



A variable iterated greedy algorithm based on grey relational analysis for crew scheduling

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Abstract. Public transport crew scheduling is a worldwide problem, which is NP-hard. This paper presents a new crew scheduling approach, called GRAVIG, which integrates Grey Relational Analysis (GRA) into a Variable Iterated Greedy (VIG) algorithm. The GRA is utilized as a solver for shift selection during the schedule construction process, which can be considered as a Multiple Attribute Decision Making (MADM) problem, since there are multiple static and dynamic criteria governing the efficiency of a shift to be selected into a schedule. Moreover, in the GRAVIG, a biased probability destruction strategy is elaborately devised to maintain the ‘good’ shifts in the schedule without compromising the randomness. Experiments on eleven real-world crew scheduling problems show that the GRAVIG can generate high-quality solutions close to the lower bounds obtained by the CPLEX in terms of the number of shifts.

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1. Introduction

The crew scheduling problem is one of the important components of the public transit operations planning process [1]. It is concerned with finding the most efficient way of partitioning vehicle work into a crew schedule. Efficient schedules can make significant monetary savings for transportation operators since crew wages are a very large cost element of public transport operations [2-4].

To clarify the problem, some terminologies are first introduced. A *shift* is the work that a crew carries out in a day, and it must satisfy a set of predefined operational constraints and labor rules, e.g., the time for a crew to work without a meal break has to be

limited to a given number of hours. A *schedule* is defined as a solution to the problem that contains a set of shifts that cover all the vehicle work. *Vehicle work* is usually presented by a set of blocks. A *block* presents a sequence of vehicle work to be operated by one vehicle during a day. An example of a block is illustrated in Figure 1.

A *Relief Opportunity* (RO) is a pair of time and place where a crew can be relieved for reasons such as having a meal break and changing vehicle. Not all ROs will be actually used to relieve crews. The individual period between any contiguous pair of ROs on the same vehicle is called a *piece of work* (piece for short). A *spell* is constituted by a set of successive pieces on a vehicle. A shift contains one or more (at most four in general) spells with breaks in between, starting and ending with a sign-on and a sign-off at a depot. A two-spell shift is illustrated in Figure 2.

Crew scheduling is the process of compiling a schedule with smallest number of shifts and least cost. Meanwhile, each shift must be feasible, and each piece

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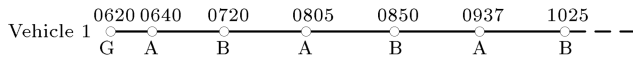


Figure 1. An example of a block.

must be assigned to a shift. The problem is NP-hard and has attracted much research interest since 1960's [5]. Many crew scheduling approaches have been proposed in a series of international conferences (e.g., [6]). Since 1990's, metaheuristics have been widely used to solve the problem. The major classes include Genetic Algorithm [7-11] and Tabu Search [7,12-14]. Other metaheuristics have also been employed, e.g. Variable neighborhood search [15], simulated annealing [16], self-adjusting approach [17], greedy randomized adaptive search procedure [15,18], squeaky wheel optimization [19], and ant colony optimization [20].

In many crew scheduling approaches, e.g. [9,11,17,19], shift evaluation methods are essential, which decide the quality of schedule compilation. The most straightforward shift evaluation methods are single criterion-based, i.e. evaluating a shift based on an evaluation criterion. However, the solution qualities of the greedy heuristics with such evaluation methods have been proven unacceptable [17,21]. Later, multiple criteria-based evaluation methods have been proposed, which evaluate a shift comprehensively in light of multiple criteria. For example, in [9], the authors presented a genetic algorithm with fuzzy evaluation for crew scheduling, in which a fuzzy shift evaluation method was devised based on fuzzy set theory; In [22], the authors proposed an evolutionary algorithm based on Grey Relational Analysis (GRA), where a shift evaluation method based on GRA was devised and its parameters were obtained by a hybrid genetic algorithm.

