

Volume 11 Issue 8 August 2024

Applied Modified Particle Swarm Optimization to Dynamic Lot Sizing with Customer Orders Problem Considering

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Abstract— On time delivery is a very important issue for customers in supply chain management. The customer's order includes more than one item at all times. How to finish the order on time, so that all items in the same order will be ready for delivery, is an important task. Therefore, this paper considers the dynamic demand lot-sizing problem (DLSP) and the customer-ordering problem (COP) together, namely DLSCOP, dynamic lot sizing problem with customer order considering. DLSP focuses on the deterministic time-varying batch ordering lot-sizing problem with backorders. The COP consists of a set of items that must be shipped as one batch at the same time.

This work applies a modified particle swarm optimization (mPSO) to solve the problem. Two popular algorithms, Silver-Meal (SM) algorithm and Wagner-Whitin (WW) algorithm, for benchmarking are modified and two heuristics MSM, MWW are developed for solving DLSCOP. The genetic algorithm (GA) will be included in the simulation experiment for comparing. The simulation test considers 128 scenarios and 100 repetitions. In the statistical analysis, the mPSO performance is better than GA, MSM and MWW. The decision based on MPSO saves more than 10-50% cost, especially in those scenarios with long term, multiple items, and high expense rate (ordering cost and holding cost).

Keywords: dynamic lot sizing, customer order problem, particle swarm optimization.

I. INTRODUCTION

In supply chain management, customer order should be delivered on time for the customer to proceed their processes or delivery to their customer. Customer order always orders more than one items and those items should be delivery at the same ship for fulfilling customer. This kind of problem namely COP, customer order problem, is very common in supply chain management. Customers issue an order based on their own order. The order will order more than one items for fulfilling their customer's demand. All items in the same order require same time delivery, and the order is not ready for delivery if any item in the same order is not ready for shipment. This type of problem is a typical COP, like as figure 1. Furthermore, lot sizing problem is a traditional problem for inventory and production management. DLSP is the dynamic lot sizing problem. DLSP focuses on the deterministic time-varying batch ordering lot-sizing problem with backorders. The objective is to determine the optimum ordering plan, i.e. minimizing the total cost, to satisfy a set of known demands over a specific planning horizon.

This research investigates the applicability of particle swarm optimization (PSO) on dynamic lot sizing problem with customer order considering, namely DLSCOP. DLSCOP focus on two important problems in supply chain management, that is DLSP and COP. DLSP is the dynamic lot sizing problem. COP represents for the customer-ordering problem. In a traditional dynamic lot-sizing problem, the seller makes the purchasing decision based on the customers'

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order. In practice, the customer order includes more than one item in the same order. All items in the same order require delivery in the same shipment for proceeding to the next fabrication step. Hence, the dynamic lot sizing decision should consider the COP.

Figure 2 is a typical example of DLSCOP. There are some orders in the same period. All the items' total demand at each period consists of the demand of some orders. In period 1, the total demand of item 1 is 10, consisting with the demand of order 1, 2, 3 for item 1. The items in the same order should be delivered at the same ship. DLSP tries to find a suitable purchasing decision for minimizing total inventory cost. When the DLSP considers the customer order problem, the purchasing decision will be more complex. This work develops a linear programming model to describe the DLSCOP and developed a modified particle swarm optimization, mPSO, for sloving the problem. Genetic algorithms (GA) and some heuristics methods are considered for comparing.

Section 2 discusses the relative researches of COP and DLSP. Section 3 presents the problem formulation of DLSCOP and the LP model with a brief analysis. Section 4 discusses the PSO approach for solving DLSCOP and section 5 presents the computation experiment. Sections 6 discuss the analytical result and have some discussion.

