# MASTER'S THESIS

Simulation Optimization for Manufacturing System Design

by Rohit Kumar Advisor: Jeffrey W. Herrmann

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#### ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis:	SIMULATION OPTIMIZATION FOR MANUFACTURING
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A manufacturing system characterized by its stochastic nature, is defined by both qualitative and quantitative variables. Often there exists a situation when a performance measure such as throughput, work-in-process or cycle time of the system needs to be optimized with respect to some decision variables. It is generally convenient to express a manufacturing system in the form of an analytical model, to get the solutions as quickly as possible. However, as the complexity of the system increases, it gets more and more difficult to accommodate that complexity into the analytical model due to the uncertainty involved. In such situations, we resort to simulation modeling as an effective alternative.

Equipment selection forms a separate class of problems in the domain of manufacturing systems. It assumes a high significance for capital-intensive industry,

especially the semiconductor industry whose equipment cost comprises a significant amount of the total budget spent. For semiconductor wafer fabs that incorporate complex product flows of multiple product families, a reduction in the cycle time through the choice of appropriate equipment could result in significant profits.

This thesis focuses on the equipment selection problem, which selects tools for the workstations with a choice of different tool types at each workstation. The objective is to minimize the average cycle time of a wafer lot in a semiconductor fab, subject to throughput and budget constraints. To solve the problem, we implement five simulationbased algorithms and an analytical algorithm. The simulation-based algorithms include the hill climbing algorithm, two gradient-based algorithms – biggest leap and safer leap, and two versions of the nested partitions algorithm.

We compare the performance of the simulation-based algorithms against that of the analytical algorithm and discuss the advantages of prior knowledge of the problem structure for the selection of a suitable algorithm.

#### SIMULATION OPTIMIZATION FOR

#### MANUFACTURING SYSTEM DESIGN

by

Rohit Kumar

Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Maryland, College Park in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science 2003

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Rohit Kumar

## DEDICATION

To my parents and grandparents

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## **1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides an insight into the simulation-based optimization for discrete event manufacturing systems. We also define the research objective. In Section 1.1, we discuss what the decision variables in a manufacturing system can be. In Section 1.2, we discuss the complexity of a manufacturing system with respect to its stochastic nature. Section 1.3 provides examples of different objective functions we could optimize in such a system. In Section 1.4, we present a classification of simulation-based optimization techniques. Section 1.5 discusses the use of those techniques for optimizing a manufacturing system. Section 1.6 presents the equipment selection problem as a separate class of problems in the manufacturing system design. The objectives of this research are defined in Section 1.7, followed by a brief description about each of the subsequent chapters, in Section 1.8. Whenever we mention optimization problems, we will be referring to single objective problems.

#### 1.1 Decision variables in a manufacturing system

A manufacturing system has a lot of decision variables that define it. There could be quantitative decision variables like the number of tools and operators at each workstation, number of forklifts or other vehicles used for transportation between workstations and buffer allocation at each workstation, to name a few. Or there could be qualitative decision variables like the dispatching, routing or scheduling policies, layout of the manufacturing system, maintenance schedule, and so on and so forth. Depending upon the kind of questions that a decision-maker would ask in order to design a

manufacturing system, the decision variables that play a key role to answer those questions would vary. Section 1.3 provides examples of such kind of questions.

#### 1.2 Complexity of a manufacturing system

Absence of uncertainty would make the design of a manufacturing system utterly simple. If the arrival times, processing times, breakdown schedules of the machines, operator-handling time were deterministic, one could easily determine the values of the decision variables without much difficulty. Analytical solutions to the problems that a decision-maker would look for answers to would be quick and accurate. However, the real life scenario is very different. There exists uncertainty in the arrival times, processing times, tool breakdowns and machine set-up times for instance. The complexity of manufacturing systems arises due to this stochastic nature of the processes in the system and the continual changes that need to be made in the manufacturing line in the form of addition of new tools to increase capacity, scrapping of old product families to keep up pace with the market, automating the production line to decrease the cycle time and the like. Certain properties of the system related to the product or the process flow when coupled with this uncertainty could increase the complexity manifold. For instance, semiconductor wafer manufacturing requires repeated layers of via formation and metalization that necessitate a re-entrant flow routing. The lots of wafers being routed comprise different product families and yet go through the same manufacturing line. To add to the complexity, there are constraints on the system. We mention some of the constraints in the next section.

#### 1.3 Optimization of a manufacturing system

There could be several objectives one would like to meet while designing such a system. For instance, one could find an optimal allocation of resources such as buffers, to each workstation so as to maximize the throughput of the system. An important constraint here would be the limited quantity of buffers at each workstation. Another problem could be to design the layout of the manufacturing line in such a way, so as to minimize the travel times of the work-in-process (WIP) between workstations. The constraints could include the shape and the area available for the layout or the number of resources available to transport the WIP. Another interesting problem could be figuring out the number of times a defective job should be reworked to maximize the yield. The obvious constraint here would be that the overall cost of reworking, should never exceed or be equal to the benefit we reap out of the improved yield. The optimization problem that we study is the equipment selection problem, discussed in Section 1.6.

#### 1.4 Simulation optimization

Simulation modeling is an effective tool to model, analyze and optimize systems. It is particularly useful in predicting the behavior of systems with an inherent stochastic nature, hence the term simulation-based stochastic optimization. Based on the nature of the decision space, such optimization problems could be categorized as continuous or discrete.

The decision variables for continuous optimization problems are continuous in nature. Such problems are solved using techniques such as stochastic approximation methods, response surface methodology and sample path optimization, besides the

gradient estimation techniques that include finite difference estimation, perturbation analysis, likelihood ratio method and frequency domain analysis.

The decision variables for discrete optimization problems are discrete in nature. Although the gradient estimation techniques mentioned above, have been applied to discrete optimization problems, there also exist discrete random and non-random search methods that are applicable to such problems. Stochastic comparison algorithm, simulated annealing algorithm, stochastic ruler method, multistart algorithm, ordinal optimization method, nested partitions algorithm, simulated entropy algorithm, screening, selection and multiple comparison procedures, genetic algorithm, generalized and ordinal hill climbing algorithms and Andradottir's algorithms are techniques based on random search. There are non-random search methods too, like the branch and bound algorithm and the low dispersion point set method.

We discuss these methodologies in Chapter 2.

#### 1.5 Simulation optimization of a manufacturing system

Manufacturing systems are analyzed as queueing systems, where the entity being manufactured or processed is considered as a customer and the machine or the operator handling the entity is considered as the server. The most important characteristic of such systems is their event-based nature. The state of the system changes only at the occurrence of an event such as an arrival or departure of an entity, failure of a machine, completion of inspection by an operator, or other actions. Since the occurrence of such events takes place at separated points in time, we generally refer to manufacturing systems as discrete event manufacturing systems.

Though there do exist analytical models to analyze manufacturing systems given their inherent stochastic nature, it becomes increasingly difficult to adjust them or develop new analytical models to accommodate complex features and enhanced variability in the system. These could be in the form of a new routing policy or a preventive maintenance schedule based on uncertain breakdowns of machines. In such situations it becomes imperative to use simulation-based models with higher flexibility to get a more accurate picture.

The decision variables in a manufacturing system discussed earlier in Section 1.2, are generally discrete in nature (unless we are trying to optimize a particular process along the manufacturing line that is dependent on a continuous parameter such as temperature or the rate of deposition of a thin-film material). Hence the techniques used for optimizing a manufacturing system are based on simulation-based discrete stochastic optimization methodologies, due to the discrete solution space over which we try to optimize the performance of the system.

#### 1.6 Equipment selection problem

Equipment selection and resource allocation problems form a separate class of problems in the domain of manufacturing systems design. They deal with the optimal allocation of machines to workstations in a manufacturing system. Allocation and selection of tools in manufacturing systems is a widespread problem in manufacturing plants, especially for sub-systems like Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS) and cellular manufacturing systems. These problems have been addressed using analytical models, queueing theory and deterministic programming techniques like integer

programming. The machine allocations were done with specific objectives like minimizing WIP, maximizing throughput and minimizing cost. The complexity of the models was not high enough to necessitate the use of simulation models. For instance, the servers to be allocated were assumed to be identical. Another classic example of such types of problems is the buffer allocation problem where a fixed number of buffers must be allocated over a fixed number of servers to optimize some performance metric. We discuss how these problems have been addressed in greater detail in Chapter 2. In semiconductor wafer fabrication plants, equipment selection is extremely important because of the high cost of purchasing and operating the equipment. In addition, reducing cycle time (and WIP) is an important objective that is affected by the equipment selection decision. Our problem deals with the selection of tools for the workstations in a manufacturing system given a choice of different tool types at each workstation. Our objective is to minimize the average cycle time subject to the constraints on the throughput and the budget available.

#### 1.7 Objectives of the research

This research considers the equipment selection problem with our goal being the minimization of the average cycle time. We present five different simulation-based stochastic optimization algorithms and observe their behavior with respect to the quality of solution and the number of simulations each algorithm requires. Their performance is then compared with that of an analytical algorithm, which we developed as a benchmark.

The first algorithm is similar to the generalized hill climbing (GHC) algorithm described by Sullivan and Jacobson [1]. We search the neighboring discrete space and

estimate the function value at the selected points. However, our approach enumerates all the neighboring points whereas GHC selects one neighboring point at random. Further, we do not accept any bad moves whereas GHC could.

The next two algorithms are based on gradient-estimation methods. The gradient values are estimated using finite differences as in the Kiefer and Wolfowitz [2] approach. However, the perturbation size in our case is taken as one due to the discrete nature of the problem whereas Kiefer and Wolfowitz take it to be infinitesimally small.

We also developed two simulation-based stochastic algorithms, which are different implementations of the nested partitions algorithm, proposed by Shi and Olafsson [3]. The difference in the two implementations lies in the way we partition the solution space, to narrow it down through the selection of the most promising region at the end of each iteration.

The analytical algorithm that we developed is based on the queueing theory. It makes use of the M/M/m queueing model to find out the average cycle time value. We use the results of this algorithm as a benchmark to compare the performance of the simulation-based algorithms that we implemented.

#### 1.8 Outline of the thesis

The thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 presents a literature survey and discusses the equipment selection problem and the simulation-based stochastic optimization algorithms, applied to discrete event manufacturing systems. Chapter 3 formulates the equipment selection problem, specifying the objective function, constraints and the decision variables. A sample problem is also defined at the end of the

chapter to explain the implementation of our algorithms. Chapter 4 defines a heuristic (whose result is used as the starting point for the hill climbing, and the gradient-based algorithms) along with the simulation-based algorithms and the analytical algorithm. Their implementation is described through the sample problem defined in Chapter 3. Chapter 5 describes our simulation model and the set-up of our experiments. It defines the performance metrics based on which we compare the behavior of all the simulation-based algorithms with the performance of the analytical algorithm. We discuss the results we obtained. Chapter 6 concludes the thesis, summarizing the results and discussing the contributions, limitations and the future work, pertaining to the research we conducted.

### 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the research work that has been conducted so far, in the field of equipment selection and simulation optimization as applied to the discrete event manufacturing systems. Section 2.1 provides a general review of the equipment selection and other related problems. Section 2.2 reviews simulation optimization for both the continuous and discrete state space. We specifically mention the research that has been done, related to hill climbing, gradient-based and nested partitions methods.

#### 2.1 Equipment selection problem

In the domain of discrete event manufacturing systems, many types of optimization problems have been discussed, where the performance measures generally include the mean cycle time, average work-in-process (WIP) at the tool groups, throughput and tool utilization levels. Equipment selection and resource allocation problems form a separate class under this domain.

#### 2.1.1 Methods for equipment selection

Compared to the resource allocation class of problems, the problems related to equipment selection have received less attention. Bretthauer [4] addresses capacity planning in manufacturing systems by modeling them as a network of queues. Assuming a single server at each node, a branch-and-bound algorithm is presented to find a minimum cost selection of capacity levels from a discrete set of choices, given a constraint on the WIP. Swaminathan [5] provides an analytical model for procurement of

tools for a wafer fab incorporating uncertainties in the demand forecasts. The problem is modeled as a stochastic integer programming with recourse, and the objective is to minimize the expected stock-out costs due to lost sales across all demand scenarios. Considering only one tool type per workstation, the first stage variables - the number of tools procured, are decided before the demand occurs. The second stage variables determine the allocation of different wafer types to different tools in each demand scenario, after the demand is realized. Swaminathan [6] presents a more generalized model where one can model the allocations of each wafer type to the different tools. Further, a multi-period model is considered to capture changes in demand during the life of a product. Connors, Feigin and Yao [7] perform tool planning for a wafer fab using a queueing model, based on a marginal allocation procedure to determine the number of tools needed to achieve a target cycle time with the objective of minimizing overall equipment cost. Assuming identical tools at each tool group, their model incorporates detailed analysis of scrap and rework to capture the effects of variable job sizes on the workload and on the utilization of tool groups, and careful treatment of "incapacitation" events that disrupt the normal process at tools.

In the equipment selection problem that we consider, there exist a number of tool types from which one could select the tools, for a particular workstation.

#### 2.1.2 Related applications

We now review, some of the problems pertaining to the allocation of buffers and resources, and the methods applied to solve them.

Bulgak and Sanders [8] consider the buffer size allocation problem in an asynchronous assembly system (AAS). They use an extension of the simulated annealing algorithm to determine the buffer configuration that maximizes the number of assemblies produced by the last workstation of an AAS per unit time. Haddock and Mittenthal [9] apply simulated annealing to the problem of maximizing the total expected profit for an automated manufacturing system. The decision variables include the size of the arrival batches, the proportion of products within the arrival batches and the size of the output buffers at each machine. Ho, Sreenivas and Vakili [10] apply the ordinal optimization technique to the buffer allocation problem for a transfer line to maximize the steady state throughput, and to the cyclic server problem to find a service policy for a single cyclic server serving buffers in a round-robin fashion. Choon [11] designs a flexible manufacturing system (FMS) through an adaptive random search procedure coupled with discrete event simulation, by determining the number of machines of each type as well as the number of automated guided vehicles (AGVs), speed of AGVs and the capacity of buffers before and after each machine. The performance measure is the productivity of the system, defined as the ratio between the throughput and the cost.

Cassandras and Panayiotou [12] propose an ordinal optimization algorithm for a resource allocation problem where no closed-form expression is available for the cost function. Lin [13] applies ordinal optimization to a resource allocation problem to decide whether all transportation should be done through continuous transportation system or via discrete transportation units. The performance is measured by the average delay of a test product. Cassandras and Gokbayrak [14] too, apply the ordinal optimization

technique for the resource allocation problem, to minimize the average cycle time. Hillier and So [15] address the server and work allocation problem for production line systems through the classical model for a system of finite queues in series, to maximize the throughput. Andradottir and Ayhan [16] determine the optimal dynamic server assignment policy for tandem systems with a generalized number of servers and stations, to obtain optimal long-run average throughput. Palmeri and Collins [17] address the minimum inventory variability policy as one alternative to optimizing resource scheduling, which focuses on line balancing to reduce the WIP variability resulting in a reduction in the mean cycle time. Dumbrava [18] attempts to emphasize the benefit of simulation in resource allocation and capacity design of FMS. The number of machines in each group is determined to minimize the capacity of the group buffers, minimize the WIP, and obtain a good compromise between the number of machines and the productivity obtained. Shanthikumar and Yao [19] address the problem of allocating a given number of identical servers among the work centers of a manufacturing system by formulating it as a non-linear integer program. The objective is to maximize the throughput. Frenk et al. [20] present improved versions of a greedy algorithm for the machine allocation problem, to achieve a minimum-cost configuration while minimizing the WIP. Bermon, Feigin and Hood [21] formulate the capacity allocation problem as a simple, linear programming based method to optimize product mix, subject to capacity constraints. The objective is to maximize the profit. Bhatnagar et al. [22] formulate fablevel decision making as a Markov decision problem and address the issues as when to add additional capacity and when to convert from one production type to another based on the changing demand. He, Fu and Marcus [23] apply a simulation-based approach to

that fab-level decision making problem to deal with the large state and control spaces. Liu, Makis and Jardine [24] determine the optimal maintenance time to minimize the average time spent by a job in an M/G/1-type production system. Govil and Fu [25] provide a comprehensive review of the design, production and control optimization problems in job shop systems, FMS, assembly/disassembly networks and manufacturing flow lines, modeled as queueing systems.

The minimization of cycle time has also been addressed specifically, for semiconductor fabs. Geiger *et al.* [26] examine the effects of alternative facility layouts on the semiconductor fab cycle time through simulation experiments, with respect to machine breakdowns, utilization, transfer time between stations and set-up times. Sivakumar [27] designs and develops an on-line near-real-time dynamic scheduling and optimization system to optimize the cycle time and machine utilization for the semiconductor-manufacturing environment, by addressing the scheduling of constraint machines. Collins, Lakshman and Collins [28] present two dynamic tools called FAB Simulator and Capacity Planner to determine the optimal WIP based on the production mix, in order to maximize the throughput, while achieving shortest cycle times possible, dynamically. Hung and Leachman [29] introduce a production planning methodology for semiconductor manufacturing based on iterative linear programming optimization and discrete event simulation calculations to develop a production plan correctly characterizing future flow times as a function of factory load and product mix.

#### 2.2 Simulation-based optimization techniques

Detailed reviews on simulation optimization methodologies have been provided by Azadivar [30], Fu [31], Andradottir [32], Carson and Maria [33], Swisher *et al.* [34], Merkuryev, Rastrigin and Visipkov [35] and Merkuryev and Visipkov [36]. Much of the literature in the field of simulation-based optimization discusses the optimization problems involving continuous variables, while less describes those involving discrete variables. We discuss the continuous and discrete simulation-based optimization in the following subsections.

#### 2.2.1 Continuous state space

Fu [31] reviews response surface methodology (RSM) and stochastic approximation as methods for solving optimization problems in the continuous state space. RSM attempts to fit a polynomial, generally quadratic, to the response of a system. It is a black-box approach and hence, it is difficult to perform factor screening to identify important parameters a priori. Metamodels provide one method to fit a "global" response curve to define a complete functional relationship between the performance measure and the parameters of interest. However, much simulation effort is required to characterize the response curve over the entire domain of feasibility. Sequential procedures provide the second method that has two phases. In the first phase, which is performed iteratively, first order experimental designs are used to obtain a least square fit. The steepest descent direction is chosen, and the new sub region is explored. In the second phase, which is performed only once, a quadratic response curve is fitted. The other technique, stochastic approximation, is a gradient-based algorithm where the "best

guess" of the optimal parameter is updated iteratively based on the estimate of the gradient of the performance measure, with respect to the parameter. When an unbiased estimator is used for gradient estimation, the algorithm is referred to as Robbins-Monro algorithm and when finite difference estimate is used, it is called Kiefer-Wolfowitz algorithm.

Andradottir [32] focuses on the review of gradient-based techniques for continuous optimization. Perturbation analysis (PA) and the likelihood ratio (LR) methods require only a single simulation run to obtain an estimate of the gradient, unlike the finite difference technique. PA involves tracing the effects of small changes in the parameter on the sample path. Fu [31] states that wherever infinitesimal perturbation analysis (IPA, the best known variant of PA) fails, the LR method (also known as the score function method) works. Azadivar [30] reviews frequency domain analysis as another method for gradient estimation, where gradients are calculated by noting the effect of sinusoidal oscillations in the input, on the simulation output function. Andradottir [32] also reviews sample path optimization, where the expected value of the objective function is estimated by taking the average of lots of observations. The objective function is expressed as a deterministic function, based on the sample path observed on the simulation model, and then the IPA or the LR method is applied.

Swisher *et al.* [34] classify the continuous parameter case into gradient and nongradient-based optimization procedures. The non-gradient-based procedures include the Nelder-Mead (simplex) method and the Hooke-Jeeves method. Merkuryev and Visipkov [36] review these two methods. In the Nelder-Mead method, if the objective function is dependent on k parameters, then k+1 points (a simplex) are generated and the function is

evaluated at those points. The simplex then moves towards the optimum by reflecting a point with the worst function value through the center of the remaining *k* points. The Hooke-Jeeves method involves the hill climbing strategy through a combination of exploratory searches and pattern moves. Merkuryev, Rastrigin and Visipkov [35] describe two stages for an optimization procedure. The first stage finds an initial point for the second stage through fast and simple optimization methods like steepest ascent and Gauss-Zaidel methods. The second stage finds the optimal solution by precise optimization methods like Hooke-Jeeves pattern search.

#### 2.2.2 Discrete state space

Merkuryev and Visipkov [36] perform a survey of optimization methods in discrete systems simulation. They review the finite difference estimation as gradientbased search technique and methods without derivatives including the Gauss-Zaidel, Hooke-Jeeves and Nelder-Mead methods, for discrete parameter case. Fu [31] classifies the discrete state space into finite and infinite parameter space and reviews the methodologies for both cases. For optimization over a finite set, a number of statistical procedures can be applied that fall into two groups: ranking and selection (R&S), and multiple comparison procedures (MCPs). R&S procedures include the indifference zone and subset selection procedures. When the decision involves selecting the best system design, technique of indifference-zone ranking is applied, where the objective function at the selected system configuration will be within  $\delta$  of the optimal value of the objective function with a probability at least  $P^*$ . Here  $\delta$  represents the "indifference zone" and  $P^*$ represents the user-specified probability. When the decision involves selecting a subset

of system designs that contain the best solution, the technique of subset selection is applied, where the selected subset of a specified number of system configurations, will contain at least one system configuration, such that the objective function at that configuration will be within  $\delta$  of the optimal value of the objective function, with a probability at least  $P^*$ . The second group of statistical procedures, MCPs, makes inferences on the performance measure of interest by way of confidence intervals. If the confidence intervals are not tight enough to make conclusive statements, then an estimate is made of the number of further replications that would be required so as to obtain confidence widths at the desired level. Swisher et al. [34] review three main classes of MCPs: all pairwise multiple comparisons, multiple comparisons with the best and multiple comparisons with a control. Nelson et al. [37] develop procedures by combining screening and indifference-zone selection procedures for problems where R&S would require too much computation to be practical. Such problems arise when the number of alternative designs is large. Goldsman and Nelson [38] review the screening, selection and MCPs. Goldsman and Nelson [39] also review various statistical procedures for selecting the best of a number of competing systems and comment on how to apply those procedures for use in simulations.

For optimization over an infinite set, there exist random search algorithms. Carson and Maria [33] review the various heuristic methods, employed for the search. These include genetic algorithms (GA), evolutionary strategies (ES), simulated annealing (SA) and Tabu search (TS). Pardalos, Romeijn and Tuy [40] also review these methods while focusing on the recent developments and trends in global optimization. GA are noted for robustness in searching complex spaces and are best suited for

combinatorial problems. The search starts from an initial population and uses a mixture of reproduction, crossovers and mutations to create new and hopefully better population. ES are similar to GA, in that they imitate the principles of natural evolution as a method to solve parameter optimization problems. The strategy involves the mutation-selection scheme where one or more parents mutate to produce an offspring and the more promising candidate becomes the parent for the next iteration. SA is analogous to the physical annealing process where an alloy is cooled gradually so that a minimal energy state is achieved. This method can accept bad moves to avoid getting trapped in local optima. The probability of accepting such bad moves is high when the temperature is high, and decreases as the temperature reduces. To ensure convergence to a global optimum, the temperature must be decreased slowly. However, this results in the evaluation of the objective function at many points. Haddock and Mittenthal [9] deal with this issue. Gelfand and Mitter [41] modify the SA algorithm to allow for random or deterministic errors in measurements of the objective function values. Alrefaei and Andradottir [42] propose a new search algorithm that resembles SA. It uses constant temperature instead of the decreasing cooling temperature used by SA. Further, it uses the number of visits to the different states, as the criterion to estimate the optimal solution. Alrefaei and Andradottir [43] make another modification to SA by using constant temperature, and selecting the state with the best average estimated objective function value, obtained from all previous estimates of the objective function values, as the optimal. TS, also suited for combinatorial problems, maintains a fixed-length list of explored moves, which represents the Tabu moves. These moves are not allowed at the

present iteration, in order to exclude backtracking moves. On the addition of a move to the Tabu list, the oldest move is removed.

