

Exploring the effects of perceived complexity criteria on performance measures of human-robot collaborative assembly

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1                   **Exploring the effects of perceived**  
2                   **complexity criteria on performance**  
3                   **measures of human-robot collaborative**  
4                   **assembly**  
5

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## 28 **ABSTRACT**

29 *The use of Human-Robot Collaboration (HRC) in assembly tasks has gained increasing attention in*  
30 *recent years as it allows for the combination of the flexibility and dexterity of human operators with the*  
31 *repeatability of robots, thus meeting the demands of the current market. However, the performance of these*  
32 *collaborative systems is known to be influenced by various factors, including the complexity perceived by*  
33 *operators. This study aimed to investigate the effects of perceived complexity on the performance measures*  
34 *of HRC assembly. An experimental campaign was conducted in which a sample of skilled operators was*  
35 *instructed to perform six different variants of electronic boards and express a complexity assessment based*  
36 *on a set of assembly complexity criteria. Performance measures such as assembly time, in-process defects,*  
37 *quality control times, offline defects, total defects, and human stress response were monitored. The results*  
38 *of the study showed that the perceived complexity had a significant effect on assembly time, in-process and*  
39 *total defects, and human stress response, while no significant effect was found for offline defects and quality*  
40 *control times. Specifically, product variants perceived as more complex resulted in lower performance*  
41 *measures compared to products perceived as less complex. These findings hold important implications for*  
42 *the design and implementation of HRC assembly systems and suggest that perceived complexity should be*  
43 *taken into consideration to increase HRC performance.*

44

## 45 **1. INTRODUCTION**

46 In today's market, manufacturers are required to produce high-value-added  
47 products that meet customer demands at a competitive price, while also complying with  
48 sustainability requirements related to environmental and social aspects. As a result,  
49 manufacturers must offer a wide range of continuously improved products at competitive  
50 prices in order to maintain and increase their market share. Accordingly, balancing high  
51 levels of customer adaptation and cost efficiency is crucial in achieving this goal. Research

52 has shown that an increase in product variety can lead to a higher market share and sales  
53 volume, but also increases product complexity and cost [1–3] and requires a flexible  
54 manufacturing system that can adapt to changes in product volumes and types [4]. This  
55 is especially relevant in the automotive and electronic industries, where frequent changes  
56 and an increased number of product variants with more features and functionality are  
57 required to meet customer expectations. Managing a large product assortment and  
58 assembly conditions can be challenging for manufacturers, however, effectively  
59 navigating this complexity can result in a competitive advantage in the industry [5,6].

60 One approach to achieving mass customization is the use of a traditional manual  
61 assembly system, which allows human operators to perform all assembly tasks. However,  
62 this approach may result in a decrease in productivity and an increase in costs [7]. On the  
63 other hand, automatic assembly systems offer high production rates and cost savings, but  
64 they may not be suitable for mass customization [8]. Flexible assembly systems using  
65 collaborative robots, or cobots, offer a solution by combining the flexibility of human  
66 operators with the precision and accuracy of robots, typically resulting in increased  
67 productivity and cost savings [4,9].

68 The collaboration between humans and cobots, known as human-robot  
69 collaboration (HRC), has garnered significant attention in recent years due to the potential  
70 benefits and challenges associated with this approach [10]. Previous research in the  
71 manual assembly field has shown that assembly complexity and its perception can  
72 significantly affect human and process performance [1,11,12]. However, there has been

73 limited research on the impact of perceived assembly complexity on the performance of  
74 human-robot collaboration in assembly tasks. Building on these findings, the present  
75 research aims to extend the investigation by examining the effects of varying product  
76 complexity on perceived complexity and assembly performance measures in the context  
77 of HRC assembly. This research allows for an understanding of how the perceived  
78 complexity of human operators in HRC tasks is influenced by the complexity of the  
79 product being assembled.

80 The main innovative contribution to the field provided by this research is to  
81 examine the impact of perceived complexity on several HRC performance measures that  
82 encompass the entire manufacturing process. These measures, which include  
83 characteristics of the assembly process, the quality control process, and human aspects,  
84 are (i) assembly times, (ii) quality control times carried out after the assembly, (iii) in-  
85 process defects (catering for errors due to both human and collaborative robots), (iv)  
86 offline product defects (i.e. defects detected during offline inspection), (v) total  
87 defectiveness (i.e. sum of in-process and offline defects) and (vi) human stress response  
88 during assembly. By considering both process performance and human factors, this  
89 approach provides valuable insights into the relationship between performance measures  
90 and perceived complexity in HRC assembly tasks.

91 In order to investigate the effects of perceived complexity on HRC performance  
92 measures, the study involved the assembly of six variants of electronic boards with  
93 different levels of complexity. Skilled operators, assisted by cobots, performed the

94 assembly tasks in a collaborative setup where both humans and cobots worked together  
95 in the same workspace [13]. This collaborative configuration is commonly observed in  
96 manufacturing environments and facilitates the combination of human dexterity and  
97 adaptability with the precision and repeatability of cobots. The adoption of this  
98 collaborative mode aimed to investigate the impact of perceived complexity on the  
99 performance measures of human-robot collaborative assembly in a real-world context.  
100 To ensure a comprehensive analysis of the effects of perceived complexity, a product-  
101 centred approach was adopted. The product itself was modified to create different  
102 assemblies with varying levels of complexity. This approach is often used in the  
103 manufacture of highly customized product variants, where collaboration modes and  
104 parameters remain consistent. By focusing on the product and its complexity variations,  
105 the study aimed to capture the practical implications of perceived complexity on human-  
106 robot collaborative assembly performance measures in an industry-relevant context.

107 The study's results provide insights into the association between performance  
108 measures of human-robot collaboration in assembly tasks and perceived complexity and  
109 offer practical implications for designing and implementing high-performing collaborative  
110 systems. Furthermore, by considering both process performance and human-related  
111 factors, the proposed approach aligns with the goals of sustainable, high-quality, resilient  
112 and human-centric HRC systems within the context of the Industry 5.0 paradigm.

113 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the most recent  
114 research studies on human-robot collaboration are reviewed. Section 3 presents the

115 experimental details and methods adopted in the present study. In Section 4, results are  
116 presented and discussed, and the conclusions and future work are outlined in Section 5.

117

## 118 **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

119 In recent years, there has been a growing interest in the field of Human-Robot  
120 Collaboration (HRC), resulting in a significant increase in research activities and  
121 publications. HRC involves the collaboration between humans and robots working  
122 together in a shared workspace to perform a task, with each partner contributing their  
123 specific skills and abilities [14,15].

124 The literature on HRC emphasizes the importance of providing technologies that  
125 facilitate natural and smooth interactions between humans and robots. Wang et al. [16]  
126 highlighted the importance of the communicative interface between robots and humans,  
127 to achieve a symbiotic HRC. Inkulu et al. [17] highlighted the prospects and major  
128 challenges of HRC, pointing out that human-robot communication modes, such as  
129 gestures and speech, enable fluent and immediate interaction, although they still need to  
130 be explored in depth.

131 To date, most research on HRC has focused on safety, communication, and  
132 human-robot interaction. Much attention has been given to safety concerns and the  
133 development of effective safety measures to support HRC. Indeed, safety is a major  
134 concern, especially for robots operating at high speeds and under heavy loads. The  
135 introduction of ISO 10218-1:2011 [18] and ISO 10218-2:2011 [19] defined the main

136 hazards that can be encountered when implementing industrial robots in manufacturing  
137 environments. In addition, the subsequent ISO/TS 15066:2016 [20] allowed for greater  
138 robot's autonomy while working closely with humans. Zanchettin et al. [21] introduced a  
139 metric to assess safety in collaborative manufacturing processes. This metric considers  
140 human-robot distance, robot type and operating speed as critical variables affecting  
141 safety in HRC. In addition, the sharing of space and time between humans and robots can  
142 lead to stress and fatigue issues, which can affect the quality of the output produced and  
143 lead to defects in products and processes. Gervasi et al. [22] have developed a conceptual  
144 framework for evaluating HRC that includes variables such as mental and physical  
145 ergonomics, safety, communication and interaction, team organization, and social  
146 acceptance. Advanced adaptive robotic systems are also needed to improve production  
147 efficiency.

148 In manufacturing, concepts such as stress, fatigue, mental workload, and  
149 ergonomics have long been addressed [23–25]. Over the years, many tools and methods  
150 have been proposed to assess these factors. Self-reporting instruments include the NASA-  
151 TLX [26] and the Subjective Workload Assessment Technique (SWAT) [27]. However,  
152 these tools have been found to be inappropriate and unreliable in manufacturing  
153 environments [28]. Consequently, in recent years, attention has shifted to investigating  
154 the impact of objective physiological measures, such as heart rate variability (HRV) and  
155 electrodermal activity (EDA), on the operator's state during an HRC task [29–32]. Kulić and  
156 Croft [33] investigated how human physiological state, measured by HRV and EDA, can be



157 affected by the movements of an industrial robot. In this study, proximity and speed were  
158 shown to have a significant effect on mental stress. Similarly, Arai et al. [34] evaluated the  
159 effect of robot movements, varying operating speed and distance from the operator, on  
160 EDA. Kühnlenz et al. [35] studied the effects on humans through HRV and EDA of different  
161 trajectory patterns of an industrial robot.

