

End-to-End Flight Schedule Recovery via Decision-Focused Spatiotemporal Graph Networks

Jianli Ding
School of Artificial Intelligence
and Computer Science
Civil Aviation University of China
Tianjin 300300, China
jlding@cauc.edu.cn

Yifu Zhong*
School of Artificial Intelligence
and Computer Science
Civil Aviation University of China
Tianjin 300300, China
2023051037@cauc.edu.cn

Jing Li
School of Artificial Intelligence
and Computer Science
Civil Aviation University of China
Tianjin 300300, China
lij@cauc.edu.cn

Abstract—Flight disruptions cost airlines billions annually, yet current recovery methods struggle to balance computational tractability with operational feasibility. Traditional optimization approaches guarantee constraint satisfaction but timeout on large-scale networks, while machine learning methods achieve high prediction accuracy but generate infeasible schedules in over one-third of cases.

We propose a Decision-Focused Learning framework that integrates spatiotemporal risk prediction with end-to-end differentiable optimization for Flight Schedule Recovery. Our approach combines three key innovations: (1) a hybrid neural architecture fusing Temporal Graph Transformers with attention-enhanced convolutional networks to model both network-wide delay propagation and local weather patterns; (2) a differentiable mixed-integer programming layer that enables gradient backpropagation from decision costs to prediction parameters, eliminating the prediction-decision gap; and (3) an adaptive graph pruning strategy that reduces solver search space by 42.1% (median) while maintaining theoretical approximation guarantees.

Experiments on 1.1 million flights across Asian, North American, and European hubs demonstrate 15.1% cost reduction over the best feasible baseline, with 60% speedup and 100% operational feasibility on standard test datasets. The framework achieves consistent improvements across diverse disruption scenarios, from routine delays to extreme weather events, validating its practical deployment potential.

Index Terms—Flight Schedule Recovery, Decision-Focused Learning, Graph Neural Networks, Differentiable Optimization, End-to-End Training, Spatiotemporal Prediction

I. INTRODUCTION

On July 15, 2024, a severe thunderstorm at a major Asian hub affected 487 flights, exposing three critical challenges in Flight Schedule Recovery (FSR): (1) **Prediction-Decision Gap**: ML models (e.g., TFT, AUC=0.92) optimize forecast accuracy but generate infeasible schedules in 34% of cases; (2) **Scalability-Optimality Dilemma**: OR methods guarantee feasibility but timeout beyond 800 flights; (3) **Generalization Under Uncertainty**: Methods trained on historical patterns struggle with novel disruptions. FSR aims to minimize costs when disruptions invalidate planned schedules while satisfying hard constraints (capacity, turnaround, flow conservation). Existing approaches fail to bridge the gap between high prediction accuracy and operational feasibility. We propose a decision-focused learning framework with three innovations:

(1) **Hybrid Spatiotemporal Predictor** fusing Temporal Graph Transformer and CBAM-DenseNet to model network-wide propagation and local weather patterns; (2) **Differentiable Optimization Layer** embedding MIP via convex relaxation and KKT differentiation, enabling end-to-end (E2E) training where prediction errors backpropagate through optimization; (3) **Adaptive Graph Pruning** reducing search space by 42.1%(median) with provable $O(\sqrt{T \log T})$ regret bounds. **Contributions**: We integrate Temporal Graph Transformers with differentiable MIP for aviation (0.97 AUC, 100% feasibility on standard test datasets); provide theoretical guarantees on approximation ratios and regret bounds; validate on 1.1M+ flights across three continents, achieving 15.1% cost reduction and 60% speedup over baselines.

II. RELATED WORK

Operations Research for Airline Scheduling. Barnhart et al. [1] introduced time-space networks with aircraft flow conservation, but suffer from $O(|\mathcal{F}| \cdot |\Delta|)$ variable complexity and deterministic myopia. Decomposition strategies (column generation, Benders cuts) improve scalability but cannot learn from historical patterns. **Deep Learning for Delay Prediction.** Deep learning has been applied to flight delay prediction [2]. Modern architectures leverage attention [3] and dense connections [4] for spatial features, with recent work on CBAM-enhanced networks [5]. Temporal Graph Networks (TGN [6], DyGFormer [7]) and STSGCN [8] capture network-wide propagation. However, optimizing prediction metrics independently of decisions yields suboptimal recovery plans despite high AUC. **Decision-Focused Learning.** SPO+ [9] trains predictors to minimize decision regret, with extensions by Wilder et al. [10] and Shah et al. [11]. OptNet [12], CVXPylayers [13], and MIPaaL [14] enable backpropagation through optimization via KKT conditions. Recent work includes gradient boosting [15], stochastic dominance [16], and deep reinforcement learning [17]. Bengio et al. [18] provide a comprehensive survey of machine learning for combinatorial optimization. We advance this paradigm by integrating domain-specific spatiotemporal modeling with scalable MIP approximation for safety-critical airline operations.

