

An asynchronous genetic local search algorithm for the permutation flowshop scheduling problem with total flowtime minimization

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the permutation flowshop scheduling problem with the total flowtime criterion is considered. An asynchronous genetic local search algorithm (AGA) is proposed to deal with this problem. The AGA consists of three phases. In the first phase, an individual in the initial population is yielded by an effective constructive heuristic and the others are randomly generated, while in the second phase all pairs of individuals perform the asynchronous evolution (AE) where an enhanced variable neighborhood search (E-VNS) as well as a simple crossover operator is used. A restart mechanism is applied in the last phase. Our experimental results show that the algorithm proposed outperforms several state-of-the-art methods and two recently proposed meta-heuristics in both solution quality and computation time. Moreover, for 120 benchmark instances, AGA obtains 118 best solutions reported in the literature and 83 of which are newly improved.

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1. Introduction

Since Johnson's (1954) pioneering work on the two-machine flowshop, numerous papers on various extensions of this problem have been published in the operation research literature over the last 50 years. The permutation flowshop scheduling problem (PFSP) is a conventional manufacturing system, where n jobs are processed by m machines in the same route (Baker, 1974). Without loss of generality, we can assume that they are processed first on machines 1, then machine 2, etc., until they are processed on machine m . The objective is to find a permutation such that a well-defined measure is minimized. The traditional criterion is the minimization of total completion time, also called makespan. More recently, minimizing total flowtime has become a keen research topic in the scheduling literature. This may be because the criterion is more relevant and meaningful for today's dynamic production environment and is shown to be directly related to the even use of resources, a rapid turn-round of jobs and the minimization of work-in-process inventory (Rajendran & Chaudhuri, 1991).

Exact methods including branch and bound methods (Bansal, 1977; Ignall & Schrage, 1965) and mixed integer linear programming were investigated for solving the PFSP with respect to the total flowtime criterion in early studies. However, in view of the NP-complete nature of the PFSP (Garey, Johnson, & Sethi, 1976), it is unlikely to obtain an optimal solution for the problem in reasonable CPU times.

Hence, many efforts have been devoted to finding nearly optimal or high-quality solutions by using heuristics and meta-heuristics instead of exact methods. Heuristics for the total flow time criterion are generally classified into constructive and composite. The heuristics proposed by Rajendran and Chaudhuri (1991), Rajendran (1993), Wang, Chu, and Proth (1997), Rajendran and Ziegler (1997), Woo and Yim (1998), Liu and Reeves (2001) and Framinan and Leisten (2003) are known to be constructive approaches. Heuristics proposed by Rajendran and Chaudhuri (1991) were based on the minimization of the machine idle times and the job waiting times. Rajendran (1993) then developed a heuristic preference relation to guide the potential job interchanges which improved the heuristic. Wang et al. (1997) addressed two heuristics. The first one was based upon the reduction of machine idle times, while the second one was based upon reducing both the machine idle times and the job queue times. Rajendran and Ziegler (1997) and Liu and Reeves (2001) both presented a kind of sorting method to obtain a seed sequence. The seed sequence is then improved by one round insertion in RZ, while in LR several pairwise exchange schemes are employed to enhance the seed sequence. Woo and Yim (1998) constructed a sequence using an NEH similar method. Framinan and Leisten (2003) also incorporated NEH insertion method as well as the pairwise exchange strategy in their algorithm. At the same time, many composite heuristics have been proposed. Allahverdi and Aldowaisan (2002) investigated seven heuristics which combined with several simple heuristics such as WY and RZ. They demonstrated that the heuristic IH6 outperforms existing heuristics. Subsequently, Framinan and Leisten (2003) proposed IH7-FL algorithm and Framinan, Leisten, and Ruiz-Usano (2005)

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addressed C1 and C2 heuristics which integrated with FL and LR method. A comprehensive comparison of existing heuristics was studied by Framinan et al. (2005). They showed that C2 outperforms the existing heuristics. Recently, Li, Wang, and Wu (2009) presented three composite heuristics ICH1–ICH3 where an accelerating scheme named general flowtime computing (GFC) is embedded. They showed that their algorithms are superior to IH7-FL, C1 and C2.

