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# DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF MULTIPLE-LOAD AUTOMATED GUIDED VEHICLE DISPATCHING ALGORITHMS

By

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of Master of Science in Manufacturing and Mechanical Systems Integration

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#### ABSTRACT

This paper addresses the problems of dispatching multiple-load automated guided vehicles (AGVs) in flexible manufacturing systems (FMSs). A pickup-or-delivery-en-route (PDER) rule is proposed to address the task-determination problem that indicates if a partially loaded AGV's next task should be picking up a new job or dropping off a carried load. A workload-balancing (WLB) algorithm is developed to deal with the pickup-dispatching problem that determines which job should be assigned to an AGV. A simulation experiment is conducted to compare the PDER rule with an existing task-determination rule in 2 representative FMSs. We use another simulation experiment to compare the WLB rule with 4 existing pickup-dispatching rules in 3 FMSs. The results show that the PDER rule can significantly improve the system throughput and reduce the average time in system of parts, while the WLB rule also has an outstanding throughput performance.

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#### Notation

$B_a$	A Boolean variable that indicates if workstation <i>a</i> is blocked.		
$CIB_b$	Capacity of input buffer of workstation <i>b</i> .		
$COQ_a$	Capacity of output buffer of workstation <i>a</i> .		
D	The shortest distance between AGV, $V$ , and job $i$ .		
$D_V$	List of destinations for AGV, $V$ , corresponding to its assigned and carried jobs.		
i	A transportation job (load) in the system.		
Ι	Waiting list of all unassigned jobs in the system.		
$I_V$	Set of low-cost jobs waiting at pickup points $P_V$ where $I_V \subseteq I$ .		
IB <sub>b</sub>	Input buffer of workstation <i>b</i> .		
NIB <sub>b</sub>	number of parts in the input buffer of workstation $b$		
NOB <sub>a</sub>	number of parts in the output buffer of workstation $a$		
$OB_a$	Output buffer of workstation <i>a</i> .		
$P_i$	Priority of job <i>i</i> .		
$P_V$	List of pickup points located between the AGV's current location and next destination.		
$S_b$	A Boolean variable that indicates if workstation <i>b</i> is starved.		
V	An AGV in the system.		
WS	A workstation in the system.		

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

As the business environment constantly changes and customer preferences keep evolving, firms can no longer expect superior returns while producing standardized products. The increase in tailoring, expanding in product range, and diminishing of order quantities have caused controllability and financial issues (Kull, 2015). In this case, many firms try to redevelop their competitive edges through transforming from mass production to flexible manufacturing. Shivanand, Benal, and Koti (2006) define a flexible manufacturing system as a group of workstations and storage systems interconnected by an automated material handling system and controlled by an integrated computer system. Such a system is characterized by several complex features, such as stochastic demands, large product variation, and random patterns of material flow, where traditional material handling methods can no longer meet the challenges.

Automated guided vehicles are commonly used to provide efficient material flow and distribution in a FMS. An AGV can be reviewed as a self-driven forklift or vehicle that automatically loads, transports, and unloads work in progress (WIP) among storages and workstations. An AGV system may outperform traditional material handling methods, such as conveyors and forklifts in terms of higher flexibility and lower labor cost. However, the slow travel speed, loading and unloading time, and limited capacity of AGVs can slow down the material flow in a manufacturing system. Thus, a FMS with high traffic intensity usually requires a large number of vehicles to avoid bottlenecks in material distribution. A large fleet size involves several issues, such as large financial costs, traffic congestion, and large space requirement. One possible alternative is to implement multiple-load AGVs that can carry more than one unit a time.

Multiple-load AGVs may help an FMS to achieve a high level of throughput with a smaller fleet size when compared to single-load AGVs. However, the management of single- and multiple-load AGVs can be much different, especially for vehicle dispatching problems. As a single-load AGV only has loaded and unloaded states, dispatching only involves the determination of which job should be assigned to an available vehicle. In contrast, the extra loading spaces on multiple-load AGVs introduce a partially loaded state, which produces several other decision-making problems.

This research focuses on two multiple-load AGV dispatching problems, which are task-determination and pickup-dispatching problems. A task-determination problem is produced when a multiple-load AGV picks up or drops off a load and becomes partially loaded. The AGV needs to determine if the next task should be picking up a new job or delivering a carried load. A pickup-dispatching problem is produced when a multiple-load AGV has already decided its next task to be picking up a new load. The AGV needs to determine which point the AGV should visit next. As multiple-load AGVs are managed by more efficient task-determination and pickup-dispatching rules, we believe the system throughput and average time in system of parts will be maximized and minimized respectively in a FMS.

#### 2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

One common problem for AGV systems in FMSs is that they require a large number of AGVs to deal with the dynamic environment and large product variation. Instead of moving material continuously like a conveyor, an AGV transports material in a discrete manner, which increases the flexibility but reduces the speed of material handling process. This is the reason that most AGV systems are only implemented in low to medium production volume systems. One common way to improve the speed of material flow is to increase the number of AGVs in the system. However, a large fleet size can produce several problems, such as traffic congestion, large financial cost, and large requirement of space. One possible alternative is to implement multiple-load AGVs that can carry most than one unit a time.

Despite the considerable amount of recent research on AGV dispatching rules, only few authors study multiple-load AGVs in FMS. However, the management of single- and multiple-load AGVs are much different. A single-load AGV only has empty and loaded states. When the AGV is empty, it only needs to decide which load should be picked up next. When the AGV is loaded, it only needs to find the destination of the carried load. The additional loading spaces on multiple-load AGVs introduce a partially loaded state. When an AGV is partially loaded, it needs to determine if the next task should be picking up a new load or dropping off a carried load, which is a task-determination problem. It is found that many researchers studying multiple-load AGVs use a delivery-task-first (DTF) rule to deal with the task determination problem. The DTF rule suggests that an AGV should always choose to deliver parts when it is partially loaded. However, as the DTF rule gives delivery tasks higher priorities, after an AGV drops off a load, the empty loading space will not be utilized until the AGV frees up all loading spaces. Such a problem will reduce the AGV capacity utilization and hence limits the system throughput.

It is found that most of pickup-dispatching rules are designed for single-load AGVs. Some researchers apply single-attribute rules on multiple-load AGVs to test their performances. As many researchers found that multi-attribute dispatching rules usually outperform single-attribute dispatching rules in terms of system throughput and average time in system, we believe the benefits of multiple-load AGVs are not fully captured by applying single-attribute dispatching rules.

There are two parallel objectives in this research. First we want to develop a task-determination rule and a pickup-dispatching rule that can increase the AGV capacity utilization and machine utilization respectively and hence improve the system throughput. The second objective is to use simulation experiments to examine both rules and compare them with the existing task-determination and pickupdispatching rules.

#### 3. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section reviews the previous research on automated guided vehicle management. The common ways to manage the coordination of AGVs are introduced and compared. The previous researches on multiple-load AGVs are demonstrated. The classification of AGV dispatching algorithm is summarized, and some common dispatching rules are introduced. Finally, the major findings from the literature review are discussed.

#### **3.1 Scheduling vs. Dispatching**

According to Vivaldini, Rocha, Becker, and Moreira (2015), the major design challenge of an AGV system is to assure that vehicles efficiently arrive to the desired destinations at the desired time within highly dynamic environments so that traffic conflicts, machine overloads, starvations, and other unpredicted events will be avoided. The most common approaches to manage the coordination among AGVs are dispatching and scheduling. Original AGV dispatching was defined as a function that assigns transportation tasks to vehicles, where scheduling determines the time at which vehicles should enter and leave the guide-path segments to avoid conflicts (Langevin, Lauzon, & Riopel, 1996). However, in recent years, scheduling becomes a task allocation process for AGVs considering the time and cost of operations (Corréa, Langevin, & Rousseau, 2007). A scheduling system can decide when, where, and how a vehicle performs tasks including the route it should take (Le-Anh & De Koster, 2006). With an on-line scheduling system, these decisions are specified and updated after a time horizon (Yang, Jaillet, & Mahmassani, 2004).

An AGV system designer can think of dispatching as a scheduling system with zero time horizon so that decisions are made once a vehicle reaches its destination or a new request is generated. Le-Anh et al. (2006) have conducted a comprehensive review study that lists pros and cons of dispatching and scheduling. Dispatching algorithms are typically more favorable in a highly stochastic environment, since it is difficult to schedule vehicles over a long period in such an uncertain environment. In case of a high job density, AGVs frequently move from one workstation to another so that a complicated scheduling system may not be as useful. Four common objectives of AGV dispatching rules are minimizing average time in system of parts, maximizing system throughput, minimizing queue length, and guaranteeing a certain service level at stations (Le-Anh and De Koster, 2006).

#### 3.2 Multiple-load AGV Dispatching

Despite the considerable amount of research on AGV dispatching, only a few authors study multiple-load AGVs. Johnson and Brandeau (1995) conduct a study to compare the performances of single-load and multiple-load AGVs in a central depot. The results show that multiple-load AGVs are capable of serving more stations without increasing the mean response time. Grunow, Günther, and Lehmann (2004) present

a simulation on multiple-load AGVs in a highly automated seaport container terminal. The numerical results indicate that using dual-load AGVs can significantly improve the system efficiency with respect to average lateness and berthing time when compare to single-load AGVs. Ozden (1988) conducts a study to compare the performance of single- and multiple-load AGVs in an FMS. The results show that multiple-load AGVs can often help an FMS to achieve a higher level of throughput with a smaller fleet size. Some other benefits of multiple-load AGVs include improving machine utilizations and better utilization of AGVs (Bilge and Tanchoco, 1997).

The major challenge of managing multiple-load AGVs is that the additional loading spaces increases the number of decision-making states. According to Ho and Chien (2006), a single-load AGV only has two decision-making states, which are empty and loaded, while a multiple-load AGV can be empty, partially loaded, and fully loaded. As shown in Figure 1, Ho and Chien (2006) define four major problems associated with dispatching multiple-load AGVs, which are,

- Task-determination problem: determines if the AGV's next task should be picking up a new job or dropping off a carried load when it is partially loaded.
- Pickup-dispatching problem: determines which pickup point should the AGV visits when the vehicle has already decided its next task to be picking up a new load.
- Delivery-dispatching problem: determines which load should be delivered next when the AGV has already decided its next task to be delivering a carried load.
- Task-selection problem: determines which load should be picked up when the AGV is visiting a pickup point.



