

新製程導入情境下連線式步進機之排程

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中文摘要

本專題計畫是針對半導體廠在低良率情境下，研究步進機的投料排序問題，期能提高步進機的產出。步進機是半導體廠的瓶頸機台，其內部是由一系列的加工單元（稱為反應室）所組成，每一個反應室一次可加工一片晶圓。步進機的外部一般設有 4 個暫存區，每一區可暫存一批晶圓盒，每晶圓盒最多可存放 25 片晶圓。在低良率的情境下，許多晶圓盒會出現「不滿批」的現象（亦即晶圓片數低於 25 片）。本研究發現：在低良率情境下，即使步進機的某些反應室有產能閒置，因為暫存區的空間限制，使得暫存區以外的晶圓片無法即時放入步進機加工，因而造成步進機的產能損失。這種產能損失可以藉由晶圓批的投料排序來改善。本研究發展各種進化式演算法(meta-heuristic methods)來求解此問題。研究情境由簡而繁，首先研究在單機的情境下，如何決定工件投料的序。進而研究多機情境下，工件如何指派給各機台，以及各機內工件的排序問題。本研究設計一個新的染色體表達法，可同時表達「工件指派」和「工件排序」的兩個決策。並測試各種進化式演算法的績效。本研究提出 7 種演算法(GA, Tabu, GA-Tabu, SA, M-MMAX, PACO, PSO)，經實驗測試，GA-Tabu 演算法優於其他演算法。

關鍵詞：排程、步進機、流程式生產、進化式演算法、基因演算法、禁忌搜尋法

Abstract

This research project addresses a job scheduling problem for steppers, which are bottleneck machines in a semiconductor fab, in order to increase the fab throughput. A stepper externally is equipped with four ports; each port is used to accommodate a job (i.e, a wafer container that contains up to 25 wafers). A stepper internally is composed of a sequence of chambers; each of which undergoes an operation on a wafer. Each wafer, originally located in job container, must individually pass through the sequence of chambers and go back to its original container. In a low-yield environment, some chambers in a stepper may unexpectedly become idle due to the limited capacity of external ports, which in turn results in the capacity loss of the stepper. We found that such a capacity loss can be alleviated by scheduling methods. This research project develops several meta-heuristic algorithms to solve the problem. We first consider only the single stepper-problem and extend to investigate the multiple-steppers problems. The multiple-steppers problem is concerned with two decisions: (1) job assignment decision, (2) job sequence decision. We propose a novel chromosome representation to model the two decisions and develop seven meta-heuristic algorithms (GA, Tabu, GA-Tabu, SA, M-MMAX, PACO, PSO) to solve scheduling problem. Numerical experiments indicate that GA-Tabu outperforms the other meta-heuristic algorithms.

Keywords: Scheduling, in-line Steppers, Flow Shop Scheduling, Meta-heuristic Algorithms, Genetic Algorithms, Tabu Algorithm.

1. Introduction

In semiconductor manufacturing, *in-line steppers* (or simply called *steppers*) are the most expensive machines, which may cost up to 40 million dollars per tool and usually become the bottleneck of a fab (semiconductor factory). Effective scheduling for steppers is very important because it could significantly affect the fab throughput, cycle time, and on-time delivery.

Most prior studies on scheduling stepper are developed under a *high-yield* assumption (Chern and Liu, 2003; Dabbas and Fowler, 2003; Duwayri *et al.*, 2006; Sha *et al.* 2006; Morrison and Martin, 2007; Wu and Chang, 2006; Wu *et al.*, 2007, 2008; Chen, 2009). That is, they implicitly assumed the production yield is 100% and no wafer will be scrapped. Each wafer lot (a container for transporting wafers) is always a *full-lot* (typically carrying 25 wafers). Under this assumption, they took a stepper as a *single machine* and a *wafer lot* as a job for scheduling. This implies that a stepper will not be idle as long as it has wafer lots waiting to be processed.

Recently, a few studies (Wu and Chiou, 2010; Chiou and Wu, 2009) noticed that a stepper in a *low-yield* scenario may become *idle* even though it has many wafer lots waiting to be processed. They modeled the interior configuration of an in-line stepper as a *special-featured flow shop*, which comprises a series of chambers and each piece of wafer has to travel through the flow shop. They discovered that some chambers of the flow shop might become idle due to the inclusion of *small-lots* (i.e., carrying less than 25 wafers) and developed some scheduling algorithms to alleviate such chamber idleness in order to increase the throughput of steppers. These algorithms were developed in the context of scheduling a *single* in-line stepper.

However, in practice, there are *multiple* in-line steppers to be scheduled. This paper enhances the prior scheduling algorithms to deal with the scheduling for *multiple* in-line steppers. Such a scheduling problem involves two decisions: (1) how

to allocate jobs to each stepper, and (2) how to sequence the allocated jobs for each stepper.

In this research, given N jobs to be allocated and scheduled on multiple steppers, a sequence of the N jobs is called a chromosome. We developed a novel *chromosome-decoding* scheme that can unveil the two decisions suggested by a given chromosome. Then, various enhanced versions of meta-heuristic algorithms (GA, Holland (1975), Tabu, GA-Tabu, SA, M-MMAX, PACO, PSO) were proposed and tested. Of the tested algorithms, numerical experiments indicate that the GA-Tabu outperforms the others in most cases.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the research problem in more detail. Section 3 describes how to compute the performance of a scheduling solution. Section 4 presents the *chromosome-decoding* scheme. Section 5 describes the solution architecture of the GA-Tabu algorithm. Numerical experiments are reported in Section 6 and concluding remarks are in the last section.

2. Problem Statement

The research problem is introduced by first describing the interior configuration, the exterior interfacing equipments, and the transportation mechanisms of an in-line stepper. Then, we use an example to illustrate such an in-line stepper may suffer a capacity loss in a low-yield scenario. Finally, the problem for scheduling multiple in-line steppers and its performance metric are presented.

The *interior configuration* of an in-line stepper comprises a sequence of *manufacturing stages*, each of which involves *one or more than one* functionally identical chambers (Quirk, 2001). Each chamber processes *one* piece of wafer at a time. To undergo the operation at the stepper, a piece of wafer has to travel through all the manufacturing stages. Of these chambers, a particular type (called the aligner chamber) may need a setup. The aligner chamber is typically the bottleneck chamber and involves only one chamber at this manufacturing stage. Such a configuration can be seen as a *flow shop* if we consider each stage as a *workstation* and each chamber as a *machine* in a workstation (Yang, 1999; Pinedo, 2008). A simplified illustration of an in-line stepper is shown in Figure 1, where each manufacturing stage involves only one chamber.

See Figure 1, the exterior of an in-line stepper is directly interfaced with a *dock area* which generally involves four *ports*. Each port serves as a *one-job-buffer* for the in-line stepper, which can accommodate only *one job* at a time. A job (or a wafer lot) is a container, which involves at most 25 pieces of wafers. Apart from the dock area, a large-sized stocker (also called the WIP area) is equipped to store the wafer jobs that are to be transported to the dock area.

The transportation mechanisms of an in-line stepper are explained below. See Figure 1, a wafer job has to undergo a *round-trip travel*. A job first moves from the WIP area to the dock area, placed on a free port. Then, each piece of wafer will

sequentially exit the job (a container), go through the in-line stepper, and back to the job. Finally, the job is triggered to move back to the WIP area, while all its wafers complete operations. In summary, there is a *transportation incompatibility* in the round-trip travel. That is, the transportation unit between the WIP area and the dock area is a *job*, while that between the dock area and the chamber area is a *piece of wafer*.

Notice that the *buffer capacity* at the dock area is quite limited. Suppose the dock area involves only four ports. Then, the dock area can simultaneously accommodate at most four jobs. That is, we cannot move an additional job to the dock area if each of the four ports is currently occupied or not free.

