A Comparison between two Modified NSGA-II Algorithms for Solving the Multi-objective Flexible Job Shop Scheduling Problem

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Abstract Many evolutionary algorithms have been used to solve multi-objective scheduling problems. NSGA-II is one of them that is based on the Pareto optimality concept and generally obtains good results. However, it is possible to improve its performance with some modifications. In this paper, two modified NSGA-II algorithms have been suggested for solving the multi-objective flexible job shop scheduling problem. The neighborhood structures defined for the problem are integrated into the algorithms to create better generations during the iterations. Also, their initial populations are created with an effective heuristic. In the first modified NSGA-II, after the creation of the offspring population, a neighbor of each individual in the parent population is constructed, and then one of them is selected according to the domination state of the solutions. Then the populations are merged to create a new population. In the second modified NSGA-II, only the solutions on the first and second fronts of the parent population and also their neighbors are merged with the offspring population. Other operators of the algorithms like the non-dominated sorting and calculating the crowding distances are as the classic NSGA-II. A comparison is done with a classic NSGA-II based on two metrics. The results show that as it is in the first modified NSGA-II, including neighbors of more individuals of the population provides better results because it increases diversity and intensity of the search. The performance of the second modified NSGA-II is almost similar to the NSGA-II. So, it can be concluded that although integrating the neighborhood structures can improve the performance of search, it is better to define that the structures should be applied to how many and which solutions, in otherwise the quality of search may not increase.

Keywords Flexible Job Shop Scheduling, Multi-objective Optimization, NSGA-II, Neighborhood Structures, Hybrid Algorithms

1 Introduction

Flexible job shop scheduling problem (FJSSP) is an NP-hard problem that has been investigated by many researchers in the recent decades. Many of the scheduling problems in the manufacturing and computer science can be modelled based on this problem. For example, Ho et al. have defined the production process of the printed circuit board (PCB) in the electronic manufacturing service (EMS) as a FJSSP [19]. Because of the complex structure of this combinatorial problem, it is difficult to solve it with the non-hybrid and exact methods [45]. So, several hybrid methods, which integrate the population-based meta-heuristics (P-metaheuristics), single-based meta-heuristics (S-metaheuristics), heuristics, mathematical programming, constraint programming, machine learning and graph-based methods are suggested for solving this problem [1][36][39][41][42][43][44][47][50]. Also, in many real scheduling problems of the manufacturing systems, it is necessary to deal with more than one objective. Therefore, the algorithms for the multi-objective optimization are widely researched in the scheduling literature. Generally, in these algorithms, the diversity and intensity of the search are increased to create better generations. There are many approaches for this aim. For example, Knowles and Corne have proposed the Pareto archived evolution strategy, in which a child is generated from each parent. If the child dominates the parent, it is selected. If the parent dominates the child, a new child is created by the

mutation operator. If none of them dominates the other, one of them is chosen according to the diversity criteria [28]. The aim of this study is to propose two hybrid algorithms based on the non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm-II (NSGA-II) for solving the multi-objective FJSSP (MO-FJSSP). We attempt to intensify the search using effective neighborhood structures, integrated into the algorithms. In the first modified NSGA-II (M1-NSGA-II), like the classic NSGA-II, during the iterations, the offspring population is generated by applying the crossover and mutation operators into the parent population. After this, a neighbor is generated for each individual in the parent population and one of them is selected according to the domination state of them. Then, the offspring and the revised parent populations are merged to generate a new population. In the second modified NSGA-II (M2-NSGA-II), only the solutions in the first and second fronts of the parent population and their neighbors are merged with the offspring population. The initial populations of both algorithms are created based on the left shifts heuristic [43]. The algorithms are compared with a classic NSGA-II, whose initial population is created randomly, based on different metrics.

The next sections of this paper are arranged such that in the second section, the problem definition and the test instances are described. Previous studies are explained in the third section regarding the multi-objective concepts. Design and implementation steps of the algorithms are described in the fourth section. Then, the results and comparison are presented. Conclusion and future works are the last section of the paper.

2 Problem Definition and Test Instances

The assumptions about the model are (i) each job has one or more operations, (ii) assignable machine and processing time of the operations on them are predefined, (iii) the jobs are independent of each other, (iv) interruption during the process of the operations isn't allowed, (v) each machine can process at most one operation at any time, (vi) setting time of the machines are negligible, (vii) each machine can work independently from the other machines with maximum performance and there aren't maintenance and breakdown times [5][20][52].

