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Algorithms for Minimizing Resource Consumption Over Multiple Machines With a Common Due Window

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ABSTRACT Scheduling on multiple machines has attracted considerable attention recently. However, most of traditional studies focused only on commercial cost and customer satisfaction. In fact, we are able to alleviate environmental damages via proper scheduling. This study explores a multi-machine scheduling problem with a due window. The objective is to minimize the total cost (including environmental cost). We develop a branch-and-bound algorithm (B&B) and two complementary lower bounds for optimally solving the problem when $n \leq 16$. Moreover, we propose an imperialist competitive algorithm (ICA) to obtain near-optimal schedules for large problem instances. Experimental results are provided to show the performance of the proposed algorithms.

INDEX TERMS Chemical industry, multi-machine scheduling, resource consumption, due window, imperialist competitive algorithm, branch-and-bound algorithm.

I. INTRODUCTION

Job scheduling has been studied in both industry and academia for long. A good scheduling algorithm meets its corresponding objectives, e.g., minimum tardiness or maximum profit. Due to the advances in technology, traditional scheduling algorithms may not fit today's environments. For example, parallel machines are commonly seen in many factories. All the jobs allocated to multiple machines should be considered as a whole. Scheduling each single machine by some traditional algorithms may not lead to the global maximum profit. Consequently, new issues need to be reinvestigated and new scheduling algorithms are called for.

In general, multi-machine scheduling is more difficult than single-machine scheduling. Not only the position order of jobs but also the capabilities of machines need to be taken into account. There are some multi-machine scheduling examples with different objectives. Lee and Wu [1] studied a multi-machine scheduling problem whose objective is to minimize the total completion time. In this problem, regular maintenance for each machine is inevitable. A metaheuristic was proposed to solve this NP-hard problem. Balin [2] solved another multi-machine scheduling problem.

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In this problem, machines are of different capabilities. Again, this problem is not easy to be solved optimally. Another metaheuristic was proposed to provide near-optimal schedules. Kayvanfar *et al.* [3] aimed to minimize makespan, earliness, tardiness in a parallel-machine environment. They also proposed a metaheuristic for this problem. In [4], CPUs could vary their speeds for facing different workloads in a clustered environment. Since low speed means less power consumption, these CPUs can be scheduled to avoid tardiness and save power. Thiruvady *et al.* [5] considered a scheduling problem in the mining industry. Multiple parallel machines were employed to minimize the total tardiness. In sum, the above examples show that multi-machine scheduling is a trend in today's industries. In [6], a multi-machine scheduling problem was considered to minimize the total tardiness under some restrictions on PM 2.5 emission. A branch-andbound algorithm was developed to solve this this eco-aware scheduling problem.

Due to the rise of environmental awareness, traditional scheduling for pursuing maximum efficiency or minimum cost does not meet today's requirements. In a multi-machine environment, machines are of different power consumption rates, carbon emissions, and capacities. Fang and Lin [4] considered a multi-server computing environment. Not all CPUs need to be active at off-peak nighttime. Low power

consumption is still able to meet the requirement of tardiness. Ji *et al.* [7] allocated a batch of jobs to machines with different capabilities. Their objective was to minimize the environmental cost with a restriction on a specified makespan. Given a specified carbon emission, Yeh *et al.* [8] aimed to minimize makespan. The above examples show that there exist some contradictions when we schedule jobs for deriving customer satisfaction as well as prevent our environments from being damaged. In the multi-machine environment described in [9], resources were limited. Consequently, some duplicate jobs were partially omitted to reduce processing time. Due to this idea, the resulting schedules could be more environmental-friendly than before.

Both tardiness and earliness are important research topics in job scheduling, since they directly involve customer satisfaction. A real-world mining example was shown in [5]. In this example, tardiness means missing shipping date, causing customer complaint, and increasing cost. Anzanello *et al.* [10] discussed how to improve tardiness and decrease cost by learning. With the consideration of learning effect, job scheduling becomes more different than before. On the other hand, some job scheduling problems must avoid or alleviate earliness due to the properties of their products, e.g., perishable food. There are very few studies whose research interests focus only on earliness. It is interesting that such scheduling is only found in chemical industry; e.g., [11]–[14]. This is because these chemicals need batch processing, stirring, or coagulating. In the field, the damage caused by earliness is much more severe than that caused by tardiness.

Due window is also a rising research topic. If this topic is ignored, earliness brings more inventory cost and tardiness causes worse customer satisfaction. However, jobs scheduled within a due window require neither earliness nor tardiness as possible as we can. Given a fixed due window and a maximum tardiness, Su and Tien [15] aimed to minimize the standard deviation of completion times. In [16]–[18], researchers adjusted the size of due window to reduce earliness or tardiness. In light of these studies, we learn that due window is not always fixed. It may be unknown and needs to be determined.

The applications of multi-machine scheduling are growing everywhere such as textile, electronics, construction, information industries. When scheduling multiple machines, we may find that some objectives are conflicted, e.g., tardiness and energy saving. To achieve no tardiness, we may choose some fast but energy-consuming machines. That is, customer satisfaction is at the cost of environmental damages. In light of this observation, how to balance multiple objectives over multiple machines draws increased attention.

When scheduling on multiple machines, outsourcing is also a choice for reducing tardiness or completion time. In [19], this is a multi-machine environment. Outsourcing is allowed if needed. Since the cost of outsourcing is much higher than the cost paid by producers themselves, outsourcing is the last resort to avoid tardiness. However, scheduling

with outsourcing makes the producers have more flexibility to retain customer satisfaction.

