

## To reduce maximum tardiness by *Seru* Production: model, cooperative algorithm combining reinforcement learning and insights

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### ABSTRACT

The maximum tardiness reflects the worst level of service associated with customer needs; thus, the principle that *seru* production reduces the maximum tardiness is investigated, and a model to minimize the maximum tardiness of the *seru* production system is established. In order to obtain the exact solution, the non-linear *seru* production model with minimizing the maximum tardiness is split into a *seru* formation model and a linear *seru* scheduling model. We propose an efficient cooperative algorithm using a genetic algorithm and an innovative reinforcement learning algorithm (CAGARL) for large-scale problems. Specifically, the GA is designed for the *seru* formation problem. Moreover, the QL-*seru* algorithm (QLSA) is designed for the *seru* scheduling problem by combining the features of meta-heuristics and reinforcement learning. In the QLSA, we design an innovative QL-*seru* table and two state trimming rules to save computational time. After extensive experiments, compared with the previous algorithm, CAGARL improved by an average of 56.6%. Finally, several managerial insights on reducing maximum tardiness are proposed.

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## 1. Introduction

Nowadays, the production environment is complex and dynamic, and *seru* production emerges as the times require. A *seru* production system comprises one or more *serus* (Yu et al., 2018). By refactoring the workers, the *seru* production system can achieve better performance than assembly lines (Liu et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2018). *Seru* production has many outstanding advantages (Liu et al., 2014, 2010): high flexibility, mass production efficiency, and environmental friendliness for sustainable manufacturing. Moreover, implementing the *seru* production system can reduce the makespan, setup time, required workers, costs, and shop space (Yılmaz, 2020a; Yu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2022). *Seru* production has been studied by several scholars. They specialized in reducing makespan, total labor hours, training cost, and manpower (Liu et al., 2013, 2021a, 2021b; Sun et al., 2020; Ying and Tsai, 2017; Yu et al., 2012; Zhan et al., 2021). Stecke et al. (2012) described the history of *seru* and defined the various types of *seru*. *Seru* and TPS are compared. Yu et al. (2012) studied the bi-objective *seru* production model with total throughput time and labor hours. Lian et al. (2018) solved the problem of assigning multi-skilled workers. In order to minimize the total cost of training, Liu et al. (2013) established a multi-objective model. Yılmaz (2020b) investigated the workforce scheduling problem of *seru* production. Yu et al. (2017) developed several line-hybrid *seru* system models with makespan and total labor hours. A dynamic multi-objective algorithm is proposed by Liu et al. (2021a) for the rotating *seru* production problem. Liu et al. (2021b) studied makespan and workload imbalance for a hybrid *seru* production system. Fu et al. (2022) studied four dynamic *seru* production decision processes and a phased intelligent algorithm for solving

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the four processes. Unlike the literature (Fu et al., 2022), this paper proposes to study the problem of *seru* formation and *seru* scheduling under minimizing the maximum tardiness, which has not been studied yet. In contrast, Fu et al. (2022) studied the problem of re-optimizing a given *seru* system after a change in the product information. The two problems have different decision processes, and different algorithms are proposed for the different problems. Maximum tardiness is a crucial indicator of performance in meeting customer due dates in various manufacturing and service businesses (Allahverdi, 2004; Bai et al. 2021; Chen et al. 2021). The maximum tardiness reflects the worst level of service associated with customer needs (Aydilek et al., 2022; Pundoor and Chen, 2005). Avoiding customer dissatisfaction as much as possible is the goal of the production manager (Rostami et al. 2015). Therefore, reducing the maximum tardiness can improve the level of service.

Many studies have been done to minimize the maximum tardiness of a given production system. Guinet and Solomon (1996) investigated the minimization of maximum tardiness or maximum completion time in hybrid flow shop scheduling and used a set of list algorithms to deal with the problem. Chakravarthy and Rajendran (1999) dealt with minimizing the weighted sum of the maximum tardiness and makespan in a flow shop and proposed using heuristic algorithms using simulated annealing technology to solve it. Sbihi and Varnier (2008) studied the maximum tardiness by a B&B algorithm in single-machine scheduling with multiple maintenance periods. Ruiz and Allahverdi (2009) investigated the weighted sum of makespan and maximum tardiness of the flow shop workshop scheduling and proposed a GA to solve it. An Adaptive GA and a PSA are proposed by Assarzadegan and Rasti-Barzoki (2016) for minimization of the sum of the due date assignment costs, maximum tardiness, and distribution costs on a single machine. Chen et al. (2021) investigated the minimization of total late work and maximum tardiness in single-machine bicriteria scheduling. As a key performance indicator, maximum tardiness has not yet been investigated in *seru* production. We state that *seru* production can reduce the maximum tardiness based on extensive tests. Reinforcement learning (RL) has been extensively applied in scheduling (Ren et al. 2021). Ying-Zi and Ming-Yang (2005) proposed using the Q-learning algorithm to select composite scheduling rules, relative to single scheduling rules or random compounding to get better results. Aydin and Öztemel (2000) studied a dynamic scheduling system based on intelligent agents to select the most suitable scheduling rules in real time through the improved Q-learning algorithm. Wei and Zhao (2004) proposed using reinforcement learning for scheduling rule selection that considers machine and job selection to solve dynamic job shop problems. Li et al. (2021) combined the characteristics of GA and Q-learning to propose a GA based on Q-learning (QGA) for the problem of workshop scheduling. Chen et al. (2020) studied a self-learning GA (SLGA), which used GA as the basic optimization method and intelligently adjusted its key parameters using reinforcement learning. Wang et al. (2020) studied a dual Q-learning method to improve the adaptability of assembly plant scheduling problems to environmental changes through independent learning. Shahrabi et al. (2017) used Q-learning algorithms to adjust the parameters of variable neighborhood search algorithms in dynamic job shop scheduling. Using the dual Q-learning algorithm, Arviv et al. (2016) proposed a new reinforcement learning collaboration algorithm for complex two-robot collaborative flow workshop scheduling.

Most of the previous algorithms for the *seru* scheduling problem are meta-heuristic algorithms, which are fast (Tang et al., 2018), but their search patterns are relatively fixed and rigid (Ni et al., 2021). However, reinforcement learning provides a more purposeful search of the solution space. Therefore, we design an innovative reinforcement learning algorithm (QL-*seru* algorithm) by combining the features of the meta-heuristic algorithm and the reinforcement learning algorithm to solve the *seru* scheduling problem.

Our contributions are as follows:

- We establish a *seru* production model with minimizing the maximum tardiness.
- The non-linear *seru* production model minimizing the maximum tardiness is split into a *seru* formation model and a linear *seru* scheduling model. Then the exact solution of small-scale problems can be solved by CPLEX.
- A cooperative algorithm using a GA and an innovative QL-*seru* algorithm is proposed for larger-scale problems. The best *seru* formations obtained by GA are used as the environment in reinforcement learning.
- The QL-*seru* algorithm is proposed for the *seru* scheduling problem. Moreover, two state trimming rules are proposed.
- Several managerial insights are made on reducing the maximum tardiness.