Figure 2. the example of dynamic lot sizing problem with customer order considering

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. DLSP

Lot sizing models determine the optimal timing and level of purchasing or production. One end of the spectrum includes the continuous time scale, constant demand, and infinite time horizon lot sizing problems. In this category we find the famous economic order quantity model (EOQ) and the economic lot scheduling problem (ELSP). The other end of this spectrum includes the discrete time scale, dynamic demand, and finite time horizon lot sizing models (Jans and Degraeve, 2007). Studies typically refer to this type of planning as dynamic lot sizing and it is the main subject of this paper. A number of studies have introduced the lot-sizing problem. De Bodt et al. (1984) and Bahl et al. (1987)

presented earlier reviews. Jans and Degraeve (2007) provided a wider survey of meta-heuristic applications in dynamic lot sizing. Robinson et al. (2009) updated a 1988 review of the coordinated lot-sizing problem and complemented recent reviews on the single-item lot-sizing problem and the capacitated lot-sizing problem, providing a state-of-the-art review of the research and future research projections. Adetunji and Yadavalli (2012) discussed the reducing of the batch sizes of products in production network through the utilization of the idle time. Kim and Lee (2013) considered a dynamic inbound ordering and shipment scheduling problem for lot sizing problem. These studies have presented a complete framework for the lot-sizing problem and most have discussed the model and algorithms. Different types of lot-sizing problems result from certain parameters, such as

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static/dynamic demand, incapacitated/capacitated, lot sizing, backorder, setup cost/purchasing cost, etc. However, none of the researches in our review focused on the lot-sizing problem, considering the scenario of the customer order problem.

One of the most commonly used suboptimal algorithms for the methodology for solving DLSP, is the Silver-Meal (Silver and Peterson, 1985). The original SM algorithm finds the number of periods for minimizing the total inventory costs per period and then orders the exact quantity to cover the demand for those periods. Wagner and Whitin (1958) developed a dynamic programming algorithm to obtain the optimum solution to a simpler version of the lot-sizing problem, and developed several extensions of the original WW algorithm over time. However, in the review of Jans and Degraeve (2007), and Robinson et al. (2009), the lot-sizing problems are very complex to find the optimal solution. They presented many meta-heuristics for dynamic lot sizing, such as tabu search (TS), simulated annealing (SA), and genetic algorithms (GA).

Several authors have applied GAs to various versions of the lot-sizing problem. Ozdamar and Birbil (1998) utilized GA, simulated annealing (SA), and tabu search to solve the capacitated lot sizing problem on parallel machines. Hung and Chien (2000) also utilized GA, SA, and tabu search to solve the multi-class multi-level capacitated lot-sizing problem. Khouja et al. (1998) investigated using GAs to solve the economic lot size-scheduling problem using the basic period approach. Prasad and Chetty (2001) applied GAs to multi-level lot sizing and observed under a rolling horizon environment. The performance of GAs is superior to popular heuristics.

Staggemeier et al. (2002) presented a hybrid GA to solve a lot sizing and scheduling problem by minimizing inventory and backlog costs of multiple products on parallel machines with sequence-dependent set-up times. Basnet and Leung (2002) presented a multi-period inventory lot-sizing scenario, with multiple products and multiple suppliers. Sarker and Newton (2002) developed a GA code with three different penalty functions to determine optimal batch sizes for products and a purchasing policy for associated raw materials. They compared GA results to optimal solutions, and the GA with a static penalty function obtained the global optimum 100% of the time. Moon et al. (2002) developed a hybrid GA to address the lot-scheduling problem with time-varying lot sizes. A numerical experiment showed that the hybrid GA performed better than other heuristic methods. Shittu (2003) used GAs to address the lot-sizing problem with batch sizing and compared their performance to that of the SM.

B. COP

The customer order problem (COP) considered orders consisting with a set of items that must be shipped as one batch before the due date. It's a specific problem in the supply chain management. COP will be very important for

the cooperation with those supply chain's members. The purchase order specifies the composition of an order. The company may not ship the order until all the items in the order are completed and ready for delivery. Figure 1 is an example of the personal computer assembly.