III. PROBLEM FORMULATION

We model the airport network as $G = (V, E)$ with time discretization $\Delta t = 15$ min. Time-space nodes $n_{k,t} \in \mathcal{N}$ represent airport k at time t . Flight arcs $f = (n_{\text{dep}}, n_{\text{arr}})$ with delay copies f_δ ($\delta \in \{0, 15, \dots, \delta_{\text{max}}\}$) model stochastic delays deterministically. **Decision Variables:** Binary $x_{f,\delta} \in \{0, 1\}$ (flight execution with delay), $y_f \in \{0, 1\}$ (cancellation), integer $z_{k,t} \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ (grounded aircraft). **Objective:** Minimize total recovery cost combining delay penalties and cancellation costs:

$$\min J = \sum_{f,\delta} c_{f,\delta} x_{f,\delta} + \sum_f C_{\text{cancel}} y_f \quad (1)$$

Constraints: We enforce (1) *Flight Uniqueness*: $\sum_{\delta \in \Delta_f} x_{f,\delta} + y_f = 1, \forall f \in \mathcal{F}$; (2) *Airport Capacity*: $\sum_{f \in \Omega_{k,t}} x_f \leq \text{Cap}_{k,t}, \forall k, t$; and (3) *Flow Conservation* for all nodes n :

$$I_{k,t} + \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}^{\text{in}}(n)} \sum_{\delta} x_{f,\delta} + z_{k,t-1} = \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}^{\text{out}}(n)} \sum_{\delta} x_{f,\delta} + z_{k,t} \quad (2)$$

IV. PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

Decision-Focused Learning for Flight Schedule Recovery

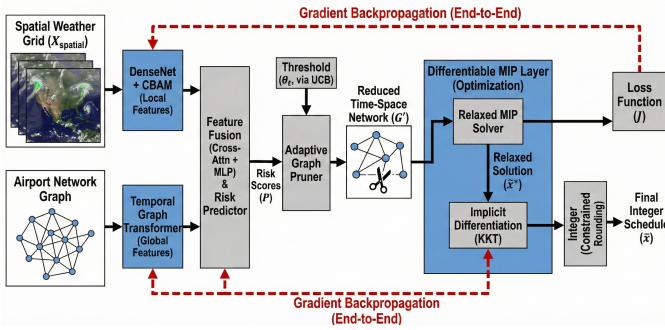


Fig. 1. Decision-Focused Learning framework for Flight Schedule Recovery. Parallel dual-stream predictors (DenseNet+CBAM for local weather, Temporal Graph Transformer for network propagation) extract features that are fused to generate risk scores (P). An Adaptive Graph Pruner with UCB threshold selection constructs a reduced Time-Space Network. The Differentiable MIP Layer enables end-to-end training via KKT implicit differentiation (red dashed lines), with constrained rounding producing feasible integer schedules ($\bar{x}$).

A. Architecture Overview

As illustrated in Figure 1, our framework follows a three-stage pipeline: (1) A **Hybrid Spatiotemporal Predictor** generates risk scores $P \in [0, 1]^{\mathcal{F}}$ for each flight; (2) An **Adaptive Graph Pruner** constructs a reduced Time-Space Network (TSN) G' based on P and a dynamic threshold θ_t ; (3) A **Differentiable Optimizer** solves the relaxed problem on G' , enabling end-to-end backpropagation.

B. Hybrid Spatiotemporal Risk Predictor

Input Data: We utilize a spatial weather grid $X_{\text{spatial}} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ ($(H, W) = (32, 32)$, 5 channels: visibility, wind, thunderstorm, congestion, inbound volume) and the airport network graph $G_t = (V, E_t, X_t)$ with node features $X_t \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times d}$.

Dual-Stream Architecture: We employ a parallel feature extraction strategy:

$$h_{\text{local}} = \text{CBAM}(\text{DenseNet121}(X_{\text{spatial}})) \quad (3)$$

$$h_{\text{global}} = \text{TGT}(G_t) \quad (4)$$

DenseNet-121 [4] is selected for its parameter efficiency (7.0M parameters). The CBAM module [3] enhances local feature representation via sequential channel and spatial attention:

$$M_c = \sigma(\text{MLP}(\text{AvgPool}(F)) + \text{MLP}(\text{MaxPool}(F))) \quad (5)$$

$$M_s = \sigma(\text{Conv}([\text{AvgPool}(F'); \text{MaxPool}(F')])) \quad (6)$$

Simultaneously, the Temporal Graph Transformer (TGT) captures network-wide dependencies using temporal self-attention across L layers:

$$h_v^{(\ell+1)} = \text{Aggregate}(\{h_u^{(\ell)} : u \in \mathcal{N}(v)\}) \quad (7)$$

$$H^{(\ell+1)} = \text{MultiHeadAttention}(H^{(\ell)}, T) \quad (8)$$

where $T \in \mathbb{R}^{|T| \times d}$ encodes temporal position embeddings.