This paper proposes a new crew scheduling approach, called GRAVIG, which integrates GRA into a Variable Iterated Greedy (VIG) algorithm. The VIG is a metaheuristic that has been successfully applied to solve a variety of combinatorial optimization problems such as traveling salesman problem with time windows [23-25], which is composed of five phases: initialization, destruction, construction, local search, and acceptance criterion. Applying the VIG for the crew scheduling problem, shift selection plays an essential

role during the schedule construction and destruction processes. The GRAVIG employs the GRA as a solver for the shift selection, which can be considered as a Multiple Attribute Decision Making (MADM) problem, since there are multiple static and dynamic criteria governing the efficiency of a shift to be selected into or removed from a schedule. Moreover, in the GRAVIG, a biased probability destruction strategy is elaborately devised to maintain the 'good' shifts in the schedule without compromising the randomness. The GRAVIG can be classified as the Generate and Select (GaS) approach. The GaS approach first generates a large set of shifts satisfying all the given operational constraints and labor rules (called *generation phase*), from which a subset is selected to form the schedule (called *selection phase*).

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The formulation of the crew scheduling problem is presented in Section 2. The shift evaluation method based on GRA is described in Section 3. The details of the proposed GRAVIG are then presented in Section 4. Experimental results on real-world problems are displayed in Section 5. Finally, concluding remarks are given in Section 6.

2. Formulation of the crew scheduling problem

Given m pieces $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m\}$ and n shifts $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n\}$, where each shift S_j covers a subset of pieces, the crew scheduling problem can be formulated as the following set covering problem:

$$\text{Minimize } \sum_{j=1}^n (C + c_j)x_j, \tag{1}$$

$$\text{Subject to } \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \geq 1, \quad \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}, \tag{2}$$

$$x_j = 0 \text{ or } 1, \quad \forall j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}, \tag{3}$$

where $x_j = 1$ if S_j is selected, otherwise $x_j = 0$; $a_{ij} = 1$ if S_j covers piece p_i , otherwise $a_{ij} = 0$; c_j is the cost of S_j , and C is a large constant.

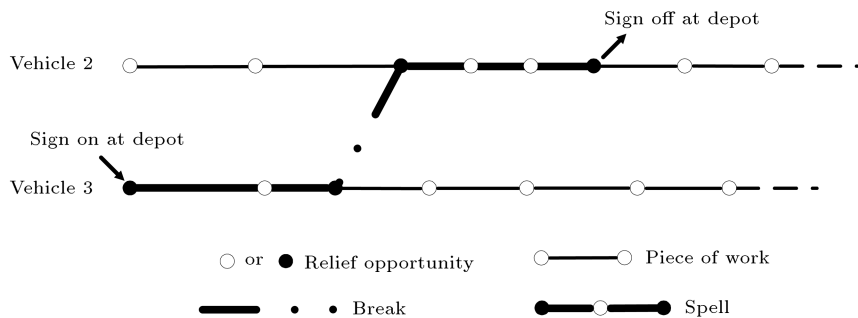


Figure 2. Illustration of the composition of a two-spell shift.

Eq. (1) minimizes the number of shifts selected and corresponding shift cost, where minimizing the number of shifts has priority over minimizing the shift cost; Relation (2) ensures that each piece is covered by at least a shift; and Eq. (3) assures that all the shifts are considered. The quality of a schedule is attributable to the number of shifts included and the cost of each component shift.

3. A shift evaluation method based on GRA

Given a crew scheduling with n shifts, $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n\}$, a schedule with minimal number of shifts and shift cost is to be constructed. Shift selection plays an important role. Such a shift selection problem can be considered as an MADM problem, since there are multiple static and dynamic criteria governing the efficiency of a shift to be selected into a schedule.

GRA is one of the most important components of grey system theory [26-28]. It belongs to the family of MADM methods, which select the best from the existing alternatives by considering multiple criteria [29,30]. In this paper, GRA is employed for the shift selection during the schedule construction process.

GRA is an impact evaluation model that measures the degree of similarity or difference between two comparability sequences based on the grade of relation. A comparability sequence consists of the performances evaluated by each criterion in the given set of criteria. Given a set of comparability sequences, an ideal target sequence can be easily generated, called reference sequence. The basic principle of GRA is that a comparability sequence is regarded as the best if it has the highest grey relational grade with the reference sequence.

Tailoring GRA for the shift selection, a dynamic criterion and five static criteria, i.e. working time (C_1), ratio of working time over wage cost (C_2), number of pieces (C_3), number of spells (C_4), and value in the relaxed LP solution (C_5), are considered. The values of the five static criteria for each shift $S_j \in S$ are called a performance sequence, denoted by $Y_j = (y_j(1), y_j(2), y_j(3), y_j(4), y_j(5))$, according to which the comparability sequence is first obtained and then the reference sequence is defined. Finally, the grey relational grade between the comparability sequence and reference sequence is calculated, which is called *static evaluation*. Moreover, the dynamic criterion is measured by the over-cover of pieces by shifts and called *dynamic evaluation*, which reflects how well it fits the other shifts in the schedule. A comprehensive evaluation based on the two parts is devised.