In the review of Hsu and Liu (2009), only a few studies focused on the customer order-scheduling problem. Most of the studies focused on the single machine or parallel machine system and tried to find an optimal solution. Julien and Magazine (1990) assumed a job-dependent setup time for two different types of jobs. They assumed a dynamic programming (DP) algorithm for the single machine problem with only two types of jobs and a fixed batch processing order. Coffman et al. (1989) considered the same problem as that of Julien and Magazine (1990), assuming a non-fixed batch processing order. In addition, Baker (1988), Gupta et al. (1997), and Gerodimos et al. (2000) also focused on the single machine case. Yang (2005) introduced a relatively new class of the COS case for parallel machines. He proposed an optimal solution procedure for each of several problems with different types of objectives, job restrictions, and machine environments. Yang and Posner (2005) considered the COS case in four jobs dispatched in batches. They presented a heuristic for the problem, and found a tight worst case bound on the relative error. Ahmadi et al. (2005) and Wang and Cheng (2007) considered the COS case for m dedicated facilities and n orders, in which each job only needs one operation at a dedicated facility. They showed that the problem is unary NP-hard, and proposed a heuristic method to minimize the total weighted order completion time and analyzed a worst-case scenario. Daganzo (1989) and Peterkofsky and Daganzo (1990) focused on the crane scheduling problem, which is simply another kind of COS problem with a parallel machine. In their discussions, jobs consist of independent, single stage, preemptible tasks. The objective function is minimizing weighted tardiness. Daganzo (1989) applied the weighted shortest processing time first rule to obtain optimal solutions for some special cases. Peterkofsky and Daganzo (1990) developed a branch-and-bound solution procedure. However, they did not provide a theoretical basis for their method.

Blocher et al. (1998) dealt with the COS problem in a general job shop consisting of six machines. Theirs is the first simulation study using the customer order environment. They specifically compared the dispatching rules from past job-based studies to rules adapted to include order characteristics. They divided performance measures into two parts: measures involving order flow time and measures involving due dates. The order flow-time measure is similar to the common job flow-time measure, except for the fact that the flow time is based on order parameters (groups of jobs). The due date measures are based on average tardiness and proportion tardy. Of the sixteen dispatching rules tested, four simple rules dominate all others. Those rules consider order characteristics, namely order-based rules, and perform better

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than their job-based counterparts perform.

Hsu and Liu (2009) discussed reducing the stock level of finished goods and improving delivery efficiency for the COP in the job shop. The main topic focused on how to control the finished time of all jobs in the same order in a normal job shop.

Given the discussion above, DLSP is one of the key problems in production planning, inventory management, and supply chain management. The purchasing decision is a very important issue, especially in cooperation with supply chain members. Studies need to consider how to make a quality decision for improving whole supply chain performance for competition advantage. COP is also another popular issue in supply chain management. An order-oriented decision is very important for fulfilling the demand of final customers in supply chain management. There is not any research discuss DLSP considering with COP in our reviewing. This paper deals with the dynamic lot-sizing problem considering the order-oriented decision by focusing on the DLSP with COP, namely DLSCOP.

III. PROBLEM FORMULATION

This research focused on the DLSP considering COP, namely DLSCOP. DLSCOP will be defined by a nonlinear programming model in the section. Firstly, there are some assumptions for the DLSCOP should be described as following:

- 1. The demand is variable and deterministic.
- 2. Order quantities must be integer multiples of a constant batch size. No other limits are imposed on the size of the order.
- 3. Cost factors are time independent.
- 4. Replenishment is instantaneous.
- 5. Back orders are only allowed to make up for quantity discrepancies that result from batch ordering.
- 6. An order must be placed in the first period.
- 7. All items ordered in the same order should be delivered at the same period. Shortages of any item will backorder the entire order.

The following notations are used for developing the model. *cj*: batch size of item *j*

dijt: demand of item *j* of order *i* at period *t*.