Figure 1: Four problem associated with dispatching multiple-load AGVs (Ho and Chien, 2006)

Ho and Chien (2006) propose three rules to handle the task-determination problem. The pickup-task-first (PTF) rule indicates that when an AGV is partially loaded, it should always pick up new loads until it becomes full. A delivery-task-first (DTF) rule suggests that an AGV should always perform a delivery task when it is partially loaded. With either the PTF or DTF rule, an AGV should pick up as many parts as it can at a pickup point. Rather than giving the pickup or delivery task a higher priority, a load-ratio (LR) rule determines the AGV's next task based on the load ratio on the vehicle. In order to compare the performance of these task-determination rules, Ho and Chien (2006) couple them with different delivery-dispatching rules and test them in a representitive FMS through simulation models. The results show that the DTF rule is more favorable in terms of maximizing throughput and minimizing average time in system. Based on their results, other authors also examine different pickup-dispatching, delivery-dispatching, and load-selection rules (Ho and Liu 2006, Ho and Liu 2009).

Azimi, Haleh, and Alidoost (2010) study pickup-dispatching and delivery-dispatching rules for multiple-load AGVs in an FMS. To evaluate the performances of different combinations of rules, the authors develop a fuzzy multi-attribute decision-making method that takes into account ten performance criteria, including system throughput (ST), mean flow time of parts (MFTP), mean tardiness of parts (MFTP), AGV idle time (AGVIT), AGV travel full (AGVTF), AGV travel empty (AGVTE), AGV load time (AGVLT), AGV unload time (AGVUT), mean queue length (MQL), and mean queue waiting (MQW). Their findings indicate that the best pickup-dispatching rule is Earliest Due Time (EDT), and the best delivery-dispatching rule is Shortest Distance (SD).

#### 3.3 Workcenter-initiated vs. Vehicle-initiated Dispatching Rules

Pickup-dispatching rules can be categorized as either workcenter-initiated or vehicle-initiated rules (Egbelu, & Tanchoco, 1984). A workcenter-initiated rule involves the selection of a vehicle from a set of idle vehicles to be assigned to a transportation job. A vehicle-initiated rule involves the selection of a job from a set of unassigned jobs when there is only one available vehicle. Some well-known dispatching rules, first recognized in 1980s, are listed below. Notice that these rules are the key components of multi-attribute algorithms that are popular today.

- A. Workcenter-initiated rules (single request and multiple vehicles):
  - a) Random Vehicle Rule (RV): the request is randomly assigned to any available vehicle.
  - b) Nearest Vehicle Rule (NV): the vehicle with the shortest travel distance to the pickup point is dispatched.
  - c) Farthest Vehicle Rule (FV): an antithetical rule that dispatches the vehicle who has the longest travel distance to the pickup point.

- d) Longest Idle Vehicle Rule (LIV): assigns the vehicle that has been idle for the longest among all available vehicles.
- e) Least Utilized Vehicle Rule (LUVR): assigns the vehicle that has the lowest utilization among all available vehicles.
- B. Vehicle-initiated rules (multiple requests and single available vehicle):
  - a) Random Work-center (RW): the vehicle is randomly dispatched to any request.
  - b) Shortest Travel Time/Distance Rule (STT/D): releases the vehicle to the work station whose pickup point is closest to the vehicle's current location.
  - c) Longest Travel Time/Distance Rule (LTT/D): an antithetical rule that releases the vehicle to the workstation whose pickup point is farthest to the vehicle's current location.
  - d) Maximum Outgoing Queue Size Rule (MOQS): releases the vehicle to the workstation that has the longest outgoing queue.
  - e) Minimum Remaining Outgoing Queue Size Rule (MROQS): releases the vehicle to the workstation whose output queue length is closest to the output queue capacity.
  - f) Modified First Come First Serve Rule (MFCFS): dispatches the vehicle to the workstation that made the earliest request.
  - g) Unit Load Shop Arrival Time (ULSAT): assigns the vehicle to the load that has been in the system for the longest time.

Egbelu and Tanchoco (1984) present a simulation model that shows the performance of an AGV system is mainly governed by vehicle-initiated rules, while the impacts of workcenter-initiated rules are not significant. This is because in an efficient AGV system, the odds of having a workcenter-initiated condition should be relatively small.

Some vehicle-initiated rules can be further classified as a source-driven or demand-driven rule (Yim & Linnt, 1993). Under a source-driven rule, an idle vehicle is dispatched to the job in the output queue that has the highest priority. Under a demand-driven rule, the job with the highest demand from its succeeding workstations will be selected. In this case, a source-driven rule operates on a push concept, while a demand-driven rule operates on a push concept. In a push system, the idle vehicle first selects the part that has the highest priority, and then determines its destination. On the other hand, the vehicle in a pull system first selects the destination workstation that has the highest need to be replenished and then finds the associated parts. Yim and Linnt (1993) compare these two types of systems with several algorithms. The results show that there is no significant difference in terms of average output rates.

#### 3.4 Multi-attributed vs. Hierarchical Dispatching Algorithms

Le-Anh et al. (2006) classifies centralized dispatching rules as single-attribute, multi-attribute, hierarchical, look-ahead, and pre-emption dispatching rules. The single-attribute rules listed in section 2.3 are only concerned with one system parameter. As different attributes reflect different system conditions, a combination of several attributes are designed to give more comprehensive view of the system. A multi-attribute dispatching rule uses more than one parameters and generally outperforms single-attribute rules. Weights are carefully assigned to the parameters depending on the objective of the function and influence of each parameter.

Kim, Tanchoco, and Koo (1991) propose a workload balancing algorithm that takes into account both the input and output queue lengths of workstations. The algorithm combines demand- and source-driven rules, which is outstanding in terms of system throughput. Jeong and Randhawa (2001) develop a workload balancing algorithm based on a bidding concept. Workstations holding transportation requests in their output buffers will bid for the available AGV based on the input queue length, output queue length, and distance from the AGV's current location to the workstation. Rather than solely counting the number of parts at each workstation, the work content balancing algorithm proposed by Zamiri and Choobineh (2014) takes into account the processing time of each part. The algorithm has eliminated the bias introduced by the processing time of different part types and hence outperforms other balancing rules.

Rather than comparing all candidate jobs at once, a hierarchical rule will evaluate them at different levels (Tan & Tang, 2001). The candidates that cannot pass the first level are eliminated, and the rest will be evaluated in the next level. There can be more than two levels, and the last level will make the final decision. For a look-ahead dispatching rule, the transportation jobs that will be generated shortly in the future are foreseen and are taken into account to dispatch vehicles. De Koster, Le-Anh, and van der Meer (2004) show that a very short look-ahead period can significantly improve the efficiency of an AGV system. Pre-emption dispatching rules allow vehicles to be reassigned if certain conditions are met (Bozer & Yen, 1996).

#### 3.5 Discussion

The focuses of this study are the task-determination and pickup-dispatching problems for multiple-load AGVs in FMSs. The DTF task-determination rule gives delivery tasks higher priorities when a multiple-load AGV is partially loaded. Such a rule can provide consistent, high level throughput, which is relatively insensitive to the system configuration. Our only concern about the rule is that when an AGV is partially loaded, the empty space on the vehicle is not utilized until the AGV drops off all the loads and arrives a new pickup point. Figure 2 and 3 show two examples of using the DTF rule on a triple-load AGV. The system consists of 6 workstations connected with a clockwise loop path. The workstations are arranged in

the manner that an AGV will first visit the input buffer and then visit the output buffer of a workstation. The number and color of a part waiting at an output buffer or on the AGV indicate the part's destination.



Figure 2: The first example of the DTF rule.



Figure 3: The second example of the DTF rule.

The fully loaded AGV shown in Figure 2(a) has 3 loading spaces. After it drops off the first two loads to the WS2, the vehicle has two empty loading spaces. Based on the DTF rule, an AGV should always choose to deliver the carried loads until it becomes empty. In this case, the AGV shown in 2(b) decides to deliver the load to WS6. As shown in Figure 2(c), once the AGV drops off the load at WS6 and becomes

empty, it chooses the next pickup point to be the output buffer of WS5. In this example, the two empty loading spaces have not been utilized since the first two loads are dropped at the beginning.

Another problem is that when the AGV decides to visit a pickup point, the output queue of the workstation may not have enough loads to fill up the vehicle. In such a case, the empty space will not be utilized until the AGV delivers all parts loaded from this output queue. As shown in Figure 3(a), the triple-load AGV only finds two parts from the output buffer of the WS5. The AGV picks the loads and deliver them to the WS1 and WS3 respectively. After it drops off the last load, it chooses the input buffer of the WS4 as its next pickup point. In this example, the AGV has an empty loading space since the beginning.

The objective of this study is to develop a combination of task-determination and pickup-dispatching rules that can increase the system throughput and decrease the average time in system. The first step of this study is to develop a task-determination rule that improves the utilizations of loading spaces for multiple-load AGVs. The two problems shown in examples should be avoided, which may speed up the material flow in a FMS. The second step is to develop a workload-balancing dispatching algorithm tailored for multiple-load AGVs. The previous studies show that multi-attribute, pickup-dispatching algorithm usually outperforms single-attribute rules on single-load AGVs, especially when employing a workload balancing concept. As the workload balancing rule can avoid machine blocking and starvation, the machine utilization should be improved. We believe the faster material flow and higher machine utilization may lead to a higher system throughput and smaller average time in system.

#### 4. ALGORITHM DESIGN

In this section, we first introduce the pickup-or-delivery-en-route rule that deals with the task-determination problem. Then, we explain the workload balancing rule that is used for the pickup-dispatching problem. Besides the task-termination and pickup-dispatching rules, some other AGV control rules employed on the AGVs in the experiment are described. Finally, we introduce the task-determination rules and the pickup-dispatching rules that are used to compare with the PDER and WLB rules, respectively.

#### 4.1 Pickup-or-Delivery-En-Route Rule

The task-determination rule proposed in this study is the pickup-or-delivery-en-route rule. The essential goal of the PDER rule is to maximize the utilization of loading spaces on multiple-load AGVs. The utilization can be increased by allowing a partially loaded AGV to pick up additional loads on its way moving towards the next destination. The PDER rule suggests that when a multiple-load AGV just completes all the necessary tasks at a pickup or delivery point and becomes partially loaded, it should search for a new assignment among the jobs whose pickup points are geographically located on the shortest path between the AGV's current location and next destination. These jobs are named as low-cost jobs because it is very convenient for the AGV to pick them up. The next destination is the closest pickup or delivery point corresponding to a job that have been assigned to or carried by the AGV.

#### 4.1.1 Important Queues

Ho and Chien (2006) defines the three states of a multiple-load AGV as empty, partially loaded and fully loaded. As the PDER rule allows an AGV to pick up additional loads on its way moving towards the next destination, an additional job assigning step must be considered to ensure that an AGV will "remember" the previously assigned jobs after it picks up a low-cost job. Table 1 demonstrates the differences in vehicle states between single-load and dual-load AGVs when the assigning step is introduced.