TABLE 1. Three kinds of milling machines.

TABLE 2. An industrial problem instance.

This study is motivated by the following real-world example. The example of multi-machine scheduling with due window is shown in Tables 1 and 2. There are three asphalt milling machines whose processing speeds and environmental costs are all different. Twenty one neighboring regions need to be paved with stone and asphalt within 17th Nov. and 25th Nov. The processing cost of each region can be roughly estimated by its area. However, the density of manholes or handholes slightly affects the complexity of trimming and the labor of traffic control. Earliness causes extra cost, since traffic signal installation or planting engineering had better be done first. Tardiness also leads to contractual fine. Consequently, all the jobs had better be finished within the due window. However, the internal resource (e.g., machines) is limited, so jobs may not be completed on schedule and outsourcing may be a choice. Clearly, such scheduling is meaningful and worthwhile to explore in more detail.

II. RELATED WORK

This study aims to balance scheduling performance, customer satisfaction, and environmental protection. Some related issues include multi-machine scheduling, energy saving, and due window. They are discussed as follows.

A. MULTI-MACHINE SCHEDULING

Multi-machine scheduling means high performance but also brings considerable complexity. Though most of such problems are NP-hard, e.g., [4], [7], [8], multi-machine scheduling is still needed in today's industries. As a company grows, it naturally purchases many facilities at different stages. Moreover, the specifications of machines may be different. Some machines waste power and emit excess carbon dioxide. However, during some time, the production capacity is greater than the requested amount. Consequently, some machines causing high pollution and high power consumption can to be shut down for a while.

In general, to minimize makespan or tardiness, we use all available machines and resources as possible as we can. From the past studies [20]–[22], we learn that no machine could be absent when minimizing completion time or tardiness. Some examples are given below.

In [3], jobs were non-preemptive and machines are nonidentical. The objective was to minimize weighted makespan, total earliness, and total tardiness at the same time. It is noted that makespan directly affects customer satisfaction and grows in $O(n)$. Earliness and tardiness are also indicators of customer satisfaction and grow in $O(n^2)$. To achieve the minimum earliness, they may obtain a large makespan. Moreover, not all jobs were processed at time 0, i.e., some machines were idle at some time. In [21], machines were identical and jobs were preemptive. The objective was to minimize the total tardiness. Earliness was not considered in this study. Therefore, each optimal schedule started at time 0 and no machine was idle. Even so, this problem is still NP-hard. In a multi-machine environment [23], jobs had a common due date and learning effect and deterioration effect were considered. The objective was to minimize both tardiness and earliness. Some similar jobs could be accelerated because of learning effect and some jobs needed more processing time due to bad weather or darkness. Again, since earliness was considered, jobs did not always start at time 0. Although machines were identical, the problem is NP-hard. Moreover, tardiness or earliness was improved by multi-machine scheduling. However, the complexity and difficulty increased, since more resources implied more decision making.

In sum, compared with single-machine scheduling, multimachine scheduling become an increasingly important trend. All the above studies aimed to increase productivity and shorten completion time without consideration of environmental issues. However, there might be some schedules which achieve similar results but are more eco-friendly. So this issue is worth considering.

B. ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

There are various environmental considerations when we perform multi-machine scheduling. For example, different performance indicators were considered in a data center that uses heterogeneous servers to meet users' various requests [24].

These indicators included energy cost, carbon emission, workload balance, and processing efficiency. The processing efficiency varied with carbon emission. It was debatable that all processing units are always keeping in high-performance status. On the other hand, Galizia and Quarati [25] consumed less energy to accomplish the same objective by adjusting the workloads of processing units in a grid environment.

In a multi-machine environment, an eco-aware schedule is not necessarily cost-efficient. As long as machines are different, power consumption, carbon emission, productivity are different. As shown in [7], to minimize makespan, a greedy approach would choose the fastest machine in a heterogeneous environment. However, the greedy approach would select the most environment-friendly machine if low carbon emission is the top priority. In [26], there were different sources of energy, e.g., immediately available steam or external gas. Their environmental costs were different. In the case of abundant resources, energy resulting in minor environmental damage is preferred. That is, different kinds of energy can be managed and scheduled.

Environmental protection and cost efficiency have always been a dilemma and we need to weigh their severities. In [27], there were several pumps of different capacities and a reservoir storing groundwater from different sources. Because the nighttime electricity was charged at a low price and frequent pump switching will caused wear and tear, we had better continue to pump water for a long time at night. However, some places were not abundant in water, so groundwater should be pumped intermittently in order not to cause land subsidence. For protecting environment, we were forced to pump groundwater during some daytime. Therefore, multi-machine scheduling could help us to meet the conflicted objectives. Another example was a multi-CPU scheduling problem [4]. Traditional multi-CPU scheduling algorithms focused on partitioning and sequencing, since their major concern was load balance. Note that the processing speed is adjustable in today's computing environments. High-speed brings us high performance as well as high power consumption. Consequently, load balance is no longer the only concern. A compromise between completion time and power consumption should be found. Multi-machine scheduling is an answer to such problems.

In short, job scheduling becomes more complex if environmental issues are taken into account. The final decision may be different from the optimal schedule suggested by traditional algorithms. Environmental protection might be at the cost of makespan or tardiness. Because traditional scheduling cannot solve today's problems, new eco-aware algorithms are called for.