3.1. Static evaluation

3.1.1. Grey relational generating

Grey relational generating is to transform the

performance sequence of each shift into a comparability sequence.

Criteria C_1, C_2, C_3 , and C_5 belong to the larger-the-better criteria, since a shift with larger $y_j(k)$ ($k = 1, 2, 3, 5$) is generally regarded better, while C_4 belongs to the closer-to-the-desired-value-the-better criteria, because a shift with 2 spells is always considered better, i.e. the desired value is 2. Y_j is transformed into a *comparability sequence*, $X_j = (x_j(1), x_j(2), x_j(3), x_j(4), x_j(5))$, by employing the following Eqs. (4) and (5), where $x_j(k)$ is in the range $[0,1]$:

$$x_j(k) = \frac{y_j(k) - \min_j y_j(k)}{\max_j y_j(k) - \min_j y_j(k)},$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, 5, \tag{4}$$

$$x_j(k) = 1 - \frac{|y_j(k) - 2|}{\max \left\{ \max_j y_j(k) - 2, 2 - \min_j y_j(k) \right\}},$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad k = 4. \tag{5}$$

3.1.2. Reference sequence

After obtaining the comparability sequences for all the shifts, *reference sequence* $X_0 = (x_0(1), x_0(2), x_0(3), x_0(4), x_0(5))$ can be defined by setting $x_0(k) = \max\{x_j(k) | j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}, k = 1, 2, \dots, 5$. Therefore, $X_0 = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$ corresponds to the artificial shift S_0 .

3.1.3. Grey relational coefficient

A *grey relational coefficient* (denoted as $\gamma(x_0(k), x_j(k))$) is the foundation for calculating the grey relational grade between X_j and X_0 according to the k th criterion. It is calculated by Eq. (6):

$$\gamma(x_0(k), x_j(k)) = \frac{\Delta_{\min} + \zeta \Delta_{\max}}{|x_0(k) - x_j(k)| + \zeta \Delta_{\max}}$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \tag{6}$$

where $\Delta_{\min} = \min_j \min_k |x_0(k) - x_j(k)|$, $\Delta_{\max} = \max_j \max_k |x_0(k) - x_j(k)|$, $\zeta \in [0,1]$ is the distinguishing coefficient, and usually $\zeta = 0.5$.

3.1.4. Grey relational grade

Grey relational grade between X_j and X_0 , denoted as $\gamma(x_0, x_j)$, is calculated by Eq. (7):

$$\gamma(x_0, x_j) = \sum_{k=1}^5 w_k \gamma(x_0(k), x_j(k)), \tag{7}$$

where w_k ($w_k \geq 0$) denotes the weight of criterion C_k and $\sum_{k=1}^5 w_k = 1$.

3.1.5. Static evaluation functions

$\gamma(x_0, x_j)$ can be used as the static evaluation function

for shift S_j , denoted as $f(S_j)$, i.e.:

$$f(S_j) = \gamma(x_0, x_j). \tag{8}$$

Moreover, *relative grey relational grade*, which integrates the ideas of GRA and TOPSIS, is suggested to be used as the static evaluation function, and it is defined as follows:

$$f(S_j) = \frac{\gamma(x_0, x_j)}{\gamma(x_0, x_j) + \gamma(x', x_j)}, \tag{9}$$

where $\gamma(x', x_j)$ denotes the grey relational grade between X_j and the negative ideal sequence $X' = (x'(1), x'(2), x'(3), x'(4), x'(5))$, and $x'(k) = \min\{x_j(k) | j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

3.2. Comprehensive evaluation

Dynamic evaluation function, denoted by $g(S_j)$, is realized by measuring over-cover of pieces, where over-cover means a piece is covered by more than one shift. It is defined in Eq. (10):

$$g(S_j) = \sum_{k=1}^{|S_j|} (\alpha_{jk} \times \beta_{jk}) / \sum_{k=1}^{|S_j|} \beta_{jk}, \tag{10}$$

where $|S_j|$ denotes the number of pieces in S_j , and β_{jk} is the working time of piece k in S_j :

$$\alpha_{jk} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if piece } k \text{ in } S_j \text{ is covered} \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{11}$$

Based on the static evaluation function and dynamic evaluation function, comprehensive evaluation function is devised in Eq. (12):

$$F(S_j) = (f(S_j))^\alpha \times (g(S_j))^\beta, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \tag{12}$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ reflects the relative influence of the static evaluation and dynamic evaluation.