Meta-heuristics commonly have complicated frames, whereas they can always yield better results than constructive and composite heuristics. Consequently, many meta-heuristics were developed to solve the PFSP with the total flowtime criterion. Yamada and Reeves (1998) proposed a genetic algorithm which adopted the stochastic sampling method and the best descent method. Additionally, a multi-step crossover operator is applied in their algorithm. Two ant colony algorithms called M-MMAS and PACO were presented by Rajendran and Ziegler (2004). They showed that their algorithms are clearly superior to the heuristics addressed by Liu and Reeves. In the next year, they slightly improved the two ant colony algorithms and then conducted a comparison study of the four approaches (Rajendran & Ziegler, 2005). Tasgetiren, Liang, Sevklı, and Gencyilmaz (2007) presented a particle swarm optimization algorithm labeled PSO_{vns} where a SPV rule and VNS local search were applied. The algorithm improved 57 out of the 90 best known solutions reported by Yamada and Reeves (1998) and Rajendran and Ziegler (2004). Subsequently, Jarboui, Ibrahim, Siarry, and Rebai (2008) proposed a combinatorial particle swarm optimization algorithm (H-CPSO) integrated with an improvement procedure. They showed that the H-CPSO get better or equal results comparing with PSO_{vns}. Zhang, Li, and Wang (2009) addressed a hybrid genetic algorithm named HGA. In HGA one individual in the initial population is generated by LR. An artificial chromosome and two heuristics are applied in the algorithm. Their algorithm obtained 115 best results and 92 of which were newly discovered. More recently, Jarboui, Eddaly, and Siarry (2009) presented an estimation of distribution algorithm (EDA), where a variable neighborhood search (VNS) method is embedded. EDA-VNS adopts the probabilistic learning model in global and use VNS to improve the solution quality in local. They showed that both EDA-VNS and VNS yield comparative results comparing with HGA and ICH2. The genetic algorithms presented by Yamada and Reeves (1998) and Zhang et al. (2009) are complicated and time-consuming. However, our genetic algorithm, abbreviated as AGA, is very simple and fast since it does not use the selection and mutation operator which was regarded as an essential part in a conventional genetic algorithm (GA). In the starting phase of AGA, the initial population is generated randomly excepted one gene yielded by a suitable heuristic. In the alteration phase, pairs of chromosomes are randomly selected from current population. The algorithm performs an independent AE strategy in each pair of chromosomes to propagate two new individuals. The offspring population constitute the next generation. The process repeated until the whole individuals' fitness is identical and then a restart scheme is react. Finally, the algorithm terminates when a certain criterion is met. The details of the AE procedure will be described later.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 briefly presented the formulation of PFSP with total flowtime minimization. Proposed algorithm AGA as well as the calibration of the algorithm is described in Section 3. In Section 4, computational results are presented. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper and suggests some future studies on proposed algorithm.

2. Formulation of the permutation flowshop problem

The PFSP consists of a set of n jobs to be processed on a set of m machines. Each job has m operations and all jobs should be pro-

cessed on every machine in the same route where the processing time must be fixed and uninterrupted. This problem is often denoted as $n/m/P/\sum C_i$ (Graham, Lawler, Lenstra, & Rinnooy, 1979), where C_j denotes the completion time of job j . Let p_{ij} and $C(j, m)$ denote the processing time and completion time of job j on machine i , respectively. Thus, given a job permutation $\pi = \{\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_n\}$, the completion time of job π_j on machine i can be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} C(1, \pi_1) &= p_{1, \pi_1}, \\ C(1, \pi_j) &= C(1, \pi_{j-1}) + p_{1, \pi_j}, \quad j = 2, \dots, n, \\ C(i, \pi_1) &= C(i-1, \pi_1) + p_{i, \pi_1}, \quad i = 2, \dots, m, \\ C(i, \pi_j) &= \max\{C(i-1, \pi_j), C(i, \pi_{j-1})\} + p_{i, \pi_j}, \\ &\quad i = 2, \dots, m; \quad j = 2, \dots, n, \end{aligned}$$

Since ready times are zero, the flowtime C_{π_j} is equivalent to the completion time $C(\pi_j, m)$. Therefore, the PFSP with the total flowtime criterion is to find a permutation π^* in the set of all permutations Π such that:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n C(m, \pi_j^*) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n C(m, \pi_j), \quad \forall \pi \in \Pi.$$

3. Proposed algorithm AGA

As aforementioned, since the AE scheme can effectively diversify the population, the selection and mutation operator are not utilized in AGA. Hence, AGA is very simple and easy to implement. The framework of the proposed AE mechanism, simple crossover, E-VNS local search and restart strategy are described thereafter.

3.1. Representation and population initialization

The well known solution representation for PFSP is the job-based encoding scheme which is often treated in the literature. This scheme is also adopted in AGA since it is very simple.

Randomly generating an initial population is commonly applied in genetic algorithm. The reason is that it may leads to a population diversification which is in favor of the evolution. However, random individuals often have poor fitness and thus may slow down the convergence. To solve the problem, a feasible approach is to employ an effective constructive heuristic. According to Framinan et al. (2005), Zhang et al. (2009) and Li et al. (2009), heuristic LR(n/m) developed by Yamada and Reeves (1998) is an suitable method to obtain fast, good solutions. Hence, in p initial individuals, one sequence is generated by LR(n/m) and the others are yielded randomly.

3.2. Asynchronous evolution

All pairs of individuals were randomly selected from current population and each pair of coupled chromosomes then conducted an AE procedure. Asynchronous evolution mechanism consists of three stages: local search, crossover and local search again.