162 Physical and cognitive aspects are critical factors in the design of HRC tasks [36].  
163 Colim et al. [37] provided guidelines for the design of safe and ergonomic collaborative  
164 workstations. In a repetitive and hazardous assembly task, cobots can be used to reduce  
165 potential risks to the operator and improve human well-being. However, few studies have  
166 investigated the effect of human-robot collaboration on the mental and physical  
167 workload perceived by humans. Khalid et al. [38] investigated the safety of HRC systems  
168 when using high-load robots, defining potential hazards that include physical and mental  
169 strain associated with a collaborative task. Galin and Meshcheryakov [39] analyzed both  
170 human and robot dependent factors that may affect the efficiency of HRC. Among the  
171 human factors, emotional and cognitive aspects were found to be critical for HRC  
172 efficiency.

173 Overall, while much attention has been paid to safety, communication, interaction  
174 and human physical and cognitive aspects in HRC, there is a lack of research exploring the  
175 impact of task complexity perceived by humans on performance measures. This gap in  
176 the literature provides an opportunity for further research to investigate the relationship  
177 between assembly complexity and performance measures, both process- and human-

178 related measures, such as production time, defect rates and human-centred measures,  
179 respectively, in HRC settings.

180

### 181 **3. EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP AND METHODS**

#### 182 **3.1 Experimental system configuration**

183 An experimental campaign involving six expert operators and a single-armed  
184 collaborative robot, the UR3e from Universal Robots™, equipped with an OnRobot RG6  
185 gripper with two flexible fingers (see Fig. 1) was designed and carried out. The RG6  
186 gripper, produced by OnRobot™, was selected for its versatility and ability to handle a  
187 variety of objects, even of small dimensions. Each operator underwent preliminary  
188 training sessions prior to the assembly trials in order to ensure a consistent level of  
189 proficiency among the participants and to minimise the potential impact of varying skill  
190 levels on the results. These training sessions were designed to familiarize the operators  
191 with the assembly process and equipment.

192 During the experimental trials, each operator assembled six electronic boards (see  
193 next Section 3.2) in random order with the support of the UR3e cobot.

194 Manufacturing process consisted of two phases: (i) assembly phase and (ii) quality  
195 control phase. During the assembly phase of each electronic board, the cobot was used  
196 to assist operators in assembly operations by passing appropriate components in a  
197 predetermined sequence. The parts of the electronic boards were placed in a specific  
198 position within the HRC workstation to be picked up by the cobot, since the cobot was

199 unable to recognize parts. Future research will focus on the use of visual recognition  
200 systems, integrated with machine learning techniques, to enable the cobot to recognize  
201 parts. The assembly sequence was determined according to circuit theory [40]. In fact, for  
202 the circuit to work, a complete path must exist between the energy source (power) and  
203 the lowest energy point (ground). Furthermore, the current always seeks the path of least  
204 resistance to earth and between two possible paths the current goes through the path of  
205 least resistance. This is because the electrical energy within the circuit is dissipated by its  
206 components, converting the electrical energy into other forms of energy, such as light,  
207 heat and sound. As a result, the strategy for assembling electronic boards was defined  
208 based on the path of the electric current.

209         During assembly, human operators decided when activating the cobot to pick up  
210 the parts and bring them to the storage area by pressing a button near the workstation.  
211 The cobot used the MoveL movement for vertical actions, such as picking up and  
212 depositing the parts, and the faster MoveJ movement for other actions, such as moving  
213 the parts to the storage area. Table 1 shows cobot and gripper parameters used in the  
214 HRC assembly.

215         After the assembly phase, in which electronic board variants were assembled  
216 through HRC, a skilled quality controller checked their correct functioning and identified  
217 residual defects during the quality control phase. The advantage of using electronic  
218 boards is the possibility to verify their proper functioning by connecting them to the PC  
219 and running the code. During the quality inspection, the operator who was in charge of

220 the assembly of the electronic board was asked to fill a questionnaire on perceived  
221 complexity of the assembly, which will be presented in Section 3.4. In detail, at the end  
222 of each board variant assembly, the operator evaluated perceived complexity by  
223 providing evaluations on some assembly complexity criteria, while at the end of the six  
224 assemblies an overall assessment of the importance of the complexity criteria was given  
225 (as per Section 3.4). Furthermore, during assembly and quality control phase, data on  
226 some performance measures were collected, which will be illustrated in Section 3.3.

227

### 228 **3.2 Product assembled**

229 For the assembly of the six electronic boards, the ARDUINO UNO Starter Kit from  
230 ARDUINO® was used. This kit includes the physical components necessary for assembling  
231 the electronic boards (listed in Table 2) and a software package for programming the  
232 microcontrollers. In Table 2, the type and quantity of each component are indicated for  
233 each product variant (Variant A – Variant F).

234 These six products have been selected to cover a wide range of product  
235 complexity. According to previous studies [41–43], product variants' total complexity is  
236 obtained according to the structural complexity model as a combination of complexity of  
237 product components ( $C_1$ ), complexity of assembly connections/liaisons ( $C_2$ ) and  
238 complexity of product architecture ( $C_3$ ), according to Eq. (1):

$$239 \quad C = C_1 + C_2 \cdot C_3 \quad (1)$$

240 In this study, the Lucas Method [44], widely used in literature and for several  
241 industrial applications, was applied to define the complexity of product components and  
242 connections ( $C_1$  and  $C_2$ ). On the other hand, product architecture complexity ( $C_3$ ) was  
243 derived as the average of singular values of the adjacency matrix of the product [41]. In  
244 Table 2, the product variants are listed according to increasing complexity  $C$ . It is  
245 noteworthy that an increase in the number of parts does not necessarily imply an increase  
246 in complexity  $C$ . As mentioned above, the products were assembled in random order by  
247 the six operators. Randomizing the order of the six product variants during assembly  
248 minimized the impact of learning effects and increased internal validity. This approach  
249 controlled for potential confounding variables and prevented observed performance  
250 measure differences between product variants from being attributed to increased  
251 operator familiarity or experience with the assembly process or equipment. Thus,  
252 although manufacturing sequence was not explicitly controlled, randomization helped  
253 minimize its potential impact on the results.

254 Fig. 2 shows three examples of the six electronic boards assembled with the  
255 support of cobot. The first product, Variant A, is the simplest of the six selected products,  
256 Variant C is at medium-level complexity, while the last product, Variant F, is the most  
257 complex.

258  
259  
260

### 261 3.3 Data acquisition

262 During the manufacturing process, some human and process performance  
263 parameters were collected, including physiological data from the operators, the number  
264 of total defects (both those occurring during assembly, i.e. in-process defects, and those  
265 detected during offline quality control, i.e. offline defects), the assembly time, and the  
266 time spent on quality control. The selected performance measures were chosen based on  
267 their relevance to the objectives of the study and a thorough literature review that  
268 followed the survey proposed by Coronado et al. [36]. While there are many other metrics  
269 available for evaluating the performance of collaborative systems, the selected measures  
270 were deemed most appropriate for this study due to their widespread use in the  
271 manufacturing industry to evaluate the quality of human-robot interaction and  
272 collaboration, especially in the context of Industry 5.0, and their ease of monitoring  
273 throughout all stages of the production process.

274 In the first phase of the manufacturing process (assembly phase), information  
275 about assembly time, in-process defects and stress were collected. On the other hand, in  
276 the second phase (quality control phase), information about quality control time and  
277 offline defects was collected. Those parameters, plus the total number of defects (sum of  
278 in-process and offline defects), are the performance measures depicting the overall  
279 manufacturing process.

280 In the HRC assembly phase, the operator clocked the minutes to complete each  
281 electronic board's assembly. The stopwatch started when the cobot picked up the first

282 part and stopped when the operator considered the assembly finished. Even when errors  
283 occurred, the stopwatch was never stopped. In the quality control phase, the operator  
284 recorded the time in minutes spent on quality control. In this case, the time started when  
285 the electronic board reached the quality control station and was stopped when the board  
286 worked properly. The stopwatch was never stopped during the quality control phase.

287 Regarding in-process and offline defects, a classification was performed as follows:

288 (i) "Wrong part", i.e. a different component is used instead of the correct one; (ii) "Wrong  
289 position", i.e. the component is placed in the wrong position; (iii) "Part not taken", i.e. the  
290 cobot fails to pick up the part from the columns; (iv) "Slipped part", i.e. the part slips from  
291 the cobot grippers during transport to the operator; (v) "Defective part", i.e. the part is  
292 defective and does not allow the electronic board to function correctly; (vi) "Incorrectly  
293 inserted part", i.e. the part is inserted in the correct position but not properly. Obviously,  
294 for offline defects, the two categories of defects related to cobot errors ("Part not taken"  
295 and "Slipped part") were not present. The assembly operators and the quality control  
296 operator collected in-process and offline defects data for each electronic board, indicating  
297 the number of defects found for each category.

