# TritonRoute-WXL: The Open-Source Router With Integrated DRC Engine

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Abstract—Routing is a crucial stage in a modern design automation tool flow for advanced technology nodes. Works in the recent open literature tend to divide routing into separate global routing (GR) and detailed routing (DR) steps without addressing the correlation issues (e.g., local nets) between these two steps. In this work, we present TritonRoute-WXL (TR-WXL), a unified global-detailed router capable of delivering design rule check-clean routing solutions in commercial sub-16-nm technologies. The major contributions of TR-WXL include an end-to-end routing framework that closely connects GR and DR, and an improved DR flow. With a code release under a permissive open-source license, TR-WXL achieves unparalleled solution quality in terms of DR and global-detailed routing (GDR) as compared to known best solutions from all published academic routers.

Index Terms—Detailed routing, global routing, physical design, rip up and reroute, routing.

# I. INTRODUCTION

ROUTING is a crucial stage in a modern design automation tool flow for advanced technology nodes. A new advanced technology node enablement comes with increasingly complex design rules. These complex design rules introduce ever-greater challenges to routing, especially detailed routing (DR). The key element for DR to comprehend such complex design rules is a design rule check (DRC) engine. Although design rule checking has been studied for more than 30 years, to the best of our knowledge, a comprehensive documentation of implementation in the context of advanced-node DR is still missing. Moreover, for DR in advanced technology nodes, incremental capability of a DRC engine is highly desired due to the nature of per-net ripup-and-reroute in DR.

More complex design rules along with the decreasing feature sizes in new technology nodes make standard cell design

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more challenging as well. For older technology nodes, intracell connections are routed mostly at or below the first metal layer (M1). For most of the standard cell pins, they are preferred to be accessed by vias. However, for complex logical cells (e.g., Flip-Flops) in advanced technology nodes, standard cell designers increase the usage of M2. Some of such M2 usage forms standard cell pins that are intended to be accessed by planar (i.e., in-plane) wires. The resulting mix of via accesses and planar accesses for standard cell pins introduces extra challenges for global routing (GR) and DR correlation in terms of routing resource modeling.

The VLSI routing problem is commonly divided into two separate stages: 1) GR and 2) DR. Although both GR and DR problems have been extensively studied for decades, the connection and/or correlation between GR and DR is still an open question in the published literature. The two-stage (i.e., GR and DR) approach greatly simplifies the routing problem based on the assumption that the GR has a near perfect routing resource model that correlates with DR. Therefore, in practice, it is essential to have an accurate routing resource model that well reflects multiple aspects of routing resource in DR, including routing tracks, pin access, design rules, etc.

Another benefit of dividing the routing problem into two separate subproblems is that it enables academic researchers to focus on a specific subproblem. Various academic contests have strongly spurred academic research activities. The ISPD-2007 [21] and ISPD-2008 [20] GR contests, along with the recent ICCAD-2019 GR contest [9], have stimulated research efforts on GR. The ISPD-2018 [19] and ISPD-2019 [16] initial DR contests have stimulated academic efforts on DR.

A drawback of separating GR and DR research is that almost no academic works attempt to present an end-toend routing flow. Hence, the application of academic routing works to real-world IC physical design (P&R) is extremely difficult. Moreover, the direct application of academic routing works to industrial benchmarks in sub-65-nm nodes can commonly leave unacceptable amounts of design rule violations (DRCs). Even for academic contest benchmarks, existing known best (K.B.) routing solutions from academic routers can still have hundreds, if not thousands, of DRCs, which are far from "DRC converged" from an industry perspective. We further note that most contest-based academic GR works model routing resources based on adjacent GR cell (GCell) edges rather than the GCells themselves. Such routing resource modeling approach is straightforward for a contest. However, a GCell edge-based resource model makes

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considering the impact of local nets and pin accessibility difficult, since it only captures the inter-GCell routing resource.

Given the above, a capable, end-to-end routing flow is very meaningful for the field to: 1) bridge the gap between academic research efforts and industrial technology needs and 2) enable further academic research works (e.g., placement) that can be directly evaluated with a usable routing flow instead of academic contest-centric evaluation metrics. Toward this end, in this article, we present TritonRoute-WXL (TR-WXL), an open-source router for advanced VLSI technologies with integrated DRC engine. Our main contribution is an end-to-end routing framework that aims to narrow the gap between academia and industry. Highlights of our work are summarized as follows

- We propose an end-to-end routing framework. Our proposed framework is capable of well-correlating GR and DR to achieve faster routing convergence.
- We build an integrated DRC engine that provides DRC capability and enables further routing optimization with its incremental capability.
- 3) We present a GR resource model that comprehends various DR aspects to achieve better DR convergence.
- 4) We present an improved DR methodology that is capable of achieving faster DR convergence as compared to existing DR methodologies.
- 5) Our router is capable of delivering DRC-clean routing solutions for 15 out of the 20 ISPD-2018 and ISPD-2019 benchmark suite testcases. For the remaining, testcases, we still reach an unparalleled level of DRCs (<20).
- 6) To the best of our knowledge, we provide the first and the only free and open-source software (FOSS) router, which is capable of delivering DRC-clean routing solution in sub-16-nm technology nodes.