Andradottir [44] proposes a new iterative method to solve discrete stochastic optimization. The proposed method generates a random walk over the set of feasible alternatives, and the point visited most often, is shown to be a local optimizer, almost surely. Yan and Mukai [45] describe the stochastic ruler (SR) method that is related to, but different from the SA method. While the objective value at a new solution candidate is compared with that of the current solution candidate in SA, the objective value at a new solution candidate is compared against a probabilistic ruler in the SR method, where the ruler's range covers the range of the observed objective function values. The convergence is shown to be global. Alrefaei and Andradottir [46] propose another method based on a modification of the SR method. The new algorithm uses a finite number of observations for each iteration whereas the SR method uses an increasing sequence of observations per iteration. The method is shown to converge almost surely, to the global optimum. Gong, Ho and Zhai [47] propose a method called stochastic comparison (SC) method that overcomes the limitations of the SA and SR methods. For SA to work well, it needs a good neighborhood structure. For SR method, if the ruler is too big, it reduces the sensitivity of the algorithm, whereas if it is too small, it may not be able to distinguish best solutions from other good solutions. SC, with its roots in the R&S procedures, eliminates the use of the neighborhood structure and directly compares the current configuration to a candidate configuration. While comparing the SR and SC methods, they emphasize that when a good neighborhood structure is available, SR outperforms the SC algorithm.

Other recent developments in the field of discrete parameter simulation optimization include a new method based on the selection procedures by Futschik and Pflug [48], in which they construct confidence intervals based on statistical estimates to select promising subsets with a pre-specified probability of correct selection. Norkin, Ermoliev and Ruszczynski [49] propose a stochastic version of the branch-and-bound algorithm in which the search area is divided into subsets. Random upper and lower bounds for the subsets are calculated with an accuracy depending upon the size of the subset and the previous values of the objective function estimates. Based on the values of the bounds, the most promising subset is divided further, while others are neglected. Ho, Sreenivas and Vakili [10] aim towards finding the good, better or best designs instead of accurately estimating the performance values of the designs. In other words, they are interested in the ordinal optimization that is insensitive to noise, rather than the cardinal optimization. Garai, Ho and Sreenivas [50] propose a hybrid optimization algorithm that combines adaptive ordinal optimization using GA, with hill climbing. GA is used to choose the next set of search points from the current set of search points, which makes the ordinal optimization method adaptive. Hill climbing is used to locate the best point amongst the points not discarded by the adaptive ordinal optimization method. Shi and Olafsson [3] describe the nested partitions algorithm (NPA) for combinatorial problems. The method can be extended to problems where the feasible region is either countable infinite or uncountable and bounded. The algorithm concentrates on dividing the search space into sub regions and finding the most promising region at each iteration, which is then divided further. A nice property of the algorithm is the ability to backtrack to a larger region. The algorithm is shown to

converge globally, with probability one. Shi, Olafsson and Chen [51] propose a new hybrid optimization algorithm that combines the global perspective of NPA and the local search capabilities of the GA. It uses the GA search to be able to backtrack quickly from a region containing a solution better than most, but not all of the other solutions. The original NPA would take a much longer time to backtrack in such a case. Shi and Chen [52] combine NPA, ordinal optimization and an efficient simulation control technique called optimal computing budget allocation (OCBA) to produce a hybrid algorithm for discrete optimization. OCBA is a ranking and selection method that ensures a larger allocation of simulation effort amongst the potentially good designs. Sullivan and Jacobson [1] propose an ordinal hill climbing method based on ordinal optimization and the generalized hill climbing (GHC) algorithms. GHC seeks to find the optimal design by allowing the algorithm to visit inferior designs enroute to a globally optimal design. The ordinal hill climbing algorithm incorporates the design space reduction feature of ordinal optimization and the global optimization hill climbing feature of GHC algorithms. Abspoel et al. [53] develop an optimization strategy based on sequential linearization. In each cycle, a linear approximate sub problem is created and solved. If the design improves the objective function value, it forms the next cycle's starting point. A D-optimal design is used to plan the simulation experiments so that the number of simulation experiments is kept at a manageable level for increasing number of design variables. Laguna and Marti [54] describe a training procedure wherein a neural network filters the solutions likely to perform poorly when the simulations are executed. In other words, a neural network acts as a prediction model for simulations just as a simulation acts as a prediction model for a stochastic system.

2.2.3 Applications of hill climbing, gradient-based and nested partitions algorithms

We review below, the kind of problems to which hill climbing, gradient-based and nested partitions algorithms (NPAs) have been applied.

Sullivan and Jacobson [1] apply the ordinal hill climbing to a discrete manufacturing process design for an integrated blade and rotor geometric shape component. It considers three manufacturing process design sequences, where each process has controllable and uncontrollable input parameters associated with it. The cost function includes the cost of manufacturing, cost penalties for violating process constraints and cost penalties for not meeting certain geometric and microstructural specifications. The objective is to identify the best process design sequence, along with the values of the controllable input parameters so as to minimize the total cost.

Gerencser, Hill and Vago [55] apply a version of stochastic approximation method for optimizing over discrete sets. They consider the resource allocation problem. The objective function is the sum of the cost in the form of an expectation incurred by each user class that depends upon the resources that are allocated to each class. Cassandras and Gokbayrak [14] convert a discrete resource allocation problem into a continuous variable surrogate problem in order to be able to obtain sensitivity estimates via gradient information. The resulting solution after each iteration is mapped back to the discrete domain. Fu and Healy [56] address the (s,S) inventory control problem using different methods including a gradient-based algorithm. Whenever the inventory position falls below the level s, a quantity equal to the difference between S and the current inventory position is ordered. The objective is to minimize the long-run average cost per period, which includes the ordering, holding and shortage costs.

Shi and Chen [52] develop a new algorithm taking advantage of the global perspective of NPA and apply it to the buffer allocation problem. Shi, Olafsson and Chen [51] develop a new algorithm combining NPA and the genetic algorithm for the product design problem. They maximize the market share by determining the optimal levels of the attributes of a product. Shi, Chen and Yucesan [57] apply NPA to solve a buffer allocation problem in supply chain management. Shi, Olafsson and Sun [58] apply NPA to the traveling salesman problem and emphasize the "parallel" nature of NPA, suitable for the emerging parallel processing capabilities.

#### 2.3 Summary

This chapter provided a detailed review of the simulation-based optimization techniques that are used for both continuous and discrete state space. We also provided a review of the equipment selection and the related problems that have been addressed, using either queueing models or simulation models for optimization. Law and McComas [59] mention that one of the disadvantages of simulation historically, is that it was not an optimization technique. Out of a small number of system configurations that were simulated, a decision-maker would choose the one that appeared to give the best performance. Based on the availability of faster computational environments and various optimization approaches, the situation has changed. Today, simulation software combined with optimization routines form a powerful tool for many applications. The goal of such packages is to orchestrate the simulation of a sequence of system configurations to reach a system configuration that provides an optimal or near optimal solution.

Although there exist many approaches to solve the simulation-based optimization problems in discrete event manufacturing systems, it is difficult at times to choose amongst the various available techniques. In other words, it is not easy to identify an algorithm in advance, with high confidence that it will be the best approach for the problem at hand. At times, a different implementation of the same algorithm provides better results. L'Ecuyer, Giroux and Glynn [60] apply different variants of the stochastic approximation technique to an analytical M/M/1 queueing model to compare them. They conclude that the gradient estimators through infinitesimal perturbation analysis and finite differences derivative estimation techniques perform better than likelihood ratio derivative estimators. Alrefaei and Andradottir [43] compare different variants of the simulated annealing algorithm through their application on M/M/1 queueing systems. Based on their choice of values for parameters such as the annealing sequence, the simulated annealing version they propose gives a better overall performance for a particular example considered, compared to other versions of the algorithm proposed by other authors. Sometimes, the structure of the problem might suggest the suitability of certain algorithms. Gong, Ho and Zhai [47] develop a numerical testbed system and show that the simulated annealing and stochastic ruler methods outperform the stochastic comparison method when the search space has a good neighborhood structure. Garai, Ho and Sreenivas [50] compare adaptive ordinal optimization using genetic algorithm against hill climbing using the gradient method, through their application on different queueing models. The comparison is based on the sensitivity to simulation noise. They show that the adaptive ordinal optimization works better than the pure gradient method due to its insensitivity to simulation noise. Laguna and Marti [54] compare their scatter

search implementation to train a neural network against various training procedures based on the simulated annealing algorithm. They find that their scatter search implementation provides solutions comparable to the best methods, but with much less computational effort. Fu and Healy [56] compare gradient-based, retrospective and hybrid algorithms while addressing the (s,S) inventory control problem. Their hybrid algorithm combines the fast convergence of the pure retrospective approach with the low computational requirement for the gradient search scheme.

This thesis addresses the problem of equipment selection, formulated in the next chapter, and compares the performance of hill climbing, gradient-based and the nested partitions algorithms. The suitability of the approaches is discussed at the end, with respect to the special structure the equipment selection problem has.

## **3. PROBLEM FORMULATION**

This chapter defines the equipment selection problem. In section 3.1, we mathematically formulate the optimization problem, specifying the objective function, the decision variables and the constraints involved. Section 3.2 proves that our equipment selection problem is NP-complete. In section 3.3, we define a sample problem, which is used to describe the heuristic and the algorithms in Chapter 4.

#### 3.1 Problem definition

The problem studied here is one of vital importance, especially to the semiconductor industry, which invests a great deal of money in equipment. Selecting the proper set of tools is important for satisfying throughput and budget requirements, and minimizing average cycle time. We formulate the problem as follows.

The objective is to minimize E[T], the average cycle time of a lot of wafers through the factory, which is measured using discrete event simulation runs. The uncertainty in the system lies in the inter-arrival time of the lots and the processing time of the tools. The factory is a flow shop. Each job (or lot) must visit each workstation in the same sequence. The travel times between workstations are constant regardless of tool selection.

The factory has *n* workstations. Each workstation can have tools of one or more types. If at  $i^{\text{th}}$  workstation there are  $z_i$  types of tools available, then  $X_{ij}$ , the number of tools of type *j* purchased at each workstation *i* where i = 1, ..., n and  $j = 1, ..., z_i$  form the

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decision variables.  $X_{ij}$  must be a non-negative integer. The total number of decision variables is p where  $p = \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i$ .

The cost of one tool of type *j* at workstation *i* is  $C_{ij}$  (dollars) and the capacity of one such tool is  $\mu_{ij}$  (wafers per unit time). The decision-maker has a fixed budget of *M* (dollars) for purchasing the tools so that the total tool cost cannot exceed *M*. Also, the manufacturing system must achieve a throughput of  $\lambda$  (wafers per unit time). If  $\mu_i$  is the capacity at workstation *i*, then  $\mu_i = \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij} \mu_{ij}$ . The constraints can be written as follows.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij} \mu_{ij} > \lambda \quad \text{for all } i, \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij} C_{ij} \le M$$

Note that for n = 1, our problem reduces to the integer knapsack problem, which we define later in this chapter.

### 3.2 NP-complete nature of the problem

Let the number of workstations be 1. We now define an instance of our problem. Consider a set of tools *T* at the workstation, comprising different tool types  $T_j$  with a cost  $C_j$ , and capacity  $\mu_j$ , associated with each tool; a set *X* specifying the quantity of different tool types  $X_j$ ; a budget constraint *M*; and a throughput constraint  $\lambda$ . The decision problem *ESP* that would correspond to the feasibility of the instance can be stated as follows. Is there a subset  $X' \subseteq X$  such that

$$\sum_{j \in T} X_j' C_j \leq M \text{ and } \sum_{j \in T} X_j' \mu_j > \lambda?$$

In the following subsections we prove that *ESP* is NP-complete. Given an instance of the integer knapsack problem, we will reduce it to *ESP* so that a solution to *ESP* will exist if and only if there would exist a solution to the integer knapsack problem.

#### $3.2.1 ESP \in NP$

Given a solution to the problem *ESP*, we can easily verify in polynomial time whether the capacity of the system is greater than  $\lambda$ , and that the total money spent is less than *M*. If the solution given to us is  $\{X_j^{'}\} = \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_z^{'}\}$ , where *z* is the total number of tool types at the workstation, then the calculations  $\sum_{j \in T} X_j^{'}C_j$  and  $\sum_{j \in T} X_j^{'}\mu_j$  have a complexity of  $\theta(z)$ , which is polynomial time.

Hence, ESP belongs to the NP class.

#### 3.2.2 Integer knapsack problem

We pose an instance of the integer knapsack problem below.

A thief robbing a store finds certain items denoted by *U*. An item *u* weighs s(u) pounds and is worth v(u)dollars and exists in multiple quantities. He wants to take at least *K* dollars worth of items, but can carry at most *B* pounds in his knapsack. Mathematically, it can be expressed as follows (Garey and Johnson [61]).

Consider a finite set *U*, a "size"  $s(u) \in Z^+$  and a "value"  $B \in Z^+$  for each  $u \in U$ (where *Z* denotes the set of integers), a size constraint  $v(u) \in Z^+$  and a value goal  $K \in Z^+$ . The decision problem can be stated in the following way.

Is there an assignment of a non-negative integer c(u) to each  $u \in U$  such that

$$\sum_{u \in U} c(u)s(u) \le B \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{u \in U} c(u)v(u) \ge K?$$

3.2.3 Transforming the integer knapsack problem to ESP

Given an instance of the integer knapsack problem, we now create an instance of *ESP*. Let  $C_u = s(u)$  and  $\mu_u = v(u)$ , for each  $\in U$ . Further, let M = B, and  $\lambda = K$ -1. Is there an assignment of a non-negative integer  $X_u$  to each tool of type T, such that

$$\sum_{u \in T} X_u C_u \leq M \text{ and } \sum_{u \in T} X_u \mu_u > \lambda?$$

Therefore, we find a 1-1 correspondence between the integer knapsack problem and *ESP*. If there exists a solution to the integer knapsack problem, then clearly, there would exist a solution to *ESP*. And if there exists a solution to *ESP*, then clearly there would exist a solution to the integer knapsack problem.

Since the integer knapsack problem has been shown to be NP-complete (Garey and Johnson [61]), the arguments presented in section 3.2 prove that finding a solution to *ESP* is NP-complete too. Hence, we conclude that since the decision version of the equipment selection problem is NP-complete, the optimization version is at least as hard as the decision version. Hence our equipment selection problem is NP-complete.

### 3.3 Sample problem definition

Consider a manufacturing system with n = 2 workstations, with each workstation *i*, having  $z_i = 3$  types of tools available. The total number of decision variables is *p*, so that  $p = \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i = \sum_{i=1}^{2} 3 = 6.$  The cost of one tool of type *j* for workstation *i* is  $C_{ij}$ , and the capacity of one such tool is  $\mu_{ij}$ . Tables 3.1 and 3.2 list these costs and capacities respectively. The decision-maker has a fixed budget of M = \$18,000 for purchasing the tools. The manufacturing system must achieve a throughput of  $\lambda = 100$  wafers per hour.

Tool Type	Workstation		
1001 Type	i = 1	i = 2	
<i>j</i> = 1	\$550	\$750	
<i>j</i> = 2	\$900	\$900	
<i>j</i> = 3	\$600	\$600	

Table 3.1: Tool costs  $C_{ij}$ 

Tool Type	Workstation				
1001 Type	<i>i</i> = 1	<i>i</i> = 2			
<i>j</i> = 1	11.5	16			
<i>j</i> = 2	18	19.5			
<i>j</i> = 3	12.75	12			
Required throughput $= 100$					
All nu	mbers in wafe	rs/hour			

Table 3.2: Tool capacities  $\mu_{ij}$ 

The lot inter-arrival times and the lot processing times are exponentially distributed. The mean inter-arrival time for the lots that comprise 25 wafers each is 0.25 hours. The mean lot processing time for tool  $T_{ij}$  is  $25/\mu_{ij}$  hours. The number of lots that visit each tool at a workstation is proportional to the tool's capacity, irrespective of whether a tool with higher capacity at that workstation is idle or not. The travel times are ignored.

# 3.4 Summary

This chapter described the equipment selection problem. The next chapter describes the heuristic and the algorithms that are applied to the sample problem defined in this chapter.

# 4. SOLUTION APPROACH

This chapter provides a detailed description of the heuristic and all the algorithms that we have implemented to tackle the problem defined in Chapter 3. Section 4.1 provides an introduction to the heuristic and the algorithms, which are later described in Sections 4.2 - 4.8. Section 4.2 describes the heuristic. Sections 4.3 - 4.8 describe the hill climbing, biggest leap, safer leap, nested partitions-I, nested partitions-II and the analytical algorithms respectively. We also show how the heuristic and the algorithms are implemented on the sample problem defined in Chapter 3. Section 4.9 reports the results for that sample problem.

#### 4.1 Introduction to the heuristic and the algorithms

The budget and throughput constraints bound the set of feasible solutions. Purchasing too few tools will give insufficient capacity. Purchasing too many tools will violate the budget constraint. Hence the tools must be selected carefully.

For the gradient-based search algorithms, namely hill climbing, biggest leap and safer leap algorithms, a heuristic is employed as the first step to find a low-cost, feasible solution by meeting the throughput requirements. Then the gradient-based search procedure is applied to find better solutions. The gradient gives us the information about what tools to add in order to reduce the cycle time the most. The search algorithms that have been developed, use gradient information to direct the search through the discrete solution space, always moving to a nearby integer point that is feasible. The gradient provides the search direction.

The gradient estimation uses forward differences to avoid violating the throughput constraints. For example, if  $X_{ij}$  represents the number of tools of type j at the  $i^{\text{th}}$  workstation, and  $X_{ij} = 0$  at some point in the iteration, then central differences cannot be used as cycle time values will have to be estimated at  $X_{ij} = -1$  and  $X_{ij} = 1$ . However, the gradient can always be estimated through forward differences, where cycle time values are estimated at  $X_{ij} = x$  and  $X_{ij} = x+1$ ,  $x \ge 0$ . The three algorithms proposed for this type of search are:

Hill climbing algorithm: The search consists of taking very small steps, buying only one tool at a time, till such point that the average cycle time has been minimized or the budget has been exhausted.

Biggest leap algorithm: The search consists of taking biggest possible leaps, buying lots of tools when feasible, till such point that the average cycle time has been minimized or the budget has been exhausted as in Mellacheruvu [62].

Safer leap algorithm: This is a combination of the hill climbing and the biggest leap algorithms. The search consists of taking large, but cautious steps, till such point that the average cycle time has been minimized or the budget has been exhausted.

In all cases, the algorithms consider the average cycle time to be minimized if no step improves it further, within the precision of the simulation tool.

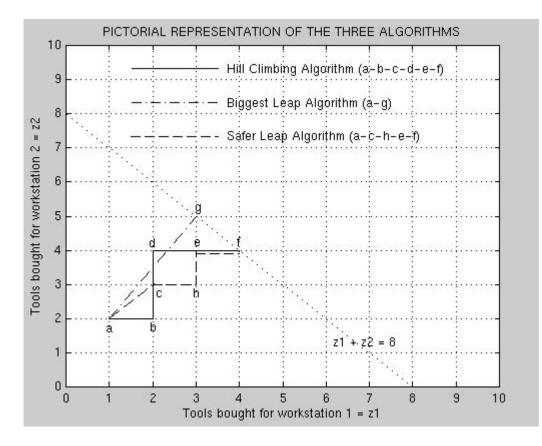


Figure 4.1: Behavior of hill climbing, biggest leap and safer leap algorithms

Consider a manufacturing system with two workstations, having one tool type per workstation. Figure 4.1 describes one of the ways in which the three algorithms could behave if there was enough money to buy at least five more tools, having already bought 3 tools, assuming that there is enough scope for improvement in the cycle time. The hill climbing algorithm buys one tool at a time. The biggest leap algorithm buys all the tools in a single move. The safer leap algorithm takes big, but cautious steps. The solution in the end may differ as can be seen.

The other kind of search procedure used is the nested partitions algorithm (NPA), which employs a random search. This procedure does not build up on the low-cost, feasible solution provided by the heuristic. The solution space is partitioned into several regions, and solution points are sampled from each region using a random sampling scheme. The best estimated objective function value forms the criterion for selecting the most promising region, which is then, partitioned further. Sampling from the region that surrounds the most promising region allows escaping local optimums by backtracking to a larger region that would include the current most promising region. Two versions of NPA (NPA-I and NPA-II) were developed for our problem. They differ in the way the solution space is partitioned.

NPA-I: The search partitions the solution space based on the tool values of each and every existing tool type. Therefore the depth of partitioning (or the number of times the solution space will have to be partitioned) will be equal to the sum of the different tool types at each workstation. As we go deeper and deeper in the partitioning process, we keep on fixing the tool values for those tools that have been partitioned on. These tool values will be the final ones, unless the procedure backtracks at some later stage in the partitioning process.

NPA-II: This search deals with a solution space that consists of only one tool type per workstation. It partitions the solution space in two steps. In the first phase of partitioning (primary phase), it fixes the tool type that is found to be the most promising, for each workstation. In the second phase of partitioning (secondary phase), it fixes the tool values for those chosen tool types. The secondary phase is similar to NPA-I, except that the input to NPA-I would consist of only one tool type for each workstation. The depth of partitioning in NPA-II equals twice the number of workstations (for each phase of partitioning, the depth equals the number of workstations). There could exist a

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possibility of backtracking from a secondary depth level (secondary node) to a primary depth level (primary node).

Consider the same manufacturing system with two workstations, having one tool type per workstation. Figure 4.2 describes the way NPA would work. To begin with, we would partition the solution space on the tool values for the first workstation. The lines L1, L2,...,L5 in Figure 4.2(a) represent the solution subspace for which the tool values for the first workstation are 1,2,...,5 respectively. The bold line L4 indicates the most promising region after the sampling has been done.

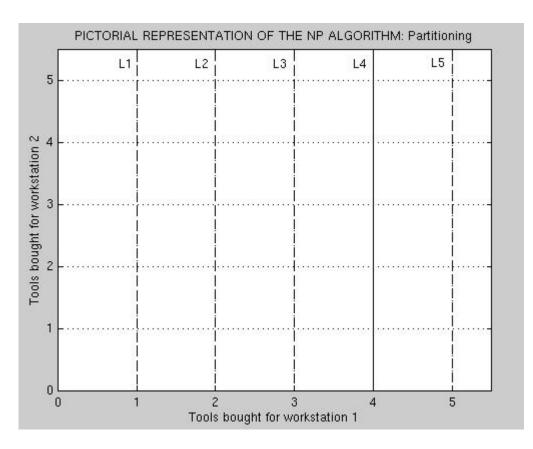


Figure 4.2(a): NPA – partitioning on tool values for workstation 1

Now, with tool value at first workstation as 4, we partition on the tool values of the second workstation. The points on the line L4 in Figure 4.2(b) indicate the solution

subspace at the second depth level. All possible solutions that do not lie on the line L4 form the surrounding region. If the best solution is found on the line L4, the procedure terminates, returning that solution as the final result, otherwise we backtrack and partition on the tool values for the first workstation.