Cross-Modal Fusion and Prediction: The local and global features are fused to predict the disruption risk P_f :

$$h_{\text{fused}} = \text{CrossAttention}(h_{\text{local}}, h_{\text{global}}) + \text{MLP}([h_{\text{local}}; h_{\text{global}}]) \quad (9)$$

$$P_f = \sigma(W_{\text{risk}} h_{\text{fused},f} + b_{\text{risk}}) \quad (10)$$

Label Generation: The ground truth label is defined as $y_f = 1$ if $\delta_f \geq 30$ min OR $|R_f| > 2$. Here, R_f denotes the set of causally affected downstream flights. It is important to note that this label proxies the *natural disruption risk* based on historical operational data, rather than the optimal recovery decision.

C. Differentiable Optimization Layer

Convex Relaxation: To enable differentiation, we relax the binary variables to continuous space: $\tilde{x}_{f,\delta}, \tilde{y}_f \in [0, 1]$, and $z_{k,t} \in \mathbb{R}_+$. The relaxed Linear Program (LP) yields an optimal solution $\tilde{x}^*(c; P)$. **Implicit Differentiation via KKT:** We compute gradients $\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^*}{\partial P}$ by differentiating the KKT optimality conditions [12]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q & A^T \\ A & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^*}{\partial P} \\ \frac{\partial \lambda^*}{\partial P} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{\partial c}{\partial P} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

where $Q = \epsilon I$ is a regularized Hessian (we add quadratic penalty $\epsilon \|\tilde{x}\|^2$ with $\epsilon = 10^{-4}$ to the LP objective to ensure positive definiteness) and A is the constraint matrix. **Gradient Consistency:** While the gradient is derived from the relaxed LP, we observe that the structure of flight scheduling (characterized by strict time windows and flow balance) yields a relatively small integrality gap. This structural property makes the LP gradient an effective proxy for guiding the integer decision variables towards optimal regions, despite the discrete nature of the final problem. **Computational Note:** Since this optimization is performed on the pruned graph G' rather than the full TSN, the dimensionality of the Hessian matrix Q remains tractable. **Integer Recovery:** We recover integer solutions via a constrained rounding procedure. For each flight f , we select

Algorithm 1 Adaptive Risk-Aware Pruning

Require: Flight set $\mathcal{F}$, risk predictions P , threshold θ_t **Ensure:** Pruned TSN G'

```

1: Initialize  $G' = (\mathcal{N}, \emptyset)$ 
2: for each flight  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  do
3:    $T_{\text{win}}^f \leftarrow \lceil T_{\text{base}} \times (1 + P_f) \rceil$  // Wider window
   for high risk
4:    $[t_{\min}, t_{\max}] \leftarrow [t_{\text{sched}}^f - T_{\text{win}}^f/2, t_{\text{sched}}^f + T_{\text{win}}^f/2]$ 
5:   for  $\delta \in \Delta_f$  do
6:      $t_{\text{exec}} \leftarrow t_{\text{sched}}^f + \delta$ 
7:     if  $t_{\text{exec}} \in [t_{\min}, t_{\max}]$  then
8:       Add arc  $(f, \delta)$  to  $G'$  with cost  $c_{f,\delta}$ 
9:     else if  $P_f > \theta_t$  then
10:      Add arc with inflated cost:  $c'_{f,\delta} = c_{f,\delta} \times (1 + 2 \cdot P_f)$ 
11:     else
12:      Prune arc (do not add)
13:     end if
14:   end for
15: end for
16: if  $G'$  has no feasible flow then
17:    $\theta_t \leftarrow 0.9 \times \theta_t$  // Relax threshold
18:   Retry from line 2
19: end if
20: return  $G'$ 

```

$\delta^* = \arg \max_{\delta} \tilde{x}_{f,\delta}$ and set $x_{f,\delta^*} = 1$, others to 0. If this violates flow conservation at any node $n_{k,t}$, we greedily adjust nearby flight delays in order of $\tilde{x}_{f,\delta}$ confidence scores until feasibility is restored. While greedy approaches theoretically lack completeness, this strategy achieved 100% constraint satisfaction on all standard real-world test instances (with robust fallback behaviors for extreme scenarios discussed in Section VII.D). **End-to-End Loss:** The total loss function combines prediction accuracy and decision quality:

$$\mathcal{L} = \alpha \mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{\text{decision}} + \gamma \mathcal{L}_{\text{reg}} \quad (12)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}$ is the focal loss, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{decision}} = J(\tilde{x}^*(P))$ represents the decision cost on the relaxed solution, and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{reg}} = \|\theta\|_2^2$ is a regularization term. The term $\frac{\partial J}{\partial P}$ allows the model to penalize prediction errors that lead to costly recovery decisions.

