
A Divide-and-Conquer Approach for Cell Routing using Litho-friendly Layouts

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Preface

The aim of this project is to develop divide-and-conquer algorithms for the routing of signals in nanoelectric standard cells. We work on an already existing cell synthesis framework based on solving a boolean satisfiability formulation of the routing problem. This approach takes too much computational time when dealing with big and complex cells. Our goal is to make such cells become tractable. Different ways to route a part of a cell and to use this partial routings to solve the routing of a cell are explored. We evaluate different strategies and try to find the ones with the best solution for a given cell and design rules on terms of computational time. [Some conclusions]

Chapter 1 provides background on logic synthesis, the routing process, circuit physical design considerations and the applications of the satisfiability problem. The following chapter is about CellRouter, the cell routing framework this project aims to improve, including a brief description of what it is based on and some experimental results. Chapter 3 is devoted to explain what the initial considerations of the project were with respect to the original tool and the implementation decisions that were made. It includes an overview of some of the dividing decisions that have been used as a divide-and-conquer strategy. Chapter 4 includes several experiments conducted using the Nangate Open Cell Library and another cell library created for testing purposes. Finally, conclusions and future work directions are given in chapter 5.

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Chapter 1

Background

1.1 VLSI and EDA

The complexity of Integrated Circuits (ICs) has been growing year after year since they were first introduced. According to Moore's Law [1], the density of transistors on a chip doubles approximately every 2 years. This tendency has been followed for the last 40 years, but of course such a fast-paced evolution of the number of transistors comes with a lot of challenges at many levels, such as technology, design and tools. Very Large System Integration (VLSI) is the technology that allows combining thousands of transistors in a single chip such as a microprocessor. This field has been constantly evolving, trying to make faster chips and integrate more transistors generation after generation. As the number of transistors has dramatically increased over the years, the complexity of circuits has also increased enormously; and with it, the challenges associated to the design of such circuits.

The design of VLSI circuits is therefore a very complex process that requires automation. Electronic Design Automation (EDA) is a category of software tools for designing electronic systems such as ICs. This aid has been evolving together with the needs of VLSI design since the mid-70s. Nowadays, given the level of complexity that VLSI design has reached, EDA tools play a very important role in the fabrication of ICs.

Current workflows for the fabrication of chips are very modular. The Register-Transfer Level (RTL) design abstraction, which models synchronous digital circuits and focuses on the flow of digital signals between hardware registers, is used to describe a circuit. Hardware Description Languages (HDLs) such as Verilog and VHDL can be used to create such high-level

representation of circuits. EDA tools are used to design and implement technology-dependent circuits from a higher level of abstraction. The automated synthesis goes through a lot of steps to transform an RTL design into a geometrical layout, creating a physical design for the given RTL specification. Given such a high-level specification multiple final circuits can be considered valid, so there is room for a lot of decisions and optimization to be done in order to generate a good final design of a circuit.

Given an RTL circuit, these are some of the steps it goes through during the physical design phase. Note that all of these processes are automated by using the above mentioned EDA tools and we can consider that the output of one step is the input for the next one.

Logic Synthesis

Given a circuit abstraction, such as an RTL circuit, logic synthesis returns an implementation of the circuit in terms of logic gates. The RTL design is translated into boolean expressions. These formulas can be optimized using exact methods such as the Quine-McCluskey algorithm [2, 3], heuristic methods such as Espresso [4] or kernel and boolean factorization. After these technology-independent steps, the formulas are mapped onto a given cell library resulting on a netlist in that technology library, using data structures such as Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs) and dynamic programming algorithms. To show a little example, this is a very simple module written in Verilog.

```
module some_logic(a, b, c, out);  
    input a, b, c, out;  
    output out;  
  
    assign out = (a & b) | c;  
  
endmodule
```

Figure 1.1 represents the output of the logic synthesis phase receiving this code as an input.

Floorplanning

This is the first step in the physical design flow. Floorplanning consists in identifying structures that should be placed close together, capturing relative positions rather than fixed coordinates. It can be considered a generalization of placement, a first draft of how things will be al-

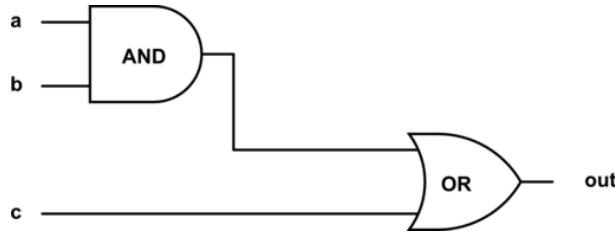


Figure 1.1: Logic gate level representation

located in the chip allowing transformations of the components such as rotations and modifying their shapes. It allows for later hierarchical approaches and enables global wiring as a preparation for detailed routing. Simulated annealing, trees and slicing structures, as well as dynamic programming for floorplanning optimization[5], are widely used in this area. They can be optimized for metrics such as area, wirelength, routability and others. Figure 1.2, taken from [6], shows two different floorplans for a given set of components. The floorplan on the left is optimal in area while the one in the right introduces white spaces.

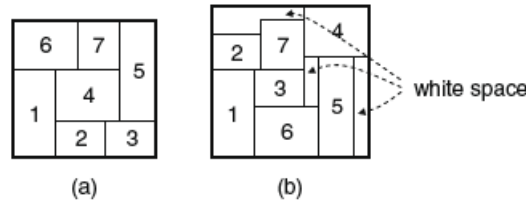


Figure 1.2: (a) Optimal area floorplan (b) Non-optimal area floorplan

Partitioning

The netlist of the functions to implement can easily be very large. Partitioning is the process of dividing the chip into smaller blocks so that later partitioning and routing are easier, using a divide and conquer strategy to tackle design complexity. It is also a necessary step in the case of synthesis on Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs), where a mapping from the netlist to hardware is needed. Many variants of partitioning exist, such as two-way partitioning (one of the first approaches, [7]), multi-way partitioning, which can be seen as an extension of the min-cut for two-way partitioning, and multi-level partitioning, where the result is represented by a tree structure. Many more partitioning approaches can be found in [8].

Placement

This step consists in assigning cells to positions in the chip according to some cost functions while preserving legality (for example, with no overlapping). The inputs are the netlists and the goal is to find the best position for each module considering wirelength, routability density, power and other metrics. Many placement styles exist depending on the design methodology it is integrated with (such as building blocks, standard cells or gate arrays). This step is tightly related to the next phase, routing. Some placement paradigms are:

- Constructive algorithms, such that when the position of a cell is fixed, it is not anymore modified. Some examples are cluster growth, min-cut [9], or quadratic-placement algorithms (such as Hall placement [10], the first analytical placer).
- Iterative algorithms, where intermediate placements are modified in order to improve some cost function. This would include analytical methods such as force-directed placement. Figure 1.3, taken from [6], shows several phases of the placement in a force-driven algorithm. The elements approach their final position iteration after iteration.
- Nondeterministic approaches, including metaheuristics like simulated annealing and genetic algorithms.

All these methods can be combined to obtain a more accurate result. Additionally other methods can be considered, for example a flow consisting of a global placement and legalization phase followed then by detailed placement step. There are many interesting research directions in placement such as manufacturability-aware placement, but probably the most interesting for our project would be routability-driven placement[11]. More information about placement algorithms can be found in [12].

Routing

The routing process determines the precise paths for nets on the chip layout respecting a set of design rules to ensure that the chip can be correctly manufactured. It requires a physical placement of the layout, the netlists and the design rules required by the fabrication process. The main aim then is to complete all required connections on the layout, although other objectives such as reducing total wirelength or meeting timing requirements have become of essential relevance in modern chip design. The routing phase represents a very complex combinatorial

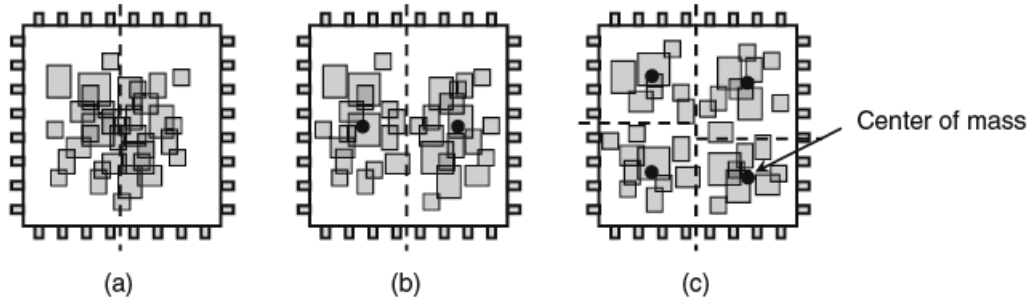


Figure 1.3: Placement of a chip

problem. Usually, a two-step approach consisting of a global routing followed by a detailed routing is used. The first considers the connection between different regions of the chip, while the second focuses on obtaining a definite geometric layout for the wire connections.

These are only some examples of steps where algorithms have become indispensable for the design of ICs. As we can see, EDA tools have become a basic component of digital circuit design. All of these steps have an important algorithmic load and much effort has been invested in such crucial synthesis tools.

1.2 Cell Routing

Routing is one of the multiple steps that take place in the physical design process. During the last years many algorithmic techniques have been explored to address the complex problem of determining how the pins of circuits should be interconnected. As the number of transistors per chip grows, the increasing complexity of the design becomes a challenge for the routing stage. It is typically a very complex combinatorial problem that, as mentioned before, is usually solved using a two-stage approach: global routing and detailed routing. In this section we will overview both, as well as algorithms fitted for general routing.

1.2.1 General Considerations

The main aim of the routing problem is to find a valid interconnection of terminals that honors a set of design rules. Typically, most routing algo-

gorithms are based on graph-search techniques guided by parameters such as congestion and timing information, trying to find a balance of the net distribution among routing regions. For example, a chip might be partitioned into an array of tiles. Then the global router would find tile-to-tile paths for all nets on such a graph and use this information to guide the detailed router.

For the detailed routing step, two kinds of models exist: the grid-based and the gridless-based models. In the first, a grid is superimposed on the routing region and the detailed router finds routing paths in the grid. Gridless-based models, on the other hand, can use different wire widths and spacing. They have greater flexibility and can handle variable widths and spacing; however, grid-based routing is usually more efficient and easier to implement given its lower complexity when compared to the other model.

When routing, two kinds of constraints appear: performance constraints and design-rule constraints. The objective of the performance constraints is to make connections meet the performance specifications provided by the chip designers. Design rules, on the other hand, are a set of additional constraints imposed by a given technology node that will have to be honored if we want the chip to be correctly manufactured. They impose restrictions on, for example, the minimum width of the wires or the wire-to-wire spacing. Another example of design rules is related to the layer models, which can be either *reserved* or *unreserved*. In the first case each layer is allowed only one routing direction, whereas the placement of wires with any direction is permitted in the other case. Most of the routers, however, use the reserved model because it has lower complexity and is much easier for implementation; as we will see, manufacturability has a great impact on many of the decisions taken during the physical design flow.

1.2.2 General-purpose Routing

As mentioned before, graph-based algorithms have been extensively used for both global and detailed routing. In this section we will introduce the *maze routing algorithm*, probably one of the most basic graph-search based algorithms.

Maze routing is based on a Breadth-First Search (BFS). Consider the grid on figure 1.4. We want to connect the node marked with an *S* to the one marked with a *T*. The grayed zones represent obstacles where the wire cannot be placed.

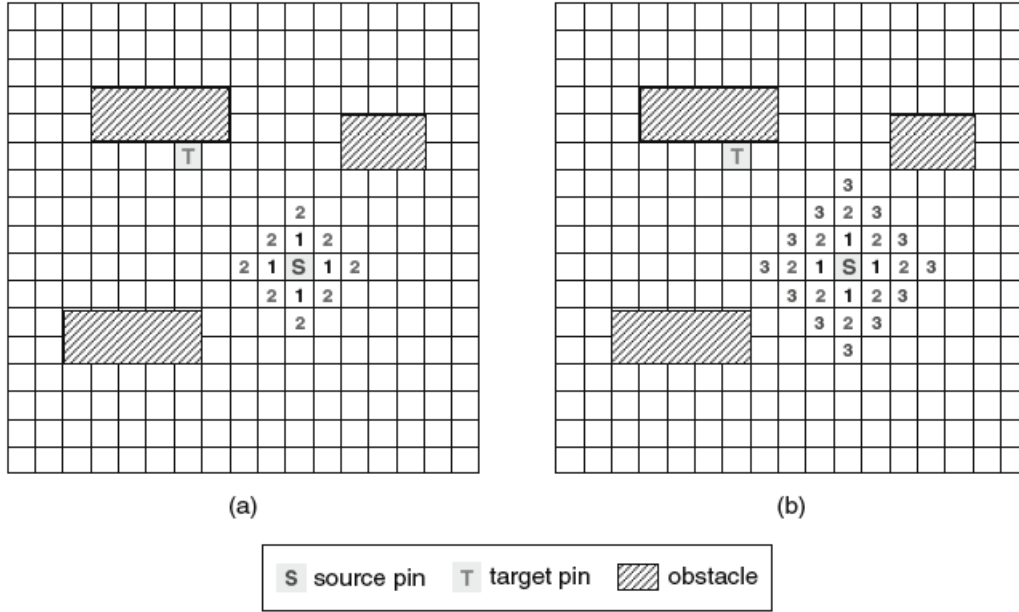


Figure 1.4: Maze Routing - Wave Propagation

The maze router is composed of two basic steps: *wave propagation* and *retracing*. During the first step, starting from the source S , all adjacent nodes get labeled with a 1, which is the distance from such nodes to S . Later, all cells adjacent to the nodes labeled 1 get labeled with a 2. This continues until the node T is reached. We can see the wave propagation phase in figure 1.4 with the waves corresponding to 2 and 3. Once the node T is reached, as seen in figure 1.5(a), a shortest path from T to S can be retraced by following any path such that the labels of the nodes decreases as shown in figure 1.5(b). Often, the preferred path is the one with the least number of detours. Notice that this algorithm guarantees to find a path between two points if such a path exists and this path is the shortest one. Both figures illustrating the example have been taken from [6].

This algorithm was proposed by Lee in [13] and is also widely known as *Lee's Algorithm*. In practice, it is slow, memory consuming and difficult to apply to large-scale dense designs. Many methods have been proposed to reduce its running time and memory requirements. For example, alternative coding schemes for the nodes have managed to reduce the number of needed bits to merely two. Other variants include using depth-first search in combination with the BFS, starting point selection or double fan-out.

