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Multi-objective mixed-model assembly line balancing with hierarchical worker assignment: A case study of gear reducer manufacturing operations

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aDepartment of Industrial Engineering and Management, National Chin-Yi University of Technology, Taichung, Taiwan bDepartment of Industrial Management, Chung Hua University, Hsinchu, Taiwan **C H R O N I C L E A B S T R A C T**

1. Introduction

Assembly line is an important part of a mass production manufacturing system. The assembly line balancing problem (ALBP) refers to finding the optimal assignment of tasks into a set of workstations to achieve maximum production efficiency (Li et al*.*, 2023). Among the ALBPs, the simple assembly line balancing problem (SALBP) is a fundamental problem encountered for optimizing assembly systems (Campana et al*.*, 2022). There are two main SALBP variants in the literature: SALBP-1, which aims to minimize the number of stations for a given cycle time, and SALBP-2, which aims to minimize the cycle time for a fixed number of stations (Campana et al*.*, 2022). Although ALBP has been widely studied, it simplifies industrial reality; therefore, there are many practical limitations. Mixed integer programming (MIP) has been widely favored in the ALBP literature as a traditional mathematical programming method. However, MIP models can be difficult to linearize when solving today's real-life ALBPs. An abundance of current research focuses on variants to reflect realistic features of the ALBP, and various solution procedures, including mathematical programming approaches, heuristic, and metaheuristic algorithms, have been proposed (Zhang et al*.*, 2021).

Under the conventional SALBP, a single-model assembly line is considered. Single-model assembly lines are suitable for producing single products but are less suited to handling high variety requirements. Current market conditions require assembly lines and manufacturing strategies to be highly flexible to meet the variable needs of customers. Due to the high cost of designing an assembly line for any single model, producers try to assemble a set of products on a mixed-model assembly line. This is called the mixed-model assembly line balancing problem (MALBP). In the MALBP, tasks belonging to different product models are assigned to workstations based on their processing times and precedence relationships amongst

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tasks (Li et al., 2023). Due to the current market demand for diversified products and the need for mixed-model assembly lines, much research on the MALBP has been done in recent years. The MALBP can be divided into two classes: MALBP-I, given a cycle time, the objective is to minimize the number of workstations; and MALBP-II, given a number of workstations, the objective is to minimize the cycle time (Simaria & Vilarinho, 2004). The system design of a multi-objective assembly line balancing problem is necessary in assembly manufacturing for a make-to-order environment. For the MALBP, multiple objectives and constraints may need to be considered, and numerous mathematical models have been proposed to solve different types of problems. Some models can obtain exact solutions, especially for small-scale problems. When the problem becomes too complicated, it becomes NP-hard, and it is impossible to obtain optimal solutions using exact methods. Heuristic or metaheuristic algorithms thus have been used to find satisfactory solutions within a reasonable time.

Real-life production processes often consist of various tasks requiring different worker qualifications. There may be a hierarchical workforce structure in which workers' qualification levels are arranged hierarchically. With the downward substitutability in the hierarchy, lower qualified workers can be replaced by higher qualified workers, but not vice versa. Higher qualified workers have higher labor costs but execute tasks in shorter times. In this work, we consider the multiobjective mixed-model assembly line balancing problem with hierarchical worker assignment (MO-MALBP-HW), in which the objectives are minimizing cycle time and minimizing hierarchical workforce cost. The proposed multi-objective programming (MOP) model can solve small-scale problems efficiently. When the problem becomes too complicated, it becomes NP-hard, and the multi-objective genetic algorithm (MOGA) and the non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm II (NSGA-II) can obtain near-optimal solutions for large-scale problems in a short computational time. Case studies of a gear reducer manufacturer and larger cases from previous literature will be presented to examine the practicality of the proposed models for solving the problem. In addition, task assignment plans can be generated as a result. To the authors' knowledge, this is the first work that considers multiple objectives, mixed-model assembly line balancing, and hierarchical worker assignment simultaneously.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the MALBP and the hierarchical workforce. Section 3 constructs the MO-MALBP-HW using mixed integer programming (MIP), multi-objective genetic algorithm (MOGA), and non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm II (NSGA-II). Some instances are solved using the MIP, the MOGA, and the NSGA-II in Section 4. Conclusions and future research directions are presented in the last section.

2. Mixed-model assembly line balancing problem and hierarchical workforce

Customers' demands for different models and features change constantly in today's competitive business environment. Mass production has shifted to a multi-variety and small-batch production model, and simple assembly lines cannot meet the everchanging market demand (Liu et al*.*, 2021). Building and maintaining an assembly line for one single model is costly and unrealistic. Thus, a mixed model-based assembly line can avoid constructing several lines while satisfying customer demands and minimizing workers and costs. More and more researchers are studying the mixed-model assembly line balancing problem (MALBP), and many industries are developing mixed-model assembly lines. Razali et al*.* (2019) studied the recent trend in mixed-model assembly line balancing optimization and reviewed some publications from 2002 to early 2018 that studied various ALBPs. The discussions included problem varieties, optimization algorithms, objective functions, and constraints in the problem. Some works of the MALBP and their approaches were reviewed.

The MALBP has been widely studied recently. Liu et al. (2021) applied the uncertainty theory to model uncertain demand, and a complexity theory was introduced to measure the uncertainty of mixed-model assembly line balancing. Scenario probabilities and triangular fuzzy numbers were used to describe the uncertain demand. Considering the influence of multimodel products on the mixed-model assembly line, the workstation complexity was measured based on information entropy and fuzzy entropy to help balance the system with robust performance. The validity of the model was verified by multiple examples of automotive engine mixed-model assembly lines. Zhang et al*.* (2021) studied the mixed-model multi-manned assembly line balancing under uncertain demand and aimed to optimize the assembly line configuration through a mixed integer linear programming (MILP) model. In addition, a gene expression programming (GEP) method with multi-attribute representation was developed to generate efficient scheduling rules, and these rules were embedded into solution generation mechanisms to obtain line configuration. Meng et al*.* (2022) studied the MALBP considering preventive maintenance scenarios. A mixed integer mathematical model was proposed to optimize cycle time and task changes. The co-evolutionary algorithm was applied to simplify large-scale cases with a powerful divide-and-conquer architecture, and four improvements were made. Experimental results showed that the proposed mathematical model could obtain the Pareto solution for smallscale examples. The developed algorithm outperforms other algorithms on three criteria, and the Pareto front obtained by this algorithm was closer to the true Pareto front. Belkharroubi and Yahyaoui (2022) asserted that the assembly line was the main element responsible for assembling products in a manufacturing system, and it need to be well managed to avoid problems that could lead to production failures. MALBP-I occurs when designing a new assembly line, where different models of one product are assembled in a mixed order. The authors proposed a hybrid reactive greedy randomized adaptive search procedure to solve the problem by optimizing the number of workstations for a fixed, known cycle time. Delice et al*.* (2023) constructed a mixed integer mathematical model to minimize the total costs of the assembly line and supermarkets, and constraint programming (CP) was used to solve the developed model. For large-scale problems, a method based on ant colony optimization (ACO) and simulated annealing (SA) was developed to solve the supermarket location problem and the MALBP simultaneously.

