

1 **Emergency vehicle routing in urban road networks with multi-stakeholder**
2 **cooperation**

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26 **Abstract**

27 The lack of multi-stakeholder cooperation is one of the main challenges faced by emergency medical services
28 (EMS). Especially in the ambulance routing process, inactive traffic operators fail to provide coordination
29 to prioritize the ambulance, while ignoring the choice of hospitals will lead to inevitable patient transfer
30 between hospitals. To provide efficient decision support for EMS, this paper considers daily ambulance
31 routing problems in a network with high spatial resolution in which two advanced technologies are
32 introduced: pre-hospital screening that provides patient injury diagnosis and lane pre-clearing that ensures
33 the pre-defined driving speed of ambulances. Three different types of ambulances are used to transport and
34 offer first aids to patients based on the screened results. To manage the ambulance fleet properly, a mixed-
35 integer linear programming (MIP) model is proposed to assign vehicles to the injured and plan routes with
36 the shortest travel time. A semi-soft time window constraint is incorporated to reflect the late arrival penalty
37 on-site and at hospitals. Since high-quality EMS responds to the call in seconds, a real-world case in
38 Shenzhen, China, is presented to validate the computational performance by a commercial solver GAMS. In
39 the case study, we further analyzed the effect of different stakeholders' involvement, like the hospitals and
40 traffic operators. This information proves the efficiency of multi-stakeholder participation in ambulance
41 routing.

42 **Keywords**

43 Ambulance routing; ambulance allocation; pre-hospital screening; lane pre-clearing; multi-stakeholder
44 cooperation

45 1. Introduction

46 1.1. Motivations

47 When life-threatening incidents occur, the efficacy of response actions would mean the difference between
48 life or death (Berkoune et al., 2012). Sánchez-Mangas et al. (2010) reported that a 10-min reduction of
49 treatment waiting time reduces mortality by one-third. Motivated by this, the Emergency Medical Service
50 (EMS) responsible for the logistics plan and operations must respond quickly and launch the most effective
51 rescue (Jung and Qin, 2020). A systematic EMS covers phases from pre- to post-disaster. For disaster
52 preparedness concerned with risk-mitigation processes, measures such as infrastructure reinforcement,
53 resource repositioning, and request prediction are planned (Lee et al., 2013). In the response phase, the post-
54 disaster actions are taken immediately, such as care facilities relocations, resource dispatching (such as
55 ambulances, EMS personnel, and hospital), patients' transportation and treatment (Wang et al., 2012). In the
56 recovery phase, reconstruction activities are taken to return a specific area to 'normality' after being
57 devastated (Salum et al., 2020, Iliopoulou et al., 2020). Among the three stages in the EMS environment,
58 only the disaster response actions are required to be decided within a few seconds or even less (Dimitriou et
59 al., 2018), which raises a strong need for real-time decision support, especially for the ambulance
60 management in the aftermath of accidents.

61 Several studies tackle ambulance locating (Knight et al., 2012), dispatching (Schmid, 2012), and routing
62 problems (Talarico et al., 2015) as ambulance management. But the suggested methods lack a holistic and
63 integrated methodological framework that coordinates all relevant stakeholders, including emergency
64 medical services providers (EMSP), traffic operators, and hospitals. For ambulance routing problem (ARP),
65 much research emphasizes solving ARP by mathematical models focusing on the collaboration between
66 hospitals and EMSP or by simulation methods with joint consideration of EMSP and traffic operators.
67 However, the absence of any one of the above three decision-makers cannot guarantee the effectiveness of
68 response actions. In the case of ignoring traffic operators, few responses would be provided to prioritize
69 ambulances and ensure the driving speed. When hospitals are inactive, EMSP may select the nearest hospital
70 that lacks the expertise to treat the patients, leading to inevitable transfer (Gao et al., 2020).

71 The EMSP has to design a rescue plan to cope with the dynamic traffic condition and the scarce resources
72 such as hospitals and ambulances while guaranteeing the shortest transport time and proper resource
73 allocation. Thus, traffic operators and hospitals must be involved in the planning process. It offers an
74 underexplored opportunity to consider both hospitals' expertise and traffic conditions in ARP.

75 1.2. Literature review

76 In this section, we present a literature review of earlier work in both disaster preparedness and response
77 phases, focusing on the ambulance (re)locating, dispatching, and routing problems.

78 *1.2.1. Ambulance locating problem*

79 Ambulance locating problem is a branch of resource location design that is of a tactical nature and often
80 based on static information (Li et al., 2019). It aims to find the deployment sites for the ambulance fleet in a
81 certain area to support the EMS. A review of methodologies and algorithms for ambulance locating problem
82 in a coverage notion is summarized by Farahani et al. (2012). The coverage can be defined as response time
83 (Erdemir et al., 2010), total service time (Jagtenberg and Mason, 2020), and the expected survival possibility
84 (Knight et al., 2012). The selected locations ensure that the estimated demand can be satisfied within a given
85 time.