The remainder of this work is organized as follows. Section II provides a brief overview of previous works in the open literature. Section III presents our overall routing flow. Section IV details our GR methodology. Section V presents our geometry-based DRC engine (DRC engine). Section VI presents our improved DR flow. Section VII presents our experimental results using the official ISPD-2018 and ISPD-2019 benchmark suites. Finally, Section VIII concludes our work.

#### II. PREVIOUS WORKS

We classify relevant previous works on routing into three categories: 1) fundamental routing algorithms; and recent developments in 2) GR; and 3) DR.

Fundamental Routing Algorithms: Lee's algorithm [13] is the first breadth-first maze search algorithm that guarantees to find a minimum-cost path for a two-terminal routing problem if such a path exists. A\* search [22], and its bidirectional form [24], perform maze search focusing the direction toward the destination, hence reducing the effort to find the minimum-cost path. Kahng et al. [12] surveyed more recent developments in conventional and fundamental routing algorithms.

Recent Developments in GR: Many works have been developed based on the ISPD-2007 [21] and ISPD-2008 [20]

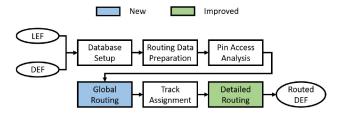


Fig. 1. Overall GDR flow.

GR contests. NCTU-GR 2.0 [15], NTHU-Route 2.0 [4], NTUgr [5] and FastRoute 4.0 [30] adopt similar flow of: 1) projecting 3-D routing problems into 2-D routing problems; 2) routing decomposed multipin nets; and 3) performing layer assignment to obtain 3-D GR solutions. FGR [26] performs GR on a 3-D graph based on the discrete Lagrange multiplier. GRIP [27] applies integer programming to solve the GR problem. MGR [29] adopts a multilevel approach to more efficiently explore the large routing solution space. The recent ICCAD-2019 GR contest [9] evaluates a GR solution by assessing the corresponding DR solution, to accurately capture routability from a DR perspective. CUGR [17], the contest's winning global router, performs a detailed routability-driven 3-D GR based on a probabilistic resource model.

Many works explore machine learning techniques, based on GR information, to predict the outcomes of subsequent DR stage. Qi *et al.* [25] and Zhou *et al.* [31] built multivariate regression models. Chan *et al.* [3] adopted the support vector machine for DRC distribution prediction. Xie *et al.* [28] trained a fully convolutional network for such prediction. Recently, Chen *et al.* [6] proposed a fully convolutional network-based plug-in to optimize GR solutions, thus reducing postroute DRCs.

Recent Developments in DR: The ISPD-2018 [19] and ISPD-2019 [16] initial DR contests have stimulated new academic efforts to address the DR problem, using industrial detailed challenges and benchmarks. Kahng et al. [12] surveyed recent ISPD contest-based works on DR, and presented a detailed router that adopts a region-based ripup-and-reroute methodology with the comprehensive cost scheme for design rule awareness. We perform routing in DRC-safe, nonoverlapping regions in parallel in our present work. Gonçalves et al. [10] presented an interval-based path search algorithm with design rule awareness.

# III. FLOW

In this section, we describe our global-detailed routing (GDR) flow. As shown in Fig. 1, our router takes industry-standard LEF and DEF files as inputs. Based on the input LEF and DEF files, we first set up the design database. Next, we perform preparation steps to generate essential data for routing. Then, we perform pin access analysis. Importantly, both GR and DR are based on the same pin access information. We next perform GR followed by track assignment. Finally, we perform DR to obtain a routed DEF. As compared to [12], the GR step is new and the DR step is significantly improved thanks to the optimizations enabled by our DRC engine.

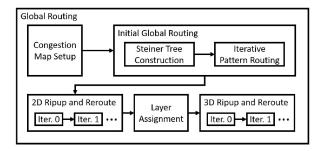


Fig. 2. GR flow.

#### IV. GLOBAL ROUTING

In this section, we describe our GR flow that operates on the GCells level. As shown in Fig. 2, we first set up the congestion map using our GCell-based routing resource modeling. Next, we perform initial GR, which consists of: 1) Steiner tree construction and 2) iterative pattern routing. Then, we perform 2-D ripup-and-reroute to resolve 2-D congestions. After that, we perform layer assignment to obtain an initial 3-D GR solution. Finally, we perform 3-D ripup-and-reroute to refine the 3-D GR solution.

# A. Routing Resource Modeling

We now describe our routing resource modeling that we use to analyze the routing resource of the design and set up the initial congestion map considering: 1) routing tracks; 2) design rules; and 3) pin accesses. In the GR context, routing resource is usually abstracted with two concepts: 1) *supply* and 2) *demand*. As pointed out in [2], the edge capacity model that is widely used in the ISPD GR contest-based works ignores the impact of local nets. In this work, we associate both supply and demand to the GCell itself, so as to enable a unified resource model that considers both global nets and local nets in terms of routing wire and pin access. We use a GCell size of 15×15 M1 track pitch in this work.

1) Supply: The conventional method of obtaining the supply of a GCell is to simply count the number of routing tracks within the GCell. In most cases, the supply can be calculated by dividing the size of the GCell by track-to-track pitch. However, such calculation can be optimistic due to its unawareness of design rules. For a given routing layer, the via to the upper routing layer can have a wide enclosure. Dropping such a via can block its neighboring routing tracks as shown in Fig. 3. Therefore, for routing layers (e.g., Metal6 in Fig. 3) that use such via with wide enclosure, the supply needs to be adjusted based on the track-to-via pitch, which is the minimum spacing required between the enclosure and a neighboring routing wire.