298 During HRC assembly phase, information on the stress level of the operators was  
299 collected. Physiological data were measured with the Empatica E4 wristband (Empatica  
300 Srl, Milan, Italy), a non-invasive biosensor that records information on ElectroDermal  
301 Activity (EDA) at a frequency of 4 Hz (see Fig. 1). EDA is commonly used as an indicator of  
302 human stress response, being linked to Skin Conductance Response (SCR) [32]. In detail,

303 continuous signals of tonic and phasic activity constitute the EDA signal. Changes in Skin  
304 Conductance Level (SCL) are the best indicator of tonic activity, which is defined as long-  
305 term fluctuations in EDA that are not explicitly triggered by external stimuli. Instead,  
306 phasic activity describes brief variations in EDA triggered by stimuli typically recognized  
307 and presented externally. Skin Conductance Responses (SCRs), i.e., amplitude changes  
308 from the SCL, can therefore be detected by examining the phasic activity signal. In this  
309 research, the normalized peak amplitude of the SCR was employed as a metric for  
310 measuring the stress levels of operators during the HRC assembly of electronic boards.  
311 For each operator, the *Human stress response* can be defined as follows:

$$312 \quad \text{Human stress response} = \left[ \frac{\left( \frac{\sum_{w=1}^{N_p} a_w}{N_p} \right) - a_{min}}{a_{max} - a_{min}} \right] \cdot 100 \quad (2)$$

313 where  $a_w$  is the amplitude of the  $w$ -th SCR peak,  $N_p$  is the total number of SCR peaks  
314 during the assembly of a certain product variant,  $a_{min}$  and  $a_{max}$  are, respectively, the  
315 minimum and maximum amplitude of SCR peaks obtained during the assembly by each  
316 operator.

317 In this study, the EDA signal was analyzed using the online EDA Explorer software  
318 [45]. This software cleans the raw signal of any external noise and identifies peaks in the  
319 physiological signal. Fig. 3 shows an example of the software output. The trend of the  
320 physiological signal (expressed in  $\mu\text{S}$ ) is the blue line and the green vertical lines represent  
321 the peaks identified by the software. In addition, the amplitude of a generic peak ( $a_w$ ) is  
322 shown in red as an example. Furthermore, after assembly, data on perceived complexity



323 were acquired through questionnaires submitted to operators, as described in Section  
324 3.4.

325

### 326 **3.4 Perceived complexity assessment**

327 Complexity, a multifaceted concept that has been studied extensively and has  
328 various definitions and measurements depending on context and research goals, can be  
329 assessed objectively, based on inherent task characteristics, or subjectively, considering  
330 both task and performer characteristics [46].

331 This study proposes a complexity assessment framework based on the 16  
332 complexity criteria developed by Falck and Rosenqvist [47] and later adapted for  
333 industrial manufacturing sectors [48–50]. The complexity assessments were carried out  
334 in collaboration with the company's ergonomist and engineers in the manufacturing  
335 engineering department. In order to ensure easy and quick assembly of the products,  
336 Table 3 provides a brief description of each  $i$ -th criterion ( $i = 1, \dots, 16$ ), expressed for an  
337 easy and fast assembly [50]. For a more detailed description and guidelines for using these  
338 criteria in a practical setting, refer to the papers by Falck et al. [50,51].

339 For each product  $j$ , the importance of each criterion  $i$  was determined by asking  
340 each operator  $k$  to assign an importance score ( $I_{ijk}$ ) using a five-level ordinal scale (see  
341 Table 4), based on their perceived relevance for low product complexity. In addition, each  
342 operator was asked to indicate the level of agreement ( $V_{ijk}$ ) with each criterion  $i$  in relation  
343 to the assembled product  $j$ , using the five-level ordinal scale shown in Table 5.

344 To obtain an estimate of perceived complexity at the individual level, the study  
345 combined the operators' ratings of importance and level of agreement with the 16  
346 criteria. However, as the criteria were expressed using linguistic ordinal scales, a  
347 systematic method was required to process the data. To this end, the Multi-Expert Multi-  
348 Criteria Decision Making (ME-MCDM) method developed by Yager [52] was adopted as  
349 the synthesis approach.

350 ME-MCDM is a widely used method for aggregating individual operator  
351 evaluations to obtain an overall synthetic linguistic value [52]. It combines linguistic  
352 information provided for non-equally important criteria using maximum, minimum and  
353 negation operators. The logic behind the ME-MCDM method is that the impact of low-  
354 importance criteria on the overall aggregated value should be marginal, while high  
355 important criteria should have a significant impact on the definition of the aggregated  
356 evaluation. In the proposed approach, the perceived complexity of the assembly of a  
357 product  $j$  expressed by the operator  $k$  ( $PC_{jk}$ ) can be calculated using fuzzy logic as follows  
358 [53]:

$$359 \quad PC_{jk} = \text{Min}_i [\text{Max}\{Neg(I_{ijk}), V_{ijk}\}] \quad (3)$$

360 where  $Neg(L_x) = L_{t-x+1}$  is the negation of  $L_x$ , with  $L_x$  the  $x^{\text{th}}$  level of the scale and  $t$  the  
361 number of scale levels, i.e. 5 in this case. For instance,  $Neg(L_1) = L_5$  and  $Neg(L_2) = L_4$ .

362 The rating process for the perceived complexity of a product involves assigning  
363 values on a five-point ordinal scale, with the highest level representing low complexity  
364 and the lowest level representing high complexity. This scale is based on the criteria listed

365 in Table 3, which are considered to be low complexity criteria. Table 6 provides details on  
366 the five complexity levels used for individual perceived complexity assessment.

367 To illustrate how this scoring process works, consider a hypothetical product  $j$ , and  
368 an operator  $k$ , who scores all criteria as  $L_5$  – "Indispensable" for importance and  $L_5$  –  
369 "Totally agree" for agreement. According to the proposed aggregation method, this  
370 operator's individual perceived complexity  $PC_{jk}$  for product  $j$  would be  $L_5$  - "Low",  
371 meaning that the operator finds the product extremely simple and considers all criteria  
372 essential for a simple assembly. Conversely, if the operator rated all criteria importance  
373 as  $L_5$  – "Indispensable" and the level of agreement as  $L_1$  – "Totally disagree", then his  
374 individual perceived complexity would be  $L_1$  – "High". In this case, the operator considers  
375 the product to be extremely complex and considers all criteria to be essential for a simple  
376 assembly. In a different scenario, if the operator assigned  $L_1$  – "Totally disagree" for  
377 agreement degrees, but considers all the criteria to be negligible, resulting in  $L_1$  –  
378 "Negligible" for importance, the procedure leads to obtain  $L_5$  – "Low" for the individual  
379 perceived complexity.

380 Overall, the perceived complexity assessment process involves assigning  
381 importance and agreement values to specific criteria, which are then aggregated to  
382 determine the individual perceived complexity level of a product assembly.

383

384

385

### 386 3.5 Statistical analysis

387 The data gathered for the 6 electronic boards assembled by the 6 operators were  
388 collected in a matrix, one line for each product (i.e., 36 rows) with the observed  
389 parameters listed in columns. In detail, the parameters related to performance measures  
390 recorded in the columns were:

- 391 • Assembly time;
- 392 • Quality control time;
- 393 • In-process defects;
- 394 • Offline defects;
- 395 • Total defects;
- 396 • Human stress response (see Eq. (2)).

397 Furthermore, additional columns were created containing values related to  
398 perceived complexity assessment, as follows:

- 399 • Individual importance evaluations of each of the 16 criteria (as per Table 4);
- 400 • Individual agreement degree evaluations of each of the 16 criteria (as per Table  
401 5);
- 402 • Individual perceived complexity derived according to Eq. (3).

403 The primary statistical analysis consisted of calculating the main descriptive  
404 statistics for performance measures for each of the six assembled electronic boards (see  
405 Table 7 in next Section 4).

406 To evaluate if the 16 criteria selected for the analysis compose a suitable set to  
407 assess complexity, a pairwise correlation analysis between the evaluations on the  
408 agreement degrees provided by operators for each product ( $V_{ijk}$ ) was performed (see  
409 Table 9). Spearman correlation coefficient was adopted being the agreement degrees

410 expressed on ordinal scale, and the significance of the correlation was assessed by  
411 analyzing the  $p$ -values [54].

412 Then, a pairwise correlation analysis was performed to obtain a first indication of  
413 the relationships between the agreement degrees of the 16 complexity criteria and  
414 performance measures (as shown in Table 10).

415 Finally, to examine the relations between the individual perceived complexity  
416 values derived according to Eq. (3) and the performance measures (see Fig. 4), an Ordinal  
417 Logistic Regression (OLR) was adopted, as perceived complexity is an ordinal response  
418 defined using a linguistic scale [55]. The OLR is an ordinal regression model that can only  
419 be applied to data that meet the proportional odds assumption. The coefficients in the  
420 model are estimated using maximum likelihood, computed by using iteratively  
421 reweighted least squares [55]. To analyze and interpret the results of the OLR, two steps  
422 should be followed [54,56]. First, the  $p$ -value and coefficients are examined to analyze the  
423 association between the performance measures and individual perceived complexity. The  
424 coefficients are useful for determining whether a change in the predictor variable makes  
425 any of the events more or less likely, and the odds ratios are provided to compare the  
426 odds of two events. Secondly, the  $p$ -values for the Goodness-of-Fit Tests, and the  
427 measures of association are examined to determine how well the model fits the data.  
428 Values of measures of association, including the Somers' D, Goodman and Kruskal indices,  
429 and Kendall's index, close to 0 reveal that the model does not have predictive ability.  
430 Results of OLR are reported in Table 11, Table 12 and Fig. 5 of next Section 4.