- *g*: backorder cost per unit per period
- *h*: holding cost per unit per period
- *M*: a large number
- *p*: ordering cost
- *T*: the planning horizon

 II_{ji} : independent inventory level of item *j* at the end of period *t*,

 DI_{ji} : dependent inventory level of item *j* at the end of period *t*,

w*jt*: positive Inventory level of item *j* at the end of period *k.* $w_{it} = max(0, H_{it} + DI_{it}),$

x*jt*: a decision variable that is a integer multiple of the batch

size lending the quantity made or ordered of item *j* in period *t*, y*jt*: Boolean variable to assign the ordering cost of item *j* in period *t*,

 IB_{it} : independent backorder quantity of item *j* at the end of period *t*, IB_{jt} = max (0, - II_{jt}),

DBjt: dependent backorder quantity of item *j* at the end of period *t*, $DB_i = \max(0, -DI_i)$,

 z_{ji} : backorder quantity at the end of period t, z_{ji} =max (0, *IBjt*+*DBjt*),

 y_{it} : Boolean variable to assign the setup/ordering cost of item *j* in period *t*,

 u_{ijt} : Boolean variable to assign the dependent inventory level of item *j* of order *i* in period *t*,

vijt: Boolean variable to assign the dependent backorder of item *j* of order *i* in period *t*.

 k_{ijt} : Boolean variable to check d_{ijt} will be fulfilled (not become backorder) or not.

Using the notations above, the mathematical formulation of the problem can be written as follows:

Minimize:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{t} \sum_{j=1}^{n} py_{ji} + hw_{ji} + gz_{ji}
$$
\n⁽¹⁾

Subject to:

t j

$$
H_{j_t} = cx_{jt} + H_{j(t-1)} - d_{jt} \qquad t = 1,...,T
$$

$$
j = i, \dots, n \tag{2}
$$

$$
DI_{jt} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} d_{ij} u_{ijt} \qquad t = 1,...,T
$$

$$
j = 1,...,n \qquad (3)
$$

$$
IB_{jt} < c_j \qquad t = 1, \dots, T
$$

$$
j = 1, \dots, n \tag{4}
$$

$$
IB_{jt} = \max(0, d_{jt} - (W_{j(t-1)} + C_j X_{jt})) \qquad t = 1,...,T
$$

$$
j=1,\ldots,n\quad \ (5)
$$

$$
DB_{jt} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} d_{ijt} v_{ijt} \qquad t = 1,...,T
$$

$$
j = 1,...,n
$$

$$
M_{11} > r, \qquad t = 1, T
$$
 (6)

$$
My_{jt} \ge x_{jt} \qquad t = 1, \dots, T
$$

$$
j = 1, \dots, n
$$

(7)

$$
u_{ijt}, v_{ijt}, y_{jt} \ge (0,1) \qquad t = 1,...,T
$$

$$
j = 1,...,n \qquad (8)(9)(10)
$$

$$
u_{ijt} = 1, \quad \text{if} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{ijt} < n \qquad i = 1, \dots, n
$$
\n
$$
t = 1, \dots, T \qquad (11)
$$

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 $t = 1,...,T$ $v_{\text{int}} = 1$, if $\sum k_{\text{int}} < n$ $i = 1,...,n$ *n j ijt ijt* 1, 1,..., $= 1, \text{ if } \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{ijt} < n$ $i =$

$$
I_{j0} = 0 \t j = 1,...,n \t(12)
$$
\n(13)

$$
x_{jt} \ge 0 \qquad t = 1, \dots, T
$$

$$
j = 1, \dots, n \tag{14}
$$

$$
x_{j1} > 0 \t j = 1,...,n \t(15)
$$

$$
x_{jt} \ge 0 \qquad t = 2,...,T
$$

$$
j = 1,...,n
$$
 (16)

$$
w_{jt}, z_{jt} \ge 0 \t t = 1,...,T
$$

$$
j = 1,...,n
$$
 (17)