4. The GRAVIG approach

The VIG only provides a general framework, which should be elaborately tailored for solving different combinatorial optimization problems. To solve the crew scheduling problem, this section proposes the GRAVIG approach, which considerably enhances the VIG by integrating with GRA. The GRA is employed in the initialization, construction, and destruction processes, aimed at selecting the most suitable shifts to construct or destruct a schedule. Such a shift selection problem can be regarded as an MADM problem, where multiple criteria are applied. The GRAVIG also devises a biased probability destruction replacing the traditional random destruction, which is able to maintain the ‘good’ shifts in the schedule without compromising the randomness. The details of the GRAVIG are described below.

4.1. Initialization

To construct an initial schedule X^0 , the GRA is employed to decide which shifts will be used: The higher the evaluation value of a shift, the higher the desirability of using it in the schedule will be, which is described as follows:

1. Set the initial schedule, $X^0 = \phi$;
2. For each piece $p_i \in P$, build a coverage list, denoted as L_i , which contains all the shifts covering p_i ; then, sort the pieces by the size of their coverage list in ascending order;
3. For the piece $p_i \in P$, find the shift $S_k \in L_i$ satisfying $F(S_k) = \max\{F(S_j) | S_j \in L_i\}$ and set $X^0 = X^0 \cup \{S_k\}$ and $P = P - \{S_k\}$;
4. Output X^0 .

4.2. Biased probability destruction

In the *biased probability destruction*, the current schedule (say X^1) is destructed by removing d shifts, where d is called *destruction size*. We devise a biased probability selection to achieve this: Evaluate the shifts in X^1 by the GRA first, sort them by the evaluation values in ascending order, and then select d different shifts according to a biased probability distribution, where the shift of rank i is selected with probability P_i :

$$P_i = \frac{i^{-\lambda}}{\sum_{i=1}^{|X^1|} i^{-\lambda}}, \tag{13}$$

where λ is a positive real number and we set $\lambda = 1.2$ in this paper. A shift with a higher evaluation value will have lower probability to be removed, i.e. the ‘good’ shifts have higher probability of being maintained in the schedule. This is different from the canonical VIG, where the worst or randomly selected elements are to be removed.

The initial destruction size is set as d_{\min} , and then d adjusts adaptively within a range $[d_{\min}, d_{\max}]$ (called *destruction size range*), where d_{\min} and d_{\max} denote minimum and maximum destruction sizes, respectively. At each iteration, if d becomes larger than d_{\max} or the solution is better than the best solution found so far, set $d = d_{\min}$; otherwise, add 1 to d . This is different from the canonical VIG, where d is set to be d_{\min} if d is larger than d_{\max} or the solution obtained is better than the current solution. Moreover, the destruction size range may influence the quality of the final results, since a small value of d will make it difficult for the GRAVIG approach to escape from local optima while a large value of d will make this destruction procedure similar to a randomized procedure. Differing from the canonical VIG, where the destruction size range is usually set to be $[1, N]$, in this paper, we set the

destruction size range to be $[a^*N, b^*N]$ ($0 < a < b < 1$), where N is the number of shifts in the current schedule minus one, a and b are set to be 0.1 and 0.4, respectively.

4.3. Construction

In the *destruction*, d shifts are removed. The obtained partial schedule is denoted as X^2 . Consequently, the pieces, which are covered by the d shifts exclusively, become uncovered. To cover them, the GRA is employed to determine which shifts should be selected. The major steps are as follows:

1. Set $U = \{\text{the pieces which are uncovered}\}$;
2. For each piece, $p_i \in U$, build a coverage list, denoted as L_i , which contains all the shifts covering p_i ; then, sort the pieces by the size of their coverage list in ascending order;
3. For the piece $p_i \in U$, find the shift $S_k \in L_i$ with $F(S_k) = \max\{F(S_j) | S_j \in L_i\}$, and set $X^2 = X^2 \cup \{S_k\}$, $U = U - \{S_k\}$;
4. Output X^2 .