431 All calculations were performed using the software MINITAB®.

432

#### 433 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

434 Descriptive statistics of performance measures considered in this study are listed  
435 in Table 7, separately for each electronic board assembled (Variant A – Variant F). An  
436 examination of the data reveals that as the complexity of the assembly increases, there is  
437 a tendency for performance measures to worsen as a negative impact on assembly time,  
438 quality control time, defects rates, and human stress response is encountered.  
439 Additionally, as the products move from simple to more complex (i.e., from Variant A –  
440 Variant F), the variability associated with performance measures tends to increase, as  
441 demonstrated by the increase in standard deviation in Table 7.

442 Table 8 presents the classification of in-process and offline defects obtained for  
443 each of the six assembled product variants, according to the classification provided in  
444 Section 3.3. An analysis of the data shows that in-process defects are more frequent  
445 compared to offline defects. Additionally, within the typology of in-process defects,  
446 "Wrong position" and "Part not taken" demonstrate the highest number of defects;  
447 whereas for offline defects, "Wrong position" is the most prevalent category. These  
448 findings suggest that the manufacturing process is likely facing more issues when the  
449 products are in-line rather than when they are inspected offline. Furthermore, the  
450 frequent occurrence of "Wrong position" both for in-process and offline defects highlights  
451 the need for efficient and accurate placement of parts during the assembly process.

452 Table 9 displays the results of the pairwise correlation analysis between the  
453 evaluations of the agreement degrees with the 16 criteria provided by operators for each  
454 product ( $V_{ijk}$ ). Only the lower triangular part of the matrix is shown in Table 9 because of  
455 the symmetry of the matrix. In detail, the Spearman correlation coefficients are reported  
456 and those that resulted statistically significant at 95% confidence level (thus with  $p$ -value  
457  $< 0.05$ ) are asterisked. Most statistically significant correlations are positive, showing that  
458 as the score on the degree of agreement of one criterion increases, the other also  
459 increases. For instance, Criterion 1 is moderately correlated with Criterion 2, as operators  
460 agree that few different ways of performing assembly are associated with few  
461 parts/components and details and few operations. On the other hand, only a few of the  
462 correlation coefficients in Table 9 are negative. For instance, there is a moderate negative  
463 correlation between Criterion 12 and 15 indicating that as operators concur with the fact  
464 that the structure is rigid and involves few flexible materials, they perceive a greater need  
465 for adjustments. Conversely, fewer adjustments and modifications are required during  
466 assembly if the structure incorporates soft and flexible materials. The results presented  
467 in Table 9 indicate that the highest correlation coefficient value is 0.731, and there are no  
468 correlations that approach a value of 1. Accordingly, it would not be appropriate to  
469 eliminate certain criteria as redundant when assessing individual perceived complexity.

470 Table 10 presents the results of the pairwise correlation analysis conducted to  
471 examine the associations between the agreement degree with the 16 complexity criteria  
472 and the data pertaining to performance measures. In detail, for each complexity criterion,

473 the evaluations on the agreement degree provided by the six operators for each of the six  
474 products (36 values) are correlated with the six performance measures. Spearman  
475 correlation coefficients statistically significant at 95% confidence level are asterisked.  
476 Almost all the values in Table 10 are negative because as the agreement with the low-  
477 complexity criteria increases, operators concur that the product is simple. Therefore, the  
478 simpler the product, the less assembly time, quality control time, defects and stress are.  
479 The results indicate a moderate to strong correlation between several of the complexity  
480 criteria and performance measures. It should be noted that some criteria do not show a  
481 significant correlation with the performance measures (see for example Criteria 9-13 and  
482 Criterion 15). However, many of the correlation coefficients have a  $p$ -value very close to  
483 the significance level.

484 The correlation coefficients and the asterisks on significant correlation in Table 10  
485 help to identify which criteria have a high degree of correlation with performance  
486 measures, providing valuable information to optimize process and design. For example,  
487 assembly time, in-process defects, total defects and human stress response are highly  
488 correlated with Criterion 2, indicating that few parts, details, and operations lead to low  
489 values of those performance measures. Thus, this information can be used to support  
490 decisions towards the design of products or subassemblies with fewer parts, details, and  
491 operations in order to decrease assembly time, defects and human stress.

492 In addition, Table 10 shows no significant correlations between the agreement  
493 degrees with complexity criteria and both quality control time and offline defects.



494 Although these are performance measures of the production process, they appear to be  
495 independent of the operators' perception of the process complexity. This suggests that  
496 factors other than the complexity perception of the operators may have more impact on  
497 quality control time and offline defects. Further research will be needed to understand  
498 the underlying causes of these measures and how they can be improved.

499 The individual perceived complexity values derived according to Eq. (3) by the ME-  
500 MCDM method were obtained by considering both importance of the 16 criteria and the  
501 agreement degrees with the criteria as per Section 3.4. The obtained values range from  
502 "High" to "Rather low", according to the classification provided in Table 5. Accordingly, no  
503 operator considered the assembled products to be extremely simple. Fig. 4 illustrates the  
504 obtained perceived complexity values and the performance measures for the six product  
505 variants. It should be noted that there is a significant amount of variability in the data  
506 shown in Fig. 4. This variability is typical of data obtained through self-reported measures  
507 such as interviews and questionnaires and should be considered when interpreting the  
508 results of this study.

509 OLR is adopted to model the relationship between quality performances and  
510 obtained perceived complexity. In Table 11, the logistic regression table for assembly time  
511 is provided [56].

512 In summary, the results of the analysis presented in Table 11 suggest that there is  
513 a statistically significant association between perceived complexity and assembly time  
514 since the  $p$ -value associated with the predictor is less than the significance level of 5%,

515 and also since the  $p$ -value for the test that all slopes are zero is less than 0.05. The odds  
516 ratio of 1.19 indicates that operators are more likely to perceive products as more  
517 complex as assembly time increases. The positive coefficient associated with assembly  
518 time also confirms this result. In addition, the  $p$ -value of goodness-of-fit test is greater  
519 than 0.05, not providing evidence that the model is inadequate. Overall, this suggests that  
520 changes in assembly time are associated with changes in the probabilities of occurrence  
521 of the different levels of perceived complexity, as represented in Fig. 5. The data suggests  
522 that as assembly time decreases, the probability of the operator perceiving the assembly  
523 as "Moderate" or "Rather low" in complexity increases, while an increase in assembly  
524 time leads to an increased probability of the assembly being perceived as "High" or  
525 "Rather high". However, the last data point at the maximum assembly time for "Rather  
526 high" complexity deviates from this trend; further research is needed to determine the  
527 specific cause of this anomaly, as it could be due to operator variability, other factors  
528 affecting complexity perception, an outlier data point, or a combination of these factors.

529         Considering the measures of association reported in Table 12, high values of  
530 Somers' D, Goodman-Kruskal gamma, and Kendall's tau-a indicate that the model has  
531 good predictive ability [56]. These measures are obtained from the number of  
532 concordant, discordant and tied pairs, which are calculated by forming all possible pairs  
533 of observations (i.e. assembly time values) with the different levels of individual perceived  
534 complexity. For the present case study, 459 total pairs were obtained, since 4 operators

535 perceived the assembly complexity as “High”, 13 as “Rather high”, 12 as “Moderate” and  
536 7 as “Rather low”.

537         Regarding the other performance measures, the association between perceived  
538 complexity and in-process defects, total defects and human stress response resulted to  
539 be statistically significant. Tables and figures reporting the results of OLR for such  
540 performance measures are given in the Appendix (see Tables A1-A6 and Fig. A1-A3).  
541 Conversely, the association with quality control time and offline defects was found to be  
542 not statistically significant, which is consistent with the results of previous correlation  
543 analyses (see Table 10).

544

## 545 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

546         In today's market, manufacturers are required to produce high-value-added  
547 products that meet customer demands and expectations at a competitive price while also  
548 complying with sustainability requirements. One approach to achieving mass  
549 customization is the use of flexible assembly systems that utilize collaborative robots, or  
550 "cobots," which can offer increased productivity and cost savings. However, the use of  
551 human-robot collaboration in assembly tasks can be impacted by the complexity of the  
552 assembly.

553         This paper focused on the impact of perceived complexity on the performance  
554 measures of human-robot collaboration in assembly tasks. To investigate this issue, the  
555 study used a sample of skilled operators to conduct assembly of six variants of electronic

556 boards with different levels of complexity. Performance measures, including assembly  
557 times, quality control times, in-process defects, offline product defects, total  
558 defectiveness and human stress response during assembly, were collected and analyzed.  
559 Furthermore, evaluations on the agreement degrees with 16 complexity criteria and their  
560 importance provided by the operators for each product were gathered to assess  
561 individual perceived complexity. Statistical analysis was conducted on the collected data  
562 to quantify the effects of perceived complexity on the HRC performance measures.