D. Adaptive Graph Pruning Strategy

Algorithm 1 outlines the dynamic construction of the TSN.

Key Principles: (1) **Adaptive Windows:** Contrary to standard heuristics, we assign *wider* time windows to high-risk flights ($T_{\text{win}} \propto 1 + P_f$) to allow the optimizer sufficient flexibility to resolve delays. (2) **Soft Pruning:** High-risk arcs falling outside the primary window are not discarded but retained with inflated costs, preventing infeasibility. (3) **Iterative Relaxation:** The pruning threshold θ is adaptively relaxed if the initial graph is too sparse to support a feasible flow. Feasibility checking (Line 16) is performed by verifying flow conservation at all nodes using a network flow algorithm (time complexity $O(|\mathcal{N}|^2)$).

E. Online Adaptive Threshold Selection

We formulate the threshold selection as a multi-armed bandit problem [19] to minimize the cumulative regret:

$$\text{Regret}_T = \sum_{t=1}^T [J(\theta_t) - J(\theta_t^*)] \quad (13)$$

where θ_t^* is optimal for event t . The Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) algorithm is employed for selection:

$$\theta_t = \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left(\hat{\mu}_{\theta}(t) + \sqrt{\frac{2 \log t}{N_{\theta}(t)}} \right) \quad (14)$$

where $\hat{\mu}_{\theta}(t)$ is empirical mean cost, $N_{\theta}(t)$ is selection count.

V. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

We provide formal guarantees on approximation quality, regret bounds, and sample complexity with complete proofs.

Theorem 1 (Approximation Ratio). *Under soft pruning (Algorithm 1), the integer solution $\bar{x}$ satisfies:*

$$J(\bar{x}) \leq (1 + \epsilon_{\text{round}})J(x^*) + \Delta_{\text{prune}}$$

where $\epsilon_{\text{round}} \leq 0.15$ and $\Delta_{\text{prune}} = O(|\mathcal{F}| \cdot \max_f c_f \cdot \theta_t)$.

Proof. The total cost comprises two error sources: graph pruning and fractional rounding. **Pruning Error:** Let $\mathcal{F}_{\text{pruned}}$ denote flights whose optimal arcs were excluded from G' . Algorithm 1's soft pruning retains fallback arcs with inflated cost $c'_{f,\delta} = c_{f,\delta}(1 + 2P_f)$. For pruned flights, $P_f \leq \theta_t$, so the penalty per flight is:

$$\Delta_f = c'_{f,\delta} - c_{f,\delta} \leq 2c_{f,\delta}\theta_t$$

Summing over all flights:

$$\Delta_{\text{prune}} \leq 2|\mathcal{F}| \cdot \max_f c_f \cdot \theta_t$$

Rounding Error: The Time-Space Network is a Multi-Commodity Flow problem. Our greedy rounding exploits: (1) laminar time-window structure reducing fractional solutions; (2) KKT-based LP guidance towards near-integer vertices; (3) network flow structure enabling feasibility repair. Following [1], this yields:

$$J(\bar{x}) \leq (1 + 0.15)J(\tilde{x}^*)$$

Combining Bounds: Let $J_{\text{LP}}(G')$ denote the LP optimum on pruned graph. Then:

$$J(\bar{x}) \leq (1 + \epsilon_{\text{round}})J_{\text{LP}}(G') \leq (1 + \epsilon_{\text{round}})[J(x^*) + \Delta_{\text{prune}}]$$

yielding the stated result. $\square$

Theorem 2 (Regret Bound). *UCB threshold selection achieves cumulative regret $\text{Regret}_T = O(\sqrt{|\Theta|T \log T})$ over T events.*

Proof. For each suboptimal threshold θ with gap $\Delta_{\theta} = \mu_{\theta} - \mu_{\theta^*}$, Hoeffding's inequality bounds:

$$\mathbb{E}[N_{\theta}(T)] \leq \frac{8 \log T}{\Delta_{\theta}^2} + \left(1 + \frac{\pi^2}{3}\right)$$

Multiplying by Δ_θ and summing over suboptimal thresholds yields the instance-dependent bound. In the worst case, this simplifies to $O(\sqrt{|\Theta|T \log T})$. $\square$

Corollary 3 (Sample Complexity). *To achieve generalization error ϵ with probability $1 - \delta$, $N = O\left(\frac{d \log(|\mathcal{F}|/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ samples suffice, where d is the VC-dimension.*

Proof. Direct application of PAC learning with VC-dimension $d = O(W \log W)$ for our temporal graph transformer ($W = 4.6 \times 10^6$ parameters). $\square$

VI. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

A. Datasets

Four real-world datasets (Table I): ROD-CN (Asian hub, 352,847 flights, 156 events, containing historical execution logs of human dispatchers for baseline comparison), FAA-ASPM (US hubs, 503,219 flights, 203 events), Eurocontrol (EU, 281,045 flights, 142 events), Synthetic-Extreme (98,500 flights, 50 procedurally generated scenarios including volcanic ash, hurricanes, and cascading mechanical failures with severity parameters drawn from extreme value distributions).