The remainder of this research is organized as follows. Section 2 proposes the model of the *seru* production system with minimizing the maximum tardiness. Moreover, we decompose the non-linear model into a *seru* formation model and a linear *seru* scheduling model. Section 3 develops the CAGARL. We design the GA and QL-*seru* algorithm in detail. Section 4 performs extensive experiments and discusses. Section 5 gives the conclusion and further research.

## 2. Model

### 2.1. Problem description

We consider minimizing the maximum tardiness problem of a rotating *seru* production system, as shown in Fig. 1. There are  $Z$  workers and  $M$  batches. Because of the different skill levels of different workers, a batch in different *serus* has different processing times. So, to improve the performance of the *seru* production system, better *seru* formation (i.e., the number of

*seru* and worker allocation.) and better *seru* scheduling (i.e., batch scheduling) are required (Fu et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2021).

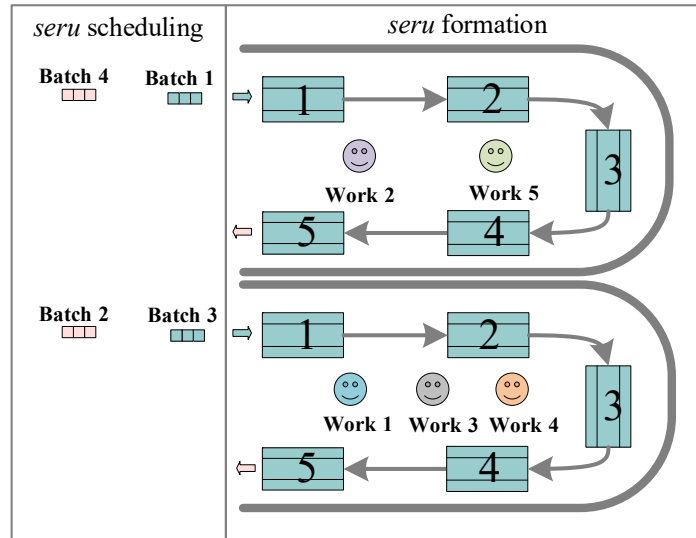


Fig. 1. Example of seru production system with 5 workers and 4 batches

The objective of the problem is to minimize the maximum tardiness. The tardiness of each batch is determined by the completion time and due date of each batch. *Seru* formation is shown in Fig. 1 as an example. The result of *seru* scheduling is shown in Fig. 2. As seen from Fig. 2, the tardiness of batch 3 is 0, and the tardiness of batches 1, 2, and 3 are 50, 170, and 20, respectively. So, the maximum tardiness of this *seru* production system is 170.

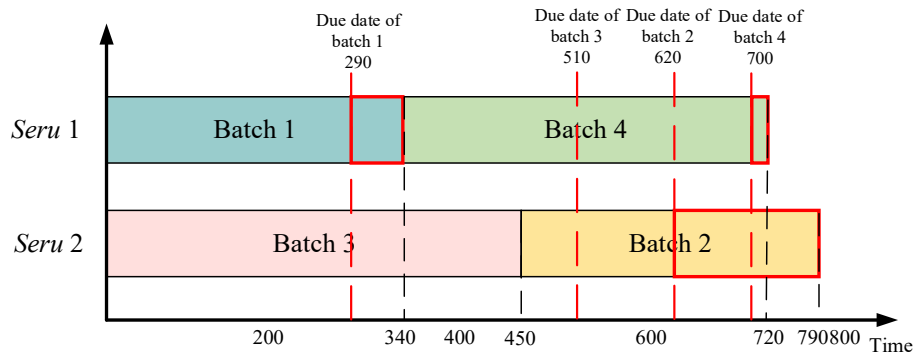


Fig. 2. The result of seru scheduling

*Seru* production problem contains two NP-hard subproblems (Sun et al., 2020; Yilmaz, 2020a). The *seru* formation is an example of an unordered set partition. Each of the  $M$  batches can be assigned to any of the  $J$  *seru*, so the complexity of the *seru* scheduling is  $J^M$ . Therefore, the complexity of the *seru* system, which contains the *seru* formation and the *seru* scheduling to minimize the maximum tardiness, is such as Eq. (1) as shown.

$$\sum_{j=1}^J P(Z, J) \times J^M \tag{1}$$

where  $P(Z, J)$  is the count of solutions of  $Z$  workers assigned to  $J$  *seru*.

2.2. Assumptions

We assume the following assumptions based on the literature (Kaku et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2021b; Yu et al., 2013) to model the problem explicitly.

1. The batches and types of products are given in advance.
2. The tasks required for each product are the same. Skip a task if it is not required for a product type.
3. Each worker can complete all tasks in a *seru*, different from the assembly line (each worker operates only one task).
4. The assembly tasks within each *seru* are equivalent to the ones within the assembly line. The number of tasks is  $Z$ .
5. A batch can only be processed in a *seru*.

### 2.3. Non-linear Model

#### Object function:

$$\min \max_{m=1}^M (0, FCB_m + FC_m - d_m) \quad (2)$$

subject to

$$1 \leq \sum_{i=1}^Z L_{ij} \leq Z, \forall j \quad (3)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^J L_{ij} = 1, \forall i \quad (4)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^M Y_{mjk} = 1, \forall m \quad (5)$$

Eq. (2) states the objective of minimizing the maximum tardiness. Eq. (3) guarantees the number of workers in each *seru*. Eq. (4) guarantees each worker only in one *seru*. Eq. (5) guarantees that each product batch is only processed in one *seru*. Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) are the constraints related to *seru* formation, and Eq. (5) is the constraint related to *seru* scheduling. The meaning of notations for the above-stated model are present as follow. These can be found in the literatures (Fu et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2020, 2019; Yu et al., 2014).

Indices	
$i$	Index of workers ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, Z$ ).
$j$	Index of <i>serus</i> ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ ).
$n$	Index of product types ( $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ ).
$m$	Index of product batches ( $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ ).
$k$	Index of the order of product batches in a <i>seru</i> ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, M$ ).

#### Decision variables

$$L_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if worker } i \text{ in the } seru \ j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$Y_{mjk} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if product batch } m \text{ is processed in } seru \ j \text{ in sequence } k \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Variable

$CZ_i$ : Coefficient of variation of worker  $i$ 's expanded task time (Sun et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2014).

$$CZ_i = \begin{cases} 1 + \varphi_i (Z - \eta_i), & Z > \eta_i \\ 1, & Z \leq \eta_i \end{cases}, \forall i \quad (6)$$

where,  $\eta_i$  is the upper limit on the number of tasks of worker  $i$  in a *seru*, and  $\varphi_i$  is the coefficient of influencing level for worker  $i$  completing multiple tasks within a *seru*.

$TC_m$ : Task time of the batch  $m$  per task in a *seru*.

$$TC_m = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^Z \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^M V_{mn} T_n \beta_{ni} CZ_i L_{ij} Y_{mjk}}{\sum_{i=1}^Z \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^M L_{ij} Y_{mjk}} \quad (7)$$

where,  $V_{mn}$  is 1, if the production type of batch  $m$  is  $n$ ; 0, otherwise.  $T_n$  is the cycle time of product type  $n$  in the original assembly line.  $\beta_{ni}$  is the skill level of worker  $i$  for each task of product type  $n$ .