563         The main findings of the present paper are that as complexity perception  
564 increases, performance measures tend to worsen, with a negative impact on assembly  
565 time, quality control time, in-process defects and human stress response. Furthermore,  
566 for the considered electronic product variants, defects that occurred in-process were  
567 more frequent compared to defects detected offline during the quality inspection. The  
568 study also showed which complexity criteria are statistically significantly associated with  
569 the performance measures, thus providing practical recommendations for engineers to  
570 consider when designing processes that focus on reducing perceived complexity and  
571 improving overall performance measures. It is important to note that, according to these  
572 findings, by reducing perceived complexity, not only the human operators will feel more  
573 comfortable with the task but also the process will be more efficient and less error-prone,  
574 leading to an increase in productivity and a reduction in costs. Finally, the study highlights  
575 that there is no significant association between perceived complexity and the quality  
576 control time and the offline defects, indicating that these measures of performance of the

577 production process appear to be independent of the perception that operators have of  
578 the complexity of the assembly process. This information is important for engineers to  
579 consider in designing and implementing HRC systems as it suggests that a reduction in  
580 perceived complexity may not necessarily result in improvements in these specific  
581 performance measures. Further studies will need to be conducted to fully understand the  
582 underlying reasons and identify potential strategies for improving performance measures  
583 related to offline quality control in the HRC assembly process.

584 The main innovative aspect of this paper is that it considers multiple performance  
585 measures linked to both the production and the quality control process, also taking into  
586 account human factors such as the operator's perceived stress. By evaluating these  
587 measures, this approach allows for a holistic examination of the relationship between  
588 perceived complexity and performance, which can provide valuable insights and  
589 recommendations for manufacturers to optimize processes and improve performance.

590 This study has some limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the cobot's  
591 involvement in the study was primarily focused on performing pick-and-place operations,  
592 which are relatively simple tasks. As a result, the effect of perceived complexity on the  
593 cobot's performance and its potential interaction with the perceived complexity of the  
594 human operator was not fully explored. Future research should aim to explore different  
595 modes of human-robot collaboration, including scenarios where the cobot performs  
596 more complex tasks while humans provide support and make key decisions. By  
597 considering a broader range of collaboration modes, a more comprehensive

598 understanding of the effects of perceived complexity on HRC performance can be  
599 achieved.

600 Secondly, the results are based on a specific set of electronic board variants and  
601 the subjective concept of perceived complexity may vary among individual operators.  
602 Thus, caution is needed when generalizing the findings to other HRC assembly systems.  
603 Nonetheless, the study's holistic approach provides practical recommendations for  
604 designers and implementers to optimize system performance by considering the  
605 subjective perception of complexity by operators. Further research is needed to validate  
606 the findings in different contexts and with larger sample sizes to ensure greater statistical  
607 power and generalizability.

608 Additionally, although randomizing the order of the six product variants during  
609 assembly helped increase internal validity by minimizing learning effects, the  
610 manufacturing sequence was not explicitly controlled. Future research should address  
611 this limitation by implementing more systematic control over the manufacturing  
612 sequence, and by investigating learning effects and their relationship with randomization  
613 in more detail.

614 Finally, based on the derived findings, future work could focus on developing  
615 strategies to mitigate the negative effects of perceived complexity on performance  
616 measures. One potential approach could be to implement training programs for operators  
617 to improve their ability to manage complex product variants. Additionally, improving the

618 design of the assembly process, such as using ergonomic fixtures or improving layout [57],  
619 could reduce the complexity of the assembly task and improve performance.

620

621 **NOMENCLATURE**

HRC	Human-Robot Collaboration
UR3e	Cobot produced by Universal Robots™
RG6	Gripper produced by OnRobot™
$C_1$	Complexity of product components
$C_2$	Complexity of assembly connections/liaisons
$C_3$	Complexity of product architecture
$C$	Product variants' total complexity
EDA	ElectroDermal Activity
SCR	Skin Conductance Response
SCL	Skin Conductance Level
$a_w$	Amplitude of the $w$ -th SCR peak
$N_p$	Total number of SCR peaks
$a_{min}$	Minimum amplitude of SRC peaks
$a_{max}$	Maximum amplitude of SRC peaks
$i$	Criteria ( $i = 1, \dots, 16$ )

$j$	Products ( $j = 1, \dots, 6$ )
$k$	Operators ( $k = 1, \dots, 6$ )
$I_{ijk}$	Importance of criterion $i$ , for product $j$ given by operator $k$
$V_{ijk}$	Degree of agreement of operator $k$ , for product $j$ on the criterion $i$
ME-MCDM	Multi Expert-Multi Criteria Decision Making
$PC_{jk}$	Perceived complexity by the operator $k$ for product $j$
$L_x$	$x^{\text{th}}$ level of the scale ( $x = 1, \dots, 5$ )
Neg( $L_x$ )	Negation of $L_x$
OLR	Ordinal Logistic Regression

622

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### Figure Caption List

- Fig. 1 Collaborative assembly workstation showing the single-armed cobot UR3e (Universal Robots™) with the RG6 gripper (OnRobot™), and product components assembled by an operator wearing the Empatica E4 wristband
- Fig. 2 Example of assembled electronic boards: (a) Variant A, (b) Variant C, (c) Variant F
- Fig. 3 Example of EDA signal processed with EDA Explorer
- Fig. 4 Scatterplot of individual perceived complexity versus performance measures for the six product variants
- Fig. 5 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of Assembly time
- Fig. A1 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of In-process defects
- Fig. A2 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of Total defects
- Fig. A3 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of Human stress response

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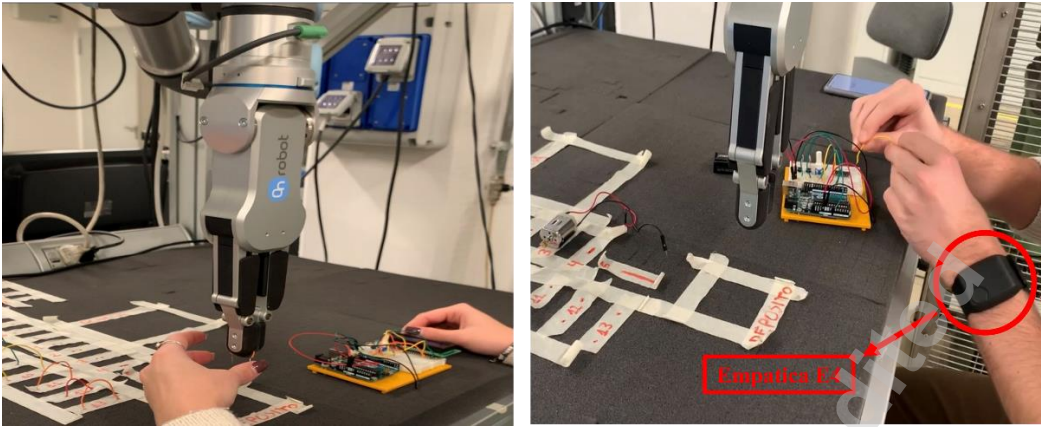
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**Table Caption List**

Table 1	Cobot and gripper parameters used in the HRC assembly
Table 2	Characteristics of the six assembled electronic boards
Table 3	Complexity criteria of assembly, adapted from Falck et al. [20] to suit the electronic platform assembly
Table 4	Scale levels and semantic meanings for assessing product low-complexity criteria importance ( $I_{ijk}$ )
Table 5	Scale levels and semantic meanings for assessing agreement degree with low-complexity criteria ( $V_{ijk}$ )
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Fig. 1 Collaborative assembly workstation showing the single-armed cobot UR3e (Universal Robots™) with the RG6 gripper (OnRobot™), and product components assembled by an operator wearing the Empatica E4 wristband

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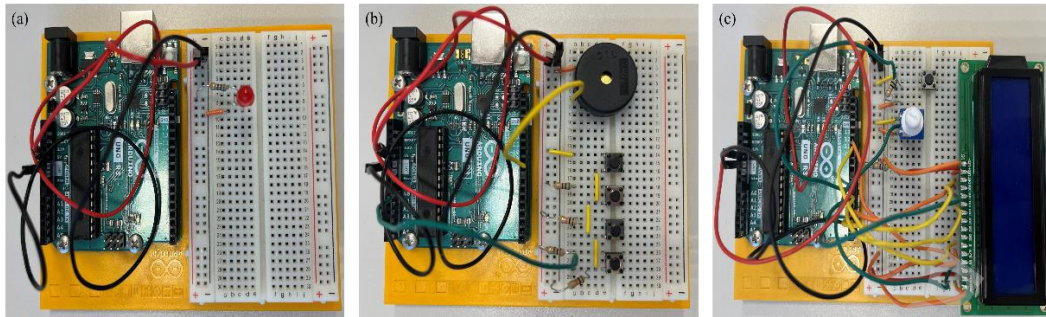
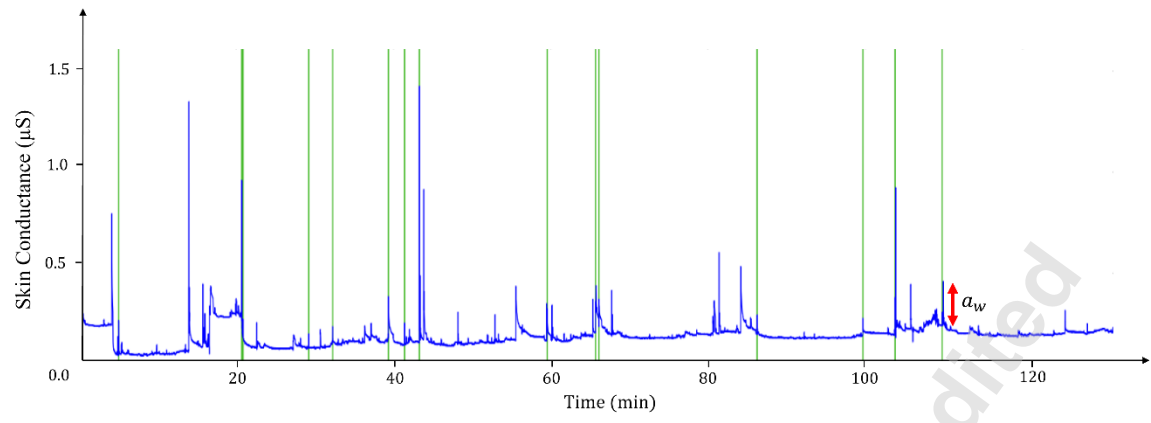


