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# An evolutionary algorithm for manufacturing cell formation<sup>★</sup>

José Fernando Gonçalves<sup>a</sup>, Mauricio G.C. Resende<sup>b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Faculdade de Economia do Porto, Rua Dr Roberto Frias, 4200-464 Porto, Portugal <sup>b</sup>Internet and Network Systems Research, AT&T Labs Research, 180 Park Avenue, Bldg. 103, Room C241, Florham Park, NJ 07932, USA

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#### **Abstract**

Cellular manufacturing emerged as a production strategy capable of solving the certain problems of complexity and long manufacturing lead times in batch production. The fundamental problem in cellular manufacturing is the formation of product families and machine cells. This paper presents a new approach for obtaining machine cells and product families. The approach combines a local search heuristic with a genetic algorithm. Computational experience with the algorithm on a set of group technology problems available in the literature is also presented. The approach produced solutions with a grouping efficacy that is at least as good as any results previously reported in literature and improved the grouping efficacy for 59% of the problems.

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#### 1. Introduction

Cellular manufacturing emerged as a production strategy capable of solving certain problems of complexity and long manufacturing lead times in batch production systems in the beginning of the 1960s. Burbidge (1979) defined group technology (GT) as an approach to the optimization of work in which the organizational production units are relatively independent groups, each responsible for the production of a given family of products.

E-mail addresses: jfgoncal@fep.up.pt (J.F. Gonçalves), mgcr@research.att.com (M.G.C. Resende).

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<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-973-360-8444; fax: +1-973-360-8178.

One fundamental problem in cellular manufacturing is the formation of product families and machine cells. The objective of this product-machine grouping problem is to form perfect (i.e. disjoint) groups in which products do not have to move from one cell to the other for processing.

At the conceptual level cell formation models ignore many manufacturing factors and only consider the machining operations of the products, so that a manufacturing system is represented by a binary machine-part incidence matrix [A], which is a zero-one matrix of order  $P \times M$  where P = number of products and M = number of machines. Element  $a_{p,m} = 1$  indicates the visit of product p to machine M and  $a_{p,m} = 0$  indicates otherwise.

Many methods of cell formation have been developed and published. Wemmerlov and Hyer (1989) and Selim, Askin, and Vakharia (1998) provide extensive reviews of prior research. In the next subsections we briefly review procedures based on the type of general solution methodology used (Cluster analysis, Graph partitioning, Mathematical programming and other.)

#### 1.1. Procedures based on cluster analysis

Array-based clustering methods perform a series of column and row permutations to form product and machine cells simultaneously. King (1980) and later King and Nakornchai (1982) developed array-based methods. Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1987), Khator and Irani (1987), King and Nakornchai (1982), and Kusiak and Chow (1987) proposed other algorithms. A comprehensive comparison of three array-based clustering techniques is given in Chu and Tsai (1990). The quality of the solution given by these methods depends on the initial configuration of the zero-one matrix.

McAuley (1972) and Carrie (1973) developed algorithms using clustering and similarity coefficients. Since then, Gupta and Seifoddini (1990), Khan, Islam, and Sarker (2000), Mosier and Taube (1985a,b), Seifoddini (1989), and Yasuda and Yin (2001) proposed hierarchical methods. These methods have the disadvantage of not forming product and machine cells simultaneously, so additional methods must be employed to complete the design of the system.

GRAFICS, developed by Srinivasan and Narendran (1991), and ZODIAC, which is a modular version of MacQueen's clustering method, developed by Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1987), are examples of non-hierarchical methods. Miltenburg and Zhang (1991) present a comprehensive comparison of nine clustering methods where non-hierarchical methods outperform both array-based and hierarchical methods.

### 1.2. Graph partitioning approaches

Rajagopalan and Batra (1975) used graph theory to solve the grouping problem. They developed a machine graph with as many vertices as the number of machines. Two vertices were connected by an edge if there were parts requiring processing on both the machines. Cliques obtained from the graph were used to determine machine cells. The limitation of this method is that machine cells and part families are not formed simultaneously. Kumar et al. (1986) solved a graph decomposition problem to determine machine cells and part families for a fixed number of groups and with bounds on cell size. Their algorithm for grouping in flexible manufacturing systems is also applicable in the context of GT.

Vannelli and Kumar (1986) developed graph theoretic models to determine machines to be duplicated so that a perfect block diagonal structure can be obtained. Kumar and Vannelli (1987) developed a similar procedure for determining parts to be subcontracted in order to obtain a perfect block diagonal structure. These methods are found to depend on the initial pivot element choice.

Vohra et al. (1990) suggested a network-based approach to solve the grouping problem. They used a modified form of the Gomory-Hu algorithm to decompose the part-machine graph. Askin, Creswell, Goldberg, and Vakharia (1991) proposed a Hamiltonian-path algorithm for the grouping problem. The algorithm heuristically solves the distance matrix for machines as a TSP and finds a Hamiltonian path that gives the rearranged rows in the block diagonal structure. The disadvantage of this approach is that actual machine groups are not evident from its solution. Lee and Garcia-Diaz (1993) transformed the cell formation problem into a network flow formulation and used a primal-dual algorithm developed by Bertsekas and Tseng (1988) to determine the machine cells. Other graph approaches include the heuristic graph partitioning approach of Askin and Chiu (1990) and the minimum spanning tree approach of Ng (1993) and (1996).

#### 1.3. Mathematical programming approaches

Mathematical programming methods treat the clustering problem as a mathematical programming optimization problem. Different objective models have been used. Kusiak (1987) suggested the *p*-median model for GT, where it minimizes the total sum of distances between each product/machine pair. Shtub (1989) modeled the grouping problem as a generalized assignment problem. Choobineh (1988) formulated an integer programming problem which first determines product families and then assigns product families to cells with an objective of minimizing costs. Co and Araar (1988) developed a three-stage procedure to form cells and solved an assignment problem to assign jobs to machines. Gunasingh and Lashkari (1989) formulated an integer programming problem to group machines and products for cellular manufacturing systems. Srinivasan, Narendran, and Mahadevan (1990) modeled the problem as an assignment problem to obtain product and machine cells Chen and Heragu (1999) present two stepwise decomposition approaches to solve large-scale industrial problems. Won (2000) presents a two-phase methodology based on an efficient *p*-median approach. Akturk and Turkcan (2000) propose an integrated algorithm that solves the machine/ product grouping problem by simultaneously considering the within-cell layout problem.