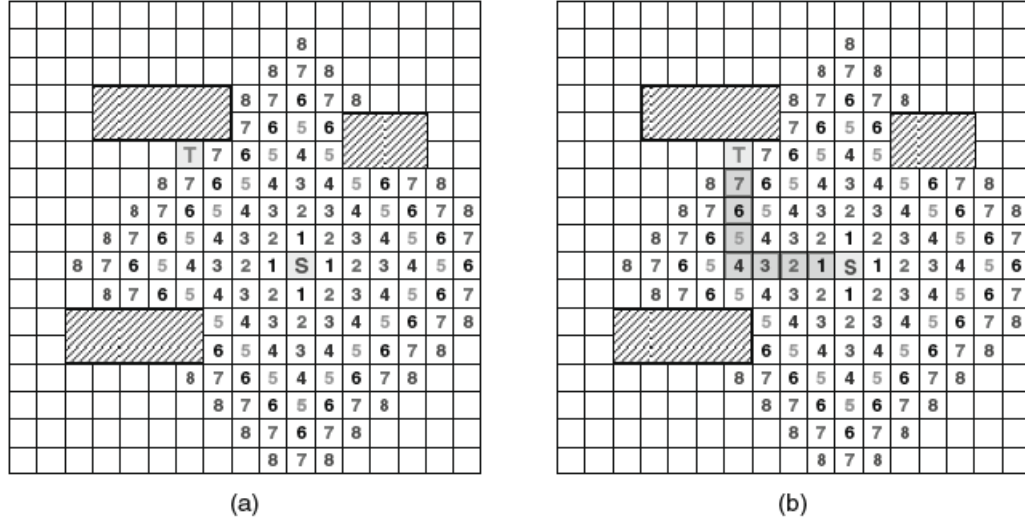


Figure 1.5: Maze Routing - Retracing

After this algorithm, many other graph-based search algorithm appeared. The most significant ones probably are Line-search routing [14] and algorithms based on the well known A*-search proposed in [15], which are widely used in modern routers.

1.2.3 Global Routing

As exposed before, global routing can be considered the most coarse grain type of routing. It consists of defining routing regions, generating tentative routings for nets and associating them to routing regions, but without specifying the actual layout of the wires. There exist two kind of global routing algorithms which differ on the basic routing strategy: sequential and concurrent algorithms. Whereas the first ones try to route signals one by one, concurrent algorithms try to find a valid solution for all signals at once. We will see a small introduction to each strategy.

Sequential global routing

In this schema we select a specific net order and then route nets sequentially according to that order. The quality of the solution greatly depends on the ordering given that an already routed net might block the routing of subsequent nets. Finding the optimal net ordering has been proven NP-hard. Often, a *rip-up and reroute* heuristic is used to refine the solution. It basically consists of ripping-up some already connected nets and then re-route the ripped-up connections. It usually

performs iteratively until all nets are routed, a time limit is exceeded or no gain is obtained. As we will see, CellRouter uses a similar heuristic to obtain better solutions once an initial legal routing has been found. The main drawback of this method is that, because of the dependence on net-ordering, if no feasible solution is obtained, it is not clear whether it does not exist or the chosen ordering was not good enough.

Concurrent global routing

Concurrent global routing tries to establish all connections at the same time. Therefore, whether or not a solution is found does not depend on any net ordering. One of the most popular approaches is to model the layout as a graph and then use *0-1 integer linear programming*. However, given it is NP-complete, another approach would be to solve the continuous *linear programming* relaxation and the transform the fractional solution to integer solutions through a rounding scheme such as randomized rounding. In practice, such techniques are embedded into larger global routing frameworks which use a hierarchical, divide-and-conquer strategy. For routing multi-pin nets instead of two-pin nets, those multi-pin nets are usually decomposed using *minimum rectilinear Steiner trees*.

1.2.4 Detailed Routing

The output of the global routing stage is used by the detailed router to determine the exact geometry of the nets in the chip. A popular type of detailed routing related to this project is full-chip routing. To cope with the scalability problem, routing frameworks use hierarchical and multilevel frameworks for large-scale designs. They use a divide-and-conquer approach by transforming large routing instances into smaller subproblems and later proceeding with a top-down, bottom-up or hybrid manner. In the first approach, the algorithm recursively divides the routing regions into smaller regions, routes the current level and refines the result in the next level. On the other hand, a bottom-up approach consists on initially partitioning the region into multiple small cells and, at each step, routing each region individually and merging it with its neighbors to form a larger supercell until the whole initial region is routed. The routing decisions made at any of the intermediate routing levels might be suboptimal, so hybrid approaches using both methods have also been explored. However, since routing decisions at a given level are irreversible, the quality of the solution is limited. This is a problem we will also face later in the project.

The same classification that we exposed for global routing algorithms can be applied to detailed routing algorithms. Sequential algorithms may not guarantee a solution even if it exists. For this reason, the most recent approaches tend to use concurrent routing. When doing detailed routing from a concurrent approach, two kind of algorithms can be considered, depending on the objects used to take routing decisions. *Tree – based* algorithms first generate a set of candidate routing trees using algorithms that generate multiple *minimum rectilinear Steiner trees*. Next, the problem is formulated as a multicommodity flow problem and solved as a 0-1 integer linear programming problem. On the other hand, *segment – based* algorithms take decisions at the level of individual metal segments. This version has a finer granularity, at the expense of more computational complexity. However, manufacturing constraints are more easily included in this scheme. Usually, SAT-based formulations are used to solve the routing problem under the segment-based approach.

1.2.5 Modern Routing

It is interesting to consider the previous work directly related to the tool this project is based on. The closest is proposed in [16], a segment-based approach inspired by the satisfiability formulation presented in [17]. However, [16] only managed to route small gates given the high computational complexity of the resulting formulation, as will be shown in chapter 2.

As we have seen, many kind of routing strategies and approaches exist. It is not by sticking to one of the methodologies that routing can be easily solved. Given the complexity of the problem, many kinds of routers exist that combine several of the ideas briefly exposed in this short introduction to routing. For example, BoxRouter 2.0 [18] is an academic global router that uses A*-search considering the congestion history of edges, wire rip-up and rerouting and finally a progressive integer linear programming approach to do layer assignment. The routing problem is constantly evolving and new algorithms and techniques will for sure continue to arise in order to meet with the new requirements. Fabrication considerations are day after day becoming more determining during the physical design process.

The figures for this section were taken from *Electronic Design Automation: Synthesis, Verification, and Test*[6]. For more information on routing or VLSI algorithms in general, refer to that book or to *Handbook of Algorithms for Physical Design Automation*[19].

1.3 Design Considerations

When building digital circuits there exist multiple design styles, and the one used is chosen depending on the needs of the target design. Full-custom design is based on specifying the layout of each individual transistor and the interconnections between them. It potentially maximizes the performance and minimizes the area, but is very laborious to implement. Full-custom design is typically used in a situation where there are area limitations or special application needs. Some examples are the design of cells within a standard cell library, memory cells or datapaths for high performance designs. However, other design methodologies exist.

1.3.1 Standard Cell Design

In the standard cell methodology, low-level VLSI layouts are encapsulated in abstract logic representations (for example, as a NAND gate). This way, logical level becomes independent of physical level design. Using this design methodology, high-level design time becomes shorter as designs can be reused. Standard cell design relies on so-called standard cell libraries which contain primitive cells (such as an AND or an inverter) required for cell design. Additionally, more complex optimized cells can also be included. The cells in the library have a fixed height and variable width. This way they can be easily placed in rows easing the synthesis process. All cells on the row will be constructed according to a certain structure, for example the one shown in figure 1.6. They are normally optimized full-custom layouts so that area and delay are minimized.

Each one of these cells is described by the following views. Additionally, metrics such as timing, power and noise for each cell are provided.

Logical View

Cell's boolean logic formula, captured in a truth-table or boolean algebra equation, in the case of combinational logic, and a state transition table, in the case of sequential logic. Figure 1.7 is an example of a state transition table for an AND gate.

Schematic View

Description of the transistors, their connections to each other and the terminals to the external environment. Multiple possible schematic representations for a given logical view exist. Figure 1.8 is a schematic representation of an AND gate.

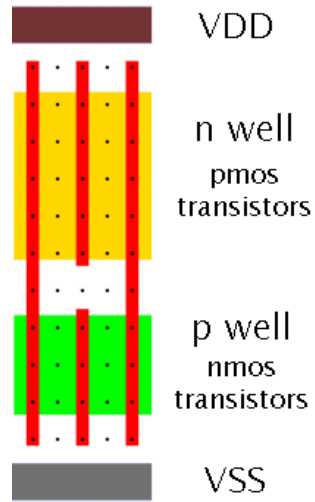


Figure 1.6: Possible physical structure

State Table		
A1	A2	ZN
L	-	L
H	H	H
-	L	L

Figure 1.7: AND gate, logical view

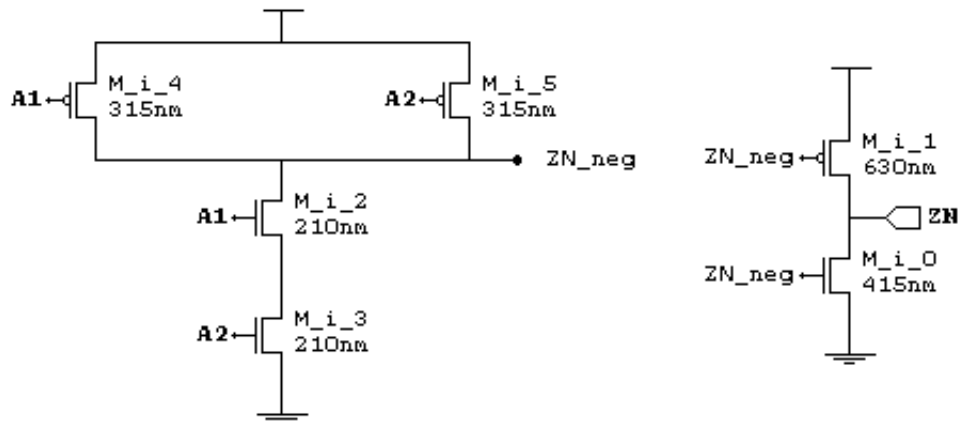


Figure 1.8: AND gate, schematic view

Layout View

Physical representation of the cell. The most important from the manufacturing point of view, as it is the closest to the actual final design. Again, many possible layouts exist for a given schematic description of a cell. Figure 1.9 represents the layout of an AND gate.

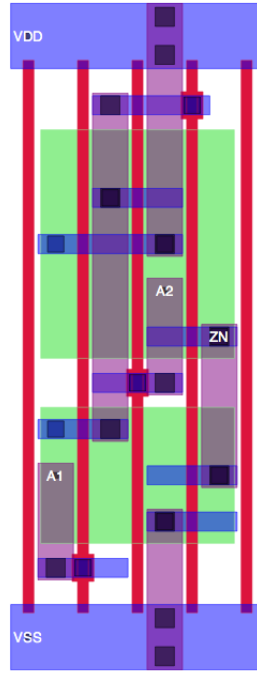


Figure 1.9: AND gate, layout for schematic in figure 1.8

Given the project works on the routing of standard cells, a simple method of representation of such cells has been chosen to illustrate important concepts in this report. It does not intend to be formal or exact, but useful as an abstraction to show situations that happen in real routing problem instances. Figure 1.10 shows an example of how such a grid would look like. In such a 2D representation of a cell, all components sharing the same color are the ones that must be connected. When a terminal has no color, it means it is not important for what the figure intends to show so it is ignored. The voltage and ground signals are always on the top and the bottom of the cell. In this simple representation we will consider that wire segments can run along the columns and the indicated rows in the figure.

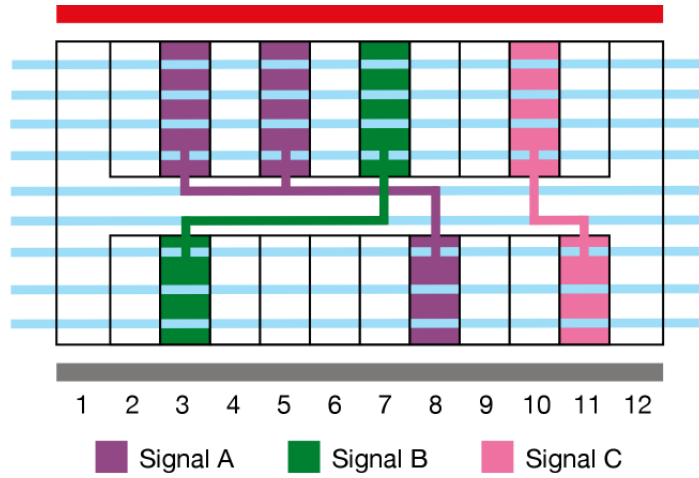


Figure 1.10: An example of a cell representation

1.3.2 Manufacturability-Aware Design

As we have seen, standard cell design provides help by encapsulating primitives so that design becomes more modular and regular. However, in the last years additional problems have been adding up to the challenges of IC design. As the size of transistors decrease, the manufacturing process has been becoming increasingly complex.

One of the crucial processes involved in chip manufacturing is photolithography. During this process, chemicals which either harden or soften when exposed to ultraviolet light are used. Such products are applied onto the surface of the die and are exposed to light through a mask with the desired pattern. After this step, the softened parts are removed and another mask with the next pattern is used. Layers grow one above the other until all masks have been applied. The patterns on the masks are the final product that the physical design produces for a given circuit abstraction.

This whole lithographic process is crucial to the fabrication of ICs. Given the constant reduction in the size of the transistors as fabrication technology changes, the lithographic gap between such small component sizes and the light wavelength is having an increasingly important impact on the patterns used during the manufacturing process. Currently, Resolution Enhancement Techniques are applied to obtain transistor sizes much smaller than the light wavelength [20]. Such approach is limited to a certain amount of geometrical configurations, contributing to an enormous increase of layout design rules at each technology generation. The design costs increase for two reasons. On

one hand, the enormous effort required to verify such layouts. On the other hand, masks must be pre-distorted in order to compensate the distortions later introduced during the photolithography phase.

Litho-friendly layout techniques must be considered to deal with all this increasing complexity. These techniques exploit the use of one-dimensional features and gridded locations for layout elements. This complicates the design of standard cell libraries, that must now cope with such restrictions trying to provide the best possible area, performance and power consumption. However, using such techniques, manufacturability-aware physical layouts are produced, which are friendly to the fabrication process.

The aim of this project is to help in the synthesis of such manufacturability-aware standard cells. Today, it is a process where complex design rules are imposed. Given so, regularity has been introduced as a means to make design automation tractable. Such regularity can be seen for example in figure 1.6, where a gridded layout is used. A clear example of such methodology can be found in [21], which proposes a model where all layout elements are located on a grid of evenly spaced points, with the grid unit being a fraction of the wavelength of the light which will later be used during the fabrication process. As it will be later explained, the tools used in this project use a similar grid approach and try to be as technology-independent as possible, so that any desired design rule can be specified and the output of the tools will be a physical design adapted to the desired technology constraints.

1.4 Boolean Satisfiability Problem

As explained before, EDA tools rely on algorithms to tackle a variety of computational problems which arise during IC design. One of the algorithmical problems that has attracted much attention during the last years has been the Boolean Satisfiability Problem (SAT). As we will see, much progress has been done and it can be used to face real industrial problems. For example, the routing tool used in this project is based on SAT.

1.4.1 SAT problem

First of all we will formalize the SAT problem and give some nomenclature that will be used in the later chapters. Suppose we have a set of *variables*,

$$P = p, q, r, \dots$$

We will define a *formula* as follows.

1. A variable is a formula.
2. If F is a formula, $\neg F$ is a formula.
3. If F and G are formulas, $(F \wedge G)$ is a formula.
4. If F and G are formulas, $(F \vee G)$ is a formula.

We will now define an *interpretation* I over P as a map

$$I: P \mapsto \{0, 1\}$$

It can be thought of as defining a value, either 0 or 1 (which can be read as *false* or *true*), to every variable in P .

We will also define the function

$$eval_I: F \mapsto \{0, 1\}$$

as follows.

1. $eval_I(p) = I(p)$
2. $eval_I(\neg F) = 1 - eval_I(F)$
3. $eval_I(F \wedge G) = \min(eval_I(F), eval_I(G))$
4. $eval_I(F \vee G) = \max(eval_I(F), eval_I(G))$

We will also consider that I satisfies F ($I \models F$) if $eval_I(F) = 1$.

