

32 **1. Introduction**

33 E-commerce logistics returns pose a significant challenge and concern in the thriving e-
34 commerce industry. As the e-commerce sector continues to flourish, returns have become
35 increasingly prevalent, necessitating new demands on the logistics strategies employed by e-
36 commerce platforms. To address the multifaceted challenges posed by e-commerce return
37 logistics, it is imperative for e-commerce platforms to allocate their attention and resources to
38 optimizing the entire returns process. This entails establishing an efficient returns management
39 system to facilitate a seamless returns experience. Additionally, e-commerce practitioners
40 prioritize efforts to minimize the return rate by enhancing product quality and ensuring accurate
41 product descriptions to mitigate returns resulting from customer misuse or dissatisfaction (Mihi
42 Ramírez, 2012). Moreover, attention is directed towards the first-mile pickups within e-
43 commerce reverse logistics (Bergmann et al., 2020). Adhering to this imperative, e-commerce
44 platforms focus on providing convenient and efficient delivery services during the returns
45 process to meet the discerning needs of customers. By effectively addressing the intricacies of
46 e-commerce logistics returns, the e-commerce industry can augment customer satisfaction and
47 loyalty, thereby stimulating sustainable growth in business operations.

48 Thus, optimizing both forward and reverse logistics paths has become crucial. However,
49 many e-commerce platforms focus primarily on forward logistics, often neglecting the
50 optimization of return logistics. In this study, we distinguish between return logistics and
51 reverse logistics to ensure conceptual clarity. Return logistics specifically refers to the process
52 of handling e-commerce returns, including customer-initiated returns and exchanges, where
53 products are transported back to warehouses or distribution centers for restocking or resale. In
54 contrast, reverse logistics involves processes such as returning goods from consumers to the
55 supply chain, including returns, exchanges, repairs, and recycling (Dixit and Badgaiyan, 2016).
56 To address these challenges, optimizing both forward and reverse logistics is essential for
57 improving efficiency and resource utilization. New technologies, such as Internet of Things
58 (IoT), big data, and smart distribution, enable real-time tracking and path optimization,
59 enhancing logistics performance (He et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2021). This optimization not only
60 boosts efficiency and customer satisfaction but also minimizes resource wastage, contributing
61 to a better shopping experience, increased consumer loyalty, and the sustainable development
62 of e-commerce.

63 Nevertheless, building a collaborative logistics network presents significant challenges.

64 Collaborative logistics refers to the strategic sharing and coordination of resources, such as
65 fleets, infrastructure, and information, between multiple logistics stakeholders—such as e-
66 commerce platforms, third-party logistics providers, and consumers—in order to optimize
67 efficiency and reduce operational costs. First, reverse logistics differs significantly from
68 forward logistics, imposing more stringent requirements on the return time window and return
69 method. Establishing a convenient and transparent return process is essential to meet these strict
70 time requirements, thus cleverly balancing the last-mile delivery with the first-mile of return.
71 Second, the rational use of resources poses another challenge. Optimizing the sharing of fleets
72 and routes for last-mile deliveries and first-mile pickups is necessary to reduce transport costs
73 and meet customer demands, which is a complex optimization problem. Third, as the scale of
74 e-commerce continues to expand, the logistics network must be scalable to accommodate the
75 growing volume of orders and return logistics needs while maintaining efficient operations.

76 Currently, existing research on last-mile delivery attempts to improve delivery efficiency
77 and reduce costs through order consolidation methods (Zhang et al., 2019). Integrated
78 approaches are introduced to address the issue of doorstep delivery and optimize real-time
79 delivery efficiency (Han et al., 2017). Additionally, route design and customer revisit plans are
80 explored to reduce the number of unsuccessful deliveries (Florio et al., 2018). On the other
81 hand, support for the optimization of real-time mobile crowdsourcing issues in last-mile
82 delivery are proposed by Wang et al. (2016). Allen et al. (2018) also analyze e-commerce
83 logistics challenges in cities, proposing solutions such as infrastructure redesign and cost
84 reduction. Despite significant focus on the e-commerce industry, current research
85 predominantly addresses last-mile delivery and first-mile returns as separate issues,
86 overlooking their synergistic relationship. With limited resources and time windows, the e-
87 commerce industry must balance customer expectations with cost reduction. Consequently,
88 research on integrated logistics networks for both last-mile delivery and first-mile returns has
89 become increasingly urgent.

90 This paper presents a vehicle routing problem model with time windows for simultaneous
91 pickup and delivery (VRPSPDTW), aiming to obtain efficient vehicle routes that minimize total
92 transportation costs while meeting the time requirements for customer delivery and returns.
93 Specifically, this study addresses three research questions: (1) How can a collaborative delivery
94 network framework be designed to simultaneously consider last-mile delivery and first-mile
95 returns while minimizing total transportation costs? (2) How can timely and reliable services
96 be provided by planning optimal vehicle routes considering the time windows for customer

97 delivery and returns, thereby enhancing customer satisfaction? (3) How can the efficiency of
98 delivery be improved and environmental impact reduced through the construction of a
99 collaborative network, promoting sustainable development and reducing environmental
100 pollution? Being one of the NP-hard problems, VRPSPDTW is challenging to solve exactly
101 within polynomial time. As an effective approach to solving large-scale NP-hard problems,
102 heuristic algorithms can efficiently explore complex solution spaces and provide near-optimal
103 solutions within a reasonable computational time. Their flexibility and adaptability make them
104 particularly suitable for addressing real-world vehicle routing challenges, where problem
105 constraints and dynamic factors significantly increase computational complexity.

