Airline Disruption Management

Dynamic Aircraft Scheduling with Ant Colony Optimization

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Abstract: Disruption management is one of the main concerns of any airline company, as it can influence its annual revenue by upwards of 3%. Most of medium to large airlines have specialized teams which focus on recovering disrupted schedules with very little automation. This paper presents a new automated approach to solve both the Aircraft Assignment Problem (AAP) and the Aircraft Recovering Problem (ARP), where the solutions are responsive to unforeseen events. The developed algorithm, based on Ant Colony Optimization, aims to minimize the operational costs involved and is designed to schedule and reschedule flights dynamically by using a sliding window. Test results tend to indicate that this approach is feasible, both in terms of time and quality of the proposed solutions.

1 INTRODUCTION

The aviation sector is surely a key component in any thriving economy, as it supports $2.4 trillion of the world’s gross domestic product (GDP) and creates an estimated 58.1 million jobs (International Air Transport Association, 2011). Depending on its scale, when an event disrupts the normal flow of an airline company, the consequences can be massive; for instance, the eruption of the Icelandic volcano Eyjafjallajökull in April 2010 was responsible for worldwide economic and social setbacks. Therefore, the need for solutions that improve airline disruptions management is a legitimate concern not only for airline companies, that aim to increase profits by reducing operational costs, but also for the general public, due to its economic and social impact.

When a disruption occurs, the airlines try to find a solution with a minimum impact to the airline’s schedule and with lowest added cost. Usually, the first problem to be tackled is the Aircraft Recovery Problem (ARP) which aims to recover the flight schedule by applying a set of operations to the disrupted plan so that a new aircraft can be assign to the disrupted flight. After solving the ARP, the Airline Operations Control Centres (AOCC) have to deal with the Crew Rescheduling Problem (CRP) and the Passenger Rescheduling Problem (PRP).

These three problems differ on the function they optimize; for instance, while the ARP minimizes the airline’s costs, the PRP minimizes the total travelling time each passenger takes to reach its destination.

In order to recover from a disruption, four different operations can be applied: aircraft reassignment, flight delay, flight cancellation, and flight rerouting. Most of the AOCCs rely on human experts’ effort to minimize the impact of the disruption by means of these operations. In a large scale setup, this is a difficult task because the total cost of each operation include many dependent factors, e.g., to cancel a flight one must take into account the cost of parking in a specific airport, the hotel charges for both passengers and crew and the cost for alternative transportation for passengers. Therefore, the need for an automated system to solve these problems has been increasing in the past few years. One might think that the current setup for most airlines should be enough to handle a few unpredictable events but, in an ever growing industry, flight delays may be caused by simple events such as abnormal fuel consumption or even missing luggage.

This paper proposes a new approach to deal with a subset of airline disruption management problem, the ARP. Section 2 contains information about the relevant literature addressing this area. Section 3
formally describes the problem at hand. Section 4 presents the ant colony optimization approach we have developed. Section 5 includes an experimental evaluation of the approach when fed with a real dataset from the major Portuguese airline, TAP. Finally, Section 6 summarizes the main contributions of the paper, discusses limitations of the approach and proposes lines for improvement.

2 STATE OF THE ART

Previous studies about the ARP can be categorized into two large groups defined by the methods used to find the solution, i.e., Operations Research (OR) and Meta-heuristics.

2.1 Exact Methods

Although most of AOCCs are still human dependent, they are not fully manual. Usually, these teams use software that provides options regarding a specific disruption from which the operator must choose accordingly. This kind of software is often equipped with Operational Research-based methods since these are well known and reliable algorithms giving measurable solutions in acceptable time.

