A Constructive Hybrid Genetic Algorithm for the Flowshop Scheduling Problem

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Summary
This paper introduces a technique for solving the flowshop scheduling problem. The major idea is to partition the set of feasible solutions into regions in order to diversify the search that is used on a Genetic Algorithm variation. The population is formed by every distinct subject and it is carried out constructively in such a way that any iteration guarantees a diversification on the search for a feasible solution. The problem is a very well known NP-Hard problem and it imposes great challenges for determining its optimal solution in the practice. Computational experiments are reported for the literature instances and the obtained results are compared with other techniques.

Key words:
Scheduling Problem, Genetic Algorithm, Permutations.

1. Introduction

The *Flowshop Scheduling Problem* (FSP) is defined as given a set of n jobs, J_1, J_2, …, J_n, to be processed by m machines M_1, M_2, ..., M_m. Each job demands m operations and every job has to obey the same operation flow, *i.e.* job J_k for k =1,2,..., n is processed first in machine M_1, then in machine M_2 and so forth up to M_m. If job J_k does not use all the machines its processing flow continues to be the same but with time zero whenever that happens. A machine processes just a single job and once it is started it cannot be interrupted up to its completion. It is worth of mentioning that the total search space of possible sequences to be considered is very large and it is bounded by above by $O(n!)$. A solution to the problem consists in processing all the n jobs in the least possible time.

The FSP input is given by a matrix P with m x n non-negative elements, where P_{ik} is associated with job J_k processing time and machine M_i. Following the four parameters $A/B/C/D$ [1] notation, the problem is classified as $n/m/P/F_{max}$. The problem is F/prmu/C_{max} within [2], suggested a classification $\alpha/\beta/\gamma$. The FSP is also known to be NP-Complete in the strong sense for $m \geq 3$ ([3]). However, for $m = 2$ it can be exactly solved in polynomial time.

In [4] there is an extensive literature survey – for the last five decades – to the problem and the authors indicate the existence of more than 1,200 Operations Research papers on it, also containing a large diversity of aspects and applications.

In the practice, the exact solution methods for the problem are still limited to small instances, $n \leq 20$ and even to them the running time continues to be large. Ruiz et al. [5] summarize practical methods for solving the problem, not necessarily exact ones. The following heuristics that are cited in [5]: PAL ([6]), CDS ([7]); and the Simulated Annealing (SA) metaheuristics cited in [8], , since they will be form the comparison bases of the methodology suggested here.

The FSP algorithmic approach introduced here is a new *Genetic Algorithm* (GA). It is based on practical observations that indicate that in some problems that rely on permutation of data diversification can supersede intensification. Moreover, under this hypothesis solutions evaluated by the technique are built up in such a way that repetitions are avoided and this is not always the case for the traditional genetic algorithm, since it has a random function that cannot give such a premise. This new method is called HCGA (Hybrid Constructive Genetic Algorithm) and it follows, therefore, all the usual steps of GA one, with the additions mentioned.

Section 2 the FSP is formally stated as a Permutation Combinatorial Optimization problem and the major ideas of HCGA are also introduced. Section 3 presents the computational experiments, while in Section 4 some conclusions are established.

2. The Genetic Algorithm

A Combinatorial Optimization Problem (*COP*) is defined by a triple (S, g, n), where S is the set of all feasible solutions, g is the objective function that associates to every $s \in S$ a real number and n is a problem instance. It is important to mention that to a COP, $|S| = n!$ and any feasible solution s can be represented by a given permutation of n, such as s=< a_1 a_2 ... a_n >. A solution to

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the problem needs to determine an instance *s* that minimizes *g*. A *neighborhood N*(*s*) is defined as a solution that can be reached by a single place exchange, also called as a *move* or *movement*, of a_j and a_k, where $j, k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $j \neq k$. For instance, for $n = 3$ and $s = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ a movement can be $s' = \{a_1, a_3, a_2\}$; *s* has *s*' as a neighbor.