Given a pair of individuals *father* and *mother* in a certain generation, asynchronous behavior occurred only in the first stage, that is, two parent individuals are improved by different step sizes of local search. More specifically, Let *min-local* and *max-local* denote the minimum and maximum local search step size respectively. Generate a random integer $x1$ in the range (*min-local*, *max-local*) and then *father* carried out $x1$ times of local search. Generate another integer $x2$ and so does the *mother*. The two individuals which have been improved in the first stage then propagate their offspring in the next phase. A very simple crossover operator is

employed in this stage, which will be discussed in Section 3.3. In a traditional genetic algorithm, the replacement strategy is that the

better offspring will replace their parents, while in AGA a very different update procedure is carried out. The two children (despite worse or better) will conduct *max-local* times of local search before updating. This procedure can ensure that all potentially better sequences will not be immediately abandoned even if they are evaluated as worse genes. The best two individuals of the parents and their children will be retained in the next generation after all these three steps performed.

In the first stage of AE, all individuals change at different speeds. This generates delays in conveying and sharing information among all members of the population. In the meanwhile, the delay creates differences among these individuals in terms of both the fitness and the job sequence, which was regarded as a benefit for getting better results in GA.

3.3. Proposed crossover

Generally speaking, the most frequently used crossover operators for permutation-based representations are PMX i.e. partially matched crossover (Goldberg & Lingle, 1985), OX i.e. order-based crossover (Davis, 1985), CX i.e. cycle crossover (Oliver, Smith, & Holland, 1987) and so on. According to Murata, Ishibuchi, and Tanaka (1996), two-point crossover achieved better performance for PFSP problems. As a matter of fact, the two-point crossover version II (TPII) proposed by Murata et al. (1996) is similar to the linear order crossover (LOX). LOX is effective for PFSP since it preserves as much as possible both the relative positions between genes and the absolute position relative to the extremities of the

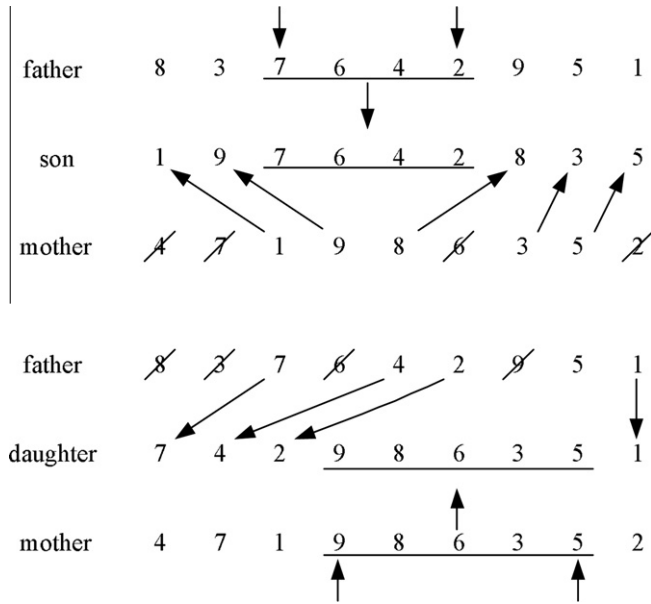


Fig. 1. An example that illustrates the TTP crossover operator.

```

procedure E-VNS ( $\pi$ , power, k)
begin
  loop = 1;
  while(loop <= k)
  {
    flag = 1;
    while(flag == 1)
    {
      flag = 0;
      for i = 1 : power {
        x1 ≠ x2 = rand(1, n);
         $\pi'$  = insert( $\pi$ , x1, x2);
        if (TFT( $\pi'$ ) ≤ TFT( $\pi$ )) then{  $\pi$  =  $\pi'$ ; flag = 1; break; } }
      if(flag == 1) then {continue;}
    }
    else{
      for j = 1 : power{
        x1 ≠ x2 = rand(1, n);
         $\pi'$  = exchange( $\pi$ , x1, x2);
        if (TFT( $\pi'$ ) ≤ TFT( $\pi$ )) then{  $\pi$  =  $\pi'$ ; flag = 1; break; } }
      }
    loop++;
  }
end

```

Fig. 2. Pseudo code of E-VNS local search.

```

procedure SGL
begin
  population = Initialize(P); // randomly generate P individuals, one provided by LR(n/m)

  while(not termination-condition)
  {
    while(population not empty)
    {
      father = Random_Select(population);
      mother = Random_Select(population);
      x1, x2 = rand(min_local, max_local); // randomly draw two intergers between min_local and max_local
      father = E-VNS(father, power, x1);
      mother = E-VNS(mother, power, x2);
      son, daughter = TTP(father, mother); // applied TTP crossover operator
      E-VNS(son, power, max_local);
      E-VNS(daughter, power, max_local);
      offspring = Add(); // select the best two individuals from parents and children, add them into offspring
    }
    population = offspring; //population updated
    best_permutation = Evaluate(population);
    if(all individuals have inditical fitness) then{
      Restart(population); }
  }
  return best_permutation ;
end

```

Fig. 3. Pseudo code description of AGA.

chromosome. Therefore, TP II is served as our crossover operator. TP II crossover only generates one child, so we applied TP II twice in order to obtain two children. Evidently, the two cut points should be different between the two crossing operations. For the sake of simplicity, the proposed crossover can be called twice two-point crossover (TTP). TTP is illustrated in Fig. 1.