Fig. 2 Example of assembled electronic boards: (a) Variant A, (b) Variant C, (c) Variant F

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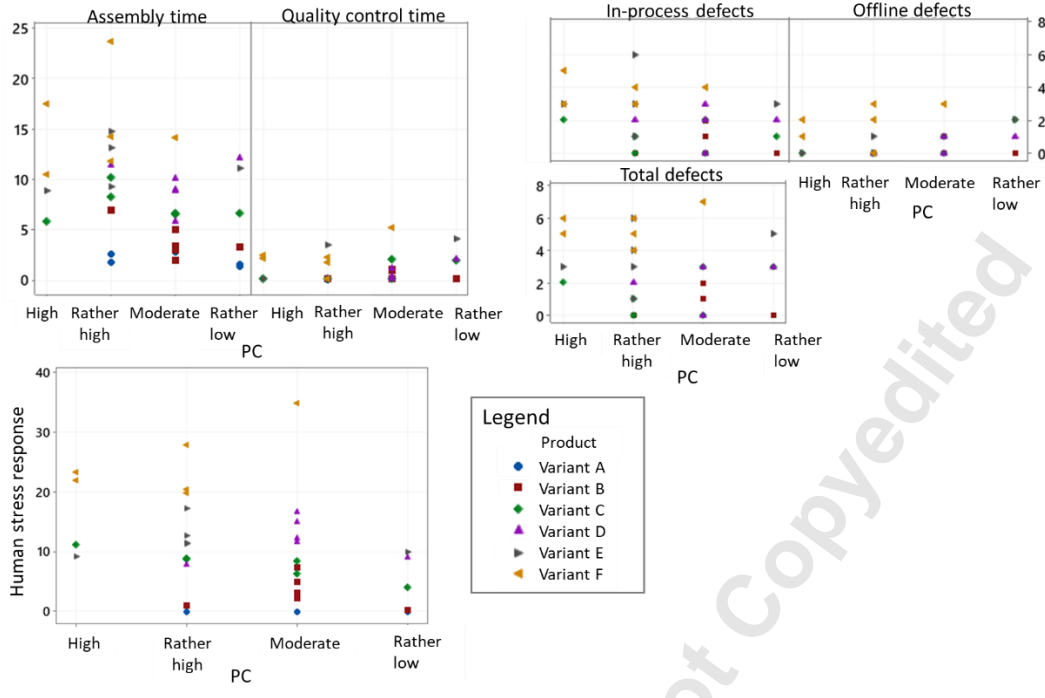
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Fig. 3 Example of EDA signal processed with EDA Explorer

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Fig. 4 Scatterplot of individual perceived complexity versus performance measures for the six product variants

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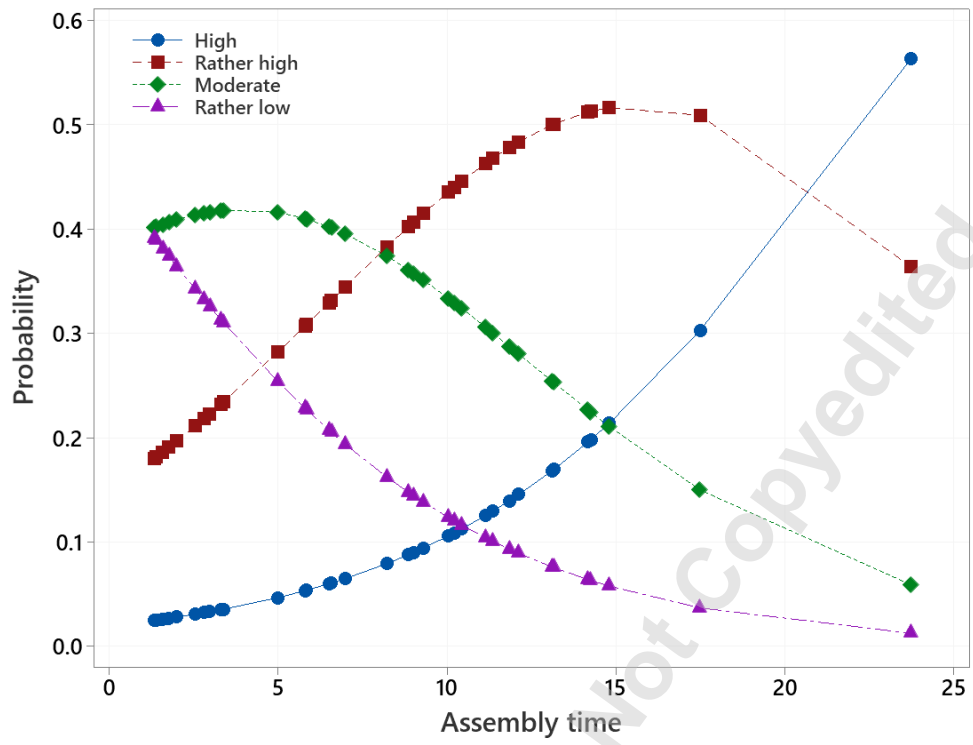
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Fig. 5 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of Assembly time

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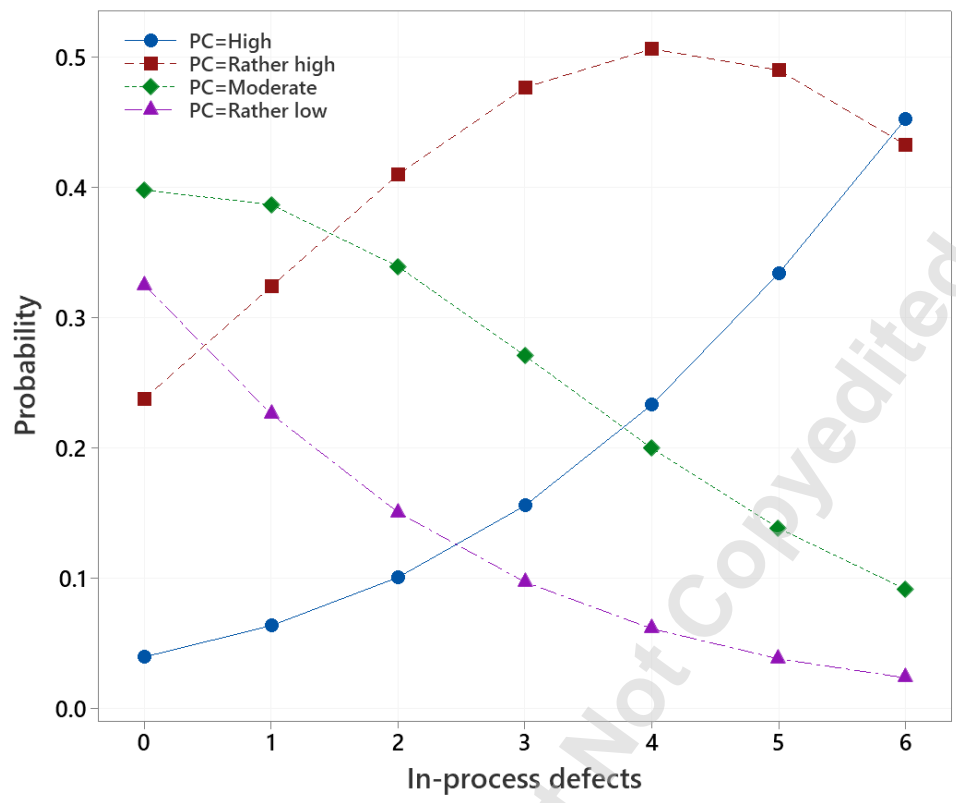
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Fig. A1 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of In-process defects