$FC_m$ : processing time of batch  $m$  in a *seru*.

$$FC_m = \frac{B_m TC_m Z}{\sum_{i=1}^Z \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^M L_{ij} Y_{mjk}} \tag{8}$$

where,  $B_m$  is the size of batch  $m$ .

$FCB_m$ : starting time of product batch  $m$  in a *seru*.

$$FCB_m = \sum_{s=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{k'=0}^{k-1} FC_s Y_{mjk} Y_{sjk} \tag{9}$$

### 2.4. Exact solution

As shown in Fig. 3, the nonlinear *seru* production model with minimizing the maximum tardiness is split into a *seru* formation model and a linear *seru* scheduling model.

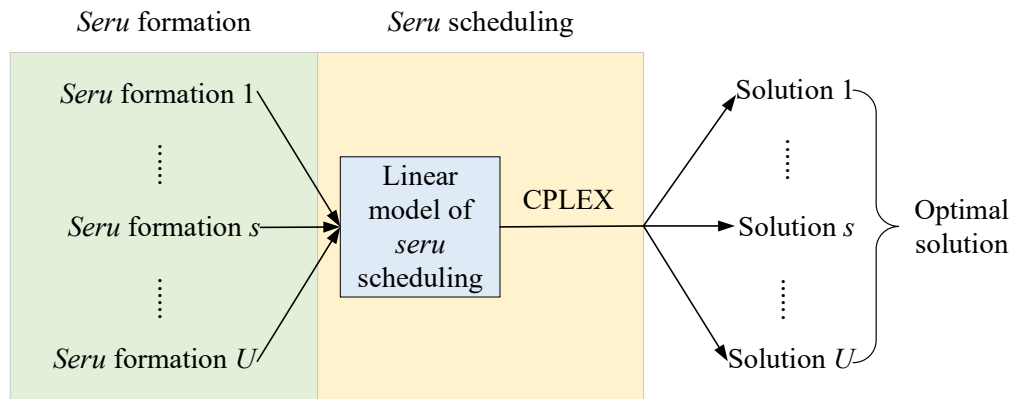


Fig. 3. The process of solving the exact solution

For *seru* formation, we use an unordered set partition model to exhaust each *seru* formation solution. Eq.1 shows that there are  $F(Z)$  different *seru* formations. For *seru* scheduling, the linear model is proposed as follows:

Parameter:

- $F_{mj}$ : Processing time for batch  $m$  in *seru*  $j$ .
- $E$ : A very large actual number

Decision variables:

- $C_{jk}$ : Completion time of the  $k^{th}$  batch in *seru*  $j$ .
  - $MT$ : The maximum tardiness
- Therefore, the *seru* scheduling model is as follows.

Objective function:

$$\begin{aligned} &\min MT \\ &\text{subject to} \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

$$MT \geq c_{jk} - d_m - (1 - Y_{mjk})E, \quad \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, J, m = 1, 2, \dots, M, k = 1, \dots, M \tag{11}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^M Y_{mjk} = 1, \quad \forall m = 1, 2, \dots, M \tag{12}$$

$$\sum_{m=1}^M Y_{mj} \leq 1, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, J, k = 1, 2, \dots, M \quad (13)$$

$$c_{j1} = \sum_{m=1}^M Y_{mj1} F_{mj}, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, J \quad (14)$$

$$c_{jk} \geq c_{j(k-1)} + \sum_{m=1}^M Y_{mj} F_{mj}, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, J, k = 2, \dots, M \quad (15)$$

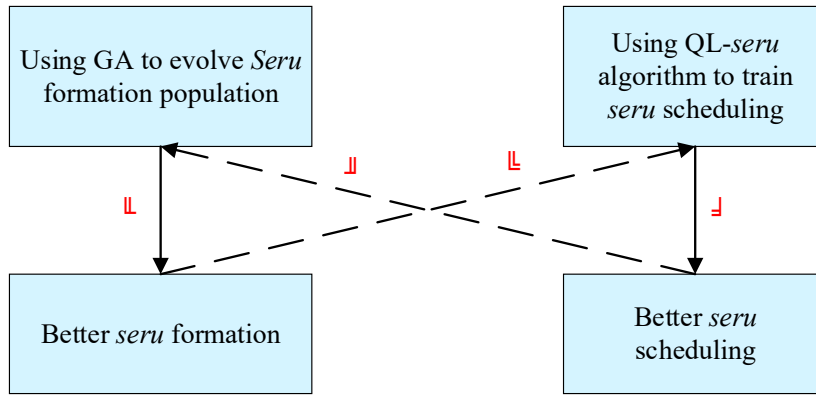
$$MT \geq 0 \quad (16)$$

Eq. (10) is the objective of minimizing the maximum tardiness. Eq. (11) indicates that the maximum tardiness cannot be less than the tardiness of each batch. Eq. (12) suggests that one batch can only be processed in one *seru*. Eq. (13) indicates that a *seru* can only process a maximum of one batch simultaneously. Eq. (14) gives the completion time of the first batch processed in each *seru*. Eq. (15) indicates that the  $k^{\text{th}}$  batch cannot be processed until the  $(k-1)^{\text{th}}$  batch is complete. Eq. (16) suggests that maximum tardiness is non-negative. For large-scale problems, the model cannot be solved by CPLEX. So, a cooperative algorithm using a GA and an innovative reinforcement learning algorithm (CAGARL) is proposed.

### 3. Cooperative algorithm using a GA and an innovative reinforcement learning algorithm

#### 3.1. Cooperative mechanism

It is a very effective cooperative algorithm for dealing with the enormous scope of problems with complex decisions (Ren et al., 2019; Shang et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2020; Tang, 2017). *Seru* production consists of two decision processes: *seru* formation and *seru* scheduling. Therefore, cooperative algorithms are utilized to solve the *seru* production problem. GA is used to solve the *seru* formation problem. Most of the previous algorithms for the *seru* scheduling problem are meta-heuristic algorithms, which are fast (Tang et al., 2018), but their search patterns are relatively fixed and rigid (Ni et al., 2021). However, reinforcement learning provides a more purposeful search of the solution space by learning from previous experience. Therefore, we design an innovative reinforcement learning algorithm (QL-*seru* algorithm) by combining the features of the meta-heuristic algorithm and the reinforcement learning algorithm to solve the *seru* scheduling problem. Moreover, GA and QL-*seru* algorithm collaborate. The cooperative mechanism of the QL-*seru* algorithm and GA is shown in Fig. 4.



- $\llcorner$  : Obtain better *seru* formation;
- $\llcorner$  : Provide current better *seru* formation as the environment in QL-*seru* algorithm;
- $\lrcorner$  : Obtain better *seru* scheduling;
- $\lrcorner$  : Provide current better *seru* scheduling to assist GA to evolve *seru* formation population;

**Fig. 4.** Cooperative mechanism of QL-*seru* algorithm and GA

#### 3.2. GA for seru formation

The *seru* formation is solved by the GA combining local search to obtain a better solution (Berahhou et al., 2022).

