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A Multiple Criteria Genetic Algorithm Scheduling Tool for Production Scheduling in Capital Goods Industry

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Abstract

Production planners usually aim to satisfy multiple objectives. This paper describes the development of a Genetic Algorithm tool that finds optimum trade-offs between delivery performance, resource utilisation and work-in-progress inventory. The tool was specifically developed to meet the requirements of capital goods companies that manufacture products with deep and complex product structures with components that have long and complicated routings. The model takes into account operation and assembly precedence relationships and finite capacity constraints. The tool was tested using various production problems that were obtained from a collaborating company. A series of experiments showed the tool provides a set of non-dominated solutions that enable the planner to choose an optimum trade-off according to their preferences. Previous research had optimised a single objective function. This is the first scheduling tool of its type that has simultaneously optimised delivery performance, resource utilisation and work-in-progress inventory. The quality of the schedules produced was significantly better than the approaches used by the collaborating company.

Keywords: Genetic Algorithms, capital goods, multiple criteria, production scheduling

1. Introduction

Capital goods are “intended for use in production of other goods or services, rather than for final consumption” [1]. The capital goods industry is essential for economic success [2]. Production planning in capital goods companies is particularly difficult because they produce highly customised, complex products in low volume on an engineer-to-order basis [3]. Typical products such as power plant, ships and oilrigs have very complex product structures. These goods contain a very diverse range of components. Some of these components are bespoke and are required in very low volume, whereas some others are required in medium or large quantities. Certain components are highly customised whilst others are standardised [3]. Price, life cycle cost and delivery performance are usually the most important order winning criteria [4]. Contracts often include severe penalties for lateness. Hicks [4] studied several capital goods companies and found that they all had high

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levels of work-in-process inventory. The products were produced in very dynamic environments with many uncertainties caused by supplier delays, machine breakdowns, rework, arrivals of new orders etc. Rescheduling was common and was expected to be completed in a relatively short time. Planners aim to optimise delivery performance, work in process inventory and machine utilisation, but these factors are often conflicting. A practical and efficient scheduling tool that optimises these criteria simultaneously would provide a set of equally good solutions, each representing alternative trade-offs. The decision maker could choose the solution that provides the best compromise taking into account market requirements, finances and the status of the manufacturing system. This would help capital goods companies improve their competitiveness.

The objectives of this paper are to: 1) provide a brief literature review to identify the research gap addressed by this work; 2) describe the development of the proposed algorithm; 3) apply the new tool to solve three industrial cases obtained from a collaborating company; 4) compare the performance of new tool with previous tools; and 5) present the conclusions of this work.

2. Literature Review

There is an abundant literature on production scheduling, but most research has focused on single machine, flow-shop and job-shop scheduling [5]. The production scheduling of products with deep and complex product structure has been largely neglected. Roman and Valle [6] studied dispatching rules and the effect of product structure on assembly shop performance. Kim and Kim [7] used a Genetic Algorithm and Simulated Annealing for scheduling the production of products with multiple levels of product structure. They used an aggregated model with only two resources; it was assumed that all activities took place in either an assembly shop or a machine shop. This assumption was unrealistic because in practice individual machining and assembly resources have different capabilities. Park and Kim [8] proposed a branch and bound algorithm for an assembly system production scheduling problem. In their work, due dates were set as constraints rather than as objectives, i.e. tardiness was not allowed. Pongcharoen et al. [9] developed a single objective Genetic Algorithm Scheduling Tool (GAST) for scheduling products with deep product structure with multiple resource constraints. The tool aimed to produce schedules that minimised a fitness function that combined holding and lateness costs. There is limited research that has addressed scheduling approaches that are appropriate for capital goods companies. The application of multiple criteria scheduling approaches in this context is currently a gap in the academic literature.

Multi-objective Evolutionary Algorithms (MOEAs) are meta-heuristics that adopt evolutionary principles to find the ‘fittest’ or set of ‘fittest’ offspring. These approaches are stochastic search methods. They cannot guarantee to find the best solution but will able to find good solutions within a realistic time. These approaches are especially practical for combinatorial optimisation problems with a large search spaces, which cannot be solved by enumerative search methods in reasonable time [9]. One of the advantages of these approaches is that it is not necessary to have a detailed model of the search space [10].

