ROUTING LINE PERSONNEL FOR RESTORATION OF DISRUPTED POWER DISTRIBUTION NETWORK

by

Bhavish Gokul Golla

A thesis submitted to the faculty of The University of North Carolina at Charlotte in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Engineering Management

Charlotte

2017

Approved by:

Dr. Churlzu Lim

Dr. Badrul Chowdhury

Dr. Yesim Sireli

©2017 Bhavish Gokul Golla ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

BHAVISH GOKUL GOLLA. Routing line personnel for restoration of disrupted power distribution network (Under the direction of Dr. CHURLZU LIM)

Natural disasters such as storms, floods, earthquakes cause a great deal of damage to human lives and properties, and this damage is aggravated by disruptions to some critical infrastructures, such as transport system, electricity and water supplies. The primary impact of natural disasters on power systems would be severe power outages. When the period of power outage is prolonged the suffering of the customers becomes far more worsened. Consequently, it is desired to restore power distribution systems promptly. In this thesis, we are concerned with a so-called repair crew scheduling problem that minimizes the total restoration time by adequately scheduling repair personnel.

Given information about fault locations and estimated repair times along with travel time data between locations, we investigate mathematical optimization models, specifically two mixed-integer programming (MIP) models. The first MIP model is formulated in analogy to the identical multiple machine scheduling problem, while the second model is proposed in an effort to reduce solution times. Noting that the repair crew scheduling problem is NP-hard, a heuristic method is also proposed. A numerical study was conducted to compare computational performances of the aforementioned exact models and the heuristic method. The computational results revealed that the second MIP model is promising when time allows. It is also observed that the heuristic method can be practically implemented under time pressure. Based on this observation, we propose an implementation plan that combines the second MIP and the heuristic method in a dynamic circumstance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have been possible without the guidance and help of several individuals who in one way or another contributed and extended their valuable assistance in the preparation and completion of this study.

First and foremost, I would like to express my utmost gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Churlzu Lim for his valuable guidance and selfless support. His patience and unfailing encouragement have been the major contributing factors in the completion of my thesis research.

It gives me immense pleasure in expressing my hearty gratitude to Dr. Badrul Chowdhury for his intensive and sincere guidance throughout the period of my research work. I am heartfelt thankful to my family and friends for their never-ending love and support.

I sincerely thank the committee members Dr. Badrul Chowdhury and Dr. Yesim Sireli for taking time to be on my committee and assess my work.

Finally, I would like to thank all the professors and staff at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte who contributed in providing quality education.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST O	FTABLES	vii
LIST O	F FIGURES	viii
СНАРТ	ER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1.	Problem Overview	2
1.2.	Approach	3
1.3.	Organization of thesis	3
СНАРТ	ER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1.	Traveling Salesman Problem	5
2.2.	Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP)	6
2.3.	Multi-Depot Multiple Traveling Salesman Problem	7
2.4.	Multiple Machine Scheduling	8
СНАРТ	ER 3: MODEL DESCRIPTION	10
3.1.	Adaptation of Job Scheduling with Sequence-Dependent Setup Time	10
3.2.	Proposed MIP Model	13
3.3.	Heuristic Method	15
СНАРТ	ER 4: NUMERICAL STUDY	18
4.1.	Generation of Large-Sized Test Scenarios	18
4.2.	Generation of Small-Sized Test Scenarios	24

v

4.3.	Results of Numerical Study	26
4.3.1.	Results – small-sized scenarios	27
4.3.2.	Results – large-sized scenarios	29
CHAPT	ER 5: DYNAMIC IMPLEMENTATION OF REPAIR CREW S	CHEDULING 32
5.1.	Dynamic Repair Crew Scheduling	32
5.2.	Illustration of Dynamic Repair Crew Scheduling	35
CHAPT	ER 6: CONCLUSION AND FUTURE STUDY	40
6.1.	Conclusion	40
6.2.	Future Study	41
REFERI	ENCES	43
APPENI	DIX A: TRAVEL TIME	51

vi

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Estimated Cost-per-Outage-per-Customer for the U.S. (costs shown in U.S, 2002)	2
Table 2: Cost-per-Outage-per-Customer (2014)	2
Table 3: Number of days for ranges of daily faults	19
Table 4: Estimated repair times at each fault location in minutes (case of large-sized scenario 1)	22
Table 5: Estimated travel times from operation centers to fault locations and between fault locations in minutes (for a sample of 10 fault locations in the case of large-sized scenario 1)	23
Table 6: Estimated repair times at each fault location in minutes (case of small-sized scenario 1)	25
Table 7: Estimated travel times from operation centers to fault locations and between fault locations in minutes (case of small-sized scenario 1)	25
Table 8: Restoration times for small-sized scenarios	27
Table 9: Execution times for small-sized scenarios	28
Table 10: Restoration times for large-sized scenarios	29
Table 11: Optimality gap for large-sized scenarios	30
Table 12: Initial estimates for 56 fault locations	35

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Number of faults per day from April 2010 to July 2014	19
Figure 2: Operations centers of the utility company in the Carolinas	20
Figure 3: Locations of 56 faults and three operation centers (case of large-sized scenario 1)	21
Figure 4: Locations of 12 faults and three operation centers (case of small-sized scenario 1)	24
Figure 5: Proposed procedure for dynamic implementation of repair crew scheduling	33
Figure 6: Initial crew schedules provided by EXACT2 (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)	36
Figure 7: Status of crew teams after initial 120 minutes (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)	37
Figure 8: Next set of schedules obtained from Modified HEURISTIC at t=120 (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)	38
Figure 9: Updated schedule obtained from Modified HEURISTIC at t=120 (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)	39

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Natural disasters such as storms, floods and earthquakes can cause a great deal of damage to human lives and properties, and such damages can be far worsened when essential infrastructures such as transport system, electricity, and water supply are disrupted for a prolonged period. According to the report prepared by the Executive Office of the President in 2013, weather-related power outages costed an annual average of \$18 billon-\$33 billion to the US economy, during the period 2003-2012. In 2008, the year in which Hurricane Ike occurred, the cost estimates ranged from \$40 billion to \$75 billion. In the year of Hurricane Sandy, 2012, the cost was estimated to be between \$27 billion-\$52 billion. These cost estimates were initially collected by major electric companies using customer surveys and later annually compiled by Sullivan [1] based on value-of-service (VOS) data. These annual estimates are then used to calculate a range of the inflation-adjusted average annual costs [2]. As the damage is significantly exacerbated overtime, shortening restoration time can play a critical role to effectively reduce the damage costs. Depending on the severity of the storm and resulting impairment, power outages can last a few hours or extend to periods of several days. This in turn can have real economic effects, as power outages can impact businesses (primarily through lost orders and damage to perishable goods and inventories), and manufacturers (mainly through downtime and lost production, or equipment damage) [3]. Table 1 shows the costs per outage per customer used in the Tobit regression equation to estimate the total cost of power interruptions to U.S. electricity customers [4].

Duration	Residential	Commercial	Industrial
0 sec	\$2.18	\$605	\$1,893
1 hour	\$2.70	\$886	\$3,253
Sustained Interruption	\$2.99	\$1,067	\$4,227

Table 1: Estimated Cost-per-Outage-per-Customer for the U.S. (costs shown in U.S, 2002)

Table 2 displays the costs per customer per outage presented in 2014 [5].

Table 2: Cost-per-Outage-per-Customer (2014)

	Residential	Commercial	Industrial
Cost per customer	\$23	\$4,257	\$35,757

This thesis is concerned with minimizing the time to restore infrastructure after a major storm event via mathematical optimization, called mixed integer programming (MIP). In particular, this thesis considers power distribution system that needs to be repaired after disruption caused by natural disasters or malicious attacks by terrorists. However, it should be noted that the approach investigated in this thesis can be also applied to restore other types of damaged infrastructure systems.