Two general phases of the FJSSP are (i) assignment and (ii) sequencing. Because of the flexibility, in spite of the job shop scheduling problem (JSSP), the jobs can be processed on more than one route. Thus, in addition to the sequencing of operations on machines, it is necessary to make a decision for assigning them to the machines. According to these steps of the FJSSP, two approaches can be applied to solve the problem as (i) the hierarchical approach with decomposition and (ii) the integrated approach. In the first approach, assignment and sequencing steps are done sequentially [7][27][46][48], while in the second approach they are done simultaneously [12][18][22]. The hierarchical approach is based on the Brandimarte's decomposing method and decreases the complexity of problem [49].

Some of the used notations to represent the jobs, machines and their features are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. The used notations

Notation	Description
n	Total number of the jobs
m	Total number of the machines
n_i	Total operation number of job i
O_{ij}	The j -th operation of job i
P_{ijk}	Processing time of O_{ij} on machine k
ST_{ijk}	Start time of O_{ij} on machine k
$PJ[O_{ij}]$	Previous operation of O_{ij} on the related job
$PJ[O_{ij}]$	Successive operation of O_{ij} on the related job
$PM[O_{ij}]$	Previous operation of the O_{ij} on the assigned machine
$SM[O_{ij}]$	Successive operation of the O_{ij} on the assigned machine
C_{max}	Maximal completion time of the machines (makespan)
W_{max}	Maximal machine workload
W_T	Total workload of the machines

The objective function of the problem is defined as Equation 1 [52].

$$\text{Minimize } f(x) = (C_{max}, W_{max}, W_T) \quad (1)$$

The sequence constraint of operations can be denoted as Equation 2. According to this constraint, the difference between the start time of two consecutive operations of a job must be at least as much as the processing time of the preceding operation. In other words, each operation can only start after the predecessor one is finished.

$$s.t. \quad ST_{ijl} - ST_{i(j-1)k} \geq P_{i(j-1)k}, j = 2, \dots, n_i; \quad \forall i, j, k \quad (2)$$

Each machine can only process one operation at a time, and also an operation cannot leave the machine until it is finished. Therefore, the difference between the start time of two consecutive processes on a machine must be at least as much as the processing time of the preceding one. This is satisfied with the resource constraint, which is expressed as Equation 3.

$$\begin{aligned} &[(ST_{lmk} - ST_{ijk} - P_{ijk} \geq 0)] \\ &\quad \text{or} \\ &[(ST_{ijk} - ST_{lmk} - P_{lmk} \geq 0)]; \\ &\quad \forall (i, j), (l, m), k \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

It is clear that according to the order of operations on a machine, only one of these inequalities is valid. The first one is valid if O_{ij} begins before O_{lm} on machine k , and in otherwise the second one is valid.

In the literature, there are several test instances for the FJSSP like the Behnke and Geiger [4], Brandimarte [7], Hurink et al. [22], Dauzère-Pérès and Paulli [11], Chambers and Barnes [8], Kacem et al. [26], Fattahi et al. [17] instances. If all machines of a problem can process all of the operations that is a FJSSP with total flexibility, while in the partial FJSSP, each operation can be processed on a subset of the machines set [26][49]. The partial FJSSPs are generally more difficult than the total FJSSPs [3].

3 Previous Studies

In this section, the defined neighborhoods for the problem, some of the proposed multi-objective evolutionary algorithms and related concepts are summarized.

3.1 Neighborhood structures for the FJSSP

Several neighborhood structures are defined for the FJSSP in the literature, which are generally described with the corresponding disjunctive graph (DG) of a schedule. The structure N_1 creates neighbor S' of solution S with permuting operations O_{ij} and O_{kl} that are successive on a critical block. In the structure N_2 , the rule to select operations is similar to the structure N_1 . However, in N_2 , at least one of operations O_{ij} , O_{kl} , $PM[O_{ij}]$ and $SM[O_{kl}]$ is not on a critical path. In otherwise, applying a swap on them can't change the makespan. Reversing operations O_{ij} , O_{kl} , $SJ[O_{ij}]$, $SM[SJ[O_{kl}]]$, $PM[PJ[O_{kl}]]$ and $PJ[O_{kl}]$ should be also checked to achieve a shorter critical path. In the structure N_3 , randomly a machine and a job that is not assigned to the machine are chosen. Then the job is transferred to another valid position on the machine. In the neighborhood structure N_4 , all operations of a critical block are moved to the very beginning or very end of the block. Nowicki and Smutnicki have proposed the neighborhood structure N_5 that is smaller than the structures N_1 and N_4 and searches on the borders of a block. However, in this structure, one critical block is selected randomly and the search is done on it. The neighborhood structure N_6 switches schedule S to neighbor S' with interchanging operations O_{ij} and O_{kl} , which are on a same critical block [2][6][16][33][34].

