, for reviews). Applications of the LRP arise namely in city logistics (Boudoin et al., 2014; Mancini et al., 2014).

Fleet composition is yet another critical issue in city logistics. Heterogeneous vehicle fleets are commonly used in most distribution problems (Hoff et al., 2010). Heterogeneous VRPs include two major classes: the Fleet Size and Mix Vehicle Routing Problem proposed by Golden et al. (1984), which works with an unlimited fleet, and the Heterogeneous Vehicle Routing Problem (HVRP) introduced by Taillard (1999), which works with a known fleet. For further details on these problems and their variants, we refer the reader to Baldacci et al. (2008), Baldacci and Mingozzi (2009) and Jabali et al. (2012a). In recent years, green issues have received increased attention in the context of the HVRP (see Kopfer and Kopfer, 2013; Kopfer et al., 2014; Kwon et al., 2013). Koç et al. (2014b) introduced the Fleet Size and Mix PRP which extends the PRP by considering a heterogeneous vehicle fleet and developed a hybrid evolutionary metaheuristic to solve it. They conducted computational experiments to shed light on the trade-offs between various performance indicators, such as fuel and CO_2 emissions, vehicle fixed cost, distance, driver cost and total cost. They demonstrated the benefit of using a heterogeneous fleet over a homogeneous one.

Greenhouse gases (GHGs) are a noxious by-product of road freight transportation (Kirby et al., 2000) which accounts for around a quarter of the total GHG emissions in the United Kingdom and the United States (DfT, 2012; EPA, 2012). The relationship between road freight transportation and emissions has been the object of several studies in recent years. Thus Demir et al. (2011) have surveyed several estimation models for fuel consumption and greenhouse gas emissions. More specifically, the authors have compared six models and have assessed their respective strengths and weaknesses. These models indicate that fuel consumption depends on a number of factors that can be grouped into four categories: vehicle, driver, environment and traffic. Figliozzi (2011) simultaneously considered the effects of GHG costs, new engine technologies, market conditions and fiscal policies in fleet management models. The author proposed an integer programming vehicle replacement model in order to compute some environmental and political indicators. Four factors were analysed in scenarios arising from a case study in Portland, Oregon, namely annual vehicle utilization, gasoline prices, electric vehicle tax credits, and GHG emissions costs. Bigazzi and Figliozzi (2012) examined several factors affecting GHGs emissions. The authors focused on the effects of travel demand flexibility and on the characteristics of two types of vehicles, namely light and heavy duty, across different types of pollutants. They stated that fleet composition and vehicle type are key factors driving CO_2 emissions. Furthermore, the authors indicated that several demand or vehicle based emissions strategies could have an impact on the reduction of CO_2 emissions. Jabali et al. (2012b) later studied the trade-off between the minimization of CO_2 emissions and that of total travel times in the context of the time-dependent Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP) in which the planning horizon was partitioned into two phases: free flow traffic and congestion. The authors solved the problem using tabu search and proposed efficient bounding procedures.

Van Woensel et al. (2001) noted that vehicles must often travel at traffic speed in urban areas, and changes in speed have a significant impact on CO_2 emissions. Since the label-setting algorithm was proposed by Dijkstra (1959) more than 50 years ago, several deterministic shortest path computation algorithms have been put forward by a number of researchers (see Geisberger et al., 2012). In the context of green transportation, Fagerholt et al. (2010) developed an alternative solution methodology for the minimization of fuel and emissions in ship routing and solved the problem as a shortest path problem on a directed acyclic graph. Their results showed that the shortest path method yields significant fuel and emissions savings on shipping routes. More recently, Ehmke et al. (2014) studied stochastic shortest paths with an emissions minimization objective. The authors concluded that in order to minimize emissions, vehicles may have to travel via a circuitous path rather than along a more direct shortest path.

The Pollution-Routing Problem (PRP), introduced by Bektaş and Laporte (2011), is an extension of the classical VRP with time windows. It consists of routing vehicles to serve a set of customers, and of determining their speed on each route segment to minimize a function comprising fuel cost, emissions and driver costs. To estimate fuel consumption, the authors applied a simplified version of the emission and fuel consumption model proposed by Barth et al. (2005), Scora and Barth (2006) and Barth and Boriboonsomsin (2009). This simplified model assumes that all parameters will remain constant on a given arc, but load and speed may change from one arc to another. As such, the PRP objective approximates the total amount of energy consumed on a given road segment, which directly translates into fuel consumption and further into GHG emissions. Demir et al. (2012) developed an extended adaptive large neighbourhood search (ALNS) heuristic for the PRP. This heuristic operates in two stages: the first stage is an extension of the classical ALNS scheme to construct vehicle routes (Ropke and Pisinger, 2006a,b; Pisinger and Ropke, 2007), and the second stage applies a speed optimization algorithm (SOA) (Norstad et al., 2010; Hvattum et al., 2013) to compute the speed on each arc. In a later study, Demir et al. (2014a) introduced the bi-objective PRP which jointly minimizes fuel consumption and driving time. The authors have developed a bi-objective adaptation of their ALNS-SOA heuristic and compared four *a posteriori* methods, namely the weighting method, the weighting method with normalization, the epsilon-constraint method and a new hybrid method, using a scalarization of the two objective functions. Franceschetti et al. (2013) studied the time-dependent PRP under a two-stage planning horizon, as in Jabali et al. (2012b), and developed an explicit congestion model in addition to the PRP objectives. The authors presented a mathematical formulation in which vehicle speeds are optimally selected from a set of discrete values. More recently, Kramer et al. (2015) proposed a matheuristic for the PRP, as well as for the the Fuel Consumption VRP and the Energy Minimizing VRP, which integrates iterated local search with a set partitioning procedure and an SOA. Their method outperformed those presented in previous studies and yielded new best-known solutions. For a state-of-the-art coverage on green road freight transportation, the reader is referred to the book chapter of Eglese and Bektaş (2014), and to the surveys of Demir et al. (2014b) and Lin et al. (2014).

1.2 Scientific contributions and structure of the paper

This paper studies for the first time the joint impact of location, fleet composition and routing in an urban freight distribution context. It makes three main scientific contributions. Our first contribution is to formally model this new problem and solve it by means of a powerful ALNS metaheuristic. Our second contribution is to carry out extensive computational experiments and analyses in order to gain a deep understanding into the interactions between the components of the problem. Our third contribution is to provide managerial insights.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents a general framework for our analysis. Section 3 provides a formal description of the problem and the mathematical formulation. Section 4 contains a brief description of the proposed metaheuristic. Extensive computational experiments and analyses are presented in Section 5, followed by conclusions and managerial insights in Section 6.

2 General Description of the Problem Setting

We will first briefly provide our fuel consumption and CO_2 emissions model in Section 2.1. We will then describe the vehicle types and their characteristics in Section 2.2, followed by the specification of speed zones in Section 2.3, by the network structure in Section 2.4, and by the depot costs in Section 2.5.

2.1 Fuel consumption and CO_2 emissions

We use the comprehensive emissions model of Barth et al. (2005), Scora and Barth (2006), and Barth and Boriboonsomsin (2008) to estimate fuel consumption and emissions at a given time instant. This model has already been succesfully applied to the PRP (Bektaş and Laporte, 2011; Demir et al., 2012) and to some of its extensions (Franceschetti et al., 2013; Demir et al., 2014a; Koç et al., 2014b). In what follows, we briefly recall the heterogeneous fleet version of this model (Koç et al., 2014b).

The index set of vehicle types is denoted by $\mathcal{H}$. The fuel consumption rate FR^h (liter/s) of a vehicle of type $h \in \mathcal{H}$ is given by

$$FR^h = \xi(k^h N^h V^h + P^h/\eta)/\kappa, \tag{1}$$

where the variable P^h is the second-by-second engine power output (in kW) of vehicle type h. It can be calculated as

$$P^h = P^h_{tract}/n_{tf} + P_{acc}, \tag{2}$$

where the engine power demand P_{acc} is associated with the running losses of the engine and the operation of vehicle accessories such as air conditioning and electrical loads. We assume that $P_{acc} = 0$. The total tractive power requirement P^h_{tract} (in kW) for a vehicle of type h is

$$P^h_{tract} = (M^h\tau + M^h g\sin\theta + 0.5C^h_d\rho A v^2 + M^h g C_r\cos\theta)v/1000, \tag{3}$$

where M^h is the total vehicle weight (in kg) and v is the vehicle speed (m/s). The fuel consumption F^h (in liters) of vehicle type h over a distance d, is calculated as

$$F^h = k^h N^h V^h \lambda d/v \tag{4}$$

$$+ P^h\lambda\gamma^h d/v, \tag{5}$$

where $\lambda = \xi/\kappa\psi$, $\gamma^h = 1/1000n_{tf}\eta$ and $\alpha = \tau + g\sin\theta + gC_r\cos\theta$ are constants. Let $\beta^h = 0.5C^h_d\rho A^h$ be a vehicle-specific constant. Therefore, F^h can be rewritten as

$$F^h = \lambda(k^h N^h V^h d/v + M^h\gamma^h\alpha d + \beta^h\gamma^h d v^2). \tag{6}$$

In this expression the first term $k^h N^h V^h d/v$ is called the engine module, which is linear in travel time. The second term $M^h\gamma^h\alpha_{ij}d$ is referred to as the weight module, and the third term $\beta^h\gamma^h dv^2$ is the speed module, which is quadratic in speed. These functions will be used in the objective function of the mathematical formulation in Section 3.