106 To address the aforementioned research questions, two algorithms, simulated annealing
107 (SA) and a hybrid algorithm combining simulated annealing with tabu search (SA-TS), are
108 employed to solve the VRPSPDTW model, leading to the following three research
109 contributions. First, addressing research questions (1), by coordinating the management of
110 forward and reverse logistics processes, this study achieves simultaneous optimization of last-
111 mile delivery and first-mile returns. The application of SA and SA-TS algorithms significantly
112 reduces total transportation costs and enhances the logistics efficiency of e-commerce platforms.
113 Second, in response to research questions (2), the model developed in this paper takes into full
114 consideration the time window requirements of customer orders. By incorporating time
115 constraints into the optimization framework, it provides more timely and reliable services,
116 thereby increasing customer satisfaction. Third, aligned with research questions (3), from the
117 perspective of sustainable development, this research contributes positively to reducing
118 environmental pollution and promoting the sustainable development of logistics. The
119 optimization approach explicitly considers sustainability by minimizing vehicle travel distances,
120 reducing fuel consumption, and decreasing carbon emissions. By designing new algorithms, it
121 reduces vehicle travel distances and effectively decreases carbon emissions. Overall, the
122 proposed model and algorithms contribute to optimizing operations, enhancing customer
123 satisfaction, and promoting environmentally friendly practices in the logistics industry.

124 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a literature review
125 on return logistics in e-commerce logistics and the vehicle routing problem with simultaneous
126 pickup and delivery. Section 3 presents the problem description, corresponding assumptions,
127 and develops a multi-objective VRPSPDTW mathematical model. The solution methods are
128 introduced in Section 4. Section 5 validates the proposed model and methods through numerical
129 experiments and conducts sensitivity analysis. Finally, Section 6 concludes the study,

130 highlighting the main findings, and suggests future research directions.

131 **2. Literature review**

132 *2.1. E-commerce return logistics*

133 Return logistics networks are vital for sustainable e-commerce and supply chain
134 management, with research offering fresh perspectives and solutions. Wang et al. (2020)
135 develop models integrating customer time preferences to address long delivery lead times and
136 high transport costs in B2C cross-border e-commerce. Fried and Goodchild (2023) examine the
137 facility and regional dimensions of e-commerce logistics platform centrality from spatial and
138 statistical perspectives. Wang et al. (2023a) investigate logistics service sharing and carbon
139 pooling in an e-commerce supply chain consisting of two sellers and a platform company.
140 Shahabi-Shahmiri et al. (2021) propose a multi-objective mixed-integer programming model
141 (MIP) and a novel hybrid method to solve the heterogeneous vehicle scheduling problem for
142 transporting perishable goods across cross-docking systems. Bergmann et al. (2020) analyze
143 the route efficiency trade-offs arising from integrating first-mile pickup and last-mile delivery
144 operations in urban distribution systems. Liu et al. (2021) propose an algorithm with efficient
145 local search and extended neighborhood, to solve the VRPSPDTW. Alizadeh Foroutan et al.
146 (2020) investigate the green vehicle routing and scheduling problem, proposing a mixed-integer
147 nonlinear programming (MINLP) model with two meta-heuristics, SA and Genetic Algorithms
148 (GA). Zhang et al. (2020) focus on the multi-cycle multi-warehouse vehicle path problem in a
149 B2C e-commerce logistics system. Sethanan and Jamrus (2020) analyze a multi-trip vehicle
150 path problem in a beverage dispensing system using integer linear programming and a hybrid
151 differential evolutionary algorithm.

152 In return logistics optimization and closed-loop supply chain network design problems,
153 Reddy et al. (2022) enhance solution efficiency by applying an improved Benders
154 decomposition method. Cárdenas-Barrón and Melo (2021) focus on the used vegetable oil
155 recycling problem in reverse logistics. Das (2012) proposes a MIP model for optimizing supply
156 chain production, distribution, and reverse logistics, focusing on product recovery and cost
157 efficiency. Singh et al. (2023) propose a two-stage hybrid decision-making framework for
158 selecting and optimizing the allocation of orders to qualified third-party reverse logistics
159 providers. Although current research explores return logistics problems from multiple
160 perspectives, such as total cost, carbon emissions, and customer time windows, existing studies
161 have mainly focused on considering the return logistics network in isolation. There has been

162 less attention paid to synergistically integrating last-mile deliveries and first-mile returns of
163 reverse logistics for the collaborative optimization of the logistics network.

164 *2.2. Sustainability in transportation*

165 Sustainable logistics aims to meet business needs while minimizing negative
166 environmental impacts. Camur et al. (2024) address the complexities of the high-volume
167 intermodal freight network faced by General Electric gas power. Shi et al. (2024) introduce an
168 innovative self-contained RLN for managing transportation routes with a mixed-integer
169 planning model to minimize economic and environmental costs. Goswami et al. (2020) explore
170 the relationships between sustainable freight transport performance and the internal and
171 external characteristics of logistics participants. Ju et al. (2023) analyze the impact of e-
172 commerce and green logistics on sustainable development in 21 emerging and developing
173 countries in Asia from 2000 to 2021. Gholizadeh et al. (2022) model the sustainable reverse
174 logistics process of polystyrene disposable electrical appliances as a MINLP with uncertain
175 demand and recycling costs, employing cross-entropy and three heuristics methods. Shrestha
176 et al. (2024) dissect power dynamics in urban logistics and sustainability frameworks using
177 mixed-methods in Oslo, Bergen, and Trondheim. Wang et al. (2024) investigate the impact of
178 customers' dynamic demand on the vehicle routing problem with time window (VRPTW).
179 While existing studies provide valuable insights into sustainable logistics, they often overlook
180 factors such as real-time traffic conditions, vehicle capacity constraints, and dynamic customer
181 demand. This research seeks to bridge these gaps by proposing efficient solutions to enhance
182 e-commerce logistics sustainability in a competitive landscape.