1.1. Problem Overview

When a power distribution system is severely damaged, a number of faulty components of the system need to be repaired. For example, Duke Energy, a utility company that supplies electricity in most part of North and South Carolina States, had to restore power for more than a million customers who lost power due to Hurricane Matthew in September 2016 [6]. Resources to repair damages include repair agents and various types of repair vehicles. Given a limited amount of resources, the optimization problem in this thesis is to minimize the time to repair all faults, which are scattered in a wide geographical region. Hence, the solution is in a form of scheduling available repair crews while estimates of repair times and travel times are under consideration.

1.2. Approach

In order to find a scheduling solution, two exact MIP models and one heuristic method have been investigated in this thesis. The first MIP model was adapted from [7], while the second alternative MIP model is proposed in this thesis. The third method was proposed in consideration of NP-hardness of the problem and the need for a real-time decision making environment.

To compare the efficacy of the three considered methods, a numerical study was conducted on two sets of test problems. The first set of test problems were generated as relatively small scale in order to ascertain the performance of two exact methods and the difference in solution quality between the exact method and the heuristic approach. The second set of test problems were generated based on the scenario similar to the past damage data resulted from severe storm incidences, and used to test three methods under realistic scenarios.

1.3. Organization of thesis

This thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 provides reviews on studies relevant to the repair crew scheduling. In Chapter 3, three aforementioned solution methods will be described in detail. A numerical study and its results are presented in Chapter 4, dynamic implementation of the problem offered in Chapter 5, which is followed by conclusion in Chapter 6, where the thesis is summarized, and potential future research directions are outlined.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Although there are some studies related to the system restoration after major outage events, most literature is focused on the estimation of restoration time. For example, Liu et al [8] introduced so-called accelerated failure time (AFT) models to estimate the duration of each probable storm-caused electric power outage. These outage durations were then used to estimate restoration times. AFT falls into the category of survival analysis model (i.e., statistical analysis specifically for time-to-event data, in this case, time until an outage is restored, or outage duration). This model was applied to hurricane and ice storm events for three major electric power companies on the East Coast of United States. By means of a large dataset that includes the companies' experiences in six hurricanes and eight ice storms, AFT models were fitted and used to forecast the duration of each probable outage in a storm. Restoration curves were then estimated for each county in the companies' service areas by aggregating those estimated outage durations and accounting for variable outage start times. This technique can be applied as a storm approaches, before damage assessments are available from the field, thus helping to better inform customers and the public of expected post-storm power restoration times. Results of model applications suggest they have promising predictive ability.

When a high impact low frequency (HILF) event occurs, it is a complicated process to deal with the power restoration tasks once the event has moved out of the region. In order to optimize the post-earthquake restoration of the electric power system, Xu et al [9] developed a stochastic integer program to determine how to schedule inspection, damage assessment, and repair tasks. The objective of the optimization is to minimize the average time duration of customers being without power. While this restoration model is adapted

from the way that the Los Angeles Department of Water and Power (LADWP) restoration process currently works, this optimization model can be used to determine if different inspection, damage assessment, and repair schedules would improve the restoration process. The models assume that all generation stations will be on immediately after an earthquake, that load balance is never a constraint during the restoration, and that the household-based estimate of number of customers is accurate. The study focuses only on the performance of restoration processes with different inspection, damage assessment, and repair schedules. It does not consider the possibility of optimizing the amount of repair material stored for use in a post-earthquake restoration situation. Despite these limitations, the results suggest that the optimization modelling approach presented could potentially be used to achieve some improvements in post-earthquake restoration.

Observing that the scheduling problem considered in this thesis resembles the sequencedependent vehicle routing problem, this chapter provides reviews on the literature relevant to the vehicle routing problem, including the traveling salesman problem, vehicle routing problem, multi-depot multiple traveling salesman problem and multiple machine scheduling problem.

2.1. Traveling Salesman Problem

The traveling salesman problem (TSP) is one of challenging optimization problems, and can be considered as the foundation to many other techniques driven on solving complex optimization problems, such as transportation, network flow, vehicle routing, crew scheduling, etc. TSP refers to a salesman, traveling to a given number of cities, visiting each one of the cities once starting from his city and returning to the same home city, with an objective to minimize the total cost of the trip. TSP is an NP-hard optimization problem and has its applications in various fields, (e.g., drilling of printed circuit boards [11], overhauling gas turbine engines [12], the order-picking problem in warehouses [13], and vehicle routing problem [14]).

One particular extension of TSP is called multiple traveling salesman problem (*m*TSP), where multiple salesmen travel from the same home city. Applications of *m*TSP are mostly in routing and scheduling problems, which include, printing press scheduling problem [15, 16], school bus routing problem [17], crew scheduling problem [18, 19, 20], interview scheduling problem [21, 22], and mission planning problem [23, 24, 25].

Dantzig, Fulkerson and Johnson [26] are credited to the first formulation of the TSP as an integer program in 1954. Since then, there have been numerous mathematical formulations of TSP and *m*TSP. Some notable studies include MIP formulations for the *m*TSP, for both symmetrical and asymmetrical cost structures [27], tree based formulation and three-index based formulations [28], comparison of eight distinct formulations of the TSP as an integer program [29] and survey of different integer programming formulations of the TSP [30].

2.2. Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP)

The vehicle routing problem can be described as follows. Consider a depot with one or more vehicles, and set of n customers. The objective is to find minimum cost routes for this fleet of vehicles to serve n customers in a timely manner. Demand of each customer must be supplied exactly once, by only one vehicle. It is assumed that the demand of any customer does not exceed the vehicle capacity. The total distance of any given route cannot exceed a pre-specified bound. The solution will be answering the question of "which vehicle travels to which customer(s) and in what order?". When the number of vehicles in the above-mentioned problem is one, the capacity of the vehicle is infinity, and the distance

is unbounded, this problem reduces to TSP. One of the earliest studies considered the routing of a fleet of gasoline delivery trucks between a bulk terminal and several service stations supplied by the terminal and proposed a VRP model [32].

There are quite a few variants in the VRP. When only the capacity of vehicles is constrained, the problem becomes Capacitated VRP (CVRP). When customers must be served within predefined time windows, without violating the capacities of vehicles and total trip time, the problem is called VRP with Time Window (VRPTW).

Dynamic vehicle routing problem (DVRP), also referred to as on-line vehicle routing problem, has taken its prominence recently due to the advancement in information and communication technologies that allow information to be obtained and processed in realtime. In DVRP, some of the predetermined visits are known in advance before the driver starts his/her working day, but as the day progresses, new orders arrive and the system has to incorporate them into an evolving schedule. There is an underlying assumption that the crew dispatcher and the driver have an on-going interaction throughout the day. The dispatcher can periodically communicate to the drivers about the new visits assigned to them. In this way, each driver always has knowledge about the next customers assigned to him/her [33].

2.3. Multi-Depot Multiple Traveling Salesman Problem

The multi-depot multiple traveling salesman problem (MDMTSP) is another variant of the TSP that is closely related to the problem considered in this thesis and deserves more attention. In MDMTSP, more than one salesman travels to a given set of cities, starting from a set of depots, with multiple salesman at each depot. Each city must be visited exactly

once by only one salesman. MDMTSP can be categorized into a fixed destination version and a non-fixed destination version. In the fixed destination version, all salesmen return to the same depot from which they started. In the non-fixed destination version, all salesmen need not return to the same depot from which they started, but the number of salesmen starting and ending at that particular depot should remain the same [34]. The objective of the MDMTSP is to minimize the total cost of the routes, where the cost can be measured in terms of cost, distance, or time.

The problem has some real applications and is closely related to other important multidepot routing problems, e.g., the multi-depot vehicle routing problem [36] and the location routing problem [37]. There are other applications as in the motion planning of a set of unmanned aerial vehicles [38, 39, 40, 41] and the routing of service technicians where the technicians are leaving from multiple depots [42].