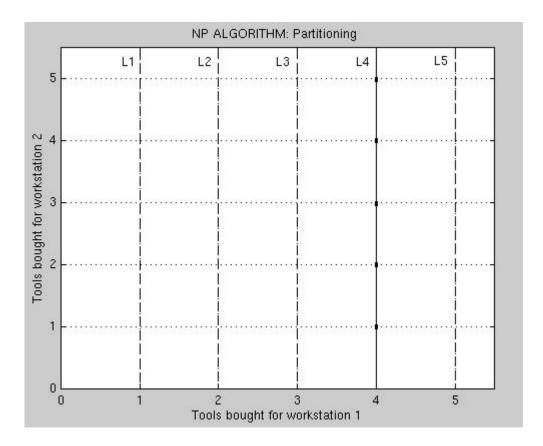


Figure 4.2(b): NPA – partitioning on tool values for workstation 2

If the first workstation had two tool types, then NPA-I would partition on the tool values of both the tool types at first workstation, and on the tool type at the second workstation in a similar manner as shown above. NPA-II however, would first partition to select the most promising tool type, before partitioning to select the tool values. The partitioning for primary phase would look for the solution subspaces on the X and Y axes only, as shown in Figure 4.3 (solutions with single tool type per workstation).

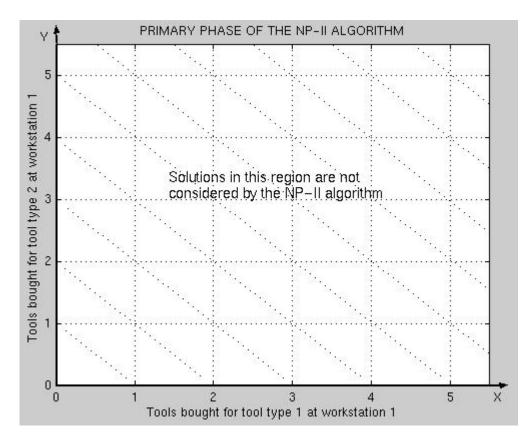


Figure 4.3: Solution space for the NPA-II

Once the most promising tool type has been determined by sampling on the X and Y axes, we would start with the secondary phase of partitioning to determine the tool values, as explained earlier.

# 4.2 Description of the heuristic

4.2.1 Notation

The following notation is used:

- $\lambda$  desired throughput
- *M* budget available
- *n* number of workstations

- $z_i$  total number of different tool types at workstation i; i = 1, ..., n
- $T_{ij}$  tool of type *j* at workstation  $i; j = 1, ..., z_i$
- $\mu_{ij}$  capacity of  $T_{ij}$  tool
- $C_{ij}$  cost of  $T_{ij}$  tool
- $U_{ij}$  capacity per unit cost of  $T_{ij}$  tool
- *k* iteration number
- $X_{ij}^{k}$  number of  $T_{ij}$  tools at the  $k^{\text{th}}$  iteration
- $\theta_k$  solution after the  $k^{\text{th}}$  iteration:  $\theta_k = \{X_{11}^k, \dots, X_{1z_1}^k; \dots; X_{n1}^k, \dots, X_{nz_n}^k\}$
- $B^k$  budget available after the  $k^{\text{th}}$  iteration
- |x| greatest integer less than or equal to x
- $\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}$  smallest integer greater than or equal to x

#### 4.2.2 Description

For each workstation i = 1, ..., n:

For each tool type, calculate  $U_{ij} = \mu_{ij} / C_{ij}$ 

Let  $U_i^* = \max\{U_{i1}, ..., U_{iz_i}\}$ 

Let  $y_i$  equal the number of  $T_{ij}$  tools such that  $U_{ij} = U_i^*$ For these  $y_i$  tool types, let  $X_{ij}^0 = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{y_i \mu_{ij}} \right\rceil$ 

For the other  $z_i - y_i$  tool types, let  $X_{ij}^0 = 0$ 

Set  $\theta_0 = \{X_{11}^0, ..., X_{nz_n}^0\}$ If  $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij}^0 C_{ij} > M$ , then the heuristic solution is infeasible; stop

Else perform the search

Note that at the end of the heuristic, remaining budget is given as

$$B^{0} = M - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_{i}} X_{ij}^{0} C_{ij}$$

### 4.2.3 Heuristic applied to the sample problem

First, the capacities per unit cost  $(U_{ij})$  are calculated for each tool. Table 4.1 lists these.

Tool Type	Workstation		
1001 Type	<i>i</i> = 1	i = 2	
<i>j</i> = 1	8.36	8.53	
<i>j</i> = 2	8.00	8.67	
<i>j</i> = 3 8.50 8.00			
All numbers in 10 <sup>-4</sup> wafers/hour/dollar			

Table 4.1: Tool capacity per tool cost  $U_{ij}$ 

Table 4.2 lists the  $U_i^*$ s and the  $y_i$ s for the two workstations.

	Workstation			
	<i>i</i> = 1	<i>i</i> = 2		
$U_i^*$	$U_{13}$	$U_{22}$		
y <sub>i</sub>	1	1		

Table 4.2:  $U_i^*$  and  $y_i$ 

For the tools  $T_{13}$  and  $T_{22}$ ,

$$X_{13}^{0} = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{y_i \mu_{ij}} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{100}{12.75} \right\rceil = 8 \text{ , and } X_{22}^{0} = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{y_i \mu_{ij}} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{100}{19.5} \right\rceil = 6$$

Table 4.3 lists the number of tools bought  $(X_{ij})$  so as to meet the throughput requirements.

Tool Type	Workstation		
1001 Type	i = 1	i = 2	
<i>j</i> = 1	0	0	
<i>j</i> = 2	0	6	
<i>j</i> = 3	8	0	

Table 4.3: Number of  $T_{ii}$ s bought by the heuristic  $(X_{ii}^{0})$ 

Finally, we check whether the heuristic solution satisfies the budget constraint or not.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij} C_{ij} = (8*600) + (6*900) = 10,200 \le M = 18,000$$

Hence  $\theta_0 = \{X_{11}^0, X_{12}^0, X_{13}^0; X_{21}^0, X_{22}^0, X_{23}^0\} = \{0, 0, 8; 0, 6, 0\}.$ 

The average cycle time with this configuration of tools is estimated to be 21.09 hours. Having met the throughput and the budget constraints, the search will be performed next in order to reduce the cycle time as much as possible, utilizing the remaining budget  $B^0$  where  $B^0 = M - 10,200 = \$7,800$ .

### 4.3 Description of the hill climbing algorithm

#### 4.3.1 Notation

The following notation is used in addition to that of the heuristic:

*N* number of replications

p total number of tool types =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i$ 

 $\hat{f}_r(V_{ij}^k)$  average cycle time at point  $V_{ij}$  obtained by the  $r^{\text{th}}$  simulation run at the  $k^{\text{th}}$  iteration

#### 4.3.2 Description

If there is no  $C_{ij} \leq B^0$ , then return  $\theta_0$  as the final solution

Else initialize k = 0; perform the search

Step 1: Neighborhood Search (This step evaluates all the feasible neighbors of the current solution)

Step 1.1: Increment *k* by 1

Step 1.2: For each workstation i = 1,...,n:

For each tool type  $j = 1, ..., z_i$ :

Specify neighbor  $V_{ij}^{k}$  as:

$$V_{ij}^{k} = \{X_{11}^{k-1}, \dots, X_{1z_{1}}^{k-1}; \dots; X_{i1}^{k-1}, \dots, X_{ij}^{k-1} + 1, \dots, X_{iz_{i}}^{k-1}; X_{n1}^{k}, \dots, X_{nz_{n}}^{k}\}$$

For each neighbor where  $C_{ij} \leq B^{k-1}$ , estimate the cycle time of  $V_{ij}^{k}$  as follows:

$$(\hat{f}(V_{ij}^{k}))_{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=1}^{N} \hat{f}_{r}(V_{ij}^{k})$$

Note that this will require at most (*Np*) simulation runs.

Step 2: If  $(\hat{f}(V_{ij}))_N \ge (\hat{f}(\theta_{k-1}))_N$  for all  $T_{ij}$ , then return  $\theta_{k-1}$ ; stop Else continue

Step 3: Solution update

Step 3.1: Choose  $V_{ij}^{k}$  that has the minimum  $(f(V_{ij}^{k}))_{N}$ 

Step 3.2: Update the values of  $X_{ij}^{k}$ s

Step 3.3: Let  $\theta_k = V_{ij}^k$ 

Step 3.4: Set  $B^{k} = B^{k-1} - C_{ii}$ 

Step 3.5: If there is no  $T_{ij}$  that has  $C_{ij} \leq B^k$ , then return  $\theta_k$ ; stop

Else go to Step 1

4.3.3 Hill climbing algorithm applied to the sample problem

Since  $C_{11} = 550 < B^0 = 7800$ , there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $C_{ij} \le B^0$ . Hence, perform the search. Initialize k = 0.

Step 1:

Step 1.1: Increment k; k = 1

Step 1.2: Table 4.4 lists the cycle times  $(\hat{f}(V_{ij}^{-1}))_N$  of the corresponding  $V_{ij}^{-1}$ 

Tool	$\hat{f}(V_{ij}^{-1})$	$ heta_0$	$ heta_1$		
$T_{11}$	5.77	0	0		
$T_{12}$	4.86	0	1		
$T_{13}$	5.42	8	8		
$T_{21}$	20.42	0	0		
$T_{22}$	20.34	6	6		
$T_{23}$	20.56	0	0		
	Cycle Time values in hours				

Table 4.4: Hill climbing algorithm: cycle time values and the tool configuration before and after the iteration

Step 2: Since there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $(\hat{f}(V_{ij}^{-1}))_N < (\hat{f}(V_{ij}^{-0}))_N$ , we continue with the search

Step 3:

Step 3.1:  $V_{12}^{1}$  has the minimum  $(f(V_{ij}^{1}))_{N}$ 

Step 3.2: Table 4.6 shows the updated values of  $X_{ij}^{1}$ 

Step 3.3:  $\theta_1 = V_{12}^{1} = \{0, 1, 8; 0, 6, 0\}$ 

Step 3.4:  $B^1 = B^0 - C_{12} = 7800 - 900 = 6900$ 

Step 3.5: Since  $C_{11} = 550 < B^1 = 6900$ , there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $C_{ij} \leq B^1$ ;

hence go to Step 1

# 4.4 Description of the biggest leap algorithm

4.4.1 Notation

The following notation is used in addition to that of the heuristic:

*N* number of replications

$$p$$
 total number of tool types =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i$ 

c size of the perturbation = 1

 $f_r(\theta_k)$  average cycle time at point  $\theta_k$  obtained by the  $r^{\text{th}}$  simulation run

 $e_{ij}$  unit vector in direction ij

 $g_{ij}(\theta_k)$  gradient vector at point  $\theta_k$  normal to the direction ij

$$a_k$$
 step size at iteration  $k$ 

4.4.2 Description

If there is no  $C_{ij} \leq B^0$ , then return  $\theta_0$  as the final solution

Else initialize k = 0; perform the search

Step 1: Gradient estimation

Step 1.1: Increment *k* by 1

Step 1.2: For each workstation i = 1,...,n:

For each tool type  $j = 1, ..., z_i$ :

Let 
$$V_{ij}^{k} = \theta_{k-1} + ce_{ij} = \{X_{11}^{k-1}, ..., X_{ij}^{k-1} + 1, ..., X_{nz_n}^{k-1}\}$$

Estimate  $\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_k)$  as follows:

$$(\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_{k}))_{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=1}^{N} \frac{\hat{f}_{r}(\theta_{k-1} + ce_{ij}) - \hat{f}_{r}(\theta_{k-1})}{c}$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=1}^{N} \hat{f}_{r}(V_{ij}^{k}) - \hat{f}_{r}(\theta_{k-1})$$

Note that this will require N(p+1) simulation runs.

#### Step 2: Solution update

Step 2.1: For each workstation i = 1, ..., n:

For each tool type  $j = 1,...,z_i$ : Let  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = g_{ij}(\theta_k)$ If  $d_{ij}^{\ k} > 0$ , then set  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = 0$ ; this avoids reducing any  $X_{ij}^{\ k}$ If  $C_{ij} > B^{k-1}$ , then set  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = 0$ ; this avoids buying any tools that are too expensive

Step 2.2: If  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = 0$  for all  $T_{ij}$ , then return  $\theta_{k-1}$ ; stop

Else continue

Step 2.3: Let  $a_k = \frac{-B^{k-1}}{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} d_{ij}^k C_{ij}}$ 

Step 2.4: If all  $\left\lfloor -a_k d_{ij}^k \right\rfloor = 0$ , then

Set  $X_{ij}^{\ k} = X_{ij}^{\ k-1} + 1$  for  $T_{ij}$  where  $d_{ij}^{\ k}$  is the smallest (most negative) =  $X_{ij}^{\ k-1}$  otherwise;  $B^k = B^{k-1} - C_{ij}$ 

Else

Set 
$$X_{ij}^{\ k} = X_{ij}^{\ k-1} + \left[ -a_k d_{ij}^k \right]$$
  
 $B^k = B^{k-1} - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} \left( \left[ -a_k d_{ij}^k \right] \right) C_{ij}$ 

Step 3: Let  $\theta_k = \{X_{11}^k, ..., X_{nz_n}^k\}$ 

 $\theta_k$  is feasible with respect to the constraints since

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} (X_{ij}^{k-1} + \lfloor -a_k d_{ij}^k \rfloor) C_{ij} \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij}^{k-1} C_{ij} - a_k \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} d_{ij}^k C_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij}^{k-1} C_{ij} + B^{k-1} = M$$

where all  $C_{ij} \leq B^{k-1}$  and all  $d_{ij}^k \leq 0$ 

Step 4: If there is no  $C_{ij} \leq B^k$ , then return  $\theta_k$ ; stop

Else go to Step 1

4.4.3 Biggest leap algorithm applied to the sample problem

Since  $C_{11} = 550 < B^0 = 7800$ , there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $C_{ij} \le B^0$ . Hence, continue with the search. Initialize k = 0.

Step 1:

Step 1.1: Increment k; k = 1

Step 1.2: Table 4.5 lists the gradients  $\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_1)$  of the corresponding  $V_{ij}^{1}$ 

Tool	$\hat{f}\left(V_{ij}^{-1}\right)$	$\hat{f}(V_{_{ij}}^{_{0}0})$	$\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_1)$	
$T_{11}$	5.77	21.09	-15.32	
$T_{12}$	4.86	21.09	-16.23	
$T_{13}$	5.42	21.09	-15.67	
$T_{21}$	20.42	21.09	-0.67	
$T_{22}$	20.34	21.09	-0.75	
<i>T</i> <sub>23</sub>	20.56	21.09	-0.53	
All numbers in hours				

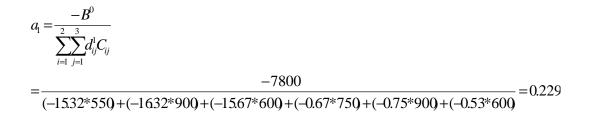
Table 4.5: Biggest leap algorithm: cycle time and the corresponding gradient values for the first iteration

Step 2:

Step 2.1: Values of  $d_{ij}^{1}$  are shown in Table 4.6

Step 2.2: Since at least one  $d_{ij}^{1}$  is < 0, we continue with the search

Step 2.3: Calculate  $a_1$  as:



Step 2.4: Table 4.6 shows the values for  $\left[-a_1d_{ij}^1\right]$ . Since at least one such value is > 0,

Tool	$\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_1)$	$d_{ij}{}^1$	$-a_{l}d_{ij}^{1}$	$\left\lfloor -a_{1}d_{ij}^{1} ight floor$	$ heta_0$	$ heta_l$
$T_{11}$	-15.32	-15.32	3.51	3	0	3
$T_{12}$	-16.23	-16.23	3.72	3	0	3
$T_{13}$	-15.67	-15.67	3.59	3	8	11
$T_{21}$	-0.67	-0.67	0.15	0	0	0
$T_{22}$	-0.75	-0.75	0.17	0	6	6
$T_{23}$	-0.53	-0.53	0.12	0	0	0
	Cycle Time gradients in hours					

$X_{ij}$	are updated	as	shown	in	Table 4.6
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Table 4.6: Biggest leap algorithm: data for calculating the new tool configuration

$$B^{1} = B^{0} - (3*550 + 3*900 + 3*600) = 7800 - 6150 = 1650$$

Step 3:  $\theta_1 = \{X_{11}^1, \dots, X_{23}^1\} = \{3, 3, 11, 0, 6, 0\}$ 

Step 4: Since  $C_{11} = 550 < B^1 = 1650$ , there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $C_{ij} \le B^1$ ; hence go to Step 1

### 4.5 Description of the safer leap algorithm

4.5.1 Notation

The following notation is used in addition to that of the heuristic:

*N* number of replications

$$p$$
 total number of tool types =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i$ 

c size of the perturbation = 1

 $\hat{f}_r(\theta_k)$  average cycle time at point  $\theta_k$  obtained by the  $r^{\text{th}}$  simulation run

 $e_{ij}$  unit vector in direction ij

 $\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_k)$  gradient vector at point  $\theta_k$  normal to the direction *ij* 

- $a_k$  step size at iteration k
- $D^k$  amount spent at the  $k^{\text{th}}$  iteration

### 4.5.2 Description

If there is no  $C_{ij} \leq B^0$ , then return  $\theta_0$  as the final solution

Else initialize k = 0; perform the search

Step 1: Gradient estimation

Step 1.1: Increment *k* by 1

Step 1.2: For each workstation i = 1,...,n:

For each tool type  $j = 1,...,z_i$ :

Let 
$$V_{ij}^{k} = \theta_{k-1} + ce_{ij} = \{X_{11}^{k-1}, ..., X_{ij}^{k-1} + 1, ..., X_{nz_n}^{k-1}\}$$

Estimate  $\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_k)$  as follows:

$$(\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_{k}))_{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=1}^{N} \frac{\hat{f}_{r}(\theta_{k-1} + ce_{ij}) - \hat{f}_{r}(\theta_{k-1})}{c}$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=1}^{N} \hat{f}_{r}(V_{ij}^{k}) - \hat{f}_{r}(\theta_{k-1})$$

Note that this will require N(p+1) simulation runs.

#### Step 2: Solution update

Step 2.1: For each workstation i = 1, ..., n:

For each tool type  $j = 1,...,z_i$ : Let  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = g_{ij}(\theta_k)$ If  $d_{ij}^{\ k} > 0$ , then set  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = 0$ ; this avoids reducing any  $X_{ij}^{\ k}$ If  $C_{ij} > B^{k-1}$ , then set  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = 0$ ; this avoids buying any tools that are too expensive

Step 2.2: If  $d_{ij}^{\ k} = 0$  for all  $T_{ij}$ , then return  $\theta_{k-1}$ ; stop

Else continue

Step 2.3: Let  $a_k = \frac{-B^{k-1}}{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} d_{ij}^k C_{ij}}$ 

Step 2.4: If all  $\left\lfloor -a_k d_{ij}^k \right\rfloor = 0$ , then

Set  $X_{ij}^{\ k} = X_{ij}^{\ k-1} + 1$  for  $T_{ij}$  where  $d_{ij}^{\ k}$  is the smallest (most negative) =  $X_{ij}^{\ k-1}$  otherwise;  $B^k = B^{k-1} - C_{ij}$ 

Else

Initialize  $D^k = 0$ 

For each workstation i = 1,...,n:

Compare  $d_{ij}^{k}$  for those  $T_{ij}$  where  $\left\lfloor -a_{k}d_{ij}^{k} \right\rfloor > 0$ 

Let  $X_{ij}^{k} = X_{ij}^{k-1} + 1$  for  $T_{ij}$  where  $d_{ij}^{k}$  is the smallest (most negative)  $= X_{ij}^{k-1}$  for the rest of the  $T_{ij}$  at workstation *i*;  $D^{k} = D^{k} + C_{ij}$  where  $C_{ij}$  is the cost of the  $T_{ij}$  that is bought  $B^{k} = B^{k-1} - D^{k}$ 

Step 3: Let  $\theta_k = \{X_{11}^k, ..., X_{nz_n}^k\}$ 

 $\theta_k$  is feasible with respect to the constraints since

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} (X_{ij}^{k-1} + \lfloor -a_k d_{ij}^k \rfloor) C_{ij} \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij}^{k-1} C_{ij} - a_k \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} d_{ij}^k C_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{z_i} X_{ij}^{k-1} C_{ij} + B^{k-1} = M$$

where all  $C_{ij} \leq B^{k-1}$  and all  $d_{ij}^k \leq 0$ 

Step 4: If there is no  $C_{ij} \leq B^k$ , then return  $\theta_k$ ; stop

Else go to Step 1

4.5.3 Safer leap algorithm applied to the sample problem

Since  $C_{11} = 550 < B^0 = 7800$ , there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $C_{ij} \leq B^0$ . Hence,

continue with the search. Initialize k = 0.

Step 1:

Step 1.1: Increment k; k = 1

Step 1.2: Table 4.7 lists the gradients  $\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_1)$  of the corresponding  $V_{ij}^{1}$ 

Tool	$\hat{f}\left(V_{ij}^{-1}\right)$	$\hat{f}\left(V_{ij}^{0} ight)$	$\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_1)$		
$T_{11}$	5.77	21.09	-15.32		
$T_{12}$	4.86	21.09	-16.23		
<i>T</i> <sub>13</sub>	5.42	21.09	-15.67		
$T_{21}$	20.42	21.09	-0.67		
$T_{22}$	20.34	21.09	-0.75		
$T_{23}$	20.56	21.09	-0.53		
	All numbers in hours				

Table 4.7: Safer leap algorithm: cycle time and the corresponding gradient values for the first iteration

Step 2:

Step 2.1: Values of  $d_{ij}^{1}$  are shown in table 4.8

Step 2.2: Since at least one  $d_{ij}^{1}$  is < 0, we continue with the search

Step 2.3: Calculate  $a_1$  as:

$$a_{1} = \frac{-B^{0}}{\sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{3} d_{ij}^{1} C_{ij}}$$
$$= \frac{-7800}{(-1532*550 + (-1632*900 + (-1567*600 + (-0.67*750 + (-0.75*900 + (-0.53*6$$

Step 2.4: Table 4.8 shows the values for  $\lfloor -a_1d_{ij}^1 \rfloor$ . Since at least one such value is > 0,  $X_{ij}^{-1}$  are updated as shown in table 4.8. Note that  $d_{12}^{-1}$  is the most negative.

Tool	$\hat{g}_{ij}(\theta_1)$	$d_{ij}{}^1$	$-a_{l}d_{ij}^{1}$	$\left\lfloor -a_{1}d_{ij}^{1} ight floor$	$ heta_0$	$ heta_l$
$T_{11}$	-15.32	-15.32	3.51	3	0	0
$T_{12}$	-16.23	-16.23	3.72	3	0	1
$T_{13}$	-15.67	-15.67	3.59	3	8	8
$T_{21}$	-0.67	-0.67	0.15	0	0	0
$T_{22}$	-0.75	-0.75	0.17	0	6	6
$T_{23}$	-0.53	-0.53	0.12	0	0	0
	Cycle Time gradients in hours					

Table 4.8: Safer leap algorithm: information for calculating the new tool configuration

$$B^1 = B^0 - C_{12} = 7800 - 900 = 6900$$

Step 3:  $\theta_1 = \{X_{11}^1, \dots, X_{23}^1\} = \{0, 1, 8, 0, 6, 0\}$ . Note that no tool is added to the second workstation because all  $\left\lfloor -a_1 d_{ij}^1 \right\rfloor = 0$ 

Step 4: Since  $C_{11} = 550 < B^1 = 6900$ , there is at least one  $T_{ij}$  such that  $C_{ij} \leq B^1$ ; hence, go to Step 1

### 4.6 Description of NPA-I

4.6.1 Notation

The following notation is used in addition to that of the heuristic:

- $B^l$  remaining budget at the  $l^{\text{th}}$  partition depth
- $\mu_i$  capacity of workstation *i*, at the current partition depth
- F set of those  $T_{ij}$  whose  $X_{ij}$  are fixed at the current partition depth

N set of those  $T_{ij}$  whose  $X_{ij}$  are not fixed at the current partition depth

$$U_i \qquad \min\{\frac{C_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}}\} \text{ for } T_{ij} \in N \text{ at workstation } i$$

$$U_i$$
 min $\{\frac{C_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}}\}$  for all  $T_{ij}$  at workstation  $i$ 

 $\mu_{x_j}$   $j^{th}$  highest capacity out of the *n* workstations

$$\chi \qquad \{X_{11}, ..., X_{1z_1}; ..., X_{n1}, ..., X_{nz_n}\}$$

### 4.6.2 Description

Renumber  $T_{ij}$  at each workstation *i* so that  $\mu_{i1} \ge \mu_{i2} \ge \dots \ge \mu_{iz_i}$ 

Initialize  $F = \{ \}; N = \{(1,1) (2,1) \dots (n,1) (1,2) (2,2) \dots (n,z_n) \}$  where (i,j) denotes the tool  $T_{ij}$ .

