

國立交通大學  
工業工程與管理學系

碩士論文

半導體雙廠區產能相互支援的途程規劃



Route Planning for Two Wafer Fabs with Capacity  
Sharing Mechanisms

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中華民國九十六年六月

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## 中文摘要

半導體產業是資本密集的產業。設備的成本非常昂貴。為了迅速對市場需求的熱烈作回應，一般半導體公司通常在擴大產能能力上採取一個雙廠區的策略。本篇論文針對雙廠區的途程規劃問題提出一種方法來求解此問題。途程規劃問題可以包含兩部份：途程的切割點決策以及途程的生產比例決策，其目標是在一目標生產週期時間下產出最大化。本研究利用 LP-GA 的方法來求解此問題。我們首先利用線性規劃模組來決定途程切割點，然後用基因演算法來求得各途程的生產比例解。結果顯示 LP-GA 方法明顯比其他方法好。

關鍵字：雙廠區、跨廠、途程規劃、產出、產能支援

# Route Planning for Two Wafer Fabs with Capacity Sharing Mechanisms

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## Abstract

Semiconductor manufacturing is a capially intensive industry. The cost of equipment is very expensive. In order to quickly respond to market demand booming, a semiconductor company usually adopts a *dual-fab* strategy in expanding capacity. This paper presents an approach to solve the route planning problem for a semiconductor dual-fab. The route planning problem involves two decisions—determining the cutoff point and route ratio for each product—in order to maximize the throughput subject a cycle time constraint. An *LP-GA* method is proposed to solve the route planning problem. We first use the LP module to make the cutoff point decisions, and proceed to use the GA module for making the decision of route ratio. Results show that the *LP-GA* method significantly outperforms the other methods.

Keywords : dual-fab 、 cross-fab 、 route planning 、 throughput 、 capacity support

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## Chapter 1 Introduction

Semiconductor manufacturing is a capital intensive industry. The cost of equipment is very expensive. A typical 12 inch wafer fab costs about two billion dollars; over 80% of the expense is for equipment. The lead time for the acquisition of equipment is quite long, ranging from 3 to 9 months. In contrast, building factory space is relatively low in expense but with a much longer lead time—taking about one to two years.

In order to quickly respond to market demand booming, a semiconductor company usually adopts a *dual-fab* strategy in expanding capacity. That is, a large-scale factory space which could accommodate two fabs is established in advance. Then, equipments for the two fabs are gradually moved into the space according to the market demand trace over time. Finally, the semiconductor company has two fabs, which are in operation and close to each other in location.

With such a dual-fab configuration, a relatively easy way to manage a fab is manufacturing each wafer job within a particular fab. That is, each fab is run separately, without any mutual support in capacity. Such a separate-operation paradigm would usually lead to the underutilization of equipment. To remedy the underutilization issue, a *cross-fab production* paradigm is proposed. That is, a wafer job is partly manufactured in one fab and partly manufactured in the other fab.

This cross-fab production paradigm yields a route planning problem—how to appropriately assign the operations of a wafer job to each of the two fabs. Only a few studies on such a route planning problem have been published. Toba et al. (2005) addressed the route planning problem in a real-time manner. Whenever an operation of a job is completed, a decision—which fab to manufacture the next operation—must be immediately made. Wu and Chang (2006) investigated the route planning problem

in a short-term or weekly manner. The two fabs exchange capacity weekly to maximize the total throughput.

Though having established significant milestones, these two prior studies have some limitations due to make an implicit assumption. They both assumed that the transportation times within a fab or among fabs are a constant. This implies that the transportation capacity is infinite, and the proposed capacity planning engine may yield too much transportation. This may lead to traffic jam and as a result may lower the throughput and lengthen the cycle time.

In semiconductor manufacturing, the wafer size has steadily increased over time. In an up-to-date fab (12 inch wafer fab), wafer jobs must be transported by automatic vehicles because a wafer job weighs about 30 Kg and cannot be handled manually. This may yield a traffic jam problem because the transportation capacity is limited. Our interview with practitioners indicates that the traffic jam symptom would occur, in particular for a dual-fab layout. Therefore, transportation capacity has to be considered in the route planning problem for an up-to-date fab.

This research investigates the route planning problem for a dual-fab layout and is unique in two-fold. First, we assume that the transportation capacity is finite and the transportation times would vary. Second, the route planning decision is made based on a relatively longer time horizon—for example, one or several months. This research—focusing on longer time horizon complements prior studies which focused on either short-term or immediate decisions on route planning.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes literature relevant to this research. Section 3 presents the route planning problem in detail. Section 4 described the proposed solution method. Numerical experiments are discussed in Section 5 and concluding remarks are in the last section.