86 During daily operations, the ambulance that has been assigned to an emergency request can be reallocated
87 to improve the coverage. Lam et al. (2015) proposed a system status management based method to
88 reassign ambulance deployment locations on a daily basis. This problem was formulated as a double
89 coverage model and solved using CPLEX solver. To further consider the dynamic and uncertain behavior of
90 EMS, Acar and Kaya (2019) constructed the integrated location and relocation model for mobile hospitals
91 using a two-stage stochastic programming model. The stochasticity reflects the possibility of the hospital
92 being damaged and the possibility of passenger transfer. The multi-objective function consisted of the total
93 travel time, penalization of capacity shortage, the unused capacity, the hospital transfer time, and the mobile
94 hospital relocating time. The proposed model was solved by GAMS solver. Other models have been
95 introduced to include stochastic travel times (Schmid and Doerner, 2010) and service time (Goldberg and
96 Paz, 1991).

97 *1.2.2. Ambulance dispatching problem*

98 The ambulance dispatching model allocates emergency calls to the vehicle based on its location. Some
99 commonly used dispatching policies are assigning the task to the nearest resource, first-come-first-serve
100 policy and fixed plan (Kuisma et al., 2004). Comparing with these strategies, the benefit of dispatching
101 model is discussed by Jagtenberg et al. (2017).

102 When making the deployment policy, some studies considered the urgency of the call. McLay and
103 Mayorga (2013) introduced a Markov Decision Process model to dispatch ambulances to prioritized patients
104 considering the classification errors. This model maximized the expected coverage of true high-risk patients.
105 Bandara et al. (2014) developed a simulation model that incorporates the severity of the request to implement
106 the suggested dispatching policies in EMS. They aim to maximize the patients' survival probability. A
107 heuristic algorithm is customized to solve the large-scale problem. Andersson and Värbrand (2007) allocated
108 the ambulance based on the priority of the request and the travel distance. They combined the dispatching
109 and relocating of the ambulance fleet to ensure the coverage of patients.

110 *1.2.3. Ambulance routing problem*

111 The ambulance routing problem seeks to find the shortest path to pick-up and drop-off casualties in a
112 network with high or low spatial resolution.

113 For high spatial resolution, the physical road network and traffic conditions are formulated in the model.
114 Jotshi et al. (2009) proposed a method to search for the shortest path considering the patient priorities,
115 clustering criteria, distance, road congestion, and hospital availability. Network partition is introduced to
116 reduce the computation complexity.

117 In contrast, more researches are based on low spatial resolution network. In general, the specific physical
118 path between the hospital and the wounded is simplified into one link. Based on the simplified network,
119 Talarico et al. (2015) consider patient classification. They divided the patients into two categories: red and
120 green. The red should be driven directly from the spot to the assigned hospital, while the green can be taken
121 care of at the accident scene. Accordingly, a MIP model was constructed based on the multi-commodity
122 model to minimize the worst-case patient waiting time. A large neighborhood search metaheuristic was
123 applied to solve the problem. Based on this research, Tikani and Setak (2019) further increased the patient
124 categories to three and classified the ambulance fleet. They added the late arrival penalty cost in the
125 objective function by setting a soft time window. The genetic algorithm is introduced to solve the problem.
126 When an ambulance is allowed to serve a list of patients at different locations, patient clusters are introduced.
127 Similarly, (Zidi et al., 2019) proposed a cluster-first route-second algorithm to tackle the ARP.

128 These researches formulated the compatible constraints between patients and hospitals as the capacity
129 limitation. Assumptions are made for hospitals' expertise where hospitals can treat all kinds of injuries,
130 which is not realistic.

131 *1.2.4. Joint studies*

132 The interaction among the sub-problems are considered in some studies.

133 In the field of location-dispatching problems, Toro-Díaz et al. (2013) proposed a joint location and
134 dispatching integer programming model for EMS. The model aims to minimize the response time and
135 maximize the coverage considering queuing elements and congestion phenomena in the dispatching process.
136 A genetic algorithm was introduced to solve the problem. Ibri et al. (2012) developed a decentralized
137 distributed solution approach based on multi-agent systems to jointly locate and dispatch emergency vehicles.
138 They aim to coordinate agents to reach reasonable quality solutions.