#### 1.4. Other approaches

Joines, Culbreth, and King (1996) developed an integer program that is solved using a genetic algorithm. Cheng, Gupta, Lee, and Wond (1998) formulate the problem as a traveling salesman problem and solve the model using a genetic algorithm. Plaquin and Pierreval (2000) propose an evolutionary algorithm for cell formation taking into account specific constraints. Zhao and Wu (2000) present a genetic algorithm for cell formation with multiple routes and objectives. Caux, Brauniaux, and Pierreval (2000) address the cell formation problem with multiple process plans and capacity constraints using a simulated annealing approach. Dimopoulos and Mort (2001) present a hierarchical clustering methodology based on genetic programming for the solution of simple cell-formation problems. Onwubolu and Mutingi (2001) develop a genetic algorithm approach taking into account cell-load variation. Brown and Sumichrast (2001) propose an approach using Grouping Genetic Algorithm (GGA). Uddin and Shanker (2002) address a generalized grouping problem, where each part has more than one process route. The problem is formulated as an integer programming problem and a procedure based on a genetic algorithm is suggested as a solution methodology.

The cell formation problem is a combinatorial optimization problem that is NP-hard and therefore optimization algorithms yield a globally optimal solution in a prohibitive computation time. None of

the approaches presented above guarantees optimal solutions. Metaheuristics have emerged to solve combinatorial optimization problems with global or near-global optimal solution in a reasonable computation time.

The objective of this paper is to present a procedure for obtaining product-machine groupings when the manufacturing system is represented by a binary product-machine incidence matrix. The approach combines a genetic algorithm with a local search heuristic. The genetic algorithm is responsible for generating sets of machines cells. The local search heuristic is applied on the set of machines cells with the objective of constructing sets of machine/product groups and improving their quality.

In Section 2, we present the problem in terms of a block diagonalization problem. Some measures of grouping quality are discussed in Section 3. Section 4 presents the local search procedure and the genetic algorithm. The performance of the approach, on a set of 35 GT problems available in the literature, is shown in Section 5. In Section 6, concluding remarks are made.

#### 2. The block diagonalization problem

In this paper, we attempt to solve the machine and product-grouping problem as a zero one block diagonalization problem (BDP), to minimize inter-cellular movement and maximize the utilization of the machines within a cell.

Fig. 1 presents an example of the block diagonalization process of a  $15 \times 12$  matrix (the zero values were replaced by spaces in order to make the figure more readable). In this case (see Fig. 1(a)), there are 15 products (p = 1, 2, ..., 15) to be produced in a set of 12 machines ( $M = M_1, M_2, ..., M_{12}$ ). The objective of the diagonalization problem is to produce a matrix such as the one in Fig. 1(b).

As can be observed in Fig. 1(b), four product/machine groups were formed see Table 1.

#### 3. Measure of performance

Several measures of goodness of machine-product groups in cellular manufacturing have been proposed. Sarker and Mondal (1999) present a simulation study of the effects of several factors on the efficiency measures. Sarker (2001) introduces a new measure of goodness of machine-product grouping and presents a survey of existing measures. The grouping efficiency and grouping efficacy are two popular grouping measures because they are simple to implement and generate block diagonal matrices. Grouping efficiency was first proposed by Chandrasekharan and Rajagopolan (1989). It incorporates both machine utilization and inter-cell movement and is defined as the weighted sum of two functions  $\eta_1$  and  $\eta_2$ :

Grouping efficiency = 
$$\eta = q\eta_1 + (1 - q)\eta_2$$

where

- $\eta_1$  ratio of the number of 1's in the diagonal blocks to the total number of elements in the diagonal blocks of the final matrix;
- $\eta_{12}$  ratio of the number of 0's in the off-diagonal blocks to the total number of elements in the off-diagonal blocks of the final matrix;
- q weight factor.

(a) Initial Matrix - (one cell containing all the machines and products)

Product         M1         M2         M3         M4         M5         M6         M7         M8         M9         M10         M11         M           1
2
3 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
4     1
5 6 7 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
6 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
7 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
8 9 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
9 10 11 12 1
10 11 12 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
12   1   1   1
13   1                     1
14       1   1   1
15     1   1   1   1

#### (b) Final Matrix Machine Product M<sub>9</sub> M<sub>2</sub> 5

Fig. 1. Block diagonalization example.

One drawback of grouping efficiency is the low discriminating capability (i.e. the ability to distinguish good quality grouping from bad). For example, a bad solution with many 1's in the off-diagonal blocks often shows efficiency figures around 75%. When the matrix size increases, the effect of 1's in the off-diagonal blocks becomes smaller, and in some cases, the effect of inter-cell moves is not reflected in grouping efficiency. To overcome the low discriminating power of grouping efficiency between well-structured and ill-structured incidence matrices, Kumar and Chandrasekharan (1990) proposed another measure, which they call grouping efficacy. Unlike grouping efficiency, grouping efficacy is not affected by the size of the matrix.

Table 1
Resulting product/machine groups for the example in Fig. 1b

Cells	Machines	Products
1	$M_3, M_6, M_8$	3, 5, 7, 9
2	$M_5, M_7, M_{10}, M_{12}$	10, 14, 15
3	$M_1, M_4, M_{11}$	1, 4, 6, 12, 13
4	$M_2, M_9$	2, 8, 11

The grouping efficacy can be defined as

Grouping efficacy = 
$$\mu = \frac{N_1 - N_1^{\text{Out}}}{N_1 + N_0^{\text{In}}}$$
 (1)

where

 $N_1$  total number of 1's in matrix A;  $N_1^{\text{Out}}$  total number of 1's outside the diagonal blocks;  $N_0^{\text{In}}$  total number of 0's inside the diagonal blocks.

The closer the grouping efficacy is to 1, the better will be the grouping. The grouping efficacy for the matrices in Fig. 1(a) (one group containing all the machines and products) and (b) are, respectively,

$$\mu_a = \frac{39 - 0}{39 + 141} = 21.67\%$$

$$\mu_b = \frac{39 - 0}{39 + 6} = 86.67\%$$

As expected, the matrix in Fig. 1(b) has a much higher grouping efficacy than the one in Fig. 1(a). We chose grouping efficacy as the measure of performance for the hybrid genetic algorithm proposed in this paper for several reasons:

- In the literature it has been considered the standard measure to report the quality of the grouping solutions.
- It is considered a better measure than the grouping efficiency.
- It is able to incorporate both the within-cell machine utilization and the inter-cell movement.
- It has a high capability to differentiate between well-structured and ill-structured matrices (high discriminating power).
- It generates block diagonal matrices which are attractive in practice.
- It does not require a weight factor.