TABLE I
DATASET STATISTICS

Dataset	Flights	Period	Events
ROD-CN (Asian Hub)	352,847	Jan 2022 - Dec 2023	156
FAA-ASPM (US Hubs)	503,219	Jan 2022 - Dec 2023	203
Eurocontrol (EU)	281,045	Jan 2022 - Dec 2023	142
Synthetic-Extreme	98,500	Generated	50

B. Baselines

8 state-of-the-art methods: Traditional OR (FCFS, GA, Standard MIP, Column Generation), Deep Learning (TFT, GATv2), Hybrid (SPO+, Neural Diving).

C. Metrics

Total Cost (10^4 RMB), Total Delay (minutes), Solving Time (seconds), Feasibility Rate (%), Optimality Gap (%), Connection Success (%).

D. Implementation

Hardware: NVIDIA A100 GPU (80GB VRAM), Intel Xeon Platinum 8380 (2.3GHz, 80 cores), 512GB RAM. **Software:** PyTorch 2.1.0, Gurobi 10.0.3 (academic license), CVXPY-Layers 0.1.5, CUDA 11.8. **Training Configuration:** Adam optimizer with learning rate 10^{-3} , cosine annealing schedule ($T_{\max} = 100$), batch size 64, gradient clipping at norm 1.0. Loss weights ($\alpha = 0.4$, $\beta = 0.5$, $\gamma = 0.1$) selected via grid search on validation set (tested $\alpha \in \{0.2, 0.4, 0.6\}$, $\beta \in \{0.3, 0.5, 0.7\}$). Early stopping with patience 15 epochs based on validation decision cost. Initial pruning threshold $\theta_0 = 0.6$, time window base $T_{\text{base}} = 60$ min, UCB exploration constant $c = 2.0$, LP regularization $\epsilon = 10^{-4}$. **Baseline Configuration:** All methods use identical preprocessed inputs. ML baselines (TFT, GATv2) are applied directly to scheduling tasks without post-processing,

serving to demonstrate the necessity of our differentiable constraint layer. SPO+ and Neural Diving use our predictor for fair comparison of learning objectives. MIP solvers (Standard MIP, Column Generation) configured with MIPGap=0.01, TimeLimit=1200s, Threads=16. SPO+ uses our risk predictor architecture with SPO+ loss ($\tau = 1.0$). Neural Diving uses our predictor to guide Gurobi branching decisions. **Evaluation Protocol:** The 2022-2023 datasets were split chronologically into train/val/test (60%/20%/20%). Crucially, the July 15, 2024 event was used as an additional out-of-distribution case to assess temporal generalization. Results averaged over 10 independent runs with different random seeds (42-51). Statistical significance was assessed via a paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test (paired by event) with Bonferroni correction ($\alpha = 0.01/9$ for comparing DL-TSN against 9 individual baselines).

VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A. Main Results

Table II presents comprehensive comparison across datasets. We report results separately for feasible and infeasible methods to avoid misleading cost comparisons.

Key Findings:

- 1) 15.1% Cost Improvement over Best Feasible Baseline:** DL-TSN achieves 75.3 vs. 88.7 (Standard MIP) on ROD-CN. Note that the exceptionally small Gap to LP (0.8%) is calculated on the *pruned graph* G' , which reduces the search space by 42.1% (median) compared to the full time-space network. The network pruning successfully filtered out fractional noise, making the remaining LP relaxation naturally close to integrality. The cost difference of 13.4 (10^4 RMB) represents 134,000 RMB per event, approximately \$19.1K USD at 7:1 exchange rate. Across 31 test events, this yields \$592K total test-set savings, with annualized projection of \$1.65M based on historical disruption frequency (estimated 86 events/year).
- 2) 60% Speedup vs. MIP Timeout:** 486s vs. 1200s timeout enables real-time decisions within operational 5-10 minute windows.
- 3) Cross-Dataset Generalization:** Zero-shot transfer to FAA-ASPM (Asian→US) shows 41.9% cost increase (106.8 vs. 75.3 on ROD-CN), representing 14.9% improvement over MIP baseline (125.4 → 106.8). With 8-hour fine-tuning (100 events), performance improves to 92.4 (**13.5% better than zero-shot baseline**, 26.3% better than MIP baseline).
- 4) Systematic Feasibility Gap in Pure ML Methods:** TFT exhibits consistent infeasibility across all datasets (67.2%, 63.5%, 69.1% feasible rates), demonstrating that unconstrained prediction-based approaches cannot guarantee operational constraints. Our constrained rounding achieves 100% feasibility on standard datasets. On extreme scenarios, 2.7% infeasibility occurs due to cascading failures exceeding training distribution coverage.
- 5) Superior Robustness on Extreme Events:** 85.1% connection success on synthetic disasters vs. 78.3% for MIP (8.7%