2.2 Vehicle types and characteristics

We consider three vehicle types of MAN (2015a), a major truck manufacturer whose market share in Western Europe was around 16.3% in 2013 (Statista, 2013). These three vehicle types include two light duty (TGL) vehicles and one medium duty (TGM) vehicle, classified as single-unit trucks by FHWA (2011). Table 1 lists the values of the parameters (Demir et al., 2012, 2014a; Franceschetti et al., 2013; Koç et al., 2014b) common to all vehicle types, while Table 2 lists specific parameters (MAN, 2015a,b,c) for each vehicle type. We refer the reader to MAN (2015a,b,c) for further details on TGL and TGM vehicles and their engines.

The fuel consumption function (6) per unit distance travelled as a function of speed is typically U-shaped

Table 1: Vehicle common parameters

Notation	Description	Typical values
ξ	fuel-to-air mass ratio	1
g	gravitational constant (m/s^2)	9.81
ρ	air density (kg/m^3)	1.2041
C_r	coefficient of rolling resistance	0.01
η	efficiency parameter for diesel engines	0.45
f_c	fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (£/liter)	1.4
κ	heating value of a typical diesel fuel (kj/g)	44
ψ	conversion factor (g/s to L/s)	737
n_{tf}	vehicle drive train efficiency	0.45
θ	road angle	0
τ	acceleration (m/s^2)	0

Table 2: Vehicle specific parameters

Notation	Description	Light duty 1 (L1)	Light duty 2 (L2)	Medium duty (M)
w^h	curb weight (kg)	3500	4500	5500
Q^h	maximum payload (kg)	4000	7500	12500
μ^h	vehicle fixed cost (£/day)	42	49	60
k^h	engine friction factor (kj/rev/liter)	0.25	0.23	0.20
N^h	engine speed (rev/s)	38.34	37.45	36.67
V^h	engine displacement (liter)	4.5	4.5	6.9
C_d^h	coefficient of aerodynamics drag	0.6	0.64	0.7
A^h	frontal surface area (m^2)	7.0	7.4	8.0

(Figure 1) and results in an optimal speed that minimizes the fuel consumption. This function, plotted in Figure 1 is the sum of two components, one induced by (4) and the other by (5), for the three vehicle types considered in this paper.

2.3 Speed zones

Road speed limits are commonly set by national or local governments (Wikipedia, 2015). They play a key role in ensuring the safety of road users and of the public at large (UK Government, 2014). In general, cities are divided into several speed zones which help traffic flow more safely and efficiently. They also provide a reasonable balance between the needs of drivers, pedestrians and cyclists who use public roads for travel, and the concerns of residents who live along these roads (Oregon, 2015b). Studies have been performed in the United Kingdom by the Department for Transport (2013), in Canada by the City of Ottawa Transportation Committee (2009) and in the United States by the Oregon Department of Transportation (2015) on the best way to establish speed zones. These studies indicate that setting reasonable vehicle speeds for a variety of weather conditions results in fewer accidents. When reasonable speeds are imposed, less overtaking occurs, and one also observes smaller delays and fewer rear-end collisions. According to the above studies, speed zones in cities are generally classified under three categories:

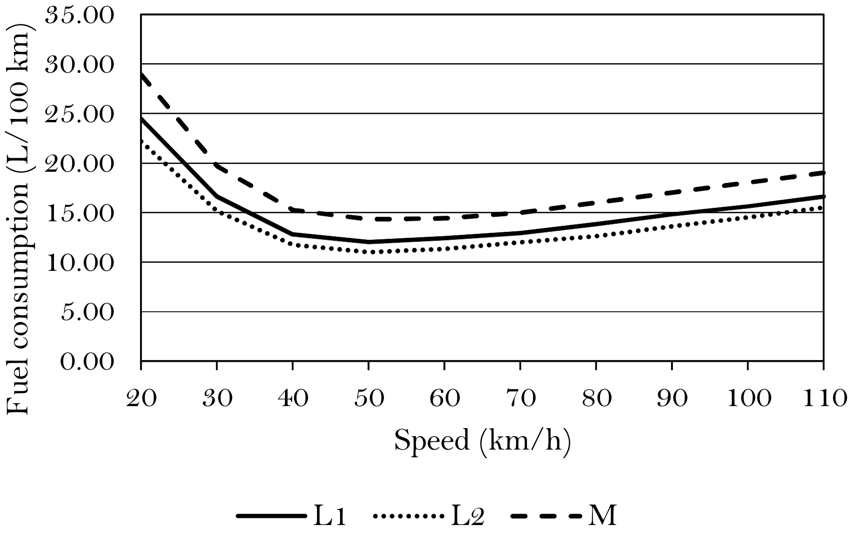

Figure 1: Fuel consumption as a function of speed

- 15 mph (25 km/h): alleys, narrow residential roadways,
- 20 mph (32 km/h): business districts, school zones,
- 25 mph (40 km/h): residential districts, public parks, ocean shores.

Speed zones also yield environmental benefits. For example Kirkby (2002) states that 20 mph (32 km/h) speed zones, significantly improve the quality of life of the concerned community, and encourage healthier and more sustainable transportation. This speed limit favours slower driving, saves fuel and reduces pollution, unless an unnecessarily low gear is used (DfT, 2013).

2.4 Network structure

We consider cities in which distances are measured using the Taxicab geometry (see Krause, 2012). The Taxicab geometry is also known as the rectilinear distance, the L_1 distance, the city block distance or the Manhattan distance. It implies that the shortest path between two nodes is the sum of horizontal and vertical distances between them. This metric is appropriate in several grid cities, such as Glasgow, Ottawa and Portland, shown in Figure 2.

In the setting considered in this study, we assume that the city centre is divided into several zones, each belonging to one of the three categories described in Section 2.3. Zone 1 corresponds to the city centre, zone 2 is an outer urban area, and zone 3 corresponds to a suburb. The index set of speed zones is denoted by $\mathcal{Z}$.

(a) Glasgow (b) Ottawa (c) Portland

Figure 2: Grid city examples (Google Maps, 2015)

Let the zones be $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathcal{Z}$ and let V_1, V_2, V_3 be the fixed speeds in zones, where $V_1 < V_2 < V_3$. Figure 3 illustrates a city divided into three fixed speed zones. When a vehicle travels within the same zone z_1, z_2 or z_3, its speed is equal to the speed of that zone. When it travels on the boundary of two speed zones, it uses the faster speed of the two zones.

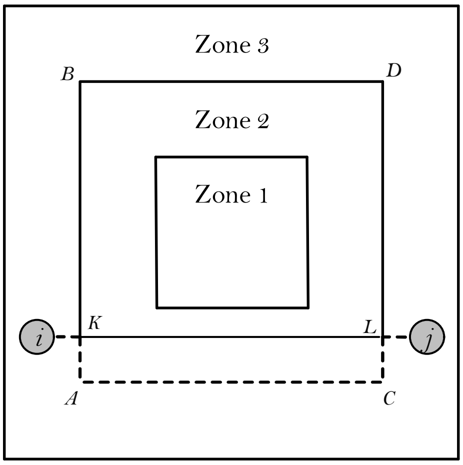

Figure 3: Illustration of speed zones

In a city, a shortest path between i and j is not necessarily a cheapest or a least polluting path. In urban areas where a maximum speed limit of 40 km/h is imposed, a fastest path is also a least-polluting path according to Figure 1. However, as in Ehmke et al. (2014), this path is not always a shortest path. For example, consider the corners (A, B, C, D) of zone 2 in Figure 3, and nodes i and j located in zone 3. When travelling from i to j, a vehicle of type h may choose not to travel on a straight line from i to j with speed V_2 between points K and L, but may instead travel on the boundaries of zone 2 with speed $V_3 \leq 40$ km/h to avoid driving at a slower speed through congested traffic. A fastest path from customer i to j could well be (i, K, A, C, L, j) instead of (i, K, L, j), particularly in urban settings.

Using equation (6), we now illustrate how the load on a vehicle can affect the calculation of the cheapest path between a node pair. In Figure 3, let us assume that the total length of path (i, K, L, j) is 8 km, and for (i, K, A, C, L, j) is 9 km. When a vehicle of type M going from i to j carries a load equal to 1000 kg, then the cost of (i, K, L, j) is £1.85 and the cost of (i, K, A, C, L, j) is £1.95 with the former path being the cheaper one. However, when the vehicle load is equal to 12500 kg, then the cost of (i, K, L, j) is £2.20 and the cost of (i, K, A, C, L, j) is £2.05, where the cheapest path now is the latter.

2.5 Depot costs

There are four main categories of depot or warehouse costs: handling, storage, operations administration and general administrative expenses (see Ghiani et al., 2013). Storage expenses are the cost of occupying a facility (Speh, 2009). Depot location affects the storage cost, e.g., locating a depot in the city centre (zone 1) is much more expensive than locating it in an outer zone (zone 2 or 3).

3 Formal Problem Description and Mathematical Formulation

Our problem is defined on a complete directed graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{A})$, where $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{N}_0 \cup \mathcal{N}_c$ is a set of nodes in which $\mathcal{N}_0$ and $\mathcal{N}_c$ represent the potential depots and customer nodes, respectively. A storage capacity D_k and a fixed opening cost g_k are associated with each potential depot $k \in \mathcal{N}_0$. Each customer $i \in \mathcal{N}_c$ has a positive demand q_i. The arc set $\mathcal{A}$ is defined as $\mathcal{A} = \{(i, j) : i \in \mathcal{N}, j \in \mathcal{N}\} \setminus \{(i, j) : i \in \mathcal{N}_0, j \in \mathcal{N}_0, i \neq j\}$. We assume that an unlimited heterogeneous fleet of vehicles operates with various capacities and vehicle-related costs. The index set of vehicle types is denoted by $\mathcal{H}$. Let Q^h and t^h denote the capacity and fixed dispatch cost of a vehicle of type $h \in \mathcal{H}$, respectively. Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost $c(i, j, w_i^h)$ of traveling from node i to node j with a vehicle of type h having a load equal to w_i^h upon leaving i. This cost is calculated using equation (6).