#### 4. The new approach

The approach presented in this paper combines a genetic algorithm with a local search heuristic. The genetic algorithm is used to generate sets of machine cells. The evolutionary process, embedded in the genetic algorithm, is responsible for improving the grouping quality of the sets of machine cells generated. The local search heuristic is applied to the sets of machines cells generated by the genetic algorithm. The objective of the heuristic is to construct a set of machine/product groups and improve it, if possible. The heuristic feeds back to the genetic algorithm the grouping efficacy of the set of machine/product groups it constructs. Fig. 2a shows the sequence of steps applied to each chromosome generated by the genetic algorithm.

The remainder of this section describes in detail the genetic algorithm and the local search heuristic.

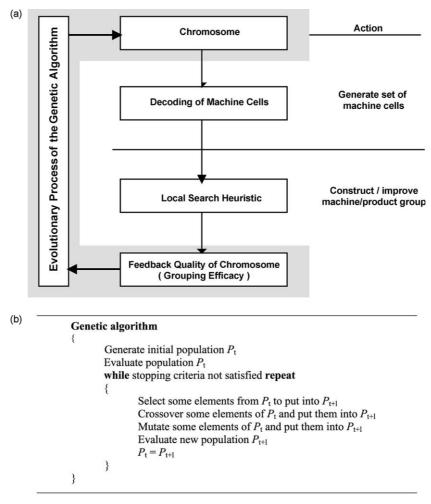


Fig. 2. (a) Architecture of the new approach. (b) Standard genetic algorithm.

#### 4.1. Genetic algorithm

Genetic algorithms (GA) were introduced by Holland (1975) and have been applied in a number of fields, e.g. mathematics, engineering, biology, and social science (Goldberg, 1989). GAs are search algorithms based on the mechanics of natural selection and natural genetics. They combine the concept of survival of the fittest with structured, yet randomized, information exchange to form robust search algorithms.

The concept of genetic algorithms is based on the evolution process that occurs in natural biology. An initial population of possible solutions (referred to as individuals or chromosomes) is generated. Some individuals are selected to be parents to produce offspring via a crossover operator. All the individuals are then evaluated and selected based on Darwin's concept of survival of the fittest. The process of reproduction, evaluation, and selection is repeated until a termination criterion is reached. In addition, a mutation operator

with certain probability is applied to the individuals to change their genetic makeup. The objective of this mutation process is to increase the diversity of the population and ensure an extensive search.

Each iteration (also referred to as generation or family of solutions) is made up of chromosomes. Each chromosome is in turn made up of individual genes. These genes are encodings of the design variables that are used to evaluate the function being optimized. In each iteration of the search process, the system has a fixed population of chromosomes that represent the current solutions to the problem. Fig. 2b represents a pseudo-code for a standard genetic algorithm.

The GA calls a subroutine to compute the fitness value (the quality) for each chromosome in the population. This fitness value is the only feedback to the GA.

The genetic algorithm presented in this paper uses a random key alphabet U(0,1) and an evolutionary strategy (see Fig. 5) identical to the one proposed by Bean (1994). An important feature of random keys is that all offspring formed by crossover are feasible solutions. This is accomplished by moving much of the feasibility issue into the fitness evaluation procedure. If any random key vector can be interpreted as a feasible solution, then any crossover is feasible. Through the dynamics of the genetic algorithm, the system learns the relationship between random key vectors and solutions with good objective values.

As mentioned earlier, the fitness function used is the grouping efficacy. The other important aspects of genetic algorithms: chromosomal representation and decoding, parent selection, crossover, and mutation will be discussed next

#### 4.1.1. Chromosomal representation and decoding

A chromosome represents a solution to the problem and is encoded as a vector of random keys (random numbers). Each chromosome is made of M+1 genes where M is the number of machines:

Chromosome = (gene<sub>1</sub>, gene<sub>2</sub>, ..., gene<sub>M</sub>, gene<sub>M+1</sub>).

The M+1st gene is used to determine the number of machine cells and uses the following decoding expression

```
nCells = | gene_{M+1} \times M |,
```

where (x( is the smallest integer larger than x. Genes 1 through M are used to determine the assignment of machines to machine cells and use the following decoding expression

$$Cell_i = [gene_i \times nCells]$$
  $i = 1, ..., M$ .

Fig. 3 presents an example of the decoding of a chromosome.

## 4.1.2. Reproduction, crossover, and mutation

Many variants of genetic algorithms are formed by varying the reproduction, crossover, and mutation operators. The reproduction and crossover operators determine which parents will have offspring, and how the genetic material is exchanged between the parents to create those offspring. Mutation allows for random alteration of genetic material. Reproduction and crossover operators tend to increase the quality of the populations and force convergence. Mutation opposes convergence and replaces genetic material lost during reproduction and crossover.

Reproduction is accomplished by copying the best individuals from one generation to the next, in what is often called an elitist strategy (Goldberg, 1989). The advantage of an elitist strategy over traditional probabilistic reproduction is that the best solution is monotonically improving from one

# Number of machines = 12**Chrom**. = (0.70, 0.89, 0.12, 0.54, 0.37, 0.78, 0.41, 0.19, 0.94, 0.64, 0.68, 0.31, 0.29) Number of Cells = $[0.29 \times 12] = 4$ $M_{12}$ goes to Cell $\begin{bmatrix} 0.31 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = 2$ $M_{11}$ goes to Cell $\begin{bmatrix} 0.68 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = 3$ $M_{10}$ goes to Cell $[0.64 \times 4] = 3$ $M_9$ goes to Cell $[0.94 \times 4] = 4$ $M_8$ goes to Cell $[0.19 \times 4] = 1$ $M_7$ goes to Cell $\begin{bmatrix} 0.41 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = 2$ $M_6$ goes to Cell $[0.78 \times 4] = 4$ M, goes to Cell $[0.37 \times 4] = 2$ $M_4$ goes to Cell $\begin{bmatrix} 0.54 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = 3$ $M_3$ goes to Cell $\begin{bmatrix} 0.12 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = 1$ M, goes to Cell $[0.89 \times 4] = 4$ $M_1$ goes to Cell $\begin{bmatrix} 0.7 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = 3$ Machine Cell $1 = \{ M_3, M_9 \}$ Machine Cell $2 = \{ M_5, M_7, M_{12} \}$ Machine Cell $3 = \{ M_1, M_4, M_{10}, M_{11} \}$

Fig. 3. Example of the decoding of a chromosome.