4.4. Local search

To further improve the new schedule, X^2 , generated by the *construction*, a local search is employed, which focuses on removing redundant shifts and replacing shifts. A shift is defined as redundant if all of its pieces can be covered by the other shifts in the schedule. The local search contains the following steps:

1. Sort the shifts in X^2 by cost in descending order;
2. Delete the redundant shifts in X^2 ;
3. Check each shift in X^2 in descending order: If it is a redundant shift, then delete it; otherwise, if it can cover k ($1 \leq k \leq 3$) pieces exclusively, replace it with a shift $S_j \notin X^2$, which can cover k pieces and has the lowest cost. If any of the above two conditions occurs, re-execute step 3; otherwise, terminate and output X^2 .

It should be mentioned that the parameter $k = 3$ in the local search is only implemented for the best schedule produced by the GRAVIG. The purpose is to achieve a tradeoff between less CPU time and better results.

4.5. Acceptance criterion

The new schedule should be evaluated and it should be decided whether it is acceptable. We adopt an acceptance criterion as follows: The new schedule X^2 replaces the original schedule X^1 with the probability $\min(1, e^{-(G(X^2) - G(X^1))/T})$, where $G(X^1)$ and $G(X^2)$

denote the costs of X^1 and X^2 , respectively, i.e.:

$$G(X^1) = \sum_{S_j \in X^1} (C + c_j),$$

$$G(X^2) = \sum_{S_j \in X^2} (C + c_j).$$

T is the temperature at the current iteration, which decreases according to a proportional temperature cooling schedule, i.e. $T = cT$, where c is set to be 0.9 in this paper.

4.6. Framework of the GRAVIG approach

Let T_0 denote an initial temperature, M denote the maximum number of iterations at the current temperature T , and N denote the maximum number of iterations for the GRAVIG; the framework of the GRAVIG is presented as follows:

1. Generate an initial schedule X^0 by initialization and improve it by local search; then, obtain a new schedule, X^1 , set the best schedule $X^* = X^1$;
2. Set $n = 0$ and $T = T_0$;
3. Initialize the destruction size range by setting $d_{\min} = |X^1|^*a$ and $d_{\max} = |X^1|^*b$, and set $d = d_{\min}$;
4. Improve X^1 by M iterations at the temperature T , and update X^* , which can be illustrated by the following steps:
 - 4.1 Set $m = 0$;
 - 4.2 Generate a new schedule, X^2 , by sequentially employing biased probability destruction and construction, and then improve it by local search;
 - 4.3 If X^2 is better than X^* , i.e. $G(X^2) < G(X^*)$, set $X^* = X^2$, $d = d_{\min}$; otherwise, set $d = d + 1$;
 - 4.4 Set $X^1 = X^2$ if acceptance criterion is satisfied;
 - 4.5 Update the values of d_{\min} and d_{\max} by setting $d_{\min} = |X^1|^*a$ and $d_{\max} = |X^1|^*b$, and if d is out of the destruction size range $[d_{\min}, d_{\max}]$, set $d = d_{\min}$;
 - 4.6 Set $m = m + 1$ and $n = n + 1$;
 - 4.7 If $m < M$, go to step 4.2.
5. Decrease T by setting $T = cT$;
6. If the termination condition has been met (e.g. $n \geq N$), improve X^* using local search, and then output X^* ; otherwise, go to step 4.

5. Computational results

The major concern about using heuristics is the quality of the obtained solution. In this paper, to evaluate the

Table 1. Size of test instances.

Data	Number of blocks	Number of pieces	Number of shifts
BT08	8	184	14218
WH5	14	162	9714
ZJQZ2	18	491	31712
WJ302	30	389	74864
ZH40	40	528	31493
HS9	43	302	48267
HK4	46	467	97386
BJ41	54	410	55977
GZBM	30	750	93853
GZHD	49	584	137355
SY40	62	830	112142

efficiency of the proposed GRAVIG, we have carried out experiments on 11 crew scheduling instances, which are derived from real-world problems in China. Their characteristics are shown in Table 1.