One of the first articles about ARP appeared in the mid-1980s with the works of Teodorovic (Teodorovic and Guberinic, 1984). His objective was to find a new daily schedule when some aircrafts became unavailable; later on he also explored some integration with crew and passenger constraints in an attempt to develop a more cohesive solution. The first relevant computational breakthrough came by the works of Jarrah (Jarrah et al., 1993); using network flow models, his method should reduce costs between 20% and 90% compared with an un-optimized schedule recovery problem. His tests included real flights from United Airlines, during October 1993 and March 1994, and resulted in an estimate $540,000 in delay costs.

There are also many solutions that solve the ARP using integer programming, the most relevant work being from Thengvall (Thengvall et al., 2001). His implementation was tested with real data from Continental Airlines and results show that optimal or near-optimal solutions are often obtained; the downside is that his model is very restricted as it only considers delaying and cancelling flights.

The latest work, to our knowledge, belongs to Wu and Le (Wu and Le, 2012), where the authors model the ARP as a time-space network and several real restrictions were taken into account, e.g., aircraft maintenance costs. Their implementation was tested with data provided from a major Chinese airline and results reveal that a feasible solution is found twice as fast as an exact algorithm. Although encouraging, this kind of performance is still too weak when the problem is scaled to higher dimensions.

2.2 Meta-heuristic Methods

With the increasing need for better automated solutions to solve the ARP, several meta-heuristic methods have been applied to this domain. Perhaps the first relevant study in this field was conducted by Love (Love et al., 2005) – using a local search method, his solutions are developed considering delays, cancellations and reassignments and the goal is to maximize the profit. Although the study’s results reveal that good solutions are achieved in less than 10 seconds, by maximizing the profit instead of reducing costs, some restrictions, e.g., passenger satisfaction, are not taken into account.

Liu (Liu et al., 2006) developed a model using a Multi-Objective Genetic Algorithm (Konak et al., 2006) to construct new feasible aircraft reschedules. This model already considers several objectives that simulate different roles in the ARP. The study was limited only by the fact that it was tested with a small dataset of 7 aircrafts and 70 flights.

Perhaps the most interesting article to our work was written by Zegordi and Jafari (Zegordi and Jafari, 2010) who used the Ant Colony Algorithm (Colorni et al., 1991) heuristic to solve the ARP. Their approach is very complete regarding real domain constraints, such as maintenance requirements and other restrictions and regulations. Test experiments reveal that the algorithm is able to construct a feasible revised schedule in less than 5 seconds and, according to the authors, such method was successfully applied to an airline. Despite its robustness, this approach does not consider scenarios where aircrafts from different flight rotations recover each other.

Finally we would like to mention the work of Castro (Castro et al., 2014) who developed a new approach to Airline Disruption Management, where a multi-agent system approach is used, including specialist agents for different dimensions of the disruption management problem. Despite this innovative approach, this work focuses on handling disruptions in a pre-scheduled plan, not combining the AAP and ARP problems. This is something we address in our own work.

All these proposals have brought improvements
to the classical Operations Research approach. Nonetheless we believe that a more cohesive solution, capable of a higher automation and better optimization is still missing.

3 PROBLEM DEFINITION

In the solution proposed in this paper, we will strive to solve two different but complementary dimensions of the problem at hand: the Aircraft Assignment Problem (AAP) (Gabeteni and Gronkvist, 2009) and the ARP. The AAP may be described as the problem of assigning flights to aircrafts in such a way that some operational constraints are satisfied and possibly that some objective function is optimized. In our approach these consist on aircraft’s capacity vs. number of passengers and average aircraft maintenance cost (both mechanical and fuel). This way an efficient allocation takes place because aircrafts are tailored to each flight, resulting in cost savings.

The AAP original solution will provide a first optimized schedule for the set of flights and aircrafts. This schedule will be affected in case of a disruption, i.e., an event that stops a flight to keep its original plan as much as possible, minimizing the total cost. To recover a flight one must choose the best suited action that implies the lowest cost. In order to achieve this, flights can be delayed or cancelled.