### Step 1: Partitioning

We will assume  $z_1 = z_2 = \ldots = z_n = z$ 

The depth in the partitioning scheme is governed by the following order:

$$T_{11}, T_{21}, \dots, T_{n1}, T_{12}, T_{22}, \dots, T_{n2}, \dots, T_{1z}, T_{2z}, \dots, T_{nz}$$

Calculate 
$$B' = M - \sum_{(i,j)\in F} X_{ij}C_{ij}$$
;  $\mu_i = \sum_{(i,j)\in F} X_{ij}\mu_{ij}$ 

The lower and upper bounds on the width at each level of depth are given as:

$$X_{hp}^{L} = 0 \text{ if } \exists j > p : (h,j) \in N$$

$$= \left[\frac{\lambda - \mu_h}{\mu_{hp}}\right] \text{ otherwise;}$$

$$X_{hp}^{U} = \min\left(\left|\frac{B^{l} - \sum_{k=1,k\neq h}^{n} \max\{0, (\lambda - \mu_{k})U_{k}\}}{C_{hp}}\right|, \left|\frac{\frac{M}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}^{'}} - \mu_{h}}{\mu_{hp}}\right|\right)$$

Add (h,p) to F

Step 2: Random Sampling

Let 
$$X_{ij} = 0, \forall (i,j) \in N$$

For 
$$X_{hp} = X_{hp}^{L}, ..., X_{hp}^{U}$$
:

Perform steps 2.1 and 2.2

Step 2.1: Check feasibility:

For each workstation i = 1,...,n:

While  $(\mu_i \leq \lambda)$ , repeat the following loop:

From those  $(i,j) \in N$ , pick a random (i,j) and increment its  $X_{ij}$ 

Set  $B^{l} = B^{l} - C_{ij}$ ;  $\mu_{i} = \mu_{i} + \mu_{ij}$ 

If  $B^l < 0$ , repeat this step again, choosing different random (i,j)s. If after repeating a number of times, feasibility is still not obtained, skip the current partition (represented by the current value of  $X_{hp}$ ) as well as the subsequent remaining partitions (represented by the remaining values of  $X_{hp}$ ) at the current depth *l*.

Step 2.2: Sample a point in the partitioned space:

Pick a uniformly distributed random number R between 0 and  $B^{l}$ 

Let 
$$P(R) = \{(i,j) : (i,j) \in N, C_{ij} \le R\}$$

While P(R) is not empty, repeat the following loop:

Consider those *q* workstations that have at least one (i,j)  $\in P(R)$ Arrange these *q* workstations according to their capacity, such that  $\mu_{x_1} \ge \mu_{x_2} \ge ... \ge \mu_{x_q}$ 

Pick a workstation *i* at rank *j*, with probability  $\frac{2j}{q(q+1)}$ ; let *k* be the selected workstation

However, for special cases where capacities of some workstations are equal, the probability of picking any of these workstations would be the same. For ex., if  $\mu_{x_1} > \mu_{x_2} = \mu_{x_3} = \mu_{x_4} > \mu_{x_5} > ... > \mu_{x_q}$ , then the probability of picking workstations

$$x_2, x_3 \text{ or } x_4 = \frac{2^*(2+3+4)}{q(q+1)} * \frac{1}{3}$$

Note that this scheme makes the workstation with lower capacity, more likely to be selected.

From those  $(k,j) \in P(R)$ , randomly pick a (k,j)

Set  $X_{kj} = X_{kj} + 1$ ;  $R = R - C_{kj}$ ;  $\mu_k = \mu_k + \mu_{kj}$ 

Step 2.3: Sample a point in the surrounding space:

Let  $Y_{ij}$  be the number of  $T_{ij}$  tools for the surrounding region

Initialize  $Y_{ij} = 0 \forall (i,j)$ 

Pick a uniformly distributed random number *R* between  $\lambda \sum_{k=1}^{n} U_k$  and *M* Let  $Q(R) = \{(i,j) : C_{ij} \leq R\}$  While Q(R) is not empty, repeat the following loop:

Consider those *q* workstations that have at least one  $(i,j) \in Q(R)$ Arrange these *q* workstations according to their capacity, such that  $\mu_{x_1} \ge \mu_{x_2} \ge ... \ge \mu_{x_q}$ 

Pick a workstation *i* at rank *j*, with probability  $\frac{2j}{q(q+1)}$ ; let *k* be the selected workstation

From those (k,j) in Q(R), randomly pick a (k,j)

Set  $X_{kj} = X_{kj} + 1$ ;  $R = R - C_{kj}$ ;  $\mu_k = \mu_k + \mu_{kj}$ 

If, for any workstation *i*,  $\mu_i < \lambda$ , then discard the sample

Further, if  $\forall$  (*i*,*j*)  $\in$  *F*,  $X_{ij} = Y_{ij}$ , discard the sample because it does not belong to the surrounding region

Note that at depth level = 1, there exists no surrounding region.

Step 3: Calculating the promising index

For each sample point in every partitioned region, the value of the objective function is estimated. The promising index  $(P.I.)_r$  for region r (=1,...,# of partitions) is given by  $(P.I.)_r = \min\{\hat{f}(\chi_{r_i})\},$ 

where  $\hat{f}(\chi_{r_i})$  is the average cycle time at the *i*<sup>th</sup> sample point  $\chi$  belonging to region *r*. The most promising region is taken as the one that has the minimum (*P.I.*)<sub>*r*</sub>.

Step 4: Further partitioning or backtracking

If one of the subregions has the best promising index value, that subregion is partitioned further using the same scheme. However, if the surrounding region looks to be the most promising region, then we backtrack to a larger region, using the scheme described by Shi and Chen [52].

If the fixed components of the best design at the current depth level *l* are denoted as:

$$\theta_{fixed} = \{X_{11}, X_{21}, \dots, X_{n1}, \dots, X_{1q}, X_{2q}, \dots, X_{pq}\}, l = n(q-1) + p + 1$$

and the fixed components of the best design at the previous depth level *l*-1 are denoted

as: 
$$\theta_{fixed}^* = \{X_{11}^*, X_{21}^*, ..., X_{n1}^*, ...., X_{1(q-1)}^*, X_{2(q-1)}^*, ..., X_{n(q-1)}^*\}$$
 when  $p = 1$ ,  
= $\{X_{11}^*, X_{21}^*, ..., X_{n1}^*, ..., X_{1q}^*, X_{2q}^*, ..., X_{(p-1)q}^*\}$  otherwise,

then we backtrack to the level that  $\theta_{fixed}$  and  $\theta^*_{fixed}$  have the same components at that level and above. Hence after backtracking, the fixed components would have the form:

$$\theta_{fixed}^{+} = \{X_{11}^{+}, X_{21}^{+}, ..., X_{n1}^{+}, ..., X_{1v}^{+}, X_{2v}^{+}, ..., X_{nv}^{+}\}$$

where v < q, or, v = q and  $u \le p-1$ 

Note that in the implementation of NPAs, the best solution at each iteration always forms a candidate solution for the next iteration, even if we backtrack. The flow of NPA-I can be described as follows:

While at least one tool  $\in N$ , repeat the following loop:

For width (at each level of depth) =  $X_{hp}^{L}, \dots, X_{hp}^{U}$ :

For desired number of samples (= 5, in our implementation):

Randomly sample a point (as described in Steps 2.1 and 2.2)

Estimate the objective function value for the sampled point

For desired number of samples (= 50, in our implementation):

Randomly sample a point in the surrounding region (as described in Step 2.3)

Estimate the objective function value for the sampled point

If the sample point having minimum objective function value is not in the

surrounding region, then

Remove a tool from N, add it to F, and continue

Else

Backtrack, adjusting the sets *F* and *N* accordingly (as described in Step 4)

4.6.3 NPA-I applied to the sample problem

Tool Type	Workstation		
1001 Type	<i>i</i> = 1	<i>i</i> = 2	
<i>j</i> = 1	\$900	\$900	
<i>j</i> = 2	\$600	\$750	
<i>j</i> = 3	\$550	\$600	

Table 4.9: Tool cost	ts $C_{ii}$
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Tool Type	Workstation					
1001 Type	<i>i</i> = 1	<i>i</i> = 2				
<i>j</i> = 1	18	19.5				
<i>j</i> = 2	12.75	16				
<i>j</i> = 3	11.5	12				
Required throughput = 100						
All numbers in wafers/hour						

Table 4.10: Tool capacities  $\mu_{ij}$ 

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 are obtained after renumbering the tools, according to their capacities. The depth in the partitioning scheme will be governed by the following order:  $T_{11}, T_{21}, T_{12}, T_{22}, T_{13}, T_{23}$  Step 1:

Let  $F = \{T_{11}, T_{21}, T_{12}\}$  and  $N = \{T_{22}, T_{13}, T_{23}\}$ ; and say  $X_{11} = 4$ ,  $X_{21} = 5$  and  $X_{12} = 5$ The current partition depth, l = 4; the total budget available, M = 18000

$$B^4 = M - \sum_{(i,j) \in F} X_{ij} C_{ij}$$
; hence  $B^4 = 6900$ 

The range of width at this level of depth is given by

$$X_{22} = X_{22}^{L}, ..., X_{22}^{U}$$
 where  $X_{22}^{L} = 0$  (as  $T_{23} \in N$ ) and  
 $X_{22}^{U} = \min\left(\left\lfloor \frac{6900}{750} \right\rfloor, \left\lfloor \frac{95.6}{16} \right\rfloor\right) = 5$ 

 $F = \{T_{11}, T_{21}, T_{12}, T_{22}\}$  and  $N = \{T_{13}, T_{23}\}$ 

Step 2: Random sampling for  $X_{22} = 0$ 

Step 2.1: We find that  $\mu_1 > \lambda$ ; however,  $\mu_2 < \lambda$ . The only choice that can be made, is to

pick  $T_{23}$ . Hence  $X_{23} = 1$ ;  $B^4 = B^4 - 600 = 6300$ ;  $\mu_2 = 97.5 + 12 > \lambda$ 

Step 2.2: Suppose *R* = 1157

 $P(R) = \{(1,3) \ (2,3)\}$ 

The workstation 1 has a higher capacity than workstation 2. Hence workstation 1 will be picked with a probability 1/3 and workstation 2 with a probability 2/3. Say  $T_{23}$  is picked first.

$$X_{23} = 2; R = R - C_{23} = 557; \mu_2 = 109.5 + 12 = 121.5$$

 $P(R) = \{(1,3)\}$ . The only tool that can be picked is  $T_{13}$ 

$$X_{13} = 1; R = R - C_{13} = 7; \mu_1 = 135.75 + 11.5 = 147.25$$

 $P(R) = \{\}$ ; therefore, the sampled point is  $\chi = \{X_{ij}\} = \{4, 5, 1; 5, 0, 2\}$ 

We stop here, and continue this procedure to get more samples for this partition.

Thereafter, random sampling for subsequent partitions is performed.

Step 2.3: Surrounding region for the current depth is sampled as follows:

$$\lambda \sum_{k=1}^{n} U_{k} = 9321.27 \text{ and } M = 18000; \text{ Suppose } R = 12700$$
$$Q(R) = \{(1,1) \ (1,2) \ (1,3) \ (2,1) \ (2,2) \ (2,3)\}$$

Table 4.11 gives the sequence of random selection for this sample

Seq. #	Capacity (wafers / hr)		Prob. of Selection		Resulting Choice		Remaining
#	WS 1	WS 2	WS 1	WS 2	WS	Tool	Budget ( <i>R</i> )
1	0	0	0.5	0.5	2	$T_{21}$	11800
2	0	19.5	0.667	0.333	2	$T_{21}$	10900
3	0	39	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{11}$	10000
4	18	39	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{12}$	9400
5	30.75	39	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{11}$	8500
6	48.75	39	0.333	0.667	1	$T_{11}$	7600
7	66.75	39	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{21}$	6700
8	66.75	58.5	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{23}$	6100
9	66.75	70.5	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{12}$	5500
10	79.5	70.5	0.333	0.667	1	$T_{11}$	4600
11	97.5	70.5	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{21}$	3700
12	97.5	90	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{21}$	2800
13	97.5	109.5	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{12}$	2200
14	110.25	109.5	0.333	0.667	1	$T_{12}$	1600
15	123	109.5	0.333	0.667	1	$T_{12}$	1000
16	135.75	109.5	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{22}$	250
17	135.75	125.5	0.333	0.667			

Table 4.11: NPA-I: sequence in which the tools are bought

The set Q(R) does not change till the seq. # 16, after which it becomes empty. The sampled point  $\gamma = \{Y_{ij}\} = \{4, 5, 0; 5, 1, 1\}$ . From the table, we can see that capacity-feasible solution is obtained. However, the corresponding values of  $X_{ij}$ and  $Y_{ij} \forall (i,j) \in F$  are found to be the same. Therefore this sampled point does not belong to the surrounding region, and hence is discarded.

Step 3: The cycle time values are calculated for each point sampled in Step 2.

Step 4: Let us say, the best sampled point (with least estimated cycle time value) is found in the surrounding region:  $\gamma = \{4, 8, 0; 4, 3, 4\}$ . We find that

$$\theta_{fixed} = \{X_{11}, X_{21}, X_{12}, X_{22}\} = \{4, 4, 8, 3\} \text{ and } \theta^*_{fixed} = \{X^*_{11}, X^*_{21}, X^*_{12}\} = \{4, 5, 5\}$$

Therefore, after backtracking, we get  $\theta_{fixed}^+ = \{X_{ii}^+\} = \{4\}$ ; the partition depth is now set to 2, and the procedure is repeated.

## 4.7 Description of NPA-II

The tree structure in our NPA-II implementation consists of two kinds of nodes: primary and secondary. The primary nodes occupy the first few levels of depth of the tree, and are associated with the identification of the most promising tool types at each workstation. Secondary nodes are associated with searching for the optimal quantities of those tool types identified through primary nodes.

The tree structure in the NPA-I implementation involved only the secondary nodes (the number of such nodes was (nz), the total number of tool types).

#### 4.7.1 Notation

The following notation is used in addition to that of the heuristic:

- $T_i$  selected tool type at workstation *i*
- $X_i$  number of tools for workstation *i*

 $T_i$  and  $X_i$  are the decision variables, whose properties  $C_i$  and  $\mu_i$  can be defined as:

$$C_i = C_{ij}$$
 if  $T_i = j$ ;

 $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$  if  $T_i = j$ ;

- $Z_i$  capacity of the workstation *i*;  $Z_i = X_i^* \mu_i$
- $Z_{x_i}$   $j^{th}$  highest workstation capacity, amongst those under consideration
- $\mathfrak{I}$  set of most promising tools that have been estimated so far:

$$\{T_1, T_2, ..., T_k\}, k \le n$$

- $U_i \qquad \min_{j=1,...,z_i} \{ \frac{C_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}} \}$  at workstation *i*
- $\theta$  set of the values of the number of tools corresponding to  $T_i$

$$\{X_1, X_2, ..., X_k\}, k \le n$$

$$\chi \qquad \{X_{11},...,X_{1z_1};...,X_{n1},...,X_{nz_n}\}$$

*R* Uniformly distributed random number between  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} U_i$  and *M* 

### 4.7.2 Description

Renumber  $T_{ij}$  at each workstation *i* so that  $\mu_{i1} \ge \mu_{i2} \ge \dots \ge \mu_{iz_i}$ . Initialize  $\mathfrak{I} = \{ \}$ ;  $\theta = \{ \}$ .

### Step 1: Partitioning

Step 1.1: Partitioning a primary node: At depth  $p, p \le n, \mathfrak{I} = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_{p-1}\}$ . The

partitioning is done over  $z_p$  tool types to identify  $T_p$ . Note that there are *n* levels of depth for primary nodes.

Step 1.2: Partitioning a secondary node: At depth level n+p, the sets  $\Im = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_n\}$ 

and  $\theta = \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_{p-1}\}$  have been identified. The partitioning is done over the values of  $X_p$  in the range:

$$X_p^L = \left[\frac{\lambda}{\mu_p}\right]$$
 and

$$X_p^U = \min\left\{\frac{M - \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} X_i C_i - \sum_{i=p+1}^n \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{\mu_i} \right\rceil C_i}{C_p}\right\}, \frac{M}{\mu_p \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C_i}{\mu_i}}\right\}$$

#### Step 2: Random sampling

Step 2.1: Sampling a sub region at primary node (at depth level *p*):

For i = p + 1, ..., n,

Randomly select  $T_i$  from the set  $\{1, \ldots, z_i\}$ 

Set 
$$C_j = C_{ij}$$
 and  $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$  if  $T_i = j$ 

Set 
$$T_p = 1$$
;  $C_p = C_{p1}$ ;  $\mu_p = \mu_{p1}$ 

Step 2.1.1: Check feasibility:

For 
$$i = 1,...,n$$
,  
Set  $X_i = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{\mu_i} \right\rceil$   
Set  $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^n X_i C_i$   
If  $B < 0$ , start Step 2 again by picking a new set of

If B < 0, start Step 2 again by picking a new set of  $T_i$ s

Step 2.1.2: Sample a point in the partitioned space:

Pick a uniformly distributed random number *R* between 0 and *B* 

Let  $P(R) = \{i : C_i \le R\}$ 

While P(R) is not empty, repeat the following loop:

Consider those *q* workstations that belong to *P*(*R*) Arrange these *q* workstations according to their capacity, such that  $Z_{x_1} \ge Z_{x_2} \ge ... \ge Z_{x_q}$ 

Pick a workstation *i* at rank *j*, with probability  $\frac{2j}{q(q+1)}$ ; let *k* be the selected workstation

However, for special cases where capacities of some workstations are equal, the probability of picking any of these workstations would be the same. For ex., if  $Z_{x_1} > Z_{x_2} = Z_{x_3} = Z_{x_4} > Z_{x_5} > ... > Z_{x_q}$ , then the probability of picking workstations  $x_2$ ,  $x_3$  or  $x_4$  equals

$$\frac{2^{*}(2+3+4)}{q(q+1)} * \frac{1}{3}$$

Note that this scheme makes the workstation with lower capacity, more likely to be selected.

Set  $X_k = X_k + 1$ ;  $R = R - C_k$ ;  $Z_i = Z_i + \mu_i$ 

Let  $X^* = X_p$ ;  $C^* = C_p$ For  $i = 2,...,z_p$ :

Set 
$$T_p = i$$
;  $C_p = C_{pi}$ ;  $\mu_p = \mu_{pi}$   
Set  $X_p = Round(\frac{X^*C^*}{C_p})$ 

Hence we get  $z_p$  samples whose  $T_i$  and  $X_i$  are the same for all  $i \neq p$ , but  $X_p$  may be different as  $T_p$  are different.

Step 2.2: Sampling a sub region at secondary node (at depth level n+p):

At the depth level n+p, we have:

$$\mathfrak{I} = \{T_{1}, T_{2}, ..., T_{n}\}$$
$$\theta = \{X_{1}, X_{2}, ..., X_{p-1}\}$$
For  $X_{p} = X_{p}^{L}, ..., X_{p}^{U}$ :

Perform steps 2.2.1 and 2.2.2

Step 2.2.1: Check feasibility:

For 
$$i = p+1,...,n$$
:  
Set  $X_i = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{\mu_i} \right\rceil$ 

Set  $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i C_i$ 

If B < 0, skip the current partition (represented by the current value of  $X_p$ ) as well as the subsequent remaining partitions (represented by the remaining values of  $X_p$ ) at the current depth n+p.

Step 2.2.2: Sample a point in the partitioned space:

Pick a uniformly distributed random number *R* between 0 and *B* 

Let 
$$P(R) = \{i : i > p, C_i \le R\}$$

While P(R) is not empty, repeat the following loop:

Consider those q workstations that belong to P(R)

Arrange these *q* workstations according to their capacity, such that  $Z_{x_1} \ge Z_{x_2} \ge ... \ge Z_{x_q}$ 

Pick a workstation *i* at rank *j*, with probability  $\frac{2j}{q(q+1)}$ ; let *k* be the selected workstation

Set 
$$X_k = X_k + 1$$
;  $R = R - C_k$ ;  $Z_i = Z_i + \mu_i$ 

Step 2.3: Surrounding region is sampled as follows:

Step 2.3.1: Check feasibility:

For *i* = 1,...,*n*:

Randomly select  $T_i$  from the set  $\{1, \ldots, z_i\}$ 

Set 
$$C_i = C_{ij}$$
 and  $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$  if  $T_i = j$   
Set  $X_i = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{\mu_i} \right\rceil$ 

Set  $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i C_i$ If B < 0, start again by picking a new set of  $T_i$ s

Step 2.3.2: Sample a point in the surrounding space:

Pick a uniformly distributed random number *R* between 0 and *B* 

Let  $P(R) = \{i : C_i \le R\}$ 

While P(R) is not empty, repeat the following loop:

Consider those q workstations that belong to P(R)

Arrange these q workstations according to their capacity, such that

 $Z_{x_1} \ge Z_{x_2} \ge \dots \ge Z_{x_q}$ 

Pick a workstation *i* at rank *j*, with probability  $\frac{2j}{q(q+1)}$ ; let *k* be the selected workstation

Set 
$$X_k = X_k + 1$$
;  $R = R - C_k$ ;  $Z_k = Z_k + \mu_k$ 

Step 2.3.3: Check whether sample belongs to the surrounding region:

For primary region at depth level p, if  $T_i$ , for all i < p, are the same as in  $\Im$ , discard the sample because it does not belong to the surrounding region.

For secondary region at depth level n+p, if  $T_i$ , for all  $i \le n$ , are the same as in  $\Im$ , and  $X_i$ , for all i < p, are the same as in  $\theta$ , discard the sample because it does not belong to the surrounding region.

Step 3: Calculating the promising index

For each sample point in every partitioned region, the value of the objective function is estimated. The promising index  $(P.I.)_r$  for region r (r = 1,...,# of partitions) is given by  $(P.I.)_r = \min\{\hat{f}(\chi_{r_i})\},$ 

where  $\hat{f}(\chi_{r_i})$  is the average cycle time at the *i*<sup>th</sup> sample point  $\chi$  belonging to region *r*. The most promising region is taken as the one that contains the sample point with the minimum  $(P.I.)_r$ .