##### 3.2.1. Solution expression of seru formation

In order to represent the *seru* formation, the sequence encoding means proposed by Yu et al. (2012) are used. Suppose there are  $Z$  workers, the solution can be shown by a vector that contains  $Z$  workers and  $Z-1$  separators, and elements with numbers greater than  $Z$  indicate separators. Therefore,  $Z-1$  separators can split up to  $Z$  *serus* at most.

### 3.2.2. Selection, crossover, mutation and neighbor strategy

Selection strategy: adopts the binary tournament selection (Beyer and Deb, 2001).

Mutation operation: two gene interchanges.

Crossover operation: the order crossover (Davis, 1985).

Neighbor strategy: exchange two unique elements (Sun et al., 2019).

### 3.3. QL-seru algorithm for seru scheduling

The seru scheduling is solved by the QL-seru algorithm combining local search.

#### 3.3.1. QL-seru algorithm

We propose an innovative QL-seru algorithm (QLSA) for the seru scheduling problem by combining the meta-heuristic and reinforcement learning algorithm features. We set the states in reinforcement learning in the way encoded in the meta-heuristic algorithm, and each state represents a seru scheduling. The new states are generated using the exploration and development approach in reinforcement learning. Given that the generated seru formation is frequently the same, especially in the convergence phase or when the number of iterations is relatively large (the number of repetitions is shown in Table 8), repeated training of the same formation is meaningless. It consumes a significant amount of computational time. Consequently, we store historical data (QL-seru table) to avoid repeated training, i.e., the stored states will not be trained. In addition, for a new state, if the state is worse than the stored average objective, then the state will be discarded. In the QLSA, at each time step  $t$ ,  $a_t$  is the current action, and the  $s_t$  is the current state.  $r_{t+1}$  is the reward. The q-value update function is expressed as Eq. (17).

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha(r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a' \in A} Q(s', a')) \quad (17)$$

In Eq. (17),  $\alpha$  is the learning rate,  $\gamma$  is the discount rate.

#### 3.3.2. State definition

In order to combine the features of the reinforcement learning algorithm and the meta-heuristic algorithm, the state is designed as the code of seru scheduling under the current best seru formation. We set the state to a vector of  $M+Z-1$  dimension, one vector for each state. In the vectors, numbers less than or equal to  $M$  represent batches, and numbers greater than  $M$  represent separators. The state is shown in Fig. 5.



Fig. 5. An example of a state

As shown in Fig. 5, this state represents a seru system with 4 workers and 5 batches. This state indicates that 5 batches are divided into 3 groups. Then assign each batch group to each seru in turn, and if the number of seru is less than the number of batch groups, process the remaining batch groups on the finished serus. The initial state  $s_0$  is the state encoding for the best scheduling of the previous round of cooperatives.

#### 3.3.3. Action definition

Since seru scheduling is NP-hard, to reduce the action space, we set the action to move the elements in the scheduling encoding left and right.

There are  $2*(M+Z-1)-2$  actions in the action space. Select an element from the state-coded  $M+Z-1$  element and move left or right. For the first element, you can only move to the right. For the last element, you can only move to the left. So, there are a total of  $2*(M+Z-1)-2$ .

For example, if the current state is Fig. 5, we take action '2-1', i.e., the element moves to the right. When one of these actions is taken, a new state code is obtained, and the new state is reached. After taking action '2-1', get the state encoding as shown in Fig. 6. This state indicates that 5 batches are divided into 3 groups. Group 1 includes batch 2 and batch 4. Group 2 includes batch 3 and batch 1. Group 3 includes batch 5.



Fig. 6. New state after taking action '2-1'

### 3.3.4. Reward method

To obtain solutions of *seru* production more intuitively. We set the maximum tardiness that is calculated by the current state (*seru* scheduling) and the current environment (*seru* formation) as the reward, as shown in Eq. (18). The agent is not directed on what to perform. Instead, it tries to find out which actions will produce higher returns, which can clearly yield positive returns (Chen et al., 2020). The best reward corresponds to a better solution for *seru* scheduling.

$$r_t = -f(s_t) \quad (18)$$

where  $f(s_t)$  is the maximum tardiness obtained by the current state.

### 3.3.5. Action selection strategy

In order to balance development and exploration, the  $\varepsilon$ -greedy strategy is used to select the action.  $g_0$  is a random number between 0 and 1, and  $\varepsilon$  is the greedy rate. When  $\varepsilon > g_0$ , the action with the maximum q-value is taken, on the contrary, randomly, as shown in Eq. (19) (Chen et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2022).

$$\pi(s_t, a_t) = \begin{cases} \max_a Q(s_t, a), & \varepsilon > g_0 \\ a_{rand}, & \varepsilon \leq g_0 \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

where  $\pi(s_t, a_t)$  is a select policy for the action at state  $s_t$ .

### 3.3.6. QL-seru table

After obtaining the current better *seru* formation by GA, we use the current better *seru* formation as the environment for the reinforcement learning algorithm when solving the *seru* scheduling. Based on the feature that the *seru* formation will be repeatedly generated, an innovative QL-*seru* table for saving computational time using historical data is proposed.

In the QL-*seru* table, we store the last  $p$  *seru* formations, the trained states of the  $p$  formations, and the average objective of the trained states of each  $p$  formations. If the newly produced *seru* formation (*nsf*) is in the stored  $p$  formations, we use the following two methods to avoid repeated or unnecessary training. The two state trimming rules are as follows:

**State trimming rules 1 (Repeat state skipping method):** The states will not be trained for the stored states of *nsf*.

**State trimming rules 2 (Poor state rejection method):** For the newly obtained states of *nsf*, if the objective corresponding to the current state is worse than the stored average objective, the state will not be trained.

After training the current *seru* formation as the environment, if the current *seru* formation is in the QL-*seru* table, we will update the trained state of the current *seru* formation as the environment. If not, we will add the *seru* formation, the trained states of the formation, and the corresponding average objective into the QL-*seru* table.

### 3.3.7. Procedure of the QLSA

The flowchart of the QL-*seru* algorithm is shown in Fig. 7. Situation 1 represents that the current *seru* formation does not exist in the QL-*seru* table, and situation 2 represents that the current *seru* formation exists in the QL-*seru* table.

We give an example of situation 2 in the QL-*seru* algorithm.

Suppose that there are 3 workers, 2 batches, and the current best formation is  $\{\{1,3\}, \{2\}\}$ .

Step 1. Current state  $s_t = \{3,2,4,1\}$  (Batch 2 is processed in *seru* 1, and batch 1 is assigned to *seru* 2.).

Step 2. Choose the action at='3-1' (The third element of the state code is shifted right.).

Step 3. Obtain the next state  $s_{t+1} = \{3,2,1,4\}$  (Batches 2 and 1 are processed in *seru* 1 in order) and the reward (maximum tardiness).

Step 4. Determines if state  $s_{t+1}$  meets the state trimming rules. If yes, apply the trimming rules and proceed to the next round of training. Otherwise, update the Q table and current better *seru* scheduling, then proceed to the next training round.

The execution flow of the entire QLSA is described in Algorithm 1.



**Algorithm 1: QLSA**


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**Input:** Max\_Epochs(maximum number of iterations),  $BF$  (current best formation), QL-seru table.