Delays can result in different outcomes in terms of the assigned aircraft, i.e., simple aircraft delay; aircraft swaps, both between a fleet of aircrafts as well as different aircraft types; or flight rerouting, where passengers reach their destination having a midway stop. On the other hand, cancellations entail a cost computed with the measure of passenger discontent and the cost of local hotel charges.

Therefore, within the scope of this paper, solving the combination of both the AAP and the ARP translates into minimizing the following function:

\[
\sum_{a \in A} \sum_{f \in F} c_{af} \cdot x_{af} + \sum_{f \in F} C_D f \cdot (1 - y_f) + \sum_{f \in F} \left( c_{cf} \cdot z_f + (c_{rf} + c_{lf}) \cdot w_f \right)
\]

Subject to:

\[
\begin{align*}
CD f &= NP f \cdot (atod f - tod f) \\
CC f &= NP f \cdot (ins + HC f) \\
CR f &= NP f \cdot (atod f - tod f) \\
CL f &= NP f \cdot P r f \\
\sum_{f \in F} (y_f + w_f + z_f) + \sum_{a \in A} \sum_{f \in F} x_{af} &= NF \\
\forall f \ NP f &+ NP f = NP f \\
\forall f \ atod f &\geq tod f \\
\forall f \ atod f &= tod f \Rightarrow y_f, z_f, w_f = \{0\} \\
\forall f \ atod f &> tod f \Rightarrow y_f, z_f, w_f = (0,1) \\
\forall a, f \ x_{af}, y_f, w_f, z_f &\in \{0,1\}
\end{align*}
\]

The decision variables in the model are described in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Var</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x_{af}</td>
<td>Flag indicating if flight f is assigned to aircraft a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y_f</td>
<td>Flag indicating if flight f is delayed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z_f</td>
<td>Flag indicating if flight f is cancelled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w_f</td>
<td>Flag indicating if flight f is rerouted or leased to another airline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atod_f</td>
<td>Actual time of departure of flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tod_f</td>
<td>Scheduled time of departure of flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ins</td>
<td>Cost of passenger discontent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Set of all aircrafts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Set of all flights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c_{af}</td>
<td>Cost of assigning aircraft a to flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_D f</td>
<td>Cost of delaying flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c_{cf}</td>
<td>Cost of cancelling flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_R f</td>
<td>Cost of rerouting passengers from flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_L f</td>
<td>Cost of rerouting passengers from flight f using a different airline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N_P f</td>
<td>Number of passengers on flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N_P r</td>
<td>Number of passengers on flight f that have been re-routed internally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N_P i</td>
<td>Number of passengers on flight f that have been leased to other airlines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_D m</td>
<td>Cost of 1 minute of delay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P r f</td>
<td>Cost of rerouting 1 passenger from flight f using a different airline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H C f</td>
<td>Cost of hotel charges for 1 passenger from flight f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NF</td>
<td>Total number of flights to be scheduled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This model is based on the one presented in (Zegordi and Jafari, 2010), with some changes. Function (1) to be minimized represents the total cost associated to scheduling and/or recovering all flights, aircrafts and passengers. Therefore, the ARP is slightly altered due to the introduction of
passenger related costs. Function (1) includes cost of aircraft assignment, total delay, cancellation and disrupted passengers. Minimizing the first term aims at efficiently assigning aircrafts to flights, i.e., providing the most cost effective aircraft given a certain flight. The second and third terms promote reliable operations by minimizing flight delay and cancellation, respectively. The last term recovers disrupted passengers either through reassigning them to another flight route to the same destination (with midway stops), or by transporting them using another airline or means of transportation.

Constraints in (2) to (5) detail how to compute each of the costs described in the objective function (1). Constraint (6) ensures that the sum of active flags equals the number of flights, so that no flight is left without an aircraft. Constraint (7) guarantees that in case of rerouting the sum of passengers rerouted internally with the passengers leased to other airlines equals the original number of passengers from flight \( f \). Finally, constraints (8) through (10) ensure both that the atod is at least the same of tod, i.e., the atod is a reflection of any delay a flight may have; and that delaying, cancelling and rerouting flags are only active if a flight has different tod and atod. Constraint (11) is a domain restriction for all bit flags.