C. DUE WINDOW

Due-window scheduling is commonly seen in many fields and it manages to compress all the completion times within a period of time. In [28], many kinds of due window were discussed. Due window originated from JIT (Just-In-Time). With due window, we guaranteed customers an expected

delivery time. If all completion times could be controlled within a time period, a producer could reduce inventory, overproduction and avoid needless waiting time, extra delivery time, excess processing time, defective goods. The practical applications of due window can be found in semiconductor, project management (e.g., PERT/CPM), network industries, etc. Taking VoD (Video on Demand) as an example, the arrival times of multimedia network packets need to be controlled within a period of time, since early packets will clog memory buffers and tardy packets will cause jerky or choppy videos. The packets must arrive at an expected time interval.

Janiak *et al.* [28] divided due-window scheduling problems into four types. First, a common due window was specified for all jobs in advance, e.g., [29]–[32]. Their objectives were minimum earliness and tardiness. Such problems were almost NP-hard. Second, each job was assigned to a due window in advance, e.g., [33], [34]. These problems were also NP-hard and aimed to reduce earliness and tardiness. Third, a window size for all jobs was given in advance and we need to determine the beginning time of the common due window, e.g., [35], [36]. The problems looked simple, but they were actually not the case. Even for a single schedule, there are many possible starting points for the due window. So these problems are still NP-hard. Fourth, the starting point and the size of a due window were all unknowns, e.g., [37]–[39]. Since there were multiple unknowns, it meant we have more freedom to schedule jobs. Such problems were polynomially solvable and could be solved optimally in $O(n^3)$.

Some past research aimed to minimize earliness and tardiness simultaneously [23], [40], [41]. Min and Cheng [40] pointed that on-time delivery is important in textile, industrial, electronics industries, etc. Therefore, scheduling with due window is meaningful. If machines are heterogeneous, scheduling becomes more complicated. Kayvanfar *et al.* [41] simultaneously minimized the tardiness and earliness on a single machine. Although no due window was explicitly specified in this study, we could suppose that there exists a due window of size 0 for minimizing tardiness and earliness. The applications of due window were common in a data center with multiple servers [24], [42], [43]. Accelerating disks or CPUs help us meet the requirements during rush hour and decelerating them can save energy at nighttime. How to achieve a balance on both is important. Interestingly, industrial scheduling and computer science pursue the same purpose. Again, Toksari and Guner [23] considered both earliness and tardiness. All jobs were assigned a common delivery date, i.e., a due window of size 0. In this problem, earliness and tardiness would cause different penalties. Such a problem was also NP-hard.

Four points are drawn from the above observations. First, multi-machine scheduling has become an important research issue. Related applications are seen in many fields, e.g., manufacturing plants, data centers, pumping stations. Second, the related eco-aware issues are discussed less than 10% in multi-machine scheduling. This is because traditional scheduling emphasized customer satisfaction and tardiness

TABLE 3. Related research regarding the three topics.

was strictly controlled or even not allowed. Consequently, environment protection was sacrificed or ignored. Third, due window and environment protection are seldom considered simultaneously. This is because due window is also a customer-oriented concept and usually conflicts with environment protection. Fourth, since most of these problems are NP-hard, some metaheuristic algorithms are needed for generating near-optimal schedules for practical use. Table 3 summarizes past research regarding the three topics of multi-machine scheduling, environmental protection, and due window. It is clear that the three issues are seldom studied simultaneously, especially for heterogeneous machines. Therefore, the three issues are worth detailed exploration.

III. PROBLEM FORMULATION

Consider the real-world application shown in Tables 1 and 2 and formulate the job scheduling problem as follows. There are *n* jobs to be scheduled on *m* machines with a common due window $[e, d]$, where $e \leq d$. All the jobs are available at time 0. Each machine can process at most one job at a time and each job can be allocated to any machine. Job *j* has a processing time *p^j* and a processing cost coefficient *w^j* . Machine *i* has a speed v_i and a unit production cost c_i (resource consumption). For example, the resource consumption of job *j* on machine *i* is *pjwjci*/*vⁱ* . Without loss of generality, we assume that $c_1/v_1 \leq c_2/v_2 \leq \ldots \leq c_m/v_m$. Intuitively, v_i and *cⁱ* can be regarded as the second and third columns shown in Table 1. It is clear that machine 1 is the most economic. For a schedule π , the completion time of job *j* is denoted by $C_i(\pi)$ and the earliness and tardiness of job *j* are determined as $E_i(\pi) = \max\{0, e - C_i(\pi)\}\$ and $T_i(\pi) = \max\{0, C_i(\pi) - C_i(\pi)\}$ *d*}, respectively. The objective is to minimize the total cost, i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j \in M_i}^{(p_j w_j c_i/v_i)}$, subject to $\sum_{j} (E_j(\pi) + T_j(\pi)) \leq A$, where $j@M_i$ means job *j* is allocated to machine *i* and *A* is a specified limit. To meet this requirement, a decision maker can outsource some jobs at a unit production cost of *cm*+1, where $c_{m+1} \geq c_m/v_m$.