183 *2.3. Vehicle routing problem with simultaneous pickup and delivery*

184 In the current field of vehicle routing problem (VRP) research, significant attentions are
185 given to solving the vehicle routing problem with simultaneous pickup and delivery (VRPSPD)
186 and its related variants. Öztaş and Tuş (2022) employ a hybrid algorithm that combines iterative
187 local search, variable neighborhood descent. Olgun et al. (2021) tackle the green vehicle routing
188 problem using a hyper-heuristic algorithm based on iterative local search and variable
189 neighborhood descent. Zhang et al. (2023) explore carbon emission reduction and sustainability
190 integration in e-commerce logistics by optimizing the multi-depot pollution pathway problem
191 with time window (MDPRPTW). Hosseini-Motlagh et al. (2022) propose a model for pollution
192 routing problem (PRP) with multi-path traffic coverage, incorporating congestion, speed
193 optimization, and cost minimization, solved through a four-stage meta-heuristic algorithm. Koç

194 et al. (2020) provide a comprehensive review of VRPSPD, including mathematical
195 formulations, algorithms, variables, case studies, and industrial applications. Praxedes et al.
196 (2024) propose a uniform branch-cut pricing algorithm to solve VRPSPD, extending it to a
197 heterogeneous location routing problem with time windows. Wu and Gao (2023) create an ant
198 colony optimization algorithm for VRPSPD with time windows, enhancing global search with
199 stochastic rules and repair operators. Bai et al. (2021) addresses the low-carbon Vehicle Routing
200 Problem in cold chain logistics, incorporating the complexity of road networks and real-time
201 traffic conditions. It proposes a low-carbon cold chain logistics routing optimization model
202 aimed at minimizing carbon emissions and costs. Luo et al. (2022) proposes a two-tier city
203 logistics model based on the Physical Internet (PI), featuring a ‘Container-as-a-Warehouse’
204 operation mode. A mathematical model is developed, and an Adaptive Large Neighborhood
205 Search (ALNS) algorithm is designed to ensure result consistency and optimization. Kong et
206 al. (2018) systematically reviews the current state of research on physical internet-enabled
207 auction logistics (AL) in perishable supply chain trading, summarizing key themes from the
208 perspectives of auction mechanisms, decision levels, and coordination mechanisms. It explores
209 factors influencing AL performance and proposes future research directions.

210 Zhao et al. (2023) tackle a green segmented multi-merchandise pickup routing problem,
211 using a two-stage quantum particle swarm optimization to address divisible demand, multiple
212 visits, congestion, and time windows. Chaieb and Ben Sassi (2021) investigate the home
213 healthcare scheduling problem with simultaneous pickup and delivery and time windows.,
214 Hornstra et al. (2020) solve the VRPSPD-H by implementing a heuristic processing strategy
215 and proposing two new myopic strategies. Li et al. (2022) investigate the two-phase vehicle
216 routing problem by a customized branch-down algorithm. Wang et al. (2023b) propose a hybrid
217 multi-objective particle swarm optimization algorithm for the two-stage multi-warehouse
218 multi-period pickup location routing problem. Significant progress has been made in path
219 planning for real-world operations, yet challenges persist in addressing dynamic orders and
220 real-time demand. Enhanced flexibility is essential to accommodate order changes and delivery
221 contingencies, particularly in scenarios lacking fixed time windows.

222 *2.4. Contributions to the literature*

223 Synthesizing the existing literature, it is evident that research has been conducted on return
224 logistics, sustainable transportation, and VRPSPD in e-commerce logistics. However, there still
225 exist gaps that warrant further exploration. Therefore, the innovations of this paper are as

226 follows. (1) Construct a forward-reverse collaborative logistics network to integrate logistics
227 processes, enhancing efficiency and meeting return logistics demands in e-commerce. (2)
228 Develop a heuristic combining SA and TS to boost solution speed and quality, offering a
229 practical approach for network design. (3) Reduce carbon emissions and boost customer
230 satisfaction with the collaborative logistics network, promoting sustainable e-commerce
231 logistics and offering research insights.

232 3. The model

233 3.1. Problem description

234 Given a logistics network $G = (N, E)$, N represents the set of all nodes within the region,
235 where $N = I \cup O$. Here, I is the set of customer orders, $I = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, N\}$, and O represents
236 the e-commerce logistics center, $O = \{0\}$. The open time window for the e-commerce logistics
237 center is $[OT, CT]$. The center has a fleet of vehicles denoted by $K = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, K\}$, where
238 each vehicle has a capacity of Q_k (kg). Each vehicle departing from the logistics center incurs
239 a departure cost C_1 . The set E consists of all arcs, $E = \{(i, j) | \forall i, j \in N, i \neq j\}$. Each arc $(i, j) \in$
240 E has an associated delivery distance D_{ij} , and the courier travel time from order i to order j is
241 t_{ij} (minutes). The delivery cost per unit distance is C_2 . Each node $i \in N$ has the following
242 attributes: delivery demand d_i , return demand r_i , time window $[ET_i, LT_i]$, service time t_i
243 (minutes), and dispatch time b_i . For the e-commerce logistics center $O = \{0\}$, $d_0 = r_0 = 0$.

244 To improve customer satisfaction, orders that do not arrive within the specified time
245 window will incur a penalty cost. If a vehicle arrives at order i at time b_i before ET_i , the vehicle
246 must wait, resulting in an early arrival penalty cost, which increases with the waiting time at a
247 rate of C_e . Conversely, if a vehicle arrives at order i at time b_i after LT_i , a tardiness penalty cost
248 will be incurred, which increases with the delay time at a rate of C_l . To achieve sustainable
249 logistics supply chain development, environmental factors are integrated into the total cost
250 function through the inclusion of the carbon tax and carbon emission factors. Furthermore, since
251 vehicle travel generates carbon emissions, the carbon emission cost is divided into two parts,
252 i.e., carbon tax cost and carbon trading cost. In this paper, the fuel consumption per unit distance
253 is denoted by P , and the carbon emission factor W is related to fuel consumption. A carbon
254 emission quota L is implemented, wherein carbon emissions below this quota only incur the
255 carbon tax, which is charged at a unit carbon tax cost C_E . When carbon emissions exceed the
256 quota L , additional emission units must be purchased at a cost of C_T per unit.