## Chapter 2 Relevant Literature

Given a customer demand, there may exist more than one manufacturing sites to fulfill the demand. A decision problem is how to allocate the demand to each manufacturing site. This capacity allocation problem can be addressed either in product level or in operation level. For the problem in the product level, each site is designated to manufacture a set of products. This implies that a product should be completely manufactured within a single site—cross-site production is prohibited. While in the operation level, each site is designated to manufacture a group of operations. Then, the operations for manufacturing a product could be distributed among different sites—cross-site production is allowed. This leads to the need for studying the *route-planning problem* among different sites.

For the capacity allocation problem—*without cross-site routes*, Wu et al. (2005) have given a comprehensive survey. The multiple manufacturing sites may be governed by a single company (Frederix 2001) or by different companies (Rupp & Ristic 2000), (Karabuk & Wu 2003), (Lee et al. 2006). Linear programming (LP) models are typically formulated to solve the problems (Manmohan 2005). To address the interactions among manufacturing sites, Game theory was proposed to enhance the LP models (Wu et al. 2005).

For the capacity allocation problem—*with cross-site routes*, most studies were addressed in the context of group technology (GT). That is, each site is a manufacturing cell and multiple cells form a factory. Cross-cell production for manufacturing a product is permitted. However, each product is preferably manufactured within a particular cell and cross-cell production should be minimized.

Most prior studies allocated the capacity demand to cells through solving a cell formation problem (Lee & Abhary 1997), (Defersha & Chen 2006), (Kim et al.

2005), ( Vin et al. 2005), ( Nsakanda et al. 2006). That is, in order to minimize the number of cross-cell transportations, they have to answer how many cells should be formed and how each cell should be equipped. After the cell formation problem is solved, each product is assigned to a particular cell for handling most of its operations. The remaining operations, much fewer in number, are handled by other cells. A GT cell is designed only for manufacturing a group of products, and by nature is limited in functional capacity. Therefore, cross-cell routes are unavoidably demanded in GT in order to provide a comprehensive functional spectrum.

However, in the route-planning problem we address, each of the two fabs is assumed to be functionally comprehensive. That is, a product can be completely manufactured in either one of the two fabs. The purpose of cross-fab production is to increase the total throughput of the two fabs, and the rationale is explained below.

In practice, a semiconductor fab is equipped to fulfill a particular product mix—the demand forecast at the time of purchasing equipment. However, the demand of product mix may change over time. Therefore, a fab may be underutilized due to the significant change of assigned product mix. In addition, the two fabs, even both functionally comprehensive, may differ in number for each type of machines. This implies that their originally designed product mixes may also differ. Cross-fab production therefore is needed to increase the total throughput of the two fabs.

## Chapter 3 Problem Statement

This section aims to describe the dual-fab route planning problem more precisely. We first present the assumptions that confine the context of the route planning problem; and then proceed to introduce the decision variables, objective function and constraints of the problem. In explaining the assumptions, the two fabs are respectively called Fabs  $A$  and  $B$ .

*Assumption 1: Each fab is functional comprehensive.* Each of the two semiconductor fabs is functionally comprehensive. That is, each fab is so comprehensively equipped that it can handle the manufacture of each product by itself, without the functional support of the other fab.

*Assumption 2: A product has four possible routes.* To implement cross-production, the manufacturing route of each product is cut into two parts, where the route's break point is called a *cut-off point*. The two parts are manufactured in different fabs, and yield two possible routes for cross-production. One, represented by  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ , denotes that the first part of the route is manufactured at Fab\_A and the second part is at Fab\_B. The other one, represented by  $\beta \rightarrow \alpha$ , denotes manufacturing at Fab\_B and then at Fab\_A. Since each fab is functionally comprehensive, the manufacturing of a product thus has four possible routes,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ ,  $\beta \rightarrow \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  denotes the routes in a single fab.

*Assumption 3: The transportation path between any two workstations/buffers is unique, rather than multiple.* In each fab, a transportation system for moving wafer jobs has been established. Theoretically, there may exist multiple paths in transporting from a workstation to another; however, to reduce the complexity of traffic control, we predefine a fixed path for such a transport.