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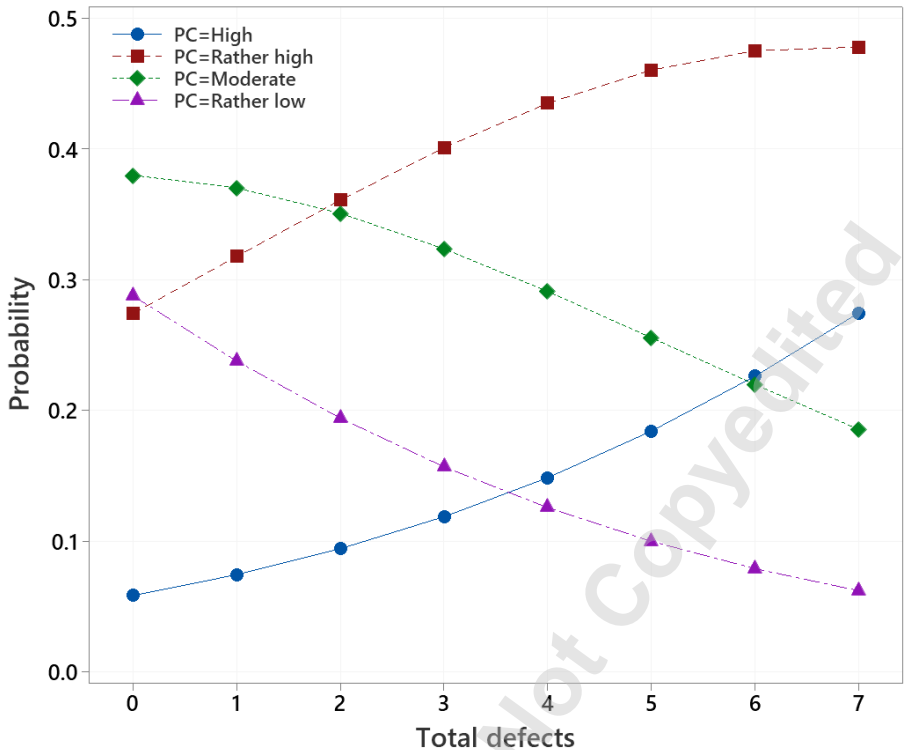
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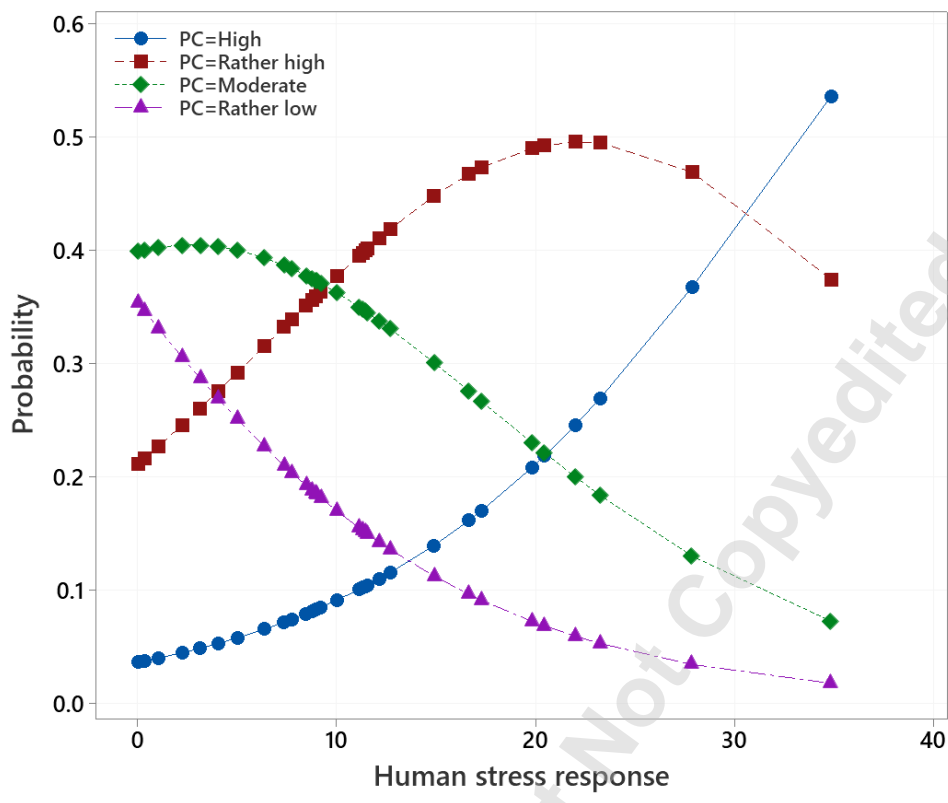
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Fig. A2 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of Total defects

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Fig. A3 Probability of occurrence of the levels of individual perceived complexity as a function of Human stress

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Table 1 Cobot and gripper parameters used in the HRC assembly

	Cobot	Gripper
Joint speed [ $^{\circ}/s$ ]	200	-
Joint acceleration [ $^{\circ}/s^2$ ]	200	-
Linear speed [mm/s]	200	-
Linear acceleration [mm/s $^2$ ]	200	-
Distance [mm]	-	16
Force [N]	-	80

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Table 2 Characteristics of the six assembled electronic boards

	Variant A	Variant B	Variant C	Variant D	Variant E	Variant F
Long wires	-	1	2	8	9	13
Short wires	1	3	5	3	6	4
Resistors	1	1	4	6	2	2
Pushbuttons	-	2	4	-	2	1
LED	1	1	-	1	-	-
Phototransistor	-	-	-	3	-	-
Potentiometer	-	-	-	-	1	1
Piezo	-	-	1	-	-	-
LCD	-	-	-	-	-	1
Battery snap	-	-	-	-	1	-
DC Motor	-	-	-	-	1	-
H-bridge	-	-	-	-	1	-
N° of parts	3	8	16	21	23	22
$C_1$	1.39	2.87	5.10	6.35	7.25	6.72
$C_2$	2.98	5.44	13.84	14.58	21.79	26.02
$C_3$	0.94	0.90	0.90	0.93	0.83	0.84
$C$	4.20	7.77	17.51	19.95	25.35	28.61

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Table 3 Complexity criteria of assembly, adapted from Falck et al. [47] to suit the electronic platform assembly

Criterion i	Assembly low-complexity criterion	Description
1	Few different ways to perform assembly.	Complexity is high if the parts can be assembled/executed correctly in different ways. Otherwise, complexity is low if there is a standardized (accepted) way to perform the task.
2	Few parts/components and details and few operations.	If there are few details to assemble, a small number of operations on the parts, pre-assembly and module creation (integrated assembly), the complexity is low. Otherwise, complexity is high if there are many details and partial operations.
3	Quick and easy operations (no time demanding operations).	Complexity is low if the solutions are easy and quick to assemble (not time-consuming). Otherwise, if there are time-consuming operations, the complexity is high.
4	Clear assembly location of parts/components (immediate understanding of where to place parts within the structure).	If the assembly position of parts and components is clear, the complexity is low, otherwise it is high.
5	Good accessibility to the structure during assembly.	If the accessibility to the structure is good (i.e., sufficient for hands/tools), the complexity is low, otherwise it is high.
6	Fully visible operations (operations do not require orientation of the assembly for better visibility).	If the assembly involves visible operations (i.e., in the field of view when looking directly at the structure), the complexity is low, otherwise it is high.
7	Ergonomically easy handling of the structure.	If there are good ergonomic conditions, the complexity is low, otherwise it is high.
8	Operator-independent operations that do not require much experience to be performed correctly.	If additional training (specialized knowledge) is required beyond the common introductory sessions, then the complexity is high. If the operations do not require additional training, then the complexity is low.
9	Operations do not have to be performed in a certain order.	If the operations can be performed without following a specific order, that is, they are independent of the order of assembly, the complexity is low. Otherwise, complexity is high if the operations must be performed in a certain order/sequence to complete the assembly correctly.
10	Unnecessary intermediate visual checks during assembly to assess the quality and correctness of the structure.	If no intermediate checks are required during assembly to assess the quality and correctness of the structure, the complexity is low. Otherwise, complexity is high if visual checks, i.e., careful subjective assessment of quality, are required.
11	Operations require little precision, accuracy and attention.	If operations do not require precision and accurate assembly is not necessary, the complexity is low.
12	No need for adjustments and corrections (due to errors or inaccuracies) during assembly.	The complexity is low if no adjustments are needed due to errors or inaccuracies. Otherwise, the complexity is high.
13	Easy to assemble and self-position parts/components that can be controlled in three dimensions: X, Y, Z.	If the surrounding environment varies, where the parts and components will be assembled, or if the detail to be placed depends on the surrounding components, then the complexity is high. Examples of when the geometric environment is varied are: several holes must overlap, components not joined, and components moving relative to each other.
14	No detailed instructions are needed and the operator can proceed intuitively.	If no detailed instructions are required, i.e., the operator can proceed intuitively to make the assemblies, the complexity is low. Otherwise, the complexity is high.
15	The structure does not involve soft and flexible materials (i.e., it is form-resistant).	Complexity is low if the components are rigid and compact and do not change size or deform during assembly. If the structure involves assembling soft and flexible materials, complexity is high.
16	There is immediate feedback on correct assembly (e.g., with a clear click and/or compliance with reference points).	Complexity is low if there is immediate feedback of correct assembly, such as through a clear clicking sound and/or adherence to reference points. Otherwise, the complexity is high.