139 For ambulance location-routing problems, Oran et al. (2012) introduced a formulation of emergency
140 facility locating and vehicle routing with time windows that consider the priority of emergency calls. A MIP
141 solver and tabu search algorithm were introduced for problem-solving. Further, Caunhye et al. (2016)
142 presented a two-stage location-routing model with recourse under uncertainty. The objective function is to
143 minimize the total preparedness cost and the worst-case response time with uncertainty consideration. The
144 ambulance location-allocation-routing problem is designed for temporary EMS. Memari et al. (2020)
145 proposed a bi-objective dynamic model to minimize the operational costs and the critical time spent before
146 being treated. Two meta-heuristic algorithms are developed for problem-solving.

147 *1.3. Contribution*

148 The contributions of the present study can be summarized as follows.

149 (i) This paper focuses on the ambulance routing problem, which strives to involve EMSP, traffic operators,
150 and hospitals in the planning process. In detail, the pre-hospitals screening and lane pre-cleaning are
151 implemented as input to speed up the first aid and avoid inefficient delivery.

152 (ii) The MIP optimization model is proposed for ambulance dispatching and vehicle routing based on a
153 high-spatial-resolution network to reduce the transport time, the dispatching cost, and the late arrival penalty.
154 Patients with different severity will be allocated to the hospital with the proper expertise, while ambulance
155 allocation to patients depends on travel time after lane clearing.

156 (iii) The semi-soft time windows constraint is formulated to reflect the urgency of rescue, and a late arrival
157 penalty on-scene and at hospitals is introduced in the objective function.

158 (iv) A real-world case in Shenzhen, China, is studied to validate the efficiency in rescue time and
159 computational time. The exact optimal solution can be generated within a short computational time by
160 commercial solvers. The comparison with cases with inactive stakeholders is made to verify the resulting
161 efficiency.

162 The remainder of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, the problem is defined in detail, and notations are
163 explained. Moreover, two advanced technologies are presented to involve the crucial stakeholders. The high-
164 spatial resolution-based MIP model is illustrated and described in section 3. Section 4 provides a real-world
165 case study in Shenzhen, China, to test the proposed mathematical model and evaluate the performance
166 compared with inactive stakeholder cases. In section 5, the main conclusions and further remarks are
167 summarized.

168 2. Problem statement

169 The ambulance routing problem aims to plan routes to pick up patients and drop them off at the hospitals.
170 This problem will be fundamentally different from the traditional vehicle routing problem by taking into
171 account two advanced technologies: pre-hospital screening and lane pre-clearing, as shown in Fig. 1.
172 Typically, the ambulance routing problem can be categorized into two classes: hospital-based and depot-
173 based. For the depot-based system, ambulances belong to hospitals and are initially located at their hospitals.
174 In some cases, ambulance together with other emergency vehicles, will be positioned at a depot, which is
175 defined as a depot-based system. In this research, we focus on the hospital-based one. By customizing the
176 initial location for the ambulance fleet, the proposed method can be implemented in depot-based scenarios.
177 We formalize the problem using the notation shown in Table 1.

178 Fig.1 Ambulance routing process. (a) Pre-hospital screening. Patients are diagnosed by screen infrastructures
179 and further divided into different injury levels. The patients will be assigned to the nearest qualified hospital
180 to be treated based on the disanose result. Ambulances are classified into three types according to their on-
181 board equipment. They can serve patients at different injury levels. (b) Ambulance routing. The ambulance
182 from the hospital with the shortest pick-up time will be allocated to help the patients and drop them off at
183 the pre-defined hospital. (c) Lane pre-clearing. To ensure the driving speed of the ambulance, the preceding

184 vehicles will switch to another lane to clear one specific lane following the suggestion given by the traffic
185 operator.

186 2.1. Pre-hospital screening

187 After receiving an emergency call, remote screening of the injured helps allocate resources accurately,
188 such as ambulance and hospitals. When there are more than patients, it is necessary to differentiate those
189 with severe injuries acutely requiring specialized care. A minor delay in receiving treatment may cause the
190 difference between lifelong disablement and independent life. Thus, the implementation of pre-hospital
191 screening in EMS becomes popular recently. Persson et al. (2014) tested the accuracy of the brain diagnostic
192 devices based on microwave technology for pre-hospital stroke screening. This equipment comprised
193 triangle patch antennas fitted on the head that transmits signals for measurement and analysis. The signals
194 were processed by a supervised learning algorithm based on training data from patients with the known
195 condition. Two clinical tests were conducted to prove the efficiency of the equipment. Based on this research,
196 Fhager et al. (2018) further summarized the promising microwave-based devices for pre-hospital diagnosis,
197 including the diagnostic ability, methodologies, world-wide progress, and challenges. They claimed that,
198 with the help of microwave devices, the clinical evaluations of trauma and stroke could be performed by
199 research nurses and physicians without the need for technical measurements in the hospital.