Genetic Algorithms (GAs) have been particular popular and have been widely used for production scheduling optimisation problems. GAs are particularly suitable for multiple criteria optimisation problems because they can simultaneously search different regions of the search space and find a diverse set of solutions in discrete solution spaces [11]. The non-dominated solutions form a Pareto set or Pareto Front [11, 12]. These
solutions provide different compromises between the various criteria. Qing-dao-er-ji et al. [13] proposed a hybrid Genetic Algorithm to solve job shop scheduling problems. This research considered the simultaneous optimization of two criteria; make-span and inventory capacity. The hybrid GA used tailored genetic operators and a local search operator that were designed to improve the local search capability. The effectiveness of the approach was tested using a set of benchmark problems [14]. Lin et al. [15] developed two heuristics and a GA for multiple objective scheduling problems on unrelated parallel machines. The three objectives considered were make-span, total weighted completion time and total weighted tardiness. Each heuristic aimed to minimize a pair of these objectives simultaneously, whilst the GA aimed to simultaneously minimize all three. The results showed that the two heuristics were computationally efficient and provided reasonable quality solutions. The GA outperformed the two heuristics in terms of both the number of non-dominated solutions and the quality of the solutions. Lei [16] conducted a survey of multiple objective production scheduling and identified gaps in the field. He reported that most research had focused on typical flow-shop (FSSP) and job-shop scheduling problems (JSSP). There were no examples of research that had considered delivery performance, work in process inventory and resource utilization simultaneously. There were also no examples of research that had addressed problems in hybrid systems, such as a combination of job-shop and assembly shops of the type used in capital goods companies.

3. Problem Description

Hicks [4] studies a range of capital goods companies and found that the price, product performance, life cycle cost and delivery performance were the most important competitive criteria. Capital goods usually have deep and complex product structures with many levels of assembly. Capital goods companies experience many uncertainties including the arrival of new orders, engineering change, process times, machine breakdown and rework. It was found that capital goods companies had very high levels of work-in-process inventory. A major problem was that the supply of components and subassemblies was often poorly coordinated with assembly processes. The high value of components was also another important factor that led to high inventory levels. It is important that products are delivered on time, as contracts for the supply of capital goods frequently include severe penalties for lateness. However, the early delivery of a final product is likely to be unacceptable to customers, because they need items to arrive for construction according to their project plan so that the buildings and services are ready to receive the plant.

The products considered in this work have deep product structures. Hicks [4] proposed a hierarchical coding system that provides full traceability for each item within the product structure. There may be multiple instances of like items at any level of the product structure. The coding scheme includes product structure and product instance identifiers that can uniquely identify and represent any item within the product structure [9]. Items at the root node represent a final product, whilst the leaf nodes represent the components. Other nodes in the hierarchy represent subassemblies. Many components will have long routings and will require processing on many machines.

The proposed tool operates using a data model that represents the real world manufacturing system. Input data may be obtained from a Manufacturing System Simulation Model developed by Hicks [3]. The model uses static and operational data. The static data is the set of information that may not be changed during the
scheduling process. This includes the product structure and resources available. The operational data includes 
the schedule start time, the audit period, set-up, machining and transfer times, planned due date, the customer 
due date etc.

The model is deterministic and makes a number of assumptions:

1. An operation cannot take place until the preceding operation is complete and an machine is available;
2. A machine can only perform one operation at a time;
3. There is no interruption of operations arising from machine breakdown;
4. There is no rework;
5. An assembly cannot start until the components are available.

4. The Proposed Multiple Criteria GA Approach

Three objectives were considered simultaneously: i) delivery performance (DP); ii) work-in-process 
inventory (WIPI); and iii) total idle time of machines (TITM). Production schedules were represented as a set of 
planned start and finish times for each machine. The following notation will be used:

\[ s_i \] start time of operation i;
\[ c_i \] completion time of operation i;
\[ d_i \] due time of operation i;
\[ \rho(i) \] the successor operation i;
\[ r(i) \] the resource which performs operation i;
\[ \sigma(i) \) operation i on resource r(i);
\[ \phi(i) \] the operation that immediately succeeds the operation i on the resource r(i);
\[ S_s \) start time of a planned production schedule;
\[ \Gamma \] the total operation set for production schedule;
\[ T \) the total resource set for production schedule;
\[ e_i \) unit time earliness costs for operation i (£500/day);
\[ t_i \) unit time tardiness costs for operation i (£1000/day);