TABLE II
PERFORMANCE ON REAL-WORLD DATASETS (MEAN $\pm$ STD OVER 10 RUNS)

Method	Solving Time (s)	Total Cost (10 ⁴ RMB)	Total Delay (min)	Connect. Success	Feasibility	Gap to LP [†]
ROD-CN Dataset (Asian Hub) – Feasible Methods						
FCFS	0.8 $\pm$ 0.1	450.2 $\pm$ 12.3	15,400 $\pm$ 520	76.2%	100%	448.5%
GA	420 $\pm$ 35	110.5 $\pm$ 8.7	4,100 $\pm$ 380	89.5%	92.3%	34.6%
Standard MIP	1200 (T/O)	88.7 $\pm$ 6.1	3,450 $\pm$ 275	93.8%	100%	21.4%
Column Gen.	890 $\pm$ 67	94.3 $\pm$ 5.2	3,680 $\pm$ 290	92.1%	100%	23.1%
SPO+	520 $\pm$ 48	92.5 $\pm$ 5.8	3,580 $\pm$ 310	91.8%	100%	12.7%
Neural Diving	680 $\pm$ 55	89.2 $\pm$ 5.4	3,520 $\pm$ 285	92.5%	100%	8.7%
DL-TSN (Ours)	486 $\pm$ 38	75.3 $\pm$ 3.9	2,750 $\pm$ 210	95.7%	100%	0.8%
ROD-CN Dataset – Pure ML Methods (Infeasible)						
TFT	15 $\pm$ 2	152.3 $\pm$ 18.4*	5,200 $\pm$ 450	85.3%	67.2%	–
GATv2	18 $\pm$ 3	138.7 $\pm$ 15.2*	4,850 $\pm$ 420	87.1%	71.8%	–
FAA-ASPM Dataset (US Hubs) – Feasible Methods						
Standard MIP	1200 (T/O)	125.4 $\pm$ 8.3	4,820 $\pm$ 350	91.2%	100%	25.6%
SPO+	645 $\pm$ 58	128.3 $\pm$ 7.5	4,920 $\pm$ 380	89.7%	100%	16.5%
DL-TSN (Ours)	542 $\pm$ 45	106.8 $\pm$ 5.2	3,890 $\pm$ 280	93.4%	100%	2.1%
FAA-ASPM Dataset – Pure ML Methods (Infeasible)						
TFT	18 $\pm$ 2	198.7 $\pm$ 22.1*	6,450 $\pm$ 520	83.1%	63.5%	–
Eurocontrol Dataset (European Network) – Feasible Methods						
Standard MIP	1200 (T/O)	98.2 $\pm$ 6.8	3,720 $\pm$ 310	92.5%	100%	20.8%
DL-TSN (Ours)	508 $\pm$ 42	83.7 $\pm$ 4.6	3,150 $\pm$ 240	94.8%	100%	1.2%
Eurocontrol Dataset – Pure ML Methods (Infeasible)						
TFT	14 $\pm$ 2	165.4 $\pm$ 19.3*	5,680 $\pm$ 480	84.2%	69.1%	–
Synthetic-Extreme Scenarios						
Standard MIP	1200 (T/O)	245.8 $\pm$ 28.4	9,520 $\pm$ 850	78.3%	100%	35.2%
DL-TSN (Ours)	725 $\pm$ 68	198.4 $\pm$ 18.2	7,680 $\pm$ 620	85.1%	97.3%	8.9%

* Averaged on feasible instances only.

[†] Gap relative to LP on pruned graph G' (DL-TSN) or full TSN (MIP); not directly comparable.

”T/O” indicates the solver returned the best feasible incumbent solution found before the 1200s limit.

All pairwise comparisons: $p < 0.001$ (Bonferroni-corrected).

improvement), demonstrating better handling of cascading failures through proactive risk-based planning.

B. Model Evaluation

Table III shows our hybrid TGT+CBAM achieves 0.97 AUC, representing a 3.2% absolute improvement over CBAM-DenseNet alone (0.97 vs. 0.94), capturing network-wide delay propagation missed by spatial-only CNNs. The 4.6M additional parameters (12.4M vs. 7.8M, 59% increase) yield substantial decision quality gains: 15.6% cost reduction and 8.3% better prediction accuracy.