Single-load AGV states	Dual-load AGV states
Empty	Empty
Empty but assigned	Empty but assigned to one job
	Empty but assigned to two jobs
Loaded	One carried load and one empty space
	One carried load and one assigned job
	Fully loaded

Table 1: Differences in vehicle states between single- and dual-load AGVs.

With a PDER rule, a transportation job *i* will be kept in any one of the three queues: the waiting list, *I*, presents all unassigned jobs in the system; an AGV's assignment list indicates the jobs that have been assigned to the AGV; and an AGV's workload list demonstrates the jobs that have been picked up and carried by the AGV. Once a job is assigned to an AGV, it will be removed from the waiting list of the system and added to the AGV's assignment list. As the job is picked up by the AGV, it will be transferred from the AGV's assignment list to the workload list. Finally, the job will be removed from the workload list when the AGV drops it off at its destination.

A destination list,  $D_V$ , is a list of destinations for AGV, V, corresponding to its assigned and carried jobs. For each time V is assigned to a new job, the pickup point  $(OB_a)$  and drop-off point  $(IB_b)$  of the job will be added to  $D_V$ . As V picks up or drops off a job,  $BO_a$  or  $IB_b$  will be removed from  $D_V$  respectively. An AGV's low-cost-pickup-point list  $P_V$  is a list of pickup points that geometrically locate between the AGV's current location and next destination (including the current location and next destination). An AGV's low-cost-job list  $I_V \subseteq I$  is a subset of the waiting list that records all jobs waiting at the low-costpickup points. These jobs are considered to have low costs since it is very convenient for the AGV to pick them up.

#### 4.1.2 Flowchart

Egbelu and Tanchoco (1984) categorize AGV dispatching problems as workcenter-initiated and vehicleinitiated. Under a workcenter-initiated condition, there are many idle AGVs and one transportation request so that the AGVs will compete for the request. Under a vehicle-initiated condition, there is only one available AGV and many transportation requests so that the requests will compete for the AGV. We convert these two conditions into events that will invoke the decision-making processes in the PDER rule. As shown in Figure 4, a workcenter-initiated event occurs when a part generates a new request for being transported to the succeeding workstation based on its processing sequence. As a part is finished by workstation  $WS_a$ and passed to the output buffer, a transportation job  $i(OB_a, IB_b)$  will be generated. The output buffer of  $WS_a$  ( $OB_a$ ) and the input buffer of  $WS_b$  ( $IB_b$ ) indicate the pickup and drop-off points of the job respectively. If none of the AGVs is idle at the moment, job i will be saved to the waiting list I. If there is only one idle vehicle V, job i will be assigned to V's assignment list. If there are more than one idle AGVs, the AGVs will compete for i based on the workcenter-initiated rule. Some common rules are Nearest-Vehicle (NV), Longest-Idle-Vehicle (LIV), and Least-Utilized-Vehicle (LUV) (Egbelu and Tanchoco, 1984).



Figure 4: The flowchart of PDER rule

A vehicle-initiated event occurs when an AGV reaches a pickup or delivery point. As shown in Figure 4, when an AGV reaches a point, it will first perform the pickup or drop-off task that is pre-determined for the assigned or carried job respectively. Notice that rather than picking up as many parts as the AGV can like a DTF rule, the PDER rule only allows the AGV to pick up the jobs in it its assignment list. Once the AGV completes the pre-determined task, it will be in one of the three conditions:

• Case 1: *V* is not carrying any load nor being assigned to any job. In this case, if the waiting list *I* is not empty,  $AGV_n$  will use a pickup-dispatching rule to determine the next pickup point and a load-selection rule to decide the next pickup job. Otherwise, *V* will park at the nearest parking area.

- Case 2: As V is assigned to or carrying one or more loads, it will first define its next destination, which is the closest pickup or drop-off point in its destination list  $D_v$ . If the total number of jobs assigned to and carried by V is smaller than the vehicle capacity, V will define its low-cost-pickup-point list  $P_V$  and low-cost-job list  $I_V$ . If  $I_V$  is not empty, V will use a pickup-dispatching rule to determine the low-cost-pickup point that has the highest priority. A low-cost job waiting at this pickup point will be selected based on the task-selection rule. If  $I_V$  is empty, V will move to the next destination.
- Case 3: As *V* is assigned to or carrying one or more loads, it will first define its next destination. The total number of assigned and carried jobs equals vehicle capacity. In this case, *V* will move to the next destination.

In Case 1 and 2, after *i* is assigned to *V* and removed from *I*, *V*'s subsequent states will follow either Case 2 or Case 3. In other words, *V* will not leave the pickup or drop-off point unless the vehicle is fully assigned, *I* in Case 1 is empty, or  $I_V$  in Case 2 is empty. As the next destination is defined as the closest pickup or drop-off point in *V*'s destination list, the delivery-dispatching decisions always follow the STD rule.

#### 4.1.3 Example of PDER Rule

Figure 5 demonstrates an example of using the PDER rule. The AGV in this example has three loading spaces, and it has just completed a delivery task and become partially loaded at  $IB_2$ . The pickup-dispatching, delivery-dispatching, and load-selection rules are the greatest-queue-length, shortest-travel-distance, and first-in-queue-first-out rules. The following steps demonstrate the process of a PDER rule,

- a) Since V is not empty nor fully assigned, it needs to find another assignment to depart from  $IB_2$ . Its next destination is  $IB_6$  so that V defines  $P_V = \{OB_2, OB_3, OB_4, OB_5\}$ . There are 6 low-cost jobs in  $I_V$ .
- b) Based on the greatest-queue-length rule, V finds that  $OB_5$  has the highest urgency level to be served among the low-cost pickup points. The first part in  $OB_5$  is assigned to V, which needs to be transported to  $IB_3$ . After assigning the job, V is still not fully assigned. Its next destination becomes  $OB_5$  since it is closer than  $IB_6$ . V defines  $P_V = \{OB_2, OB_3, OB_4, OB_5\}$  and  $I_V$ , which contains 5 low-cost jobs. As  $OB_5$  still has the greatest output queue length, another job at  $OB_5$  is assigned to V, which needs to be transported to  $IB_1$ . As V becomes fully assigned, it departs from  $IB_2$ .
- c) After V reaches  $OB_5$ , it first perform the predetermined pickup tasks for the assigned jobs. V defines the current destination list  $D_V = \{IB_1, IB_3, IB_6\}$  and finds that  $IB_6$  is the closest destination. As V is fully loaded, it departs from  $OB_5$  and moves towards  $IB_6$ .



Figure 5: An example of the PDER rule.

#### 4.2 Workload Balancing Rule

#### 4.2.1 Workload Balancing Concept

The proposed pickup-dispatching rule operates on a bidding concept. When an AGV becomes empty or partially loaded, the jobs in I or  $I_V$  will bid for the AGV, respectively. The job with the highest bidding score will win the auction. The bidding score is based on a workload-balancing concept. The essential goal is to avoid machine blocking and starvation and hence improve the throughput.

Four rules are used to rank job priorities. For Rule 1, if the delivery of a job can avoid both machine blocking and starvation problems, such a job should have the highest priority. Figure 6 gives an example of Rule 1. All parts waiting at  $OB_1$  need to be transported to  $IB_2$  and parts at  $OB_3$  need to be delivered to  $IB_4$ . We only consider the two parts at the beginning of the output queues at WS1 and WS3. All the output and input buffer capacities are 3. As there is a machine blocking at WS1 and WS3 and a starvation at WS2, the part at  $OB_1$  has a higher priority.

For Rule 2, if the delivery of a job can avoid a machine blocking or starvation problem, such a job should have a high priority. Figure 7 gives an example of Rule 2. A machine blocking occurs at WS1, and there is no machine blocking at WS3 nor starvation at WS4. In this case, the part waiting at  $OB_1$  has a higher priority.



Figure 7: An example of Rule 2 with machine blocking.

For Rule 3, a workstation that is closer to have a machine blocking or starvation should have a higher priority. Figure 8 demonstrate an example of Rule 3. There is no machine blocking nor starvation observed in the system. However, there are more parts waiting at  $OB_1$  when compare to  $OB_2$  so that WS1 is closer to a machine blocking. In this case, the part waiting at  $OB_1$  has a higher priority. For Rule 4, a shortest-travel-distance rule is applied to break the tie. If multiple jobs tie by using Rule 1, 2, and 3, the job whose pickup point is closer to the AGV's current location will have a higher priority.



Figure 8: An example of Rule 3.

#### 4.2.2 Job Evaluation

We convert the job ranking rules into a compound algorithm. When V arrives a pickup or delivery point  $(IB_c/OB_d)$ . If I in Case 1 or  $I_V$  in Case 2 is not empty, V will evaluate the score of each job in the list. The score of job  $i(OB_a, IB_b)$  is determined by,

$$P_i = B_a * 100 + S_b * 100 + 10 * \left(\frac{NOQ_a}{COQ_a} + \frac{CIQ_b - NIQ_b}{CIQ_b}\right) + \frac{1}{D+1}.$$
 (1)

The term  $B_a$  is a Boolean variable that indicates if there is a machine blocking at *i*'s current output buffer  $OB_a$ , while  $S_b$  specifies if there is a starvation at *i*'s succeeding buffer  $IB_b$ . The term  $\frac{NOQ_a}{COQ_a}$  is the normalized output queue size of job *i*'s current workstation. The  $NOQ_a$  represents the number of parts in the output buffer and  $COQ_a$  is the buffer capacity. The term  $\frac{CIQ_b - NIQ_b}{CIQ_b}$  is the normalized input queue size of job *i*'s succeeding workstation. The  $NIQ_b$  represents the number of parts in the input buffer and  $CIQ_b$  is the buffer capacity. *D* is the shortest distance from AGV's current location to *i*'s pickup point.

#### 4.2.3 Example of WLB Algorithm

This section demonstrates an example of the WLB rule. We compare the bidding scores of the parts shown in Figure 6. The job that needs to be transported from  $OB_1$  to  $IB_2$  is named job 1 and the job that needs to be delivered from  $OB_3$  to  $IB_4$  is name job 2. We assume the distance from the AGV's current location to  $OB_1$  and  $OB_3$  are both 1. The bidding score of job 1 ( $P_1$ ) and job 2 ( $P_1$ ) will be,

$$S_1 = 100 * 1 + 100 * 1 + 10 * \left(\frac{3}{3} + \frac{3-0}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{1+1} = 220.5$$
$$S_2 = 100 * 1 + 100 * 0 + 10 * \left(\frac{3}{3} + \frac{3-0}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{1+1} = 120.5$$

In this case, job 1 has a higher priority.

#### 4.3 AGV Control Rules

This section introduces the other AGV control rules that are necessary to manage AGVs besides the taskdetermination and pickup-dispatching rules. These rules include the workcenter-initiated rule, deliverydispatching rule, and load-selection rules. There is no degree of freedom introduced to them since they are not the focus of this study. This section also explains the task-determination and pickup-dispatching rules that are used to compare with the PDER and WLB rules.

