

1 Dynamic Scheduling of a Semiconductor Production 2 Line Based on Composite Rule Set

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13 **Abstract:** Various factors and constraints should be considered when developing a manufacturing
14 production schedule, and such a schedule is often based on rules. This paper develops a composite
15 dispatching rule based on heuristic rules that comprehensively consider various factors in a
16 semiconductor production line. The composite rule is obtained by exploring various states of a
17 semiconductor production line (machine status, queue size, etc.), where such indicators as
18 makespan and equipment efficiency are used to judge performance. A model of the response
19 surface, as a function of key variables, is then developed to find the optimized parameters of a
20 composite rule for various production states. Further, dynamic scheduling of semiconductor
21 manufacturing is studied based on support vector regression (SVR). This approach dynamically
22 obtains a composite dispatching rule (i.e. parameters of the composite dispatching rule) that can be
23 used to optimize production performance according to real-time production line state. Following
24 optimization, the proposed dynamic scheduling approach is tested in a real semiconductor
25 production line to validate the effectiveness of the proposed composite rule set.

26

27 **Keywords:** Dynamic Scheduling; Semiconductor Manufacturing; Composite Rule Set; Support Vector
28 Regression (SVR)

29

30 1. Introduction

31 A semiconductor manufacturing system is a dynamic system that is subject to various
32 uncertainties (e.g., machine failures, arrival of new urgent jobs, and the modification of job due
33 times). When unexpected events occur, a previously “optimal” schedule may no longer be optimal,
34 and can even become infeasible. Scheduling in response to real-time events has been defined as
35 “dynamic scheduling”[1].

36 Dynamic scheduling of manufacturing systems is often rule based, with a given rule selected
37 based on the needs of the production environment [2]. Some researchers have been studying
38 dynamic scheduling based on a machine learning approach. With this approach, a system acquires
39 scheduling knowledge through training with optimized scheduling samples. This knowledge is then
40 applied to obtain scheduling rules which may be utilized to obtain a feasible real-time schedule. For
41 example, Shiue et al. [3] proposed a self-organizing map-based multiple scheduling rule selection
42 mechanism. Tsai et al. [4] put forward a radio frequency identification (RFID)-based real-time
43 scheduling system for an automated semiconductor manufacturing plant, which selected features
44 for training samples and established a dynamic scheduling model based on a support vector
45 machine (SVM). Olafsson et al. [5] suggested a dynamic scheduling strategy selection method based

46 on a genetic algorithm (GA) and decision tree. Ma et al. [6] and Qiao et al. [7] used a binary particle
47 swarm optimization combined with a support vector machine (BPSO-SVM) and a k-nearest
48 neighbors (KNN) algorithm to realize dynamic scheduling for a semiconductor manufacturing
49 system. These methods provide simple and effective heuristics for selecting real-time scheduling
50 rules for a manufacturing system. These heuristics tend to have a local perspective, in that they
51 ignore such broader issues as information of manufacturing system, such as job due times and
52 equipment load. However, production scheduling in practice must consider a variety of different
53 performance criteria and constraints, e.g., cost, job completion times, job due dates, and process
54 requirements and limitations. That means, a global information-based dispatching rule is needed,
55 and dynamic scheduling for manufacturing system is implemented by adjusting key parameters of
56 rules. Li et al [8] used a back propagation (BP) neural network, a binary regression model and a
57 particle swarm optimization to study samples, thereby obtaining a self-adapt scheduling model to
58 meet the dynamic scheduling needs; Lee et al [9] used a real-time dispatching approach integrating
59 autonomy and coordination, in which an advanced dispatching rule was determined based on
60 global information. Once trigger events occurred, the parameters of dispatching rules would be
61 adjusted dynamically. The scheduling structure of this approach is keeping stable, but the choice of
62 key parameters is difficult.