3.2 Multi-Objective Scheduling

Genotype corresponds to the sequence of the genes in the chromosomes and phenotypes are the observable characteristics of the sequences. In the multi-objective scheduling, the phenotypes are the values of the objective function and the genotypes are the values of the variables. There are two approaches for extracting the phenotypes from the genotypes, (i) the prior approach and (ii) the posterior approach. In the first approach, the preference information of decision maker is defined previously and the multi-objective problem transforms to a single-objective problem with a linear weighted summation of the objective functions. For example, if $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$ is the vector that represents an objective function then in a prior approach, these criteria transform to a weighted function as $f = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f_i$, $0 \leq w_i \leq 1$, $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$. Based on a similar approach, some evolutionary algorithms

assign a weight to each objective function and search in one direction. But, this approach has some shortcomings; for example, as seen in Figure 1, with a weight vector as $w' = (0.5, 0.5)$ for f_1 and f_2 objective functions, it is possible to find B and C Pareto optimal solutions easily but finding A and D points is difficult [10][31].

Figure 1. The multiple weight vector approach

The multiple weight vector can be applied to overcome this deficiency, because in this case, the search is done in different directions. There are many methods to apply this approach in the literature, (i) the Schaffer's method, in which, the population is divided into M sub-populations, then it is adapted to M fitness functions as $f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_M(x)$ [37]; (ii) the Kursawe's method that is similar to the Schaffer's method, while a probability is assigned to each objective function to choose a specific direction to search on it [23][30] and (iii) the Ishibuchi and Murata's method, in which weights of the objective functions are selected randomly [31].

The posterior approach is generally more preferred, where, the preference information of decision maker is not known in advance and the appropriate solutions are selected from the obtained ones after the search. In this approach, the Pareto optimality and the domination concepts are used. Solution S^1 dominates solution S^2 (denoted as $S^1 \succ S^2$), if and only if $(\forall i \in M : f_i(S^1) \leq f_i(S^2)) \wedge (\exists i \in M : f_i(S^1) < f_i(S^2))$ and S^1 is a Pareto optimal solution, if and only if $\neg \exists S^2 : S^2 \succ S^1$. If set P_{as} contains all of the Pareto optimal solutions as $P_{as} = \{S^1 | \neg \exists S^2 : S^2 \succ S^1\}$ that is the Pareto front. The set of corresponding values of the objective functions in P_{as} as $P_F = \{f(s) = (f_0(s), f_1(s), \dots, f_{m-1}(s)) | s \in P_{as}\}$ is the set of Pareto optimal front. If P_{as} is infinite, it is difficult to find it with finite solutions, so a subset of the set can be desired. The intended subset must be a good estimation of the Pareto front with a good diversity [10][21][51].

There are many evolutionary algorithms in the literature based on the Pareto optimality concept. The non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm (NSGA) and the NSGA-II are between the most famous of them based on the Pareto optimality concept. The NSGA that is presented by Deb and Srinivas has some shortcomings as (i) the *high complexity*, of the non-dominated sorting, which is $O(mN^3)$ at each iteration, (ii) the *lack of elitism* and (iii) the *diversity adjustment requirement* [13][15][35][54].