Machine Cell  $4 = \{ M_2, M_6, M_9 \}$ 

generation to the next. The potential downside is population convergence. This can however be overcome by high mutation rates described below.

Parameterized uniform crossovers (Spears & DeJong, 1991) are employed in place of the traditional one-point or two-point crossover. After two parents are chosen randomly from the full old population (including chromosomes copied to the next generation in the elitist pass), at each gene a biased coin is tossed to select which parent will contribute the offspring. Fig. 4 presents an example of the crossover operator. It assumes that a coin toss of heads selects the gene from the first parent, a tails chooses the gene from the second parent, and that the probability of tossing a heads is 0.7. Below is one potential crossover outcome:

To prevent premature convergence of the population, at each generation one or more new members of the population are randomly generated from the same distribution as the original population. This process has the same effect as applying at each generation the traditional gene-by-gene mutation with small probability.

All chromosomes of the first generation are randomly generated. Fig. 5 depicts the evolutionary process.

Coin toss	H	H	T	H	T
Parent 1	0.57	0.93	0.36	0.12	0.78
Parent 2	0.46	0.35	0.59	0.89	0.23
Offspring	0.57	0.93	0.59	0.12	0.23

Fig. 4. Example of uniform crossover.

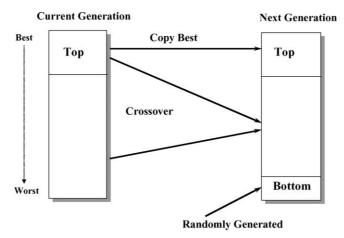


Fig. 5. Evolutionary process.

#### 4.2. Local search heuristic

The local search heuristic is applied to the sets of machine cells generated by the genetic algorithm When the machine cells are known, it is customary to assign a product to the cell where it visits the maximum number of machines. This is optimal to minimize inter-cell movement (because it reduces the exceptional elements). However, it does not guarantee good utilization of the machines within a cell. To overcome this problem, a local search heuristic, which takes into consideration both inter-cell movement and machine utilization was developed. Srinivasan and Narendran (1991) and Adil, Rajamani, and Strong (1997) developed heuristics whose main loop is similar to ours. The main difference between our heuristic and their consists in the rule used to assign products/machines to the machines cells/product groups and in the stopping criteria.

The heuristic consists of an improvement procedure that is repeatedly applied. Each iteration k of the procedure starts with a given initial set of machine cells  $M_k^{\rm INITIAL}$ , and produces a set of product families  $P_k^{\rm FINAL}$ , and a set of machine cells  $M_k^{\rm FINAL}$ . Two block-diagonal matrices can be obtained by combining  $M_k^{\rm FINAL}$  with  $P_k^{\rm FINAL}$  and  $M_k^{\rm FINAL}$  with  $P_k^{\rm FINAL}$ . From these two matrices, the one with the highest grouping efficacy is chosen as the resulting block-diagonal matrix of the iteration k. The procedure stops if  $M_k^{\rm FINAL} = M_k^{\rm INITIAL}$  or if the grouping efficacy of the block-diagonal matrix resulting from iteration k is not greater than the grouping efficacy of the block-diagonal matrix resulting from the previous iteration k-1, (for k>2). Otherwise, the procedure sets  $M_{k+1}^{\rm INITIAL} = M_k^{\rm FINAL}$  and continues to iteration k+1. Each iteration k of the local search heuristic consists of following two steps:

(1) Assignment of products to the initial set of machine cells  $M_k^{\rm INITIAL}$ . (Note that the initial the set of machine cells of iteration 1,  $M_1^{\rm INITIAL}$ , is supplied by the genetic algorithm). Products are assigned to machine cells one at a time (in any order). A product is assigned to the cell that maximizes an approximation of the grouping efficacy, that is, a product is assigned to the machine cell  $C^*$ , given by

$$C^* = \underset{C}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left\{ \frac{N_1 - N_{1,C}^{\text{Out}}}{N_1 + N_{0,C}^{\text{In}}} \right\},\,$$

where

argmax argument that maximizes expression

 $N_1$  total number of 1's in matrix A;

 $N_1^{\text{Out}}$  total number of 1's outside the diagonal blocks if the product is assigned to cell C;  $N_0^{\text{In}}$  total number of 0's inside the diagonal blocks if the product is assigned to cell C.

In this step, the heuristic generates a set of product families  $P_k^{\text{FINAL}}$ . Let  $\mu_k^1$  be the efficacy of the blockdiagonal matrix defined by  $M_k^{\text{INITIAL}}$  and  $P_k^{\text{FINAL}}$ .

(2) Assignment of machines to the set of product families  $P_k^{\text{FINAL}}$  obtained in step (1). Machines are assigned to product families, one at a time (in any order). A machine is assigned to the product family that maximizes an approximation of the grouping efficacy, that is, a machine is assigned to the product family  $F^*$ , given by

$$F^* = \underset{F}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left\{ \frac{N_1 - N_{1,F}^{\text{Out}}}{N_1 + N_{0,F}^{\text{In}}} \right\},$$

where

argmax argument that maximizes expression

 $N_1$  total number of 1's in matrix A;

 $N_1^{\text{Out}}$  total number of 1's outside the diagonal blocks if the product is assigned to cell F;  $N_0^{\text{In}}$  total number of 0's inside the diagonal blocks if the product is assigned to cell F.

In this step, the local search heuristic generates a new set of machine cells  $M_k^{\text{FINAL}}$ . Let  $\mu_k^2$  be the efficacy of the block-diagonal matrix defined by  $M_k^{\text{FINAL}}$  and  $P_k^{\text{FINAL}}$ .

The block-diagonal matrix resulting from the iteration has a grouping efficacy given by  $\mu_{\kappa}$  =  $\max(\mu_{\kappa}^{1}, \mu_{\kappa}^{2})$ . If  $M_{k}^{\text{FINAL}} = M_{k}^{\text{INITIAL}}$  or  $\mu_{\kappa} \leq \mu_{\kappa-} (k \geq 2)$ , then the iterative process stops and the block-diagonal matrix of iteration k-1 is the result. Otherwise, the procedure sets  $M_{k+1}^{\text{INITIAL}} = M_{k}^{\text{FINAL}}$  and continues to step (1) of iteration k+1.