63 Due to the complexity and multiple process constraints of semiconductor production line, if
64 using advanced dispatching rules for scheduling, global information needs to be taken into account
65 and results in computationally demanding; while using simple rules for scheduling, the
66 effectiveness of optimization is not satisfied. Therefore, improved simple rules are suggested to use
67 for semiconductor production scheduling [10-12]. Chen [13] fused earliest due date (EDD) and
68 fluctuation smoothing rule for mean cycle time (FSMCT) into a new scheduling rule in a nonlinear
69 way for optimizing mean cycle time and maximum lateness. Dabbas et al. [14] use a linear
70 combination with relative weights to combine multiple dispatching rules into a single rule. Both of
71 them suggested combining single rules into a composite rule, but how to obtain the parameter
72 (weights) of composite rule in real time according to the state of manufacturing system, was not
73 involved.

74 This paper proposes a simple and feasible composite dispatching rule and applies it to
75 scheduling of a semiconductor production line for simultaneous optimization of multiple
76 performance measures. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2 the composite
77 dispatching rule is presented. A framework for a dynamic scheduling algorithm is described in
78 section 3. In section 4, the dynamic scheduling method with the proposed composite dispatching
79 rule is studied in detail. A case study for the production of 5-inch and 6-inch wafers is presented in
80 section 5. Finally, some concluding remarks are presented in Section 6.

81 2. Composite Dispatching Rule

82 A simple heuristic dispatching rule is often sought to assess job attributes (due date, process
83 time, etc.) and make decisions to meet some performance targets of a manufacturing system
84 (energy, cost, throughput, etc.). A composite rule considers, and dynamically integrates, several
85 simple dispatching rules to simultaneously optimize multiple objectives. In particular, the rule seeks
86 for the best sequence in which a set of jobs is processed. That is, by applying the composite rule, an
87 integrated priority P_i of job i can be determined using the priority $p_{k,i}$ of job i based on a single
88 rule $R_k (k = 1, 2, \dots, K)$, which in turn defines the job sequence.

89 2.1 Priority based on a single rule

90 Suppose that job i is in a machine buffer waiting to be processed. When using rule R_k to sort
91 jobs, the priority $p_{k,i}$ of job i is determined by the job attribute related to rule R_k , and $0 \leq p_{k,i} \leq 1$,
92 where the greater the value of $p_{k,i}$, the higher the processing priority for job i . There are two
93 scenarios:

94 Scenario I: The greater the value of the job attribute, given by α , the higher the job processing
95 priority. For example, the job attribute "waiting time in buffer", is used to determine the job

96 processing sequence when applying the dispatching rule “first-in first-out (FIFO)”. For a job, the
 97 longer the waiting time in the buffer, the higher the job processing priority. In this case, the priority
 98 is determined by rule R_k :

$$p_{k,i} = \frac{\alpha_i - \alpha_{min}}{\alpha_{max} - \alpha_{min}} , \quad (1)$$

99 Scenario II: The smaller the value of the job attribute (α), the higher the job processing priority.
 100 For example, the job attribute “due date”, is used to determine the job processing sequence when
 101 applying the dispatching rule “earliest due date (EDD)”. For a job, the earlier the job’s due date, the
 102 higher the processing priority. In this case the priority is determined by rule R_k :

$$p_{k,i} = 1 - \frac{\alpha_i - \alpha_{min}}{\alpha_{max} - \alpha_{min}} , \quad (2)$$

103 here α_i is the value of attribute α of job i , and α_{max} and α_{min} are the maximum and the
 104 minimum values of attribute α of jobs waiting to be processed.

105 2.2 Integrated priority based on a composite rule

106 Integrated priority, as determined by a composite rule, is defined as follows: a composite rule is
 107 a linear combination of two or more single rules, with each rule having an associated weight.
 108 Suppose ω_k ($k = 1, 2, \dots, K$) is the weight for rule R_k in the composite rule. Then, the integrated
 109 priority of job i is:

$$P_i = \omega_1 * p_{1,i} + \omega_2 * p_{2,i} + \dots + \omega_K * p_{K,i} = \sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k * p_{k,i} , \quad (3)$$

110 where K is the number of single rules in the composite rule and $\sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k = 1$, $0 \leq \omega_k \leq 1$.
 111 When applying a composite rule to scheduling, the integrated priority P_i of job i waiting for
 112 processing is determined according to Eq. (3). The greater the integrated priority, the earlier job i
 113 is to be processed. Changing the weights in Equation (3) will lead to different integrated priority, thus
 114 different job sequence. In an application, manufacturing performance can be improved by
 115 optimizing the weights in a composite rule.