The route planning problem has two decision variables for each product: its

*cutoff point* and the ratios of its four possible routes (simply called *route ratios*). Let the cutoff point and route ratios of product  $i$  be represented by  $(\pi_i, R_i)$ . For  $n$  products to produce—with a given product mix, the route planning problem is to determine  $(\pi_i, R_i)$  for each product in order to maximize the total throughput of the two fabs, subject to the constraint of meeting a target cycle time.



## Chapter 4 Solution Framework

A framework proposed for solving the dual-fab route planning problem is shown in Fig. 1, which involves two modules.

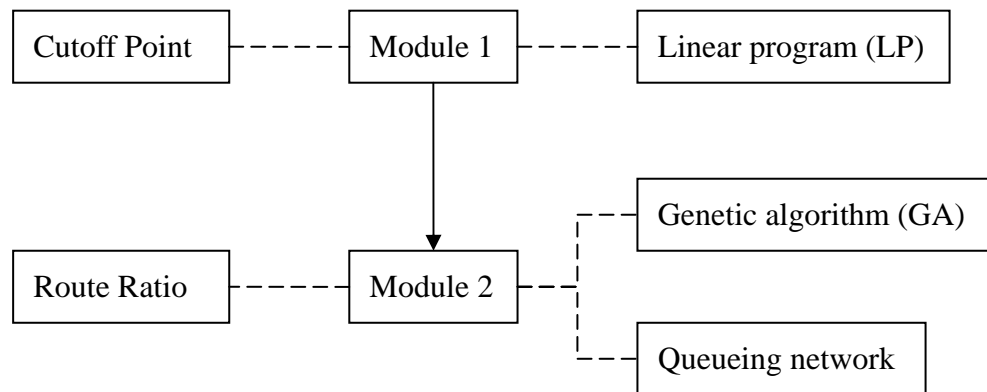


Fig 1 Solution Framework

In Module 1, each transportation path is assumed to be with infinite capacity; and the transportation time between any two workstations/buffers is zero. With the routing problem so simplified, we attempt to find an optimum  $\pi_i$ , in terms of minimizing the number inter-fab transportations. The problem is solved by an iterative use of a linear program (LP) model. For a particular  $\pi_i$ , the LP model aims to compute its minimum number of inter-fab transportations, which is regarded as the performance of  $\pi_i$ . We then develop a binary search algorithm to identify an optimum  $\pi_i$  as the ultimate decision for cutoff point.

In Module 2—with the obtained  $\pi_i$  taken as parameters, we deal only with the decision variables  $R_i$ . In this module, each transportation path is taken as a tool with limited capacity. The transportation time required for passing a path can be varied, depending upon the traffic flow intensity. The higher the traffic intensity, the longer is the cycle time.

Module 2 involves two sub-modules. The first one aims to develop a performance evaluator for a particular  $(\pi_i, R_i)$ . To do so, we first construct a queueing network model ( Connors *et al.*1996 ) in order to compute the resulting mean cycle time, subject to a target throughput and a particular  $(\pi_i, R_i)$ . This queueing model is then enhanced. That is, subject to a target mean cycle time and a particular  $(\pi_i, R_i)$ , the enhanced model could compute the resulting throughput—the performance of the  $(\pi_i, R_i)$ .

The second sub-module aims to search an optimal of  $R_i$ , with a performance evaluator for the use of  $(\pi_i, R_i)$ . The performance evaluator is in fact only for the use of  $R_i$ , because  $\pi_i$  is now taken as a parameter in Module 2. A genetic algorithm is proposed to solve the search problem—finding the ultimate decision of  $R_i$ .

In summary, the solution space of the dual-fab routing planning problem can be described by  $S = \{(\pi_i, R_i | \pi_i \in \pi\_Set, R_i \in R\_Set)\}$ . The objective is to find an optimum  $(\pi_i, R_i)$  from  $S$ , in terms of maximizing throughput subject to a target cycle time. Since  $S$  can be very huge, the problem is decomposed into two sub-problems. The first one is to find an optimum  $\pi_i^*$ . Taking  $\pi_i^*$  as parameters, the second sub-problem proceeds to find an optimum  $R_i^*$ .



## Chapter 5 Module 1 – P Model and Search Algorithm

Obtaining the solution for Module 1 is through an iterative use of a LP program.

We first describe the LP model and then present the iterative method—a binary-search algorithm.