The GRAVIG is coded in C++ and implemented on a 2.60 GHz PC with 992M RAM under Windows XP, while the CPLEX 12.4 is run on a 2.13 GHz PC with 2GB RAM under Windows 7. The parameters are set as follows: $T_0 = 100$, $N = 700$, $M = 100$, $\zeta = 0.5$, $(\alpha, \beta) = (1.0, 1.0)$, and $(w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5) = (0.15, 0.15, 0.15, 0.15, 0.4)$, which is a good parameter Li and Kwan [9].

For comparison purpose, the benchmark experimental results in terms of shift number and total cost are conducted by comparing the GRAVIG with

CPLEX 12.4. Moreover, computational experiments are also conducted by comparing the GRAVIG with the following 3 algorithms: a recently proposed crew scheduling approach, i.e. Adaptive Evolutionary Crew Scheduling (AECS) approach in [11], the VIG, and an Iterated Greedy (IG) algorithm. This paper applies Relative Percentage Deviation (RPD) to the results of CPLEX, AECS, VIG, and IG to measure the performance of the GRAVIG, where:

$$RPD = \left(\frac{\text{GRAVIG's result} - A\text{'s result}}{A\text{'s result}} \right) \times 100\%,$$

where A denotes CPLEX, AECS, VIG, or IG.

5.1. Comparison of the GRAVIG with CPLEX

The average results of 10 independent runs for the GRAVIG are reported in Table 2, where the results of CPLEX are also given. Columns 2-4 list the results of CPLEX in terms of shift number, shift cost, and elapsed time, respectively, where ‘-’ denotes that integer solution cannot be found by CPLEX. For comparison purpose, we further calculate the lower bound of the number of shifts in an optimal schedule by employing CPLEX to solve the LP relaxation of the crew scheduling model, i.e. Eqs. (1)-(3) in Section 2; the corresponding results are listed in the 5th column of Table 2. The remaining columns report the results of the GRAVIG and its comparison with CPLEX.

From Table 2, it can be seen that for the first 8 instances, CPLEX can find the integer solution, and the average RPDs of the GRAVIG over the CPLEX are 1.28% and 9.86% in terms of shift number and

Table 2. Comparative results for CPLEX and GRAVIG.

Data	CPLEX's solution			Lower bound	GRAVIG's schedule					
	# of shifts	Cost (hours)	Time (sec.)		# of shifts	# of shifts	RPD ^a (%)	RPD ^b (%)	Cost (hours)	RPD ^a (%)
BT08	23	139.43	16	23	23	0	0	156.19	12.0	9.9
WH5	21	151.15	5	21	22	4.76	4.76	156.61	3.61	6.5
ZJQZ2	31	221.37	30	31	32	3.23	3.23	235.57	6.41	36.9
WJ302	44	292.12	41	44	45	2.27	2.27	316.96	8.50	45.1
ZH40	64	380.85	24	64	64	0	0	425.27	11.67	25.1
HS9	68	439.88	43	68	68	0	0	448.36	1.93	21.2
HK4	70	448.77	94	70	70	0	0	491.87	9.60	51.5
BJ41	99	588.33	43	99	99	0	0	736.06	25.11	24.2
GZBM	-	-	-	60	60.2	-	0.33	452.00	-	67.5
GZHD	-	-	-	85	85.9	-	1.06	655.26	-	65.1
SY40	-	-	-	83	84.2	-	1.45	599.25	-	73.6
Avg. RPD ^c						1.28	1.19		9.86	

^a The RPD over the results of CPLEX;

^b The RPD over the lower bound;

^c The average RPD over the results of CPLEX or the lower bound.

shift cost, respectively. Therefore, it can be concluded that the GRAVIG can obtain high-quality solutions close to the results of the CPLEX, since for the crew scheduling problem, minimizing the shift number has priority over minimizing the shift cost; and for the remaining 3 instances, i.e. the GABM, GZHD, and SY40, the CPLEX cannot find integer solution, while the GRAVIG can obtain high-quality solutions close to the lower bounds: The average RPD is 1.19% in terms of shift number. This demonstrates the effectiveness and promise of the GRAVIG.

5.2. Comparison of the GRAVIG with the AECS

The comparative results of the GRAVIG with the AECS are listed in Table 3, where columns 2-4 report the average results of 10 independent runs for the AECS, and columns 5 and 6 list the GRAVIG's RPD over the AECS in terms of shift number and shift cost, respectively. From Table 3, we can see that the GRAVIG outperforms the AECS, although it is slightly slower. In terms of shift number, the GRAVIG performs better than the AECS for 8 out of 11 instances; among the remaining 3 instances, it can produce the same results for 2 instances. Moreover, in terms of shift cost, the GRAVIG outperforms the AECS for 10 instances. On average, the schedule of the GRAVIG has 1.56% less shifts in terms of shift number, and is 4.44% cheaper in terms of shift cost.