2.4. Multiple Machine Scheduling

Repair crew scheduling problem also resembles multiple machine scheduling by considering crews as machines and repairs as jobs. Multi-machine scheduling (MMS) can be defined as the action of assigning a number of jobs to a number of performing machines such that certain performance demands like time or cost effectiveness are fulfilled. Consider a set of jobs that must be run and a set of machines available to execute the jobs. Jobs may be classified into groups of similar job types. Each machine can run only one job type at a time, and each machine may have some unique characteristics, such as production rate. Each job has a due date, on which production should have been completed, and certain jobs may be restricted to a subset of the available machines. When a machine changes from one job type to another, there may be some setup time which depends on the similarity of the job types. Machine characteristics may also command batch size preferences if, for example, very small batches result in higher defect rates. When the machines are not located in the same facility, the cost of transporting the product to its destination is machine-dependent, which implies a job-machine assignment cost.

Several related problems have been broadly studied in the literature [45]. Scheduling jobs on a single machine to minimize (weighted) tardiness is studied in [46, 47, 48, 49, 50]. The extension to multiple machines is considered in [51, 52, 53]. Scheduling subject to sequence dependent setup times is considered in [54] for single machine; in [55, 56] for parallel identical machines. Du and Leung [57] proved that minimizing the total tardiness on one machine is NP-hard. Further complexity results on machine scheduling problems can be found in [58].

CHAPTER 3: MODEL DESCRIPTION

This chapter presents two MIP models to represent the repair crew scheduling problem. The first MIP model is a straight-forward adaptation of Guinet [7], while the second one is a new MIP model proposed in this thesis. In addition to these exact models, a heuristic solution method is proposed in consideration of NP-hardness of the problem and the need for a dynamic decision making environment.

3.1. Adaptation of Job Scheduling with Sequence-Dependent Setup Time

The repair crew scheduling problem can be considered as a job scheduling problem, where each job corresponds to repairing a fault and machines are repair crews. It is assumed that crew teams have identical resources. Travel times of repair crew depend on the locations of faults that are repaired consecutively. Regarding travel times as setup times, therefore, the problem becomes a job scheduling problem with sequence-dependent setup times on identical machines. With these similarities between repair crew scheduling and job scheduling with sequence-dependent setup time, the MIP model from machine scheduling [4] has been adapted in repair crew scheduling and altered slightly to incorporate multiple starting depots.

To present the first MIP model, the following notation will be used

3.1.1. Problem parameters

N = number of repairs (faults)

K = number of crews

L = number of operation centers

K(l) = set of crew indice in operation center l

 p_i = estimated repair time at fault location i

 $T_{ij} = estimated travel time from i to j$

 $T_{li} = estimated travel time from operation center l to the fault location i$

 $M = a \ large \ number \ (\gg 1)$

3.1.2. Variables

 $x_{ijk} = 1$ if the fault location j is processed directly after fault location i by crew k; 0 otherwise

 $x_{0jk} = 1$ if the fault location j is the first repair job to be processed by crew k;

0 otherwise

 $x_{i0k} = 1$ if the fault location i is the last repair job of crew k;

0 otherwise

 a_i = completion time of repair at fault location i

R = total restoration time

With above notation, the problem can be written as follows:

Minimize R

(1)

subject to

$$\sum_{\substack{i=0\\i\neq j}}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} x_{ijk} = 1 \qquad \forall j = 1, \dots, N$$
(2)

$$\sum_{\substack{i=0\\i\neq h}}^{N} x_{ihk} - \sum_{\substack{j=0\\j\neq h}}^{N} x_{hjk} = 0 \qquad \forall h = 1, \dots, N, \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, K$$
(3)

$$\sum_{j=0}^{N} x_{0jk} \le 1 \qquad \qquad \forall k = 1, \dots, K$$
(4)

$$a_j \ge a_i + T_{ij} + p_j + \left(\sum_{k=1}^K x_{ijk} - 1\right) \right) \times M$$

$$\forall i = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall j = 1, \dots, N, \ j \neq i$$
(5)

$$a_j \ge T_{lj} + p_j + \left(\sum_{k \in K(l)}^K x_{0jk} - 1\right) \times M$$

$$\forall j = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall l = 1, \dots, L \tag{6}$$

$$R \ge a_i \qquad \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N \tag{7}$$

$$x_{ijk} \in \{0,1\} \qquad \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall j = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall k = 1, \dots, K$$

$$a_i \ge 0 \qquad \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N \tag{8}$$

$$a_0 = 0 \qquad \qquad \forall l = 1, \dots, L \tag{9}$$

The objective function (1) is a single variable R, which will represent the makespan of job scheduling problem (or total restoration time in our application). A set of constraints are listed in (2) to (9) which must be satisfied while minimizing the objective function. Each fault is repaired by one crew and only once, which is ensured by constraint (2). Constraint (3) ensures that once crew k repairs fault h, it leaves for another fault location on return to an operation center. Constraint (4) is enforced to avoid assigning a crew to multiple faults initially. Constraints (5) and (6) impose the lower bound on completion time at each fault location, which depends on the processing time, travel time, completion time of the previous repair and the order of repairs assigned to the crew. Constraint (7) sets the lower bound on the maximum completion time, which must be greater than or equal to completion time at each fault location *i*. Completion time at each fault location is greater than or equal to zero as in constraint (8) and constraint (9) initializes completion time at operations center as 0.

3.2. Proposed MIP Model

This model was proposed in this thesis to help improve the solution effort of the repair crew scheduling problem when compared to the first MIP model.

In addition to the previously introduced notation, the following notation will be used to present the proposed model.

3.2.1. Variables

 $a_{ijk} = 1$ if the fault location j is repaired after fault location i (not

necessarily immediate) by crew k; 0 otherwise

 $x_{ik} = 1$ if the fault location i is assigned to crew k;

0 otherwise

 $y_{ik} = repair \ starting \ time \ at \ fault \ location \ i \ by \ crew \ k$

 $C_k = upper bound on cycle time of crew k$

Other parameters are defined under the first MIP formulation.

The proposed formulation can be written as follows:

subject to

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} x_{ik} = 1 \qquad \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N$$
(11)

$$y_{ik} \ge T_{li} - (1 - x_{ik}) \times M \qquad \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall l = 1, \dots, L, \ \forall k \in k(l) \ (12)$$

$$y_{ik} + p_i + T_{ij} \le y_{jk} + (1 - a_{ijk}) \times M \quad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, N, \ i \neq j, \ \forall k \in k(l)$$

$$(13)$$

$$a_{ijk} \le x_{ik} \qquad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, N, \ i \ne j, \ \forall k = 1, \dots, K$$
(14)

$$a_{ijk} \le x_{jk} \qquad \qquad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, N, \ i \ne j, \ \forall k = 1, \dots, K \tag{15}$$

$$a_{ijk} + a_{jik} \ge x_{ik} + x_{jk} - 1$$
 $\forall i, j = 1, ..., N, i \neq j, \forall k = 1, ..., K$ (16)

$$C_k \ge y_{ik} + p_i \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall k = 1, \dots, K$$
(17)

$$R \ge C_k \qquad \qquad \forall k = 1, \dots, K \tag{18}$$

$$R \ge 0 \tag{19}$$

$$C_k \ge 0 \qquad \qquad \forall k = 1, \dots, K \tag{20}$$

$$y_{ik} \ge 0 \qquad \qquad \forall i = 1, \dots, N, \ \forall k = 1, \dots, K \tag{21}$$

The objective function (10) minimizes R, which results in the total restoration time. An objective value will be returned with the minimum time by when all the repairs can be completed by the crews. No fault location can be visited more than once. Each repair is to be processed by one crew and only once, which is ensured by constraint (11). Constraints (12) and (13) ensure that repair can be started after considering travel time to that location and, if not traveled from operation center, completion time of previous fault. Constraints (14) (15) (16) specify that faults i and j can be repaired by crew k only when they are assigned to same crew k. Constraint (17) enforces a lower bound on the cycle time of crew k. Constraint (18) terms the restoration time constraint.