For example, over the variable set P that has been defined before, these would be well-constructed formulas.

- $F_1 = p$
- $F_2 = r$
- $F_3 = p \wedge q$
- $F_4 = p \wedge \neg p$
- $F_5 = (p \vee q) \wedge r$

Let's define an interpretation I_1 for P .

$$I_1(p) = 1, I_1(q) = 1, I_1(r) = 0$$

Under that interpretation, if we evaluate all five formulas we obtain

- $eval_{I_1}(F_1) = eval_{I_1}(p) = 1$
- $eval_{I_1}(F_2) = eval_{I_1}(r) = 0$
- $eval_{I_1}(F_3) = eval_{I_1}(p \wedge q) = 1$
- $eval_{I_1}(F_4) = eval_{I_1}(p \wedge \neg p) = 0$
- $eval_{I_1}(F_5) = eval_{I_1}((p \vee q) \wedge r) = 1$

Now, let's define a *model* to be an interpretation for which a given formula evaluates to 1. For example, I_1 is a model of F_1 , whereas it is not a model of F_2 . We will say that a formula is *satisfiable* if it has at least a model, and we will say it is *unsatisfiable* if there is no I such that $eval_I(F) = 1$. In the case above, F_3 is clearly satisfiable, for I_1 is a model for it. On the other hand, F_4 is clearly unsatisfiable since, for any interpretation I , $p \wedge \neg p$ evaluates to 0.

The SAT problem now is straightforward to define. Given a formula, is there any interpretation that satisfies it? Or, in other words, is there any variable assignment such that the formula evaluates to 1? From the examples above, we can very easily see that all formulas except F_4 are satisfiable.

We will consider that any formula used as an input to SAT is in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF). First, let's define a *literal* as a variable or the negation of a variable ($l_1, \neg l_1, l_3, \dots$). Second, let's define a *clause* as a disjunction of literals ($l_1 \vee l_2, \neg l_1 \vee l_3, \dots$). Now, we will say a formula is a CNF if it is a conjunction of zero or more clauses, such as

$$(l_1 \vee l_2) \wedge (\neg l_1 \vee l_3) \wedge (\neg l_2 \vee \neg l_3)$$

Note that for a given F there always exists a CNF G such that $G \equiv F$. CNFs are used because the Tseitin Transformation [22] allows to obtain a CNF from any arbitrary formula such that it is satisfied only by the interpretations that satisfied the original formula, with only a linear growth compared to the original one. Solving the SAT problem for a formula in Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF), which is defined as the CNF but changing

disjunctions for conjunctions and viceversa, would be achievable in linear time by scanning the clauses until a satisfiable clause appeared. However, no transformation such that an arbitrary formula is converted into a DNF and avoids an exponential growth has been found.

It is important to note that SAT is NP-Complete, in fact the first one to be known [23]. Some restricted versions are known to be solvable in polynomial time, such as 2SAT and HORN-SAT. However, even if it is NP-Complete, many practical instances can be solved in affordable time. Efficient and scalable algorithms for SAT developed in the last years have contributed to the use of SAT-solving engines as an essential tool in EDA.

1.4.2 Using SAT

The SAT problem is of central importance in many areas of computer science and industry. How can the SAT problem help in problems apparently as unrelated as industrial planning, scheduling of football leagues or the routing of standard cells? It is done by reducing a problem to SAT.

Consider a black-box SAT-solver, such that it receives a CNF F as an input and it returns “YES” if satisfiable, with a model that satisfies it, or “NO” otherwise. Reducing a problem to SAT consists on encoding our problem into a formula that we can give as an input to a SAT-solver in such a way that we can, in return, construct a solution to our problem from the answer the SAT-solver has provided.

Let’s see a simple reduction. We will use SAT to solve the k -CLIQUE problem. Given a graph of size N and an integer k , k -CLIQUE returns “YES” if there is a totally connected subgraph of size k , “NO” otherwise. We will use the following variables.

$p_{i,j}$ = “The i -th node in the graph is the j -th node in the clique”

Now we will explain how to construct a CNF such that, if it is satisfiable we can get a k -clique from the graph, and there is no k -clique otherwise. We will have four groups of clauses.

1. For every node in the clique, it must be at least one of the nodes of the graph. We can encode this clause as

$$p_{1,j} \vee p_{2,j} \vee \dots \vee p_{N,j}$$

$$\forall j, 1 \leq j \leq k$$

2. For every node in the clique, it must be at most one of the nodes of the graph. We can encode this clause as

$$\neg p_{i,j} \vee \neg p_{i',j}$$

$$\forall i \forall i', i \neq i'$$

$$\forall j, 1 \leq j \leq k$$

3. For every node in the graph, it can't occupy two nodes in the clique.

$$\neg p_{i,j} \vee \neg p_{i,j'}$$

$$\forall j \forall j', j \neq j'$$

4. For every two positions in the clique, if there is no edge connecting their nodes, they cannot both be in the clique.

$$\neg p_{i,j} \vee \neg p_{i',j'}$$

$$\forall i \forall i', i \neq i' \text{ and no edge between nodes } i \text{ and } i'$$

$$\forall j \forall j', j \neq j'$$

Given an instance of k -CLIQUE, we can encode it in CNF form. We use it as an input to SAT-solver and examine its output. If it returns “unsat”, it means that no assignment of values to the variables renders the formula true, thus implying that no clique of k nodes exists. However, if it returns a model for the formula, by observing the i th index of the variables assigned to one we would be able to know which vertices are on the k -clique and which are not.

As we have seen, SAT can be used as a black-box tool to solve any problem that we can encode into a boolean formula. This approach is used by CellRouter. To solve the routing problem, we describe it in terms of a CNF and use a SAT-solver to obtain a solution. There are many ways of creating such a formula and the success of this approach depends to a great extent

on how variables are picked and restrictions are codified. However, as stated before, SAT is a problem supposedly difficult to solve. If this approach is getting more attention it is because a lot of work is being done on the field, not only on SAT solving but in constraint programming (with examples such as Satisfiability Modulo Theories [24]). Most modern SAT solvers are based in the DPLL algorithm, a systematic backtracking looking for a satisfiable assignment of the variables. However, a lot of additions and optimization have been added, such as conflict analysis, clause learning, backjumping, random restarts and heuristics. These methods have been proven empirically to be essential in solving large instances of SAT. For some more information on the use of SAT in EDA please refer to [25].

Chapter 2

CellRouter

As explained on the abstract, the aim of the project is to develop divide-and-conquer strategies on a previously existing framework to route standard cells. This router, called CellRouter, uses a technology-independent and parametrizable approach which can be adapted to different fabrics and rules. It uses a boolean formulation of the problem to find a legal detailed routing of a cell represented by a gridded layout. However, as cells become larger, approaches such as the one this project explores become mandatory to keep SAT formulas tractable. In this section, basic insight on how the CellRouter tool works and necessary vocabulary that will be later extensively used will be given.

2.1 The Routing Problem

As explained in section 1.1, routing and manufacturability-aware design have attracted lots of attention in the last years. This routing tool addresses both issues by considering geometrical regularity for the routing process. As mentioned before, it is not the first time that a boolean formulation of the problem is presented [16, 17]. However, the complexity of the problem restricted the applicability to small cells. Additionally, algorithms based on using regular layout fabrics had already been proposed in [26], but they were specially customized for that fabric and a specific set of design rules.

The router we are working on proposes an algorithmic approach for a generic problem of cell routing, which has the following characteristics.

- Should be independent from the layout templates and the interconnect resources, so that it can be configured with the resources available at

any technology generation.

- Attributes should be allowed for every wire segment.
- Should allow the router to select the best pin locations.
- Should be independent from the set of design rules.
- In the case of unroutable cells, externally connected pins should be allowed.
- A set of recommended design rules to improve yield should be specifiable.
- Wirelength should be a parameter for optimization.

To do so, the CellRouter tool uses an encoding scheme for SAT-based formulas that makes large cells tractable by applying windowing heuristics. A formalism to specify gridded design rules and multiple-patterning constraints is provided. CellRouter also uses heuristics for quality improvement (wirelength and recommended design rules) and allows the connection of external pins in case of unroutability.

Graphs are used to represent the gridded routing problem. Every net has a set of terminals that must be connected. Each terminal is represented by a set of vertices. Edges represent wire segments that can be used to connect pairs of vertices. The routing problem is defined as follows.

Find a set of edges that define routes connecting the terminals of each net. The routes must be disjoint (cannot have common vertices) and satisfy a set of design rules.

It is important to realize that the number of possible solutions is finite. It can be reduced to a SAT formula in which a variable is associated to every edge representing the presence or absence of a given signal in that position. To find such a solution with the maximum quality, CellRouter uses two steps.

1. Finding a legal solution that honors the design rules.
2. Improving the solution by iteratively re-routing nets and using quality terms in the cost function.

2.2 Routing Problem Representation

The routing region is represented by a 3D undirected grid graph $G(V, E)$ as depicted in figure 2.1(a).

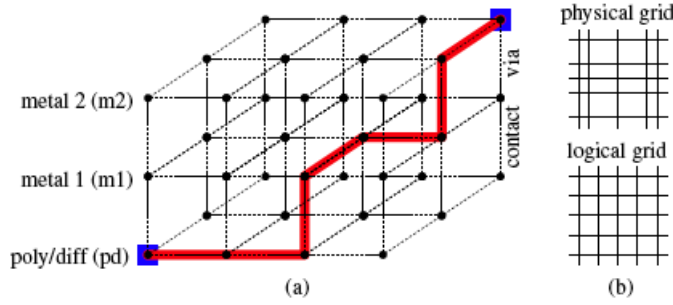


Figure 2.1: (a) Grid model for routing. (b) Physical and logical grid

The vertices have associated integer coordinates in $\{1, \dots, W\} \times \{1, \dots, L\} \times \{1, \dots, H\}$, where W , L and H represent width, length and height. The edges of the graph connect grid points. Notice that the represented physical grid may not have a uniform distribution such as the one shown in the grid as can be seen in figure 2.1(b).

Every vertex v is denoted by its coordinates $v = (x(v), y(v), z(v))$. In our context, $z(v)$ represents the layer of the layout, thus $z(v) \in \{pd, m1, m2\}$ as shown in figure 2.1(a). Every edge will be denoted by its endpoints, as in $e(v, u)$. We will also define a *net* $n \subset V$ as a set of grid points, called terminals, that must be connected. A *subnet* will be a pair of terminals of the same net.

A Viewer program is provided in order to see how a grid looks like. Given the description of a grid it shows a 3D representation of it using OpenGL, allowing interaction with the model including zoom and rotation. Figure 2.2 represents an instance of a real routing problem. Each color represents a different net or signal. We can see in the lowest layer some terminals that need to be connected. On the top and bottom of the cell we can see the VDD (voltage, red) and VSS (ground, grey) lines crossing the second layer. On the bottom left side of the screen, a complete list of the signals that appear on the cell is provided.

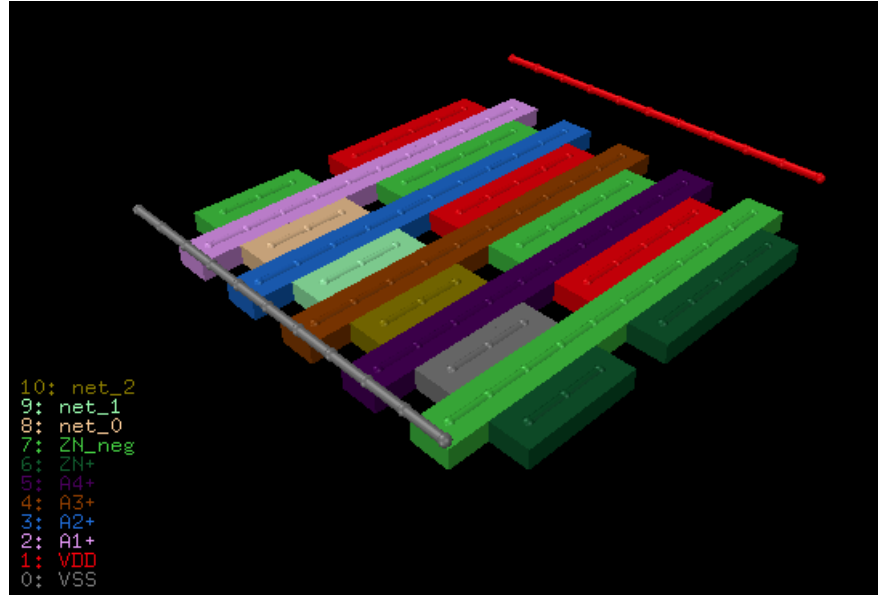


Figure 2.2: Routing grid problem instance

2.3 SAT to Solve the Routing Problem

Now that we have some terminology we can make a broad overview at how CellRouter uses SAT to solve the routing problem. To do so, CellRouter codifies the routing problem to a CNF formula that can be given as an input to a SAT solver. First, some variables to model the problem are needed.

- $\rho(e)$: A variable that represents when edge e is occupied by a wire.
- $\rho(e, n)$: A set of variables that represent the associated net in case e is occupied by a wire.
- $\rho(e, n, s)$: A set of variables that represent the subnets associated to every wire.

Given these variables, the Boolean formula F that represents the problem is as follows.

$$F \equiv C \wedge R \wedge DR$$

Here we will have a brief description of the elements in each of the components of F .

***C*, Consistency constraints**

These clauses ensure the consistency of the formula. For example, make sure that if an edge is associated with a net, such net is occupied by a wire, or that if an edge is associated to some subnet of a net, it is also associated to that net.

***R*, Routability constraints**

This clause set represents the routing constraints for the grid. For example, we must impose that each edge is assigned to at most one net and that two adjacent wires are assigned to the same net.

***DR*, Design-rules constraints**

Finally, these clauses represent constraints imposed by the user-defined set of design rules. Such design rules might impose, for example, that no adjacent vias can be connected to different nets. Extra clauses modeling wire attributes are included among this constraints.

An important idea which is encoded in the form of routability constraints is windowing. Empirically, it has been shown that the route of a two-terminal subnet rarely spans beyond the bounding box determined by the two terminals. Thus, clauses that enforce the variables outside the region to be falsified can also be added. This might imply that no solution is found even if one exists, but it greatly improves the tractability of the problem.

CellRouter allows for any discrete set of attributes to be binary-encoded and incorporated to the formula. For example, wires might have two different widths (thin and thick) or could be assigned to different masks to comply with some patterning lithography rules. Additional variables with the form $\rho(e, x)$ which represent the presence of attribute x in edge e are then added, as do the necessary clauses to deal with such attributes.

The formula F thus generated is given as an input to the *picosat* SAT solver which will return a satisfying model, if such exists. Given this model, a solution for the original routing problem can be obtained: this is the main goal of the router. In figure 2.3 we can see a solution to the routing problem in 2.2.