A problem instance is shown in Fig. 1. Let $A = 18$, $[e, d] = [10, 12], m = 2, n = 8, v_i = 2, 1, c_i =$ 1, 1, *p^j* = 2, 2, 4, 4, 8, 8, 12, 16, *w^j* = 2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1 for $i = 1, 2$ and $j = 1, 2, ..., 8$. For a schedule $\pi =$ (8, 4, 3, 5, 7, 0, 6, 2, 1, 0), two zeros separate the 8 jobs into

FIGURE 2. The proposed lower bound 1.

three parts. Since the third part is empty, no outsourcing is needed. The completion times of all the jobs are shown in Fig. 1. Therefore, the total tardiness and earliness is 18, i.e., $T_j = 2, 0, 0, 0, 4, 0, 10, 0, E_j = 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2$, for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, 8$. Note that small jobs with large weights are centralized within the due window [*e*, *d*] and the starting time on machine 2 is 2. Moreover, the cost for machine 1 is 26 and the cost for machine 2 is 16. Therefore, the minimum resource consumption is 42.

The following theorem shows that the problem is NP-hard by reducing the 0-1 knapsack problem [80]. The 0-1 knapsack problem is defined as follows. There are *n* indivisible items and a knapsack. These items are of different values and weighs. We want to take as valuable a load as possible, but the load cannot exceed the maximum capacity of the knapsack.

Theorem 1: The proposed problem is NP-hard.

Proof: At first an instance *I* of the 0-1 knapsack problem is given. There are *n* positive values $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, *n* positive weights $\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and a positive capacity $W \in \mathbb{Z}$. Which items should be taken such that we have maximum Σ_j is chosen γ_j with Σ_j is chosen $\omega_j \leq W$?

For any given instance *I* of the 0-1 knapsack problem, we construct a corresponding instance I' of the corresponding decision version of our scheduling problem as follows:

- -Number of machines: $m = 1$
- -Speeds of machines: $v_i = 1$ for $i = 1$
- -Costs of machines: $c_i = 1$ for $i = 1$
- -Limit of total earliness and tardiness: $A = 0$
- -Number of jobs: *n*
- -Processing times: $p_i = \omega_i$ for $j = 1, \ldots, n$
- -Job weights: $w_i = \gamma_i$ for $j = 1, \ldots, n$
- -Due window: $[e, d] = [0, W]$

It is easy to verify that there exists an optimal schedule with the total earliness and tardiness less than or equal to 0 if and only if there exists an optimal solution for the 0-1 knapsack problem with the maximum load less than or equal to *W*. The proof is complete.

Compared with the 0-1 knapsack problem, the proposed problem is more difficult. The 0-1 knapsack problem needs only to determine an optimal combination (or partition) of valuable items, whereas the proposed problem should determine an optimal permutation of jobs. That is, the solution space of the proposed problem is much larger than that of the 0-1 knapsack problem. Moreover, even for a determined schedule, the starting time on each machine is also needed to be determined. Consequently, it is not suitable for solving this problem by only using some commercial programs. Some dedicated properties need to be

FIGURE 3. The proposed lower bound 2.

Algorithm $B\&B(p_j, w_j, v_i, c_i, e, d, A, \pi_{\min})$ **INPUT** p_i : processing time of job j w_i : weight of job j v_i : speed of machine i c_i : cost of machine i e : threshold for earliness d : threshold for tardiness A : limit of total earliness and tardiness π_{\min} : initial solution **OUTPUT** π_{\min} : optimal schedule **Step 1.** (Initialization) Set the objective cost $f(\pi_{\min})$ of the initial schedule. //Note that $f()$ means the objective function. Step 2. (Branching) Apply Rules 1-9 and Lemmas 1-2 to delete the dominated branches. Step 3. (Bounding) Compute the two lower bounds, i.e., LB1 and LB2, for each branch; Delete the branch if max {LB1, LB2} $\geq f(\pi_{\min})$. **Step 4.** If a lower objective cost $f(\pi)$ occurs at a leaf node, replace $f(\pi_{\min})$ with the lower cost $f(\pi)$ and set $\pi_{\min} = \pi$. Step 5. Repeat Steps 2-5 until no branches are available. **Step 6.** Output $f(\pi_{\min})$ and π_{\min} .

FIGURE 4. The proposed B&B algorithm.

developed to shrink the searching area in the solution space.

bounds are developed for trimming some schedules whose partial costs are higher than the lower bounds

IV. BRANCH-AND-BOUND ALGORITHM

To optimally solve the problem, we propose a branch-andbound algorithm for small problem instances. First, several dominance rules are proposed for pruning unnecessary branches in a search tree. Second, two complementary lower

A. DOMINANCE RULES

Some symbols used to develop the dominance rules are introduced as follows. Suppose that $\pi = (\alpha, i, j, \beta)$ and $\pi' = (\alpha, j, i, \beta)$ are two schedules of jobs, where α is a determined partial schedule and β is an undetermined

Algorithm $GA(r_c, r_m, r_s, N)$ **INPUT** r_c : crossover rate r_m : mutation rate η_s : local search rate $N:$ population size **OUTPUT** π_{\min} : final schedule **Step 1.** (Initialization) N schedules are randomly generated. **Step 2.** (Evaluation) For each schedule π_i , its fitness is $\sqrt{f(\pi_i)}$ / $\sum_{k=1}^N \sqrt{f(\pi_k)}$. For each violation of π_i , a penalty of 1,000 is accumulated in the objective cost of π_i . If a π_i achieves lower cost, set $\pi_{\min} = \pi_i$. //Note that $f()$ means the objective function. Step 3. (Selection) In the original population, schedules will be chosen by a standard roulette wheel selection to form a new generation. Step 4. (Crossover) To form the new population, r_cN selected schedules are obtained by a shift-insert crossover operation and $(1-r_c)N$ selected schedules directly survive into the new generation. Step 5. (Mutation) For each schedule π_i in the new generation, there is a mutation probability of r_m . Step 6. (Evaluation) For each schedule π_i in the new generation, its fitness is computed again. Step 7. (Local Search) In the new population, $r_{15}N$ schedules are randomly selected and improved by a local search of SA. Step 8. Repeat Steps 2–8 until some stopping criterion is met.