3.3. Heuristic Method

The repair crew scheduling is NP-hard, and it will be difficult to find an optimal solution within a reasonable amount of time when the problem size is increased. Hence, a heuristic method is proposed to cope with NP-hardness of the problem. This heuristic method is adapted from [59], which is concerned with job scheduling on identical machines without setup times. The proposed heuristic is described in what follows.

Heuristic method:

Initialization step – For each fault location *i*, compute adjusted processing times;

$$\overline{p_i} = p_i + \left(\sum_{j=1, j\neq i}^N T_{ji} + \sum_{l=1}^L T_{li}\right) / (N-1+L)$$

Step 1 – Sort p_i in the descending order.

Step 2 – Assign the fault with longest p_i to crew 1, second longest to crew 2 and so on until all crews are assigned.

Step 3 – The fault with the next longest p_i is assigned to the crew that finishes its repairs first. Repeat this until all faults are assigned

For illustration, consider the following example. There are three crews, T1, T2 and T3 and 10 faults with sorted p_i {100, 90, 45, 20, 18, 15, 13, 12, 11, 10}

Step 2 gives:

T1: 100, T2: 90, T3: 45

Then, for next 7 faults, search for the crew that completed assigned repairs so far. In this example, T3 is next.

T1: 100, T2: 90, T3: 45+20

Next, to assign the fault with the adjusted processing time 18, search for the crew with minimum cycle time. That is, T3 (with 45+20=65) is next again.

T1: 100, T2: 90, T3: 45+20+18

In the same manner, subsequent assignments are:

T1: 100, T2: 90, T3: 45+20+18+15

Next,

T1: 100, T2: 90+13, T3: 45+20+18+15

Next,

T1: 100, T2: 90+13, T3: 45+20+18+15+12

Next,

T1: 100+11, T2: 90+13, T3: 45+20+18+15+12

Finally,

T1: 100+11 = 111, T2: 90+13+10 = 113, T3: 45+20+18+15+12 = 110

The resulting adjusted makespan for this problem using this heuristic will be 113.

CHAPTER 4: NUMERICAL STUDY

This chapter presents a numerical study conducted on two sets of scenarios to investigate the numerical performance of optimization methods presented in the previous chapter. For the comparative study of the above listed three solution methods, we have generated 20 small-sized scenarios and 20 relatively large-sized scenarios. Each small-sized scenario consists of 12 fault locations and four crew teams originated from three operation centers, while a large-sized scenario involves 56 fault locations and 17 crew teams from the same three operation centers. Large-sized scenarios were first generated to reflect a HILF event that has actually occurred in the past. Then, the small-sized scenarios were generated by scaling down these realistic scenarios. The way these scenarios were developed will be discussed in the following two sections.

4.1. Generation of Large-Sized Test Scenarios

In order to develop realistic fault scenarios, severe storm days in the past have been examined first. From a utility company, a set of fault data for 1,368 days during the period from April 2010 – July 2014 was obtained. It consists of a total of 65,635 faults that have occurred in the West Carolinas. The number of faults per day is displayed in Figure 1.



Figure 1: Number of faults per day from April 2010 to July 2014

	Range of Number of Faults									
Bin	0-99	100-199	200-799	800 and above						
2010(Apr-Dec)	215	11	0	0						
2011	282	27	10	2						
2012	307	13	0	0						
2013	311	9	1	0						
2014(Jan-Jul)	171	9	0	0						
Frequency	1286	69	11	2						

Table 3: Number of days for ranges of daily faults

Among 1,368 days, there have been 1,286 days with 0-99 faults per day, 69 days with 100-199 faults per day, 11 days with 200-799 faults per day, and two days with more than 800 faults per day (see Table 3).

Note that there are two particular HILF events in 2011, which are specifically April 5th with a total of 847 faults and May 11th with 928 faults. In order to develop a realistic scenario for the Repair Crew Scheduling problem, the storm day of April 5th in 2011 was considered. On this particular day, a total of 270 circuits were involved with faults. Weather

information between April 3rd - 5th and the impact of this HILF event was traced back [60] and are summarized below.

- April 3rd 255 large hail reports, 75 damaging wind reports with wind gusts up to 80 mph hit parts of Kansas and Missouri.
- April 4th 46 tornado reports, 90 reports of large hail, 1,318 damaging wind reports and 1,476 storm reports with wind gusts up to 90 mph.
- Nearly one million residents suffered from electricity loss (260,000 in the Carolinas).
- April 5th Wind gusts of nearly 70 mph hit parts of North Carolina and a few other states which led to additional downed trees, power outages and damaged homes.

When faults occur, operation centers of the utility are primarily responsible for repairs. Figure 2 displays the distribution of operation centers in the Carolinas.



Figure 2: Operations centers of the utility company in the Carolinas

With additional information about substations provided by the utility company, it was attempted to re-create fault scenarios that have similar scales as the actual HILF event that occurred on April 5th, 2011 in and around the Greater Charlotte area.

In consequence, a total of 56 faults were generated using uniformly distributed random variates around eight substations in the Greater Charlotte area. In particular, based on the substation information (coordinates) provided by the utility company, fault location coordinates have been randomly generated [61] within a few miles radius of each substation. Considering the substation location as a center point, if there are less than five faults at that substation, faults have been generated within a 6-mile radius of the substation. And if five or more faults are involved with a substation, faults have been generated within 10-mile radius of the substation. In addition, there are three operation centers that are responsible for the restoration of faults in the Greater Charlotte area, namely, Little Rock, Newell and Matthews. Figure 3 displays locations of 56 randomly generated faults (colored in red and categorized based on their processing times) for one instance of the large-sized scenarios. Locations of three operation centers are colored in green.



Figure 3: Locations of 56 faults and three operation centers (case of large-sized scenario 1)

Fault	Estimated	Fault	Estimated	Fault	Estimated	
location	Repair	location	Repair	location	Repair	
	Time		Time		Time	
1	340	20	1102	39	1212	
2	461	21	838	40	1047	
3	2272	22	807	41	856	
4	2523	23	250	42	1218	
5	679	24	249	43	1176	
6	636	25	694	44	1070	
7	994	26	812	45	863	
8	924	27	712	46	930	
9	1361	28	771	47	3365	
10	1378	29	890	48	3387	
11	1756	30	920	49	458	
12	1530	31	1483	50	411	
13	1579	32	1492	51	394	
14	1456	33	2635	52	356	
15	260	34	2364	53	581	
16	200	35	2343	54	661	
17	418	36	2531	55	1244	
18	215	37	678	56	1351	
19	967	38	579			

Table 4: Estimated repair times at each fault location in minutes (case of large-sized scenario 1)

Tables 4 and 5 display the estimated repair times and travel times between locations, respectively, for scenario 1 of the large-sized scenarios. The estimated repair times were randomly generated based on the actual outage duration data of April 5th 2011. Due to a space limit, an example of only 10 fault locations are displayed in Table 5, where L, N and M represent the three operation centers, Little Rock, Newell and Matthews, respectively (complete estimated travel times can be found from Appendix 1). To generate travel times, the distance (in miles) between fault locations is calculated using Manhattan distance, i.e., l_1 - norm, between two coordinates, and then the travel times are computed using the distance and the speed of repair trucks, where the speed is set as 31.9 mph [62]. In [62], a

Python package, CitySpeed, is used to gather statistics on the efficiency and complexity of road networks using online mapping services. This can be used to create maps showing how fast you can drive around a particular city.