**Output:**  $BS$  (best scheduling).

(1) Initialize.

q-table, state, action, nest state, nest action (correspond to Q-table, current state, current action, next state and next action in reinforcement learning, respectively).

q-table, state\_0

Q\_marker (a flag to determine whether the current formation is stored in the QL-seru table)

$AO$  (average objective)  $\leftarrow 0$

best\_reward (The best reward under the current formation)  $\leftarrow$  The initial value is calculated by the initial state and the current formation.

(2) **if** ( $BF$  in QL-seru table) **then**

    Read the QL-seru table

    Q\_marker  $\leftarrow 1$

$AO \leftarrow$  Read the average objective of the current best formation, which is stored in the QL-seru table

**end if**

(3) **while** ( $i < \text{Max\_Epochs}$ ) **do**

    (3-1) Choose the action ( $a_t$ ).

    (3-2) Obtain the next state ( $s_{t+1}$ ).

    (3-3) **if** (Q\_marker==1) **then**

**if** ( $s_{t+1}$  in QL-seru table) **then**

            continue

**end if**

**end if**

    (3-4) Get the reward  $\leftarrow$  the current maximum tardiness ( $seru$  formation:  $BF$ ;  $seru$  scheduling:  $s_{t+1}$ ).

    (3-5) **if** (Q\_marker==1) **then**

**if** (reward  $> AO$ ) **then**

            continue

**end if**

**end if**

    (3-4) Find the maximum q-value for  $a_t$  taken in the  $s_{t+1}$ .

    (3-5) Update the q-table by the bellman equation.

    (3-6) **if** (reward  $<$  best\_reward) **then**

        best\_reward  $\leftarrow$  reward

        best\_scheduling  $\leftarrow s_{t+1}$

**end if**

    (3-7)  $s_t \leftarrow s_{t+1}$

**end while**

(4) Update the QL-seru table.

(5) Local search to find out if there is better scheduling.

Output  $BS$ .

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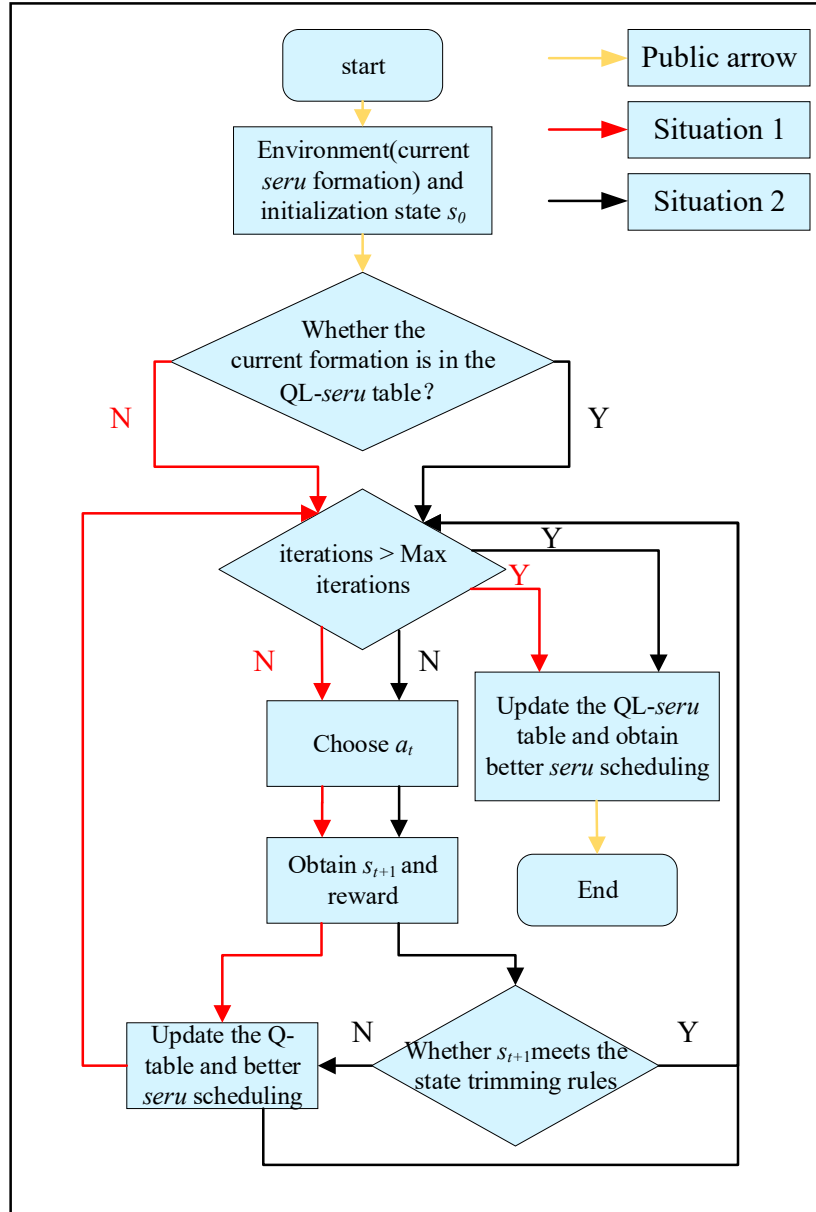


Fig. 7. Flowchart of QL-seru algorithm

#### 4. Experimental results

All experiments were implemented on a personal computer (Intel Core (TM) i7-8700 processor at 3.20 GHz, Windows 10, and 8.0 GB of RAM). CAGARL was written in C#.

##### 4.1. Test data

There are five different product types.  $T_{\bar{n}}=1.8$ ,  $\eta_i=20$ . The data for  $\varepsilon_i$ ,  $\beta_{ni}$ , and batches are as follow.

**Table 1**

Coefficient of influencing level for worker  $i$  completing multiple tasks within a seru ( $\varphi_i$ )

worker	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$\varepsilon_i$	0.18	0.19	0.2	0.21	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.22	0.19	0.19
worker	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
$\varepsilon_i$	0.18	0.23	0.24	0.22	0.16	0.24	0.18	0.18	0.21	0.18

**Table 2**The data of worker's level of skill ( $\beta_{ni}$ )

Product/Worker	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	0.92	0.95	0.99	1.13	0.96	1.21	1.04	0.98	0.97	0.92
2	0.96	0.97	1.01	1.27	1.22	1.1	1.07	1.02	1.03	0.96
3	1.24	1.09	1.15	0.92	0.91	1.01	1.24	1.1	1.12	1.24
4	1.09	1.12	1.09	1.12	1.1	1.15	1.07	1.11	1.19	1.09
5	1.2	1.18	1.21	1.25	1.18	1.23	1.14	1.2	1.26	1.2
Product/Worker	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	0.95	0.98	0.99	1.01	1.04	0.99	1.04	0.93	0.96	1.08
2	1.04	1.07	0.95	1.1	1.1	0.97	1.01	1.06	0.98	1.04
3	1.03	1.07	1.11	1.05	1.05	1.08	1.11	1.07	1.12	1.09
4	1.14	1.15	1.17	1.13	1.15	1.11	1.15	1.13	1.14	1.11
5	1.19	1.15	1.1	1.18	1.11	1.22	1.24	1.14	1.21	1.13