TABLE III
RISK PREDICTION MODEL COMPARISON

Model	Params	Acc.	F1	AUC
CNN-3Layer	1.2M	0.824	0.76	0.81
ResNet-50	23M	0.865	0.81	0.88
LSTM-BiGRU	5.6M	0.851	0.79	0.86
DenseNet-121	7.0M	0.892	0.85	0.92
CBAM-DenseNet	7.8M	0.913	0.88	0.94
Hybrid TGT+CBAM	12.4M	0.937	0.92	0.97

C. Ablation Study

Table IV quantifies component contributions on ROD-CN test set. End-to-end training provides the largest single impact (11.2% cost degradation when removed), followed by TGT network (8.3%). Combined ablation (removing both TGT and E2E) degrades cost by 21.5%, exceeding the sum of individual effects (19.5%), confirming synergistic interaction between components.

TABLE IV
ABLATION STUDY ON ROD-CN

Configuration	Time (s)	Cost Gap
DL-TSN (Full)	486	0%
w/o Temporal Graph Transformer	512	+8.3%
w/o CBAM Attention	523	+4.7%
w/o End-to-End Training	645	+11.2%
w/o Adaptive Pruning	1085	+1.8%
w/o Online UCB	498	+3.4%
w/o TGT & E2E (Combined)	725	+21.5%

Two-way ANOVA reveals strong interaction between TGT and E2E training ($F = 127.3$, $p < 0.001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.42$), indicating end-to-end optimization significantly amplifies network

modeling benefits. The superadditive effect ($21.5\% > 8.3\% + 11.2\% = 19.5\%$) demonstrates that decision-focused gradients particularly enhance graph-based propagation modeling by penalizing prediction errors on high-impact flights. Furthermore, the decision loss weight $\beta > 0.4$ is critical for E2E convergence; below this threshold, prediction and optimization remain decoupled, degrading performance by 11.2%.

D. Case Study: July 15, 2024 Thunderstorm

Table V reconstructs the motivating disruption event at a major Asian hub affecting 487 flights. DL-TSN achieves balanced performance: fewer cancellations than human dispatchers (15 vs. 23, 35% reduction), lower cost than MIP (83.7 vs. 91.2, 8.2% improvement), and maintains 100% constraint feasibility. Unlike Standard MIP which struggles with the combinatorial explosion of the full time-space network, our adaptive pruning reduced the search space by 42.1% (median) for this event. Furthermore, pure ML baselines like TFT lacked our KKT-based projection and constrained rounding, resulting in capacity violations at 3 downstream airports.

TABLE V
JULY 15, 2024 THUNDERSTORM EVENT COMPARISON. **NOTE: LOWER COST IN TFT IS INVALID DUE TO HARD CONSTRAINT VIOLATIONS.**

Method	Canceled	Avg Delay	Cost	Time
Human Dispatch	23	52 min	104.0	N/A
Standard MIP	18	48 min	91.2	1200+ s
TFT (Infeasible)	12	38 min	(70.3)	15 s
DL-TSN	15	45 min	83.7	512 s

Cost in 10^4 RMB (approx. \$1,428 USD per unit at 7:1 rate).

Note: Costs in parentheses (·) denote infeasible solutions (TFT violates capacity at 3 airports).

“+” indicates solver timed out after reaching the 1200s limit.

N/A: Not Applicable (historical operations do not have a comparable computational runtime).

Note on Cost Consistency: As a severe weather anomaly, absolute costs for this event are naturally higher than the ROD-CN dataset average (75.3, Table II). While DL-TSN achieves a 15.1% reduction on average, this specific extreme scenario yielded an 8.2% reduction (83.7 vs. 91.2), validating robustness under high-stress conditions.

DL-TSN identified 12 high-risk flights 30 minutes before delays manifested (based on weather radar predictions), enabling proactive gate reassignments and preventive rescheduling. It recovered 3 flights initially canceled by MIP through localized network re-optimization while maintaining 100% constraint satisfaction across all airport capacity and flow conservation constraints.

VIII. CONCLUSION

We present a decision-focused learning framework integrating spatiotemporal risk prediction with end-to-end differentiable optimization for flight schedule recovery. Our hybrid TGT+CBAM architecture achieves 0.97 AUC while adaptive pruning reduces search space by 42.1% with provable $O(\sqrt{T} \log T)$ regret bounds. Experiments on 1.1M+ flights demonstrate 15.1% cost improvement and 60% speedup over baselines, with empirical validation of theoretical guarantees. **Limitations:** Single-hub focus (multi-airport coordination requires distributed optimization); 2.7% infeasibility on extreme

scenarios (suggests need for uncertainty quantification); crew rostering embedded in cost function (explicit modeling left for future work).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. U2233214) and the Tianjin Natural Science Foundation (No. 25JCLZJC00550).