Locations	L	N	Μ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
L		29	42	17	15	26	25	15	28	26	37	17	4
N	29		27	47	44	23	33	35	2	26	22	13	27
М	42	27		43	29	16	16	26	25	15	17	40	37
1	17	47	43		14	27	26	16	45	27	43	34	19
2	15	44	29	14		20	13	8	42	18	40	31	17
3	26	23	16	27	20		10	12	22	2	19	24	22
4	25	33	16	26	13	10		10	32	7	29	24	21
5	15	35	26	16	8	12	10		34	11	32	23	11
6	28	2	25	45	42	22	32	34		24	20	15	26
7	26	26	15	27	18	2	7	11	24		22	25	22
8	37	22	17	43	40	19	29	32	20	22		35	33
9	17	13	40	34	31	24	24	23	15	25	35		15
10	4	27	37	19	17	22	21	11	26	22	33	15	

Table 5: Estimated travel times from operation centers to fault locations and between fault locations in minutes (for a sample of 10 fault locations in the case of large-sized scenario 1)

The number of repair trucks at each operation center have been allotted as follows:

7 bucket trucks at Little Rock Operation Center

6 bucket trucks at Newell Operation Center

4 bucket trucks at Matthews Operation Center

It should be noted that this problem assumes that only bucket trucks of the utility company are utilized. This can be called as Aggregate Scheduling (or Aggregate Planning), where we aggregate the different types of trucks to a single representative unit, which can perform all the actions. In production, design and other fields, this concept helps in developing techniques for aggregating units of production, and determining suitable production levels based on predicted demand for aggregate units [63]. The purpose of this is to be able to develop a top-down plan for the entire problem, where bucket truck denotes a single representative repair unit which performs repairs of representative fault types.

4.2. Generation of Small-Sized Test Scenarios

Due to the NP-hardness of the problem, the exact methods may not be practical when the size of the problem becomes large. Small-sized scenarios were also generated in order to examine whether the exact MIP formulations provide optimal solutions within a reasonable amount of time, and whether the heuristic method provides quality solutions. For this set of scenarios, a total of 12 faults were randomly generated in the Greater Charlotte area covering eight substations in each scenario. Figure 4 displays the 12 randomly generated faults (colored in red and categorized based on their processing times) for one of small-sized scenarios and the operation centers colored in green.



Figure 4: Locations of 12 faults and three operation centers (case of small-sized scenario 1)

Fault location	Estimated Repair Time
1	375
2	2403
3	1075
4	1340
5	326
6	934
7	1258
8	1563
9	1118
10	1390
11	585
12	810

Table 6: Estimated repair times at each fault location in minutes (case of small-sized scenario 1)

Table 7: Estimated travel times from operation centers to fault locations and between fault locations in minutes (case of small-sized scenario 1)

Locations	L	Ν	Μ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
L		29	42	18	27	18	26	16	27	46	44	35	37	46	39
N	29		27	47	28	23	25	19	8	61	58	42	52	75	68
М	42	27		32	15	24	15	25	35	88	85	69	79	54	48
1	18	47	32		19	24	22	28	45	56	53	53	52	28	21
2	27	28	15	19		9	3	11	26	73	70	55	64	47	41
3	18	23	24	24	9		9	4	21	64	61	45	55	52	45
4	26	25	15	22	3	9		10	23	73	70	54	63	50	43
5	16	19	25	28	11	4	10		17	62	60	44	53	56	49
6	27	8	35	45	26	21	23	17		53	50	34	44	73	66
7	46	61	88	56	73	64	73	62	53		9	39	38	59	58
8	44	58	85	53	70	61	70	60	50	9		30	29	56	56
9	35	42	69	53	55	45	54	44	34	39	30		9	81	74
10	37	52	79	52	64	55	63	53	44	38	29	9		79	73
11	46	75	54	28	47	52	50	56	73	59	56	81	79		6
12	39	68	48	21	41	45	43	49	66	58	56	74	73	6	

Tables 6 and 7 display an example of the estimated repair times for faults and travel times between locations, respectively. The data set corresponds to the scenario 1 of small-sized

scenarios. As before, L, N and M represent the three operation centers, Little Rock, Newell and Matthews, respectively in Table 7. Similar to the generation of large-sized scenarios, estimated travel times have been calculated based on the distances between locations and vehicle speed of 31.9 mph.

The number of repair trucks for the small-sized scenarios were set as follows:

2 bucket trucks at Little Rock Operation Center

1 bucket truck at Newell Operation Center

1 bucket truck at Matthews Operation Center

4.3. Results of Numerical Study

This section provides and compares the results of all the three solution methods implemented for solving both small-sized and large-sized scenarios. The MIP models have been coded in GAMS [64] and solved by the IBM ILOG CPLEX solver [65] using the NEOS server [66, 67]. In the reported results, EXACT1, EXACT2, and HEURISTIC refer to the first MIP model, proposed MIP model, and heuristic method, respectively.

	Restor	ation times	(minutes)	Optimality percentage gap
Scenarios	EXACT1	EXACT2	HEURISTIC	$\left(\frac{HEURISTIC - EXACT2}{EXACT2}\right) \times 100$
Scenario 1	3345	3329	3496	5.02
Scenario 2	3337	3337	3626	8.66
Scenario 3	3361	3361	3587	6.72
Scenario 4	3072	3072	3269	6.41
Scenario 5	3352	3340	3641	9.01
Scenario 6	3401	3390	3632	7.14
Scenario 7	3939	3939	4072	3.38
Scenario 8	3772	3768	4005	6.29
Scenario 9	3356	3356	3582	6.73
Scenario 10	3390	3390	3685	8.7
Scenario 11	3611	3599	3777	4.95
Scenario 12	3102	3102	3455	11.38
Scenario 13	4037	4037	4165	3.17
Scenario 14	3533	3529	3832	8.59
Scenario 15	3336	3336	3502	4.98
Scenario 16	3800	3789	3982	5.09
Scenario 17	3112	3112	3360	7.97
Scenario 18	2939	2931	3196	9.04
Scenario 19	2978	2978	3218	8.06
Scenario 20	3367	3367	3575	6.18

Table 8: Restoration times for small-sized scenarios

Table 8 provides the restoration times obtained from all three methods for small-sized scenarios.

GAMS has a default 1000 seconds resource limit, which was employed in this study. Consequently, the models taking more than 1000 seconds have not necessarily returned the optimal solution. In that case, it provides the best solution until that point of execution.

	Execution time (seconds)			
Scenarios	EXACT1	EXACT2	HEURISTIC	
Scenario 1		4.536		
Scenario 2		3.05		
Scenario 3		5.459		
Scenario 4		7.712		
Scenario 5		10.304		
Scenario 6		10.167		
Scenario 7		15.027		
Scenario 8		7.699		
Scenario 9		11.793		
Scenario 10	>1000	5.08	<1	
Scenario 11		5.649		
Scenario 12		42.346		
Scenario 13		15.797		
Scenario 14		3.346		
Scenario 15		5.669		
Scenario 16		30.486		
Scenario 17		7.42		
Scenario 18		13.033		
Scenario 19]	25.679		
Scenario 20]	2.745]	

Table 9: Execution times for small-sized scenarios

Observe that EXACT2, i.e., the proposed MIP model, provided optimal solutions within the time limit for all 20 small-sized scenarios. However, EXACT1 was not terminated within the time limit for all scenarios. Table 8 displays restoration times obtained from three methods. From the table, one can observe that best solutions reported from EXACT1 were indeed optimal for 12 scenarios, while it provided non-optimal solutions for eight scenarios (scenarios 1, 5, 6, 8, 11, 14, 16, 18).

The average solution time of EXACT2 was 11.649 seconds and ranged from 2.745 to 42.346 seconds as reported in Table 9. The heuristic method took less than a second,

because of the simplicity of its implementation. Optimality percentage gap that is defined as $\left(\frac{HEURISTIC-EXACT2}{EXACT2}\right) \times 100$ is reported in the last column of Table 8. The average optimality gap was 6.87% and ranged from 3.17% to 11.38%.