2) Demand: Demand of a GCell consists of a static part and a dynamic part. The static part has two sources—fixed objects (i.e., pin shapes and obstacles) and pin accesses. For each fixed object, it creates one demand for each routing track, which the fixed object overlaps or is too close to, because essentially the track is blocked by the fixed object. For each pin, its pin access creates an additional half unit of demand because if: 1) the pin is connected to another pin within the

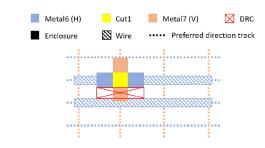


Fig. 3. Illustration of optimism in supply calculation for routing layer with wide via enclosure.

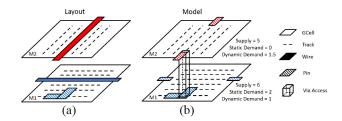


Fig. 4. Illustration of unified routing resource model. (a) Layout of a pin and a routing wire inside a GCell. (b) Corresponding modeled routing resource with boundary pins and via access.

same GCell, we consider that the two pins together consume one track for their local connection or if 2) the pin is connected to the outside of the GCell, we consider that there is a virtual boundary pin at the GCell boundary whereby the pin takes an outgoing route from the GCell. Hence, the pin and the virtual pin together create one demand. Note that the pessimism in routing layers with pin accesses allows more flexibility for DR to resolve pin access-related violations.

To better correlate GR and DR in terms of the routing resource consumed by pin access, we introduce a variable *viaAccessLayer*. If the access point is at the *viaAccessLayer*, the pin access creates demand on its upper layer as it indicates a via access; otherwise, the pin access creates demand on the current layer. We refer readers to [11] for more details of our pin access methodology.

The dynamic part of a GCell demand is purely contributed by routing wires that intersect with the given GCell. Following the idea of virtual boundary pin at the GCell boundary, each time a routing wire intersects with a GCell, it creates a boundary pin. Therefore, a routing wire that routes through a GCell creates two boundary pins, and in total creates one demand (i.e., routing resource of one track).

Fig. 4 illustrates our unified resource model. Fig. 4(a) shows the layout within a GCell that consists of two routing wires and a cell pin. Fig. 4(b) illustrates the corresponding resource model. For M1, a total of three units of demand consist of two static units from pin shapes and one dynamic unit from boundary pins. For M2, the via access to the M1 pin contributes half a unit of dynamic demand and the routing wire contributes one unit of the dynamic demand.

3) Blocked GCell: For the GCells that have greater static demands as compared to their supplies, we consider that such GCells are blocked. Blocked GCells are associated with a very large cost so that they should be avoided if possible.

#### Algorithm 1 GR Flow

```
1: Input: Congestion threshold congThres
   WorkerDBInit()
   while currIter < maxIter do
      for all net \in nets do
         if hasCongestion(net, congThres) then
6:
            addHistoryCost(net)
7:
            ripupNet(net)
8:
            routeNet(net)
9.
         end if
10:
      end for
11: end while
12: DBCommit()
```

We set up the initial congestion map in 3-D view and obtain a corresponding 2-D congestion map based on the 3-D congestion map. For each GCell, we project the supplies and demands from all routing layers to the 2-D plane. A GCell is considered as blocked if all of its corresponding GCells in the 3-D congestion map are blocked.

# B. Initial Global Routing

The initial GR consists of: 1) Steiner tree construction and 2) iterative pattern routing. We use FLUTE [7] to obtain a Steiner tree topology with low wirelength for each net. For the noncolinear edges from FLUTE, we perform iterations of L-shape pattern routing to minimize congestion.

#### C. 2-D Ripup-and-Reroute

Considering the limited solution space from L-shape pattern routing, it is likely to have overflow after initial GR. To deliver a solvable problem for layer assignment, we perform three *outer* iterations of 2-D ripup-and-reroute to resolve overflow in the 2-D view.

1) Region-Based Ripup-and-Reroute: In each outer iteration, we partition the design into nonoverlapping,  $200\times200$ -GCell-sized clips. For each clip, we create a GR worker that performs two *inner* iterations of ripup-and-reroute to resolve overflow. We shift the clips in different iterations with offsets of 0, -70, and -150 GCells to enable optimization at clip boundaries.

Algorithm 1 details our flow within a GR worker. Each GR worker takes a congestion threshold variable congThres as input. A congestion threshold variable *congThres* of 0.8 indicates that any GCell whose demand exceeds 80% of its supply is considered as having overflow. Line 2 initializes the worker database from the global database, including the netlist within the worker and a local congestion map. Lines 3–11 perform maxIter iterations of ripup-and-reroute. Within each iteration, lines 4–10 iterate over all nets within the worker. If a given net routes through any GCell that has overflow, line 6 increments history cost counter for all of the overflowed GCells that the given net routes through. Line 7 rips up the given net and updates the local congestion map accordingly. Line 8 reroutes the given net. Note that during reroute, the path search algorithm (details are as given in [12]) has the freedom to alter the topology of the given net in order to mitigate congestion. Line 12 writes back to the global database. We gradually decrease *congThres* from 1.0 to 0.8.

