

HYBRID CONTINUOUS SCATTER SEARCH APPROACH TO TARDINESS
RELATED SCHEDULING PROBLEMS

by

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To my mother, Muhsine Hanım...

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ABSTRACT

HYBRID CONTINUOUS SCATTER SEARCH APPROACH TO TARDINESS RELATED SCHEDULING PROBLEMS

In this thesis, a hybrid approach, which integrates Scatter Search (SS) and a Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS), is presented to attack tardiness related scheduling problems. The aim is to find advanced strategies that can be adapted to the basic SS methodology in order to enhance its diversification and intensification capabilities throughout the scheduling problems. The Hybrid Continuous Scatter Search (HCSS) approach is first implemented on the Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness (SMTWT) problem to minimize total weighted tardiness. Then the HCSS method is modified to addresses the Parallel Machine Total Tardiness (PMTT) problem, which consists of a set of jobs to be scheduled on a number of parallel processors to minimize total tardiness. The NP-hard nature of both problems renders a challenging area for research.

In order to develop a robust hybrid methodology, the key elements of the Scatter Search such as reference set update method, initial solution generation method, solution combination method and as an intensification strategy – the hybridized VNS are investigated. The employed solution encoding, diverse solution selection methods, and dynamic solution combination method are unique and introduced first time in this thesis to provide new ideas for Scatter Search era. The proposed HCSS approach yields good quality results with respect to optimal/best-known solutions reported in the literature.

ÖZET

ARTI GECİKME TABANLI ÇİZELGELEME PROBLEMLERİNE MELEZ SÜREKLİ DAĞILIM ARAMASI YAKLAŞIMI

Bu tezin konusu olan çalışmada, Artı Gecikme Tabanlı Atama problemlerini çözmek için Dağılım Araması (DA) ve Değişken Komşuluk Araması (DKA) yöntemlerini bünyesinde birleştiren melez bir yaklaşım sunulmuştur. Bu tezde amaç, DA metodunun atama problemlerinin çözümündeki başkalaşım ve kuvvetlendirme kabiliyetlerini artırmak için temel metodolojisine adapte edilebilecek ileri seviye stratejiler bulmaktır. Melez Sürekli Dağılım Araması (MSDA) yaklaşımı ilk olarak Tek Makina Toplam Ağırlıklı Artı Gecikme (TMTAG) probleminde toplam ağırlıklı artı gecikmeyi en küçüklemek için yürütülmüştür. Bir sonraki kademede MSDA metodu, bir takım işin birkaç paralel işlemci üzerinde toplam artı gecikmesini en küçüklemek amacıyla oluşturulan Paralel Makina Toplam Artı Gecikme (PMTAG) problemini ele alabilmesi için uygun bir şekilde modifiye edilmiştir. İlgilenilen problemlerinin NP-zor doğası itibari ile ortaya iddialı bir araştırma konusu çıkmıştır.

Sağlam bir metodoloji geliştirmek için Dağılım Araması yönteminin anahtar elemanları olan; referans kümesi güncelleme metodu, başlangıç çözümü oluşturma metodu, çözüm birleştirme metodu ve çözüm kuvvetlendirme stratejisi olarak DKA yöntemi incelenmiştir. Kullanılan çözüm kodlaması, farklı çözüm seçme metodu ve dinamik çözüm birleştirme metodu DA yöntemine yeni fikirler teşkil etmek amacı ile ilk defa bu tezde sunulmuşlardır. Tasarlanan MSDA yaklaşımı literatürde yayınlanmış bilinen en iyi çözümlerle karşılaştırıldığında kaliteli sonuçlar vermektedir.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS

b_1	Number of elite solutions
b_2	Number of diverse solutions
C	Completion time
d	Due date
m	Number of machines
$N()$	Neighbors of a current solution
n	Number of jobs
p	Processing time
r	Ready time
$rand$	Random number
s	Setup time
S	Slack time
st	Start time
T	Tardiness
π	Priority value
Δ	Increment value
ρ	Average utilization of machines
ACO	Ant colony optimization
B&B	Branch and bound
CBN	Combination rule
CPU	Central processing unit
EA	Evolutionary algorithm
EDD	Earliest due date
EFT	Earliest finish time
EJOR	European Journal of Operational Research
FVNS	Final variable neighborhood search
GA	Genetic algorithm
HCSS	Hybrid continuous scatter search

LB	Local branching
MA	Memetic algorithm
MVNS	Middle variable neighborhood search
NJS	Neighborhood job swap
NP	Non-deterministic polynomial
OR	Operation research
PMTT	Parallel machine total tardiness
PSO	Particle swarm optimization
R&M	Rachamadugu and Morton
RDD	Range of due dates
RVNS	Reduced variable neighborhood search
SA	Simulated annealing
SMTWT	Single machine total weighted tardiness
SPT	Shortest processing time
SS	Scatter search
TF	Tardiness factor
TS	Tabu search
TWLW	Total weighted late work
tw	Total weighted tardiness
VND	Variable neighborhood descent
VNDS	Variable neighborhood decomposition search
VNS	Variable neighborhood search

1. INTRODUCTION

Designing efficient solution algorithms for Combinatorial Optimization problems, especially scheduling problems, has been a real challenge for researchers. Scheduling problems arise in many contexts; from computer engineering to manufacturing techniques. Most scheduling problems are NP-hard; thus render classical approaches such as Branch and Bound schemes or integer linear programming unpractical for real-life instances. Due to the fact that the quality of simple approximation approaches remains limited, many researchers continuously search for new sophisticated methods which can provide solutions with high accuracy in a short time.

Meta-heuristics, which extend the neighborhood search beyond the local optima, introduced a new era towards improvement of solution quality for scheduling problems. Simulated Annealing (SA), Tabu Search (TS), and Genetic Algorithms (GA) are the most established and widely used meta-heuristic approaches. Several studies in the literature report successful implementations of these methods on scheduling problems where the TS and its hybrids were often surpassing the performance of the others.

Scatter Search (SS) is another population-based meta-heuristic that came into attention very recently, although the original idea dates back to 1970s. Basically, SS works on a set of good but diverse reference solutions to generate new trial solutions by combining them. European Journal of Operational Research published a special volume (EJOR Vol. 169, 2006) dedicated to SS and its implementations. In this volume, articles on methodology of SS, as well as several applications including assignment, routing, clustering and scheduling problems are reported. In his editorial article, Marti (2006) states the highlights of SS and presents it as an amazing search method which would break the dominance of Tabu Search and Genetic Algorithm. Based on Marti's analysis, the number of SS publications shows a boost after year 2000. It is apparent that this approach is still not fully mature, needs further development and testing especially for scheduling domain.

The highly concentrated interest on SS has motivated and encouraged us to test this new approach in this thesis. Due to its stochastic nature and the absence of an exploitation

component, SS might result poorly when the NP-Hard scheduling problems are taken into consideration. Therefore, SS approach is enhanced with a well known local improvement method namely Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS) whose performance on intensification is proven throughout most of the studies performed in scheduling era.

In order to test the performance of the SS approach, we selected two tardiness related scheduling problems. Tardiness, or the duration by which the completion time of a job exceeds its due date, is a challenging performance measure in the sense that even the simplest scheduling setting of sequencing n jobs on a single machine becomes NP-hard under this objective. Moreover, scheduling against due dates receives considerable attention in literature, since delivery time performance becomes an increasingly critical issue under the growing pressure of the competition in today's markets.

The first problem handled is minimizing the total weighted tardiness of n jobs scheduled on a single machine (SMTWT), a well known NP-hard problem. The problem has been studied previously by several researchers including: TS, SA, and GA approaches by Crauwels et al. (1998), dynasearch algorithm by Congram et al. (2002) and TS approach by Bilge et al. (2007). There is a set of benchmark problems whose best known solutions are largely provided by Congram, and TS algorithm introduced by Bilge et al. produces matchingly good results.

The second problem selected is the Parallel Machine Total Tardiness (PMTT) problem. Here, a set of jobs with distinct arrival times and sequence dependent setup times are scheduled on a set of uniform parallel machines to minimize total tardiness. This complicated and realistic problem has also been studied by various researchers: GA approach by Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu and Ulusoy (1999), TS by Bilge et al. (2004), GA by Bilge and Kırac (2006) and a hybrid of TS-SA-VNS by Anghinolfi and Paolucci (2006). The best-known solutions for the benchmark set of problems, -first introduced by Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu, has been improved by each research in this line, and currently the results obtained by Anghinolfi and Paolucci constitute the best-known solutions.

In this thesis, the proposed hybrid SS will be tested over these two benchmark problems sets and the results will be compared to the most up-to-date best known

solutions. The thesis is organized as follows: In the next chapter, after a brief overview of heuristic approaches in general and a meta-heuristics in particular, a more through account for both SS and VNS are given. Chapter Three provides detailed problem definitions and literature surveys for the SMTWT and PMTT problems. The proposed hybrid SS algorithm is described in details in Chapter Four. Numerical studies and final results for both problem settings are presented in Chapter Five and finally, Chapter Six ends the thesis with summary and conclusive remarks.

2. OVERVIEW OF META-HEURISTICS AND SCATTER SEARCH

The hybrid approach used in this study, integrates two well-known meta-heuristics; Scatter Search and Variable Neighborhood Search. Thus it will be a good idea to start with basics and define heuristics and meta-heuristics in general before examining our approach.

The term heuristic means a method based on previous experiences and judgments that provides a fast and reasonable solution to a problem, but which cannot be guaranteed to produce the mathematically optimal solution (Silver, 2004). There are several types of heuristic solution methods that can be chosen defining on factors related to the problem. Most common heuristic techniques can be categorized as constructive methods, branch and bound derivatives and local improvement (neighborhood search) methods. Constructive methods as the name implies use the data of the problem to build a solution step by step. Hence no solution is obtained until the procedure is complete. At each iteration, there is a partial solution and the extension of the current solution is constructed by selecting one of the possible options available for the current status of the solution. This makes the approach myopic. Usually the option with the minimum cost is selected as the extension leading to so called greedy method. As an example, consider a scheduling problem concerned with the sum of the weighted completion times of n jobs on a single machine. Job j has a process time p_j and a weight w_j . For this case, a well known dispatching rule so called WSPT can be employed as a constructive algorithm. All the jobs are ranked according to their w_j/p_j ratios in decreasing order and whenever the machine is idle the job with the highest rank is processed and continues to the next highest until set of unprocessed jobs is empty. (Pinedo and Simchi-Levi, 1996)

Enumerative branch and bound methods are widely used to obtain optimal solutions to NP-hard scheduling problems. Branch and Bound (B&B) attempts to eliminate a node by determining a lower bound on the objective function for all partial schedules that derived from that node. If the lower bound is higher than the value of objective function under known schedule, the node may be eliminated and its possible offspring are neglected. The main advantage of Branch and Bound methods is that after evaluating all

nodes, the final solution can be considered to be the optimal. On the other hand, B&B method is extremely time-consuming, when the number of nodes is very large. Therefore some derivatives of B&B method are constructed to overcome this handicap. Filtered beam search is an adaptation of Branch and Bound method in which only the most promising nodes at a level are selected as nodes for further branching. The remaining nodes at that level are filtered permanently. The number of nodes kept is so called beam width of the search. The decision process that determines the promising nodes is the most important phase of this method. There is a trade-off between quickness and efficiency. A crude prediction is quick, but may lead to discard good solutions. On the other hand, more thorough evaluations may be extremely time consuming. (Reeves, 1993)

The basic concept behind the local improvement methods is quite simple. One starts with a feasible solution to a problem, often generated randomly or obtained as a result of a constructive method. In the next step, feasible solutions in the neighborhood of the current solution are evaluated. If one of the new solutions is better than the current solution, it becomes the new current solution and its neighborhood is searched for the next iteration. These repetitive steps are continued until no improvement can be found. The current solution, at the final stage is accepted as the local optimum. The neighborhood of the solution suggests that two solutions are neighbors if one can be obtained through well defined modifications. As an example, for a single machine scheduling problem, a solution is a specific sequence of the jobs on a machine and neighborhood of the current solution can be defined as the new schedule obtained by performing a single adjacent pair-wise interchange of two consecutive jobs. While searching the neighborhood of the current solution, an important issue arises. It is crucial to decide whether to choose a move to the first solution in the neighborhood exhibiting an improvement or to evaluate all the solutions in the neighborhood and choose the one giving the largest improvement. (This method is often referred to as steepest ascent (or descent) method)(Reeves, 1993). Depending on the new current solution selection strategy, different local improvement methods can be constructed. Although these methods perform highly satisfactory, they only guarantee a local optimum. The final solution obtained heavily depends on the starting solution and most possibly ends at a local optimum. In order to break out the fundamental weakness of local search, exploration and diversification methods are

suggested to broaden search to other parts of the solution space. The resulting heuristics are generally named as meta-heuristics.

2.1. Meta-heuristics

A meta-heuristic is an iterative master process that guides and modifies the operations of sub ordinate heuristic to produce efficiently high quality solutions. It may combine intelligently different concepts to explore solution space using adaptive learning strategies and structured information (Osman, 1996). Meta-heuristics are particularly concerned with not getting trapped at local optimum and carefully reducing solution space to be searched. Every meta-heuristic has one or more adjustable parameters, that provide flexibility and the robustness. On the other hand, this parameter requires intensive calibration on set of numerical instances of the problem. The family of meta-heuristics can be classified into three main categories and their sub-categories. Construction based meta-heuristics includes greedy random adaptive search methods, and guided construction methods. Local search based meta-heuristics include simulated annealing, noise methods, guide local search methods, iterated local search, neural networks, Tabu Search and variable neighborhood search. Population based meta-heuristics include evolutionary algorithms (EA) such as ant colony systems, particle swarm optimization, genetic algorithm, and scatter search. (Osman and Kelly, 1996)

Tabu search (TS) is one of the most widely used meta-heuristic proposed by Glover (1997). In his paper, Glover points to several application areas including scheduling, routing, location/allocation, design, logic and artificial intelligence. TS begins with a complete feasible solution. This solution can be either randomly generated one or a more qualified solution evaluated by a constructive heuristic. Just like the other local improvement methods, TS continues to develop new complete solutions from its neighborhood. Then these candidate solutions are evaluated and chosen if better than the current solution. However, evaluating every possible move from the current solution might be extremely time consuming and computationally expensive. Therefore, candidate list strategy is employed to filter some neighborhood solutions. A candidate list strategy chooses potentially good candidates from the neighborhood, and prevents considering all moves. In order to avoid being trapped at local optimum, moves to neighborhood points

with inferior solutions are permitted. In addition to that a mechanism is used to prevent cycling back to recently visited solutions. Recently visited solutions are kept in a tabu list and these solutions are avoided from reoccurring for a certain number of iterations. The number of tabu iterations also called tabu tenure is a key controllable parameter of TS.

Two crucial components of TS search are intensification and diversification strategies. Intensification strategy is based on modifying choice rules to encourage move combinations and solution features historically found good whereas diversification strategy encourages the search to examine unvisited regions of search space and to generate solution that differs significantly than previously visited. The memory used in TS is both explicit and attributive. Explicit memory records elite solutions visited during the search and extension of this memory stores highly attractive but unexplored neighborhoods of elite solutions. These solutions are later used to expand local search.

Simulated Annealing (SA) takes its name from the physical process called annealing where a material is heated into a liquid state then cooled back into recrystallized solid state. In this local search method, the randomly generated or a constructively evaluated solution is considered at the initial stage. This starting solution must be complete and feasible. In the following steps, neighborhood solutions are generated by mutations and evolutions. If the candidate solution is better than the current one, it becomes the new current solution. However, if the fitness of candidate is inferior to the current, then there is still a chance that candidate replaces current with a probability determined by exponential of the difference between fitness values and a parameter called the temperature. The probability of accepting the poor solution decreases as the difference between fitness values increases or the temperature becomes smaller. The temperature is gradually lowered during the course of the search so that the probability of accepting poor solutions is reduced towards the end of the process. The search continues until the termination criterion is met. This criterion can be a certain total number of iterations or a prescribed number of consecutive iterations without any improvement. These properties of simulated annealing are more or less same as the TS. However, there are important differences between the methods. Firstly, TS uses adaptive memory, whereas SA is memoryless. Secondly, TS tends to permit moving to an inferior solution when in the vicinity of the local optimum whereas this can happen at any time in SA. Finally, TS allows moving away from a local

optimum by a deterministic mechanism; on the other hand SA uses a probabilistic method. (Jones and Rabelo, 1998)

Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) proposed by Dorigo (Dorigo and Di Caro, 1999) is one of the most successful examples in swarm intelligence systems and have been applied to many types of optimization problem. This algorithm simulates the behavior of ant colonies when finding the shortest path between nest and the food source. While going from nest to food source (or vice versa), ants deposit a chemical substance called pheromone on the ground. When they arrive the decision point such as an intersection between shorter and longer branch, they make a choice depend on the amount of pheromone they smell on the two branches. For this reason, ants choose the shorter path having more pheromone with higher probability than the longer one. New pheromone is released on the chosen path and makes it more attractive for subsequent ants. Consider a traveling salesman problem; the probability of a salesman transition from one city to another depends on two factors. First one is the direct distance between two cities (probability that is inversely proportional to distance) and the second one is the remaining amount of pheromone released by earlier salesman that has traveled this link (probability that is proportional to amount of pheromone). In order to provide flexibility and prevent premature convergence, ant colony optimization method uses a predefined formula known as pheromone evaporation rate through which remaining pheromone is updated at the end of each iteration.

Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), introduced by Kennedy and Eberhart (2001), is based on a social-psychological model of social influence and social learning. Individuals in a particle swarm follow a very simple behavior: emulate the success of neighboring individuals. The collective behavior, which emerges, is that of discovering optimal regions of a high dimensional search space. The swarm of particles responds to quality factors in the form of the personal and neighborhood best positions. Allocation of responses between the personal best and neighborhood best positions ensure a diversity of response. The particle changes its state only when the personal best and the global best position change. A PSO algorithm maintains a swarm of particles, where each particle's position represents a potential solution. In analogy with evolutionary computation paradigms, a swarm is similar to a population, while a particle is similar to an individual.

In simple terms, the particles are flown through a multi-dimensional space, where the position of each particle is adjusted according to its own experience and that of its neighbors. The position of the particle is altered by adding a velocity to the current position. This velocity vector drives the optimization process. At the end of search, the particle with the superior position is considered as the best particle of the swarm and represents the best found solution.

Genetic Algorithms (GA) (Goldberg, 1989, Liepins and Hillard, 1989) work with a group or population of solutions. Each individual in the population is characterized by its fitness. The fitness of an individual is associated to the objective function. The process works iteratively and each iteration is referred to a generation. A generation consists of surviving individuals and new solutions or children from previous generation. Population size generally remains constant from one generation to the next. The children are generated through reproduction and mutation of individuals that are part of previous generation. At each iteration, the fittest individuals reproduce and the least fits die. The birth, death and reproduction procedure that determine the composition of the next generation can be complicated process that is usually a function of the fitness levels of the individuals of the current generation. There are considerable number of controllable parameters and other choices including size of population, the probability of mutation of an individual, and the number of crossover points, etc.

Scatter Search is another derivative of evolutionary algorithms that uses weighted linear combinations of several solutions contained in a reference set to produce new solutions. Since we employ Scatter Search methodology in our hybrid approach, detailed definitions of SS internal components and their working mechanisms are given in the next section.

2.2. Scatter Search

Scatter Search (SS) is an evolutionary algorithm which was first introduced by Glover (1977) as a heuristic for integer programming. In contrast to other evolutionary methods like GA, SS is founded on the idea that new solutions created by systematic design and procedures provide significant benefits than those generated randomly. SS

orients its exploration systematically relative to a set of reference points that typically consists of good solutions obtained by prior problem solving efforts. In this context, reference solutions do not cite as “good” according to their objective function value, may also be considered in the case of some specifications that differ from other solutions. SS uses weighted linear combinations to produce new candidate solutions within the search space containing previously found reference points.

Glover (1998) provides a Scatter Search template as the main reference for most of the SS implementations. He defines five components to construct a basic design as follows:

- A diversification method to generate a collection of diverse trial solutions using an arbitrary trial solution as an input.
- An improvement method to transform a trial solution into a more enhanced trial solution
- A reference set update method to build and maintain a reference set containing predefined number of best solutions and diverse solutions which are accepted according to their quality or diversity.
- A subset generation method to operate on reference set to produce a subset of its solutions as a basis for creating combined solutions.
- A solution combination method to transform a given subset of solutions produced by subset generation method into one or more combined vectors.

The reference set plays the crucial role in SS method. The reference set (*RefSet*) as mentioned previously is a collection of both high quality and diverse solutions that are used to generate new candidate solutions. The number of elite solutions b_1 and diverse solutions b_2 are fixed and state the size of the reference set ($b = b_1 + b_2$). The construction of the initial reference set starts with the selection of the best b_1 solution from the pool of initially generated and improved trial solutions. These solutions are added to *RefSet* and discarded from the pool. For each solution in the pool, the minimum of the distances to the reference points contained in *RefSet* is computed. Then the solution with the maximum of these minimum distances is selected as the diverse point. This solution is added to *RefSet* and deleted from the pool. The loop continues until b_2 diverse solutions are chosen to *RefSet*. (Laguna et al., 2006)

After constructing the *RefSet*, subsets are created by using the subset generation method. In traditional EA's such as GA, parents are selected through a random sampling scheme, but in SS the parent selection is based on a deterministic method. This method generates all subsets of size two while skipping subsets with the same elements. Using an appropriate solution combination method, these subsets yield into new trial solutions that build up the pool. Then the *RefSet* is rebuilt using new pool and previous *RefSet* through mentioned update method. These five methods are repeated simultaneously until a termination criterion is met. (Laguna and Marti, 2003)

Some advanced design, such as dynamic *RefSet* updating, *RefSet* rebuilding, *RefSet* tiers, and diversity control are outlined by Glover (1998) which can be useful modifications to improve the performance of SS implementations. In dynamic *RefSet* updating, *RefSet* is updated immediately when a new best solution is found by the combination method. The advantage of dynamic update is that it quickly replaces inferior solutions in the *RefSet* with better solutions and future combinations are made with improved solutions. The disadvantage is that, some potentially promising combinations are eliminated before being considered. In *RefSet* rebuilding method, *RefSet* is partially rebuilt with diversification update where the previous diverse solutions are deleted and new diverse solutions are generated using diversification generation method. These solutions are then placed to *RefSet*. Another advanced approach is dividing *RefSet* into more than two subcategories. As previously mentioned, *RefSet* already consists of two subcategories: high quality and diverse points. In addition to these, new categories may be defined, such as a third category containing good generators which generated high quality trial solutions when used as inputs in the combination method for the previous generations. All these advance modifications can improve the performance of SS and translate it into a higher complexity with additional search parameters. However, it conflicts with the goal of designing a method that is easy to implement and fine tune. Therefore, there is no one and exact combination of these methods that leads to the best performance. One should try and decide which combination is superior for a given problem context.

Initial step for an efficient SS algorithm is to understand its methodology. Glover (1998), Glover et al. (2000), Glover et al. (2003), Greistorfer (2004), Herrera et al. (2006), Laguna et al. (2003), Laguna et al. (2006), Reeves and Yamada (1999) develop basic

mechanisms and methods of SS design. They also provide insights to efficient implementations and advanced modifications that would help while aiming complex problems. The methodologies given in these papers become the keystones of our SS approach which will be discussed briefly.

As described in those papers, SS is implemented for both discrete and continuous optimization problems. Since it is a methodology, the described components of SS can be refined and adapted depending on the nature of the considered optimization problem. A discrete optimization problem consists of integer variables x_i 's such that $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, whereas continuous problem includes real-value x_i 's that belongs to the set R . Constructing a proper solution encoding is one of the most crucial parts of the SS approach. Depending on the structure of the problem, encoding might contain either integer values or real-value components, which should provide a meaningful mapping to the search space. The components of SS such as solution combination method and diverse solution selection method are designed according to the utilized solution encoding.

The generation method of the new solution changes according to the type of the encoding. For discrete problems, the solution combination method employs a crossover or a mutation operator which generate a new individual by crossing chromosomes or mutating them. However, real-value encoding of solutions offers the possibility of defining a wide variety of special real-parameter combination operators which can take advantage of its numerical nature. These operators construct intervals depending on the linear combinations of the solutions and select a new solution within this interval. Average combination method and BLX- α are two well-known combination methods for continuous GAs. (Herrera et al., 2006)

Another important method to be carefully designed is the diverse solution selection method. Diverse solutions are chosen with respect to their distance values to the reference set. This distance measurement should be performed in an accurate way in order to select superior diverse solutions. The diversity of two solutions can be defined by either calculating the distance between them or evaluating the dissimilarities inside their structures. The most of the diverse solution selection methods originates from these two measurement rules. Every SS approach has its own unique distance measurement function

depending on the characteristics of the desired diverse solution, and the nature of the solution encoding.

The hybrid applications show that SS can be improved when combined with other meta-heuristics. The key idea behind these hybrid approaches should be identifying the method with required strategy and to justify the selection of this method from another meta-heuristics. Investigating some hybrid methods found on literature assists us to construct our own hybrid SS.

Greistorfer (2003) propose a meta-heuristic based on a TS procedure that makes use of the SS paradigm to solve a capacitated Chinese Postman problem where for a given undirected network in which the goal is to determine a least cost schedule of routes. The computational results indicate that the algorithm can cope up with the other arc routing heuristics.

Nowicki and Smutnicki (2006) provide a new view on the solution space and the search process of flow-shop makespan problem. They present a new approximate algorithm which applies some properties of neighborhood approach known as big valley phenomenon, uses some elements of SS as well as the path-relinking technique. The proposed algorithm provides very good accuracy obtainable in a short CPU time when compared to other best known methods.

Liu (2006) presents a hybrid SS by incorporating the nearest neighbor rule, threshold accepting and edge recombination crossover into a scatter search conceptual framework to solve the probabilistic traveling salesman problem. The author conducts several experiments to test the validity of a hybrid SS on the test problems attained from literature. His numerical analysis proves that incorporating threshold accepting into SS increases the computational efficiency while maintaining solution quality.

Pachebo (2005) states a meta-heuristic algorithm based on SS whose aim is to obtain quality solutions with short computation times for the non-hierarchical clustering problem under the criterion of minimum sum of squares clustering. He combines several

procedures based on different strategies such as local search, GRASP, TS with Scatter Search.

There are more reference papers that are cited by Marti on hybrid SS approaches and on other problem types. All prove that, incorporating SS with other types of meta-heuristics depending on what we might need during our search can overcome the chronic handicaps associated with SS and make it more robust against different problem types. To sum up, hybrid SS approaches provide better and faster results than the SS methods or other meta-heuristics. These results encourage us to develop a hybrid scatter search approach to attack scheduling problems considered in this thesis. The next section briefly overviews the Variable Neighborhood Search method which will be used as an intensification strategy in our hybrid approach.

2.3. Variable Neighborhood Search

Variable neighborhood search (VNS) is a systematic change of neighborhood within a possibly randomized local search algorithm that yields a simple and effective meta-heuristic for combinatorial and global optimization problems. Contrary to other meta-heuristics based on local search methods, VNS does not follow a trajectory but explores increasingly distant neighborhood of the current incumbent solution, and jumps from this solution to a new solution if and only if an improvement has been made. Moreover, a local search routine is applied repeatedly to travel from these neighboring solutions to local optima.

In their study, Hansen and Mladenovic (1999) define the basic principles of VNS and state its several applications to five different combinatorial or global optimization problems. They denote with N_k ($k=1, \dots, k_{max}$), a finite set of preselected neighborhood structures, and with $N_k(x)$ the set of solutions in the k^{th} neighborhood of x . Their basic VNS begins with the initialization step where neighborhood structures N_k ($k=1, \dots, k_{max}$) are selected, initial solution x is evaluated by a local search method or generated randomly, and a stopping condition such as maximum CPU time allowed, maximum number of iterations or maximum number of iterations between two improvements is set. Starting

with the first neighborhood structure, VNS repeats the following steps until the stopping criterion is met.

It generates a candidate point x' at random from the k^{th} neighborhood of x and then applies some local search method with x' as an initial solution, to obtain a local optima denoted by x'' . Finally, if this local optima x'' is better than the current, a move to the point x'' is performed ($x \leftarrow x''$) and continue to the search with the first neighborhood structure. In contrast, if no improvement is achieved at point x'' , set the neighborhood structure to next one ($k \leftarrow k+1$) and continue.

There are two other types of VNS that differs from the basic VNS namely variable neighborhood descent (VND) method and reduced VNS (RVNS) method. In VND, the change of neighborhood is performed in a deterministic way. Different than the basic VNS, the best neighbor of initial solution x is explored and is denoted as x' . If this solution x' is better than x , then x' becomes the new x and the search continues with the current neighborhood structure ($k \leftarrow 1$). For the RVNS method, the stochastically generated candidate solution x' is directly compared with the incumbent without subjecting to any local search method. If the solution x' is superior than incumbent, the search move to the candidate point x' ($x \leftarrow x'$) and continue with current k structure. If otherwise is true, then the search set ($k \leftarrow k+1$). (Hansen and Mladenovic, 2001)

Although the basic VNS is clearly useful for appropriate solutions of many combinatorial and global optimization problems, it has some inefficiency to solve large instances. Hence, modifications appear to be highly recommended for basic VNS. Two modified version of VNS found in the literature are the Variable Neighborhood Decomposition (VNDS) method that extends the basic form into two level VNS scheme based upon the decomposition of the problem, and the Skewed VNS that addresses the problem of exploring regions of incumbent solutions.

As a change of neighborhood in the search for good solutions to optimization problems is a simple and a very powerful tool. In addition to the extensions of VNS, several authors have incorporated such hybrid features with other meta-heuristics to gain more benefit from VNS. They employ VNS into well-known meta-heuristics such as TS,

GA, SA, GRASP and even constraint programming in order to optimize routing, scheduling, traveling salesman, allocation or even clustering problems.

Garcia et al. (2006) propose a heuristic algorithm based on VNS methodology on a linear ordering problem consists of finding a permutation of the columns and rows in order to maximize the sum of the weight in the upper triangle. Their method combines different neighborhoods for an efficient exploration of the search space. For this reason, they construct a hybrid method in which the VNS is coupled with a short term tabu search for improved outcomes.

Lejuene (2006) presents a variable neighborhood decomposition search method for supply chain management planning problem. He employs an algorithm based on VND meta-heuristic which can be considered as a stage-wise exploration of increasingly large neighborhoods. Within each stage, neighborhoods are explored using a branch and bound algorithm.

Hansen et al (2006) developed a VNS heuristic for solving mixed integer programs which provide the origins of VNS method used in hybrid meta-heuristics. They define neighborhoods around the current solution by adding constraints to the original problem, as suggested local branching (LB) method and compare the performance of VNS against LB. Empirical Results show that VNS is simpler and more systematic in exploration and improve 14 times the best known solutions from the set of 29 hard problem instances used to test LB.