As stated before, among all valid solutions, some have better quality than others. For example, cells with smaller wirelength are preferred. The solution proposed by the SAT solver in 2.3 has many redundant wires. CellRouter proposes a heuristic method to make this problem tractable using

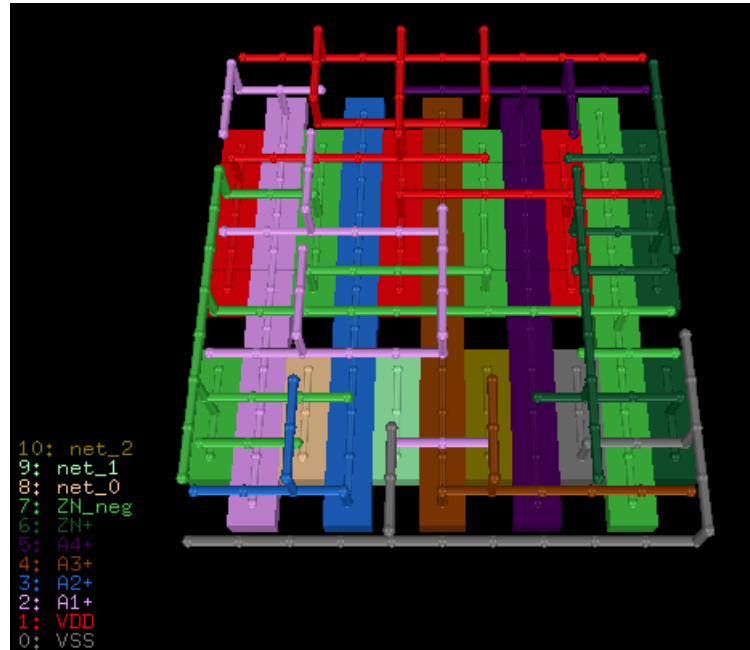


Figure 2.3: First obtained solution for 2.3

a 0-1 linear programming engine, *gurobi*. However, this model becomes intractable when dealing with large cells. Large Neighborhood Search is then used to reduce complexity of the problem in combination with Integer Linear Programming (ILP). The algorithm consists on ripping-up and re-routing nets starting from the basic solution obtained using the SAT solver until no significant improvement is observed. In practice, this takes two rounds of re-routing for each net. This strategy admits variants such as ripping and re-routing more than one net simultaneously; additionally, other aspects such as the ordering of the nets could be considered to search for even better local minima. Figure 2.4 shows an optimized version of the first obtained solution.

For more information on the grid data structure and what the command line interface of CellRouter is, refer to appendixes A and B.

2.4 Results

The CellRouter tool was used to synthesize the Nangate 45nm Open Cell Library, which contains 127 cells. All layouts were checked for design rule correctness and can be found in

<http://layout.potipoti.org>

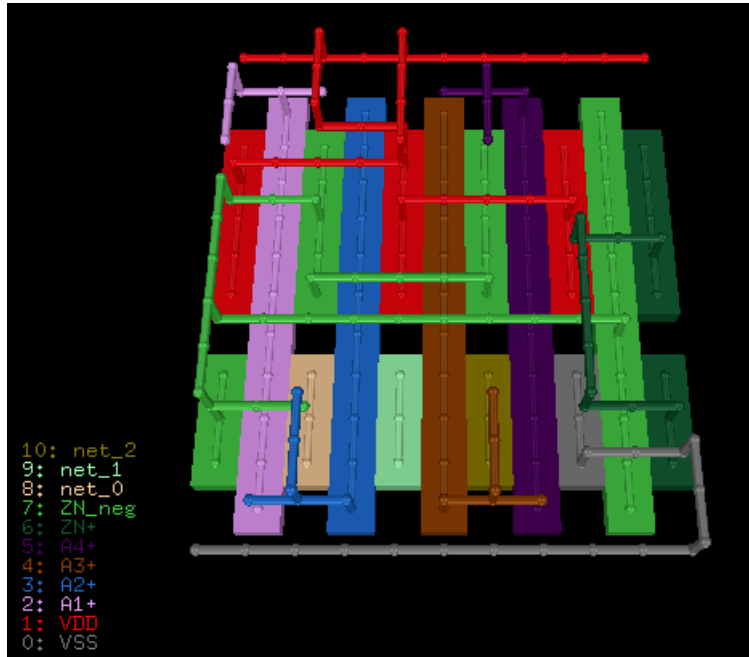


Figure 2.4: Optimized solution for 2.2

The encoding scheme of CellRouter is compared to another SAT formulation of the routing problem presented in [27]. As we can see in table 2.1, CellRouter's *sparse* encoding outperforms the *dense* encoding that was used in the previous work. Additionally, it is interesting to see how the windowing heuristic has a big impact on the CPU time for routing cells, managing to divide the computation time at the expenses of losing some solutions. All library cells were routed in 1 hour and 5 minutes.

Cell	Area	Sparse (w=2)		Sparse (w=5)		Dense [27]	
		Size	CPU	Size	CPU	Size	CPU
OAI221_X1	5	102	0.1	141	0.1	96	0.1
HA_X1	9	198	0.1	249	0.1	239	29.4
FA_X1	15	521	1.2	624	8.7	486	2959.0
DFFS_X1	21	731	2.0	893	8.1	903	205.4
SDFF_X1	25	657	2.3	1073	7.2	1380	1424.0
SDFFRS_X2	33	1626	15.4	1944	98.1	2679	40 hours

Table 2.1: Results for SAT solving (Size in 10^3 literals, CPU in secs.)

However, we must take into account that CellRouter has been applied to cells of a limited size. What happens when it has to deal with bigger, more complex cells? Given that the tool is based on a SAT-solver, and SAT is a hard problem, as soon as the complexity of the problem scales, it becomes intractable. This project aims to find a way for such hard cells to be routed and, to do so, it uses a technique that is not so new in the field of routing algorithms as we have seen in chapter 1: The divide-and-conquer approach.

Chapter 3

Development

In this chapter, the development of the project will be described. Following some preliminary considerations, multiple iterations were developed in order to look for the best possible solution to the proposed problem, which will be briefly explained. Finally, special care will be put in the explanation of the last version.

As we have seen in the previous chapter, CellRouter is a tool based on SAT that finds valid routings for grids. However, given the nature of SAT, when the problem grows in complexity or size it becomes intractable. The main aim of this project is to help CellRouter dealing with such cases when normal brute-force SAT-solving is not enough. In order to do so, the chosen approach is one that has already shown up in the routing world: the Divide-and-conquer strategy.

3.1 Preliminary Study

When interacting with an already existing tool, knowing its ecosystem becomes of great relevance, as the project will need a very close interaction, if not modifying the tools themselves. Figure 3.1 shows the basic workflow in routing of a standard cell.

The input to the flow is a *.pla* file which contains a linear placement of the nets that must be routed. It is given to the *Gridder*, which is a C++ binary that, with the placement and a *.tpl* template file, outputs a *.grd*, a grid containing the placed nets. The template file contains information related to the geometrical structure of the problem, for example the length of both p and n transistors on the cell. Figure 3.2 shows five possible templates that a

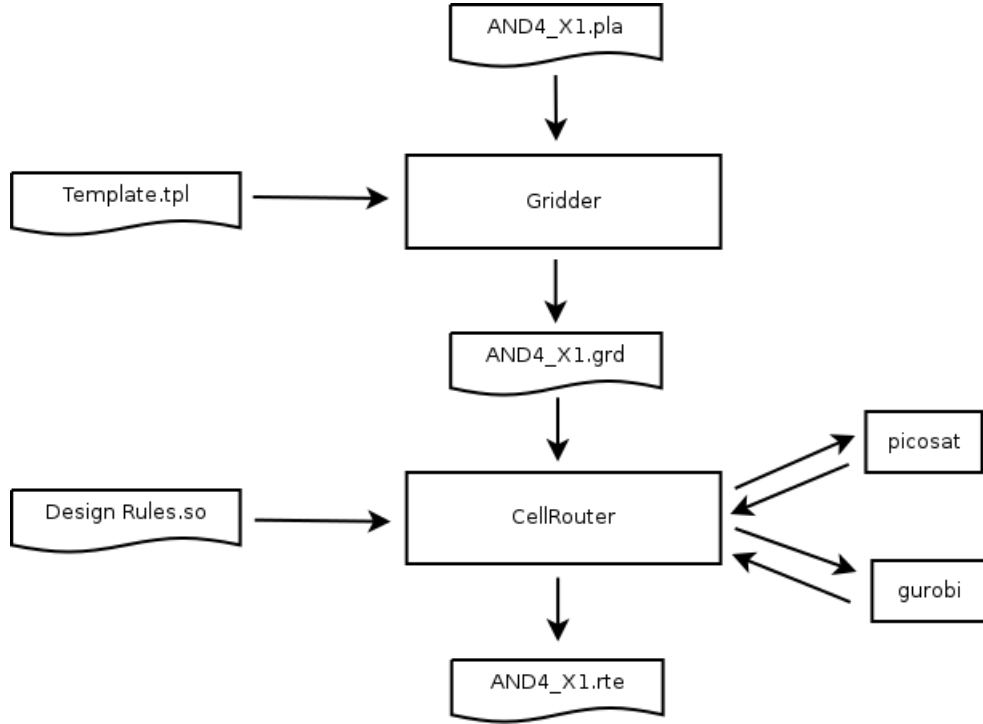


Figure 3.1: CellRouter data flow

given netlist could be adapted to. In fact, the decision of what template to use is crucial, since a routing problem solvable for a template is not necessary solvable for another one. Figure 3.3 shows the result of gridding an AND gate using three different templates. The same placement is respected but the final grid may even vary on vertical height.

The outputted *.grd* file represents the grid that will be routed by the CellRouter. More details about it can be found in appendix A. CellRouter has been implemented with C++ and uses external software, mainly *picosat* for SAT solving and *gurobi* for optimization. Both processes are called internally from CellRouter when needed. In addition to the *.grd*, a file specifying the design rules to be followed by the router is required. It consists of a *.so* library that is dynamically loaded, allowing different rule sets to be used for different routing instances. Given such file and a *.grd*, CellRouter proceeds to find a valid assignment for the SAT formula and to optimize it using *gurobi*. More information on the interface of CellRouter can be found in appendix B.

It is important to note that the problem of finding a routing for a given

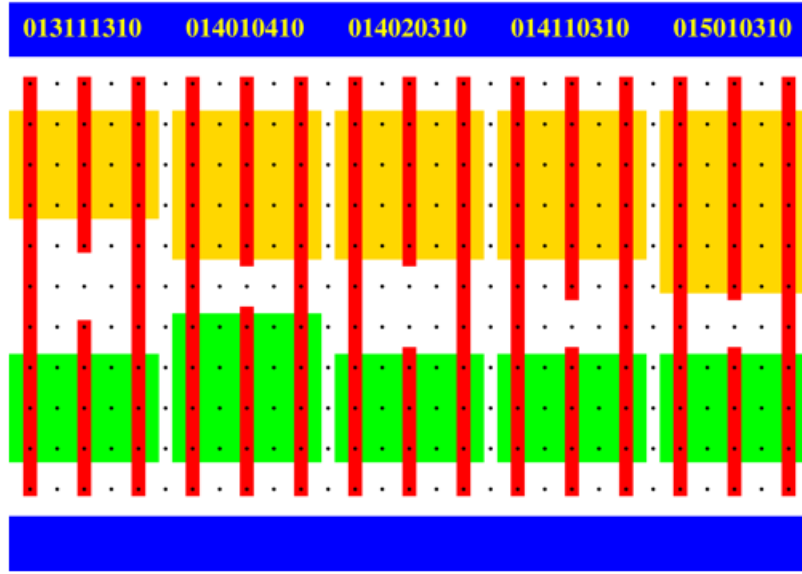


Figure 3.2: Five possible templates

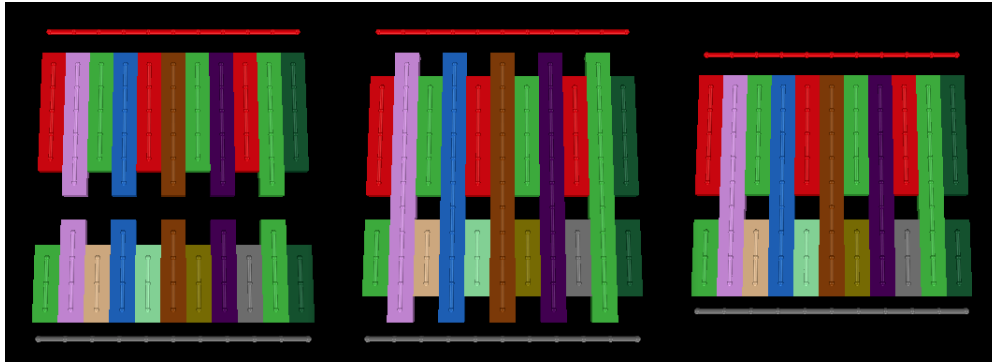


Figure 3.3: Three different griddings for the same placement

grid is a combinatorial optimization problem. The goal is to find the best grid possible in the set of those which are valid routings. The output of running CellRouter does not depend exclusively on the *.grd* input and the specified design rules. A lot of parameters can be modified for CellRouter, either when looking for a solution or during optimization (halo size, number of escapes, heuristic rounds...). As we will see later, the use of divide-and-conquer techniques will make the search space greater. This is a problem since the best configuration to route a given cell does not necessarily generate a good solution for another one. This inherent difficulty must be taken into account when designing the tool and the experiments.

Another important aspect to take into consideration is how to apply the divide-and-conquer scheme. As exposed in section 1.2, two approaches can be considered: bottom-up and top-down. The last one would imply to first create some general routing connections and then work at a lower level, whereas the first one implies first routing little zones and then expand the routing to bigger ones, such as an entire cell. In this project, the bottom-up methodology seems the most natural approach. A top-down scheme would imply first routing the connections of parts far away in the cell, which would potentially occupy spaces needed for the detailed local routing. Additionally, a top-down approach should allow already decided routes to be modified and adapted when routing smaller regions. Given the characteristics of the tool, a bottom-up approach seems a more easily implementable option. The idea would be to solve parts of a given cell so that finally the whole routing problem becomes simpler than it originally was.

3.2 Implementation

Given that the original tool was developed using C++, the first implementation that was made was a C++ binary called *CellDivider*. Its aim was to begin interacting with the problem, getting to know the data structures and overall flow. *CellDivider* received the same input that was before given to *CellRouter* and directly interacted with the infrastructure that called *picosat* and *gurobi*. It interacted directly with many of the classes that were used by the original tool. The grid data structure already existed in C++, so *CellDivider* focused on interacting with the problem through it. It did the most basic partition one could think of; given a cell as an input such as the one on figure 3.4, the program generated a new cell that was exactly the left half of the original one (figure 3.5, left side). The router, called from inside *CellDivider*, solved the left-hand part (figure 3.5, right side). When solving a half of the problem, the program did not consider any information of the remainder of the cell. Finally, *CellDivider* copied the solution onto the original cell, as shown in figure 3.6, and the partially routed problem was sent to the router to obtain a valid solution for the whole cell.