2) Routing Cost: We use five types of costs: 1) wirelength cost; 2) congestion cost; 3) history cost; 4) blockage cost; and 5) overflow cost. Different cost components have their own use cases. Wirelength cost helps  $A^*$  to minimize the overall wirelength when there is no congestion. Congestion cost helps  $A^*$  to avoid congestion. History cost helps  $A^*$  to avoid regions that have or had overflow. Blockage cost prevents  $A^*$  from reaching a blocked GCell. Overflow cost helps differentiate among GCells that have demands close to their supplies. The overall cost of routing from GCell i to GCell i+1 is the wirelength between GCell i to GCell i+1, weighted by the cost function in (1). The overall relation among wirelength cost, congestion cost and history cost is inspired by [18]

$$cost_{tot}(i) = 1 + w_1 \cdot cost_{cong} + w_2 \cdot cost_{hist} 
+ w_3 \cdot cost_{block} + w_4 \cdot cost_{overflow}$$

$$demand(i) / (supply(i) + 1)$$
(1)

$$cost_{cong}(i) = \frac{\operatorname{demand}(i)/(\operatorname{supply}(i) + 1)}{\left(1 + e^{\operatorname{supply}(i) - \operatorname{demand}(i)}\right)} \tag{2}$$

$$cost_{hist}(i) = histCnt(i) \cdot cost_{cong}(i)$$
 (3)

$$cost_{overflow}(i) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if demand}(i) \ge \text{supply}(i) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

We adopt a similar congestion cost function from [17]. The idea behind the congestion cost function is to allow very small cost when the demand is low and to noticeably increase the congestion cost as the demand approaches the supply. Variations of the congestion cost function with similar idea are seen in [4], [15], and [26]. We adopt a similar history cost from [18] and we use a history cost counter histCnt and increment the counter each time an overflow is encountered. The history cost counter histCnt is decayed (i.e., multiplied by a fractional value less than one) after each iteration. The weights of the cost components are chosen to achieve the following order for a blocked and overflowed GCell:  $w_1 \cdot \cos t_{\text{cong}} < w_2 \cdot \cos t_{\text{hist}} < w_4 \cdot \cos t_{\text{overflow}} \ll w_3 \cdot \cos t_{\text{block}}$ .

#### D. Layer Assignment and 3-D Ripup-and-Reroute

We adopt a simplified version of dynamic programmingbased layer assignment from [8]. We sort nets that need layer assignment using the score function from (5) as a "flexibility" measurement, which is similar to the one in [30]

$$Score(net) = \frac{HPWL(net)}{|pins(net)|}.$$
 (5)

Note that although an overflow-free 3-D routing solution can be constructed based on an overflow-free 2-D routing solution using layer assignment [26], layer assignment solution refinement is usually still desired to further improve the solution quality. Unlike the iterative reassignment approach in previous works (e.g., [8]), we perform 3-D ripup-and-reroute in smaller regions. The benefit of region-based 3-D ripup-and-reroute is that optimizations can be performed in parallel for improved scalability. For 3-D ripup-and-reroute, we partition the design into  $10 \times 10$ -GCell-sized clips for local optimization.

#### V. GEOMETRY-BASED DESIGN RULE CHECK ENGINE

In this section, we describe our integrated, geometry-based design rule checker (GC).

#### TABLE I DESIGN RULES

```
// metal laver
WIDTH defaultWidth ;
[MINWIDTH minWidth :]
SPACINGTABLE
PARALLELRUNLENGTH {length} ...
{WIDTH width {spacing} ...} ...; [SPACING minSpacing SAMENET [PGONLY] ;]
[MINSTEP minStepLength [MAXEDGES maxEdges];]
[SPACING eolSpacing ENDOFLINE eolWidth WITHIN eolWithin
 [PARALLELEDGE parSpace WITHIN parWithin [TWOEDGES] ;] ...
[CORNERSPACING
  {CONVEXCORNER | CONCAVECORNER} [EXCEPTEOL eolWidth]
  {WIDTH width SPACING spacing ;} ... ] ... ;
{SPACING cutSpacing [CENTERTOCENTER]
   ADJACENTCUTS numCuts WITHIN cutWithin [EXCEPTSAMEPGNET]
   PARALLELOVERLAP
   AREA cutArea] ;}..
[SPACING cutSpacingSN [CENTERTOCENTER] SAMENET;]
```

# A. Geometry Objects

A geometry object refers to a specific type of 2-D Manhattan shape(s). The basic Manhattan shapes include Segment, Rectangle, and Polygon (with holes). In this work, we use these four basic shapes as follows.

*Polygon Edge:* It is the edge of a polygon. A polygon edge consists of two consecutive points in the exterior (or interior) ring of a polygon, represented by using the segment geometry type. Each polygon edge is tied to the two polygon corners, which are the endpoints of the polygon edge.

*Polygon Corner:* It is the corner of a polygon. A polygon corner is composed of two consecutive polygon edges. Each corner is tied to the two polygon edges which it is connected to.

*Max Rectangle:* It is a maximal rectangle inside a polygon. For a given rectangle, the unique max rectangle is itself. In a polygon, there can be more than one max rectangles.

*Polygon Set:* It is the union of polygons. The resulting polygon set holds zero or more disjoint polygons, with or without holes. The polygon set supports polygon boolean operations (intersecting and merging).