4 ONLINE SCHEDULING WITH ANT COLONY OPTIMIZATION

The Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) firstly described by Dorigo (Colorni et al., 1991) is a local search optimization algorithm that mimics the behaviour of ants as a sociable species. In Dorigo’s adaptation, an ant is a conceptual unit performing a random construction of a solution. This solution is the set of nodes visited by the ant; in nature, these are geographic points in the field on which they are looking for food. The convergence to optimization occurs because ants communicate with each other through stigmergy, i.e., they give feedback about a specific solution through the so-called pheromones. Therefore, when an ant is on the verge of choosing the next node, the ones with the highest pheromone levels are more likely to be chosen.

Lately ACO has been applied to a vast range of problems (Dorigo and Stutzle, 2004) with a relative amount of success. However, unlike genetic algorithms or simulated annealing, the application of ACO is usually better than other meta-heuristics when the problem can be described by highly constrained graphs. Thus, this approach is expected to be especially appropriate for solving the problem as modelled in Section 3.

Our approach is split in two distinct parts that are related with the different problems the algorithm solves: the Aircraft Assignment Problem and the Aircraft Recovering Problem. Although both problems are bounded to optimize the same expression, the practical outcome results in different behaviours. When the algorithm first runs it receives information about which routes are needed to assign aircrafts, as well as where and how many airplanes are available. Therefore, its first objective is to create a valid aircraft assignment such that all flights are feasible while minimizing the cost. On the other hand, the algorithm keeps running in order to adapt its schedule in case of a sudden disruption, where the original solution is modified so that all flights remain feasible with the lowest cost raise.

4.1 Illustrating Example

In order to illustrate how we have applied ACO to the AAP/ARP problem, in this section we provide an example where we graphically represent all outcomes for both AAP and ARP solutions. Our directed graph representation consists of two sets of nodes: one representing aircrafts and the other all flights within the scheduling scope (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1: Model representation (circle nodes represent flights, triangle nodes represent aircrafts).](image)
connected to another flight node if it respects a spatial and time constraint: the second flight’s origin has to be the same as the first flight’s destination, and the second flight must depart after the scheduled arrival of the first flight plus some rotation time, so that the aircraft can be properly set up (refuelling, transportation between gates, inspection, etc.). The leasing node is a special aircraft node that is connected to every flight, allowing flights to be leased to other airlines whenever an internal solution is not viable and the cost of leasing is lower than cancelling the flight.

In order to build a solution, an ant must first choose an aircraft, followed by a series of flight nodes representing the flights assigned to that aircraft. When the next node to be visited represents an aircraft this means that subsequent flights are linked to it (the last visited aircraft is assigned to the flights). Flight nodes visited after the leasing node will have a leased aircraft assigned. Flights not included in the path are cancelled. This process continues until all aircraft nodes are visited. The objective is to find the minimum cost path in the directed graph. In Figure 2 we can see a possible solution: aircraft CSTOJ is assigned to flights 815 and 803; aircraft CSTI has no flights; flight 202 will use a leased aircraft.

When the system is notified with a disruption, the solution graph is updated (see Figure 3) and the ants will try to optimize a new path given those constraints with new actions on flight nodes. Delays may also be accepted, thus demanding no changes in the previous solution path. A possible solution to the disruption event is shown in Figure 4, where it can be seen that flight 803 has been cancelled.