For instance, recall the two parent chromosomes *father* and *mother*. First, two crossing points in *father* are randomly chosen,

say at position 3 and 6. Then the set of jobs between two cut points are inherited from *father* to *son*. The other jobs in *father* are placed

Table 1
Main results of ANOVA for the experiments on tuning the parameters of AGA.

Source	Sum of squares	Df	F-ratio	p-Value
<i>Main effects</i>				
X1: <i>p</i>	0.28939	4	12.10	0.0000
X2: <i>min-local</i>	0.02179	3	0.32	0.2827
X3: <i>max-local</i>	0.24217	3	8.67	0.0000
X4: <i>power</i>	0.08398	4	0.78	0.1328
<i>Interactions</i>				
X1 * X2	0.00521	12	0.20	0.66
X1 * X3	0.32964	12	9.55	0.0000
X1 * X4	0.02424	16	0.16	0.2114
X2 * X3	0.26353	9	7.66	0.0032
X2 * X4	0.00363	12	0.14	0.7133
X3 * X4	0.00255	12	0.1	0.7578

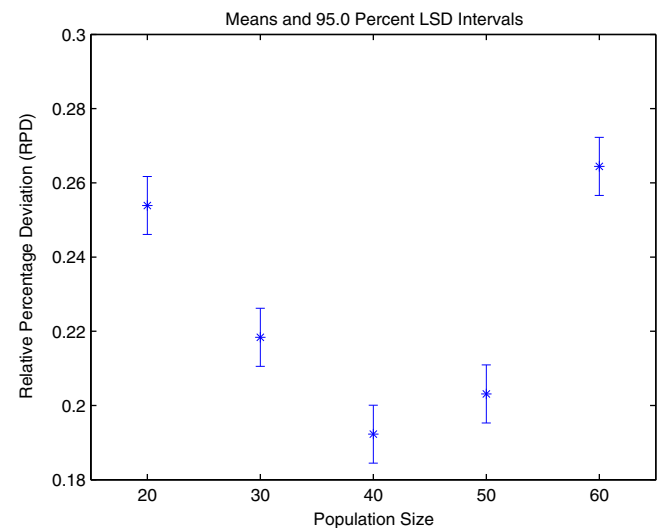


Fig. 4. Means plot and LSD intervals for parameter *p*.

in *son* follow their order in *mother*. Similarly, randomly choose two points in *mother*, say 4 and 8, and then *daughter* is generated by a same procedure.

3.4. Enhanced variable neighborhood search

As mentioned earlier, local search is applied before and after the crossing operation. Local search before crossing is used to diversify the population. In order to make full use of the information of the offspring individuals, local search is used again after the crossing. Therefore, the structure of the local search is rather critical. Two commonly used local search operators, insertion and exchanging operation, are considered. The framework of proposed local search extends the work in Tasgetiren et al. (2007). The pseudo code of the proposed E-VNS local search is given in Fig. 2, where

π is the sequence needed to be improved
 $power$ is the search times in the inner loop which can be easily adjusted in order to enhance the local search
 k is the searching times in the outer loop which is used to perform AE strategy
 $x1$ and $x2$ are the integer numbers randomly generated between 1 and n
 $insert(\pi, x1, x2)$ denotes the insertion of job at position $x1$ into position $x2$ in π and
 $exchange(\pi, x1, x2)$ denotes the exchanging between the job at position $x1$ and $x2$ in π

Note that the structure unutilized in E-VNS is not identical with which used in VNS developed by Tasgetiren et al. (2007). There are two separate differences between them. On the one hand, the insertion and exchanging operations are strengthened by parameter $power$, that is, in the inner loop, insertion or exchanging operations repeated $power$ times until an equal or better sequence is yielded. On the other hand, the search times k in the outer loop is regarded as an input variable of E-VNS instead of a fixed value. The other strategies are similar such as the pivoting rules and the permission of neutral moves. Moreover, Li et al. (2009) presented a method called general flowtime computing (GFC) which can accelerate flowtime computation. In GFC, a schedule is divided into an unchanged subsequence and a changed part. As a result,

one just needs to calculate an unchanged part inherited from the parent instead of the complete sequence. GFC is applied in E-VNS since it is rather straightforward.

3.5. Restart mechanism and stopping criterion

Simplifying the genetic scheme may leads to a fast convergence and in the mean while the genes diversity will be lost within short time. To overcome this problem, some restart mechanisms can be incorporated in GA according to Ruiz, Maroto, and Alcaraz (2006). As a result, a very simple restart scheme was developed to renew the population. More specifically, when the fitness of all individuals in the population is identical, a restart scheme then works. The restart scheme implements as follows: first keep the best individual and the seed sequence provided by the heuristic, and then regenerated the remaining individuals randomly.