#### B. Design Rules

The (industry-standard) LEF syntax [34] seen in the ISPD-2018 [19] and the ISPD-2019 [16] benchmark suites is summarized in Table I, where each *italic* word indicates a numerical value. Note the separate metal and cut layer rules.

The *minimum width* rule specifies the minimum width for a polygon. After slicing a polygon into rectangles (in both directions), the length along the slicing direction of any sliced rectangle must be greater than or equal to *minWidth*. If this rule is not specified, then we automatically generate one *minimum width* rule per metal layer using the *defaultWidth*. Fig. 5 shows polygon slicing and the critical dimension to check against *minWidth*.

The *metal short* rule specifies the short violation between two max rectangles of different nets if the two max rectangles overlap

The *nonsufficient-metal overlap* rule specifies the minimum diagonal length in the case of metal overlaps. If two max rectangles of the same net overlap, then the overlapping rectangle

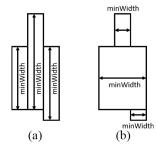


Fig. 5. Minimum width. (a) Polygon sliced vertically. (b) Polygon sliced horizontally.

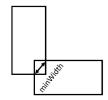


Fig. 6. Nonsufficient-metal overlap.

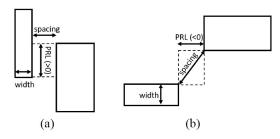


Fig. 7. PRL spacing. (a) Positive PRL. (b) Negative PRL.

(i.e., the intersection) must have diagonal length greater than or equal to *minWidth*, as shown in Fig. 6.

The parallel run length (PRL) spacing rule specifies the width- and PRL-dependent spacing between two max rectangles. If the maximum width of the two max rectangles is greater than width, and the PRL is greater than length, then the spacing between the two max rectangles must be greater than or equal to spacing. The first spacing value is the minimum spacing for a given width even if the PRL is not met. If SAMENET spacing is specified, then the spacing between the two max rectangles must be greater than or equal to the minimum of spacing and minSpacing. If PGONLY is specified, then minSpacing is only used if the two max rectangles belong to the same power or ground net. Fig. 7 illustrates the spacing for both positive and negative PRLs.

The *minimum step* rule specifies the shortest polygon edge length. The polygon edge length must be greater than or equal to *minStepLength*. If MAXEDGES is specified, then up to *maxEdges* consecutive edges that are less than *minStepLength* is allowed. A *maxEdges* value of 0 is equivalent to not specifying MAXEDGES.

The end-of-line (EOL) spacing rule specifies the spacing from an EOL edge to the exterior of the polygon. An EOL edge is a polygon edge that is shorter than *eolWidth*. The spacing to the exterior of a polygon must be greater than or equal to *eolSpacing* anywhere within (less than) *eolWithin*, as shown in Fig. 8(a). If PARALLELEDGE is specified, then the rule is applied only if there is a parallel edge (or, two parallel edges

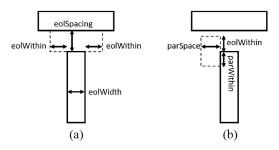


Fig. 8. EOL spacing. (a) Illustration of *eolWidth*, *eolWithin*, and *eolSpacing*. (b) Illustration of *parWithin* and *parSpace*.

if TWOEDGES is specified) that is (are) less than *parSpace* away, and is (are) also less than *parWithin* from the EOL edge, and *eolWithin* beyond the EOL edge, as shown in Fig. 8(b).

The *corner spacing* rule specifies the spacing from a corner to the exterior of a polygon. CONVEXCORNER (resp. CONCAVECORNER) specifies that the rule only applies to convex (resp. concave) corners. EXCEPTEOL specifies that if the corner is connected to an EOL edge that is shorter than *eolWidth*, then the rule does not apply. For the spacing table lookup, the corner spacing rule works in a similar way as for the PRL spacing rule except that: 1) the rule only applies for nonpositive PRL values and 2) the width only account for the exterior of a polygon.

The cut short rule specifies a short if the two cuts overlap. The cut spacing rule specifies the minimum spacing between two cuts. If CENTERTOCENTER is specified, then cutSpacing and cutWithin are calculated from cut center to cut center; otherwise, these values are calculated from cut edge to cut edge. If ADJACENTCUTS is specified, then the rule is applied only if there are numCut cuts that are less than cutWithin distance. If EXCEPTSAMEPGNET is specified, then the rule is applied only if the two cuts are not on the same power or ground net. If PARALLELOVERLAP is specified, then the rule is applied only if the two cuts have a PRL greater than 0. If AREA is specified, then the rule is applied only if any of the two cuts is greater than or equal to cutArea. If SAMENET is specified, then spacing between the two cuts must be greater than or equal to the minimum of cutSpacing and cutSpacingSN.

# C. Data Structure

In this section, we describe the data structures in GC.

1) Data Structure: Fig. 9 shows the data structure of layout information for design rule checking. On the top level, the layout information is organized per net, and then organized per layer. The metal layer and cut layer are organized differently.

For the layout information of a net on a metal layer, we initialize two polygon sets. The *polygon set* (*fixed*) is generated by applying the boolean OR operation to *nonrouter-created* shapes. The *polygon set* (*routing*) is generated similarly from *router-created* shapes. We then merge the two polygon sets into one set, and decompose it into disjoint polygons. Each disjoint polygon holds all of its max rectangles, polygon edges, and corners. Each max rectangle, polygon edge, or polygon corner is marked with either *fixed* status or *routing* status.