**Table 3**

The data of Batches

Batch number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Product type	3	5	3	4	1	4	1	2	2
Batch size ( $B_m$ )	55	53	54	49	49	55	54	48	48
Due date	184	228	366	422	588	551	807	780	973
Batch number	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Product type	3	2	4	3	4	5	5	1	4
Batch size ( $B_m$ )	48	46	58	48	52	48	51	54	57
Due date	1,078	1,100	1,294	1,392	1,400	1,599	1,601	1,710	1,802
Batch number	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		
Product type	2	5	1	3	4	5	2		
Batch size ( $B_m$ )	54	49	53	46	45	46	45		
Due date	1,998	2,107	2,199	2,209	2,311	2,410	2,510		

#### 4.2. Parameter settings

The number of iterations of the cooperative algorithm is 100. For GA, the population size is 200, the crossover rate is 0.9, and the mutation rate is 0.1, respectively. And for the QLSA,  $\alpha=0.01$ ,  $\gamma=0.9$ ,  $\epsilon=0.1$ , Max\_Epochs=35000. Moreover, the number of search neighbors in the local search is 75. For the comparison algorithm (Sun et al. (2019)), we compare the results at the same running time.

#### 4.3. Performances of the CAGARL

A more significant number of experiments have been conducted to evaluate CAGARL. In addition,  $ASMT$  is defined as evaluating how much the maximum tardiness has been reduced by the *seru* production in comparison to the assembly line, as shown in Eq. (20). To evaluate the algorithm, we use the cooperative coevolution algorithm proposed by Sun et al. (2019) to compare. The gap between the CAGARL and the exact or comparative algorithm is referred to as Eq. (21) and Eq. (22).

$$ASMT = \frac{MT\_Line - MT\_CAGARL}{MT\_Line} \quad (20)$$

$$GAP1 = \frac{MT\_CAGARL - MT\_Exact}{MT\_Exact} \quad (21)$$

$$GAP2 = \frac{MT\_Sun - MT\_CAGARL}{MT\_CAGARL} \quad (22)$$

$MT\_Line$ : the maximum tardiness of the assembly line.  $MT\_CAGARL$ : the maximum of the *seru* production system solved by CAGARL.  $MT\_Sun$ : the maximum of the *seru* production system solved by the algorithm proposed by Sun.  $MT\_Exact$ : the maximum of the *seru* production system solved by exact solution.

To ensure the fairness of the experiments, we use the same mathematical model and parameters in the comparison experiments. CAGARL and the comparison algorithm use the same running time to compare. The solution of the maximum tardiness of the assembly line (The formula for calculating the maximum tardiness of the assembly line is shown in Eqs. (23-26). To minimize the maximum tardiness of the assembly line, EDD rule is used to process the batches.), the solution of minimizing the maximum tardiness of the *seru* system solved by the exact algorithm, CAGARL and sun's algorithm are shown in Table 4. Table 5 shows the values of  $GAP1$ ,  $GAP2$ , and  $ASMT$ . Table 6 shows the running time of the exact algorithm and CAGARL (sun's algorithm with the same time as CAGARL).

$$TL_m = \max_{1 \leq i \leq Z} (V_m T_n \beta_{ni}), \forall i \quad (23)$$

$$FL_m = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^Z V_{mn} T_n \beta_{ni} + (B_m - 1) TL_m \quad (24)$$

$$f_m = \sum_{i=1}^m FL_i \quad (25)$$

$$MT\_Line = \max_{1 \leq m \leq M} \{f_m - d_m, 0\} \quad (26)$$

$TL_m$ : the task time of batch  $m$ ;  $FL_m$ : the processing time of batch  $m$ ;  $f_m$ : the complete time of batch  $m$ ;

**Table 4**  
Solution of the assembly line, exact algorithm, comparison algorithm, and CAGARL

Worker/Batch	5	6	7	10	15	20	25	
5	MT Line	70	141	141	156	260	337	424
	MT Exact	0	25	25	25	-	-	-
	MT Sun	0	25	36	155	489	744	1092
	MT CAGARL	0	25	25	25	25	55	96
6	MT Line	81	163	163	189	310	407	519
	MT Exact	0	8	8	8	-	-	-
	MT Sun	0	27	89	214	443	729	819
	MT CAGARL	0	8	8	8	27	27	121
8	MT Line	98	187	187	221	366	479	618
	MT Exact	2	29	-	-	-	-	-
	MT Sun	2	34	58	189	428	705	1099
	MT CAGARL	2	29	29	29	29	34	209
10	MT Line	120	217	217	258	435	574	750
	MT Exact	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	MT Sun	3	33	59	149	325	731	1011
	MT CAGARL	3	22	33	33	33	33	211
15	MT Line	160	275	275	335	570	749	994
	MT Exact	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	MT Sun	1	30	30	221	376	700	1081
	MT CAGARL	1	30	30	30	30	108	67
20	MT Line	200	334	334	431	706	933	1239
	MT Exact	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	MT Sun	2	36	58	183	424	1128	1496
	MT CAGARL	2	31	58	126	197	208	385

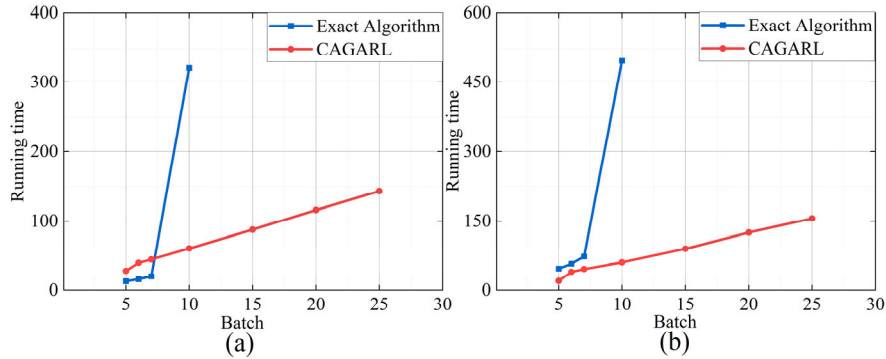
**Table 5**  
Performance comparison

Worker/Batch	5	6	7	10	15	20	25	
5	GAP1	0	0	0	-	-	-	
	GAP2	0	0	0.31	0.84	0.95	0.93	0.91
	ASMT	1.00	0.82	0.82	0.84	0.90	0.84	0.77
	GAP1	0	0	0	-	-	-	-
6	GAP2	0	0.70	0.91	0.96	0.94	0.96	0.85
	ASMT	1.00	0.95	0.95	0.96	0.91	0.93	0.77
	GAP1	0	0	0	-	-	-	-
	GAP2	0	0.15	0.50	0.85	0.93	0.95	0.81
8	ASMT	0.98	0.84	0.84	0.87	0.92	0.93	0.66
	GAP1	0	0	0	-	-	-	-
	GAP2	0	0.33	0.44	0.78	0.90	0.95	0.79
	ASMT	0.98	0.90	0.85	0.87	0.92	0.94	0.72
10	GAP1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	GAP2	0	0	0	0.86	0.92	0.85	0.94
	ASMT	0.99	0.89	0.89	0.91	0.95	0.86	0.93
	GAP1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	GAP2	0	0.14	0	0.31	0.54	0.82	0.74
	ASMT	0.99	0.91	0.83	0.71	0.72	0.78	0.69
	GAP1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	GAP2	0	0.14	0	0.31	0.54	0.82	0.74
20	ASMT	0.99	0.91	0.83	0.71	0.72	0.78	0.69
	GAP1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	GAP2	0	0.14	0	0.31	0.54	0.82	0.74
	ASMT	0.99	0.91	0.83	0.71	0.72	0.78	0.69

As seen from Table 4 and Table 5, implementing the *seru* production system can significantly reduce the maximum tardiness. Compared to the exact algorithm, CAGARL can solve the problem on a larger scale. CAGARL can obtain the same solution as the exact algorithm. For large-scale problems, CAGARL can obtain better solutions than SUN'S.