Under hierarchical workforce scheduling (HSW), tasks vary in processing requirements and qualification levels of workers. A higher-skilled worker can replace a lower-skilled worker to perform a task but at a higher cost (Sungur & Yavuz, 2015). In addition, some tasks can only be completed by qualified, highly skilled workers. Sungur and Yavuz (2015) introduced an ALBP where tasks differed in terms of eligibility requirements, and workers' qualification levels were ranked hierarchically. The assembly line balancing with hierarchical worker assignment was solved using an integer linear programming model. Faccio et al. (2016) developed an innovative balancing and sequencing hierarchical method for mixed-model assembly lines using jolly operators with a side-by-side strategy. The goals were to minimize the number of work overloads and the necessary number of jolly operators, and the proposed procedure was validated by numerical analysis and comparison of optimized sequences with standard sequencing rules of thumb. Małachowski and Korytkowski (2016) constructed a competency-based analysis model to analyze the performance of multi-skilled workers taking on repetitive tasks. An analytical tool that betterdescribed workers' ability to perform repetitive tasks was developed by combining hierarchical capabilities, which were modeled as a weighted digraph, and learning curves, which represented individual learning rates. An assembly line model using discrete events was simulated, and how work experience in one job translated into performance in other roles was calculated. A better workforce scheduling could be generated as a result. Korytkowski (2017) developed a competency-based analysis model for analyzing the performance of multi-skilled workers doing repetitive tasks, considering learning and forgetting. The learning curve was used to estimate improvements when repeating the same action. The inverse phenomenon was forgetting, which could occur due to interruptions in the production process. The performance evaluation algorithm was developed for two scenarios: fixed shift duration and fixed production output. Chen et al*.* (2019) developed a model for the MALBP in the TFT-LCD module process, considering resource constraints, minimizing the number of workstations and workers, optimizing the assignment of tasks, workers and machines, and multi-skilled workers. A mathematical programming model was proposed to obtain the optimal solution, and a heuristic two-stage method based on adaptive GA was developed to solve NP-hard problems. Campana et al*.* (2022) developed an algorithm for ALBPs with hierarchical worker allocation for firms with multi-skilled workforces. The aim was to assign workers and tasks to workstations on the assembly line to meet cycle time and priority constraints and minimize total costs. A mathematical model was proposed first, and it was improved by preprocessing techniques. A constructive heuristic and a variable neighborhood descent were constructed to solve large instances. Liu et al*.* (2023) studied a scheduling problem in a hybrid flow shop where all processing stages were composed of unrelated parallel machines, and the objective was to minimize the makespan with the consideration of multi-skilled workers and their fatigue states. An agent-based simulation system was developed to cope with the uncertainties in worker fatigue models. A simulation-based optimization (SBO) framework, which integrated genetic algorithm (GA) and reinforcement learning (RL), was established to solve the problem. A hybrid flow shop examined the feasibility and effectiveness of the SBO approach in a pharmaceutical factory. Alhomaidhi (2024) introduced a mixed-model assembly line balancing approach that incorporated the learning effect alongside specific worker-type requirements for each task. An integer programming model complemented by heuristic techniques, which took into account variables such as cycle time, task dependencies, worker classifications, and the learning curve, were proposed. The goal was to minimize costs related to both labor and workstations while enhancing overall production efficiency.

Most earlier research on mixed-model assembly line problems considered single-objective optimization (Saif et al*.*, 2014). In a real production environment, however, multiple objectives need to be optimized simultaneously. Among the earlier works that tackled multi-objective optimization, the objectives are often combined into a single objective for optimization. For example, Simaria and Vilarinho (2004) studied a MALBP-II for a given number of parallel workstations and some zoning constraints. A mathematical model was first developed with a minimization objective, which was a sum of two terms: cycle time and workload balance within the workstations. A GA-based approach was applied next to solve the problem. Over the past decade, different types of multi-objective algorithms and their extensions in multi-objective optimization have been studied in the literature (Saif et al*.*, 2014). Saif et al*.* (2014) studied a mixed-model assembly line with simultaneous sequencing and balancing. The multiple objectives were balancing the workload of different models on each station, reducing the deviation of the workload of a station from the average workload of all the stations, and minimizing the total flowtime of models on different stations. A multi-objective artificial bee colony algorithm for simultaneous sequencing and balancing of the mixed-model assembly line with Pareto concepts and local search mechanism was developed. Rabbani et al*.* (2020) studied a multi-objective particle swarm optimization model, and an augmented multi-objective particle swarm optimization model was developed and compared. The result showed that the latter had a better performance. Chen et al*.* (2023) studied an integrated assembly line balancing and part-feeding problem. A bi-level mathematical model was proposed first to simultaneously minimize the number of stations and workload smoothness of the assembly line at the upper level and to minimize the number of supermarkets of the part feeding at the lower level. A bi-level multi-objective genetic algorithm was developed next, and it had two strategies for problem-solving: extending fitness evaluation to improve the approximation to the true frontier and adaptive termination condition to accelerate the convergence. Sun et al*.* (2024) studied a multi-objective hybrid production line balancing problem considering disassembly and assembly.The multiple objectives were to optimize cycle time, total cost, and workload smoothness concurrently under a fixed number of workstations. A mathematical programming model was formulated first, and a Pareto-based hybrid genetic simulated annealing algorithm was developed next. The two-point crossover and hybrid mutation operator were applied to generate potential non-dominated solutions, and a local search method based on a parallel simulated annealing algorithm was used to perform a depth search.

GA has been adopted to solve the multi-objective ALBP. Some recent works are reviewed here. Zhang et al. (2020) studied the MALBP by proposing a multi-objective model to minimize energy consumption and maximize line efficiency. A multiobjective cellular GA, which integrated a cellular strategy and local search, was developed to solve the problem. Tanhaie et al*.* (2020) studied a simultaneous balancing and worker assignment problem for mixed-model assembly lines in a make-toorder environment. A multi-objective model, which simultaneously minimized the number of stations and the total cost of the task duplication and worker assignment, was developed, and a control system that minimized the work in process was constructed. An NSGA-II was also developed, and it performed better than four other multi-objective algorithms. Li et al*.* (2023) proposed a multi-objective GA for the SALBP, called a bespoke genetic algorithm, to consider three objectives: minimizing the number of workstations, minimizing system cycle time, and maximizing workload smoothness. Nourmohammadi et al. (2023) studied a MALBP that incorporates musculoskeletal risk assessment. A MILP model was developed to consider three objectives: minimizing cycle time, minimizing the maximum ergonomic risk of workstations, and minimizing the total ergonomic risk. An enhanced non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm II (E-NSGA-II) was also developed by integrating a local search procedure to generate neighborhood solutions and a multi-criteria decision-making mechanism approach based on TOPSIS to ensure the selection of quality solutions.

3. Research methods

This research constructs a mathematical model for the multi-objective mixed-model assembly line balancing problem with hierarchical worker assignment (MO-MALBP-HW). For large-scale problem instances, both a MOGA approach and an NSGA-II approach are applied.

3.1 Assumptions and notations

The basic assumptions for the MO-MALBP-HW are as follows (Saif et al*.*, 2014; Chen et al*.*, 2019; Zhang et al*.*, 2021; Liu et al*.*, 2021; Belkharroubi and Yahyaoui, 2022; Liu et al*.*, 2023).