The problem consists of locating depots in a subset of $\mathcal{N}_0$, of assigning each customer to a depot and of determining a set of vehicle routes such that all vehicles start and end their routes at their depot, and the load of each vehicle does not exceed its capacity. The objective is to minimize the total cost which is made up of three components: the depot operating cost, the vehicle fixed cost, and the fuel and CO_2 emissions cost. Furthermore, the speed of a vehicle depends on the speeds of the zones it traverses while driving.

To formulate the problem, we define the following additional decision variables. Let x_{ij}^h be equal to 1 if a vehicle of type $h \in \mathcal{H}$ travels from node i to node j and to 0 otherwise. Let u_k be equal to 1 if depot $k \in \mathcal{N}_0$ is opened and to 0 otherwise. Let z_{ik} be equal to 1 if customer $i \in \mathcal{N}_c$ is assigned to depot $k \in \mathcal{N}_0$ and to 0 otherwise. Let f_{ij}^h be the amount of commodity carried by a vehicle of type h from node i to node j.

The integer linear programming formulation of the problem is then:

$$\text{Minimize} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}_0} g_k u_k + \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}_0} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_c} t^h x_{kj}^h + \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{A}} c(i,j,w_i^h) x_{ij}^h \tag{7}$$

subject to

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} x_{ij}^h = 1 \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{8}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} x_{ij}^h = 1 \qquad j \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{9}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} f_{ji}^h - \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} f_{ij}^h = q_i \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{10}$$

$$f_{ij}^h \leq Q^h x_{ij}^h \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}_0, j \in \mathcal{N}, i \neq j, h \in \mathcal{H} \tag{11}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_c} f_{kj}^h = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_c} z_{jk} q_j \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0 \tag{12}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_c} f_{jk}^h = 0 \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0 \tag{13}$$

$$f_{ij}^h \leq (Q^h - q_i) x_{ij}^h \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}_c, j \in \mathcal{N}, h \in \mathcal{H} \tag{14}$$

$$f_{ij}^h \geq q_j x_{ij}^h \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}, j \in \mathcal{N}_c, h \in \mathcal{H} \tag{15}$$

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_c} q_i z_{ik} \leq D_k u_k \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0 \tag{16}$$

$$\sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}_0} z_{ik} = 1 \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{17}$$

$$x_{ij}^h + \sum_{q \in \mathcal{H}, q \neq h} \sum_{r \in \mathcal{N}, j \neq r} x_{jr}^h \leq 1 \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}, j \in \mathcal{N}_c, i \neq j, h \in \mathcal{H} \tag{18}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} x_{ik}^h \leq z_{ik} \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0, i \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{19}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} x_{ki}^h \leq z_{ik} \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0, i \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{20}$$

$$\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} x_{ij}^h + z_{ik} + \sum_{m \in \mathcal{N}_0, m \neq k} z_{jm} \leq 2 \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0, i, j \in \mathcal{N}_c, i \neq j \tag{21}$$

$$w_i^h = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}} f_{ij}^h \qquad i \in \mathcal{N}, h \in \mathcal{H} \tag{22}$$

$$x_{ij}^h \in \{0,1\} \qquad i, j \in \mathcal{N}, h \in \mathcal{H} \tag{23}$$

$$u_k \in \{0,1\} \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0 \tag{24}$$

$$z_{ik} \in \{0,1\} \qquad k \in \mathcal{N}_0, i \in \mathcal{N}_c \tag{25}$$

$$f_{ij}^h \geq 0 \qquad h \in \mathcal{H}. \tag{26}$$

The objective function (7) minimizes the total cost including fixed depot and vehicle costs, as well as fuel and CO_2 emissions cost. Constraints (8) and (9) ensure that each customer is visited exactly once. Constraints (10) imply that the demand of each customer is satisfied. Constraints (11) mean that the total load on any path cannot exceed the capacity of the vehicle traversing it. Constraints (12) ensure that the total load of the vehicles departing from a depot is equal to the total demand of the customers assigned to it. Constraints (13) state that the load on all vehicles returning to each depot must be equal to zero. Contraints (14) and (15) are bounding constraints for the load variables. Constraints (16) guarantee that total demand associated with a depot cannot exceed its capacity. Constraints (17) and (18) ensure that each customer is assigned to only one depot and one vehicle, respectively. Constraints (19)–(21) forbid the creation of routes that do not start and end at the same depot. Constraints (22) define the load of a vehicle of type h upon leaving node i as the total amount of commodity on the arc (i, j) it uses to leave i. Finally, constraints (23)–(25) enforce the integrality and non-negativity restrictions on the variables.

4 Description of the ALNS Metaheuristic

The mathematical formulation just presented is of large scale and cannot be solved for practical instances. We have therefore devised a metaheuristic algorithm, called pollution-and-location-heterogeneous adaptive large neighborhood search (P-L-HALNS), to solve the problem. This algorithm is partly based on the ALNS framework of Demir et al. (2012) which is initially put forward by Ropke and Pisinger (2006a,b) to solve several variants of the VRP (see Laporte et al., 2014). This metaheuristic has since provided very good results on several complicated variants of the VRP (see Pisinger and Ropke, 2007; Koç et al., 2015b), of the LRP (see Koç et al., 2015a), and of the PRP (see Demir et al., 2012, 2014a; Koç et al., 2014b).

The P-L-HALNS consists of two basic procedures: removal or destroy, followed by insertion or repair. In the removal procedure, n' nodes are iteratively removed by destroy operators and placed in the removal list, where n' lies in the interval $[b_l, b_u]$ for the destroy operators. In the insertion procedure, the nodes of the removal list, are iteratively inserted into a least-cost position of the incomplete solution by means of an insertion operator. The removal and insertion operators are selected dynamically according to their past performance. To this end, each operator is assigned a score which is increased whenever it improves the current solution and is periodically reset to one. Simulated annealing is used as an outer local search framework for the P-L-HALNS in order to define the acceptance rules of candidate solutions.

In order to perform least-cost insertions, it is necessary to make use of cheapest path values frequently during the course of the algorithm. We explain in Section 4.1 how these computations are handled in the ALNS metaheuristic. This is followed in Section 4.2 by an overview of the metaheuristic itself.

4.1 Cheapest Path Calculation

The number of undominated paths between any two nodes is finite, but the identification of such paths is not trivial since the cost of a path depends (see equation (6)) on the type of vehicle traveling a path from i to j, on its load upon leaving i, and on the speed of each arc of the path. To overcome the complexity of this task, we introduce a heuristic CHEAPEST PATH CALCULATION procedure which computes only three paths between i and j and selects the cheapest one. This procedure does not guarantee the calculation of the minimum cost path over all possible paths, but is suitable for iterative use within an algorithm like the P-L-HALNS described here.

Algorithm 1 presents this procedure for a node pair (i, j) which follows three steps. In step 1 (lines 2–4), we find two shortest path between (i, j). According to Taxicab geometry (see Section 2.4), if node i and j are not located at same horizontal or vertical coordinate, there exist two shortest paths with the same length, but not necessarily with the same cost for a vehicle with a fixed load, because of the possibility of cutting through different zones. In this case, we identify the cheapest path p_0 of the two paths and discard the other one. In steps 2 and 3, we contort p_0 to generate two alternative paths p_1 and p_2. In step 2 (lines 5–7), path p_1 follows the boundary of zone 1 on which it travels at a speed V_2 based on the assumption made in Section 2.3. Similarly, in step 3 (lines 8–10) path p_2 follows the boundary of zone 2. We do not consider travel on or outside the boundary of zone 3 as this is not defined. The algorithm then compares the costs of p_0, p_1 and p_2, and returns the cheapest path (line 11). In the P-L-HALNS, it should be noted that we calculate the shortest paths (Step 1) between each pair of nodes as a priori as in the VRP.

Figure 4 illustrates the CHEAPEST PATH CALCULATION procedure for a given node pair (i, j) and a vehicle with a fixed load traveling between these nodes. Figure 4.a (Step 1) shows two paths, (i, A, j) and (i, B, j) that are the shortest with respect to the Taxicab geometry and distance, but the cheapest path would always be (i, B, j) since $V_2 < V_3 \leq 40$ km/h. We then calculate the cost χ_0 of $p_0 = (i, B, j)$. In Figure 4.b (Step 2), we first find the shortest path from node i to nearest point (A_1) of zone 1. We then find the shortest path,

Algorithm 1 CHEAPEST PATH CALCULATION

Node i and node $j(i, j \in \mathcal{N})$. Let χ_0, χ_1, χ_2 be the costs of paths p_0, p_1 and p_2
Step 1
Find two shortest paths between (i, j) and choose the least cost path p_0.
Calculate the cost χ_0 of path p_0.
Step 2
Find path p_1 by contorting path p_0 part of which lies on the border of zone 1 between (i, j).
Calculate the cost χ_1 of path p_1.
Step 3
Find the path p_2 by contorting path p_0 part of which lies on the border of zone 2 between (i, j).
Calculate the cost χ_2 of path p_2.
Return Least cost path p_k where $k = \arg\min\{\chi_0, \chi_1, \chi_2\}$.

on the border of zone 1, from point A_1 to nearest point (B_1) of zone 1 to node j. We finally find the shortest path from point B_1 to node j. As in Step 1, if there are two same length shortest paths between points, such as (B_1, B_{1a}, j) and (B_1, B_{1b}, j), we select the cheapest one, in this case (B_1, B_{1a}, j). We calculate the cost χ_1 of $p_1 = (i, A_1, B_1, B_{1a}, j)$. In Figure 4.c (Step 3), we first find the shortest path from node i to nearest point (A_2) of zone 2. We then find the shortest path, on the border of zone 2, from point A_2 to nearest point (B_2) of zone 2 to node j. We finally find the shortest path from point B_2 to node j. We calculate the cost χ_2 of $p_2 = (i, A_2, B_2, j)$.