Silva and Soma ([9]) suggested a technique to solve COP denoted by Permutation Heuristic (PH) and it induces diversification among the set of feasible solutions. The idea consists on partitioning *S* in *n* neighborhoods $N(s_i)$. The permutation s_i that generates $N(s_i)$ has element *i* in the first position and also to every other permutation $s \in N(s_i)$. The total quantity of permutations to any given neighborhood is set to $2(n-1)(n-2)+4$ and this implies in $2n(n-1)(n-2)+4n$ generated permutations for the problem.

The FSP can also be stated as a COP in the format $P = (S, g, n)$ with the following:

a) An element $s = \{J_1, J_2, ..., J_n\}$ from the set of feasible solutions *S* represents a permutation of the *n* jobs. Moreover, it also gives the order in which the jobs have to be processed.

b) Procedure *GenEstimate* given next determines the total time to be spent to process sequence *s*. This evaluation is crucial since the overall computational requirements is directly associated with that generation.

```
Input: m, n, s, matrices T(m x n) and P(m x n).
Output: tg  (time necessary to process all the n jobs
             by using sequence s)
//Comment: matrix T has only zeroes initially.
for(j=1; j<=n; j++) {
  for(i=1; i<=m; i++) {
    if (i==1) {
      if (j>=2) T[1][s[j]]=T[1][s[j-1]]+P[1][s[j-1]];
    } else {
      if (j==1)
        {T[i][s[1]]=T[i-1][s[1]]+P[i-1][s[1]];
      } else {
        x=T[i][s[j-1]]+P[i][s[j-1]];
        y=T[i-1][s[j-1]]+P[i-1][s[j-1]];
        if (x>=y) T[i][s[j]]=x; else T[i][s[j]]=y;
      }
    }
  }
}
tg=T[m][s[n]] + P[m][s[n]];
```

The HCGA follows the major steps of the usual Holland ([10]) Genetic Algorithms framework. In this way, it has initially a set of subjects (initial set of a problem), performs an evaluation for each one (determination of the objective function value), chooses the most well fitted, selects the best ones accordingly with a given metrics and by crossover and mutation (movements) generates new individuals.

The initial and the following populations of HCGA are generated by $N(s_i)$, from PH given above, and they aim good solutions from the diversification within *S*. In addition, HCGA uses the well known 3-Opt Lin and Kernighan [11] heuristic as the mutation operator, since it alters the order in which the jobs are processed and eventually there is intensification in the search.

Since PH is a constructive method and 3-Opt is an intensive local search method, the two types of search are contemplated by HCGA. It is important to note that the choice for those constructive and intensive features stems for the avoidance of a premature and non-optimal convergence of the algorithm. Accordingly with observations in [12], HCGA is defined as *[YY]2_nvrY[YNgr]*. More details on the theory and evolution of the AG approach are given among others in [13], [14], [15], [16], [17], [18], [19], and [20].

The procedures used in the HCGA for the FSP are:

i. A chromosome (an individual of the population) is defined as a permutation of the *n* jobs. Every job consist a chromosome gene.The order (from left to the right) in which the jobs appear in it determine their processing order;

ii. The individuals of the population are all evaluated by the same procedure *GenEstimate* stated before;

iii. A HCGA population has a fixed size of 52 individuals, divided in four groups with 13 individuals each. The algorithm uses a different population every iteration and in total *n* of them, $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$ will be considered. An individual of population P_j, with $1 \leq j \leq n$ has job *j* as its first chromosome element;

iv. Let P_{j1}, P_{j2}, P_{j3} and P_{j4} be the four groups of population *j*. The size of 52 was determined experimentally. It was observed that to values lower than 52 the solutions quality were not good enough and to higher values there was no further significant improvements from the increase in the population;

v. The reproduction occurs via the crossover for each individual from group P_{j1} with those of P_{j2} and the same for P_{j3} with P_{j4}.