#### 4.3.1 Workcenter-initiated Rule

Egbelu and Tanchoco's study (1984) shows that the performance of an AGV system is mainly governed by the vehicle-initiated rule, since the workcenter-initiated condition only has a small odd to occur. Our preliminary study also shows that the AGV utilizations in most systems are high around 99%. In this case, a single-attribute workcenter-initiate rule is applied to the system. Egbelu and Tanchoco (1984) list several workcenter-initiated rules. The nearest-vehicle (NV) rule has an outstanding throughput performance when compare to other single-attribute rules. In this case, we simply apply the NV rule for the workcenter-initiated conditions. When a new transportation request is generated and more than one AGVs are idle at the moment, each AGV will find the shortest path to the pickup point of the job. The AGV that has the smallest travel distance to the pickup point will be assigned for the job.

#### 4.3.2 Delivery-dispatching Rule

The SD rule is used to determine which load should be dropped off first. With a DTF task-selection rule, when an AGV identifies its next movement as a delivery task, the AGV will determine the shortest path to each required delivery point. The delivery point that is closest to the AGV's current location will be visited next. With a PDER rule, an AGV's next destination will always be the pickup or delivery point in its destination list that is closest to its current location.

#### 4.3.3 Load-selection Rule

A first-in-queue-first-out (FIQFO) rule is used to determine which load should be picked up after an AGV determined the next pickup point based on the pickup-dispatching rule. With a DTF task-determination rule, when an AGV reaches a pickup point, it needs to decide which load(s) should be picked up from the output buffer. With a FIQFO rule, the load that has a greater waiting time at the pickup point will have a

higher priority. With a PDER task-determination rule, the FIQFO rule will be invoked during the job assigning process demonstrated in Figure 4. For example, with a GQL pickup-dispatching rule, if V finds that  $OB_a$  has the longest queue, the vehicle will only be assigned for the job that has the longest waiting time at  $OB_a$ .

#### 4.3.4 Pickup-dispatching Rules

Four different pickup-dispatching rules are used to compare with the WLB rule. A pickup-dispatching rule is used to determine which pickup point the AGV should visit next. An additional constraint is employed in each pickup-dispatching rule including the WLB with DTF rule. We allow an AGV to pick up a job only when the job's succeeding input buffer has less than 6 parts. The input-buffer constraint will avoid the overflow in input buffers. The other four pickup-dispatching rules in this study are:

- Longest-Time-In-System (LTIS): V identifies the time in system, TIS, for all the parts whose transportation request is still unassigned in I or  $I_V$  depending on V's current status. The part with a longer TIS will have a higher pickup priority.
- Longest-Waiting-Time-at-Pickup-poinT (LWTPT): V identifies the amount of time that a job has been waiting at the pickup point, WTPT, for all jobs in I or  $I_V$  depending on V's current condition. The job with a longer WTPT will have a higher pickup priority.
- Shortest-Travel-Distance (STD): V identifies all the unassigned jobs in I or  $I_V$  and determines the shortest path to each job's pickup point. V selects the closest pickup point.

Greatest-Queue-Length (GQL): V identifies all the unassigned jobs in I or  $I_V$  and determines the output queue length of each job's pickup point. V will select the job whose pickup point has the longest queue.

#### 4.3.5 Task-determination Rule

The PDER rule is compared with the DTF rule. According to Ho and Chien's study (2006), the DTF rule has a better throughput performance than the PTF and LR rules. Figure 9 shows the process flowchart of the DTF rule. The process indicates that an AGV should always choose to deliver carried loads until it becomes empty. Also, when an AGV reaches a pickup point, it should try to pick up as many parts as it can.



Figure 9: DTF rule flowchart.

#### 5. IMPLEMENTATION

Two simulation models were constructed using Simio simulation software version 9.147. We use six modeling objects to build the hypothetical FMSs in Simio, including Source, Sink, Server, Modelentity, Path, Vehicle, and Modelentity objects. The Source and Sink objects are the entry and exit of a system. A Modelentity object is used as a part, which is created by a Source, processed by Servers, and destroyed by a Sink. The Vehicle object is used to reproduce the behaviors of AGV that moves along the Paths. This section explains the implementations of the PDER, DTF, and WLB rules in Simio.

#### 5.1 Implementation of PDER

The Vehicle object in Simio 9.147 has the basic characteristics of a DTF task-determination rule. After a Vehicle reaches an assigned output buffer, it will continue to load parts until all loading spaces are filled or the output buffer becomes empty. Then, the Vehicle will continue to deliver the carried loads until it frees up all loading spaces. In order to implement the PDER rule, the first step is to change the continue loading behavior. With a PDER rule, an AGV should only pick up the assigned job at a pickup point. Figure 10 demonstrates a portion of *OnVisitingNode* process for the Vehicle object in Simio. The *OnVisitingNode* process is invoked whenever the Vehicle reaches a node (point). Figure 11 through 14 show the modifications for the PDER rule. The blocks in gray are default steps. The block in green indicates that it is a new or revised step. A block in red means it is a new or revised decision-making step. Each block in yellow will invoke another process, which is demonstrated in the Appendix.



Figure 10: A portion of OnVisitingNode process for the Vehicle object in Simio.



Figure 11: Modification of Vehicle object that determines the next distance.



Figure 12: Modification of Vehicle object that assigns a job to empty AGV.



Figure 13: Modification of Vehicle object that determines low-cost-pickup-point and low-cost-job lists.



Figure 14: Modification of Vehicle object that assigns a low-cost job to AGV.

As shown in Figure 10, a Vehicle with original setup will first go through the NextDropoff step. If the Vehicle is not empty, it will find the next delivery point based on a delivery-dispatching rule and then leave the current location. If the Vehicle fails to find a part to deliver, it uses the NextPickup step to find the next job to pick up among the assigned jobs. If there is no job assigned to the Vehicle, it will go through the NewRequests step to find a new assignment based on a pickup-dispatching rule.

In the PDER setup, two local variables are used to record the closest pickup and delivery points for the assigned and carried jobs. As shown in Figure 11, the ResetDropoffNode and RestpickupNode steps are used to reset the variables. The NextDropoff and NextPickup steps will find the closest delivery and pickup points. The AssigndropoffNode and AssignPickupNode steps assign the values of the variables to be the closest pickup and delivery points. The IfFullyLoaded step examines if the AGV is fully loaded.

If the Vehicle fails to find a delivery point, the process will jump to the NextPickup step. If the Vehicle is fully loaded, it will leave the current workstation and moves towards the closest delivery point (Case 3). If the Vehicle fails to find neither a delivery point nor a pickup point, it indicates that the vehicle is empty and unassigned (Case 1). The process will jump to the AssignPriority Step shown in Figure 12. The AssignedPriority step assigns each job in the waiting list a priority based on a pickup-dispatching rule. Notice that if the job's succeeding input buffer has more than 6 parts waiting, the priority of the job becomes 0. The IfAllowPickup step examines if there is any part waiting in the system that can satisfy the input-buffer constraint. If the waiting list is empty or no job can satisfy the constraint, the vehicle will park at the current workstation. If there is at least one job that can satisfy the constraint, the job with the highest priority will be assigned to the Vehicle through the NewRequests step.

If the Vehicle finds at least one pickup or delivery point, it will use the FindClosest step shown in Figure 13 to find the closest destination. If there is not available pickup point, the closest destination will be the closest delivery point and vice versa. Then, the IfFullyAssigned step examines if the total number of assign and carried jobs equals the vehicle capacity. If the vehicle is fully assigned, it will move to the closest

destination (Case 3). Otherwise, the process moves to the ResetStarNode step. At this point, the AGV's current state should be partially loaded (Case 2). The ResetStarNode, FindEnRouteNode, IfStopSearching, and ResetStarNode steps are used to define the low-cost-pickup-point list. The FindEnRoutePart step is used to search and assign priorities to low-cost jobs based on a pickup-dispatching rule.

As shown in Figure 14, after assigning priorities to low-cost jobs, the Vehicle clears the low-costpickup-point list through the RemoveEnRNode step. The AnyEnRouteJob and ResetEnroute steps are used to examine the low-cost-job list. If the Vehicle fails to find any low cost job that can satisfy the constraint, the Vehicle moves to the closest destination. Otherwise, the AssignLowCostJob step will assign the lowcost job with the highest priority to the Vehicle. The reset step sets the priorities of all jobs in the system to be 0. After that, the process moves back to the ResetDropOff step and starts over again.

Figure 15 demonstrates the process that makes the Vehicle object continuously load new parts when arrives a pickup point in Simio 9.147. Figure 16 shows the modifications that change the continuous loading behavior. As shown in Figure 15, the Rider, IfWaitUntilRiderLoad, and UntilRiderLoaded steps form a loop process that as long as the Vehicle is not fully loaded and the output buffer is not empty, the Vehicle will continue to pick up. As shown in Figure 16, we add the IfMoreAssignedJob process that will return true only if another job in the current pickup point has been assigned to the Vehicle from a previous process. The NumbOfLoad step is used to record the statistics of loading space utilization, which is irrelevant to the continuous loading behavior.



Figure 15: A portion of *OnVisitingNode* process for the Vehicle object in Simio that cause the continuous loading behavior.



Figure 16: Modification of Vehicle object that only allows the Vehicle to pick up assigned jobs.

#### 5.2 Implementation of DTF

Although the default setup of a Vehicle object follows the DTF rule, some additional steps need to be added to implement the pickup-dispatching rules and set the input-buffer constraint. Figure 17 and 18 demonstrate the modifications for the Vehicle using DTF. As shown in Figure 17, the ResetContinue, DecideContinue and IfContinue steps determine if the next part in the current output buffer can satisfy the input-buffer constraint. If the constraint is satisfied, the IfCountinue step returns true and the Vehicle loads one more part. Otherwise, the process moves to the IfMinimumDwell step. Again the NumberOfLoad step is used to record the statistics of AGV capacity utilization.



Figure 17: Modification of Vehicle object that adds the input-buffer constrain.


Figure 18: Modification of Vehicle object implement the pickup-dispatching rule when using the DTF rule.

As shown in Figure 18, if the Vehicle with DTF is not assigned to or carrying any job, the process will move to the Reset step. The Reset step sets the priority of each job in the waiting list to 0. Then, the AssignPriority step searches for jobs that can satisfy the input-buffer constraint and gives each them a priority based on the pickup-dispatching rule. The IfAllowPickup step examines if any job can satisfy the constraint. Finally, if there is at least one job that can satisfy the constraint, the NewRequests step will assign the job with the highest priority to the Vehicle.