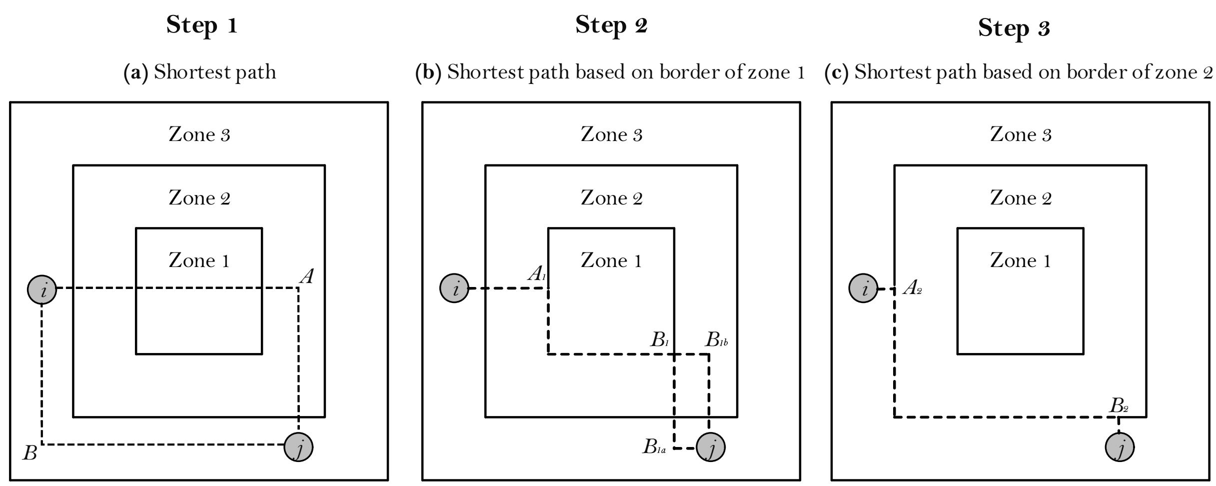

Figure 4: Illustration of the three speed zones

4.2 Overview of the metaheuristic

The general framework of the P-L-HALNS metaheuristic is sketched in Algorithm 2. We now briefly explain its steps. Given the complexity of implementing the CHEAPEST PATH CALCULATION procedure at every step of the P-L-HALNS, we work with average route demand lengths. At the beginning of the algorithm, we first define a set $\mathcal{B}$ of average route demand levels. We know the total demand of customers as a priori. For example, let $|\mathcal{B}| = 4$ and total demand of customers is 2000 kg, which results in the following intervals: level 1 ranges from zero to 500 kg, level 2 ranges from 501 to 1000 kg, level 3 ranges from 1001 to 1500 kg, and level 4 ranges from 1501 to 2000 kg. Let $v_{ij}^{\beta h}$ be the fixed cost associated with the path for each average route demand level $\beta \in \mathcal{B}$ and for each vehicle of type $h \in \mathcal{H}$. The fixed costs $v_{ij}^{\beta h}$ are calculated at the beginning of the algorithm (line 1). These fixed costs are used to compute the route costs quickly. During the algorithm, for each solution, average route demand calculated as (total demand of customers)/(total number of vehicle routes). For example, let the total demand of customers be 2000, $|\mathcal{B}| = 4$ and the number of vehicle routes be three. The average route demand is then 2000/3 and level $\beta \in \mathcal{B}$ is equal to 2.

An initial solution ω_0 is generated by using a modified version of the classical Clarke and Wright (1964) savings algorithm for the VRP (line 2). The selection probabilities are initialized for each destroy and repair operator (line 3). In line 4, ω_b is the best solution found during the search, ω_c is the current solution obtained at the beginning of an iteration, and ω_t is a temporary solution found at the end of the iteration which can be discarded or become the current solution. The temperature is denoted by T, the iteration counter is denoted by j, and the current and the best solutions are initially set equal to the initial solution (line 4). The temperature T is initially set at $c(\omega_0)P_0$, where $c(\omega_0)$ is the cost of initial solution and P_0 is the initial temperature.

Every σ iterations, a diversification based removal operator is selected (lines 6–8) and applied to ω_c; otherwise an intensification based removal operator is selected (lines 9–11). An insertion operator is then selected and applied to the destroyed solution, and a feasible solution ω_t is obtained (line 12).

The operators are applied using the average costs up until the counter p reaches ς, following which the actual costs for ω_c, ω_t and ω_b are calculated using the CHEAPEST PATH CALCULATION procedure (lines 13–15). Otherwise, the fixed costs are used to compute $c(\omega_t)$ (lines 16–18). If the cost of a repaired solution $c(\omega_t)$ is less than that of the current solution $c(\omega_c)$, then ω_c is replaced by ω_t (lines 19–20). Otherwise, the probability ϑ of accepting a non-improving solution is computed (line 21–22) as a function of the current temperature. A random number ϵ is then generated in the interval $[0, 1]$ (line 23). If ϵ is less than ϑ, ω_c is then replaced by ω_t (lines 24–25). If the cost of ω_c is less than that of ω_b, ω_b is replaced by ω_c (lines 26–27). The current temperature is gradually decreased during the algorithm as δT (line 28), where $0 < \delta < 1$ is a fixed cooling parameter. The probabilities are updated by means of an adaptive weight adjustment procedure (AWAP) (line 29). When the maximal number ϖ iterations is reached, the algorithm terminates (line 31) and returns the best found solution. For further information on the operators and on other algorithmic details the reader is referred to Demir et al. (2012) and Koç et al. (2015a).

Algorithm 2 General framework of the P-L-HALNS

Fixed cost calculation: Calculate the fixed costs $\upsilon_{ij}^{\beta h}$
Initialization: Generate an initial solution
Initialize probabilities associated with the operators
$T \leftarrow temperature, q \leftarrow 1, p \leftarrow 1, l \leftarrow 1, \omega_c \leftarrow \omega_b \leftarrow \omega_0$
while the maximum number of iterations is reached $q < \varpi$ **do**
    if $l = \sigma$ **then**
        Diversification based destroy
        $l \leftarrow 1$
    else
        Intensification based destroy
        $l \leftarrow l + 1$
    Repair
    if $p = \varsigma$ **then**
        Calculate real costs
        $p \leftarrow 1$
    else
        Calculate the solution cost using fixed costs $\upsilon_{ij}^{\beta h}$
        $p \leftarrow p + 1$
    if $c(\omega_t) < c(\omega_c)$ **then**
        $\omega_c \leftarrow \omega_t$
    else
        $\vartheta \leftarrow e^{-(c(\omega_t) - c(\omega_c))/T}$
    Generate a random number ϵ
    if $\epsilon < \vartheta$ **then**
        $\omega_c \leftarrow \omega_t$
    if $c(\omega_c) < c(\omega_b)$ **then**
        $\omega_b \leftarrow \omega_c$
    $T \leftarrow \delta T$
    AWAP: update probabilities of operators
    $q \leftarrow q + 1$
end while

5 Computational Experiments and Analyses

We now present the results of our computational experiments. All experiments were conducted on a server with one gigabyte RAM and an Intel Xeon 2.6 GHz processor. The P-L-HALNS was implemented in C++.

We assume an area divided into three nested squares centered in the middle of the area, each corresponding to a fixed speed zone, as shown in Figure 3. The fixed speeds are set at 25, 32 and 40 km/h and the sizes of the nested squares are 3 km $\times$ 3 km, 6 km $\times$ 6 km and 10 km $\times$ 10 km, respectively. We generated four sets of instances where the first set contains 25 customers and four potential depots locations, the second set contains 50 customers and six potential depots locations, the third set contains 75 customers and eight potential depots locations, and the fourth set contains 100 customers and 10 potential depots depots. Each set includes three subsets: 1) customers concentrated in the city centre, denoted by CC, 2) customers concentrated in the outer city area and in the suburb, denoted by SU, and 3) customers located randomly, denoted by R. These three subsets of benchmark instances are illustrated in Figure 5. These configurations cover a wide variety of realistic urban settings.