### Indices

$i$ : index of product

$g$ : index of workstation in Fab\_A

$h$ : index of workstation in Fab\_B

### Parameters

$n$ : number of products

$\pi_i$ : cutoff point for defining the cross-fab routes of product  $i$

$\Pi$ :  $\Pi = [\pi_i]$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , a vector for describing the cut-off points of all products

$Q$ : an estimated value for the total throughput of the two fabs (in lots)

$P_i$ : percentage of product  $i$  in the product mix

$C_g$ : available machine hours of workstation  $g$  in Fab\_A

$C_h$ : available machine hours of workstation  $h$  in Fab\_B

$m_a$ : total number of workstations in Fab\_A

$m_b$ : total number of workstations in Fab\_B

$W_{ig}^a$ : total processing time per lot required on workstation  $g$ , while product  $i$  is

manufactured by route  $\alpha$

$W_{ig}^c$  total processing time per lot required on workstation  $g$ , while product  $i$  is

manufactured by route  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$

$W_{ig}^d$  : total processing time per lot required on workstation  $g$ , while product  $i$  is manufactured by route  $\beta \rightarrow \alpha$

$W_{ih}^b$  : total processing time per lot required on workstation  $h$ , while product  $i$  is manufactured by route  $\beta$

$W_{ih}^c$  : total processing time per lot required on workstation  $h$ , while product  $i$  is manufactured by route  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$

$W_{ih}^d$  : total processing time per lot required on workstation  $h$ , while product  $i$  is manufactured by route  $\beta \rightarrow \alpha$

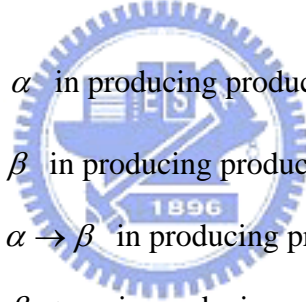
### Decision Variables

$a_i$  : percentage of using route  $\alpha$  in producing product  $i$

$b_i$  : percentage of using route  $\beta$  in producing product  $i$

$c_i$  : percentage of using route  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$  in producing product  $i$

$d_i$  : percentage of using route  $\beta \rightarrow \alpha$  in producing product  $i$



### 5.1 LP Model

The LP program is to compute a minimum number of cross-fab transportation for a particular  $\Pi$ --a decision for the route cutoff points, which is known before solving the LP problem. The objective function of the LP program is thus denoted by  $Z(\Pi)$ .

$$\text{Min } Z(\Pi) = \sum_{i=1}^n Q \cdot P_i \cdot (c_i + d_i)$$

s. t.

$$a_i + b_i + c_i + d_i = 1 \quad 1 \leq i \leq n \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P_i = 1 \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Q \cdot P_i \cdot (a_i \cdot W_{ig}^a + d_i \cdot W_{ig}^d + c_i \cdot W_{ig}^c) \leq C_g \quad 1 \leq g \leq m_a \quad (3)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Q \cdot P_i \cdot (b_i \cdot W_{ih}^b + d_i \cdot W_{ih}^d + c_i \cdot W_{ih}^c) \leq C_h \quad 1 \leq h \leq m_b \quad (4)$$

The objective function is to minimize the number of cross-fab production. The rationale for defining this objective is that cross-fab production requires longer transportation time than within-fab production. Subject to a target cycle time, an attempt to minimize cross-fab production tends to increase throughput. Constraints (1) and (2) described the dependent relationships among the route ratios and product ratios. Constraints (3) and (4) ensure that the capacity used in each workstation should be lower than its available supply.

## 5.2 Binary Search Algorithm

The binary search algorithm is to find an optimum solution from a space. The space, denoted by  $\{ \Pi \}$ , is the possible combinations of cutoff points for all products.

The algorithm is an iterative process. In an iteration, each product has two possible cutoff points to select. Taking a product route as a line, the two cutoff points are respectively on the first and the third quartiles (Fig 2). By evenly cutting the route into two sections, each cutoff point is in the middle of a particular section. Of the two evenly divided sections, the one where a cutoff point stays is called the *housing section* of the point.