4.3.2.	Results –	large-sized	scenarios
	1.0000000		

	Restoration times (minutes)			
Scenarios	EXACT1	EXACT2	HEURISTIC	
Scenario 1	9122	4010	4115	
Scenario 2	9062	4534	4132	
Scenario 3	8795	3983	4070	
Scenario 4	8199	4052	3986	
Scenario 5	8151	3989	4020	
Scenario 6	8719	4023	4043	
Scenario 7	6842	4699	4074	
Scenario 8	7660	4234	4106	
Scenario 9	7960	4056	4100	
Scenario 10	8518	3870	4017	
Scenario 11	8718	4046	4073	
Scenario 12	8314	4206	4049	
Scenario 13	8252	4101	4007	
Scenario 14	8460	4595	4091	
Scenario 15	7872	4262	4054	
Scenario 16	8970	3970	4022	
Scenario 17	8248	3898	4028	
Scenario 18	8501	4289 4019		
Scenario 19	6951	4008	4032	
Scenario 20	6266	3999	4093	

Table 10: Restoration times for large-sized scenarios

Table 10 provides the restoration times obtained from all three methods for large-sized scenarios, with the best of solutions being highlighted for each scenario.

Both EXACT1 and EXACT2 have taken more than 1000 seconds for all the 20 large-sized scenarios. Due to their termination rule after 1000 seconds, the best solutions until that

point of execution are reported. EXACT2, i.e., the proposed MIP model, consistently outperformed EXACT1 for the large-sized scenarios. Of all the three methods, the HEURISTIC method attained shortest restoration times for nine of the 20 scenarios, while EXACT2 provided best solutions for the other 11 scenarios.

Optimality percentage gap			
$(EXACT1 - best of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC) \times 100$			
$($ best of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC $) \times 100$			
127.48			
119.31			
120.81			
105.69			
104.34			
116.73			
67.94			
86.56			
96.25			
120.1			
115.47			
105.33			
105.94			
106.8			
94.18			
125.94			
111.59			
111.52			
73.43			
56.69			

Table 11: Optimality gap for large-sized scenarios

In order to measure the relative performance of EXACT1 compared to the other methods, optimality percentage gap, that is defined as $\left(\frac{EXACT1-best of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC}{best of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC}\right) \times 100$ is calculated for the large-sized scenarios and presented in Table 11. Here, best of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC and HEURISTIC indicates the best solution between both methods for that particular

scenario. On average, EXACT1 resulted in 103.6% more restoration time than the best of the other two methods.

As far as the comparison of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC is concerned, the average optimality gap for the 11 scenarios for which EXACT2 performed better, was 1.75% and the average optimality gap for the nine scenarios where HEURISTIC performed better was 6.69%.

CHAPTER 5: DYNAMIC IMPLEMENTATION OF REPAIR CREW SCHEDULING

In the previous chapters, we have compared three optimization methods for scheduling repair crews based on estimated repair times and travel times. During a restoration process such estimated repair times will be provided by damage assessors after inspecting faults in affected areas. Once a repair crew team visits a fault location, these estimates may be changed or updated to reflect the current status of the fault repair progress. As we have seen from the numerical results in Chapter 4, EXACT2 can provide optimal scheduling solutions when time allows, while the heuristic method can quickly furnish an approximated solution under time pressure. With this observation, we propose a dynamic scheduling procedure in this chapter for practical implementation of optimization methods discussed. The main idea is to use the EXACT2 model for an initial scheduling and HEURISTIC is subsequently employed to reflect changes made in repair time estimates in real time. In this dynamic implementation, we assume that the schedule is periodically updated based upon new estimates at that time. Furthermore, it is reasonable to assume that no preemption is allowed. That is, when the schedule is updated, repair jobs that are being performed must be completed without interruption.

5.1. Dynamic Repair Crew Scheduling

This section presents the step by step procedure that is proposed for dynamic implementation. Suppose that the schedule update is performed every T time units.

Step 1: Input initial estimates of repair times for each fault and travel times for each pair of fault locations. Solve EXACT2 to obtain the initial crew schedule.

Step 2: Deploy repair crews according to the current schedule.

Step 3: Collect updated estimates for next time period T.

Step 4: Apply Modified HEURISTIC to revise the repair crew schedule.





Figure 5: Proposed procedure for dynamic implementation of repair crew scheduling

- N = Total number of faults to be restored
- K = Number of crew teams
- C^t = Set of faults restored by time t
- N^t = Set of faults to be restored at time t i.e., $(N C^t)$
- N_0^t = Set of faults being restored at time t

$$U^t = N^t - N_0^t$$

 $\overline{P}_i^t = \text{Adjusted processing time of fault } i \text{ for } i \in U^t$

 R_k^t = Estimated residual repair time of the fault that crew k currently performs at time t.

 C_k^t = Estimated completion time of crew k

Using these notations, Modified HEURSTIC can be formally described as follows.

Step 0: Initialize $C_k^t = t + R_k^t$

Step 1: If U^t is empty, stop. Otherwise, find $k^* = \arg \min \{C_k^t : k \in K\}$ and $i^* = \arg \max \{\overline{P}_i^t : i \in U^t\}$

Step 2: Assign fault i^* to crew k^* . Update $C_{k^*}^t = C_{k^*}^t + \overline{P}_{i^*}^t$ and $U^t = U^t - \{i^*\}$

Step 3: Return to Step 1.

To illustrate the aforementioned dynamic repair crew scheduling, consider the input data of scenario 1 of the large-sized scenarios. Initial estimated repair times for 56 fault locations are

1	340	20	1102	39	1212
2	461	21	838	40	1047
3	2272	22	807	41	856
4	2523	23	250	42	1218
5	679	24	249	43	1176
6	636	25	694	44	1070
7	994	26	812	45	863
8	924	27	712	46	930
9	1361	28	771	47	3365
10	1378	29	890	48	3387
11	1756	30	920	49	458
12	1530	31	1483	50	411
13	1579	32	1492	51	394
14	1456	33	2635	52	356
15	260	34	2364	53	581
16	200	35	2343	54	661
17	418	36	2531	55	1244
18	215	37	678	56	1351
19	967	38	579		

Table 12: Initial estimates for 56 fault locations



After solving EXACT2, the initial schedule is obtained as in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Initial crew schedules provided by EXACT2 (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)

Consider T = 120 minutes and suppose that 120 minutes elapsed, i.e., t=120 at which updated estimates are available. For instance, crew team K3 had an estimated time of 215

minutes for its initial repair (18) has now completed it in 55 minutes and is currently working at the next fault location according to the initial schedule.





Figure 7: Status of crew teams after initial 120 minutes (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)

Now, to obtain the schedule via Modified HEURISTIC for the remaining faults, adjusted repair times are calculated as in HEURISTIC described In Chapter 3 by adding the average of travel times for each fault location to the updated estimated repair times. The next set of schedules for crew teams, along with the order they were assigned, is presented below



Figure 8: Next set of schedules obtained from Modified HEURISTIC at t=120 (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)



The resulting schedule obtained from Modified HEURISTIC is displayed in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Updated schedule obtained from Modified HEURISTIC at t=120 (with associated fault numbers, and estimated repair times in parenthesis)

In the same manner, the estimates are updated after every time period T until all faults are restored.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND FUTURE STUDY

This chapter presents the conclusion of this thesis and potential future research possibilities that can be implemented in this field of study.

