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A hybrid meta-heuristic for balancing and scheduling assembly lines with sequence-independent setup times by considering deterioration tasks and learning effect

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KEYWORDS

Assembly line balancing; Scheduling; Deterioration tasks; Learning effect; Hybrid meta-heuristic; Sequence-independent setup times. **Abstract.** This paper addresses the Simple Assembly Line Balancing Problem of type II (SALBP-II), with simultaneous effects of deterioration and learning in which there are sequence-independent setup times relating to each task. In many real industrial environments, although the actual task processing times are defined as a function of their starting times due to deterioration effects, workstations improve continuously as a result of repeating the same activities by worker(s) or machine(s). In this paper, a mathematical model is developed for this novel problem, attempting to minimize the cycle time for a given number of workstations. In addition to the balancing of the assembly line, the developed model presents the execution scheduling of tasks assigned to each workstation. Moreover, a hybrid meta-heuristic method is proposed to solve such an NP-hard problem. This robust and simply structured solution approach uses the tabu search within the Variable Neighbourhood Search (VNS/TS). The computational experiments and comparison with a Differential Evolution Algorithm (DEA) reflect the high efficiency of our proposed algorithm for a number of well-known instances.

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1. Introduction

The Assembly Line Balancing Problem (ALBP) was first introduced by Bryton [1] and the first scientific study was published by Salveson [2] in this field. An assembly line consists of a set of tasks, each having a certain processing time, in the presence of a precedence relationship diagram, which designates the order of the tasks. The purpose of the assembly line balancing problem is to assign these tasks to workstations in such a way that the precedence relations are not violated

*. Corresponding author. Tel.: +98 21 64545381; Fax: +98 21 66954569 E-mail addresses: nima.hamta@aut.ac.ir (N. Hamta); fatemi@aut.ac.ir (S.M.T. Fatemi Ghomi); tavakoli@ut.ac.ir (R. Tavakkoli-Moghaddam); fjolai@ut.ac.ir (F. Jolai) and some effectiveness measures (such as cycle time, number of workstations, line efficiency or idle time) are optimized. The most well-known objective functions are to minimize the number of workstations for a given cycle time (SALBP-I) and to minimize the cycle time for a pre-defined number of workstations (SALBP-II) [3,4]. In addition to straight assembly lines, other types in the literature are U-shaped and parallel lines, which, depending on the final product, are divided into single and multi-product lines.

ALBP has been studied by many researchers for more than 50 years, and various types of line and different objective functions have been presented [5-7]. In addition, there are different surveys on ALBP in the literature [8-13]. Versions of ALBP are not only summarized in the types mentioned, and the main problem has been widely enriched under various working conditions, such as dealing with uncertainty in the parameters using the fuzzy set theory [7,13], probability theory [14], allowable task deterioration [15,16], and negligible setup times [17-19].

The SALBP has been extended considering different types of setup time, namely, SUALBSP [20], sequence dependent setup times [21,22], allowable learning effects [15,23], and general resource-constrained cases [24]. Recently, Hazır and Dolgui [25] dealt with line balancing under uncertainty. They assumed interval uncertainty for operation times and presented two robust optimization models.

The other version of SALBP is named ARALBP-I. This problem is the extended form of SALBP-I and considers the various assignment restrictions [19]. Moreover, several heuristic/meta-heuristic algorithms have been developed to obtain optimal or near optimal solutions in reasonable computational time. These algorithms could be classified as the genetic algorithm [5,17,23,26], ant colony optimization [27-29], tabu search [30], simulated annealing [14,31-34], particle swarm optimization [35], the differential evolution algorithm [36-37] and the GRASP algorithm [21]. Recently, Michalos et al. [38] introduced an intelligent search algorithm that uses three control factors to guide the search to derive assembly line design alternatives

In the huge body of literature in the ALBP area, most studies have assumed that the task times are independent of realistic effects, such as the learning of worker(s) for repetitious tasks and deterioration. However, in many real industrial environments, the actual task processing times are a function of their starting times, due to the deterioration effect. On the other hand, workstations improve continuously because of repeating the same activities by worker(s) or machine(s). In order to reflect the real-world situation adequately, this paper adds the simultaneous effects of learning and linear deterioration to the classical SALBP. The scheduling of the execution of tasks assigned to every workstation following the balancing of the assembly line is also considered. In addition, we suppose there is a setup time relating to each task, which corresponds only to the task to be performed. This type of setup time is known as sequenceindependent in related literature [39]. Due to the existence of learning and deterioration effects, setup times cannot be included in processing times. This issue is clarified in the relations that are presented later.

To the best of the authors' knowledge, there is no paper that addresses SALBP-II with the mentioned considerations. The most similar study to our work belongs to Toksarı et al. [15]. They proposed a model for SALBP-I with the effects of learning and linear deterioration without considering the scheduling of tasks and setup times. They have also adapted the COMSOAL approach for solving large-scale assembly line balancing problems with deterioration tasks and learning effects.

In this paper, we propose a hybrid meta-heuristic method to solve our NP-hard problem. Our approach utilizes the Tabu Search (TS) algorithm within the Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS). VNS is a robust solution technique that has shown an excellent performance for solving combinatorial and global optimization problems [40]. On the other hand, TS is an extremely popular method among other metaheuristics in finding good solutions to large-scale prob-Lapierre et al. [30] presented a tabu search lems. algorithm and evaluated its performance on the type I assembly line balancing problem from a real industrial data set, with 162 tasks and 264 precedence constraints. Liao and Cheng [41] used the combination of VNS and TS for minimizing total weighted earliness and tardiness in a single machine scheduling problem. They showed that their proposed algorithm has acceptable performance in solution quality and computation time in comparison with results obtained from the literature.

The performance of our proposed algorithm is examined over benchmark instances that are available at http://www.assembly-line-balancing.de/. The obtained results are also compared with a recently published Differential Evolution Algorithm (DEA). It is noted that DEA has shown superior performance in comparison with other evolutionary algorithms for solving SALBP-II [36-37].