257 The summarized notation is shown in Table 1.

259 *3.2. Assumptions*

260 To facilitate the construction of the mathematical model, the following assumptions are
261 proposed.

262 (1) Delivery orders start at the outbound warehouse of the e-commerce logistics center, while
263 return orders are sent back to the e-commerce logistics center.

264 (2) Each order has a service time window, and penalty costs are incurred when the service
265 vehicle arrives early or late.

266 (3) Each order will be fulfilled by a single vehicle in a single service, and the service task cannot
267 be split into multiple executions.

268 (4) The service time of a vehicle at order point i is t_i .

269 (5) All vehicles depart from the e-commerce logistics center and return to the e-commerce
270 logistics center after completing their routes.

271 (6) The load of a vehicle cannot exceed its capacity at any point in time from its departure
272 through its work journey.

273 (7) The capacity of the e-commerce logistics center is unlimited.

274 *3.3. Model description*

275 In the process of transport service, each vehicle incurs a fixed departure cost from the e-
276 commerce logistics center. This fixed departure cost is proportional to the number of vehicle
277 departures, which is defined as G_1 in this paper. The introduction of G_1 serves to limit the
278 number of vehicle departures. By optimizing G_1 , the capacity usage of each vehicle can be
279 ensured. The fixed cost of vehicle departure G_1 in all scenarios can be defined as equation (1):

$$G_1 = C_1 \sum_{k=1}^K z_k. \quad (1)$$

280 Vehicles in the distribution process will also incur certain costs, which we define as G_2 .
281 This cost is positively proportional to the distance traveled by the vehicle. Previously, we
282 defined the distribution cost per unit distance in the distribution process as G_2 . In various
283 scenarios, the vehicle distribution cost G_2 can be expressed as equation (2):

$$G_2 = C_2 \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K D_{ij} x_{ijk}. \quad (2)$$

284 Limiting the carbon emissions of logistics service providers solely through a carbon tax is
285 challenging. To achieve sustainable development in the supply chain, this paper divides the
286 carbon emission cost into carbon tax cost and carbon trading cost. The carbon tax cost is

287 positively correlated with the distance traveled by the vehicle. Additionally, any emissions
 288 exceeding the carbon emission limit L require the purchase of additional carbon trading volume.
 289 Thus, the carbon emission cost G_3 can be expressed as equation (3):

$$G_3 = C_T \max\{[(\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K D_{ij} x_{ijk})PW - L], 0\} + C_E \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K D_{ij} x_{ijk}. \quad (3)$$

290 To enhance customer satisfaction, it is essential that vehicles arrive within the specified
 291 time window requested by the customer. Deviations from this expectation, whether arriving
 292 early or late, inconvenience the customer and incur a penalty cost when orders are not fulfilled
 293 within the required timeframe. The default cost G_4 for failing to meet the required time window
 294 in various scenarios can be expressed as equation (4):

$$G_4 = C_e \sum_{i=1}^N \max\{ET_i - b_i, 0\} + C_l \sum_{i=1}^N \max\{b_i - LT_i, 0\}. \quad (4)$$

295 In this paper, we consider not only the fixed cost of vehicle departure G_1 and the cost of
 296 vehicle travel G_2 , but also the cost of carbon emissions G_3 and the penalty cost for failing to
 297 arrive at the specified time G_4 . To address these considerations, we construct a VRPSPDTW
 298 model as follows.

$$\min G = G_1 + G_2 + G_3 + G_4 \quad (5)$$

299 *s.t.*

$$OT \leq w_{0k}, \forall k \in K, \quad (6)$$

$$w_{0k} \leq CT, \forall k \in K, \quad (7)$$

$$w_{ik} + t_i \leq w_{jk}, \forall i, j \in I, k \in K, \quad (8)$$

$$\sum_{i \in I} (d_i - r_i) y_{ik} \leq Q_k, \forall k \in K, \quad (9)$$

$$\sum_{j \in I, j \neq i} x_{ijk} = 1, \forall i \in I, \forall k \in K, \quad (10)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^N x_{jik} - \sum_{j=1}^N x_{ijk} = 0, \forall k \in K, i \in I, \quad (11)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_{0ik} = 1, \forall k \in K, \quad (12)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_{i0k} = 1, \forall k \in K, \quad (13)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^K z_k \leq |K|, \quad (14)$$

$$\sum_{j \in I, j \neq i} \sum_{k \in K} x_{ijk} = 1, \forall i \in I, \quad (15)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^K x_{ijk} = 1, \forall i, j \in N, i \neq j, \quad (16)$$

$$x_{ijk} \in \{0,1\}, \forall i, j \in N, i \neq j, \forall k \in K, \quad (17)$$