116 3. Learning Based Dynamic Scheduling

117 The proposed approach to solve dynamic scheduling problems follows these steps: i) analyze
 118 historical data on production state, scheduling decisions, and resulting performance through
 119 machine learning, and ii) build a model that uses the machine learning results to find the best
 120 scheduling decision for a given production state and scheduling objectives. The framework of the
 121 proposed learning-based dynamic scheduling method is shown in Fig. 1.

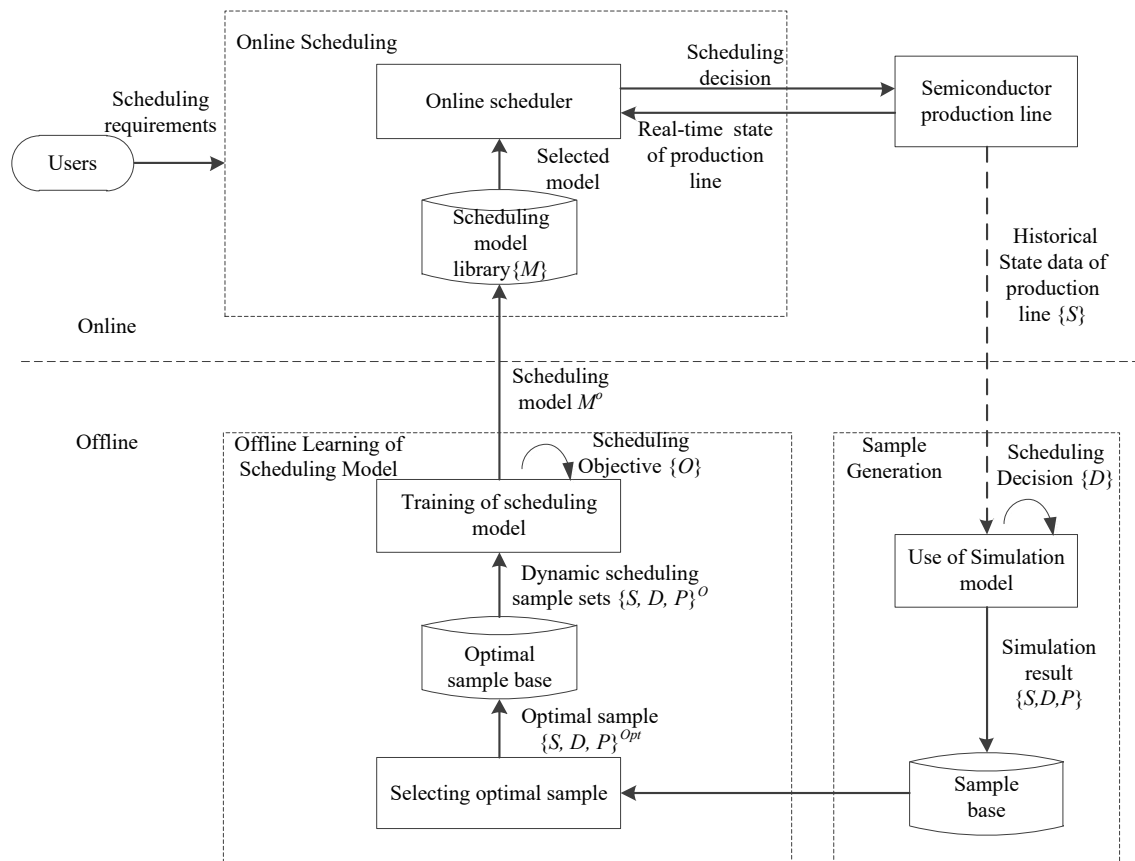
122 The framework can be divided into three modules. The modules are a) a sample generation
 123 module which creates sample production states, and finds the best decision for each performance
 124 criterion of interest, b) an offline learning (or training) module that uses the sample data to develop a
 125 scheduling library i.e. set of scheduling models, with each scheduling model giving optimal
 126 scheduling decisions based on system state for a specified scheduling objective, and c) an online
 127 module that uses the scheduling model for decision-making. Since historical data only provide
 128 manufacturing system performance for the scheduling decision taken, to develop data that can be
 129 used for training purposes, a simulation model is required to predict system performance when
 130 alternative decisions are implemented. Here a discrete event simulation model is used, which is
 131 based on the actual configuration and behavior of a semiconductor production line. Historical data
 132 from an actual line on job sizes, arrival times, machine breakdowns, etc. were described statistically,
 133 and used to characterize key simulation inputs. For each simulation trial, all possible decisions were
 134 evaluated, and values for the performance criteria of interest were noted. Thus, for every production
 135 state, the performance evaluation for every performance criterion is available for every decision.