200 Fig. 1(a) shows the simplified result of pre-hospital screening, where patients are classified into different
201 injury levels. In practice, patients' severity is diagnosed based on their specific symptoms, such as abdominal
202 pain, allergic reactions, animal bites, violence, burns, cardiac or respiratory arrest. Besides, the figure
203 indicates that the available ambulance fleet is divided into three types:

- 204 (i) Type I, these ambulances are designed for patient transport. The on-board equipment is basic ones for
205 first aid and nursing care.
- 206 (ii) Type II, this type is for basic life support. A certain number of medical equipment should be provided.
207 Patients require medical transportation, and continuous medical supervision will be assigned to it.
- 208 (iii) Type III serves as a mobile Intensive care unit (ICU). The well-trained professionals and stretchers are
209 on-board. The equipment provided is sufficient to stabilize, treat and transport the injured to the target
210 hospital. This ambulance will be allocated to patients who are severely injured and require ongoing
211 care.

212 The ambulance fleet located in a hospital is composed of vehicles of different types. The injury screening
213 would match the patient with a list of compliant vehicles but not the exact one. We assume that patients at
214 each injury level will be treated by an exact hospital according to its expertise to determine the destination
215 for each patient.

216 In this research, we assume that the pre-hospital screening is included in ARP. It helps assign proper
217 ambulance and hospital to the patients following the time limitation and the hospital's expertise. We include
218 the result of screening as one of the inputs. To be specific, a set K_l is defined for the vehicles that satisfied
219 the rescue requirement, and a two-dimension parameter $n_l^{h'}$ shows the compatibility between patients and
220 hospitals in detail. To understand the specific meaning of the input, let set K denote the fleet of ambulances
221 available to provide aid to patients. Each ambulance has its unique ID and can handle different levels of

222 injuries according to the on-board equipment. We denote by $K_l \in K$, a subsite of the whole ambulances set
223 K that can provide appropriate aids for patients at injury level l . Each element in the set K_l may locate
224 differently to cope with random calls and reduce the response time. The set $n_l^{h'}$ contains the result after
225 diagnosing, which illustrates the exact number of patients detected as injury level l and should be taken care
226 of at hospital h' . This setting determines the injury level and the destination (hospital) of each patient.
227 We allow multiple ambulances to visit the same incident scene at the same time to serve a group of
228 patients. But these patients are supposed to be dropped off at the pre-defined hospital without any
229 transfer.

230 2.2. Lane pre-clearing

231 Lane pre-clearing is a strategy based on cooperative control designed for intelligent connected vehicles
232 (CV). It aims to arrange the trajectories for proceeding vehicles to clear one lane for each ambulance, as
233 shown in Fig. 1(c). The lane clearing request will be sent to the CVs within a communication range through
234 vehicle-to-vehicle or vehicle-to-infrastructure communication. The communication range determines when
235 to conduct the sorting trajectories for the proceeding CVs. In this case, ambulances can drive at the pre-
236 desired speed without congestion and avoid impact on the CVs to some extent.

237 An ambulance sorting algorithm, developed by Wu et al. (2020), solved the lane pre-clearing problem on
238 normal road segments ensuring the desired speed of ambulances while reducing the disturbances on CVs.
239 They introduced the ambulance speed and real-time locations as decision variables. Based on the A*
240 algorithm, a customized EV sorting algorithm was proposed to decide the optimal communication range and
241 the merging trajectories for CVs. Besides, a linear relationship between the results and road density was
242 calibrated. It provides possibilities for simplifying travel time uncertainties by converting the stochastic
243 travel time into a deterministic equation, which will be discussed in Section 3.2.

244 3. Emergency vehicle routing problem

245 3.1. Model formulation

246 Based on the two technics mentioned above, we propose a mathematical formulation of ambulance routing.
247 Some assumptions are made as follows:

- 248 (i) The ambulances are initially located at the hospitals to which they belong. The available ambulances
249 are uniformly dispatched by the EMS. After delivering the injured, ambulances will return to the
250 hospitals from which they depart. But this deadhead trip will not be scheduled in this research.
- 251 (ii) The hospital allocation to patients is known after the pre-hospital screening. The nearest hospital that
252 satisfies the treatment requirements will be selected as the patients' destination without any transfer.
253 But the hospital that dispatches ambulance is not pre-determined. The selection of an ambulance will
254 further depend on the pick-up time and distance.
- 255 (iii) There is only one accident at a time, and an accident scene may have several patients. We allow more
256 than one ambulance to visit the scene and pick-up the injured. The patients at the same injury level can
257 be served by the same ambulance when the capacity allows.