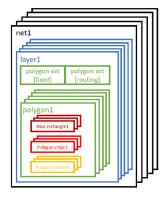


Fig. 9. DRC engine data structure of layout information.

As long as the max rectangle, polygon edge, or polygon corner can be derived from the polygon set (fixed), the shape is marked as *fixed*, otherwise, it is marked as *routing*.

For the layout information of a net on a cut layer, since each cut is supposed to be disjoint and rectangular, we skip the merging and decomposition steps. Each cut directly forms a polygon, holding one max rectangle, four polygon edges, and four polygon corners. Overall, since polygon sets, polygons, max rectangles, polygon edges, and polygon corners are all represented using vertex coordinates, the memory footprint is linear in the number of vertices of all geometries.

2) Region Query: After initialization of data structures, we build region queries for max rectangles and polygon edges. Note that we do not need a separate region query for polygon corners because polygon corners can be queried based on polygon edges.

Given a layer number and a bounding box, the region query engine returns all touching max rectangles (or polygon edges). For the fast operation, the region query engine only handles rectangular geometry objects, instead of polygons. In this work, we use R-trees from Boost for the region query.

#### D. Design Rule Checking and Filtering Flow

We now describe the design rule checking and filtering flow. Given an input design database, along with a specified bounding box and layer range, our design rule checking flow first initializes the necessary data structures to hold physical layout information. Next, we perform design rule checking and output *detailed-routing-fixable* design rule violation markers. A *marker* consists of a violation bounding box, layer number, net(s), and type.

*Input:* Design database, along with specified bounding box and layer range in which to perform design rule checking.

Constraints: Design rules.

Output: Detailed-routing-fixable design rule violation markers.

The underlying open-source shape engines (e.g., Boost R-tree, which we use) are well optimized, and further improvement of such shape engines is beyond the scope of this work. For each rule checking algorithm we present below, each early return statement indicates the filtering process, where a match to the rule does not necessarily result in a violation (*corner case*), or the violation is *nonfixable*.

#### **Algorithm 2** Check Metal Spacing

```
1: Input: Max rectangle m
   N \leftarrow \text{queryMaxRectangles}(m, maxDist)
3: for all n \neq m in N do
       if isOverlap(m, n) then
5.
           if getNet(m) = getNet(n) then
              checkNSMetal(m, n)
6:
7:
8:
              checkMetalShort(m, n)
9.
           end if
10:
11:
           checkPRL(m, n)
12:
        end if
13: end for
```

# Algorithm 3 Check Metal Short

```
1: Input: Max rectangles m, n
2: shortRect 	— getIntersection(m, n)
3: if isFixed(m) AND isFixed(n) then
4: return
5: end if
6: if isCoveredByPin(shortRect) AND isBlockage(m, n) then
7: return
8: end if
9: if not hasRouterCreatedShapes(shortRect) then
10: return
11: end if
12: addMarker(MetalShort)
```

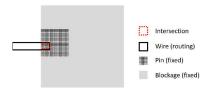


Fig. 10. Metal short filter: Short area is within pin.

1) Metal Spacing: Metal spacing rules consist of short rules, nonsufficient-metal overlap rules, and PRL spacing rules. The rule checking starts with a max rectangle m.

In Algorithm 2, given m, we first query all neighboring max rectangles within maxDist that could possibly cause design rule violations. For each max rectangle pair (m, n), if m and n overlap and belong to the same net, we check the nonsufficient metal overlap in line 6 (details described in Algorithm 4); if m and n overlap but belong to different nets, we check metal short in line 8 (details described in Algorithm 3); otherwise, we check PRL spacing in line 11 (details described in Algorithm 5).

Algorithm 3 describes the methodology to check short. Line 2 gets the bounding box of metal intersection. In lines 3–5, we skip the *nonfixable* violation if both max rectangles are *fixed*. Lines 6–8 deal with a special handling in LEF where metal short with blockage is allowed if it occurs fully within a cell pin, as shown in Fig. 10. In lines 9–11, we skip the *nonfixable* violation if *router-created* shapes do not intersect with the short region.

Algorithm 4 describes the methodology to check nonsufficient-metal overlap. Line 2 gets the overlapping metal bounding box. Lines 3–5 check if there is sufficient metal overlap. In lines 6–8, we skip the *corner case* if any max rectangle has a width less than *minWidth* because such max rectangle is purely the result of polygon decomposition, and does not fully cover any *router-created*, or *nonrouter-created* shapes. In this work, *minWidth*-related violations are

#### **Algorithm 4** Check Nonsufficient Metal Overlap

```
1: Input: Max rectangles m, n
2: nsRect ← getIntersection(m, n)
3: if diagLen(nsRect) ≥ minWidth then
4: return
5: end if
6: if width(m) < minWidth OR width(n) < minWidth then
7: return
8: end if
9: if hasValid3rdObj(nsRect) then
10: return
11: end if
12: addMarker(NonSufficientMetalOverlap)
```

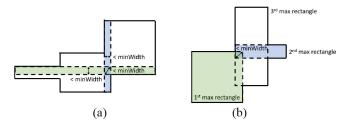


Fig. 11. Nonsufficient-metal overlap filters: (a) Max rectangles narrower than *minWidth*. (b) Two max rectangles bridged by a 3rd max rectangle.

captured by *minWidth* rule checking in Algorithm 6. Note that *minWidth* rule checking is based on sliced rectangles instead of max rectangles. In lines 9–11, we skip the *corner case* if the two max rectangles are covered by a third max rectangle. The third max rectangle must be of the same net and wider than *minWidth* to serve as a bridge. Fig. 11(a) and (b) illustrates the above two cases.