The NSGA-III algorithm, proposed by Deb and Jian in 2014, is similar to the NSGA-II but uses different selection operators. It begins with determining the reference points (H) to place on the hyperplane. This also provides the diversity of the obtained solutions. This reference-point-based many-objective algorithm emphasizes population members that are non-dominated, yet close to a set of supplied reference points. The many-objective optimization problems contain four or more objectives. Two-objective and three-objective problems fall into a different class as the resulting Pareto-optimal front. Mostly, they can be comprehensively visualized by graphical means. But a strict upper bound on the number of objectives for a many-objective optimization problem is not so clear, except for a few occasions, most practitioners are interested in a maximum of 10–15 objectives. Ciro et al., have compared the NSGA-II and NSGA-III algorithms for solving an open shop scheduling problem with resource constraints to minimize the total flow time and balancing the resources workload. Both of them have a similar performance, however, the NSGA-III has a slight higher hyper-volume average than the NSGA-II. In addition, the NSGA-III has better results for the large-sized benchmarks and also for those that have more than 2 objectives. This is because of the process of defining a hyperplane and some reference points to classify the solutions and also for selecting the best qualified for the next population [9][14][32].

The NSGA-II algorithm uses the fast non-dominated sorting, whose complexity is $O(mN^2)$. In this algorithm, the density is estimated by the crowding distance calculation, which causes to choose qualified solutions and its complexity is $O(mN \log N)$. The crowded comparison operator is an order operator that guides the selection process to the uniform distribution in the Pareto

front. The comparison performs according to the non-dominated rank (i_{rank}) and the local crowding distance ($i_{distance}$), whose complexity is $O(2N \log(2N))$.

Several metrics are used for quantifying the performance of the multi-objective evolutionary algorithms. For example, there are some criteria to measure the *accuracy*, the *coverage* and the *variance*. The accuracy shows the closeness between the generated non-dominated and the best known solutions. The coverage indicates the diversity of solutions, while the variance represents the maximum range covered by a solution in the non-dominated front. There are various metrics in the literature to measure the diversity. The front spread (FS) that is proposed by Zitzler, is a suitable indicator of the diversity. The large values of this metric are desired [53]. In addition to the diversity, it is important to know that how many points are in the non-dominated solutions set. The front occupation (FO) is a measure suggested by Van Veldhuizen, which is defined in Equation 4 and its large values are desired [53].

$$FO = |F_1| \quad (4)$$

$|F_1|$ is the number of solutions on the Pareto front. D is another measure proposed by Van Veldhuizen whose small values are desired. This measure that is defined in Equation 5, can't properly represent the diversity because it indicates the average distance between the achieved solutions from the Pareto front [53].

$$D = \frac{1}{|F_1|} \sum_S d(S^1, S^2) \quad (5)$$

$d(S^1, S^2)$ are the distance between solutions S^1 and S^2 according to the objective functions (f_i) in the Euclidean distance system, which are calculated as Equation 6 [53], where m is the number of objectives.

$$d(S^1, S^2) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f_i(S^2) - f_i(S^1))^2} \quad (6)$$

In the NSGA-II, the Δ measure is used to evaluate the distribution of the points in the first front of the Pareto solutions. This measure is defined as Equation 7 [13][15].

$$\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{|F_1|} \frac{|d_i - \bar{d}|}{|F_1|} \quad (7)$$

d_i is the distance between two successive solutions in the Pareto front as it is defined in Equation 6 and $\bar{d}$ is the average of them, which is calculated for the last iteration. After 10 iterations, the average and variance of the Δ are calculated for comparison [13][15].

Tavakkoli et al. have designed an algorithm, which is compared with the NSGA-II, according to (i) a quality metric, (ii) a spacing metric and (iii) a diversification metric. Non-dominated solutions of the algorithms are put together and their ratio is calculated with the quality metric. Spacing metric that is defined as Equation 8, measures the uniformity of the solutions [40].

$$SPC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|F_1|-1} |\bar{d} - d_i|}{(|F_1| - 1) \times \bar{d}} \quad (8)$$

Construction of the Pareto fronts in the MO-JSSP needs high computational effort, especially in the large-size problems, which have more than 20 jobs and 10 machines. So, achieving the Pareto front in a short time and with a small memory demonstrates the efficiency of the algorithm. Suresh and Mohanasundaram have reported that they have achieved a good solution set in a short computational time and with a small memory [38]. They have used the *net front contribution ratio* (NFCR) metric to measure the quality of the non-dominated solution set [29]. NFCR is a relative measure that uses the *net non-dominated front* as the *reference set*. The net non-dominated front is obtained by updating the combined non-dominated front, which consists of the all non-dominated solutions of the compared algorithms. F_i stands for the non-dominated front of the i -th algorithm, while F_n is the front of all algorithms. n_i and n_n are respectively the numbers of solutions in the non-dominated individuals of the i -th algorithm and the net front (F_n). For each of the compared algorithm, the net front contribution ratio is calculated according to Equation 9 [24].

$$NFCR_i = \frac{n_i}{n_n} \quad (9)$$

4 Algorithm and Implementation

The general steps of the NSGA-II algorithm are summarized in Figure 2, which are similar to the M1-NSGA-II and M2-NSGA-II.