258 (iv) We consider three types of ambulances. The capacity of the same ambulance is different when it serves
 259 patients at different injury levels. Type III ambulance can provide treatment for all injury levels and
 260 accommodate more patients compared with Type I and II.

261 The ambulance routing problem is modeled as follows:

$$\min \sum_{k \in K} (\sum_{i \in N} \sum_{j \in N} t_{ij} x_{ij}^k + \sum_{h \in H} \sum_{j \in N} \tau^k x_{hj}^k + f_k) \quad (1)$$

262 subject to:

$$\sum_{j \in N} x_{hj}^k \leq o_h^k \quad \forall h \in H, \forall k \in K \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{j \in N} x_{ij}^k = \sum_{j \in N} x_{ji}^k \quad \forall i \in N \setminus H, \forall k \in K \quad (3)$$

$$\sum_{k \in K_l} \sum_{j \in N} c_l^k x_{jp}^k \geq \sum_{h' \in H} n_l^{h'} \quad \forall l \in L, \forall p \in H \quad (4)$$

$$\sum_{k \in K_l} \sum_{j \in N} c_l^k x_{jh'}^k \geq n_l^{h'} \quad \forall l \in L, \forall h' \in H \quad (5)$$

$$s_i^k + e_i + t_{ij} - M(1 - x_{ij}^k) \leq s_j^k \quad \forall i \in N, \forall j \in N, \forall k \in K \quad (6)$$

$$s_i^k - \varepsilon_i \geq T_i \quad \forall i \in P \cup H, \forall k \in K \quad (7)$$

$$x_{ij}^k \in \{0,1\} \quad \forall i \in N, \forall j \in N, \forall k \in K \quad (8)$$

263 The objective function (1) is to minimize the total cost, including the expenses on traveling, ambulance
 264 allocation, and delay penalty that will be discussed in Section 3.3. Constraints (2) ensures that each selected
 265 ambulance should start from the hospital, where it is initially located. Constraints (3) denotes the flow
 266 balance for intermediate nodes. Constraints (4) ensures that all patients detected as injury level l at node p
 267 must be picked up by the ambulances that can provide aids to this level. Similarly, Constraints (5) limits
 268 that patients at injury level l assigned to hospital h' should be dropped off at the same hospital. Constraint
 269 (6) describes the visit time at each node along the route of ambulance k . Constraint (7) describes the delay
 270 when arriving at the patient's node or the hospital based on a semi-soft time window. Constraint (8) defines
 271 the binary decision variable.

272 3.2. Travel time calculation

273 To integrate traditional traffic planning and emergency response methods, innovative technologies such
 274 as CVs have enabled new solutions. Transport operators can take actions to prioritize the ambulances, and
 275 drivers of other CVs will correspond to give way to ambulances through clear interaction. Thus, ambulances
 276 take advantage of real-time traffic information in routing to minimize the delivery time.

277 In this section, the travel time based on connectivity is generated in Constraint (9) using the method
 278 proposed by Wu et al. (2020), which provides a linear relationship between communication range and
 279 designed speed.

$$r = (a\sigma + b) \frac{v - m\sigma - n}{v_0 - m\sigma - n} \quad (9)$$

280 where r is the communication range between the ambulance and the proceeding CVs; a and b are the linear
 281 regression coefficients, $ak + b$ denotes the simulated communication range. m and n are the coefficients in
 282 the fundamental diagram, $mk + n$ represents the average speed of the proceeding CVs. v_0 is the speed of
 283 ambulance used in the simulation, and v is the real-time designed speed. We assume the communication
 284 range l is pre-assigned, the travel time of the emergency vehicle in the proceeding node can be calculated in
 285 Constraint (10) with only traffic density σ_{ij} which denote the density between nodes i and j :

$$t_{ij} = \frac{D_{ij}(a\sigma_{ij} + b)}{v_0 r + (a\sigma_{ij} + b - r)(m\sigma_{ij} + n)} \quad (10)$$

286 where D_{ij} represents the distance between two nodes.

287 3.3. Late arrival penalty

288 We consider the late arrival at the accident scene and the hospital. The on-site delay affects the efficacy
 289 of the first aid while the arrival delay at the hospital might be more fatal for the injured. Based on the semi-
 290 soft time window introduced in Constraint (7), the delay calculation can be presented as follow:

- 291 (i) To describe the on-site delay when ambulance k picks up the patient(s) at the accident scene $p \in P$, we
 292 set the penalty coefficient as ψ_1 to depict the degree of impact. The detailed delay can be calculated as
 293 $\sigma_k = \max(s_p^k - T_p, 0)$. When the arrival time s_p^k is earlier or equals the preferred arrival time T_p , the
 294 penalty is 0. Otherwise, the time equals $s_p^k - T_p$.
- 295 (ii) Similarly, when the ambulance drop off the patient(s) at injury level l at hospital node $h' \in H$, the
 296 penalty coefficient is set as ψ_2 , the delay at the hospital is denoted by $\theta_k = \max(s_{h'}^k - T_{h'}, 0)$.