Kyöjoki et al. (2005) present an efficient VNS heuristic for the capacitated vehicle routing problem, in which the objective is to design least cost routes for a fleet of identically capacitated vehicles. Their proposed VNS procedure is used to guide a set of standard improvement heuristics and in addition to that a strategy reminiscent of guided local search meta-heuristic is used to help escape from local optimum.

3. TWO TARDINESS BASED SCHEDULING PROBLEMS

Scheduling concerns with the allocation of limited resources to task over time. It is a decision making process that has a goal to optimize one or more objectives. Scheduling problems arise from this optimization effort of limited resources. In a deterministic production planning environment the scheduling problem, is a problem which decides the order of all jobs on each machine and determines the starting time of each job with known ready times and processing times in order to optimize objective function.

More formally, a scheduling problem involves a set of jobs ($j=1,...,n$) and machines ($k=1,...,m$) to process these jobs. Hence, a pair (k,j) refers to processing step or operation of job j on machine k . The following data are associated with job j . (Jain and Meeran, 1999)

- r_j : the release time or ready time of the job j . It is the time job j arrives to the shop, that is the earliest time at which job can be processed.
- p_j^k : It represents the processing time of job j on machine k . If it is a single machine problem or the processing time for job j is the same on every machine, then the superscript k might be omitted.
- d_j : it represents completion time that is promised a customer or an external unit for job j . The completion of a job after its due date is allowed but a penalty is incurred.
- s_{ij}^k : this parameter defines the sequence dependent setup time of job j after job i on machine k , meaning that the machine would require s_{ij}^k time unit of setup before processing job j .
- w_j : the weight w_j of job j is basically a priority factor, denoting the importance of job j relative to the other jobs.
- S_j : it represent the slack time of job j , defined as $d_j - p_j - t$, where t is the current time.

The scheduling problems are often classified according to their machine number, the scheduling problem with one machine is called single machine problem whereas problems with two or more machines are so called parallel machine or many machine problems. Also scheduling problems can be stated as static or dynamic due to job arrivals.

In static case, a certain number of jobs arrive to the shop simultaneously and shop is ready to start processing immediately. On the other hand, in a dynamic case, the jobs are ready at shop with stochastic or deterministic arrival times. When we are dealing with a deterministic scheduling problem, state of the jobs, due dates, arrival times, processing times and availability of machines are known and do not include any stochastic factor.

In this thesis, we will focus on two hard to solve scheduling problems frequently encountered in practice, namely the Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness (SMTWT) problem and Parallel Machine Total Tardiness (PMTT) problem, to test the performance of a hybridized Scatter Search algorithm. The detailed description of these two problems together with a brief review of research directed to solving them are given in the following two sections.

3.1. Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness Problem

Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness (SMTWT) problem is a static deterministic regular scheduling problem with independent jobs to be sequenced on a single machine with total weighted tardiness measure as the regular optimization criterion. Each job is ready at the shop at time zero. No setup is necessary for the machine before/after processing a job. Each job has a finite processing time, a positive weight and a distinct due date. After generating a sequence for all jobs, earliest completion times C_j and related tardiness values of each job $T_j = \max\{0, C_j - d_j\}$ are computed. Each job's tardiness value is then multiplied by its weight and added together to find the sum of the weighted tardiness value. In the literature, the problem is represented as $n/1/\sum w_j T_j$ where n denotes the number of jobs, "1" denotes the machine number and last parameter denotes the objective function.

The SMTWT problem is NP-hard (see Lawler, 1977; Lenstra et al., 1977; Du and Leung, 1990) and solution approaches like Dynamic Programming and Branch and Bound are computationally inefficient, especially when the number of jobs is beyond 50, as the results presented in a comparative study by Abdul-Razaq et al. (1990). There is no simple dispatching rule that works best for all problem environments. If there is no more than one tardy job, then the earliest due date (EDD) sequence is optimal, whereas weighted shortest

processing time (WSPT) order gives the optimal sequence when all jobs are necessarily tardy. Therefore, EDD generally performs well for lightly loaded machines while WSPT should be preferred under heavy loading. Several heuristic dispatching rules like those developed by Carroll (1965), Montagne Jr. (1969), Rachamadugu and Morton (1982), Morton et al. (1984), and Panwalkar et al. (1993) have been based on this idea.

The search for good and robust heuristics was continued with sophisticated approaches like meta-heuristics. Matsuo et al. (1989) address the SMTWT by a simulated annealing algorithm which starts with a good initial solution and low acceptance probability to accelerate the search for a near optimal solution. Potts and Van Wassenhove (1991) propose a descent heuristic and a simulated annealing method for SMTWT. Crauwels et al. (1998) present single and multi-start versions of descent, simulated annealing, Tabu Search (TS) and genetic algorithm implementations for the same problem and show that while simulated annealing is outperformed, Tabu Search dominates the other methods. Congram et al. (2002) treat SMTWT with an 'iterated dynasearch' algorithm, which is a local search technique that uses dynamic programming to find the best move which is composed of a set of independent interchange moves and searches an exponential size neighborhood in polynomial time. They obtain results that are superior to other local search procedures. Laguna et al. (1991) consider a single machine scheduling problem for minimizing the sum of setup costs and linear delay penalties, and propose a TS algorithm that uses hybrid neighborhood consisting of both swap and insertion moves.

In his study, J. Schaller (2004) presents a timetabling algorithm that inserts idle time into a given job sequence on a single machine in order to minimize the sum of the absolute value of the lateness at jobs to be scheduled. The single machine problem investigated composed of two set of problems; one is the single machine scheduling earliness/tardiness problem and the other is a problem involving a quadratic measure of performance optimization for single machine scheduling. Timetabling algorithm is used on partial sequence in Branch and Bound search. It is also modified so a lower bound on objective value due to the jobs that have not been dispatched can be obtained for a partial schedule. Later, three different B&B procedures are performed to minimize the objective and their results are compared to draw a conclusion.

Azizoğlu et al. (2003) present a heuristic that minimizing maximum earliness while keeping the number of tardy jobs to its minimum value for an earliness/tardiness single machine problem. They propose a general procedure to generate all efficient schedules for bicriteria problems and then develop a method to find the best schedule that minimizes a composite function of two criteria problem by evaluating only a small fraction of previously generated efficient solution set.

In their study, Feldman and Bishop (2003) consider a problem of scheduling a number of jobs on a single machine against a restricted common due date. According to complexity of restricted common due date problem, it is unlikely to find an efficient integer programming algorithm. Hence, Feldman and Bishop develop a new and appropriate problem representation and apply three different meta-heuristics namely evolutionary algorithm, simulated annealing, and threshold accepting. They demonstrate the efficiency of meta-heuristics against integer programming by obtaining near-optimal solutions.

Kethley and Alidaee (2002) examine various scheduling rules, heuristics and algorithms including WSPT rule, variation of the modified due date rule, a genetic algorithm, neighborhood job search for the problem of scheduling n jobs in a single machine to minimize the total weighted late work (TWLW). In their search, Kethley and Alidaee mostly concentrate on two hypotheses evaluated during the simulation of predefined search procedures. According to first hypothesis, there is no difference in the Total Weighted Late Work generated by WSPT, combination rule (CBN), neighborhood job swap (NJS), and GA. For the second hypothesis, there is no difference in TWLW generated by the various initial due date and deadline parameters. They conclude that the performances are same regardless of parameter settings for due date and deadline.

In his study, Franca et al. (2001) introduce a new memetic algorithm (MA) for the total tardiness single machine scheduling problem with due dates and sequence dependent setup times. The main contributions with respect to the implementation of the hybrid population approach are a hierarchically structured population concerned as a tenery tree and the evaluations of three recombination operators. Concerning local improvement procedure, several neighborhood reduction schemes are developed and proved to be

effective when compared to the complete neighborhood. They judge pure GA and MA against a multi-start algorithm that employs the all pairs neighborhood as well as two constructive heuristics.

Bilge et al. (2007) present a TS approach to the single machine total weighted tardiness problem. The problem investigated in the study, consists of a set of independent jobs with distinct processing times, weights and due dates to be scheduled on a single machine. While minimizing total weighted tardiness, a totally deterministic TS algorithm with a hybrid neighborhood and dynamic tenure structure is employed. In addition to that, the strength of the several candidate list strategies is considered in order to increase the efficiency of the search. The proposed TS approach yields very high quality results for a set of benchmark problems obtained from literature (Crauwels et al., 1998).

3.2. Parallel Machine Total Tardiness Problem

The classical parallel machine total tardiness problem (PMTT) can be defined as the scheduling of n jobs on m continuously available identical parallel machines aiming to minimize total tardiness. Each job is processed on an assigned machine as long as its processing time. Each machine can process only one job at a time, and each job can be processed on only one machine. Each job is ready at the beginning of dispatching process and has a distinct processing time and a due date. In most of the PMTT problems, machine available on job-shop are identical, jobs are ready at time zero and setup times for consecutive jobs are ignored. After assigning all the jobs on available machines, total tardiness is evaluated where tardiness is the amount of time that completion time exceeds due date.

PMTT is NP-hard even for a single machine (Du and Leung, 1990) and exact methods are mostly limited to special cases like common due dates and equal processing times (i.e. Root 1965, Lawler 1977, Elmaghraby and Park 1974, Dessouky 1998). Recently, Liaw et al. (2003) present a Branch and Bound algorithm that incorporates various dominance rules along with efficient lower and upper bounds for the case of unrelated machines, distinct due dates, zero ready times and no setup times, and report that the algorithm performs well up to 18 jobs and four machines.

In this study, we deal with a generalized PMTT problem that introduce complex real world situations such as; distinct ready times, uniform parallel machines with different processing speeds and sequence dependent setup times. In this generalized PMTT, there are n jobs to be processed on m machines of k types. Machines belonging to same type are identical where machines belonging to different types are uniform. Each job j has an integer processing time p_j^k on type k machine, an integer ready time r_j , a distinct due date d_j , and a sequence dependent setup time s_{ij}^k of processing job j after job i on a type k machine. For a given sequence of jobs, the earliest completion time and related tardiness is computed for each job: $T_j = \max \{0, C_j - d_j\}$. Hence the aim is to find a dispatching order that minimizes the total tardiness. Although meta-heuristic approaches to scheduling problems in general are quite abundant, the literature is sparse for our specific generalized version of PMTT.

Ergun et al. (2002) present a new local search heuristic based on combining variable number of insertion moves for the parallel machine total weighted completion time scheduling problem. In their study, they introduce a very large scale neighborhood search that applies a set of insertion moves for identical parallel machines. Also using the special structure of the scheduling problem, they develop a very efficient variable depth search method based on multi-label keeping shortest path algorithm. In their computational study, they compare the performance new heuristic with the various search frameworks including steepest descent, multi-start TS, and iterated local search. According to their findings, the new variable depth sequential insertion neighborhood heuristic with the iterated local search procedure is the most effective among all.

Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu and Ulusoy (1999) employ two GA approaches for parallel machine scheduling problem with earliness/tardiness penalties. One of them is a GA with new cross-over operator which is developed to solve multi-component combinatorial optimization problems and the other is a GA with no cross-over operator. Based on result of 960 randomly generated tests, they conclude that neighborhood exchange accomplished by the mutation of GA can yield relatively better results in a small and easy instances of problems whereas GA with new cross-over operator outperforms when large sized, more challenging problems occur.

Bilge et al. (2004) propose a totally deterministic TS approach to PMTT problem introduced by Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu (1999). Because of the complex nature of the problem, they employ a hybrid neighborhood generation method, with several candidate list strategies and intensification/diversification phases. In their study, they come up with a “low” candidate list strategy that considers job insertions from the machine with maximum contribution to total tardiness to each of the other machines, thus isolating desirable regions of the neighborhood and increase the speed of the search. Their TS algorithm performs much superior compared to previously cited results.

In their research paper, Bilge and Kiraç (2006) presents an adaptive GA for PMTT problem. The adaptive control mechanism mainly focuses on slowing down or preventing the premature convergence and reduces the parameter dependence of basic GA. Population diversity is selected as the key factor for the search and close-loop controllers are employed to achieve the desirable population diversity and quality when it decreases below a certain threshold. These controllers apply a series of insertion moves in the form of mutation and smooth out the peakedness of population distribution while pushing the search into different regions.

Anghinolfi and Paolucci (2006) propose a hybrid meta-heuristic approach which integrates several features from TS, SA, and VNS in a configurable scheduling algorithm for the PMTT problem. They combine the idea of SA which states that randomness in generating candidate solutions could improve the search effectiveness, the principle of TS that an intelligent neighborhood exploration must be guided by a appropriate candidate list strategy, and the concept of VNS that changing the neighborhood structure during the search might avoid to get trapped at premature local optimum. The HMH method outperforms previous methods employed for PMTT problems introduced by Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu (1999).

4. THE PROPOSED HYBRID CONTINUOUS SCATTER SEARCH APPROACH

Our Hybrid Continuous Scatter Search (HCSS) approach is a hybrid meta-heuristic method which integrates Scatter Search and Variable Neighborhood Search in a new configurable scheduling algorithm. Scatter Search used in our algorithm, serves as a diversification mechanism which ensures that different promising regions of solution space is visited, whereas variable neighborhood search method exploits systematically the idea of intensification in descent to local minima. These two methods are employed interchangeably depending on the performance of the search. The detailed description of HCSS approach for the SMTWT and PMTT problems considered in this thesis is provided in the following sections.

4.1 HCSS Approach to SMTWT

Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness problem is a static deterministic regular scheduling problem with independent jobs to be sequenced on a single machine with total weighted tardiness measure as the regular optimization criterion. Each job is ready at the shop at time zero. No set up is necessary for the machine before/after processing a job. Each job has a finite processing time p_j , a positive weight and a distinct due date d_j . After generating a sequence for all jobs, earliest completion times C_j and related tardiness values T_j of each job j are evaluated using the formula $T_j = \max\{0, C_j - d_j\}$. Each job tardiness value is then multiplied by its weight and added together to find the sum of the weighted tardiness value. In accordance with the definition of SMTWT problem, our HCSS approach is introduced in the following sections.

4.1.1. Solution Encoding Scheme

The most important issue when applying Scatter Search successfully to SMTWT problem is to develop an effective problem mapping and a solution generation mechanism. If these two mechanisms cooperate efficiently, it is possible to find a good solution for a given optimization problem in an acceptable time. Our HCSS approach is a continuous

search method that directly handles vectors of real component and combines these vectors by linear combinations to produce new ones through successive generations. It aims to map each and every solution hidden in the search space with proper vector representations and to find good solutions by using search procedures based on basic vector operations.

In order to construct a suitable mapping between problem solution and SS vectors, start time of each job is used as the real number component of the vectors. Each vector consists of $n+1$ entities where n denotes the number of jobs to be scheduled on a single machine. These n jobs have distinct process times, weights and due dates. Therefore, every job is denoted with a unique job index and corresponding start time. In a solution vector, first n positions contain the start times of n jobs, such that the i^{th} position in the vector corresponds to the start time of job with index i . The last $n+1^{st}$ position of the solution vector is dedicated to total weighted tardiness value (twt) related to these start times. Figure 4.1 depicts an example, where *job # 1* starts at time 1428, *job # 2* starts at 1843 and finally *job # N* starts at 1881 and twt value is 330.

JOB # 1	JOB # 2		JOB # J-1	JOB # J	JOB # J+1		JOB # N-1	JOB # N	FIT.
1428	1843		1610	162	901		818	1881	330

Figure 4.1. Solution encoding for single machine total weighted tardiness problem

In this vector representation, jobs are not sorted in an increasing order of start times that means job # 1 would not be processed in the first place at the specified start time. Any job with a smaller start time has the priority to be processed earlier than the other jobs that have larger start time values. The twt value is calculated by scheduling n jobs according to a permutation sequence obtained after sorting jobs with respect to non-decreasing start times. If a vector corresponds to more than one permutation, the one yielding minimum twt value is selected. Thus, each solution vector represents a unique sequence with a twt value that defines its position in the solution space. Conversely, each job permutation with unique twt corresponds to many solution vectors in the continuous search space. Consider a solution where three consecutive jobs' start times are 97, 228 and 322, respectively. The start time of the job in the middle can have a value between 97 and 322 without altering the corresponding permutation. This also means that a given permutation can be reached from many different points in the continuous search space and allows an interesting flexibility

property in terms of neighborhoods defined on the solution space. By using linear combinations of start times, we can express complex neighborhoods of a considered sequence in the search space.

Another advantage of the start time encoding appears when dealing with the basic vector operations such as addition, subtraction or even multiplication with constant parameters. Easy implementation of these basic operations will help us in defining a solution combination method which is used to generate new trial solutions and distance measurement methods to select diverse solutions for reference set. These two methods will be discussed in further sections.

4.1.2. Initial Solution Generation Method

One of the most crucial component of our HCSS approach is the initial solution generation method. SS method is based on generating new solutions by creating numerically weighted combinations of existing solutions. Therefore, the initial population which is carrying the ancestors of the next generations plays a leading role. The future can not be predicted by looking at the past. In other words, poor solutions sometimes may lead us to better solutions, whereas an initial population containing only good solutions does not always guarantee a better result. Hence, the most essential feature of a proper initial solution generation method is to create a collection of both diverse and good solutions.

In our HCSS approach to SMTWT problem, three different initial solution generation methods are employed and compared in order to acquire the most efficient initial population. The initial population contains predefined number of individuals. The first approach uses a simple generator that orders jobs randomly and then evaluates their *twt* values by scheduling them at their earliest start times.

Second approach employs simple heuristics to create some seeded solutions and a random sequence generator to fill the remaining pool with diverse trial solutions. Heuristics utilized in this approach are EDD, SPT, WSPT and R&M rules. Before going into details of the second approach, it will be a good idea to provide brief overviews of the

mentioned heuristics. The following terminology helps to gain an understanding about their nature and functions.

- *EDD* (Earliest Due Date) is a dispatching rule that arranges jobs in increasing order of due dates.
- *SPT* (Shortest Processing Time) is a dispatching rule that arranges jobs in increasing order of processing times.
- *WSPT* (Weighted Shortest Processing Time) is the weighted version of SPT.
- *R&M* (Rachamadugu and Morton, 1982) is based on sorting the jobs in order of non-increasing priorities that are evaluated dynamically by predefined formulas.

WSPT heuristic considered in this study is first introduced by Montagne (1969), which use basic full priority WSPT multiplied by a slack factor. The slack factor is close to 1.0 for very early due date jobs and very close to zero for very late due date jobs. Slack factor employed here is not dynamic and even if a job is overdue, it is still not given a full WSPT priority. The priority formula is as follows;

$$\pi_j = (w_j / p_j)[1.0 - (d_j / \sum_i p_i)] \quad (4.1)$$

where π_j is the priority of job j , w_j is the weight, p_j is the processing time and d_j denotes the due date of job j . The jobs are sequenced according to their non-increasing order of priorities and their related *twt* values are evaluated.

R&M heuristic for total weighted tardiness problem, developed by Rachamadugu and Morton (1982), is based on sorting the jobs in order of non-increasing priorities. The priority π_j is obtained by using the formula;

$$\pi_j = (w_j / p_j)[\exp\{-(S_j)^+ / kp_{av}\}] \quad (4.2)$$

where k is a factor and p_{av} is the average processing time of all jobs to be scheduled. The slack time S_j^+ at time t can be computed as follows;

$$S_j^+ = \max(0, d_j - p_j - t) \quad (4.3)$$

As time t indicates the current time, this heuristic uses a dynamic procedure where priorities π_j must be updated after a job with the highest priority is scheduled and its completion time on machine is computed. When all the jobs are sorted accordingly, the final total weighted tardiness value is evaluated. In this study, a small modification is applied to R&M heuristic and k factor becomes no longer a fixed value. The solutions are generated using each of the k values in the range $[0.5, 4.0]$ with increments of 0.1.

Our second population generation method seeds all solutions created by EDD, SPT, WSPT, and modified R&M heuristic into the initial population the rest of which is filled using a random generator as in the first approach. Third method is a variant of the second method in which 10 best R&M solutions together with EDD, SPT and WSPT solutions are established in the initial pool. In all three methods duplication is avoided by replacing solutions that have exactly the same set of start times. Another screening mechanism tried during numerical experimentation, eliminates solutions with same twt values even if their start times are different.

These three initial solution generation methods will be compared via numerical experimentation and a final choice will be made according to their contribution to the ultimate outcome.

4.1.3. Reference Set Update Method

The reference set update method plays the key role in HCSS approach. As previously defined, the reference set is used to produce new solutions by applying linear weighted combinations and it is a collection of both high quality elite solutions and structurally diverse solutions selected from a pool. In the first iteration, the pool contains initial solutions generated using one of the three approaches described in the previous section. In the subsequent iterations, the pool consists of solutions created by a combination method. The number of elite solutions b_1 , and diverse solutions b_2 in the reference set are fixed and determine its size ($b=b_1+b_2$). Two methods are devised to select the b_1 elite solutions.

In our first method, the best solutions selected from the pool are stored in a list called the reserve list. This list behaves as a long term memory of HCSS by keeping best known solutions visited so far. At the end of each iteration, solutions kept in the reserve list are updated if any superior ones are generated. Therefore, reserve list holds only of b_l elite solutions which are defined as good generators. While revising the reserve list, we keep track of entering solutions in order to make sure that new entries are not identical twins of existing solutions. If at least one start time of any job j in the entire vector for the candidate differs from the corresponding start time of the same indexed job contained in other existing solutions, then candidate is permitted to replace a poorer solution from the list. After the authorized substitutions, the b_l of best solutions are transferred from the reserve list to the reference set. This method leads to a 2-tier design for the reference set, i.e. elites from the reserve list and diverse solutions from the pool.

Create initial solution set

```

schedule jobs with respect to EDD and store the trial solution  $x_{EDD}$ 

schedule jobs with respect to SPT and store the trial solution  $x_{SPT}$ 

schedule jobs with respect to WSPT and store the trial solution  $x_{WSPT}$ 

for  $k = 0.5 : +0.1 : 4.0$ 
    schedule jobs with respect to R&M and store the trial
    solution  $x_k$  if fitness  $x_k \neq$  fitness {  $x_{EDD}, x_{SPT}, x_{WSPT}, x_{k-1}$  }
end

select either all or best 10  $x_k$ 

create remaining trial solutions using a generator that schedule jobs
randomly  $x_{RAND}$ 

delete one of the two trial solution having the same fitness value

the initial solution set = {  $x_{EDD}, x_{SPT}, x_{WSPT}, x_k, x_{RAND}$  }
```

Figure 4.2. The pseudo-code of initial solution generation method for the third approach

In the second method, the updating procedure of the elite set employs a 3-tier design (Laguna and Marti, 2006), where the first tier consists of high quality solutions obtained from the pool, the second tier consists of best solutions copied from the reserve list and finally the third tier includes the diverse solution selected by a distance

measurement method. The second update method is aiming to preserve diversity continuously, instead of allowing it to become homogenous by only admitting solutions from one source, which tend to have very similar components at further stages of the search. In the first method, reference set best solutions are rooted from the reserve list. In other words, b_l solutions stored at reserve list are directly copied to reference set without considering their structures or past performances. These individuals may be neighbors of the same local optima or may remain in the list for a long time. In such a case, it directly affects the reference set best solution variety and indirectly influences the offspring generated from these elite pairs.

```

Update Reserve List
POOL =  $(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ , let  $x_i$  be the trial solution and  $x_i = \langle st_1, \dots, st_n \rangle$  where  $st_j$  is the start
time of job  $j$ .
ReserveList =  $(y_1, \dots, y_b)$  where  $y_1$  is the best and  $y_b$  is the worst solution stored in list.
 $y_1 = \langle st_1, \dots, st_n \rangle$ 
  select  $x_i$ 's such that  $fit.(x_i) \leq fit(y_b)$  // fit.= fitness of a sol'n
  for all selected  $x_i$ 's
    if  $fit.(x_i) \leq fit(y_b)$  /
      for all  $y_i$  // (i = 1, ..., b)
        if any  $st_j$  of  $x_i \neq$  any  $st_j$  of  $y_i$  // (j = 1, ..., n)
          if  $fit.(x_i) \neq fit(y_i)$  // used in screening method
             $y_b = x_i$ 
            sort ReserveList in an increasing order of fit.
            update  $y_b$ 
            delete  $x_i$  from POOL
          end
        end
      end
    end
  end
end
end
end

```

Figure 4.3. The pseudo-code for reserve list update method

Before starting the selection step of second method, reserve list is updated according to the rules used in the first case, and the solution pool is rearranged in order to find high quality solutions. Different from the first method, half of the b_l solution is transferred from the reserve list and the other half is chosen from the high quality members

of the pool. In this way, we assure at least some of the best solutions to be dissimilar than the ones employed in the previous iteration. Additionally, same screening mechanism used in initial solution generation method is again utilized to increase the diversity of both the reference set and reserve list. Hence, two solutions with the same *twt* value can not enter the elite set at the same time.

After deciding the b_1 elite solutions, the next step is to select b_2 diverse solutions. For each solution left in the pool, its distance to all members of the current reference set (initially, only b_1 elite solutions) are calculated. The minimum of these distances gives the distance of the candidate to the reference set. The candidate with maximum distance to current set is selected as a diverse solution and added to the set. The chosen solution is deleted from the pool and preceding minimum distances to the set are updated with respect to newly added diverse solution. The process is repeated until all b_2 diverse elements are determined. Two different types of distance measurement methods are devised; these are *start distance* and *rank distance* measurement methods. Based on the distance measure employed, three diverse selection procedures are introduced; start diverse, rank diverse and mix diverse selection procedures. In mix diverse selection procedure, start distance method is initially executed and half of b_2 diverse solutions are selected and deleted from the pool. Then the rank distance measure is applied for the remaining solution left in the pool and the other half of b_2 is determined accordingly. These three procedures will be compared to decide the most effective diverse element selection technique. We describe the distance measurement methods that were developed within the context of this thesis below:

Start distance measurement method is inspired from a well known rectilinear distance formula used in real space vector problems. In our solution encoding, start times correspond to the coordinates of a position vector that expresses a point in the real space, and our start distance measure is given as

$$\text{distance} = |(st_{11}-st_{21})| + |(st_{12}-st_{22})| + \dots + |(st_{1j}-st_{2j})| + \dots + |(st_{1n}-st_{2n})| \quad (4.4)$$

where st_{ij} denotes the start time of a job j for the solution vector i . Although the total distance measured by this modified version indicates a relative value instead of a real one,

it is sufficient for the selection procedure to work properly. The details of start distance measurement method are described in Appendix A.

The rank distance measure originates from a puzzle where a shuffled string of numbers should be rearranged with minimum restricted insertion moves to catch a winning sequence. For an accurate adaptation, a chain of numbers is required rather than the values, but our vector representation contains only the start times and the total weighted tardiness value. Hence, start times are sorted in non-decreasing rank and their job indices are noted in the same order. The solution taken from the pool is denoted as shuffled string and the reference set solution respect to which the distance is measured, cited as the winning sequence. The restricted insertion move indicates that a job can only be inserted between its two preceding jobs. The other insertion moves are not allowed. A simple algorithm is employed for rank distance measurement method that computes minimum moves needed to convert a shuffled string into the winning sequence. Finally, the number of total performed moves states the rank distance between a pool solution and a reference set solution. The details of rank distance measurement method are described in Appendix B.

4.1.4. Subset Generation Method

The simplest form of subset generation method that is used in our approach consists of generating all pairs of reference set solutions. The method concentrates on subsets of size two resulting in $(b^2-b)/2$ newly generated subsets where $b=b_1+b_2$. The pairs in new subsets are selected one at a time in lexicographical order and solution combination method is applied to produce a trial solution.

4.1.5. Solution Combination Method

Solution combination method also known as combination mechanism or crossover is a common approach used in most evolutionary algorithms to create new solutions. The solution combination mechanism is a method for sharing information between solutions. Generally it combines features of two parents to form several offspring with the possibility that good solutions may reproduce superior ones. In scatter search, the importance of the combination method is even greater due to its strong impact on the exploration power.

Since population diversity is obtained by creating new solutions, it induces reliability in the search process.

Update Reference Set

```

POOL* = (x1, ..., xk) , where * denotes that this set is updated after deleting xi used in
reserve list update step
ReserveList* = (y1, ..., yb) where * denotes that this set is updated with new best solutions
entered from the POOL
RefSet = (best1, ..., bestb, div1, ..., divb) where besti represent best solution and divi is the
diverse solution selected to RefSet.

    RefSet = ReserveList*                                // initial design
    RefSet (best1, ..., bestb/2) = ReserveList* (y1, ..., yb/2)    // 3-tier design
    RefSet (bestb/2+1, ..., bestb) = best b/2 solution of POOL*    // 3-tier design

while # of selected divi <= b
for all xi ∈ POOL*
    for all Refset sol'n
        DistMatrix(xi, RefSet sol'n) = start distance between xi and RefSet sol'n    **
        DistMatrix(xi, RefSet sol'n) = rank distance between xi and RefSet sol'n    **
    update row minimums for DistMatrix
    find xmax with max of row minimums
    RefSet (divi) = xmax
    delete xmax from POOL*
end
end
** executed interchangeably

```

Figure 4.4. The pseudo code for reference set update method

In our HCSS approach, we use BLX- α operator which is one of the most effective combination methods developed for real-coded continuous GAs. Herrera et al. (2006) carry out empirical study of different combination method instances for real coded evolutionary algorithms and their experiences on the application of solution combination methods show that the BLX- α operator outperforms the other methods. They have considered BLX- α as a combination method due to three facts: it includes randomness which can be effective, it favors the production of diversity in the population of an EA which may improve the reliability while avoiding premature convergence and finally, BLX- α has a self adaptive

behavior that can generate offspring according to the distributions of parents without any control parameter.

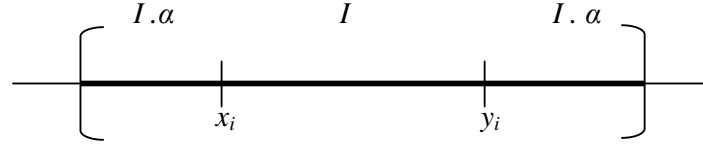


Figure 4.5. BLX- α combination method

Let us assume that $X=(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $Y=(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ ($x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}, i=1, \dots, n$) are two real-coded vectors selected to be combined. BLX- α combination method generates an offspring $Z=(z_1, \dots, z_n)$ where z_i is a randomly chosen number of the interval $[c_{min} - I.\alpha, c_{max} + I.\alpha]$ where $c_{max}=\max(x_i, y_i)$, $c_{min}=\min(x_i, y_i)$ and $I= c_{max} - c_{min}$ and α is a constant value. Revisiting our solution encoding, any pair of parent solution can easily be defined as X and Y vectors where x_i and y_i represents the start times for each job. Also, the Z vector becomes the new trial solution with z_i 's denoting the imaginary start times. An illustration of solution combination method is given in Appendix C.