Figure 2. Flowchart of the NSGA-II

In the NSGA-II, the initial population is generated randomly, while in the M1-NSGA-II and M2-NSGA-II, 84% of the initial population is generated by the Giffler and Thompson (GT) algorithm [43] and the remainder part is created randomly. Each solution is expressed as a chromosome, which consists of two parts. As seen in Figure 3, the first part represents the order of operations, while the second part shows the assigned machines.

O ₁	O ₄	O ₅	O ₆	O ₇	O ₂	O ₈	O ₉	O ₃	O ₁₀
M ₁	M ₂	M ₃	M ₁	M ₃	M ₂	M ₁	M ₃	M ₂	M ₃

Figure 3. A chromosome that consists of two parts to represent the order of operations and the assigned machines

The initial population is sorted and its fronts are formed according to the non-dominated sorting and calculation of crowding distances, which are explained in Algorithms 1 and 2 and Figure 4. To construct the offspring population (Q_t), the parents

are selected through the tournament selection. For this purpose, if a solution is dominated, it is eliminated. If none of them is dominated by the other, the one with the better crowding distance is chosen as the parent. Crossover is defined as a one-point operator that is applied to the first part. The mutation is done with a constraint-based neural network that creates feasible neighbors. It applies penalties to infeasible neighbors and transforms them to feasible ones. In this way, during the mutation, a feasible neighbor is generated for the selected individuals, according to the structures summarized in Algorithm 3.

Algorithm 1: Non-dominated sorting

```

1 Input: Population ( $P$ );
2 Output: Fronts  $F_i$ ;
3  $S \leftarrow P$ ;
4 while  $S \neq \phi$  do
5    $i = 1$ ;
6   foreach  $p \in S$  do
7      $S_p = \phi$  (The set of solutions that  $p$  dominates them);
8      $n_p = 0$  (The number of solutions that dominate  $p$ );
9     foreach  $q \in S$  do
10      if  $p \prec q$  then
11         $S_p = S_p \cup q$ ;
12      else if  $q \prec p$  then
13         $n_p = n_p + 1$ ;
14      end
15    end
16    if  $n_p = 0$  then
17       $F_i = F_i \cup p$ ;
18    end
19  end
20  Exclude  $p$  from  $S$ ;
21  if  $F_i = \phi$  then
22    Exit;
23  else
24     $i = i + 1$ ;
25  end
26 end

```

Algorithm 2: Calculate crowding distances

```

1 Input: Fronts  $F_i$ ;
2 Output: Crowding distances ( $d_{s_{ij}}$ : crowding distance for solution  $j$  on front  $i$ );
3 foreach Front ( $F_i$ ) do
4   foreach Objective function ( $m$ ) do
5     Sort solutions on  $F_i$  according to objective  $m$ ;
6     Find boundary solutions  $s_{i1}^m$  and  $s_{il}^m$  and assign a big value to their crowding distances;
7     ( $d_{s_{i1}}^m$  and  $d_{s_{il}}^m \leftarrow \infty$ );
8     for  $j = 2$ ;  $j < l - 1$ ;  $j = j + 1$  do
9        $d_{s_{ij}} = d_{s_{ij}} + \frac{d_{s_{i(j+1)}}^m - d_{s_{i(j-1)}}^m}{d_{max}^m - d_{min}^m}$ ;
10    end
11  end
12 end

```

Figure 4. Crowding distance between to solutions

As seen in Figure 5, in the NSGA-II, the Q_t is merged with the parent population (P_t).

Figure 5. The creation of the merged population in the NSGA-II

In the M1-NSGA-II, as shown in Figure 6, after that the Q_t is generated using the crossover and mutation operators, a neighbor is constructed for each individual using a neighborhood structure selected randomly from the structures that are summarized in Algorithm 3. If the neighbor dominates the parent, it is replaced with the parent. Else if the parent dominates the neighbor it reminds in the population. If they do not dominate the other, one of them is selected randomly, then the Q_t is merged with the new P_t .