Step 9. Output the final schedule π_{\min} .

FIGURE 5. The proposed genetic algorithm.

Function *SA*(λ , T_{ini} , T_0 , K , π) **INPUT** λ : cooling coefficient T_{ini} : initial temperature T_0 : freezing temperature K : iteration number π : initial schedule **OUTPUT** π_{\min} : final schedule **BEGIN Step 1.** Set the initial temperature, i.e., $T = T_{ini}$. Step 2. While ($T > T_0$) do Steps 3–8. Step 3. For $k = 1$ to K do Steps 4-7. Generate a neighbor schedule π' by taking a random walk (i.e., interchange of pairwise jobs) starting from π . Step 4. Step 5. Generate a random real number r with $0 \le r \le 1$. Set $\varepsilon = f(\pi) - f(\pi')$. //Note that $f()$ means the objective function. Step 6. If ($\varepsilon > 0$) or ($r < e^{-\varepsilon/T}$) then $\pi_{\min} = \pi'$. Step 7. Set $T = \lambda T$. Sten 8. **Step 9.** Output the final schedule π_{\min} .

FIGURE 6. The proposed local search.

partial sequence. The only difference between π and π' is a pairwise interchange of two adjacent jobs *i* and *j* on some machine *k*. For simplicity, let max_{*j*∈α}{ C_j (π)} = *t*₀, C_i (π) = $t_0 + p_i/v_k = t_1, C_j(\pi) = t_1 + p_j/v_k = t_2, C_j(\pi') = 0$ $t_0 + p_j/v_k = t_3$, and $C_i(\pi') = t_3 + p_i/v_k = t_4 = t_2$.

Rules 1 and 2 show that a larger job should be scheduled first if both schedules cause earliness. Since the proofs are similar, only the proof of the first dominance rule is given below.

Rule 1: If $t_1 < t_3 < e \leq t_4$, then π' dominates π .

Proof: We observe the difference of earliness for the two schedules. Since $E_i(\pi) = \max\{0, e - t_2\} = \max\{0, e - t_4\}$ $E_i(\pi')$ and $E_j(\pi') = \max\{0, e - C_j(\pi')\} = e - t_3 < e - t_1 = 0$ $\max\{0, e - C_i(\pi)\} = E_i(\pi)$. So π' dominates π . The proof is complete.

Rule 2: If $t_1 < t_3 < t_4 \le e$, then π' dominates π .

Rules 3–6 deal with the situation that both earliness and tardiness occur on a single machine. If a larger job *j* is processed first, the total earliness or tardiness can be improved.

Algorithm $ICA(r_c, r_m, r_l, M, N)$ **INPUT** r_c : assimilation rate (the crossover rate of GA) r_m : revolution rate (the mutation rate of GA) r_{1s} : local search rate $M:$ number of empires N : number of citizens (the population size of GA) **OUTPUT** π_{\min} : best king (final schedule) Step 1. (Initialization) Randomly generate N citizens (like the chromosomes of GA) and randomly assign them to these empires. Evaluate each citizen and determine a king for each empire. Step 2. (Assimilation) Select r_cN citizens by the standard roulette wheel selection and force each of them to move towards its corresponding king (like the crossover operation of GA). Step 3. (Rebellion) Randomly select r_mN citizens and let each of them defect to another empire (like the mutation operation of GA). Step 4. (Local Search) Randomly select $r_{ls}N$ citizens and apply the local search (i.e., SA) to each selected citizen. Step 5. (Evaluation) Evaluate each citizen and determine a new king for each empire. Step 6. (Competition) Randomly choose a citizen from the weakest empire (i.e., its king has the largest objective cost) and randomly assign it to another empire. Step 7. Repeat Steps 2-6 until some stopping criteria are met. **Step 8.** Output the best king π_{\min} .

FIGURE 7. The proposed ICA algorithm.

TABLE 4. Parameter settings.

Rule 3: If $t_1 < e < d \le t_3$ and $e - t_1 > t_3 - d$, then π' dominates π .

Rule 4: If $t_1 < e \le t_3 \le d$, then π' dominates π .

Rule 5: If $t_3 \le e < d \le t_1$ and $t_1 - d > e - t_3$, then π' dominates π .

Rule 6: If $t_1 < t_3 \le d$ and $t_1 < e$, then π' dominates π .

Rules 7–9 show that a smaller job *j* should be scheduled first if both schedules cause tardiness.

Rule 7: If $e \le t_3 < t_1$ and $d < t_1$, then π' dominates π .

Rule 8: If $d \le t_0 < t_3 < t_1$, then π' dominates π . *Rule 9:* If $e \le t_3 \le d < t_1$, then π' dominates π .

Let $h_k(x) = p_j$ be a function for some allocated jobs on machine *k*, where job *j* is scheduled at the *x*th position.

Lemma 1 shows that there exists an optimal schedule such that $h_k(x)$ is always concave upward, where $h_k(x)$ means the process time of the job scheduled at the *x*th position on machine *k*. By this lemma, we can prune many unnecessary branches whose processing times are not concave upward on a machine *k*.