The *crossover operator* was derived with the idea of generating individuals that do not belong to their parents' population. To obtain such a feature, admit that *P1* and *P2* are vectors with *n* elements each. Their absolute differences are stored in $O1=O2=|P1 - P2|$ and those zero values are set to *n*. Two auxiliary vectors *R1* and *R2* with *n* components are created where $R1_j$ and $R2_j$ $1 \leq j \leq n$ indicate the quantity that job *j* appear in *O1* and *O2* respectively. If $R1_j \geq 2$ the first job *j* found in *O1* is replaced by the first job *i* of R1, such that $R1_i = 0$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. This implies that $R1_i = 1$ and $R1_j = R1_j - 1$. The same procedure is applied to *O2* and *R2*, with the sole difference that *j* is changed to *i* just in the last determined job *j* of *O2*.

Finally, item k+1 will be in the first position both in *O1* and *O2*, where k is the population index that individuals *P1* and *P2* belong. With this exchange procedure that is quite evolving to describe but very easy to implement in a computer program, there is a guarantee that the resulting individuals' generated chromosomes will differ from their ancestors. Two additional individuals are generated by doing $O1'(j)=O2'(j)=|P1(j)+P2(j)-n|$ with the same procedure. An example of the suggested crossover operator is given by Figure 1 with n = 7.

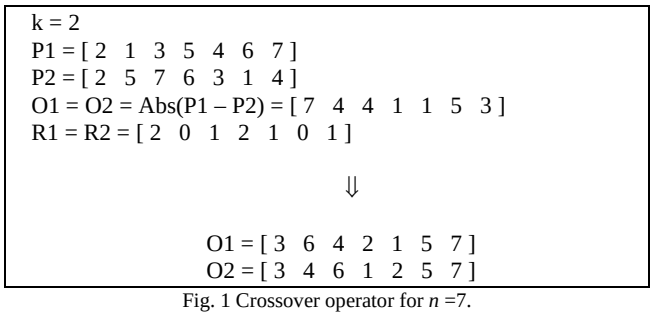

Fig. 1 Crossover operator for n =7.

After the generation of all crossover of a given population the best fitted individual's chromosome is selected, *i.e.* the one with the least objective function value. To modify the order in which the genes (jobs) appear in that chromosome the 3-Opt heuristic is used. This procedure configures the *mutation operator* of HCGA.

The algorithm stopping criteria for the evolution process and therefore the search occurs only when all the n populations and their respective crossovers have been considered.

Notice that HCGA has many features of a usual Genetic Algorithm but it also has other ones that distinguish it from them. The following steps do not have parallels in GA:

- The population *is not* randomly generated in order to avoid individual repetitions. Every iteration also is different from their predecessors;
- The *crossover operator* does not rely exclusively on the preservation of their predecessors' characteristics. The assumption for this is such that the diversification tries to mimic some the results obtained by practical genetic experiments, such as [21], [22], [23], [24], [25], and [26]. In those experiments the authors deduced that individuals with perfect genetic characteristics did not appear from a mutation process but after a large number of crossovers (diversification). According to these practical approaches mutation has a very high operational cost to be effectively realized and being this not the case for crossovers.

After the implementation and major ideas presentation, it is of vital importance to determine the algorithm complexity. To find the running time, notice that if η is the number of generations, μ the population size, n the quantity of genes of any chromosome (problem input) and as it is immediate to infer that $O(n^3)$ represents the mutation operator complexity, the overall time complexity of HCGA is bounded in the worst case by $O(\eta.\mu.n.O(n^3)) = O(n^4)$. To specific case, recall that μ is set to 52 while $\eta = 2\times2\times13\times13 = 676$. Additionally, the total quantity of solutions to be evaluated by HCGA is $(\eta + \mu + 1)n = 729\ n = O(n)$ for any problem.