Regarding the stopping criterion, two commonly used criteria are employed in our proposed algorithm, that is, the maximal computation time and the maximum numbers of generations. AGA terminates whenever either condition is true.

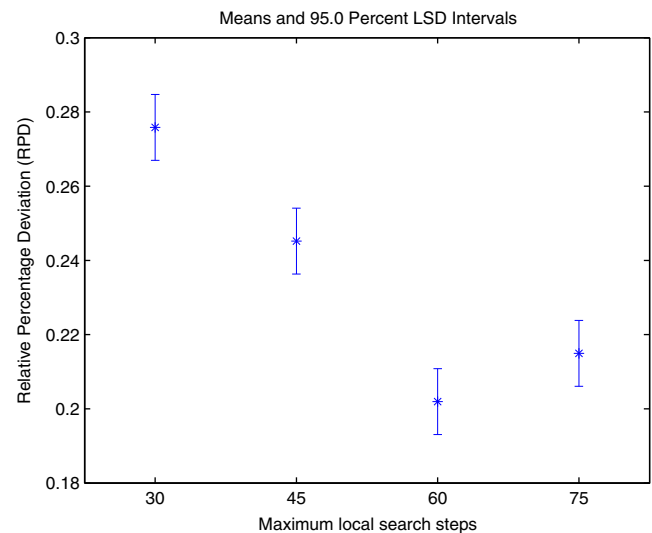


Fig. 6. Means plot and LSD intervals for parameter *max-local*.

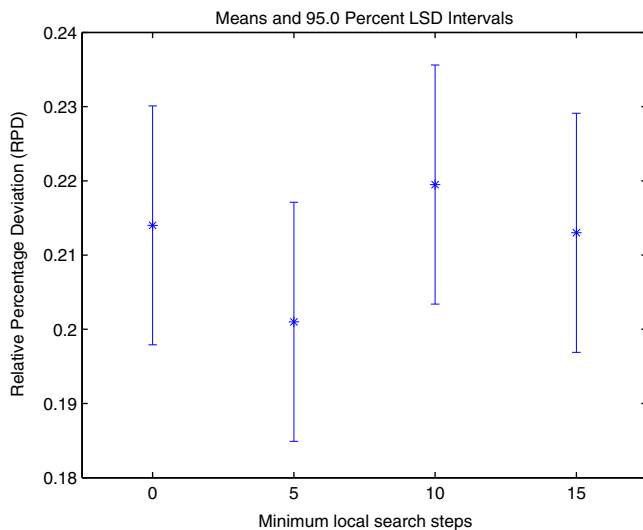


Fig. 5. Means plot and LSD intervals for parameter *min-local*.

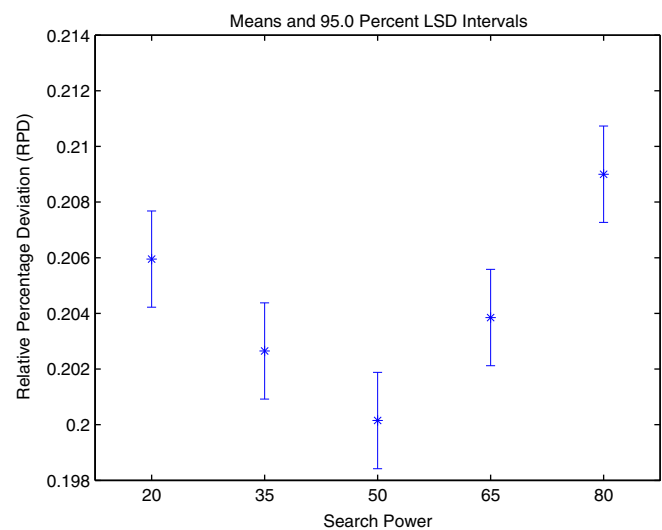


Fig. 7. Means plot and LSD intervals for parameter *power*.

3.6. Outline of the AGA

After the introduction of each module in AGA, we give a pseudo code description of AGA in Fig. 3.

3.7. Calibration of the AGA

Like all meta-heuristics, parameter selection is critical to the AGA performance. AGA has four parameters: the number of population p , the minimum local search step size $min-local$, the maximum local search step size $max-local$ and the search power $power$. Although, at present, there is no guidance to select proper values for the parameters, Ruiz and Stützle (2007) presented an effective method to tune parameters, which consist of two procedures called design of experiments (DOE) and multi-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA). Hence, the experiment of parameter

determination according to his method is presented as follows:

We first listed the specified levels of all parameters:

- p : five levels (20, 30, 40, 50 and 60)
- $min-local$: four levels (0, 5, 10 and 15)
- $max-local$: four levels (30, 45, 60 and 75)
- $power$: five levels (20, 35, 50, 65 and 80)

The above list yields a total of $5 \times 4 \times 4 \times 5 = 400$ different combinations when one carried out a full factorial experimental design. The algorithm is tested with a set of randomly generated PFSP instances. More specifically, we generated 36 different combinations of n and m following the procedure given in Taillard (1993) with $n \in \{20, 30, 40, \dots, 90, 100\}$ and $m \in \{5, 10, 15, 20\}$. The processing times are distributed uniformly between 1 and 99.