When the router receives a grid as an input all the variables are fixed, including those which come from an earlier partial solution. This first version showed how a poorly chosen distribution on a partial routing could lead the total cell to become unsatisfiable. It was tested against a subset of cells obtaining very different results, from cells that were unsatisfiable to cells that

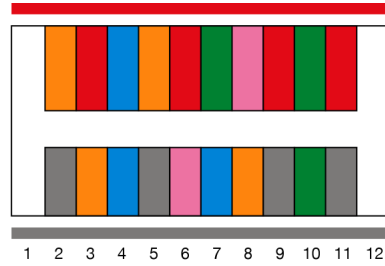


Figure 3.4: Input for CellDivider

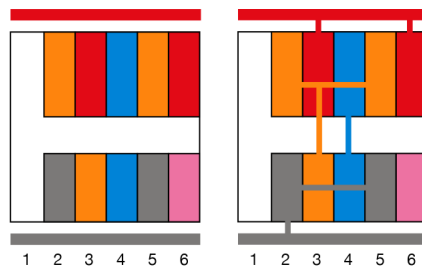


Figure 3.5: Partial problem and solution

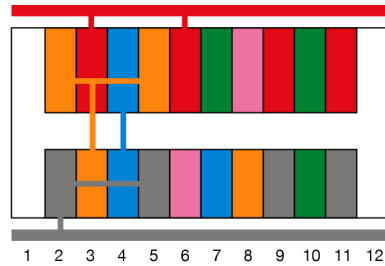


Figure 3.6: Final routing problem

were routed in half the original time. From this moment on, the focus was set on obtaining partial solutions that were conscious of the rest of the cell, without leading to insatisfiable global situations.

Following this first version, it was decided to use python to continue with the project and to leave CellRouter as it was, interacting with it through the command line and external files instead of modifying the router itself. The idea was to work at a grid level, separating CellDivider from the other parts of the project. Python seemed a good implementation language given that the work CellDivider itself does is not computationally intensive and that much prototyping and testing had to be done. Ipython was used to develop the project; it is a framework that allows using Python in a more interactive

fashion, with improved debugging and an enriched web-based editor.

Given that CellDivider was going to be developed using python and work at a grid level, with the grid being a C++ data structure, SWIG was used to interface the class and use it from python. However, many problems arose when trying to create the interface for such a complex class and, finally, the grid data structure was replicated in python. Complete separation from the C++ project was achieved, so the development of CellDivider became independent of the internals of CellRouter. This involved some extra work as the original data structures were modified halfway through the project, which would have been easier if python accessed directly the C++ classes.

The final flow using CellDivider is shown in figure 3.7. CellDivider reads the cell.grd file, containing the grid to be routed, and a configuration file, which includes the routes of the cells, binaries and the design rules file. Several smaller grid routing problems are created. For each one, CellDivider creates a temp.grd file and writes in it the grid that needs to be routed. Then a CellRouter process is created, which uses temp.grd as an input and routes it independently. When the router ends, the routed grid is saved in a temp.rte file and CellRouter returns the output to CellDivider, including information such as if the cell was routable or not, computation time and other metrics. Finally, CellDivider creates a cell.rte file where the final routed cell is saved if a routing has been found, or announces the opposite otherwise.

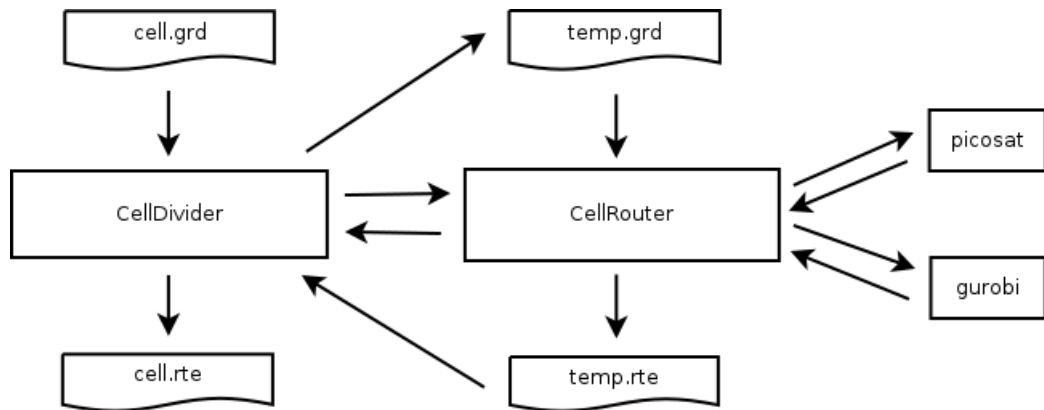


Figure 3.7: CellDivider data flow

During the development of the project, many versions of CellDivider have existed due to the experimental nature of the problem. All of them share the basic functions, which include reading the configuration file, routing a

set of cells specified on a given file and calling the Gridder, Cellrouter or Viewer, extracting information from their results. Aside from this common features, every version of CellDivider can be described in terms of their partition algorithm, how to prepare a partial problem, and their meta-algorithm, how to use the partial problems to obtain a global solution. The main task during the project has been coming up with several algorithms for both cases.

3.3 Partition algorithms

A partition algorithm decides how to partially route some part of a cell. As explained before, the most basic approach would be to absolutely ignore what lies on the other sides of the limits when doing a partial routing. This is dangerous because, as stated before, a bad partial solution could lead the global problem to be unsatisfiable. For example, consider routing the cell in figure 3.8 by first routing the left half. Figure 3.9 shows what the partition would look like and a possible solution the that partial problem. Note that, on column 4, all horizontal positions are occupied. This is entirely valid on the partial solution as the green node does not need to be connected to any component on the right side. But when the partial solution is incorporated to the total cell and we try to route it, we are unable to find a valid routing because the green net cannot be connected as shown in figure 3.10.

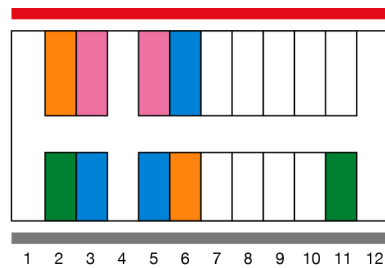


Figure 3.8: Input for CellDivider

This example perfectly illustrates the situation of a partial routing turning the whole cell unroutable. It must be kept in mind that when CellRouter returns a satisfying model it will probably not be optimal, so high-congested zones may appear. It is also important to notice that the design rules may be very strict, so finding a situation where a partial solution renders the whole problem unsatisfiable has proved to be quite usual. To cope with this problem, the following partitioning approaches try to keep some information

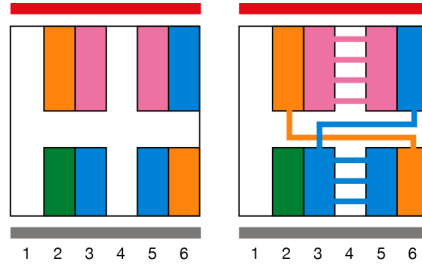


Figure 3.9: Partial problem and solution

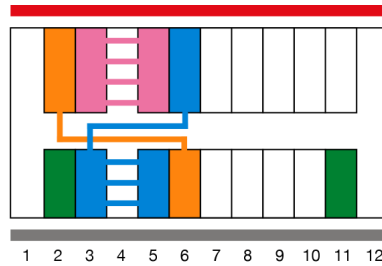


Figure 3.10: Final routing problem

on what lies on the parts of the cell that are not being routed in the partial problem.

3.3.1 Realistic Dividing

Consider a more general form of routing a part of the cell, where we want to solve the routing problem from column n to column m . The realistic dividing algorithm considers the central part of the cell, from columns n to m , and certain regions at their right and left. The main idea is that any signal which has a terminal on the central zone and another one on any of the side zones should be granted an exit to the terminal outside the central zone. Additionally, if a signal has a terminal in the right and left zone but none in the central zone, it should be imposed that a crossing path exists.

The left zone ranges from column ini to column n , whereas the right zone ranges from column m to end . ini is the leftmost column where there is a terminal that must be connected to another terminal on either the central or right zone. end is defined the other way around. A temporal cell is created, where the width is $end - ini$. The zone from n to m receives an exact copy of the original cell from n to m . The zone from ini to n and from m to end , however, will only contain the closer terminals to n and m such that they are

required to be connected with the central zone or the opposite side. Finally, the positions where the connection pins are considered valid are calculated and the cell can be routed. After the cell is routed, all wires that are not part of a subnet when the solution is copied on the original cell are removed. The function looks as follows.

function REALISTIC DIVIDING(G grid, n and m column indexes)

Find signals in the center, left and right

$ini \leftarrow 0$

$end \leftarrow G$'s width

$partial_signals \leftarrow \{\}$

$partial_terminals \leftarrow \{\}$

for all signal in G **do**

if signal in left and in either center or right, or viceversa **then**

 Save closer signal appearance to n and m

 Update ini and end accordingly

end if

if signal will be in the partial cell **then**

 Add signal into $partial_signals$

 Add whether it needs an external pin or not into $partial_terminals$

end if

end for

$partial_pins \leftarrow \{\}$

for all pin in G **do**

if pin 's column index between ini and end **then**

 Add pin to $partial_pins$ subtracting ini to column index

end if

end for

$R \leftarrow$ new grid with width $end - ini$

Add $partial_signals$, $partial_terminals$ and $partial_pins$ to R

for all $element$ (vertex or edge) in R **do**

$original \leftarrow$ mapping of $element$ in G

if $original$ column between n and m **then**

$element \leftarrow$ signal of $original$ in G

else if $element$ on lowest level **then**

$element \leftarrow locked_signal$

```

        else
             $element \leftarrow free\_signal$ 
        end if
    end for

    for all  $terminal$  needed outside  $n$ - $m$  range do
        Add  $terminal$  to  $R$ 
    end for

    Save  $R$  to a file
    Call CellRouter over  $R$ 
    if call is unsat then
        return  $unsat$ 
    end if
    Load solved  $R$  from file

    for all  $element$  (vertex or edge) in  $R$  do
         $original \leftarrow$  mapping of  $element$  in  $G$ 
        if  $original$  column between  $n$  and  $m$  then
             $original \leftarrow$  signal of  $element$  in  $R$ 
        end if
    end for
    Clean  $G$  grid
    return  $routing\_time$ 

end function

```

For example, we want to route the zone defined by n and m on the cell in figure 3.11. We need to ensure that both signals on column 6 have an exit to the other parts of the cell where they are required, which are columns 3 and 9. Additionally, on these two columns there is a terminal of the same signal that should cross the central zone. We need to set ini to column 3 and end to column 9. Now, as explained earlier, the zone between n and m will have all the terminals included and the rest of the partial cell will only have the required terminals, as shown in figure 3.12.

After the partial routing is completed, only the signals routed in the range from column n to column m are copied back to the original cell. All the wires that are not in a path between two terminals of the central zone are also removed. This would be the case of a wire that simply crossed the central region but did not have any terminal in it. Since we only wanted to impose

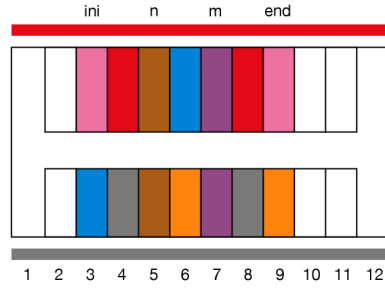


Figure 3.11: Input for CellDivider

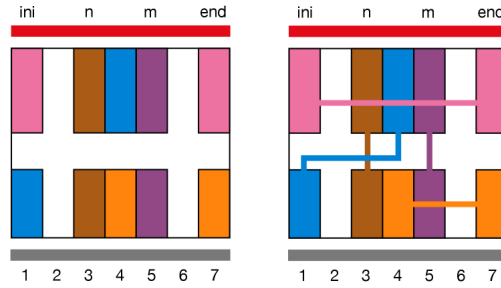


Figure 3.12: Partial problem and solution

that such a path existed, the routing tool will occupy again those positions if needed. Figure 3.13 shows how the final cell looks like after the partial solution has been added. Notice that all wires that did not begin and end in the central zone have disappeared, but the path they occupied is available.

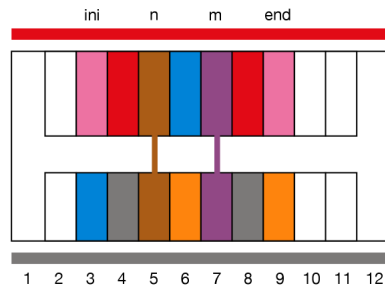


Figure 3.13: Final routing problem

Now let's take the example that was shown before, where a cell was rendered unsatisfiable. If the partial routing is done using realistic dividing, figure 3.14 shows how the partial routing problem and solution looks like. Given that there is a signal in column 2 whose closer terminal is in column

11 on the original cell, the partial cell will have to include up until that column. However, since it is the only signal shared between the n - m zone and the rest of the cell, it will be the only terminal from column 6 to column 10 in the partial cell. Finally, figure 3.15 shows the final routing problem. Notice that now a path for the signal that before rendered the cell unsatisfiable exists. This does not guarantee that now the total cell will have a valid routing, but chances are higher than before.

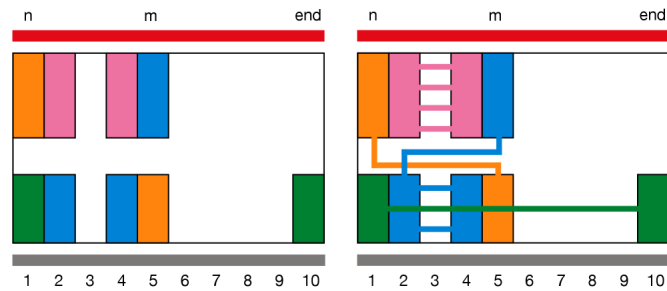


Figure 3.14: Partial problem and solution

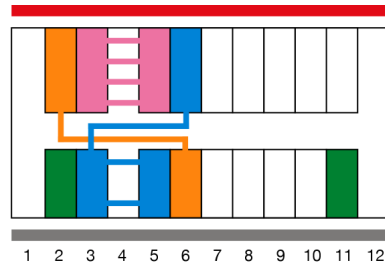


Figure 3.15: Final routing problem

Notice that a number of variations exist for this partitioning algorithm. For instance, when copying the partial solution to the original cell, all wires from n to m can be copied, not only the ones beginning and ending in that range. Another option would be copying all the wires of the partial solution, regardless of what zone they are in. Another option would be, when preparing the partial cell, including all terminals outside the central zone and not only those strictly required to be routed. It is specially useful when multiple partial routings are performed on a single cell, given that zones that might look empty for a partial solution could have already been occupied by an earlier routing.

3.3.2 Approximation Dividing

This dividing approach is similar to the one described in the previous subsection. Once again we intend to route a cell from a column n to a column m . However, the idea is to approximate all terminals outside the routing zone that should be connected with signals that are between the n th and m th columns or that should simply cross that zone.

Consider the case of the right part of the zone we want to route. The algorithm will find, for every signal that is both in the right part and outside it, the terminal that is closer to the boundary between the zones. The partial cell can be created when the number of signals to approximate in both sides is known. Like in the realistic dividing approach, the zone between n and m is entirely copied. As for the other parts, respecting the closeness of every terminal to the boundary, fake terminals are added to represent that they must be connected with a terminal in that zone. The pseudocode, which is very similar to the one in previous subsection, is as follows.

function APPROXIMATION DIVIDING(G grid, n and m column indexes)

```

Find signals in the center, left and right
 $partial\_signals \leftarrow \{\}$ 
 $partial\_terminals \leftarrow \{\}$ 
for all signal in  $G$  do
    if signal in left and in either center or right, or viceversa then
        Save closer signal appearance to  $n$  and  $m$ 
        Decide if placing the terminal on  $p$  or  $n$  zone if needed
    end if
    if signal will be in the partial cell then
        Add signal into  $partial\_signals$ 
        Add whether it needs an external pin or not into  $partial\_terminals$ 
    end if
end for
Calculate how many terminals will be added at left and right
 $partial\_width \leftarrow m - n + terminals_{left} + terminals_{right}$ 

 $partial\_pins \leftarrow \{\}$ 
for all  $pin$  in  $G$  do
    if  $pin$ 's column index between  $ini$  and  $end$  then
        Add  $pin$  to  $partial\_pins$  subtracting  $ini$  to column index
    end if

```



```

end for

R ← new grid with width partial_width
Add partial_signals, partial_terminals and partial_pins to R

for all element (vertex or edge) in R do
  original ← mapping of element in G
  if original column between n and m then
    element ← signal of original in G
  else if element on lowest level then
    element ← locked_signal
  else
    element ← free_signal
  end if
end for

for all terminal needed outside n-m range do
  Add terminal to R
end for

Save R to a file
Call CellRouter over R
if call is unsat then
  return unsat
end if
Load solved R from file

for all element (vertex or edge) in R do
  original ← mapping of element in G
  if original column between n and m then
    original ← signal of element in R
  end if
end for
Clean G grid
return routing_time

end function

```

The following example illustrates how approximation dividing works. Figure 3.16 shows the cell we want to route. We decide to partially route the cell between *n* and *m*. The signal on the top part of column 6 must be con-

nected to the one on the top part of column 3 and both parts of column 10. In the partial problem, we approximate those terminals to the boundary of the zone we want to route. On the left part, the signals on columns 2 and 3 will approach column 4. On the right part we will proceed respecting which signal is closer to the m th column. First comes the signal in column 8, which is already close to the boundary. Following come the terminals on column 10. However, two of them exist at the same distance. In this case, we a only one of them, the one in the zone which has a lower number of approximated terminals - which is the top zone in this case. Finally, the terminal in column 11 also moves. The partial problem and a possible solution are shown in figure 3.17.

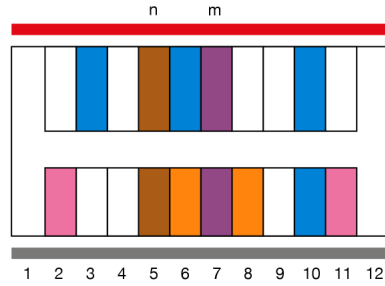


Figure 3.16: Input for CellDivider

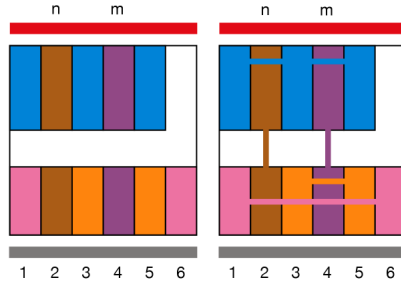


Figure 3.17: Partial Problem and Solution

Figure 3.18 shows how the final routing problem looks like once the partial solution is copied. Notice that, since this method alters the geometry of the original problem even more than when using realistic dividing, all the wires routed outside the n - m range need to be discarded. As we did before, only wires that both end and begin in between the n th and m th column are kept.

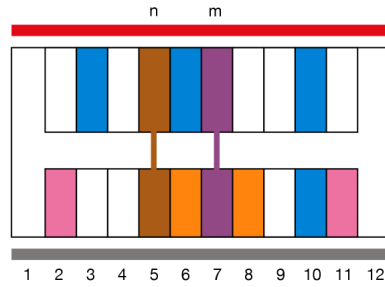


Figure 3.18: Final routing problem

Approximation dividing is useful when we are partially routing big cells that have signals which are potentially far away. We can come back to our example in figure 3.8. As we saw in figure 3.14, a lot of empty columns were added in the partial solution. Using approximation dividing, all that empty zone can be spared as shown in figure 3.19. The result when copying the information back to the original cell is the same as the one shown in figure 3.15. Avoiding all that white cell space simplifies the boolean formula, thus reducing the amount of memory and computation time that SAT will need to obtain a partial solution.

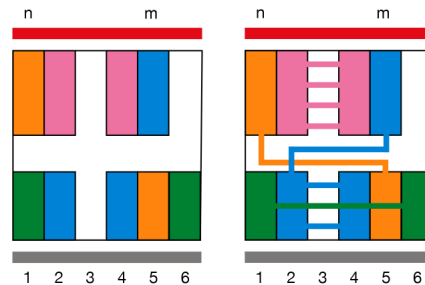
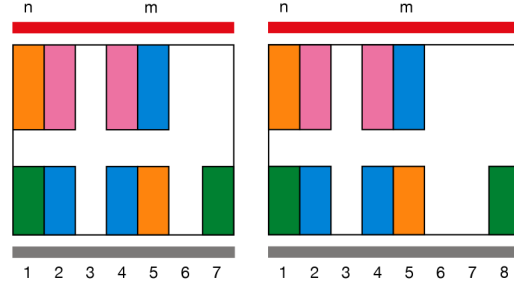


Figure 3.19: Partial problem and solution

As in the case of realistic dividing, many variations exist. For example, we could decide to add terminals in both the high and the low parts of the cell, not only on one of them, when they appear on both areas in the original cell. This partitioning algorithm admits a *pad* parameter which specifies the number of columns that will be left empty among the approximated terminals. It is used to reduce congestion in the cell at the expenses of making it bigger. The examples of this section have considered a value of 0, but figure 3.20 shows how the partial problem on figure 3.19 would look like with a different *pad* value.

Figure 3.20: Partial problem with $pad = 1$ and $pad = 2$

This section introduced the two most important approaches to cell dividing. Other methods, composed of any of these algorithms and other variations, have been used. One of them, which was used in scan routing, is described in the next section.

3.4 Meta-algorithms

Given a complete cell we want to route, meta-algorithms define how to use partitioning algorithms, either the ones described before, variations or completely different ones, in order to find a solution which is valid for the whole cell. Most CellDivider versions use a bottom-up approach consisting on routing parts of the cell and finally trying to route the entire cell with the information provided by the partial solutions. However, other approaches where a final global routing is not needed have also been explored.

It is important to remark that the number of possible meta-algorithms is enormous. Not only can they differ in the partitioning algorithms they use, but also in where and when they use them. The described meta-algorithms should be regarded as a methodology for cell routing using partial solutions. In every partial solution to the problem, parameters such as the halo have to be chosen. Any wrong decision could lead to an insatisfiable solution and, given the case, how the meta-algorithm reacts is also of great relevance.

3.4.1 2-Cell Routing

This meta-algorithm was the first one used during the development of the project and is presented to illustrate the number of variables that can affect

the execution of CellDivider. It consists on dividing the cell by the half and solving one or both parts to find a global solution. Now, which sides should be partially routed, the left one, the right one or both? Using realistic dividing, approximation dividing or a variation of any of them? What halo should be used when routing the partial solutions? And when looking for a global routing? Even if this algorithm is very simple, this approach shows how big the experiment exploration can become. The number of parameters and decision combinations will only grow as the meta-algorithm's complexity increases.

However, 2-Cell routing is very limited. For example, when cells grow big, it can be interesting to divide the cell in more than two parts. This led to *N-Cell Routing*, a variation of this algorithm in which the cell was divided in an arbitrary number of parts. For example, a cell such as the one in figure 3.21 could be divided in three parts. A valid strategy would be to route the two side parts of the cell as shown in figure 3.22, which shows those parts already routed using approximation dividing. Finally, we obtain the final problem and only routing it is left as seen on 3.23. Routing only the central part of the cell would also have been a very valid approach. During development it was seen that partially routing the whole cell before doing the total routing would lead to insatisfiability in many of the cases. However this method proves to be useful when the cell has a known physical structure such as concatenated cells.

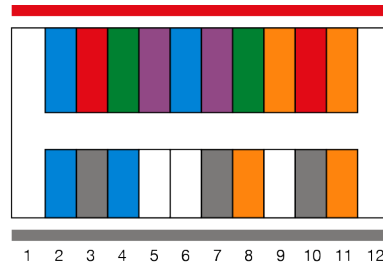


Figure 3.21: Input for CellDivider

After some experimentation, blindly dividing the cell in equal chunks still seemed quite a basic approach. Additionally, this meta-algorithms need for a total route of the entire cell as a last step. The meta-algorithms that will be described in the following subsections try to take such observations into account. Many variations of them are also possible but have not been explored.

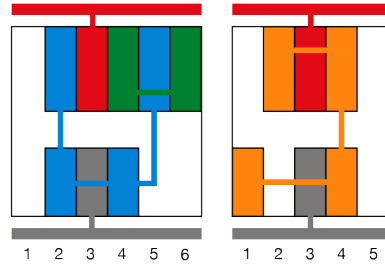


Figure 3.22: Partial problems and solutions

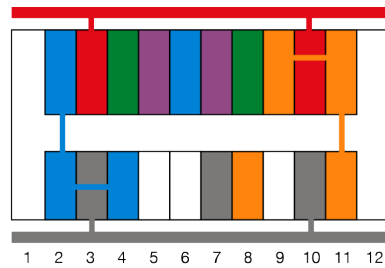


Figure 3.23: Final routing problem

3.4.2 Congestion-Driven Routing

When deciding which part of the cell to route before, first solving the most congested part seemed a good approach. Given that we want to avoid a final insatisfiable result, the idea is dealing with the hard parts in the first instance so that later only easy to route parts are left.

The idea to measure congestion is simple: The number of subnets that must cross each column. This can be calculated easily by scanning the cell from side to side and considering the first and last appearance of each signal. Each one of them will add congestion to every column between the first and the last appearance. A wire of said signal will have to cross each one of these columns in order to connect all the terminals of the net. Figure 3.24 shows a cell with the congestion value of each column above it.

Congestion-driven routing can be applied in a wide range of ways. Here follow some of the versions that were developed.

Window Routing

This method uses a window of a fixed length w , which is either a number given with the input or some measure relative to the width (for

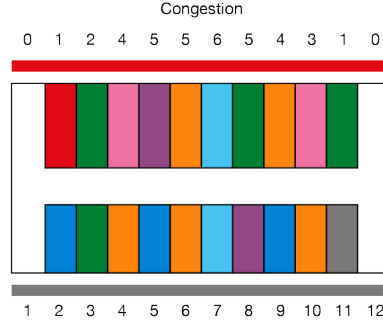


Figure 3.24: Congestion of the columns in a cell

example, a half or a third of its width). It proceeds by partially routing the zone of the cell with width w such that the sum of the congestion of the columns in the zone is maximal. It usually falls somewhere in the middle of the cell, which usually is the most congested part. Figure 3.25 shows what part of the cell would be partially routed in the one presented above. The implementation was abandoned to try other strategies and did not allow for multiple overlapping partial routings at the time. The pseudocode is as follows.

function WINDOW ROUTING(G grid, w window size)

```

     $time \leftarrow 0$ 
     $histogram \leftarrow histogram(G)$ 
     $zone \leftarrow congested\_zone(histogram, w)$ 

     $partial\_route \leftarrow route\_range(G, range)$ 
    if  $partial\_route.state = SAT$  then
         $time \leftarrow time + partial\_route.time$ 
    else
        return  $unsat$ 
    end if

     $total\_route \leftarrow route(G)$ 
    if  $total\_route.state = SAT$  then
        return  $time + total\_route.time$ 
    else
        return  $unsat$ 
    end if
end function

```

Zone Routing

This method used the congestion metric in a different way. It incorporated a function that, given the congestion value of each column, returned a set of column ranges that should be partially routed. The one used considered those zones where congestion was maximum and only on unit under the maximum, but different strategies can be applied. Those zones have a variable length which can vary for different zones in the same execution. From the cells used during experimentation, the partially routed area amounted from a 14% to a 95% of the cell. For example, if applied to the cell introduced in this subsection on figure 3.24, the zone that would be routed is between the 5th and 8th columns as shown in figure 3.26, but on bigger cells it would produce several partial routings. This would be a version in pseudocode.

```

function ZONE ROUTING( $G$  grid)

     $time \leftarrow 0$ 
     $histogram \leftarrow histogram(G)$ 
     $zones \leftarrow congested\_zones(histogram)$ 

    for all  $zone$  in  $zones$  do
         $partial\_route \leftarrow route\_range(G, zone.begin, zone.end)$ 
        if  $partial\_route.state = SAT$  then
             $time \leftarrow time + partial\_route.time$ 
        else
            return  $unsat$ 
        end if
    end for
     $total\_route \leftarrow route(G)$ 
    if  $total\_route.state = SAT$  then
        return  $time + total\_route.time$ 
    else
        return  $unsat$ 
    end if
end function

```

No more work was done in congestion-driven routing when development of the last meta-algorithm began. All of these methods require of a final routing step where the whole cell is included, which was something that we wanted to avoid as will be seen in next sub-section.

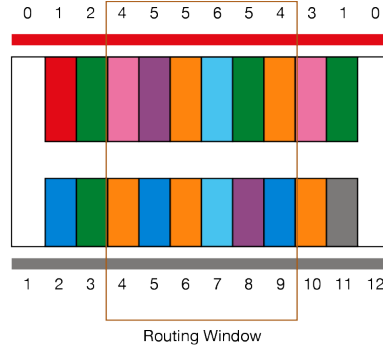


Figure 3.25: Window routing example

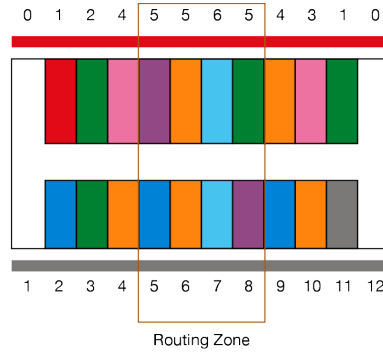


Figure 3.26: Zone routing example

3.4.3 Scan Routing

The aim of scan routing is to route the cell without the need of a final step where the whole cell is codified into a SAT formula. In order to do so, the cell is divided in a given number of contiguous chunks which are then routed from left to right. After routing the i th part of the cell, all subnets which should both begin and end in the i th chunk or before are already routed. This way, after routing the final division of the cell, the whole cell has been routed. In order to do so, considering we want to route from column n to column m , the partitioning algorithm used is as follows.

For the part at the left of this zone we use the approach of the realistic division algorithm with the variant where all the terminals and wires of the already routed zone are included on the partial problem. In scan routing, we consider that the left part of a partial routing has already been routed and incorporated to the final solution. If this is not regarded when routing the next part, it is possible that the new partial solution would need to assign cer-

tain signals to positions where a different wire has already been defined. The approximation dividing approach can not be used in this part, given that it does not respect the geometry of the cell and does easily lead to unsatisfiable solutions. When obtaining a partial result, all wires at the left of n will be considered as fixed and all wires at the right of m will be discarded, given that we only wanted to impose that a path from the zone we already routed and some signals at the right of column m existed. Additionally, some cleaning of not necessary wires in the left part is performed before a partial routing, knowing that the router will put them back again if they are really necessary.

On the right part of the zone we want to route we will use the approximation routing approach. This way we can potentially save a lot of blank space when looking for the partial solution. It is not so important to keep the original geometry, given that the part in the right will not be fixed after the partial routing.

The partial solutions used in scan routing, thus, take advantage of both of the approaches introduced in section 3.3. After all the parts of the cell have been routed from left to right, a solution for the routing of the whole cell is obtained. Signals that need to have a connection pin only require it on the first partial routing where they appear, given that from then on all the other terminals of the net will be connected to the subnets of the first part, which are connected to the pin. Partial routings are optimized in order to raise the chances of getting a satisfying assignment and, at the same time, yielding better final solutions. However, as happens with the other methods, scan routing not finding a solution does not imply it does not exist. The pseudocode looks as follows.

```
function SCAN_ROUTING( $G$  grid,  $n$  number of parts)

   $time \leftarrow 0$ 
   $ranges \leftarrow$  boundaries of the  $n$  parts of  $G$ 
  for all  $range$  in  $ranges$  ordered from left to right do
     $partial\_route \leftarrow route\_range(G, range)$ 
    if  $partial\_route.state = SAT$  then
       $time \leftarrow time + partial\_route.time$ 
    else
      return unsat
    end if
  end for
```

end function

The following example will illustrate how the algorithm works. Consider the cell in figure 3.27.