The remainder of this paper has the following structure. Section 2 provides the problem description and the formulation of the model under study. Section 3 introduces the proposed hybrid algorithm in detail. Section 4 presents an experimental design in which the results obtained by the proposed hybrid algorithm are compared with those obtained by the differential evolution method. Finally, Section 5 is devoted to conclusions and some directions for future research.

2. Mathematical modelling of the problem

2.1. SALBP with sequence-independent setup times and effects of deterioration and learning

In a Simple Assembly Line Balancing Problem (SALBP), a straight line is assumed, in which specific operations are performed on products. Several tasks allowed to process successively constitute a workstation. The maximum time of workstations is defined as Cycle Time (CT). Most existing organizations desire to maximize their production rate and optimize their assembly lines without adding new workstations.

Therefore, we prefer to use the assembly line balancing type II problem in our study, which aims to minimize the cycle time for a given number of workstations.

We assume that the processing time of a task is related to its starting time via a linear function. This concept, first presented by Browne and Yechiali [42], is known as the deterioration effect. By the effect of task deterioration, we mean that any delay in processing is penalized by incurring extra time for carrying out the task. For example, a drop in the temperature of an ingot, while waiting to be processed by a rolling machine, requires the ingot to be reheated before rolling, or the time needed to control a fire will increase, if there is a delay in fire-fighting activities. The general deterioration model is $p_i - p_0 + \alpha \times ST_i$, where p_0 is the common basic processing time, $\alpha(\alpha > 0)$ is the deterioration rate, which is the growth rate in the task time per unit delay in its starting time, and ST_i is the starting time of task *i*. In addition, the log_linear curve form of the learning effect is utilized. Therefore, by considering the effects of deterioration and learning simultaneously, the actual processing time, \hat{p}_r , is formulated as follows:

$$\hat{p}_r = [p_r + (\alpha \times \mathrm{ST}_r)] \times r^{\beta}.$$
(1)

In a problem with n tasks, if task i(i = 1, 2, ..., n)is assigned to the rth sequence, \hat{p}_r is its actual task time. p_r and ST_r are the basic processing time and starting time of the task assigned to the rth sequence, respectively. $\beta(\beta \leq 0)$ is the learning index and is equal to the (base 2) logarithm of learning rate (i.e., $\log_2 s$ [43]. Since the deterioration effect is based on the starting time of a task, and the learning effect is based on its sequence position, Relation (1) is provided by combining these two effects. Defining C_{r-1} as the completion time of the task scheduled in the (r-1)th sequence, and sut_r as the setup time of the task in the rth sequence position, actual processing time, \hat{p}_r , can be formulated as follows:

$$\hat{p}_r = \left[p_r + \alpha \times (\hat{C}_{r-1} + \operatorname{sut}_r) \right] \times r^{\beta}.$$
(2)

Now, we can express \hat{C}_{r-1} with the actual times and setup times of all assigning tasks. The actual completion time of the task assigned to each position is stated as:

$$\hat{p}_1 = \left[p_1 + \alpha \times (\hat{C}_0 + \operatorname{sut}_1) \right] \times 1^{\beta}$$
$$= \left[p_1 + \alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \right] \times 1^{\beta},$$
$$\hat{C}_1 = \operatorname{sut}_1 + \hat{p}_1 = \operatorname{sut}_1 + \left[p_1 + \alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \right] \times 1^{\beta}.$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{p}_2 &= \left[p_2 + \alpha \times (\hat{C}_1 + \operatorname{sut}_2) \right] \times 2^{\beta} \\ &= \left[p_2 + \alpha \times \left([p_1 + \alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1] \times 1^{\beta} \\ &+ \operatorname{sut}_1 + \operatorname{sut}_2 \right) \right] \times 2^{\beta} = (p_2 \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times p_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha^2 \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_2 \times 2^{\beta}), \\ \hat{C}_2 &= \hat{C}_1 + \operatorname{sut}_2 + \hat{p}_2 = [p_1 + \alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1] \times 1^{\beta} + \operatorname{sut}_1 \\ &+ \operatorname{sut}_2 + (p_2 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times p_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^2 \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_2 \times 2^{\beta}) = (p_1 \times 1^{\beta}) + (p_2 \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_2 \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^2 \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) + \operatorname{sut}_1 + \operatorname{sut}_2, \\ \hat{p}_3 &= \left[p_3 + \alpha \times (\hat{C}_2 + \operatorname{sut}_3) \right] \times 3^{\beta} = \left[p_3 + \alpha \\ &\times \left(\left((p_1 \times 1^{\beta}) + (p_2 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 2^{\beta}) \right) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_2 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha^2 \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_2 \times 2^{\beta}) + (\alpha^2 \times \operatorname{sut}_1 \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ \operatorname{sut}_1 + \operatorname{sut}_2 \right) + \operatorname{sut}_3 \right) \right] \times 3^{\beta}, \end{split}$$

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$$\begin{split} \hat{p}_{3} = &(p_{3} \times 3^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times p_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times p_{2} \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^{2} \times p_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ \left(\alpha + (\operatorname{sut}_{1} + \operatorname{sut}_{2} + \operatorname{sut}_{3}) \times 3^{\beta}\right) \\ &+ (\alpha^{2} \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ \left(\alpha^{2} \times (\operatorname{sut}_{1} + \operatorname{sut}_{2}) \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}\right) \\ &+ (\alpha^{3} \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}), \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{C}_{3} = & \hat{C}_{2} + \operatorname{sut}_{3} + \hat{p}_{3} = (p_{1} \times 1^{\beta}) \\ &+ (p_{2} \times 2^{\beta}) + (p_{3} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times p_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times p_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha \times p_{2} \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^{2} \times p_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ \operatorname{sut}_{1} + \operatorname{sut}_{2} + \operatorname{sut}_{3} \\ &+ (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^{2} \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta}) + (\alpha \times \operatorname{sut}_{3} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^{2} \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^{2} \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}) \\ &+ (\alpha^{3} \times \operatorname{sut}_{1} \times 1^{\beta} \times 2^{\beta} \times 3^{\beta}). \end{split}$$