#### 4.2.1. An example

Suppose we start with the initial set of machine cells given by the genetic algorithm and shown in Table 2:

Thus,

$$M_1^{\text{INITIAL}} = \{ (M_3, M_8), (M_5, M_7, M_{12}), (M_1, M_4, M_{10}, M_{11}), (M_2, M_6, M_9) \}$$

'Table 2 Initial set of machine cells

Cells	Machines
1	$M_3, M_8$
2	$M_5, M_7, M_{12}$
3	$M_1, M_4, M_{10}, M_{11}$
4	$M_2, M_6, M_9$

Table 3
Computations for step 1 of the local search heuristic

Products	Product	Machine cells			
	machines	$(M_3, M_8)$	$(M_5, M_7, M_{12})$	$(\boldsymbol{M}_1, \boldsymbol{M}_4, \boldsymbol{M}_{10}, \boldsymbol{M}_{11})$	$(\boldsymbol{M}_2,\boldsymbol{M}_6,\boldsymbol{M}_9)$
		$\mu_{ m C}$	$\mu_{ m C}$	$\mu_{ m C}$	$\mu_{\mathrm{C}}$
1	$M_1, M_4$	(39-2)/(39+2) = 90.2%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-0)/(39+2) = 95.1%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%
2	$M_2, M_9$	(39-2)/(39+2) = 90.2%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-2)/(39+4) = 86.0%	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%
3	$M_3, M_6, M_8$	(39-1)/(39+0) = 97.4%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-2)/(39+2) = 90.2%
4	$M_1, M_4, M_{11}$	(39-3)/(39+2) = 87.8%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%
5	$M_3, M_6, M_8$	(39-1)/(39+0) = 97.4%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-2)/(39+2) = 90.2%
6	$M_1, M_4, M_{11}$	(39-3)/(39+2) = 87.8%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%
7	$M_3, M_8$	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-2)/(39+4) = 86.0%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%
8	$M_{2},M_{9}$	(39-2)/(39+2)=90.2%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-2)/(39+4) = 86.0%	(39-0)/(39+1)=97.5%
9	$M_3, M_6, M_8$	(39-1)/(39+0) = 97.4%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-2)/(39+2) = 90.2%
10	$M_5, M_{10}, M_{12}$	(39-3)/(39+2) = 87.8%	(39-1)/(39+1)=95.0%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%
11	$M_2,M_9$	(39-2)/(39+2)=90.2%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-2)/(39+4) = 86.0%	(39-0)/(39+1)=97.5%
12	$M_4, M_{11}$	(39-2)/(39+2) = 90.2%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-0)/(39+2)=95.1%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%
13	$M_{1},M_{11}$	(39-2)/(39+2)=90.2%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-0)/(39+2)=95.1%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%
14	$M_5, M_7, M_{12}$	(39-3)/(39+2) = 87.8%	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%
15	$M_5, M_7, M_{10}, M_{12}$	(39-4)/(39+2) = 85.4%	(39-1)/(39+0) = 97.4%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%

Step 1 Determining a set of product families

Table 3 presents the value of  $\mu_C = \left\{ \frac{N_1 - N_{1,C}^{\text{Out}}}{N_1 + N_{0,C}^{\text{In}}} \right\}$ , for each product and each machine cell. A product is assigned to the cell with the highest value of  $\mu_C$  (the cells in bold in Table 3).

Thus.

$$P_1^{\text{FINAL}} = \{(3, 5, 7, 9), (10, 14, 15), (1, 4, 6, 12, 13), (2, 8, 11)\}$$

. The resulting grouping combining  $M_1^{\text{INITIAL}}$  and  $P_1^{\text{FINAL}}$  is given in Table 4 and the corresponding block-diagonal matrix is given in Fig. 6.

The grouping efficacy after step 1 is

$$\mu_1^1 = \frac{39-5}{39+12} = 66.67\%$$

Step 2 Determining a set of machine cells

Table 5 presents the value of the grouping efficacy,  $\mu_F = \left\{ \frac{N_1 - N_{1,F}^{\text{Out}}}{N_1 + N_{0,F}^{\text{In}}} \right\}$ , for each product and each machine cell. A machine is assigned to the product family with the highest value of  $\mu_F$  (the cells in bold in Table 5).

Table 4
Set of machine/product groups obtained after step 1.

Group	Machines	Products
1	$M_3, M_8$	3, 5, 7, 9
2	$M_5, M_7, M_{12}$	10, 14, 15
3	$M_1, M_4, M_{10}, M_{11}$	1, 4, 6, 12, 13
4	$M_2$ , $M_6$ , $M_9$	2, 8, 11

					Mach	ine						
Product	M <sub>8</sub>	M <sub>3</sub>	M <sub>5</sub>	M <sub>7</sub>	M <sub>12</sub>	M <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>4</sub>	M <sub>10</sub>	M <sub>11</sub>	M <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>6</sub>	Мg
3	1	1									1	
5	1	1									1	
7	1	1										
9	1	1									1	
10			1		1			1				
14			1	1	1							
15			1	1	1			1				
1						1	1					
4						1	1		1			
6						1	1		1			
12							1		1			
13						1			1			
2										1		1
8										1		1
11										1		1

Fig. 6. Block diagonal matrix corresponding to the product/machine cells in Table 4.

Thus,

$$\boldsymbol{M}_{1}^{\mathrm{FINAL}} = \{ (\boldsymbol{M}_{3}, \boldsymbol{M}_{6}, \boldsymbol{M}_{8}), (\boldsymbol{M}_{5}, \boldsymbol{M}_{7}, \boldsymbol{M}_{10}, \boldsymbol{M}_{12}), (\boldsymbol{M}_{1}, \boldsymbol{M}_{4}, \boldsymbol{M}_{11}), (\boldsymbol{M}_{2}, \boldsymbol{M}_{9}) \}.$$

The resulting grouping combining  $P_1^{\text{FINAL}}$  and  $M_1^{\text{FINAL}}$  is given in Table 6.

The corresponding block-diagonal matrix is given in Fig. 7.