The objective function (1) minimizes total ordering, holding, and backordering cost over time. Constraint (2) models the flow conservation in period *t*. Constraint (3) and (6) model the total of dependent inventory/backorder at period *t*. Constraint (4) limits backorders to compensate for fixing quantities within *c* only. Constraint (5) models the total independent backorder at period t. Constraints (7) and (10) force y_{it} to zero or one to ensure only charging setup/ordering cost when making an order. Constraints (8), (9), (11), and (12) model the dependent inventory and dependent backorder based on the definition of the customer-ordering problem. Constraint (13) sets the initial inventory level to zero. Constraint (15) ensures making an order in the first period. Finally, constraints (14), (16), and (17) ensure that order, carryover, and backorder quantities are all non-negative.

IV. MODIFIED PARTICLE SWARM OPTIMIZATION

PSO, particle swarm optimization, was first introduced by Kennedy and Eberhart (1995) as an optimization method for nonlinear functions with continuous variables. The initial intention of PSO was to simulate social behavior of flocking birds searching for food by means of exchanging knowledge among flock members. By applying simple formulas, Kennedy and Eberhart developed an optimization algorithm that mimics this knowledge sharing. Each individual in the flock was represented by a point in a two-dimensional space, and future movement of each point in the search space is determined using a combination of previous experience of the individual, and of other individuals in its neighborhood group (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995). PSO simulates the behavior of birds flocking. If there has a group of birds are randomly searching for food in an area. There is only one piece of food (target) in the area. Not all the birds know where the food is. So what is the best strategy to find the food? The effective one is to follow the bird which is nearest to the

food (Hu, 2002).

PSO searches optimal solutions by individual and group experiences; however, the solution of the optimization problem may not come from previous solutions. Certain parameters need to be adjusted and random variables will be put in to distort the optimum solution (Eberhart & Shi, 2001). An advantage of PSO is that these particles remember the best position that they have seen. Members of a swarm communicate better positions to each other and based on this they can adjust their own position and velocity. Schutte and Groenwold (2005) proposed that each agent's search velocity changes as a random function of the distance between a point and a local best, and the distance between the point and the global best.

Each individual in the PSO algorithm is called a "particle". Each particle is subject to a movement in a multidimensional space which it remembers. Particles have memory, and thus would retain part of their previous state. While there are no restrictions for particles to know the positions of other particles in the multidimensional spaces, they can still remember the best positions they have ever had. Each particle's movement is the composite of an initial random velocity, two randomly weighted influences: individuality (the tendency to return to the particle's best previous position), and sociality (the tendency to move towards the neighborhood's best previous position). All of the particles have fitness values which are evaluated by the fitness function to be optimized. Each particle has two main characteristics: velocity and position.

The PSO heuristic described above is applied to continuous optimization. However, because of the wide variety of optimization problems that involve discrete variables, Kennedy and Eberhart (1997) introduced a discrete binary version of the heuristic. In the discrete version of PSO, solutions are represented by a string of binary bits. The velocity of a particular bit is defined as the probability that it will take a value of one. Accordingly, if the velocity is equal to 0.1, then there is a 10% chance of the bit taking a value of one, and 90% chance of it taking a zero value in the next iteration. (Kennedy and Eberhart 1997). This means that each bit in particle is treated separately. Gaafar and Aly (2008) applied PSO to traditional dynamic lot sizing with batch order. In their research, PSO outperformed both the MSM and the GA by producing the lowest cost solution. We will introduce PSO for solving DLSCOP for comparing with GA and traditional methodologies WW and SM.