297 The late arrival penalty for each ambulance k at two import places can be formulated as:

$$f_k = \psi_1 \sigma_k + \psi_2 \theta_k \quad (11)$$

298 The objective function can be rewritten as:

$$\min \sum_{k \in K} (\sum_{i \in N} \sum_{j \in N} t_{ij} x_{ij}^k + \sum_{a \in H} \sum_{j \in N} \tau_a^k x_{aj}^k + \psi_1 \sigma_k + \psi_2 \theta_k) \quad (12)$$

299 3.4. Applications for disaster response

300 In addition to serving a single accident point, the proposed model can also be used in large-scale multi-
 301 accident scenarios to support disaster response. In consideration of this, we extend the pre-hospital screening
 302 parameter $n_l^{h'}$ to $n_{l,p}^{h'}$ which indicates the number of patients who are diagnosed as injury level l and assigned
 303 to hospital h' calling from accident scene p . We modified the patient pick-up and delivery constraints (4-5)
 304 as follows:

$$\sum_{k \in K_l} \sum_{j \in N} c_l^k x_{jp}^k \geq \sum_{h' \in H} n_{l,p}^{h'} \quad \forall l \in L, \forall p \in H \quad (13)$$

$$\sum_{k \in K_l} \sum_{j \in N} c_l^k x_{jh'}^k \geq \sum_{p \in P} n_{l,p}^{h'} \quad \forall l \in L, \forall h' \in H \quad (14)$$

305 Constraint (13) ensures that the level l patients at scene p will be picked up by the ambulances that can
306 serve patients at level l . Similarly, Constraint (14) indicates that all level l patients that are assigned to
307 hospital h' will be delivered to the hospital without transfer.

308 After substituting constraints (4-5) with constraints (13-14), the proposed model makes it possible to
309 solve the ambulance routing problem for disaster response.

310 4. Real-world case study

311 4.1. Description

312 This section focuses on a central part of Shenzhen in southern China, as shown in Fig. 2, where 6
313 hospitals are surrounded, including one emergency medical center with the largest ambulance fleet. The
314 point of interest (POI) is marked in dark grays such as commercials, residential, hospitals, schools, and
315 parking. We further sketch the road network in Fig. 3 to simplify overpasses, small intersections, and
316 roads within residential areas. The travel time after lane pre-cleaning is calculated based on Constraint
317 (10) in minutes and is shown above each link in Fig. 3. In this case study, we made two assumptions:

- 318 (i) Patients will be diagnosed and divided into four levels: 1, 2, 3 and 4. Ambulances can serve patients
319 at different levels. For example, a type III ambulance can pick up the wounded at all injury levels;
320 a Type II ambulance is capable for patients at level 1,2 and 3, and a Type I ambulance can only
321 serve patients at injury level 1 and 2.
- 322 (ii) The on-site service time for patient picking up is around 1 minute, and is 0 at the intersection nodes
323 where patients remain on-board.

324 Fig. 2 Physical road network. The red cross represents the hospitals' location, and the dark gray shows
325 the points of interest in this area.

326 Fig. 3. A sketch network. This sketch abstracts the physical network and ignores internal roads and
327 small intersections within residential areas. The red dot shows the hospitals' location, and the dark
328 orange one represents the emergency medical center where locates the largest number of ambulances.
329 The hollow dot shows the simplified intersection, and the blue one is where the accident happened.

330 Like other worldwide cities, in Shenzhen, the ambulance fleet located differently belongs to the
331 EMSP and is uniformly dispatched after receiving the request. As mentioned before, the ambulances
332 are classified into three types according to their on-board equipment. The detailed inventory is
333 summarized in Table 2 according to the statistical data provided by Shenzhen EMSP.

334 One real-world incident is introduced as an example. In a residential area, node 11, a medium-sized
335 traffic accident, sent a request to EMS at 9:00 am. Two drivers were seriously injured when cars collided,
336 and two passengers and two pedestrians were wounded to varying degrees. After the pre-hospital

337 screening, the wounded are classified into different levels and assigned to the hospitals with the proper
338 expertise. The screening results are shown in Table 3.