Assumptions

- 1. There is only one planning period.
- 2. The number of stations in the assembly line is known.
- 3. All machines and workers are available at the beginning of the period.
- 4. Several models with similar characteristics are being assembled.
- 5. The demand for each model is known in advance.
- 6. The precedence relationships of tasks for each model are known.
- 7. The task processing times of different models are deterministic and different.
- 8. All tasks must be assigned.
- 9. Each task is only assigned to one worker in one station.
- 10. Each station has only one worker with one hierarchical level.
- 11. The unit labor cost is different for different worker types.
- 12. A task of a model with a zero processing time means that the model does not contain this task.

The investigation of the MO-MALBP-HW is based on the following notations, which are modified from those used in some previous works (Özcan & Toklu, 2009; Sungur and Yavuz, 2015; Faccio et al*.,* 2016; Li et al., 2018; Rashid et al*.*, 2020; Lee et al*.*, 2021; Campana et al*.*, 2022; Kang & Lee, 2023).

Notations

Indices: *j*, *u*, *v* Task (*j* = 1,2,…, *J*). *k* Station $(k = 1, 2, ..., K)$. *m* Product model $(m = 1, 2, ..., M)$. *h* Worker type (*h*= 1,2,…, *H*). Parameters: *J* Set of tasks $(j = 1, 2, ..., J)$. *K* Set of stations $(k = 1, 2, \ldots, K)$. *M* Set of product models $(m = 1, 2, \ldots, M)$. *H* Set of worker types $(h = 1, 2, \ldots, H)$, with the skill level descending as *h* increases. w_1 The importance weight for cycle time.

- *w*₂ The importance weight for total cost.
- t^h_{im} Processing time of task *j* of type *h* for model *m*.
- c_h Unit labor cost of worker type *h*.
- *Ω* Set of precedence relations; (*u*,*v*)∈*Ω* if and only if task *u* is an immediate predecessor of task *v*.
- *PZ* Set of pairs of tasks in positive zoning; $(u,v) ∈ PZ$ if and only if tasks *u* and *v* must be processed in the same station.
- *NZ* Set of pairs of tasks in negative zoning; $(u,v) ∈ NZ$ if and only if tasks *u* and *v* cannot be processed in the same station.
- Decision variables:
- *CT* Cycle time.
CH Total cost of
- Total cost of hierarchical workforce.
- *T_{km}* Completion time of station *k* for model *m*.
UB Upper bound of the number of stations use
- Upper bound of the number of stations used.
- X_{ik}^{h} A binary variable, equal to 1 if task *j* is processed by worker type *h* in station *k*.
- Y_k^h A binary variable, equal to 1 if station *k* is operated by worker type *h*.
- V_k A binary variable, equal to 1 if station k is selected for processing.

3.2 Mixed integer programming (MIP) model for the MO-MALBP-HW

The mixed integer programming (MIP) model for solving the multi-objective mixed-model assembly line balancing problem with hierarchical worker assignment (MO-MALBP-HW) is constructed as follows:

$$
\min f = w_1 \times CT + w_2 \times CH \tag{1}
$$

subject to
$$
\sum_{h=1}^{H} \sum_{k=1}^{K} X_{jk}^{h} = 1,
$$
 $j \in J$ (2)

$$
\sum_{h=1}^{H} \sum_{k=1}^{K} k \times X_{vk}^{h} - \sum_{h=1}^{H} \sum_{k=1}^{K} k \times X_{uk}^{h} \ge 0, \qquad \forall (u, v) \in \Omega
$$
\n(3)

$$
T_{km} = \sum_{h=1}^{H} \sum_{j=1}^{J} t_{jm}^{h} \times X_{jk}^{h} , \qquad k \in \mathbf{K}, m \in \mathbf{M}
$$
 (4)

$$
T_{km} \le CT \,, \qquad k \in \mathbf{K}, m \in \mathbf{M} \tag{5}
$$

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k} X_{jk}^{h} \leq J \times Y_{k}^{h} , \qquad k \in \mathbf{K}
$$
 (6)

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{J} X_{jk}^{h} \ge Y_k^{h} , \qquad k \in \mathbf{K}
$$
 (7)

$$
\sum_{h=1}^{H} Y_k^h \le H \times V_k \tag{8}
$$

$$
\sum_{h=1}^{H} Y_k^h \ge V_k \,, \tag{9}
$$

$$
V_k \ge V_{k+1} \tag{10}
$$

$$
K \ge \sum_{k=1}^{N} V_k \tag{11}
$$

$$
CH = \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_h \times Y_k^h
$$

\n
$$
X_{uk}^h - X_{vk}^h = 0
$$

\n
$$
X_{uk}^h + X_{vk}^h \le 1
$$

\n
$$
\forall (u, v) \in PZ
$$

\n
$$
\forall (u, v) \in NZ
$$

\n(13)

$$
X_{jk}^{h} \in \{0,1\}
$$

\n
$$
Y_{k}^{h} \in \{0,1\}
$$

\n
$$
Y_{k}^{h} \in \{0,1\}
$$

\n
$$
K \in \mathbf{K}, h \in \mathbf{H}
$$

\n
$$
i \in \mathbf{K}, h \in \mathbf{H}
$$

\n
$$
i \in \mathbf{K}, h \in \mathbf{H}
$$

\n(16)

$$
V_k \in \{0,1\} \tag{17}
$$

where objective function (1) is a multi-objective function, which minimizes the cycle time with weight *w1* and minimizes the total cost of the hierarchical workforce with weight *w*2. Constraints (2) ensure that a task can only be assigned and processed by one single station with one worker of type *h*. Constraints (3) ensure the sequencing of tasks; a task needs to be completed before its next task can proceed. Constraints (4) calculate the completion time of station k for model m , T_{km} , by summing up the processing times of all tasks for model *m* in processing stations. Constraints (5) let the completion time of station *k* for model *m* be less than or equal to the cycle time. Constraints (6) and (7) ensure that station *k* is operated by a worker with type *h* if task *j* is being processed by a worker with type *h* in that station. Constraints (8) and (9) ensure that a worker with type *h* is operating in station *k* if the worker of type *h* is processing in that station and only one worker is working in that station. Constraints (10) allow station $k+1$ to be used only if preceding station k is used. Constraints (11) ensure the total number of stations used, K , is larger than the sum of all V_k 's. Constraints (12) calculate the total cost of the hierarchical workforce. Constraints (13) ensure that tasks *u* and *v* must be processed in the same station. Constraints (14) ensure that tasks *u* and *v* cannot be processed in the same station. Constraints (15) show that X_{jk}^h is a binary variable, equal to 1 if task *j* for type *h* is processed in station *k*. Constraints (16) show that Y_k^h is a binary variable, equal to 1 if station *k* for type *h* is selected for processing. Constraints (17) show that *Vk* is a binary variable, equal to 1 if station *k* is selected for processing. The MOGA will solve the above MIP model. Under the NSGA-II, the objective weights are not assigned. The mathematical model is constructed as follows:

$$
\min f_1 = CT \tag{18}
$$

$$
\min f_2 = CH \tag{19}
$$

subject to constraints (2) – (17) (20)

where objective function (18) is to minimize the cycle time and objective function (19) is to minimize the total cost of the hierarchical workforce. Constraint (20) contains all the constraints, i.e. constraints (2) to (17), in the previous MIP model.