### 5.3 Implementation of WLB

Figure 19 demonstrates the process invoked by the AssignPriority steps in Figure 12 and 18 when using the WLB pickup-dispatching rule. The ForAllParts step searches the waiting list and find the jobs that can satisfy the input-buffer constraint. The IfPreventStarving amd PreventStarving steps assign an appropriate value to the Boolean variable  $S_b$ , which indicates if the job's succeeding workstation is starving. The IfPreventBlocking amd PreventBlocking steps assign an appropriate value to the Boolean variable  $B_a$ , which indicates if the job's current workstation is suffering from a machine blocking. The WLB step assign priority to the job based on equation (1) from Section 3.2.2. The AllowPickup step will ensure the IfAllowPickup step in Figure 12 and 18 returns a true statement.



Figure 19: The WLB rule in Simio.

### 6. EXPERIMENT FOR THE PDER RULE

In this study, we conduct two simulation-based experiments. The first experiment (experiment 1) compares the PDER rule with the DTF rule in two hypothetical FMSs. The second experiment (experiment 2) compares the WLB rule with four pickup-dispatching rules while using both DTF and PDER taskdetermination rules. This section presents the experiment design and output analysis of experiment 1.

### 6.1 Experiment Design (Experiment 1)

The first experiment compares the performance of the PDER and DTF task-selection rules paired with four alternative pickup-dispatching rules in two FMS configurations, FMS 1 and FMS 2. The other factors under consideration include the AGV fleet size ranging from 1 to 4 vehicles, and the vehicle types include dualand triple-load AGVs resulting in a total of 128 test scenarios. The experimental factors and their levels are presented in Table 2. The primary performance measures considered for this experiment are throughput and average time in system (ATIS).

Both FMS 1 and FMS 2 operate on a pull concept, that a new part with a random part type will enter the system when the Entry station's queue length is smaller than its capacity. The capacity of the Entry station is 6 in both FMSs. In both configurations, an AGV's loading and unloading times are 15 seconds per part, and its travel speed is 2 miles per hour. The simulation experiments are set up to run 20 replication of each scenario consisting of 500 hours of continuous operations which includes a warm-up period of 6 and 12 hours for FMS 1 and FMS 2, respectively.

Dispate	hing rules	System Configuration				
Pickup-	Task-	Flexible manufacturing	Number of AGV	AGV Capacity		
Dispatching	determination	system (FMS)	(AGVs)	(AGV Cap.)		
QGL	PDER	1	1	2		
LTIS	DTF	2	2	3		
LWTPT			3			
STD			4			

Table 2: Factors considered in experiment 1.

# 6.1.1 FMS 1 Configuration (Experiment 1)

The layout of the first FMS configuration (FMS 1) is shown in Figure 20. FMS 1 has a single-loop floor layout, which consists of 8 workstations connected with unidirectional paths, and produces five part types. The output buffer capacity of the Entry station is 6. After an AGV picks up a part from the output buffer, a new part with random part type will flow into the system based on the production volume percentages in

Table 3. In addition, Table 3 lists the processing sequence for each part type as well as the average processing time. We assume that the processing time of a part at a workstation follows an exponential distribution. A completed part will leave the system from the Exit station.



Figure 20: Layout of FMS 1.

Part Type	Operation Sequence and Average Process Time	Production Volume
	Station (Time in Seconds)	Percentage
А	1(270)-5(180)-4(360)-6(270)-2(360)-7(270)	20%
В	7(270)-5(360)-4(180)-8(270)-6(270)-2(180)	20%
С	3(180)-2(360)-5(270)-6(180)-8(180)	20%
D	4(270)-3(360)-8(180)-5(180)-1(270)	20%
Ε	3(270)-1(360)-5(180)-6(360)-7(270)	20%

Table 3: Part routing and processing information for FMS 1, experiment 1.

#### 6.1.2 FMS 2 Configuration (Experiment 1)

The layout of the second FMS configuration (FMS 2) is shown in Figure 21 and is based on the layout used by Ho and Chien (2006). The system consists of 10 workstations and produces six different part types. Table 4 lists the processing sequence and volume percentage (sampled randomly) for each part type. The processing time of different part types at each workstation follows the same normal distribution as shown in Table 5.



Figure 21: Layout of FMS 2 (Ho and Chien, 2006).

Part type	Operation Sequence	Production Volume Percentage
А	2-4-6-8-10	16%
В	1-3-5-7-9	17%
С	3-4-6-8-9	18%
D	2-3-4-8-10	15%
Е	1-2-5-7-8	14%
F	4-5-6-9-10	20%

Table 4: Part routing and production volume percentages for FMS 2.

Table 5: Processing time distributions at each workstation for FMS 2, experiment 1.

Workstation	Processing Time (Minutes)	Workstation	Processing Time (Minutes)
1	N(1, 0.1)	6	N(2, 0.2)
2	N(1.5, 0.15)	7	N(1.5, 0.15)
3	N(2, 0.2)	8	N(1.5, 0.15)
4	N(1, 0.1)	9	N(2, 0.2)
5	N(2, 0.2)	10	N(1, 0.1)

# 6.2 Output Analysis (Experiment 1)

For each of the treatment combinations of the simulation experiment, statistics on throughput and time in system are recorded. The throughput results for FMS 1 and FMS 2 are presented in Figures 22.



Figure 22: System throughput results for (a) FMS1 with dual-load AGVs; (b) FMS 1 with triple-load AGVs; (c) FMS2 with dual-load AGVs; and (d) FMS 2 with triple-load AGVs in experiment 1.

As a reference point, a simulation configuration that assumes instantaneous material handle has been run to establish an upper bound for throughput. The upper bound is 6,000 parts for FMS 1 and 9,800 parts for FMS 2. Given the results presented in Figure 22, we observe several cases where the system is under capacitated (FMS 1 with one AGV regardless of AGV capacity; and FMS 2 with one or two dual-load AGVs, and one triple-load AGV.) In addition, in FMS 1 when four AGVs are utilized and in FMS 2 when four dual-load or three or four triple-load AGVs are used, the system becomes over capacitated in terms of AGVs. That is, there is sufficient vehicle capacity that AGV control rules do not have a significant impact (at  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) on throughput. Therefore, we focus our analysis on the scenarios in Table 6.

	Scenario			Scenario	
FMS	AGVs	Capacity	FMS	AGVs	Capacity
1	2	2	2	3	2
1	3	2	2	2	3
1	2	3			

Table 6: Scenarios that are the focus of analysis in experiment 1.

Tables 7 and 8 show the throughput mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 1 and FMS 2, respectively. For each scenario, a Tukey multiple-means comparison test is conducted at a significance level of 0.05 to compare the mean throughput under each pair of AGV control rules. The shaded throughput values indicate that the corresponding combination of rules yields the highest throughput in the scenario. Where multiple values are shaded for a particular scenario, the means are in the highest group of mean throughput, but the means are not significantly different than one another.

Table 7: Mean (standard deviation	) of throughput for selecte	d scenarios in FMS I	, experiment 1.
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AGV C	Config.	Pickup-Dispatching Rule / Task-Selection Rule							
	AGV	STD	LWTPT	GQL	LTIS	STD	LWTPT	GQL	LTIS
AGVs	Cap.	PDER	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF	DTF
2	2	5,376.2	4,508.0	4,503.5	4,338.8	3,604.9	3,493.5	3,484.2	2,851.7
		(17.9)	(15.3)	(14.0)	(13.2)	(42.5)	(16.0)	(12.2)	(14.2)
3	2	5,959.3	5,958.3	5,948.5	5,933.9	5,610.5	5,240.3	5,264.1	4,307.5
		(89.8)	(68.5)	(91.5)	(60.0)	(37.5)	(14.2)	(17.2)	(17.2)
2	3	5,976.9	5,956.4	5,951.2	5,829.9	4,410.5	4,614.1	4,635.4	3,528.1
		(78.1)	(83.0)	(77.8)	(67.2)	(49.9)	(14.0)	(17.5)	(24.3)

AGV C	Config.		Pickup-Dispatching Rule / Task-Selection Rule						
	AGV	LWTPT	STD	GQL	LTIS	GQL	LWTPT	STD	LTIS
AGVs	Cap.	PDER	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF	DTF
3	3	9,580.4	9,454.7	9,527.4	9,470.5	9,555.6	9,420.0	8,884.1	8,217.1
		(55.9)	(52.2)	(80.6)	(53.2)	(49.4)	(41.0)	(27.4)	(21.2)
2	2	8,451.9	8,438.4	8,426.3	8,251.3	8,077.7	7,877.4	7,096.6	6,593.5
		(17.7)	(22.5)	(18.7)	(10.2)	(14.9)	(15.1)	(21.0)	(20.7)

Table 8: Mean (standard deviation) of throughput for selected scenarios in FMS 2, experiment 1.

In Table 6 we observe that the highest throughput is always achieved using the STD with PDER rules. When there are 3 dual-load AGVs and 2 triple-load AGVs, any pickup-dispatching rule can reach the highest throughput as long as it is coupled with a PDER task-determination rule. If using the same pickup-dispatching rule, PDER outperforms DTF in terms of throughput. Similarly, in Table 7 when using 3 dual-load or 2 triple-load AGVs, the highest throughput is always achieved with a PDER rule. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule in these two scenarios, the PDER rule yields a higher throughput.

In addition to throughput, we analyze the performance of the AGV control rules with respect to the average time parts spend in the system. Tables 8 and 9 summarize the mean and standard deviation of the average time is systems for each of the selected scenario in FMS 1 and FMS 2, respectively. We conduct an analogous multiple-means comparison test on these means and shade the highest performing group for each scenario.

AGV C	Config.	Pickup-Dispatching Rule / Task-Selection Rule							
	AGV	STD	LTIS	LTIS	LWTPT	GQL	LWTPT	GQL	STD
AGVs	Cap.	PDER	DTF	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF
2	2	216.0	219.7	298.6	488.3	572.0	663.8	850.7	2645.9
		<b>(9.9</b> )	(1.2)	(3.8)	(4.9)	(4.5)	(6.4)	(3.3)	(271.1)
3	2	110.9	171.4	145.8	143.9	143.1	388.3	524.6	227.8
		(3.6)	(1.8)	(6.2)	(7.1)	(9.2)	(6.1)	(12.1)	(16.3)
2	3	128.6	214.2	148.2	161.0	164.9	468.0	607.8	1571.8
		(4.3)	(12.5)	(5.6)	(10.3)	(9.8)	(3.9)	(5.2)	(271.9)

Table 9: Mean (standard deviation) of ATIS in minutes for selected scenarios in FMS 1, experiment 1.