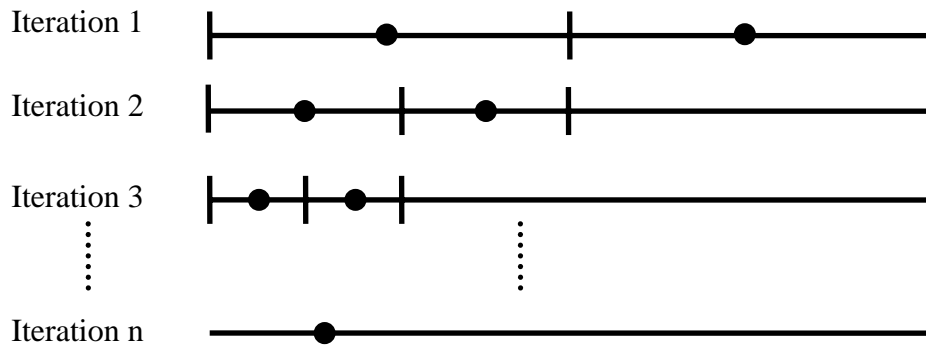


Fig 2 Process of the cutoff point

In an iteration, the size of the space  $\{ \Pi \}$  is  $2^n$  if there are  $n$  products. By solving the LP program  $2^n$  times, we can obtain the best one--denoted by  $\Pi^*$ . For each product,  $\Pi^*$  defines a particular cutoff point, whose housing section is called the *current  $\lambda$ -section* of the product. The  $\lambda$ -sections obtained in an iteration is the input of the next iteration. The binary search algorithm is summarized below.

**Algorithm** *Search \_Cutoff\_Points*

Initialization

- For each product, take the whole route as its  $\lambda$ -section.

For *iteration* = 1 to  $N$

- Create the two cutoff points on the  $\lambda$ -section of each product
- Solve LP programs to find  $\Pi^*$
- Compute the  $\lambda$ -section for each product based on  $\Pi^*$

End for

Output the cutoff points for each product



## Chapter 6 Module 2—Queueing and GA

The problem to be solved in Module 2 can be stated as follows. Given a target cycle time ( $CT_0$ ) and a cutoff point decision ( $\Pi^* = [\pi_1^*, \dots, \pi_n^*]$ ) obtained from Module 1, we attempt to find an optimal route ratio decision  $R = [\bar{r}_1, \dots, \bar{r}_n]$  in order to maximize the total throughput of the two fabs subject that the corresponding cycle time is less than  $CT_0$ .

This problem is essentially a space search problem, with a solution space  $H = \{R\} = \{[\bar{r}_1, \dots, \bar{r}_n] \mid \bar{r}_i = (a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i)\}$ . A genetic algorithm is proposed to solve the problem. In the algorithm, the fitness (performance) of a solution  $R$  is evaluated by a queueing network model. We first introduce the queueing network model and proceed to the genetic algorithm.



### 6.1 Queueing Network

The queueing network model is an extension of the model developed by Connors *et al.* (1996). The I/O function of the model developed by Connor *et al.* (1996) can be briefly formulated as follow:  $CT = f(TH, R, \Pi)$ . That is, given a total throughput ( $TH$ ), a route ratio decision ( $R$ ), and a cutoff point decision ( $\Pi$ ), the model can compute the two fabs' mean cycle time ( $CT$ ). However, Connor *et al.* (1996) did not consider the effect of transportation on  $CT$ .

We extended the application of their model based on two assumptions. First, we assume that the transportation path between any two stations is unique, where a station is either a workstation or a WIP storage buffer. Secondly, each transportation path between any two stations is modeled as a “conveyor machine” with only one unit of capacity. Such an extension makes the developed queueing model closer to the real

world. Likewise, the I/O function the extended queuing model can also be described as  $CT = f(TH, R, \Pi)$ .

The objective function in Module 2 is to maximize throughput ( $TH$ ) subject to a target cycle time ( $CT_0$ ). To evaluate the objective function, we used a *bi-section search technique* to find the total throughput ( $TH$ ) for a particular route ratio ( $R$ ); that is  $TH = f(R, \Pi^*, CT_0)$  where  $\Pi^*$  denotes the cutoff point decision obtained in Module 1 and  $CT_0$  is the target cycle time. The bi-section search technique denotes searching a value for  $TH$ , based on the function  $CT = f(TH, R, \Pi^*)$  for a given  $R$ , in order to obtain  $CT = CT_0$ ; and the search algorithm is just like that of the binary search for a particular point on a line segment.

## 6.2 Genetic Algorithm

The genetic algorithm (GA) is to identify an optimal solution  $R^*$  from the space  $S = \{R\}$ . As stated, the performance of  $R$  is obtainable by the enhanced queuing model. A possible solution  $R$  (or called a chromosome) is represented by a vector  $R = [\bar{r}_1, \dots, \bar{r}_n]$  where  $\bar{r}_i = (a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i)$ . We call  $\bar{r}_i$  a *gene-segment* and each of its element a *gene*, and the gene values are imposed by the following constraints:  $a_i + b_i + c_i + d_i = 1$  and  $0 \leq a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i \leq 1$ .