Due to limited buffer capacity in the dock area, we may face a capacity-loss of chambers in a low-yield scenario, as explained by the following example. Consider a simplified case where an in-line stepper comprises 22 stages and each stage involves only one chamber, four jobs (*A*, *B*, *C*, and *D*) are on the dock area, and one job (*E*) is waiting in the WIP area. Job *A* contains 25 wafers and jobs *B*, *C*, and *D* in total carry only 17 wafers. Suppose the processing sequence is $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D$. Following the sequence, the (25 +17) wafers of the four jobs will successively travel through the chambers and back to the ports. While the last wafer of job *A* just finishes its operations, job *A* must still stay on the port in order to get this wafer back. At this instant, the 17 unfinished wafers of jobs *B*, *C*, and *D* will occupy the last 17 chambers of the stepper. The remaining five chambers then become idle because jobs *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D* now occupy the dock area, and no more port is available for job *E* to access.

Yet, such a capacity-loss in chambers may be alleviated if a different job sequence ($B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow A$) is applied. Suppose job *B* now contains 8 wafers. While the last wafer (8th one) of job *B* finishes its travel, we still have 34 unfinished wafers. Of these unfinished wafers, 22 ones reside in the chamber area and 12 ones stay in the

ports. This implies that no chamber will be idle while the port originally for job B becomes free to accommodate job E . Thus, the capacity-loss of an in-line stepper may be alleviated by applying an appropriate job sequence.

The research problem is concerned with the scheduling of multiple in-line steppers in a low-yield scenario. Such a scheduling problem involves two decisions: (1) how to allocate jobs to each stepper, and (2) how to sequence the allocated jobs for each stepper. That is, given N jobs to be scheduled for m in-line steppers. The N jobs have to be categorized into m groups, and the jobs of each group have to be sequenced. The performance metric of the scheduling problem is defined as $C^* = \max\{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$, where C_i is the makespan of i -th stepper. That is, C^* is the makespan required to complete the N jobs, and N/C^* could be used to denote the total throughput rate of the m steppers. In the scheduling, we aim to maximize total throughput rate (N/C^*), which also implies the minimization of C^* .

3. Makespan Evaluation for Job Sequences

Given a job sequence to be processed by the i -th stepper, this section describes how to compute C_i (the makespan), adapted from Ruiz and Maroto (2006). The makespan evaluation procedure adopts an *emulation-based* approach. We virtually sent each wafer in order (following the job sequence) into the in-line stepper and look for an available chamber that can finish the job at the earliest time. The completion time of each wafer at each stage is progressively recorded, which ultimately yield the makespan.

To undergo an operation at an aligner chamber, a mask (an auxiliary device) is needed. A particular mask denotes a particular operational recipe. Different jobs may require different operational recipes. If so, we need a setup time to change masks at the aligner chamber; otherwise no setup is needed. .

Notation

j : index of job

k : index of wafer

i : index of stage

l : index of chamber

a : index of the aligner chamber which requires setup

ρ : total number of ports in the dock

n : total number of jobs to be processed by the in-line stepper

M : total numbers of stages in the in-line stepper

m_i : total number of chambers at stage i

p_{ijk} : processing time required by chamber l at stage i to process wafer k in job j

π : a job sequence for the n jobs, $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n)]$

$w(\pi(j))$: the job in the j th position of sequence π

$\pi(j)$: total number of wafers in job j

t_u : transportation time for uploading a job to the dock area

t_d : transportation time for downloading a job from the dock area

$S_{i,l,\pi(j),k}$: setup time required by chamber l in stage i to process wafer k in job $\pi(j)$

if $i \neq a$ or $k \neq 1$, then $S_{i,l,\pi(j),k} = 0$,

otherwise, $S_{i,l,\pi(j),k} = \delta_{\pi(j),\pi(j-1)}$

$\delta_{\pi(j),\pi(j-1)}$: setup time required for the aligner chamber to switch production from job

$\pi(j-1)$ to job $\pi(j)$; $\delta_{\pi(j),\pi(j-1)} = s_0$ if $\pi(j-1)$ and $\pi(j)$ use different

masks, and $\delta_{\pi(j),\pi(j-1)} = 0$, otherwise

$A_{i,l,t}$: the time epoch when chamber l in stage i just turns to be available; that is, while

the chamber (i,l) is free at t , $A_{i,l,t}$ is the last *wafer-completion-epoch*

before t ; while the chamber (i,l) is in operation at t , $A_{i,l,t}$ is the *first*

wafer-completion-time after t .

$C_{i,\pi(j),k}$: the completion time of wafer k in job $\pi(j)$ at stage i

$C(\pi)$: the makespan of job sequence π

The makespan evaluation procedure is governed by the following equations.

$$C_{i,\pi(j),k} = \min_{1 \leq l \leq m_i} \{ \max \{ A_{i,l,t} + S_{i,l,\pi(j),k}, C_{i-1,\pi(j),k} \} + p_{i,l,\pi(j),k} \}$$

$$\text{where } t = C_{i-1,\pi(j),k} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq M \quad (1)$$

$$C_{M+1,\pi(j),w(\pi(j))} = C_{M,\pi(j),w(\pi(j))} + t_d \quad (2)$$

$$C_{M+1,\pi(j),w(\pi(j))} + t_u = C_{0,\pi(j+\rho),1} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq j \leq n - \rho \quad (3)$$

$$C(\pi) = C_{M+1,\pi(n),w(\pi(n))} \quad (4)$$

Eq. (1) expresses the completion time of a particular wafer at each stage i . The term $A_{i,l,t} + S_{i,l,\pi(j),k}$ denotes the time epoch when chamber l at stage i is ready for processing wafer k in job $\pi(j)$, and the term $C_{i-1,\pi(j),k}$ denotes the time epoch when the wafer is available to be processed at the chamber.

Eq. (2) describes the completion time of job $\pi(j)$ at stage $M+1$ (i.e., the dock area). Eq. (3) expresses the job arrival/departure relationships for the dock. The equation indicates that only when job $\pi(j)$ in the dock has been moved away, can job $\pi(j+\rho)$ in the WIP buffer be transported to the dock (i.e., stage 0). Eq. (4) computes the makespan $C(\pi)$, the completion time of the last wafer in the last job.

4. Chromosome Representation and Decoding

As stated in Section 1, the scheduling problem involves two decisions: (1) *allocation decision*—how to allocate jobs to each stepper, and (2) *sequencing decision*—how to sequence the allocated jobs for each stepper. That is, given N jobs to be scheduled on m steppers, we first need to categorize the N jobs into m groups, each of which is processed by a particular stepper. Then, we need to determine the job sequence for each stepper.

Let a particular sequence of the N jobs be called a *chromosome*. In this research, we develop a *chromosome-decoding* scheme. By the decoding scheme, a chromosome can be interpreted as a particular scheduling solution, which involves two decisions—one is the allocation decision and the other is the sequencing decision.

To introduce the *chromosome-decoding* scheme, some notation is described below. Denote a *chromosome* by $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(N)]$, where $\pi(j)$, called a *gene*, represents the job in the j th position of sequence π . For job $\pi(j)$, represent the number of wafers in the job by $w_{\pi(j)}$ and its processing time for a piece of wafer at the aligner chamber (the bottleneck chamber) by $p_{\pi(j)}$. Then, denote the total processing time at the aligner chamber for job $\pi(j)$ by $t_{\pi(j)} = w_{\pi(j)} \cdot p_{\pi(j)}$. The procedure for interpreting the job allocation decision from a given chromosome is described below.

Procedure Job_Allocation

Step 1: Compute the threshold for forming a job group

$$T = \sum_{j=1}^N t_{\pi(j)} ; /*total processing time of the N jobs*/$$

$$h = T / m ; /* processing time threshold for forming a job group*/$$

Step 2: Form the job groups

$k = 1$, /*index of job group or stepper*/

For $i = 1$ to N

$T_i = \sum_{j=1}^i t_{\pi(j)}$; /* compute total load of the first i jobs*/

If $(T_i > k \cdot h)$ then /*criterion for forming job groups*/

$C(k) = i$; /*form a new job group*/

$k = k + 1$; /* update the indexing of job group*/

Endif

If $(k = m)$ then

go to Step 3 /*check if job group formation finished*/

Endif

Endfor

Step 3: Output job allocation results

Output $C(k)$, $1 \leq k \leq m - 1$

Given the job allocation decision $C(k)$, the procedure for determining the job sequence decision for each stepper is relatively easy. The job sequence for stepper k ($1 \leq k \leq m$) is $\pi_k = [\pi(s), \dots, \pi(e)]$, where $s = C(k - 1) + 1$ and $e = C(k)$, in which we denote $C(0) = 0$ and $C(m) = \pi(N)$.