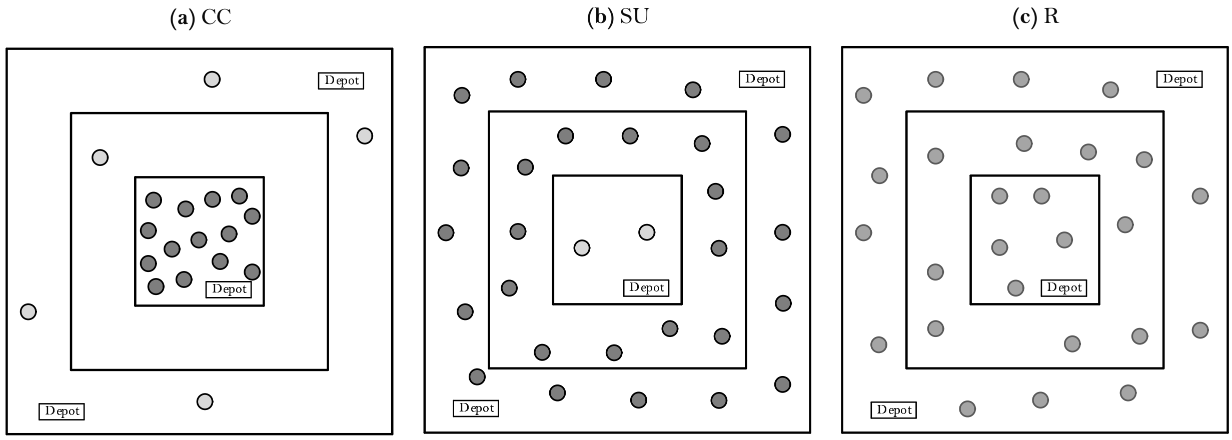

Figure 5: Geographical customer distribution in the benchmark instances

Each subset includes five instances, resulting in a total of 60 instances. To generate the depot characteristics, we used a procedure similar to that used for the standard LRP benchmark instances (see Barreto, 2004; Albareda-Sambola et al., 2005; Prodhon, 2006). The customer demands and the depot capacities (in kg) were randomly generated using a uniform distribution in the range [100, 1100] and [10000, 15000], respectively. The fixed depot costs are dependent on their location, i.e., zone 1 has the highest fixed cost (per depot £5000/day), followed by zone 2 (per depot £3500/day) and finally zone 3 (per depot £2000/day). All costs relate to the same planning horizon.

The parameters used in the P-L-HALNS are provided in Table 3. All algorithmic parametric values, except ς and σ, are as described in Demir et al. (2012), who applied an extensive meta-calibration procedure to generate effective parameter values for their ALNS heuristic for the PRP. During the experiments, ten runs were performed for each instance and the result of the best one was retained.

The aim of the computational experiments is fivefold: 1) to solve the problem described in Section 3, 2) to empirically calculate the savings that could be achieved by using a comprehensive objective function instead of using individual functions for each performance indicator, 3) to analyze the effect of variations in potential depot locations and customer distribution, 4) to investigate the effect of variations in depot costs, and 5) to quantify the benefits of using a heterogeneous fleet over a homogeneous one.

Table 3: Parameters used in the P-L-HALNS

Description	Typical values
Total number of iterations (ϖ)	25000
Number of iterations for roulette wheel	450
Roulette wheel parameter	0.1
New global solution	1
Better solution	0
Worse solution	5
Startup temperature parameter (P_0)	100
Cooling parameter (δ)	0.999
Lower limit of removable nodes	5-20% of $\lvert\mathcal{N}_c\rvert$
Upper limit of removable nodes	12-30% of $\lvert\mathcal{N}_c\rvert$
First shaw parameter	0.5
Second shaw parameter	0.15
Third shaw parameter	0.25
Noise parameter	0.1
Route cost calculation parameter (ς)	100
Diversification parameter (σ)	50

5.1 Results obtained on the test instances

This section presents the results obtained by P-L-HALNS on the 25-, 50-, 75- and 100-customer instances. Table 4 presents the average results for each instance set where the columns display the average distance (km), CO_2 emissions (kg), fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (£), depot cost (£), vehicle cost (£), total cost (£) and time (s). We also report the average number of opened depots for each subset. In this column, the first, second and third elements within the parentheses represent the number of opened depots in zone 1, 2 and 3, respectively. To evaluate the environmental impact of the solutions, we also report the average amount of CO_2 emissions (in kg) based on the assumption that one liter of gasoline contains 2.32 kg of CO_2 (Coe, 2005). For detailed results, the reader is referred to Tables A.1–A.4 in the Appendix.

Table 4: Average results on the instances

Instance	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_c\rvert$	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_0\rvert$	Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)	Time (s)
CC25	25	4	(1.2, 0.2,0.5)	37.40	21.56	13.01	7900.00	106.20	8019.21	5.46
SU25	25	4	(0.4,0.8,0.6)	56.01	20.63	12.45	5400.00	102.60	5515.05	5.44
R25	25	4	(0.4,0.8,0.4)	64.78	19.48	11.76	5600.00	104.00	5715.76	5.41
CC50	50	6	(1.6,0.6,0.8)	80.66	23.68	14.29	11700.00	175.60	11889.88	32.11
SU50	50	6	(0.4,0.6,2.0)	125.15	21.44	12.94	8100.00	175.60	8288.53	31.00
R50	50	6	(0.2,1.0,1.8)	128.60	23.40	14.12	8100.00	169.00	8283.12	31.53
CC75	75	8	(2.2,1.0,0.8)	106.14	28.43	17.16	16100.00	256.80	16373.96	68.21
SU75	75	8	(0.0,2.0,2.0)	200.39	32.73	19.75	11300.00	288.80	11608.54	64.29
R75	75	8	(0.0,2.2,1.8)	197.89	38.22	23.06	11000.00	300.00	11323.04	64.02
CC100	100	10	(2.6,1.4,1.4)	140.24	43.61	26.31	20700.00	358.20	21084.52	169.51
SU100	100	10	(0.0,2.2,3.0)	244.44	42.02	25.35	14900.00	397.40	15322.76	151.15
R100	100	10	(0.0,3.0,2.2)	259.42	54.66	32.98	13600.00	395.80	14028.78	158.13

From Table 4, it is clear that the total cost is dominated by the large depot costs which force the P-L-HALNS to first minimize the number of depots, then minimize the vehicle fixed costs, and lastly fuel and CO_2 emission costs.

5.2 The effect of the various cost components of the objective function

In this section, we analyze the implications of using different objectives on a number of performance measures. To this end, we have conducted experiments using four special cases of the objective function, which are presented in the first column of Table 5. The experiments were conducted on all 100-customer R, SU and CC instances. In the first version, we only consider minimizing the fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (F). This setting also implies minimizing CO_2 since emissions are proportional to fuel consumption. We then consider the objective of minimizing only the depot cost (D) and the vehicle fixed cost (V) in the second and third versions, respectively. The next objective corresponds to that of the HVRP which jointly minimizes distance and vehicle fixed costs (DV). Finally, we present the comprehensive objective of minimizing the total cost function (T) as defined by (7).

Table 5: The effect of cost components: objective function values.

Objective	Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)
R100 instances							
Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (F)	(1.0,3.1,1.0)	257.66	30.50	18.40	16443.79	363.51	16889.10
Depot cost (D)	(0.0,3.1,2.2)	238.34	52.41	31.63	13600.00	399.97	14030.00
Vehicle fixed cost (V)	(1.1,3.2,2.1)	248.40	36.34	21.93	18289.66	356.22	18666.46
Distance and vehicle fixed cost (DV)	(4.0,3.1,3.2)	333.19	119.59	72.17	34234.48	962.42	35263.31
Total cost (T)	(0.0,3.0,2.2)	259.42	54.66	32.98	13600.00	395.80	14028.78
SU100 instances							
Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (F)	(1.1,3.0,2.0)	244.44	42.02	25.35	20037.93	416.03	20480.95
Depot cost (D)	(0.0,3.2,3.0)	304.11	43.62	26.32	16955.17	498.82	17480.01
Vehicle fixed cost (V)	(1.0,3.1,2.0)	250.09	62.91	37.96	20037.93	361.18	20438.29
Distance and vehicle fixed cost (DV)	(4.0,3.2,3.1)	340.56	92.48	55.81	37506.90	999.71	38562.30
Total cost (T)	(0.0,2.2,3.0)	248.49	43.52	26.26	14900.00	397.40	15322.76
CC100 instances							
Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (F)	(3.0,2.0,1.1)	117.68	36.15	21.82	22080.00	369.49	22494.35
Depot cost (D)	(3.1,1.2,2.1)	161.18	69.36	41.85	20700.00	408.49	21140.94
Vehicle fixed cost (V)	(3.0,2.2,1.1)	124.22	43.97	26.53	22080.00	358.20	22467.62
Distance and vehicle fixed cost (DV)	(4.3,3.1,3.0)	256.51	86.30	52.08	33580.00	991.46	34579.22
Total cost (T)	(2.6,1.4,1.4)	140.24	43.61	26.31	20700.00	358.20	21084.52

Table 6 presents the average deviations of each component from the smallest value of each column. For example, in the case of the R100 instances, the minimum average value for objective D is £13,600 across the five objective functions, but objective V yields a solution in which the average depot cost is £18,289.66, corresponding to an increase of 34.48% over the former. For the R100, SU100 and CC100 instances, it is clear that objective F results in a poor total cost performance, yielding a 20.39%, 33.66% and 6.69% average increases over the value found through objective T, respectively. In the case of the R100 instances, this increase is more substantial for objective V, which is on average 33.06% higher. For the R100, SU100 and CC100 instances, as for emissions, objective F yields an increase of 20.91%, 18.18% and 6.67% in depot cost over the value provided by objective D, respectively. For the R100, SU100 and CC100 instances, objective DV performs very poorly on all cost components, yielding average increases of 151.36%, 151.67%

and 64.00%, respectively. These results indicate that traveling on a shortest path does not always result in a cheapest solution. In urban settings, due to the effect of speed zones on the objective function, longer paths outside the city centre have the potential to decrease the solution cost, a situation that was explained in Section 2. Maden et al. (2010) reached a similar conclusion relative to long-haul transportation.

Table 6: The effect of cost components: percent deviation from the minimum value.