Investigations demonstrate that BLX- α with $\alpha=0.5$ performs better than other BLX- α operators with any other α value. Herrera et al. (2006) report that BLX-0.5 offers a useful tool to enhance global search (exploration) capabilities of continuous SS and induce reliability in the search process. As previously mentioned, our approach is a continuous SS which directly handles vector of real components and combines these vectors by linear combinations to create new ones through successive generations. Therefore, BLX- α operator is a perfect match for our solution combination method. Additionally in further stages, we will test dynamically changing α value instead of fixed α attempting to regulate diversity of newborn individuals.

Offspring created by solution combination method are stored in a transition set called pre-pool. Pre-pool contains trial solutions with temporary start times that have no total tardiness value. Hence, a solution improvement method is applied to the pre-pool solution. This method sorts the jobs with respect to non-decreasing start times and calculates the fitness value without changing the temporary start times. A screening

mechanism is employed and one of two offspring with same *twt* value is deleted instantly from the pre-pool. Finally, filtered trial solutions are arranged in increasing order of their fitness values and transferred into the main pool. As previously indicated, pool provides a source for reference set update method. Best and diverse solutions are both selected from the pool. Therefore, its condition highly affects the structure of the updated reference set and future offspring. Poor diverse solutions selected continuously from the pool may lead the reference set far from the desired optimum, and reduced its skill to produce qualified next generations. On the other hand, a pool lacking diverse solutions may cause a premature convergence. In absence of diverse individuals, the selected individuals are more or less the same as their elite counterparts acquired from the same source. So the offspring generated from these similar parents, most probably result in identical children, and the search will be trapped at a local optimum without visiting all of the promising regions potentially contain optimum solutions. In order to overcome these handicaps, we introduce the parameter pool size that determines the number of trial solutions accepted to the pool. Three different strategies are investigated for the pool size; an enlarged size pool having every solution generated including the very poor diverse ones, a default size pool containing best 100 fitness value trial solutions and a reduced size pool holding best 85 trial solution excluding most of the poor members. These strategies are examined in the numerical experimentation section and the best one is selected for our HCSS approach.

4.1.6. Variable Neighborhood Search as an Intensification Strategy

The basic concept of neighborhood search method is quite simple. One starts with a feasible solution to a problem and the solutions within a neighborhood of the current solution are evaluated. If one of these solutions is better than the current solution, it becomes the new current solution and its neighborhood is investigated until no improvement can be found. The current solution obtained finally is the local optimum. Therefore, neighborhood search is a very focused and has been referred to as exploitation or intensification method. Different from general neighborhood search methods, VNS visits several neighborhoods instead of a single one, where typically neighborhoods move further and further away from the current solution depending on the search depth. In our HCSS approach, VNS is employed as an intensification strategy that examines the neighborhood of elite solutions.

Solution Combination Method

Let (f, m) be a pair of solutions and $(f_i, m_i) \in \text{SubSet}$ where SubSet is a set containing all pairs of RefSet generated by subset generation method. And $\text{offs} = \langle st_1^c, \dots, st_n^c \rangle$ is the offspring solution.

$f = \langle st_1^f, \dots, st_n^f \rangle$, st_j^f is the start time of job j for solution f .

$m = \langle st_1^m, \dots, st_n^m \rangle$, st_j^m is the start time of job j for solution m .

```

for all  $(f, m) \in \text{SubSet}$                                      // total  $(b^2-b)/2$  pairs where  $b$  is the size of RefSet
  for all  $j$                                                     //  $j = 1, \dots, n$   $n$  denotes the # of jobs
     $p_{\min} = \min(st_j^f, st_j^m)$ 
     $p_{\max} = \max(st_j^f, st_j^m)$ 
     $\text{interval} = |st_j^f - st_j^m|$ 
     $c_{\min} = p_{\min} - (\text{interval} * \alpha)$                        //  $\alpha$  is constant
     $c_{\max} = p_{\max} + (\text{interval} * \alpha)$ 
     $\text{offs}(st_1^c) = c_{\min} + (\text{rand} * (c_{\max} - c_{\min}))$         // rand is a random number between 0.0 & 1.0
  end
  prePOOL(i) = offs                                           //  $i = 1, \dots, (b^2-b)/2$ 
end
for all trial sol'n  $\in \text{prePOOL}$ 
  sort jobs in order of non-decreasing start times
  obtain sequence of jobs
  schedule jobs and calculate fitness
  copy trial sol'n with its fitness to POOL
end
delete one of the two solution from POOL with the same fitness
if POOLCap > size(POOL)                                       // POOLCap is the pool size
  POOL = POOL
else
  POOL = POOL (1:POOLCap)                                    // most fit trial soln's are selected
end

```

Figure 4.6. The pseudo code for solution combination method

The neighborhoods are simply generated by using swap moves. A swap move exchanges the location of two jobs so that each job is placed in the position previously occupied by the other. In our real coded solution representation, the start times determine the sequence of jobs. So having a sequence, SMTWT can be considered as a permutation problem. In order to create a neighborhood, VNS divides the sequence into several subsequences where each subsequence has a number of jobs determined by the search depth. Starting with the first group including the jobs that will be processed earlier, VNS lists all possible permutations of these jobs. The permutations are found by using swap

moves. The initial order of jobs within the selected group is replaced with one of its alternative permutation arrays without changing the remaining sequence. Evaluating all alternative permutations, the total weighted tardiness of each newly generated sequence is computed. If one of these performs better than the initial solution sequence then the initial sequence is revised and VNS moves to the next subsequence.

After all the subsequences are investigated in the same way, if the final sequence obtained is an improved one, it becomes the new current solution and the search depth contracts in size, i.e. the subsequence size is reduced by one. Otherwise, the current solution is kept and the search depth expands in size. Expansion or contraction of the search depth means a change in the definition of the neighborhood. At the final stage, VNS examines the elite solutions' neighborhoods with the largest search depth and depending on the outcome it either stops or continues to search. If it can not improve the current fitness value, then the intensification procedure is terminated and the current solution becomes the local optimum.

Six different VNS approaches are developed to attack the SMTWT problem. The first issue is related to the neighborhood definition, or the search depth used in subsequence sizing. In our three step search depth VNS approach, VNS 3-4-5, and VNS 4-5-6 are employed to seek neighborhoods of treated solutions. VNS 3-4-5 denotes that the VNS starts to divide the sequence into subsets of three consecutive jobs to generate alternative solutions and the size is increased to four if no improvement is achieved with the previous search depth. Final run is performed using subset of five jobs if no achievement is experienced so far. Similar to VNS 3-4-5, VNS 4-5-6 behaves in a same way. The only difference is the size of each consecutive search depth utilized in VNS.

The second issue is related to the timing of VNS method and two approaches, Final VNS (FVNS) and Middle VNS (MVNS), are developed to investigate the best timing for a neighborhood search. Final VNS as its name suggests, is executed at the end of SS algorithm. Usually, SS completes its search throughout the solution space and comes up with a best solution. In this method, the ultimate elite solution is attacked with FVNS and its neighborhoods are visited in order to obtain an improvement. On the other hand, MVNS is implemented after a number of iterations defined by a counter. This counter is so called

best solution VNS counter. It starts with the first iteration and counts successive iterations passed without any improvement of the best known. Best solution VNS counter zeros itself if SS or VNS finds a better solution for the problem. After exceeding a certain threshold value the counter triggers VNS switch and middle VNS is executed. At the end of MVNS, our counter is either set to zero or continues to count depending on the achievement of an improvement.

Another issue is related to the selection of elite solutions to which MVNS is applied. MVNS is applied either to best three or to all elite solutions of the reference set. Employing VNS for all best solutions seems a time consuming operation compared to the application of its restricted version. In contrast, without investigating all elite solutions, better outcomes hidden at the neighborhood of these solutions may be missed. Therefore, the critical discussion, time vs. performance arises, and will be discussed in experimental section. The details of VNS method is described in Appendix D.

4.1.7. Alpha Strategies

Nomura et al. (2001) have demonstrated theoretically that BLX- α has the ability to promote diversity in the population of an EA. They state that BLX- α spread the distribution of chromosomes when $\alpha > (\sqrt{3}-1)/2$, reducing it otherwise. Nomura et al. (2001) observe BLX-0.0 makes the variances of the distribution of the chromosomes decrease, reducing the distribution whereas BLX-0.5 causes the variances of distributions increase while spreading them. In this way, BLX- α provide useful tool to enhance exploration capabilities of continuous SS. In our approach, we introduce two strategies; a static α value of 0.5 and dynamically changing α values, in order to control diversification mechanism. In the first strategy, α is set to 0.5 which is proven as the best among other constant values. In the second one, three different α sub-strategies are developed to test the effects of dynamic α on solution combination method.

In the first dynamic strategy, α value follows a loop where it starts with 2.0, then drops to 0.5 after certain iteration, increases incrementally at the end of non-improved iterations and finally turns back to its initial value. The whole changeovers are controlled by a switch. Alpha switch is a binary parameter which becomes 1 (on) if VNS does not

improve the best-known solution or becomes 0 (off) if otherwise is true. At the end of each iteration, the condition of alpha switch and α value are updated depending on the performance of VNS or SS. An improvement makes the switch off and set α value back to 2.0. For the counter case when the alpha switch becomes on; α value drops to 0.5 and during the further iterations where the condition of the switch is unchanged, it is increased by 0.005 at the end of each iteration unless a better global optimum is found.

In the second dynamic strategy, α is fixed at 0.5 during the period where alpha switch is off. When it becomes on, α is increased by 0.005 at the end of every iteration without any improvement of the best known solution. The value of α returns to its initial value 0.5 if SS or VNS improve the best known.

In the last dynamic strategy, α is again fixed at 2.0 and drops to 0.5 when the alpha switch turns into on. But this time, it stays fixed at 0.5 at the end of every iteration while the alpha switch is still on. The value increased back to 2.0 if an improvement is succeeded. The new hypothesis behind developing dynamic α values is to control diversity and broaden the search to different promising zones when the reference set solutions start to generate less diverse offspring. This hypothesis will be tested in experimental results section.

4.1.8. Stopping Criterion

Two stopping criteria are investigated for our HCSS algorithm; a fixed iteration criterion and a dynamic stopping criterion. According to the first condition, the algorithm stops at the end of a predefined iteration number whereas for the dynamic stopping criterion, best solution VNS counter is again employed and the algorithm continues to operate until the counter of non-improving iterations reaches a certain value. The best value of the fixed iteration number and the threshold value for best solution VNS counter are determined through preliminary experiments. The experiments related to fix versus dynamic stopping criteria are discussed in further sections.

Variable Neighborhood search

Let X be an elite solution of RefSet such that $X = \langle st_1, st_2, \dots, st_n \rangle$ where st_j is the start time of job j . and $globalBest$ is the fitness of current solution. Suppose that VNS 3-4-5 is applied to X where 3-4-5 indicates the three different search depths.

```

vns_depth = 3
vns_switch=1
sort X in order of increasing start times and obtain the sequence S    // S is an array of job #'s
sorted currentSol = S
globalBest = fitness(S)
while vns_switch=1
    if vns_depth=3 (or 4 or 5)
        divide jobs into groups where each group has 3 (or 4 or 5) jobs
        for each groups
            write all permutations of jobs within the group
            for each permutation
                generate neighborhood  $S_i^*$ 
                evaluate fitness ( $S_i^*$ )

            end
            select  $S_{best}^*$  with smallest fitness value
            if  $fitness(S_{best}^*) < fitness(S)$ 
                 $S = S_{best}^*$ 
            end
        end
    if vns_depth=3
        if  $fitness(S) < globalBest$ 
             $globalBest = fitness(S)$ 
            sorted currentSol = S
            vns_depth=4;
            vns_switch=1;
        else
            vns_depth=4;
            vns_switch=1;
        end
    elseif vns_depth=4
        if  $fitness(S) < globalBest$ 
             $globalBest = fitness(S)$ 
            sorted currentSol = S
            vns_depth=3;
            vns_switch=1;
        else
            vns_depth=5;
            vns_switch=1;
        end
    else vns_depth=5
        if  $fitness(S) < globalBest$ 
             $globalBest = fitness(S)$ 
            sorted currentSol = S
            vns_depth=3;
            vns_switch=1;
        else
            vns_switch=0;
        end
    end
end
evaluate start times and fitness value of new solution  $X^*$  using sorted currentSol.

```

Figure 4.7. The pseudo code for variable neighborhood search method

```

create initial solution set P
POOL = P
RefSet (best1, ..., bestb1) = best b1 solution of the POOL // size(RefSet) = b1+b2
RefSet (div1, ..., divb2) = most b2 diverse solution of the POOL // selected acc. start or rank dist.
ReserveList=RefSet
bestSol = min{fit(best1), fit(best2), ..., fit(bestn)} // bestSol is the best solution found so far
bestSolVNSCount = 0 // best solution VNS counter
newSolutionsSwitch=1
alphaCount=0;
iterationCount=0
while newSolutionsSwitch =1
    generate new subsetsk with subset generation method // (b2-b)/2 subsets generated
    for each subsetk // k=1, ..., (b2-b)/2
        apply solution combination method and improvement method
    end
    newSolutionsSwitch =0
    update POOL
    update ReserveList
    apply reference set update method and select b1 best solution
    if min{fit(best1), fit(best2), ..., fit(bestb1)} < bestSol
        bestSol = min{fit(best1), fit(best2), ..., fit(bestb1)}
        bestSolutionVNSCount=1; // VNS counter
        αCount=0;
        α=α0; // α0 is the initial α value at time zero
    else
        if bestSolutionVNSCount > VNS activation threshold // threshold is a predefined fix value
            αCount= αCount+1 // α counter
        end
        bestSolutionVNSCount= bestSolutionVNSCount+1
    end
    if bestSolutionVNSCount = VNS activation threshold
        for all besti ∈ RefSet
            apply VNS and obtain sol'n bestiVNS
            if fit (bestiVNS) < fit (besti)
                for all besti ∈ RefSet
                    if bestiVNS ∈ RefSet then discard bestiVNS else replace besti with bestiVNS
                end
            end
        end
    end
    if min{fit(best1), fit(best2), ..., fit(bestn)} < bestSol
        bestSol = min{fit(best1), fit(best2), ..., fit(bestn)}
        bestSolutionVNSCount=1;
        αCount=0;
        α=α0; // α0 is the initial α value at time zero
    end
end

```

Figure 4.8. The pseudo code for HCSS approach - SMTWT

Continued

```

else
    bestSolutionVNSCount= bestSolutionVNSCount+1
     $\alpha$ Count=  $\alpha$ Count+1
end
end
apply distance measurement method // start or rank distance
select diverse solutions from POOL and add them to RefSet
if  $\alpha$ Count>0
    update  $\alpha$  // acc. to one of the alpha strategies
end
iterationCount= iterationCount+1
if iterationCount <= stopping threshold // fixed iteration criterion **
    newSolutionsSwitch =1
end
if bestSolutionVNSCount <= stopping threshold // dynamic stopping criterion **
    newSolutionsSwitch =1
end
end
end
** executed interchangeably

```

Figure 4.8. The pseudo code for HCSS approach – SMTWT (continues)

4.2. HCSS Approach to PMTT

The parallel machine total tardiness problem (PMTT) can be defined as the scheduling of n jobs on m continuously available identical parallel machines aiming to minimize total tardiness. It differs from the single machine total weighted tardiness problem, PMTT involves both a sequence problem and an allocation problem. A job should be assigned to the right machine and be processed at the right time on that machine in order to achieve minimum total tardiness value.

Our HCSS approach is initially designed for SMTWT problem. Its solution encoding, initial solution generation methods, solution combination methods and VNS are unique techniques that are built based on the single machine scheduling problem. Hence, some essential modifications are performed to adapt it to PMTT problems. With the proper adjustments, refashioned SS covers all the necessities required to search the more complex solution space of PMTT and provide feasible elite solutions. These minor fine-tunings do

not affect the basic idea and the methodology behind HCSS approach. In the forthcoming sections, instead of considering all the steps of algorithm, we only focus on the altered components of our HCSS algorithm.

4.2.1. Solution Encoding Scheme

In our real encoded vector representation, a solution string contains only the start times of jobs and the fitness value. It is a valid encoding for a single machine problem, because the sorted start times define the required dispatching order on a single machine and the fitness can easily be evaluated accordingly. Considering the PMTT problem, the same representation may state which job is processed earlier but it implies no information about on which machine the job will be processed. Therefore, the solution encoding is changed by inserting additional entities involving the machine indices. For an n job parallel machine problem, our vector becomes $\langle 2n+1 \rangle$ array where first n entities denote the start times, second n entities denote the machine indices and last entity denotes the total tardiness value. As shown in Figure 4.9, *job #1* is processed on *machine #1* at time 214.81, *job #j* is on *machine #2* at time 257.89 and finally *job #n* is processed on *machine #1* at 83.42.

JOB # 1	JOB # 2		JOB # J		JOB # N	JOB # 1	JOB # 2		JOB # J		JOB # N	FIT.
214.81	128.98		257.89		83.42	1	1		2		1	10.38

Figure 4.9. Solution encoding for PMTT problem

In order to evaluate total tardiness value of a solution, the jobs are grouped with respect to their machine numbers. Then, the jobs on the same machine are sequenced in an increasing order of their start times. Having both of the allocation and the sequence, the fitness value can be easily computed.

4.2.2. Initial Solution Generation Method

Three different initial solution generation methods are developed for the PMTT problem, namely EFT method, EDD method and multi-rule method. All of these methods take their names from the dispatching rules used to schedule jobs.

In Early Finish Time (EFT) Method, each job is assigned to the machine which can complete it earlier. Initially, a temporary start time is generated for each job using the formula;

$$st_j = r_j + (d_j - r_j) \times \text{rand} \quad (4.5)$$

where st_j , r_j , and d_j denotes start time, ready time and due date of job j , respectively and rand is a random number between 0 and 1. Then these start times are sorted in order of non-decreasing times and a sequence is obtained. Beginning with the first job in the sequence, for each job; its completion times on each machine is computed and it is dispatched to the machine with the earliest completion time. Finally, the total tardiness value is calculated and our initial trial solution becomes ready with its start times, machine numbers and fitness value.

```

Start with  $P = \emptyset$ , where  $P$  denotes initial population and  $x$  denotes an initial trial sol'n  $\in P$ .
while size( $P$ ) <  $P_{\text{size}}$ 
  for  $j = 1, \dots, n$     //  $n$  denotes the # of jobs
     $st_j = rt_j + (dt_j - rt_j) * \text{rand}$            //  $st_j$ -start time,  $dt_j$ - due date,  $rt_j$ - ready time of job  $j$ 
  end
  sort  $j$ 's in order of non-decreasing  $st_j$  and obtain a sequence  $q$  contain sorted  $j$ 's
  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ 
    compute completion time of  $q(k)$  on each machine $_i$       //  $i = 1, \dots, m$  is the # of machines
    select the machine $_i$  with earliest finish time
    assign job $_{q(k)}$  to selected machine $_i$ 
    update start, tardiness, and completion time
  end
  sum all tardiness and calculate fitness
   $x' = [\text{start times of job}_j + \text{fitness}]$                                      //  $j=1, \dots, n$ 
  if  $\text{fit}(x') \neq \text{any of fit}(x)$ ,  $x \in P$  the  $x'$  is added to  $P$ ,  $x' \rightarrow x$ , otherwise discard  $x'$ 
   $P = P \cup x$ 
end

```

Figure 4.10. The pseudo code for EFT initial solution generation method

In Earliest Due Date (EDD) Method, initially jobs are assigned to the machines randomly. Jobs are then sorted according to their due dates. Job with an earlier due date gets the precedence to be processed earlier on its machine assigned. By dispatching jobs randomly to the machines, we convert the parallel machine problem into m independent

single machine problems, where m denotes the number of machines, and EDD rule is used to sequence jobs. The total tardiness and start times values of jobs are found separately for each machine and then these data are collected together to form the initial trial solution.

Multi-Rule Method is an advanced version of EDD Method. In addition to EDD rule, SPT and XR&M (Morton and Pentico 1993) rules are also utilized to order jobs on a given machine. EDD rule, as previously mentioned, arranges jobs according to their due dates. Shortest Process Time (SPT) Method ranks the jobs in an order of non-decreasing process times and finally XR&M is a modified version of R&M priority rule which is discussed in single machine problem. R&M developed for SMTWT problem, uses weights to evaluate twt value and all jobs are ready at time zero. However, in PMTT problem, there are no related weights and the jobs have distinct ready and set-up times. Therefore necessary adjustments are conducted to adapt R&M formulas to PMTT problem. In first place, the slack time S at time t is found by;

$$S_j = d_j - r_j - p_j - t \quad (4.6)$$

where subscript j indicates the job j and t indicates the completion time of the job $j-1$ on the same machine. The idle priority rule for a given job j is evaluated using the formulas;

$$(\pi_j)_{idle} = \pi_j [1 - B (r_j - t)^+ / p_{av}] \quad (4.7)$$

where r_j is ready time of job j , p_{av} is the average processing time of all jobs assigned to the same machine and

$$\pi_j = (1 / p_j) [\exp\{-(S_j)^+ / p_{av}\}] \quad (4.8)$$

$$B = 1.3 + \rho \quad (4.9)$$

ρ is the average utilization of the machine which is found by

$$\rho = \text{total process time assigned} / \text{current time} \quad (4.10)$$

At time zero, $(\pi_j)_{idle}$ value of all jobs are evaluated and the job with the highest $(\pi_j)_{idle}$ is the first to be scheduled. Afterward, according to the completion time of selected

job, the priorities of remaining jobs are updated and a new job is selected depends on these values. This iterative process continues until all jobs are sequenced.

Since we assign jobs to machines randomly, the PMTT is transformed into single machine problems aiming to permute jobs in order to minimize total tardiness. Dealing with these single machine problems, three dispatching rules; EDD, SPT and XR&M are applied to same machine respectively. The obtained sequences with resulting fitness values are compared and the sequence with the smallest fitness value is chosen for the considered machine. For example, in a two machine problem, the three rules are applied for both *machine #1* and *machine #2*. For the first machine, EDD performs better and for the second, XR&M outperforms the others. Then our final trial solution is constructed by using the EDD sequence for *machine #1* and XR&M sequence for *machine #2*. The total fitness is the sum of tardiness resulted from EDD and XR&M dispatching. The performances and diversities of EFT, EDD and multi-rule generated initial solution sets are judged in experimental results section.

4.2.3. Solution Combination Method

In PMTT, a modified two-phase BLX- α operator is employed to generate new trial solutions. During the first phase, the start times of the offspring are generated as performed in the SMTWT. The requirement of second phase arises when a machine number is needed to be assigned for each job. The two parents have the data of appointed machine numbers that is stored in their chromosomes, which should be transferred somehow into newly generated offspring. Second phase uses a conditional random assignment procedure to select appropriate machine for each job by looking at the genetic heritage of parents. If a job is processed on the same machine in both of the parent solutions then this machine processes the corresponding job of the offspring. If the two machines are different in the parent solutions for the same jobs, then the job is assigned to a machine that is randomly selected considering the machines of the parent solutions. For example, for job j , it is processed on *machine #1* in one solution and on *machine #2* in another solution. Considering the offspring generated from these solutions, the machine for job j will be either *machine #1* or *machine #2*. This selection is performed randomly. After finding start

times and assigning machines for each job, the total tardiness is evaluated and the new trial solution is created.

```

Start with  $P = \emptyset$ , where  $P$  denotes initial population and  $x$  denotes an initial trial sol'n  $\in P$ .
while size( $P$ ) <  $P_{size}$ 
  randomly assigned each jobj to a machine mchi      // i=1,..., # of machines (m), j=1,...,# of jobs (n)
  for each mchi
    sort all jobj  $\in$  mchi according to EDD              // Earliest due date
    schedule all jobj on mchi and evaluate start times and fitness value
    store st and fitness value in a string  $x_{EDD} = [st_1, \dots, st_n, fit]$       // stj is start time for job j
    sort jobj  $\in$  mchi according to SPT                // Shortest process time
    schedule all jobj on mchi and evaluate start times and fitness value
    store start times and fitness value in a string  $x_{SPT} = [st_1, \dots, st_n, fit]$   //  $x_{SPT}$  is partial schedule
    remain jobs = all jobj  $\in$  mchi
    while size(remain jobs)  $\neq$  0
      for each jobj  $\in$  remain jobs
        update slack time,  $\pi_j, \rho$                       //  $\pi_j$  is the priority of jobj,  $\rho$  is avg. mach. util.
        calculate  $(\pi_j)_{idle}$                           //  $(\pi_j)_{idle}$  is the idle priority
      end
      select jobj with the max  $(\pi_j)_{idle}$ 
      calculate its start time, completion time and tardiness on mchi
      delete jobj from remain jobs
    end
    sum all tardiness and obtain fitness
    store start times and fitness value in a string  $x_{XRM} = [st_1, \dots, st_n, fit]$   //  $x_{XRM}$  is partial schedule
    select schedulebest with min fitness                //  $x_{EDD}, x_{SPT}$  or  $x_{XRM}$  is selected as schedulebest
  end
   $x' = [(schedule_{best})_{mch1} + (schedule_{best})_{mch2} + \dots + (schedule_{best})_{mchm}]$ 
  if fit( $x'$ )  $\neq$  any of fit ( $x$ ),  $x \in P$  the  $x'$  is added to  $P$   $x' \rightarrow x$ , otherwise discard  $x'$ 
   $P = P \cup x$ 
end

```

Figure 4.11. The pseudo code for multi-rule initial solution generation method

4.2.4. Variable Neighborhood Search

VNS applied to SMTWT problem is quite simple. It concerns the sequence of jobs on a single machine. So, the neighborhoods of a current solution can easily be generated by swap moves that provide different permutations. Consequently, the final fitness value is updated by evaluating these neighborhood sequences. On the other hand, PMTT problem

consists of both allocation and scheduling of n jobs on parallel machines. Therefore, in order to search the neighborhoods of a current solution, VNS should generate candidate solutions by applying both machine interchanges and swap moves. For this reason, three different type VNS approaches are developed and implemented to elite solutions one after other at times determined by best solution VNS counter.

In the first type VNS (*type #1*) technique, the sequence of a selected elite solution is recorded and kept fixed during the entire neighborhood search. Then this sequence is divided into subsequences containing same number of jobs defined by VNS depth. Starting with the first subsequence, all possible machine assignments are listed for this group's jobs. As an example, considering a two machine problem with VNS depth equals to three, the all possible assignments can be stated as (111), (112), (121), (211), (221), (122), (212) and (222), where (112) denotes that the first job of the selected group is processed at machine #1, and the remaining jobs are at machine #2. Later, all these alternative assignments for first three jobs are investigated without changing the initial sequences and other machine assignments for the jobs stay out of this group. The alternative with the smallest fitness is selected and the current machine assignment is updated accordingly. When all the groups are treated in the same way and the assignments are revised, the total tardiness value of the neighborhood solution is compared with the current solution. If there is an improvement, neighborhood solution becomes the new current solution and VNS depth is decreased one level. Otherwise, the depth is increased one level and VNS repeat the previous steps for the new neighborhoods of the current solutions. See Appendix E.

In the second (*type #2*) and third type (*type #3*) VNS techniques, the methodology employed to construct neighborhood of a current solution is exactly the same that is used in SMTWT. Without considering machine allocations, the initial sequence of an elite solution is divided into subsequences and each subsequence involves its permutation alternatives. The neighborhoods are generated using these permutations that alter the initial sequence. The only difference arises at the evaluation step of the fitness value. In SMTWT problem, the order of jobs contains all the data need to calculate *tw* value. On the other hand, only a sequence of job indices means nothing for a parallel machine scheduling problem because it does not contain any information about machine assignments.

Therefore, two simple dispatching rules are utilized to cover required machine indices for each job.

The type #2 VNS technique employs an early finish time rule which starts with the initial job of the defined array and computes its completion times on each machine separately. These values are then compared and the machine with the earlier completion time is selected. After assigning the first job, the next one is dispatched to a machine by repeating the same computations. This scheduling continues until all jobs have a machine to be processed on. And finally, the total tardiness is evaluated and the neighborhood solution is generated according to the obtained job sequence and machine allocations. See Appendix E.

The type #3 VNS technique uses a recursive rule that operates in a one-way track fashion over branch alternatives. In this method, start times play the key role to decide a machine for a given job. Jobs are allocated according to their positions stated by the sorted sequence. At each step of allocation, a start time corresponding to a job is compared with the finish time of the machines where the finish time denotes the completion time of previously assigned job on that machine. If the start time of a selected job indicates an instant that is before the both machine finish their duties, then the selected job is assigned to a machine with the earliest completion time. Else if, the start time is earlier than one finish time but not the other, then the job corresponding to that start time is scheduled on the earlier machine. Finally, if there is a slack time between the finish time and the start time for both machines, then the job can be assigned any of the machines. Thus, recursive rule constructs two branches at that node which contain each assignment alternatives. When all the jobs are dispatched and their alternative branches are built, the tardiness value at each node is evaluated. Starting from the first node and moving forward to the last node through generated branches, total tardiness value is calculated. In addition to that, this one-way track move provides the required assignment sequence for the neighborhood solution. The assignment with the smallest total tardiness becomes the fitness of sequence that is generated initially as the candidate solution of the initial solution. See Appendix E.