**Table 6**  
Running time of the exact algorithm and CAGARL

Worker/Batch		5	6	7	10	15	20	25
5	EXACT	13	16	20	321	-	-	-
	CAGARL	28	40	45	61	88	116	143
6	EXACT	47	58	74	497	-	-	-
	CAGARL	20	40	46	61	91	126	156
8	EXACT	1033	1435	-	-	-	-	-
	CAGARL	41	46	52	66	95	144	177
10	EXACT	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	CAGARL	48	56	64	87	108	164	207
15	EXACT	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	CAGARL	36	71	72	109	158	203	245
20	EXACT	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	CAGARL	81	89	83	122	147	195	204



**Fig. 8.** The running time of the exact algorithm and CAGARL at instances with 5 workers (a) and 6 workers (b)

As can be seen from Table 6 and Fig. 8, the exact algorithm only can solve small-scale problems. Compared to the exact algorithm, as the size becomes more extensive, the runtime variation of CAGARL is relatively smooth. The calculation time of CAGARL can meet the actual needs of production.

4.4. Performances of QL-seru

Combining the characteristics of *seru* production, the QL-*seru* table is proposed to save computation time innovatively. With all parameters being the same, Table 7 shows the running time of CAGARL and the algorithm without the QL-*seru* table. In Table 7, T1 is the running time of CAGARL (with the QL-*seru* table), and T2 is the running time of the algorithm without the QL-*seru* table (Q-learning). MRT is the gap between T1 and T2. MRT is calculated as shown in Eq. (27).

$$MRT = \frac{T2 - T1}{T2} \tag{27}$$

**Table 7**  
T1 and T2

Worker/Batch		5	6	7	10	15	20	25
5	T1	28	40	45	61	88	116	143
	T2	61	59	76	120	159	177	207
	MRT	0.54	0.32	0.41	0.49	0.45	0.34	0.31
6	T1	20	40	46	61	91	126	156
	T2	40	49	82	127	153	180	240
	MRT	0.50	0.18	0.44	0.52	0.41	0.30	0.35
8	T1	41	46	52	66	95	144	177
	T2	39	55	87	130	184	192	228
	MRT	-0.05	0.16	0.40	0.49	0.48	0.25	0.22
10	T1	48	56	64	87	108	164	207
	T2	89	78	104	135	194	206	253
	MRT	0.46	0.28	0.38	0.36	0.44	0.20	0.18
15	T1	36	71	72	109	158	203	245
	T2	59	86	114	145	174	213	239
	MRT	0.39	0.17	0.37	0.25	0.09	0.05	-0.03
20	T1	81	89	83	122	147	195	204
	T2	88	112	134	153	185	217	247
	MRT	0.08	0.21	0.38	0.20	0.21	0.10	0.17

As shown in Table 7,  $T1$  is almost always smaller than  $T2$ , indicating that our innovative QLSA can significantly reduce the computation time. Table 8 shows the number of generated duplicate environments when the cooperative algorithm is iterated 100 times, i.e., when the QLSA algorithm is used to update the *seru* scheduling 50 times.

**Table 8**  
The number of repetitive environments generated

Worker/Batch	5	6	7	10	15	20	25
5	49	50	50	50	50	50	50
6	48	49	47	47	41	49	48
8	48	47	45	48	45	49	49
10	45	46	48	48	46	47	47
15	44	37	46	43	40	32	39
20	34	26	27	24	22	17	22

Table 8 shows that when using QLSA update *seru* scheduling 50 times, the environment repeat generation may even reach 50 times when the number of workers is small.

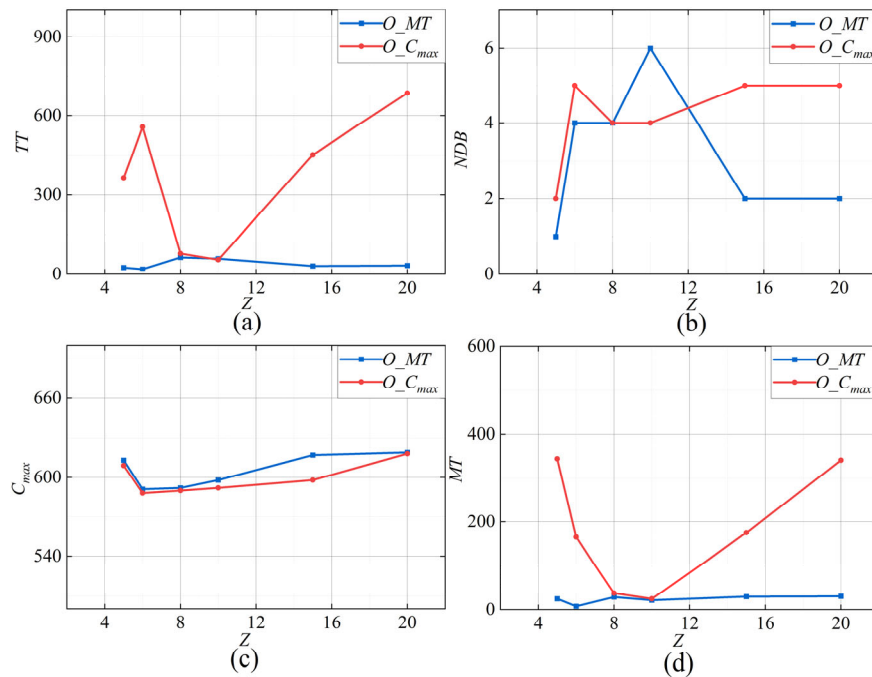
#### 4.5. Benefits of minimizing the maximum tardiness

The lower bound of delay and the worst-case satisfaction can be improved by minimizing the maximum tardiness. We compare optimizing the maximum tardiness with the result of optimizing the makespan (Using the EDD rule again in the same *seru* to reduce the maximum tardiness without changing the makespan). Then the total tardiness, the number of tardy batches, makespan, and maximum tardiness under two optimization objectives are calculated and compared, shown in Table 9 and Fig. 9.