3.3 MOGA for the MO-MALBP-HW

Genetic algorithm (GA) is a heuristic search algorithm commonly used to solve optimization problems. A two-point crossover and a uniform mutation operator are applied to prevent a solution from being confined to a local optimum and advancing toward the global optimum. The flowchart of the MOGA process is shown in Fig. 1. The steps of the process are as follows (Simaria and Vilarinho, 2004; Zhang et al*.*, 2019; Lee et al., 2021; Kang & Lee, 2023; Liao et al., 2023):

Fig. 1. Graphical representation of MOGA process

Step 1. Initial population of chromosomes

Before performing the GA operations, a certain number of chromosomes must be randomly obtained. A collection of chromosomes is called a population, and the population size usually depends on the complexity of the problem. The more complex the problem, the larger the required population and the stronger its ability. As a result, the solution is less likely to fall into the local optimal solution. It is assumed that a job can only be assigned to one station and one worker type. With a population size of *N*, *J* tasks and *K* stations, the *i*th chromosome has two fragments, *Chromi _s* and *Chromi _t*, represented as a string of *J* and *K* integer digits, respectively. *Chromi _s* has *J* genes, with each *j*th gene representing a random ordering of station k (1 to K) for processing task *j*. *Chromi t* has K genes, with each k th gene representing a random ordering of worker type *h* (1 to *H*) for station *k*. Fig. 2 shows an example of a chromosome population of size *N* with *J* tasks and *K* stations.

Fig. 2. Population of chromosomes and chromosome of coding scheme

Step 2. Decoding scheme

Each chromosome can be decoded as one single solution. Use *Chrom^N* in Fig. 2 as an example, and the decoding scheme is as shown in Fig. 3. *Chrom^N* s shows the station for processing task *j*, and *Chrom^N* t shows the worker type for station k. In *ChromN_s*, tasks 1, 2 and 6 have digit 1, tasks 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 have digit 2, and tasks 10, 11, 12 have digit 3. This indicates that tasks 1, 2 and 6 are assigned to station 1, tasks 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 are assigned to station 2, and tasks 10, 11, 12 are assigned to station 3. The same procedure applies to *Chrom^Nt.* Stations 1 and 3 have digit 1, and station 2 has digit 2. This indicates that worker type I is assigned to stations 1 and 3, and worker type II is assigned to station 2. The results show that stations 1 and 3 will be operated by worker type I, and station 2 will be operated by worker type II.

Fig. 3. Chromosome of decoding scheme and for station and work type assignments

Step 3. Fitness function evaluation

Define the fitness function for each chromosome as Max $\frac{1}{f}$, where f is the multi-objective function to be minimized.

Step 4. Tournament selection

Individuals (chromosomes) are selected from the current population to become parents of the next generation. Some chromosomes are randomly selected based on their fitness; that is, the chromosomes with the best objective values are selected for reproduction. The tournament selection strategy is applied as follows (Goldberg et al*.*, 1989; Zhang et al*.*, 2019):

- Step 4.1 A certain amount of chromosomes are randomly selected from the population. In this research, 10% of population size *N* is selected.
- Step 4.2 Choose the chromosome with the best objective value from the selected chromosomes as the best chromosome and add it to the mating pool. All the selected chromosomes in Step 4.1 are returned to the population for the next selection.
- Step 4.3 Repeat this process until the number of chromosomes in the mating pool reaches population size *N*, and the population is updated through this process.
- Step 5. Fragment crossover

Create new individuals (offspring) by combining the genes of selected parents. Various crossover techniques exist, such as single-point crossover, two-point crossover, or uniform crossover. Here, we use the two-point crossover technique, and the steps are as follows:

Step 5.1 Two parent individuals are selected from the population.

Step 5.2 Each of the two parents is divided by two randomly cut points, one in each fragment.

Step 5.3 For offspring 1, the first part in the first fragment is taken from parent 2, and the second part in the first fragment is taken from parent 1. The first part of the second fragment is taken from parent 1, and the second part of the second fragment is taken from parent 2.

Step 5.4 For offspring 2, the first part in the first fragment is taken from parent 1, and the second part in the first fragment is taken from parent 2. The first part of the second fragment is taken from parent 2, and the second part of the second fragment is taken from parent 1.

Step 5.5 Repeat the process until *N* chromosomes are collected.

An example of the fragment crossover is demonstrated in Fig. 4.

Fig. 4. A fragment crossover example with a two-point crossover

Step 6. Uniform mutation

Mutation makes random changes to some genes in offspring. Uniform mutations help introduce genetic diversity into a population and prevent the algorithm from falling into local optima. Fig. 5 shows an example of the mutation of offspring 1, as some genes in the first and second fragments are mutated.

Fig. 5. A mutation example

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Step 7. Replacement

A new population is obtained after completing the fragment crossover and mutation operations in a generation. The next generation is created by replacing the old population with offspring. The population size remains the same.

Step 8. Termination

The replacement operation and new population generation are repeated until a fixed number of generations or until a termination condition is met. In this study, the algorithm is terminated when the generation (Gen) reaches *Gmax*.

Step 9. Output

The best individual (chromosome) found in the last generation is considered the best solution to the problem.

3.4 NSGA-II for the MO-MALBP-HW

In NSGA-II, solutions are evaluated based on multiple objective functions, and their fitness values are determined through non-dominated sorting and crowding distance calculation processes. The flowchart of the NSGA-II process is shown in Fig. 6. Some of the steps of the NSGA-II are similar to those of the MOGA introduced in section 3.3. The steps of the process are briefly presented as follows (Deb et al., 2002; Chutima & Khotsaenlee, 2022; Nourmohammadi et al*.,* 2023; Rahman et al., 2023; Samouei & Sobhishoja, 2023; Soysal-Kurt et al., 2024):

Fig. 6. Graphical representation of NSGA-II process

- Step 1. Initial population of chromosomes. This step is similar to that in the MOGA.
- Step 2. Evaluate objective function and fitness value. The objective functions for each chromosome are Equation (18), minimizing the cycle time, and Equation (19), minimizing the total cost of the hierarchical workforce. The fitness value is determined through non-dominated sorting and crowding distance calculation.
- Step 3. Non-dominated sorting. This step includes initializing the number of solutions that dominate this solution and a list of solutions that this solution dominates, computing domination count and dominated solutions, identifying the first front, and iteratively identifying subsequent fronts.
- Step 4. Tournament selection. This step is similar to that in the MOGA.
- Step 5. Fragment crossover. This step is similar to that in the MOGA.
- Step 6. Uniform mutation. This step is similar to that in the MOGA.
- Step 7. Replacement. This step is similar to that in the MOGA.
- Step 8. Evaluate objective function and fitness value. After Steps 3 to 7, the objective function and fitness value are reevaluated.
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- Step 9. Merge the parent and offspring populations. This step includes initializing populations, combining populations, non-dominated sorting, and selecting solutions for the next generation.
- Step 10. Select individuals. Individuals are selected based on ranking and crowding distance.
- Step 11. Termination. This step is similar to that in the MOGA.
- Step 12. Output. The solutions on the Pareto frontier are obtained. These are the Pareto-optimal solutions.