Objective	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)
R100 instances						
Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (F)	8.11	0.00	0.00	20.91	2.05	20.39
Depot cost (D)	0.00	71.86	71.86	0.00	12.28	0.01
Vehicle fixed cost (V)	4.22	19.15	19.15	34.48	0.00	33.06
Distance and vehicle fixed cost (DV)	39.79	292.13	292.13	151.72	170.18	151.36
Total cost (T)	8.84	79.22	79.21	0.00	11.11	0.00
SU100 instances						
Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (F)	0.00	0.00	0.00	18.18	15.19	33.66
Depot cost (D)	24.41	3.82	3.82	0.00	38.11	14.08
Vehicle fixed cost (V)	2.31	49.73	49.73	18.18	0.00	33.39
Distance and vehicle fixed cost (DV)	39.32	120.12	120.12	121.21	176.79	151.67
Total cost (T)	1.66	3.57	3.57	0.00	10.03	0.00
CC100 instances						
Fuel and CO_2 emissions cost (F)	0.00	0.00	0.00	6.67	3.15	6.69
Depot cost (D)	36.97	91.85	91.85	0.00	14.04	0.27
Vehicle fixed cost (V)	5.56	21.63	21.63	6.67	0.00	6.56
Distance and vehicle fixed cost (DV)	117.97	138.73	138.73	62.22	176.79	64.00
Total cost (T)	19.18	20.62	20.62	0.00	0.00	0.00

5.3 The effect of variations in depot and customer locations

In this section, we investigate the effect of the variations in potential depot locations and customer distribution. To this end, we have selected five R type instances with 100 customers and 10 potential depots. We consider three variations, namely all depots are potentially located in zone 1, in zone 2, and in zone 3, respectively. Customer locations are kept the same across all variations. In the tables, the columns Dev_{CO_2} and Dev_T show the deviations in CO_2 emissions (in kg) and in total cost (£) between the various depot or customer location cases and the base case.

Table 7: The effect of variations in depot location.

Instance	All depots in zone 1				All depots in zone 2				All depots in zone 3				Mix	
	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)
R100_1	110.68	25390.30	3.45	41.14	90.10	17866.20	−18.60	16.35	77.36	10367.00	−38.12	−44.15	106.86	14944.50
R100_2	52.29	25464.60	16.50	47.34	43.26	17917.10	−0.93	25.15	40.40	10461.00	−8.06	−28.19	43.66	13410.30
R100_3	50.77	25421.60	14.23	47.19	38.62	17907.30	−12.75	25.03	40.77	10422.60	−6.82	−28.80	43.55	13424.30
R100_4	54.14	25465.70	21.44	47.34	40.92	17946.70	−3.94	25.28	38.28	10488.10	−11.12	−27.86	42.53	13409.70
R100_5	77.70	25388.90	52.80	41.10	35.66	17866.50	−2.86	16.30	35.20	10366.30	−4.20	−44.27	36.68	14955.10
Avg (%)			21.68	44.82			−7.82	21.62			−13.66	−34.65		

We first report in Table 7 the effect of varying the depot locations. Table 7 shows that when all depots are located in zone 1, CO_2 emissions increase by 21.68%. When they are located in zones 2 and 3, CO_2 emissions decrease by 7.82% and 13.66%, respectively. Table 7 suggests that the average increase in the total cost is 44.82% and 21.62% on average when all depots are located in zone 1 and 2, respectively over the base case. When all the depots are located in zone 3, the total cost decreases by about 34.65% on average. This analysis indicates that in terms of cost, it is preferable to locate the depots in suburban areas rather than in the city centre when the customers are uniformly distributed, i.e., for R instances. This also helps reduce congestion in city centres. A similar observation was made by Dablanc (2014) who conducted an empirical study on depot location in the Los Angeles area and concluded that warehouses moved out an average of six miles from the area barycentre between 1998 and 2009. Dablanc's findings are mainly a consequence of the fact that land is cheaper in the suburbs than in inner-cities, which translates into lower depot costs. Our study goes one step further in that it shows that locating depots in peripheral zones also helps reduce pollution since more travel can be made at an optimal speed. Locating depots outside the city centre translates into larger driving distances to the inner city customers but yields overall economic and environmental benefits.

We now analyze the effect of variations in customer locations. Table 8 provides a comparison of three variations, namely all customers located in zone 1, all customers located in zone 2, and all customers located in zone 3. The depot locations are kept the same across all variations. Table 8 shows that when all customers are located in zone 3, CO_2 emissions increase by 11.42%. On the other hand, when all customers are located in zone 1 and 2, CO_2 emissions decrease by 38.97% and 50.14%, respectively. Table 8 suggests that the average total cost increase over the base case is 38.16%, 6.04% and 8.12% on average when all customers are located in zone 1, 2 and 3, respectively. For the case where all customers are located in zone 1, 2 and 3, the increase in the total cost ranges from 33.25% to 41.50%, from −0.33% to 10.36%, and from −0.29% to 20.57%, respectively. Our results suggest that when all customers are located only in the city centre this is always more expensive than for the other settings.

Table 8: The effect of variations in customer location.

Instance	All customers in zone 1				All customers in zone 2				All customers in zone 3				Mix	
	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)
R100_1	63.6614	22411.30	−67.86	33.32	65.15	14906.20	−64.02	−0.26	107.55	14912.70	0.64	−0.21	106.86	14944.50
R100_2	29.6308	22877.90	−47.35	41.38	27.18	14938.40	−60.61	10.23	46.55	14950.10	6.22	10.30	43.66	13410.30
R100_3	30.663	22878.50	−42.02	41.32	25.80	14948.60	−68.83	10.20	47.04	14954.40	7.42	10.23	43.55	13424.30
R100_4	33.7631	22922.40	−25.98	41.50	40.16	14959.30	−5.92	10.36	54.87	16882.10	22.48	20.57	42.53	13409.70
R100_5	32.8477	22406.20	−11.66	33.25	24.24	14905.60	−51.34	−0.33	46.05	14911.80	20.35	−0.29	36.68	14955.10
Avg (%)			−38.97	38.16			−50.14	6.04			11.42	8.12		

5.4 The effect of variations in depot costs

In practice, it is very difficult to estimate depot costs because these depend on factors such as land and building cost, staffing and technology. In general, these factors are highly variable and hard to quantify.

In our benchmark instances, the depot costs are high with respect to other costs and dependent on their location, i.e., every zone has its own fixed depot cost. We now investigate the effect of variations in depot costs.

Our first experiments analyze the effect of same depot costs on opened depots. To this end, we have selected five R type instances with 100 customers and 10 depots. We consider five versions in which all depot costs are fixed at £5000, £3500, £2000, £1000 and £500 per day in all zones. Table 9 shows that when the variable depot cost (Mix) is used for each zone, 5.5 depots are opened in zones 2 and 3 on average. For the £5000, £3500, £2000, £1000 and £500 fixed costs, 3.4, 3.8, 3.8, 4.0 and 4.0 depots are opened in zones 2 and 3 on average. On the other hand, for these three fixed costs variants, 1.6, 1.2, 1.4, 1.2 and 0.0 depots are opened in zone 1 on average. The average number of opened depots in the city centre is always lower than the total of number of opened depots in the outer urban area and in the suburb. Our results clearly show that even if depot costs are the same in everywhere, it is still preferable to locate depots outside the city centre because of the pollution aspect (see Section 5.3).

Table 9: The effect of same depot costs on opened depots.

Instance	£5000	£3500	£2000	£1000	£500	Mix
	Opened depots	Opened depots	Opened depots	Opened depots	Opened depots	Opened depots
R100_1	(2,3,0)	(2,3,0)	(2,3,0)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(0,3,2)
R100_2	(2,3,0)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(2,2,1)	(1,3,1)	(0,3,2)
R100_3	(2,3,0)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(0,3,2)
R100_4	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(2,2,2)	(1,3,2)	(2,2,2)	(0,3,3)
R100_5	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(1,3,1)	(0,3,2)
Avg	(1.6,3.0,0.4)	(1.2,3.0,0.8)	(1.4,2.8,1.0)	(1.2,2.8,1.2)	(1.2,2.8,1.2)	(0.0,3.0,2.2)

Our next experiments investigate the effect of decreasing the variable depot costs. To this end, we have conducted four series of tests on all 100-customer CC, SU and R instances using our original variable depot costs structure. In these tests, we decrease the depot costs by 90%, 70%, 50% and 30%, respectively. For example, decreasing the depot cost by 90% means that the depot costs in zone 1, 2 and 3 are £500, £350 and £200, respectively. Looking at the results presented in Table 10, we observe no change in the locations of opened depots for all instances and for all variations. For example, for the CC100 instances, when we decrease depot costs by 90%, 70%, 50% and 30%, it is still preferable to open three depots in zone 1, one depot in zone 2 and two depots in zone 3. Even though customers are concentrated in the city centre, half of the depots are still located in the suburb. When we look at the SU100 instances, no depot is located in city centre, but six depots are located in outer city area and in the suburb. The R100 instances follows the same pattern with no depot located in the city centre, but five depots located in the outer city area and in the suburb. Again, these results clearly show that no matter what the depot cost is, it is still preferable to locate the depots outside the city centre due to the impact of their location on CO_2 emissions.

Table 10: The effect of decreasing the depot costs.