\[
DP = \sum_{i \in \Gamma} e_i \left| (d_i - c_i) \right| + \sum_{i \in \Gamma} t_i \left| (d_i - c_i) \right| 
\]  
(1)

\[
WIPI = \sum_{i \in \Gamma} e_i (c_{\rho(i)} - s_i) 
\]  
(2)

\[
TITM = \sum_{(i,j) \in T} (s_{\sigma(j)} - S_s) + (s_{\phi(j)} - c_{\sigma(j)}) 
\]  
(3)
4.1. **Algorithm**

The structure of the algorithm is shown in Fig 1. It consists of: chromosome initialization; parameter setting; population initialization; genetic operators; a repair process; fitness evaluation; selection schemes; and stopping criteria. The details are explained in the following sections.

![Algorithm flow chart](image)

Fig 1. Algorithm flow chart

4.2. **Population Initialisation**

Production schedules were represented using the approach developed by Pongcharoen et al. [9] which represented chromosomes as a sequence of operations on parts. The initial population was generated randomly using the Wichmann and Hill [17] seed-based random number generator, which combines three congruent sources with different periods for generating random numbers. This generator is computationally efficient and performs well with a very large period of $2.78 \times 10^{13}$. It has been thoroughly tested and produces uniformly and independently distributed random numbers [18].

4.3. **Genetic operations**

The algorithm includes three alternative crossover operators: Cycling Crossover (CYX)[19]; Position Based Crossover (PBX)[20] and Partially Mapped Crossover (PMX)[21]; and five alternative mutation operators: Two Operations Adjacent Swap (2OAS)[22]; Three Operations Adjacent Swap (3OAS) [22]; Scramble Mutation (SM) [20]; Inverse Mutation (IM)[23]; and Three Operations Random Swap (3ORS) [22].

4.4. **Repair Process**

The algorithm may produce infeasible schedules that contravene operation or assembly precedence relationships, or exceed finite capacity constraints. Infeasible chromosomes are rectified using the four stage repair process proposed by Pongcharoen et al. [24] and implemented and improved by Xie et al. [25]: i) operation precedence adjustment; ii) part precedence adjustment; iii) deadlock adjustment; and iv) timing assignment and capacity considerations.
4.5. Non-dominated Ranking and Fitness Assignment

This is the first multiple criteria scheduling tool that simultaneously optimises delivery performance, resource utilization and work-in-progress inventory. The single objective approach proposed by Pongcharoen et al. [24] was developed to include a new fitness measurement and assignment procedure to provide a mechanism for multiple criteria optimisation. The methodology proposed by Fonseca and Fleming [26] was used. There are two major elements: non-dominated ranking and niching. The ranking procedure ranks the population according to a dominance rule, and then each solution is assigned a fitness value based on its rank rather than its fitness. Niching uses a fitness sharing strategy to artificially decrease the fitness of solutions in densely populated area ($\sigma_{\text{share}}$ is the niche size or the radius of a niche). This approach was based on the work of Deb [27]:

Step 1. Set counter $i = 1$ and specify the sharing parameter $\sigma_{\text{share}}$. Initialise $\mu(j) = 0$ ($j = 1, \ldots, N$) for all ranks (the parameter $\sigma_{\text{share}}$ represents the niche size, whilst $\mu(j)$ is the number of solutions within rank $j$).