$$y_{ik} \in \{0,1\}, i \in I, k \in K, \quad (18)$$

$$z_k \in \{0,1\}, k \in K. \quad (19)$$

300 Equation (5) serves as the optimization objective of the model, aiming to minimize the
301 overall cost of the entire transportation process. This total cost comprises four main components:
302 the fixed cost of vehicle departure, the travel cost of the vehicle, the cost of carbon emissions,
303 and the contractual penalty incurred for failing to arrive at the designated time. Inequality (6)
304 imposes the opening time constraint of the e-commerce logistics center, ensuring that all
305 vehicles depart after the logistics center's opening. Similarly, inequality (7) enforces the closing
306 time constraint, guaranteeing that all vehicles return before the logistics center closes.
307 Inequality (8) represents the service time constraint, stipulating that vehicles can only proceed
308 to the next order point for service upon completing the order of a single customer. Inequality
309 (9) addresses the vehicle capacity constraint, ensuring that the total carrying capacity of each
310 vehicle during transportation does not exceed its maximum capacity. This constraint explicitly
311 accounts for both forward and reverse logistics flows. Equation (10) functions as vehicle
312 routing constraint, ensuring that if a vehicle arrives at an order location, it must also leave that
313 location, thereby preventing infeasible route configurations. This is necessary to maintain route
314 continuity. Equation (11) enforces the vehicle path connectivity constraint, preventing the
315 formation of closed loops during the service of all vehicles. Equation (12) represents the vehicle
316 departure constraint, stipulating that all vehicles must depart from the e-commerce logistics
317 center. Equation (13) enforces the vehicle return constraint, mandating that vehicles return to
318 the logistics center upon completing all order services. Inequality (14) imposes the departing
319 vehicle number constraint, limiting the number of departing vehicles to no more than the
320 number of vehicles owned by the e-commerce logistics center. Equation (15) ensures that each
321 order is visited only once, while Equation (16) guarantees that every order is accessible. Finally,
322 Constraints (17)-(19) define the binary decision variable domains, specifying that x_{ijk} , y_{ik} , and
323 z_k are binary variables representing routing, service, and vehicle dispatch decisions,
324 respectively.

325 **4. Solution methodology**

326 *4.1. Real-time solution strategy*

327 Traditional single-objective optimization methods often oversimplify or reduce multi-
328 objective problems, which may not adequately address the complexity of real-world scenarios.
329 It lacks flexibility, adaptability, and real-time performance when dealing with dynamic
330 environments, particularly in complex and evolving e-commerce logistics networks. In contrast,
331 the VRPSPDTW multi-objective model proposed in this paper aligns closely with the realities
332 of e-commerce logistics centers, avoiding the pitfalls of oversimplification inherent in single-
333 objective approaches. The model employs a multi-stage solution method to address the problem
334 in greater detail and comprehensively considers the dynamics of continuous optimization.
335 Special emphasis is placed on real-time optimization capabilities, enabling the model to swiftly
336 adapt to changing environments by regularly updating parameters based on new order
337 requirements. This ensures the model's ability to cope effectively with the complexities and
338 dynamics inherent in e-commerce logistics operations.

339 The collaborative logistics network in this study introduces a two-stage model, i.e., initial
340 optimization and real-time optimization, which divides the dynamic sequential optimization
341 problem into distinct phases. This approach allows for a more comprehensive consideration of
342 the problem's complexity while ensuring real-time performance. As depicted in Fig. 1, within
343 the collaborative logistics network, an initial heuristic algorithm is employed to generate
344 delivery routes based on available order information such as customer locations, order demands,
345 and service time windows. Following this initial phase, delivery routes are optimized within a
346 predefined time interval. Subsequently, orders that arrive after this optimization phase but
347 before the closing time of the e-commerce logistics center are consolidated. In response to these
348 newly arrived orders, a heuristic algorithm is again applied in real-time to adjust and optimize
349 delivery routes dynamically.

350 <<<Insert Fig. 1>>>

351 The staged solution approach not only enhances problem-solving efficiency but also
352 closely aligns with real-world logistics scenarios. By integrating heuristic algorithms and real-
353 time optimization strategies, the model exhibits exceptional flexibility in responding
354 dynamically to logistics environments. Focusing on multi-stage optimization and real-time
355 capabilities improves distribution efficiency and lowers logistics costs.

356 4.2. Simulated annealing algorithm

357 The SA algorithm, a global optimization heuristic search technique, is rooted in the
358 analogy of the physical annealing process. By simulating the gradual cooling of metals from
359 high temperatures, this algorithm combines a stochastic search with the systematic reduction of
360 the ‘system temperature’ to locate a globally optimal solution. In addressing the complex
361 VRPSPDTW problem, SA proves especially effective. It facilitates the discovery of optimal
362 vehicle routes that cater to customer demand, abide by time window restrictions, and adhere to
363 vehicle capacity limits, all while minimizing the overall cost. To further illustrate the structure
364 and execution of the proposed algorithms, Fig. 2 presents the flowcharts of the SA. The
365 implementation of this algorithm in solving the VRPSPDTW problem involves several key
366 steps.

367 <<<Insert Fig. 2>>>

368 Step 1. Parameter initialization. Set initial parameters: initial temperature T_0 , final
369 temperature T_f , and temperature decay rate ΔT , with T_0 typically set high (i.e., 8000) for
370 thorough initial exploration.

371 Step 2. Data reading. Retrieve essential data, such as customer node coordinates and
372 demands, and compute necessary distance and time matrices for route planning.

373 Step 3. Generate an initial solution. Create a starting solution by randomly assigning
374 customer nodes to routes, ensuring time window and capacity constraints are met.

375 Step 4. Temperature iteration. Conduct iterative stochastic operations (i.e., node insertion,
376 deletion, swapping) while gradually lowering the temperature to refine the solution towards
377 global optima.

378 Step 5. Calculate cost change and acceptance decision. Compare the new solution’s cost
379 to the current one. If the new solution is better, accept it. If worse, accept with probability based
380 on temperature and cost difference, balancing search strategies.

381 Step 6. Update current solution and reduce temperature. Replace the current solution with
382 accepted new ones and lower the temperature to enhance solution quality progressively.