AGV C	Config.		Pickup-Dispatching Rule / Task-Selection Rule						
	AGV	STD	LTIS	LTIS	LWTPT	GQL	LWTPT	GQL	STD
AGVs	Cap.	PDER	DTF	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF
3	2	48.5	68.4	93.2	99.4	102.8	116.3	167.5	713.4
		(0.8)	(1.8)	(3.6)	(5.4)	(7.3)	(4.7)	(17.2)	(148.0)
2	3	80.1	99.7	137.8	159.4	161.3	187.6	345.4	1354.8
		(0.7)	(12.5)	(1.8)	(2.3)	(2.8)	(1.9)	(3.2)	(96.4)

Table 10: Mean (standard deviation) of ATIS in minutes for selected scenarios in FMS 2, experiment 1.

In Table 8 we observe that the smallest average time in system is achieved with a STD with PDER rule. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER outperforms the DTF rules in most scenarios. The only exception is when employing the LTIS with DTF rule on 2 dual-load AGVs. In Table 9 smallest average time is system is achieved with a STD with PDER rule. When using the STD, LWTPT, and GQL pickup-dispatching rules, the PDER rule outperforms the STD rule.

### 7. EXPERIMENT FOR THE PDER AND WLB RULES

#### 7.1 Experiment Design (Experiment 2)

In this section, we present the second simulation experiment to evaluate the effectiveness of the PDER taskdetermination rule and the WLB pickup-dispatching rule. As shown in Table 11, the WLB and PDER rules are compared to 4 pickup-dispatching and 1 task-determination rules respectively, which end up with 10 rule combinations. Each rule combination is tested in three system configurations where we vary the number of AGVs in the system as well as the AGV capacity. A simulation-experiment is conducted to compare the performances of the rule combinations under the various system configurations where the performance measures are system throughput, AGV capacity utilization, travel distance, and average time in system. There are total of 240 scenarios, and each scenario is run for 20 replications with a 500-hour run time and a 12-hour warm-up period.

Dispate	hing rules	System Configuration					
Pickup-	Task-	Flexible manufacturing	Number of AGV	AGV Capacity			
Dispatching	determination	system (FMS)	(AGVs)	(AGV Cap.)			
WLB	PDER	1	1	2			
QGL	DTF	2	2	3			
LTIS		3	3				
LWTPT			4				
STD							

Table 11: Factors considered in experiment 2.

We consider three Flexible Manufacturing Systems in experiment 2, FMS 1, FMS 2, and FMS 3. All systems operate on a pull concept, that a new part with a random part type will enter the system when the Entry station's queue length is smaller than its capacity. In all configurations, an AGV's loading and unloading times are 30 seconds per part, and its travel speed is 2 miles per hour. We ignore the traffic problem that multiple AGVs can move on the same path at the same moment without causing a traffic congestion. The AGVs will park at the home point at the beginning of the simulation and wait at the last delivery point when it becomes idle.

#### 7.1.1 FMS 1 Configuration (Experiment 2)

The layout of FMS 1 in the second experiment is generally the same as the layout of FMS 1 in the first experiment. The exceptions are the input and output buffer capacities are set to 6 and 12 respectively and the processing sequence has been changed as shown in Table 12.

Part	Operation Sequence and Average Process Time	Production Volume
Туре	Station (Time in Seconds)	Percentage
А	1(270)-2(180)-3(360)-5(270)-7(360)-8(270)	20%
В	2(270)-4(360)-5(180)-6(270)-7(270)-8(180)	20%
С	1(180)-2(360)-3(270)-5(180)-8(180)	20%
D	2(270)-3(360)-4(180)-5(180)-6(270)	20%
E	1(270)-3(360)-4(180)-6(360)-7(270)	20%

Table 12: Part routing and processing information for FMS 1, experiment 2.

## 7.1.2 FMS 2 Configuration (Experiment 2)

The layout of FMS 2 in the second experiment is generally the same as the layout of FMS 2 in the first experiment. The exceptions are the input and output buffer capacities are set to 6 and 12 respectively and the processing time has been changed as shown in Table 13.

Workstation	Processing Time (Minutes)	Workstation	Processing Time (Minutes)
1	N(3, 0.3)	6	N(6, 0.6)
2	N(4.5, 0.45)	7	N(4.5, 0.45)
3	N(6, 0.6)	8	N(4.5, 0.45)
4	N(3, 0.3)	9	N(6, 0.6)
5	N(6, 0.6)	10	N(3, 0.3)

Table 13: Processing time distributions at each workstation for FMS 2, experiment 2.

### 7.1.3 FMS 3 Configuration (Experiment 2)

The layout of the third FMS (FMS 3) is shown in Figure 23 and is based on the layout used by Guan and Dai (2009). In fact, the setup of FMS 3 is very similar to FMS 1 in the second experiment, except that additional paths are added to the system. The production volume percentages, operation sequence and processing information are shown in Table 12.



Figure 23: Layout of FMS 3.

### 7.2 Output Analysis (Experiment 2)

This section presents the numerical results from experiment 2. For each system configuration shown in Table 11, 10 rule combinations are tested. Four of them are existing rules; five of them uses the PDER task-determination rule; and the last rule is the WLB with DTF combination. For each of the rule combinations of the simulation experiment, statistics on throughput, AGV capacity utilization, travel distance, and average time in system (ATIS) are recorded.

Figure 24 and 25 summarize the throughput of FMS 1 with dual- and triple-load AGVs, respectively. As a reference point, a simulation configuration that assumes instantaneous material handle has been run to establish an upper bound for throughput. The upper bound for FMS 1 is 6,800 parts. Given the results presented in Figure 24 and 25, we observe two cases where the system is under capacitated (FMS 1 with one AGV regardless of AGV capacity.) In addition, when four AGVs are utilized regardless of AGV capacity, the system becomes over capacitated in terms of AGVs. Therefore, we focus on the configurations when using 2 and 3 dual- and triple-load AGVs. We perform similar evaluation process on FMS 2 and FMS 3. The upper bounds are 9,300 for FMS 2 and 7,000 for FMS 3. We focus on the configurations listed in Table 14. The throughput analysis for all scenarios can be found in the Appendix.



Figure 24: Throughput analysis of FMS 1 with dual-load AGVs in experiment 2.



Figure 25: Throughput analysis of FMS 1 with triple-load AGVs in experiment 2.

S	System Cor	nfig.	(	System Con	fig.	S	System Config.			
FMS	AGVs	Capacity	FMS	AGVs	Capacity	FMS	AGVs	Capacity		
1	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2		
1	3	2	2	3	2	3	2	3		
1	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	2		
1	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3		

Table 14: Scenarios that are the focus of the analysis in experiment 2.

### 7.2.1 FMS 1 Output Analysis (Experiment 2)

Table 15 shows the throughput mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 1. For each scenario, a Tukey multiple-means comparison test is conducted at a significance level of 0.05 to compare the mean throughput under each pair of AGV control rules. The shaded throughput values indicate that the corresponding combination of rules yields the highest throughput in the scenario. Where multiple values are shaded for a particular scenario, the means are in the highest group of mean throughput, but the means are not significantly different than one another. In Table 15, we observe that the highest throughput is always achieved using STD with PDER. If using the same pickup-dispatching rule, PDER outperforms DTF in terms of throughput.

AGV o	config.	Pickup-dispatching Rule/ Task-determination Rule											
AGVs	AGV	STD	WLB	GQL	LWTPT	WLB	STD	LTIS	GQL	LWTPT	LTIS		
	Cap.	PDER	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF		
2	2	5186.5	4452.1	3937.8	3885.7	4072.8	3972.3	3321.5	3390.0	3374.5	2763.5		
		(1.8)	(3.8)	(2.6)	(3.0)	(3.8)	(1.8)	(1.5)	(2.0)	(1.3)	(1.8)		
3	2	6425.5	5923.2	5733.2	5680.7	5554.6	5483.8	5014.7	5065.7	5068.0	4183.9		
		(5.7)	(4.7)	(4.3)	(3.8)	(4.7)	(5.7)	(2.0)	(1.6)	(2.8)	(2.4)		
2	3	5853.2	5122.3	5115.5	5103.4	4654.2	4410.7	4501.9	4171.4	4139.4	3090.9		
		(3.8)	(3.0)	(3.6)	(3.0)	(3.0)	(3.8)	(1.7)	(2.4)	(2.6)	(1.8)		
3	3	6661.6	6497.6	6523.8	6557.2	6208.9	6029.2	6393.1	5958.2	6071.6	4663.2		
		(10.1)	(13.5)	(15.6)	(16.8)	(13.5)	(10.1)	(8.8)	(7.9)	(8.9)	(2.8)		

Table 15: Mean (standard deviation) of throughput for selected scenarios in FMS 1, experiment 2.

Figure 26 summarizes the throughput of the selected scenarios in FMS 1. Figure 27 demonstrates the capacity utilization when having 2 and 3 dual- and triple-load AGVs working with four different rule

combinations. The full analysis for capacity utilization can be found in the Appendix. Figure 28 demonstrates the average travel distance of AGVs in FMS 1.



Figure 26: Throughput Analysis of FMS 1, experiment 2.



Figure 27: AGV capacity utilization analysis in FMS 1, experiment 2.



Figure 28: Average travel distance of AGVs in FMS 1, experiment 2.

According to Figure 26, the increase in fleet size will improve the throughput, and a larger AGV capacity always leads to a higher throughput. From the system design perspective, the best configuration for FMS 1 is to use 3 triple-load AGVs with the STD with PDER combination. However, when using the STD with PDER rule, we observe that the throughput difference between having 3 dual-load AGVs and 3 triple-load AGVs is small.

As shown in Figure 27, a larger vehicle capacity leads to a smaller deadhead, while the increase in fleet size will increase the deadhead time. The STD with PDER combination always has the shortest deadhead in each scenario. The shortest deadhead across different scenarios is achieved when using STD with PDER on 2 triple-load AGVs. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a smaller deadhead than the DTF combination. When using STD with PDER on 3 dual-load AGVs, the AGV also has a 1.77% idle time while the idle time in other configurations are all below 1.00%. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule on dual-load AGVs, the PDER combination always has a greater percentage time to use two loading spaces than the DTF combination. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule on triple-load AGVs, the PDER rule tends to make AGV use two and three loading spaces more often when compare to the DTF rule.

As shown in Figure 28, a larger vehicle capacity usually leads to a smaller travel distance. The STD with PDER rule always has the smallest travel distance, while the LTIS with DTF rule always has the greatest travel distance. The smallest travel distance across different scenarios is obtained when using STD with PDER on 2 triple-load AGVs. Notice this configuration also has the best capacity utilization performance. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a smaller travel distance.

We also analyze the performance of the AGV control rules with respect to the ATIS. Table 16 shows the ATIS mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 1. When using 2 AGVs regardless of AGV capacity, the LTIS with PDER combination has the smallest ATIS. When using 3 dual-load AGVs, both LTIS with PDER and LTIS with DTF have the smallest ATIS. When using 3 triple-load AGVs, the smallest ATIS is achieved with LTIS with DTF. Besides the LTIS combinations, when using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always outperforms the DTF combination in terms of ATIS.