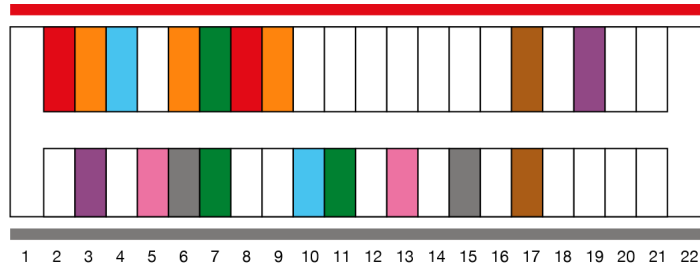


Figure 3.27: Input for CellDivider

We decide to use the scan algorithm on that cell in three parts. The cell is divided into the following ranges: $(1, 8)$, $(9, 15)$ and $(16, 22)$. Figure 3.28 shows the routing of the first part. In this case, the closest terminal of all signals which are to be connected to a net in the $(1, 8)$ range are approximated to the boundary. Figure 3.29 shows the state of the whole cell after the partial routing has been added.

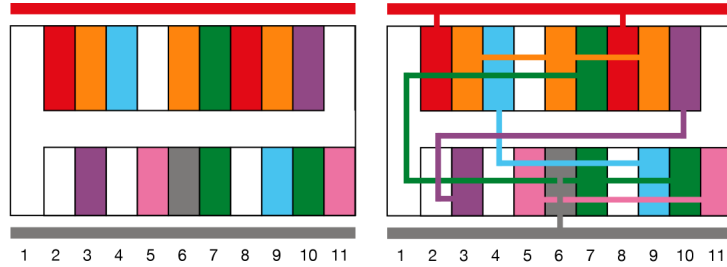


Figure 3.28: Partial routing, first part

Now it is time to route the second range as seen in figure 3.30. This time only one signal will be come closer on the right side. However, a big part of the already routed cell will be included in the partial routing, as some of the terminals in $(9, 15)$ have to be routed with terminals in the already routed part. Figure 3.31 shows the state of the cell after this second routing.

The last step is to route the third part of the cell. After the last partial solution is computed, no more routing is be needed. Figure 3.32 shows

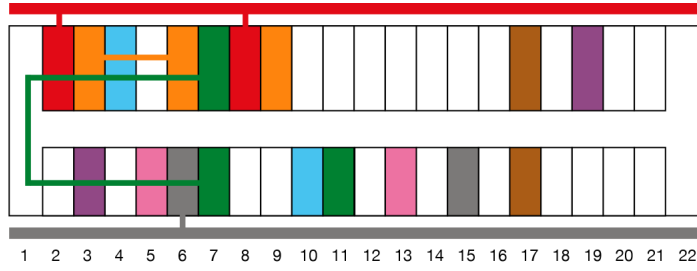


Figure 3.29: Cell after first partial routing

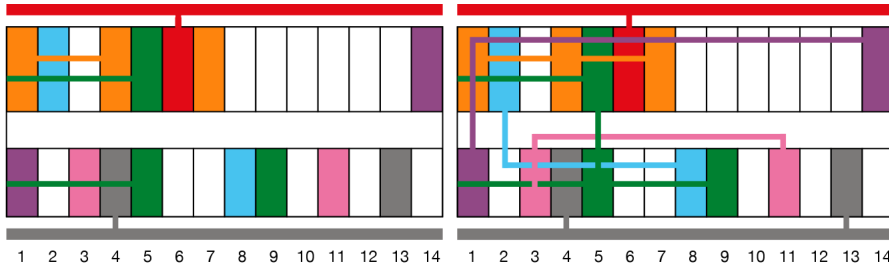


Figure 3.30: Partial routing, second part

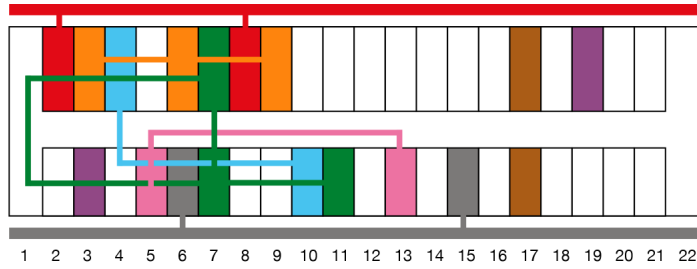


Figure 3.31: Cell after second partial routing

the solution for the last partial routing and how it is all integrated in the cell.

However, the scan algorithm needs an extra tweaking on the partitioning algorithm. Notice how the terminals on column 6 have been routed twice. This is because when doing the second partial routing, as seen in figure 3.30, the connection of those terminals disappeared beyond the left boundary. The following addition is included to solve this problem. When the left border is known, the algorithm checks if in that column more than one wire for the same signal exists. If it is the case and they are not connected, the shortest path between those positions is added to the partial problem. Given that this implies expanding the cell by the left side, all positions on the left that are not part of a shortest path are blocked. Figure 3.33 shows how the sec-

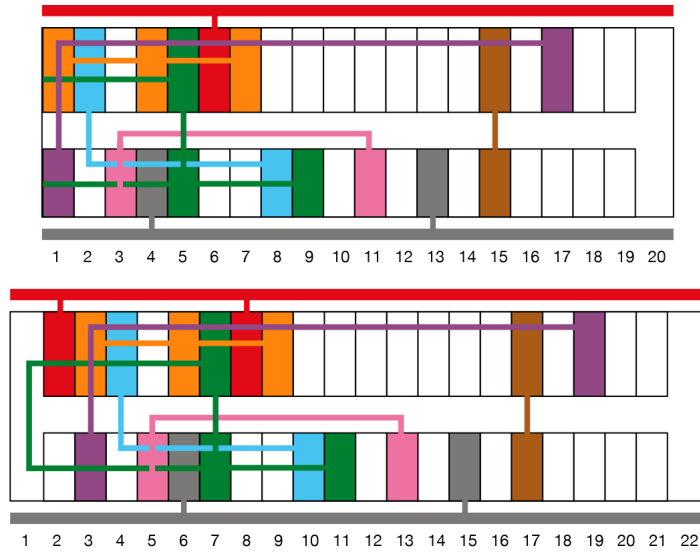


Figure 3.32: Third partial routing and final solution

ond partial routing problem is. The black zone represents positions that can not be modified but have been added in order to let the router know that both terminals on the original column 6 are already connected. Notice that avoiding duplicate connections is important, since it could mean the difference between a satisfiable and an unsatisfiable cell.

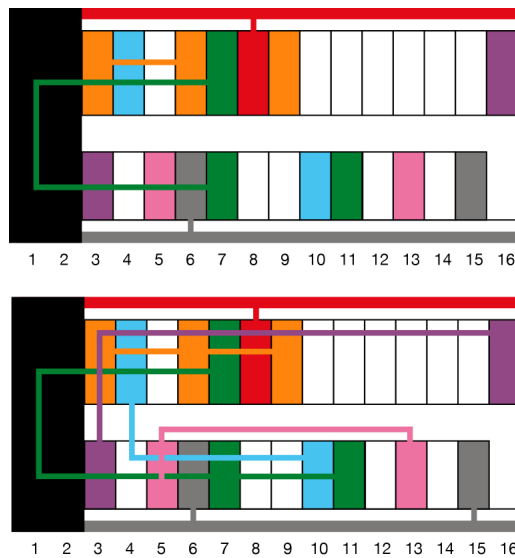


Figure 3.33: Second partial routing with blocks and solution

As we wanted, the scan approach has an important benefit over the others: it does not need a total routing over the cell. This is very interesting because, when cells get big and the number of signals increases, the generation of the formula can become expensive. Besides, never having the whole formula at once allows to route cells using less maximum RAM memory. However, this method also turns out to produce many unsatisfiable cells, specially when they are very congested.

Chapter 4

Results

Much testing was done during the development of the project. Each time a new version or variant was produced, it was tested with a set of representative cells of the Nangate library, about which we will explain more in section 4.1. Those experiments were generally done in the development laptop, given that the size of the Nangate instances is manageable using a normal computer. The experiments that will be shown in this chapter have been conducted on the LSI Cluster, using two of the nodes of the Nozomi queue. They are two Dell PowerEdge R410 using an Intel Xeon X5660 processor, with 12 cores and 2,8 Ghz frequency, and equipped with 96GB of RAM memory each. Using the cluster was advantageous over running the tests on the laptop for several reasons. Both nodes are equipped with high-end processors, so the computation time is lower. However, the main advantage is that, given the number of cores, many routing instances were solved in parallel. Besides, the memory of the system also mattered; there were routing instances that required more than 4GB of memory, which the laptop used for development could not provide.

This chapter will show some tests that were done using two different cells sets. The first section is devoted to the use of the cells provided by the Nangate Open Cell Library, whereas the second section relates to the *CatLib Cell Library*. In both of them some tables regarding different experiments are presented and finally some conclusions are drawn. A summary of the project's general conclusions will be presented in the next chapter.

4.1 Nangate Open Cell Library

The first set is the Nangate Open Cell Library, which is the same that was used to test the CellRouter. It is an open-source standard cell library provided for research purposes. It includes several different functions, including buffers, combinational gates and flip-flops, all of which come in different drive strength variants. When referring to the name of a cell, first will come the name of the function and after the drive strength (for example, an AND4_X1 gate is a 4-input AND with the first level of drive strength).

A subset of the cells in the Nangate library has been selected for the purpose of making these experiments. The aim of this project is to help with big and complex cells. The cells that will be used are those that fall into one of such categories. These cells are AND4_X4, AOI22_X4, BUF_X32, CLKGATETST_X8, DFF_X1, DFFR_X1, DFFS_X1, DFFRS_X1, FA_X1, INV_X32, NOR4_X4, OAI22_X4, OR4_X4, Sdff_X1, Sdffr_X1, Sdffs_X1 and Sdffrs_X1.

Table 4.1 includes the routing time for all those cells using a halo of 6. There is the case where the cell hasn't been optimized using heuristic and also when one or two optimization rounds have been done. The more heuristic optimization rounds are conducted, the higher the computational time becomes.

Some conclusions on given results.

4.2 CatLib Cell Library

The second set of cells consists of the concatenation of Nangate cells which have been grouped under the name of *CatLib*. They have been created on purpose to test several properties of the divide and conquer algorithms given that we wanted to test the tool on cells bigger than those offered by the Nangate library.

In order to do so, *CellCat*, a basic cell concatenator, has been developed. It requires a little tuning depending on what cell to multiply and outputs the concatenation of a given number of instances of the cell. When choosing which cells should be on CatLib we wanted to focus on two kind of cells, depending on whether they had a big congestion or not. An analysis of the

Cell	No Optimization	1 Round	2 Rounds
AND4_X4	3,83	9,45	30,84
AOI22_X4	6,26	40,20	90,06
BUF_X32	33,03	155,20	290,97
CLKGATETST_X8	35,5	57,83	234,91
DFF_X1	80,11	87,41	109,51
DFFR_X1	228,69	237,75	296,88
DFFS_X1	38,66	49,98	67,08
DFFRS_X1	150,58	175,56	221,56
FA_X1	30,11	35,28	45,11
INV_X32	13,37	58,56	107,15
NOR4_X4	5,64	23,21	54,40
OAI22_X4	6,36	13,64	49,27
OR4_X4	4,28	7,00	29,15
SDF_X1	60,56	80,98	109,37
SDFFR_X1	40,94	68,33	99,13
SDFFS_X1	441,60	473,08	590,88
SDFFRS_X1	310,45	365,86	459,83

Table 4.1: Time (s) used to solve Nangate cells

whole Nangate library was conducted to determine which cells would be useful to generate bigger cells with the lowest congestion possible. To select these cells, both the mean number of subnets that crossed each column and the total size of the cell were considered. Finally, NOR4_X4 and OAI22_X4 were chosen. In the case of the congested cells, given that the time of solving each cell by the original tool was known, those which proved to be hard were selected: The FA_X1 full adder cell and various flip-flops. When referring to a CatLib cell, the nomenclature NAME_N will indicate the cell that was concatenated in NAME and the times it was included in N.

Finally, these three kinds of cells were used for concatenation: Combinational cells, full adders and flip-flops. The first case simply considers the concatenation of some combinational cells (*COMB* in figure 4.1) which share up to one signal. These should prove to be the easiest to route given that close to no congestion should exist in the region between cells.

In the second case, where 1-bit full adders are concatenated, the carry out signal of a given full adder has to be connected with the carry in of the next full adder, with the exception of the first carry in and the last carry out

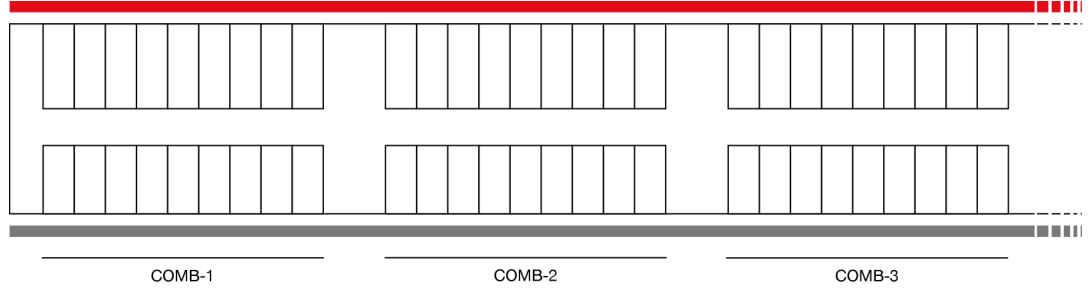


Figure 4.1: Concatenation of combinational cells

which will be terminals of the final cell. In figure 4.2 it can be seen how a routing of a n -bit full adder might look like.

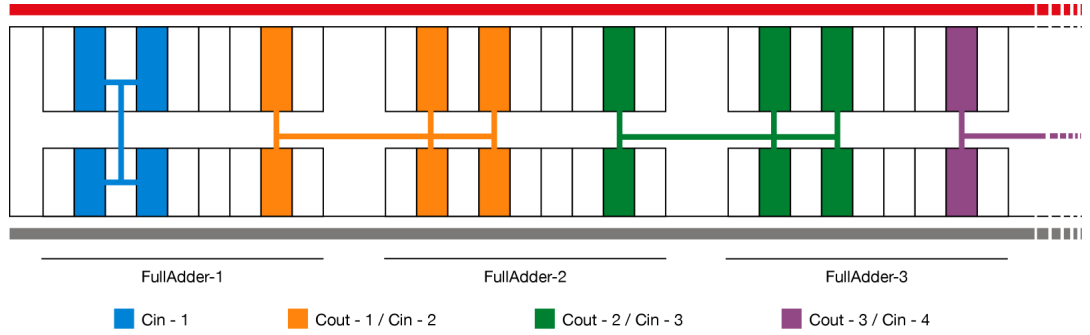


Figure 4.2: Concatenation of full adders cells

The last case is the 1-bit flip-flop concatenation generating a n -bit flip-flop cell. This time we do not need to carry signals from one region to the next one, but we need to share signals across the whole cell. The most basic flip-flop only needs to share the clock signal, but up to five signals need to cross the whole cell in the case of scan flip-flop with set and reset. In figure 4.3, the concatenation with a possible routing of reset flip-flops is shown.