383 Step 7. Termination condition. Conclude the algorithm when a termination condition, such
384 as a low temperature threshold, is met, yielding a global or near-optimal solution. The pseudo-
385 code for the SA algorithm is shown in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Algorithm SA

Input: parameter ($T_0, T_f, \Delta T, Q, v, etc$)

Output: sol_best, obj_best

```
1: Initialize model with demand and depot data from files
2: Calculate distance and time matrices based on the data
3: Initialize sol with a randomly generated initial solution
4:  $sol \leftarrow initial\_sol$ 
5:  $sol\_best \leftarrow sol$ 
6:  $obj\_best \leftarrow obj(sol)$ 
7:  $T_k \leftarrow T_0$ 
8: While  $T_k \geq T_f$  do
9:     repeat
10:        Generate a new solution  $sol\_new$  by applying a random action to  $sol$ 
11:        Calculate  $\Delta f$  as  $obj(sol\_new) - obj(sol)$ 
12:        if  $\Delta f < 0$  or  $random() < exp(-\Delta f / T_k)$  then
13:             $sol \leftarrow sol\_new$ 
14:            if  $obj(sol\_new) < obj(sol\_best)$  then
15:                 $sol\_best \leftarrow sol\_new$ 
16:                 $obj\_best \leftarrow obj(sol\_new)$ 
17:            end if
18:        end if
19: Update  $T_k$  using  $\Delta T$ 
20: end while
21: plot objective value history
22: plot routes based on  $sol\_best$ 
23: end
```

386 4.3. SA-TS algorithm

387 The SA algorithm, a probability-based global search method, avoids local optima by
388 occasionally accepting inferior solutions, with this acceptance probability decreasing to ensure
389 convergence to the global optimum. Despite its effectiveness in global searches, its stochastic
390 nature can still lead to local optima. Conversely, the TS algorithm, a local search method, uses
391 a tabu list to avoid revisiting similar solutions, helping it escape local optima and quickly
392 enhance solution quality. However, it might fail if the initial solution is poor. To address these
393 limitations, we introduce a hybrid SA-TS algorithm for the VRPSPDTW problem, leveraging
394 SA's global search to generate a strong initial solution and TS's local search to refine it further.
395 This hybrid approach allows for effective solution space exploration and rapid escape from

396 local optima, improving robustness and performance for global optimization problems. The
397 stepwise process of the SA-TS algorithm is depicted in Fig. 3, providing a clear visualization
398 of its iterative improvement mechanism. The algorithm is detailed below.

399 <<<Insert Fig. 3>>>

400 Step 1. Parameter initialization. Set initial parameters such as the initial solution, tabu
401 length, and search strategy to guide the solution space exploration and process.

402 Step 2. Data reading. Read data on node coordinates, demand, service times, and time
403 windows to form the solution space for the hybrid SA-TS algorithm.

404 Step 3. Initial solution generation. Use the SA algorithm to generate an initial solution. At
405 high temperatures, explore the solution space randomly to escape local optima. As the
406 temperature decreases, gradually converge toward a near-optimal solution.

407 Step 4. Tabu iteration phase. Progressively approach the global optimal solution by
408 executing random operations (i.e., node swaps, insertions) and evaluating solution quality in
409 each iteration.

410 Step 5. Evaluate solution quality and break Tabu constraints. Assess the new solution's
411 quality; if superior, adopt it as the current optimal solution. Otherwise, potentially accept an
412 inferior solution with a probability linked to search depth and quality difference to explore more
413 of the solution space.

414 Step 6. Update the Tabu List. Revise the tabu list after each iteration to avoid repeating
415 similar operations, preventing convergence to local optima.

416 Step 7. Termination Condition Fulfillment Phase. Conclude the algorithm when the
417 termination condition, like a set number of iterations, is met, yielding the global or near-optimal
418 solution.

419 The hybrid SA-TS algorithm combines the strengths of both the SA and TS algorithms. It
420 effectively balances the trade-off between exploration and exploitation, allowing it to escape
421 local optima. This approach yields relatively strong solutions, making it well-suited for
422 addressing complex combinatorial optimization problems. The pseudo-code of the SA-TS
423 algorithm is shown in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 Algorithm SA-TS

Input: parameter (*epochs, v_cap, tabu_tenure, etc*)

Output: *best_sol, best_obj*

1: Initialize *tabu_list*

```

2: Initialize model with demand and depot data from files
3: Calculate distance and time matrices based on the data
4: Generate initial solution with SA
5: current_sol ← initial_sol
6: best_sol ← current_sol
7: L ← tabu_list
8: for each iteration (epoch) in range (epochs) do
9:     Generate a set of neighbor solutions
10: neighbors ← set of neighbor solutions
11:     for neighbor in neighbors do
12:         if obj(neighbor) < obj(current_sol) and neighbor is not in L then
13:             current_sol ← neighbor
14:             L.append(current_sol)
15:             if obj(current_sol) < obj(best_sol) then
16:                 best_sol ← current_sol
17:             end if
18:         else
19:             L.pop(0)
20:             if current_sol not in L then
21:                 L.append(current_sol)
22:             end if
23:         end if
24:     end for
25: end for
26: return best_sol
27: plot objective value history
28: plot routes based on best_sol
29: end

```

424 5. Numerical experiment

425 In this section, we provide an in-depth description of the numerical setup for the
426 experiment and present the computational outcomes of two algorithms within the VRPSPDTW
427 framework, considering variable demands. To validate our proposed model, we initially
428 generate random demands using a uniform distribution, which facilitates the creation of a
429 demand file and corresponding orders, as illustrated in Table 2, Table 3, Table 4. The algorithms

430 employed were crafted using Python 3.9.13 and executed on a Windows 11 operating system.
431 The computational device is equipped with a 12th Gen Intel(R) Core (TM) i9-12900H processor
432 clocked at 2.50 GHz, accompanied by 16GB of RAM.