The GA is an iterative algorithm which can be briefly described as follows.

### Procedure GA

Step 1: Initialization

- $t = 0$ , Status = 'Not-terminate'
- Randomly generate  $N_p$  valid chromosomes to form a population  $P_0$

Step 2: Genetic Search

While (Status = 'Not-Terminate') do

- Use *cross-over* operator to create  $N_c$  new chromosomes
- Use *mutation* operator to create  $N_m$  new chromosomes
- Form a pool by the union of  $P_t$  and the newly created chromosomes
- $t = t + 1$ , and select the best  $N_p$  chromosomes from the pool to form  $P_t$
- Check if *termination condition* is met; if yes, set Status = “Terminate”

Endwhile

Step 3: Output the best chromosome  $R^*$  in  $P_t$

The crossover operation is to create two new chromosomes (say,  $R_3$  and  $R_4$ ) from two existing ones (say,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ ). Let each *gene-segment*  $i$  in  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  be respectively represented by  $\bar{r}_{i1}$  and  $\bar{r}_{i2}$ . We proposed a one-point crossover operation (Binh & Lan 2007) on gene-segments  $\bar{r}_{i1}$  and  $\bar{r}_{i2}$  to create two new ones  $\bar{r}_{i3}$  and  $\bar{r}_{i4}$ , which in turn could yield two new chromosomes:  $R_3 = [\bar{r}_{i3}]$ ,  $R_4 = [\bar{r}_{i4}]$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

The one-point crossover operation on a gene-segment is briefly introduced. For two gene-segments (i.e.,  $\bar{r}_{i1}$  and  $\bar{r}_{i2}$ ), randomly choose a gene, swap their gene values, and modify another gene values in order to ensure a constraint satisfaction. Consider an example where the second gene is chosen for  $\bar{r}_{i1} = (a_{i1}, b_{i1}, c_{i1}, d_{i1})$  and  $\bar{r}_{i2} = (a_{i2}, b_{i2}, c_{i2}, d_{i2})$ . By the swap and modification operations, we would obtain  $\bar{r}_{i3} = (a_{i1}, b_{i2}, c_{i1}, 1 - a_{i1} - b_{i2} - c_{i1})$  and  $\bar{r}_{i4} = (a_{i2}, b_{i1}, c_{i2}, 1 - a_{i2} - b_{i1} - c_{i2})$ .

In the mutation operation, a new chromosome (say,  $R_2$ ) is created by an existing one (say,  $R_1$ ). The mutation algorithm creates  $R_2$  by modifying a particular gene-segment in  $R_1$ . The modified gene-segment is randomly chosen. While being

selected, two of its genes are randomly chosen and their gene values are swapped.

For example, if gene-segment  $i^*$  is chosen for modification; and the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> genes are chosen to swap for  $\overline{r_{i^*1}} = (a_{i1}, b_{i1}, c_{i1}, d_{i1})$ , then  $\overline{r_{i^*2}} = (a_{i1}, d_{i1}, c_{i1}, b_{i1})$ , which in turn yield a new chromosome  $R_2 = [\overline{r_{11}}, \dots, \overline{r_{i^*2}}, \dots, \overline{r_{n1}}]$  from  $R_1 = [\overline{r_{11}}, \dots, \overline{r_{i^*1}}, \dots, \overline{r_{n1}}]$ .

Two termination conditions are defined for the GA. First, the best solution in  $P_t$  has been no change for over a certain period (say,  $T_b$  iterations). Second, the population  $P_t$  has evolved over a certain iterations; that is, t has reached its predefined upper bound ( $T_u$ ).





## Chapter 7 Experiments

### 7.1. Benchmarks and Data

By numeric experiments, we attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed method. Two other methods are used as benchmarks for comparison. The proposed method is designed as *LP-GA*, where *LP* denotes the linear program, *GA* denotes the genetic algorithm. The two benchmark methods are special cases of *LP-GA*. The first one is called *M-GA*, which denotes that the cutoff point of each route has been predetermined—just on the *middle* of the route. The second one is called *N-GA*, where denotes that cross-fab production is *not* allowed. Such a comparison is to tell how much benefit a dual-fab would obtain if the *LP-GA* method is used.