Table 2

Average relative percentage deviation over the best solutions.

Instance	BES(LR)	M-MMAS	PACO	PSO _{vns}	H-CPSO	HGA	EDA-VNS	VNS	AGA
20 × 5	1.3610	0.3866	0.6753	0.0632	0.0234	0.0294	0.0000	0.0629	0.0000
20 × 10	1.4330	0.2087	0.5217	0.0465	0.0001	0.0575	0.0075	0.0777	0.0000
20 × 20	1.2242	1.1465	0.9776	3.2012	0.0033	0.0281	0.0000	0.0282	0.0000
50 × 5	1.7256	1.5321	1.3578	0.7923	0.5963	0.2434	0.2436	0.2779	0.2134
50 × 10	2.9071	2.0689	1.8024	1.0656	0.8637	0.3944	0.3120	0.4107	0.3134
50 × 20	2.8946	2.4682	2.1750	2.1479	1.1528	0.8697	0.3354	0.5272	0.3294
100 × 5	1.2673	1.4732	1.5644	0.8232	0.8026	0.8297	0.3071	0.2816	0.2801
100 × 10	2.1627	1.9676	1.6592	1.0246	1.1427	0.9804	0.4869	0.4843	0.4821
100 × 20	3.0656	2.0005	1.8358	1.6004	1.3767	1.1136	0.5543	0.4898	0.4776
Average	1.8041	1.3252	1.2569	1.0865	0.5061	0.4375	0.2247	0.2640	0.2096

Table 3

Peak performance comparison for Taillard instances with $n = 20$. Bold values represent the best solutions for each instance.

Instance	BES(LR)	M-MMAS	PACO	PSO _{vns}	H-CPSO	HGA	EDA-VNS/VNS	AGA
20 × 5	14226	14056	14056	14033	14033	14033	14033	14033
	15446	15151	15214	15151	15151	15151	15151	15151
	13676	13416	13403	13301	13301	13301	13301	13301
	15750	15486	15505	15447	15447	15447	15447	15447
	13633	13529	13529	13529	13529	13529	13529	13529
	13265	13139	13123	13123	13123	13123	13123	13123
	13774	13559	13674	13548	13548	13548	13548	13548
	13968	13968	14042	13948	13948	13948	13948	13948
	14456	14317	14383	14295	14295	14295	14295	14295
	13036	12968	13021	12943	12943	12943	12943	12943
Average	1.3610	0.1975	0.4544	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
20 × 10	21207	20980	20958	20911	20911	20911	20911	20911
	22927	22440	22591	22440	22440	22440	22440	22440
	20072	19833	19968	19833	19833	19833	19833	19833
	18857	18724	18769	18710	18710	18710	18710	18710
	18939	18644	18749	18641	18641	18641	18641	18641
	19608	19245	19245	19249	19245	19245	19245	19245
	18723	18376	18377	18363	18363	18363	18363	18363
	20504	20241	20377	20241	20241	20241	20241	20241
	20561	20330	20330	20330	20330	20330	20330	20330
	21506	21320	21323	21320	21320	21320	21320	21320
Average	1.4330	0.0492	0.3235	0.0021	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
20 × 20	34119	33623	33623	34975	33623	33623	33623	33623
	31918	31604	31597	32659	31587	31587	31587	31587
	34552	33920	34130	34594	33920	33920	33920	33920
	32159	31698	31753	32716	31661	31661	31661	31661
	34990	34593	34642	35455	34557	34557	34557	34557
	32734	32637	32594	33530	32564	32564	32564	32564
	33449	33038	32922	33733	32922	32922	32922	32922
	32611	32444	32533	33008	32412	32412	32412	32412
	33625	33623	34446	33600	33600	33600	33600	33600
	32317	32317	33281	32262	32262	32262	32262	32262
Average	1.0194	0.1189	0.7329	2.2601	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

meta-heuristics is performed. More specifically, AGA is compared with the best method (BES(LR)) extracted from Liu and Reeves (2001); the two ant colony algorithms (M-MMAS and PACO) of Rajendran and Ziegler (2004); the particle swarm optimization algorithm with local search (PSO_{vns}) of Tasgetiren et al. (2007); the combinatorial particle swarm optimization algorithm (H-CPSO) of Jarboui et al. (2008); the hybrid genetic algorithm (HGA) of Zhang et al. (2009); and two recently proposed algorithms (EDA-VNS and VNS) of Jarboui et al. (2009). As aforementioned, all these algorithms as well as AGA were coded in the same programming language and implemented on the same computer. The stopping criteria of these algorithms (i.e. $n \times m \times 0.4$ CPU seconds) are identical. The parameters of AGA are determined according to Section 3.7 and the other algorithms' parameters are set following their papers. Taillard benchmark problems (Taillard, 1993) were adopted to evaluate the algorithm performance. The problem set contains 12 groups of problem instances, each corresponding to a different problem size. There are 10 instances for each given size. The first ninety instances are selected to carry out the comparison experiments. Concerning the performance criterion, RPD defined earlier is still adopted as the evaluation measure, where Obj_{sol} is the solution produced by a given algorithm for an instance and $Best_{sol}$ is the best result obtained by all methods. All algorithms were re-implemented five times. Experimental results are presented in Table 2.