4. Case studies

Five case studies are carried out to examine the proposed MIP model, the MOGA approach, and the NSGA-II approach. The MIP model can obtain the optimal solutions for small and medium-sized problem instances (Cases 1, 2, and 3). The MOGA and the NSGA-II approaches can generate optimal solutions for small problems, i.e., Cases 1 and 2, and near-optimal solutions for medium-sized problems, i.e., Case 3. For large-sized problems (Case 4 and Case 5), the problem becomes NP-hard, and the MIP model can no longer solve the problem. However, the MOGA and NSGA-II approaches can still obtain near-optimal solutions. In addition, the data for Case 2 and Case 3 is from a gear reducer manufacturer in Taiwan. The data for Case 4 is extracted and revised from Tonge (1961) and Li et al. (2018). The data for Case 5 is extracted and revised from Bartholdi (1993), Özcan and Toklu (2009) and Campana et al. (2022).

Commercial programs are applied to solve the models. LINGO (2018) is used to solve the MIP model, and MATLAB (2019) is used to solve the MOGA and NSGA-II models. The models are executed on a PC with an Intel® Core TM i7, 3.60GHz processor, and 4GB RAM. The MIP, the MOGA, and the NSGA-II calculate the objective values for problem scenarios. Gaps between the results of the MIP and the MOGA are calculated by Equation (21).

$$
\% Gap = \frac{MOGA\ objective\ value - MIP\ objective\ value}{MIP\ objective\ value} = \frac{f_{MOGA} - f_{MIP}}{f_{MIP}}
$$
(21)

where f_{MIP} is the objective value obtained by the MIP, and f_{MOGA} is the objective value obtained by the MOGA.

4.1 Case 1

In Case 1, the MO-MALBP-HW is applied to solve a problem with two product models, comprising 12 tasks. The assignment of assembly tasks into stations is constrained by precedence relationships, which are shown in a diagram called a precedence diagram. In the MALBP, multiple similar product models are assembled simultaneously. Each model has its own specific precedence relationships, and processing times may vary among models. Due to the similarity among these models, the tasks of these models can be combined into a precedence diagram, called a combined precedence diagram. The precedence diagrams of the two models and the combined precedence diagram are shown in Fig. 7. The task information of the 12 tasks is shown in Table 1, which lists the immediate predecessor(s) of each task and the processing time of each task for each of the two models by type I worker and type II worker. Note that "0" indicates that the model does not need the specific task, and "+∞" indicates that a worker with the specific type is not qualified to perform the task. We assume that there are two types of workers: type I and type II. Type I workers are highly skilled and thus can perform tasks quickly, and the unit cost for a type I worker is \$350. Type II workers have fewer skills than highly skilled workers; thus, they need more time to perform tasks. The unit cost for a type II worker is \$300. Note that type II workers cannot process some of the tasks.

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Task information for Case 1

(a) model I

(b) model II

(c) combined

Fig. 7. Precedence diagrams of model I, model II and combined

*4.1.1**Case 1 with Objective Weights*

The MIP and the MOGA can be applied when distinct objective weights are assigned. Let the weight of objective $1(w_1)$, the minimization of cycle time (CT), be 1, and the weight of objective 2 (*w*2), the minimization of the total cost of the hierarchical workforce (CH), be 10⁻⁶. That is, cycle time is much more important than the total cost of the hierarchical workforce. Three stations are available. Table 2 shows the assignment results. Each station has one highly skilled worker (worker type I). The total labor cost is 3*\$350=\$1,050, and the optimal cycle time is 420 seconds.

Table 2 Optimal assignment for Case 1 with $N=3$, $w_1=1$ and $w_2=10^{-6}$

			Model A			Model B
Station	Tasks	Worker types	Tasks	Station time	Tasks	Station time
	\bigcap 1, 2, 6			360	\bigcap 2. ₀	390
	3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9		3, 4, 5, 7, 8	420	3, 5, 7, 9	420
	10, 11, 12		10, 11, 12	300	10, 11, 12	360

On the other hand, assume that the total cost of a hierarchical workforce is much more important than cycle time. Let w_1 be 10⁻⁶ and *w*₂ be 1. Table 3 shows the assignment results. Stations 1 and 2 are operated by skilled workers (worker type II), and station 3 is operated by a highly skilled worker (worker type I). The total labor cost is 2*\$300+1*\$350=\$950, and the optimal cycle time is 600 seconds.

Table 3

Optimal assignment for Case 1 with $N=3$, $w_1=10^{-6}$ and $w_2=1$

Under Case 1, there are two product models and two worker types (worker types I and II). Let either $w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$ or $w_1 = 10^{-6}$ and $w_2 = 1$. The upper bound of the stations can be determined as follows:

$$
UB = max \left\{ \left[\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{J} t_{j1}^{h}}{max(t_{j1}^{h})} \right], \left[\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{J} t_{j2}^{h}}{max(t_{j2}^{h})} \right], \dots, \left[\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{J} t_{jM}^{h}}{max(t_{jM}^{h})} \right] \right\}
$$
(22)

Based on the information in Case 1, the calculation shows that *UB* is 5. Therefore, let the number of stations (*K*) be 5, 4, 3 or 2. Population size (N) is set to 10. The crossover rate (P_c) is usually set to 0.6 to 1.0 (Lin *et al.*, 2003). In Case 1, it is set to 0.8. The mutation rate (*Pm*) is usually set to a value less than 0.1 (Lin *et al.*, 2003). In Case 1, it is set to 0.05. The MOGA is terminated when the 100th generation (*Gmax*) is attained. The process of each scenario is repeated three times, and the results with the best objective value are collected.

The optimal solutions under each scenario using the MIP and the MOGA are shown in Table 4. For example, under scenario 1, there are five stations $(K=5)$, $w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$; the optimal solutions under the MIP and the MOGA are the same, with cycle time (*CT*) of 270 seconds, the total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$1,750, and the objective value of 270.0018. The computational time for the MIP is 0.51 seconds, and for the MOGA is 1.24 seconds. Fig. 8 shows that the convergence of MOGA with $K=3$ is reached at the $12th$ generation in scenario 3. The optimal assignments for three stations in Tables 2 and 3 are listed as scenarios 3 and 7, respectively, in Table 4. As can be seen in Table 4, the optimal solutions under the MIP and under the MOGA are the same in each scenario, with the %Gap equal to zero. Based on the proposed models, the management can make proper assignment decisions. For instance, if the production line has *K* stations and the management determines the weights of the two objectives to be w_1 and w_2 , the tasks and worker types for each station can be determined by the proposed models, as are the total labor cost and the optimal cycle time.