Step 2. Compute the number of solutions ($n_i$) that dominate solution $i$. Then compute and assign the rank ($r_i$) of solution $i$ as $r_i = 1 + n_i$. Increase the number of solutions in rank $r_i$ by one, so that $\mu(r_i) = \mu(r_i) + 1$;

Step 3. Repeat step 1 and step 2 until $i < N$ (total number of solutions). Otherwise, go to step 4;

Step 4. Set a rank counter $r = 1$. Identify the maximum rank $r^*$ by checking the largest $r_i$ which has $\mu(r_i) > 0$. Assign average fitness to solutions $i = 1, \ldots, N$ from the best rank 1 to worst rank $n \leq N$ using a linear function:

$$ F_{(\text{avg})} = N - \sum_{k=1}^{r^*-1} \mu(k) - 0.5(\mu(r^*) - 1) $$

(4)

Step 5. Calculate the niche count for each solution $i$ in rank $r_i$ with other solutions of the same rank by using Equation 5.

$$ nc_i = \sum_{j=1}^{\mu(r_i)} sh(d_{ij}) $$

(5)

In Equation 5, $d_{ij}$ is the normalised distance between any two solutions $i$ and $j$ in a rank and is calculated as follows:

$$ d_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{M} \left( \frac{f_k^{(i)} - f_k^{(j)}}{f_{k_{\max}} - f_{k_{\min}}} \right)^2} $$

(6)

Where $f_{k_{\max}}$ and $f_{k_{\min}}$ are the maximum and minimum values of the $k^{th}$ objective. In Equation 5, Equation 7 is used with $\alpha = 1$ to compute the sharing function value $sh(d)$ ($\alpha$ is a parameter that indicates whether the sharing effect between two solutions reduces from one to zero linearly or non-linearly. When $\alpha=1$, the effect reduces linearly).

$$ sh(d_{ij}) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left( \frac{d_{ij}}{\sigma_{\text{share}}} \right)^\alpha, & \text{if } d_{ij} \leq \alpha_{\text{share}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} $$

(7)
Step 6. After calculating the niche count, the shared fitness is calculated using the formula $F_{i(\text{share})} = F_{i(\text{avg})} / n_c$. To preserve the same average fitness, $F_{i(\text{share})}$ is multiplied by scaling factor $S$ (shown in Equation 8) so that the scale fitness value is the same as the original average fitness value.

$$S = F_{i(\text{avg})} \cdot \mu(r) / \sum_{k=1}^{\rho(r)} F_{k(\text{share})}$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

The scale fitness is:

$$F_{\text{scale}} = S \times F_{i(\text{share})}$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

Step 7. If $r < r^*$, increment $r$ by one and go to step 5. Otherwise, terminate the process.

4.6. Rank Based Roulette-Elitist Strategy (RRES)

The algorithm adopted the Rank Based Roulette-Elitist Strategy to select which individuals survive to next generation. This strategy, developed by Tunnukij et al. [28], combines the elite selection strategy [10] and the rank-based roulette wheel [29]. It was found to be superior to other selection schemes for production scheduling in the capital goods industry [25]. The strategy first selects 15% of the best chromosomes to survive to the next generation, then uses the rank-based roulette wheel to select the other 85% of chromosomes.

5. Industrial Cases Study

Three industrial cases were studied in this research as shown in Table 1. These particular cases were chosen because the size of these problems were large enough to allow the Multiple Objective Scheduling Tool to find a considerable number of solutions but they were small enough to allow a large number of experiments to be conducted within a limited time period. The experiments were based on a full factorial design [30].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case No.</th>
<th>Product code</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Machining/assembly operations = total</th>
<th>No. of resources</th>
<th>Product structure levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>229 &amp; 451</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>57/10 = 67</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>228 &amp; 4</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>118/17 = 135</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>268/39 = 307</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pongcharoen et al. [24] developed a single criterion Genetic Algorithm Scheduling Tool (GAST) for production scheduling that reduced the holding cost of components, assemblies and subassemblies, and reduced the earliness and tardiness of final products. Precedence relationships and finite capacity were considered. Fitness was evaluated by a single objective function that combined earliness and tardiness costs. The results of the new multiple objective tool were compared to the best schedules produced by the GAST to demonstrate the practicality and effectiveness of the tool. The configurations considered are shown in Table 2. These configurations were chosen based on previous work by Xie et al. (2011) [31] and Pongcharoen et al. (2001) [32].
Table 2. Experimental design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Configurations</th>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>Case 2</th>
<th>Case 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population size</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of generations</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crossover operator</td>
<td>PBX, PMX</td>
<td>CYX, PMX</td>
<td>CYX, PBX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crossover probability</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutation operator</td>
<td>3OAS, SM</td>
<td>3ORS, IM</td>
<td>2OAS, 3ORS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutation probability</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection scheme</td>
<td>RRES</td>
<td>RRES</td>
<td>RRES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma ) (Niche size)</td>
<td>0.01, 0.03, 0.05, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.9, 1.0</td>
<td>0.01, 0.03, 0.05, 0.1, 0.01, 0.03, 0.05, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.9, 1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of replication</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total runs/case</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>1800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Pareto optimal solutions obtained by the MOGAST are shown in figures 2, 3, and 4. The tool produced 1,108 different solutions for case one, 1,545 solutions for case two and 452 for case three. The delivery penalties for case 1 were within the range of £1,900–£2,350 with work-in-process inventory within the range £4.5–£6.5x10\(^4\). The total idle time of machines was within the range 10–50 days. The delivery penalty for case 2 was within the range £2.4–£3.8x10\(^4\) and the work-in-process inventory was within the range £1.7–£2.4x10\(^5\). The total idle time for all machines was within the range 30–180 days. For case 3, the delivery penalty was within the range £0–£4.5x10\(^4\) and the inventory costs were within the range £0–£3.0x10\(^6\), whilst the total idle machine time was between 200–1,200 days.