433 <<<Insert Table 2>>>

434 <<<Insert Table 3>>>

435 <<<Insert Table 4>>>

436 5.1. Benchmark instance

437 We introduce benchmark instance I0, with the e-commerce logistics center operating 24
438 hours (1440 minutes). Orders arrive uniformly, starting with 100 orders consolidated every 8
439 hours, prompting route adjustments. Each delivery vehicle incurs a fixed cost of 100 yuan, with
440 a 2-ton capacity, and travels at 1 km/h. Vehicles consume 1 liter of fuel per kilometer, emitting
441 5 kg of CO₂, with a carbon emission quota of 50 kg per vehicle. Exceeding this quota results
442 in a carbon tax of 3 yuan per liter. Penalties apply for early or late arrivals, costing 10 yuan per
443 minute outside specified customer time windows. Through multiple experiments, we fine-tuned
444 the parameters of the SA algorithm to optimize its performance. Specifically, we set the initial
445 temperature T_0 to 8000 and the final temperature T_k to 0.001, with a temperature reduction rate
446 ΔT of 0.9.

447 To further optimize the solution process, we introduced a hybrid SA-TS algorithm. This
448 approach initially generates the initial solution using the SA algorithm. During the initial
449 solution generation phase, we applied similar parameter settings: $T_0 = 8000$ for the initial
450 temperature, $T_k = 0.001$ for the termination temperature, and $\Delta T = 0.9$ for the temperature
451 decrease rate. In the main part of the SA-TS hybrid algorithm, we established an empty tabu
452 list and initialized its length to 30 to maintain search diversity. The hybrid algorithm was
453 iterated for 300 cycles. This design ensures rapid convergence of the algorithm while enhancing
454 global search effectiveness.

455 The performances of the SA algorithm, the SA-TS algorithm, and CPLEX are compared
456 in this chapter. CPLEX was selected as a benchmark for comparison because it is a widely
457 recognized optimization solver known for its ability to provide optimal solutions for complex
458 combinatorial optimization problems. As one of the leading commercial solvers, CPLEX is
459 widely used in both academia and industry for solving large-scale and NP-hard problems, such
460 as vehicle routing problems, that require exact solutions. Its robustness and proven performance

461 in delivering high-quality results make it an ideal reference point for assessing the performance
462 of heuristic approaches. Furthermore, CPLEX’s ability to handle a wide range of problem
463 instances and guarantee optimal solutions allows us to evaluate how well our proposed heuristic
464 algorithms (SA and SA-TS) approximate optimality in comparison, especially in cases where
465 exact methods may be computationally expensive or time-consuming for large problem sizes.

466 We utilize the CPLEX solver, renowned for its capability in solving a diverse array of
467 problem types, particularly general linear programming (LP) problems. Given CPLEX’s
468 computational demands, we initially assessed its challenges with large-scale problems, noting
469 significant increases in solution time as problem size grows. To ensure feasibility and efficiency,
470 experiments in Table 2 are limited to the first 30 client nodes, allowing a practical comparison
471 between exact and heuristic methods and highlighting their performance on small-scale
472 problems. The experimental outcomes are presented in Table 5.

473 <<<Insert Table 5>>>

474 According to Table 5, CPLEX provides the optimal solution with the lowest total cost but
475 at the cost of high CPU time. In contrast, both SA and SA-TS are significantly faster, with SA-
476 TS achieving the best trade-off between solution quality and efficiency. While the total cost for
477 SA is higher, SA-TS comes closer to the optimal solution while reducing computation time to
478 just 0.71 seconds. Thus, SA-TS strikes a balance between solution quality and speed, making
479 it more practical for large-scale problems.

480 Fig. 4 shows the iterative plots of the objective values of the SA algorithm over three-time
481 intervals, while Fig. 5 displays the iterative plots of the objective values of the SA-TS algorithm
482 over the same intervals. The results indicate that both algorithms’ objective values converge
483 after several iterations, demonstrating the convergence of the algorithms.

484 <<<Insert Fig. 4>>>

485 <<<Insert Fig. 5>>>

486 Table 6 presents the optimal solutions obtained by both algorithms. Analysis of the data
487 reveals that, on average, the SA-TS algorithm demonstrates a 3.62% improvement in cost
488 reduction and a 4.89% decrease in carbon emissions compared to the SA algorithm alone.
489 However, there is a slight increase in average CPU time by 9.58% with the SA-TS algorithm.
490 Particularly when aiming to optimize both cost and carbon emissions, the SA-TS algorithm
491 emerges as the preferred choice. Despite its slightly longer runtime, SA-TS achieves superior

492 optimization performance compared to the SA algorithm.

493 <<<Insert Table 6>>>

494 5.2. Sensitivity analysis

495 In this section, we present the results of the sensitivity analysis to assess the impact of the
496 fixed cost of vehicle departure (C_1), the distribution cost per unit distance (C_2), the price per
497 unit of carbon traded (C_T), and the default cost coefficients (C_e, C_l) for early and late arrival of
498 the vehicle on the total cost and customer satisfaction.

499 Based on the benchmark instance I0, we introduce 12 different instances divided into 4
500 groups, each varying only one key parameter from I0, named G1, G2, G3, and G4. For statistical
501 convenience, we assume that the default cost coefficients for early and late arrivals are equal,
502 i.e., $C_e = C_l$. To comprehensively evaluate the impact of each parameter on customer
503 satisfaction, we introduce an important metric: average order delay time (ADT). The average
504 order delay time is calculated by dividing the sum of the early and late arrival times of delivery
505 vehicles by the total number of delivery orders. In general, the more on-time the order arrival,
506 the higher the customer satisfaction. Therefore, a smaller average order delay time (ADT)
507 indicates higher customer satisfaction. The calculation of ADT is defined as follows:

$$ADT = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \max\{ET_i - b_i, 0\} + \sum_{i=1}^N \max\{b_i - LT_i, 0\}}{|I|}. \quad (20)$$

508 The results of the sensitivity analysis are shown in Table 7. Based on the data in Table 7,
509 Fig. 6 has been developed to visualize the specific impact of each parameter's variation on the
510 total cost under different algorithms. It is clearly observed from the figure that when the SA-
511 TS algorithm is applied, the calculated total cost is consistently slightly lower than when the
512 SA algorithm is used. Therefore, when comprehensively considering the influence of each
513 parameter on the total cost, we particularly emphasize the performance advantages of the SA-
514 TS algorithm. To explore the specific role of each parameter on ADT in depth, we further
515 present Fig. 7, which details the specific impact of each parameter's variation on ADT under
516 the SA-TS algorithm.