Fig. 8. The convergence of MOGA in scenario 3 for Case 1

4.1.2 Case 1 without Objective Weights

When the objective weights are not assigned, the NSGA-II can be applied. In this case, the population size (*N*) is set to 5, the maximum generation (G_{max}) is set to 100, the crossover rate (P_c) is set to 0.9, and the mutation rate (P_m) is set to 0.05. The results for Case 1 using NSGA-II are shown in Table 5. Scenarios 9, 10, 11, and 12 consider 5, 4, 3, and 2 stations (*K*), respectively. Under Scenario 9 with five stations, five Pareto optimal solutions are found, such as cycle time (*CT*) of 270 seconds and total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$1,750 as one of the solutions. The computational time is 3.59 seconds. Fig. 9 shows the convergence of the NSGA-II in scenario 11 with *K*=3 under three dimensions, i.e. cycle time, total cost of hierarchical workforce, and number of stations. Let *K*=3, the convergence of the NSGA-II in scenario 11 under two dimensions can be seen in Fig. 10. There are three Pareto optimal assignments (cycle time, total cost of hierarchical workforce): (420, 1050), (480, 1000) and (600, 950). Note that in Table 4, both scenarios 3 ($w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$) and 7 (w_1) $= 10^{-6}$ and $w_2 = 1$) are for *K*=3, and the optimal solution is (420, 1050) and (600, 950), respectively. Since no weights are given to the two objectives under the NSGA-II, there are three solutions on the Pareto frontier. The additional solution under the NSGA-II is (480, 1000).

Table 5

Results for Case 1 using NSGA-II

Fig. 9. The convergence of NSGA-II in scenario 11 for Case 1 under 3D

Fig. 10. The convergence of NSGA-II in scenario 11 for Case 1 under 2D

4.2 Case 2

In Case 2, the data from an anonymous gear reducer manufacturer in Taichung, Taiwan is used. The company, established in 1969, was specialized in design, R&D, and manufacturing of a wide range of high-tech gear motors, helical gear reducers, worm gear reducers, and planetary gear reducers. In this case, we assume that three product models are produced. The assembly diagram of a gear-worm reducer and final product are shown in Fig. 11. There are a total of 25 tasks. Two types of workers are available: type I (highly skilled) and type II (skilled). The unit cost for a type I worker is \$350, and the unit cost for a type II worker is \$300. The task information of the 25 tasks, including the immediate predecessor(s) of each task and the processing time of each task for each of the three models by type I and type II workers, is shown in Table 6. For the MOGA, population size (*N*) is set to 50, and *Gmax* is set to 300. The crossover rate (*Pc*) is set to 0.85, and the mutation rate (*Pm*) is to 0.01. Since the problem in Case 2 is more complex than the one in Case 1, population size (*N*) and stop generation (*G_{max}*) are set to be larger numbers. The process of each scenario is repeated three times, and the results with the best objective value are collected. The upper bound of stations (*UB*) is calculated to be 10; thus, the number of stations (*K*) ranges from 2 to 10. The solutions under each scenario using the MIP and the proposed MOGA are shown in Table 7. For example, in scenario 7, there are four stations ($K=4$). With weights $w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$, the optimal solutions under the MIP and the MOGA are the same, with cycle time (*CT*) of 340 seconds, the total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$1,400, and the objective value of 340.0014. The computational time for the MIP is 271.98 seconds. The computational time for the MOGA is 33.69 seconds. In another example, in scenario 16, there are also four stations (*K* =4). The optimal solution (*CT*, *CH*) under the MIP is (465, 1250), but the solution under the MOGA is (495, 1250). However, because $w_1 = 10^{-6}$, *CT* contributes negligibly to the objective value. Thus, *f* under the MIP and the MOGA are the same (1250.0005), and %Gap is

zero. The MIP can generate optimal solutions for all the scenarios. While the MOGA can generate optimal solutions for half the scenarios, near-optimal solutions are obtained for the other half of the scenarios, with %Gap of zero.

Fig. 11. Assembly diagram of gear-worm reducer for Case 2

Table 6	
Task information for Case 2	

For the NSGA-II, the population size (*N*) is set to 30, the maximum generation (G_{max}) is set to 300, the crossover rate (P_c) is set to 0.8, and the mutation rate (P_m) is set to 0.01. The result for $K=4$ is shown in Table 8. The computational time is 45.59 seconds. Fig. 12 shows the convergence of the NSGA-II with *K*=4 under three dimensions, i.e. cycle time, total cost of hierarchical workforce, and number of stations. The convergence of the NSGA-II under two dimensions can be seen in Fig. 13. There are four Pareto optimal assignments (*CT*, *CH*): (340, 1400), (370, 1350), (405, 1300) and (465, 1250). Note that for the MIP, in Table 7, both scenarios 7 ($w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$) and 16 ($w_1 = 10^{-6}$ and $w_2 = 1$) are for *K*=4, and the optimal solution is (340, 1400) and (465, 1250), respectively. Since no weights are given to the two objectives under the NSGA-II, four solutions are on the Pareto frontier. The two optimal solutions under the MIP are the same under the NSGA-II. The additional solutions under the NSGA-II are (370, 1,350) and (405, 1,300).

Table 7 Results for Case 2 using MIP and MOGA

Fig. 12. The convergence of NSGA-II with *K*=4 for Case 2 under 3D

4.3 Case 3

In Case 3, the data from an anonymous gear reducer manufacturer in Taichung, Taiwan, is also used. The task information of 42 tasks, including the immediate predecessor(s) of each task and the processing time of each task for each model by each type of worker, is shown in Table A1 in the Appendix. Three product models are produced. Two types of workers are available: type I (highly skilled) and type II (skilled). For the MOGA, population size (*N*) is set to 50, and *Gmax* is set to 300. The crossover rate (P_c) is set to 0.8, and the mutation rate (P_m) is set to 0.1. The process of each scenario is repeated three times, and the results with the best objective value are collected.

The calculation shows that the upper bound of stations (*UB*) is 12. Therefore, let the number of stations (*K*) range from 2 to 12. The solutions under each scenario using the MIP and the proposed MOGA are shown in Table 9. For instance, scenario 8 has five stations ($K=5$). With weights $w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$, the MIP has the optimal solution with a cycle time (*CT*) of 720 seconds and a total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$1,750, and the objective value is 720.0018. The computational time for the MIP is 488.98 seconds. The MOGA has a solution with a cycle time (*CT*) of 730 seconds and a total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$1,750, and the objective value is 730.0018. The computational time for the MOGA is 41.92 seconds. The %Gap in scenario 8 is 1.39.%. In another example, in scenario 19, there are also five stations $(K=5)$. The optimal solution (*CT*, *CH*) under the MIP is (1050, 1550), but the solution under the MOGA is (1070, 1550). However, because $w_1 = 10^{-6}$, *CT* contributes negligibly to the objective value. Thus, *f* under the MIP and the MOGA are the same (1550.0011), and %Gap is zero. The results in Table 9 show that while the MIP generates optimal solutions, the MOGA can

obtain solutions that are near the optimal ones. Among the 22 scenarios studied, %Gap is zero under 13 of them, and the largest %Gap is 5.88%. Note that the computational time by the MIP can be relatively long under some scenarios.