#### Step 4: Further partitioning or backtracking

If one of the sub regions of a node has the best promising index value, that sub region is partitioned further using the same scheme. However, if the surrounding region looks to be the most promising region, then we backtrack to a larger region using the scheme described by Shi and Chen [52]:

Step 4.1: Backtracking for the primary node:

At the depth level *p* (where  $p \le n$ ), we have:

$$\Im = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_{p-1}\}$$

Let the tool types for the workstations  $1, \dots, p$  for the best sample in the surrounding region be represented as:

$$\mathfrak{J}^* = \{T_1^*, T_2^*, ..., T_{p-1}^*\}$$

If  $\mathfrak{S}^* \neq \mathfrak{S}$ , then we backtrack to the level *k* where  $\mathfrak{S}^*$  and  $\mathfrak{S}$  would have the same components at that level and above. After backtracking, we would have  $\mathfrak{S}^+ = \{T^+, T^+, T^+\} \ k \le n-1$ 

$$\mathfrak{Z} \equiv (\mathbf{I}_1, \mathbf{I}_2, \dots, \mathbf{I}_k), \mathbf{k} < \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{I}.$$

Note that for all  $j \le k$ ,  $T_j = T_j^* = T_j^+$ 

Step 4.2: Backtracking for the secondary node:

At depth level 
$$n+p$$
 (where  $p \le n$ ), we have:  
 $\Im = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_n\}$   
 $\theta = \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_{p-1}\}$ 

Let the best sample in the surrounding region be represented as:

$$\mathfrak{I}^{*} = \{T_{1}^{*}, T_{2}^{*}, ..., T_{n}^{*}\}$$
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{*} = \{X_{1}^{*}, X_{2}^{*}, ..., X_{p-1}^{*}\}$$

If  $\mathfrak{I}^* \neq \mathfrak{I}$ , we backtrack using the same scheme as in Step 4.1.

Else if  $\mathfrak{I}^* = \mathfrak{I}$ , then we backtrack to the level where  $\theta^*$  and  $\theta$  have the same components at that level and above. After backtracking, we would have

 $\theta^{+} = \{X_1^+, X_2^+, ..., X_k^+\}, k < p-1$ 

Note that for all  $j \le k$ ,  $X_j = X_j^* = X_j^+$ 

The flow of NPA-II can be described as follows:

While the set  $\theta$  is incomplete, repeat the following loop:

If the node is primary, then

For the desired number of samples (= 5, in our implementation):

Randomly sample a point (as described in Step 2.1)

Estimate the objective function value for the sampled point

For the desired number of samples (= 50, in our implementation):

Randomly sample a point in the surrounding region (as described in Step 2.3)

Estimate the objective function value for the sampled point If the sample point having minimum objective function value is not in the surrounding region, then

Add the chosen tool for the workstation that is being partitioned on, to  $\ensuremath{\mathfrak{I}}$ 

Else

Backtrack, adjusting the set  $\Im$  accordingly (as described in Step 4) Else if the node is secondary, then

For width (at each level of depth) =  $X_p^L$  to  $X_p^U$ :

For the desired number of samples (= 5, in our implementation):

Randomly sample a point (as described in Step 2.2)

Estimate the objective function value for the sampled point

For the desired number of samples (= 50, in our implementation):

Randomly sample a point in the surrounding region (as described in Step 2.3)

Estimate the objective function value for the sampled point

If the sample point having minimum objective function value is not in the

surrounding region, then

Add  $X_p$  (tool value corresponding to the tool  $T_p$ , for the best

sample found) to  $\theta$ 

Else

Backtrack, adjusting the sets  ${\mathfrak I}$  and  ${\boldsymbol \theta}$  accordingly (as described in

Step 4)

Adjust the type of node depending on the new depth level

4.7.3 NPA-II applied to the sample problem

Tool Type	Workstation								
1001 Type	<i>i</i> = 1	<i>i</i> = 2							
<i>j</i> = 1	18	19.5							
<i>j</i> = 2	12.75	16							
<i>j</i> = 3	11.5	12							
Required throughput = 100									
All nu	mbers in wafe	rs/hour							

Table 4.12: Tool costs C<sub>ij</sub>

Tool Type	Workstation							
1001 Type	i = 1	<i>i</i> = 2						
<i>j</i> = 1	\$900	\$900						
<i>j</i> = 2	\$600	\$750						
<i>j</i> = 3	\$550	\$600						

Table 4.13: Tool capacities  $\mu_{ij}$ 

Tables 4.12 and 4.13 are obtained after renumbering the tools, according to their capacities. There will be two primary nodes, and two secondary nodes as there are two workstations.

Consider a primary node first.

Let  $\Im = \{T_{11}\}$  (equivalent to saying  $\Im = \{T_1\}$  where  $T_1 = 1$ ) and  $\theta = \{\}$ . The current partition depth is p = 2. The total budget available, M = 18000.

Step 1:

The partitioning will be done over the three tool types at workstation 2, namely  $T_{21}$ ,  $T_{22}$  and  $T_{23}$ .

Step 2: Random sampling for the most promising tool type at the 2<sup>nd</sup> workstation:

Step 2.1: Since there are no more than 2 workstations, we go on to set  $T_2 = 1$ ,  $C_2 = C_{21}$ 

and 
$$\mu_2 = \mu_{21}$$
  
Step 2.1.1: Set  $X_1 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{18} \right\rfloor = 6$ , and  $X_2 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{19.5} \right\rfloor = 6$   
 $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 7200$ 

Step 2.1.2: Suppose R = 2010. Hence,  $P(R) = \{1,2\}$ 

The workstation 2 has a higher capacity than workstation 1. Hence, workstation 1 will be picked with a probability 2/3 and workstation 2

with a probability 1/3. Say  $T_2$  is picked first.

 $X_2 = 7; R = R - C_2 = 1110; Z_2 = Z_2 + 19.5 = 136.5$ 

 $P(R) = \{1,2\}$ ; The probabilities remain the same; Say  $T_1$  is picked next;

$$X_1 = 7; R = R - C_1 = 210; Z_1 = Z_1 + 18 = 126$$

 $P(R) = \{\}$ ; Therefore, the sampled point is  $\chi = \{X_{ij}\} = \{7, 0, 0; 7, 0, 0\}$ 

$$X^* = X_1 = 7; C^* = C_1 = 900$$

At 
$$i = 2, T_2 = 2, C_2 = C_{22}, \mu_2 = \mu_{22}$$
 and hence,  $X_2 = Round(\frac{6300}{750}) = 8$   
 $M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 5700 > 0$ 

Hence the next sample is  $\chi = \{X_{ij}\} = \{7, 0, 0; 0, 8, 0\}$ 

At 
$$i = 3$$
,  $T_2 = 3$ ,  $C_2 = C_{23}$ ,  $\mu_2 = \mu_{23}$  and hence,  $X_2 = Round(\frac{6300}{600}) = 11$   
 $M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 5100 > 0$ 

Hence the next sample is  $\chi = \{7, 0, 0; 0, 0, 11\}$ 

Step 2.3: Surrounding region is sampled as follows:

Step 2.3.1: Say the selected tools are  $T_1 = 2$  and  $T_2 = 3$ 

Set 
$$X_1 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{12.75} \right\rfloor = 8$$
 and  $X_2 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{12} \right\rfloor = 9$   
 $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 7800$ 

Step 2.3.2: Suppose R = 4005; Hence,  $P(R) = \{1,2\}$ ;

Table 4.14 gives the sequence of random selection for this sample.

Seq. #	Capa (wafei	acity rs / hr)	Prob. of	Selection	Resultin	g Choice	Remaining Budget ( <i>R</i> )	
#	* WS 1 WS 2		WS 1 WS 2		WS Tool		Budget (K)	
1	102	108	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{12}$	3405	
2	114.75	108	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{23}$	2805	
3	114.75	120	0.667	0.333	1	$T_{12}$	2205	
4	127.5	120	0.333	0.667	1	$T_{12}$	1605	
5	140.25	120	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{23}$	1005	
6	140.25	132	0.333	0.667	2	$T_{23}$	405	
7	140.25	144	0.667	0.333				

Table 4.14: NPA-II: sequence in which the tools are bought

The set P(R) does not change till the seq. # 6, after which it becomes empty. The sampled point  $\chi = \{0,11,0;0,0,12\}$ .

Step 2.3.3: Since for the sampled point,  $T_1 = 2$ , it is different from the  $T_1$  in  $\mathfrak{I}$ .

Hence the sample qualifies as a surrounding sample.

Step 3: The cycle time values are calculated for each point sampled in Step 2.

Step 4: Let us say, the best sampled point (with least estimated cycle time value) is found in one of the sub-partitions:  $\chi = \{9,0,0;9,0,0\}$ .  $\Im$  is set to  $\{T_{11},T_{21}\}$ , and  $\theta$  to  $\{\}$ . Now we start with the secondary nodes.

Consider a secondary node at depth n+p = 4 (where p = 2);  $\Im = \{T_{11}, T_{21}\}$ , and  $\theta = \{10\}$ .

Step 1:

The partitioning will be done on the values of  $X_{21}$ . The range of width is given by

 $X_2 = X_{21}^L, ..., X_{21}^U$  where

$$X_{21}^{L} = \left[\frac{100}{19.5}\right] = 6 \text{ and } X_{21}^{U} = \min\left(\left\lfloor\frac{9000}{900}\right\rfloor, \left\lfloor\frac{18000}{1875}\right\rfloor\right) = 9$$

Step 2: Random sampling for  $X_2 = 6$ :

Step 2.2.1: Since there are only 2 workstations, we go on and calculate *B*:

$$B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 3600 > 0$$

Step 2.2.2: We find that  $P(R) = \{\}$  as there are only 2 workstations. Therefore, the

sampled point is  $\chi = \{9, 0, 0; 6, 0, 0\}$ 

Step 2.3: Surrounding region is sampled as follows:

Step 2.3.1: Say the selected tools are  $T_1 = 1$  and  $T_2 = 3$ 

Set 
$$X_1 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{18} \right\rfloor = 6$$
 and  $X_2 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{12} \right\rfloor = 9$   
 $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 7200$ 

Step 2.3.2: Suppose R = 1100; Hence,  $P(R) = \{1,2\}$ 

Both workstations 1 and 2 have the same capacity (108 wafers/hr). Hence,

both workstations will be picked with a probability of 0.5. Say  $T_1$  is picked first.

$$X_1 = 7; R = R - C_1 = 200; Z_1 = Z_1 + 18 = 126$$

 $P(R) = \{\}$ ; Therefore the sampled point is  $\chi = \{7, 0, 0; 0, 0, 9\}$ 

Step 2.3.3: Since for the sampled point,  $T_2 = 3$ , it is different from the  $T_2$  in  $\mathfrak{I}$ .

Hence the sample qualifies as a surrounding sample.

Step 3: The cycle time values are calculated for each point sampled in Step 2.

Step 4: Let us say, the best sampled point (with least estimated cycle time value) is found in the surrounding region:  $\chi = \{0,15,0,10,0,0\}$ . We find that

$$\mathfrak{I}^* = \{T_{11}, T_{23}\} \neq \mathfrak{I} = \{T_{11}, T_{21}\}$$

Therefore, after backtracking, we get  $\mathfrak{I}^+ = \{T_{11}\}$  and  $\theta^+ = \{\}$ ; the partition depth is now set to 2, (the node type is primary now) and the procedure is repeated.

### 4.8 Description of the analytical algorithm

This algorithm deals with a solution space that consists of only one tool type per workstation, as in NPA-II. Like NPAs, it does not build up on the low-cost, feasible solution provided by the heuristic. We implemented two analytical algorithms and the one that was chosen as the benchmark, is described below. The comparison of results for the two analytical algorithms is given in the appendix.

### 4.8.1 Notation

The following notation is used in addition to that of the heuristic:

- $T_i$  selected tool type at workstation i
- $X_i$  number of tools for workstation *i*

 $T_i$  and  $X_i$  are the decision variables, whose properties  $C_i$  and  $\mu_i$  can be defined as:

$$C_i = C_{ij}$$
 if  $T_i = j$ ;

 $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$  if  $T_i = j$ ;

 $Z_i$  capacity of the workstation *i*;  $(Z_i = X_i^* \mu_i)$ 

 $Z_{x_i} = j^{th}$  highest workstation capacity, amongst those under consideration

 $\theta$  set of the values of the number of tools corresponding to  $T_i: \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_n\}$ 

- $f(\theta_c)$  cycle time evaluated using the analytical formula for *M/M/m* queues, at the current iteration
- $f(\theta_p)$  cycle time evaluated using the analytical formula for *M/M/m* queues, at the previous iteration
- $\chi \qquad \{X_{11}, X_{12}, ..., X_{1z_1}; ....; X_{n1}, X_{n2}, ..., X_{nz_n}\}$

4.8.2 Description

Let  $T_i = j$ , such that  $\mu_{ij} > \mu_{ik}$  for all  $k \le z_i$  and  $k \ne j$ . If  $\mu_{ij} = \mu_{ik}$ , then choose the less expensive tool type. Set  $C_i = C_{ij}$ ;  $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$ .

Step 1: Check feasibility

For i = 1,...,n: Set  $X_i = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{\mu_i} \right\rceil$ 

Set 
$$B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i C_i$$

If B < 0, then

Return the solution as infeasible (even though the heuristic solution might be feasible for the problem instance)

Else

Perform Step 2

Step 2: Return the solution

Initialize  $f(\theta_p) = \infty$ 

Set  $\theta_c$  as  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ 

Calculate  $f(\theta_c)$  as:

$$f(\theta_c) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{\mu_i} + \frac{1}{\mu_i} \frac{(X_i \rho_i)^{X_i} \pi_i}{X_i ! X_i (1 - \rho_i)^2}\right) \text{, where}$$

$$\pi_{i} = (1 + \sum_{k=1}^{X_{i}-1} \frac{(X_{i}\rho_{i})^{k}}{k!} + \frac{(X_{i}\rho_{i})^{X_{i}}}{X_{i}!(1-\rho_{i})})^{-1} \text{ and } \rho_{i} = \frac{\lambda}{X_{i}\mu_{i}} \quad (\text{Hall [63]})$$

Let  $P(B) = \{i : C_i \le B\}$ 

While *P*(*B*) is not empty, and  $f(\theta_c) < f(\theta_p)$ , repeat the following loop:

Consider those q workstations that belong to P(B)

Arrange these q workstations according to their capacity, such that

 $Z_{x_1} \ge Z_{x_2} \ge ... \ge Z_{x_q}$ 

Let *i* be the workstation with the capacity  $Z_{x_q}$ 

Set 
$$\theta_p = \theta_c$$
;  $f(\theta_p) = f(\theta_c)$ 

Set 
$$X_i = X_i + 1$$
;  $B = B - C_i$ ;  $Z_i = Z_i + \mu_i$ 

Update  $\theta_c$ 

Calculate  $f(\theta_c)$ 

If  $f(\theta_c) < f(\theta_p)$ , then

Return  $\chi_c$  as the final solution

Else

Return  $\chi_p$  as the final solution

4.8.3 Analytical algorithm applied to the sample problem

Set 
$$T_1 = 2$$
,  $C_1 = C_{12} = 900$ ,  $\mu_1 = \mu_{12} = 18$ ; and  
 $T_2 = 2$ ,  $C_2 = C_{22} = 900$ ,  $\mu_2 = \mu_{22} = 19.5$   
Step 1: Set  $X_1 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{18} \right\rfloor = 6$ , and  $X_2 = \left\lfloor \frac{100}{19.5} \right\rfloor = 6$   
 $B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{2} X_i C_i = 7200 > 0$ 

Step 2:  $P(B) = \{1,2\}; \ \theta_c = \{6,6\}$ 

Table 4.15 gives the sequence in which we buy the tools:

Seq	-	acity s/hour)	Tool	Budget	P(B)	Δ	Δ	f(A)	f(A)
#	WS1	WS1 WS2 Bought Remaining		Γ(D)	$ heta_p$	$ heta_c$	$f(\theta_p)$	$f(\theta_c)$	
1	108	117	$T_1$	6300	{1,2}	{6,6}	{7,6}	6.12	4.06
2	126	117	$T_2$	5400	{1,2}	{7,6}	{7,7}	4.06	3.37
3	126	136.5	$T_1$	4500	{1,2}	{7,7}	{8,7}	3.37	3.06
4	144	136.5	$T_2$	3600	{1,2}	{8,7}	{8,8}	3.06	2.90
5	144	156	$T_1$	2700	{1,2}	{8,8}	{9,8}	2.90	2.81
6	162	156	$T_2$	1800	{1,2}	{9,8}	{9,9}	2.81	2.76
7	162	175.5	$T_1$	900	{1,2}	{9,9}	{10,9}	2.76	2.72
8	180	175.5	$T_2$	0	{}	{10,9)	{10,10}	2.72	2.70
9	180	195							

Table 4.15: Analytical algorithm: sequence in which the tools are bought

The final solution returned is  $\chi_c = \{0, 10, 0; 0, 10, 0\}$ .

## 4.9 Results for the sample problem

The final values of the tool types, given by our implementation for the heuristic and the simulation-based algorithms, are shown in Table 4.16.

	Tool values for											
Tool types	Heuristic	Hill	Biggest	Safer	NPA-I	NPA-II						
	Ticulistic	climbing	Leap	Leap								
$T_{11}$	0	0	3	0	0	0						
$T_{12}$	0	5	3	5	9	10						
$T_{13}$	8	8	11	8	0	0						
$T_{21}$	0	0	1	0	0	0						
$T_{22}$	6	9	7	9	9	9						
$T_{23}$	0	0	0	0	0	0						
Cycle Time (hrs)	21.09	3.02	3.27	3.02	2.76	2.72						

Table 4.16: Results of the heuristic and the simulation-based algorithms appliedto the sample problem

## 4.10 Summary

This chapter provided the description of the heuristic and the algorithms that we implement to solve the equipment selection problem. They were explained with the help of a sample problem we defined in Chapter 3. The next chapter describes the set-up of the experiments we conducted, to compare the performances of these algorithms.

# 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter reports and discusses the results that we obtained by conducting experiments for the equipment selection problem, and compares the hill climbing, biggest leap, safer leap and nested partitions algorithms against the analytical algorithm. Section 5.1 describes the experimental set-up comprising the administrator, the problem sets, the simulation model and the output metrics based on which we compare the algorithms. Section 5.2 lists the results we obtained for the problem sets when the cost and capacity are not correlated, and when they are correlated respectively. In Section 5.3, we summarize those results.

## 5.1 Experimental design

The administrator (designed in Delphi 5®<sup>1</sup>), the input template files (Microsoft Excel®<sup>2</sup>), the simulation engine (Factory Explorer 2.5®<sup>3</sup>) along with the simulation model file (Microsoft Excel) that it interacts with, and the output file (Microsoft Excel), are the four components of the experimental architecture. The administrator controls all other components. The purpose of these experiments is to compare the performance of the algorithms over a range of problem sets and determine how the characteristics of the problem instances affect the algorithms' performance. The instances are not based on any specific problems from industrial applications. The input template files contain the input data for the simulation models. The administrator reads the input data from these

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Registered trademark of Borland Software Corporation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Registered trademark of Microsoft Inc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Registered trademark of Wright, Williams and Kelley Inc.

files and runs the heuristic to find the initial feasible solution. Then it populates the simulation model file that the simulation engine interacts with and runs one of the search algorithms under consideration. During the run, it updates the simulation model file, executes the simulation engine and at the end of the search, records the output data in the output file.

#### 5.1.1 Input template files

There are two input template files, each containing a different problem set. Each problem set contains 16 data sets with 10 data instances per data set. Hence there are a total of 160 problem instances in one input template file. The difference between the two problem sets is the correlation between the cost and capacity. Ideally, the cost of a tool would increase with an increase in its capacity. In Problem Set 1, the cost and capacity are not correlated, while in Problem Set 2, they are.

The input for the Problem Set 1 is as follows.

P = cost factor for tool types = \$1000

 $\lambda$  = desired throughput = 100 wafers per hour

n = number of workstations = 5

r = expected number of tools per workstation = 2 or 10

 $z_i$  = number of tool types per workstation = 2 or 5

 $\alpha$  = lower bound of cost range = 0.5 or 0.8

 $\beta$  = multiplier for budget = 1 or 3

 $\mu_{ij}$  = capacity of the *j*<sup>th</sup> tool at the *i*<sup>th</sup> workstation

 $C_{ij} = \text{cost of the } j^{\text{th}} \text{ tool at the } i^{\text{th}} \text{ workstation}$ 

The parameters r,  $z_i$ ,  $\alpha$ , and  $\beta$  can take two values. Each combination of the parametric values forms a data set and 10 instances for each data set are generated as follows:

For i = 1 to nFor j = 1 to  $z_i$ Choose  $a_{ij} \in [0,2]$  (uniform distribution) Let  $\mu_{ij} = a_{ij}(\lambda/r)$ Choose  $b_{ij} \in [\alpha,1]$  (uniform distribution) Let  $C_{ij} = b_{ij}P$ 

 $M = \beta nrP$ 

The input for Problem Set 2 is as follows:

P = cost factor for tool types = \$1000

 $\lambda$  = desired throughput = 100 wafers per hour

n = number of workstations = 5

r = expected number of tools per workstation = 2 or 10

 $z_i$  = number of tool types per workstation = 2 or 5

e = shape of correlation = 0.5 or 1

 $\alpha$  = lower bound of cost range = 0.5

 $\beta$  = multiplier for budget = 1 or 3

 $\mu_{ij}$  = capacity of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  tool at the  $i^{\text{th}}$  workstation

 $C_{ij} = \text{cost of the } j^{\text{th}} \text{ tool at the } i^{\text{th}} \text{ workstation}$ 

The parameters r,  $z_i$ , e, and  $\beta$  can each take two values. Each combination of the parametric values forms a data set and 10 instances for every data set are generated as follows:

For i = 1 to nFor j = 1 to  $z_i$ Choose  $b_{ij} \in [\alpha, 1]$  (uniform distribution) Let  $a_{ij} = 2(b_{ij})^e$ Let  $\mu_{ij} = a_{ij}(\lambda/r)$ Let  $C_{ij} = b_{ij}P$  $M = \beta_{nr}P$ 

$$M = \beta nrP$$

The link to the data sets can be found at the following website: http://www.isr.umd.edu/Labs/CIM/projects/mfgsys/index.html

### 5.1.2 Simulation model

There is one product, Wafer, which enters the system as one lot of 25 wafers every 0.25 hours. The lot inter-arrival times and the lot processing times are exponentially distributed. The mean processing time on a tool of type *j* at workstation *i* is  $25/\mu_{ij}$ . The factory is a flow shop. Each lot must visit each workstation in the same sequence. The number of lots that visit each tool type at a workstation is proportional to the tool's capacity. In other words, even if a high capacity tool is idle at a workstation, the lot coming out of the queue might get routed to another idle tool at the same workstation with a much lower capacity. It is assumed that there are no travel times for the lots, from one workstation to the next. Therefore, the layout of the factory is not taken into consideration. Further, re-entrant flow and rework are not considered, and none of the tools breaks down during operation or otherwise.

 $\mu_{ij}$  and  $C_{ij}$  are obtained from the input template files. While the initial number of tools at each workstation is obtained from the heuristic (for the hill climbing and gradient-based algorithms), the updated number of tools is obtained from the search algorithm. Each lot will visit each workstation starting with workstation 1 and ending with workstation 5. Each replication in a simulation run is conducted for one year, which means that approximately 35,000 lots are processed in every replication. In all cases, 2 replications are performed. The warm-up period is taken as zero.