Therefore, continuing this procedure leads us to the following relation:

$$\hat{p}_{r} = \left[\left(p_{r} + \alpha \times \sum_{v=1}^{r} \operatorname{sut}_{v} \right) + \sum_{h=1}^{r-1} \left(\alpha \times (p_{h} + \alpha) \right) \times \sum_{w=1}^{h} \operatorname{sut}_{w} \times h^{\beta} \Pi_{q=h+1}^{r-1} (1 + \alpha \times q^{\beta}) \right] \times r^{\beta}.$$
(3)

2.2. Mathematical model

Mathematical modeling is a well-known process to develop and describe a problem using mathematical concepts and languages. In this subsection, a Mixed Integer Non-Linear Programming (MINLP) model for the addressed problem is developed. To support the presentation of the proposed mathematical model, we first provide a list of notations in Table 1.

In terms of defined notations, the SALBP with sequence-independent setup times and deterioration and learning effects can be formulated as follows:

Objective function:

$$MinZ = CT.$$
 (4)

Subject to:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{r=1}^{Mn} x_{ijr} = 1 \quad (i = 1, ..., n),$$
(5)

Notation	Definition
i, k, s	Task
j	Workstation
m	Number of workstations
r	Sequence position inside a workstation
n	Number of tasks
p_i	Basic processing time of task $i(i = 1,, n)$
\hat{p}_{jr}	Actual 1 processing time of task assigned to the r th sequence at work station j
CT	Cycle time
α	Deterioration effect
β	Learning effect
P	Set of tasks that precedes a task, i.e. set of couples of tasks (i, k)
	in which i is the immediate predecessor of k
AP_i	Set of all predecessors of task i including non-immediate predecessors
Mn	Maximum number of tasks that can be assigned to any workstation
sut_i	Setup time required for task i
$x_{ijr} \in \{0,1\}$	1 if task i is assigned to r th sequence position at workstation j , 0 otherwise
	(i = 1,, n; j = 1,, m; r = 1,, Mn)
$y_{ikj} \in \{0,1\}$	1 if task i is performed immediately before task k at workstation j in the
	same or in the next cycle $(\forall j; \forall (i, l) (i \neq k))$
$z_{ij} \in \{0,1\}$	1 if task i is in the last sequence position of tasks assigned to workstation j $(\forall i; \forall j)$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{r=1}^{Mn} x_{ijr} \ge 1 \quad (j = 1, ..., m),$$
(6)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ijr} \le 1 \quad (j = 1, ..., m; r = 1, ..., Mn),$$
(7)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij,r+1} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ijr} \le 0$$

(j = 1,...,m; r = 1,...,Mn - 1), (8)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{r=1}^{Mn} (\operatorname{Mn} \times (j-1) + r) \times x_{ijr}$$
$$- \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{r=1}^{Mn} (\operatorname{Mn} \times (j-1) + r) \times x_{kjr} \le 0$$
$$(\forall (i,k) \in P), \tag{9}$$

$$\hat{p}_{jr} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\left((p_i + \alpha \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{v=1}^{r} \operatorname{sut}_i \times x_{ijv}) + \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} (\alpha \times (\sum_{\tau=1}^{n} (p_\tau \times x_{\tau jr}) + \alpha) \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{w=1}^{h} (\operatorname{sut}_i \times x_{ijw}) + \alpha \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{w=1}^{h} (\operatorname{sut}_i \times x_{ijw}) \times h^{\beta} \Pi_{q=h+1}^{r-1} (1 + \alpha \times q^{\beta})) \times r^{\beta} \times x_{ijr} \right]$$

$$(j = 1, ..., m; r = 1, ..., \operatorname{Mn}), \qquad (10)$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^{Mn} \hat{p}_{jr} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{r=1}^{Mn} (\operatorname{sut}_i \times x_{ijr}) \le \operatorname{CT} \quad (j = 1, ..., m),$$
(11)

 $x_{ijr} + x_{kj,r+1} \le 1 + y_{ikj}$

$$(j = 1, ..., m; r = 1, ..., Mn - 1; \forall (i, k) |$$

 $(i \neq k) \land (k \notin AP_i)),$ (12)

$$\begin{aligned} x_{ijr} - \sum_{\substack{k=1\\(i \neq k) \land (k \notin AP_i)}}^{n} x_{kj,r+1} &\leq z_{ij} \\ (i = 1, ..., n; j = 1, ..., m; r = 1, ..., Mn - 1), \end{aligned}$$
(13)

 $z_{ij} + x_{kj1} \le 1 + y_{ikj}$

$$(j = 1, ..., m; \forall (i, k) | (i \neq k) \land (i \notin AP_k)).$$
(14)

Relation (4) presents the objective function that minimizes the cycle time. Constraint (5) shows that every task must be assigned to only one sequence in only one workstation. Constraint (6) ensures that existing workstations must be occupied with at least one task. With Constraint (7), in each sequence, inside every workstation, there will be, at most, one task assigned. Constraint (8) states that tasks should be assigned in ascending order of position in the scheduling of each workstation. Constraint (9) guarantees that the precedence relations between the tasks are not violated, regarding the assignment to different workstations and also the sequence positions inside the same workstation. Constraint (10) is the actual time of the task assigned to the rth sequence at workstation j. Constraint (11) shows that the sum of actual task times and the corresponding setup times in each workstation does not exceed the cycle time, which is going to be minimized. In other words, the total actual task times assigned to every workstation, plus the total corresponding setup times, will be equal to, or less than, cycle time. Constraint (12) assures that the binary variable, y_{ikj} , is equal to 1, whenever task i is assigned to sequence position r, and task k is placed in position r+1 in the scheduling workstation, j. In other words, according to Relation (12), when task *i* and task *k* are placed in position r and r+1 of workstation j, respectively, y_{ikj} must be equal to 1. Constraint (13) guarantees that the binary variable, z_{ij} , is 1 when task *i* is assigned to the last position in workstation j, because, in this case, the summation available in the relation would be equal to 0 and, consequently, z_{ij} must be set to 1. Lastly, Constraint (14) implies that the variable, y_{ikj} , is 1, whenever task *i* is placed in the last position (i.e. $z_{ij} =$ 1) and task k is assigned to the first sequence position (i.e. $x_{kj1} = 1$) in the scheduling workstation, j.