Algorithm 5 describes the methodology to check PRL spacing. Lines 2 and 3 get the actual and required spacing. Depending on whether the two max rectangles are of the same net, or at least one of them is a blockage, the required spacing value can be overridden by same-net spacing or minimum spacing. Lines 4-6 check if PRL spacing is satisfied. In lines 7–9, we skip the *nonfixable* violation if both max rectangles are *fixed*. Line 10 calculates the generalized intersection, i.e., the bounding box formed by the PRL and the spacing of the two disjoint max rectangles. In lines 11-13, we skip the corner case if the generalized intersection does not overlap with specific number(s) of valid polygon edges. If the spacing direction is diagonal, then any polygon edge is valid; otherwise, only polygon edges orthogonal to the spacing direction are valid. Fig. 12(a) shows two same-net max rectangles (light green and light blue) decomposed from a single polygon, with spacing smaller than the required spacing. We skip the corner case because in the orthogonal direction of spacing, there is no polygon edge overlapping with the generalized intersecting region. In lines 14–17, we skip the *nonfixable* violation because *nonrouter-created* shapes exclusively contribute to the violation. For example, in Fig. 12(b), we skip the nonfixable violation if no area in the darker green or blue region is exclusively from polygon set (routing).

2) Metal Shape: Metal shape rules consist of minimum width and step. Algorithm 6 describes the design rule checking for minimum width. In lines 2–11, given a polygon, we first slice the polygon vertically and check each sliced polygon separately. Lines 4–6 check whether the shape satisfies the

#### **Algorithm 5** Check PRL Spacing

```
1: Input: Max rectangles m, n

    2: actVal ← getActualSpacing(m, n)
    3: reqVal ← getRequiredSpacing(m, n)

4: if actVal \ge reqVal then
       return
6: end if
7: if isFixed(m) AND isFixed(n) then
       return
9: end if
10: prlRect \leftarrow getIntersection(m, n)
11: if not hasPolyEdge(prlRect) then
12.
        return
13: end if
14: maxWidth \leftarrow getMaxWidth(m, n)
15: if not hasExclusiveRouterCreatedShapesWithin(prlRect, maxWidth) then
16:
17: end if
18: addMarker(ParallelRunLengthSpacing)
```

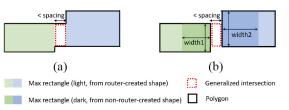


Fig. 12. PRL spacing filters. (a) No valid (vertical) polygon edges overlapped with the generalized intersection, given horizontal spacing direction. (b) Spacing violation contributed exclusively from *nonrouter-created* shapes.

# **Algorithm 6** Check Minimum Width (Vertical Slicing)

```
1: Input: Polygon m
2: N ← slicePolygon(m, vertical)
3: for all n in N do
4: if ySpan(n) ≥ minWidth then
5: return
6: end if
7: if not hasRouting(n) then
8: return
9: end if
10: addMarker(MinimumWidth)
11: end for
```

minimum width. In lines 7–9, we skip the *nonfixable* violation if the sliced rectangle does not overlap with *router-created* shapes. We repeat the above with slicing in the horizontal direction.

Algorithm 7 describes the design rule checking for minimum step. A minimum step consists of consecutive shorter-than-minStepLength edge(s) between two different not-shorter-than-minStepLength edges of a polygon. In lines 2–16, we get the first and last polygon edges that are larger than minStepLength, with all intermediate edges shorter than minStepLength. In lines 17–19, we skip the corner case if the first and last edges are the same. In lines 20–22, we check whether the number of short edges is allowed. In lines 23–25, we skip the nonfixable violation if the bounding box of short edges does not intersect with router-created shapes.

3) End-of-Line Spacing: Algorithm 8 describes the design rule checking for EOL spacing. Lines 2–4 check whether the input edge is an EOL edge. Lines 5–7 check if there exists parallel edge(s) in case the rule contains the PARALLELEDGE statement. Lines 8–18 check all potential EOL spacing violations between the EOL edge and an opposite edge on the exterior side of the polygon. In lines 11–13, we skip the

#### Algorithm 7 Check Minimum Step

```
1: Input: Polygon edge e
   if length(e) < minStepLength then
       return
4: end if
5: initializeBBox(bbox, endPoint(e))
6: beginEdge ← .
 7: numEdges \leftarrow 0
8: while beginEdge \neq nextEdge(e) do
       e \leftarrow \text{nextEdge}(e)
10.
        updateBBox(bbox, endPoint(e))
11:
        if length(e) < minStepLength then
12:
           numEdges \leftarrow numEdges + 1
13:
14:
           break
15:
        end if
16: end while
17: if e = beginEdge then
19: end if
20: if numEdges <= maxEdges then
22: end if
23: if not hasRouterCreatedShapes(bbox) then
24:
25: end if
26: addMarker(MinimumStep)
```