The best schedule that was produced by GAST [24] is displayed in the figure as a single dot that is highlighted by a pointed arrow. It can be seen that the new tool produced far superior results to the GAST. For example, in case 3 the new tool produced many schedules with near zero delivery penalties, with just a few hundred pounds of work-in-process inventory, whilst the best schedule produced by GAST had a delivery penalty of £61,500 with £2.7m of work-in-process inventory. In case 1, although GAST achieved a slightly better inventory cost than most of those from MCGAST, the results in terms of delivery penalty and total idle time of machines were very inferior to those produced by the MCGAST. All the schedules produced by the new tool had a higher machine utilisation rates than those generated by the GAST.
Fig 2. A 3D plot of the Pareto solutions (Case 1)

Fig 3. A 3D plot of the Pareto optimal solutions (Case 2)
The computational time required by both tools is shown in Table 3. Both tools were run on the same UNIX time sharing machine. It can be seen that the new tool is much faster than GAST. The speed of the tool is a very significant factor if the tool is to be used by practitioners because rescheduling is very common and usually needs to be completed in a relatively short period of time. The new tool is a few hundred times faster than GAST and will therefore be able to solve much larger industrial cases within a reasonable time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial Data</th>
<th>CPU time (seconds)</th>
<th>GAST</th>
<th>MCGAST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case 1</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>0.55–0.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 2</td>
<td>1224</td>
<td>1.8–2.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 3</td>
<td>3959</td>
<td>24–26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tool proposed in this research contains a graphic user interface (GUI) that displays schedules as a Gantt chart. With multiple objective scheduling problems, there is no best solution but a set of non-dominated solutions. The Gantt charts for one of the solutions of each industrial case are shown in the following figures.
Figure 5. Gantt chart for case 1

Figure 6. Gantt chart for case 2
6. Discussion and Conclusions

This research has developed a multiple criteria Genetic Algorithm scheduling tool that simultaneously minimises work-in-process inventory and delivery penalties whilst maximising resource utilisation. The optimization of these criteria will help capital goods companies compete in global markets. Previous work has only considered either one or two of these factors. This is the first multiple criteria scheduling tool that has simultaneously considered these criteria for production scheduling in the capital goods industry. The tool contains a repair process that is able to rectify all the infeasible schedules due to product structure and machine capacity.

The new tool was able to produce a large number of schedules which found a large number of alternative optimum trade-offs between the objectives. These schedules were all non-dominated solutions. The tool could improve the competitiveness of companies. A decision maker could select from many equally good solutions based upon their experience, current requirements and preferences. The performance of the tool was compared with a previous single criterion tool that used an objective function. The results demonstrated that the new tool achieved far better results for all the industrial cases considered, especially for larger problems. The program produced results quickly, which would be helpful to planners. It could be applied to solve much larger industrial cases which are very common in capital goods companies. The previous tool (GAST) was limited to small industrial cases due to its slow speed. In practical scheduling situations there are many uncertainties. A fast scheduling tool is highly desirable so that planners can quickly reschedule work to achieve optimum solutions.
References