Instance	Change in depot cost (%)	Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)
CC100	−90%	(3,1,2)	106.74	63.93	38.58	2070.00	358.20	2424.02
SU100	−90%	(0,3,3)	255.71	24.29	14.66	1695.52	372.56	2080.63
R100	−90%	(0,3,2)	250.70	34.63	20.90	1360.00	395.80	1756.22
CC100	−70%	(3,1,2)	155.11	71.33	43.05	6210.00	358.20	6576.01
SU100	−70%	(0,3,3)	268.67	45.66	27.56	5086.55	372.56	5485.30
R100	−70%	(0,3,2)	279.48	25.98	15.68	4080.00	407.26	4479.27
CC100	−50%	(3,1,2)	129.82	66.44	40.09	10350.00	358.20	10722.59
SU100	−50%	(0,3,3)	239.59	44.95	27.12	8477.59	372.56	8876.44
R100	−50%	(0,3,2)	258.55	54.19	32.70	6800.00	395.80	7222.50
CC100	−30%	(3,1,2)	115.79	60.75	36.66	14490.00	358.20	14868.95
SU100	−30%	(0,3,3)	247.62	13.93	8.41	11868.62	372.56	12249.06
R100	−30%	(0,3,2)	253.99	52.10	31.44	9520.00	399.97	9946.26

5.5 The effect of fleet composition

This section analyzes the benefit of using a heterogeneous fleet of vehicles over a homogenous one. To this end, we have conducted three sets of experiments on three 100-customer instances, each using a unique vehicle type, i.e., only light duty 1 (L1), only light duty 2 (L2) and only medium duty (M). This results in three instances of the homogeneous version of the problem which are solved with the P-L-HALNS. Table 11 provides the results of this comparison. The columns Dev_{CO_2} and Dev_T show the deviations in CO_2 emissions (in kg) and in total cost between the various homogeneous cases and the heterogeneous case.

Table 11: The effect of using a heterogeneous fleet

Instance	Only light duty 1				Only light duty 2				Only medium duty				Heterogeneous fleet	
	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)	Dev_{CO_2}	Dev_T	CO_2 (kg)	Total cost (£)
CC100_1	50.12	26286.20	46.55	14.94	28.56	23007.20	−16.48	0.60	29.33	22877.70	−14.22	0.04	34.20	22869.60
CC100_2	51.80	22745.30	41.40	27.32	35.47	21011.40	−3.19	17.62	32.82	19379.80	−10.43	8.48	36.64	17864.10
CC100_3	71.24	26251.50	1.69	17.02	55.17	22508.80	−21.25	0.34	55.14	22441.20	−21.29	0.04	70.06	22433.30
CC100_4	46.78	24784.20	22.27	8.31	39.50	23013.80	3.24	0.57	35.77	22981.60	−6.52	0.43	38.26	22883.10
CC100_5	52.06	22745.40	33.91	17.41	33.04	22509.90	−15.02	16.20	35.08	19441.20	−9.77	0.35	38.88	19372.50
Avg (%)			29.16	17.00			−10.54	7.06			−12.45	1.87		
SU100_1	40.33	17280.30	−2.67	15.91	35.31	17011.30	−14.78	14.10	42.59	16885.70	2.77	13.26	41.44	14909.00
SU100_2	34.32	15234.70	−21.48	1.89	32.66	14960.70	−25.28	0.06	41.37	15445.00	−5.36	3.29	43.71	14952.40
SU100_3	41.72	15739.20	7.96	5.23	35.59	15511.50	−7.90	3.71	43.12	15446.00	11.60	3.27	38.64	14956.30
SU100_4	38.36	17295.10	−14.16	2.42	35.00	17511.10	−21.67	3.70	42.15	17445.40	−5.67	3.31	44.68	16887.00
SU100_5	35.40	15235.40	−14.92	2.19	29.83	15008.00	−28.31	0.66	42.67	14943.30	2.55	0.23	41.61	14909.10
Avg (%)			−9.05	5.53			−19.59	4.45			1.18	4.67		
R100_1	98.27	15237.10	−8.04	1.96	73.68	15010.30	−31.05	0.44	111.96	15145.30	4.77	1.34	106.86	14944.50
R100_2	38.89	15279.50	−10.92	13.94	34.67	15010.90	−20.59	11.94	44.55	15006.90	2.03	11.91	43.66	13410.30
R100_3	40.07	15280.20	−8.00	13.82	31.36	15008.90	−27.99	11.80	43.05	15004.20	−1.15	11.77	43.55	13424.30
R100_4	38.81	17279.40	−8.76	28.86	33.74	17010.40	−20.68	26.85	42.57	16885.70	0.09	25.92	42.53	13409.70
R100_5	36.10	15235.80	−1.57	1.88	32.49	14960.60	−11.41	0.04	40.59	15144.50	10.65	1.27	36.68	14955.10
Avg (%)			−7.46	12.09			−22.34	10.21			3.28	10.44		

Table 11 shows that for the CC instances, CO_2 emissions increase by 29.16% when L1 vehicles are used, and decrease by 10.54% and 12.45% when L2 and M vehicles are used, respectively. The results of the SU and R instances yield similar values for CO_2 emissions, which decrease by L1 and L2 vehicles and increase by M type vehicles. Table 11 indicates that the average increase in total cost for the CC instances is 17.00%, 7.06% and 1.87%, for the SU instances 5.53%, 4.45% and 4.67%, for the R instances 12.09%, 10.21% and 10.44% when using L1, L2 and M homogeneous fleet over the heterogeneous case, respectively. These results imply that if one is to use a homogeneous fleet, it is preferable to use vehicles of type M in city centres (CC). For the suburban (SU) and randomly distributed customer (R) location scenarios, homogeneous vehicles of types L2 and M yield almost the same average total cost increase. This result shows that both the L2 and M vehicles are suitable for the SU and R instances. Our results also show that using a heterogeneous vehicle fleet is preferable to using a homogeneous one since the total cost decreases by about 17% at most. For urban settings or short-haul transportation, using a heterogeneous fleet does not seem to have same impact on the total cost as in long-haul transportation. Koç et al. (2014b) have indeed shown that using a heterogeneous fleet can decrease the total cost by up to 25% in inter-city travel.

Our final experiments aim at providing some insight into the capacity utilization of the vehicle fleet, both for the homogenous and the heterogeneous cases, and also into the capacity utilization of the depots. In Table 12, we present the capacity utilizations for the three homogeneous settings of Table 11 as well as for the heterogeneous version. The column VCU displays the average percentage capacity utilization of the vehicle fleet, which is calculated as 100 (total demand of route)/(capacity of the vehicle) for each vehicle, and DCU displays the average percentage of capacity utilization for depots, which is calculated as 100 (total demand of customers assigned to corresponding depot)/(capacity of the depot) for each depot.

Table 12: Capacity utilization rates

Instance	Only light duty 1		Only light duty 2		Only medium duty		Heterogeneous fleet	
	DCU	VCU	DCU	VCU	DCU	VCU	DCU	VCU
CC100_1	91.67	90.40	89.16	86.79	92.98	86.79	89.16	92.98
CC100_2	96.39	90.72	99.50	82.26	93.47	82.26	97.92	92.77
CC100_3	87.92	93.09	97.39	84.40	97.39	72.35	97.39	85.54
CC100_4	88.76	92.46	99.36	88.76	91.19	88.76	91.19	88.76
CC100_5	96.86	92.59	98.38	83.95	96.86	71.96	93.97	89.94
Avg (%)	92.32	91.85	96.76	85.23	94.38	80.42	93.93	90.00
SU100_1	88.22	94.35	88.22	90.57	88.22	90.57	88.22	90.57
SU100_2	93.28	91.90	94.69	92.59	99.20	71.42	99.20	88.65
SU100_3	97.13	89.99	97.13	81.59	97.13	69.94	97.13	78.96
SU100_4	92.07	94.95	98.01	81.02	96.45	69.45	98.01	86.19
SU100_5	95.78	94.37	95.78	85.56	95.78	73.34	97.23	82.27
Avg (%)	93.30	93.11	94.77	86.27	95.36	74.94	95.96	85.33
R100_1	94.37	92.99	97.28	84.31	94.37	72.26	94.37	91.64
R100_2	98.18	91.36	98.18	87.71	98.18	65.78	98.18	88.30
R100_3	98.92	90.68	97.44	87.05	97.44	65.29	97.44	83.70
R100_4	86.76	92.79	86.76	89.08	86.76	89.08	86.76	89.08
R100_5	94.20	92.82	94.20	93.51	94.20	72.13	94.20	89.53
Avg (%)	94.49	92.13	94.77	88.33	94.19	72.91	94.19	88.45

As can be seen from Table 9, for the CC, SU and R instances the VCU reaches its maximum average level of 91.85%, 93.11% and 92.13% and its minimum average level of 80.42%, 74.94% and 72.91% when using only L1 and M duty vehicles, respectively. Using L1 vehicles yields the maximum average VCU level over all types of instances. Using a heterogeneous fleet yields an average VCU of 90.00%, 85.33% and 88.45% for the CC, SU and R instances, respectively. These results indicate that for a heterogeneous fleet, the best VCU is obtained with L1 vehicles for the CC instances, and with L2 vehicles for the SU or the R instances.

For all instance types and all homogeneous vehicle combinations, the DCU level reaches at least 92.00%, which is very similar to the heterogeneous vehicle fleet level. Our results shows that because of the very high effect of the depot costs in the objective function (see Section 5.1), increasing the DCU has more effect than increasing the VCU in urban settings.

6 Conclusions and Managerial Insights

We have studied and analyzed the combined impact of depot location, fleet composition and routing on vehicle emissions in urban freight distribution. We have formulated a new problem arising in urban settings and designed a powerful ALNS metaheuristic to solve it. We have derived managerial insights by investigating the effect of various problem components on cost and CO_2 emissions. In what follows we summarize our main conclusions.

Our first observation relates to shortest paths. Because of the effect of speed zones, a shortest path is not always a fastest, cheapest or least polluting path in city logistics since it may be advantageous to follow circuitous routes to achieve faster speeds and hence lower costs and CO_2 emissions. The explanation lies in the fact that emissions are a U-shaped function of speed (Figure 1) whose optimal value is reached at 40 km/h since this is the fastest speed used in this study. It is often the maximal allowed speed in city centres. Hence faster driving is clearly cheaper and less polluting in this context. This is consistent with what was observed by Ehmke et al. (2014) for urban areas but different from what occurs in inter-city travel where faster driving entails more pollution which must be weighted against reduced driver wages (Bektaş and Laporte, 2011; Demir et al., 2014a).