The chromosome-decoding scheme is illustrated by a three-stepper example as shown in Figure 2. See the figure, there are 9 jobs to be scheduled on 3 steppers. The total processing time is $T = 1.6$ hours and the threshold is $h = 0.53$ hour. The set of jobs allocated to stepper 1 and their job sequence are $\pi_1 = \{J_2, J_5, J_7\}$, and those for the other two steppers are $\pi_2 = \{J_4, J_1\}$ and $\pi_3 = \{J_6, J_3, J_9, J_8\}$.

5. GA-Tabu Algorithm

To solve the scheduling problem, we developed seven meta-heuristic algorithms (GA, Tabu, GA-Tabu, SA, MMAX, PACO, and PSO) These algorithms adopt the algorithmic architectures published in prior studies as referenced below, but are distinguished in embedding the novel *chromosome decoding* scheme we proposed. Of these seven enhanced algorithms, the GA-Tabu performs the best and is presented here.

5.1 Chromosome Fitness

As stated in Section 4, given a chromosome $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(N)]$, we can use the chromosome decoding scheme to *extract* its two decisions— jobs allocation among steppers and job sequencing for each stepper. Then, given a job sequence $\pi_k = [\pi(s), \dots, \pi(e)]$ for *each* stepper k , $1 \leq k \leq m$, we can compute its makespan C_k by the procedure in Section 3. In turn, the scheduling performance (also called *fitness*) of the chromosome $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(N)]$ is $C^* = \max\{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$, which is also denoted by $C^*(\pi)$ hereafter.

5.2 Algorithmic Procedures

The GA-Tabu algorithm is composed of three procedures. The main one is called procedure **GA-Tabu** which calls two sub-procedures **GA(t)** and **Tabu**(π_{in}, π_{out}). There are two sets of chromosomes. One is called the GA-pool $P(t)$, which include N chromosomes and iteratively evolve by procedure **GA(t)**. The other set is called **Seed_Set**, which involves only one chromosome (called seed) and iteratively evolve by procedure **GA-Tabu**. The procedure **GA(t)** is designed to evolve from $P(t)$ to $P(t+1)$ to possibly include better chromosomes and identify its best four ones. The

procedure **Tabu**(π_{in}, π_{out}) is intended to search the neighborhood of a given chromosome π_{in} to find the best chromosome (π_{out}) in the searched neighborhood. Notice that π_{in} is selected either from the **GA-pool** or from the **Seed_Set**.

In procedure **GA**(t), we use four types of crossover operators and three types of mutation operators to create new chromosomes. A crossover operator is designed to create a new pair from an existing pair, while a mutation operator is to create a new one from an existing one. The four types of crossover operators are **C1** (one point crossover) by Reeves (1995), **LOX** (linear order crossover) by Croce *et al.* (1995), **PMX** (partially mapped crossover) by Goldberg (1989), and **NABEL** operator by Bac and Perov (1993). The three types of mutation operators are **Swap**, **Inverse**, and **Insert** (Wang and Zheng, 2003; Nearchou, 2004).

In procedure **Tabu**(π_{in}, π_{out}), a pairwise interchange of two genes (jobs) is called a *tabu_move*. For example, given a n -gene chromosome $\pi_1 = [J_2, J_5, J_1, J_4, J_3, \dots]$. By interchanging the two genes J_3 and J_5 , we can create a new chromosome $\pi_2 = [J_2, J_3, J_1, J_4, J_5, \dots]$. The *tabu_move* for causing such an interchange can be denoted by $move(J_5, J_3)$ or $move(J_3, J_5)$. To facilitate the following presentation of procedure **Tabu**(π_{in}, π_{out}), we represent a *tabu_move* by $move(\pi_{in} \rightarrow \pi)$, which denotes an interchange of two particular jobs that transform π_{in} into π .

Accordingly, the total number of *tabu_moves* for a chromosome $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n)]$ is $n(n-1)/2$. Let the set of all these *tabu_moves* be represented by *Move_Set*. By applying each *tabu_move* in the *Move_Set* to the chromosome π , we can create $n(n-1)/2$ new chromosomes. The set of these newly created chromosomes are called the neighborhood of π , which is denoted by $Neighbor(\pi)$.

Notation

GA-Tabu: the main procedure

π^{best} : the current best solution ever found by procedure **GA-Tabu**

GA(t): a sub-procedure designed to evolve $P(t)$

$P(t)$: a set of N chromosomes, called the **GA-pool**.

$\pi_{GA,t}^{best}$: the best chromosome in $P(t)$

$\pi_{GA,t}^{2-best}$: the 2nd best chromosome in $P(t)$

$\pi_{GA,t}^{3-best}$: the 3rd best chromosome in $P(t)$

$\pi_{GA,t}^{4-best}$: the 4th best chromosome in $P(t)$

Tabu (π_{in}, π_{out}): a procedure designed to search the neighborhood of π_{in} , where π_{out} is the best chromosome found in the searched region.

Tabu_list: a limited set of tabu_moves, where a tabu_move represents an interchange of two particular jobs.

Seed_Set: a set of one chromosome, which iteratively evolve by procedure **GA-Tabu**

π^{seed} : the present chromosome (called seed) in the **Seed_Set**

Procedure **GA-Tabu**

Initialization: Randomly select a chromosome as π^{best}

For each iteration t ($0 \leq t \leq T_f$)

Step 1: Call **GA(t)** to find $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$, $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{2-best}$, $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{3-best}$, $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{4-best}$ in $P(t+1)$

Step 2: If $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$ is better than π^{best}

- Update π^{best} by $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$ (i.e., $\pi^{best} \leftarrow \pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$)
- Call **Tabu** (π^{best}, π_{out}) to search the neighborhood of π^{best} for

possibly improving π^{best} (i.e., update π^{best} by π_{out} if π_{out} is better)

Step 3: If $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$ keeps worse than π^{best} for exact k ($k < 45$) iterations

- While $k = 20$ /* the age of π^{best} is 20 iterations*/
Call **Tabu** ($\pi_{GA,t+1}^{2-best}, \pi_{out}$) for possibly improving π^{best}
- While $k = 30$ /*the age of π^{best} is 30 iterations*/
Call **Tabu** ($\pi_{GA,t+1}^{3-best}, \pi_{out}$) for possibly improving π^{best}
- While $k = 40$ /* the age of π^{best} is 40 iterations*/
Call **Tabu** ($\pi_{GA,t+1}^{4-best}, \pi_{out}$) for possibly improving

Step 4: If $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$ keeps worse than π^{best} for $k = 40 + 5n$ ($n = 1, 2, \dots$) iterations

/* If π^{best} cannot be improved by $P(t+1)$ for over 40 iterations*/

/* Try to improve π^{best} by using π^{seed} , the chromosome in **Seed_Set***/

- Call **Tabu** (π^{seed}, π_{out}) for possibly improving π^{best}
- Update the chromosome in **Seed_Set** (i.e., $\pi^{seed} \leftarrow \pi_{out}$)

Step 5: Put π^{best} in $P(t+1)$;

Next iteration until $t > T_f$

Procedure $GA(t)$

Step 1: If $t = 0$, randomly create N chromosomes to form the initial GA-pool $P(0)$.

If $t \neq 0$, input the GA-pool $P(t)$.

Step 2: Use crossover and mutation operators to create $N(P_{cr} + P_{mu})$ new chromosomes,

where $0 \leq P_{cr}, P_{mu} \leq 1$. Place the new chromosomes in a set S .