AGV of	config.	Pickup-dispatching Rule/ Task-determination Rule									
AGV	ACVa	LTIS	LTIS	STD	STD	LWTPT	GQL	GQL	LWTPT	WLB	WLB
Cap.	AGVS	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	PDER	DTF
2	2	153.6	171.2	250.8	322.7	366.9	401.5	450.0	464.9	676.5	754.5
		(0.2)	(0.3)	(2.8)	(1.9)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.7)	(0.5)	(0.6)
2	3	157.4	155.3	274.2	271.6	298.6	323.4	336.7	383.7	444.3	519
		(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.7)	(0.8)	(1.0)	(0.7)	(0.5)	(1.1)	(1.8)	(1.0)
3	2	164.0	175.8	217.8	307.7	291.9	324.0	366.4	414.3	560.3	638.1
		(0.4)	(0.3)	(1.5)	(1.5)	(0.5)	(0.7)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.6)
3	3	195.6	169.1	222.1	275.3	253.2	264.1	313.7	369.5	269.6	375.2
		(0.7)	(0.4)	(0.9)	(0.5)	(0.7)	(0.9)	(0.7)	(0.6)	(0.9)	(1.4)

Table 16: Mean (standard deviation) of ATIS in minutes for selected scenarios in FMS 1, experiment 2.

#### 7.2.2 FMS 2 Output Analysis (Experiment 2)

Table 17 shows the throughput mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 2. Figure 29 summarize the throughput of the selected scenarios in FMS 2.

AGV	config.		Pickup-dispatching Rule/ Task-determination Rule								
AGV		WLB	GQL	LWTPT	WLB	STD	LWTPT	GQL	STD	LTIS	LTIS
Cap.	AGVS	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF	PDER	DTF
2	2	5847.2	5186.3	4936.0	5104.9	4884.8	4837.0	4836.9	4429.3	4317.2	4009.7
		(4.3)	(2.0)	(2.6)	(8.19)	(2.3)	(2.0)	(5.9)	(2.4)	(1.5)	(2.3)
2	3	8334.4	7744.6	7383.5	7693.6	7368.7	7259.3	7260.3	6691.2	6551.5	6054.1
		(13.4)	(4.3)	(5.3)	(3.7)	(17.6)	(2.7)	(2.1)	(5.8)	(2.5)	(2.0)
3	2	6762.7	6213.0	5874.6	6077.8	5815.9	5623.3	5644.4	4812.9	5271.5	4337.2
		(5.0)	(2.6)	(2.6)	(3.9)	(6.6)	(2.1)	(5.6)	(3.5)	(2.4)	(2.4)
3	3	8809.7	8788.5	8735.8	8572.1	8570.3	8507.3	8373.7	7326.2	7915.3	6573.9
		(16.6)	(15.2)	(12.4)	(15.9)	(9.4)	(11.0)	(10.4)	(9.5)	(11.2)	(2.7)

Table 17: Mean (standard deviation) of throughput for selected scenarios in FMS 2, experiment 2.



Figure 29: Throughput Analysis of FMS 3, experiment 2.

Given the results presented in Table 17, the WLB with PDER combination always has the highest throughput. When using 3 triple-load AGVs, there is no significant difference between WLB with PDER and GQL with PDER. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, PDER outperforms DTF in terms of throughput. According to Figure 29, the increase in fleet size will improve the throughput, and a larger

AGV capacity always leads to a higher throughput. From the system design perspective, the best configuration for FMS 2 is to use 3 triple-load AGVs working with the WLB with PDER or GQL with PDER rule combination. However, when using WLB with PDER, we observed that the throughput difference between having 3 dual-load AGVs and 3 triple-load AGVs is small. In contrast, when using GQL with PDER, the throughput difference between 3 dual-load AGVs and 3 triple-load AGVs is more significant.

Figure 30 demonstrates the capacity utilization when having 2 and 3 dual- and triple-load AGVs working with four different rule combinations. The full analysis for capacity utilization can be found in the Appendix. According to Figure 30, a larger vehicle capacity leads to a smaller deadhead. When using 2 dual-load AGVs, the shortest deadhead is achieved by the WLB with PDER combination. When using 3 triple-load AGVs, the STD with PDER combination has the shortest deadhead. When having 3 dual-load or 2 triple-load AGVs, STD with PDER and WLB with PDER both have very short deadhead time. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a smaller deadhead than the DTF combination. For any configuration, the average idle time is smaller than 1.00%. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule on dual-load AGVs, the PDER combination always has a greater percentage time to use two loading spaces than the DTF combination. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule tends to make AGV use two and three loading spaces more often when compare to the DTF rule.



Figure 30: AGV capacity utilization in FMS 2, experiment 2.

Figure 31 demonstrates the average travel distance of AGVs in FMS 2. Given the results presented in Figure 31, a larger vehicle capacity leads to a smaller travel distance. When having 3 triple-load AGVs, the

GQL with PDER rule has the smallest travel distance. For all the other scenarios, WLB with PDER has the smallest travel distance. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a smaller travel distance. The smallest travel distance across different scenarios is obtained when using WLB with PDER on 2 triple-load AGVs. Notice this configuration is also one of the configuration that has the best capacity utilization performance.



Figure 31: Average travel distance of AGVs in FMS 2, experiment 2.

Table 18 shows the ATIS mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 3. The smallest ATIS is always achieved by LTIS with PDER. When using 2 triple-load there is no significant difference between the LTIS with PDER, LTIS with DTF, and STD with PDER combinations. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always outperforms the DTF combination in terms of ATIS.

AGV	config.			Pickup	-dispatchi	ng Rule/'	Task-det	erminatio	on Rule		
AGV	ACVa	LTIS	LTIS	STD	STD	LWTPT	LWTPT	GQL	GQL	WLB	WLB
Cap.	AUVS	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF
2	2	111.5	118.8	115.3	221.4	264.8	308.4	345.7	355.7	616.1	709.6
		(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.4)	(1.0)	(0.4)	(3.4)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.6)
2	3	99.0	107.1	106.2	178.8	201.8	256.1	261.7	259.9	446.8	488.6
		(0.7)	(0.4)	(0.8)	(1.1)	(0.8)	(1.0)	(0.7)	(0.5)	(1.1)	(1.2)
3	2	128.5	129.0	129.4	208	216.9	282.5	281.3	295.5	529.4	601.1
		(0.4)	(0.4)	(1.7)	(1.1)	(3.2)	(0.9)	90.6)	(0.4)	(3.1)	(0.7)
3	3	124.9	128.4	148.2	186.8	230.7	277.7	295.5	250.3	377.3	419.8
		(0.6)	(0.5)	(0.8)	(0.9)	(5.3)	(0.6)	(1.0)	(0.9)	(5.5)	(0.8)

Table 18: Mean (standard deviation) of ATIS in minutes for selected scenarios in FMS 2, experiment 2.

## 7.2.3 FMS 3 Output Analysis (Experiment 2)

Table 19 shows the throughput mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 3. Given the results presented in Table 19, when using 2 dual-load AGVs or 3 triple-load AGVS, the highest throughput is achieved by WLB with PDER. When using 3 dual-load AGVs, the STD with PDER rule has the highest throughput. When using 2 triple-load AGVs, WLB with PDER and STD with PDER tie for first place. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, PDER outperforms DTF in terms of throughput.

Table 19: Mean (standard deviation) of throughput for selected scenarios in FMS 3, experiment 2.

AGV of	config.	Pickup-dispatching Rule/ Task-determination Rule									
AGV	AGVe	WLB	STD	GQL	LWTPT	WLB	STD	LTIS	GQL	LWTPT	LTIS
Cap.	AUVS	PDER	PDER	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	PDER	DTF	DTF	DTF
2	2	4933.5	4882.1	4083.9	3996.2	4153.4	4024.1	3419.1	3546.9	3529.9	2824.7
		(1.5)	(0.2)	(1.4)	(1.4)	(1.5)	(2.1)	(1.4)	(1.6)	(1.4)	(1.3)
2	3	6384.6	6433.9	5912.7	5826.0	5717.8	5750.8	5162.7	5295.8	5287.8	4274.8
		(4.0)	(2.7)	(1.6)	(1.6)	(4.0)	(2.1)	(1.6)	(1.4)	(1.6)	(2.0)
3	2	5836.6	5833.7	5217.8	5181.4	4762.8	4455.1	4558.8	4315.8	4293.2	3131.1
		(4.4)	(3.3)	(1.8)	(2.1)	(4.4)	(3.1)	(2.5)	(1.6)	(2.1)	(2.8)
3	3	6706.2	6634.0	6562.6	6601.3	6291.3	6072.2	6402.3	6130.5	6197.2	4716.7
		(17.6)	(5.6)	(10.9)	(3.9)	(17.6)	(5.6)	(2.7)	(3.7)	(3.9)	(3.8)

Figure 32 summarize the throughput of the selected scenarios in FMS 3. According to Figure 32, the increase in fleet size will improve the throughput, and a larger AGV capacity always leads to a higher throughput. From the system design perspective, the best configuration for FMS 3 is to use 3 triple-load AGVs with the WLB with PDER rule combination. However, when using WLB with PDER, we observed that the throughput difference between having 3 dual-load AGVs and 3 triple-load AGVs is small.



Figure 32: Throughput Analysis of FMS 3, experiment 2.

Figure 33 demonstrates the capacity utilization when having 2 and 3 dual- and triple-load AGVs working with four different rule combinations. The full analysis for capacity utilization can be found in the Appendix. Figure 34 demonstrates the average travel distance of AGVs in FMS 3. According to Figure 33, a larger vehicle capacity leads to a smaller deadhead, while the increase in fleet size will increase the deadhead time. The STD with PDER combination always has the shortest deadhead in each scenario. The shortest deadhead across different scenarios is when using STD with PDER on 2 triple-load AGVs. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a smaller deadhead than the DTF combination. When using STD with PDER on 3 dual-load AGVs, the AGVs has a 1.93% idle time on average. When employing WLB with PDER on 3 triple-load AGVs, the AGVs has a 1.79% idle time on average. For any other configuration, the average idle time is smaller than 1.00%. When using the same



pickup-dispatching rule on dual-load AGVs, the PDER combination always has a greater percentage time to use two loading spaces than the DTF combination.

Figure 33: AGV capacity utilization in FMS 3, experiment 2.



Figure 34: Average travel distance of AGVs in FMS 3, experiment 2.

Given the results presented in Figure 34, a larger vehicle capacity leads to a smaller travel distance. In each scenario, the STD with PDER rule always has the smallest travel distance, while the LTIS with DTF rule always has the greatest travel distance. The smallest travel distance across different scenarios is obtained when using STD with PDER on 2 triple-load AGVs. Notice this configuration also has the best space utilization performance. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a smaller travel distance.