Lemma 1: There exists an optimal sequence for each machine *k* such that $h_k(x)$ is concave upward.

Proof: Consider there are three situations for two adjacent jobs *i* and *j* on machine *k*. First, they cause earliness. Then by Rules 1 and 2, a larger job should be processed first. Second, no earliness and tardiness occurs. Let the two jobs scheduled with $h_k(x)$ concaves upward. That makes no harm to the objective cost. Third, they cause tardiness. Then by Rules 7–9, a smaller job should be processed first. Therefore, there exists an optimal schedule with $h_k(x)$ concaves upward. The proof is complete.

TABLE 5. The performance of B&B and ICA for $n = 5$.

The concept of outsiders is described as follows. Let *n^L* be the number of left-hand jobs whose completion times less than *e* and *n^R* be the number of right-hand jobs whose completion times greater than *d*. Then Lemma 2 shows that there exists an optimal schedule which has the same number of left-hand outsiders and right-hand outsiders, i.e., $n_L = n_R$, for each machine *k*. By Lemma 2, we can determine the starting time of jobs allocated to a machine.

Lemma 2: Given jobs allocated to a machine (machine *k*), for each optimal sequence on the machine, $n_L = n_R$.

Proof: We prove it by contradiction. Assume there are no such optimal sequence with $n_L = n_R$ for machine *k*. Without loss of generality, suppose α is an optimal sequence with n_L < n_R . Let δ be the minimum nonzero earliness E_i and tardiness T_i for all jobs allocated to machine k . Then we force all jobs to be processed 0.5δ later than their original starting times. Namely, all their original completion times C_i becomes $C_i + 0.5\delta$. Then the objective gain becomes a negative value, i.e., $0.5(n_Lδ - n_Rδ)$. This contradicts that α is an optimal sequence on the machine with $n_L < n_R$. The proof is complete.

B. LOWER BOUND

To accelerate the B&B algorithm, we propose two complementary lower bounds. Again, let $\pi = (\alpha, \beta)$ be an incomplete schedule, where α is a determined partial schedule and β is an undetermined partial sequence. When computing the lower bounds, we assume that jobs in β are preemptive.

Fig. 2 shows the details of the first lower bound. Assume that c_{α} is the current cost, m_{α} is the current machine, t_{α} is the current makespan on machine m_α , and A_α is the current accumulated earliness and tardiness. We sort jobs in β in descending order of w_i/p_i and determine the largest job in β (Steps 1 and 2). Since there is a quota of $(A - A_\alpha)$ for earliness and tardiness, we allow for overtime work on machine *m^k* for $k = m_{\alpha} + 1, m_{\alpha} + 2, \ldots, m$ (Step 3). Moreover, we take advantage of the period of processing time $[e - p_{\text{max}}/v_k, e]$ before the due window. We assume that jobs processed during the period cause no earliness and tardiness. Then, we can allocate valuable jobs (i.e., larger w_j/p_j) one by one to economic machines (i.e., smaller c_k/v_k) in a preemptive way (Steps 4–6). Finally, the lower bound is returned in Step 7.

Fig. 3 shows the details of the second lower bound. We assume that $\max_{j \in \alpha} \{C_j(\pi)\} = t_0$. Note that the most

TABLE 6. The performance of B&B and ICA for $n = 10$.

economic machine is not necessarily the fast machine. Consequently, we increase the processing speed of machine m_α and assume that all the remaining quota, i.e., $(A - A_{\alpha})$ is consumed only by this machine. Therefore, no earliness and tardiness occur on the other machines and the time buffers of other machines are narrower than those of lower bound 1.C. Branch-and-bound algorithm To optimally solve the problem, we employ a depth-first search to develop a B&B algorithm which includes the following basic six steps (Fig. 4). First, we borrow a near-optimal solution from a metaheuristic algorithm, e.g., GA or ICA, (see next subsection) and build a search tree. In Steps 2 and 3, dominance rules and lower bounds are employed to eliminate some branches that the optimal solutions do not reside in. Step 3 updates the current global minimum if a new local minimum occurs. Note that $f()$ means the objective function. Repeat the depth-first search and obtain the global minimum.

V. METAHEURISTIC ALGORITHMS

When the problem size is large, we propose an imperialist competitive algorithm (ICA) to provide near-optimal

solutions. Moreover, we also employ a genetic algorithm (GA) as a benchmark for evaluating the performance of ICA.

A. GENETIC ALGORITHM (GA)

A simple genetic algorithm (GA) is used as a benchmark and the details are shown in Fig. 5. In Step 1, we randomly generate *N* schedules, where *N* is the population size. For example, we have five jobs $(n = 5)$ and two machines $(m = 2)$. A schedule $(1,5,3,0,2,0,4)$ means that jobs 1, 5, 3 are allocated to machine 1, job 2 is allocated to machine 2, and job 4 is outsourced, where the zeros mean separators. Note that some schedules may be invalid. In Step 2, we compute the fitness for each schedule for later selection and crossover. In Steps 3 and 4, a roulette wheel selection is employed for selection. We select r_cN solutions to form the next generation by crossover and $(1 - r_c)N$ solutions to directly survive into the next generation. For each pair of selected solutions, a shift-and-insert crossover is conducted. Consider a solution as a circular queue. We randomly choose two integers *a* and *b* from $\{0,1,\ldots,n-1\}$. If *a* < *b*, we first take the job at position *a* away,