Step 3: Use the resolute wheel screen method (Michalewicz, 1996) to select N

chromosomes out of the set $S \cup P(t)$. Place the selected N chromosomes in

the GA-pool $P(t+1)$

Step 4: Output the best four chromosomes in $P(t+1)$: $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{best}$, $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{2-best}$, $\pi_{GA,t+1}^{3-best}$,

$$\pi_{GA,t+1}^{4-best}.$$

Procedure Tabu (π_{in}, π_{out})

Step 0: Initialization $\pi_{out} = \pi_{best}$

Step 1: Create a set of new chromosomes, $Neighbor(\pi_{in})$

Step 2: Try to improve π_{out}

- Identify the best q chromosome π^1, \dots, π^q from $Neighbor(\pi_{in})$
- If π^1 is better than π_{out}^{best} , then $\pi_{out} = \pi^1$;

Step 3: Update *tabu_list* /*Try to add a new *tabu_move* to the *tabu_list**/

For $i = 1, q$

If $move(\pi_{in} \rightarrow \pi^i) \in tabu_list$, then go to Next i

If $move(\pi_{in} \rightarrow \pi^i) \notin tabu_list$,

Then

- Update the *tenure* of each *tabu_move* in the *tabu_list*
/* Each *tabu_move*'s tenure starts at 1 and is added by 1 while a new *tabu_move* is found*/
- Remove the *tabu_move* with longest tenure from the *tabu_list*;
- Put $move(\pi_{in} \rightarrow \pi^i)$ in the *tabu_list*;
- If $(\pi_{in} = \pi^{seed})$, set $\pi^{seed} = \pi^i$
- Go to Step 4

Next i

Step 4: Return

6. Experiments and Discussion

Numerical experiments and the uniqueness of this research are to be discussed in this section. In numerical experiments, we compare seven meta-heuristic algorithms in solving the multiple-steppers scheduling problem. These algorithms are chosen because their algorithmic flows have been widely applied to solving scheduling problem. Referring to some prior studies, we adapted these algorithmic flows by embedding the novel chromosome interpretation scheme.

These prior related studies include GA-Tabu by Chiou and Wu (2009), simulated annealing (SA) by Osman and Potts (1989), genetic algorithm (GA) by Wu and Chiou (2009), Tabu search (TS) by Widmer and Hertz (1989), particle swarm optimization (PSO) by Liao *et al.* (2007), and two ant colony algorithms (ACO) by Rajendran and Ziegler (2004)—respectively called MMAX and PACO.

Personal computers equipped with PENTIUM Dual-Core 2.8 GHz CPU and 1 Gb memory are used to run the programs, coded in Visual C++. The parameters of the six meta-heuristic algorithms are designed by referring to prior studies accordingly. In the three algorithms (GA-Tabu, GA, and Tabu), we set $N = 100$, $P_{cr} = 0.8$, $P_{mu} = 0.2$, $q = 7$, $K = 3,000$, $T=100,000$ (Chiou and Wu 2009, Widmer and Hertz 1989). In the SA, we set $Temperature = 500$ (Osman and Potts 1989); and we set $\rho = 0.75$ (Rajendran and Ziegler 2004) in the ACO where $(1-\rho)$ is called the evaporation rate. In the PSO, we set $V_{max} = 4$, $V_{min} = -4$, $\varpi = 0.8$, $c_1 = 2$, $c_2 = 2$, $T = 100$ (Liao *et al.* (2007), where V_{max} denotes the upper limit of the velocity, V_{min} denotes the lowest limit of the velocity, c_1 is the cognition learning factor, c_2 is the social learning factor, and ϖ is the inertia weight.

6.1 Experiment Design

In the experiments, the configuration and operation of the in-line steppers are so

defined. Each in-line stepper has 4 ports, 14 stages and 21 chambers. See Table 1, of the 14 stages, two stages model the interfaces among the WIP buffer, the dock area, and the stepper; and the other 12 stages model the interior chambers of the stepper. Note that one stage may include one or more chambers. The operation time at each stage i of each in-line stepper is a uniform distribution $[a_i, b_i]$. At each stepper, a mask setup is always needed for the aligner chamber while it turns to process a new job's wafer, and the mask change time is a constant (1.0 min.). The process yields are modeled by *truncated binomial distributions*, which denote that the job size is first generated by a *binomial distribution*, and then those jobs that carry no wafer are "truncated" (removing them from the fab).

We use (M, N, Y) to represent a test case, where M represents the number of in-line steppers, N represents the number of jobs, and Y represents the average yield. We design 100 test cases, in which M has two options (with 2 or 3 steppers) and N has 5 options ranging from 20 to 100 jobs and Y includes 10 options ranging from 15% to 90%. In practice, the complexity of a typical multiple-stepper scheduling problem is $M = 2$ and $N = 60$.

In each test case, we run 15 replicates and the average *makespan* of the 15 replicates is taken as the performance measure of the tested algorithm. The *average makespan* of each algorithm x is designated as C_x . For example, $C_{GA-tabu}$ represents the average makespan of the GA-Tabu. Likewise, the average CPU time used in each algorithm x is defined as t_x ; for example, that used in the GA-Tabu is represented by $t_{GA-tabu}$.

Pilot experiments indicate that the GA-Tabu essentially outperforms the other six algorithm. To compare the solution quality of the seven algorithms, we define a *performance gap* as follows: $\gamma_x = (C_x - C_{GA_Tabu}) / C_{GA_Tabu}$. A positive γ_x indicates

that the GA-Tabu outperforms the x algorithm, while a negative γ_x denotes that the GA-Tabu is inferior to the x algorithm.

6.2 Experiment Results

Tables 2-11 show the experiment results of γ_x and t_x . The GA-Tabu outperforms the other six algorithms in terms of γ_x . Of the 100 test cases, γ_x ranges from 0% to 22% but the average of γ_x is only 1.19%. See Figure 3, the lower is Y (average process yield), the higher is the average of γ_x . While Y decreases to 15%, the average of γ_x even reaches up to 8.06%. This is due that the number of small lots in a high-yield scenario is fewer which in turn results in less capacity-loss. Therefore, the GA-Tabu outperforms the other algorithms substantially in low-yield scenarios and slightly in high-yield scenarios.

Of the 100 test cases, the average of γ_x for each algorithm is shown in Figure 4, which indicates that the Tabu algorithm is the second best—the average of γ_{Tabu} is only 0.16%. However, the value of γ_{Tabu} may reach up to 5.31% in a low-yield scenario (Table 3). The average of t_x for each algorithm is shown in Figure 5, which indicates that the Tabu algorithm is computationally faster than the GA-Tabu. The maximum value of $t_{GA-Tabu}$ is 4,379 sec. (about 1.2 hour). In practice, the scheduling decision is made on every working shift (12 hours); solving such a scheduling problem 1.5 hours before the shift is acceptable to practitioners.

6.3 Research Uniqueness

The uniqueness of this research, in comparison to the prior studies on the single-stepper scheduling problem, is explained from the following three perspectives: (1) the scheduling context, (2) the chromosome-decoding, and (3) the chromosome solution quality of meta-heuristic algorithms.

The scheduling context of multiple steppers is more complicated than that of single stepper. Namely, the scheduling context of multiple steppers involves two types of decisions: (1) *stepper allocation*: how to allocate jobs to each stepper, and (2) *job*

sequencing: how to sequence the allocated jobs for each stepper. In contrast, the scheduling context of single stepper involves only one type of decision—how to sequence all the jobs for the stepper.

Such an increased complexity in the scheduling contexts leads to a *chromosome-decoding* issue. As stated, a chromosome originally represents a sequence of all the jobs. Such a chromosome can be directly interpreted as a scheduling solution for the single-stepper context. However, to interpret such a chromosome as a scheduling solution for the multiple-steppers context, we need to develop a decoding scheme—for decoding a chromosome into two types of decisions (*stepper allocation* and *job sequencing*). In summary, for a given chromosome, even though its appearance is exactly the same in the two scheduling contexts, its two implied scheduling decisions are far different.