517 <<<Insert Table 7>>>

518 <<<Insert Fig. 6>>>

519 <<<Insert Fig. 7>>>

520 In the initial sensitivity analysis (G1), we analyzed the impact of C_1 on the total cost and

521 average delay time (ADT), while maintaining the other parameters of instance I0 constant.
522 Specifically, we set the fixed cost C_1 for each vehicle departure to (100,200,300,400)
523 respectively. The experimental outcomes reveal a gradual increase in the total cost as the fixed
524 cost C_1 escalated. This suggests a positive correlation between the rise in fixed cost and the total
525 cost. Notably, the average order delay time (ADT) exhibited a downward trend with the
526 augmentation of fixed cost, indicating that an increase in fixed cost may contribute positively
527 to reducing order delays, thereby enhancing customer satisfaction.

528 In the second set of sensitivity analyses (G2), we investigate the effect of the distribution
529 cost per unit distance C_2 on the total cost by setting the value of C_2 to (10,15,20,25). The
530 experimental results show that the total cost increases significantly with the rise in the
531 distribution cost per unit distance C_2 , indicating that C_2 is a crucial factor affecting the total cost.
532 Meanwhile, the average order delay time (ADT) also tends to increase with higher unit distance
533 distribution costs, suggesting that higher C_2 may lead to longer order delay times, thereby
534 reducing customer satisfaction.

535 The third set of sensitivity analyses (G3) sets the unit carbon trading price C_T to (3,4,5,6),
536 respectively. The experimental results show that the total cost gradually increases as the unit
537 carbon trading price C_T rises, suggesting that an increase in C_T prompts the optimisation
538 process to reduce fuel consumption as much as possible, thereby decreasing carbon emissions.
539 Additionally, the ADT gradually decreases with the increase in C_T , indicating that a higher unit
540 carbon trading price may help to reduce order delay time, though the impact on ADT is not
541 significant.

542 The fourth group of sensitivity analysis (G4) examines the effect of the default cost
543 coefficient C_e , which is set to (5,10,15,20). The results show that as C_e increases, there are
544 slight fluctuations in the total cost, but the overall change is not significant. This indicates that
545 variations in the default cost coefficient have a relatively minor impact on the total cost.
546 Meanwhile, the average order delay time (ADT) shows a decreasing trend with an increase in
547 C_e , suggesting that raising the default cost coefficient may help reduce order delay time, thereby
548 improving customer satisfaction.

549 **6. Conclusion**

550 This study addresses the last-mile delivery and first-mile return issues in e-commerce
551 logistics by constructing a collaborative logistics network for both forward and reverse logistics
552 and designing a VRPSPDTW model. By incorporating time windows, we successfully capture

553 the time-sensitive demands of e-commerce logistics while considering return logistics,
554 comprehensively optimizing the entire supply chain. However, multi-objective problems
555 typically belong to the NP-hard category, making the search for global optimal solutions
556 challenging. To solve this multi-objective problem, we employ a heuristic approach. We first
557 utilize the SA algorithm and then design a hybrid heuristic algorithm that combines SA with TS
558 to further improve solution efficiency. The application of this algorithm enables us to better
559 cope with the time-varying delivery demands in practical operations.

560 Experimental results demonstrate that our model and algorithms provide a feasible
561 solution for e-commerce logistics, offering strong support for improving operational efficiency
562 and reducing carbon emissions. By effectively addressing multi-objective optimization
563 problems, our model and algorithms offer a viable solution for e-commerce logistics. In
564 practical applications, our algorithm performs exceptionally well in handling the complex
565 characteristics of e-commerce return logistics. Our algorithm excels in both small and large-
566 scale e-commerce logistics, optimizing multi-vehicle routing, time windows, and delivery
567 efficiency while reducing costs and carbon emissions, thereby providing a comprehensive,
568 sustainable solution.

569 The sensitivity result show that an increase in fixed costs leads to an increase in total costs.
570 However, this is accompanied by a decrease in average order delay time, thus improving
571 customer satisfaction. An increase in unit distance delivery costs significantly raises total costs
572 while also causing an increase in order delay time and a decrease in customer satisfaction.
573 Analysis of changes in unit carbon trading prices shows that an increase leads to higher total
574 costs but has a positive effect on average order delay time, potentially enhancing customer
575 satisfaction. Changes in the default cost coefficient have a relatively small impact on total costs,
576 and increasing this coefficient helps reduce order delay time and improve customer satisfaction.

577 The contribution of this paper lies in filling the research gap in the field of e-commerce
578 logistics regarding collaborative logistics networks for both forward and reverse logistics and
579 providing an innovative multi-objective routing model. Future research will explore dynamic
580 demands and traffic conditions in e-commerce logistics using real-time data and intelligent
581 scheduling. Additionally, we will delve into multi-party collaboration strategies, optimizing
582 logistics network efficiency in collaboration with e-commerce platforms and delivery service
583 providers, to achieve resource integration and cost reduction. Furthermore, by analyzing and
584 learning from historical data, we can predict future demand trends and traffic conditions,
585 enabling better planning of logistics networks and vehicle routes. These new research directions

586 aim to drive efficient operations and sustainable development in e-commerce logistics.

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597 **Declaration of Interest Statement**

598 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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