6.1. Conclusion

During and after any high impact low frequency (HILF) event, human lives and properties can be devastated to a considerable extent, and they can be far worsened when essential infrastructures such as transport system, electricity, and water supply are disrupted for a prolonged period. Repair crew scheduling aims to minimize the time to restore power after any HILF event via mathematical optimization techniques and heuristic method. To solve this problem, we have implemented three solution methods, which consist of two mixedinteger programming (MIP) models and a heuristic method. The first MIP model was adapted from a solution method for a job-scheduling problem that resembles the crew scheduling problem considered in this thesis. The second model was developed in an effort to improve the computational performance of the first model. In addition, a heuristic method has also been considered to compare the efficiency of results between different models. A real-life storm day of April 5th 2011 has been considered in this thesis along with the data provided by the utility company. All the three methods have been solved for the small-sized and large-sized scenarios and the results have been compared to analyze the performance.

For the small-sized scenarios, EXACT2, i.e., the proposed MIP model, provided optimal solutions within the time limit for all 20 scenarios. EXACT1 reported optimal solutions for 12 scenarios, however, it has exceeded the time limit of 1000 seconds while executing those scenarios. And for the large-sized scenarios, HEURISTIC method yielded optimal

solutions for nine scenarios while EXACT2 delivered optimal solutions for 11 scenarios. Looking at the results extracted, one can observe that EXACT2 has performed better for both small-sized and large-sized scenarios. And, in case of the large-sized scenarios, even though the EXACT2 has provided best solutions for 11 of them, it has taken more than 1000 seconds for all of their execution. And for those 11 scenarios, the heuristic method has an average optimality gap of 1.75%, but for the nine scenarios where the heuristic method executed better, EXACT2 has an average optimality gap of 6.69%.

Considering the facts that heuristic method has taken minimal execution time and that this thesis is primarily focused on the extreme events, it is concluded that the HEURISTIC method can be practically utilized under the large-scale HILF events. However, it should be noted that EXACT2 will provide an optimal solution when time permitted and has a great potential to outperform HEURISTIC as advanced computational power emerges as well as state-of-the-art MIP formulations become available. In addition to this, we have proposed the dynamic implementation in Chapter 5, which provides a solution strategy in case of storm events and is a combination of EXACT2 and HEURISTIC methods. As the restoration process begins once the storm has passed away, EXACT2 can be solved beforehand to provide the initial crew schedules. After updating the repair times for each time period T, HEURISTIC can be quickly solved to obtain the next set of schedules.

6.2. Future Study

Further studies in Repair Crew Scheduling problem include the implementation of various kinds of trucks available at the utility company. This thesis assumed only bucket trucks and that all the repair equipment will be present in this truck. Repair Crew Scheduling can

be made more realistic by analyzing the trucks and utilizing them based on the type of repair that is to be restored. Another topic that can be worked upon in the future would be prioritizing the faults and restoring them first, based on their significance. This prioritization helps in restoring power to critical facilities such as hospitals, police and fire stations, etc. Prioritization and including the different types of repair trucks can make this problem complete, to help the utility companies in restoring the power outages during HILF events.

REFERENCES

[1] Sullivan, M. J. (2009). Estimated value of service reliability for electric utility customers in the United States. *Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory*.

[2] Executive Office of the President. (2013). Economic benefits of increasing electric grid resilience to weather outages. Retrieved on April 13th 2017 from http://energy.gov/sites/prod/files/2013/08/f2/Grid%20Resiliency%20Report_FINAL.pdf

[3] Campbell, R. J. (2012, August). Weather-related power outages and electric system resiliency. Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress.

[4] LaCommare, K. H., & Eto, J. H. (2004). Understanding the cost of power interruptions to US electricity consumers. *Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory*.

[5] Electric power sales, revenue, and energy efficiency Form EIA-861 detailed data files.
(2014). Retrieved on November 15th 2017 from https://www.eia.gov/electricity/data/eia861/index.html

[6] Duke Energy restores more than a million outages in the Carolinas; 235,000 customers still without power. (2016). Retrieved on April 13th 2017 from https://news.duke-energy.com/releases/duke-energy-restores-more-than-a-million-outages-in-the-carolinas;-235-000-customers-still-without-power

[7] Guinet, A. (1993). Scheduling sequence-dependent jobs on identical parallel machines to minimize completion time criteria. *The International Journal of Production Research*, *31*(7), 1579-1594.

[8] Liu, H., Davidson, R. A., & Apanasovich, T. V. (2007). Statistical forecasting of electric power restoration times in hurricanes and ice storms. *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems*, 22(4), 2270-2279.

[9] Xu, N., Guikema, S. D., Davidson, R. A., Nozick, L. K., Çağnan, Z., & Vaziri, K. (2007). Optimizing scheduling of post-earthquake electric power restoration tasks. *Earthquake engineering & structural dynamics*, *36*(2), 265-284.

[10] Matai, R., Singh, S. P., & Mittal, M. L. (2010). Traveling salesman problem: An overview of applications, formulations, and solution approaches. *Traveling Salesman Problem, Theory and Applications*, 1-24.

[11] Grötschel, M., Jünger, M., & Reinelt, G. (1991). Optimal control of plotting and drilling machines: a case study. *Mathematical Methods of Operations Research*, *35*(1), 61-84.

[12] Plante, R. D., Lowe, T. J., & Chandrasekaran, R. (1987). The product matrix traveling salesman problem: an application and solution heuristic. *Operations Research*, *35*(5), 772-783.

[13] Ratliff, H. D., & Rosenthal, A. S. (1983). Order-picking in a rectangular warehouse: a solvable case of the traveling salesman problem. *Operations Research*, *31*(3), 507-521.

[14] Laporte, G. (1992). The vehicle routing problem: An overview of exact and approximate algorithms. *European journal of operational research*, *59*(3), 345-358.

[15] Gorenstein, S. (1970). Printing press scheduling for multi-edition periodicals.*Management Science*, *16*(6), B-373.

[16] Carter, A. E., & Ragsdale, C. T. (2002). Scheduling pre-printed newspaper advertising inserts using genetic algorithms. *Omega*, *30*(6), 415-421.

[17] Angel, R. D., Caudle, W. L., Noonan, R., & Whinston, A. N. D. A. (1972). Computerassisted school bus scheduling. *Management Science*, 18(6), B-279.

[18] Svestka, J. A., & Huckfeldt, V. E. (1973). Computational experience with an msalesman traveling salesman algorithm. *Management Science*, *19*(7), 790-799.

[19] Lenstra, J. K., & Kan, A. R. (1975). Some simple applications of the travelling salesman problem. *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, *26*(4), 717-733.

[20] Zhang, T., Gruver, W. A., & Smith, M. H. (1999). Team scheduling by genetic search.
In *Intelligent Processing and Manufacturing of Materials*, *1999. IPMM'99. Proceedings* of the Second International Conference on (Vol. 2, pp. 839-844). IEEE.

[21] Gilbert, K. C., & Hofstra, R. B. (1992). A new multiperiod multiple traveling salesman problem with heuristic and application to a scheduling problem. *Decision Sciences*, *23*(1), 250-259.

[22] Tang, L., Liu, J., Rong, A., & Yang, Z. (2000). A multiple traveling salesman problem model for hot rolling scheduling in Shanghai Baoshan Iron & Steel Complex. *European Journal of Operational Research*, *124*(2), 267-282.

[23] Brumitt, B. L., & Stentz, A. (1996, April). Dynamic mission planning for multiple mobile robots. In *Robotics and Automation*, *1996. Proceedings.*, *1996 IEEE International Conference on* (Vol. 3, pp. 2396-2401). IEEE.

[24] Brumitt, B. L., & Stentz, A. (1998, May). GRAMMPS: A generalized mission planner for multiple mobile robots in unstructured environments. In *Robotics and Automation*, 1998. Proceedings. 1998 IEEE International Conference on (Vol. 2, pp. 1564-1571). IEEE.