The other features of VNS that are not mentioned in this section, is same as in SMTWT problem. Different from the single machine problem, our best solution VNS

counter triggers three different type VNS techniques. It initially triggers first type VNS technique which generates neighborhoods based on machine interchanges for a fixed sequence of jobs. If the current solution can not be improved and counter reaches to the second threshold, it executes the second type VNS where the evaluations of neighborhoods are done by using EFT rule. Depending on the presence of an improvement, counter either implements the first type VNS or the third type VNS technique. If HCSS or previous VNS attempts fails to upgrade the best known solution, third type VNS is executed to search new neighborhoods attentively while considering all schedule alternatives related to them. Third type VNS technique is an intensive search method and it becomes highly time-consuming when the number of jobs is increased. Therefore, it is applied at the final stage like a last bullet to the target. If the bullet hits the target, the counter reset itself and the search starts from the beginning with a superior solution. Otherwise, HCSS continues for a fixed iteration and stops if no improvement is achieved. The performance comparison between three type VNS and single type VNS technique used in SMTWT problem will be performed in experimental result section and the best method will be selected for our final HCSS approach.

```

create initial solution set P
POOL = P
Select  $b_1$  best solutions and  $b_2$  diverse solutions of RefSet from the POOL
ReserveList=RefSet
bestSol = min fitness value RefSet solution
bestSolVNSCount = 0
newSolutionsSwitch=1
alphaCount=0;
iterationCount=0
while newSolutionsSwitch =1
    generate new subsetsk with subset generation method
    for each subsetk
        apply solution combination method and improvement method
    end
    newSolutionsSwitch =0
    update POOL
    update ReserveList
    apply reference set update method and select  $b_1$  best solution
    update bestSol, bestSolutionVNSCount,  $\alpha$ Count,  $\alpha$ 
    // (activation threshold of type #1 MVNS < type #2 MVNS < type #3 MVNS)
    Continues

```

Figure 4.12. The pseudo code for HCSS approach – PMTT

```

if bestSolutionVNSCount = activation threshold for type #1 MVNS
    for all  $best_i \in \text{RefSet}$ 
        apply type #1 MVNS and obtain sol'n  $best_i^{\text{VNS}}$ 
        update RefSet with  $best_i^{\text{VNS}}$  if necessary
    end
    update bestSol, bestSolutionVNSCount,  $\alpha$ Count,  $\alpha$ 
end
if bestSolutionVNSCount = activation threshold for type #2 MVNS
    for all  $best_i \in \text{RefSet}$ 
        apply type #2 MVNS and obtain sol'n  $best_i^{\text{VNS}}$ 
        update RefSet with  $best_i^{\text{VNS}}$  if necessary
    end
    update bestSol, bestSolutionVNSCount,  $\alpha$ Count,  $\alpha$ 
end
if bestSolutionVNSCount = activation threshold for type #3 MVNS
    for all  $best_i \in \text{RefSet}$ 
        apply type #3 MVNS and obtain sol'n  $best_i^{\text{VNS}}$ 
        update RefSet with  $best_i^{\text{VNS}}$  if necessary
    end
    update bestSol, bestSolutionVNSCount,  $\alpha$ Count,  $\alpha$ 
end
apply distance measurement method
select diverse solutions from POOL and add them to RefSet
if  $\alpha$ Count > 0
    update  $\alpha = 0.5 + (\Delta * \alpha \text{ Count})$ 
end
if bestSolutionVNSCount <= stopping threshold // dynamic stopping criterion
    newSolutionsSwitch = 1
end
end

```

Figure 4.12. The pseudo code for HCSS approach – PMTT continues

5. NUMERICAL STUDIES

This chapter provides the details of experimental procedure and different strategies applied to tardiness related scheduling problem sets together with the numerical results. The algorithm is implemented on MATLAB[®] (MathWorks, 2006) which is a high-performance language for technical computing. The name MATLAB[®] stands for matrix laboratory. It is an interactive system whose basic data element is an array that does not require dimensioning. This allows solving many technical computing problems, especially those with matrix and vector formulations, in a fraction of the time it would take to write a program in a scalar non-interactive language such as C or Fortran. The solution representation of our HCSS approach consists of vectors and arrays. Therefore, the basic features of MATLAB[®] provides the necessary computing language infrastructure for our meta-heuristic approach and let the incorporation of further strategies composed in different compilers within MATLAB[®]. Both parallel and single machine total tardiness/total weighted tardiness problems in their most generic forms, i.e. with distinct ready times, processing times, due dates and sequence dependent setup times are imported into the software as matrices and can be processed by unique codes special to matrix operations.

The several strategies developed for HCSS approach are tested via MATLAB[®] and the results are reported in the following sections. The solution strategy to be employed for each problem can be specified by the user just selecting a combination of methods implemented for parallel or single machine total tardiness/total weighted tardiness problems separately. Extensive experimentation is performed on the HCSS approach developed in this thesis. The experiments are conducted on a AMD Athlon 64 – 1.81 GHz CPU with 512 MB RAM.

5.1. Problem Set for SMTWT

The problem set used for experimentation consists of scheduling problems with 40, 50, 100-jobs, which is developed and tested by Crauwels et al.(1998). A total of 125 test instances are available for each problem size $n=40$, $n=50$ and $n=100$. The instances were

randomly generated as follows: For each job j ($j=1, \dots, n$), an integer processing time p_j was generated from the uniform distribution $[1, 100]$ and integer processing weight w_j was generated from the uniform distribution $[1, 10]$. Instance classes of varying hardness were generated by using different uniform distributions for generating the due dates. For a given relative range of due dates, RDD ($RDD=0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0$) and a given average tardiness factor TF ($TF=0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0$), an integer due date d_j for each job j was randomly generated from the uniform distribution $[P(1-TF-RDD)/2, P(1-TF+RDD)/2]$, where $P = \sum_j p_j$ for j ($j=1, \dots, n$). Five instances were generated for each of the 25 pairs of values of RDD and TF , yielding 125 instances for each value of n . These instances are available in the OR library run by (Beasley, 2006), which is a collection of test data sets for a variety of Operation Research problems.

Crauwels et al. (1998) develop a Branch and Bound algorithm to attack $n=40$ and $n=50$ instances. They manage to solve 124 out of the 125 instances for $n=40$ and 103 problems out of 125 instances for $n=50$ with a time limit of two minutes for each instance whereas $n=100$ instances were abandoned due to the anticipation of extremely high computational times. The unsolved 40-job problem is number 19, and 50-job problems 11, 12, 14, 19, 36, 44, 66, 87, 88 and 111 remain unsolved. The optimal solutions for 124 of the 40-jobs problem instances and 115 of the 50-job instances are given in the OR library. As for, 100-jobs problem instances, the best known solution values reported by Crauwels et al. (1998) and Congram et al. (2002) are available. Since, the solutions not known to optimality have not been improved further with respect to their best-known values, there is a strong evidence that they are actually the optimal solutions. Appendix F.1 presents the optimal and best known solutions for 40, 50 and 100-jobs problem instances as reported in the OR library.

5.2. Problem Set for PMTT

The problem set used for experimentation consists of parallel machine scheduling problems of 40 and 60 jobs, developed and tested by Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu and Ulusoy (1999). A total of 20 test instances are available for each problem size, i.e. $n = 40$, $m = 2$ and 4 and $n = 60$, $m = 2$ and 4 where n denotes the number of jobs and m denotes the number of machines.

The instances were randomly generated as follows. It has been assumed that machines belong to one of two different types, which have the same characteristics except that they have different processing times. Type II machines represent an older technology. The processing time of a job on a Type II machine is 10-20 per cent greater than its processing time on a Type I machine. Similarly, setup times on a Type II machine are 20-40 per cent larger than the corresponding setup times on a Type I machine. Processing times of job j on a Type I machine, p_j^I follow the uniform distribution $U [4,20]$. To generate the processing time of job j on Type II machine, which is denoted as p_j^{II} , a multiplier is chosen randomly from $[1.10, 1.20]$ and is applied to the processing time of job j on the Type I machine.

Setup times on Type I machines, cited as a_j^I , are taken to be uniformly distributed with $U [1, A_{max}]$ where two levels of A_{max} are utilized in this study. Again a multiplier chosen from $[1.20 \text{ } 1.40]$ is employed to compute the setup times on Type II machine. Ready times are assumed to follow the uniform distribution $U [0, R_{max}]$, where R_{max} is the maximum ready time. Here, $R_{max} = \lceil (p_{avg}^{II} + a_{avg}^{II})/(N/M-1) \rceil$ where $\lceil x \rceil$ is the smallest integer greater than or equal to x , and p_{avg}^{II} , a_{avg}^{II} are the average processing time and average setup time on machine Type II respectively. The due date of job j is taken to be the sum of its ready time, processing time on the Type II machine, maximum time to setup a Type II machine for the processing of job j and a slack value. The slack value S is defined as the sum of mean values of processing and setup times on a Type II machine:

$$S = p_{avg}^{II} + a_{avg}^{II}. \quad (5.1)$$

Due dates are computed according to the formula:

$$d_j = r_j + \max_i a_{ij}^{II} + p_{ij}^{II} + S \quad (5.2)$$

Bilge et al. (2004) apply a deterministic TS algorithm and obtain high quality solutions with respect to earlier results from the literature for the same problem set. However, Anghinolfi and Paolucci (2006) represent a hybrid meta-heuristic approach that integrates TS, SA and VNS and achieve some superior results than the ones found by Bilge et al. Both sets of best known solutions cited by the authors are given in Appendix F.2.

5.3. The Experimental Procedure for the HCSS Approach

The performance measure used for this study is the average percentage of deviation from the best value known in the literature. Hence, in all the experimental results presented in the figures, the percentage deviation for an instance is calculated by using the formula:

$$\text{per cent dev} = [(\text{Best} - \text{Best-known to literature}) / \text{Best-known to literature}] \times 100 \quad (5.3)$$

where Best-known to literature is the best known solution reported in OR library for the problem set and Best is the best solution obtained by the HCSS. Then the average of total percentage deviations for a problem set is computed as

$$\text{avg. per cent dev.} = \sum_i (\text{per cent dev.})_i / \text{total number of instance} \quad (5.4)$$

where i denotes the number of an instance. In each experimentation phase, only aggregated results are used for decision-making purposes. Therefore, only those aggregate forms of results are presented for the entire set of problems, rather than presenting individual results for each instance. The performance evaluation is based on the average per cent deviation from the optimal (or best known value to the literature) of all the instances of considered problem sets. Individual superior results for some instances do not affect the final decision. In other words, each candidate strategy is evaluated in terms of aggregate performance quality instead of individual success per problem instance.

For SMTWT problems, mostly 50-job instances are considered. While making a crucial decision concerned with the methodology of HCSS approach, the results found for 50-job instances are supported by either 40-job, 100-job or both sets. Hence, more reliable decisions can be made. This is because in some cases the difference between avg. per cent deviations of two compared candidate methods is negligible when 50-job instances are taken into account. On the other hand, the difference can become more significant for 100-job problem set. Based on this argument, instead of evaluating a strategy with respect to single set of results, more data are considered to arrive at a more robust final form of our approach.

For PMTT problems, two-machine problems are usually harder than their four-machine counterpart. For this reason, the experimentation is conducted with 40-job two-machine instances. Hence, in the experimentation phase, only 40-job two-machine problem average per cent deviation results are reported and the decisions are made after comparing these results. The final form of the algorithm obtained in this manner is then employed for the remaining problem sets for final results.

Since the total number of strategies to be tested is very large, a sequential experimentation procedure is adopted. First, the HCSS approach is implemented in its most elementary form, which we call the basic algorithm. Then this basic algorithm is developed into its final form by fixing strategies according to the experimentation results. At each experiment, we test one or more parameters/methods and select one (or sometimes more) level that perform at least as good as the others for each instance, and go on with this new form of the algorithm.

Before examining experimental results for SMTWT, the components of our basic HCSS model are introduced briefly. In our basic model, the initial solutions are generated randomly (*rand*). Initial solution set size is considered as 150 which is consistent with the values given in Herrera et al (2006) and Laguna et al (2006). Hence, the size of the set will not be fine-tuned and kept constant during entire experimentation. The reference set consists of 10 high quality and 10 diverse solutions, as suggested by Laguna et al. (2006). Best solutions are selected from the reserve list (*2-tier*) whereas diverse solutions are chosen according to their start time distances (*start*) to the reference set as described in Section 4.1.3. The solution combination method employs BLX- α operator where α equals to 0.5 (*static*) and the generated trial solutions are stored in the pool which has a capacity defined as *pool size*. The initial pool size is considered as 100, which means 90 of the generated trial solutions are not accepted to the pool depending on their poor fitness values. In our elementary HCSS model, no intensification strategy such as VNS is performed; different types of VNS methods will be introduced in further sections of experimentation. Finally, the stopping criterion in the basic algorithm is set to 150 iterations. The used components and default parameter values of our basic HCSS algorithm is presented in Table 5.1. Until the otherwise is stated, these components and parameters are implemented in our algorithm at the experimentation stage.

Table 5.1. Basic HCSS algorithm

	BASIC HCSS
REFERENCE SET	
<i>UPDATE METHOD</i>	2-tier + start
<i># of BEST</i>	10
<i># of DIVERSE</i>	10
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	
<i>GENERATION METHOD</i>	RANDOM
<i># of INITIAL SOL's</i>	150
POOL	
<i>SIZE</i>	100
SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD	
<i>ALPHA STRATEGY</i>	STATIC
<i>ALPHA VALUE</i>	0.5
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	
<i>TYPE OF VNS</i>	NO
<i>SEARCH DEPTH</i>	X
STOPPING CRITERION	
<i>TYPE</i>	FIX
<i># of ITERATIONS</i>	150

For every experiment conducted, a figure and a table are given together to report the results of this experiment and to summarize the components of HCSS which is implemented in the experiment. The table is divided into columns and each column represents a component of our model. An illustration of our basic model is given in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2. Components of basic HCSS

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	VNS	DEPTH	POOL	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	NO	X	100	0.5	150

where INISOL denotes the initial solution generation method, REFSET denotes reference set update method, DISTANCE denotes distance measurement method, VNS and DEPTH denote intensification strategy and its search depth, POOL denotes pool size, ALPHA denotes α value used in solution combination method and finally STOP defines the stopping criterion. Each time, when a new alternative method or parameter value is introduced, it is symbolized with abbreviations which are referred in brackets. This representation provides a visual simplicity while presenting the internal dynamics of the

algorithm. Considering the figures, the x-axis contains the compared methods or strategies, y-axis defines problem set and z-axis states the average per cent deviations obtained from all instances.

5.4. Numerical Experimentation for SMTWT

As the first step of experimentation, two diverse solution selection methods and three pool sizes are tested by taking all of their combinations. Considering 40-job instances, restricted pool sizes perform better regardless of the distance measurement method. As shown in Figure 5.1, start distance measure with pool size 100 (*start 100*) and pool size 85 (*start 85*) result in 2.11 and 1.62 average per cent deviation values respectively, which are both smaller than the value 2.22 obtained by using start distance measure with no pool restriction (*start all*). The same situation can be observed between rank distance measure and pool size parameter (*rank 100*, *rank 85*). Again, two restricted pool sizes come up with superior performance values. This is expected since; without any restriction, too diverse poor quality solutions are accepted to pool and selected as an element of reference set by one of distance measurement methods. Therefore, a poorly constructed reference set generates weak offspring that do not yield satisfactory results. Investigating all problem sets, rank 100, start 100 and start 85 are considered as the most promising distance measure-pool size combinations.

The next step is to determine search depth for our intensification strategy (VNS). Middle VNS (MVNS) is employed with basic scatter search and two different search depths; 3-4-5 and 4-5-6 are tested for 50-job instances as described in Section 4.1.6. From the Figure 5.2, it can be seen that MVNS 4-5-6 outperforms MVNS 3-4-5 regardless of the distance measurement method and pool size combination. Although it is not shown here, two compared search depths are chosen among a wide range of depths varying from 2-3-4 to 6-7-8. The depth 3-4-5 is the best performed one among the fast VNS methods, whereas depth 4-5-6 is the fastest when VNS with high quality outcomes are considered. The comparison between these two states that MVNS 4-5-6 has a remarkable superiority over

Table 5.3. HCSS for SMTWT - pool sizes and distance measurement methods

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	all, 100, 85	NO	X	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	RANK	all, 100, 85	NO	X	0.5	150

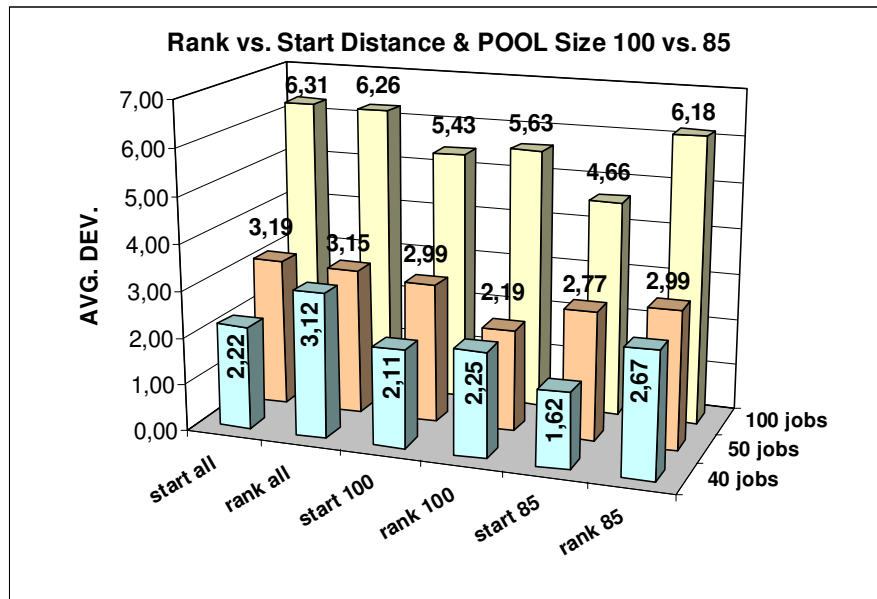


Figure 5.1. Experimental results for pool sizes and distance measurement methods

its faster alternative. If the difference were not so significant, the faster VNS depth 3-4-5 could have been preferred. Hence, during our remaining experimentation, search depth 4-5-6 is used for our variable neighborhood search.

After deciding the search depth, two different VNS strategies are applied to 50-job 100-job problem sets. In the first strategy, a final VNS is executed only on the best solution found so far as soon as the stopping criterion – 150 iterations is met whereas for the second strategy a middle VNS is implemented when the non-improving iterations counter reaches a certain threshold. This threshold is defined as 30 consecutive non-improving iterations. Considering 50-job instances, there can be observed a clear improvement after applying an intensification strategy; but no clear selection can be made between FVNS and MVNS. This is because; the performances shown in Figure 5.3 are close to each other. In order to avoid an improper conclusion, a more challenging problem set consisting of 100-jobs is

Table 5.4. HCSS for SMTWT - comparison of search depths

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS	3-4-5	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	RANK	100	MVNS	3-4-5	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	RANK	100	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150

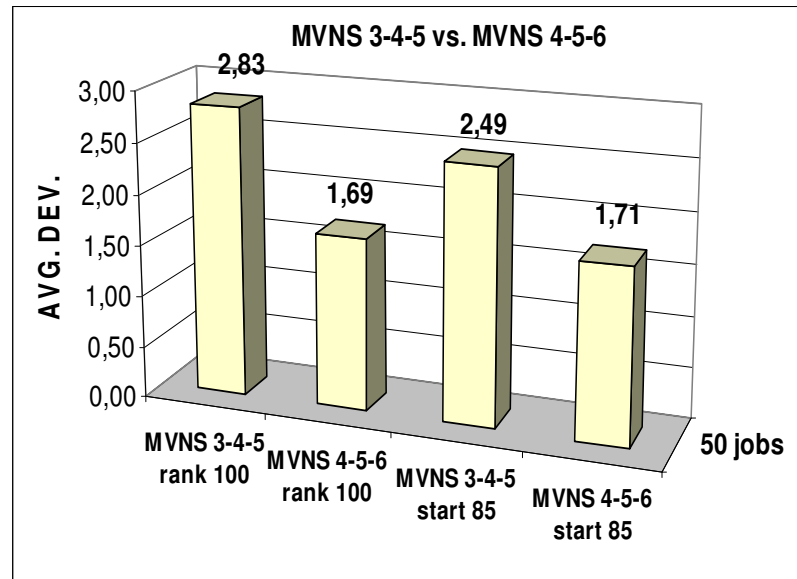


Figure 5.2. Fine-tuning for search depth parameter

attacked by MVNS can be clearly proven when combined with both rank 100 and start 85. Hence, MVNS 4-5-6 is selected as the intensification strategy for HCSS approach.

Table 5.5. HCSS for SMTWT - comparison of different intensification strategies

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	85	FVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	RANK	100	FVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	RANK	100	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	START	85	NO	X	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	RANK	100	NO	X	0.5	150

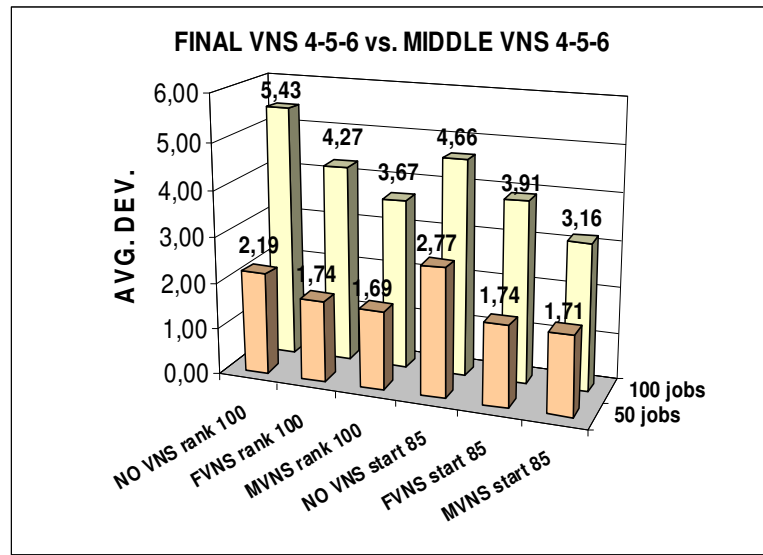


Figure 5.3. Effects of intensification strategies

So far, the initial population used in HCSS is randomly generated. From now on, we discuss the performance of two new population generations approaches. For the experiments performed at this stage, all the new population are formed by either seeding the randomly generated population with some selected good solutions found at the end of various list scheduling heuristic (*SEED-10*) or by seeding the random population with all good solutions obtained by same heuristic (*SEED-ALL*). The list scheduling heuristics employed are EDD, SPT, WSPT and R&M +. A single seed solution is provided from each of the heuristics except R&M +. R&M + provides up to 36 different elite solutions by varying k value. Either all of these solutions are accepted to initial solution set or best 10 of them are selected as described in Section 4.1.2.

Based on the results presented in Figure 5.4, seeded initial solution set containing best 10 R&M solution with pool size 85 performs better for both 40-job and 100-job instances. Focusing on 40-job problem set, seeded initial solution set *SEED-ALL* do not yield satisfactory result as compared to *SEED-10* or randomly generated population. The main reason behind this situation is the selection of almost identical individuals to the initial population. (Trial solutions with different start times but same fitness value can be observed in the initial population at the same time; because the selection procedure only filters the identical individuals.) Similar individuals later dominate the reference set and

directly affect the next generations formed from their linear combinations. Hence, insufficient diversity in the population avoids HCSS to explore different promising regions and the search cycles around the same local optima.

Table 5.6. HCSS for SMTWT - comparison of different initial solution generation methods

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
SEED-ALL	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
SEED-10	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150

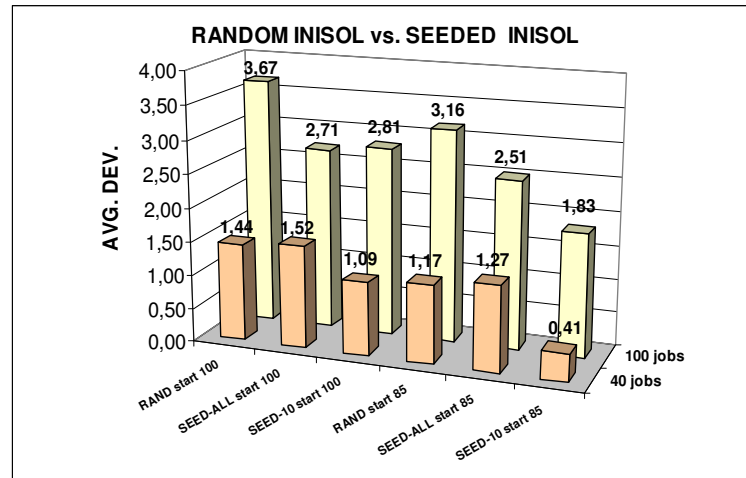


Figure 5.4. Effect of initial solution generation methods

A screening mechanism is developed to overcome the diversity problem in the initial population. This mechanism removes one of two trial solution with the same tardiness value. By doing so, it is guaranteed that every screened solution has a different sequence of jobs which reflects an important indicator of diversified population. In the experimentation, screening is only applied to seeded initial solution set with best 10 R&M solution (*SEED-SCR*) and the results are summarized in Figure 5.5. It is obvious that screening improves both diversity and quality of initial population; thus affects the efficiency of search.

Previously, MVNS is applied only to first three best solutions stored in the reference set. These best solutions are directly transferred from the reserve list where best

Table 5.7. HCSS for SMTWT - effect of screening mechanism

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
SEED-10	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150

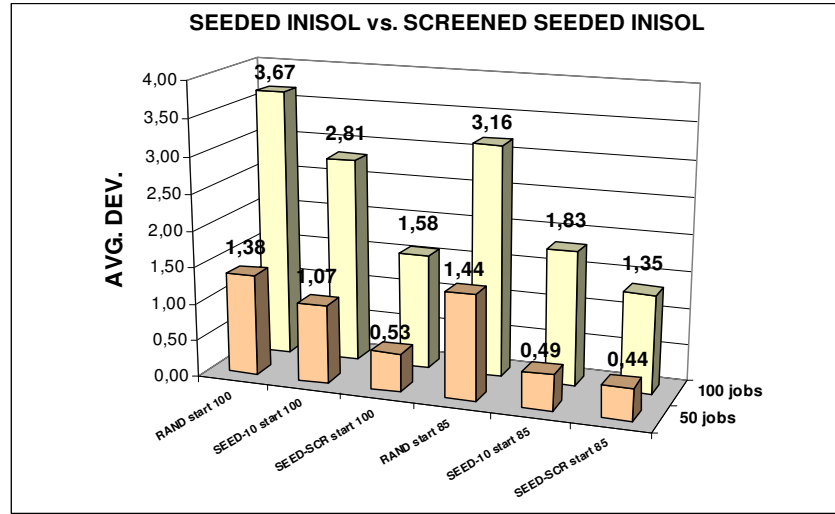


Figure 5.5. Effect of screening mechanism

found solutions are kept. Without considering other elite solutions, our intensification strategy becomes a partial exploitation mechanism that neglect promising neighborhoods of other best solutions. As mentioned before, the performance of a solution is evaluated by only looking at its fitness value. A solution, which is considered as poor, can be converted in to a better solution by just swapping two jobs' positions. Therefore every solution is assumed to have a potential local optimum hidden at its neighborhood. Based on this assumption we developed a comprehensive MVNS and explore the neighborhood of all elite solutions contained in the reference set (*MVNS ALL*). The experimentation is performed with a randomly generated initial solution set and the results for 40-job and 50-job instances are presented in Figure 5.6 MVNS ALL with start 85 decreases average per cent deviation from 1.17 to 0.30 for 40-job problem and from 1.71 to 0.47 for 50-job instances. This is a remarkable improvement. Hence, new MVNS method is adapted as our new intensification strategy.

Table 5.8. HCSS for SMTWT - comparison of MNVS

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
RAND	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	150

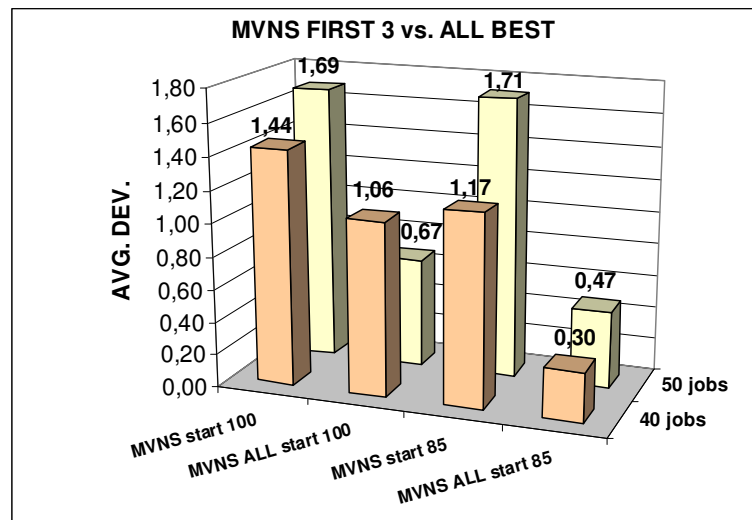


Figure 5.6. Experimental results for compared MNVS methods

At this point, an important question comes to mind, what happen if we design a HCSS which start with a better initial solution set and employs a complete intensification strategy that covers all elite solutions. In Figure 5.7, performances of new intensification strategy, new seeded population with screening and their combinations are shown separately. Based on the results observe from the figure, the new combination shows a perfect harmony for all instances and reduce average per cent deviation value in both cases. Therefore, MVNS with enlarged application area and diversified seeded population are adapted together to our HSCC approach and further experimentations are implemented accordingly.

Table 5.9. HCSS for SMTWT – effect of combined initial solution and MVNS methods

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	150
RAND	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	150
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	150

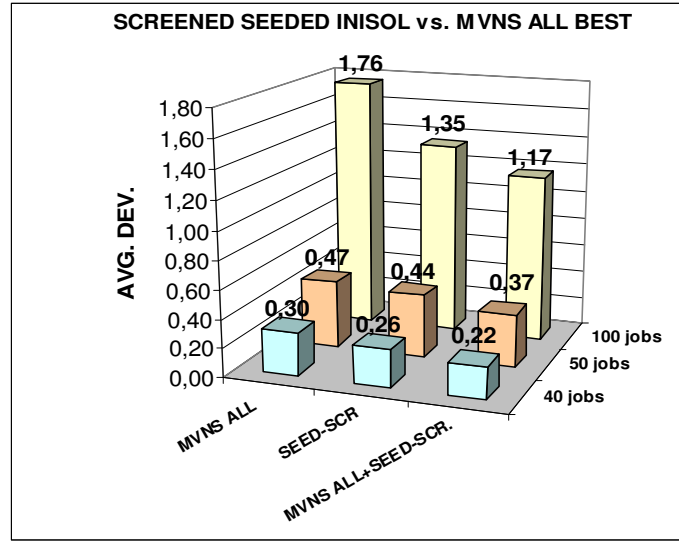


Figure 5.7. Combination of screened initial solution set with new MVNS method

Diversity of the population is the main force behind the HCSS that push it to explore distant promising regions in order to find superior solutions. For that reason, diversification among the individual must be control at every stage of the search. The initial diversity of population is obtained by new screening mechanism, but alone it is not sufficient to keep diversity at desired levels for next generations. As we discussed in Section 4.1.5, solution combination method that utilizes BLX- α operator has the ability to promote diversity of the population. It causes variances of distributions increase while spreading them in this way. BLX- α provides a useful tool to enhance exploration capability. In order to control diversity, α parameter is employed in three different strategies based on dynamically changing α value. Those three strategies are implemented as explained in Section 4.1.7 for all instances and the results are given in Figure 5.8. The strategy that start with α value equal to 0.5 and increases it by 0.005 at the end of each non-improving iteration, performs better than other strategies which are based on either static or dynamic α value.