2.3. A numerical example

In this subsection, the proposed MINLP model is tested using Mansoor 11, which is available in the SALBP literature. Table 2 provides processing time, predecessors and randomly generated setup times for each task. Table 3 demonstrates that considering 3 workstations, no deterioration and learning effects and using the same setup times presented in Table 2, minimum cycle time for Mansoor 11 is equal to 81.

Then, the problem under study was solved using the simultaneous effects of learning and linear deterioration. Table 4 shows that, in this case, cycle time is 81.916 when three workstations exist, learning takes place by a 70% learning curve, i.e., $\beta = log_2 0.7 = -0.515$, and the deteriorating effect (α) is 0.15. In Tables 3 and 4, workstation time is the sum of operation and setup times. Note that we used the optimization software, LINGO 11.0, to test our proposed formulation.

Table 2. Task times, predecessors and setup times forMansoor 11.

Task	Task	Predecessors	Setup
no.	time	Tredecessors	time
1	4	-	2
2	38	-	7
3	45	-	5
4	12	1, 2	2
5	10	2	3
6	8	4	8
7	12	5	8
8	10	6	7
9	2	7	4
10	10	8, 9	3
11	34	3, 11	1

Table 3. Balancing and scheduling Mansoor 11 without learning and deteriorating effects (m = 3).

Workstation no.	Task time Task + setup time		${f Workstation}\time$
	1	6	
1	2	45	78
I	4	14	10
	5	13	
	3	50	
2	7	20	76
	9	6	
	6	16	
3	8	17	81
0	10	13	01
	11	35	

Table 4. Balancing and scheduling Mansoor 11 with proposed model with learning and deterioration effects (m = 3, learning effect = 70% and deterioration effect = 0.15).

Workstation no.	Task	Actual task time	${f Workstation}\ time$		
	2	39.050			
1	5	12.150	81.916		
	7	12.716			
	1	4.300			
2	3	32.687	65.151		
2	9	5.226	05.151		
	4	9.938			
	6	9.200			
3	8	9.541	66.636		
5	10	8.813	00.000		
	11	20.082			



Figure 1. Precedence diagram for Mansoor 11 and scheduling of tasks inside each workstation.

Figure 1 presents the precedence diagram and the solution obtained for Mansoor 11, where the original precedence relationships between tasks are represented by solid arcs, and the work schedules inside three workstations are shown with discontinuous lines. As is obvious, the first workstation with the largest workstation time becomes the bottleneck in this assembly line example, with the effects of learning and deterioration and setup times.

3. The proposed hybrid algorithm

Gutjahr and Nemhauser [44] proved that SALBP is an NP-hard problem. They showed that ALBP can be formulated as a shortest path problem. In their approach, a network of nodes and arcs is represented in which each path corresponds to a feasible solution, and each shortest path corresponds to an optimal solution of SALBP. Since the number of nodes grows exponentially by increasing the number of tasks, it is commonly not possible to construct the complete graph. Therefore, Easton et al. [45] incorporate lower and upper bounds, as well as dominance rules, to reduce the size of the graph.

Since ALBP, even as a simple version, falls into the class of NP-hard optimization problems, more complicated versions of this problem are also known to be NP-hard, and a solution methodology should be used to solve the larger instances in reasonable computation time. In related literature, effective exact and heuristic/meta-heuristic procedures are available that solve medium-sized instances in a quality sufficient for use in real-world situations. In this regard, Scholl and Becker [11] provide a comprehensive survey of solution procedures in the SALBP field. However, further algorithmic improvement is necessary for solving the new problem raised, especially in large-scale instances. In this section, a hybrid meta-heuristic algorithm is proposed that employs the tabu search within the Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS/TS). The components of the hybrid VNS/TS algorithm are stated below.

3.1. Encoding scheme

There are two different representation mechanisms for the ALBPs in related literature: Task-oriented and station-oriented representations. In both of them, a string of integers is assumed with a length equal to the number of tasks to be proceeded in the assembly line. Task i in position j of the string, using the task-oriented representation, will be assigned to a workstation before the task in position (j + 1) of the string. While, in the station-oriented scheme, task i will be assigned to workstation j if the *i*th location of the string has the amount of j. Nearchou [37] found the task-oriented scheme superior after experimentation for the SALBP-2. Because of some similarities between Nearchou's problem and our case, we decided to employ a taskoriented representation within the hybrid VNS/TS algorithm.

Our proposed solution scheme is represented by a permutation of tasks, which shows the sequence of tasks. After determining the number of tasks in each workstation, the tasks are assigned to the corresponding workstations from the left of the permutation to the right in order. Figure 2 clearly exhibits an example for this representation.

3.2. Initial solution

Generating a suitable solution has a significant effect on the quality of solutions and computation time. Due to the existence of precedence constraints among the tasks in ALB problems, providing an initial solution in a random manner may lead us to an infeasible solution. Checking and eliminating an infeasible permutation of tasks and substituting them for a new one will be time-consuming. So, in this paper, a simple method is used to generate a feasible initial solution that satisfies the precedence relations. The procedure is as follows:

Step 1. Sort the tasks based on the number of their Immediate Predecessors (IPs) in ascending order.

Step 2. Select a task with maximum task time plus setup time from the ones that have no predecessors (free tasks whose associated IPs are zero) and assign it to the first empty position of a string with size *n*. In case of a tie, choose a task from candidate tasks randomly.