The grouping efficacy after step 2 is

$$\mu_1^2 = \frac{39 - 0}{39 + 6} = 86.67\%.$$

The resulting block-diagonal matrix obtained at the end of step 2 has a grouping efficacy of  $\mu_1 = \max(\mu_1^1, \mu_1^2) = \max(66.67\%, 86.67\%) = 86.67\%$ . Since the set of machine cells obtained at the end of this step is different from the initial set of machine cells and has greater grouping efficacy we set

Table 5
Computations for step 2 of the local search heuristic

Machines	Machine	Product families			
	products	(3, 5, 7, 9)	(10, 14, 15)	(1, 4, 6, 12, 13)	(2, 8, 11)
		$\mu_{ m F}$	$\mu_{ m F}$	$\mu_{ m F}$	$\mu_{ m F}$
$M_1$	1, 4, 6, 13	(39-4)/(39+4) = 81.4%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%	(39-0)/(39+1)=97.5%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%
$M_2$	2, 8, 11	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-3)/(39+3)=85.7%	(39-3)/(39+5) = 81.8%	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%
$M_3$	3, 5, 7, 9	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%	(39-4)/(39+3)=83.3%	(39-4)/(39+5) = 79.5%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%
$M_4$	1, 4, 6, 12	(39-4)/(39+4) = 81.4%	(39-4)/(39+3)=83.3%	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%
$M_5$	10, 14, 15	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%	(39-3)/(39+5) = 81.8%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%
$M_6$	3, 5, 9	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%	(39-3)/(39+3)=85.7%	(39-3)/(39+5) = 81.8%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%
$M_7$	14, 15	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%	(39-2)/(39+5) = 84.1%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%
$M_8$	3, 5, 7, 9	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%	(39-4)/(39+3)=83.3%	(39-4)/(39+5) = 79.5%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%
$M_9$	2, 8, 11	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-3)/(39+3)=85.7%	(39-3)/(39+5) = 81.8%	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%
$M_{10}$	10, 15	(39-2)/(39+4) = 86.0%	(39-0)/(39+1)=97.5%	(39-2)/(39+5) = 84.1%	(39-2)/(39+3) = 88.1%
$M_{11}$	4, 6, 12, 13	(39-4)/(39+4) = 81.4%	(39-4)/(39+3)=83.3%	(39-0)/(39+1) = 97.5%	(39-4)/(39+3) = 83.3%
$M_{12}$	10, 14, 15	(39-3)/(39+4) = 83.7%	(39-0)/(39+0) = 100.0%	(39-3)/(39+5) = 81.8%	(39-3)/(39+3) = 85.7%

Table 6
Set of machine/product groups obtained after 2

Group	Machines	Products
1	$M_3, M_6, M_8$	3, 5, 7, 9
2	$M_5, M_7, M_{10}, M_{12}$	10, 14, 15
3	$M_1, M_4, M_{11}$	1, 4, 6, 12, 13
4	$M_2, M_9$	2, 8, 11

$$M_2^{\text{INITIAL}} = M_1^{\text{FINAL}}$$
, i.e.

$$\boldsymbol{M}_{2}^{\text{INITIAL}} = \{ (\boldsymbol{M}_{3}, \boldsymbol{M}_{6}, \boldsymbol{M}_{8}), (\boldsymbol{M}_{5}, \boldsymbol{M}_{7}, \boldsymbol{M}_{10}, \boldsymbol{M}_{12}), (\boldsymbol{M}_{1}, \boldsymbol{M}_{4}, \boldsymbol{M}_{11}), (\boldsymbol{M}_{2}, \boldsymbol{M}_{9}) \}$$

and proceed to iteration 2 to repeat steps 1 and 2. At the end of step 2 of the second iteration, we obtain a set of machine cells that is equal to the initial set (i.e.  $M_2^{\text{INITIAL}} = M_2^{\text{FINAL}}$ ), and so we stop. The final block-diagonal matrix is the one shown in Fig. 7 and has a grouping efficacy of 86.67%.

#### 5. Computational results

To demonstrate the performance of the proposed algorithm, we tested the hybrid genetic algorithm on 35 GT instances collected from the literature. The selected matrices range from dimension  $5 \times 7$ – $40 \times 100$  and comprise well-structured, as well as unstructured matrices. The matrix sizes and their sources are presented in Table 7. The smallest dimension of each matrix was considered to be the number of rows.

We compare the grouping efficacy obtained by our algorithm with the grouping efficacies obtained by the following six approaches:

- ZODIAC (Chandrasekharan & Rajagopalan, 1987);
- GRAFICS (Srinivasan & Narendran, 1991);
- MST—Clustering algorithm (Srinivasan, 1994);
- GATSP—Genetic algorithm (Cheng et al., 1998);

	Machine Product M <sub>6</sub> M <sub>8</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>5</sub> M <sub>7</sub> M <sub>10</sub> M <sub>12</sub> M <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> M <sub>11</sub> M <sub>2</sub> M <sub>8</sub>														
Product	M <sub>6</sub>	M <sub>8</sub>	M <sub>3</sub>	M <sub>5</sub>	M <sub>7</sub>	M <sub>10</sub>	M <sub>12</sub>	M₁	$M_4$	M <sub>11</sub>	M <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>9</sub>			
3	1	1	1												
5	1	1	1												
7		1	1												
9	1	1	1												
10				1		1	1								
14				1	1		1								
15				1	1	1	1								
1								1	1						
4								1	1	1					
6								1	1	1					
12									1	1					
13								1		1					
2											1	1			
8											1	1			
11					na:						1	1			

Fig. 7. Block diagonal matrix corresponding to the product/machine groups in Table 6.