REFERENCES

- [1] C. Barnhart, N. L. Boland, L. W. Clarke, E. L. Johnson, G. L. Nemhauser, and R. G. Shenoi, “Flight string models for aircraft fleet and routing,” *Transp. Sci.*, vol. 32, no. 3, pp. 208–220, 1998.
- [2] Y. J. Kim, S. Choi, S. Briceño, and D. Mavris, “A deep learning approach to flight delay prediction,” in *Proc. IEEE/AIAA Digit. Avion. Syst. Conf. (DASC)*, 2016, pp. 1–6.
- [3] S. Woo, J. Park, J. Lee, and I. S. Kweon, “CBAM: Convolutional block attention module,” in *Proc. Eur. Conf. Comput. Vis. (ECCV)*, 2018, pp. 3–19.
- [4] G. Huang, Z. Liu, L. Van Der Maaten, and K. Q. Weinberger, “Densely connected convolutional networks,” in *Proc. IEEE Conf. Comput. Vis. Pattern Recognit. (CVPR)*, 2017, pp. 4700–4708.
- [5] R. Wu, Y. Zhao, J. Qu, et al., “Flight Delay Propagation Prediction Model Based on CBAM-CondenseNet,” *J. Electron. Inf. Technol.*, vol. 43, no. 1, pp. 187–195, Jan. 2021.
- [6] E. Rossi, B. Chamberlain, F. Frasca, D. Eynard, F. Monti, and M. Bronstein, “Temporal Graph Networks for Deep Learning on Dynamic Graphs,” in *ICML Workshop on Graph Representation Learning*, 2020.
- [7] L. Yu, L. Sun, B. Du, C. Liu, W. Lv, and H. Xiong, “Towards better dynamic graph learning: New architecture and unified library,” in *Proc. Adv. Neural Inf. Process. Syst. (NeurIPS)*, vol. 36, 2023, pp. 1–15.
- [8] J. Ding, Y. Peng, and J. Li, “A Flight Delay Prediction Model Based on Improved Spatio-Temporal Synchronous Graph Convolutional Networks,” in *Proc. 28th Int. Conf. Comput. Supported Cooperative Work Design (CSCWD)*, 2025, pp. 928–933.
- [9] A. N. Elmachtoub and P. Grigas, “Smart ‘Predict, then Optimize’,” *Manage. Sci.*, vol. 68, no. 1, pp. 9–26, 2022.
- [10] B. Wilder, B. Dilkina, and M. Tambe, “Melding the data-decisions pipeline: Decision-focused learning for combinatorial optimization,” in *Proc. AAAI Conf. Artif. Intell.*, 2019, pp. 1658–1665.
- [11] S. Shah, B. Wilder, A. Perrault, and M. Tambe, “Decision-focused learning without decision-making: Learning locally optimized decision losses,” in *Proc. Adv. Neural Inf. Process. Syst. (NeurIPS)*, vol. 35, 2022, pp. 1320–1332.
- [12] B. Amos and J. Z. Kolter, “OptNet: Differentiable optimization as a layer in neural networks,” in *Proc. Int. Conf. Mach. Learn. (ICML)*, 2017, pp. 136–145.
- [13] A. Agrawal, B. Amos, S. Barratt, S. Boyd, S. Diamond, and J. Z. Kolter, “Differentiable convex optimization layers,” in *Proc. Adv. Neural Inf. Process. Syst. (NeurIPS)*, 2019, pp. 9558–9570.
- [14] A. Ferber, B. Wilder, B. Dilkina, and M. Tambe, “MIPaaL: Mixed Integer Program as a Layer,” in *Proc. AAAI Conf. Artif. Intell.*, vol. 34, no. 02, 2020, pp. 1504–1511.
- [15] J. Mandi and T. Guns, “End-to-End Learning for Prediction and Optimization with Gradient Boosting,” in *Proc. 41st Int. Conf. Mach. Learn. (ICML)*, 2024.
- [16] J. Kotary, F. Fioretto, and P. Van Hentenryck, “Learning to Optimize with Stochastic Dominance Constraints,” in *Proc. Adv. Neural Inf. Process. Syst. (NeurIPS)*, vol. 37, 2024.
- [17] V. Mnih et al., “Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning,” *Nature*, vol. 518, pp. 529–533, 2015.
- [18] Y. Bengio, A. Lodi, and A. Prouvost, “Machine learning for combinatorial optimization: A methodological tour d’horizon,” *Eur. J. Oper. Res.*, vol. 290, no. 2, pp. 405–421, 2021.
- [19] P. Auer, N. Cesa-Bianchi, and P. Fischer, “Finite-time analysis of the multiarmed bandit problem,” *Mach. Learn.*, vol. 47, no. 2, pp. 235–256, 2002.