TABLE 7. The performance of B&B and ICA for $n = 15$.

then shift jobs one by one from positions $a+1$, $a+2,..., b$ to positions $a, a+1, \ldots, b-1$, and finally insert the previously taken job into position *b*. Similarly, $a > b$, we first take the job at position *a* away, then shift jobs one by one from positions $a+1, a+2,..., n-1, 0, 1,..., b$ to positions $a, a+1,...,$ $n-1,0,1,\ldots, b-1$, and finally insert the previously taken job into position *b*. In Step 5, there is a mutation probability of *r^m* that a solution mutates in the new generation. Moreover, we perform a local search to enhance the solution quality of GA by a simple algorithm of simulated annealing (SA) in Step 7. In the last step, the algorithm terminates if the run time reaches 2*n* seconds or no improvements are made during the recent 20*n* generations.

A simulated annealing (SA) algorithm is used as a local search (Fig. 6). SA is motivated by annealing in metals. The phenomenon is a gradually stabilized process which occurs when heated or melted metal cools down slowly. High temperature means a random state and it is relatively easy for molecules to reach a new thermal equilibrium. Therefore, in Step 6, SA jumps to a new position mainly due to discovery of a local minimum and slightly due to forced change (like mutation of GA). Moreover, the completion time of cooling process is controlled by the cooling coefficient λ in Step 8. After searching the local area of π , a new schedule π with lower objective cost is returned.

B. IMPERIALIST COMPETITIVE ALGORITHM (ICA)

The imperialist competitive algorithm (ICA) was first introduced by [81], [82]. ICA is based on the competitions of empires. There are *M* empires and all of them have *N* citizens. Each citizen can be viewed as a chromosome in GA. The king of an empire is defined as a citizen who achieves the minimum cost in the corresponding empire. That is, a king is a local minimum in the solution space. In general, we can regard each empire in ICA as a population in GA. The main difference is that ICA has a rebellion operation and achieves more diversification force [83].

The details of ICA are shown in Fig. 7. Like GA, each citizen is encoded as a random permutation of $1, 2, \ldots, n$, and (*m*-1) zeros, where a zero means a separator (Step 1). For each violation in the encoding of a citizen, a penalty of 1,000 is accumulated in its objective cost. In Step 2, each citizen is forced to move towards its king. The assimilation operation is done by a shift-and-insert crossover like GA. The main idea

TABLE 8. The comparison between the two lower bounds for $n = 10$.

behind assimilation is similar to the crossover operation in GA or the movement in particle swarm optimization (PSO). In Steps 3 and 4, a citizen may rebel and defect to another empire. Like GA, we also employ a local search of SA to enhance the solution quality. All the *N* citizens are evaluated and the weakest empire is punished (Steps 5 and 6). Like GA, ICA terminates if the run time reaches 2*n* seconds or no improvements are made during the recent 20*n* generations.

VI. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The experiments are divided into three parts. In the first part, to evaluate the performance of B&B, we solve the problem optimally when the problem size is small. The related statistics are recorded, e.g., average node and run time. In the second part, ICA is used to obtain near-optimal solutions when the problem size is large. To evaluate the performance of ICA, the performance of GA is viewed as a benchmark. In the third part, two sensitivity tests are conducted to observe the influence of control parameters on the objective cost.

Table 4 summarizes the parameters used in the experiments. Parameters *n*, *m*, *cⁱ* , *vⁱ* , *w^j* , *p^j* , *e*, *d*, and *A* have already been defined in Section 3. Parameters c_i and v_i are two

real numbers randomly chosen from [1.0, 5.0], *w^j* is a real number randomly chosen from [1.0, 2.0]. Assume that the unit cost of outsourcing, i.e., c_{m+1} , is 10.0. Processing time p_i follows a discrete uniform distribution over $\{1, 2, \ldots, 100\}$. Parameters *l* and *a* are used to control the width of due window and limit *A* respectively. For GA and ICA, both population sizes are *N* and their crossover rates, mutation rates, and local search rates are identical. Moreover, both of them employ the same local search SA with the same settings. All the algorithms are implemented in Pascal and executed on an Intel Core i7 @ 3.40GHz with 8 GB RAM in a Windows 7 SP1 environment. For each setting, 50 random trials are conducted and recorded. For the two metaheuristic algorithms, the stopping criteria are the run time is over 2*n* seconds or solution quality cannot be improved more during recent 20*n* generations.

In the first part, Table 5 shows the solution quality and run time of the proposed algorithms for $n = 5$. The relative error percentage (REP) is defined as $(f - f_{BB})/f_{BB} \times 100\%$, where *f* means the objective cost obtained by GA or ICA and *fBB* is the optimal objective cost obtained by B&B. All the execution speeds of the proposed algorithms are measured in second.

TABLE 9. The performance of ICA for $n = 25$.

It is seen that the average nodes of B&B decreases when the number of machines increases. Multi-machine scheduling seems easier to solve for B&B for some fixed *n*. B&B also takes more run time to solve an instance with an early due window (i.e., small *l*). This is because we have enough room for containing small jobs and need more trial and errors to obtain the optimal schedules. On the other hand, when the limit *A* is small, it also means we have less flexibility to adjusting these small jobs and therefore B&B will consume more execution time to find the optimal schedule. For both metaheuristic algorithms, their solution quality are the same for $n = 5$. However, ICA needs more run time to deal with the competition between the empires.