### 5.1.3 Output file

The output file records four metrics after the administrator solves each data instance. The statistics gathered after the heuristic constructs an initial solution, are  $Cost_x$  and  $Capacity_x$ . The statistics gathered after the search algorithm constructs the final solution, are  $Cost_y$ ,  $Capacity_y$ ,  $CycleTime_y$  and  $Simulations_y$ . From these statistics the following performance metrics are calculated to estimate the performance of the various algorithms:

$$Cost Metric = \frac{Cost_y - Cost_x}{M}$$

$$Capacity Metric = \frac{Capacity_{y} - Capacity_{x}}{\lambda}$$

*Simulation Metric* = *Simulations*<sub>v</sub>

For Problem Set 1 where capacity and cost are not related,

Cycle Time Metric = 
$$\frac{CycleTime_y}{2.5}$$
 when  $r = 2$   
=  $\frac{CycleTime_y}{12.5}$  when  $r = 10$ 

The denominators for the cycle time metric calculation are the expected total mean lot processing times for the corresponding data sets.

For Problem Set 2, where capacity and cost are related,

$$Cycle Time Metric = \frac{CycleTime_{y}}{1.450} \text{ when } e = 0.5 \text{ and } r = 2$$
$$= \frac{CycleTime_{y}}{7.246} \text{ when } e = 0.5 \text{ and } r = 10$$
$$= \frac{CycleTime_{y}}{1.667} \text{ when } e = 1.0 \text{ and } r = 2$$
$$= \frac{CycleTime_{y}}{8.333} \text{ when } e = 1.0 \text{ and } r = 10$$

Note that if *b* has a uniform distribution over [l,u], then the expected value of  $b^{0.5}$  can be calculated as follows:

$$E[b^{0.5}] = \frac{2}{3} \left( \frac{u^{1.5} - l^{1.5}}{u - l} \right)$$

### 5.2 Results

The results for the output metrics for the algorithms we implemented are shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.2, in subsections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 respectively. Table 5.1 corresponds to the case when the cost and capacity of the tools are not correlated. Table 5.2 corresponds to the case when the cost and capacity are correlated.

The nested partitions algorithm-I (NPA-I) was first applied to data set 16, for the case when the cost and capacity are correlated. It was found that it required unreasonable computational effort compared to the hill climbing and the gradient-based algorithms, without producing much improvement in the output metrics. Hence, we discontinued its application to the other data sets and developed another implementation of the nested partitions algorithm, that we called NPA-II. Note that NPA-I and NPA-II were used only once to solve each data instance.

The number of feasible data instances for a particular data set indicates the number of data instances in that data set for which all the algorithms generated results. The output metrics were averaged over the number of feasible data instances. All the data instances for all data sets are found to be feasible when the cost and capacity are correlated. However, it is not so in the other case. From the data instances that we declared infeasible, the following deserve a special mention:

- 4<sup>th</sup> data instance in the 1<sup>st</sup> data set: only NPA-II generated a solution
- 4<sup>th</sup> data instance in the 9<sup>th</sup> data set: only the hill climbing and the gradient-based algorithms generated a solution
- 1<sup>st</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> data instances in the 11<sup>th</sup> data set: only the hill climbing, gradient-based and analytical algorithms generated a solution

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# 5.2.1 Cost and capacity are not correlated

Based on Table 5.1, we plotted the results for the output metrics for all the algorithms, which we discuss next.

Matrix         Matrix         CAPACITY METRIC         CAPACITY METRIC         CAPACITY METRIC         CAPACITY METRIC         ACCL         ACCL         ACCL         ACCL         ACCL         ACCL         ACCL         ACCL         ACCC         ACCC        ACCC			r									1						
n         i	SNC	II-AAN	278	529	194	481	400	943	387	952	546	720	64	667	099	1274	613	1119
n         i	<b>JLATI</b>	SLA	33	57	٢	53	84	144	71	06	91	90	17	105	139	238	240	207
n         i	SIMU	BLA	26	30	7	32	40	26	36	25	91	90	17	66	139	75	179	84
	h d	HCA	33	149	7	141	230	374	127	297	91	315	17	310	676	748	515	695
$ \begin{array}{                                    $		ANLT	1.092	1.085	1.780	0.925	0.914	1.316	0.952	0.750	0.736	0.642	0.875	0.618	0.673	0.635	0.639	0.655
$ \begin{array}{                                    $	ETRIC	II-AAN	1.002	1.050	1.993	0.916	0.932	1.279	066.0	0.743	0.739	0.630	0.865	0.605	0.670	0.629	0.646	0.650
$ \begin{array}{                                    $	TIME M		0.989	1.062	1.849	0.917	0.913	1.288	0.948	0.747	0.719	0.645	0.864	0.612	0.696	0.647	0.644	0.652
$ \begin{array}{                                    $	CYCLE	BLA	1.118	1.289	1.849	1.064	0.998	1.557	1.082	606.0	0.719	0.800	0.864	0.721	0.811	0.982	0.726	0.905
$ \begin{array}{                                    $	-	HCA	0.989	1.064	1.849	0.918	0.912	1.288	0.948	0.747	0.719	0.647	0.864	0.610	0.697	0.647	0.643	0.653
$ \begin{array}{                                    $		ANLT	0.403	1.149	0.235	1.347	0.461	0.427	0.343	0.648	0.425	1.564	0.115	1.559	0.663	0.753	0.648	0.698
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	TRIC		0.400	1.641		1.599	0.454	0.699	0.286	0.803		2.455	0.087	2.262			0.530	
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	ITY ME										-						-	
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	CAPAC	BLA																
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$		HCA		1.225		1.349												
n $a$ $b$ $a$ <td></td> <td>ANLT</td> <td></td> <td>0.298</td> <td></td> <td>0.381</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>-</td> <td>0.300</td> <td></td> <td>0.306</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>-</td> <td></td>		ANLT		0.298		0.381					-	0.300		0.306			-	
$n$ $z$ $\mu$ $z$ <td>IC</td> <td></td> <td>0.232</td> <td>0.438</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>0.319</td> <td>0.316</td> <td>0.217</td> <td>0.245</td> <td>0.276</td> <td>0.460</td> <td>0.076</td> <td>0.465</td> <td></td> <td>0.202</td> <td>0.353</td> <td></td>	IC		0.232	0.438			0.319	0.316	0.217	0.245	0.276	0.460	0.076	0.465		0.202	0.353	
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	T METR																	
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	COS	BLA																
n         z         R $\alpha$ $\beta$ fea- tea- sible           5         2         2         0.5         1         5           5         2         2         0.5         1         5           5         2         2         0.5         1         5           5         2         2         0.5         1         5           5         2         0.5         1         10         1           5         2         0.8         1         3         10           5         2         10         0.5         1         10           5         2         10         0.5         1         3           6         2         10         0.5         1         3           5         2         10         0.8         1         3           6         0.5         1         0.8         1         3           7         2         0.5         1         3         10           7         5         5         0.8         3         10           8         10         0.5         1         1         1		HCA									-							
n         z         R $\alpha$ $\beta$ 5         2         2         0.5         1           5         2         2         0.5         1           5         2         2         0.5         3           5         2         2         0.5         3           5         2         2         0.8         1           5         2         10         0.5         1           5         2         10         0.5         1           5         2         10         0.5         1           5         2         10         0.8         1           5         2         10         0.8         1           5         5         0.5         0.8         1           5         5         0.8         3         3           5         5         0.8         3         3           6         0.8         0.8         1         3           6         10         0.5         3         3           6         5         10         0.5         3           6         5 <td< td=""><td>#</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></td<>	#																	
n     z     R       5     2     2       5     2     2       5     2     2       5     2     2       5     2     2       5     2     10       5     2     10       5     2     10       5     2     10       5     2     10       5     5     2       5     5     2       5     5     2       5     5     10       5     5     10       5     5     10       5     5     10       5     5     10       5     5     10       5     5     10       5     5     10			1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	ю
n     z       n     z       z     z		ά	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8
x         x		R	2	2	2	2	10	10	10	10	2	2	2	2	10	10	10	10
		N	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Set al se			5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
	Ļ	Data Set	1	2	3	4	5	9	7	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16

HCA: hill climbing algorithm BLA: biggest-leap algorithm SLA: safer-leap algorithm NPA: nested partitions algorithm ANLT: analytical

Table 5.1: Results when cost and capacity are not correlated

Figure 5.1 shows the comparison of the cost metric. When the budget is low ( $\beta$  = 1), we find that for data sets 3 and 11 ( $\alpha$  = 0.8), the cost metric for all algorithms is very low. For these data sets, the cost of each tool is very high. Hence, the heuristic itself requires a major chunk of the budget, not leaving enough money for further purchase of tools. The argument is also supported by the fact that the number of feasible instances for these data sets is 3 and 8 respectively. The cost metric for data sets 13 and 15 (z = 5) is very high. With a large number of tools available at each workstation for these data sets, and no correlation between the cost and capacity, it is more likely that a high capacity tool is available at a low price. Hence at the end of the heuristic, more money is available for further purchase. At low budget, it can be seen that on an average all the algorithms behave in a similar manner, except for the biggest leap algorithm (BLA) that spends more money after the heuristic due to its inherent greedy nature.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), we find that the trend for BLA is opposite to that for the other algorithms. For data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 (r = 10), the budget available is the highest. Hence at each iteration, BLA spends a lot of money buying tools with low capacities too, and runs out of the available budget with further improvement in the cycle time still possible. When the available budget is low, as for the other data sets, it is not able to spend as much and hence the cost metric is low. The other algorithms however, are most likely to buy only tools having the highest capacity and hence do not end up spending the whole budget available, whenever possible. Since the cost metric is inherently normalized with respect to the total budget available, it is lower when r = 10compared to when r = 2. This is because when r = 10, the capacity of the tools is very low and a lot of tools are purchased. But after a certain stage, it does not help in reducing

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the cycle time. In other words, the addition of a fast tool to a few similar fast tools will have more impact on the cycle time compared to the addition of a slow tool to a lot of similar slow tools. Hence, even though the capacity is 80% smaller when r = 10, it does not imply that 5 times the money should be spent in further purchasing the tools, as there will be no reduction in the cycle time after a certain stage. We shall refer to this logic as quick sand reasoning. The hill climbing algorithm (HCA) performs closest to the analytical algorithm (ANLT), whose cost metric turns out to be the lowest amongst all the algorithms. The cost metric for the safer leap algorithm (SLA) is slightly higher than that for HCA, but lower than that for the nested partitions algorithm-II (NPA-II).

It can also be seen that the cost metric for data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 ( $\beta = 3$ , r = 10) is lower for all algorithms except BLA, than that for data sets 5, 7, 13 and 15 ( $\beta = 1$ , r = 10) respectively. The reason is the high budget with respect to which the metric is normalized. The increase in the cost metric from data set 7 to 8, and the approximate equality for data sets 5 and 6 for NPA-II are exceptions.

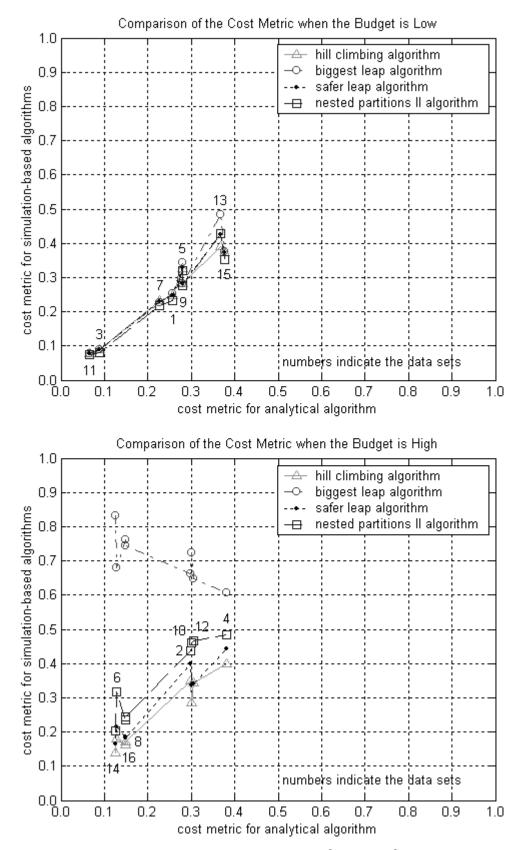


Figure 5.1: Comparison of the cost metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

Figure 5.2 shows the comparison of the capacity metric. When the budget is low  $(\beta = 1)$ , we find that for data sets 3 and 11, the capacity metric for all the algorithms is very low. For these data sets, the cost metric is low too. Since not enough money was available to purchase the tools after the heuristic, the system could not gain much capacity. On a similar basis, the high values of the capacity metric for data sets 13 and 15 can be explained, where the cost metric was high as well. When the available budget is low, and only one tool is bought at each iteration for BLA, the behavior of HCA, BLA and SLA is the same. When the available budget is high, BLA tends to increase the capacity of the workstations in a highly skewed manner, so that the overall capacity of the system remains low, as can be seen from the Figure 5.2. All other algorithms perform more or less in a similar manner, except for data sets 13 and 15. For data set 13, the capacity metric for SLA and NPA-II is higher than that for the other algorithms. For these algorithms the cost metric is higher too, for the corresponding data set. However for data set 15, even though the cost metric was approximately the same, the capacity metric of NPA-II is low. This implies a skewed distribution of capacity amongst the workstations.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), it is seen that for all algorithms, the capacity metric for data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 (r = 10) is lower than that for data sets 2, 4, 10 and 12 (r = 2) respectively. This is due to quick sand reasoning. It is interesting to note that BLA has a higher capacity metric, yet a lower cost metric when r = 2, compared to when r = 10. This is because when r = 2, the capacity of each tool is high, but the available budget is low. Hence, the whole budget is not squandered in a skewed manner, as is the tendency of BLA. ANLT has the lowest capacity metric. HCA performs closest to

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ANLT, barring data sets 10 and 12. The capacity metric is highest for BLA when r = 10and for NPA-II when r = 2. The behavior of SLA is similar to that of HCA only when r = 10.

It can also be seen that the magnitude of increase in the capacity metric from data sets 5, 7, 13 and 15 ( $\beta = 1$ , r = 10), to data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 ( $\beta = 3$ , r = 10) respectively, is lower than that for the corresponding data sets when r = 2, for all the algorithms except BLA. This is due to quick sand reasoning.

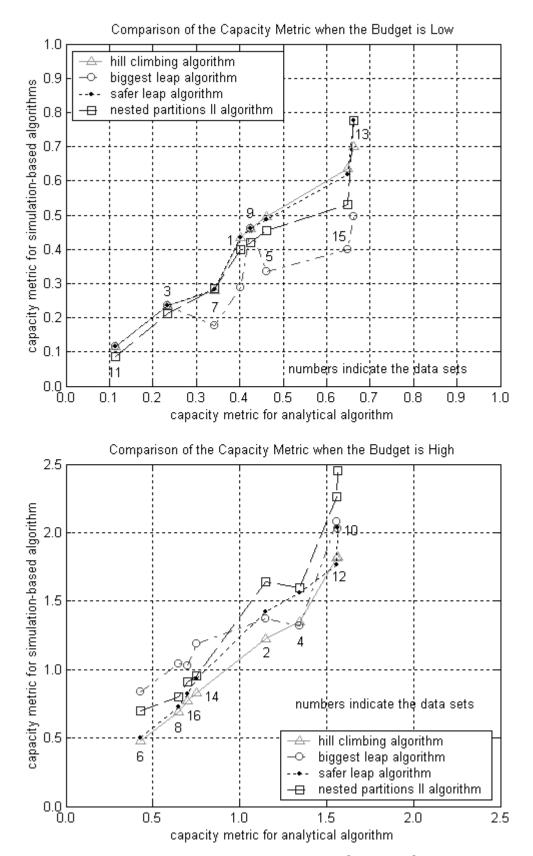


Figure 5.2: Comparison of the capacity metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

Figure 5.3 shows the comparison of the cycle time metric. When the budget is low ( $\beta = 1$ ), we find that for data sets 9, 13 and 15, the cycle time metric is low. The capacity metric for these data sets is high too. Although capacity metric for data set 3 is higher than that for 11, the cycle time metric indicates otherwise. Out of the eight feasible instances that were taken into consideration for data set 11, two had no addition to capacity after the heuristic and two others had insignificant addition to the capacity. For data set 3, only three instances were feasible. Hence the data was insufficient for concrete comparison, as it resulted in skewed metrics. The performance of all algorithms except BLA appears to be similar for the cycle time metric. For BLA, it is always higher than the rest, when it is not equal to that for HCA and SLA.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), we notice that the cycle time metric for data sets 10, 12, 14 and 16 (z = 5) is lower as compared to others (z = 2). For data sets 10 and 12, the capacity metric was highest too. For data sets 14 and 16, a greater choice of tools at a workstation implies greater probability for at least one tool to have a very high capacity. This translates as a lower cycle time value, and hence as a lower cycle time metric despite the capacity metric not being among the highest. The performance of all the algorithms but BLA matches closely. The cycle time metric for BLA is always higher, despite a higher capacity metric for a few data sets. This is due to the purchase of low capacity tools. Wafer lots at these low capacity tools would take more time to get processed. It is unlikely however, for the other algorithms to buy tools that would not have the highest capacity at a workstation.

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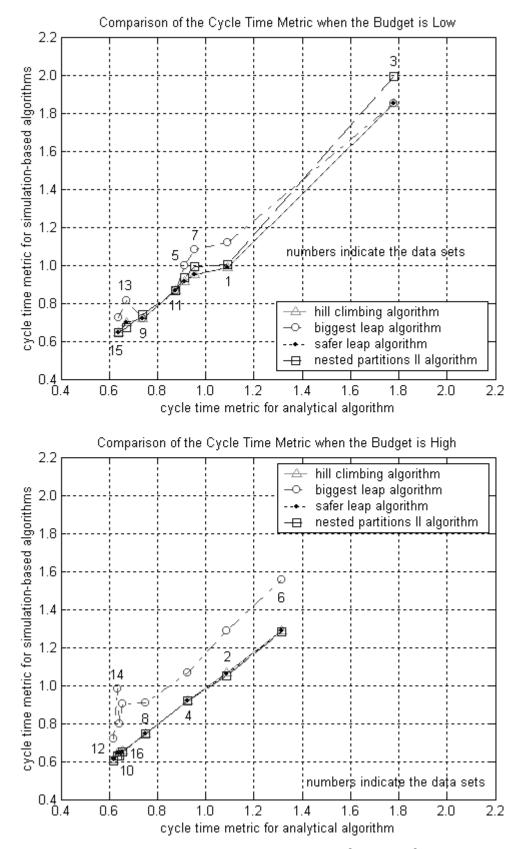


Figure 5.3: Comparison of the cycle time metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

Figure 5.4 shows the comparison of the simulation metric. When the budget is low ( $\beta = 1$ ), we find that the number of simulations for data sets 1, 3, 9 and 11 (r = 2) is equal and very small for HCA, BLA and SLA. This is due to less money available at the end of the heuristic to purchase more tools. For NPA-II however, the number of simulations is higher due to the search process, as it has no initial solution to work with. For data sets 13 and 15 (r = 10, z = 5), since the available budget is high and there are many tool types with low capacity (compared to when r = 2) to choose from, the number of simulations is higher for HCA. For NPA-II also, the number of primary and secondary nodes is more when z = 5, resulting in a higher simulation metric. BLA and SLA have the lowest values for the simulation metric.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), we find that the number of simulations for data sets 2 and 4 (r = 2, z = 2) is small. This is due to less money being available (compared to when r = 10) and few tool types to choose from. For similar reasons, data sets 14 and 16 (r = 10, z = 5) have the highest simulation metric. It is seen that NPA-II requires a lot of simulation runs compared to the other algorithms. This is because when the budget available is high, NPA-II has a broader width to cover at each depth level for the secondary nodes. BLA and SLA require fewer simulation runs compared to HCA.

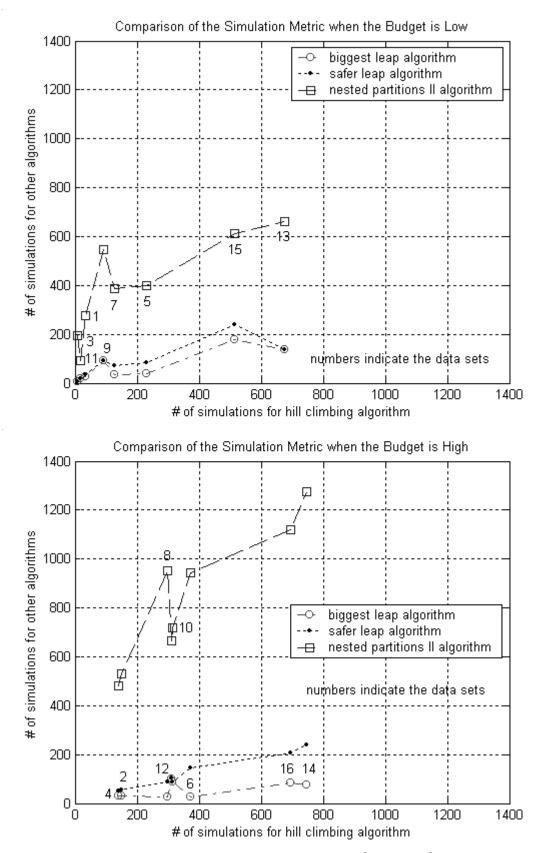
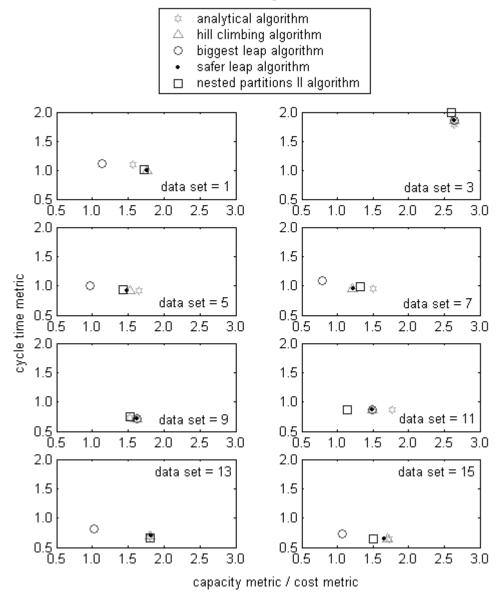


Figure 5.4: Comparison of the simulation metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

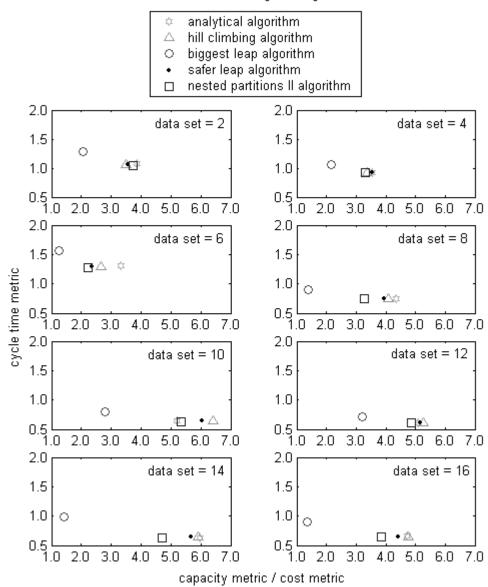
Figures 5.5 and 5.6 give an idea about how effectively the budget that is spent, reduces the cycle time. A higher capacity to cost ratio implies that the system gained more capacity by spending the same amount of money. A high ratio along with a low cycle time metric provides an ideal combination. Figure 5.5 shows the comparison when the budget is low ( $\beta = 1$ ). HCA performs the best for data sets 1 and 9 (r = 2,  $\alpha = 0.5$ ), and relatively well for data sets 3, 5 and 13 and 15. BLA performs well only when the available budget is very low, so that its behavior tends to that of HCA. This can be seen for data sets 3 and 9. For data sets 5, 7, 13 and 15 (r = 10), it performs the best for data set 13 and relatively well for all other data sets except for 11 (r = 2,  $\alpha = 0.8$ ) where it performs the worst. It has a tendency to spend a little more money for the same amount of capacity, achieving almost the same reduction in the cycle time. ANLT performs the best for data sets 3, 5, 7, 11 and 15, and relatively well for 9 and 13.