339 To balance the weights of the three components of the objective function (1), we convert both the
340 dispatch cost and the delay penalty into time units. We set the ambulance allocation price τ^k as 10,20,
341 and 30 for type I, II, and III, respectively. Besides, the set the coefficient of late arrival as 10 for both
342 on-site ψ_1 and at hospitals ψ_2 . To ensure the service level, the preferred on-site pick-up time is 10 mins
343 after the call, and the preferred delivery time is 20 mins after the request.

344 4.2. Computational result

345 The incident is implemented in the General Algebraic Modeling System (GAMS) 33.1.0, called by
346 Python 3 installed on a Dell laptop with a 1.9-GHz Intel Core i7 CPU and 8-GB, running on Windows
347 10. The calculation time for this case is 6.909s.

348 The ambulance allocation and route plan are generated with detailed departing and arriving time
349 shown in Fig. 4. Hospital 27 dispatches all available ambulances to serve patients at injury levels 2, 3,
350 and 4, respectively. Hospital 3 allocates the type I ambulance to pick-up the patient at injury level 1. It
351 is clear to conclude that the hospital with the shortest travel time are selected to dispatch ambulances.
352 When the ambulance fleet is fully assigned, or the ambulance type is inappropriate, the second nearest
353 hospital will be responsible for serving the patients left that are of relatively low severity and priority.

354 Fig.4. Ambulance allocation and route plan. (a) Type I ambulance initially located at hospital 3 serves
355 patients at injury level 1 at 9:11 and delivers them to hospital 3 at 9:20. (b) Type I ambulance located
356 at hospital 27 helps patients at injury level 2 at 9:08 and back to hospital 27 at 9:16. (c) Type II
357 ambulance departs from hospital 27 to pick-up the injured at level 3 at 9:08 and delivers them to hospital
358 7 at 9:24. (d) Type III ambulance from hospital 27 serves one patient at injury level 4 at 9:08 and drop
359 off at hospital 29 after 16 minutes.

360 Fig. 5 describes the total cost and the detailed cost of each component. The travel time, dispatch price,
361 and delay penalty are shown in blue. The expenses on each passenger list are described in red. It can be
362 observed that the higher injury level leads to a higher rescue cost. This is mainly because the severe
363 casualty requires a better-equipped ambulance, which is more expensive to dispatch. Besides, some
364 patients with fatal injuries or uncommon illnesses are difficult to be treated in the nearest hospital, so a
365 long transport distance will also cause relatively high rescue costs. Conversely, patients at lower injury
366 levels can be treated nearby.

367 Fig. 5 Rescue cost breakdown

368 4.3. Method comparison

369 To validate the efficiency of multi-stakeholder consideration, we take patient list 3 as an example of
370 2 patients waiting to be treated. We compare the generated result with cases that have inactive hospitals
371 and traffic operators, respectively. In the first case, traffic operators are involved in decision making.
372 Thus, the real-time traffic condition could be included in route choice. For the hospital involvement,
373 each patient's destination is precisely determined by pre-hospital screening equipment, and the nearest
374 qualified hospital will be assigned to the patient. In two cases, we assume that the proper type of
375 ambulance will be assigned to serve the patients. The route plans are illustrated in Fig. 6.

376 Fig.6. Ambulance routing under different strategies. (a) Route generation with inactive hospitals. (b)
377 Route generation without traffic operators.

378 When the hospitals are excluded in route planning, EMS will assign patients to the nearest hospital
379 regardless of its expertise, as shown in Fig. 5(a). If the assigned hospital is a comprehensive one with
380 diverse expertise, there will be little difference between active and inactive hospital involvement. But
381 suppose this hospital is not qualified for providing a specific treatment. In that case, it takes several
382 minutes (e.g., 5 mins in this case) to figure out that the patient should be transferred and costs more
383 than 25 minutes for the additional transport.

384 Fig. 7 compares the breakdown cost in each case. The scenario where hospitals are excluded expenses
385 the most. Followed by the cases with inactive traffic operators, which is three times the baseline cost.
386 Since we assume the proper ambulance allocation, the dispatch fee remains the same for three cases.
387 The largest difference drive from the arrival delay due to the high penalty cost. The on-site delay under
388 the three strategies are 0, 0, and 1 minute respectively, and the hospital arrival delay is 4, 21, and 17
389 minutes respectively. A few minutes of arrival delay has a tremendous difference in the treatment effect
390 that determines life or death for the wounded. Therefore, the comparative analysis of the three cases
391 fully illustrates the huge advantages of collaboration among EMSP, the hospital, and the traffic operator
392 in planning and dispatching.