As we can see from Table 2, EDA-VNS, VNS and AGA perform very well for Taillard problems with minor differences between them. AGA outperforms both EDA-VNS and VNS for all cases excepted in 50×10 . VNS yields better results than EDA-VNS in relatively large problem size. In addition, in 20×10 , AGA has a

significantly better performance than these two algorithms. It should be noted that EDA-VNS and AGA have several similar features. For instance, they both employ a variable neighborhood search scheme and they both belong to evolutionary algorithms. Besides, the selection and mutation operator are not applied in both methods. Regarding the average performance, it appears that they are very effective in solving flowshop problems with the total flowtime criterion compared with the existing algorithms. With respect to the rest of the methods, BES(LR) (here we refer to the best composite heuristic reported in Liu and Reeves, 2001) is outperformed by other algorithms. However, BES(LR) is rather simple and easily implemented compared to other algorithms. HGA is superior to M-MMAS, PACO, PSO_{vns} and H-CPSO, although it is relative complicated since it incorporates some complex tricks. Regarding the overall results, AGA dominates the other algorithms in both efficiency and effectiveness.

Although we re-implemented these algorithms honestly and contacted each author to ensure the correctness of the codes, the results given in Table 2 may still did not accurately reflect their performance due to certain reasons. As a consequence, we conducted a peak performance (i.e. the best solutions for the benchmarks published in their papers) comparison among all these algorithms. The results are shown in Tables 3–6.

As can be seen from the three tables, H-CPSO, HGA, EDA-VNS/VNS and AGA reach all the best solutions for the small problem size, whereas, for the remaining instances, AGA produced 83 out of 90 new best solutions. In addition, AGA improved all best solutions provided by HGA excepted one instance. The RPD of HGA is greatly reduced by the proposed algorithm. Hence, obviously, AGA has a profound performance by comparing with these

Table 5

Peak performance comparison for Taillard instances with $n = 100$. Bold values represent the best solutions for each instance. Values with asterisk denote the new best solutions obtained by AGA.

Instance	BES(LR)	M-MMAS	PACO	PSO _{vns}	H-CPSO	HGA	EDA-VNS/VNS	AGA
100×5	256789	257025	257886	254762	255520	254762	254250	253926*
	245609	246612	246326	245315	244511	243850	243227	242886*
	241013	240537	241271	239777	239843	239173	238580	238280*
	231365	230480	230376	228872	229481	228705	228520	228169*
	244016	243013	243457	242245	242229	241432	241397	240810*
	235793	236225	236409	234082	234394	233698	233161	232876*
	243741	243935	243854	242122	242779	241650	241213	240951*
	235171	234813	234579	232755	232889	232734	231865	231804*
	251291	252384	253325	249959	250294	249920	249038	248679*
	247491	246261	246750	244275	244903	244131	243647	243518*
Average	1.2673	1.2220	1.3412	0.5101	0.6214	0.3389	0.1246	0.0000
100×10	306375	305004	305376	303142	302971	300507	301001	300473*
	280928	279094	278921	277109	277408	277109	275601	275298*
	296927	297177	294239	292465	291669	290468	288943	288707*
	309607	306994	306739	304676	305663	303443	–	302635*
	291731	290493	289676	288242	287761	286647	–	285643*
	276751	276449	275932	272790	274152	272764	271956	271475*
	288199	286545	284846	282440	282602	282373	281090	281057*
	296130	297454	297400	293572	295430	293067	–	292471*
	312175	309664	307043	305605	305819	304330	303893	303829*
	298901	296869	297182	295173	296425	293932	293492	293159*
Average	2.1733	1.7633	1.4737	0.7056	0.8682	0.3473	–	0.0000
100×20	383865	373756	372630	374351	372480	369652	368641	368590*
	383976	383614	381124	379792	376476	376067	374838	374086*
	383779	380112	379135	378174	375733	373199	372423	372142*
	384854	380201	380765	380899	379273	374832	–	374601*
	383802	377268	379064	376187	374416	371268	–	370752*
	387962	381510	380464	379248	378380	375463	375348	374871*
	384839	381963	382015	380912	379395	376353	–	376350*
	397264	393617	393075	392315	390587	387189	–	387019*
	387831	385478	380359	382212	380762	378657	377729	377712*
	394861	387948	388060	386013	384734	382004	381623	380971*
Average	3.0892	1.8197	1.5868	1.4119	0.9357	0.2027	–	0.0000

Table 6

Peak performance comparison for Taillard instances with $n = 100$ and $n = 500$. Bold values represent the best solutions for each instance. Values with asterisk denote the new best solutions obtained by AGA.