Table 7 Experimental results

Problem								Our approach										
			Grouping e	fficacy					Grouping	g efficacy		N° Gei	1.		Improve	ement	Cpu Tir	ne (s)
Prob. N°	Source	Size	ZODIAC	GRAFICS	MST	GATSP	GP	GA	Min	Avg	Max	Min	Avg	Max	Min (%)	Avg (%)	Max (%)	Avg
1	King and Nakornchai (1982)	5×7	73.68	73.68					73.68	73.68	73.68	1	1	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.53
2	Waghodekar and Sahu (1984)	5×7	56.52	60.87				62.50	62.50	62.50	62.50	1	2	3	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.47
3	Seifoddini (1989)	$5 \times 18$	77.36			77.36		77.36	79.59	79.59	79.59	1	1	1	2.88	2.88	2.88	0.85
4	Kusiak (1992)	$6\times8$	76.92			76.92		76.92	76.92	76.92	76.92	1	1	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.66
5	Kusiak and Chow (1987)	7×11	39.13	53.12		46.88		50.00	53.13	53.13	53.13	1	4	10	0.02	0.02	0.02	1.09
6	Boctor (1991)	7×11	70.37			70.37		70.37	70.37	70.37	70.37	1	1	2	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.35
7	Seifoddini and Wolfe (1986)	8×12	68.30	68.30					68.3	68.3	68.3	1	1	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.44
8	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan	8×20	85.24	85.24	85.24	85.24	85.24	85.25	85.25	85.25	85.25	1	1	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.68
9	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	8×20	58.33	58.13	58.72	58.33	58.72	55.91	58.72	58.72	58.72	1	4	15	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.68
10	Mosier and Taube (1985a)	10×10	70.59	70.59	70.59	70.59			70.59	70.59	70.59	1	1	2	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.82
11	Chan and Milner (1982)	10×15	92.00	92.00	92.00	92.00			92.00	92.00	92.00	1	1	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.19
12	Askin and Subra- manian (1987)	14×24	64.36	64.36	64.36				69.86	69.86	69.86	1	9	16	8.55	8.55	8.55	6.05
13	Stanfel (1985)	$14 \times 24$	65.55	65.55		67.44		63.48	69.33	69.33	69.33	1	3	12	2.80	2.80	2.80	6.24
14	McCormick et al. (1972)	16×24	32.09	45.52	48.70				52.58	52.58	52.58	1	21	68	7.97	7.97	7.97	7.85
15	Srinivasan et al. (1990)	16×30	67.83	67.83	67.83				67.83	67.83	67.83	1	1	2	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.24
16	King (1980)	16×43	53.76	54.39	54.44	53.89			54.86	54.86	54.86	1	1	2	0.77	0.77	0.77	13.92
17	Carrie (1973)	18×24	41.84	48.91	44.20				54.46	54.46	54.46	6	45	128	11.35	11.35	11.35	11.34
18	Mosier and Taube (1985b)	20×20	21.63	38.26		37.12		34.16	42.86	42.94	42.96	6	24	51	12.02	12.23	12.28	10.89
19	Kumar et al. (1986)	20×23	38.66	49.36	43.01	46.62	49.00	39.02	49.65	49.65	49.65	7	53	119	0.59	0.59	0.59	12.03
20	Carrie (1973)	20×35	75.14	75.14	75.14	75.28		66.30	76.22	76.22	76.22	4	45	107	1.25	1.25	1.25	15.61
21	Boe and Cheng (1991)	20×35	51.13			55.14		44.44	58.07	58.07	58.07	1	3	6	5.31	5.31	5.31	16.38
22	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	24×40	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	1	10	35	0.00	0.00	0.00	19.26
23	Chandrasekaran and Rajagopalan	24×40	85.11	85.11	85.11	85.11	85.11		85.11	85.11	85.11	1	1	3	0.00	0.00	0.00	25.28
24	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	24×40	73.51	73.51	73.51	73.03	73.51	73.03	73.51	73.51	73.51	1	1	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	26.82
25	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	24×40	20.42	43.27	51.81	49.37		37.62	51.85	51.88	51.97	28	92	132	0.08	0.14	0.31	26.48 next page)

Table 7 (continued)

Problem	Other approaches								Our approach									
			Grouping efficacy						Grouping efficacy			N° Gen.			Improvement		Cpu Time (s)	
Prob. N°	Source	Size	ZODIAC	GRAFICS	MST	GATSP	GP	GA	Min	Avg	Max	Min	Avg	Max	Min (%)	Avg (%)	Max (%)	Avg
26	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	24×40	18.23	44.51	44.72	44.67		34.76	45.78	46.69	47.06	33	86	147	2.37	4.41	5.23	25.97
27	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	24×40	17.61	41.67	44.17	42.50		34.06	44.51	44.75	44.87	24	81	128	0.77	1.31	1.58	26.06
28	McCormick et al. (1972)	27×27	52.14	41.37	51.00				54.27	54.27	54.27	3	6	23	4.09	4.09	4.09	25.90
29	Carrie (1973)	$28\times46$	33.01	32.86	40.00				44.10	44.37	44.62	11	76	137	10.25	10.93	11.55	43.78
30	Kumar and Vannelli (1987)	30×41	33.46	55.43	55.29	53.80		40.96	57.30	58.11	58.48	13	105	146	3.37	4.83	5.50	43.00
31	Stanfel (1985)	$30 \times 50$	46.06	56.32	58.70	56.61		48.28	58.82	59.21	59.66	12	80	145	0.20	0.87	1.64	52.45
32	Stanfel (1985)	30×50	21.11	47.96	46.30	45.93		37.55	50.25	50.48	50.51	8	32	81	4.77	5.25	5.32	48.97
33	King and Nakornchai (1982)	36×90	32.73	39.41	40.05				41.48	42.12	42.64	46	80	110	3.57	5.17	6.47	81.46
34	McCormick et al. (1972)	37×53	52.21	52.21					56.42	56.42	56.42	1	2	4	8.06	8.06	8.06	87.66
35	Chandrasekharan and Rajagopalan (1989a,b)	40×100	83.66	83.92	83.92	84.03	84.03	83.90	84.03	84.03	84.03	1	5	12	0.00	0.00	0.00	152.13

Cpu Time (s), CPU time in seconds for 150 generations; Improvement, improvement of our algorithm against the best of the other approaches; N° Gen., Generation number where best grouping efficacy was obtained.

- GA—Genetic algorithm (Onwubolu & Mutingi, 2001);
- GP—Genetic programming (Dimopoulos & Mort, 2001).

These six approaches provide the best results, found in the literature, for the 35 problems used for comparison.

The grouping efficacy resulting from the application of ZODIAC to above problems is reported in Srinivasan and Narendran (1991), in Srinivasan (1994), and in Cheng et al. (1998). The grouping efficacy resulting from the application of GRAPHICS, MST, GATSP, GA and GP is the one reported by their authors in their papers. The paper by Srinivasan and Narendran (1991) includes five problems not included in Table 7. Two of these problems were from an unpublished master's thesis, and were unavailable. One of the instances was from Seifoddini and Wolfe (1986), but the referenced source does not have any problem of the same dimension  $12 \times 12$  and with the same number of 1's. The remaining two other problems, with matrices of sizes  $12 \times 10$  and  $10 \times 20$  were from McAuley (1972) and Badarinarayna (1987). However, even after much effort to obtain these instances, we were unable to find them. The paper by Dimopoulos and Mort (2001) includes 11 problems not included because none of the other approaches uses them.

ZODIAC, GRAPHICS and MST do not allow singletons (cells having less than two products or two machines) and this constraint degrades the performance of the algorithms in comparison with others methodologies. In order to make the comparisons fair and meaningful we have not included in the comparison the problems values presented by Cheng et al. (1998), Dimopoulos and Mort (2001), and Onwubolu and Mutingi (2001) whose solution allows the existence of singletons clusters. Additionally, we have not included the values obtained by Dimopoulos and Mort (2001) for problems 10 and 16 because the value reported for problem 10 is not possible and the value reported for problem 16 is not consistent with the value reported for corresponding the grouping efficiency of the problem.