This representation allows optimization of both AAP and ARP regarding the objective function defined in Equation (1). On the other hand, the ability to respond to disruptions on the go allows the algorithm to adapt to environmental constraints with minimum human interaction. This approach is online rescheduling: the algorithm is constantly renewing and updating the best solution. In theory, this approach could result in a perpetually running algorithm that would assign aircrafts and deal with disruptions continuously. The algorithm would have a sliding window, e.g., a month, where all flights within that window would be taken into account while optimizing. As the time window moves forward, past flights are discarded and new ones are taken into consideration.

Figure 2: Possible solution.

Figure 3: Disruption event (flight 815 is delayed, breaking connection with flight 803).

Figure 4: Solving the disruption.

4.2 Algorithm Implementation

In this section we include details of our implemented algorithm. A pheromone matrix keeps track of all the pheromone values of every edge in the problem graph, which are initialized to 1.
Every ant chooses probabilistically its next node depending on the relative amount of pheromone in the edge connecting the current node and the next one (see Eq. 12, where $\rho_k$ is the pheromone value for edge $k$).

$$p_{edge_k} = \frac{\rho_k}{\sum_i \rho_i}$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

When an ant finishes its graph traversal task (as described in Section 4.1), pheromones are laid out (i.e., the pheromone matrix is updated through addition) for each selected edge according to:

$$\rho = \left( \frac{1}{fit} \right) \cdot C$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

where $fit$ is the solution’s fitness, according to function (1), and $C$ is a constant which normalizes the amount of pheromone deposited, so that it is not negligible when the fitness value is too big\(^1\).

In each iteration, the algorithm updates the pheromone matrix with a decay factor. This mimics the evaporation of natural pheromones, preventing the overflow of pheromone values and allowing the colony to respond to changes in the fitness landscape: when a good path stops being viable, ants stop depositing or deposit less pheromones, which results in ants progressively abandoning this previously good path. This constant updating creates a reactive algorithm that responds to changes in the environment. A pheromone evaporation rate must be found so that the colony achieves a good balance between quick response to new and better paths and enough persistence to not give up on potentially good solutions. This means that the lower the evaporation rate, the more lasting is the “memory” of the colony regarding older paths. The pheromone evaporation rule is:

$$\rho_k = \max(1, \rho_k \cdot \mu)$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)

where $\mu$ is the pheromone evaporation rate, which for the experiments presented in Section 5 we have set to 0.85.

5 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Our ACO algorithm was tested on a real dataset obtained from (Castro et al., 2014). This dataset contains actual flight information from Portuguese airline TAP relative to all 5722 flights in September 2009 and a fleet of 72 aircrafts. In order to conduct our experiments, we had to parse TAP’s dataset and extract information about flight routes, i.e., departure, arrival, origin, destination, total distance and number of tickets sold; how many and where aircrafts were initially positioned; information regarding the aircrafts, maintenance costs per mile and total capacity; and hotel charges per passenger/night. The given dataset did not contain any information about the cost of leasing, therefore, those values where extrapolated to be 50% higher than internal costs.

Two different experiments, regarding both AAP and ARP, were conducted. All tests were conducted under a machine with an Intel I5 650 and 4.00 GB of RAM and all implementations were coded in Java. On the first experiment we were trying to evaluate the algorithm’s ability to solve de AAP considering both the time it took to solve the problem and the quality of the final assignment schedule. These tests consisted on a time comparison between our ACO approach and a branch and bound (BB) optimization algorithm (Lawler and Wood, 1966); when BB became unresponsive due to memory overflows, a depth first search (DFS) (Tarjan, 1972) was used to compare the ACO’s solution with DFS’s first feasible solution. This experiment also contains information regarding the best known solution (BKS), i.e., the actual assignment carried by TAP on September 2009. The BKS’s schedule operational costs served as a reference measure to evaluate the quality of a solution. Results regarding this experiment, summarized in Table 2, show that our ACO approach, although not always the fastest algorithm, consistently returns good solutions. This experiment also proves that an exact approach, such as branch and bound, is infeasible when a higher number of flights are taken into account. Overall, as the problem size grows, it is obvious that ACO’s approach provides much better solutions than its competitors.