**Table 9**  
Performance comparisons of the *seru* system when maximum tardiness and makespan are the objectives for the instances with 6 product batches

$M$	$Z$	$O_{MT}$				$O_{C_{max}}$			
		$TT$	$NDB$	$C_{max}$	$MT$	$TT$	$NDB$	$C_{max}$	$MT$
6	5	25	1	613	25	365	2	609	344
	6	19	4	591	8	557	5	588	165
	8	64	4	592	29	79	4	590	38
	10	59	6	598	22	55	4	592	25
	15	31	2	617	30	453	5	598	175
	20	33	2	619	31	686	5	618	34

$O_{MT}$ : optimize the maximum tardiness;  $O_{C_{max}}$ : optimize the makespan;  $MT$ : maximum tardiness;  $C_{max}$ : makespan;  $TT$ : total tardiness;  $NDB$ : the number of tardy batches.



**Fig. 1.** Performance comparisons of the *seru* system when maximum tardiness and makespan are the objectives for the instances with 6 product batches

From Table 9 and Fig. 9. compared with the makespan, using maximum tardiness as the optimization objective for *seru*

systems can significantly reduce the maximum tardiness, total tardiness, and the number of tardy batches for *seru* systems. Moreover, it is clear from Fig. 9(c) that the makespan is not much worse when optimizing the maximum tardiness than the makespan.

4.6. Discussion and insights

4.6.1 Discussion

- (1) *Seru* production can reduce maximum tardiness by an average of 87% compared to the assembly line. As a result, *seru* production can better meet the needs of customers.
- (2) CAGARL can obtain better maximum tardiness than SUN’S. The algorithm can solve large-scale problems and achieve the same optimal solution as the exact algorithm in small-scale problems.
- (3) Compared to optimizing the makespan, optimizing the maximum tardiness can obtain better total tardiness, number of tardy batches, and maximum tardiness, while the makespan does not increase much.

4.6.2 Insights

**Insight 1.** We should construct a system with one or two *seru* to minimize the maximum tardiness of the *seru* system.

**Table 10**  
The best solution

M	Z	Solution
6	5	[(1-5)]-‘1-4 6 5’
	6	[(1,2,3),(6,4,5)]-‘2 4 5/1 3 6’
	8	[(4,6,5,2),(3,8,7,1)]-‘1 3 6/2 4 5’
	10	[(10,2,4-6),(1,3,7-9)]-‘1 3 6/2 4 5’
	15	[(1-15)]-‘1-4 6 5’
10	20	[(1-20)]-‘1-4 6 5’
	5	[(1-5)]-‘1-4 6 5 8 7 9 10’
	6	[(6,4,5),(3,2,1)]-‘1 3 6 7 10/2 4 5 8 9’
	8	[(1,3,7,8),(2,4,5,6)]-‘2 4 5 7 9/1 3 6 8 10’
	10	[(1-10)]-‘1-4 6 5 8 7 10 9’
	15	[(1-15)]-‘1-4 6 5 7-10’
	20	[(13,16,19,6,8),(10,11,12,14,15,18,4,5),(1,17,2,20,3,7,9)]-‘4 8 10/1 3 5 9/2 6 7’

[(1,2,3),(6,4,5)] denotes *seru* formation. ‘2 4 5/1 3 6’ denotes *seru* scheduling.

As can be seen from Table 10, the best solutions are mostly for one or two *seru* cases. Therefore, to make the maximum tardiness smaller, we can construct one or two *seru*.

**Insight 2.** To minimize the maximum tardiness of the *seru* system,

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^Z x_{i1}}{\sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^M y_{m1k}} \approx \frac{\sum_{i=1}^Z x_{i2}}{\sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^M y_{m2k}} \approx \dots \approx \frac{\sum_{i=1}^Z x_{ij}}{\sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^M y_{mjk}} .$$

As shown in Table 10, for the 6 workers and 6 batches, in the solutions obtained, there are 3 workers and 3 batches in each *seru*, and the ratio of the number of workers to the number of batches in each *seru* is the same as 1. Moreover, for 8 workers and 6 batches, each *seru* has 4 workers and 3 batches in the solutions obtained. Even many cases only form a *seru*.

**Insight 3.** The maximum tardiness may remain unchanged when batch size increases.

The maximum tardiness may remain unchanged when the batch size increases. As shown in Fig. 10 and Table 4, when the number of workers is 6, the maximum tardiness for the instances with 6 product batches, 7 product batches, and 10 product batches is all obtained in batch 6. So, we can consider producing more batches, and the maximum tardiness will not change.

5. Conclusions

This article investigates how to minimize maximum tardiness as much as possible. The paper’s contribution is as follows. Firstly, we propose a *seru* production model that minimizes the maximum tardiness. Secondly, in this paper, the non-linear *seru* production model with minimizing the maximum tardiness is split into a *seru* formation model and a linear *seru* scheduling model. Moreover, the optimal solution is obtained using an exact algorithm. Thirdly, a cooperative algorithm is proposed to deal with larger-scale problems. The GA is designed for the *seru* formation problem in the cooperative algorithm,

and the QL-seru algorithm is used to deal with the seru scheduling problem. We have innovatively designed the Q-seru table and proposed two state trimming rules to save computational time. Finally, we conducted many experiments to demonstrate the advantages of CAGARL and discussed significantly reducing the maximum tardiness by implementing the seru system.

There are still some issues that need to be investigated. Firstly, consider the setup time for the batch. Secondly, consider reducing delay costs by implementing the seru production system in the future. Finally, the application of deep reinforcement learning in the seru system deserves further study.

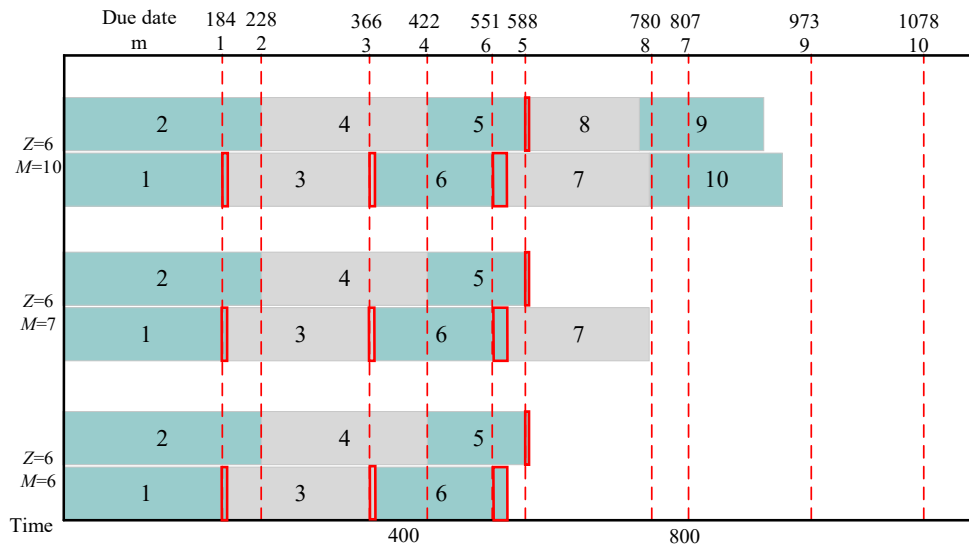


Fig. 2. Maximum tardiness for different batch sizes

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