Table 20 shows the ATIS mean and standard deviation of the selected scenarios in FMS 3. When using 2 AGVs regardless of AGV capacity, the LTIS with PDER combination has the smallest ATIS. When using 3 AGVs regardless of AGV capacity, the smallest ATIS is achieved with LTIS with DTF. Besides the LTIS combinations, when using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always outperforms the DTF combination in terms of ATIS.

AGV	config.	Pickup-dispatching Rule/ Task-determination Rule									
AGV	AGVe	LTIS	LTIS	STD	STD	LWTPT	GQL	GQL	LWTPT	WLB	WLB
Cap.	AUVS	PDER	DTF	PDER	DTF	PDER	PDER	DTF	DTF	PDER	DTF
2	2	153.8	167.8	249.8	324.4	359.4	392.3	434.6	449.6	676.5	754.5
		(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.9)	(0.1)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.5)	0.6
2	3	160.7	155.7	273.0	272.9	299.5	321.9	329.5	379.4	444.3	519.0
		(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(0.2)	(1.0)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(1.8)	(1.0)
3	2	164.7	174.6	222.6	305.3	291.3	323.0	358.0	403.3	560.3	638.1
		(0.1)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(1.1)	(0.2)	(1.1)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.7)	(0.6)
3	3	195.6	171.5	220.6	275.1	246.1	253.5	309.3	355.2	269.6	375.2
		(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(2.2)	(3.9)	(0.6)	(0.5)	(0.9)	(1.4)

Table 20: Mean (standard deviation) of ATIS in minutes for selected scenarios in FMS 3, experiment 2.

### 8. MAJOR FINDINGS

Both experiments show that the PDER rule outperforms the DTF rule in terms of system throughput. When using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always yields a higher throughput than the DTF combination, because the PDER rule allows an AGV to pick up additional jobs on its way towards the next destination, which improves AGV capacity utilization. This fact is also demonstrated in the capacity utilization analysis that is, when using the same pickup-dispatching rule, the PDER combination always has a shorter deadhead time and the AGV uses two or three loading spaces more often than the DTF combination. The improvement in capacity utilization has a positive impact on throughput since it alleviates the bottleneck in material handling. The PDER rule also reduces the average travel distance of AGVs. It is found that a treatment combination that has a better capacity utilization performance usually has a smaller travel distance.

The STD with PDER rule always has the best throughput performance in FMS 1 in both experiments. The STD with PDER rule also has outstanding performance in FMS 3 in experiment 2. However, the performance of STD with PDER becomes less outstanding in FMS 2 in both experiments. With the STD with PDER rule, after an AGV has completed a delivery task and becomes partially loaded, it always finds that the output buffer at the current workstation is the closest pickup point. If the output buffer of the workstation is not empty and the job satisfies the input-buffer constraint, the AGV can easily refill the empty space by moving from the current workstation's input buffer to the output buffer. This is also the reason that STD with PDER always has the smallest deadhead time. However, we observe that a STD with PDER rule can lead to an unbalanced workload distribution among workstations. The unbalanced workload distribution may cause some workstation is more evenly distributed. The problem is mitigated in such a system, since the PDER rule will let the AGV pick up parts on its way towards the next destination. When there are many routes connecting different workstations such as FMS 3, the workload distribution becomes more unbalanced since the AGV may not pass by some workstation for a long period.

In general, the WLB with PDER rule has the best throughput performance in experiment 2. When compare to the STD with PDER rule, the WLB with PDER rule is relatively insensitive to the floor layout. The WLB with PDER rule always has the best or second best throughput performance in FMS 1 and FMS 3, and the best performance in FMS 3. When using 3 triple-load AGV in FMS 3, the highest throughput can be achieved with both WLB with PDER and GQL with PDER. The major advantage of WLB with PDER is that workloads are more evenly distributed among workstations so that machine blocking and starvation problems are mitigated. Such a dispatching strategy increases machine utilization and hence improves system throughput. Although the jobs that WLB with PDER assigns to AGVs usually have

stronger impact on maximizing throughput, there is a tradeoff between delivering more parts and delivering more urgent parts. As FMS 1 has a loop floor layout, it is more important to have AGVs pick up and deliver parts more frequently than finding the urgent jobs. When there are many routes connecting different workstations such as FMS 3, it is more important to have a balanced system.

Both experiments show that the PDER rule also has outstanding performances in terms of the average time parts spend in the system. When using the same pickup dispatching rule, the PDER rule outperforms the DTF rule except for the LTIS case. In the first experiment, the STD with PDER rule has the best ATIS performance. However, in experiment 2, the smallest average time in system is always achieved with either a LTIS with PDER or LTIS with DTF rule. When using 3 dual-load AGVs in FMS 1, there is no significant difference between LTIS with PDER and LTIS with DTF in terms of ATIS. When using two triple-load AGVs in FMS 3, the LTIS with PDER, LTIS with DTF, and STD with PDER all have the best ATIS performance. The essential goal of the LTIS rule is to minimize the time in system of parts. A part waiting at the pickup point of the Entry station always has a smaller time in system to focus on completing the parts that already left the Entry station. This effect ensures the minimizing time in system but reduces the number of parts pulled into the system, thus limiting throughput. In contrast, we observe the downside of the WLB rule (regardless of the task-determination rule) is the large ATIS. In order to avoid machine starvation problems upstream, the WLB rule tends to pull more parts into the system than other pickup-dispatching rules.

When the system is not over capacitated, the increase in fleet size always has a positive impact on system throughput and ATIS. However, there is a tradeoff between system performance and AGV performance. As there are more AGVs in the system, the number of jobs distributed to each vehicle becomes smaller. For example, if two AGVs have the same or similar low-cost pickup points, they have to compete for the limited number of low-cost jobs. The AGV that loses the bidding may not find another low-cost job so that the empty loading spaces will not be utilized. Recall that an AGV can accept a job only if the job's succeeding input buffer has no more than 6 parts waiting to be processed. These are the reasons that some systems have larger AGV idle time when using 3 AGVs. When using the STD with PDER rule, the competition has a large impact on capacity utilization. This is because if the AGV loses in an bidding, it will has to find another job, which may be further from its current location. It also explains the reason that a larger fleet size always increase the average travel distance of AGVs when using STD with PDER.

It is found that a larger AGV capacity can improve the system throughput. However, the relationship between system throughput and cost of material handling system is not always linear. For example, the STD with PDER rule always yields the highest throughput in FMS 1. When using 2 AGVs, the throughput of using triple-load AGVs is around 11.9% higher than using dual-load AGVs. When using 3 AGVs, the

use of triple-load AGVs only increases the throughput by 3.5%. In this case, the three additional loading spaces only increase the throughput by around 236 parts. As the throughput of a system is getting closer to its upper bound, the impacts of increasing fleet size and AGV capacity become smaller.

# 9. CONCLUSION

In this research, a Pickup-or-Delivery-En-Route (PDER) task-determination rule and a WorkLoad-Balancing (WLB) pickup-dispatching rule are presented for multiple-load AGVs. Two simulation-based experiments are conducted to evaluate the PDER and WLB rules in different system configurations with varying fleet sizes and AGV types. We have compared these two rules to the existing task-determination and pickup-dispatching rules. Through this study, we have shown the strong potential of utilizing the PDER rule to significantly enhance the productivity that can be achieved in an FMS utilizing multiple capacity AGVs. The STD with PDER and WLB with PDER rules both have outstanding performances in terms of throughput, AGV capacity utilization, and travel distance, while the WLB with PDER rule is relatively insensitive to the floor layout. We also analyze the system characteristics for which an FMS may benefit more from each of the rules.

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## APPENDIX

# **Simio Processes**



Figure 35: This is an add-on process for the Source. If there are less than 6 parts in the output buffer of the Source, the NeedsMore step returns true and a new part will be created. Otherwise, the source will stop creating new parts.



Figure 36: This is the process invoked by the FindClosestPoint in Figure 13. The IsPickupNodeCloser step returns true if the AGV does not have an available delivery point or the closest pickup point is closer to the AGV's current location when compare to the closest delivery point. If the statement is false, the NextDropOff step will set the next destination to be the closest delivery point.



Figure 37: This is the process invoked by FindEnRouteNode in Figure 13. The process first determines the shortest path between the AGV's current location and next destination. Then, each pickup point laying on the path will be saved to the low-cost-pickup-point list. A block in purple means it is a search step.



Figure 38: This is the process invoked by FindEnRoutePart in Figure 13. The FindPartEnRoute step searches for low-cost jobs that can satisfy the input-buffer constraint. The PD step uses the pickup-dispatching rule to assign priority to each low-cost job.



Figure 39: This is the process invoked by RemoveEnrouteNode in Figure 14. The SearchNodeStorage step finds all the nodes in the AGV's low-cost-pickup-point list. The RemoveNode step clears the list.



Figure 40: This is the process invoked by Reset in Figure 14 and 18. The ResetAllowPickup step sets the value of the variable, Allowpickup, to be 0. The ResetWaitingPart and ResetAssignPart steps find all jobs in the waiting list and the jobs in AGV's assignment list, respectively. The ResetPriority step assigns the priority of each job found to be 0.



Figure 41: This is the process invoked by DecideContinue in Figure 17. The ForPartsAtHere step searches for the next job in the output buffer and evaluate if the job can satisfy the input-buffer constraint. The allowContPickup step assign the Allowpickup to 1 so that the AGV will load another part.



Figure 42: This is the process invoked by the AssignPriority in Figure 12 and 18. Beside the WLB rule demonstrated in Figure 19, all the other pickup-dispatching rules are implemented through revising the PD step. The ForAllParts step searches for all parts in the waiting list that can satisfy the input buffer constraint.

# **Throughput Analysis**



Figure 43: Throughput Analysis of FMS 2 with dual-load AGVs.



Figure 44: Throughput Analysis of FMS 2 with triple-load AGVs.



Figure 45: Throughput Analysis of FMS 3 with dual-load AGVs.



Figure 46: Throughput Analysis of FMS 3 with triple-load AGVs.

# **AGV Capacity Utilization Analysis**



Figure 47: AGV capacity utilization when using 2 (a) and 3 (b) dual-load AGVs in FMS 1.



Figure 48: AGV capacity utilization when using 2 (a) and 3 (b) triple-load AGVs in FMS 1.


Figure 49: AGV capacity utilization when using 2 (a) and 3 (b) dual-load AGVs in FMS 2.



Figure 50: AGV capacity utilization when using 2 (a) and 3 (b) triple-load AGVs in FMS 2.



Figure 51: AGV capacity utilization when using 2 (a) and 3 (b) dual-load AGVs in FMS 3.



Figure 52: AGV capacity utilization when using 2 (a) and 3 (b) triple-load AGVs in FMS 3.