393 Fig. 7 breakdown cost under different strategies

394 If the traffic operators are excluded in route planning, empirical-based travel time will be adapted for
395 route choice. As pre-hospital screening is considered, the destination for the ambulance is determined.
396 Intuitively, there are two differences from the baseline. First, the ambulance cannot travel at the pre-
397 defined speed for the entire journey because the operators do not coordinate the lane pre-clearing. If
398 some road sections are congested, the travel time will accordingly increase. Second, the exact shortest
399 path may not be assigned to the ambulance based on empirical data, as shown in Fig.5(b). The dynamic
400 traffic conditions will largely influence the travel time.

401 **5. Conclusion**

402 In this paper, the ambulance routing problem with multi-stakeholder cooperation is investigated.
403 Traffic operators respond to provide traffic management strategies to pre-clear the lane and prioritize
404 the incoming ambulance. Hospitals play roles in remote screening to ensure the hospital assigned to the
405 specific patient has sufficient expertise. We have proposed an MIP model to minimize the cost of
406 traveling, ambulance allocation, and delay penalty. The proposed planning method can be used to
407 support EMS decisions regarding the professions of hospitals and ambulance types, and fleet size. The
408 exact solution of the optimization model takes only seconds that enables coordination among
409 stakeholders within a short response time. Despite daily EMS, the scenarios of multiple accidents
410 occurring at the same time can be solved based on the customized model by extending the dimension
411 of the pre-hospital screening parameter. Therefore, the proposed model is sufficient to deal with
412 different emergencies and provide practical rescue plans. Moreover, this method provides possibilities
413 to dispatches the heterogeneous ambulance fleet and matches the passengers with the most appropriate
414 one to avoid scarce resource waste.

415 Future research may aim to incorporate further aspects such as stochastic service time and demand
416 uncertainty (Legato and Mazza, 2020). This model could be further extended for large scale disaster
417 response with considerations of patient priority and ambulance rerouting for picking up the injured with
418 higher severity.

419 **Acknowledgement**

420 This study is supported by the Sino-Sweden bi-lateral project via National Key R&D Program of
421 China (Project No. 2018YFE0102700) and Vinnova/FFI.

422 **Data Availability Statement**

423 The datasets analysed during the current study are available in the Github repository,
424 [https://github.com/ZengZiling/Emergency-vehicle-routing-in-urban-road-networks-with-multi-](https://github.com/ZengZiling/Emergency-vehicle-routing-in-urban-road-networks-with-multi-stakeholder-cooperation)
425 [stakeholder-cooperation.](https://github.com/ZengZiling/Emergency-vehicle-routing-in-urban-road-networks-with-multi-stakeholder-cooperation)

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521

523 Table 1. Notations used for the ambulance routing representations

Symbol	Notation
Set	
N	Set of all nodes
H	Set of hospital nodes $H \subseteq N$
P	Set of patient nodes $P \subseteq N$
K	Set of the ambulances
L	Set of injury levels
Index	
h, h'	Indices of the hospitals that dispatch ambulances or give treatment
i, j	Indices of nodes
p	Index of patient nodes
k	Index of ambulances
l	Index of injury level
Parameter	
τ^k	Ambulance allocation cost
o_h^k	Binary parameter indicates whether vehicle k is located at hospital h
$n_l^{h'}$	The number of patients at injury level l should be treated by hospital h'
c_l^k	The capacity of ambulance k when serving patients at injury level l
e_i	Service time at node i
t_{ij}	The simulated travel time between nodes i and j
T_i	The preferred arrival time at node i
r	Communication range between ambulance and the proceeding CVs
D_{ij}	Distance between nodes i and j
σ, σ_{ij}	Traffic density on a road segment, or between two nodes i and j
v_0	Ambulance velocity used in simulation planned for real-time cases
v	Real-time ambulance velocity
a, b, m, n	Linear regression parameters for communication range or traffic density
ψ_1, ψ_2	Weights of late arrival penalty on-site or at hospitals.
Variable	
f_k	The penalty cost of late arrival
ϵ_i	The buffer time at node i , its value can be negative or positive
s_i^k	Arrival time at node i of emergency vehicle k
σ_k, θ_k	Delay of vehicle k on-site or at hospital
Decision Variable	
x_{ij}^k	= 1, if ambulance k traveling from node i to j ; = 0, otherwise

524

525 Table 2. Available ambulance inventory

Node ID	Ambulance fleet		
	Type I	Type II	Type III
2	0	0	1
3	1	1	1
7	0	1	1
27	1	1	1
28	0	1	1
29	3	4	3

526

527

528

Table 3. Pre-hospital screening

Patient list	Patient number	Accident scene	Level	Hospital
1	2	11	1	3
2	1	11	2	27
3	2	11	3	7
4	1	11	4	29

529