Before modifying our HCSS approach with dynamic alpha strategy, a fine-tuning step is executed for the increment values (Δ); 0.005, 0.01, 0.025 and 0.05. These increments are tested on 50-jobs and 100-job instances and the results are reported in Figure 5.9. It is obvious that the smallest increment 0.005 outperforms its candidates. An

interesting result is observed for 100-job problem where the average per cent deviations are too high for 0.025 and 0.05. This shows that large α values used in solutions combination method generates too diverse solutions that lead the search to poor and low quality regions. As a result, α parameter should be keep below a certain limit and fast convergence to this limit should be prevented. Otherwise, the diversification strategy becomes an inaccurate and blind exploration tool.

The next step is to compare fixed iteration and dynamic iteration stopping criteria. As described in Section 4.1.8., fixed iteration criterion terminates HCSS at the end of 150 iterations; on the other hand dynamic iteration stops the algorithm after executing 60 non-improving iterations. In order to evaluate their performances, the experiments are conducted for all job instances and the results are given in Figure 5.10. The average per cent deviations of 40-job is same for both criteria and a small difference is observed when 50-job and 100-job are considered. Dynamic stopping criterion performs better than fixed iteration for problem sets containing more than 40-jobs. Additionally, it shortens the execution time of the algorithm for 40-job and 50-job instances where the optimal solution can be found in very early stages of the search. For instance, after finding the global optimum solution at the iteration 20, algorithm with fixed stopping criteria repeats its search procedure 130 times without obtaining a better value. This is an undesirable and time- consuming operation. In contrast, dynamic stopping criterion allows the algorithm to implement 60 more iterations before terminating the search, which reduce the execution time. See Table 5.12.

Table 5.10. HCSS for SMTWT – comparison of alpha strategies

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	$2.0 > 0.5 + \Delta$	150
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	$0.5 + \Delta$	150
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	$2.0 > 0.5$	150

Table 5.11. HCSS for SMTWT – fine tuning for alpha increment

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	$0.5 + \Delta$	150

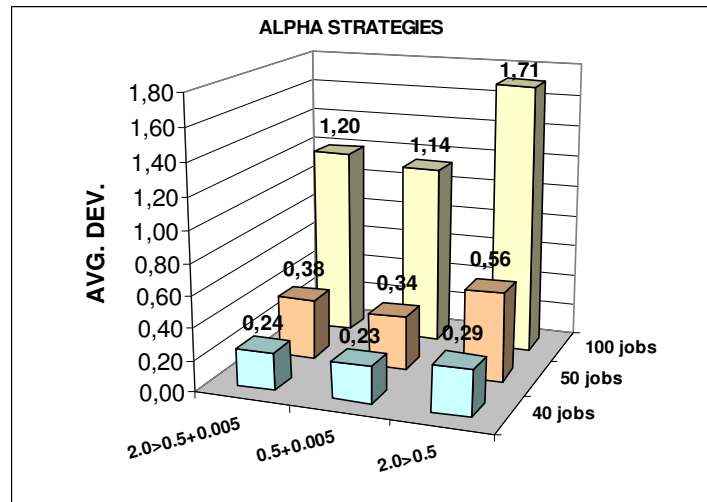


Figure 5.8. Experimental results for alpha strategies

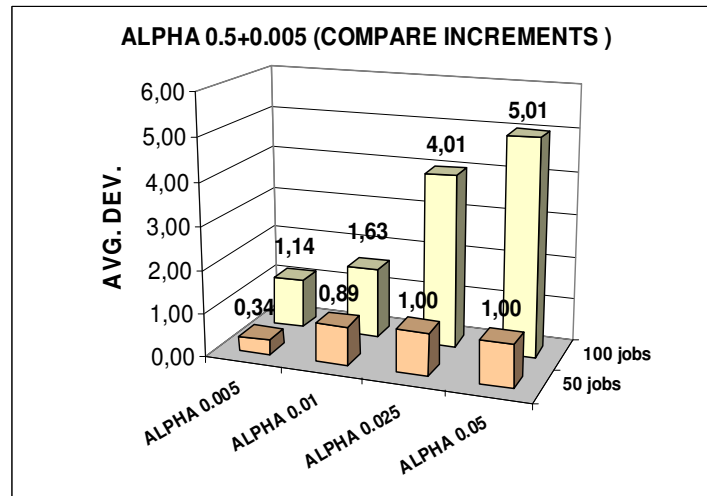


Figure 5.9. Fine-tuning of alpha increment for new alpha strategy

In the early development stages of our HCSS approach, 150 iteration is considered sufficiently long to conclude the search. Absence of necessary diversification tools and inaccurate organization of intensification procedures cause the meta-heuristic to get trapped at a local optimum at the very beginning. So, continuing the search procedure more than 150 iterations at this level seems useless. However, the presence of new dynamic alpha strategy cooperates with new MVNS methodology, prevents undesired early convergences to local optima and help to acquire better solutions towards to the end of the

Table 5.12. Experimental results for selected 40-job instances

INSTANCE	OPTIMUM	FIXED ITERATION			DYNAMIC ITERATION		
		Best Found	Iteration to Best	Total Iteration	Best Found	Iteration to Best	Total Iteration
001	913	913	2	150	913	2	62
002	1225	1225	11	150	1225	11	71
003	537	573	10	150	573	10	70
004	2094	2094	12	150	2094	12	72
005	990	990	11	150	990	11	71
006	6955	6955	8	150	6955	8	68
007	6324	6324	2	150	6324	2	62
008	6865	6865	10	150	6865	10	70
009	16225	16225	12	150	16225	12	72
010	9737	9737	89	150	9737	64	124
011	17465	17562	32	150	17465	71	131
012	19312	19312	57	150	19312	43	103
013	29256	29368	9	150	29368	9	69
014	14377	14432	3	150	14432	3	63
015	26914	26914	3	150	26914	3	63
016	72317	72317	142	150	72317	47	107
017	78623	78623	12	150	78623	12	72
018	74310	74387	43	150	74318	51	111
019	77122*	77432	16	150	77432	16	76
020	63229	63817	9	150	63817	9	69
021	77774	77774	17	150	77774	17	77
022	100484	100484	128	150	100484	65	125
023	135618	135618	2	150	135618	2	62
024	119947	119947	3	150	119947	3	63
025	128747	128747	4	150	128747	4	64

* Best Known

search. Table 5.13 presents the fitness values of best visited solutions and iteration elapsed up to best for selected 100-job instances. Based on results reported in the table, for some instances of fixed iteration stopping criterion, iteration number at which the best is found, is so close to constant stopping threshold. Therefore, the algorithm is terminated before investigating the promising neighborhoods of the current best solution. On the other hand, dynamic stopping allows it to execute at least 60 more iterations to explore the search space with new best solution. Although, the execution time is increased, better solutions can be visited by applying exploration or exploitation procedures within this extra time. Therefore, dynamic stopping criterion is adapted to for further experimentations.

After performing remarkable achievements with seeded initial solution set, a dynamic diversification strategy, a complete intensification method, a reliable dynamic

stopping procedure, we focus on the brain of our HCSS meta-heuristic; the reference set. So far, reference set is constructed by using 10 best solutions found so far (2-tier design) and 10 diverse solutions selected according to start or rank distance measurement method. At this stage, two arguments are tested to see whether they have a contribution to the performance of the reference set.

Table 5.13. Experimental results for selected 100-job instances

INSTANCE	Best Known	FIXED ITERATION			DYNAMIC ITERATION		
		Best Found	Iteration to Best	Total Iteration	Best Found	Iteration to Best	Total Iteration
010	53208	53992	142	150	53663	139	199
015	172995	178050	138	150	176539	154	214
019	477684	483201	147	150	480463	161	221
024	744287	744290	126	150	744290	120	180
033	32964	34593	140	150	33740	169	229
049	656693	656734	133	150	656715	172	232
057	11539	12250	118	150	12250	113	173
060	19912	19919	121	150	19919	108	168
064	100788	111047	139	150	104976	190	250
075	575274	575288	135	150	575288	131	191
086	66850	72942	129	150	72942	114	174
112	174367	177522	141	150	177522	148	208
113	91169	94436	123	150	94436	123	183
122	570459	570724	115	150	570724	108	168
123	397029	397848	137	150	397848	163	223
124	431115	431284	105	150	431284	93	153

The first argument is that a mixture of diverse solutions which are selected by rank and start distance measurement methods (*mix distance*) may provide different quality, dissimilar solution structures for the reference set and increase the diversity observed among the next generations. The experimentations with mix diverse solution selection is performed as described in Section 4.1.3 and the results for both mix distance and start distance selections are given in Figure 5.11. For the 40-job instances, mix distance with pool size 100 decreases the average per cent deviation to 0.14 which equals to 0.64 for start 100. Also for both 40-job and 50-job problem set, the lowest deviation value achieved so far is obtained by using mix diverse solution selection with pool size 85; 0.11 and 0.31 respectively.

Table 5.14. HCSS for SMTWT – comparison of stopping criteria

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	$0.5+\Delta$	150
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	$0.5+\Delta$	DYNAMIC

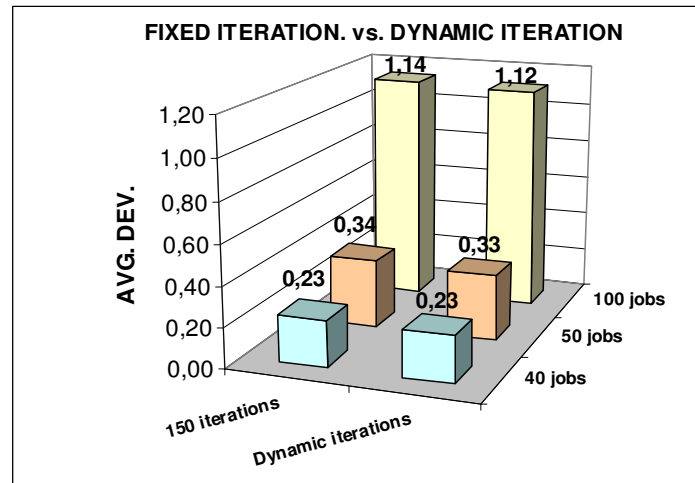


Figure 5.10. Effect of dynamic stopping criteria

The second argument is about the reference set update method. The new update method as mentioned in Section 4.1.3, is aiming to preserve diversity continuously, instead of allowing it to become homogenous by only admitting solutions from one source, which tend to have very similar components at further stages of the search (3-tier design). A reference set whose best solutions are updated from two sources namely the reserve list and the pool, may lead the search at a better direction. After conducting necessary experiments to evaluate the second argument, obtained results are reported in Figure 5.12. According to the results, selecting diverse solutions using both start and rank distance measurement method reduces the average per cent deviation value to 0.11 for 40-job and 0.31 for 50-job instances, which are initially 0.23 and 0.33 for start diverse solutions. However, new 3-tier reference set update method performs better than the diverse solution selection method and comes up with a deviation 0.07 and 0.012 for 40-job and 50-job problems respectively. Finally, mix diverse solution selection procedure and 3-tier reference set design are employed together to test their cooperative performance. Heterogeneous transient best solutions with dissimilarly evaluated diverse solutions

Table 5.15. HCSS for SMTWT – evaluation of mix diverse solution selection method

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	100, 85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+ Δ	DYNAMIC
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	MIX	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+ Δ	DYNAMIC

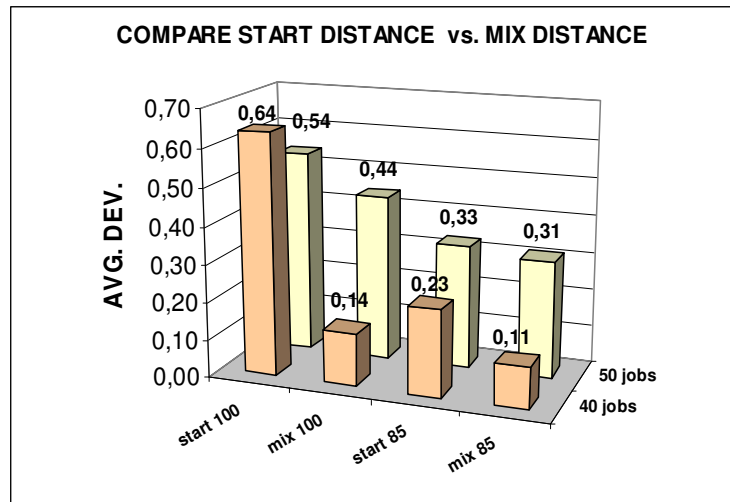


Figure 5.11. Comparison of mix diverse and start diverse solution selection methods

provide a more extensive exploration through the promising regions; thus increase the chance of visiting better optimums. This argument can easily be proven by investigating the experimental results for 40-job and 50-job instances. Both per cent deviation values decrease to 0.04 and 0.09 respectively. As a result, new diverse solution selection method with new reference set design is adapted to our HCSS approach and this concludes the experimentation phase conducted to developed the algorithm in a sequential manner.

Table 5.16. HCSS for SMTWT – 3-tier design of reference set

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+ Δ	DYNAMIC
SEED-SCR	2-TIER	MIX	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+ Δ	DYNAMIC
SEED-SCR	3-TIER	START	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+ Δ	DYNAMIC
SEED-SCR	3-TIER	MIX	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+ Δ	DYNAMIC

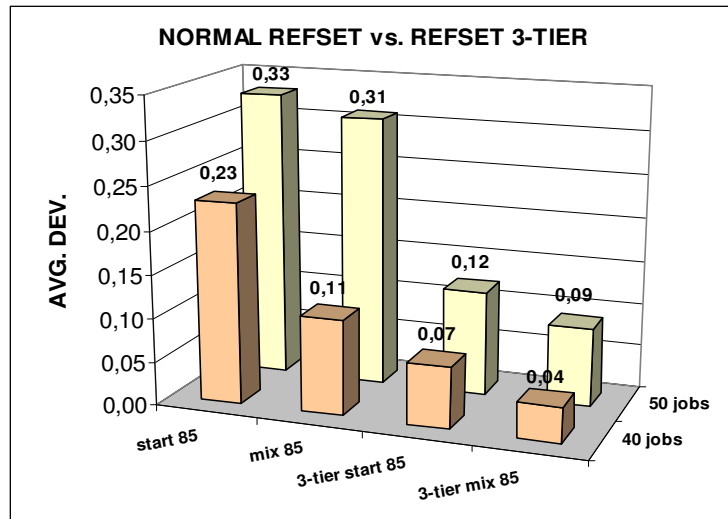


Figure 5.12. Effects of new reference set update methods

5.4.1. Final Results

After conducting necessary numerical experimentations to adapt new improvement methods for our HCSS approach an ultimately modified algorithm, which can be implemented on all job sets, is achieved. Different from the elementary model, the fine-tuned algorithm composed of a new initial solution generation method (SEED-SCR), an advance reference set update method (3-tier + mix distance), an extended intensification strategy (MVNS ALL) and a self-adjustable alpha parameter ($0.5+\Delta$) which control the diversification of generated new solutions. In addition to that the dynamic stopping criterion allows the algorithm to decide its own termination time depending on the search performance. This final form of the HCSS approach is now tested with 40-job, 50-job and 100-job problem sets respectively and the obtained results are presented.

Due to the probabilistic nature of solution combination method, five different seeds are used for the random number generator employed in the HCSS algorithm. The seeds are selected to be 1,3,7,9 and 24. The performance measures is again average per cent deviation which is calculated as described previously and computational times are reported as Average CPU (Entire Search) and Average CPU (Time elapsed up to the best). The first measurement indicates the total time allowed for HCSS before termination and the second one is the amount of time elapsed in the search until the best solution for that instance is

found. The deviation and computational time results presented in this section show the average of all final outcomes which are obtained with the selected seeds separately. The minimum and maximum values of these results for each instance are given in Appendix F Table F.5 to Table F.7.

Table 5.17. Final results for HCSS approach – 40-job problem set- SMTWT

40-JOB PROBLEM SET				
METHOD		SS	SS + FVNS	HCSS
REFERENCE SET	<i>Best</i>	10	10	10
	<i>Diverse</i>	10	10	10
	<i>Method</i>	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	<i>Size</i>	150	150	150
	<i>Method</i>	SEED-SCR	SEED-SCR	SEED-SCR
POOL	<i>Size</i>	85	85	85
SUBSET GENERATION	<i>Type</i>	size-2	size-2	size-2
SOLUTION	<i>Type</i>	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α
COMBINATION METHOD	α	0.5	0.5	0.5
ALPHA STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	after 30	after 30	after MVNS
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5
	Δ	0.005	0.005	0.005
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	NONE	VNS	VNS
	<i>Type of VNS</i>	NONE	FINAL	MIDDLE
	<i>Search depth</i>	NONE	4-5-6	4-5-6
	<i>When</i>	NONE	after SS	after 30
STOPPING CRITERION	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	after 60	after 60	after 60
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (5 seed averaged)		0.20	0.15	0.03
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (minimum)		0.17	0.10	0.01
AVERAGE CPU (Entire search-5 seed averaged)		37.80	37.97	71.19
AVERAGE CPU (Time elapsed up to best 5 seed averaged)		7.81	24.36	16.93

In order to illustrate the performance of our hybrid method (HCSS), it is compared against two SS approaches; one with no intensification strategy and one with a final VNS. SS algorithms used in comparison contain same components and same parameter values as the ones utilized by HCSS. The only difference is the absence of an intensification strategy. The structure of compared algorithms and employed advanced methods are all given in Table 5.17 to the Table 5.19. All algorithms are executed until a predefined stopping criterion and come up with a best solution for each instance. For the final VNS

case, the best solution found by the SS is explored intensively by using a VNS as described in Section 4.1.6. The execution times of all methods reported in tables are all given in terms of non-improved iterations, i.e. the term after 30 cites that the method is implemented after 30 non-improved consecutive iterations.

Table 5.18. Final results for HCSS approach – 50-job problem set-SMTWT

50-JOB PROBLEM SET				
METHOD		SS	SS + FVNS	HCSS
REFERENCE SET	<i>Best</i>	10	10	10
	<i>Diverse</i>	10	10	10
	<i>Method</i>	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	<i>Size</i>	150	150	150
	<i>Method</i>	SEED-SCR	SEED-SCR	SEED-SCR
POOL	<i>Size</i>	85	85	85
SUBSET GENERATION	<i>Type</i>	size-2	size-2	size-2
SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD	<i>Type</i>	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5
	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
ALPHA STRATEGY	<i>When</i>	after 30	after 30	after MVNS
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5
	Δ	0.005	0.005	0.005
	<i>Type</i>	NONE	VNS	VNS
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	<i>Type of VNS</i>	NONE	FINAL	MIDDLE
	<i>Search depth</i>	NONE	4-5-6	4-5-6
	<i>When</i>	NONE	after SS	after 30
	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
STOPPING CRITERION	<i>When</i>	after 60	after 60	after 60
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (5 seed averaged)		0.51	0.38	0.11
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (minimum)		0.47	0.31	0.09
AVERAGE CPU (Entire search-5 seed averaged)		55.96	57.14	95.47
AVERAGE CPU (Time elapsed up to best 5 seed averaged)		20.98	44.77	31.23

According to the results given in Table 5.17 to Table 5.19, HCSS algorithm clearly outperforms the other algorithms. By applying an intensification strategy, the deviation value 0.20 is decreased to 0.03 for 40-job problem set, from 0.51 to 0.11 for 50-job and from 1.07 to 0.50 for 100-job problem set. Although the execution times of HCSS are longer than normal SS, this handicap seems negligible when the reduction in average per cent deviation is considered with respect to this extra time. Therefore our intensification

strategy proves its quality and performance when integrated with the Scatter Search methodology.

Table 5.19. Final results for HCSS approach – 100-job problem set-SMTWT

100-JOB PROBLEM SET				
METHOD		SS	SS + FVNS	HCSS
REFERENCE SET	<i>Best</i>	10	10	10
	<i>Diverse</i>	10	10	10
	<i>Method</i>	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	<i>Size</i>	150	150	150
	<i>Method</i>	SEED-SCR	SEED-SCR	SEED-SCR
POOL	<i>Size</i>	85	85	85
SUBSET GENERATION	<i>Type</i>	size-2	size-2	size-2
SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD	<i>Type</i>	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5
ALPHA STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	after 30	after 30	after MVNS
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5
	Δ	0.005	0.005	0.005
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	NONE	VNS	VNS
	<i>Type of VNS</i>	NONE	FINAL	MIDDLE
	<i>Search depth</i>	NONE	4-5-6	4-5-6
	<i>When</i>	NONE	after SS	after 30
STOPPING CRITERION	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	after 60	after 60	after 60
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (5 seed averaged)		1.07	0.65	0.50
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (minimum)		0.98	0.53	0.44
AVERAGE CPU (Entire search-5 seed averaged)		138.33	145.02	236.69
AVERAGE CPU (Time elapsed up to best 5 seed averaged)		70.95	140.85	144.18

Comparing the performance of HCSS with respect to given problem sets, it is obvious that our algorithm is significantly sensitive to the size of the problem set. For 40-job and 50-job instances it performs satisfactorily and solves optimally 88.64 per cent and 76.64 per cent of the 125 instances. If the best performing seed is considered, then these percentages become 90.6 for 40-jobs and 78.4 for 50-job problem set. On the other hand, best known solutions found for 100-job problem set drop below 50 per cent of the total instances. This is simply due to the fact that as the problem size increases, the problem becomes harder to solve. This hardness is reflected on the algorithm as “difficulty to

converge” to the global optimum. Although, the performance of HCSS is not so adequate when finding the best known solutions, the algorithm succeeds to solve this harder problem set with a 0.50 average per cent deviation per instance.

To sum up, the scope of this study is to develop a meta-heuristic approach, which is robust to all problem sets. Instead of constructing problem-specific algorithms which are using different parameter values depending on the problem size, a unique algorithm is established aiming to come up with minimum average per cent deviation for all problem sets. In other words, HCSS approach developed in this section utilized same components and same parameter values for each problem set. During the numerical experimentation, the overall performance is taken into account when adapting advanced methods to the elementary HCSS model. In addition to that better results for some problem instances were found by tested strategies which is different than the adapted one, but they were not inserted to the main algorithm because of their problem-specific achievements. The best found solutions during the numerical experimentation are given in Appendix F.

5.5. Numerical Experimentation for PMTT

The basic model employed for the preliminary experimentation of the PMTT problem, uses a reference set consists of 10 high quality and 10 diverse solutions. The initial solutions are generated by EDD method which is described in Section 4.2.2. Initial solution set size is considered as 150. Best solutions are selected from the reserve list whereas diverse solutions are chosen according to their start time distances to the reference set. The solution combination method employs BLX- α operator where α equals to 0.5 and the generated trial solutions are stored in the pool which has a room for 100 offspring. In this elementary model, no intensification strategy such as MVNS or FVNS is performed. The dynamic stopping rule as aforementioned performs at least as good as fix iteration termination rule and in addition to that, it prevents the algorithm to end before investigating lately found best solutions’ neighborhoods which may be observed in fix iteration situation. Therefore, the stopping criterion in the basic algorithm is decided to be the dynamic rule as implemented in SMTWT problem. The used components and fix parameter values of our basic HCSS algorithm is presented in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20. Basic HCSS algorithm- PMTT

	BASIC HCSS
REFERENCE SET	
UPDATE METHOD	2-tier + start
# of BEST	10
# of DIVERSE	10
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	
GENERATION METHOD	EDD
# of INITIAL SOL's	150
POOL	
SIZE	100
SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD	
ALPHA STRATEGY	STATIC
ALPHA VALUE	0.5
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	
TYPE OF VNS	NO
SEARCH DEPTH	X
STOPPING CRITERION	
TYPE	DYNAMIC
# of NON-IMPROVING ITERATIONS	50

As the first step of experimentation, two diverse selection methods (*rank and start*), two initial solution generation methods (*EFT and EDD*) and three pool sizes (*ALL*, *100* and *85*) are tested by taking all their combinations (See Table 5.21). The aim is to eliminate those strategies that do not yield satisfactory results and to retain the most promising combinations to further analyses. Figure 5.13 presents the results for this step. From the figure, it can be seen that all combinations containing enlarged pool size (*ALL*) result in poor optimums when compared to restricted pool sizes. Hence, the pool including all generated subsets will not be utilized for the following experimentations. Pool size 100 seems outperforming beyond the other pool sizes; but more experimentation with different combinations at further steps of the development procedure should be performed to prove its superiority. When comparing initial solutions sets, it is obvious that the final results are highly unsteady depending on the elements of HCSS algorithm, to which initial solutions generation method combines. For instance, it is not a consistent conclusion that *EFT* is the best performing initial solutions generation method by looking at a few exceptions. Although the best average per cent deviation value is obtained by *EFT rank 100* as 6.68, *EFT start ALL* and *EFT start 85* result in 16.89 and 10.85 respectively which are the worst deviations observed according to pool size categorization. Same situation is noted once

evaluating the diverse solutions selection methods. EFT rank 100 grants best average per cent deviations whereas *EDD rank 100* comes up with a value 13.58. Thus, no exact choice between start and rank diverse solutions selection methods can be made at this level. Since the pool size of our HCSS can not be determined, the experimental results related to tested combinations are divided into two groups according to their pool sizes for further analyses. Experimental data corresponding to pool size 100 and pool size 85 will be given in separate figures different than each other.

Table 5.21. HCSS for PMTT - comparison of pool sizes and distance measurement methods

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
EFT	2-TIER	START	ALL,100,85	NO	X	0.5	DYNAMIC
EDD	2-TIER	RANK	ALL,100,85	NO	X	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT	2-TIER	RANK	ALL,100,85	NO	X	0.5	DYNAMIC
EDD	2-TIER	START	ALL,100,85	NO	X	0.5	DYNAMIC

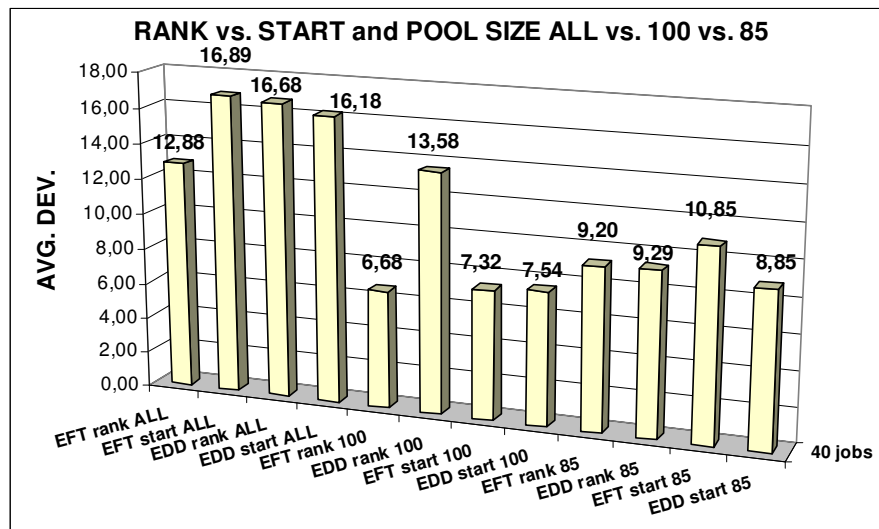


Figure 5.13. Comparison results for pool sizes and distance measurement methods

The next step is to determine a suitable VNS depth for our HCSS approach. During the experimentation phase, middle VNS (*type #2*) is employed as described in section 4.2.4. Again, MVNS is triggered at the end of consecutive 30 non-improved iterations. Since PMTT problem consist of both sequencing and allocation problem, we neglected large search depths, which cause heavy computational burdens for such a challenging

problem. In contrast, small depth values can not provide an efficient neighborhood generation tool and due to its narrow-scope exploration, the intensification strategy becomes a superficial method. For this reason, search depth 3-4-5 and 4-5-6 are considered as the most suitable variable depths according to their performance-time ratio and tested with MVNS. The results are given in Figure 5.14 and Figure 5.15. Examining Figure 5.14, the performances of MVNS 3-4-5 and MVNS 4-5-6 are very close to level of being almost identical. MVNS 4-5-6 outperforms its candidate slightly among three of the four tested combinations whereas *EFT start 85* cooperated with MVNS 3-4-5 shows an exceptional success. The required proof to conclude our comparison comes from the experiments conducted with pool size 100. Although the overall average per cent deviation values are not as good as we found with pools size 85, the performance difference can be clearly observed among all columns of the Figure 5.15. Since, we are not concerned with the best combination of pool sizes, initial sets or diverse solution methods; aiming only to investigate the search depth at this stage; 4-5-6 seems an appropriate choice as the depth for variable neighborhood search.

Table 5.22. HCSS for PMTT - comparison of search depths

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	3-4-5	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	RANK	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	RANK	100,85	MVNS	3-4-5	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC

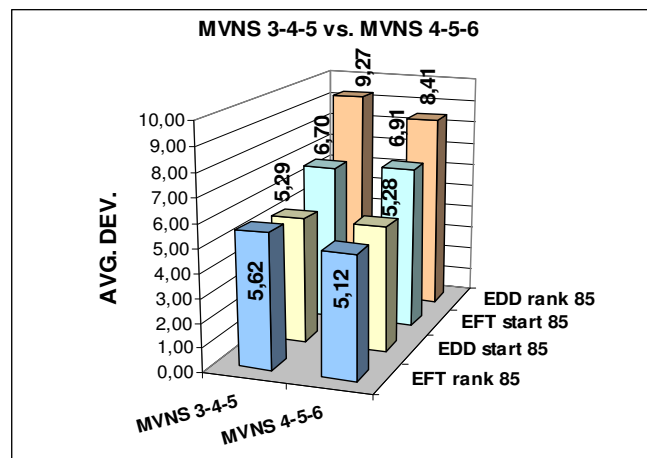


Figure 5.14. Experimental results for compared search depths (pool size 85)

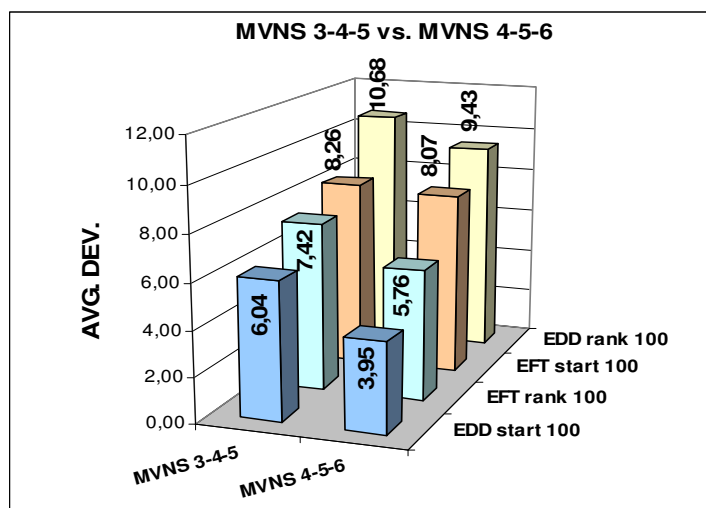


Figure 5.15. Experimental results for compared search depths (pool size 100)

Despite the fact that the best performed search depth is selected, it seems a bit time consuming when employed with MVNS, Therefore, the final VNS is revisited as an intensification alternative which may reduce the execution time without altering the overall performance of the neighborhood search. The experimental results for MVNS 4-5-6 and FVNS 4-5-6 are reported in Figure 5.16 and Figure 5.17 together with the results achieved when no intensification strategy is used. According to the values displayed in both of the figures, MVNS 4-5-6 outperforms FVNS and no VNS noticeably. A final neighborhood search shortens the time needed to implement the algorithm as expected, but it definitely diminishes the performance of intensification strategy. Thus, MVNS 4-5-6 is again adopted for HCSS approach.