In this research, several meta-heuristic algorithms are examined in the multiple-steppers context. These algorithms, in terms of algorithmic flow, are essentially the same as those prior ones addressed in the single-stepper context—except the inclusion of the *chromosome-decoding mechanism*. Noticeably, such an inclusion leads to far different semantics in interpreting a chromosome. This lead to that the best-solution chromosome in the single-stepper context is most likely not the best one while it is in the multiple-steppers context. We therefore have to examine the effectiveness of these meta-heuristic algorithms in the multiple-stepper context.

7. Concluding Remarks

In-line steppers are the bottleneck of a semiconductor wafer fab. This study examines a problem for the scheduling of N jobs on M in-line steppers in a low-yield scenario. Such a scheduling problem involves two decisions: how to allocate jobs to

each stepper, and how to sequence jobs for each stepper. The longest makespan of the M in-line steppers is taken as the performance measure.

A scheduling solution (called a *chromosome*) is represented by a sequence of N jobs. We develop a novel *chromosome-decoding scheme* to interpret a chromosome into its two associated scheduling decisions—job allocation and job sequencing. Such a decoding result can be used to compute the *performance* (also called fitness) of the chromosome.

Based on the chromosome representation and decoding schemes, seven meta-heuristic algorithms adapted from prior studies are developed. These seven algorithms include GA, Tabu, GA-Tabu, SA, M-MMAX, PACO, PSO. Numerical experiments indicate that the GA-Tabu outperforms the other six algorithms in terms of solution quality; and this merit is particularly impressive in low-yield scenarios. In practice, such a scheduling decision is made on every working shift (12 hours). The computation time of the GA-Tabu, ranging from a few minutes to less than 1.5 hours, is acceptable to practitioners.

One extension of this research is examining the optimal design of port number. The larger is the port number, the higher is the tool expenditure and the tool operation costs; yet the less is the capacity loss of steppers. Therefore, stepper vendors may need to customize the port design based on the process yields of their customers.

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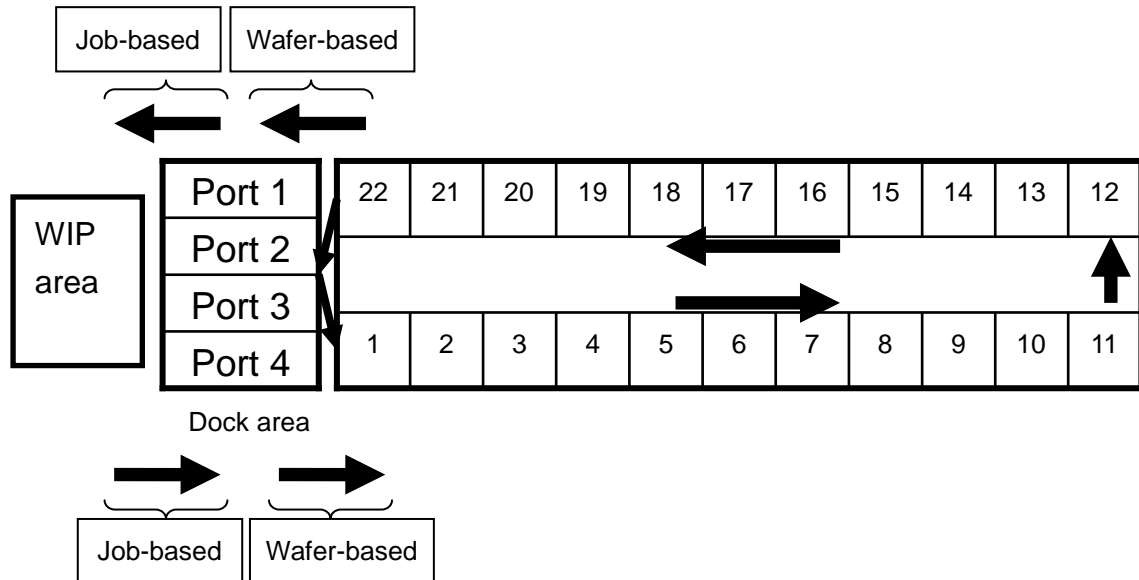


Figure 1. Configuration of a simplified in-line stepper.

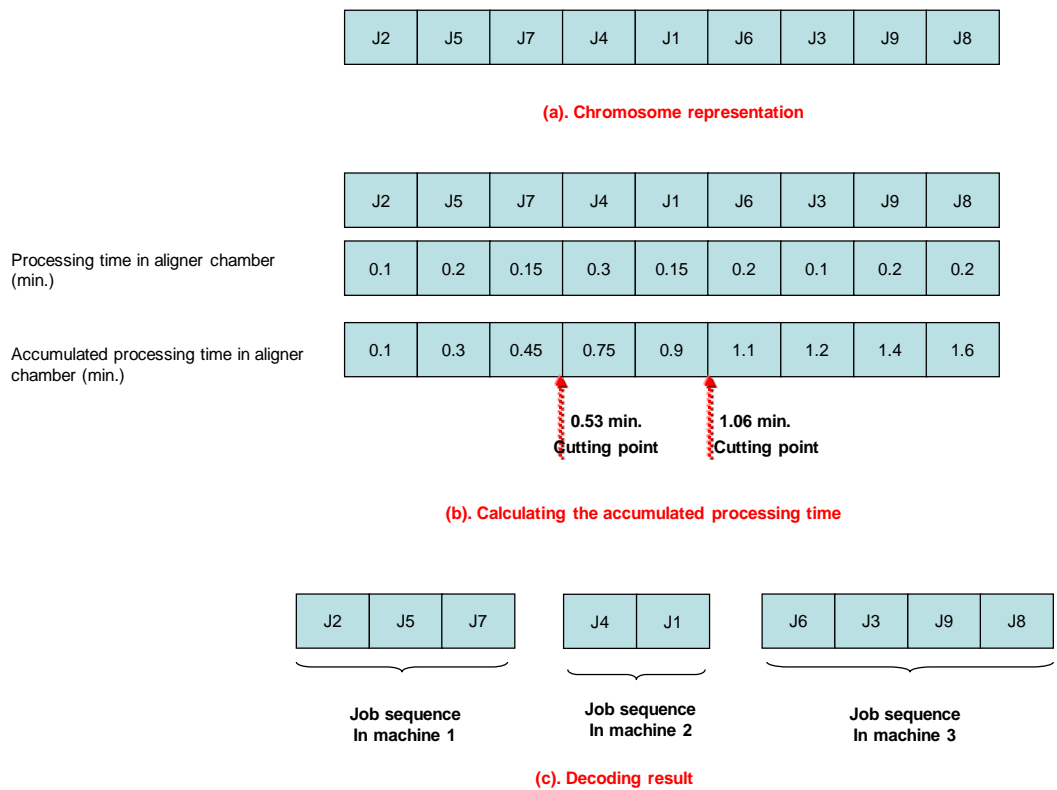


Figure 2. GA-Tabu chromosome for three in-line steppers.

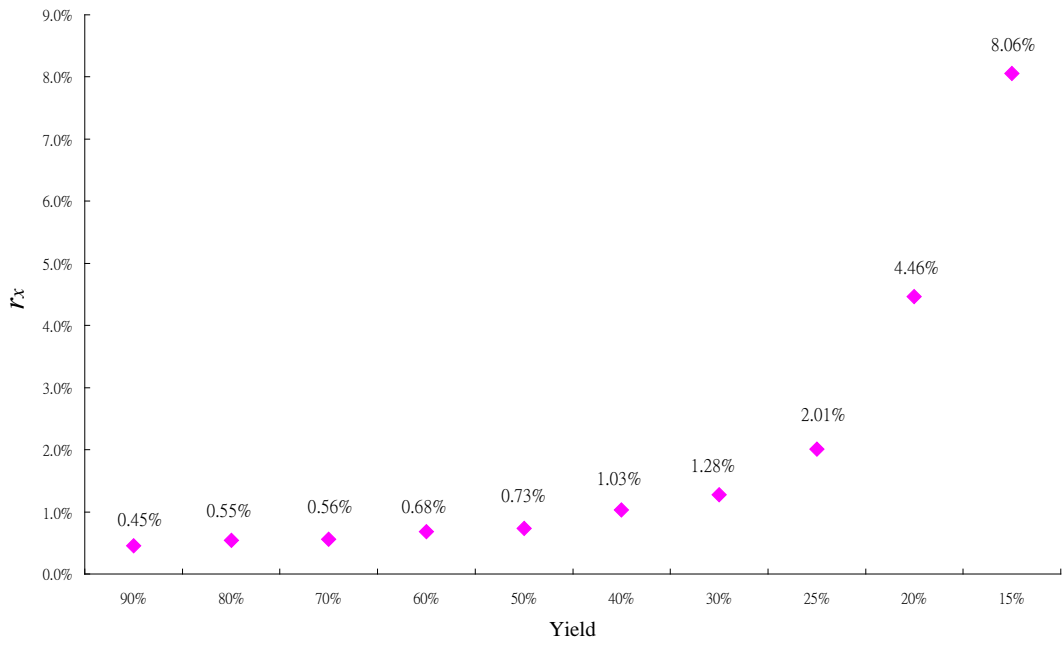


Figure 3. Average of γ_x at various yields.