Figure 5.6 shows the comparison when the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ). HCA performs relatively well, while BLA performs the worst for all data sets. SLA's performance is close to that of HCA, although it spends more money for the same capacity. NPA-II and ANLT also perform relatively well for all the data sets. NPA-II, again has a tendency to spend more money for the same capacity, though it achieves the minimum cycle time for all data sets.



Comparison of Cycle Time Metric vs the Ratio of Capacity Metric and Cost Metric when the Budget is Low

Figure 5.5: Comparison of cycle time metric vs. the ratio of capacity and cost metrics at  $\beta = 1$ 



Comparison of Cycle Time Metric vs the Ratio of Capacity Metric and Cost Metric when the Budget is High

Figure 5.6: Comparison of cycle time metric vs. the ratio of capacity and cost metrics at  $\beta = 3$ 

# 5.2.2 Cost and capacity are correlated

Based on Table 5.2, we plotted the results for the output metrics for all the algorithms, which we discuss next.

					related	re con	acity a	d capa	ost an	vhen c	sults v	.2: Re	Table 5.2: Results when cost and capacity are correlated	L									
			$0.864^{*}$					0.752*					0.318*										
)6	883	0.842	0.835/	0.928	1.033	0.926	0.825	1.123/	1.193	1.798	0.952	0.145	0.245/	0.242	0.804	0.201	10	3	1.0	10	5	5	16
16	618	0.824	0.826	0.916	0.998	0.916	0.849	0.757	0.758	0.564	0.746	0.434	0.423	0.449	0.447	0.448	10	1	1.0	10	5	5	15
76	950	0.916	0.909	0.999	1.015	1.002	0.874	1.137	1.535	2.036	1.226	0.178	0.266	0.262	0.856	0.214	10	3	0.5	10	5	5	14
15	820	0.908	0.910	1.004	1.097	1.003	0.869	0.784	1.081	0.613	1.082	0.539	0.532	0.580	0.582	0.580	10	1	0.5	10	5	5	13
13	338	0.836	0.827	0.904	0.944	0.906	2.076	2.430	2.517	2.039	2.181	0.371	0.472	0.417	0.709	0.372	10	3	1.0	7	5	5	12
5.	55	1.149	1.133	1.247	1.247	1.247	0.485	0.498	0.406	0.406	0.409	0.194	0.205	0.217	0.217	0.217	10	1	1.0	7	5	5	11
9	325	0.924	0.910	1.005	1.018	1.014	1.744	2.643	2.360	3.472	1.874	0.405	0.549	0.432	0.682	0.351	10	3	0.5	2	5	5	10
10	107	1.207	1.148	1.217	1.217	1.217	0.427	0.558	0.409	0.409	0.409	0.376	0.388	0.393	0.393	0.393	10	1	0.5	7	5	5	6
28	308	0.944	0.937	0.999	1.053	1.001	0.791	6.983	0.972	1.155	0.871	0.136	0.203	0.185	0.815	0.161	10	3	1.0	10	2	5	8
3,	273	0.923	0.922	0.971	1.040	0.969	0.793	0.765	0.818	0.473	0.802	0.412	0.415	0.446	0.451	0.446	10	1	1.0	10	2	5	٢

NS	II-AAN	428	630	540	613	641	1196	648	832	684	716	751	707	719	1153	780	1160/	2771*
LATIC	SLA	38	37	29	50	90	06	89	95	107	126	55	152	416	290	360	286	
# of SIMULATIONS	BLA	38	21	22	28	39	28	37	28	107	64	55	132	156	94	160	90	
# of	HCA	38	116	29	125	300	297	273	308	107	325	55	338	820	950	618	883	
	ANLT	1.190	0.966	1.247	0.915	0.961	0.948	0.923	0.944	1.207	0.924	1.149	0.836	0.908	0.916	0.824	0.842	
TRIC	NPA-II	1.177	0.955	1.250	0.897	0.958	0.942	0.922	0.937	1.148	0.910	1.133	0.827	0.910	0.909	0.826	0.835/	0.864*
CYCLE TIME METRIC	SLA N	1.207	1.023 (	1.279	0.945 (	1.091 (	1.008 (	0.971 (	) 666.0	1.217	1.005 (	1.247	0.904 (	1.004 (	0.999 (	0.916 (	0.928 0	0
LE TI																		
CYC	BLA	1.207	1.017	1.359	0.995	1.091	1.012	1.040	1.053	1.217	1.018	1.247	0.944	1.097	1.015	0.998	1.033	
	HCA	1.207	1.023	1.279	0.947	1.020	1.010	0.969	1.001	1.217	1.014	1.247	0.906	1.003	1.002	0.916	0.926	
	ANLT	0.393	1.739	0.513	1.685	0.863	0.844	0.793	0.791	0.427	1.744	0.485	2.076	0.869	0.874	0.849	0.825	
TRIC	NPA-II	0.492	2.626	0.552	2.660	0.905	1.025	0.765	0.983	0.558	2.643	0.498	2.430	0.784	1.137	0.757	1.123/	0.752*
CAPACITY METRIC	SLA 1	0.399	1.923	0.523	2.091	1.070	1.184	0.818	0.972	0.409	2.360	0.406	2.517	1.081	1.535	0.758	1.193	
CAPAC	BLA	0.399	2.920	0.457	2.181	0.499	1.445	0.473	1.155	0.409	3.472	0.406	2.039	0.613	2.036	0.564	1.798	
	НСА	0.399	1.698	0.523	1.789	0.976	0.981	0.802	0.871	0.409	1.874	0.409	2.181	1.082	1.226	0.746	0.952	
	ANLT	0.313 (	0.355	0.214 (	0.316	0.462 (	0.157 (	0.412 (	0.136 (	0.376 (	0.405	0.194 (	0.371	0.539	0.178	0.434 (	0.145 (	
	NPA-II A	0.317 0	0.500 0	0.215 0	0.506 (	0.509 0	0.225 0	0.415 0	0.203 0	0.388 (	0.549 0	0.205 0	0.472 0	0.532 0	0.266 (	0.423 0	0.245/ 0	0.318*
ETRIC																		0
COST MET	SLA	0.307	0.312	0.228	0.398	0.507	0.191	0.446	0.185	0.393	0.432	0.217	0.417	0.580	0.262	0.449	0.242	
ũ	BLA	0.307	0.666	0.217	0.700	0.563	0.846	0.451	0.815	0.393	0.682	0.217	0.709	0.582	0.856	0.447	0.804	
	HCA	0.307	0.288	0.227	0.321	0.471	0.161	0.446	0.161	0.393	0.351	0.217	0.372	0.580	0.214	0.448	0.201	
#	fea- sible	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	
β		1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	ю	
e		0.5	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.0	
	r	2	2	2	2	10	10	10	10	2	2	2	2	10	10	10	10	
	Z	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	
	и	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	
	Data	-	2	3	4	5	9	L	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	

\* indicates the results for NPA-I. Note that this algorithm was applied only to one data set.

HCA: hill climbing algorithm BLA: biggest-leap algorithm SLA: safer-leap algorithm NPA: nested partitions algorithm ANLT: analytical

Figure 5.7 shows the comparison of the cost metric. When the budget is low ( $\beta =$  1), we find that for data sets 3 and 11 (r = 2, e = 1.0), the cost metric is very low. This is because the available budget is very low, and compared to data sets 1 and 9 (r = 2, e = 0.5), the capacity of the tools is lower. Hence the heuristic itself eats up a major chunk of the budget, not leaving enough money to purchase more tools. We also notice that the cost metric for data sets 5 and 13 (r = 10, e = 0.5) is very high. The capacity of the tools is higher compared to data sets 7 and 15 (r = 10, e = 1.0) and hence the heuristic does not spend much money, thereby leaving a huge sum to be spent to purchase more tools. For data sets 1, 3, 9 and 11 (r = 2) the performance of all the algorithms is nearly the same. For the others however, the cost metric for ANLT and NPA-II is generally lower. Barring data set 5 where BLA has the highest cost metric, HCA, SLA and BLA behave in a similar manner.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), we find that the trend for BLA is opposite to that for the other algorithms, as in the first problem set. It has the highest cost metric for all data sets. For data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 (r = 10), the cost metric is very low compared to other data sets where r = 2. This is due to the huge budget available, with respect to which the metric is normalized, and quick sand reasoning. BLA, unlike the other algorithms, ends up spending the whole budget. HCA has the lowest cost metric for data sets 2 and 10 (r = 2, e = 0.5) and ANLT for the rest. The nested paritions-I (NPA-I) algorithm has a very high cost metric for data set 16, but it is still lower than that for BLA. SLA performs worse than HCA, but better than NPA-II, whose cost metric is generally high, and especially when r = 2. It can also be seen that the cost metric for data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 ( $\beta = 3$ , r = 10), is lower for all algorithms except BLA, than that for 5, 7, 13 and 15 ( $\beta = 1$ , r = 10), respectively. The reason is the high budget with respect to which the metric is normalized and quick sand reasoning.

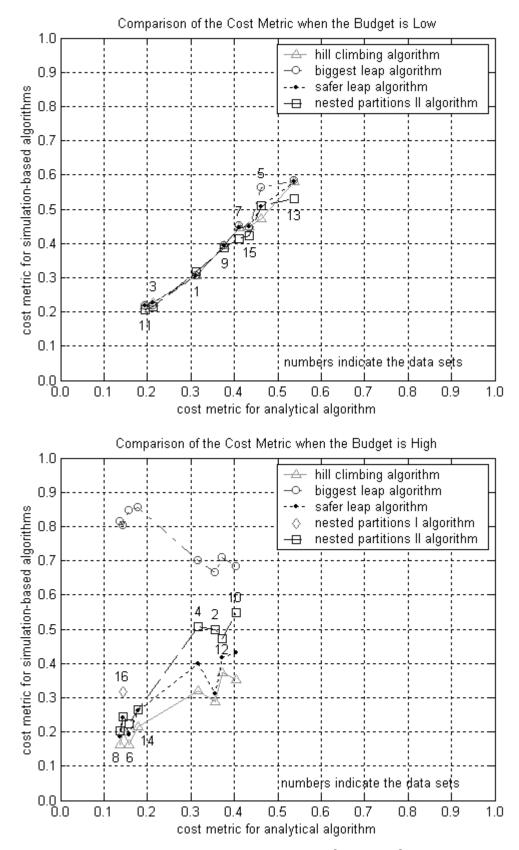


Figure 5.7: Comparison of the cost metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

Figure 5.8 shows the comparison of the capacity metric. When the budget is low  $(\beta = 1)$ , we find that the capacity metric for data sets 1 and 9 (e = 0.5) is less than that for data sets 3 and 11 (e = 1.0) respectively, despite the opposite trend in the cost metric. This is explained as follows. When e = 0.5, tools have a higher capacity. The capacity after the heuristic was implemented, turned out to be higher compared to when e = 1.0, and the remaining budget was higher too. However it was not enough to purchase tools for each and every workstation, and hence the system capacity could not be increased by a huge amount. When e = 1.0, it was found that the capacity of one or two workstations was close to the required throughput, implying that the system capacity was low. After the heuristic was implemented, a higher gain in capacity resulted after purchasing tools for those couple of workstations, which explains the opposite trend in the cost and the capacity metrics. For data sets 5 and 13 (r = 10, e = 0.5), the capacity metric is the highest for all algorithms except BLA and the cost metric was the highest too. BLA has the lowest capacity metric, despite its cost metric being the highest among all the algorithms. For data sets 1, 3, 9 and 11 (r = 2), NPA-II has the highest capacity metric. The performance of HCA, BLA and SLA is similar for these data sets. For the rest, SLA's performance is close to that of HCA. On average, the capacity metric for ANLT is similar to that for HCA.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), it is seen that for all the algorithms, the capacity metric for data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 (r = 10) is lower than that for data sets 2, 4, 10 and 12 (r = 2) respectively. The reason is the same as in the case when the cost and capacity are not correlated. Again, for the same reason as in Problem Set 1, BLA has a higher capacity metric, yet a lower cost metric when r = 2, compared to when r = 10. ANLT

has the lowest capacity metric for most data sets. HCA performs closest to ANLT, barring data set 14. The capacity metric is highest for BLA when r = 10 and for data sets 2 and 10 (r = 2, e = 0.5). NPA-II has the highest capacity metric for data sets 4 and 12 (r= 2, e = 1.0). The capacity metric for SLA is always higher than that for HCA. For data set 16, NPA-I has the lowest capacity metric even though its cost metric is very high.

It can also be seen that the magnitude of increase in the capacity metric from data sets 5, 7, 13 and 15 ( $\beta = 1$ , r = 10), to data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 ( $\beta = 3$ , r = 10) respectively, is lower than that for the corresponding data sets when r = 2, for all the algorithms except BLA. This is due to the fact that the capacity of each tool is much higher when r = 2, compared to when r = 10, and that the amount of money spent to gain further capacity will not be proportional to the ratio between these two values of r, as there will be no reduction in the cycle time on addition of a quick sand tool to a lot of similar quick sand tools after a certain stage, as explained earlier.

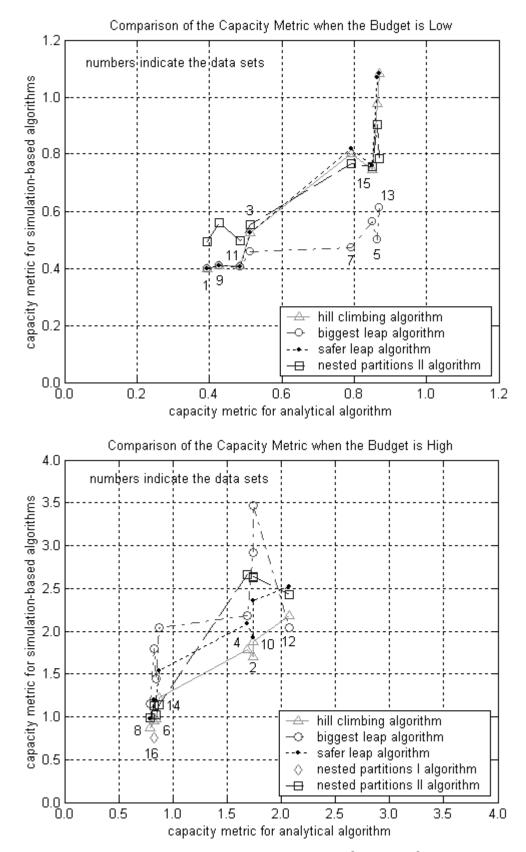


Figure 5.8: Comparison of the capacity metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

Figure 5.9 shows the comparison of the cycle time metric. When the budget is low ( $\beta = 1$ ), we find that for data sets 5, 7, 13 and 15 (r = 10), the cycle time metric is low. The capacity metric for these data sets is high too. Although data sets 3 and 11 (r = 2, e = 1.0) have a higher capacity metric than data sets 1 and 9 (r = 2, e = 0.5), it does not translate into a lower cycle time. The reason is that when the budget available is low, and e = 1.0, the capacity of tools is not as high compared to when e = 0.5. Hence the heuristic spends a lot more money comparatively, and buys the tool with the highest capacity to cost ratio, even though that capacity might be much below that of the highest capacity tool at that workstation. After the heuristic is implemented, not enough money is left to purchase the highest capacity tools. Hence the cycle time metric is high. The performance of NPA-II and ANLT is approximately the same, and they have the lowest cycle time metric. When r = 2, HCA, BLA and SLA perform similarly, and have the highest cycle time metric. However when r = 10, BLA has the highest cycle time metric, while the performance of SLA is close to that of HCA.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), we notice that the cycle time metric for data set 12 is minimum. For this data set, the capacity metric was the highest. For data sets 6, 8, 14 and 16 (r = 10), the capacity metric is low. For these data sets with 16 being an exception, the cycle time metric is among the highest. But surprisingly for 16 (r = 10), it is among the lowest. NPA-II and ANLT have the lowest cycle time metric, while BLA has the highest. The performance of SLA is almost similar to that of HCA. NPA-I has a low cycle time metric too, but it is higher than that for NPA-II.

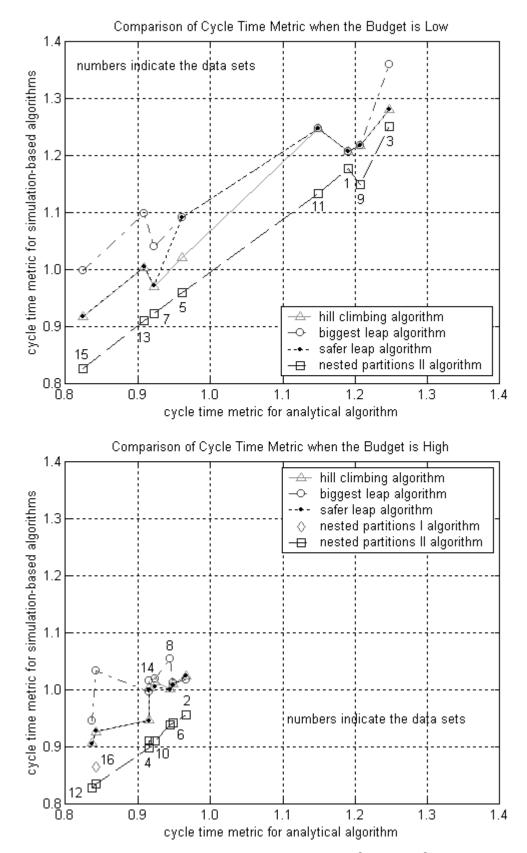


Figure 5.9: Comparison of the cycle time metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

Figure 5.10 shows the comparison of the simulation metric. We find the analysis exactly similar to that for the case when the cost and capacity are not correlated. When the budget is low ( $\beta = 1$ ), we find that the number of simulations for data sets 1, 3, 9 and 11 (r = 2) is equal, and very small for HCA, BLA and SLA. This is due to less money being available at the end of the heuristic, to purchase more tools. For NPA-II however, the number of simulations is higher due to the search process, as it has no initial solution to work with. For data sets 13 and 15 (r = 10, z = 5), since the available budget is high and there are many tool types with low capacity (compared to when r = 2) to choose from, the number of simulations is higher for HCA. For NPA-II also, the number of primary and secondary nodes is more when z = 5, resulting in a higher simulation metric.

When the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ), we find that the number of simulations for data sets 2 and 4 (r = 2, z = 2) is small. This is due to less money being available (compared to when r = 10) and few tool types to choose from. For similar reasons, data sets 14 and 16 (r = 10, z = 5) have the highest simulation metric. It is seen that NPA-II requires a lot of simulation runs compared to the other algorithms. BLA and SLA require much less simulation runs compared to HCA. For data set 16, NPA-I requires a prohibitive amount of simulation effort.

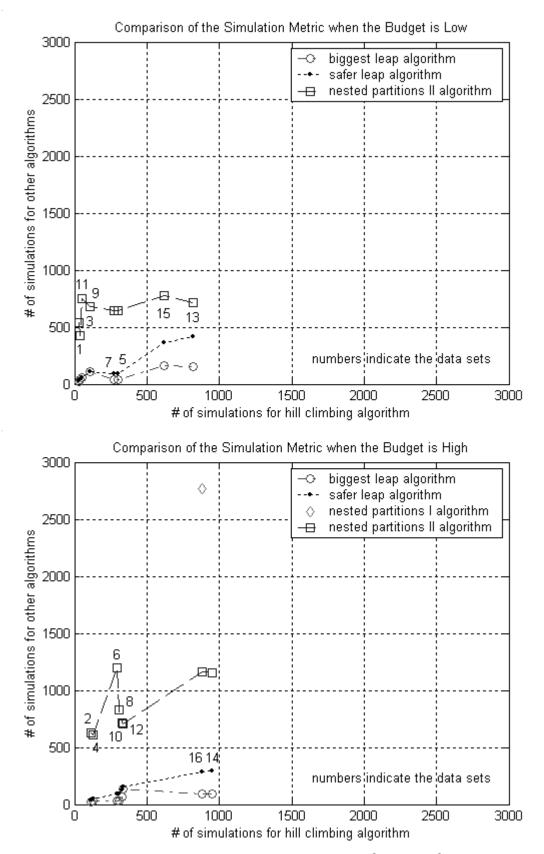
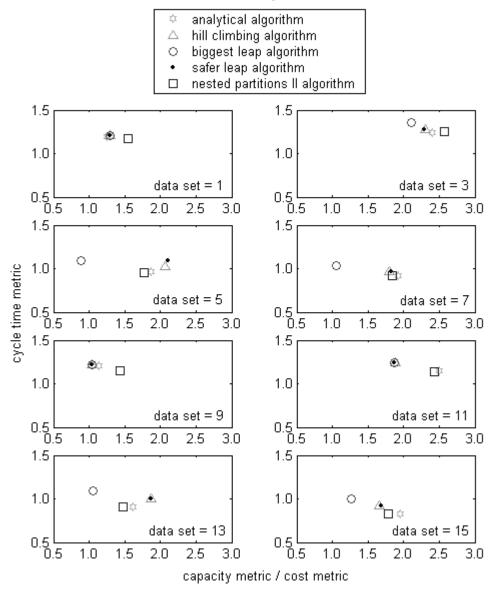


Figure 5.10: Comparison of the simulation metric at  $\beta = 1$  and  $\beta = 3$  respectively

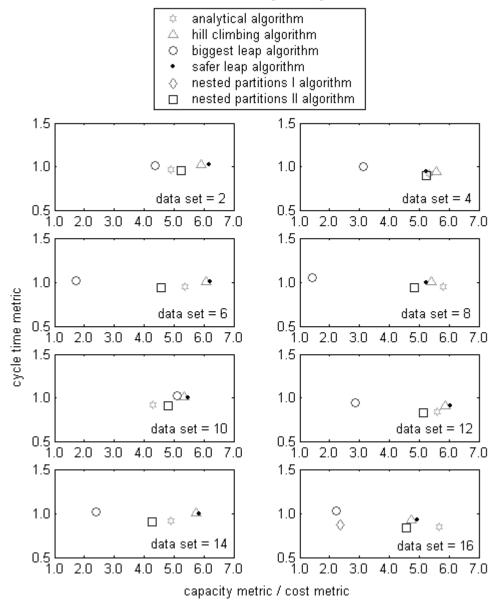
Figures 5.11 and 5.12 show the comparison between the cycle time metric and the ratio of the capacity to cost metrics. Figure 5.11 shows the comparison when the budget is low ( $\beta = 1$ ). NPA-II performs the best for data sets 1, 3 and 9 (r = 2) and relatively well for data sets 7, 11 and 15. ANLT performs the best for data sets 7 and 15 (r = 10, e = 1.0), and relatively well for data sets 5, 7 and 13 (r = 10). BLA performs the worst.

Figure 5.12 shows the comparison when the budget is high ( $\beta = 3$ ). HCA performs relatively well, while BLA performs the worst for all the data sets. SLA's performance is close to that of HCA. NPA-II has the lowest cycle time metric but generally spends more money for the same capacity. ANLT performs relatively well for data sets 4, 8, 12 and 16 (e = 1.0). For data set 16, NPA-I spends relatively much more for the same amount of capacity, yet does not have the lowest cycle time metric.



