METAHEURISTICS FOR THE NO-IDLE PERMUTATION FLOWSHOP SCHEDULING PROBLEM

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YASAR UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCE

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This study titled "Metaheuristics for the No-Idle Permutation Flowshop Scheduling Problem " and presented as Master's Thesis by Özge BÜYÜKDAĞLI has been evaluated in compliance with the relevant provisions of Y.U Graduate Education and Training Regulation and Y.U Institute of Science Education and Training Direction and jury members written below have decided for the defence of this thesis and it has been declared by consensus / majority of votes that the candidate has succeeded in thesis defence examination dated……………………..

TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study titled "Metaheuristics for the No-Idle Permutatıon Flowshop Scheduling Problem", and presented as Master's Thesis has been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions and all sources I have benefited from are listed in bibliography and I have benefited from these sources by means of making references.

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Özge BÜYÜKDAĞLI Signature

ÖZET

BEKLEME ZAMANSIZ PERMÜTASYON AKIŞ TİPİ ÇİZELGELEME PROBLEMİ İÇİN SEZGİSEL YÖNTEMLER

BÜYÜKDAĞLI, Özge

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Endüstri Mühendisliği Bölümü Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Mehmet Fatih TAŞGETİREN

Mayıs 2013, 50 sayfa

Bu çalışmada, permütasyon akış tipi çizelgeleme probleminin, bekleme zamanlarına izin verilmeyen hali ele alınmıştır. Güçlü bir metasezgisel algoritma olan Genel Değişken Komşu Arama algoritması, dış döngüde ekle ve değiştir operasyonları, iç döngüde ise iteratif açgözlü algoritma ve iteratif bölgesel arama algoritması kullanılmıştır. Sunulan algoritmanın performansı, teknik yazında sunulan 4 farklı algoritmayla sonuçlarının karşılaştırılması ile ölçülmüştür. Karşılaştırma yapılan diğer algoritmalar şunlardır; (1) iteratif açgözlü, (2) değişken iteratif açgözlü, (3) hibrit ayrık farksal evrim algoritması, (4) farksal evrim ile değişken iteratif açgözlü algoritması. Bu algoritmaların performanslarını test etmek için http://soa.iti.es/rruiz sayfasında, Prof. Ruben Ruiz tarafından sunulan örnek problem yapısı kullanılmıştır. Yapılan karşılaştırmalar sonucunda Genel Değişken Komşu Arama algoritmasının, mevcut bilinen en iyi 250 sonucun 85 tanesini iyileştirdiği gözlenmiştir.

ABSTRACT

METAHEURISTICS FOR THE NO-IDLE PERMUTATION FLOWSHOP SCHEDULING PROBLEM

BÜYÜKDAĞLI, Özge

Master's Thesis, Department of Industrial Engineering Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Mehmet Fatih TAŞGETİREN

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In this thesis, a variant of permutation flowshop scheduling problem, where no-idle times are allowed on machines, is considered and a metaheuristic algorithm; a General Variable Neighborhood Search algorithm with insert and swap operations in outer loop and in the inner loop (Variable Neighborhood Descent phase), Iterated Greedy algorithm and Iterated Local Search algorithm is represented. The results of the algorithm are compared to the results with some other algorithms to measure the performance. These algorithms are; (1) an iterated greedy, (2) variable iterated greedy, (3) the hybrid discrete differential evolution and (4) variable iterated greedy algorithm with differential evolution algorithm. The performances of the proposed algorithms are tested on the Prof. Ruben Ruiz' benchmark suite that is presented in [http://soa.iti.es/rruiz.](http://soa.iti.es/rruiz) Computational results are proposed and concluded as the GVNS algorithm further improved 85 out of 250 current best known solutions. In addition, these conclusions are supported by the paired T-tests and the interval plot.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A flowshop is a commonly used production system in manufacturing industries. Generally, in manufacturing environments, the jobs should go through different processes till the end items are obtained. If the route of each job is different, then this environment is referred as jobshop. The production environment with all jobs have the same route is called flowshop. Scheduling of a flowshop has an essential role in competitive environments; therefore this problem has been one of the most attractive subjects for researchers.

In a flowshop, there is more than one machine and each job must be processed on each of the machines. Each job has the same ordering of machines for its process sequence. Each job can be processed on one machine at a time, and each machine can process only one job at a time. For the permutation flowshop, the processing sequences of the jobs are the same on each machine. In other words, jobs have a permutation and therefore, once a permutation is fixed for all jobs on the first machine, this permutation is maintained for all other machines. If one job is at the i^{th} position on machine 1, then this job will be at the i^t position on all the machines.

In order to measure the performance of scheduling in a flowshop, there are several criteria such as, makespan and due-date based performance measures. Makespan criterion, without any doubt, the most widely used performance measure in the literature. The popularity of makespan criterion comes from the ease of implementation of this criterion to each kind of problem. On the other hand, in real life considerations, meeting customers' requirements on-time is essential for several industries. For these problems which aim to satisfy promised due dates to customers, due-date based performance measures have been attracted interest from the researchers recently. There are many interesting and successful studies that are considering total tardiness criterion in literature as well.

In this thesis, a variant of permutation flowshop scheduling problem (PFSP), where no-idle times are allowed on machines, is considered. The no-idle constraint has an important role in scheduling environment, where expensive machinery is employed. Idling machines in such environments is not costeffective. Another situation that production environment desires to have no-idle times in schedule, is when high setup time or costs exist so that shutting down the machines after initial setup is not wanted. In no-idle permutation flowshop scheduling (NIPFS) problem, each machine must process each job without any interruption from the beginning of the first job to the completion of the last job. In order to meet this constraint, delays may occur in the processing of the first job on any machine. There are various examples of this problem in manufacturing industries. For instance, fiberglass processing has both costly and time consuming setups where the furnaces must be heated up to 2800ºF which takes three days. So furnace must stay on during the entire production to avoid long setup times but at the same time, since the cost of idling furnace is too high, the production must be scheduled considering no-idle restriction. (H. Saadani, A. Guinet, M. Moalla, 2003) presented a three-machine flowshop production of engine blocks in a foundry.

 F_m /prmu, no – idle/ C_{max} is a well-known notation of the m-machine NIPFS problem where the makespan is minimized. (Baptiste, P., & Lee, K. H., 1997) showed that F_3 /prmu, no - idle/C_{max} is an NP-hard problem. Although it has a great importance in both theory and practical applications, it has not attracted much attention in the literature by the researchers. In (Adiri, I. and Pohoryles, D., 1982) an algorithm to solve F_2 /prmu, no – idle/C_{max} optimally, is presented. The first time, problem is studied with the makespan criterion in (Vachajitpan, 1982). (Woollam, 1986) examined heuristic approaches for the general m-machine no-idle PFSP with the makespan criterion.

Recently, heuristic approaches have attracted increasing attention by many researchers. The solution quality of heuristic approaches started to get higher especially when the low computational effort is considered. A heuristic, based on the traveling salesman problem (TSP), for the the F_3 /prmu, no – idle/C_{max} was represented in (Saadani, N. E. H., Guinet, A., and Moalla, M., 2005). (Kalczynski, P.J. and Kamburowski, J., 2007) presented an adaptation of the NEH heuristic for the NIPFS problem and also studied the interactions between the no-idle and nowait flowshops. In (Ruiz, R. , Vallada, E. , Fernández-Martínez, C., 2009), an IG algorithm for the NIPFS problem with the makespan criterion was presented and examined the performance against the existing algorithms. (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q., Suganthan P.N.,Oner A.) presented a discrete artificial bee colony algorithm to solve the no-idle permutation flowshop scheduling problem with the total tardiness criterion. (Kirlik G., Oguz C., 2012) applied a different algorithm to a different problem; the single machine scheduling problem to minimize the total weighted tardiness with the sequence dependent setup times by using general variable neighborhood search (GVNS) algorithm. This algorithm resulted very well for that NP-hard problem, therefore, inspiring from (Kirlik G., Oguz C., 2012), in this study, a GVNS algorithm is proposed to solve the NIPFS problem with makespan criterion and compared the results with some other algorithms to measure the performance.

This paper is organized as follows. In Chapter 2 NIPFS problem is defined. Details of metaheuristic algorithms are given in Chapter 3. Computational experiments that evaluate the performance of the solution methods are reported in Chapter 4. Finally, conclusion is given in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

NO-IDLE PERMUTATION FLOWSHOP SCHEDULING PROBLEM

No-idle permutation flowshop scheduling is required when the production environment desires to have no-idle times in production schedule because of the high costs or setup complexity of the system. In order to avoid the troubles in the production environment, the schedule must be done carefully while considering the all systems behavior.

There are $n (j = 1,2,...,n)$ jobs to be processed successively on $m (k = 1,2,...,n)$ $1, 2, \ldots, m$) machines with the same sequence on each machine. Associated with each job *j* and machine *k*, there is a processing time $p(j, k)$.

The assumptions for this problem are introduced;

- Each machine can perform at most one job at any given time;
- Each job can be processed on at most one machine at any given time;
- Processing sequences of jobs are same on each machine;
- There cannot be idle times between the start of processing the first job to the completion of processing the last job on any machine.

While constructing the algorithm that will determine the production sequence of jobs, the time complexity of performance measures must be considered as well as problems' objective, which is the makespan minimization for this problem. Both the reliability and the speed of the algorithm have an essential importance for real life problems. In real life problems, it is desirable to have a good quality solution in a short time period. In order to provide this, researchers have been studying on decreasing the time complexity of algorithms. (Ruiz, R. , Vallada, E. , Fernández-Martínez, C., 2009) proposed a formulation to calculate makespan of no-idle flowshop. In this formulation, first, *when a given machine can start processing with no needed idle time is calculated. Then by* using these values, the completion times are calculated straight forward, by adding processing times of jobs to the starting times for each machine, since the jobs are processed with no-idle time. Moreover, (Pan, Q-K. and Wang, L., 2008) also presented a formulation for the NIPFS problem with the makespan criterion.

This formulation consists of forward and backward pass calculation. These methods decrease the time complexity of calculating the completion times comparing to (Ruiz, R. , Vallada, E. , Fernández-Martínez, C., 2009) calculation method, which is a very desirable property especially in algorithmic studies. Less CPU time for calculation, provide opportunity to algorithm to apply more moves or to generate more generations that increases the chance to obtain more improved solutions.

In the formulation that (Ruiz, R. , Vallada, E. , Fernández-Martínez, C., 2009) used in their study, the necessity of the delay of the jobs, to ensure that jobs are processed without idle time, is considered and according to this feature, they proposed to first calculate the starting time of processing jobs on each machine which is denoted by S_k , $k = \{1, ..., m\}$ where $S_1 = 0$ and k denotes the machine. Then by adding the processing times to these starting times, they calculate the completion times. Let, a job permutation, $\pi = {\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_n}$ be the sequence of jobs to be processed on each machine and the completion time of π _ion machine k be $C(\pi_i, k)$. The formulations are given below;

$$
S_k = S_{k-1} + \max_{1 \le h \le n} \{ \sum_{j=1}^h p(\pi_j, k-1) - \sum_{j=1}^{h-1} p(\pi_j, k) \},
$$

\n
$$
k = \{2, ..., m\}
$$
 (1)

After calculating the S_k values, the completion time of each job can be calculated by adding the processing times of jobs on each machine;

$$
C(\pi_1, k) = S_k + p(\pi_1, k) \qquad k = \{1, ..., m\}
$$
(2)

$$
C(\pi_j, k) = C(\pi_{j-1}, k) + p(\pi_j, k) \qquad j = \{2, ..., n\}, k = \{1, ..., m\}
$$
(3)

As a result, the completion time of jobs on the last machine gives the makespan;

$$
C_{max} = C(\pi_n, m). \tag{4}
$$

In order to come up with the complexity, the summations inside the max term in expression (1) have to be stored at each step. For example:

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{h} p(\pi_j, k-1) = \sum_{j=1}^{h-1} p(\pi_j, k-1) + p(\pi_h, k-1)
$$
 (5)

As mentioned before, (Pan, Q-K. and Wang, L., 2008) proposed another calculation method for NIPFS problem that consists of forward and backward passes which is explained in the following sections.

2.1 Forward Pass Calculation

Let the partial sequence of π , $\pi_i^E = {\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_i}$ represent the sequence of jobs from the first job to the jth job of sequence π where $1 < j < n$. The minimum difference, between the completion of processing the last job of π_i^E on machines k and $k + 1$ is denoted as $F(\pi_i^E, k, k + 1)$ and restricted by no-idle constraint. $F(\pi_i^E, k, k+1)$ can be computed as shown below.

$$
F(\pi_1^E, k, k+1) = p(\pi_1, k+1) \qquad k = 1, 2, ..., m-1 \qquad (6)
$$

$$
F(\pi_j^E, k, k+1) = \max\{F(\pi_{j-1}^E, k, k+1) - p(\pi_j, k), 0\} + p(\pi_j, k+1)
$$

j = 2,3,...,*n* and *k* = 1,2,...,*m* - 1 (7)

Figure 1. Computation of $F(\pi_1^E, k, k+1)$

Figure 2. Computation of $F(\pi_2^E, k, k+1)$

Figure 3. Computation of $F(\pi_3^E, k, k+1)$

In formulation (6), difference between the completions of processing the last job of π_1^E which only includes one job, on machines k and $k + 1$ is given. Since there is only one job, $F(\pi_1^E, k, k+1)$ can be calculated by considering processing time of that job on corresponding, $(k + 1)$ th machine. In formulation (7), calculation of $F(\pi_i^E, k, k + 1)$ for $j > 1$ is represented. It can be calculated by not only considering processing time of jth job on machine k , also adding the positive difference between the previous job's completion of processing on machines k and $k + 1$.

The completion time of last job, π_n on last machine m can be calculated as summation of $F(\pi_n^E, k, k+1)$ value for all machines and the processing times of all previously processed jobs including π_n itself;

$$
C(\pi_n, m) = C_{max}(\pi_n^E) = \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} F(\pi_n^E, k, k+1) + \sum_{j=1}^n p(\pi_j, 1) \tag{8}
$$

Then, for any job j , completion time on last machine m can be computed by subtracting the processing time of the next job, π_{i+1} from the completion time of π_{j+1} on machine *m*;

$$
C(\pi_j, m) = C(\pi_{j+1}, m) - p(\pi_{j+1}, m) \qquad j = n-1, n-2, \dots, 1 \tag{9}
$$

Makespan can also be defined as the maximum completion time of jobs on the last machine by using the no-idle constraint of this problem;

$$
C_{max}(\pi_n^E) = \max(C(\pi_1, m), C(\pi_2, m), \dots, C(\pi_n, m))
$$
\n(10)

And, the total flow time of the permutation π , can be obtained as a summation of all completion times;

$$
TFT(\pi) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} C(\pi_j, m)
$$
\n(11)

Figure 4. Computation of $C_{\text{max}}(\pi)$

For the example instance for 3-job 3-machine problem that is taken from (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q., Suganthan P.N.,Oner A., In press), Figure 1 a to Figure 1 d, the forward calculation is illustrated with a permutation $\pi = \{1,2,3\}$.

An example for forward pass calculation is represented below.

Example

An example instance is given in Table 1 for 3-job 3-machine problem with permutation $\pi = \{1,2,3\}$ and with due date tightness factor of $\tau = 1$. According to the data given, the forward pass calculation is presented below, in detail.

	Machines (k)						
Jobs (i)		2	3				
p_{1j}			3				
p_{2j}	$\overline{2}$	3	3				
p_{3j}	2	2	3				

Table 1. An example instance for forward and backward pass calculation

By using the equation (6), $F(\pi_i^E, k, k+1)$ for the first job is computed as; $F(\pi_1^E,$ $F(\pi_1^E,$

Equation (7) is used to calculate $F(\pi_i^E, k, k+1)$ for the remaining jobs. For $j = 2$ and $= 1,2$;

$$
F(\pi_2^E, 1,2) = \max\{F(\pi_1^E, 1,2) - p(\pi_2, 1), 0\} + p(\pi_2, 2)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{F(\pi_1^E, 1,2) - p(2,1), 0\} + p(2,2)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{(1-2), 0\} + 3 = 3
$$

\n
$$
F(\pi_2^E, 2,3) = \max\{F(\pi_1^E, 2,3) - p(\pi_2, 2), 0\} + p(\pi_2, 3)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{F(\pi_1^E, 2,3) - p(2,2), 0\} + p(2,3)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{(3-3), 0\} + 3 = 3
$$

For $j = 3$ and $= 1,2$;

$$
F(\pi_3^E, 1,2) = \max\{F(\pi_2^E, 1,2) - p(\pi_3, 1), 0\} + p(\pi_3, 2)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{F(\pi_2^E, 1,2) - p(3,1), 0\} + p(3,2)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{(3-2), 0\} + 2 = 3
$$

\n
$$
F(\pi_3^E, 2,3) = \max\{F(\pi_2^E, 2,3) - p(\pi_3, 2), 0\} + p(\pi_3, 3)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{F(\pi_2^E, 2,3) - p(3,2), 0\} + p(3,3)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{(3-2), 0\} + 3 = 4
$$

The completion time of the last job $j = 3$ on last machine $k = 3$ which gives also the makespan of the permutation is computed by using the equation (8);

$$
C(\pi_3, 3) = \sum_{k=1}^{3-1} F(\pi_3^E, k, k+1) + \sum_{j=1}^{3} p(\pi_j, 1)
$$

= $F(\pi_3^E, 1, 2) + F(\pi_3^E, 2, 3) + p(1, 1) + p(2, 1) + p(3, 1)$
= $3 + 4 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 15$

For remaining jobs, $j = 1,2$ completion time on last machine $m = 3$ is computed by using equation (9);

$$
C(\pi_2, 3) = C(\pi_3, 3) - p(\pi_3, 3)
$$

= 15 - 3 = 12

$$
C(\pi_1, 3) = C(\pi_2, 3) - p(\pi_2, 3)
$$

= 12 - 3 = 9

The makespan can also be computed by using (10);

$$
C_{max} = \max(C(\pi_1, 3), C(\pi_2, 3), C(\pi_3, 3))
$$

= max(15,12,9)
= 15

As mentioned before, the makespan calculation by using equation (8) and equation (10) results same since the problem has a no-idle constraint.

Total flow time is calculated with equation (11);

$$
TFT(\pi) = \sum_{j=1}^{3} C(\pi_j, 3)
$$

= $C(\pi_1, 3) + C(\pi_2, 3) + C(\pi_3, 3)$
= 36

2.2 Backward Pass Calculation

Let, the partial sequence of π , $\pi_i^F = {\pi_i, \pi_{i+1}, ..., \pi_n}$ represent the sequence of jobs from the *jth* job to the last job *n* of sequence π where $1 < j < n$. And let $E(\pi_i^F, k, k + 1)$ be the lower bound for the minimum difference between the start of processing the first job of π_i^F on machines k and $k + 1$. Then;

$$
E(\pi_n^F, k, k+1) = p(\pi_n, k) \qquad k = 1, 2, ..., m-1 \qquad (12)
$$

$$
E(\pi_j^F, k, k+1) = \max\{E(\pi_{j+1}^F, k, k+1) - p(\pi_j, k+1), 0\} + p(\pi_j, k)
$$

$$
j = n-1, n-2, \dots, 1 \quad and \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, m-1
$$
 (13)

Figure 5. Computation of $E(\pi_3^F, k, k+1)$

Figure 6. Computation of $E(\pi_2^F, k, k+1)$

Figure 7. Computation of $E(\pi_1^F, k, k+1)$

The completion time of the first job π_1 on last machine m can be obtained as follows;

$$
C(\pi_1, m) = \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} E(\pi_1^F, k, k+1) + p(\pi_1, m)
$$
 (14)

Then, the completion time of any job π_{j+1} on the last machine m can be computed as;

$$
C(\pi_{j+1}, m) = C(\pi_j, m) + p(\pi_{j+1}, m) \qquad j = 1, 2, ..., n-1 \qquad (15)
$$

The objective of no-idle permutation flowshop is to find the permutation π^* which has a minimum makespan or total flow time in the set of all permutations Π . The permutation π^{*} can be obtained as;

$$
C_{max}(\pi^*) \le C_{max}(\pi_n^E) \text{ or } C_{max}(\pi^*) \le C_{max}(\pi_1^F), \forall \pi \in \prod \tag{16}
$$

$$
TFT(\pi^*) \le TFT(\pi_n^E) \text{ or } (\pi^*) \le TFT(\pi_1^F), \forall \pi \in \prod \tag{17}
$$

Figure 8. Computation of $C_{\text{max}}(\pi)$

Fig. 2 a to Fig.2 d illustrate the backward pass calculation of makespan for a 3-job 3-machine problem.

By using the example instance that is given in Table 1, a detailed backward pass calculation is represented below.

Example

For the last job $j = 3$, $E(\pi_i^F, k, k + 1)$ is computed by using equation (12); $E(\pi_3^F,$ $E(\pi_3^F,$ Equation (13) is used to calculate $E(\pi_i^F, k, k+1)$ for the remaining jobs. For $j = 2$ and $= 1,2$; $E(\pi_2^F, 1,2)$ = max $\{E(\pi_3^F, 1)\}$ $=$ max{ $E(\pi_3^F)$, $= max{ (2 – 3), 0 } + 2 = 2$ $E(\pi_2^F, 2, 3)$ = max{ $E(\pi_3^F,$ = max $\{E(\pi_3^F,$ $= max\{(2-3), 0\} + 3 = 3$

For $i = 1$ and $= 1.2$;

$$
E(\pi_1^F, 1,2) = \max\{E(\pi_2^F, 1,2) - p(\pi_1, 2), 0\} + p(\pi_1, 1)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{E(\pi_2^F, 1,2) - p(1,2), 0\} + p(1,1)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{(2-1), 0\} + 4 = 5
$$

\n
$$
E(\pi_1^F, 2,3) = \max\{E(\pi_2^F, 2,3) - p(\pi_1, 3), 0\} + p(\pi_1, 2)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{E(\pi_2^F, 2,3) - p(1,3), 0\} + p(1,2)
$$

\n
$$
= \max\{(3-3), 0\} + 1 = 1
$$

The completion time for the first job $j = 1$ on the last machine $k = 3$, is obtained by equation (14);

$$
C(\pi_1, 3) = \sum_{k=1}^{2} E(\pi_1^F, k, k+1) + p(\pi_1, 3)
$$

= $E(\pi_1^F, 1, 2) + E(\pi_1^F, 2, 3) + p(\pi_1, 3)$
= $5 + 1 + 3 = 9$

Using equation (15), all other remaining jobs' $j = 2.3$ completion time on last machine $m = 3$ is computed;

$$
C(\pi_2, 3) = C(\pi_1, 3) + p(2, 3)
$$

= 9 + 3 = 12

$$
C(\pi_3, 3) = C(\pi_2, 3) - p(3,3) = 12 + 3 = 15
$$

As mentioned before, the makespan can also be computed by using (10);

$$
C_{max} = \max(C(\pi_1, 3), C(\pi_2, 3), C(\pi_3, 3))
$$

= max(9,12,15)
= 15

And the total flow time can be calculated same as forward pass method by using equation (11).

As a result of this comparison study, the formulation of (Pan, Q-K. and Wang, L., 2008) is selected to use in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METAHEURISTIC ALGORITHMS

In the last years, a new kind of approximate algorithm started to be used by many researchers, which basically tries to combine basic heuristic methods in higher level frameworks aimed at efficiently and effectively exploring a search space. These methods are called metaheuristics.

Metaheuristic algorithms basically aim to provide nearly-optimal solutions by creating an initial solution and improving this solution iteratively. These algorithms help researchers to have qualified solutions for very complex problems (i.e. NP-Hard problems) which are commonly needed to be solved in real-life cases. There are several algorithms presented in literature; some of these algorithms uniquely developed for a specific problem, some of these are applicable for different types of problems. (Stützle, 1999) presented the definition for the term metaheuristic as follows;

"Metaheuristics are typically high-level strategies which guide an underlying, more problem pecific heuristic, to increase their performance. The main goal is to avoid the disadvantages of iterative improvement and, in particular, multiple descents by allowing the local search to escape from local optima. This is achieved by either allowing worsening moves or generating new starting solutions for the local search in a more "intelligent" way than just providing random initial solutions. Many of the methods can be interpreted as introducing a bias such that high quality solutions are produced quickly. This bias can be of various forms and can be cast as descent bias (based on the objective function), memory bias (based on previously made decisions) or experience bias (based on prior performance). Many of the metaheuristic approaches rely on probabilistic decisions made during the search. But, the main difference to pure random search is that in metaheuristic algorithms randomness is not used blindly but in an intelligent, biased form."

In literature, for NIPFS problem, many researchers proposed different algorithms. In this thesis, the results obtained from four different algorithms that are proposed for the NIPFS problem, are compared with the proposed GVNS algorithm. These algorithms are;

> ■ An Iterated Greedy (IG_LS) algorithm for the NIPFS problem with the makespan criterion that is presented in (Ruiz, R. , Vallada, E. , Fernández-Martínez, C., 2009)

- Variable Iterated Greedy (VIG_FL) algorithm, that is presented and implemented to solve the PFSP with the total tardiness criterion in (Framinan and Leisten, 2008)
- The Hybrid Discrete Differential Evolution (HDDE) algorithm that is proposed by (Deng G and Gu X., 2012)
- Variable Iterated Greedy algorithm with Differential Evolution (VIG_DE).

In this chapter these algorithms and the algorithm that is proposed; a GVNS algorithm with insert and swap operations in outer loop and in the inner loop (VND), IG algorithm and iterated local search (ILS) algorithm are explained.

3.1 Iterated Greedy (IG) Algorithm

Iterated Greedy algorithm is presented in (Ruiz R., Stützle T., 2007), based on a very simple principle and easy to implement as well as has successful applications in discrete/combinatorial optimization problem. It produces solutions with very good quality in a very short amount of time.

Algorithm starts with an initial solution that is generated either randomly or using heuristics, such as NEH heuristic that is explained in Section 3.1.1 . Then Destruction Construction Procedure is applied which is presented in Section 3.1.2 and repeated until some stopping criterion like a maximum number of iterations or a computation time limit is met. An optional local search phase can be added before the acceptance test for improving the re-constructed solution. For this study, Referenced Insertion Algorithm is used as a local search and explained in Section 3.1.3. . The pseudo code of the algorithm is given below;

```
Procedure IG(\pi, d)\pi = \pi_h\pi = LocalSearch(\pi)dof\pi_1 = \text{DestructConstruct}(\pi, d)\pi_2 = RIS(\pi_1) //(optional) Local Search
         if f(\pi_2) < f(\pi) then
                                                   //Acceptance test
                \pi = \pi_{2}\pi^Rif f(\pi_2) < f(\pi_b)\pi_b = \pi_2endif
        elseif random \leq exp\{-(f(\pi_2)-f(\pi))/T\}
```

$$
π = π2
$$

\n*π^R* = π₂
\n*endif*
\n*while (NotTermination)* // Stopping criterion
\n*return π and π_b*
\n*endprocedure*
\n**Figure 9** Iterated Greedy Algorithm

3.1.1 The NEH Heuristic

NEH heuristic is proposed by (Nawaz, M., Enscore, Jr, E. E., and Ham, I., 1983) and has been recognized as the highest performing method for the permutation flowshop scheduling problem. The NEH algorithm is based on scheduling jobs with high processing times, as early as possible, on all the machines. The NEH heuristic has three phases:

- 1. For each job j , the total processing time on the m machines are computed: $P_j = \sum_{k=1}^m p_{jk}$,
- 2. Jobs are sorted in descending order of P_i s. Let the resulting permutation be π , then the first two jobs are selected and two possible permutations are generated and the one that results with the minimum makespan or total flowtime is selected.
- 3. Second phase is repeated until all jobs are sequenced. In order to generalize the procedure; in the i^{th} step, the job π_i at position i is taken and inserted into i possible positions of the permutation of the jobs that are already scheduled. The best resulting permutation is selected.

The computational complexity of the NEH heuristic is $O(n^3m)$, which consumes a very high level of CPU especially for larger instances. There are some speed-up methods that are introduced to reduce the complexity of NEH to $O(n^2m)$. It is claimed that these speed-up methods are one of the key factors to the success of most algorithms especially the ones with the makespan criterion. Even though, in this study no speed-up method is used, the result of the proposed algorithm is way better than most of the algorithms from the literature.

3.1.2 Destruction and Construction Procedure

Destruction and Construction Procedure consists of two main steps; destruction step and construction step. In the destruction step, pre-determined parameter d many jobs are randomly chosen and removed from the current solution. Therefore, two partial solutions obtained; one consists of the removed jobs, in the order which they removed denoted as π^R , the other one is the remaining part of the initial solution with size $n-d$ and denoted as π^D . In the construction phase, a heuristic called NEH insertion is used. In this heuristic, basically all jobs in π^R is inserted into each position in π^D one by one, and finally the best permutation with the minimum makespan (or total tardiness) is selected. In a more detailed way; the first job of the π^R is selected and removed from π^R and inserted into all possible $n-d+1$ positions, thus $n-d+1$ many partial solutions obtained. By considering the performance criterion, the best solution is selected and kept. Next, the same procedure is applied for second job, third job and so on, until the π^R is empty. Therefore, the size of π^D becomes n again. In order to be more descriptive, an example that is represented in (Ruiz R., Stützle T., 2007) is given below.

Table 2. An example instance for Destruction and Construction Procedure

For the example instance given in Table 2, one iteration of the IG algorithm is applied. Let the given sequence given below be the initial solution that is obtained by using NEH algorithm with $C_{max} = 8564$.

For the destruction phase, let the destruction size be, $d = 3$. Then, three jobs must be randomly chosen and removed from the current solution. Let these jobs be 5, 1 and 4, respectively.

Then, the removed job to be reinserted, π^R and the partial sequence to be reconstructed π^D becomes as follows, respectively;

In construction phase, each job in π^R is reinserted in all possible positions in π^{D} and the sequence with the best performance is selected. In the figures below, the best sequence after the reinsertion of each job is given.

After reinserting job 5, $C_{max} = 7589$ After reinserting job 1, $C_{max} = 8243$ After reinserting job 4, $C_{max} = 8366$

The example shows that a new solution obtained by removing jobs 5, 1 and 4 and reinserting them, is $C_{max} = 8366$ which is a better solution than the initial solution given by the NEH heuristic $(C_{max} = 8564)$. This new solution is accepted by the acceptance criterion since it is better than the starting solution. Furthermore, this new sequence is known to be an optimal solution for this instance.

3.1.3 Referenced Insertion Algorithm

In the referenced insertion (RIS) procedure, as an initial step, a referenced permutation, π^R , is selected which is the best solution found so far. Then, the first job of the π^R is determined and the position of this job is found in the current permutation π . This corresponding job is removed from π and inserted into all possible positions of permutation π . Next, second job of the π^R is found in the permutation π , removed and inserted into the positions of its own permutation. And the procedure goes on in this way, until all the jobs in the π^R is processed. For example, let the referenced sequence be, $\pi^R = \{4,2,5,1,3\}$ and the current

solution be $\pi = \{2, 1, 5, 4, 3\}$. The RIS procedure selects the first job of π^R , which is job 4 and finds it in the current sequence. It removes job 4 from π and inserts into all possible positions in π . The objective function values of these newly generated permutations are compared to π and if any insertion is better than π , then the current solution is replaced by that permutation obtained by the insertion. Then the RIS procedure takes the second job of the referenced sequence which is job 2 and finds it in π . Procedure removes job 2 from current solution π , and inserts it into all possible positions of π . This procedure is repeated until π^R is empty.

The RIS procedure claims to have better solutions since the jobs are selected by referring to a good quality solution instead of a random choice. The pseudo code of this algorithm is represented below;

Procedure RIS (π,π^R) $h=1$ $i=1$ while($i \leq n$)do{ $h = h (mod) n$ π_1 = remove job π_k from π , corresponding to job π_h^R i reference permutation π^R π_2 = the best permutation obtained by inserting job π_k in any possible position of π_1 $if (f(\pi_2) < f(\pi))t$ $\pi = \pi_2$ $i=1$ $\}$ else { $h = h + 1$ }endif *lendwhile* $return \pi$ endprocedure **Figure 10.** Referenced Insertion Algorithm

In this study, an IG algorithm with RIS local search is applied to NIPFS problem. In addition to IG, another powerful algorithm, Iterated Local Search (ILS) algorithm is also applied to this problem. In the next section, ILS algorithm is explained in details.

3.1.4 Iterated Local Search Algorithm

Iterated local search (ILS) is first presented in (H.R. Lourenc, O. Martin, T. Stützle, 2002) and known as a simple and powerful stochastic local search method. According to (H.R. Lourenc, O. Martin, T. Stützle, 2002), "*ILS is a simple and generally applicable stochastic local search method that iteratively applies local search to perturbations of the current search point, leading to a randomized walk in the space of local optima"*. The main idea of iterated local search (ILS) algorithm is to apply local search repeatedly to initial solutions obtained by perturbations of a previously visited locally optimal solutions. The simplicity, ease of implementation and at the same time efficiency of this algorithm makes this algorithm eligible.

In (Thomas Stützle, 2006), the application of ILS to the quadratic assignment problem is represented. In this study, as a second algorithm of VND phase of the GVNS algorithm is inspired by this application of ILS.

In ILS algorithm, there are some procedures to be specified. These are;

- How to generate initial solution (*GenerateInitialSolution*),
- Perturbation type (*Perturbation*),
- Acceptance criterion (*AcceptanceCriterion*),
- Which local search to use (*LocalSearch*).

(Thomas Stützle, 2006), used a random assignment of items to locations as the initial solution (*GenerateInitialSolution*). The phase *Perturbation* exchanges randomly chosen items, corresponding to a random move in the k-opt neighborhood. (Thomas Stützle, 2006) decided to determine value k by using VNS. In order to decide which solution to choose, as *AcceptanceCriterion, Better(s,s')* function is used. By using this function, good solutions (s) are determined as;

$$
s = Better(s, s') = \begin{cases} s' & if & f(s') < f(s) \\ s & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

where $f(s)$ represents the objective function value for solution s . In *LocalSearch* phase, an iterated descent algorithm with a first improvement pivoting rule is used. The pseudo code of the ILS algorithm is given below, in Figure 17.

Procedure Iterated Local Search

```
\pi = GenerateInitialSolution
\pi_1 = LocalSearch(\pi)dof\pi_2 = Perturbation(\pi_1, history)
       \pi_3 = LocalSearch(\pi_2)\pi = AcceptanceCriterion(\pi_1, \pi_1, history){\moverlinger{mation}}
return \piendprocedure
```
Figure 11. The general outline for an iterated local search

where *history* indicates that also the search history may affect the Perturbation and AcceptanceCriterion decisions.

3.2 Variable Iterated Greedy Algorithm

Variable IG algorithm (VIG_FL) is presented and implemented to solve the PFSP with the total tardiness criterion in (Framinan and Leisten, 2008). This algorithm is inspired from the idea of neighbourhood change of the VNS algorithm that is explained in Section 3.5 . In (Ruiz R., Stützle T., 2007) it is shown that destruction of 4 jobs is most adequate, so in their study, the destruction size is used as a constant parameter which equals to 4. In VIG_FL, the destruction size is developed as a variable and at the beginning it is fixed at $d = 1$. If the solution is not improved, the destruction size is incremented by 1 until the maximum destruction size which is $d_{max} = n - 1$ (where *n* indicates the number of jobs). At any destruction size, if there is an improvement in the solution, destruction size is again fixed at $d = 1$ and search starts all over again. The pseudo code of VIG_FL is given below;

```
Procedure VIG FL
\pi = NEHd_{max} = n - 1\pi^R\pi = RIS(\pi, \pi^R)dofd=1do\{\pi_1 = \text{DestructConstruct}(\pi, d)\pi_2 = RIS(\pi)if (f(\pi_2) < f(\pi_1)) t
                 d=1\pi = \pi^R
```

$$
if (f(\pi_2) < f(\pi_b)) then
$$
\n
$$
\pi_{bsf} = \pi
$$
\n
$$
jends \text{ and } f
$$
\n
$$
jelse \text{ if } \{U(0,1) \leq \exp\{-\frac{f(\pi_2) - f(\pi)}{T}\}
$$
\n
$$
\pi = \pi^R = \pi_2
$$
\n
$$
d = d + 1
$$
\n
$$
jwhile (d \leq d_{max})
$$
\n
$$
jwhile (NotTermination)
$$
\nreturn π_b \n
$$
endprocedure
$$
\n
$$
endprocedure
$$

Figure 12. Variable Iterated Greedy Algortihm of Framinan and Leisten

3.3 Variable Iterated Greedy Algorithm with Differential Evolution

Standard Differential Evolution (DE) algorithm is introduced by (Storn R, Price K., 1997) for continuous optimization problems. DE algorithm is a population-based algorithm and there are three different individual types; target, mutant and trial. At the beginning, population is consisting of "population size" (PS) many target individuals. Mutant individuals are generated by applying *mutation* operation and trial individuals are generated by *crossover* operation and then applies *selection* operator to determine the new target individuals for the next generation.

Let $X_i^t = [x_{i1}^t, x_{i2}^t, \ldots, x_{i}^t]$ denote the *i*th individual of target population at generation t. $V_i^t = [v_{i1}^t, v_{i2}^t, \dots, v_{i}^t]$ denote mutant and $U_i^t = [u_{i1}^t, u_{i2}^t, \dots, u_{i}^t]$ denote trial individuals. Mutant and trial individuals are generated as follows;

$$
v_{ij}^t = x_{aj}^{t-1} + F(x_{bj}^{t-1} - x_{cj}^{t-1})
$$
\n(18)

$$
u_{ij}^t = \begin{cases} v_{ij}^t & \text{if } rand < CR \text{ or } j = j_r \\ x_{ij}^{t-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{19}
$$

where a, b , and c are random integers that are different than each other and i, and take values between [1, PS]. rand is a random number between [0,1), F is the mutation scale factor from $[0,2)$ and CR is the crossover probability from [0,1]. j_r is a random integer from [1, D]. For creating a mutant individual in (18), three different individuals are randomly chosen from target population and the

difference of two of these individuals' *j*th elements is multiplied with mutation scale factor and added to third individual's *j*th element. So that, new mutant individual's jth element is obtained. In (19), with crossover probability the trial individual is taken from mutant population, otherwise it remains same as target individual.

By using these formulations, (18) and (19), trial population is generated for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, D$ and $i = 1, 2, \ldots, PS$. In selection phase, target population and trial population is compared and the one with better objective function value is selected. This phase is performed as;

$$
X_i^t = \begin{cases} U_i^t & \text{if } f(U_i^t) \le f(X_i^{t-1})\\ X_i^{t-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{20}
$$

where $f(x)$ is the objective function value for individual x. These iterations go on until pre-determined stopping criteria is satisfied.

A modified VIG algorithm is also applied to NIPFS problem to compare the performance of proposed algorithm. (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q., Suganthan P.N., Buyukdagli O., 2013) proposed an algorithm that the standard DE algorithm is modified and applied such that the probability to apply IG algorithm to the specific individual in the target population and the parameter of IG, destruction size is a variable. Thus, this algorithm is a variable iterated greedy algorithm guided by differential evolution denoted by VIG_DE.

Basically, VIG DE algorithm optimizes the probability to apply IG to an individual (ρ_i) and the destruction size (d_i) that is used as a parameter of IG, by using DE. In the initial population, the permutation of the first individual is constructed by using NEH heuristic. All the remaining individuals in the target population are generated randomly and NEH heuristic is applied each of them to start the algorithm with relatively better individuals. The destruction size, d_i , is determined randomly and uniformly between $[1, n - 1]$. After generating target population and d_i for each individual of that population, IG algorithm is applied the individuals in target population without considering the probability (ρ_i) that guides algorithm either IG is applied or not. Next, ρ_i is determined as follows;

$$
\rho_i = 1 - f(\pi_i) / \sum_{i=1}^{NP} f(\pi_i)
$$
\n(21)

A uniform random number rand is generated between $[0,1)$, if this number is less than the probability ρ_i , IG algorithm is applied to the trial individual with the destruction size d_i . This calculation gives a high ratio which means higher probability to apply IG, when the objective function value is lower (for minimization problem) for that individual. This means after applying IG if the objective function value gets better, then the probability to apply IG gets higher value.

In order to avoid complexity, a unique multi-vector chromosome representation is used to keep all variables together in this problem. In Table 2, it can be observed that, the variables d_i and p_i appear in the first vector. x_{i1} corresponds to destruction size d_i and x_{i2} to probability ρ_i . The second vector contains the permutation that is assigned to each individual.

				\cdots	$\, n$
x_{ij}	a_i	ρ_i			
π_{ij}	π_{i1}	π_{i2}	π_{i3}	\cdots	π_{in}

Table 3. Multi-vector chromosome representation

In VIG_DE algorithm, mutant individuals are obtained by using formulation (18), for $j = 1,2$ and a, b , and c are randomly chosen integers by tournament selection with size of 2 that are different than each other and i , and take values between $[1, PS]$.

For the crossover phase, an arithmetic crossover operator is applied to generate trial population.

$$
u_{ij}^t = C_r(v_{ij}^t) + (1 - C_r)x_{ij}^t
$$
 (22)

where C_r is a crossover probability from the range [0,1] and $j = 1,2$. The higher C_r value means, the higher effect of mutant individual comparing to target individual on the new trial individual. This arithmetic calculation may cause the individual to violate the search range. In order to fix this problem, following formulation is used;

$$
u_{ij}^t = x_{ij}^{max} + r(x_{ij}^{max} - x_{ij}^{min})
$$
\n(23)

where $j = 1,2$ and $x_{i1}^{min} = 1, x_{i1}^{max} = n - 1, x_{i2}^{min} = 0, x_{i2}^{max} = 1$ and r is a uniform random number from $[0,1]$. Since the first dimension is taken as a destruction size, this value should be an integer value. Therefore, destruction size is obtained by truncating u_{i1}^t such that; $d_i = [u_{i1}^t]$. The second dimension is used as the probability to apply IG algorithm, $u_{i1}^t = \rho_i$. If a uniform random number is less than the probability $u_{i1}^t = \rho_i$, then the IG algorithm is applied and the fitness value of the generated trial individual is computed. In the selection phase, the survival of the fittest among all the trial and target individuals is considered as shown below;

$$
x_i^t = \begin{cases} u_i^t & \text{if } f(u_i^t) < f(x_i^{t-1})\\ x_i^{t-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{24}
$$

Differential evolution part of the algorithm, that is explained above, is applied only the first vector of the solution representation which contains x_{i1} and x_{i2} . The pseudo code of the whole VIG DE algorithm is given in Figure XXX.

```
Procedure VIG DE
Initilize population
Evaluate population and determine d_i and \rho_iWhile (NotTermination) do{
       For (i = 1 to PS) do{
              Get mutant individual v_iGet trial individual u_iif (r < \rho_i = u_{i2})Apply DestructConstruct with d_i = u_{i1} to \pi_iApply RIS local search to \pi_iUpdate x_i,
              \}endif
        \} end for
}endwhile
return \pi_hendprocedure
      Figure 13. Variable Iterated Greedy Algorithm with Differential Evolution
```
3.4 Hybrid Discrete Differential Evolution

The DE algorithm is proposed for continuous optimization problems where the individuals are represented by floating-point numbers, so in order to apply this algorithm to the problems where discrete job permutation is needed to be generated. (Tasgetiren, M. F., Pan, Q. -K., Liang, Y. -C., Suganthan, P.N., 2007a) proposed an algorithm for scheduling problems which is called Discrete Differential Evolution (DDE) algorithm. Mutation and crossover operations are re-designed as job-permutation-based that is applicable for discrete cases.

The Hybrid DDE (HDDE) algorithm is the combination of DDE-based evolutionary searching technique and a problem specific local search. (Deng G and Gu X., 2012) inspired from (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q.K., Suganthan P.N., Liang Y.C., 2007b) study and applied their perturbed local search after the new population generated by using DDE which provides algorithm to start the new search with a qualified individuals. HDDE algorithm that (Deng G and Gu X., 2012) proposed is one of the metaheuristic algorithms that is compared with the algorithm presented in this study.

In this algorithm, the individuals are represented as job permutations; $\pi = (\pi(1), \pi(2), \ldots, \pi(n))$. Different than standard DE that is explained in Section 3.3, *ith* individual of target population at generation t is represented as π_i^t . Mutant and trial individuals are generated as follows;

$$
V_i^t = \begin{cases} insert(\pi_g^{t-1}) & if \text{ rand} < p_m \\ insert(\pi_r^{t-1}) & otherwise \end{cases} \tag{25}
$$

$$
U_i^t = \begin{cases} CR(V_i^t, \pi_i^{t-1}) & \text{if } rand < p_c \\ V_i^t & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{26}
$$

where π_a^{t-1} is a relatively better solution than current one, from generation $t-1$. insert(x) operator is a random insert move in an individual x, $CR(x, y)$ represents a crossover operator (partially mapped crossover) applied to x and y , p_m is the insert mutation scale factor and p_c is the crossover probability. r is a random number between $\begin{bmatrix} 1, PS \end{bmatrix}$ but different than i and rand is a uniform random number between $[0,1)$. In (25) , mutant individual is obtained as following; if rand is less than p_m , insertion move is applied to a relatively better solution π_q , otherwise to a random target individual different than *i*th. Similarly, for the trial individual generation in (26), if rand is less than p_c , partially mapped crossover is applied to mutant individual V_i^t and the corresponding target value at the previous generation π_i^{t-1} , otherwise mutant individual is directly taken.

Selection phase of HDDE is performed same as in standard DE that is represented in (20) in Section 3.3 .

As a local search, in (Deng G and Gu X., 2012) perturbed local search is presented. This local search algorithm is a combination of destruction construction algorithm that is explained in Section 3.1.2 , referenced insertion algoritm that is presented in Section 3.1.3 and *IterativeImprovement_Insertion* that is represented in (Ruiz R., Stützle T., 2007). The outline of perturbed local search is shown below;

```
Procedure PLS(\pi)\pi_1 = \pi\pi_2 = Destruction Construction (\pi_1)\pi_3 = InsertionImprovement(\pi_2)
        if(f(\pi_3) < f(\pi))t\pi = \pi_{3}if(f(\pi) < f(\pi_h))t\pi_b = \pi\}endif
         } else if rand < \exp\{-(f(\pi_3) - f(\pi))/T\}t
                 \pi = \pi_{3}\}endif
endprocedure
return \pi
```
Figure 14. Perturbed Local Search

where π_b is the best individual found by HDDE so far. For a given permutation π , first destruction construction is applied, then insertion-based local search and lastly the acceptance criterion is checked.

The initial target population is generated randomly except two individuals of this population. One is generated by using NEH heuristic that is explained in Section 3.1.1, the other is generated by a variant of *InsertionImprovement(* π *)*.

The pseudo code of HDDE algorithm is given below. This algorithm includes standard DE procedures, mutation, crossover and selection and as a local search perturbed local search.

```
Procedure HDDE
set parameters: p<sub>c</sub>,
initialize target population
\pi_{bsf} = the best individual in target population, \pi_q = \pi_bwhile(not termination)
        t = t + 1obtain mutant population
        obtain trial population
        selection
```
update π_h $PLS(\pi_a)$ endwhile endprocedure

Figure 15. Hybrid Discrete Differential Evolution

3.5 General Variable Neighbourhood Search

Variable neighborhood search (VNS) is a common approach to enhance the solution quality with systematic changes of neighborhood within a local search. It is proposed by (Mladenovic´, N., Hansen, P., 1997). The algorithm involves iterative exploration of larger and larger neighborhoods for a given local optima until there is an improvement, after which time the search is repeated. The basic steps of VNS algorithm can be summarized as given below:

Initially, a set of neighborhood structures, N_k is selected where $k =$ $1, 2, \ldots, k_{max}$. Having a multi neighborhood structure makes VNS an effective algorithm since most local search heuristics use one structure, $k_{max} = 1$. Then the initial solution is generated either randomly or using heuristics, such as NEH heuristic. The stopping criteria can be selected as maximum CPU time allowed or maximum number of iterations. Then, following steps are repeated until the stopping criterion is met;

- \bullet Set $k = 1$:
- Repeat the following steps until $k > k_{max}$:
	- \circ Generate a point x' at random from k^{th} neighborhood of $N_k(x)$, (shaking)
	- \circ Apply local search method by considering x' as initial solution and obtain a local optimum denoted by x'' . (*local search*)
	- o If this local optimum x'' is better than x, $x = x''$ and continue search with current neighborhood structure N_1 meaning $k = 1$; otherwise set $k = k + 1$.

There are some decisions to be made before using VNS algorithm. These are;

- Number and types of neighborhoods to be used
- Order of their use in the search
- Strategy for changing the neighborhoods
- Local search method
- Stopping condition

Shaking step of VNS algorithm provides randomness in search. If this step is eliminated from algorithm, variable neighborhood descent (VND) algorithm is obtained. The steps of VND can be explained briefly, as follows;

- \bullet Set $k = 1$:
- Repeat the following steps until $k > k_{max}$.
	- \circ Find the best $x' \in N_k$
	- o If x' is better than x, then set $x = x'$; otherwise set $k = k + 1$.