The test was run on a personal computer having a MS Windows Me PC with an AMD Thunderbird 1.333 GHz processor. The algorithm was coded in Visual Objects 2.0b-1 from CA-Computer Associates.

The present state-of-the-art practice on genetic algorithms does not provide information on how to configure them. Therefore, a small pilot study was conducted in order to obtain a reasonable configuration. The algorithm was configured as follows and the configuration was held constant for all problems. The number of chromosomes in the population equals three times the number of rows in the problem. The probability of tossing heads during crossover was made equal to 0.7. The elitist strategy copies to the next generation the top (the best) 20% of the previous population chromosomes. Mutation substitutes with randomly generated chromosomes the bottom (the worst) 30% of the population chromosomes. The genetic algorithm stops after 150 generations. The algorithm was replicated 10 times using different initial seeds for the pseudo-random number generator incorporated.

The local search procedure presented in Section 4.2 can produce singletons (cells having less than two products or two machines). We address these cases by penalizing their grouping efficacy, i.e. we consider them to have a grouping efficacy of zero. By doing this we make sure that the evolutionary process of the genetic algorithm will remove the corresponding chromosomes from the population since the chromosomes with the lowest quality are not copied into the next generation.

The test results are presented in Table 7. In Appendix A, we present the block-diagonal matrices, found in the first run of the proposed algorithm, for each of the 35 problems mentioned in Table 7.

As can be seen in Table 7, the algorithm proposed in this paper obtained machine/product groupings, which have a grouping efficacy that is never smaller than any of the best reported results. More specifically, the algorithm obtains for 14 (40%) problems values of the grouping efficacy that are equal to the best ones

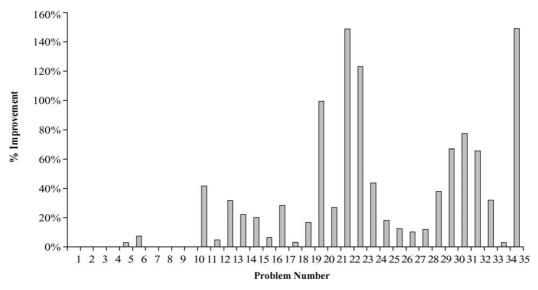


Fig. 8. % Improvement of the Local Search Heuristic w.r.t. the Customary Allocation Rule.

found in the literature and improves the values of the grouping efficacy for 21 (60%) problems. In 11 (31%) problems, the percentage improvement is higher than 5%. For 12 (34%) problems, the solution was obtained in the first generation, showing the good quality and power of the local search heuristic.

To further evaluate the performance of the local search heuristic, another test was run. In this test, the proposed algorithm was run with the local search heuristic replaced by the customary allocation rule, i.e. products are allocated to the cell where it visits the maximum number of machines (since the machine cells are known). Fig. 8 shows a graph with the percentage improvement of the grouping efficacy obtained by local heuristic over the customary allocation rule.

#### 6. Conclusion

A new approach for obtaining machine cells and product families has been presented. The approach combines a local search heuristic with a genetic algorithm. The genetic algorithm uses a random keys alphabet, an elitist selection strategy, and a parameterized uniform crossover. Computational experience with the algorithm, on a set of 35 GT problems from the literature, has shown that it performs remarkably well. The algorithm obtained solutions that are at least as good as the ones found the literature. For 57% of the problems, the algorithm improved the previous solutions, in some cases by as much as 12%.

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# Appendix A

235 14 1   XXX	14 235  1	235 14  4   XXXX    7   XXX     9   X     10   XXXX    15   XXXX   16   XXXX   17   XXXX   18   XXXX   18   XXXX   19   XXXX   19   XXXX   19   XXX   19	146 235	23 56 147  1
67 12 345  4   X     X   5   XX       8   X       10   IXX     11     X   X   2       IXX   6         3           3           7             1              Boctor (1991) - 7x11	11   XX   X     12   XX       13   XX       14   XX       15   XX       16               17               18               19                 10                 11               11	56 2478 13  1   XXI	357 12468  5   X X   XX  6   XXX  X   11   X X   X   12   XXX  X   13   XXX  X   16   XXX  X X   16   XXX  X X   17   XXX  X X   19   XXX  X   20   XXX  X   21   X   X X   21   X   X X   22   X   X X   3   X   XXX X   4       XXX X   4       XXX X   7   X     XXX   8   X     XXX   10   X   X XXX   11   X   X XX   12   X   X XX   13   X   XXX   14       X   XXX   15   X   X XX   16     X   X XX   17   X   X XX   18     X   X XX   19     X   X XX   10   X   X XX   11   X   X XX   12   X   X XX   13   X   X XX   14     X   X XX   15   X   X X   16   X   X X   17   X   X X   18   X   X X   19   X   X X   19   X   X X   10   X   X   X X   11   X   X X   12   X   X   13   X   X   14   X   X   15   X   X   16   X   X   17   X   18   X   X   19   X   10   X	1   1456 38 2790   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1
258 3469 170  3   XXXX        5   XXXX      13   XXXX      13   XXXX      15   XXXX      14     XXXX    6         XXXX    9                   14                   16                 17                 18                   19                   10                 11                 12                 13                 14                   15                   16                   17                   18                     19                   10                   11	11 11 1 1 123 04 457 231 689  7   X X             8   XXXX     X       9   XX           18     X           11                 12                   13                     14                   15                     16                   17                   18                     19                     10                     11	1   IXXX    1   2   IXXX    1   2   IXXX    1   19   IX     1   19   IXX    1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1	x x	11 1 1111  45 93 0126 56 128 347  4   X

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Carrie (1973 )- 18×24

King	(1980)	- 16X43

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losier	and	Taube	(85b)	-	20 x 20	

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Kumar et al. (1986) - 20x23

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Carrie (1973) - 20×35

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30   XX   X   X   XX     32   X   X   X   XX     34	10	14
2           XXXXXX   7           X	36	8
13	21	37   X           X     38
Boe and Cheng (1991) – 20×35	1	1
	1.7	Chandrasekaran and Rajagopalan (1989) Matrix2 – 24x40
	Chandrasekaran and Rajagopalan (1989) Matrix1 – 24x40	
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Kumar and Vannelli (1987) - 30 x 41

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McCormick et al. (1972) - 27 x 27

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Carrie (1973) – 28 x 46

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Stanfel (1985), (fig. 6) - 30×50

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King and Nakornchai (1982) - 36 x 90

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Chandrasekaran and Rajagopalan (1987) - 40×100

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