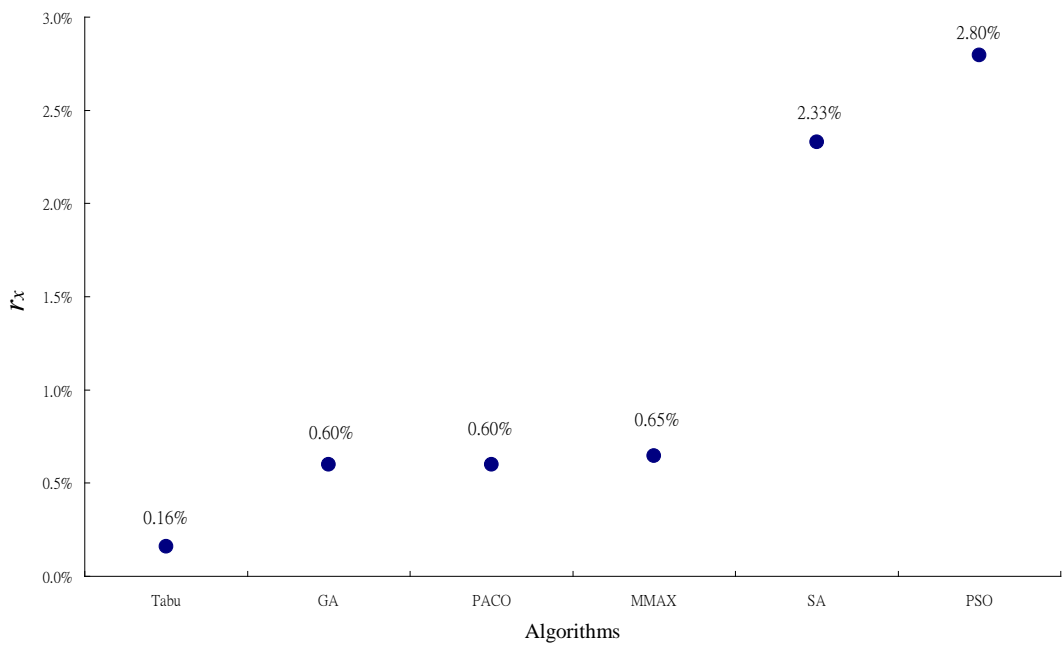


Figure 4. Average of γ_x at various algorithms.

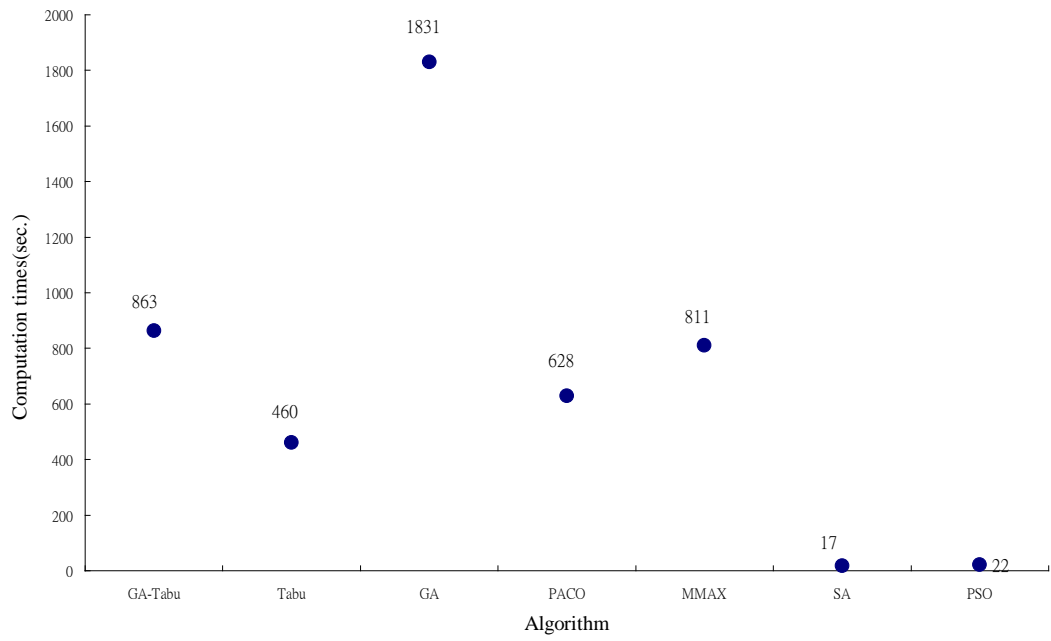


Figure 5. Computation times comparison for the type of algorithms.

Table 1. Process times of in-line stepper chambers

<i>Process sequence</i>	<i>WIP buffers to dock area</i>	<i>Dock area to track</i>	<i>HMDS</i>	<i>Cooling</i>	<i>Coater</i>	<i>Soft-bake</i>	<i>Cooling</i>	<i>Aligner</i>	<i>wafer edge exposure</i>	<i>PEB</i>	<i>Cooling</i>	<i>Develop</i>	<i>Hard bake</i>	<i>High cooling</i>
<i>Chamber number</i>	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	1
<i>Process time (min)</i>	2.5	0.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	[1.2,2.8]	1	[0.75,1.65]	1	[1.2,2.8]	1	[1.2,2.8]	[1.2,2.8]	0.5

Table 2. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (2, 20)$

Jobs	20													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{Tabu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	269.7	119	0.00%	79.0	0.09%	244	0.59%	21	0.36%	29	1.12%	6	1.94%	2
80%	254.8	109	0.11%	79.0	0.14%	296	0.28%	19	0.18%	28	1.04%	7	1.91%	1
70%	216.0	104	0.05%	78.0	0.09%	253	0.41%	16	0.23%	23	1.43%	5	2.01%	1
60%	186.3	103	0.08%	77.9	0.23%	217	0.37%	14	0.30%	20	1.34%	5	2.15%	1
50%	168.9	96	0.17%	77.1	0.26%	196	0.39%	13	0.36%	18	1.61%	4	2.66%	1
40%	130.5	63	0.14%	77.0	0.36%	157	0.50%	10	0.49%	13	1.94%	4	3.21%	1
30%	106.5	65	0.08%	76.0	0.29%	160	0.81%	8	0.39%	10	1.98%	3	3.35%	1
25%	81.1	46	0.15%	75.1	0.71%	156	0.86%	6	0.79%	8	3.16%	2	5.61%	1
20%	70.2	42	0.59%	75.0	0.89%	129	2.26%	5	1.72%	6	5.24%	2	7.85%	1
15%	62.5	37	0.25%	75.0	1.50%	118	2.47%	4	2.31%	5	7.03%	2	10.63%	1