1	4	3	2	5	6	8				
Station 1 Station 2						,	St	ation		



Step 3. Delete the selected task in Step 2 from the set of tasks and update the corresponding IPs for the remaining tasks.

Step 4. If the set of tasks is not empty, go to Step 2.

Step 5. Return a permutation of n tasks as a feasible initial solution.

3.3. Variable neighborhood search

The variable neighborhood search, first suggested by Mladenovic and Hansen [46], is a recent meta-heuristic algorithm based on the principle of systematic change of neighborhood during the search process. In other words, it employs two or more neighborhoods in its structure, instead of one. VNS is a robust, effective and simply structured method for solving combinatorial optimization problems, such as the traveling salesman problem [46], the *p*-median problem [47], the minimum spanning tree problem [48], and a large number of other successful applications, which have been reported by Hansen and Mladenovic [49].

In our algorithm, to prevent costing too much computational time, three Neighborhood Structures (NS) are considered to produce new various solutions. Index l is defined to show an NS type. Whenever a neighborhood is chosen, a random procedure is employed to generate a solution (which may be infeasible) from the selected neighborhood structure. Thus, the neighborhoods, $N_1(S)$, $N_2(S)$ and $N_3(S)$, for each lare created as follows:

- 1. $N_1(S)$ or swap operator: Swap the positions of two randomly selected different tasks. Figure 3 shows the performance of this operator graphically.
- 2. $N_2(S)$ or Multi Swap Operator (MSO): Repeat the swap operator more than two times, that is, after exchanging the positions of two different tasks, i_1 and i_2 , choose randomly two other tasks, ii_1 and ii_2 , and swap them. In this paper, we perform the swap operator twice in $N_2(S)$.
- 3. $N_3(S)$ or Multi Single Point Operator (MSPO): Regenerate the position of more than two randomly picked tasks. In this paper, we select two tasks, i_1 and i_2 ($i_1 \neq i_2$), and two sequence positions, r_1 and r_2 , randomly. Then, task i_1 is transferred at sequence position r_1 and task i_2 at sequence position r_2 . Figure 4 demonstrates the performance of this operator graphically.



Figure 3. Swap operator in the proposed solution representation.

								\downarrow	
6	4	5	3	7	8	2	10	9	1
↑									
6	4	5	7	1	8	2	10	3	9

Figure 4. Multi single point operator in the proposed solution representation.

Input:	The number of tasks (n) , the precedence relations between tasks.
Outpu	t: Precedence matrix M .
Begin	
1:	for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n do
2:	for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do
3:	if task i must be completed before task j , then
4:	$M_{ij} = 1$, else, $M_{ij} = 0$
5:	end if
6:	end for
7:	end for
8:	for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n do
9:	for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do
10:	$\mathbf{if} \ M_{ij} = 1, \ \mathbf{then}$
11:	for $k \leftarrow 1$ to n do
12:	$M_{kj} \leftarrow M_{kj} + M_{ki};$
13:	$\mathbf{if} \ M_{kj} = 2, \ \mathbf{then}$
14:	$M_{kj} \leftarrow 1;$
15:	end if
16:	end for
17:	end if
18:	end for
19:	end for
20:	for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do
21:	$count \leftarrow 0;$
22:	for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n do
23: 24:	if $M_{ij} = 1$, then
1	$count \leftarrow count + 1;$ end if
25: 26:	end for
20: 27:	
27: 28:	$M_{n+1,j} \leftarrow count;$ end for
28:	Return M
End	
Lina	

Algorithm 1. Building precedence matrix M.

3.4. Repairing infeasible solutions

Applying each of the NS types may provide an infeasible solution. Therefore, we need a procedure to repair generated infeasible solutions. For this purpose, a procedure similar to Nearchou [37] with a few modifications is employed. First, precedence relationships are presented in matrix M in which $M_{ij} = 1$, if task imust be finished immediately before task j, otherwise, $M_{ij} = 0$. The complete procedure for constructing the precedence matrix, M, is shown in Algorithm 1.

Note that indirect predecessors of each task are also represented in Algorithm 1. In other words, when task k is an indirect predecessor of task j, the procedure sets $M_{kj} = 1$. Furthermore, the total number of the predecessors of every task is counted, and is saved in the corresponding column of the (n+1)th row of matrix M.

The most important difference between our algorithm and Nearchou's method is that in precedence matrix M, obtained by Algorithm 1, both direct and indirect predecessors are considered. In order to clarify the main idea behind Algorithm 1, an illustrative example is presented. In this regard, a precedence



Figure 5. An example of a precedence network with 5 tasks.

network with five tasks is given, as follows, which represents the relations between tasks. In this regard, Figure 5 shows a precedence network with 5 tasks.

According to Figure 5, the corresponding 0-1 connection matrix for the directed predecessor is as follows:

Nevertheless, the precedence matrix M obtained by Algorithm 1 is as follows:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

where the last row, i.e. 6th row, presents the total number of the predecessors of each task. This information is then used in the repairing procedure illustrated by Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 corrects an infeasible solution, S, and returns the feasible version of it by string PS. Initially, PS is empty and, iteratively, each feasible task, a, is inserted in the next existing position to create a string of tasks, so that precedence relations are not violated.

3.5. Solution evaluation mechanism

This mechanism corresponds to the calculation of the cycle time for each solution. Therefore, tasks have to be appropriately assigned to the workstations first. After experimenting with some well-known decoding schemes from the literature, we finally decided to adopt the scheme proposed by Kim et al. [51], since it was found to be superior and more adaptive, in our case. In this scheme, a feasible solution is put into an iterative process that solves the corresponding SALBP-I, with a theoretical cycle time being lessened until a near-optimum value is achieved. Due to the



Algorithm 2. Repairing infeasible solution (S).

existence of setup times, deteriorating tasks and the learning effect in our problem, we need to apply some modifications to this procedure while assigning tasks to workstations. This decoding scheme is expressed as follows:

Step 1. Set CT firstly equal to the theoretical minimum cycle time, i.e., $CT = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} (p_i + \operatorname{sut}_i/m)\right]$, where $\left[A\right]$ denotes the smallest integer value greater than, or equal to, A [34].