136 The offline learning module builds a scheduling model for each scheduling objective based on
 137 training data, where each dataset includes production states and the corresponding best decision for
 138 the specified objective, and can be obtained by exercising the simulation model. The offline learning

139 module can greatly reduce the time consumed for scheduling. The online scheduling module selects
 140 a scheduling model from the scheduling model library according to the scheduling requirements of
 141 users, and outputs an optimal scheduling decision by inputting real-time state data from the
 142 semiconductor production line.

143 A data record in the sample base consists of the production line state (S), scheduling decision
 144 (D), and performance (P), given as $\{S, D, P\}$. S represents the current state of the production line,
 145 working area, machines and jobs obtained from historical data; D is the composite scheduling rule
 146 applied, and P is the recorded performance of the given production line found by applying the
 147 scheduling decision and running the simulation model for a scheduling period.

148 For the development of the discrete event simulation model for semiconductor production
 149 system, please refer to Ye [15]. The discussion here is focusing on the 2nd module i.e. offline learning.



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Figure 1. The framework of a dynamic scheduling system for a semiconductor production line

152 4. A SVR-Based Dynamic Scheduling Model

153 4.1 Generation of training data from sample base

154 Since running the discrete event simulation model is time consuming (e.g. each simulation run
 155 takes more than 30 minutes for a production line with more than 200 steps and 800 machines when
 156 processing 80000 wafers), it is infeasible to search for optimal scheduling decision (i.e. weights in a
 157 composite rule) using the search algorithm for a production state. To address this, response surface
 158 methodology (RSM) is used here. If a model for the response surface exists as a function of the
 159 weights/parameters, values may be selected to optimize the composite rule. Such an approach
 160 involves three steps: i) running trials of a “process” that depends on several variables (securing
 161 “experimental” data), ii) statistical modeling of the experimental data to secure a predicted response
 162 surface [16], and iii) using the predicted response surface to select variable settings that optimize a
 163 response. Here the weights, $\omega_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, k)$, are the variables of interest and the response is a
 164 multi-objective measure corresponding to scheduling objective. It is desired to find the levels of the
 165 weights that optimize the response, Y . A number of trials are performed using different weights

166 (variable settings) for each production state. The performance of the composite rule is evaluated for
 167 each trial to obtain a response. A second-order model (shown in Eq. (4)) is then developed for the
 168 response as a function of the variables/weights:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\beta}_i \omega_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j \geq i} \hat{\beta}_{ij} \omega_i \omega_j, \quad (4)$$

169 where $\hat{\beta}$ ($\hat{\beta}_0$, β_i and $\hat{\beta}_{ij}$) are estimated parameters. Once the experimental data have been
 170 obtained, the form shown in Eq. (4) is fit to the data to obtain the predicted response surface. Then,
 171 the combination of weight values, ω_i^* ($i = 1, 2, \dots, k$), that optimize production performance may be
 172 obtained via calculus from Eq. (4). This set of weight values provides the optimal composite
 173 scheduling rule. In this paper, we use design expert software to find the optimal weight for a
 174 production state, and then build the optimal ample base.