[25] Yu, Z., Jinhai, L., Guochang, G., Rubo, Z., & Haiyan, Y. (2002). An implementation of evolutionary computation for path planning of cooperative mobile robots. In *Intelligent Control and Automation, 2002. Proceedings of the 4th World Congress on* (Vol. 3, pp. 1798-1802). IEEE.

[26] Dantzig, G., Fulkerson, R., & Johnson, S. (1954). Solution of a large-scale travelingsalesman problem. *Journal of the operations research society of America*, 2(4), 393-410.

[27] Laporte, G., & Nobert, Y. (1980). A cutting planes algorithm for the m-salesmen problem. *Journal of the Operational Research society*, 1017-1023.

[28] Christofides, N., Mingozzi, A., & Toth, P. (1981). Exact algorithms for the vehicle routing problem, based on spanning tree and shortest path relaxations. *Mathematical programming*, 20(1), 255-282.

[29] Orman, A. J., & Williams, H. P. (2006). A survey of different integer programming formulations of the travelling salesman problem. *Optimisation, Econometric and Financial Analysis*, *9*, 93-108.

[30] Öncan, T., Altınel, İ. K., & Laporte, G. (2009). A comparative analysis of several asymmetric traveling salesman problem formulations. *Computers & Operations Research*, *36*(3), 637-654.

[31] Osman, I. H. (1993). Metastrategy simulated annealing and tabu search algorithms for the vehicle routing problem. *Annals of operations research*, *41*(4), 421-451.

[32] Dantzig, G. B., & Ramser, J. H. (1959). The truck dispatching problem. *Management science*, *6*(1), 80-91.

[33] Kumar, S. N., & Panneerselvam, R. (2012). A survey on the vehicle routing problem and its variants. *Intelligent Information Management*, *4*(3), 66.

[34] Kara, I., & Bektas, T. (2006). Integer linear programming formulations of multiple salesman problems and its variations. *European Journal of Operational Research*, *174*(3), 1449-1458.

[35] Benavent, E., & Martínez, A. (2011). *A polyhedral study of the multi-depot multiple TSP*. Internal report, Universitát de Valencia. Retrieved on April 15th 2017 from http://www.uv.es/~benavent/MDMTSP/report_MDMTSP.pdf.

[36] Surekha, P., & Sumathi, S. (2011). Solution to multi-depot vehicle routing problem using genetic algorithms. World Applied Programming, *1*(3), 118-131.

[37] Prodhon, C., & Prins, C. (2014). A survey of recent research on location-routing problems. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 238(1), 1-17.

[38] Yadlapalli, S., Malik, W. A., Rathinam, S., & Darbha, S. (2007). A Lagrangian-based algorithm for a combinatorial motion planning problem. In *Decision and Control, 2007 46th IEEE Conference on* (pp. 5979-5984). IEEE.

[39] Yadlapalli, S., Malik, W. A., Darbha, S., & Pachter, M. (2009). A Lagrangian-based algorithm for a multiple depot, multiple traveling salesmen problem. *Nonlinear Analysis: Real World Applications*, *10*(4), 1990-1999.

[40] Malik, W., Rathinam, S., & Darbha, S. (2007). An approximation algorithm for a symmetric generalized multiple depot, multiple travelling salesman problem. *Operations Research Letters*, *35*(6), 747-753.

[41] Rathinam, S., Sengupta, R., & Darbha, S. (2007). A resource allocation algorithm for multivehicle systems with nonholonomic constraints. *IEEE Transactions on Automation Science and Engineering*, *4*(1), 98-104.

[42] Parragh, S. N. (2010). Solving a real-world service technician routing and scheduling problem. In *Proceedings of the Seventh Triennial Symposium on Transportation Analysis* (*TRISTAN VII*).

[43] Brauer, W., & Weiß, G. (1998, July). Multi-machine scheduling-a multi-agent learning approach. In *Multi Agent Systems, 1998. Proceedings. International Conference* on (pp. 42-48). IEEE.

[44] Akkiraju, R., Keskinocak, P., Murthy, S., & Wu, F. (1998, July). Multi machine scheduling: an agent-based approach. In *AAAI/IAAI* (pp. 1013-1019).

[45] Weiss, G., & Pinedo, M. (1995). Scheduling: Theory, Algorithms, and Systems.

[46] Abdul-Razaq, T. S., Potts, C. N., & Van Wassenhove, L. N. (1990). A survey of algorithms for the single machine total weighted tardiness scheduling problem. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 26(2-3), 235-253.

[47] Koulamas, C. (1994). The total tardiness problem: review and extensions. *Operations research*, *42*(6), 1025-1041.

[48] Panwalkar, S. S., & Iskander, W. (1977). A survey of scheduling rules. *Operations research*, 25(1), 45-61.

[49] Panwalkar, S. S., Smith, M. L., & Koulamas, C. P. (1993). A heuristic for the single machine tardiness problem. *European Journal of Operational Research*, *70*(3), 304-310.

[50] Potts, C. N., & van Wassenhove, L. N. (1991). Single machine tardiness sequencing heuristics. *IIE transactions*, *23*(4), 346-354.

[51] Arkin, E. M., & Roundy, R. O. (1991). Weighted-tardiness scheduling on parallel machines with proportional weights. *Operations Research*, *39*(1), 64-81.

[52] Barnes, J. W., & Brennan, J. J. (1977). An improved algorithm for scheduling jobs on identical machines. *AIIE Transactions*, *9*(1), 25-31.

[53] Ho, J. C., & Chang, Y. L. (1991). Heuristics for minimizing mean tardiness for m parallel machines. *Naval Research Logistics (NRL)*, *38*(3), 367-381.

[54] Lee, Y. H., Bhaskaran, K., & Pinedo, M. (1997). A heuristic to minimize the total weighted tardiness with sequence-dependent setups. *IIE transactions*, 29(1), 45-52.

[55] Lee, Y. H., & Pinedo, M. (1997). Scheduling jobs on parallel machines with sequencedependent setup times. *European Journal of Operational Research*, *100*(3), 464-474.

[56] Clements, D., Crawford, J., Joslin, D., Nemhauser, G., Puttlitz, M., & Savelsbergh,M. (1997). Heuristic optimization: A hybrid AI/OR approach. In *Proceedings of the Workshop on Industrial Constraint-Directed Scheduling*.

[57] Du, J., & Leung, J. Y. T. (1990). Minimizing total tardiness on one machine is NPhard. *Mathematics of operations research*, *15*(3), 483-495.

[58] Lenstra, J. K., Kan, A. R., & Brucker, P. (1977). Complexity of machine scheduling problems. *Annals of discrete mathematics*, *1*, 343-362.

[59] Graham, R. L. (1969). Bounds on multiprocessing timing anomalies. *SIAM journal* on *Applied Mathematics*, *17*(2), 416-429.

[60] Forecasting, I. (2011). United States April & May 2011 Severe Weather Outbreaks. Chicago, IL: AON Benfield.

[61] Random Point Generator. (n.d). Retrieved on April 23rd 2017 from http://www.geomidpoint.com/random

[62] Infinite monkey corps. (2009). How Fast Is Your City? Retrieved on April 23rd 2017 from <u>http://infinitemonkeycorps.net/projects/cityspeed/</u>

[63] Nahmias, S. (2014). Production and Operations Analysis.

[64] Rosenthal, E. (2008). GAMS-A user's guide. In GAMS Development Corporation.

[65] ILOG, I. (2009). IBM ILOG CPLEX V12. 1 User's Manual for CPLEX. *IBM, Armonk, NY*.

[66] Dolan, E. (2001). *The neos server 4.0 administrative guide. Tech.* Memorandum ANL/MCS-TM-250, Mathematics and Computer Science Division, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, IL, USA.

[67] Gropp, W., & Moré, J. (1997). Optimization environments and the NEOS server. *Approximation theory and optimization*, 167-182.

Travel times for scenario 1 of the large-sized scenarios: