

# **An Evolutionary Approach for Solving the N-Jobs M-Machines Permutation Flow-Shop Scheduling Problem with Break-Down Times**

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## **ABSTRACT**

In this paper a Genetic Algorithm (GA) approach is presented to solve the *N*-Jobs *M*-Machines Permutation Flow-Shop Scheduling Problem (PFSP) with Break-down times. In comparison with other methods that start with a solution obtained with the Johnson's Algorithm (or another greedy approach), the presented GA method starts with randomly generated solutions and within 100 iterations is able to obtain a solution better than other methods. Also, while in other works the sequence of jobs to be processed in the machines is obtained prior to the occurrence of break-down times, the GA finds the solution considering from the beginning the occurrence of the break-down times. Thus, the presented GA method considers the effect of the break-down times in the overall process. A selection of standard 20×20 PFSPs was used for validation of the GA, finding that in 86% of the selected PFSPs the GA was able to provide job sequences with better makespans when compared with another method. The makespan improvements were statistically significant at the 0.10 and 0.01 levels. Then, evaluation of the GA was performed on one PFSP case with break-down times. As in the validation cases with standard PFSPs, the GA outperformed the results obtained with another method.

## **General Terms**

Industrial Engineering, Permutation Flow-Shop Scheduling Problem.

## **Keywords**

Flow-Shop Scheduling, Break-Down Times, Genetic Algorithms.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Flow-shop is one of the main scheduling problems in manufacturing [1]. Flow-shop scheduling is used to determine the optimal sequence of *N*-jobs to be processed on *M*-machines in the same order [2]. In the permutation flow-shop scheduling problem (PFSP) the same sequence of jobs must

be performed on all machines, one machine can only process one job at a time, and no machine is allowed to be re-visited [3]. The optimal sequence of jobs is the one that minimizes the makespan of the *N*-jobs through the *M*-machines, this is, the minimization of the completion time of the last job on the last machine [2, 4].

Three main factors are known to be related to scheduling problems: job transportation time (which includes moving and idle times), relative importance of a job over another, and break-down time of machines [5]. Break-down times represent the periods or time intervals where processing may be stopped due to interruption of energy or raw material supply, failures, or due to maintenance tasks [6]. Flow-shop scheduling with break-down times has been studied as presented in [5, 6] with diverse conditions and solving methods. For example, in [7] an optimal sequence was obtained for the 2-machines *N*-jobs flow-shop with random break-down times. In [6] a heuristic approach was proposed for solving the 3-machines *N*-jobs flow-shop considering transportation times and weights of jobs in addition to break-down times. In [8] the makespan for a flexible flow-shop was optimized by using a decomposition based algorithm (DBA). Another work involving a 3-machines *N*-jobs flow-shop was presented in [9] where a heuristic algorithm was proposed for solving the scheduling problem with break-down times and weights of jobs. Finally, in [10] a branch-and-bound algorithm was presented to solve the 3-machines *N*-jobs flow-shop scheduling problem with break-down and transportation times. Note that many of the works available consider the case with a limited number of machines (e.g.,  $M=2, 3$ ).

This paper is focused on the PFSP with break-down times. In contrast with other works, the case of *N*-jobs and *M*-machines is considered. Because the complexity of this problem increases with the number of machines, a Genetic Algorithm (GA) is proposed as a solving method. This evolutionary approach was able to obtain sequences of jobs with better makespan when compared with other methods and PFSP with

sizes up to  $N=M=20$ . The improvements obtained in makespan were statistically significant.

The present work is structured as follows: in Section 2 an overview of the PFSP with break-down times is presented. Then in Section 3 the details of the GA approach for solving the PFSP with breakdown times and  $N$ -jobs  $M$ -machines is presented. In Section 4 the results of the GA approach on case studies are discussed. Finally, in Section 5 the conclusions and future work are presented.

## 2. PFSP WITH BREAK-DOWN TIMES

The PFSP with break-down times with  $N$ -jobs and  $M$ -machines is defined as follows:

- All  $N$ -jobs are processed through  $M$  processing centers  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_M$  in the same order (e.g., each job is processed first in center  $P_1$ , then  $P_2, \dots$ , until  $P_M$ ).
- $i$  represents the job in an arbitrary sequence, where  $i = 1, \dots, N$ .
- All  $N$ -jobs are available to be processed at time zero.
- $P_{i1}, P_{i2}, P_{i3}, \dots, P_{iM}$ , represents the processing time of job  $i$  in the processing center  $P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots, P_M$  respectively.
- The break-down interval is defined as  $(a, b)$ , and the interval length is  $(b - a)$ .
- If break-down conditions take place and interruption of power supply occurs, the processing times of the centers may be affected accordingly to the type of center. These can be classified under three categories:
  - $U$ : Processes that cannot be interrupted. In this case, breakdown time is applied and the process itself is postponed. This is common for processes as moulding, casting, forging, and welding [5]. The processing time in this case is modified and  $(b - a)$  is added to the original processing time.
  - $V$ : Processes that require power supply and, if break-down occurs between the process (which starts at time  $s_1$  and ends at time  $s_2$ ), can be resumed when power supply returns. Processes that can be classified in this category are packing, machining, threading, and drilling [5]. In this case, original processing times are modified as follows:
    - if break-down starts between  $s_1$  and  $s_2$ ,  $(b - a)$  is added to the original processing time;
    - if break-down starts and ends between  $s_1$  and  $s_2$ ,  $(b - a)$  is added to the original processing time;
    - if break-down ends between  $s_1$  and  $s_2$ ,  $(b - s_1)$  is added to the original processing time;
    - if break-down starts before  $s_1$  and ends after  $s_2$ ,  $(b - s_1)$  is added to the original processing time.
  - $W$ : Processes that do not require power supply can continue during the break-down time. Thus, no modification in the original processing time is required.

The information of a PFSP is commonly presented as shown in Table 1. Other works also consider weights for the jobs in order to represent their importance in the process sequence [6, 9] however the present work is focused on the solving method for  $N$ -jobs and  $M$ -machines.

**Table 1. A standard PFSP**

Job	Times				
	$P_1$	$P_2$	$P_3$	...	$P_M$
1	$P_{11}$	$P_{12}$	$P_{13}$	...	$P_{1M}$
2	$P_{21}$	$P_{22}$	$P_{23}$	...	$P_{2M}$
...	...	...	...	...	...
$N$	$P_{N1}$	$P_{N2}$	$P_{N3}$	...	$P_{NM}$

## 3. THE GA METHOD

The PFSP has been solved with different methods. For example, in [11] a greedy heuristic was used while in [8] and [10] DBA and B&B (branch and bound) algorithms were used respectively. The use of a GA (Genetic Algorithm) was explored in [12] with significant results. For the PFSP with break-down times greedy heuristics have been applied [5], however the use of GAs has been limited.

GAs are heuristics based on the natural process of evolution [13, 14]. These have been used to solve other combinatorial problems as the Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP) and Job-shop scheduling [15]. In this paper a GA is presented for the PFSP with break-down times with  $N$ -jobs and  $M$ -machines. In Figure 1 the general structure of the GA is shown and the details of each module are explained in the next sections.

### 3.1 Initial Population and Fitness

#### Evaluation

The initial population is the set of initial solutions for the PFSP. These can be randomly generated or be given by a fast heuristic algorithm [13]. These solutions are represented as “chromosomes” to enable diversification by means of the reproduction operators (crossover, mutation). In Figure 2 the chromosome representation of a solution for the PFSP is presented. The chromosome is a vector with  $N + 1$  cells, where in the first  $N$  cells the sequence with  $N$ -jobs is stored and in the cell  $N + 1$  the makespan obtained through  $M$ -machines with that sequence is stored.

For this work a random initial population of  $X=1000$  individuals was considered. Initially small initial populations (e.g., with size  $< 50$  individuals) were considered as discussed in [16, 17]. However it was found that for the PFSP the reproduction operators were not able to efficiently diversify the solutions within small populations.

In a GA is important to measure the ability to solve a problem with an optimality criterion, or fitness, of each solution in the initial population. In this case, the optimality criterion consists in finding the solution with the minimum makespan, thus, the fitness is measured based on this concept. The makespan is the completion time of the last job on the last machine [2, 4].

### 3.2 Selection of Parents

Diversification of solutions starts with the selection of “Parent” individuals. Based on Darwin’s rule of “survival of the fittest”, it is understood that the strongest individuals in a population would survive, would adapt more successfully to environmental adversities, and would reproduce [13]. Also, the fittest individuals would inherit their characteristics (those that made them fit) to their “Offsprings”. In this way, and based on the natural process of evolution, these characteristics would be refined through several generations, improving the overall fitness of new individuals.