5.3. Comparison of the GRAVIG with the VIG

As already stated in Section 4, the GRAVIG differs from the canonical VIG mainly in the integration of the GRA and the design of the destruction. To assess the efficiency of the specially-devised biased probability destruction, comparative experiments between

the GRAVIG and the VIG are carried out, where the ingredients of the VIG are set to be same as those in the GRAVIG, except for the destruction. The destruction of the VIG is as follows: the d shifts to be removed are completely randomly selected and the destruction size range is set to be $[1, N]$, where N is the number of shifts in the current solution minus one; also, at each iteration, d is set to be 1 if the new schedule obtained is better than the current schedule or d is larger than N . Average results of 10 independent runs of the VIG and its comparison with the GRAVIG are listed in Table 4, where the RPD column reports the GRAVIG's RPD over the VIG in terms of shift number and shift cost, respectively.

From Table 4, one can easily observe that the GRAVIG outperforms the VIG. On average, the schedule of the GRAVIG has 0.58% less shifts in terms of shift number, and is 0.27% cheaper in terms of shift cost. In addition, in terms of shift number, the GRAVIG is no worse than the VIG for all the 11 instances, while it performs better for 3 instances. Meanwhile, in terms of shift cost, the GRAVIG outperforms the VIG for 7 instances. This confirms that the biased probability destruction can enhance the search power of the GRAVIG.

5.4. Comparison of the GRAVIG with Iterated Greedy algorithm

To further evaluate the performance of the GRAVIG, we also compare it with the IG algorithm, which is a popular metaheuristic having been successfully applied to address a variety of combinatorial optimization problems [31,32]. The IG is to some extent different from the VIG, i.e. the destruction size d in the IG is static while d in the VIG can adjust adaptively. Therefore, the value of d in the IG must be given in the beginning of the IG. For comparison purpose, in

Table 3. Comparative average results of 10 runs for the GRAVIG and AECS.

Data	AECS's schedule			GRAVIG' s schedule	
	# of shifts	Cost (hours)	Time (sec.)	RPD (%)	RPD (%)
BT08	23.0	158.88	3.5	0	-1.69
WH5	23.0	173.30	6.2	-4.35	-9.63
ZJQZ2	31.9	246.30	17.6	0.31	-4.36
WJ302	45.9	331.90	23.6	-1.96	-4.50
ZH40	64.3	490.67	21.7	-0.47	-13.33
HS9	69.0	465.65	9.3	-1.45	-3.71
HK4	70.0	511.70	16.7	0	-3.88
BJ41	99.9	688.15	18.7	-0.90	6.96
GZBM	61.9	475.42	59.6	-2.75	-4.93
GZHD	87.6	675.88	48.9	-1.94	-3.05
SY40	87.4	642.33	127.6	-3.66	-6.71
Avg. RPD				-1.56%	-4.44%

Table 4. Comparative average results of 10 runs for the GRAVIG and VIG and iterated greedy.

Data	VIG's schedule				IG-I's schedule				IG-II's schedule			
	# of shifts	RPD (%)	Cost (hours)	RPD (%)	# of shifts	RPD (%)	Cost (hours)	RPD (%)	# of shifts	RPD (%)	Cost (hours)	RPD (%)
BT08	23	0	156.48	-0.19	23	0	156.33	-0.09	23.1	-0.43	156.69	-0.32
WH5	22	0	156.87	-0.17	22.6	-2.65	161.85	-3.24	22	0	156.74	-0.08
ZJQZ2	32	0	234.56	0.43	32.1	-0.31	236.55	-0.41	31.9	0.31	233.91	0.71
WJ302	45	0	316.01	0.30	46.1	-2.39	317.28	-0.10	45.1	-0.22	316.40	0.18
ZH40	64	0	430.05	-1.11	64.4	-0.62	424.92	0.08	64	0	430.31	-1.17
HS9	68	0	448.58	-0.05	68.8	-1.16	450.79	-0.54	68.1	-0.15	448.66	-0.07
HK4	71.1	-1.55	496.48	-0.93	71.1	-1.55	495.08	-0.65	70.9	-1.27	495.37	-0.71
BJ41	99	0	733.24	0.38	99.4	-0.40	731.40	0.64	99	0	733.11	0.40
GZBM	60.2	0	451.44	0.12	61.3	-1.79	457.22	-1.14	60.3	-0.17	453.11	-0.24
GZHD	87.2	-1.49	656.42	-0.18	87.9	-2.28	656.44	-0.18	86.7	-0.92	654.72	0.08
SY40	87.1	-3.33	609.16	-1.63	86.8	-3.00	601.44	-0.36	86.3	-2.43	610.5	-1.84
Avg. RPD		-0.58		-0.27		-1.47		-0.55		-0.48		-0.28