In the dual-fab experiments, the data for machines and product routes are adapted from an HP-fab in literature (Wein 1988). Of the two fabs, one involves 93 machines and the other involves 72 machines. Being functionally identical, each fab involves 4 batch workstations and 21 series workstations. The MTBF (mean time between failure) and MTTR (mean time to repair) of each machine is available, exponentially distributed. Three types of products are produced. One product involves 150 operations; the other two both involve 172 operations but are different in processing times. In implementing the GA, we set  $T_b = 1000$ ,  $T_u = 30$ ,  $P_0 = 100$ ,  $P_{cr} = 0.8$ , and  $P_m = 0.1$ .

### 7.2 Performance Comparison

The three methods are compared in two scenarios, with product mixes  $R_A = (3:2:5)$  and  $R_B = (5:4:1)$  respectively. For each product mix, by the queueing model, we obtain a throughput level that will keep the two fabs in high utilization:  $Q_A = 128$  lots and  $Q_B = 169$  lots.

We compare the three methods from two perspectives. First, given a target throughput level, the mean cycle time of each method is compared. In the comparison,  $Q_A$  and  $Q_B$  are used as the target throughput levels. Second, given a target cycle time, we compare the throughput of each method. In the comparison, we set  $CT_0=11081$  min. for  $R_A$  and  $CT_0=11445$  for  $R_B$ .

The cutoff points of each route obtained by the *LP-GA* method are shown in Table 1, which indicates that the cutoff points suggested by the *LP-GA* are different from that of *M-GA*.

Table 2 shows the comparison of mean cycle times, subject to a target throughput. The *LP-GA* outperforms the two benchmark methods. The cycle time of the *LP-GA* method is about 2-9% lower than that of *M-GA*, and 11-17% lower than that of *N-GA*. This implies that optimal planning of cross-fab production is positive in reducing cycle time.

Table 3 shows the comparison of throughput, subject to a target cycle time. The *LP-GA* method also outperforms the two benchmark methods. The throughput of the *LP-GA* method is about 0.8-2.5% higher than that of *M-GA*, and about 3.2-5.0% higher than that of *N-GA*. This implies that optimal planning of cross-fab production is positive in increasing throughput.

Table 1: Cutoff points obtained by the LP program

	Product 1	Product 2	Product 3
<i>Total Step Number</i>	172	172	150
$R_A$	85 <sup>th</sup> step	85 <sup>th</sup> step	129 <sup>th</sup> step
$R_B$	84 <sup>th</sup> step	84 <sup>th</sup> step	78 <sup>th</sup> step

Table 2: Comparison of mean cycle time

	$R_A (Q_A = 128 \text{ (lots)})$		$R_B (Q_B = 169 \text{ (lots)})$	
Algorithm	CT (min)	Gaps (%)	CT (min)	Gaps (%)
LP-GA	11,080	11.10%	11,639	17.30%
M-GA	12,175	2.31%	12,811	8.98%
N-GA	12,463	0%	14,075	0%

Table 3: Comparison of throughput

	$R_A (CT_0=11081(\text{min}))$		$R_B (CT_0=11445(\text{min}))$	
Algorithm	Throughput (lots)	Gap (%)	Throughput (lots)	Gap (%)
LP-GA	128	3.23%	169	4.97%
M-GA	125	0.81%	165	2.48%
N-GA	124	0%	161	0%

Figs. 3 and 4 reveal the relationship between cycle time and throughput for  $R_A$  and  $R_B$  respectively. The higher the throughput, the longer is the cycle time. The two figures also show that the higher the throughput, the larger is the performance gap. That is, the contribution of the *LP-GA* method becomes higher while it is applied in a high-demand scenario.