Comparison of Cycle Time Metric vs the Ratio of Capacity Metric and Cost Metric when the Budget is Low

Figure 5.11: Comparison of cycle time metric vs. the ratio of capacity and cost metrics at  $\beta = 1$ 



Comparison of Cycle Time Metric vs the Ratio of Capacity Metric and Cost Metric when the Budget is High

Figure 5.12: Comparison of cycle time metric vs. the ratio of capacity and cost metrics at  $\beta = 3$ 

#### 5.2.3 Comparison between Problem Sets 1 and 2

It is found that the cost and capacity metrics are higher, when the cost and capacity are correlated (Problem Set 2), compared to when they are not (Problem Set 1). This is because the average capacity of a tool is higher in Problem Set 2, and since the cost and capacity are correlated, we end up spending more money. The cycle time metric for Problem Set 2 though, is higher than that for Problem Set 1. This can be explained as follows. The cycle time metric is normalized with respect to the average total processing time. Hence a higher value for the metric for a particular data instance would imply a longer waiting time. Since the search algorithms continue buying tools even though there would be only a small improvement in the cycle time, the average total waiting time in the queue is very less at the end, compared to the average total processing time. Hence, as a fraction of the total processing time, the waiting time will be more when the total processing time is less, which corresponds to the case when the average capacity of tools is higher, as in Problem Set 2. The simulation metric is also higher for Problem Set 2. For HCA, BLA and SLA, there will be more iterations in the search process when the capacity of the tools is higher. This is because addition of a higher capacity tool would be more likely to improve the cycle time, than the addition of a lower capacity tool. For NPA-II, the range of tool values over which the partitioning is done for a secondary node, will be higher when the cost and capacity are correlated. Section 4.7.2 in Chapter 4 provides the description on partitioning the nodes for NPA-II. The upper bound for the tool value is inversely proportional to the sum of the ratios of the cost to the capacity of the tools chosen, which will be higher for Problem Set 1. Hence there will be fewer total simulation runs for the secondary nodes when the cost and capacity are not correlated.

#### 5.3 Summary of the results

Based on the results and explanations, we summarize as follows. The performance of the algorithms was compared through cost, capacity, cycle time and simulation metrics. A higher cost metric implies that a greater portion of the budget was spent in purchasing the tools. A higher capacity metric implies a greater capacity in the system. A higher cycle time metric implies that a wafer lot spends a longer time in the system. A higher simulation metric implies that a large number of simulation runs are needed to reach the final solution.

HCA and ANLT tend to have the lowest cost metric, followed by SLA, NPA-II and NPA-I respectively. BLA has the highest cost metric.

HCA and ANLT have a relatively high capacity metric when the budget is low, but have a very low capacity metric at high values of budget. BLA has the lowest capacity metric at low values of budget and the highest capacity metric at high values of budget. At high values of budget, SLA has a higher capacity metric compared to HCA. NPA-I has the lowest capacity metric. NPA-II in general, has a high capacity metric.

ANLT and NPA-II almost always have the lowest cycle time metric, followed by HCA and SLA that have similar values of the cycle time metric. NPA-I performs slightly better than HCA and SLA. BLA almost always has the highest cycle time metric.

BLA has the lowest simulation metric, followed by SLA. HCA requires more simulation runs than SLA, but fewer than NPA-II. NPA-I requires an exorbitant amount of simulation effort. Table 5.3 summarizes the performance of the algorithms with respect to the output metrics. The number of stars reflects the relative performance of each algorithm on that metric.

Algorithm	Cost	Capacity	Cycle Time	Simulation
HCA	* * * * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
BLA	*	* * *	*	* * * * *
SLA	* * * *	* * * *	* * *	* * * *
NPA-I	* *	*	* * * *	*
NPA-II	* * *	* * * * *	* * * * *	* *
ANLT	* * * * *	* * *	* * * * *	-

\* worst performance \* \* \* \* best performance

Table 5.3: Performance of the algorithms under consideration

# 5.4 Summary

This chapter discussed the experimental set-up and the results that we obtained. Each of the six algorithms was used to find solutions to the 320 instances of the problem. After describing the results in detail, this chapter summarized the results and discussed the performance of the algorithms on each metric. The next chapter summarizes the conclusions and lists the limitations, contributions and the future work.

# 6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter summarizes the research work that we performed and draws the conclusions. Section 6.1 discusses the suitability of the algorithms that we implemented, with respect to the special structure of the equipment selection problem. Section 6.2 lists the contributions of our research. Section 6.3 mentions some of the limitations of our implementation. Finally, in Section 6.4 we discuss the future work.

## **6.1** Conclusions

An equipment selection problem was formulated with minimization of the average cycle time as the objective, along with constraints on the budget and minimum throughput on the system. We developed and implemented five simulation-based algorithms, namely hill climbing, biggest leap, safer leap, nested partitions-I and nested partitions-II, and an analytical algorithm for the problem. After testing them on two different problem sets characterized by the presence or absence of a correlation between the cost and capacity of tools, we found that there are trade-offs associated with the performance of the simulation-based algorithms. The hill climbing algorithm spends the least amount of money to achieve a very low cycle time but requires a large amount of simulation effort. The biggest leap algorithm spends an unreasonable amount of money and yet is not able to reduce the cycle time appreciably. The quality of solutions is the worst, but the simulation effort required is the least. The safer leap algorithms, providing good quality solutions with reasonable simulation effort. NPA-II requires a

tremendous amount of simulation effort, but provides good quality solutions, although at a slightly higher cost. NPA-I requires the most amount of simulation effort, but spends a lot of money to achieve a low cycle time value. It performs better than the biggest leap algorithm, but is dominated by NPA-II. The analytical algorithm turns out to be the best amongst all, as it spends the least amount of money to achieve a very low cycle time without any simulation effort at all. This benchmark algorithm was chosen after implementing and comparing two searches (described in the appendix) over a wide range of problem instances.

It is worth noting that the equipment selection problem we considered has a special structure to it. It seems intuitive that given a choice between a variety of tools, the addition of a higher capacity tool will serve to reduce the cycle time more. Moreover, a proportionate distribution of the capacity of workstations tends to avoid serious bottlenecks that occur when the capacity distribution is skewed. Although the hill climbing algorithm (explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.3) invariably selects the tool with the highest capacity at the end of each iteration, it does so without making use of any knowledge about the problem structure. The biggest leap algorithm (explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.4) tends to select the tool with the highest capacity, though it ends up buying the other tools with lower capacity at that workstation as well. It is oblivious of the problem structure too. The safer leap algorithm (explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.5) exploits the problem structure, as it buys tools with the highest capacity for at least one workstation at the end of each iteration, thereby trying to increase the capacity of all the workstations uniformly. NPA-I (explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.6) also tries to buy tools with the highest capacity, although, due to its random search, it also buys tools

with lower capacities. The modifications made to develop NPA-II (explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.7) not only reduce the simulation runs involved but also direct the efforts of the algorithm towards selecting the highest capacity tool to help it utilize the special structure of the problem that NPA-I did not. The analytical algorithm (explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.8) we presented is completely based on the special structure that the equipment selection problem has. However, it may be inappropriate for more complex manufacturing systems such as job shops where different workstations have different throughput requirements. If the interarrival and processing times have other probability distributions, a more general GI/G/m approximation would be required to estimate manufacturing cycle times. See Herrmann and Chincholkar [64] for instance.

Therefore, when selecting a simulation-based stochastic algorithm for any given problem, it is beneficial to have prior knowledge about any special properties that might be inherent in the structure of the problem. This helps to fine tune the algorithm to direct the search for the optimum solution in the most efficient manner.

#### 6.2 Contributions

We presented five simulation-based algorithms and two analytical searches to solve the equipment selection problem. Unlike other manufacturing system design problems, this novel formulation requires selection amongst various tool types at a given workstation. Combining the cycle time objective with a budget constraint is another unique feature that addresses the trade-off between initial investment and system performance. The hill climbing algorithm was based on the generalized hill climbing algorithm described by Sullivan and Jacobson [1]. The biggest leap algorithm was based

on the gradient-based method described by Mellacheruvu [62]. We designed the new safer leap algorithm by combining the salient features of the hill climbing and the biggest leap algorithms. The nested partitions algorithm proposed by Shi and Olafsson [3], formed the basis for our novel implementation of NPA-I and NPA-II.

When a manufacturing system incorporating complexities such as break down of tools, maintenance schedules or re-entrant flows is to be designed, it is difficult to develop analytical algorithms to solve an associated optimization problem. Sometimes, a rough estimate is needed to get a quick idea about what the optimal solution might look like, and on other occasions, an accurate solution might be required, which may take time. We discussed the performance of the algorithms we implemented for our problem, with respect to such trade-offs between the quality of solution and the time and effort involved. No systematic comparison of these algorithms has been done before.

We also showed the importance of the knowledge of the problem structure, through the implementation of the safer leap algorithm, two different versions of the nested partitions algorithm, and the analytical algorithm. In general, the black box approach that assumes no knowledge about the system that is being simulated performs well for problems that do not reveal much information about their structure. However, those methods that utilize the knowledge of the problem structure, whenever such information is available, dominate the black box approach. In Chapter 2, we mentioned the research work, such as that of Gong, Ho and Zhai [47], pertaining to the simulationbased algorithms that utilize the special structure of the problem under consideration. We also referred to the research that has been conducted to compare the performance of variants of a particular algorithm on a specific problem, such as that by Alrefaei and

Andradottir [43]. Similar to the literature related to the combination of salient features of two or more algorithms, such as that by Shi, Olafsson and Chen [51], our safer leap algorithm combines the salient features of the hill climbing algorithm and the biggest leap algorithm, which by themselves, do not utilize the special problem structure of our equipment selection problem. NPA-II exploits the structure better by purchasing only one tool type per workstation. Further, its implementation suggests a greater probability of selecting the tool type with the highest capacity. Compared to the simulation-based algorithms, the analytical algorithm that is completely based on utilizing the special problem structure provides the best results at no simulation cost. Our research work therefore, emphasizes the importance of the knowledge of the problem structure as well as the algorithms, so as to enable a customized implementation of the algorithms

#### 6.3 Limitations

We made a few basic assumptions for our simulation model. These were described in Section 5.1.2 of Chapter 5. Ours was a simple manufacturing system, without any tool breakdowns, multiple product flows, rework, maintenance or re-entrant flow. Improvement in cycle time of a magnitude greater than or equal to 0.01 hours (precision of Factory Explorer 2.5) was accepted as sufficient reason to purchase another tool, if the budget permitted so. The same value of 0.01 hours was also used for the analytical algorithms, as the lowest acceptable improvement in the cycle time. The simulation model also assumed that the number of wafer lots that visit each tool type at a workstation is proportional to the tool's capacity.

Although in literature, the nested partitions algorithm has been combined with a technique called optimal computing budget allocation (OCBA) to ensure a larger allocation of simulation effort amongst the potentially good designs, we did not implement OCBA. Further, the selection of the number of samples for the partitioned and the surrounding regions did not have any strong basis due to lack of any concrete guidelines.

#### 6.4 Future work

The scope of the problem we considered could be extended to sharing equipment between workstations, which is common in practical situations with re-entrant flow. Further complexities could be modeled in the form of breakdown of tools, maintenance schedules and multiple product families.

For the hill climbing, biggest leap and safer leap algorithms, a better heuristic could be employed to obtain a different starting point for these search algorithms. Techniques to help the nested partitions algorithm focus on potentially good configurations and reduce the simulation effort involved could also be employed.

Another approach would be to add the cost of equipment purchase with economic measures related to cycle time such as the cost of holding work-in-process, to determine the system design that minimizes the system life cycle costs.

Finally, we could study the performance of the analytical algorithm on systems with more general probability distributions for processing time and inter-arrival time.

# **APPENDIX**

This appendix presents the two analytical algorithms that were considered to decide the benchmark-algorithm for the simulation-based algorithms and discusses the experimental results.

## 1. Description of the algorithms

The algorithms search a solution space that consists of only one tool type per workstation.

1.1 Notation

The notation used is as follows:

- λ desired throughput
- М budget available
- number of workstations п

total number of different tool types at workstation i; i = 1, ..., nZi

- $T_{ij}$ tool of type *j* at workstation  $i; j = 1, ..., z_i$
- capacity of  $T_{ij}$  tool  $\mu_{ij}$

$$C_{ij}$$
 cost of  $T_{ij}$  tool

- k iteration number
- |x|greatest integer less than or equal to x
- $\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}$ smallest integer greater than or equal to x
- $T_i$ selected tool type at workstation *i*
- $X_i$ number of tools for workstation *i*

 $T_i$  and  $X_i$  are the decision variables. If  $T_i = j$ ,  $C_i = C_{ij}$  and  $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$ .

- $\theta$  the number of tools: { $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ }
- $f(\theta_k)$  the manufacturing cycle time of the system given a solution  $\theta_k$
- $\chi \qquad \{X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{1,z_1}; \dots; X_{n1}, X_{n2}, \dots, X_{n,z_n}\}$

1.2 Description

The two search algorithms are called Algorithm I (A-I) and Algorithm II (A-II). The only difference in the algorithms is the selection of  $T_i$ .

For Algorithm I (A-I), let  $T_i = j$ , such that  $\mu_{ij} > \mu_{ik}$  for all  $k \le z_i$  and  $k \ne j$ . If  $\mu_{ij} =$ 

 $\mu_{ik}$ , then choose the tool type with lower cost. Set  $C_i = C_{ij}$ ;  $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$ .

For Algorithm II (A-II), let  $T_i = j$ , such that  $U_{ij} > U_{ik}$  for all  $k \le z_i$  and  $k \ne j$ . If  $U_{ij}$ 

=  $U_{ik}$ , then choose the tool type with higher capacity. Set  $C_i = C_{ij}$ ;  $\mu_i = \mu_{ij}$ .

After  $T_i$  are selected, each algorithm proceeds as follows:

#### Step 1: Check feasibility

For 
$$i = 1, ..., n$$
:  
Set  $X_i = \left\lceil \frac{\lambda}{\mu_i} \right\rceil$ 

Set 
$$B = M - \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i C_i$$

If B < 0, then

Return the solution as infeasible

Else

Initialize 
$$k = 0$$

$$\theta_{k} = \{X_{1}, X_{2}, ..., X_{n}\}$$
  
For  $i = 1, ..., n$ ,  
$$\rho_{i} = \frac{\lambda}{X_{i}\mu_{i}}$$
$$\pi_{i} = (1 + \sum_{l=1}^{X_{i}-1} \frac{(X_{i}\rho_{i})^{l}}{l!} + \frac{(X_{i}\rho_{i})^{X_{i}}}{X_{i}!(1-\rho_{i})})^{-1}$$
$$f(\theta_{k}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\frac{1}{\mu_{i}} + \frac{1}{\mu_{i}} \frac{(X_{i}\rho_{i})^{X_{i}}\pi_{i}}{X_{i}!X_{i}(1-\rho_{i})^{2}})$$

Output  $Cost_I = X_1C_1 + \ldots + X_nC_n$  and  $Cycle Time_I = f(\theta_k)$ 

Step 2: Perform the search

Let 
$$f(\theta_{k-1}) = \infty$$
.

Let  $\varepsilon$  be a small positive number (in our experiments,  $\varepsilon = 0.01$  hours).

Define  $P(B) = \{i: C_i \le B\}$  as the set of workstations with "affordable" tools (that is, the cost of a tool at any of these workstations is not greater than the unspent budget). While P(B) is not empty and  $f(\theta_k) \le f(\theta_{k-1}) - \varepsilon$ , repeat the following loop:

Let *i* be the workstation in *P*(*B*) that currently has the least capacity (the smallest value of  $X_i \mu_i$ ).

Update  $X_i$ , B, and k as follows:  $X_i = X_i + 1$ ;  $B = B - C_i$ ; k = k + 1

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k} = \{X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\}$ 

Calculate  $f(\theta_k)$ 

Update P(B)

If  $f(\theta_k) > f(\theta_{k-1}) - \varepsilon$ , then revise  $X_i$ , B, and k as follows:  $X_i = X_i - 1$ ;  $B = B + C_i$ ; k = k - 1Construct the solution  $\chi$  from  $\theta_k$  as follows: For all *i* and *j*,  $X_{ij} = X_i$  if  $T_i = j$ , and 0 otherwise

Output  $Cost_F = X_1C_1 + \ldots + X_nC_n$  and  $Cycle Time_F = f(\theta_k)$ 

## 2. Experiments

The algorithms were run on the Problem Set 2 described in Section 5.1.1 of Chapter 5. Each search algorithm (A-I and A-II) was run on each instance. The output of each run included five performance measures. The performance measures of the initial solution are  $Cost_I$  and  $Cycle Time_I$ . The performance measures of the final solution are  $Cost_F$  and  $Cycle Time_F$ . Since each data set is different, we normalized these statistics by comparing the cost performance to the total budget for that data set and comparing the cycle time performance to the expected total processing time of that data set. If *b* has a uniform distribution over [l,u], then the expected value of  $b^{0.5}$  can be calculated as follows:

$$E[b^{0.5}] = \frac{2}{3} \left( \frac{u^{1.5} - l^{1.5}}{u - l} \right)$$

From these statistics, the following performance metrics are calculated to estimate the performance of each algorithm on each instance:

Cost  $Metric_I = Cost_I/M$ . Cost  $Metric_F = Cost_F/M$ .

*Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*I*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*I*</sub>/1.450 and *Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*F*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*F*</sub>/1.450 if e = 0.5 and r = 2 (Data sets 1, 2, 9, and 10).

*Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*I*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*I*</sub>/7.246 and *Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*F*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*F*</sub>/7.246 if e = 0.5 and r = 10 (Data sets 5, 6, 13, and 14).

*Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*I*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*I*</sub>/1.667 and *Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*F*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*F*</sub>/1.667 if e = 1.0 and r = 2 (Data sets 3, 4, 11, and 12).

*Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*I*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*I*</sub>/8.333 and *Cycle Time Metric*<sub>*F*</sub> = *Cycle Time*<sub>*F*</sub>/8.333 if e = 1.0 and r = 10 (Data sets 7, 8, 15, and 16).

The fifth performance measure was the number of iterations that the algorithm performed before stopping. All of the metrics were averaged over all ten problem instances. Table 1 shows the results for each algorithm on each data set. Figures 1 and 2 also display the cost and cycle time metrics. A larger cost metric implies that more of the budget was spent purchasing tools. A larger cycle time metric implies that jobs spent more time in the system.

#### 3. Results

The last two columns in Table A1 show that the number of iterations for both algorithms is approximately the same in most data sets. A-II does require more iterations in some data sets. The most significant increases occur in data sets 9 and 11 because A-I selects, in general, more expensive tools and spends the budget more quickly than A-II.

As shown in Table A1 and Figures A1 and A2, A-I constructs initial solutions that have, in general, a larger cost metric and a smaller cycle time metric than the initial solutions that A-II constructs. This results from A-I's selection of large capacity tools, which are expensive. But the initial solution is likely to have more than enough capacity, which reduces congestion and cycle time. A-II selects, in general, smaller tools, so the capacity of the initial solution will exceed the throughput constraint by a smaller margin. Higher utilization will lead to larger cycle times.

At the end of the search, A-I finds solutions that have a larger cost metric than the final solutions that A-II finds, but the performance on the cycle time metric is very close. Compared to the initial solutions, the final solutions found have much larger cost metrics and much smaller cycle time metrics. Thus, it is clear that the search algorithms are useful for finding feasible, high-quality solutions.

Algorithm A-I was selected as the benchmark-algorithm based on its lower cycle time values compared to A-II, for all the 16 data sets.

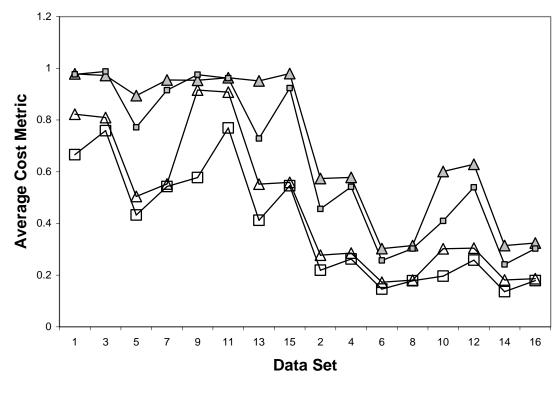




Figure A1: Average cost metric

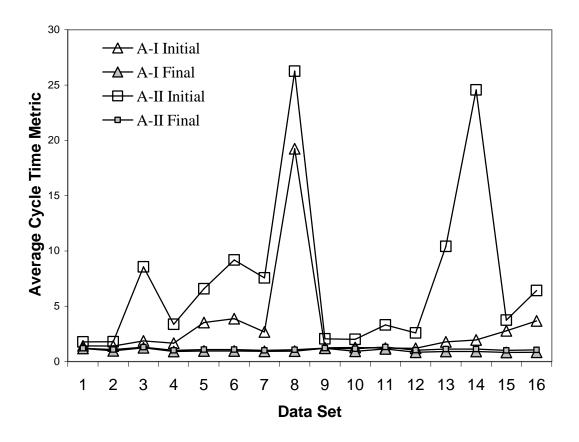


Figure A2: Average cycle time metric

$ic_F$ Number of Iterations	I-A I-A I		5 2.3 5.0	2.3 10.9 1	2.3 10.9 2.4	2.3 10.9 10.6 1	2.3 10.9 1.0.6 10.6 23.9 23.9 2	2.3 10.9 10.6 10.6 23.9 23.2 23.2 23.2 23.2	2.3 10.9 1.0.6 1.0.6 1.0.6 1.0.6 23.9 23.9 23.2 23.2 24.6 24.6 2	2.3       10.9       10.6       10.6       10.6       23.9       23.2       23.2       24.6       25.0       25.0	2.3       10.9       10.6       10.6       10.6       23.9       23.9       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       25.0       0.5       0.5	2.3       2.4       10.9       10.6       10.6       10.6       23.9       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       23.2       25.0       25.0       25.0       25.0       10.0       10.0	2.3         10.9         10.9         2.4         10.6         10.6         10.6         23.9         23.9         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         25.0         25.0         0.5         0.5         0.7         0.7	2.3         10.9         10.9         2.4         10.6         10.6         10.6         23.9         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         23.2         25.0         25.0         25.0         25.0         25.0         25.0         10.0         10.7         10.7	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Cycle Time Metric $_{l}$ Cycle Time Metric $_{F}$	II-A I-A	1 100 1 106															
$me Metric_I Cyc$	′ II-Ч	1.783 1.	-														
Cycle Tin	I-A	1.420		1.403												1.403         1.861         1.861         1.668         3.532         3.577         3.877         3.877         3.877         3.532         3.679         19.244         19.244         19.244         19.245         19.246         1.251         1.267         1.215         1.215         1.205         1.205         1.779         1.947	1.403         1.861         1.861         1.668         3.532         3.577         3.577         3.577         3.577         3.577         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.267         1.275         1.275         1.275         1.947         2.775
Cost Metric <sub>F</sub>	II-V	) 0.976		1 0.456													
	I-A I	6 0.979	9 0.574		9 0.972												
Cost Metric <sub>I</sub>	II-A I	3 0.666	7 0.219	652.0 6													
β	I-A	1 0.823	3 0.277	1 0.809	• • • •	3 0.285											
в		0.5	0.5	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0 0.5 0.5	1.0 0.5 0.5 1.0	1.0 0.5 0.5 1.0 1.0	1.0 0.5 0.5 1.0 1.0 0.5	1.0 0.5 0.5 1.0 1.0 0.5 0.5	$\begin{array}{c} 1.0 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 1.0 \\ 1.0 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 1.0 \\ 1.0 \end{array}$	1.0           0.5           0.5           0.5           0.5           0.5           0.5           0.5           0.5           1.0           1.0           1.0           1.0           1.0           1.0           1.0           1.0	$\begin{array}{c c} 1.0 \\ 0.5$	$\begin{array}{c c} 1.0 \\ 0.5$	$\begin{array}{c c} 1.0 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.5 \\ 1.0$
r		5	5	5		5											
n z		5 2	5 2	5 2		5 2											
a	las	1	2	ю 		4											

Table A1: Results for the problem set

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