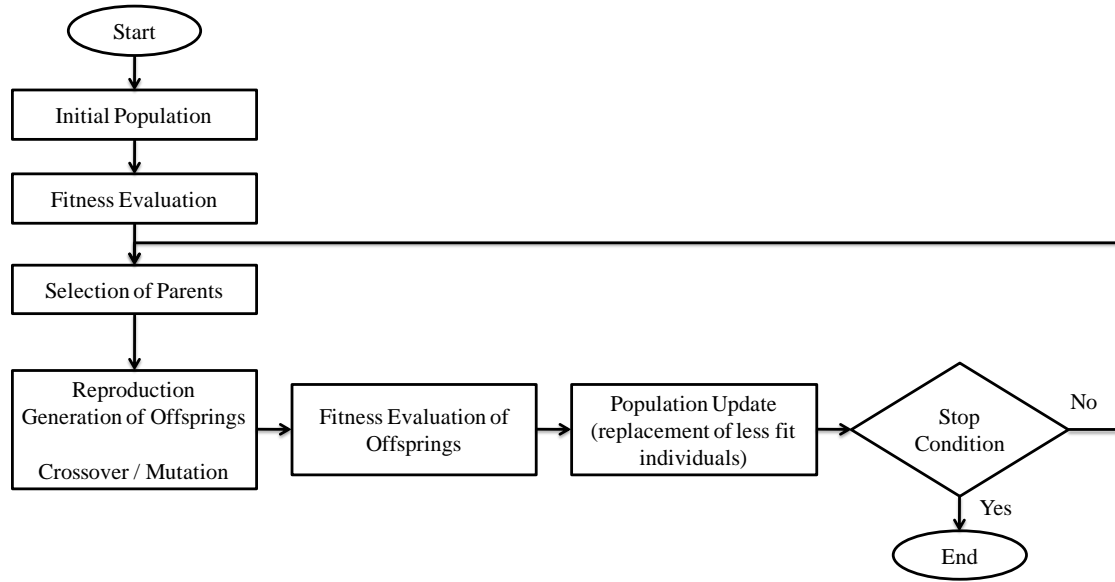


Fig 1: Structure of the proposed GA approach).

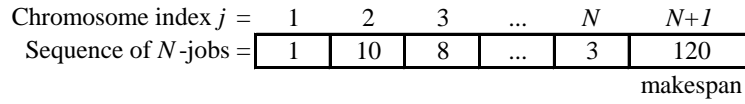


Fig 2: Chromosome representation.

In the PFSP, fitness is measured based on the makespan, and the “Roulette Wheel” selection method is one of the most used methods for selection of the fittest individuals without excluding less fitted individuals [18]. In the “Roulette Wheel” method, all chromosomes (individuals) are located into a roulette wheel in function of their fitness values. A segment of the roulette wheel is assigned to each individual based on its overall fitness with respect to the other individuals. Thus, the size of the segment is proportional to the individual’s fitness (e.g., largest segment = highest fitness). Then, when the roulette wheel is rotated the individuals with better fitness are more likely to be selected for reproduction, although there is also the possibility to select individuals with less fitness. This may be beneficial for the diversification process [19].

The steps of the roulette wheel selection for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  individuals are presented as follows [20]:

- (1) Compute the fitness value ( $fv$ ) for each  $i$ -chromosome in the population.
- (2) Compute the sum of fitness ( $Sf$ ) for all chromosomes in the population:  $Sf = \sum_{i=1}^n fv_i$
- (3) Compute the average fitness ( $Af$ ) in the population:  $Af = \frac{Sf}{n}$
- (4) Compute the expected fitness ( $Ef$ ) for each chromosome in the population:  $Ef_i = \frac{fv_i}{Af}$
- (5) Compute the sum of all expected fitness ( $\sum Ef$ ) for the chromosomes in the population:  $\sum Ef = \sum_{i=1}^n Ef_i$
- (6) Generate a random number ( $G$ ) within the range  $(0, \sum Ef)$ .
- (7) Select the chromosome for which the cumulative fitness  $\geq G$
- (8) Go to step 6 and repeat  $n$  times.

### 3.3 Reproduction and Population Update

In order to diversify the initial solutions (generate new solutions) reproduction operators are used that work at the chromosome level of the individuals in a population (e.g., see

Figure 2). To generate “offspring” solutions, pairs of “parent” solutions are required. The first operator to be used in this work is the crossover operator which consists in the exchange of genes between “parent” chromosomes [13]. When the individuals consist of sequences where order is important (as is the case of the PFSP) the Partially Mapped Crossover (PMX) is the most suitable. In general, two offspring solutions are obtained from each pair of parent solutions using the PMX operator. Details of this operator can be found in [21].

The second operator is the mutation operator, and this consists in changing, randomly or deterministically, the element(s) in a chromosome [13]. In this case, offspring solutions were obtained by the exchange of two randomly selected genes in a chromosome. In general, one offspring is obtained from a single parent solution.