175 4.2 Development of scheduling models

176 A scheduling decision here is a composite scheduling rule and can be represented by the
 177 weights of simple heuristic scheduling rules ($w_i \in [0,1]$ and $w_i \in R$). The scheduling model needs to
 178 determine the weights according to the production line state, it is different to those that need to
 179 select a scheduling rule from a defined rule set. The scheduling problem then becomes a regression
 180 problem as the training datasets cannot cover all the possible production line states. Support vector
 181 regression (SVR) is used to build the scheduling model due to its high regression accuracy and its
 182 high generalization ability, even when used for problems with a small sample size. Assuming there
 183 is a sample set $\{(x_i, y_i) | x_i \in R^m, y_i \in R^n, i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$, the nonlinear mapping, $\Phi(x)$, of input, x , is
 184 built and then the regression function is generated as follows:

$$f(x_i) = \omega^* \cdot \Phi(x_i) + b, \quad (5)$$

185 where ω^* and b are the weight vector and bias or offset, respectively. The quadratic program
 186 is used to solve the problem and minimize the loss function as shown in the Eq. (6) [17].

$$L(f(x_i) - y_i) = \begin{cases} 0, & |f(x_i) - y_i| \leq \varepsilon \\ |f(x_i) - y_i| - \varepsilon, & |f(x_i) - y_i| \geq \varepsilon' \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

187 we can obtain the optimal Lagrange multipliers α_i and α_i^* , then acquire the linear regression
 188 function in a high-dimensional space, as shown in Eq. (7), where $K(x_i, x)$ is the kernel function.
 189 Campbell et al.[18] provide more detail on the SVR method.

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*) K(x_i, x) + b, \quad (7)$$

190 For the scheduling of a semiconductor production line, the input vector $x_i = (x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, \dots, x_{i,m})^T$
 191 is a set of production feature values that describe production state; the output vector $y_i =$
 192 $(y_{i,1}, y_{i,2}, \dots, y_{i,n})^T$ is a set of rule weights of a given scheduling decision in Eq. (3). Based on a sample
 193 set $\{(x_i, y_i) | x_i \in R^m, y_i \in R^n, i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$, a regression function can be obtained as shown in Eq. (7).
 194 So, a composite scheduling rule can be represented by vector $f(x)$ for any given production state,
 195 x .

196 Given the background provided above for developing a regression model for the scheduling
 197 decision, attention now shifts to outlining the stepwise procedure for creating a dynamic scheduling
 198 model. There are four steps to build a dynamic scheduling model of a semiconductor production
 199 line using SVR.

200 Step 1: Normalizing sample data. For one production feature, $x_{i,j}$ of j -th element of x -th
 201 data record for example, the normalized equation is shown as follows:

$$x_{i,j}^N = \frac{x_{i,j} - x_{i,j}^{\min}}{x_{i,j}^{\max} - x_{i,j}^{\min}}, \quad (8)$$

202 where $x_{i,j}^{\max}$ and $x_{i,j}^{\min}$ are the maximum and minimum values of $x_{i,j}$ ($j = 1, \dots, m$) in the
 203 sample set.

204 Step 2: Creating the training sample set and the test sample set. There is a total of N optimal
 205 samples in the sample set, from which we randomly build training set TE_1 and test set TE_2 ,
 206 respectively accounting for 4/5 and 1/5 of the total sample.

207 Step 3: Training a SVR based scheduling model. Use training set TE_1 to train a SVR based
 208 scheduling model with the radial basis function (RBF) kernel, which is $K(x_i, x) = \exp(-\gamma\|x - x_i\|^2)$.
 209 The penalty factor C and the variance γ of the kernel function are selected to achieve the highest
 210 regression accuracy of the model through cross-validation. Based on this, a SVR based scheduling
 211 model is created. When the performance of several SVR models is the same or similar, the one with
 212 the smallest C value is chosen to reduce the complexity of the algorithm.