A second experiment was conducted in order to evaluate the algorithm’s capacity to overcome unforeseen aircraft disruptions (ARP). In order to compare ACO’s results with BB and DFS, a set of predefined disruptions was created so that the overload was the same across all algorithms. The set of disruptions contained situations where aircrafts were unavailable for a short or long period of time due to minor or major aircraft failure/impediment. Disrupted aircrafts targeted both flights with and without future dependencies, that is, likely to cause a “snowball effect” of consecutive delays. The scope of this experiment only considered the ARP;\(^1\) Note that we want to minimize function (1), thus the fitness value is actually a cost.
therefore, each algorithm execution time excludes the AAP; moreover, the initial flight schedule was similar across all implementations so that only the recovery capability would be evaluated. There was no useful information from TAP’s dataset that we could use to evaluate the performance on this instance of the algorithm. For that reason, the BKS is considered to be the solution returned by the ACO, since it consistently outperformed its competitors. Table 3 summarizes the results obtained from this experiment. As expected, ACO’s performance is much better in terms of solutions quality, although it takes, on average, 40% more time than other approaches. The trade-off between time and quality will probably be an issue to take into account when applying our approach in larger datasets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Number of Flights</th>
<th>Total Time</th>
<th>Difference to BKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACO</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.35 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.90 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFS</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.58 s</td>
<td>-1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACO</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.60 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.95 s</td>
<td>-6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFS</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.95 s</td>
<td>-6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACO</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>32.43 s</td>
<td>-0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFS</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7.05 s</td>
<td>-13.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Experiment results regarding ARP experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Number of Flights</th>
<th>Total Time</th>
<th>Difference to BKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACO</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.13 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.20 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFS</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.18 s</td>
<td>-2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACO</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15.33 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFS</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.68 s</td>
<td>-9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACO</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25.10 s</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFS</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.41 s</td>
<td>-20.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 CONCLUSIONS

This paper focused on studying the AAP and ARP with a detailed introduction of several approaches in the literature upon this topic. Most of the analysed models lack a consideration of passenger disruptions, a problem that can influence both the airline’s maintenance costs and passenger satisfaction. We have developed an ACO algorithm to solve the AAP and ARP while considering disrupted passengers as part of the cost function. The objective function that is defined in our problem considers aircraft assignment costs and, in case of unforeseen events, it allows flights to be delayed, cancelled or rerouted. Ants will always try to combine these actions so that total costs are kept to the minimum and disruptions are not propagated to other flights. Conducted experiments reveal that our online ACO rescheduling approach is able to solve different sets of AAP/ARP within reasonable time and with very good final solutions. We believe that this time overhead is largely compensated by the quality of the solutions produced. This approach is a step towards a full automation of AOCC’s because the developed algorithm is ready to run in a continuous fashion, where a sliding window through time considers future flights and discards past ones, constantly optimizing the current schedule and always ready to adapt to a new environment. An AOCC equipped with such a system would save the airline not only on operational costs, due to a better flight recovery, but also from having less employees dedicated to flight recovery. On the other hand, we realize that real flight management is not, at the moment, ready to cope with a dynamic approach such as our ACO-based method, because the constant change in aircraft assignments could compromise security protocols and long term flight planning. Nevertheless, our approach can be seen as a starting point towards a more realistic responsive system.

A possible improvement to our approach could be a different representation that aggregates flights from the same route. This improvement would allow a faster optimization because flights would be compressed by routes, thus generating fewer nodes in the system. Some methods from operations research could also be introduced, especially on the AAP as an initial solution to the ACO. On the other hand, the algorithm could be expanded with the introduction of new constraints from crew rescheduling problem resulting in a broader algorithm.

Finally, although we have made preliminary tests to the performance of ACO applied to this problem, we need to perform a comparative evaluation of our implementation with other meta-heuristic approaches.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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