The number of offspring solutions obtained by using the crossover and mutation operators usually depends of a probability. In this case, the following probabilities were considered for crossover and mutation:  $P_{PMX}$  and  $P_{MUT}$ . By considering  $X$  as the number of individuals in the population, the number of offspring solutions generated by crossover and mutation is defined as  $X_{PMX} = X \times P_{PMX}$  and  $X_{MUT} = X \times P_{MUT}$ , where  $P_{PMX} = 0.80$  and  $P_{MUT} = 0.30$  were considered.

After all offspring solutions are generated ( $X_{PMX} + X_{MUT}$ ) their fitness is evaluated (e.g., the makespan is obtained for each offspring). When this is achieved, the initial population is updated, and the offspring solutions with better fitness replace the original parents with worse fitness. At the end, and updated population with  $X$  individuals is obtained, which consists of parents and offsprings. These individuals will be the new parents for new offsprings by repeating the same process of selection and reproduction, thus generating a new population. This updating process is iterated and repeated

until a stop condition is met. This is explained in the following section.

### 3.4 Stop Condition

As commented, the new population is considered the initial population for the next iteration (generation) of the GA. The process of selection, reproduction, and update, is repeated until a stop condition is met, however there is no overall condition to stop the GA. While a common practice is to stop the GA when there are no change in the population's average fitness (convergence is achieved), other practices involve considering a fixed number of iterations. In this case a total of  $T = 200$  iterations (generations) was considered.

## 4. EXPERIMENTS

The GA approach was tested with two types of case studies. The first consisted of the standard PFSP (no break-down times). This was considered important to evaluate and validate the performance of the GA for large problems (in this case, with  $N=M=20$ ). Then, the second type consisted of the PFSP with break-down times. The results are presented in the following sections.

### 4.1 Standard PFSP

For the validation of the GA the PFSP problems defined in [22] were considered. Particularly, the PFSPs with size  $20 \times 20$  ( $N=M=20$ ) were considered as the instances in [22] provided two important values for comparison: Lower Bound (LB) and Best Known Solution (BEST). In this case, a population of 1000 was used for the GA given the size of the PFSP. In Table 2 the makespan results obtained with the GA and the method used in [22] (BEST) for 28 randomly selected  $20 \times 20$  PFSPs are presented.

As presented in Table 2, in 24 out of the 28 PFSPs a solution that led to a better makespan was found with the GA in comparison with the results reported in [22] for the same PFSPs. This is an improvement in 86% of the PFSPs and the convergence of the GA is also presented. In Figure 3 the convergence plot of the GA across all PFSPs is presented. The overall makespan across all PFSPs starts at iteration 0 with 2450 approximately, however, as the diversification (reproduction) is performed the individuals in the population become more fit and thus, overall makespan tends to decrease. At iteration 60 the overall fitness equals the fitness obtained with the method presented in [22] and after that iteration the individuals found with the GA are of better fitness. A pairs-match test was performed to evaluate the statistical significance of these results, obtaining a  $p$ -value of 1.44226E-05. Thus, the improvements are statistically significant at the 0.10 and 0.01 levels and there is confidence about the use of the GA for other PFSPs (including the case with break-down times).

**Table 2. GA performance on standard  $20 \times 20$  PFSPs**

Problem	LB	BEST	GA
1	1957	2213	2190
2	1854	2155	2121
3	2016	2307	2295
4	1825	2142	2152

11	1984	2299	2289
12	1922	2188	2193
15	1905	2272	2270
17	2044	2281	2273
23	2031	2259	2231
24	2017	2264	2259
29	1845	2119	2126
31	1846	2291	2274
32	1914	2289	2235
33	1859	2205	2192
42	1952	2337	2332
45	1906	2278	2273
50	1918	2308	2302
53	1898	2193	2203
56	1881	2211	2206
63	1853	2150	2146
66	1932	2197	2179
67	1894	2354	2351
70	1990	2323	2302
72	1861	2188	2178
77	1756	2121	2116
85	2125	2220	2189
89	1809	2182	2165
94	1993	2221	2201

### 4.2 Standard PFSP

The GA approach was tested with the following PFSP with breakdown times: 4-jobs 5-machines with known makespan = 53 [5]. In this work the processing centers 1 and 5 are catalogued as of "V" type while the processing center 2 is catalogued as type "M" and 3 and 4 as type "U". A heuristic method was used to obtain the sequence that led to a makespan of 53. This sequence was obtained prior to adjust the processing times with the break-down times. After 3 iterations of the GA with an initial randomly generated population of 10 individuals a sequence with a makespan of 52 was obtained (which is lower than the baseline of 53). In Figure 4 the Gantt diagrams for both sequences are presented.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this work a GA approach was presented for solving the PFSPs with and without break-down times. Given the limited availability of numerical examples with break-down times we were only able to test the GA with a  $4 \times 5$  PFSP. However, numerical examples with standard  $20 \times 20$  PFSPs were found and improvements in 86% of cases were achieved. These improvements were statistically significant and thus there is confidence about the overall performance of the presented GA.