Step 2. Assign as many tasks as possible to the first m-1 workstations, when the sum of actual processing times is calculated using Relation (3), and their respective setup times are not more than CT for each workstation. Then, assign all the remaining tasks to the last workstation (m).

Step 3. Calculate workstation time, WT_j , for each workstation, j(j = 1, 2, ..., m), and the potential workstation time, PWT_j (j = 1, 2, ..., m - 1), where $PWT_j = WT_j + \text{sum of the actual processing time of the first task in workstation <math>(j+1)$ and its corresponding setup time.

Step 4. Set $CT_w = Max\{WT_1, WT_2, ..., WT_m\}$ and $CT = Min \{PWT_1, PWT_2, ..., PWT_{m-1}\}.$

Step 5. If $(CT_w > CT)$, then go to Step 2.

Step 6. Return CT_w as the minimum value of the cycle time and stop.

It is noteworthy that the initial CT is obtained in Step 1. Then, the value of CT is updated in Step 4. Therefore, after Step 5, if we return to Step 2, the assignment of tasks to the workstations is undertaken based on the new CT.

3.6. Tabu search

Tabu Search (TS) is a decent meta-heuristic algorithm originally introduced by Glover [52], which avoids the trap of local optimum by allowing a non-improving move. TS has frequently been used to find good solutions to large-sized combinatorial problems in many industrial applications. TS starts from an initial solution and moves to a better solution in its neighborhood through the search space, until a specific number of iterations has been completed with no improvement in the best solution found so far. To avoid cycling back to previously visited solutions and trapping them a local optimum, a Tabu List (TL) is used to record the recent moves. The length of the tabu list is one of the most significant parameters in a TS algorithm, and is required to be determined accurately. In this paper, we apply TS in combination with VNS for solving our problem. In other words, TS is employed in each type of NS of VNS algorithm to improve the search process.

The proposed hybrid algorithm structure, with all its aforementioned features, is designed as illustrated in Algorithm 3.

4. Experimental design and discussion

In this section, we are going to examine the performance of the VNS/TS hybrid algorithm over standard sets of benchmark instances taken from the literature. The efficiency of the proposed algorithm is compared with the Differential Evolution Algorithm (DEA) of

Begin

Step 1. Initialization Input required data set; Initialize parameters: Basic processing times, sequence independent setup (for each task), number of workstations, deterioration effect (α), learning effect (β), length of tabu list; max number of iterations (Max_Iter) , max number of neighborhood searches for each solution (Max_NS) , $l \leftarrow 1$; Build matrix M to present precedence relations; // Using Algorithm 1 // $CTN \leftarrow M$; // CTN corresponding to the first neighborhood; M is a long integer value// $S \leftarrow$ Generate initial solution; // Using the procedure presented in Subsection 3.2 // $CT_{best} \leftarrow Calculate CT$ for solution S; // Using the decoding scheme introduced in Subsection 3.5 // Add S to tabu list (TL); Step 2. Balancing and scheduling while Max number of iterations $< Max_Iter do$ for Number of neighborhood searches $\leftarrow 1$ to $< Max_NS$ do $SN \leftarrow$ Generate a solution from the *l*th neighborhood of S ($SN \in N_l(S)$); $SN \leftarrow$ Repair infeasible solution (SN); // Using Algorithm 2 // $CT_{SN} \leftarrow$ Calculate cycle time for SN using decoding scheme; $\mathbf{if}\;SN$ is not in tabu list, \mathbf{then} Update TL; // add SN to TL, push all other entries in TL one position down and delete the entry at the bottom of TL //, else $CT_{SN} \leftarrow M; // M$ is a too large value // end if if $CT_{SN} < CTN$, then $CTN \leftarrow CT_{SN};$ $SN_{best} \leftarrow SN;$ end if end for if $CTN < CT_{best}$, then $CT_{best} \leftarrow CTN;$ $S \leftarrow SN_{best};$ $\tilde{l} \leftarrow 1;$ else, $l \leftarrow l+1;$ end while Step 3. Report optimization results. End

Algorithm 3. Main body of hybrid algorithm.

Nearchou [37], which was originally used for solving SALBP-II.

All tests are implemented in MATLAB 7.9 and run on a personal computer with 2.10 GHz Intel Core 2 Due CPU and 3 GB of RAM memory, under a Microsoft Windows XP environment.

4.1. Data settings

The required data for our problem includes: the number of tasks, the number of workstations, precedence network, processing times, deterioration effect, learning effect and setup times. The basic processing times and the precedence constraints for all instances are available in the assembly line optimization research homepage (http://www.assembly-line-balancing.de). We solve the problems for two given numbers of workstations from a set of $\{3, 4, 6\}$. The deterioration effect is set at 0.10 and 0.15 and learning rates are chosen from the set of $\{60\%, 70\%, 80\%\}$. The setup times are also uniformly distributed from 1 to the mean of the basic processing times.

4.2. Evaluation metrics

After computing the objective value (cycle time) for each instance using the algorithms, the Relative Percentage Dviation (RPD), in percentages, is calculated by the following relation [53]:

$$\operatorname{RPD}(\%) = \frac{\operatorname{Algorithm}_{sol} - \operatorname{Min}_{sol}}{\operatorname{Min}_{sol}} \times 100, \quad (15)$$

where $Algorithm_{Sol}$ is the objective value of each algorithm for a given instance, and Min_{Sol} is the best solution obtained for each instance by any of two algorithms. An average RPD equal to 3%, generated by a specific algorithm, means that this algorithm is 3% over the best obtained solution, on average. As is obvious, lower RPD values are preferred.