213 Step 4: Evaluating the model. The created model is evaluated with test set TE_2 . If the prediction
 214 accuracy is in the error range defined based on experience, the model is the one needed, otherwise,
 215 return to step 3 and retrain the scheduling model.

216 Once the scheduling model is established, the focus may shift to evaluating the performance of
 217 the model, and there are many ways to evaluate the accuracy of the created scheduling model. Here,
 218 mean square error (MSE) is used to evaluate the mean error of the scheduling model, which is
 219 acquired through Eq. (9):

$$\text{MSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L (\hat{t}_i - t_i)^2}, \quad (9)$$

220 where L is the number of the samples in test set TE_2 , \hat{t}_i is the predicted weight value and t_i is
 221 the real weight value.

222 5 Case Study

223 The proposed method using optimized composite rules is tested on a real semiconductor
 224 production line, which produces 5-inch and 6-inch wafers in Shanghai. There are more than 800
 225 machines, and the average amount of WIP (work in process) is up to 80,000 pieces in the line. With
 226 the help of a self-developed scheduling simulation system (FabSimSys, software copyright number
 227 from China: 2011SR066503) and expert design v8.0 software, this paper uses the real line production
 228 data to obtain sample data.

229 5.1 Selection of experimental data set

230 5.1.1 Production features set

231 Following the work of the Ma's work[19], 67 production features were selected for analysis and
 232 study. One feature selected was the amount of WIP (number of work in process) and others are
 233 distribution of machine number and bottleneck machine number. Utilizing these features, it is
 234 possible to describe the state of the both the jobs and the machines for every location in the
 235 production line.

236 5.1.2 Design of composite rule

237 Several lot attributes were selected to build the composite rule, and are considered when
 238 dispatching lots. Based on industry research, the selected attributes are i) the priority of a lot
 239 (Priority), ii) the remaining number of steps in a lot (RemainingStep), and iii) the process time
 240 constraint. The process time constraint limits the time between two or more production steps for a
 241 lot (Q-Time is a parameter, and if a manufacturing process exceeds it, the lot needs to be reworked or
 242 scrapped). These attributes reflect the lot urgency, the degree of completeness, and process
 243 constraints. The integrated priority is determined by three attributes. Based on the priorities of the
 244 three attributes of lot i ($P_{P,i}, P_{R,i}, P_{Q,i}$) and the weights of the three attributes (ω_P, ω_R and ω_Q), the
 245 integrated priority P_i for lot i is calculated (see Eq. (10)). The integrated priority is then used for
 246 dispatching the lot.

$$P_i = \omega_P * P_{P,i} + \omega_R * P_{R,i} + \omega_Q * P_{Q,i}, \quad (10)$$

247 5.1.3 Selection of performance indicators

248 In order to optimize the operation of the semiconductor production line, long-term and
249 short-term performance indicators need to be considered as a whole in the research. Based on the
250 specific application, five performance indicators were selected as the optimization objectives for
251 scheduling: mean cycle time of total lots (MCT), total wafer movement amount (MOV), amount of
252 work in process (WIP), production rate (PR) and overall equipment efficiency (OEE) [20]. Among
253 them, MCT and PR are long-term performance indicators, MOV, WIP and OEE are short-term
254 performance indicators.

255 5.2 Parameter settings of the experiment

256 As has been noted, the inputs of the scheduling model are the production features of the
257 semiconductor production line. In order to improve the output accuracy of the model, it is necessary
258 to reduce the number of inputs by reducing the number of production features; this can be achieved
259 by using the genetic algorithm (GA) [19]. The parameters of the genetic algorithm are set as follows:
260 population size is 100, maximum evolution generation is 100 generations, crossover probability is 0.8,
261 and mutation probability is 0.05.

262 The parameters of the SVR algorithm are set as follows: the maximum and minimum values of the penalty
263 parameter C are $C_{max} = 32$ and $C_{min} = 0$; The maximum and minimum values of the variance parameter γ
264 in the kernel function are $\gamma_{max} = 32$ and $\gamma_{min} = 0$.