Future work is focused on (1) testing the GA on PFSPs with larger  $N$  and  $M$  by means of benchmark numerical examples and implementation of other solving methods for comparison purposes, (2) considering other PFSPs as those with weights and transportation times, and (3) adapting the GA for the Job-Shop scheduling problem.

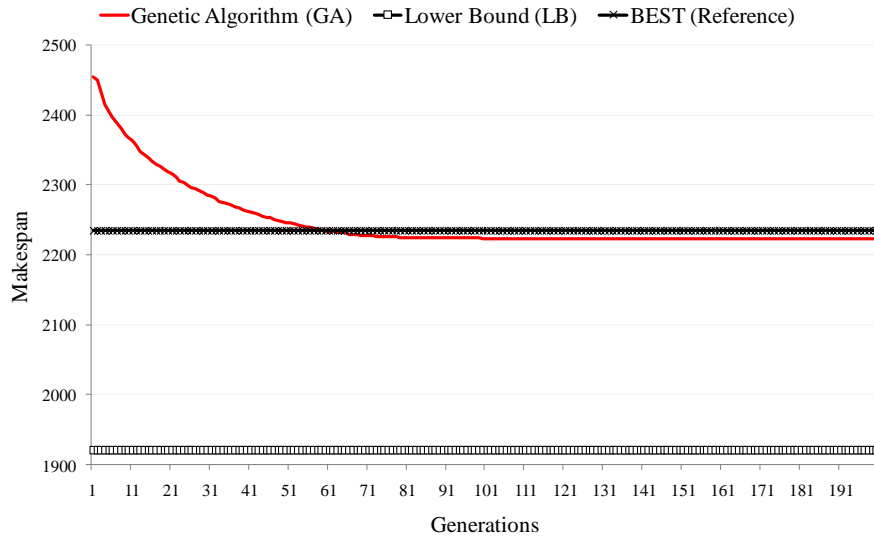


Fig 3: Convergence of the GA on standard 20×20 PFSPs.

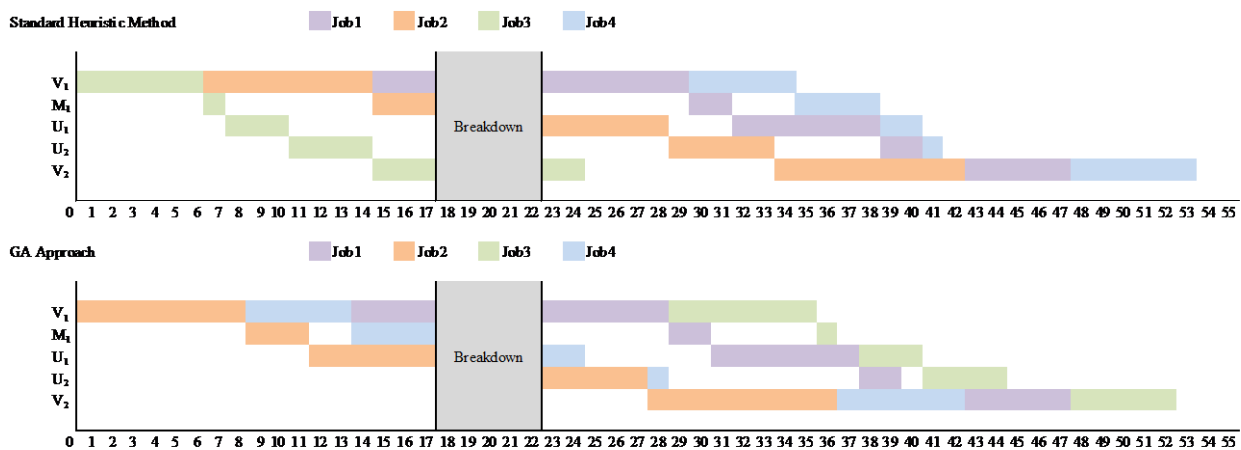


Fig 4: Performance of the GA on a 4×5 PFSP with break-down times.

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