These cells were routed in the cluster using various halo sizes. Table 4.2 shows the routing time in seconds for the adders and flip-flops using a halo of 2. The number on the column indicates how many times each cell was concatenated. No more than the concatenation of 4 cells was used given the enormous time it took to solve smaller cases except in the case of NOR4_X4 and OAI22_X4, where up to 8 cells were concatenated. Table 4.3 shows the routing time in seconds and the consumed memory maximum in GBytes.

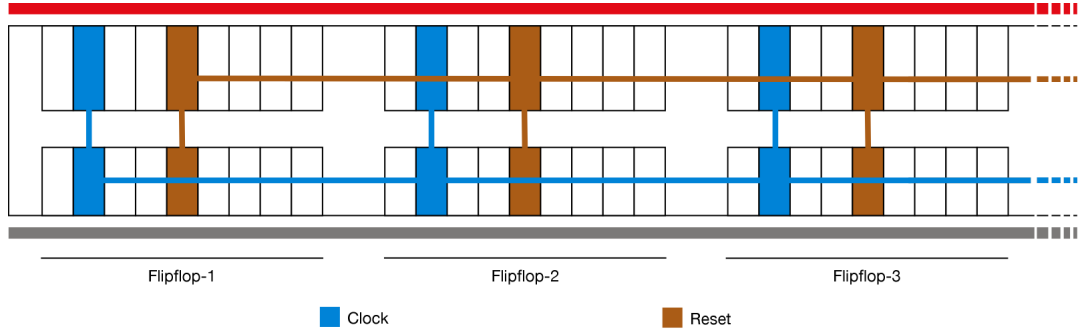


Figure 4.3: Concatenation of reset flip-flops

Cell	1	2	3	4
FA_X1	17,05	101,95	316,96	1440,18
DFF_X2	10,4	74,14	221,16	726,14
DFFS_X1	22,25	289,59	2644,04	14138,55
DFFS_X2	14,38	398,74	2018,35	8542,4

Table 4.2: Time (s) used to solve adders and flip-flop

4.2.1 Combinatorial Cells

When dealing with the combinational cells, the scan routing algorithm proved to be the best with no doubt. Each cell was divided in the number of original gates it contained and they were routed one after the other. Given that no signal is shared among them, these routings can be done very easily and with close to no extra congestion. Table 4.4 shows the time value that were obtained.

As it can be easily seen, they follow a linear relation with the number of cells that get routed. Another interesting result comes in terms of used memory. When routing all the gates no more than 300Mbytes were used, which is nothing compared to how much memory (up to 21 GB) was used by the biggest cells. This are good results but are applied to a very restricted

Cell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
NOR4_X4	4,8	21,6	71,53	127,23	295,46	482,79	695,27	962,64
	0,19	0,48	1,1	1,94	3,47	5,35	7,66	10,62
OAI22_X4	6,8	35,78	92,41	213,17	381,42	597,23	984,24	1407,86
	0,19	0,57	1,72	3,63	6,38	7,97	14,16	21,35

Table 4.3: Time (s) and memory (GB) used to solve combinational cells

Cell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
NOR4_X4	8,27	16,36	24,43	33,51	41,9	50,7	59,42	68,77
OAI22_X4	9,56	18,94	28,45	37,86	47,41	58,19	68,87	77,68

Table 4.4: Scan Routing - Time (s) used to solve combinational cells

Method	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Route	4,74	20,81	65,33	122,89	230,73	427,72	636,21	931,03
Route and optimize	20,84	144,92	184,59	410,05	713,03	1320,29	2056,7	2704,96
Scan Algorithm	38,69	121,65	192,64	281,01	377,2	466,75	588,72	707,04

Table 4.5: NORN_X4 gate - Time (s) used to solve combinational cells

and simple case.

Consider now the combinational cells where each cell shared a signal with the following one. This case is a little more complex but now the parts are not so independent from each other. NORN_X4 is a gate composed of the concatenation of NOR4_X4 gates sharing a signal as described before. Table 4.5 includes the time in seconds for finding a valid solution and additionally performing a optimization round with CellRouter. It also contains the time used for the scan algorithm to find a valid routing for the cell. It must be kept in mind that scan algorithm outputs already optimized cells given that it performs optimization in every partial routing.

Figure 4.4 shows a graphic displaying the values on the table. It can be seen how, despite performing worse in the case of the smaller cells, scan routing does a better job when they become bigger.

4.2.2 Full adders

The case for concatenated full adders is more complicated. Not only is a signal shared with each full adder on both sides, but also the full adder standard cell is a very congested one. When experimenting with the scan algorithm, many of the times the result was unsat. This is because some partial routing did a bad choice and the algorithm was not able to find a valid solution.

However, some results were achieved. With a halo of 20 and dividing the cell in the same number of concatenated full adders that it contained, the results are as shown in table 4.6.

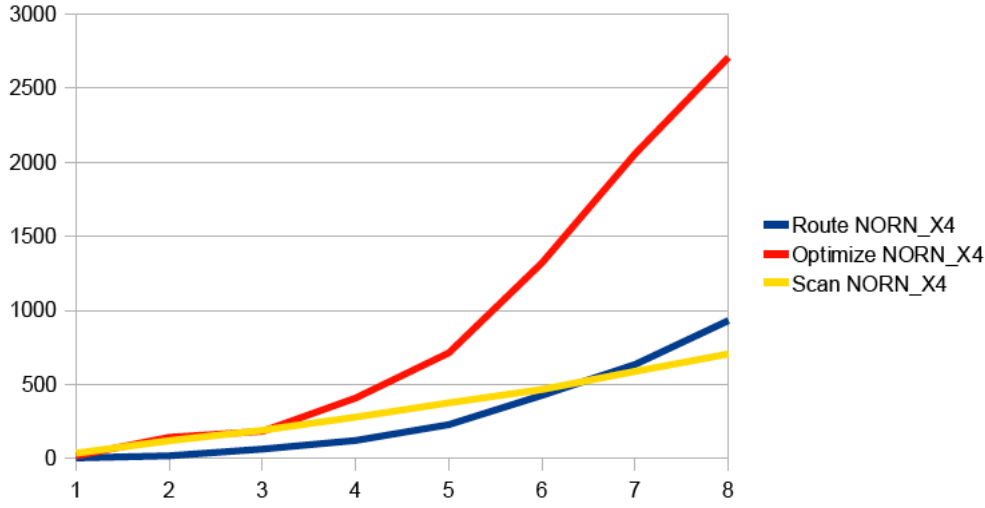


Figure 4.4: NORN_X4 gate - Solving time comparison

Method	1	2	3	4	5	6
Route	17,05	101,95	316,96	1440,18	2127,56	4985,79
Route and optimize	24,62	150,27	545,79	1636,00	2430,75	6697,23
Scan Algorithm	46,44	134,08	242,08	716,37	unsat	unsat

Table 4.6: FA_X1_N gate - Time (s) used to solve combinational cells

The trend of all methods can be seen in figure 4.5. Note that the execution time of the scan routing version outperforms the direct routing from 3 concatenated full adders on. When routing with different halos, normally the result happened to be unsatisfiability. Some tests were conducted not dividing the cell in the number of full adders it contained, but just dividing it into 2 or 3 slices. When routing with halo 6 and dividing the cell in two halves, FA_X1_3 was routed in 228,47 seconds and FA_X1_4 in 723,65 seconds, results which are similar to the ones presented above. An interesting case is the one of FA_X1_6, which was routed in 2725,6 seconds by dividing it in two parts and in 1181,99 seconds by dividing it in three. These are very good routing times compared to the original ones; however, the number of unsatisfiable final results is very high and several combinations of halo and number of divisions have to be explored to finally route the full adder cells.

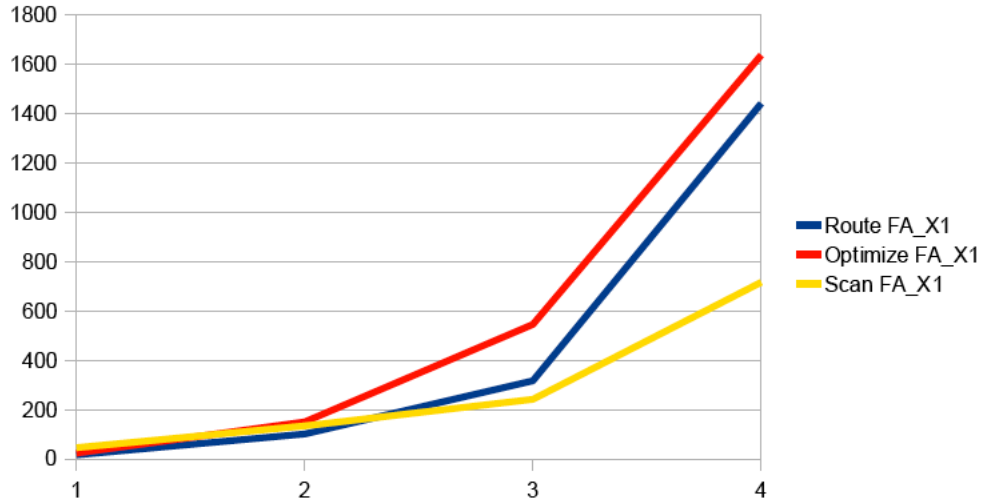


Figure 4.5: FA_X1_N gate - Solving time comparison

4.2.3 Filp-flops

The flip-flop cells are the most difficult to route. Results with flip-flop concatenations have reflected this clearly. These cells share from 1 signal, in the case of the DFF cells, to 5 signals, in the case of the SDFFRS cells. The more signals each concatenated cell has to share with the others, the more complex is for the complete cell to be routed. No cell where its components shared more than 2 elements was routable. In fact, considering only the concatenation of two flip-flop cells, the only ones that were routed are DFF_X1, DFFS_X1, DFFS_X2 and DFFR_X2. Even if trying routing them with different halos and algorithm, hardly any of them gave satisfiable solutions.

However, in the case of DFF_X2, it was routed using halo 50. The results can be seen on the following table.

[To be completed]

Chapter 5

Conclusions

Que s'ha aconseguit? Que no? Dificultats previstes, no previstes?

5.1 Cost study

To calculate the cost of the project we will consider two aspects. One will be the cost of the work done. The second is the cost of the equipment that has been used to develop the project. On the work costs:

Month	Work done	Man-hours
October 2012	Knowing problem. Environment.	30 h.
November 2012		40 h.
December 2012	C++ Porting.	40 h.
January 2013	Python Porting.	40 h.
February 2013	Cluster. Part Routing. Concatenation.	60 h.
March 2013		80 h.
April 2013		90 h.
May 2013	Meta-algorithms. Experiments.	120 h.
June 2013	Experiments. Project Report.	100 h.
		600 h.

Table 5.1: Time study

Considering a salary of about 25??? €per man hour, the total human cost of the project would be of 15000€.

As for the tools used during the project:

Tool	Cost
Laptop	1000€
LSI Cluster	303€
Ipython, texmaker...	Free
Total tool cost	1303€

Table 5.2: Tool cost study

When considering all costs together:

	Cost
Engineering costs	15000€
Tool costs	1303€
Total project cost	16303€

Table 5.3: Total costs

5.2 Future work

Now, here comes some future work.

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Glossary

CNF Conjunctive Normal Form. 18–21, 25

DAG Directed Acyclic Graph. 5

DNF Disjunctive Normal Form. 19

EDA Electronic Design Automation. 4, 5, 7, 16, 19

FPGA Field Programmable Gate Array. 6

HDL Hardware Description Language. 4

IC Integrated Circuit. 4, 7, 15, 16

ILP Integer Linear Programming. 27

RTL Register-Transfer Level. 4, 5

SAT Boolean Satisfiability Problem. 16–19

VLSI Very Large System Integration. 4, 13

Appendix A

Grid Format

In this annex the format of the grid files will be described. They are kept in a plain text file with the *.grd* or the *.rte* extension, depending on whether or not the cell has already been routed. The file consists of a series of headers followed by the information indicated in such header. The sections of the file are as follows.

Title

Title of the grid.

Sizes

One line with several sizes of the grid, including

- Width.
- Length.
- Height.
- Number of signals.
- Number of properties.
- Number of attributes.
- Number of iopins.

Signals

The list with the name of the signals included in the grid, on for each line.

Terminals

A boolean indicating if such signal is a terminal or not, on for each line.

Iopins

One line with the coordinates of all positions where iopins are considered legal.

Attributes

The list with the name of the attributes included in the grid, one for each line.

Properties

A list of properties of the grid, each line including its name and value.

Grid

The actual values of the grid points. Every line represents a vertex in the grid. For a given vertex, the signal present in said vertex and all edges of that vertex is represented with the index of the signal in the signal list. -1 indicates the position is free and -2 indicates the position is locked. In the case of attributes being present on the grid, they will also be expressed for every vertex and edge right after the corresponding signal.

Below comes a reduced example of a .grd file corresponding to an AND4 gate.

```

TITLE AND4.X1
SIZES
13 11 3 11 3 0 78
SIGNALS
VSS
VDD
A1
A2
A3
A4
ZN
ZN_neg
net_0
net_1
net_2
TERMINALS
0
0
1
1
1
1
1
1

```

```

0
0
0
0
IOPINS
0 0 2 1 0 2 2 0 2 3 0 2 4 0 2 5 0 2 6 0 2 7 0 2
    8 0 2 9 0 2 10 0 2 11 0 2 12 0 2 0 2 2 1 2 2
    2 2 2 3 2 2 [...]
ATTRIBUTES
PROPERTIES
PLACEMENT /some_path/some_name.pla
TEMPLATE /some_path/some_name.tpl
TIME 1979-01-00@12:00:00
GRID
-2 -2 -2 -2
1 -1 1 -1
-1 -1 -1
-2 -2 -2 -2
1 -1 1 -1
-1 -1 -1

[...]

0 -1
-2 -2 -2
0 0 -1
-1 -1
-2 -2 -2
0 0 -1
-1 -1
-2 -2
0 -1
-1
END

```


Appendix B

CellRouter Command Line Interface

In this appendix we will explain what the interface of CellRouter is. CellRouter admits the following command line arguments. All grid files follow the .grd structure exposed in appendix A.

Input

Path of the input grid file.

Output

Path of the output grid file.

Result

Path of the file where execution data such as partial times is stored.

Rules

Path of the file where the design rules are stored.

Rules set

Name of the rules set that will be used, located into the file mentioned above.

Halo

As explained before, given a subnet, all variables not included to in certain routing region defined by the subnet elements get a direct value of false. The halo metric, which is a positive integer, allows to expand such region. Sometimes, when the halo is too little, no solution is found because some subnet becomes unroutable. However, when the halo is big, the problem might become computationally hard.

Escapes

When no valid routing is found, if the escapes argument is given, the router will allow for some pins to be connected externally. The argument is the number of pins which are allowed to be left unconnected; it should be minimum.

Rounds

Number of rip-up and rerouting the iterations the optimization heuristic will make. More rounds usually means a better result at the expense of more computation time.

Packs

Number of signals that the optimization phase will rip-up and reroute at once.