In the research, a modified PSO (mPSO) has been modeled for solving DLSCOP. A example of binary solution for DLSCOP is presented on figure 3. In figure 2, the example of DLSCOP, the total demand of item 1, 2, 3 are listed for each period. Figure 3 is an example of purchasing decision for the example for item 1, 2, 3. The value of a bit will be 0, 1, and, 2. '1' and '2' represented an order is placed in the corresponding period with a quantity that would satisfy its own demand and the demand of all subsequent periods with a

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corresponding '0' bit value. The difference between '1' and '2' is related to the batching size. '1' will order more than real demand, namely sufficiency purchasing (SP). '2' will order less than real demand, namely insufficiency purchasing (IP). If the batch size is 6, in period 1, item 1 will purchase for period 1-3. The total demand of item 1 for period 1-3 is 21

 $(10+8+3=21,$ figure 2), and the purchasing quantity will be 24 (sufficiency purchasing). The next purchasing decision will make in period 4. It's insufficient purchasing for period 4-6. The total demand is $25 (9+12+4=25$, figure 2) and the purchasing quantity will be 24 (6*4=24).

Figure 3. an example of the purchasing decision for DLSCOP

The flowchart for mPSO dealing with DLSCOP is showed on figure 4. Those steps are described following:

step 1. Generate a number of random solution

- mPSO is applied by first generating a number of random solutions (or positions of particles) in the solution space. The solution will be represented by a serial of modified binary string. Each bit in the string represented a single period in a T period planning horizon. Figure 3 is an example of the binary string solution for DLSCOP. It will be different depend on the number of items and periods. There are 100 solutions generated for analyzing in the research.
- step 2. Grouping the initial solution to ten groups

In PSO heuristics, the initial solution should be grouped. The group (neighborhood) can be defined in many ways. In the paper, we will use overlapping groups applied in Gaafar and Aly (2008). All the initial solutions will be numbered. Each group will have ten solutions. Solution 1 to 10 assigns to group 1. Group 2 is solution 2-11, and so on.

step 3. Calculate the quality of each particle position (velocity)

> The quality of each particle position (velocity) is evaluated based on the object function (total cost). To proceed from iteration k to the next iteration $k+1$, velocity of a particle *i* is calculated using the equation (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1997):

 $v_{k+1}^i = v_k^i * (p_k^i - s_k^i) + r_2 * (p_k^g - s_k^i)$ (1)

The new position of the particle is obtained as follows,

$$
s_{k+1}^i = s_k^i + v_{k+1}^i \quad (2)
$$

 v_k^i : Velocity of particle *i* in the current iteration *k*.

 p_k^i : The best solution that particle *i* reached throughout iterations *1, 2,…, k.*

 p_k^g : The best solution that the group has reached throughout iterations *1, 2,…, k.*

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 s_k^i :Particle *i* position in the current iteration *k*.

 s_{k+1}^i : Particle *i* position in the next iteration $k+1$. *r¹ and r2*: Uniformly distributed random numbers generated between *0* and *1*.

step 4. Using the sigmoid function to transforming the velocity

> In the DLSCOP, the variables are discrete binary. The PSO heuristic described above is applied to continuous optimization. For our problem, we will modify the binary version of PSO heuristics introduced by Kennedy and Eberhart (1997). The velocity of a particular bit is defined as the probability that it will take a value of one. Accordingly, if the velocity is equal to 0.1 then there is a 10% chance of the bit taking a value of one, and 90% chance of it taking a zero value in the next iteration *k+1* (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1997). This means that each bit *j* in particle *i* is treated separately. The velocity calculating from the equation at step 3 should be modified for getting the probability in the binary version of PSO. A sigmoid function will use for the transforming described following:

$$
sig(v) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-v}}\tag{3}
$$

Where ν is the velocity calculated from (1) .

If $r < sig(v_{k+1}^{i,j})$, then $s_{k+1}^{i,j}$ (4) Else $s_{k+1}^{i,j}$ =0

Where r is generated from a uniformly distribution between 0 and 1, $v_k^{i,j}$ and $s_k^{i,j}$ represented for the velocity and the position of bit *j* of particle *i* in the iteration *k* separately.

step 5. Cost calculation and SP and IP checking

The cost of those purchasing decision getting from those new positions of those particles generating from step 3-4 will be calculated. And SP or IP check will perform for each bit with the value of 1 (SP). If the cost of IP is less than the cost of SP, the value of the bit will changes from 1 to 2.

step 6. Update those particle position in each group

At step 3-5, new positions of those particles in each group have been updated. The best good one of each group and the best one of all the particles will be updated, too. I will use for calculating the velocity for next iteration.

step 7. Repeat step 3-6 until the terminal condition has been reached

Step 3 to 6 will be repeated for improving the quality of solution. At least 300 iterations will run for each special type of problem.