An extended VNS algorithm called general variable neighborhood search (GVNS) that is proposed in (Hansen P., Mladenovic N., Urosevic D., 2006). It can be obtained by replacing the *local search* step of VNS with VND algorithm. In this study, a different version of the GVNS algorithm with insert and swap operations in outer loop and in the inner loop (VND), IG algorithm and iterated local search (ILS) algorithm is applied to NIPFS problem and compared to all other algorithms. Using an another algorithm in local search step of the VNS provides to have a more powerful algorithm.

The pseudo code of the GVNS algorithm we applied in this study is given below;

```
Procedure GVNS
\pi = NEH\pi_h = \pik_{max} = 2k=1do\\pi_1 = N_k(\pi)\pi_2 = VND(\pi_1)If f(\pi_2)\pi = \pi_2k=1else
                k = k + 1
```

```
\{while (k \leq k_{max})\}return \pi_hendprocedure
```
Figure 16. General Variable Neighborhood Search Algorithm

where, (π) = insert(π) and $N_2(\pi)$ = swap(π) operations. Shaking phase is composed of two different operations. The *insert* and swap operations applies only one insert and one swap move, respectively, to *shake* the permutation. The sequence of these operations has an

important role in search. In literature many study shows that putting insert operation before swap results better than the converse version. After shaking phase $VND(\pi)$ is applied, as a local search, and is explained below;

```
Procedure VND(\pi)d_{max}=2d=1dof\pi_1 = N'_d(\pi)If f(\pi_1)\pi = \pi_1d=1else
               d = d + 1\{while (d \leq d_{max})\}return \piendprocedure
```
Figure 17. Variable Neighborhood Descent

where $N_1'(\pi) = IG(\pi)$ which is explained in Section 3.1 but with some differences. These differences will be shown in pseudo code given below. $N_2'(\pi) = ILS(\pi)$, that will be explained briefly in Section 3.1.4.

In $VND(\pi)$ phase, IG algorithm is applied until there is no improvement. After the neighborhood structure is changed as ILS algorithm. ILS algorithm is also applied as long as there is improvement. Otherwise the search is stopped.

```
Procedure N'_1(
\pi_1 = \text{DestructConstruct}(\pi)Flag = truedo\{\pi_2 = RIS(\pi_1)If f(\pi_2) < f(\pi_1)\pi_1 = \pi_2Flag = trueelse
                Flag = false\}while (Flag = true)return \pi_1endprocedure
```
Figure 18. The first neighborhood structure of VND in GVNS

In this study, as mentioned before, ILS algorithm is used as a second neighborhood structure in VND phase. Using that much powerful algorithm as a neighborhood structure instead of more basic ones, increase this phase's ability to

reach better solutions. According to the No-Free Lunch (NFL) theorem that is proposed in (Wolpert D. H. and Macready W. G., 1997); "For any algorithm, any elevated performance over one class of problems is offset by performance over another class". Meaning that, any algorithms performance may differ from problem to problem. So applying two different algorithms to a specific problem and changing the neighborhood while there is no improvement may increase the chance to get better solution. At some point, one of the algorithms may stuck and perform worse, when the neighborhood is changed, the other algorithm may perform very well.

```
Procedure N^\prime_{\ 2} (\pi_1 = perturbation(\pi)
Flaa = truedof\pi_2 = RIS(\pi_1)If f(\pi_2) < f(\pi_1)\pi_1 = \pi_2Flag = trueelse
                Flag = false\}while (Flag = true)return \pi_1endprocedure
```
Figure 19. The second neighborhood structure of VND in GVNS

where *perturbation* has a variable input that is called *perturbation size* and selected randomly between $[1,5]$ as applied and shown in (Pan, Q-K. and Wang, L., 2008) study that these interval results better than other. The perturbation is applied to permutation π , that is obtained from the first neighborhood structure of VND. *Perturbation strength* many inserts are made in this step. Then, the local search RIS, that is explained in Section 3.1.3, is applied to newly generated permutation π_1 until there is no improvement.

CHAPTER 4

COMPUTATIONAL RESULTS

In this thesis, different algorithms that are proposed to solve no-idle permutation flow shop scheduling problem is compared with a newly modified GVNS algorithm, as mentioned in previous chapters. In Chapter 3, some metaheuristics that are applied to NIPFS problem from the literature are explained. Then, the computational results of these algorithms are compared with the GVNS algorithm.

In order to test the performance of these algorithms, the benchmark suite presented in the personal website of Ruiz García, Rubén $\frac{1}{1}$ is used. This benchmark is designed for NIPFS problem with makespan criterion specifically, with the number of jobs $n = \{50.100.150.200.250.300.350.400.450.500\}$ and the number of machines $m = \{10, 20, 30, 40, 50\}$. There are 50 combinations with different sizes and each combination has 5 different instances. Thus, there are 250 instances in total. 5 runs were carried out for each instance for each algorithm. All results are compared with the best-known solutions presented in the website of Ruiz García, Rubén¹. In order to compare these results, an average relative percentage deviation is calculated for each combination by using the following equation;

$$
\Delta_{avg} = \sum_{i=1}^{R} \frac{\binom{100(H_i - Best)}{Best}}{R} / R \tag{26}
$$

where H_i is the objective function value that is obtained in i^{th} run of each algorithm, Best is the best-known solution presented in the website of Ruiz García, Rubén¹ and R is the number of runs. The stopping criterion is selected as a maximum run time of each algorithm which is defined as $T_{max} = n(m/2) \times t$ milliseconds where the value of t can be taken as, $t = 30$ or $t = 60$ depending on the comparison case. In the comparison tables, $AlgorithmName^t$ denotes that the algorithm "Algortihm Name" was run for $T_{max} = n(m/2) \times t$.

The proposed algorithms are coded in C⁺⁺ and run on an Intel Core 2 Quad 2.66 GHz PC with 3.5 GB memory. The parameters of DE, the crossover

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probability and mutation scale factor are taken as $CR = 0.9$ and $F = 0.9$, respectively. These high ratios provide algorithms to enhance the search space and to increase the diversification of solutions. The population size is taken as $PS = 30$. For the Destruction and Construction procedure, the destruction size is fixed at $d = 4$.

The results of HDDE algorithm are taken directly from (Deng G and Gu X., 2012) study. They implemented the proposed algorithm HDDE to NIPFS problem with termination criterion of $T_{max} = n(m/2) \times t$ milliseconds where $t = 60$. There are a few differences in properties of their computer and the computer that is used in this study. These differences may cause an unfair comparison, therefore, in order to avoid this inequality, the algorithms other than HDDE were run with termination criterion $T_{max} = n(m/2) \times t$ milliseconds where $t = 30$. In other words, all other algorithms were run for half of the CPU time that HDDE algorithm was run for. The computational results are given in Table 4.

From Table 4, it can be observed that the proposed algorithm, GVNS, has better average relative percentage deviations than the other algorithms that applied to NIPFS problem. The GVNS algorithm was able to further improve the *Best* results to -0.213 which indicates that this algorithm is superior than the other four algorithms.

	Jobs Machines	$H\text{DDE}^{60}$	vIG _{DE³⁰}	IG_RIS^{30}	VIG _{FL^{30}}	$G\overline{V}\overline{NS}^{30}$
50	10	0.20	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.14
	20	0.29	-0.04	-0.06	0.04	-0.04
	30	0.25	-0.17	0.08	0.06	-0.12
	40	0.36	-0.41	0.13	-0.10	-0.41
	50	1.15	-0.16	1.06	0.56	-0.23
100	10	0.10	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.08
	20	0.09	-0.09	0.07	-0.04	-0.03
	30	0.50	-0.19	-0.17	0.05	-0.30
	40	0.07	-0.65	-0.41	-0.41	-0.95
	50	0.45	-0.12	0.35	0.49	-0.27
150	10	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00
	20	0.43	0.05	0.04	0.12	0.02
	30	0.14	-0.18	0.01	-0.07	-0.12
	40	0.25	-0.07	-0.05	0.29	-0.25

Table 4. Average relative percentage deviation of the algorithms

In order to determine if the average relative percentage deviations of algorithms are statistically significant, an interval plot is given in Figure 20. Vertical lines with horizontal lines at their end points represent the 95% confidence interval for the mean and the symbol at the middle indicates the mean of each algorithm's relative percentage deviations. As can be observed from the interval plot, 95% confidence interval for the mean of GVNS algorithm is obviously does not coincide with the others which means that the means are statistically significant. In addition the mean of GVNS is significantly lower than the others.