Table 6 shows the solution quality and run time of the proposed algorithms for $n = 10$. Again, the effects of m , *l*, *A* on B&B are similar. However, the difficulty increases when *m* increases. Multi-machine scheduling is still harder than single-machine scheduling. The most difficult setting is $m = 2$, $l = 0.75$, $A = 0$, since the average node is 79905. On the other hand, as *n* increases, ICA achieve lower REPs than GA in general though it takes a little more execution time. The design of multiple empires now are effective.

Table 7 shows the solution quality and run time of the proposed algorithms for $n = 15$. The symbol NA means the optimal solutions are not available. This is because we force B&B to quit if the nodes exceeds one hundred million. It implies that some metaheuristic algorithms are needed for providing near-optimal solutions for $n > 15$. On the other hand, the REPs of ICA are relatively low compared with GA. Therefore, ICA can be a good candidate for solving

large problem instances. Note that B&B always generates the optimal solutions but consumes more run time. On the other hand, although ICA takes a little longer run time than GA, ICA always provides higher solution quality (i.e., lower REP). Namely, ICA's wider biodiversity is helpful to improve solution quality in this problem.

Table 8 shows the performance of the two proposed lower bounds for $n = 10$. In this table, B&B cooperates closely with two lower bounds, $B\&B_{LB1}$ means a branch-and-bound algorithm works with dominance rules and LB1 only, and B&BLB2 means a branch-and-bound algorithm is equipped with dominance rules and LB2 only. As shown in the mean node columns, LB2 is very powerful, especially for dealing with the situations of early due windows and small limits, e.g., $m = 1, L = 0.25, A = 0$. On the other hand, LB1 is good at pruning unnecessary nodes for more machines and larger limits, e.g., $m = 2, L = 0.5, A = 200$. However, without the help of LB2, $B\&B_{LB1}$ will take more runt time than $B\&B$ and B&B_{LB2}. It is clear that both lower bounds complement each other.

As shown in the above experiments, B&B can optimally solve the problem within 5 minutes for small problem instances. On the other hand, ICA can provide high-quality solutions within 2*n* seconds for a large *n*. It is qualified for solving the real-world instance in Table 2.

In the second part, Tables 9 and 10 shows the performances of two metaheuristic algorithms for large problem instances. The relative deviation percentage (RDP) is defined as $(f - f_{\text{min}})/f_{\text{min}} \times 100\%$, where *f* means the objective cost obtained by GA or ICA and *f*_{min} is the minimum cost obtained

TABLE 10. The performance of ICA for $n = 50$.

FIGURE 8. The effects of control parameters on the objective cost.

by GA and ICA. For most settings, ICA achieves lower costs and its RDPs are always less than 2.73%. On the other hand, compared with GA, ICA takes less run time when *n* is large. This is because biodiversity is easy to be achieved by ICA. Compared with GA, ICA has multiple dependent populations and GA just has one. Some potential solutions of ICA are therefore not weeded out.

In the third part, a sensitivity test is provided in Fig. 8 to show the influences of parameters *l* and *a* (i.e., *A*/300). The default values of other parameters are $n = 10$ and $m = 2$. It is clear that the objective cost will decrease intensively if we have large due windows. That is, we have more flexibility to schedule jobs. Moreover, loose limits of earliness and tardiness also leads to lower objective costs. The decreasing

TABLE 11. The effects of input parameters on the objective cost.

	processing (p_i)	time	production (c_i)	cost	production (v_i)	speed
increase of a parameter $(\%)$	object ive cost	chang e(%)	objectiv e cost	chang e(%)	objectiv e cost	chang e(%)
-15	557.114	-20.33	605.651	-13.39	848.502	21.34
-10	597.286	-14.58	636.958	-8.91	788.858	12.81
-5	646.374	-7.56	668.203	-4.44	738.987	5.68
0	699.264	0.00	699.264	0.00	699.264	0.00
5	740.892	5.95	730.377	4.45	650.271	-7.01
10	788.671	12.79	761.518	8.90	607.529	-13.12
15	836.936		792.929		575.381	
correlation	19.69		13.39		-17.72	
coefficient	0.999627		0.999999		-0.997053	

speed of *a* is faster than that of *l*. It implies that we had better negotiate a large limit instead of requesting a wider due window.

Table 11 provides another sensitivity test for three input parameters (i.e., p_j , c_i , v_i). An increase of processing time (15%) will cause an increase of objective cost (19.69%). The more processing time a job has, the more objective cost we must pay. An increase of production cost of each machine (15%) will lead to an increase of objective cost (13.39%). The objective cost is directly affected by the input parameters. On the other hand, an increase of production speed of each machine (15%) will result in a decrease of objective cost (17.72%). It means that we can earn profit by improving the factory facilities, although investing them require some cost.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study considers a multi-machine scheduling problem with a due window. Given a limit of total earliness and tardiness, we aim to minimize the total cost including environmental damage. The difficulty of this problem resides in the variety of machines and distinction between jobs. A branch-and-bound algorithm (B&B) is proposed. Using the dominance rules and two complementary lower bounds, B&B deals successfully with the instances of $n \leq 15$ and $m \leq 3$. Moreover, an imperialist competitive algorithm (ICA) is developed to provide near-optimal solutions. The experimental results show that ICA performs well for $n \leq 50$. In the future, we may consider due windows with different penalties for earliness and tardiness and develop some metaheuristic for obtaining near-optimal schedules for a large *n*, e.g., 100.

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