4.3. Parameters tuning

It is clear that the various levels of the parameters affect the quality of the solutions obtained by a hybrid algorithm. Selecting the best combination of parameters can intensify the search process and prevent the neighborhood search from being trapped in local optimum. Thus, we have applied parameter tuning for the maximum number of neighborhood searches for each solution (Max_NS) and the Length of the Tabu List (LTL). In this study, trials are performed considering three different sizes of instance: small, medium, and large. Table 5 shows the factor levels for each type of instance. In order to avoid over-fitting in the computational results, the various instances are

Instances	Number of tasks	Max_ NS levels	LTL levels
Small	Lower than 20	20, 30, 40 and 50	5, 7 and 10
Medium	Between 20 and 50 $$	30, 50, 70 and 100	7,10 and 12
Large	Greater than 50	50, 100, 200 and 300	10, 15 and 20

Table 5. Factor levels for different types of instances.

Table 6.	Two-way	ANOVA	results	for R	PD.
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	ANOVA table for medium size instances								
Source	\mathbf{DF}	Sum of squares	Mean squares	\mathbf{F}	P-value				
Max_NS	3	0. 9919	0.3306	0.99	0.459				
LTL	2	0.4879	0.2439	0.73	0.520				
$Max_NS * LTL$	6	2.0053	0.3342	1.49	0.200				
Error	48	10.7372	0.2237						
Total	59	14.2222							
	ANG	OVA table for larg	e size instances						
Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean squares	\mathbf{F}	P-value				
Max_NS	3	0.1246	0.0415	0.72	0.575				
LTL	2	0.2199	0.1100	1.91	0.228				
$Max_NS * LTL$	6	0.3457	0.0576	0.52	0.789				
Error	48	5.2954	0.1103						
Total	59	5.9856							



Figure 6. Average running times (in CPU seconds) for two factors and three sizes of instances.

employed for tuning the parameters and evaluating the proposed algorithm.

Since there are two factors to be tuned, we use the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique to analyze the obtained results. It is noteworthy that to employ ANOVA, three main hypotheses, namely, normality, homogeneity of variance and independence of residuals, must be checked. We performed that, and found no bias for questioning the validity of the experiment. All instances are solved by the VNS/TS algorithm 5 times by 3×4 different combinations. For small size instances, the algorithm leads to nearoptimal solutions, with an RPD of 0.0%. So, it is not necessary to perform an ANOVA test for this size of instance, and the best levels of factors are selected on the basis of the least average running time. Table 6 summarizes the ANOVA results for medium- and largesized instances.

As reported in Table 6, there is no significant difference between the levels of factors, because the p-values are greater than α -level when the alpha is set at 0.05 (or even 0.1). Therefore, it is just only possible to select better levels of each factor based on lower average running times. Figure 6 illustrates the

			Algorithm					
Problem name	${f Problem}\ {f size}\ (n)$	Number of workstations (m)	Learning rate $= 60\%$		${f Learning}\ = 70$		Learning rate $= 80\%$	
			VNS/TS	DEA	VNS/TS	DEA	VNS/TS	DEA
		3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	2.998
MITCHELL	21	4	0.328	0.437	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
		5	0.257	0.318	0.026	0.069	0.040	0.112
		4	1.997	4.980	0.173	0.777	0.601	1.234
ROSZIEG	25	5	0.577	4.362	0.069	4.158	0.070	4.006
		6	0.695	1.089	0.518	1.619	0.118	2.784
		4	0.034	5.699	0.213	1.335	0.553	1.940
HESKIA	28	5	0.041	2.231	1.160	3.008	1.587	2.894
		6	0.125	3.279	1.492	3.442	1.403	3.882
		4	0.781	1.017	0.000	0.281	0.830	2.208
LUTZ1	32	5	0.000	1.703	1.278	3.467	0.924	1.917
		6	0.020	1.221	1.732	2.762	0.871	1.721
		4	0.817	2.570	0.467	1.281	0.790	2.381
GUNTHER	35	5	0.450	1.854	0.021	1.059	0.851	1.262
		6	0.372	1.592	0.201	2.206	0.692	2.452
		4	0.899	3.292	0.674	1.452	1.278	3.058
KILBRIDG E	45	5	0.473	4.561	0.577	1.593	1.120	4.042
		6	0.312	1.883	0.662	3.789	0.717	3.852
		4	1.269	6.926	0.222	1.023	0.000	0.043
WARNECKE	58	5	1.293	3.458	0.469	1.587	0.019	0.693
		6	1.002	3.674	0.451	3.313	0.022	0.283
		4	1.114	2.903	1.002	3.902	1.583	3.639
TONG	70	5	1.231	3.308	1.023	3.409	0.941	2.695
		6	1.209	3.225	0.937	3.741	0.924	3.343
		4	0.533	2.262	0.339	1.002	0.060	0.926
WEE-MAG	75	5	0.398	2.192	0.609	1.424	0.248	1.409
		6	0.314	1.809	1.394	7.673	0.809	3.595
		4	0.611	2.043	0.328	1.329	0.692	1.655
LUTZ2	89	5	0.548	2.094	0.481	1.835	0.237	1.995
		6	0.211	1.516	0.574	1.793	0.060	1.444
		4	0.783	2.011	0.323	2.437	0.077	1.629
ARCUS	111	5	0.678	2.092	0.442	1.935	0.651	2.516
		6	1.001	2.990	0.554	2.965	0.412	2.120
Average			0.617	2.563	0.558	2.172	0.581	2.143

Table 7. Average relative percentage deviation ($\overline{\text{RPD}}$) for two algorithms with deterioration effect = 0.10.

mean running times (in CPU seconds) spent for three predefined sizes of instance. The results display that there is a significant difference in computational time between various levels of the Max_NS factor for each size of instance and this factor has a great effect on the running time. Thus, in order to decrease the running time, it is helpful to choose the lowest value for Max_NS in each group of instances. On the other hand, selecting the better level of the LTL factor in each category of instances pertains to the decision maker, because results indicate that this factor has no major influence on the RPD values and running times.