Table 5.23. HCSS for PMTT - comparison of different intensification strategies

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	RANK	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	START	100,85	FVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	RANK	100,85	FVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	START	100,85	NO	X	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	RANK	100,85	NO	X	0.5	DYNAMIC

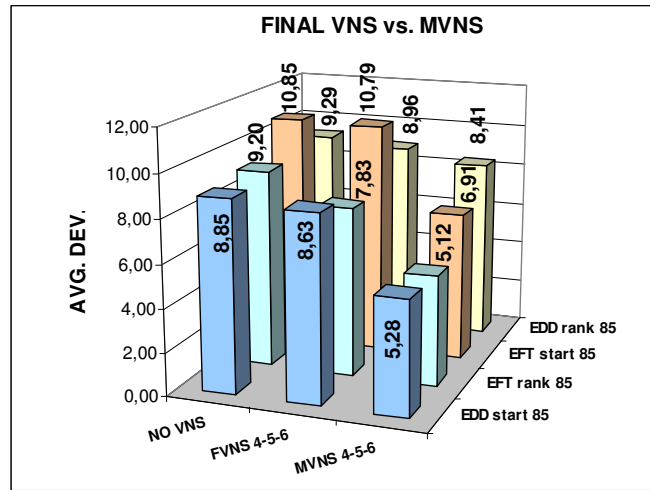


Figure 5.16. Effect of intensification strategy for PMTT problem (pool size 85)

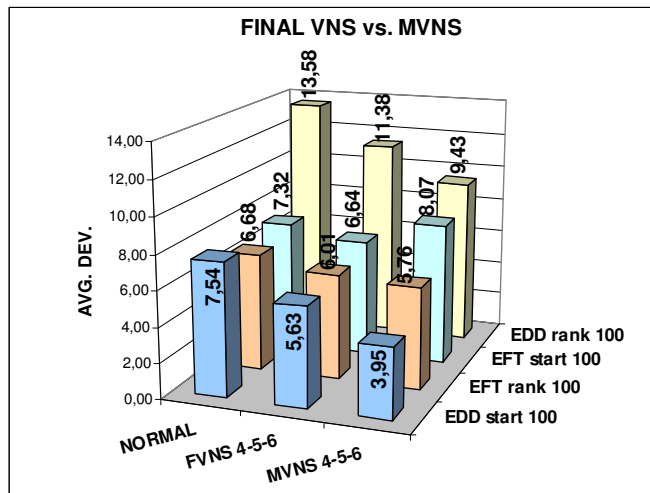


Figure 5.17. Effect of intensification strategy for PMTT problem (pool size 100)

As we mentioned earlier, initial solution generations method is one of the most crucial component of SS. A simple and an applicable prescription for a well-constructed initial solution set is to choose diverse high quality solutions, which are situated in far regions of solutions space and to seed this distinctly structured initial solution set with good solutions provided by list heuristics. EFT and EDD are two methods that are used initially as depicted in Section 4.2.2 EFT method generate somewhat more structured results than EDD method. It strictly depends on the ready time of the jobs. Start time of each job is selected randomly from an interval generated by the formula 4.6. Then these

start times are sorted in order of non-decreasing times and a sequence is obtained. Two initial trial solutions with similar sequences mostly result in close or even same total tardiness values. For the problem instances where given ready times are not so adjacent, the intervals which are formed with respect to these ready times, do not interfere with each other frequently. As a result, randomly selected start times can not provide sufficient alternatives when sorted and the sequence is somehow similar to the one obtained after sorting jobs according to their non-decreasing ready times. In this manner, initial solution set occupies the part of the search space dominated by solutions generated by earliest ready time dispatching rule. Hence, it is a valid argument that this set is a collection of similar solutions and limits the diversity of initial reference set.

Contrarily, consider EDD method where the jobs are assigned to the machines randomly and then sorted according to their due dates. Job with an earlier completion necessity gets the precedence to be processed on that assigned machine. This type of initial solution method meets the demand for required diverse solutions but fails to generate elite solutions of adequate quality. The reason behind this handicap is that EDD dispatching rule is mainly developed for single machine scheduling problem and stand alone can not respond parallel machine problems efficiently. In order to compensate inability of EDD method while creating good solutions, we developed an advanced version called multi-rule method. In addition to EDD rule, SPT and XR&M rules are also utilized to order jobs on a given machine as explained in Section 4.2.2. By doing so, all alternative dispatch orders resulted from employed heuristics are compared and the best among all is selected. Consequently, it is guaranteed that even in the worst case, the initial solution will be as good as the solutions obtained by EDD rule. This advance version therefore improves the solution quality related to total tardiness value.

To demonstrate structural characteristics and variances between the individuals in the initial solution set, a randomly selected problem instance is taken into account and three different sets are constructed by using predefined generation methods. The results are given in Figure 5.18. The best known total tardiness value found in the literature is considered as the lower bound and the deviations are calculated as follows;

$$\text{deviation} = (\text{initial solutions' fitness value} - \text{lower bound}) / \text{lower bound} \quad (5.5)$$

According to these results, EFT shows a uniform distribution, whereas EDD and multi-rule provide non-homogenous chaotic distributions. This chaotic distribution indicates the dissimilarity of the internal structure and grant different quality diverse solutions. In addition to that, multi-rule behaves as a regulation mechanism that adjusts dispatching rules, screens the solutions with same fitness value and improve the overall quality of the initial pool. Therefore it can be called as structured family of a chaotic population.

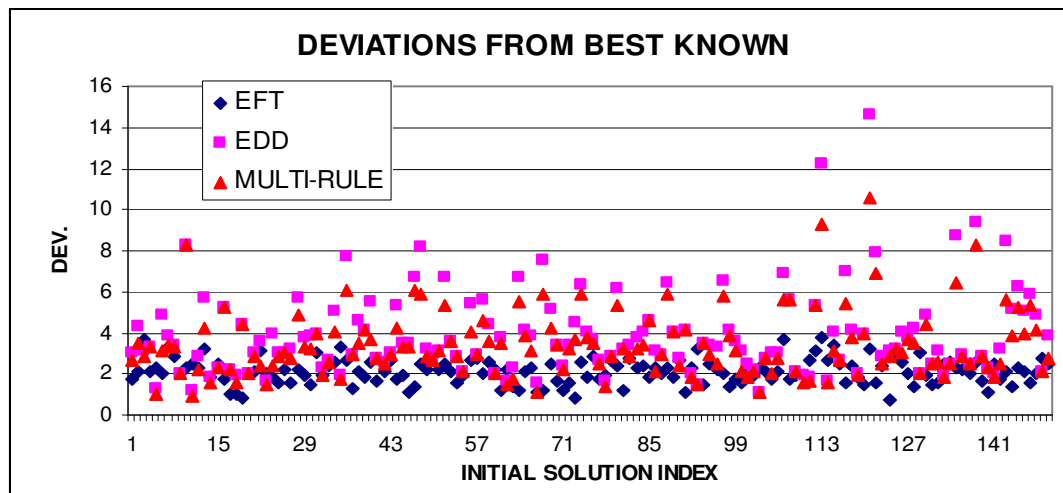


Figure 5.18. Structural characteristics of initial solution set for three different methods

The experimentations are conducted to compare these three initial solutions generation methods. Instead of considering all diverse solution selection methods and pool size combinations, only the best performing combinations; namely start 100, start 85 and rank 85 are tested with initial solution method. The results are shown in Figure 5.20. It is obvious that multi-rule is superior when compared to the previous methods in all cases and reduces the best average per cent deviations of 3.95 to 3.11. So, multi-rule strategy is included in our HCSS approach.

Table 5.24. HCSS for PMTT - comparison of different initial solution generation methods

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
EFT, EDD	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC

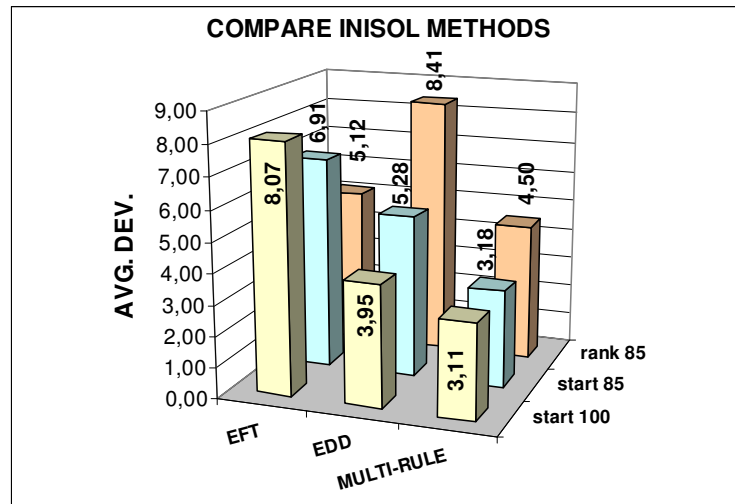


Figure 5.19. Experimental results for initial solution generation methods for PMTT

In order to implement a comprehensive intensification procedure, VNS should generate all possible neighborhoods based on both machine and job sequences. As described in Section 4.2.4, three different types of VNS approaches are developed and applied in succession to all elite elements of reference set (MULTISTEP). This intensification strategy aims to accomplish two main goals. First goal is to explore all reachable neighborhoods which can be originated from a single solution and the second one is to examine all high quality solutions which may promise better results.

In the numerical analyses, the new strategy is combined with the new initial solution generation method and the results are compared with previous intensification method that utilizes single step MVNS to first three elite solutions. The first type VNS is triggered at the end of 15 consecutive non-improved iterations, second type is implemented after 25 non-improved iterations and finally last type is executed when the best solution VNS counter indicates the number 35. During the preliminary experimentations of the multi-step VNS, it is discovered that the first type VNS with search depth 4-5-6 causes a great computational burden to the algorithm because of the corresponding outnumbered machine assignment alternatives. Therefore, the search depth for the first type VNS is decreased to 3-4-5 as an exception in order to reduce intensification strategy execution time. This exception is only valid for the first type, whereas the second and third type VNS techniques are implemented with 4-5-6. The average per cent deviations are given in

Figure 5.20. As expected, new intensification strategy outperforms its superficial candidate and reduces deviations from 3.11 to 1.71 for start 100, from 3.18 to 1.98 for start 85 and from 4.50 to 2.96 for rank 85. Hence, the new strategy is adapted to HCSS approach for PMTT.

Table 5.25. HCSS for PMTT - comparison of new intensification strategy

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC

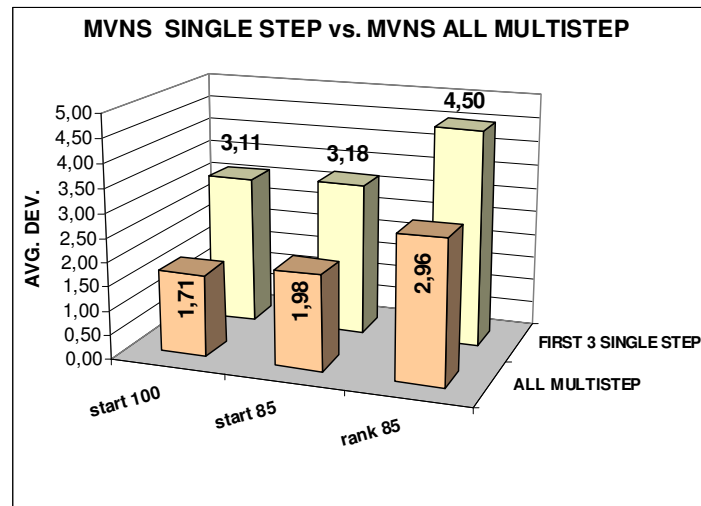


Figure 5.20. Effect of new intensification strategy

Another important issue is to investigate consistency of the dynamic alpha strategy for PMTT problem. In this strategy, α is fixed at 0.5 during a period of time determined by a switch. When the switch becomes on, α is increased by 0.005 at the end of every iteration that passes without achieving any improvement. Mentioned strategy is tested throughout PMTT problem instances by conducting experiment that utilize HCSS approach stated in Table 5.26. The corresponding results are presented in Figure 5.21. The superiority of dynamic alpha strategy can be proven by looking at the deviation reductions among all cases, where the best found average per cent deviation value is decreased to 1.56 for start 100 combination.

Table 5.26. HCSS for PMTT – comparison of alpha strategies

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC

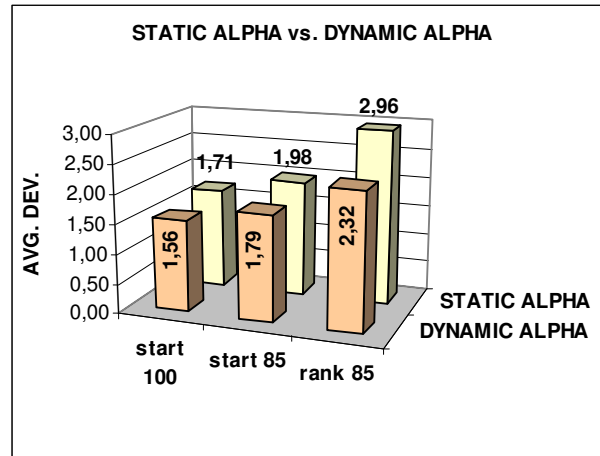


Figure 5.21. Comparison of static alpha vs. dynamic alpha

Finally, the reference set update method is revisited and preceding improvement techniques, which are used in SMTWT, are experimented for parallel machine scheduling problem. Starting with the diverse solution selection method, a mixed selection procedure is implemented, where half of diverse solutions are selected by start distance and other half is selected using rank distance measurement method. According to the results reported in Figure 5.22 mixed selection with pool size 100 shows a better performance with respect to start distance with same pool size. On the other hand, mix 85 comes up with an average per cent deviation 1.81 which stays between 1.79 of start 85 and 2.32 of rank 85. Hence the three combinations with the lowest deviations (start 100, mixed 100 and mixed 85) are promoted to the final experimentation which will be conducted to verify the success of 3-tier design for PMTT problem.

Table 5.27. HCSS for PMTT – comparison of mix diverse solution selection method

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	RANK	85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC
MULTI	2-TIER	MIX	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC

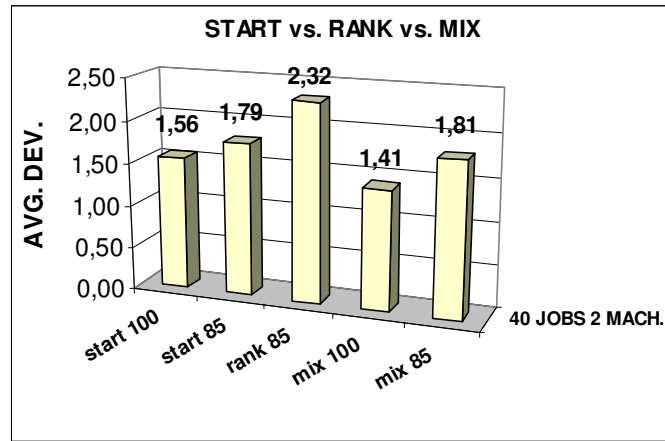


Figure 5.22. Numerical analysis for diverse solution selection methods

Table 5.28. HCSS for PMTT – 3-tier design of reference set

INISOL	REFSET	DISTANCE	POOL	VNS	DEPTH	ALPHA	STOP
MULTI	2-TIER	START	100	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC
MULTI	3-TIER	MIX	100,85	MVNS ALL	4-5-6	0.5+	DYNAMIC

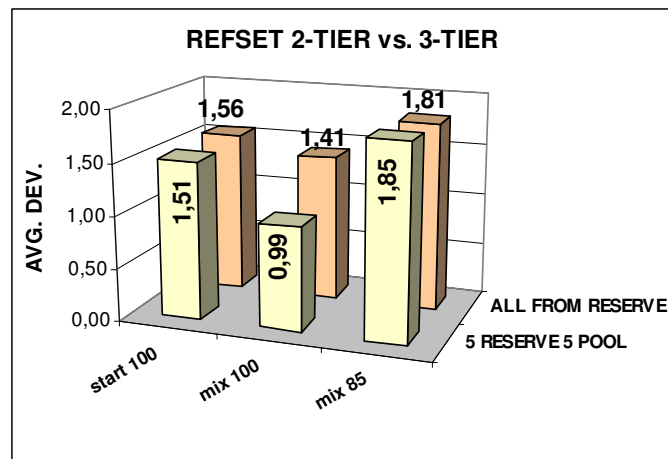


Figure 5.23. Effects of new reference set update methods for PMTT

Due to its elite solution selection procedure, 3-tier design provides fresh solutions for the reference set at the end of each iteration. These newly visited solutions increase the chance of obtaining a better optimum during neighborhood search which is performed for all elites. Based on this argument, new reference set update method is employed for HCSS

approach as the final improvement strategy that concludes experimental analysis section. Being modified with the earlier developments which are presented in Table 5.28, HCSS algorithm is executed for numerical analysis and the results are reported in Figure 5.23. The average per cent deviation at the final stage is now reduced to 0.99 which is accomplished by the cooperation of new diverse selection method and new reference set design. Therefore, considered reference set update method is adapted to HCSS approach and the experimental analysis section is ended.

5.5.1. Final Results

Depending on the nature of the PMTT problem, the improvement methods used in SMTWT problem can not be copied to our HCSS algorithm. Some of these methods are revised partially or constructed from the beginning in order to be employed in the algorithm. Then the aforementioned methods are tested and adapted to HCSS according to the comparative results obtained by numerical experimentations. At the end of analysis, the modified HCSS approach, which can be implemented for all job set problem, is achieved. Different from the ultimate model used in SMTWT, the fine-tuned algorithm composed of a new initial solution generation method that employs a multi-rule to generate initial set (MULTI), an advance reference set update method which contains different quality best and diverse solutions (3-tier + mix distance), an extended multi-step intensification strategy where three different types of VNS is implemented to explore all possible neighborhoods of the current solution (MVNS ALL) and a self-adjustable alpha parameter ($0.5+\Delta$) which control the diversification of generated new solutions. In addition to that the dynamic stopping criterion allows the algorithm to decide its own termination time depending on the search performance. This final form of the HCSS approach is now tested on four types of problems which are encountered with two main job sets: one with 40-jobs with 2 or 4 machines in parallel, the second with 60-jobs with 2 or 4 machines in parallel.

Since our HCSS approach for PMTT contains stochastic parameters, five different seeds are again used for the random number generator employed in the algorithm. The seeds are selected to be 1,3,7,9 and 24. The performance measures is again average per cent deviation which is calculated as described previously and computational times are reported as Average CPU (Entire Search) and Average CPU (Time elapsed up to the best).

The deviation and computational time results presented in this section show the average of all final outcomes which are obtained with the selected seeds separately. The maximum and minimum results obtained by different seeds are given in Table F.10 and Table F.11.

Table 5.29. Final results for HCSS approach – 40-job PMTT problem set

40-JOB PROBLEM SET					
METHOD		2-MACHINE		4-MACHINE	
		SS	HCSS	SS	HCSS
REFERENCE SET	<i>Best</i>	10	10	10	10
	<i>Diverse</i>	10	10	10	10
	<i>Method</i>	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	<i>Size</i>	150	150	150	150
	<i>Method</i>	MULTI	MULTI	MULTI	MULTI
POOL	<i>Size</i>	100	100	100	100
SUBSET GENERATION	<i>Type</i>	size-2	size-2	size-2	size-2
SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD	<i>Type</i>	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
ALPHA STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	25	after MVNS	25	after MVNS
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
	Δ	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	NONE	MVNS ALL	NONE	MVNS ALL
	<i>Type of VNS</i>	NONE	Multi-step	NONE	Multi-step
	<i>Search depth</i>	NONE	4-5-6	NONE	4-5-6
	<i>When</i>	NONE	after 15-25-35	NONE	after 15-25-35
STOPPING CRITERION	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	after 50	after 50	after 50	after 50
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (5 seed averaged)		10.28	0.76	23.03	5.33
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (minimum)		8.52	0.43	12.91	4.70
AVERAGE CPU (Entire search-5 seed averaged)		72.17	140.6	64.24	88.51
AVERAGE CPU (Time elapsed up to best 5 seed averaged)		24.72	102.17	51.38	70.81

Similar to the comparison performed in Section 5.4.1, HCSS approach is evaluated against the SS with no intensification strategy. SS algorithm employed in comparison contains same components and same parameter values used in HCSS, -except the intensification method. The main objective is to criticize the performance of hybrid approach with respect to the time penalty associated with computational burden of exploitation step. The structure of compared algorithms and employed advanced methods

are all given in Table 5.29 and Table 5.30. All algorithms are executed until a predefined stopping criterion and come up with a best solution for each instance. The execution times of all methods reported in tables are all given in terms of non-improved iterations.

Table 5.30. Final results for HCSS approach – 60-job PMTT problem set

60-JOB PROBLEM SET					
METHOD		2-MACHINE		4-MACHINE	
		SS	HCSS	SS	HCSS
REFERENCE SET	<i>Best</i>	10	10	10	10
	<i>Diverse</i>	10	10	10	10
	<i>Method</i>	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix	3-tier + mix
INITIAL SOLUTION SET	<i>Size</i>	150	150	150	150
	<i>Method</i>	MULTI	MULTI	MULTI	MULTI
POOL	<i>Size</i>	100	100	100	100
SUBSET GENERATION	<i>Type</i>	size-2	size-2	size-2	size-2
SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD	<i>Type</i>	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α	BLX- α
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
ALPHA STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	25	after MVNS	25	after MVNS
	α	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
	Δ	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005
INTENSIFICATION STRATEGY	<i>Type</i>	NONE	MVNS ALL	NONE	MVNS ALL
	<i>Type of VNS</i>	NONE	Multi-step	NONE	Multi-step
	<i>Search depth</i>	NONE	4-5-6	NONE	4-5-6
	<i>When</i>	NONE	After 15-25-35	NONE	after 15-25-35
STOPPING CRITERION	<i>Type</i>	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic	Dynamic
	<i>When</i>	after 50	after 50	after 50	after 50
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (5 seed averaged)		26.81	3.10	72.23	11.54
AVERAGE PER CENT DEV (minimum)		24.33	3.01	60.85	11.08
AVERAGE CPU (Entire search-5 seed averaged)		110.58	286.35	64.24	101.96
AVERAGE CPU (Time elapsed up to best 5 seed averaged)		45.02	214.45	51.38	82.22

According to the results given in Table 5.29 and Table 5.30, intensification procedure again proves its necessity for the SS methodology. By applying a hybrid approach, the deviation value is decreased from 10.28 to 0.76 for 40-job 2-machine problem set, from 23.03 to 5.33 for 40-job 4-machine, from 26.81 to 3.10 for 60-job 2-machine problem set and finally the deviation value 72.23 reduced to 11.54 for the 60-job 4-machine problem. Similar to the HCSS used in SMTWT, the execution time of the

hybrid approach outperforms its candidate SS. Hence, the high computational times are still being observed. This is not a surprise for us, since the PMTT is more challenging problem than SMTWT. In PMTT, ready times, machine dependent process times and sequential setup times are all presented to reflect a real-life situation. These properties promote the solution space into a more complex environment which makes it harder to find an optimal solution in a shorter time.

Focusing on the performance of HCSS with respect to given problem sets, the reported results are quite satisfactory for 4-machine problems. The algorithm manages to solve optimally the 16.8 and 13.2 of the 20 instances for 40-job and 60-job problem sets respectively. However, the obtained average per cent deviation values appear higher when compared to 2-machine cases. This is due to the fact that the optimal total tardiness values corresponding to some instances of 4-machine problems are very low; thus small deviations between the found and optimal total tardiness values result in great average per cent deviations. (See Table F.8 and Table F.9). The more challenging problems are 2-machine problems especially the one containing 60-jobs. From the Table 5.29 and Table 5.30, the average per cent deviations for 40-job and 60-job problem sets are 0.76 and 3.10 respectively. If the best performing seed is considered, then these deviations become 0.43 for 40-jobs and 3.01 for 60-job problem set. These results seem satisfactory for our HCSS approach when compared to normal SS approach. As a remark, the HCSS algorithm outperforms some of the previous best known solutions found by Bilge et al. (2004) (See Appendix F.2). Therefore, our approach can be considered as a promising solution tool the tardiness related scheduling problems.

In the next section, the conclusive remarks are stated about the HCSS approach. The solution encoding, basic fundamentals, the driven ideas, advantages and disadvantages of HCSS algorithm are all discussed to provide a road book for future studies.

6. CONCLUSION

This study was designed to attack Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness and Parallel Machine Total Tardiness problems by employing a hybrid meta-heuristic approach and to evaluate its performance. The Scatter Search and Variable Neighborhood Search approaches are studied and tailored to meet the theoretical requirements of the problems under study. Throughout the study, the solutions to the Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness problem (SMTWT) and the Parallel Machine Total Tardiness problem (PMTT) are investigated. Performance criterion adopted for the SMTWT is to minimize the total weighted tardiness of all jobs and similarly for the PMTT, the aim is to diminish the total tardiness. The problem sets and corresponding best-known solutions employed in this investigation are adopted from the literature (Crauwels et al., 1998, Sivrikaya-Şerifoğlu, 1999).

While evolving our algorithm, numerical studies are conducted for each distinct solution strategy. Since the total number of combinatorial strategy approaches to be tested is very large, a sequential experimentation procedure is adopted. First, the HCSS approach is implemented in its most elementary form, which we call the basic algorithm. Then this basic algorithm is developed into its ultimate form by adapting strategies according to the experimentation results. At each experiment, we test one or more parameters/methods and select one (or sometimes more) level that perform at least as good as the others for each instance, and go on with this revised form of the algorithm.

For the SMTWT case, three types of problem sets are encountered, one with 40-jobs, the second with 50-jobs and the last with 100-jobs. Each of these sets involves 125 instances. Each instance is associated with a distinct process time, weight and due date. All these alternative problem sets are studied throughout this study and the results are obtained as: For the 40-job SMTWT problem, when the performance of five seeds is averaged, HCSS succeeds to have a 0.03 average per cent deviation from the best-known solution for each instance. If the best performing seed is taken into account, then this percentage decreases to 0.01 per cent. Similarly, for the 50-job problem HCSS obtains 0.11 average per cent deviation for 125 instances. If the best performing seed is considered, then this

percentage reduces down to 0.09 per cent. Finally, for the 100-job problem HCSS manages to attain average 0.50 per cent deviation from the best known solutions found in the literature. The best performing seed has a success 0.44 per cent.

For the PMTT case, the analyzed problem is formulated as follows. Four types of problems are encountered with two main job sets: one with 40-jobs with 2 or 4 machines in parallel, the second with 60-jobs with 2 or 4 machines in parallel. Each of these operations involves 20 instances. Each instance is associated with distinct process times, ready times, sequence dependent setup times and due dates. Attained results are given as: For the 40-job 2 machine case, HCSS achieves average deviation of 20 instances from the best known solution is at 0.76 per cent. If the best performing seed is taken into account, then this percentage goes down to 0.43 per cent. For the 40-job 4 machine case, average deviation of 20 instances from the best known solution is at 5.33 per cent. If the best performing seed is considered account, then this percentage is obtained as 4.73 per cent. For the 60-job 2 machine case, HCSS finds an average deviation of 20 instances from the best known solution at 3.10 per cent. If the best performing seed is taken into account, then this percentage reduces to 3.01 per cent. Finally the 60 job 4 machine case is studied. Our algorithm HCSS achieves an average deviation 11.54 per cent from the best known solution. If the best performing seed is encountered, the average per cent deviation is at 11.08 per cent.

Scatter Search is an emerging meta-heuristic approach in scheduling era. The developed methods are limited and there is not a huge source of unique procedures for tardiness related scheduling problems. Hence, it was not possible to use the available methods directly in all chosen problem domains. The strategies, definitions and methodologies explained in previous chapters are either amendments to existing methods or most of the time, original procedures developed to provide a different point of view for HCSS approach when it becomes incapable of effectively solving the problems at hand by using standard methods. The most noteworthy of these new strategies tested are:

- The use of a continuous solution encoding for a scheduling problem which is usually represented in discrete fashion.

- The use of an adaptive strategy in the solution combination by dynamically varying α value which determines the flexibility in creating an offspring.
- The distance measures proposed for measuring diversity.
- The idea of using multiple distance measures in selecting diverse solutions.

First of all, the solution space is considered as a continuous space and a real number encoded vector representation is introduced to map each and every solution hidden in the this space. Since Scatter Search uses weighted linear combinations of several solutions to produce new solutions; by employing linear combinations of start times, we express complex neighborhoods of a considered sequence in the search space. This also means that a given permutation can be reached from many other points in the continuous search space and allows an interesting flexibility property in terms of neighborhoods defined on the solution space. This new approach is supported with BLX- α operator which is one of the most effective combination methods developed for real-coded continuous GAs and with an alpha strategy which depends on dynamically changing α values. These methods favor the production of diversity in the population and prevent premature convergences. A similar representation was introduced by Bean (1994) where random numbers from zero to one are employed to encode a solution. These values are used as sort keys to determine a sequence of activities. However, in order to evaluate the performance of real number encoding, same study should be conducted with a proper discrete encoding where solutions are represented by permutation sequences and obtained results should be compared with each other.

As mentioned before, reference set plays the key role in SS method. All new solutions are originating from the combinations of elite and diverse solutions which are stored in this set. Therefore, the reference set should be constructed wisely to meet the demand for both high quality and dissimilar new solutions that are located at far regions of the solution space. In order to fulfill the mentioned requirement, an advanced reference set update method is developed in this study, which is feed from different sources. For updating best solutions, a reserve list is introduced as a long-term memory, which keeps the best found solutions during the entire search. Thus, the elite elements of the reference set are selected from both the reserve list and the generated new offspring. In addition to that, two different distance measurement methods, namely start and rank distance, are designed to select diverse solutions. These methods are new and have never been used

before as a diverse solution selection method in SS. When their performances are compared, the cooperation of both methods outperforms their individual performances, which is consistent with the idea behind constructing a set of dissimilar solutions. To sum up, it is proven that reference should be updated by using various solution selection procedures which leads to different sources of the search space.