this section, the IG with two values of d (i.e., d_{\min} and d_{\max} used in the GRAVIG) are tested, denoted by IG-I and IG-II, respectively. Their other ingredients are same as those in the GRAVIG. Average results of 10 independent runs of the IG-I and IG-II and specific comparative results with the GRAVIG are both illustrated in Table 4, where the RPD columns denote the GRAVIG's RPD over the IG-I and IG-II in terms of shift number and shift cost, respectively.

From Table 4, it can be seen that the GRAVIG performs better than both the IG-I and IG-II. The average RPDs over the IG-I and IG-II are -1.47% and -0.48%, respectively, in terms of shift number, and -0.55% and -0.28%, respectively, in terms of shift cost. Furthermore, in terms of shift number, the GRAVIG is

no worse than the IG-I for all the 11 instances, while it performs better for 10 instances. Meanwhile, the GRAVIG is no worse than the IG-II for 10 instances, while it performs better for 7 instances.

5.5. Experiment on the solution distribution of the GRAVIG

We now turn our attention to testing the solution distribution of the GRAVIG. Average results of 20 independent runs of the GRAVIG are listed in Table 5. Table 5 shows that the shift numbers found in the 20 runs by the GRAVIG are the same for 6 instances, and only vary in 1 shift for 3 out of the remaining 5 instances. Moreover, there is no remarkable variation

Table 5. Results of 20 independent runs for the GRAVIG.

Data	# of shifts				Cost (hours)			
	Ave.	Min.	Max.	Max.-Min.	Ave.	Min.	Max.	Std. dev.
BT08	23	23	23	0	156.13	155.58	158.83	0.72
WH5	22	22	22	0	156.76	154.93	159.18	1.32
ZJQZ2	31.9	31	32	1	234.99	232.35	238.10	1.77
WJ302	45.1	45	46	1	316.74	312.12	319.93	1.78
ZH40	64	64	64	0	426.33	419.98	432.85	3.20
HS9	68	68	68	0	448.68	447.92	448.75	0.20
HK4	70	70	70	0	492.28	486.62	496.23	2.01
BJ41	99	99	99	0	735.03	724.82	740.70	4.01
GZBM	60.05	60	61	1	450.85	447.80	454.12	1.80
GZHD	86.2	85	87	2	655.02	651.07	660.03	2.41
SY40	84.65	84	86	2	600.80	596.62	605.10	2.32
Avg. RPD ^a .	1.24%	0.75%	1.83%					

^a The average RPD over the lower bound in terms of shift number.

between the 20 runs in terms of shift cost. This indicates that the GRAVIG is quite robust.

Furthermore, we also compare the results of the GRAVIG with the lower bound of the number of shifts illustrated in Section 4.1, the average RPD of the optimal schedules presented in Table 5 over the lower bound is 0.75% in terms of shift number. This demonstrates that the GRAVIG can obtain high-quality results.

6. Conclusions

This paper proposes a new approach for the public transit crew scheduling problem, named GRAVIG, which integrates GRA into a VIG algorithm. The GRA serves as a solver for shift selection during the schedule construction and destruction processes, which can be considered as an MADM problem. Moreover, in the GRAVIG, an elaborate biased probability destruction strategy is designed to maintain the 'good' shifts in the schedule without losing randomness. Experiments on real-world instances show that the GRAVIG obtains high-quality schedules, which are close to the lower bounds obtained by the CPLEX in terms of shift number, and outperforms the AECS, VIG, and IG. Although we have presented this work in terms of public transport crew scheduling, it is suggested that the main idea of the GRAVIG can be extended to other problems.

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