4.4. Experimental results

In this subsection, the efficiency and effectiveness of our proposed algorithm are evaluated by setting various rates of deterioration and learning. The obtained results are in terms of cycle time as the objective function. As stated before, we compare the proposed VNS/TS with the differential evolution algorithm. For evaluating the performance of these two methods, the RPD measure is used. Tables 7 and 8 show the results of experiments for two deterioration rates (0.10 and 0.15), each one grouped by n, m and learning rate. Note that each instance is solved using five different

Problem name	$\operatorname{Problem}$ size (n)	Number of workstations (m)	Algorithm					
			Learning rate = 60%		Learning rate = 70%		Learning rate = 80%	
			VNS/TS	DEA	VNS/TS	DEA	VNS/TS	DEA
MITCHELL	21	3	0.000	0.000	0.450	2.439	0.209	0.651
		4	0.532	0.532	0.000	0.000	0.855	1.139
		5	0.239	0.381	0.001	0.210	0.682	0.921
ROSZIEG		4	1.257	6.267	1.187	2.895	0.932	1.985
	25	5	1.230	3.118	0.038	8.554	0.050	5.235
		6	1.012	2.691	0.192	1.833	0.219	1.128
HESKIA	28	4	0.154	5.808	0.636	3.103	1.134	1.954
		5	0.807	3.675	0.239	1.570	1.525	4.321
		6	0.932	2.741	0.478	1.846	1.461	4.232
LUTZ1	32	4	1.867	3.197	0.928	1.436	0.126	1.889
		5	0.737	3.131	0.691	1.345	0.000	0.602
		6	0.561	2.451	0.403	2.019	0.390	0.815
GUNTHER	35	4	1.914	6.128	1.353	2.775	0.679	2.636
		5	0.435	2.755	0.000	1.609	0.365	1.374
		6	0.598	1.862	0.327	1.968	0.421	1.681
KILBRIDGE	45	4	1.790	4.335	0.244	1.443	1.605	3.980
		5	0.519	3.761	0.291	1.763	0.451	2.091
		6	0.478	3.469	1.163	3.547	0.020	1.839
WARNECKE	58	4	1.122	3.097	0.000	0.070	0.000	0.114
		5	0.581	2.341	0.345	1.391	0.230	1.094
		6	0.386	1.629	0.311	2.166	0.547	4.418
multirow3*TONG		4	0.109	1.691	0.491	1.091	0.901	2.813
	70	5	0.611	2.918	0.386	1.901	0.178	1.912
		6	0.617	1.561	0.471	1.871	0.382	1.832
WEE-MAG	75	4	1.539	6.397	0.650	1.387	0.697	2.028
		5	1.297	3.910	0.494	2.103	0.450	2.901
		6	1.749	4.609	0.417	2.635	0.635	6.040
LUTZ2	89	4	0.349	1.173	0.366	2.682	0.340	4.097
		5	0.591	1.091	0.671	2.190	0.492	1.671
		6	0.467	1.962	0.841	4.364	1.752	6.574
ARCUS	111	4	0.316	3.261	0.617	2.125	0.603	3.729
		5	0.410	2.915	0.312	2.461	0.495	2.853
		6	0.084	2.294	0.301	3.409	0.193	2.055
Average			0.766	2.944	0.452	2.188	0.576	2.503

Table 8. Average relative percentage deviation ($\overline{\text{RPD}}$) for two algorithms with deterioration effect = 0.15.

seeds and the average solution is considered. As can be seen, our hybrid VNS/TS algorithm provides better results than DEA. In order to analyze the results more precisely and to verify which algorithm is better, statistically, we carried out an ANOVA test, where two algorithms and RPD values were considered as the factor and response variables, respectively. The means plot and LSD intervals (at 95% confidence level) are shown in Figures 7 and 8 for two algorithms. As can be seen, there is a clear significant difference between the results of the two algorithms, and our proposed VNS/TS shows statistically better performance than DEA for learning rate $\in \{60\%, 70\%, 80\%\}$ and deterioration effect $\in \{0.10, 0.15\}$. We also evaluated the



Figure 7. Plots of RPD versus learning rates for the type of algorithm factor grouped by deterioration effect.



Figure 8. Plots of RPD versus number of tasks for the type of algorithm grouped by learning and deterioration effects.

effect of a different number of tasks on the performance of the algorithms (Figure 8). As shown, VNS/TS works better than DEA in all cases.

5. Conclusions and future study

In the literature of the assembly line balancing problem, most studies have assumed that the task times are independent of realistic effects, such as the learning of worker(s) for repetition tasks, and deterioration. However in many real-world environments, the task processing times are a function of their starting times due to the deterioration effect. On the other hand, workstation efficiency improves continuously because of repeating the same activities by worker(s) or machine(s). Hence, in order to reflect the industrial situation adequately, this paper investigates the simultaneous effects of learning and linear deterioration on the simple assembly line balancing and scheduling problem. Furthermore, we suppose there is a sequenceindependent setup time relating to each task, which corresponds only to the task to be performed. A Mixed Integer Non-Linear Programming (MINLP) model was developed to minimize the cycle time for a pre-defined number of workstations. We also proposed a hybrid meta-heuristic algorithm, called VNS/TS, comprising two components: the Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS) and the Tabu Search (TS) in which TS was employed within defined neighborhood structures. Finally, the performance of the VNS/TS algorithm was evaluated over a standard set of benchmark instances taken from the literature. The obtained results were compared with a Differential Evolution Algorithm (DEA). The experimental results demonstrate that our algorithm performs superior to DEA and obtains better results in terms of solution quality.

In order to enrich the current work, other assumptions, such as U-shaped, two-sided lines, parallel stations and equipment selection, can be considered in the assembly line balancing and scheduling problem. Addressing the sequence-dependent setup time between tasks, and developing a Mixed Integer Linear Programming (MILP) model would be interesting future research lines. On the other hand, application of an exact solution technique (e.g., branch and bound method) or other efficient meta-heuristic algorithms to solve relatively large-scale instances is a challenging area for future study.

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