265 5.3 Experiment results and data analysis

266 Following the application of the genetic algorithm to reduce the number of production features,
267 there are only eight production features left. They are WIP_5 (WIP number in 5-inch), PoBW_DF,
268 PoBW_LT, PoBW_DE, PoBW_WT (proportion of WIP in diffusion area, lithography area, dry
269 etching area, wet cleaning area to WIP), NoBL(number of hot lots in the system), NoBL_DF and
270 NoBL_LT(proportion of hot lots in diffusion area and lithography area). Using the eight attributes,
271 different scheduling methods are applied in the operation of the production line and the production
272 performances are recorded and analyzed.

273 For most semiconductor production applications, the diffusion area and lithography area are
274 usually the focus of scheduling, because a diffusion machine is a batch processing unit in which two
275 or more lots are organized to be processed together, and a lithography machine is a bottleneck unit
276 since it is very expensive. Thus, the dynamic scheduling method proposed in this paper and
277 traditional heuristic rules are applied to these two working areas, with FIFO applied to the other
278 working areas.

279 In the experiment, 100 samples were collected and used (as described before). Of these, 80
280 samples were randomly selected as training samples, and the other 20 samples were used as test
281 samples. The simulation model was initialized based on sample data. Different scheduling rules are
282 used to run the model for a scheduling period and the production performance is recorded at the
283 end of each scheduling period. Taking indicator "MOV" as an example, Table 1 provides the
284 scheduling results of 10 samples randomly selected from the test samples using different scheduling
285 rules.

286 In Table 1, columns of 2, 3, and 4 are the results of applying traditional heuristic rules (for
287 example, GR_SPT means the diffusion area uses a GR, or general rule which is an empirical
288 composite rule considering several dispatching factors (e.g. priority, the remaining number of steps
289 and Q-time) in the production line, and the lithography area uses a SPT, or shortest processing time,
290 rule). LS is an abbreviation for least slack, listed as GR_LS in column 3. Column 5 is the result of
291 optimized composite rules whose weights are determined by response surface methodology, and
292 column 6 is the result of applying the proposed scheduling method in this paper.

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Table 1. Performance indicator "MOV" (in step) under different scheduling methods

ID	GR_GR	GR_SPT	GR_LS	RSM	Scheduling method proposed
1	67452	83350	83983	90612	89706
2	76773	89605	89821	94796	93744
3	89285	89028	89484	90181	86574
4	85014	84864	85486	87154	85411
5	91270	91348	91307	92915	92714
6	67936	84244	83610	88961	86851
7	67246	88544	89900	95145	93224
8	91279	89851	91114	91478	92111
9	91053	93165	94757	93165	94828
10	101650	100736	101902	104383	104516
Average	82896	89474	90136	92879	91968
Optimization degree	0.893	0.963	0.970	1.000	0.990

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The better operation of the production line is associated with the larger indicator "MOV" under the same or near same conditions of other production indicators. In the randomly selected 10 samples in Table 1, when compared with a single heuristic scheduling rule, the dynamic scheduling method proposed in this paper is more likely to produce an optimal MOV and it can get a better average MOV. Therefore, the dynamic scheduling method proposed in this paper is effective in terms of "MOV" indicator. Because the learning sample is collected according to overall performance of five indicators, some records show that traditional heuristic rules are better than optimized composite rule (its weights determined by RSM) and dynamic scheduling method in terms of the "MOV" indicator. But overall, the proposed dynamic scheduling method is better than traditional heuristic rules.

In order to evaluate the overall production performance of the semiconductor production line, the average of each performance indicator for the 20 test samples when using the different scheduling methods was determined. These results are shown in Table 2.