We have also shown that the highest costs are attained when all customers are located only in the city centre. Our experimental results indicate that even for same depot costs or lower variable depot costs, it is preferable to locate the depots outside the city centre. This decreases the total cost by about 34.65% on average, a finding in line with that of Dablanc (2014) on the Los Angeles data. Furthermore, we have demonstrated that locating depots in the outer areas is also highly beneficial in terms of reducing pollution. Indeed, an average decrease of 13.66% can be achieved by locating depots in the suburbs. These results are remarkably stable over a wide range of fixed depot costs.

We have demonstrated that in an urban setting, using a heterogenous fleet instead of a homogeneous one can decrease average costs by up to 17%, but this is not as much as what was observed by Koç et al. (2014b) for long-haul transportation. Furthermore, we have shown that the depot capacity utilization levels tend to be higher than the vehicle capacity utilization levels. This has an important implication since in practice depot costs are often considerably larger than vehicle costs and significantly affect the total distribution cost.

Our results depend of course on the parameter values used in the experimental design but the extensive sensitivity analyses we have carried out convince us that our conclusions are highly robust. Beyond the computational comparisons we have just made, we stress the importance of the availability of a decision support tool, such as the one we have developed, capable of analyzing the trade-offs that can be established between depot location, fleet composition, routing and polluting emissions reductions in urban freight distribution networks.

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Appendix

Table A.1–A.4 present the detailed computational results on the 25-, 50-, 75- and 100-customer instances.

Table A.1: Computational results on the 25-customer instances.

Instance	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_c\rvert$	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_0\rvert$	P-L-HALNS							
			Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)	Time (s)
CC25_1	25	4	(1,1,0)	36.10	26.12	15.76	8500.00	109.00	8624.76	5.16
CC25_2	25	4	(2,0,0)	45.59	10.09	6.09	10000.00	109.00	10115.10	5.20
CC25_3	25	4	(1,0,1)	37.60	2.63	1.59	7000.00	102.00	7103.59	5.50
CC25_4	25	4	(1,0,1)	40.24	29.35	17.71	7000.00	109.00	7126.71	6.02
CC25_5	25	4	(1,0,1)	27.47	39.62	23.91	7000.00	102.00	7125.91	5.42
SU25_1	25	4	(0,1,1)	54.65	9.68	5.84	5500.00	102.00	5607.84	5.48
SU25_2	25	4	(1,0,1)	63.99	8.93	5.39	7000.00	109.00	7114.39	5.48
SU25_3	25	4	(0,1,0)	52.97	45.60	27.52	3500.00	98.00	3625.52	5.42
SU25_4	25	4	(1,1,0)	46.88	0.15	0.09	5500.00	102.00	5602.09	5.38
SU25_5	25	4	(0,1,1)	61.55	38.78	23.40	5500.00	102.00	5625.40	5.44
R25_1	25	4	(0,1,0)	73.07	28.63	17.28	3500.00	98.00	3615.28	5.36
R25_2	25	4	(0,1,1)	63.54	21.66	13.07	5500.00	102.00	5615.07	5.38
R25_3	25	4	(0,1,0)	68.13	10.17	6.14	3500.00	102.00	3608.14	5.36
R25_4	25	4	(1,1,0)	58.57	26.00	15.69	8500.00	109.00	8624.69	5.32
R25_5	25	4	(1,0,1)	60.58	10.95	6.61	7000.00	109.00	7115.61	5.62

Table A.2: Computational results on the 50-customer instances.

Instance	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_c\rvert$	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_0\rvert$	P-L-HALNS							
			Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)	Time (s)
CC50_1	50	6	(1,0,2)	92.86	20.74	12.52	9000.00	180.00	9192.52	33.56
CC50_2	50	6	(2,1,0)	70.76	19.83	11.97	13500.00	180.00	13692.00	33.80
CC50_3	50	6	(1,1,1)	75.47	36.37	21.94	10500.00	169.00	10690.90	31.08
CC50_4	50	6	(2,0,1)	77.13	21.10	12.73	12000.00	169.00	12181.70	31.14
CC50_5	50	6	(2,1,0)	87.07	20.34	12.27	13500.00	180.00	13692.30	30.97
SU50_1	50	6	(1,0,2)	144.13	24.37	14.71	10500.00	180.00	10694.70	30.92
SU50_2	50	6	(0,1,2)	134.87	41.57	25.08	7500.00	169.00	7694.08	30.93
SU50_3	50	6	(0,1,2)	123.49	1.76	1.06	7500.00	169.00	7670.06	31.30
SU50_4	50	6	(0,1,2)	123.17	20.70	12.49	7500.00	180.00	7692.49	30.85
SU50_5	50	6	(1,0,2)	100.09	18.79	11.34	7500.00	180.00	7691.34	31.00
R50_1	50	6	(1,1,1)	116.06	15.38	9.28	9000.00	169.00	9178.28	30.74
R50_2	50	6	(0,1,2)	133.68	21.97	13.26	7500.00	169.00	7682.26	31.62
R50_3	50	6	(0,1,2)	136.19	39.99	24.13	7500.00	169.00	7693.13	32.03
R50_4	50	6	(0,1,2)	131.86	19.17	11.57	7500.00	169.00	7680.57	31.16
R50_5	50	6	(0,1,2)	125.23	20.49	12.36	9000.00	169.00	9181.36	32.07

Table A.3: Computational results on the 75-customer instances.

Instance	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_c\rvert$	$\lvert\mathcal{N}_0\rvert$	P-L-HALNS							
			Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)	Time (s)
CC75_1	75	8	(2,1,1)	110.65	27.51	16.60	15500.00	240.00	15756.60	71.18
CC75_2	75	8	(2,1,1)	113.19	29.38	17.73	15500.00	282.00	15799.70	71.62
CC75_3	75	8	(2,1,1)	117.68	30.03	18.12	15500.00	240.00	15758.10	68.32
CC75_4	75	8	(3,1,0)	95.75	28.62	17.27	18500.00	282.00	18799.30	64.60
CC75_5	75	8	(2,1,1)	93.41	26.61	16.06	15500.00	240.00	15756.10	65.33
SU75_1	75	8	(0,2,2)	219.38	35.14	21.20	11000.00	320.00	11341.20	64.55
SU75_2	75	8	(0,2,2)	201.09	32.91	19.86	11000.00	324.00	11343.90	64.72
SU75_3	75	8	(0,2,2)	169.80	26.54	16.02	11000.00	229.00	11245.00	63.34
SU75_4	75	8	(0,2,2)	201.77	33.19	20.03	11000.00	240.00	11260.00	65.21
SU75_5	75	8	(0,2,2)	209.93	35.85	21.64	12500.00	331.00	12852.60	63.64
R75_1	75	8	(0,2,2)	172.62	29.32	17.70	11000.00	289.00	11306.70	63.91
R75_2	75	8	(0,2,2)	212.28	33.72	20.35	11000.00	278.00	11298.30	64.69
R75_3	75	8	(0,2,2)	207.77	61.32	37.00	11000.00	324.00	11361.00	63.58
R75_4	75	8	(0,2,2)	191.46	34.50	20.82	11000.00	289.00	11309.80	64.13
R75_5	75	8	(0,3,1)	205.30	32.22	19.44	11000.00	320.00	11339.40	63.80

Table A.4: Computational results on the 100-customer instances.

Instance	$\|\mathcal{N}_c\|$	$\|\mathcal{N}_0\|$	P-L-HALNS							
			Opened depots	Total distance (km)	CO_2 emissions (kg)	Fuel and CO_2 emissions costs (£)	Depot cost (£)	Vehicle cost (£)	Total cost (£)	Time (s)
CC100_1	100	10	(3,1,2)	145.59	34.20	20.64	22500.00	349.00	22869.60	159.53
CC100_2	100	10	(2,1,2)	125.57	36.64	22.11	17500.00	342.00	17864.10	176.07
CC100_3	100	10	(3,2,0)	143.70	70.06	42.27	22000.00	391.00	22433.30	176.89
CC100_4	100	10	(3,1,2)	143.15	38.26	23.09	22500.00	360.00	22883.10	178.28
CC100_5	100	10	(2,2,1)	143.21	38.88	23.46	19000.00	349.00	19372.50	156.76
SU100_1	100	10	(0,3,3)	236.50	41.44	25.01	14500.00	384.00	14909.00	167.88
SU100_2	100	10	(0,2,3)	242.52	43.71	26.38	14500.00	426.00	14952.40	146.06
SU100_3	100	10	(0,2,3)	246.52	38.64	23.32	14500.00	433.00	14956.30	147.51
SU100_4	100	10	(0,2,3)	255.20	44.68	26.96	16500.00	360.00	16887.00	147.15
SU100_5	100	10	(0,2,3)	241.49	41.61	25.11	14500.00	384.00	14909.10	147.17
R100_1	100	10	(0,3,2)	250.47	106.86	64.48	14500.00	380.00	14944.50	148.83
R100_2	100	10	(0,3,2)	262.33	43.66	26.35	13000.00	384.00	13410.30	147.92
R100_3	100	10	(0,3,2)	263.72	43.55	26.28	13000.00	398.00	13424.30	159.90
R100_4	100	10	(0,3,3)	257.90	42.53	25.67	13000.00	384.00	13409.70	157.72
R100_5	100	10	(0,3,2)	262.70	36.68	22.13	14500.00	433.00	14955.10	176.27

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