Figure 6. The construction of the merged population in the M1-NSGA-II

As seen in Figure 7, in the M2-NSGA-II, after creation of the Q_t using the crossover and mutation operators, a neighbor is created only for the solutions on the first and second fronts of the P_t , using a neighborhood structure selected randomly from Algorithm 3. Then they are merged with the Q_t .

Figure 7. The generation of the merged population in the M2-NSGA-II

The used neighborhood structures are summarized in Algorithm 3.

Algorithm 3: Neighborhood structures

```

1 Input: Solution;
2 Output: Neighbor;
3 if  $i==1$  then
4   | Swap the operations on the same critical blocks;
5 else if  $i==2$  then
6   | Swap the operations of the critical path which are on different machines;
7 end
8 else if  $i==3$  then
9   | Insert the operations on the critical path to the different positions;
10 end
11 else if  $i==4$  then
12   | Swap the operations on the critical blocks with the first operation of the same critical block;
13 end
14 else if  $i==5$  then
15   | Swap the operations on the critical blocks with the last operation of the same critical block;
16 end
17 else if  $i==6$  then
18   | Swap the first and the last operations of the blocks;
19 end

```

In the all algorithms, the merged population is sorted using the non-dominated sorting and crowding distances, then the new population (P_{t+1}) is created with selecting solutions as much as the population size. These processes are summarized in Figure 8.

Figure 8. New population generation in the algorithms

5 Results and Comparison

The parameters of the designed algorithm are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Parameters of the proposed M-NSGA-II

Parameter	Value
Population size	50
Crossover rate	100%
Mutation rate	20%
Number of iterations	100

The MK01 from the BRData instances is used as the benchmark, whose best intervals in literature are summarized in Table 3 [25].

Table 3. Best intervals of the objective functions in the literature for the MK01 instance [25] (NS: Number of non-dominated solutions in the literature)

C_{max}	W_m	W_T	NS
(40,45)	(36,42)	(153,169)	11

The described algorithms are implemented in MATLAB 2017b on a system with a Core i7 6700HQ processor and 32 GB RAM. The obtained results are summarized in Table 4. The NSGA-II, M1-NSGA-II and M2-NSGA-II have found 2, 2 and 1 Pareto solutions, respectively. The order of operations and the assigned machines in these solutions are presented in the appendix.

Table 4. The obtained results

NSGA-II			M1-NSGA-II			M2-NSGA-II		
C_{max}	W_m	W_T	C_{max}	W_m	W_T	C_{max}	W_m	W_T
63	60	196	53	48	178	62	54	197
81	81	191	50	49	168			

The comparison between the algorithms based on the measures FO and $NFCR$, defined in Equations 4 and 9, is summarized in Table 5. The solutions achieved by the M1-NSGA-II dominate the other ones obtained by the NSGA-II and M2-NSGA-II algorithms. Therefore, its $NFCR$ value is equal to 1. None of the solutions obtained by the other 2 algorithms dominate the others, so their $NFCR$ values are equal to 0.

Table 5. The comparison based on the measures FO and $NFCR$

	NSGA-II	M1-NSGA-II	M2-NSGA-II
FO	2	2	1
$NFCR$	0	1	0

6 Conclusion and Future Works

In this study, the neighborhood structures defined for the FJSSP are integrated into the NSGA-II algorithm to increase the diversity and intensity of the search. In this way, the M1-NSGA-II and M2-NSGA-II algorithms are designed. During the iterations and before the merge of parent and offspring populations, the algorithms attempt to improve the search by finding the neighbors of some individuals. In the algorithms, the mutation is done by a constraint-based neural network that creates feasible neighbors. The algorithms are compared with a classic NSGA-II algorithm. The results show that the M1-NSGA-II, which creates neighbor for more individuals, has better performance than the others. Accordingly, it can be deduced that the use of neighborhood structures improves the performance of multi-objective optimization algorithms. Also, better results are obtained

when heuristics such as the Giffler and Thompson algorithm and the local left shifts are used for initial solutions creation, and even to improve the solutions during the iterations. Based on the results obtained from the M2-NSGA-II, we can make another conclusion that it is better to define that the neighborhood structures should be applied to how many solutions and which ones. Otherwise, the performance of the algorithm may not improve.

In future work, we plan to design a multi-objective particle swarm optimization (MO-PSO) algorithm for solving scheduling problems.

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