Table 3. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (2, 40)$

Jobs	40													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tbu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	564.6	381	0.05%	160	0.02%	722	0.10%	185	0.10%	261	0.97%	30	1.37%	7
80%	488.1	333	0.07%	155	0.04%	635	0.20%	160	0.20%	226	1.06%	31	1.59%	7
70%	438.5	294	0.08%	151	0.18%	674	0.29%	143	0.29%	203	1.26%	30	1.79%	6
60%	378.3	276	0.03%	146	0.00%	553	0.16%	122	0.16%	173	1.33%	28	2.00%	6
50%	331.9	261	0.08%	143	0.00%	488	0.16%	106	0.16%	150	1.42%	26	2.11%	6
40%	254.4	182	0.00%	138	0.11%	359	0.20%	81	0.20%	116	1.89%	24	2.87%	6
30%	200.0	150	0.07%	133	0.10%	334	0.45%	63	0.45%	89	2.29%	22	3.62%	5
25%	172.2	150	0.04%	130	0.29%	419	0.52%	54	0.52%	76	3.39%	21	4.93%	5
20%	129.9	128	5.31%	129	2.20%	386	1.90%	48	1.90%	69	15.55%	20	15.77%	5
15%	118.8	104	2.71%	124	2.80%	649	3.66%	34	3.66%	48	22.91%	19	15.34%	5

Table 4. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (2, 60)$

Jobs	60 jobs													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tbu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	840.4	961	0.02%	527	0.04%	1670	0.05%	618	0.14%	876	0.80%	25	1.17%	17
80%	738.7	838	0.01%	511	0.02%	1245	0.06%	542	0.28%	773	1.01%	23	1.51%	17
70%	649.8	792	0.09%	495	0.03%	1549	0.13%	475	0.16%	679	1.01%	22	1.45%	16
60%	585.9	694	0.01%	483	0.07%	1091	0.15%	427	0.29%	612	1.22%	19	1.74%	16
50%	473.4	517	0.01%	466	0.13%	980	0.18%	339	0.28%	487	1.01%	18	1.88%	15
40%	391.3	433	0.00%	452	0.19%	771	0.30%	278	0.35%	401	1.80%	16	2.40%	15
30%	278.4	324	0.13%	431	0.45%	726	0.28%	197	0.43%	282	1.98%	14	3.58%	15
25%	234.5	284	0.07%	421	1.11%	858	0.76%	166	0.77%	240	3.81%	13	5.98%	15
20%	207.1	281	0.32%	417	3.26%	1384	2.18%	149	2.06%	216	7.78%	11	9.50%	14
15%	170.3	212	1.66%	411	9.02%	1595	5.00%	112	6.26%	162	21.00%	10	16.78%	14

Table 5. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (2, 80)$

Jobs	80													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tbu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	1123.3	1851	0.01%	1210	0.03%	2502	0.12%	1474	0.13%	2084	0.79%	49	1.05%	34
80%	1004.2	1731	0.06%	1174	0.09%	2722	0.27%	1309	0.37%	1857	0.80%	47	1.18%	33
70%	891.7	1659	0.00%	1139	0.06%	2053	0.16%	1158	0.19%	1648	0.86%	43	1.30%	33
60%	760.3	1352	0.00%	1098	0.06%	1767	0.21%	978	0.30%	1393	1.58%	39	1.47%	32
50%	654.7	1130	0.02%	1074	0.05%	1726	0.20%	844	0.21%	1205	1.26%	36	1.75%	32
40%	515.0	864	0.05%	1034	0.25%	1109	0.35%	660	0.43%	954	2.66%	32	2.16%	31
30%	412.5	708	0.00%	998	0.22%	1262	0.59%	521	0.20%	744	1.77%	28	2.62%	31
25%	334.7	601	0.01%	967	0.89%	1315	1.12%	426	0.55%	610	4.69%	26	4.11%	30
20%	292.4	529	0.07%	954	2.69%	1997	2.39%	374	1.87%	543	5.85%	24	7.39%	30
15%	228.9	392	2.68%	931	6.91%	2126	7.80%	253	4.02%	366	8.77%	21	16.64%	30

Table 6. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (2, 100)$

Jobs	100													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tbu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	1398.8	3402	0.02%	2328	0.06%	4002	0.15%	2851	0.16%	4053	0.76%	31	1.03%	58
80%	1256.4	3348	0.06%	2261	0.09%	3250	0.37%	2546	0.37%	3636	0.78%	28	1.09%	58
70%	1120.1	2734	0.03%	2193	0.03%	3459	0.15%	2253	0.18%	3229	0.78%	25	0.97%	57
60%	959.0	2294	0.04%	2117	0.10%	2389	0.25%	1920	0.30%	2769	1.04%	22	1.38%	57
50%	785.2	1868	0.06%	2041	0.08%	2454	0.23%	1568	0.26%	2257	1.11%	18	1.63%	56
40%	658.1	1711	0.03%	1988	0.19%	2183	0.28%	1308	0.37%	1886	1.44%	16	2.14%	55
30%	501.4	1231	0.00%	1900	0.45%	1780	0.83%	984	0.43%	1405	2.76%	12	2.69%	55
25%	451.2	1153	0.51%	1870	0.66%	1760	0.91%	882	0.29%	1258	2.60%	11	2.20%	55
20%	364.2	961	0.47%	1825	3.30%	2952	3.03%	728	2.96%	1055	7.52%	9	7.73%	54
15%	303.1	681	0.09%	1783	5.75%	3151	6.69%	511	3.49%	740	11.40%	6	11.95%	54

Table 7. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (3, 20)$

Jobs	20													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tabu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	197.9	4379	0.11%	6.0	0.09%	5876	0.41%	21	0.29%	31	1.27%	30	1.37%	2
80%	186.7	3970	0.19%	5.0	0.13%	4726	0.59%	19	0.31%	29	1.47%	27	1.61%	2
70%	159.7	3484	0.14%	4.0	0.22%	4348	0.50%	16	0.25%	25	1.53%	24	1.77%	1
60%	140.9	3375	0.12%	4.0	0.39%	4978	0.69%	14	0.58%	21	1.60%	21	1.87%	1
50%	126.7	2450	0.11%	3.0	0.57%	3996	0.76%	13	0.61%	19	1.69%	17	2.07%	1
40%	99.8	2046	0.10%	2.0	0.44%	4059	0.55%	10	0.52%	14	1.81%	14	2.29%	1
30%	82.2	1540	0.06%	2.0	0.55%	2632	0.60%	7	0.51%	11	1.83%	11	2.68%	1
25%	63.7	1377	0.13%	1.0	0.81%	3063	1.08%	6	0.85%	8	2.56%	10	3.88%	1
20%	55.9	1135	0.39%	1.0	0.89%	2209	1.18%	5	1.11%	7	3.43%	9	4.99%	1
15%	49.2	896	0.57%	1.0	1.53%	2238	1.99%	4	1.53%	6	5.10%	7	8.51%	1

Table 8. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (3, 40)$

Jobs	40													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{Tabu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	394.0	416	0.10%	54.0	0.15%	271	0.07%	1176	0.13%	178	1.38%	12	1.59%	7
80%	342.1	369	0.07%	47.0	0.11%	234	0.13%	1042	0.11%	155	1.60%	11	1.83%	7
70%	308.7	330	0.07%	42.0	0.19%	210	0.25%	1021	0.31%	139	1.78%	10	1.99%	6
60%	266.0	287	0.14%	36.0	0.35%	180	0.19%	843	0.28%	119	1.80%	9	2.31%	6
50%	234.2	266	0.08%	31.0	0.28%	156	0.24%	879	0.18%	104	1.77%	8	2.53%	6
40%	181.1	208	0.07%	24.1	0.45%	121	0.47%	624	0.37%	81	2.45%	6	3.14%	6
30%	143.2	175	0.23%	19.0	0.53%	94	0.52%	728	0.38%	63	2.92%	5	3.92%	5
25%	124.0	150	0.27%	16.0	0.52%	80	0.67%	670	0.70%	54	3.98%	4	5.27%	5
20%	94.5	170	3.43%	12.0	2.82%	61	0.66%	720	2.67%	41	12.11%	4	15.36%	5
15%	85.4	118	0.75%	10.0	2.47%	50	2.02%	567	3.27%	34	10.90%	3	15.91%	5