Another conclusive remark should be stated for initial solution generation method. After implementing HCSS approach over different structured initial solution sets, it is clearly observed that seeded initial populations provide a better start point for the algorithm with respect to their randomly generated candidates. These seeded solutions are obtained by employing list heuristics as cited in the literature.

As a final remark, it is noteworthy that without an intensification strategy, the capabilities of Scatter Search are very limited. In its most basic form, SS converges to a poor local optimum or cycles around the same diverse solutions. To compensate this handicap, BLX- α method and dynamic alpha strategies are adapted to our HCSS approach. But, these methods alone are not sufficient to come up with superior optimum results. Therefore an intensification strategy, which implements a VNS to explore the neighborhoods of promising solutions, is integrated to our approach. The results with and without an intensification phase are so obvious that HCSS outperforms normal SS in every circumstances. One main disadvantageous aspect of the intensification strategy is the high execution time. This is mostly due to the fact that a high level programming tool, MATLAB, is used instead of a lower language and the code is not optimized in terms of time efficiency. The observed high computational times are also due to the intensive effort required for local improvement. This can be observed apparently in PMTT problems where we employ a three step VNS. For instance, when the optimal solution performance and the corresponding computation times of the HCSS method and related other algorithms are compared for the SMTWT problem, it is observed that the HCSS method tends to satisfactory results with reasonable execution time. When the performance of HCSS method is investigated for the PMTT problem, the computation time is relatively longer. The intensification strategy employed for the PMTT problem leads to repetitive VNS steps of different types. In addition to that algorithm is terminated after implementing all VNS

types while achieving no improvement during consecutive runs. Hence, the over-intensive effort results in computational overburdening and loss of time.

As a future study, a control mechanism to adaptively change the size of the reference set with respect to problem size can be devised. Because the HCSS approach with is not quite robust with respect to the size of the problem when attacked with fixed number of best and diverse solutions. The reference set used for small scale problems becomes in capable of covering huge solution space generated by a greater problem size. This situation is observed for SMTWT problem where the average per cent deviation value for 100-job problem set is higher when compared to 40-job and 50-job problem sets. Another modification can be investigated for the intensification strategy. Instead of exploring the whole neighborhood of a solution, a screening mechanism such as the candidate-list strategies employed by TS approach can be developed to decide promising neighborhoods. Also dynamically changing adaptive search depths can be utilized for VNS method.

To summarize, our main aim in this thesis has been to evaluate the performance of SS with respect to TS, GA and their hybrids which already produced highly satisfactory results in scheduling problems. To this end, based on our observations over two very hard tardiness based scheduling problems, it can be said that although SS is a promising strategy to elaborate, enchantments are required for it to cope-up with the aforementioned meta-heuristic approaches.

APPENDIX A: START DISTANCE MEASUREMENT METHOD

The start distance measurement method is demonstrated on an example where eight jobs are scheduled on a single machine. The reference set contains three best and three diverse solutions. The best solutions were already selected and the next step is to choose diverse solutions from a POOL including five different candidate solutions. Best solutions and candidate solutions are given in Table A.1.

Table A.1. Best solutions of reference set and candidate solutions in the pool

		START TIMES								FITNESS
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
BEST	1	1124	1492	1725	687	1530	1118	1106	993	100
	2	1135	1455	1664	632	1493	1005	993	1047	137
	3	1271	1457	1762	687	1567	1118	1106	993	254
CANDIDATE	1	1837	1385	1885	1274	1569	892	1530	898	312
	2	770	1898	1187	818	682	76	139	393	568
	3	175	1834	55	106	1138	866	139	1050	714
	4	1535	794	502	469	381	0	1431	1810	403
	5	483	761	599	199	799	1612	345	111	689

Take two solution, one from reference set and one from POOL .The start distance is calculated by using the equation;

$$\text{dist} = |(st_{job 1})_1 - (st_{job 1})_2| + \dots + |(st_{job j})_1 - (st_{job j})_2| + \dots + |(st_{job n})_1 - (st_{job n})_2|$$

Distance between best solution one & candidate solution one is calculated as follows;

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dist} = & |1124-1837| + |1492-1385| + |1725-1885| + |687-1274| + |1530-1569| + \\ & |1118-892| + |1106-1530| + |993-898| = 2351 \end{aligned}$$

Using the same equation, the distances of other solution combinations are measured;

$$\text{dist. (best 1 \& candidate 2)} = 4886$$

$$\text{dist. (best 1 \& candidate 4)} = 5959$$

$$\text{dist. (best 2 \& candidate 1)} = 2510$$

$$\text{dist. (best 3 \& candidate 5)} = 6040$$

The calculated distance values and minimum of each row are stored in a distance matrix shown in Table A.2.

Table A.2. Measured distances between best & candidate solutions

		BEST			ROW MIN
		1	2	3	
CANDIDATE	1	2351	2510	2095	2095
	2	4886	4719	5142	4719
	3	5210	4825	5466	4825
	4	5959	5704	5851	5704
	5	5854	5729	6040	5729

Candidate solution # 5 corresponding to the maximum of the row minimums (5729) is promoted to the reference set as the diverse solution # 1 and deleted from the POOL. Since candidate solution # 5 is selected, the fifth row of the distance matrix is deleted and a column is inserted next to best solution # 3. Then, only the distances between diverse solution # 1 and remaining candidate solutions are measured and matrix is updated as shown in Table A.3.

Table A.3. Updated distance matrix

		BEST			DIV.	ROW MIN
		1	2	3	1	
CAND.	1	2351	2510	2095	7801	2095
	2	4886	4719	5142	4772	4719
	3	5210	4825	5466	4248	4248
	4	5959	5704	5851	6267	5704

According to maximum of the row minimums rule, candidate solution # 4 is selected as the diverse solution # 2. Fourth row is deleted and a new column is inserted. The updated distances are listed in Table A.4.

Table A.4. Updated distance matrix

		BEST			DIV.		ROW MIN
		1	2	3	1	2	
CAND.	1	2351	2510	2095	7801	6172	2095
	2	4886	4719	5142	4772	5989	4719
	3	5210	4825	5466	4248	6865	4248

Candidate solution # 2 is decided as the last diverse solution for the reference set.
The reference set is updated with new diverse solutions and take the final structure shown in Table A.5.

Table A.5. Final reference set

		START TIMES								FITNESS
BEST	1	1124	1492	1725	687	1530	1118	1106	993	100
	2	1135	1455	1664	632	1493	1005	993	1047	137
	3	1271	1457	1762	687	1567	1118	1106	993	254
DIVERSE	1	770	1898	1187	818	682	76	139	393	568
	2	1535	794	502	469	381	0	1431	1810	403
	3	483	761	599	199	799	1612	345	111	689

APPENDIX B: RANK DISTANCE MEASUREMENT METHOD

The rank distance measurement method is demonstrated on an example problem aiming to schedule eight jobs on a single machine. The reference set contains three best and three diverse solutions. The best solutions were already selected and the next step is to choose diverse solutions from a POOL including five different candidate solutions. Best solutions and candidate solutions are given in Table B.1.

Table B.1. Best solutions of reference set and candidate solutions in the pool

		START TIMES								FITNESS
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
BEST	1	1124	1492	1725	687	1530	1118	1106	993	100
	2	1135	1455	1664	632	1493	1005	993	1047	137
	3	1271	1457	1567	687	1762	1118	993	1106	254
CANDIDATE	1	1837	1385	1885	1274	1569	892	1530	898	312
	2	770	1898	1187	818	682	76	139	393	568
	3	175	1834	55	106	1138	866	139	1050	714
	4	1535	794	502	469	381	0	1431	1810	403
	5	483	761	599	199	799	1612	345	111	689

Rank distance measurement method is constructed on a simple rearrangement procedure where places of numbers are changed with restricted insertion moves aiming to catch a target sequence of these numbers. Our solutions contain start time and fitness values which should be revised to obtain meaningful number sequences. Therefore, start times are sorted in non-decreasing order and corresponding job numbers are noted in same order. The sorted jobs numbers for each job is given in Table B.2.

Table B.2. Rank matrix

		SORTED JOB NUMBERS								FITNESS
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
BEST	1	4	8	7	6	1	2	5	3	100
	2	4	7	6	8	1	2	5	3	137
	3	4	7	8	6	1	2	3	5	254
CANDIDATE	1	6	8	4	2	7	5	1	3	312
	2	6	7	8	5	1	4	3	2	568
	3	3	4	7	1	6	8	5	2	714
	4	6	5	4	3	2	7	1	8	403
	5	8	4	7	1	3	2	5	6	689

In order to measure rank distance between two solutions, one solution is taken from POOL and one from the reference set which is denoted as target sequence. The total number of restricted insertion moves utilized to convert candidate sequence into the target sequence is the rank distance between these two. A restricted insertion move allows only insertion of a job between its two preceding jobs. For example, the rank distance between best solution # 1 & candidate solution # 1 is evaluated as follows;

The target sequence = 4 8 7 6 1 2 5 3

The candidate sequence = 6 8 4 2 7 5 1 3

Start with the job # 4, two insertion moves are needed to place this job into the first place as shown below.

The candidate sequence = 4 6 8 2 7 5 1 3

Next, job # 8 is set to target position with one insertion move.

The candidate sequence = 4 8 6 2 7 5 1 3

For job # 7, two insertion moves is needed.

The candidate sequence = 4 8 7 6 2 5 1 3

And after placing job # 1 into its right place by performing two moves, the target sequence is obtained.

The candidate sequence = 4 8 7 6 1 2 5 3

The total seven insertion moves is needed to convert candidate into target sequence. This rank distance is then stored in a distance matrix. The calculated distance values and minimum of each row are stored in a distance matrix shown in Table B.3.

Table B.3. Distance matrix

		BEST			ROW MIN
		1	2	3	
CANDIDATE	1	7	7	9	7
	2	11	9	11	9
	3	12	10	10	10
	4	17	15	17	15
	5	7	9	7	7

Candidate solution # 4 corresponding to the maximum of the row minimums (15) is promoted to the reference set as the diverse solution # 1 and deleted from the POOL. Since candidate solution # 4 is selected, the fourth row of the distance matrix is deleted and a column is inserted next to best solution # 3. Then, only the distances between diverse solution # 1 and remaining candidate solutions are measured and matrix is updated as shown in Table B.4.

Table B.4. Updated distance matrix

		BEST			DIV.	ROW MIN
		1	2	3	1	
CAND.	1	7	7	9	12	7
	2	11	9	11	12	9
	3	12	10	10	13	10
	5	7	9	7	22	7

According to maximum of the row minimums rule, candidate solution # 3 is selected as the diverse solution # 2. Third row is deleted and a new column is inserted. The updated distances are listed in Table B.5.

Table B.5. Updated distance matrix

		BEST			DIV.		ROW MIN
		1	2	3	1	2	
CAND.	1	7	7	9	12	17	7
	2	11	9	11	12	15	9
	5	7	9	7	22	12	7

Candidate solution # 2 is decided as the last diverse solution for the reference set. The reference set is updated with new diverse solutions and take the final structure shown in Table B.6.

Table B.6. Final reference set

		START TIMES								FITNESS
BEST	1	1124	1492	1725	687	1530	1118	1106	993	100
	2	1135	1455	1664	632	1493	1005	993	1047	137
	3	1271	1457	1567	687	1762	1118	993	1106	254
DIVERSE	1	1535	794	502	469	381	0	1431	1810	403
	2	175	1834	55	106	1138	866	139	1050	714
	3	770	1898	1187	818	682	76	139	393	568

APPENDIX C: SOLUTION COMBINATION METHOD

Let us assume that, the subset generation method produces a subset of two solutions X and Y as a basis for creating combined solution. In order to illustrate the methodology, we provide hypothetical process times, due dates, weights for each job and start times and total tardy values for X and Y as shown below;

Table C.1. Process time, weight and due date of jobs #1,...,8

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8
pt	48	38	51	33	88	6	12	88
wt	4	3	5	8	2	3	8	3
dt	168	315	220	248	151	10	40	33

Table C.2. Two parent solutions

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8	FIT
X	139	187	225	0	276	133	33	45	680
Y	191	323	272	239	103	0	3	15	376

The start time of each job for the new solution will be a randomly selected number from an interval determined by the combination of parent solutions. BLX- α combination method generates an offspring $Z=(Z_{job\#1}, \dots, Z_{job\#n})$ where $Z_{job\#i}$ is a randomly chosen number of the interval $[c_{min} - I.\alpha, c_{max} + I.\alpha]$ where $c_{max}=max(X_{job\#i}, Y_{job\#i})$, $c_{min}=min(X_{job\#i}, Y_{job\#i})$ and $I= c_{max} - c_{min}$ and α is a constant value.

Starting with the job#1;

$$X_{job\#1} = 139, Y_{job\#1} = 191,$$

$$c_{max} = 191, c_{min} = 139 \text{ and } I = (191 - 139) = 52$$

$$interval = [139 - (52 \times 0.5), 191 + (52 \times 0.5)] = [113, 217] \quad // \alpha = 0.5$$

$Z_{job\#1}$ is a randomly selected real number from the interval $[113, 217]$. Suppose that imaginary start time of $Z_{job\#1}$ is chosen as 149.8.

Continuing with job#2;

$$X_{job\#1} = 187, Y_{job\#1} = 323,$$

$$c_{max} = 323, c_{min} = 187 \text{ and } I = (323 - 187) = 136$$

$$interval = [187 - (136 \times 0.5), 323 + (136 \times 0.5)] = [119, 391]$$

$Z_{job\#2}$ is randomly selected as 380.3. The methodology repeats itself until all the start time values are determined. The offspring with temporary start time values is a trial solution. An improvement method is applied to correct start time values and obtain the total tardiness value of the improved solution.

Table C.3. Offspring solution before improvement method

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8
Z	149.8	380.3	233.7	168.4	301.1	10	15.9	33

Improvement method is a simple algorithm that sorts jobs according to their increasing start times and then schedule them on a single machine while computing their real start times and tardy values. Finally, existing values of the pre improved solution are replaced with real values and fitness is inserted into the offspring.

Improvement method	
sort Z in order of non-decreasing start times	
sorted Z = 10 15.9 33 149.8 168.4 233.7 301.1 380.3	
sorted jobs = 6 7 8 1 4 3 5 2	
calculate start time and tardy for each job j, // j=1,..., 8	
job #6 : start time = 0, completion time = 6 , tardy = 0	
job #7 : start time = 6, completion time = 18 , tardy = 0	
job #8 : start time = 18, completion time = 106 , tardy = 219	
job #1 : start time = 106, completion time = 154 , tardy = 0	
job #4 : start time = 154, completion time = 187 , tardy = 0	
job #3 : start time = 187, completion time = 238 , tardy = 90	
job #5 : start time = 238, completion time = 326 , tardy = 350	
job #2 : start time = 326, completion time = 364 , tardy = 147	
rewrite Z with updated start times and total tardy value	
updated Z = 106 326 187 154 238 0 6 18 806	

Figure C.4. Illustration of improvement method

APPENDIX D: VARIABLE NEIGHBORHOOD SEARCH - SMTWT

The VNS methodology employed in our HCSS approach will be discussed in the following section. Initially, VNS used in SMTWT problem is investigated and neighborhood generation, neighborhood search and evaluation step are all demonstrated by using a sample problem. Our sample problem consists of eight jobs with distinct process times, weights and due dates and ready at time zero to be scheduled on a single machine. The aim here is to minimize total weighted tardiness value. The process times, weights and due dates are given in Table D.1. Before applying VNS, HCSS comes up with an elite solution Z such that $Z = [106\ 326\ 187\ 154\ 238\ 0\ 6\ 18\ 806]$. The first eight entities are start times of job j ($j = 1, \dots, 8$) and final one is the twt value.

Table D.1. Process time, weight and due date of jobs

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8
pt	48	38	51	33	88	6	12	88
wt	4	3	5	8	2	3	8	3
dt	168	315	220	248	151	10	40	33

VNS 2-3-4 is applied to generate neighborhood of current solution Z . The sorted Z sequence is divided into groups, each having number of jobs determined by search depth. At first, our search depth is equal to two. Hence, four groups with two jobs are rearranged to create new neighborhoods.

$$\text{sorted } Z = 6\ 7\ 8\ 1\ 4\ 3\ 5\ 2$$

$$\text{group \#1} = (6\ 7), \text{group \#2} = (8\ 1), \text{group \#3} = (4\ 3), \text{group \#4} = (5\ 2).$$

Starting with the first group, all alternative permutations are written

$$\text{alternative\#1} = (6\ 7), \text{alternative\#2} = (7\ 6)$$

Then, first group jobs in the sorted Z are replaced with one of the alternative permutations such that

$$\text{neighbor \# 0} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = 7 \ 6 \ 8 \ 1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2$$

The new neighbors are evaluated by scheduling jobs using their processing times, weights and due dates and the final fitness values are computed by summing all non-zero tardiness values associated to considered sequence.

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 0} = 806$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 1} = 830$$

These fitness values are then compared with current solution total weighted tardiness value. If one of neighbor is superior to the current one, it becomes the new current solution and sorted Z is updated accordingly. In our case, none of the neighbors is better than the present schedule. Therefore, the sorted Z is kept without altering. Moving to next group;

$$\text{alternative\#1} = (8 \ 1), \text{alternative\#2} = (1 \ 8)$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 0} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = 6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 8 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2$$

and evaluating their fitness;

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 0} = 806$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 1} = 950$$

the current solution is conserved and new neighbors are generated by using group three

$$\text{neighbor \# 0} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 2$$

and their fitness values;

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 0} = 806$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 1} = 716$$

Therefore, neighbor #1 becomes new current solution. Instead of going back and dividing the new sequence into new groups, we continue with the last group;

$$\text{neighbor \# 0} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 2$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

corresponding fitness values;

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 0} = 716$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 1} = 645$$

According to this result, our new best order is [6 7 8 1 3 4 2 5]. After exploring all neighbors, we take the search more further distances. The search depth is set to three, and the new groups are formed starting from the very end of the sequence.

$$\text{sorted } Z = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

$$\text{group \#1} = (8 \ 1 \ 3), \text{ group \#2} = (4 \ 2 \ 5)$$

Starting with the first group, all alternative permutations are written

$$(8 \ 1 \ 3), (8 \ 3 \ 1), (1 \ 8 \ 3), (1 \ 3 \ 8), (3 \ 1 \ 8), (3 \ 8 \ 1)$$

and neighbors of the current solution is generated as;

$$\text{neighbor \# 0} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 3 \ 1 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 2} = 6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 8 \ 3 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 3} = 6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 3 \ 8 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 4} = 6 \ 7 \ 3 \ 1 \ 8 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 5} = 6 \ 7 \ 3 \ 8 \ 1 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5$$

total weighted tardiness values are computed for each permutation of group #1

fitness of neighbor # 0 = 645

fitness of neighbor # 1 = 793

fitness of neighbor # 2 = 789

fitness of neighbor # 3 = 942

fitness of neighbor # 4 = 942

fitness of neighbor # 5 = 798

considering the next group;

(4 2 5), (4 5 2), (2 4 5), (2 5 4), (5 2 4), (5 4 2)

neighbor # 0 = 6 7 8 1 3 4 2 5

neighbor # 1 = 6 7 8 1 3 4 5 2

neighbor # 2 = 6 7 8 1 3 2 4 5

neighbor # 3 = 6 7 8 1 3 2 5 4

neighbor # 4 = 6 7 8 1 3 5 2 4

neighbor # 5 = 6 7 8 1 3 5 4 2

The corresponding fitness values are

fitness of neighbor # 0 = 645

fitness of neighbor # 1 = 716

fitness of neighbor # 2 = 869

fitness of neighbor # 3 = 862

fitness of neighbor # 4 = 834

fitness of neighbor # 5 = 629

Neighbor # 5 is superior to both the current solution and the other neighbors. Hence, the best sequence becomes [6 7 8 1 3 5 4 2] and the search depth is decreased to two.

The search procedure continues as stated above until the termination criterion is met.

APPENDIX E: VARIABLE NEIGHBORHOOD SEARCH – PMTT

The three different type VNS techniques employed in our HCSS approach will be discussed in the following section. Initially, type #1 VNS technique used in PMTT problem is investigated and neighborhood generation, neighborhood search and evaluation step are all demonstrated by using a sample problem. Our sample problem consists of eight jobs with distinct process times, ready times, sequence dependent setup times and due dates. The two machines utilized in the problem are not identical, thus the process times and setup times related to same jobs are varying depending on the machine. The aim here is to minimize total tardiness value. The ready times and due dates are given in Table E.1 and process times and sequence dependent setup times are presented in Table E.2 and Table E.3. Before applying type #1 VNS, HCSS comes up with an elite solution Z such that;

$$Z = [32 \ 43 \ 31 \ 24 \ 37 \ 11 \ 18 \ 50 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 26]$$

where the first eight entities are start times of job j ($j = 1, \dots, 8$), the second eight entities are the machine indices and final one is the total tardiness value.

Table E.1. Ready time and due date of jobs

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8
rt	27	43	31	24	30	11	18	35
dt	32	51	38	34	36	20	31	46

Table E.2. Process times and setup times for machine #1

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8
Job#1	0	1	3	2	3	1	1	2
Job#2	2	0	2	3	1	2	3	1
Job#3	1	1	0	1	2	3	1	1
Job#4	3	2	3	0	2	1	2	2
Job#5	2	2	1	3	0	1	3	1
Job#6	2	1	1	1	2	0	3	3
Job#7	3	1	2	1	3	1	0	3
Job#8	1	2	1	3	2	1	1	0
pt	2	5	4	7	3	6	10	8

Table E.3. Process times and setup times for machine #2

	Job#1	Job#2	Job#3	Job#4	Job#5	Job#6	Job#7	Job#8
Job#1	0	3	1	2	1	3	1	1
Job#2	2	0	1	3	2	1	3	1
Job#3	1	1	0	1	2	3	1	1
Job#4	1	2	1	0	2	1	1	3
Job#5	1	3	2	3	0	1	1	2
Job#6	2	2	1	3	1	0	3	1
Job#7	2	3	2	3	1	2	0	1
Job#8	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	0
pt	3	6	5	8	4	7	11	9

In the type #1 VNS technique, the sorted job sequence of Z is recorded and kept fixed during the entire neighborhood search. Then this sequence is divided into groups containing same number of jobs defined by VNS depth and their corresponding machine assignments. Starting with the first group, all possible machine assignments are listed for this group's jobs without altering the job sequence and remaining machine indices. VNS 2-3-4 is applied to generate neighbors of current solution Z. The sorted Z is as follows;

$$\text{sorted } Z = [6 \ 7 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2]$$

$$\text{group \#1} = (6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 2), \text{ group \#2} = (4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2), \text{ group \#3} = (1 \ 5 \ 1 \ 1), \text{ group \#4} = (2 \ 8 \ 2 \ 2)$$

Starting with the first group, all alternative machine assignments are written as

$$\text{alt. \#1} = (6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 1), \text{ alt. \#2} = (6 \ 7 \ 2 \ 1), \text{ alt. \#3} = (6 \ 7 \ 2 \ 2)$$

Observing the alternative #1, the processing order of job #6 and job #7 does not change. The only difference is that the both jobs will be process on machine #1 whereas they are initially processed by machine #1 and machine #2 respectively. Inserting alternatives into the initial sorted sequence where all are representing a different neighborhood of the current solution;

$$\text{neighbor \#1} = [6 \ 7 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2]$$

$$\text{neighbor \#2} = [6 \ 7 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2]$$

$$\text{neighbor \#3} = [6 \ 7 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \ 2 \ 2 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2]$$

The new neighbors are evaluated by scheduling jobs using their machine dependent process times, setup times, ready times and due dates. Then the final fitness values are computed by summing all non-zero tardiness values associated to considered sequence.

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 1} = 45$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 2} = 36$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 3} = 26$$

These fitness values are then compared with current solution total tardiness value. If one of neighbor solution is superior to the current one, it becomes the new current solution and sorted Z is updated accordingly. In our case, the neighbor #3 has the value 26 which is not better than the present best solution. Therefore, the sorted Z is kept without altering and VNS moves to next group. The next group and corresponding neighbors are

$$\text{group \#2} = (4\ 3\ 1\ 2) \text{ alt. \#1} = (4\ 3\ 1\ 1), \text{ alt. \#2} = (4\ 3\ 2\ 1), \text{ alt. \#3} = (4\ 3\ 2\ 2)$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = [6\ 7\ 4\ 3\ 1\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 1\ 2\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 2\ 2]$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 2} = [6\ 7\ 4\ 3\ 1\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 1\ 2\ 2\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 2\ 2]$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 3} = [6\ 7\ 4\ 3\ 1\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 1\ 2\ 2\ 2\ 1\ 1\ 2\ 2]$$

and evaluating their fitness;

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 1} = 40$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 2} = 37$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 3} = 34$$

According to the results, the current solution is conserved. Considering the next group;

$$\text{group \#3} = (1\ 5\ 1\ 1) \text{ alt. \#1} = (1\ 5\ 1\ 2), \text{ alt. \#2} = (1\ 5\ 2\ 1), \text{ alt. \#3} = (1\ 5\ 2\ 2)$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 1} = [6\ 7\ 4\ 3\ 1\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 1\ 2\ 1\ 2\ 1\ 2\ 2\ 2]$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 2} = [6\ 7\ 4\ 3\ 1\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 1\ 2\ 1\ 2\ 2\ 1\ 2\ 2]$$

$$\text{neighbor \# 3} = [6\ 7\ 4\ 3\ 1\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 1\ 2\ 1\ 2\ 2\ 2\ 2\ 2]$$

and their fitness values are

fitness of neighbor # 1 = 32

fitness of neighbor # 2 = 28

fitness of neighbor # 3 = 46

No improvement can be achieved, thus VNS explores the neighbors of the last group;

group #3 = (2 8 2 2) alt. #1 = (2 8 1 1), alt. #2 = (2 8 1 2), alt. #3 = (2 8 2 1)

neighbor # 1 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 2 1 1 1 1]

neighbor # 2 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 2 1 1 1 2]

neighbor # 3 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 2 1 1 2 1]

The corresponding fitness values are

fitness of neighbor # 1 = 25

fitness of neighbor # 2 = 14

fitness of neighbor # 3 = 18

Neighbor #2 results with a fitness value 14 which is superior to best current solution.

Hence, the new sorted Z is updated as follows

sorted Z = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 2 1 1 1 2]

After exploring all neighbors, we take the search a one step further distance. The search depth is set to three, and the new groups are formed starting from the very end of the sequence. Here, the type #1 VNS technique will not be demonstrated with its all steps and not be concluded. The investigating first group alternatives for search depth three gives sufficient information to understand the further execution of basic the methodology behind our type #1 VNS technique. The groups and corresponding neighbors for the first one are given below;

group #1 = (4 3 1 1 2 1) group #2 = (5 2 8 1 1 2)

alt. #1 =(4 3 1 1 1 1) alt. #2 =(4 3 1 1 1 2) alt. #3 =(4 3 1 1 2 2)

alt. #4 =(4 3 1 2 1 1) *alt. #5* =(4 3 1 2 2 1) *alt. #6* =(4 3 1 2 1 2)
alt. #7 =(4 3 1 2 2 2)

neighbor # 1 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 2]
neighbor # 2 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 1 2 1 1 2]
neighbor # 3 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 2 2 1 1 2]
neighbor # 4 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 2 1 1 1 1 2]
neighbor # 5 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 2 2 1 1 1 2]
neighbor # 6 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 2 1 2 1 1 2]
neighbor # 7 = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 2 2 2 1 1 2]

and their fitness values are

fitness of neighbor # 1 = 27
fitness of neighbor # 2 = 11
fitness of neighbor # 3 = 17
fitness of neighbor # 4 = 29
fitness of neighbor # 5 = 25
fitness of neighbor # 6 = 31
fitness of neighbor # 7 = 46

According to the fitness values of the neighbor, machine assignment alternative #2 decreases the total tardiness value from 14 to 11. Therefore, sorted Z is updated and the new current solution becomes;

sorted Z = [6 7 4 3 1 5 2 8 1 2 1 1 2 1 1 2]

Our demonstration for the type #1 VNS ends up at this point, the remaining neighborhood generations and evaluations can be performed according to methodology described so far.

To illustrate type #2 VNS technique, the same problem set and the same VNS depth is utilized. Our elite solution Z is considered such that

$$Z = [29 \ 44 \ 32 \ 24 \ 39 \ 11 \ 18 \ 35 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 11]$$

where the first eight entities are start times of job j ($j = 1, \dots, 8$), the second eight entities are the machine indices and final one is the total tardiness value. Initially, the start times are ordered with respect non-decreasing values. Then without considering the machine indices our sorted Z vector is constructed. The methodology employed to construct neighborhood of a current solution is exactly the same that is used in SMTWT. The only difference arises at the evaluation step of the fitness value of the generated neighbors. Type #2 VNS technique assigns each job to a machine by using the EFT rule and then calculates its corresponding total tardiness value. This evaluation step is briefly described in the following example.