For the NSGA-II, the population size (*N*) is set to 30, the maximum generation (G_{max}) is set to 300, the crossover rate (P_c) is set to 0.85, and the mutation rate (P_m) is set to 0.01. The result for $K=5$ is shown in Table 10. The computational time is 62.16 seconds. Fig. 14 shows the convergence of the NSGA-II with *K*=5 under three dimensions. Fig. 15 shows the convergence of the NSGA-II under two dimensions. There are five Pareto optimal assignments (*CT*, *CH*): (750, 1750), (780, 1700), (870, 1650), (1000, 1600) and (1150, 1550). For the MIP, as shown in Table 9, both scenarios 8 ($w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10$ ⁶) and 19 (w_1 = 10⁻⁶ and w_2 = 1) are for *K*=5, and the optimal solution is (720, 1750) and (1050, 1550), respectively. With no weights given to the two objectives under the NSGA-II, there are five solutions on the Pareto frontier. The two optimal solutions under the MIP are not exactly the same under the NSGA-II. For (720, 1750) under the MIP, the solution is (750, 1750) under the NSGA-II, and (730, 1750) under the MOGA. For (1050, 1550) under the MIP, the solution is (1150, 1550) under the NSGA-II, and (1070, 1550) under the MOGA. The additional solutions under the NSGA-II are (780, 1700), (870, 1650) and (1000, 1600).

Table 10

Results for Case 3 with *K*=5 using NSGA-II

Fig. 14. The convergence of NSGA-II with *K*=5 for Case 3 under 3D

Fig. 15. The convergence of NSGA-II with *K*=5 for Case 3 under 2D

4.4 Case 4

The precedence relationship for Case 4 is from Tonge (1961) and Li et al*.* (2018). Since the past works did not consider mixed models and hierarchical workers, we need to provide some additional information. In Case 4, three product models are produced. There are a total of 70 tasks. Three types of workers are available: type I (highly skilled), type II (skilled), and type III (normal). The unit costs for type I, II, and III workers are \$350, \$300, and \$250, respectively. Table A2 in the Appendix shows the task information of the 70 tasks, including the immediate predecessor(s) of each task and the processing time of each task for each model by each type of worker. The calculated upper bound of stations (*UB*) is 24. Therefore, let the number of stations (*K*) range from 2 to 24. The MIP model can no longer solve the problem. For the MOGA, the population size (*N*), crossover rate (P_c), mutation rate (P_m), and stop generation (G_{max}) are set to 50, 0.85, 0.05, and 500, respectively. The process of each scenario is repeated three times, and the results with the best objective value are collected. The solutions under the proposed MOGA are shown in Table 11. For instance, both scenarios 11 and 26 have five stations (*K* =5). With weights $w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$ in scenario 11, the MOGA has a solution with a cycle time (*CT*) of 2670 seconds and a total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$2100, and the objective value is 2670.0021. The computational time for the MOGA is 53.32 seconds. With weights $w_1 = 10^{-6}$ and $w_2 = 1$ in scenario 26, the MOGA has a solution with a cycle time (*CT*) of 4860 seconds and a total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$1,650, and the objective value is 1650.0049. The computational time for the MOGA is 55.65 seconds. For the NSGA-II, the population size (*N*) is set to 30, the maximum generation (G_{max}) is set to 300, the crossover rate (P_c) is set to 0.85, and the mutation rate (P_m) is set to 0.01. Table 12 shows the result for *K*=6. The computational time is 87.86 seconds. Fig. 16 depicts the convergence of the NSGA-II with *K*=6 under three dimensions, i.e. cycle time, total cost of hierarchical workforce, and number of stations. Fig. 17 depicts the convergence of the NSGA-II under two dimensions. There are eight Pareto optimal assignments, as listed in Table 12. Note that while two solutions are found for *K*=6 in the MOGA (scenarios 11 and 26), eight solutions are found in the NSGA-II. The two solutions found in the MOGA are not the same as those found in the NSGA-II

Table 11

Results for Case 4 by the MOGA

Table 12

Results for Case 4 using NSGA-II

Fig. 16. The convergence of NSGA-II with *K*=6 for Case 4 under 3D

Fig. 17. The convergence of NSGA-II with *K*=5 for Case 4 under 2D

4.5 *Case 5*

In Case 5, four product models are produced, and the data is obtained and revised from Bartholdi (1993), Özcan and Toklu (2009) and Campana et al. (2022). Parameter *ρ* is the time factor that defines the time scaling from worker type *h* to worker type *h*+1, used in such a way that $t_{jm}^{h+1} = \rho t_{jm}^h$. In Case 5, ρ is set to 1.2. There are 148 tasks and three types of workers, and the unit costs for type I, II, and III workers are \$350, \$300, and \$250, respectively.

Table 13

Results for Case 5 by the proposed MOGA

Scenario	K	CT	CH		CPU(s)	Scenario	K	CT	CН		CPU(s)
	32	1310	11200	1310.0112	194.05	32	32	2060	8150	8150.0021	191.11
2	31	1310	10850	1310.0109	189.01	33	31	2060	7900	7900.0021	195.81
3	30	1310	10500	1310.0105	195.81	34	30	2060	7650	7650.0021	195.92
4	29	1310	10150	1310.0102	200.11	35	29	2060	7400	7400.0021	202.03
5	28	1310	9800	1310.0098	189.55	36	28	2060	7150	7150.0021	187.89
6	27	1310	9450	1310.0095	193.59	37	27	2060	6900	6900.0021	188.95
$\overline{7}$	26	1310	9100	1310.0091	195.89	38	26	2060	6650	6650.0021	185.24
8	25	1310	8750	1310.0088	196.81	39	25	2060	6400	6400.0021	196.59
9	24	1320	8400	1320.0084	189.69	40	24	2060	6150	6150.0021	198.91
10	23	1380	8050	1380.0081	185.78	41	23	2060	5900	5900.0021	199.74
11	22	1410	7700	1410.0077	198.59	42	22	2200	5650	5650.0022	185.88
12	21	1460	7350	1460.0074	196.33	43	21	2260	5400	5400.0023	196.86
13	20	1530	7000	1530.0070	195.19	44	20	2320	5150	5150.0023	199.76
14	19	1610	6650	1610.0067	197.57	45	19	2380	4900	4900.0024	193.19
15	18	1710	6300	1710.0063	186.91	46	18	2490	4650	4650.0025	184.95
16	17	1800	5950	1800.0060	192.19	47	17	2520	4400	4400.0025	206.91
17	16	1850	5600	1850.0056	187.96	48	16	2690	4150	4150.0027	197.93
18	15	1990	5260	1990.0053	205.23	49	15	3020	3850	3850.0030	198.84
19	14	2160	4900	2160.0049	187.88	50	14	3080	3600	3600.0031	189.71
20	13	2290	4550	2290.0046	188.91	51	13	3240	3350	3350.0032	188.76
21	12	2520	4200	2520.0042	185.33	52	12	3610	3100	3100.0036	185.91
22	11	2610	3850	2610.0039	193.59	53	11	3810	2850	2850.0038	188.83
23	10	2890	3500	2890.0035	198.51	54	10	4090	2600	2600.0041	189.92
24	9	3240	3150	3240.0032	199.15	55	9	4460	2350	2350.0045	185.94
25	8	3570	2800	3570.0028	185.99	56	8	4980	2100	2100.0050	194.54
26	7	4040	2450	4040.0025	189.84	57		5640	1850	1850.0056	198.16
27	6	4700	2100	4700.0021	195.73	58	6	6570	1600	1600.0066	199.19
28	5	5640	1750	5640.0018	193.22	59	5	7870	1350	1350.0079	186.91
29	$\overline{4}$	7040	1400	7040.0014	185.91	60	$\overline{4}$	9840	1100	1100.0098	189.17
30	3	9380	1050	9380.0011	202.02	61	3	13110	850	850.0131	189.94
31	$\overline{2}$	14070	700	14070.0007	198.59	62	2	19660	600	600.0197	189.56