Table 9. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (3, 60)$

Jobs	60													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tbu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	577.5	1092	0.00%	179.4	0.05%	2724	0.07%	597	0.00%	915	1.23%	20	1.38%	17
80%	509.6	975	0.02%	158.9	0.09%	2093	0.02%	526	0.02%	804	1.19%	18	1.52%	17
70%	449.1	866	0.04%	140.1	0.17%	1587	0.15%	463	0.11%	705	1.46%	16	1.68%	16
60%	405.6	774	0.00%	126.9	0.13%	1859	0.13%	418	0.17%	635	1.65%	15	1.81%	16
50%	328.2	645	0.00%	101.0	0.31%	1278	0.14%	333	0.08%	504	1.78%	12	2.25%	16
40%	272.4	522	0.04%	83.7	0.48%	1428	0.24%	276	0.22%	416	2.84%	11	2.70%	15
30%	196.6	384	0.13%	59.0	0.91%	986	0.38%	197	0.16%	295	2.94%	9	3.80%	15
25%	165.1	330	0.18%	50.0	1.91%	1366	0.64%	166	0.47%	249	5.08%	8	5.94%	15
20%	146.8	315	0.63%	45.0	4.20%	1511	2.08%	148	1.78%	222	7.75%	7	9.63%	14
15%	116.9	326	4.68%	33.0	4.00%	1081	4.35%	107	4.20%	161	17.53%	6	19.41%	14

Table 10. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (3, 80)$

Jobs	80													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{Tabu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	766.2	2404	0.07%	430.7	0.31%	3721	0.21%	1429	0.39%	2179	1.08%	25	1.23%	34
80%	686.3	2174	0.00%	386.7	0.46%	2935	0.15%	1278	0.45%	1939	1.22%	22	1.33%	33
70%	609.7	1884	0.02%	343.9	0.46%	2823	0.17%	1133	0.40%	1714	1.78%	20	1.50%	33
60%	520.8	1587	0.03%	291.5	0.34%	2682	0.17%	959	0.70%	1449	1.52%	17	1.71%	32
50%	450.7	1377	0.12%	252.5	0.41%	3010	0.22%	831	0.44%	1250	1.65%	15	2.01%	32
40%	354.5	1153	0.05%	199.0	0.76%	2283	0.16%	654	1.02%	983	2.09%	12	2.47%	31
30%	285.8	878	0.08%	158.1	1.30%	2269	0.44%	521	1.34%	779	2.39%	10	3.04%	31
25%	232.6	722	0.04%	129.7	3.16%	1692	0.85%	427	3.14%	639	3.47%	9	4.39%	30
20%	203.8	638	0.16%	114.9	5.36%	1485	1.77%	376	7.13%	562	5.94%	8	7.43%	30
15%	159.3	462	0.07%	78.3	10.29%	1609	1.48%	253	11.40%	378	22.57%	6	16.44%	30

Table 11. Performance comparisons of algorithms in scenarios with $(M, N) = (3, 100)$

Jobs	100													
	GA_Tabu		Tabu		GA		PACO		MMAX		SA		PSO	
Yield	$C_{GA-Tabu}$ (min)	$t_{GA-Tabu}$ (sec)	r_{Tabu}	t_{tabu} (sec)	r_{GA}	t_{GA} (min)	r_{PACO}	t_{PACO} (sec)	r_{MMAX}	t_{MMAX} (sec)	r_{SA}	t_{SA} (sec)	r_{PSO}	t_{PSO} (sec)
90%	950.5	4379	0.04%	839.1	0.06%	5876	0.39%	2780	0.28%	4236	0.96%	30	1.14%	59
80%	853.9	3970	0.05%	756.9	0.16%	4726	0.63%	2493	0.34%	3788	1.48%	27	1.24%	58
70%	760.4	3484	0.00%	674.0	0.21%	4348	0.47%	2214	0.23%	3349	1.35%	24	1.36%	57
60%	653.2	3375	0.04%	579.6	0.38%	4978	0.69%	1896	0.57%	2865	1.78%	21	1.56%	57
50%	535.1	2450	0.00%	474.8	0.63%	3996	0.82%	1549	0.67%	2336	1.56%	17	1.89%	56
40%	451.1	2046	0.10%	397.1	1.12%	4059	1.23%	1296	1.21%	1953	2.42%	14	2.35%	56
30%	345.0	1540	0.07%	300.5	1.57%	2632	1.62%	981	1.54%	1478	2.11%	11	2.93%	55
25%	306.8	1377	0.33%	269.8	2.32%	3063	2.60%	882	2.35%	1329	4.46%	10	3.68%	55
20%	252.8	1135	0.08%	224.3	5.30%	2209	5.61%	730	5.54%	1097	5.96%	9	7.24%	54
15%	205.7	896	0.16%	167.7	7.81%	2238	8.29%	533	8.24%	803	16.05%	7	14.02%	54

國科會補助專題研究計畫成果報告自評表

請就研究內容與原計畫相符程度、達成預期目標情況、研究成果之學術或應用價值（簡要敘述成果所代表之意義、價值、影響或進一步發展之可能性）、是否適合在學術期刊發表或申請專利、主要發現或其他有關價值等，作一綜合評估。

1. 請就研究內容與原計畫相符程度、達成預期目標情況作一綜合評估

● 達成目標

未達成目標（請說明，以 100 字為限）

實驗失敗

因故實驗中斷

其他原因

說明：

2. 研究成果在學術期刊發表或申請專利等情形：

論文：已發表 未發表之文稿 撰寫中 無

專利：已獲得 申請中 無

技轉：已技轉 洽談中 無

其他：(以 100 字為限)

◇ 發表 3 篇 SCI 的學術期刊論文

3. 請依學術成就、技術創新、社會影響等方面，評估研究成果之學術或應用價值（簡要敘述成果所代表之意義、價值、影響或進一步發展之可能性）（以 500 字為限）

◇ 本專題研究主要是針對晶圓廠的關鍵機台步進機(Stepper)研究其派工方法，以提高步進機的產出。重要成果如下

(1) 發現：在新製程導入時，良率偏低，步進機可能因派工方法不當，造成現場有在製品，但產能利用率卻不足的現象。

(2) 方法：本研究利用多種進化式演算法(meta-heuristic algorithms)來求解步進機投料的排序，以最大化步進機的產出。

(3) 貢獻：本研究可幫助晶圓廠，在新製程導入的情境下，有效提高步進機的產出。

國科會補助計畫衍生研發成果推廣資料表

日期：101 年 5 月 12 日

國科會補助計畫	計畫名稱：新製程導入情境下連線式步進機之排程 計畫主持人：巫木誠 計畫編號：99-2221-E-009-110-MY3 領域：工業工程		
研發成果名稱	(中文) 連線式步進機之排程方法		
	(英文) An Effective Scheduling Method For In-Line Steppers		
成果歸屬機構	國立交通大學	發明人 (創作人)	巫木誠、邱志文、呂佳 玟、謝佩芸
技術說明	<p>(中文) 半導體廠最貴的機台是步進機(Stepper)，因此成為影響產出最關鍵的瓶頸機台。在新製程導入時，製程良率通常很低。本研究發現在低良率情境下，晶圓批的加工順序安排若不適當，很可能造成步進機台意外性閒置，進而降低產出量。本研究提出一套有效的排程方法，可使步進機台產出最佳化。</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(200-500 字)</p>		
	<p>(英文) In semiconductor fabs, in-line steppers are the most expensive tools, which are the bottleneck in determining wafer outputs. While introducing new processes or products, the process yields tend to be low. This low-yield feature may unexpectedly result in capacity idleness in an in-line stepper. This research develops a scheduling method for in-line steppers to reduce the risk of their unexpected capacity idleness in low yield scenarios.</p>		
產業別	半導體產業		
技術/產品應用範圍	步進機排程		

技術移轉可行性及預期效益	(1) 技術移轉：具高可行性 (2) 預期效益：在低良率情境下，可提高步進機的產出
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註：本項研發成果若尚未申請專利，請勿揭露可申請專利之主要內容。