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Table 4 Scale levels and semantic meanings for assessing product low-complexity criteria importance ( $I_{ijk}$ )

Scale level	Importance
$L_1$	Negligible
$L_2$	Preferable
$L_3$	Important
$L_4$	Very important
$L_5$	Indispensable

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Table 5 Scale levels and semantic meanings for assessing agreement degree with low-complexity criteria

$(V_{ijk})$

Scale level	Importance
$L_1$	Totally disagree
$L_2$	Disagree
$L_3$	Relatively agree
$L_4$	Agree
$L_5$	Totally agree

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Table 6 Scale levels and semantic meanings for the assessment of perceived complexity ( $PC_{jk}$ )

Scale level	Perceived complexity
$L_1$	High
$L_2$	Rather high
$L_3$	Moderate
$L_4$	Rather low
$L_5$	Low

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Table 7 Descriptive statistics of performance measures of the six products assembled

Performance measure	Product	Mean	St. dev.	Min	Max
Assembly time [min]	Variant A	1.889	0.627	1.317	2.800
	Variant B	3.928	1.776	1.983	6.967
	Variant C	7.314	1.620	5.833	10.200
	Variant D	9.522	2.238	5.783	12.117
	Variant E	11.719	2.364	8.850	14.800
	Variant F	15.320	4.770	10.430	23.730
Quality control time [min]	Variant A	0.125	0.061	0.000	0.150
	Variant B	0.431	0.436	0.150	1.050
	Variant C	0.769	0.961	0.150	2.083
	Variant D	0.656	0.791	0.150	2.083
	Variant E	1.356	1.875	0.150	4.033
	Variant F	2.308	1.633	0.150	5.183
In-process defects [-]	Variant A	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Variant B	0.667	0.816	0.000	2.000
	Variant C	1.000	0.894	0.000	2.000
	Variant D	1.833	0.983	0.000	3.000
	Variant E	3.167	1.602	1.000	6.000
	Variant F	3.667	0.816	3.000	5.000
Offline defects [-]	Variant A	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Variant B	0.333	0.516	0.000	1.000
	Variant C	0.500	0.837	0.000	2.000
	Variant D	0.500	0.548	0.000	1.000
	Variant E	0.500	0.837	0.000	2.000
	Variant F	1.833	1.169	0.000	3.000
Total defects [-]	Variant A	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Variant B	1.000	0.894	0.000	2.000
	Variant C	1.500	1.378	0.000	3.000
	Variant D	2.333	1.211	0.000	3.000
	Variant E	3.667	1.751	1.000	6.000
	Variant F	5.500	1.049	4.000	7.000
Human stress response [%]	Variant A	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Variant B	3.180	2.620	0.330	7.350
	Variant C	7.941	2.447	4.021	11.124
	Variant D	12.00	3.390	7.750	16.650
	Variant E	11.99	2.870	9.210	17.310
	Variant F	24.72	5.740	19.840	34.870

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Table 8 Classification of in-process (In) and offline (Off) defects for the six assembled products

Product	Wrong part		Wrong position		Part not taken		Slipped part		Defective part		Incorrectly inserted part	
	In	Off	In	Off	In	Off	In	Off	In	Off	In	Off
Variant A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant B	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Variant C	0	0	5	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Variant D	0	0	4	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
Variant E	0	0	6	3	11	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Variant F	0	0	11	11	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Total	0	0	27	20	31	0	2	0	0	0	4	2

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996 Table 9 Correlation matrix with Spearman correlation coefficients between the agreement degree with the 16 complexity criteria for the six products assembled

Criterion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1																
2	0.660*															
3	0.446*	0.575*														
4	0.616*	0.576*	0.467*													
5	0.600*	0.489*	0.465*	0.637*												
6	0.559*	0.526*	0.379*	0.730*	0.731*											
7	0.192	0.345*	0.594*	0.420*	0.249	0.400*										
8	0.301	0.205	0.477*	0.446*	0.231	0.295	0.718*									
9	0.240	0.074	-0.080	0.201	0.344*	0.343*	-0.154	-0.138								
10	0.501*	0.265	0.168	0.417*	0.491*	0.577*	0.068	0.173	0.673*							
11	0.085	0.286	0.025	0.259	0.318	0.442*	-0.228	-0.433*	0.500*	0.507*						
12	0.516*	0.307	0.252	0.320	0.487*	0.503*	0.093	0.313	0.614*	0.793*	0.277					
13	0.275	0.276	0.496*	0.535*	0.272	0.416*	0.646*	0.633*	0.011	0.325	-0.019	0.212				
14	-0.113	-0.017	0.187	-0.136	0.139	0.072	0.086	-0.163	-0.294	-0.191	0.225	-0.243	0.015			
15	-0.380*	-0.117	0.004	-0.081	-0.034	-0.022	0.139	-0.161	-0.563*	-0.565*	-0.106	-0.619*	-0.072	0.493*		
16	0.682*	0.486*	0.320	0.620*	0.529*	0.518*	0.437*	0.460*	0.139	0.448*	-0.010	0.441*	0.337*	-0.173	-0.211	

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998 Table 10 Spearman correlation coefficients between the agreement degree with the 16 complexity criteria for the six  
 999 products assembled and the performance measures

Criterion	Assembly time	Quality control time	In-process defects	Offline defects	Total defects	Human stress response
1	-0.354*	-0.073	-0.353*	-0.107	-0.333*	-0.473*
2	-0.663*	-0.183	-0.663*	-0.129	-0.579*	-0.714*
3	-0.533*	-0.184	-0.571*	-0.150	-0.509*	-0.579*
4	-0.252	-0.108	-0.420*	-0.100	-0.366*	-0.552*
5	-0.358*	-0.067	-0.427*	-0.107	-0.389*	-0.503*
6	-0.304	-0.073	-0.302	-0.088	-0.277	-0.465*
7	-0.222	-0.209	-0.489*	-0.157	-0.451*	-0.415*
8	0.027	-0.167	-0.355*	-0.082	-0.332*	-0.225
9	-0.017	-0.019	0.142	-0.044	0.099	-0.013
10	-0.049	0.087	-0.021	0.067	0.013	-0.064
11	-0.310	0.071	0.002	0.051	0.048	-0.186
12	-0.208	-0.159	-0.160	-0.129	-0.190	-0.238
13	-0.033	-0.130	-0.258	-0.122	-0.238	-0.277
14	-0.352*	-0.045	-0.215	-0.120	-0.196	-0.212
15	-0.106	0.007	-0.252	-0.003	-0.193	-0.153
16	-0.248	-0.164	-0.446*	-0.172	-0.440*	-0.435*

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Table 11 Logistic regression table for Assembly time. Goodness-of-Fit test  $p$ -value=0.905

Predictor	Coef.	SE Coef.	$p$ -value	Odds Ratio	95% confidence interval	
					Lower	Upper
Const(1)	-3.87808	0.924815	0.000			
Const(1)	-1.57885	0.659122	0.017			
Const(3)	0.208728	0.620473	0.737			
Assembly time	0.174226	0.0671240	0.009	1.19	1.04	1.36

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Table 12 Measures of association between assembly time and predicted probabilities

Pairs	Number	Percent	Summary Measures	
Concordant	323	70.4	Somers' D	0.42
Discordant	132	28.8	Goodman-Kruskal Gamma	0.42
Ties	4	0.9	Kendall's Tau-a	0.30
Total	459	100.0		0.42

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Table A1 Logistic regression table for In-process defects. Goodness-of-Fit test  $p$ -value=0.908

Predictor	Coef.	SE Coef.	$p$ -value	Odds Ratio	95% confidence interval	
					Lower	Upper
Const( $L_1$ )	-3.19119	0.756213	0.000			
Const( $L_2$ )	-0.958176	0.501900	0.056			
Const( $L_3$ )	0.731504	0.503596	0.146			
In-process defects	0.500009	0.210153	0.017	1.65	1.09	2.49

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Table A2 Measures of association between In-process defects and predicted probabilities

Pairs	Number	Percent	Summary Measures	
Concordant	263	57.3	Somers' D	0.35
Discordant	103	22.4	Goodman-Kruskal Gamma	0.44
Ties	93	20.3	Kendall's Tau-a	0.25
Total	459	100.0		

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Table A3 Logistic regression table for Total defects. Goodness-of-Fit test  $p$ -value=0.493

Predictor	Coef.	SE Coef.	$p$ -value	Odds Ratio	95% confidence interval	
					Lower	Upper
Const(1)	-2.78027	0.700359	0.000			
Const(1)	-0.696589	0.490750	0.156			
Const(3)	0.907236	0.511736	0.076			
Total defects	0.258386	0.150963	0.087	1.29	0.96	1.74

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Table A4 Measures of association between Total defects and predicted probabilities

Pairs	Number	Percent	Summary Measures	
Concordant	249	54.2	Somers' D	0.25
Discordant	135	29.4	Goodman-Kruskal Gamma	0.30
Ties	75	16.3	Kendall's Tau-a	0.18
Total	459	100.0		

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Table A5 Logistic regression table for Human stress response. Goodness-of-Fit test  $p$ -value=0.855

Predictor	Coef.	SE Coef.	$p$ -value	Odds Ratio	95% confidence interval	
					Lower	Upper
Const(1)	-3.28926	0.786844	0.000			
Const(1)	-1.11447	0.527668	0.035			
Const(3)	0.602590	0.522103	0.248			
Human stress response	0.0984811	0.0400084	0.014	1.10	1.02	1.19

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Table A6 Measures of association between Human stress response and predicted probabilities

Pairs	Number	Percent	Summary Measures	
Concordant	318	69.3	Somers' D	0.41
Discordant	129	28.1	Goodman-Kruskal Gamma	0.42
Ties	12	2.6	Kendall's Tau-a	0.30
Total	459	100.0		

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