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Table 2. The average of production performance indicators under different scheduling methods

Scheduling decisions	GR_GR	GR_SPT	GR_LS	RSM	Scheduling method proposed
MCT(day)	44.86	44.97	44.76	46.38	45.81
PR(%)	0.3267	0.3338	0.3322	0.3561	0.3523
MOV(step)	85231	89569	90383	92868	92011
WIP(piece)	72051	72046	72048	72030	71186
OEE(%)	0.2917	0.3072	0.3097	0.3202	0.3114

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Table 2 indicates that MCT, MOV and OEE are most affected by differing scheduling methods. The MCT under the heuristic scheduling rule is better than the one under the proposed dynamic scheduling method while the MOV and OEE are otherwise. The semiconductor production cycle is very long (more than 40 days in the test case) and the scheduling interval time relatively short (only 4 hours in the test case in practice), so dynamic scheduling has little effect on MCT. In order to analyze the effect of different scheduling methods on 5 performance indicators, the above 5 performance indicator values are normalized, multiplied by their weights and added together. For

321 simplicity, it is assumed that they have equal weight (i.e. weight =0.2 for each indicator), a condition
 322 that was also done for the previous sample generation. Once these conditions are applied, a
 323 comprehensive value can be obtained that reflects a variety of production performances. Those
 324 values are given in Table 2.

325 The normalization process is as follows: for a performance indicator, the maximum value is set
 326 to "1", the minimum value is set to "0", and the other value is set to between "0" and "1" depending
 327 on its position between the maximum value and the minimum value. That is, all the performance
 328 indicators are normalized. The comprehensive value is weighted sum of normalized value. The
 329 greater the comprehensive value, the better the overall performance will be. Table 3 shows that
 330 among the four scheduling methods (GR_GR, GR_SPT, GR_LS and the proposed scheduling
 331 method), the value for the proposed scheduling method is the largest, and that for the traditional
 332 heuristic rule GR_LS is the next largest. Therefore, considering the overall optimization of the five
 333 production performance indicators, the dynamic scheduling method proposed in this paper
 334 represents a significant improvement over simple heuristic rules in most circumstances, with a slight
 335 loss of comparable productivity in some instances. When applying a single heuristic rule, the
 336 scheduling rule does not change with the state of the production line. In other words, it does not
 337 consider whether the applied scheduling rules match the current state of the production line or not,
 338 while the dynamic scheduling method considers it. As a result, the overall performance is worse
 339 than that provided by the dynamic scheduling method.

340 **Table 3.** Normalized value and comprehensive value of the five performance indicators under
 341 different scheduling methods

Scheduling decisions	GR_GR	GR_SPT	GR_LS	RSM	Schedulin g method proposed
MCT	0.9367	0.8732	1	0	0.3527
PE	0	0.2401	0.1855	1	0.8711
MOV	0	0.5681	0.6746	1	0.8878
WIP	1	0.9942	0.9956	0.9749	0
OEE	0	0.5439	0.6316	1	0.6912
Comprehensive value	0.2342	0.5563	0.6229	0.7500	0.7007

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343 6 Conclusion

344 Often in industry, a simple dispatching rule cannot meet actual production demand. To
 345 improve production, a composite dispatching rule is proposed that considers various factors. This
 346 rule can change rule parameters dynamically to meet the requirements of different production states
 347 of a production line. One way to realize dynamic scheduling in an actual semiconductor
 348 production line is to use a machine learning method. Such a method obtains dynamic scheduling
 349 knowledge from optimized scheduling samples, and then utilizes the appropriate dispatching rules,
 350 which can be selected to optimize the performance of the production line according to its state. For
 351 this purpose, a dynamic scheduling method based on SVR was studied. A real time optimal
 352 scheduling strategy was obtained using this method. This method was tested on a 5-inch and 6-inch
 353 semiconductor production line. The experimental results show that using a scheduling method
 354 based on composite rules gives an obvious improvement in production performance when
 355 compared with a single heuristic rule.

356 **Acknowledgments:** This paper is supported in part by National Nature Foundation of China (No. 51475334,
 357 71690234).

358 **Author Contributions:** Ma, Y.M. and Qiao, F. proposed the idea, implemented experiments and wrote the
 359 manuscript; Zhao, F. supervised the study and the manuscript writing process; Sutherland, J. co-supervised
 360 the study. And all the authors discussed the results and contributed to the final manuscript.

361 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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