Table A3 in the Appendix shows the task information of the 148 tasks, including the immediate predecessor(s) of each task. Tasks 1 to 10 can only be processed by type I workers; tasks 11 to 20 can only be processed by either type I or type II workers; and all types of workers can process the rest of the tasks. The calculated upper bound of stations (*UB*) is 32, and the number of stations (*K*) ranges from 2 to 32. As in Case 4, the MIP model can no longer solve the problem. For the MOGA, the population size (*N*), crossover rate (P_c), mutation rate (P_m), and stop generation (G_{max}) are set to 50, 0.88, 0.06, and 500, respectively. Under scenarios 1 to 31, we let $w_1=1$ and $w_2=10^{-6}$. Under scenario 32 to 62, we let $w_1=10^{-6}$ and $w_2=1$. The process of each scenario is repeated three times, and the results with the best objective value are collected. The solutions

under the proposed MOGA are shown in Table 13. For example, both scenarios 23 and 54 have ten stations $(K=10)$. With weights $w_1 = 1$ and $w_2 = 10^{-6}$ in scenario 23, the MOGA has a solution with a cycle time (*CT*) of 2890 seconds and a total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$3500, and the objective value is 2890.0035. The computational time for the MOGA is 198.51 seconds. With weights $w_1 = 10^{-6}$ and $w_2 = 1$ in scenario 54, the MOGA has a solution with a cycle time (*CT*) of 4090 seconds and a total cost of the hierarchical workforce (*CH*) of \$2600, and the objective value is 2600.0041. The computational time for the MOGA is 189.92 seconds.

For the NSGA-II, the population size (*N*), the maximum generation (G_{max}), the crossover rate (P_c), and the mutation rate (P_m) are set to 30, 300, 0.85, and 0.01, respectively. Table 14 shows the result for *K*=10. The computational time is 656.82 seconds. Fig. 18 depicts the convergence of the NSGA-II with $K=10$ under three dimensions. Fig. 19 depicts the convergence of the NSGA-II under two dimensions. There are 12 Pareto optimal assignments, as listed in Table 14. Note that the two solutions found in the MOGA are not the same as those found in the NSGA-II.

Table 14

Results for Case 5 using NSGA-II

Fig. 18 The convergence of NSGA-II with *K*=10 for Case 5 under 3D

Case 5 under 2D

4.6 Comparisons of models

Five cases are used to examine the proposed MIP model, the MOGA model and the NSGA-II model for the MO-MALBP-HW. Due to the small problem scale of Case 1, the three models can obtain optimal solutions in a short calculation time. The computational time required by the MOGA is higher than that required by the MIP because many generations are required before termination is reached. In addition, the NSGA-II requires higher computational time than the MOGA because the NSGA-II needs to obtain all Pareto optimal solutions. In Case 2, the MIP can obtain the optimal solutions. While the MOGA can generate optimal solutions for some scenarios, near-optimal solutions are obtained for other scenarios, with %Gap of zero. The NSGA-II can obtain the two optimal solutions generated by the MIP, and also some additional Pareto solutions. With a larger scale in Case 3, the MOGA and the NSGA-II can still generate near-optimal solutions under a short computational time. The computational times required by the MOGA and the NSGA-II under different scenarios are relatively more stable than those by the MIP. Compared with the first three cases, the scales of Cases 4 and 5 are relatively large, and the MIP cannot generate the optimal solutions anymore. However, the MOGA model and the NSGA-II can still obtain satisfactory solutions quickly. In summary, the MIP can obtain optimal solutions when the problem size is small, while the MOGA model and the NSGA-II can efficiently obtain satisfactory solutions for large instances.

Three related works, Simaria and Vilarinho (2004), Saif et al. (2014), and Campana et al. (2022), are compared with the proposed MIP model, the MOGA model and the NSGA-II model. Table 15 shows that the MIP, the MOGA model, and the NSGA-II model consider more features than the other three works. Since the MOGA model and the NSGA-II can obtain satisfactory solutions in a short time, they can be applied to solve large-scale problems.

Table 15

Comparisons among related works

Compared items	Simaria and Vilarinho (2004)	Saif et al. (2014)	Campana et al. (2022)	Proposed MIP	Proposed MOGA	Proposed NSGA-II
Algorithm	Genetic algorithm	Artificial bee colony algorithm	Variable neighborhood descent algorithm	Exact	Genetic algorithm	Genetic algorithm
Accuracy	Near-optimal	Near-optimal	Near-optimal	Optimal	Near-optimal	Near-optimal
ALBP						
Mixed-model						
Non-dominated Sorting						
Positive zoning						
Negative zoning						
Hierarchical workers						
Multiple objectives	V					
Number of workstations						
Cost of hierarchical workers						
Cycle time						
Solve large-scale problem						
Consider binary behavior						
Solve by free software packages						

5. Conclusions

In response to growing customer demand of diversified products, manufacturers have begun manufacturing different models with varying properties on an assembly line. As a result, mixed-model assembly lines have emerged and are widely used in many industries. The mixed-model assembly line balancing problem (MALBP) has attracted the attention of many scholars in recent years, and it is basically an NP-hard problem. Including hierarchical worker assignment makes the problem even more difficult to solve. Since processing requirements for tasks often vary and workers may have different qualification levels, the multi-objective mixed-model assembly line balancing problem with hierarchical worker assignment (MO-MALBP-HW) is present in today's manufacturing environment.

This research proposed a mixed integer programming (MIP) model, a multi-objective genetic algorithm (MOGA) approach, and a non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm II (NSGA-II) to solve the MO-MALBP-HW. The MIP model can solve smallscale problems efficiently and optimally. When the scale of the problem increases, the MIP model can no longer obtain the solution. However, the MOGA model and the NSGA-II model can still obtain near-optimal solutions to large-scale problems in a short computational time. In addition, the MOGA model can consider different weights of the objectives, and the NSGA-II can obtain Pareto optimal solutions without considering the weights of the objectives. The proposed models can help develop the multi-objective mixed-model assembly line balancing plan and improve plant production efficiency. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first work that simultaneously considers multiple objectives, mixed-model assembly line balancing, and hierarchical worker assignment. Thus, the proposed models can tackle a more realistic problem in practice.

With the rapid development of technology and the manufacturing environment, various new assembly line balancing problems have emerged. For example, a multi-objective mixed-model two-sided assembly line balancing problem with hierarchical worker assignment can be studied, or the problem with using robots and green manufacturing can be considered. New methods and models can be developed to solve real-world problems and help manufacturers perform better.

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Appendix

Table A1

Task information for Case 3

33 35 70 71 107 108 144 145 34 36 71 108 109 145 147,148

 36 72 134 109 110 146 36 37 73 84,86,87,88,96 110 147
37 38,45 74 75 111 112 148 38,45 74 75 111 112 148

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Table A3