Suppose that we implement type #2 VNS with search depth two, but do not manage to find a better solution. Therefore, the size of the search depth is increased to three and the sequence is grouped as follows;

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sorted } Z &= [6 \ 7 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8] \\ \text{group \#1} &= (4 \ 3 \ 1) \ \text{group \#2} = (5 \ 2 \ 8) \end{aligned}$$

The alternative permutation of group #1 jobs and corresponding neighbors are

$$\begin{aligned} &(4 \ 1 \ 3), (1 \ 3 \ 4), (1 \ 4 \ 3), (3 \ 1 \ 4), (3 \ 4 \ 1) \\ \text{neighbor \#1} &= 6 \ 7 \ 4 \ 1 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \\ \text{neighbor \#2} &= 6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \\ \text{neighbor \#3} &= 6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \\ \text{neighbor \#4} &= 6 \ 7 \ 3 \ 1 \ 4 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \\ \text{neighbor \#5} &= 6 \ 7 \ 3 \ 4 \ 1 \ 5 \ 2 \ 8 \end{aligned}$$

Evaluating the fitness value of neighbor #1, the completion time of job #6 is calculated on both machines. And the job is assigned to the machine with the earlier completion time. The tardiness value of the current job is computed accordingly.

$$\text{Completion time of job \#6 on machine \#1} = \max(r_6^I, f^I) + p_6^I = 11+6 = 17$$

$$\text{Completion time of job \#6 on machine \#2} = \max(r_6^{II}, f^{II}) + p_6^{II} = 11+7 = 18$$

Then job #6 is dispatch to machine #1 and the finish time (f^I) for machine #1 is set to 17 and (f^{II}) for machine #2 to 0. The tardiness value is calculated using the formula $T_j = \max(0, C_j - d_j)$, i.e. $\max(0, 17-20) = 0$. Continuing with job #7;

$$\text{Completion time of job \#7 on machine \#1} = \max(r_7^I, f^I) + p_7^I + s_{67}^I = 31$$

$$\text{Completion time of job \#7 on machine \#2} = \max(r_7^{II}, f^{II}) + p_7^{II} = 29$$

Job # 7 is then assign to the machine #2 and the tardiness value is $T_7 = \max(0, 29-31) = 0$. The finish time of machine #2 becomes 29. The remaining calculations are performed in same manner and not shown here. The final start times, machine indices and total tardiness value related to neighbor #1 is computed as

$$\text{neighbor \#1} = [29 \ 43 \ 32 \ 24 \ 34 \ 11 \ 18 \ 39 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 10]$$

where the first eight entities are start times of job j ($j = 1, \dots, 8$), the second eight entities are the machine indices and final one is the total tardiness value. The fitness values of the other neighbors are;

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 2} = 19$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 3} = 23$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 4} = 19$$

$$\text{fitness of neighbor \# 5} = 30$$

From the obtained fitness values, it is obvious that neighbor #1 outperforms the other candidates. Therefore, our sorted Z value becomes [6 7 4 1 3 5 2 8] and the current solution is updated as;

$$Z = [29 \ 43 \ 32 \ 24 \ 34 \ 11 \ 18 \ 39 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 10]$$

For the *group #2* = (5 2 8), the permutation alternatives and generated neighbors are as follows;

(5 8 2), (8 2 5), (8 5 2), (2 5 8), (2 8 5)

neighbor # 1 = 6 7 4 1 3 5 8 2

neighbor # 2 = 6 7 4 1 3 8 2 5

neighbor # 3 = 6 7 4 1 3 8 5 2

neighbor # 4 = 6 7 4 1 3 2 5 8

neighbor # 5 = 6 7 4 1 3 2 8 5

and the corresponding fitness values are;

fitness of neighbor # 1 = 9

fitness of neighbor # 2 = 18

fitness of neighbor # 3 = 11

fitness of neighbor # 4 = 10

fitness of neighbor # 5 = 18

Again, neighbor #1 comes up with a better total tardiness value. Hence our sorted Z and new current solution vector is updated as follows;

sorted Z = [6 7 4 1 3 5 8 2]

Z = [29 43 32 24 34 11 18 39 2 2 1 1 2 1 2 1 9]

Since, the VNS improves the current solution, the search depth decreases the value two and the variable neighborhood search is continued by repeating the same methodology until the termination criterion is met i.e. the current solution can not be improved with maximum VNS depth. Finally, the type #3 VNS technique is described by using same problem set and VNS 2-3-4. The alternative job permutations and neighborhood generation method are exactly the same as the ones used in type #2 VNS. The only difference as we indicate before; is the evaluation procedure of a neighborhood solution. Previously, EFT rule is utilized to perform both machine assignment and total tardiness value computation. This time, a recursive rule which is explained in Section 4.2.4, is employed as a substitute for EFT rule. Therefore, instead of showing all the steps needed to generate a

neighborhood, we only illustrate the recursive rule step by step while evaluating a selected neighborhood.

Assume that, VNS comes up with a neighbor such that [6 7 4 1 3 5 8 2] and the corresponding sorted start times of jobs are [11 16 24 29 32 40 42 43]. At the beginning both machines' finish times (f^I and f^{II}) are zero and the process times and setup times are given in Table E.2 and Table E.3. Comparing job #6's start time with both of the finish times, it is seen that the job can be assign any of the machines. Thus, method constructs a branch indicating both of the alternatives as shown in Figure E.1. In figure, the expression (X,Y) located on the nodes indicates that job X is processed on machine Y and the value below the nodes is the total tardiness value of assignments performed so far



Figure E.1. Flow chart for recursive algorithm #1

Continuing with the upper branch, the first job is assigned to machine #1 and the f^I is found as 17 and f^{II} equals to zero. The start time of job #7 is 16 which is earlier than f^I but tardier than f^{II} . Hence, it is allocated to machine #2. The corresponding tardiness value of job #7 is 0 and the f^{II} becomes 29. The flow chart is given in Figure E.2.

The next one is job #4 with start time 24 which is earlier than both machines' finish times. So, it is assigned to the machine #1 which has the smallest finish time value. After performing required calculations, the tardiness of job #4 is found as 0 and the f^I increases to 32. Comparing f^I and f^{II} with job #1's start time (i.e. 29), the machine #2 is selected with the smaller finish time value. Then f^{II} becomes 34 and the tardiness value $T_1 = \max(0, C_1 - d_1) = 2$. Job #3 with start time 32 is allocated to machine #1 where start time of job #3 equals to f^I but smaller than f^{II} value. Calculating the tardiness value, it is observed that completion time of job #3 exceeds its due date by one unit. The next start time of job #5 is

40 where it is larger than both $f^I = 39$ and $f^{II} = 34$. Thus, it can be dispatched any of the machines which is shown by two branches in Figure E.3.

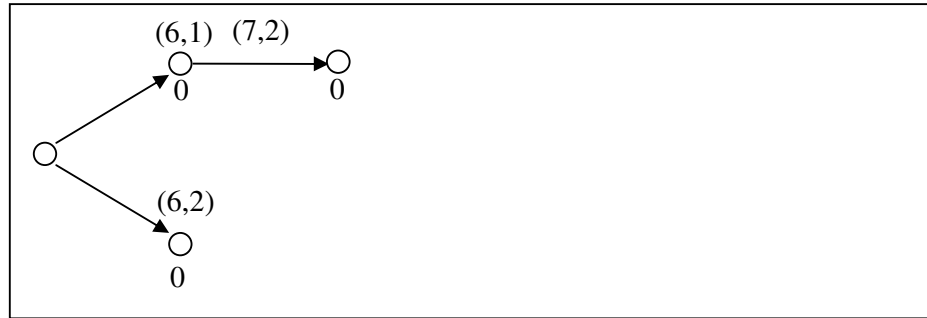


Figure E.2. Flow chart for recursive algorithm #2

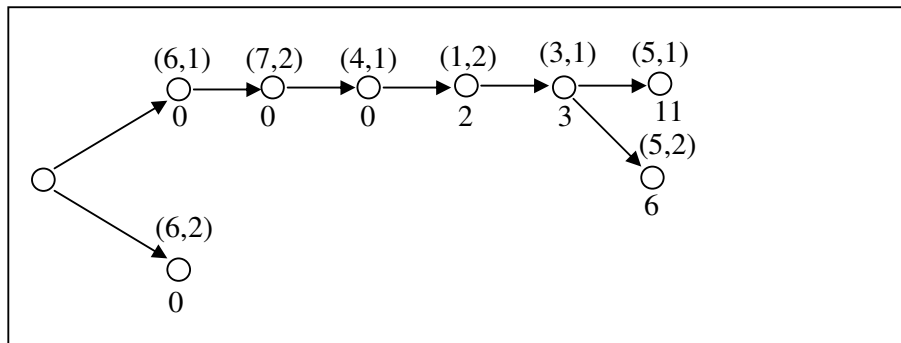


Figure E.3. Flow chart for recursive algorithm-step #3

For the upper branch where the job #5 is processed on machine #1 and the corresponding tardiness value is 8, $f^I = 44$ and $f^{II} = 34$. On the other hand, lower branch comes up with a tardiness value equals to 3, $f^I = 39$ and $f^{II} = 39$. Moving to the next step over the upper branch, the start time job #8 is compared with the finish times. Since start time 42 is less than f^I and more than f^{II} , machine #2 is employed for job #8. Then the results are; $T_8 = 0$, $f^I = 44$ and $f^{II} = 45$. The final one to be scheduled is the job #2. The start time 43 is earlier than both of the finish times. Therefore, machine #1 with the earlier finish time is assigned for the last job. The tardiness value related to this assignment is zero, so the total tardiness value becomes 11 for the entire sequence. This value is memorized as the best fitness value found so far and represents an upper bound for the total tardiness. When we reach to the end of lane, i.e. the allocation of all jobs is completed; we turn back to the previous node where the lane is divided into two branches. At this point, the unvisited branch is selected and the remaining assignments are performed accordingly. Any time, the

total tardiness value which is computed after dispatching a job, is greater than the upper bound, the further assignment related to this lane is not executed and the algorithm turns back to a previous node that is branched out.

Consider our example, after finishing the allocation, we move back to node (3,1) and select the lower branch and jumps to the node (5,2). Since the total tardiness value corresponding to this node is smaller than the upper bound, we continue with the next job, i.e. job #8. The start time of the job is 42, which is greater than both f^l and f^u . Thus, the lane is divided into two branches and two new nodes are placed at the end of each branch, which are indicating machine assignments and related fitness values.

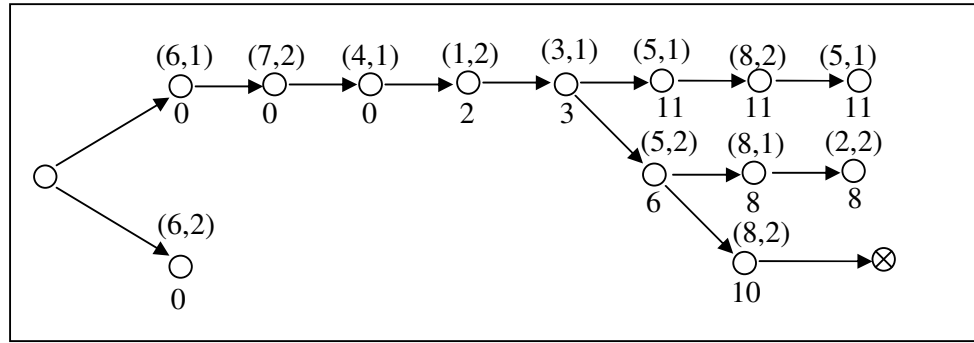


Figure E.4. Flow chart for recursive algorithm #4

The finish times and total tardiness for each node is calculated as; $f^l = 48$, $f^u = 39$ and $T_8 = 2$ for upper branch and $f^l = 39$, $f^u = 50$ and $T_8 = 4$ for the lower branch. Moving along the upper branch, the job #2 is assigned to the machine #2 where the start time 43 is greater than f^u . Then the total tardiness value for the entire sequence computed as eight which becomes the new upper bound. Turning back to the branched node and jumping to the point (8,2), we realize that the total tardiness value is greater than the upper bound. Therefore, there is no need to move further and the current lane is blocked as shown in Figure E.4. The remaining calculations are performed in the same way as described. The final upper bound is considered as the fitness value of the selected neighborhood.

When dealing with 4-machine PMTT problems, instead of constructing four branches that define each machine assignment separately, we only form two of them that correspond to the machines with smallest finish times. In other words, before allocating a

job, the four finish times are sorted and two of them are selected according to non-decreasing values. Then the start time of the job is compared with chosen f^m 's where f^m is the finish time of machine m and the job is assigned to a machine depending on the selection procedure. The machine selection procedures of 2-machine problem can be applied for 4-machine case. Each time an assignment is performed, the finish times are updated and two smallest f^m 's are selected accordingly. The remaining methodology is same as stated above.

APPENDIX F: BEST KNOWN SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM SETS

This appendix provides the optimal/best-known solutions to the problem sets of tardiness related scheduling problems used for numerical experimentations throughout this thesis. These optimal/best-known solutions are obtained from the literature. In the first section, reported optimal/best-known solutions (Crauwels et al., 1998, Congram et al., 2002) for the SMTWT problem are given and followed by our final results for the five seed run. In the next section, best known solutions to PMTT problem sets are stated. Two set of best-known solutions are given in Appendix F.2, the first set contains the solutions obtained by Bilge et al. (2004) and the second set includes the updated best-known solutions reported by Anghinolfi and Paolucci (2006). This section also shows the best-found solutions to PMTT during the numerical studies conducted with HCSS approach and the min-max total tardiness values obtained by five seed final run for the each instance of the problem sets.

Appendix F.1. Best-Known Solutions to SMTWT

For the 40-job and 50-job problem sets, the optimal solutions are known for most of the instances. The exceptions are indicated. As for the 100-job problem set, due to the problem size limitations, only best-known solutions are reported. However, as these solutions have not been improved ever since they have been published, there is a great evidence that they are actually optimal.

Table F.1. Optimal/best-known solutions to the 40-job problem set – SMTWT

40-JOB PROBLEM SET									
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>
001	913	026	108	051	0	076	0	101	0
002	1225	027	64	052	0	077	0	102	0
003	537	028	15	053	0	078	0	103	0
004	2094	029	47	054	0	079	0	104	0
005	990	030	98	055	0	080	0	105	0
006	6955	031	6575	056	2099	081	684	106	0
007	6324	032	4098	057	2260	082	172	107	516
008	6865	033	5468	058	4936	083	798	108	3354
009	16225	034	2648	059	3784	084	617	109	0
010	9737	035	5290	060	3289	085	776	110	0
011	17465	036	19732	061	20281	086	10262	111	31478
012	19312	037	17349	062	13403	087	18646	112	21169
013	29256	038	24499	063	19771	088	10021	113	27077
014	14377	039	19008	064	24346	089	25881	114	19648
015	26914	040	19611	065	14905	090	8159	115	13774
016	72317	041	57640	066	65386	091	47683	116	46770
017	78623	042	81462	067	65756	092	43004	117	50364
018	74310	043	65134	068	78451	093	55730	118	25460
019	77122*	044	78139	069	81627	094	59494	119	66707
020	63229	045	66579	070	68242	095	42688	120	69019
021	77774	046	64451	071	90486	096	126048	121	122266
022	100484	047	113999	072	115249	097	114686	122	82456
023	135618	048	74323	073	68529	098	112102	123	75118
024	119947	049	110295	074	79006	099	98206	124	73041
025	128747	050	95616	075	98110	100	157296	125	104531

* not solved optimally

Table F.2. Optimal/best-known solutions to the 50-job problem set – SMTWT

50-JOB PROBLEM SET									
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Optimal</i>
001	2134	026	2	051	0	076	0	101	0
002	1996	027	4	052	0	077	0	102	0
003	2583	028	755	053	0	078	0	103	0
004	2691	029	99	054	0	079	0	104	0
005	1518	030	22	055	0	080	0	105	0
006	26276	031	9934	056	1258	081	816	106	0
007	11403	032	7178	057	3679	082	4879	107	1717
008	8499	033	4674	058	2522	083	973	108	0
009	9884	034	4017	059	3770	084	508	109	6185
010	10655	035	6459	060	5904	085	3780	110	1295
011	43504*	036	34892*	061	25212	086	20751	111	27310*
012	36378*	037	22739	062	17337	087	36053*	112	15867
013	45383	038	29467	063	30729	088	28268*	113	35106
014	51785*	039	49352	064	18082	089	28846	114	15467
015	38934	040	26423	065	25028	090	15451	115	10574
016	87902	041	71111	066	76878*	091	89298	116	35727
017	84260	042	90163	067	85413	092	66340	117	71922
018	104795	043	84126	068	92756	093	61060	118	65433
019	89299*	044	123893*	069	77930	094	42453	119	106043
020	72316	045	79883	070	74750	095	56522	120	101665
021	214546	046	157505	071	150580	096	177909	121	78315
022	150800	047	133289	072	131680	097	139591	122	119925
023	224025	048	191099	073	98494	098	148906	123	101157
024	116015	049	150279	074	135394	099	179264	124	139488
025	240179	050	198076	075	135677	100	120108	125	110392

* not solved optimally

Table F.3. Best-known solutions to the 100-job problem set (Crauwels et al., 1998)

100-JOB PROBLEM SET									
<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>
001	5988	026	8	051	0	076	0	101	0
002	6170	027	718	052	0	077	0	102	0
003	4267	028	27	053	0	078	0	103	0
004	5011	029	480	054	0	079	0	104	0
005	5283	030	50	055	0	080	0	105	0
006	58258	031	24202	056	9046	081	1400	106	0
007	50972	032	25469	057	11539	082	317	107	1193
008	59434	033	32964	058	16313	083	1146	108	0
009	40978	034	22215	059	7965	084	136	109	232
010	53208	035	19114	060	19912	085	284	110	0
011	181649	036	108293	061	86793	086	66850	111	159138
012	234179	037	181850	062	87067	087	84229	112	174377
013	178840	038	90440	063	96563	088	55544	113	91171
014	157476	039	151701	064	100788	089	54612	114	168297
015	172995	040	129728	065	56510	090	75061	115	70190
016	407703	041	462324	066	243872	091	248699	116	370631
017	332804	042	425875	067	401023	092	311022	117	324437
018	544838	043	320537	068	399085	093	326258	118	246243
019	477684	044	360193	069	309232	094	273993	119	293576
020	406094	045	306040	070	222684	095	316870	120	267326
021	898925	046	829828	071	640816	096	495516	121	471214
022	556873	047	623356	072	611362	097	636903	122	570459
023	539716	048	748988	073	623429	098	680082	123	397029
024	744287	049	656693	074	584628	099	622464	124	431115
025	585306	050	599269	075	575274	100	449545	125	560754

B.K. denotes Best- Known

Table F.4. Best-known solutions to the 100-job problem set (Congram et al., 2002)

100-JOB PROBLEM SET									
<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>B.K.</i>
001	5988	026	8	051	0	076	0	101	0
002	6170	027	718	052	0	077	0	102	0
003	4267	028	27	053	0	078	0	103	0
004	5011	029	480	054	0	079	0	104	0
005	5283	030	50	055	0	080	0	105	0
006	58258	031	24202	056	9046	081	1400	106	0
007	50972	032	25469	057	11539	082	317	107	1193
008	59434	033	32964	058	16313	083	1146	108	0
009	40978	034	22215	059	7965	084	136	109	232
010	53208	035	19114	060	19912	085	284	110	0
011	181649	036	108293	061	86793	086	66850	111	159123
012	234179	037	181850	062	87067	087	84229	112	174367
013	178840	038	90440	063	96563	088	55544	113	91169
014	157476	039	151701	064	100788	089	54612	114	168266
015	172995	040	129728	065	56510	090	75061	115	70190
016	407703	041	462324	066	243872	091	248699	116	370614
017	332804	042	425875	067	401023	092	311022	117	324437
018	544838	043	320537	068	399085	093	326258	118	246237
019	477684	044	360193	069	309232	094	273993	119	293571
020	406094	045	306040	070	222684	095	316870	120	267316
021	898925	046	829828	071	640816	096	495516	121	471214
022	556873	047	623356	072	611362	097	636903	122	570459
023	539716	048	748988	073	623429	098	680082	123	397029
024	744287	049	656693	074	584628	099	622464	124	431115
025	585306	050	599269	075	575274	100	449545	125	560754

Table F.5. Min-max best-found solution for five seed experimentation (40-job) SMTWT

40-JOB PROBLEM SET								
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
001	913	913	043	65134	65134	085	776	776
002	1225	1225	044	78139	78139	086	10262	10262
003	537	537	045	66579	66579	087	18646	18706
004	2094	2094	046	64451	64451	088	10027	10027
005	990	990	047	113999	113999	089	25881	25881
006	6955	6955	048	74323	74323	090	8159	8159
007	6324	6324	049	110295	110295	091	47683	47683
008	6865	6865	050	95616	95616	092	43004	43004
009	16225	16310	051	0	0	093	55730	55730
010	9737	9737	052	0	0	094	59494	59494
011	17465	17465	053	0	0	095	42688	42688
012	19312	19312	054	0	0	096	126048	126048
013	29256	29279	055	0	0	097	114686	114686
014	14432	14432	056	2099	2099	098	112102	112102
015	26914	26914	057	2260	2260	099	98206	98206
016	72317	72317	058	4936	4936	100	157296	157296
017	78623	78623	059	3784	3784	101	0	0
018	74310	74373	060	3289	3289	102	0	0
019	77122	77432	061	20283	20434	103	0	0
020	63229	63368	062	13403	13403	104	0	0
021	77774	77774	063	19771	19771	105	0	0
022	100484	100484	064	24346	24498	106	0	0
023	135618	135618	065	14905	15341	107	516	516
024	119947	119947	066	65386	65386	108	3354	3354
025	128747	128747	067	65756	65756	109	0	0
026	108	108	068	78451	78451	110	0	0
027	64	64	069	81688	81688	111	31478	31478
028	15	15	070	68242	68242	112	21169	21169
029	47	47	071	90486	90486	113	27077	27077
030	98	98	072	115249	115249	114	19648	19678
031	6575	6575	073	68529	68529	115	13774	13774
032	4098	4099	074	79013	79013	116	46770	46929
033	5468	5468	075	98110	98110	117	50364	50384
034	2648	2648	076	0	0	118	25460	25460
035	5290	5290	077	0	0	119	66707	66707
036	19732	20095	078	0	0	120	69042	69042
037	17349	17349	079	0	0	121	122266	122266
038	24563	24630	080	0	0	122	82456	82456
039	19008	19008	081	684	684	123	75118	75379
040	19611	19611	082	172	172	124	73041	73041
041	57640	57640	083	798	798	125	104531	104531
042	81462	81462	084	617	617			

Table F.6. Min-max best-found solution for five seed experimentation (50-job) SMTWT

50-JOB PROBLEM SET								
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
001	2134	2134	043	84126	84126	085	3780	3796
002	1996	1996	044	123893	123893	086	20751	20828
003	2583	2583	045	79883	79883	087	36053	36053
004	2691	2691	046	157505	157505	088	28671	28671
005	1518	1518	047	133289	133289	089	28846	28849
006	26409	26509	048	191099	191099	090	15451	15547
007	11403	11403	049	150279	150279	091	89324	89474
008	8499	8610	050	198076	198076	092	66340	66340
009	9918	9918	051	0	0	093	61060	61225
010	10655	10655	052	0	0	094	42453	42564
011	43504	43504	053	0	0	095	56632	56726
012	36459	36941	054	0	0	096	177909	178115
013	45383	45383	055	0	0	097	139591	139591
014	51785	51785	056	1258	1258	098	148906	148906
015	38934	39293	057	3679	3693	099	179264	179274
016	87902	87902	058	2522	2564	100	120108	120108
017	84260	84375	059	3770	3770	101	0	0
018	104795	104795	060	5904	5904	102	0	0
019	89299	89299	061	25738	25738	103	0	0
020	72316	72316	062	17515	17644	104	0	0
021	214546	214546	063	30737	30737	105	0	0
022	150800	150800	064	18082	18082	106	0	0
023	224025	224025	065	25049	25049	107	1717	1717
024	116015	116015	066	76878	76878	108	0	0
025	240179	240179	067	85501	85920	109	6185	6185
026	2	2	068	92897	93446	110	1295	1295
027	4	4	069	77933	78031	111	27310	27389
028	755	755	070	74750	74932	112	15867	15867
029	99	99	071	150580	150580	113	35106	35106
030	22	22	072	131680	131681	114	15505	15505
031	9934	9934	073	98494	98494	115	10574	10574
032	7260	7322	074	135463	135463	116	35727	35727
033	4674	4674	075	135677	135677	117	71927	71927
034	4017	4017	076	0	0	118	65433	65433
035	6459	6459	077	0	0	119	106043	106116
036	34892	34892	078	0	0	120	101667	101672
037	22740	22783	079	0	0	121	78315	78315
038	29492	29492	080	0	0	122	119925	119925
039	49352	49352	081	816	816	123	101157	101157
040	26423	26423	082	4879	4879	124	139488	139488
041	71111	71111	083	973	973	125	110392	110392
042	90163	90334	084	508	508			

Table F.7. Min-max best-found solution for five seed experimentation (100-job) SMTWT

100-JOB PROBLEM SET								
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
001	5988	6066	043	320640	321363	085	284	284
002	6170	6170	044	360193	360193	086	67166	67240
003	4286	4336	045	306624	307754	087	84303	84454
004	5011	5011	046	829867	829899	088	55931	56370
005	5283	5283	047	623362	623441	089	55808	57792
006	58258	58258	048	749018	749053	090	75223	75229
007	51318	52104	049	656713	656715	091	248823	248841
008	59809	60498	050	599269	599375	092	311514	311557
009	41005	41492	051	0	0	093	326406	326535
010	53663	53923	052	0	0	094	274073	274200
011	183665	185688	053	0	0	095	317764	319142
012	236528	237477	054	0	0	096	495657	496057
013	180988	182925	055	0	0	097	636903	636903
014	157946	159314	056	9046	9046	098	680104	680194
015	174195	175378	057	11740	12425	099	622491	622633
016	407722	408283	058	16313	17156	100	449613	449613
017	333415	335722	059	7965	7965	101	0	0
018	545801	545801	060	19919	19919	102	0	0
019	479272	480333	061	86915	87928	103	0	0
020	406675	406869	062	87240	90176	104	0	0
021	898925	898925	063	97315	97357	105	0	0
022	556873	556873	064	102826	106471	106	0	0
023	539716	539716	065	58831	60108	107	1193	1193
024	744287	744339	066	243942	243942	108	0	0
025	585306	585306	067	401617	401617	109	232	232
026	8	8	068	399140	399158	110	0	0
027	718	718	069	309256	309338	111	159123	159571
028	27	27	070	222794	222794	112	176448	177522
029	480	480	071	640845	640845	113	91389	91777
030	50	50	072	611362	611374	114	168453	168488
031	24435	24773	073	623429	623559	115	70763	71301
032	25720	26726	074	584632	584733	116	370790	370840
033	33612	33740	075	575283	575297	117	324762	325487
034	22215	23250	076	0	0	118	246697	247688
035	19490	20016	077	0	0	119	293659	293666
036	108293	109910	078	0	0	120	267350	267434
037	182053	185246	079	0	0	121	471499	471828
038	90747	92576	080	0	0	122	570485	570591
039	152706	155157	081	1400	1400	123	397197	397908
040	131062	132165	082	317	317	124	431172	431208
041	462414	462571	083	1146	1146	125	560858	561644
042	425897	426207	084	136	136			

Appendix F.2. Best-Known Solutions to PMTT

In Table F.8 and Table F.9, the column *U.B.K.* shows the updated best-known solutions found by Anghinolfi and Paolucci (2006), column *B.K.* shows the best-known for Bilge et al. (2004) and finally last column *HCSS* stands for our best-found solutions which are visited by HCSS approach during the numerical experimentations. The values reported in the tables are multiplied by 100 for a better representation.

Table F.8. Best-known solution to 40-job problem set – PMTT

40-JOB PROBLEM SET							
2-MACHINE				4-MACHINE			
<i>Instance</i>	<i>U.B.K.*</i>	<i>B.K.**</i>	<i>HCSS***</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>U.B.K.</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>HCSS</i>
01	14071	14079	14079	01	0	0	0
02	3946	3946	3946	02	0	0	0
03	3335	3335	3335	03	0	0	0
04	10095	10095	10095	04	0	0	0
05	19662	19695	19703	05	0	0	0
06	26372	26372	26372	06	0	0	0
07	18565	18565	18565	07	914	914	914
08	37509	37513	38073	08	26	48	48
09	1055	1055	1055	09	0	0	0
10	1032	1038	1038	10	0	0	0
11	1726	1726	1726	11	0	0	0
12	8199	8199	8199	12	0	0	0
13	8382	8382	8528	13	2681	2807	2807
14	5839	5860	5860	14	2704	2704	2704
15	21561	21563	21615	15	1382	1388	1418
16	43395	43502	43418	16	0	0	0
17	15816	15816	16096	17	0	0	0
18	5866	5866	5866	18	0	0	0
19	27258	27258	27258	19	0	0	0
20	2887	2887	2887	20	0	0	0

* U.B.K. denotes updated best-known solution found by Anghinolfi and Paolucci

** B.K. denotes best-known solution found by Bilge et al.

*** HCSS denotes best-found solutions which are visited by HCSS approach during the numerical experimentations

Table F.9. Best-known solution to 60-job problem set – PMTT

60-JOB PROBLEM SET							
2-MACHINE				4-MACHINE			
<i>Instance</i>	<i>U.B.K.</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>HCSS</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>U.B.K.</i>	<i>B.K.</i>	<i>HCSS</i>
01	14205	14205	14205	01	0	0	0
02	6528	6528	7059	02	3219	2737	4421
03	17296	17296	17296	03	59	155	155
04	72330	72406	74132	04	0	0	0
05	34568	34640	37542	05	2591	2591	2792
06	50138	50492	53000	06	364	339	364
07	26535	26660	26660	07	4744	4744	4773
08	8030	8042	8051	08	0	0	0
09	16739	16790	16790	09	0	0	0
10	20899	20943	22104	10	4560	4626	4687
11	11204	11204	11204	11	4329	4423	4423
12	14080	14080	14080	12	0	0	0
13	12806	12806	13170	13	0	0	0
14	6793	6874	6834	14	0	0	0
15	20017	20017	20221	15	0	0	0
16	23981	23883	23981	16	49	58	53
17	12222	12222	12850	17	0	0	0
18	38642	38948	38642	18	0	0	0
19	133	164	133	19	0	0	0
20	23511	23514	26622	20	0	0	0

Table F.10. Min-max best-found solution for five seed experimentation (40-job) PMTT

40-JOB PROBLEM SET					
2-MACHINE			4-MACHINE		
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
01	14079	14079	01	0	0
02	3946	3946	02	0	0
03	3335	3335	03	0	0
04	10095	10095	04	0	0
05	19703	19863	05	0	0
06	26372	26372	06	0	0
07	18565	18565	07	914	1189
08	38149	39465	08	48	48
09	1055	1055	09	0	0
10	1038	1038	10	0	0
11	1726	1726	11	0	0
12	8199	8199	12	0	0
13	8528	8888	13	2807	3070
14	5860	5868	14	2704	2898
15	21615	22655	15	1418	1692
16	43418	43429	16	0	0
17	16096	16096	17	0	0
18	5866	5866	18	0	0
19	27258	27258	19	0	0
20	2939	2939	20	0	0

Table F.11. Min-max best-found solution for five seed experimentation (60-job) PMTT

60-JOB PROBLEM SET					
2-MACHINE			4-MACHINE		
<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Instance</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
01	14205	14205	01	0	0
02	7059	7120	02	4421	4847
03	17296	17296	03	155	155
04	74132	74132	04	0	0
05	37542	37542	05	2792	2874
06	53000	54698	06	364	401
07	26660	26662	07	4773	4886
08	8051	8051	08	0	0
09	16790	16790	09	0	0
10	22104	22649	10	4687	4878
11	11204	11204	11	4423	4423
12	14080	14080	12	0	0
13	13170	13485	13	0	0
14	6834	6882	14	0	0
15	20221	20450	15	0	0
16	23981	24592	16	53	58
17	12850	12850	17	0	0
18	38642	38948	18	0	0
19	133	133	19	0	0
20	26622	26622	20	0	0

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