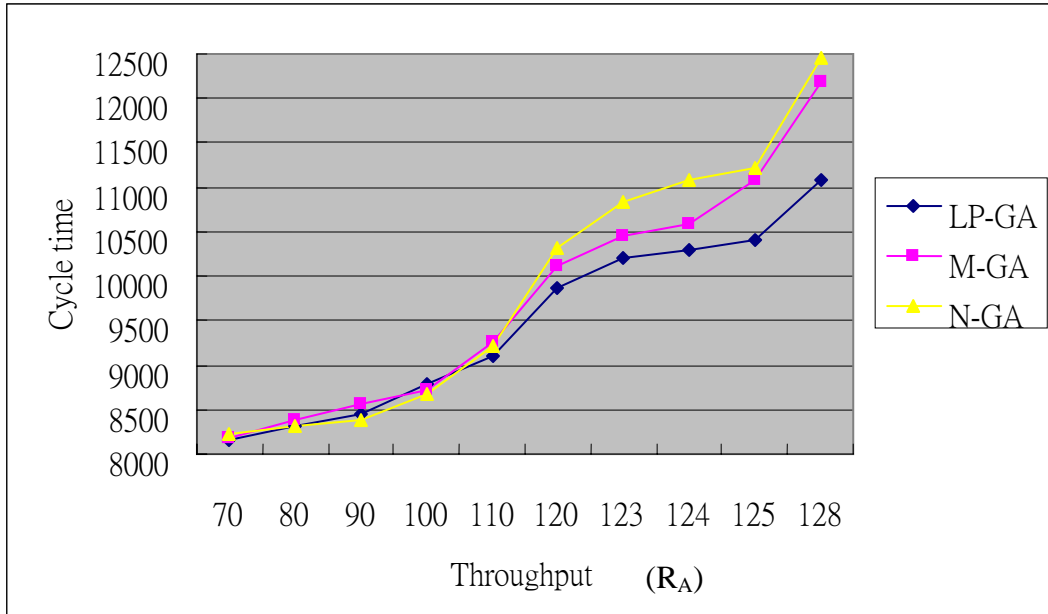


Fig 3: Relationship between throughput and cycle time for product mix  $R_A$

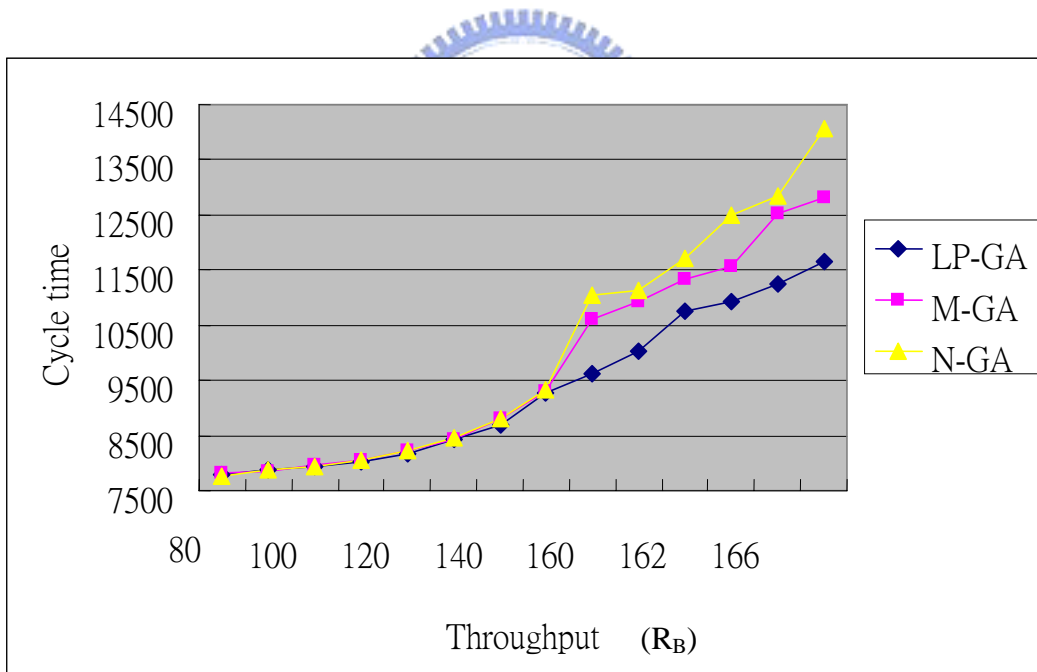


Fig 4: Relationship between throughput and cycle time for product mix  $R_B$

## Chapter 8 Conclusion

This paper presents an approach to solve the route planning problem for a semiconductor dual-fab. In the problem, each product can be manufactured in either fab. And each product has four possible production routes, which are defined by a cutoff point. The route planning problem involves two decisions—determining the cutoff point and route ratio for each product—in order to maximize the throughput subject a cycle time constraint.

An *LP-GA* method is proposed to solve the route planning problem. We first use the LP module to make the cutoff point decisions, and proceed to use the GA module for making the decision of route ratio. The *LP-GA* method is compared with two benchmark methods by numerical experiments. Results show that the *LP-GA* method significantly outperforms the other methods.

Some extensions of this research are being considered. One is the extension of this approach to a multiple-fab production system—for example, three or more fabs shall share the capacity in production. The other is the extension to a scenario with higher flexibility in production routes—for example, each product could have two cutoff points and in turn have more than four routes.

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