Instance	BES(LR)	M-MMAS	PACO	PSO _{vns}	H-CPSO	HGA	EDA-VNS/VNS	AGA
200 × 10	1063976	–	–	–	–	1050564	–	1049830*
	1049076	–	–	–	–	1040604	–	1036427*
	1059765	–	–	–	–	1050785	–	1048993*
	1051335	–	–	–	–	1038885	–	1033110*
	1055823	–	–	–	–	1041510	–	1038288*
	1023054	–	–	–	–	1013421	–	1011864*
	1071471	–	–	–	–	1061285	–	1059727*
	1054500	–	–	–	–	1049007	–	1048299*
	1045183	–	–	–	–	1026991	–	1026137*
	1044888	–	–	–	–	1038016	–	1035409*
Average	1.2625	–	–	–	–	0.2117	–	0.0000
200 × 20	1247352	–	–	–	–	1235238	–	1234223*
	1271603	–	–	–	–	1254529	–	1253715*
	1297768	–	–	–	–	1274798	–	1273570*
	1272199	–	–	–	–	1245656	–	1243223*
	1255708	–	–	–	–	1236246	–	1231608*
	1251817	–	–	–	–	1237754	–	1231235*
	1275658	–	–	–	–	1248821	–	1248109*
	1273142	–	–	–	–	1249644	–	1248110*
	1259311	–	–	–	–	1237428	–	1237168*
	1273354	–	–	–	–	1253075	–	1250596*
Average	1.8172	–	–	–	–	0.1745	–	0.0000
500 × 20	6746310	–	–	–	–	6723143	–	6718965*
	6868018	–	–	–	–	6844840	–	6841013*
	6793698	–	–	–	–	6772110	–	6743171*
	6812857	–	–	–	–	6809460	–	6802933*
	6767964	–	–	–	–	6742209	–	6737370*
	6774423	–	–	–	–	6729388	–	6738575
	6739792	–	–	–	–	6706950	–	6691468*
	6821619	–	–	–	–	6795769	–	6790270*
	6753839	–	–	–	–	6736573	–	6715549*
	6778403	–	–	–	–	6764295	–	6760926*
Average	0.4833	–	–	–	–	0.1390	–	0.0137

Table 7

Comparison of AGA with and without AE in terms of RPD within a given computation time.

Instance	20 × 5	20 × 10	20 × 20	50 × 5	50 × 10	50 × 20	100 × 5	100 × 10	100 × 20	Average
AGA_AE	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.2184	0.3057	0.2494	0.2617	0.4721	0.4666	0.2093
30	0.0111	0.1071	0.0103	0.4493	0.8130	1.4135	0.9213	1.2303	1.3441	0.7000
45	0.0179	0.1019	0.0076	0.4305	0.7932	1.4179	0.9131	1.1289	1.2321	0.6715
60	0.0313	0.0319	0.0113	0.4413	0.8057	1.3931	0.9204	1.1107	1.2431	0.6654
75	0.0397	0.1311	0.0098	0.4469	0.8025	1.4032	0.9168	1.2259	1.3593	0.7039

competence meta-heuristics. As mentioned earlier, the effectiveness of AGA may be because of the incorporation of the AE scheme. In order to testify the supposition, a comparison between AGA with AE scheme and AGA without AE scheme was carried out. AGA without AE means that local search time before crossing is fixed to certain values which are listed in the first column of Table 7. The experimental results are given in Table 7. From Table 7, we can observe that AGA with AE is clearly superior to AGA with fixed local search time. The results suggest that asynchronous evolution scheme is rather effective for AGA.

5. Conclusions and future works

In this paper, we presented a novel genetic algorithm called asynchronous genetic local search algorithm. In AGA, one solution was yielded by an effective constructive heuristic and the remaining members were generated randomly. The initial population then conducted a simple crossover operator which was slightly modified by the two-point crossover. An enhanced variable neighbor-

hood search named E-VNS was applied before and after the crossover operation. Different times of local search before crossing are regarded as an asynchronous evolution behavior. The experimental results showed that AE is effective for AGA. Additionally, an easily implementable restart scheme was developed to avoid the premature of the algorithm since the selection and mutation strategies are not utilized.

To evaluate the performance of AGA, comparison tests with certain state-of-the-art methods and two recently proposed meta-heuristics are carried out. The results show that AGA outperforms the existing algorithms in terms of the solution quality and computation time. Ultimately, 83 out of 90 best solutions provided by HGA, EDA-VNS and VNS were improved by AGA. For future research, a more sophisticated restart mechanism should be further studied. More effective restart scheme may greatly improve the algorithm performance. In addition, a very small experiment shows that AGA can obtain promising results for the flowshop problem with respect to makespan criterion. Thus, further studies on AGA may focus on the PFSP with makespan minimization.

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