V. COMPUTATIONAL EXPERIMENTS

The computational experiment considers five factors. Each factor has two values for the evaluation test. The five factors are: item types3, 6, number of orders per period (5, 10), the demand pattern (constant, seasonal), batch size (6, 24), the ratio of the ordering cost to the carrying cost (1, 8), the ratio of the carrying cost to the backorder cost(1,8), and the length of the planning horizon $(10, 20)$. Demand pattern generated from the model developed from Gaafar & Choueiki (2000). Constant demand pattern model generated from (5):

 $d_{ijt} = \alpha + \varepsilon_{ijt}$ $1 \le i \le m$, $1 \le j \le n$, $1 \le t \le T$ (5)

Where, d_{ijt} is the demand in period *t* for order *i* item *j*, T is the number of periods in the plan (factor E), *m* is the number of orders at period *t*, *n* is the number of items, αis a constant generated from an exponential distribution with a mean of 10, and ε_{iit} is a normally independently distributed error component with a mean of 0 and a constant variance of σ^2 (σ = 0.1α).

The generated seasonal demand pattern uses the following model:

$$
d_{ijt} = a_1 + a_2 + \sin \frac{2\pi(t+b)}{T} + \varepsilon_{ijt} \qquad 1 \le i \le m, \ \ 1 \le j \le n, \ \ 1 \le t \le T \qquad (6)
$$

Where, α_1 is a constant generated from an exponential distribution with a mean of 10, α_2 is the amplitude of the sinusoidal curve ($\alpha_2=0.5\alpha_1$), *b* is a constant generated from a discrete uniform distribution ranging between 0 and *T-1* to randomly vary the starting point of the demand pattern, and ε_{ijt} is a normally independently distributed error component with a mean of 0 and a constant variance of $\sigma^2(\sigma=0.1\alpha_2)$.

The experiment checks both patterns to ensure that demand in the first period is always greater than zero. This experimentation generates four distinct sets (of two hundred demand patterns each), one for each of the seasonal and constant demand patterns and once for each of the ten and twenty period horizons. Overall, 25600 instants were executed (128 runs times 200 instances per run).

VI. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 1-4 are the cost analysis of the four rules, mPSO, SM, WW, GA, for DLSCOP. We can find the performance of mPSO is better than GA, WW, and SM. Meta-heuristics, GA and mPSO are greater than traditional heuristics WW and SM. mPSO will be better than traditional GA, especially in the complex condition, like as more items type, long period, and seasonal demand. The different of the four methodologies showed on figure 5, too. The relative performance is defined as the cost of mPSO is 1. The relative performance is calculated from the cost of SM, WW, and GA, divided the cost of mPSO. We can find the performance of mPSO is stable than other under different experimental factors. GA can find a superior solution in some condition but the stability is its major weakness. WW is performing better than SM in the stability.

In the performing efficiency of mPSO, WW, SM, and GA, traditional rules (WW, SM) don't need too much time to generate purchasing decision. If we can spend little time to

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perform meta-heuristic, like as mPSO, the total cost can reduce significantly. In table 5, the performing time of mPSO and GA are comparing. Longest time for GA to have a decision is more than half hour. Performance time of mPSO can be saved more than 50%. Total average of the

performance time of mPSO is 133 second is superior than 312 second for GA. Furthermore, we can find the efficiency of mPSO is greater than GA.

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Table 3: the cost of mPSO, WW, SM and GA for DLSCOP for run 65 to 96

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Table 4: the cost of mPSO, WW, SM and GA for DLSCOP for run 97 to 128

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Table 5: the performing time of mPSO and GA

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