3. Computational Experiments

The computational experiments carried out to observe the performance of HCGA were executed in a PC-Asus with a clock of 1,8 GHz and 256 Mbytes of RAM and the source program is in ANSI C. Table 1 and 2 presents the mean deviation and CPU time of algorithms HCGA, PAL, CDS, SA, respectively. The 90 problem instances were stated as in Taillard [27] and were obtained in OR-Library [28]. Parameters m and n are also used to divide the experiments in classes. The mean deviation is given by $100\times(z - z^*)/z^*$, z is the value determined by a heuristic and z* is the value of the optimal solution. The quantity of problems for each class is 10. HCGA, PAL and CDS had a standard termination while SA could not obtain a solution in some cases. The last three lines of the table give the mean, the miniminum and the maximum values of the standard deviation and *CPU* time (*seconds*).

Some observations can be deduced from the experiments (Table 1 and 2):

a) HCGA has the best mean deviation amidst the four methods evaluated, *i.e.* 8.82% and SA the worst one with 15.50%;
b) PAL had the minimum deviation, 0.70%, for a problem of class (100 x 5). CDS and HCGA had 5.17% and 2.23% respectively;
c) The best deviation performance to HCGA was in class (20 x 5) with 1.77% while to PAL and CDS the values were respectively 5.89% and 4.87%;
d) Problems of class (50 x 20) generated the worst performance for all methods;
e) For small instances, $n \leq 50$, HCGA had a good performance and with a relatively small mean running time of 1.43 seconds. For large problems, where $n \geq 100$ there is a positive tradeoff between the acceptable running time and quality of the solutions.

Table1: The mean deviation for HCGA, SA, PAL and CDS

Class	Mean Deviation (%)			
(*n x m*)	HCGA	SA	PAL	CDS
1 (20 x 5)	6.71	9.40	10.82	9.49
2 (20 x 10)	10.64	18.60	15.28	12.13
3 (20 x 20)	8.19	32.60	16.34	9.64
4 (50 x 5)	4.79	3.00	5.34	6.10
5 (50 x 10)	12.39	17.00	14.03	12.98
6 (50 x 20)	18.05	28.00	17.94	15.77
7 (100 x 5)	3.77	4.00	2.51	5.13
8 (100 x 10)	4.53	11.00	9.13	9.15
9 (100 x 20)	10.32	15.00	15.55	14.19
Mean	8.82	15.40	11.88	10.51
Minimum	1.77	3.00	0.70	1.80
Maximum	20.86	36.00	24.75	18.42

Table2: The mean running time for HCGA, SA, PAL and CDS

Class	Time (*CPU* in seconds)			
(*n x m*)	HCGA	SA*	PAL	CDS
1 (20 x 5)	0.2	390.0	0.0	0.0
2 (20 x 10)	0.3	408.0	0.0	0.0
3 (20 x 20)	0.7	588.0	0.0	0.0
4 (50 x 5)	1.4	2052.0	0.0	0.0
5 (50 x 10)	2.1	2784.0	0.0	0.1
6 (50 x 20)	3.9	3354.0	0.1	0.2
7 (100 x 5)	6.5	8802.0	0.1	0.2
8 (100 x 10)	10.0	11358.0	0.1	0.5
9 (100 x 20)	17.0	13092.0	0.1	0.6
Mean	4.7	4758.7	0.0	0.2
Minimum	0.1	390.0	0.0	0.0
Maximum	19.0	13092.0	0.1	0.6

* It was executed originally in a PC 486 with 33 MHz clock.

4. Conclusion

The suggested heuristic has many different features from a usual Genetic Algorithm such as the increase of the diversification and the diminishing of crossover operations. The reason to such an approach mimics the behavior of some species as mentioned in the literature.

The computational experiments from the standard benchmarks of the area show that HCGA can be competitive if compared to other heuristic and metaheuristic approaches. It was applied successfully to the FSP and it seems reasonable to suppose, at least in a first moment, that it can solve other Permutation Combinatorial Optimization problems. This hypothesis, however, needs further studies on them.

An attempt to improve the HCGA performance would be the use of other greedy heuristics in order to obtain more focused criteria to activate new mutations, since it seems that the running time still lies within practical acceptable intervals.

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