Figure 20. Interval plot of algoritms compared

In Table 5, the best makespan values obtained by applying the compared algorithms to the benchmark suits are presented. The first three columns represent the number of jobs, number of machines and the instance number of the problem solved in that row, respectively. The column "Best" represents the best-known solutions presented in the website of Ruiz García, Rubén. The values in column $H DDE⁶⁰$ are directly taken from (Deng G and Gu X., 2012), the remaining results obtained by applying these algorithms to the problem. For each row, meaning an instance, the minimum result is represented in bold font.

	Jobs Machines Instances		Best		$H\text{DDE}^{60}$ VIG DE 60		IG_RIS^{60} VIG_FL 60	$GVNS^{60}$
50	$10\,$	$\mathbf{1}$	4127	4127	4127	4127	4127	4127
		\overline{c}	4283	4283	4283	4283	4283	4283
		3	3262	3263	3262	3262	3262	3267
		$\overline{4}$	3219	3216	3216	3219	3219	3219
		5	3470	3470	3470	3471	3471	3470
	20	1	5647	5647	5647	5647	5647	5646
		$\sqrt{2}$	5834	5820	5818	5820	5820	5814
		3	5794	5793	5793	5793	5793	5793
		$\overline{4}$	5803	5798	5799	5798	5795	5798
		5	4907	4881	4884	4900	4897	4874
	30	$\mathbf{1}$	7243	7256	7223	7239	7239	7242
		$\boldsymbol{2}$	7381	7351	7351	7331	7330	7334
		3	6902	6844	6857	6900	6885	6850
		$\overline{4}$	7624	7579	7579	7580	7580	7585
		5	7340	7338	7333	7366	7366	7337
	40	$\mathbf{1}$	9264	9227	9168	9167	9130	9171
		$\overline{2}$	10164	10116	10137	10121	10117	10134
		\mathfrak{Z}	9896	9791	9782	9854	9836	9822
		$\overline{4}$	9575	9607	9523	9550	9533	9495
		5	9082	8967	8968	8960	8957	8904
	50	$\mathbf{1}$	11652	11717	11604	11753	11753	11584
		$\overline{2}$	10946	10980	10893	10942	10942	10857
		\mathfrak{Z}	10960	10960	10885	10955	10935	10873
		$\overline{4}$	10026	10044	9967	10030	10030	9890
		5	11380	11349	11316	11365	11348	11359
100	10	$\mathbf{1}$	6575	6570	6570	6575	6575	6575
		$\boldsymbol{2}$	5798	5802	5803	5808	5802	5802
		\mathfrak{Z}	6533	6533	6533	6533	6533	6533
		4	6161	6171	6158	6158	6158	6158
		5	6654	6654	6654	6654	6654	6654
	$20\,$	$\mathbf{1}$	8611	8606	8606	8606	8606	8606
		$\sqrt{2}$	8223	8218	8224	8241	8241	8235
		\mathfrak{Z}	9057	9057	9043	9055	9043	9043
		$\overline{4}$	9031	9029	8972	8973	8970	8970
		5	9126	9125	9109	9109	9109	9109
	30	1	11249	11228	11210	11210	11202	11202
		$\overline{2}$	10989	10943	10938	10938	10938	10943
		\mathfrak{Z}	10666	10674	10571	10555	10555	10549

Table 5. Makespan values obtained by the algorithms

As it can be observed from the table, GVNS improved 85 out of 250 solutions, when its results are compared to other four algorithms. It was able to obtain 71 equal solutions as other algorithms did. These results are further analyzed in Table 6 in terms of the number of improvements, number of equal and number of worse solutions of GVNS when it is compared to each competing algorithm.

 \overline{a}

Algorithm Name	Number of Improvement	Number of Equal Solutions	Number of Worse Solutions
Best	193	47	10
HDDE	184	47	19
VIG DE	110	66	74
IG RIS	151	56	43
VIG FL	127	67	56

Table 6. Comparison of GVNS with competing algorithms

In (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q., Suganthan P.N., Buyukdagli O., 2013), also the best known solutions for the total flowtime criterion are presented. In order to compare GVNS algorithm's performance in more detailed way, the total flowtime values are provided and compared with the (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q., Suganthan P.N., Buyukdagli O., 2013) solutions. For both solutions, the maximum run time is taken as, $T_{max} = n(m/2) \times t$ milliseconds where $t = 60$. In Table 7, the results of each algorithm are represented in the corresponding column. Instances are indicated as, $x \, y \, z$ where x is the number of jobs, y is the number of machines and *z* is the instance number.

Table 7. Solutions obtained under total flow time criterion

Instance	VIG DE	GVNS	Instance	VIG DE	GVNS
$50 - 10 - 1$	125380	125026	$300 - 10 - 1$	2733950	2713771
$50 - 10 - 2$	131385	131117	$300 - 10 - 2$	2707337	2677669
$50 - 10 - 3$	106832	105814	300 10 3	3103430	3072335
$50 - 10 - 4$	101154	101805	$300 - 10 - 4$	2723606	2681871
50 ¹⁰ ₋₅	107635	107697	300 10 5	2884897	2832388
50 20 1	223411	222529	300 20 1	3392341	3321959
50_20_2	224312	224012	300_20_2	4025018	3977650
50_20_3	226144	225245	300_20_3	3667443	3647064
$50 - 20 - 4$	227380	226150	$300 - 20 - 4$	3563901	3541882
50_20_5	178918	178707	300_20_5	3794552	3759573
50 30 1	298825	299472	300_30_1	5417342	5347946
50_30_2	298813	296834	300_30_2	4857488	4811351
50_30_3	292663	291845	300_30_3	5076261	5031066
$50 - 30 - 4$	319430	318373	$300 - 30 - 4$	4822848	4798993
$50 - 30 - 5$	299626	298164	300_30_5	4429028	4382620
50_40_1	395014	392283	300 40 1	5670453	5582637
$50 - 40 - 2$	444201	445392	300_40_2	6349566	6295754
50_40_3	416128	414220	300_40_3	5389312	5249852
50_40_4	405692	404922	300_40_4	6088014	5985650
50_40_5	389638	389210	300_40_5	6431843	6365812
50 50 1	512272	508814	300 50 1	7187544	7174223

Instance	VIG DE	GVNS	Instance	VIG DE	GVNS
250 40 5	4243709	4158624	500 40 5	11902207	11605651
250 50 1	5570902	5534031	500 50 1	16633031	16496225
250 50 2	4724396	4591831	500 50 2	15315588	15251117
250 50 3	5150808	5097909	500 50 3	16252743	16191002
250 50 4	4808325	4702710	500 50 4	15497661	15245952
250 50 5	5166847	5112169	500 50 5	15283675	15169049

As it can be observed from Table 7, GVNS improved 236 out of 250 current best known solutions under the total flow time criterion obtained by using the VIG_DE algorithm that is proposed in (Tasgetiren M.F., Pan Q., Suganthan P.N., Buyukdagli O., 2013), as well.

CHAPTER 5

CONLUSION

In this thesis study, a metaheuristic algorithm for no idle permutation flowshop problem is represented. In a no idle permutation flowshop, there is more than one machine and each job must be processed on each of the machines. Each job has the same ordering of machines for its process sequence and the processing sequences of the jobs are the same on each machine. Each job can be processed on one machine at a time, and each machine can process only one job at a time, each machine must process each job without any interruption from the beginning of the first job to the completion of the last job. Two different formulations that are proposed to calculate makespan of no-idle flowshop are explained and the one with the better performance is selected.

After a detailed explanation of the problem, first the competing algorithms that are proposed in the literature to solve NIPFS problem is explained. These algorithms are; (1) an iterated greedy, (2) variable iterated greedy, (3) the hybrid discrete differential evolution and (4) variable iterated greedy algorithm with differential evolution algorithm. Then, a new version of the GVNS algorithm with insert and swap operations in outer loop, and in the inner loop, IG algorithm and iterated local search algorithm is applied to NIPFS problem and then compared to all other algorithms. The performances of the proposed algorithms are tested on the Prof. Ruben Ruiz's benchmark suite.

Computational results are proposed and concluded as the GVNS algorithm further improved 85 out of 250 current best known solutions. This high performance of the algorithm can be explained as; using that much powerful algorithm as a neighborhood structure instead of more basic ones, increases this phase's ability to reach better solutions. In addition, these conclusions are supported by the paired T-tests and the interval plot.

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