# Algorithm 8 Check EOL Spacing

```
1: Input: Polygon edge e
2: if len(e) \ge eolWidth then
       return
4:
   end if
5:
   if not hasParallelEdge(e) then
7: end if
8: E \leftarrow \text{queryPolygonEdge}(e, eolWithin, eolSpacing})
9: for all e' in E do
10:
        eolRect \leftarrow getIntersection(e, e')
11:
        if not isEmpty(eolRect) then
12:
13:
        end if
14:
        if not hasRouterCreatedShapes(e) then
15:
        addMarker(EndOfLineSpacing)
18: end for
```

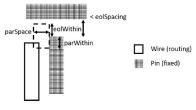


Fig. 13. EOL spacing violation between a *nonrouter-created* EOL edge and a *nonrouter-created* opposite edge, given the existence of a parallel edge from a *router-created* shape.

corner case if the generalized intersection of the EOL edge and the opposite edge contains any shape. In lines 14–16, we skip the *nonfixable* violation if none of the EOL edge, opposite edge, or parallel edge(s), if any, are from *router-created* shapes. Fig. 13 shows an EOL violation between two *nonrouter-created* shapes, given only the existence of a parallel edge from a *router-created* shape.

4) Cut Spacing: Check cut spacing follows a similar high-level procedure as shown in Algorithm 2 to first identify neighboring cuts, and then to identify whether two neighboring cuts potentially short or violate cut spacing. Algorithm 9 describes the design rule checking if the two cuts do not short.

# Algorithm 9 Check Cut Spacing

```
1: Input: Cuts m, n
2: actVal ← getActualSpacing(m, n)
3: regVal ← getRequiredSpacing(m, n)
4: if actVal ≥ reqVal then
5: return
6: end if
7: if isFixed(m) AND isFixed(n) then
8: return
9: end if
10: if not hasAdjCuts(m) OR not hasParallelOverlap(m, n) OR not hasArea(m, n) then
11: return
12: end if
13: addMarker(CutSpacing)
```

# Algorithm 10 Check Corner Spacing

```
1: Input: Polygon corner c
2: if c.type \neq cornerType then
3:
       return
4: end if
5: if len(c.prevEdge) < eolWidth OR len(c.nextEdge) < eolWidth then
6:
7: end if
8: N \leftarrow \text{queryMaxRectangles}(c, maxDist)
9: for all n in N do
        if isOverlap(c, n) OR hasPositivePRL(c, n) then
10:
11:
            continue
12:
        end if
13:
        if isFixed(c) AND isFixed(n) then
14:
            continue
15:
        end if
16:
        prlRect \leftarrow getIntersection(c, n)
17.
        reqVal \leftarrow getRequiredSpacing(n.width)
        actVal \leftarrow maxXY(prlRect)
18:
19
        if actVal \ge reqVal then
20:
            continue
21:
        end if
        addMarker(CornerSpacing)
23: end for
```

In lines 2–6, we check whether the cuts satisfy the spacing. Lines 7–9 skip the *nonfixable* violation if both cuts are *fixed*. In lines 10–12, we check whether the layout satisfies ADJACENTCUTS/PARALLELOVERLAP/AREA conditions (if specified).

5) Corner Spacing: Algorithm 10 describes the design rule checking procedure for corner spacing. Lines 2–4 check whether the input corner c has the same corner type specified in the rule. Lines 5–7 check whether the input corner connects to an edge that meets the EOL exception condition. Line 8 queries all max rectangles that potentially have violation with c. For all queried max rectangles, lines 10–12 check whether each max rectangle is overlapped with c or the max rectangle has positive PRL with c. In lines 13–15, we skip the max rectangle if both the max rectangle and c are fixed. Lines 16–22 compare required spacing value and actual spacing value, and add a DRC marker for corner spacing accordingly.

# E. Incremental DRC Checking Capability

Due to the net-by-net nature of ripup-and-reroute, it is desired for the DRC engine have incremental capability to update and check after the routing of a given net is modified. The incremental capability of a DRC engine can further enable optimizations in routing (e.g., our queue-based ripup-and-reroute strategy, via swapping, etc.). In our work, incremental DRC checking for a modified net can be achieved by: 1) updating the layout data structure of the modified net in the DRC engine and 2) perform DRC checking and filtering for the

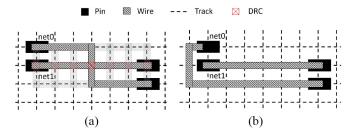


Fig. 14. Illustration of DRC convergence depending on net ordering. (a) Seven routing solutions with DRC. (b) DRC-clean routing solution.

modified net only, which can be achieved by skipping DRC checking if the input object(s) of Algorithms 2–9 does not belong to the modified net. In the following, we denote incremental DRC checking of a *net* with "GC(net)" and denote DRC checking for all nets with "GC()."

# VI. IMPROVED RIPUP-AND-REROUTE IN DETAILED ROUTING

We now present our improved ripup-and-reroute methodology in DR. We first illustrate potential inefficiency in the existing ripup-and-reroute flow. We then describe our queue-based ripup-and-reroute flow that improves DRC convergence.

# A. Inefficiency in Existing Ripup-and-Reroute Flow

The use of ripup-and-reroute to resolve DRC can rely heavily on net ordering. Fig. 14 illustrates potential inefficiency in resolving DRC in a 2-D routing scheme. If *net0* is always routed before *net1*, it takes seven iterations to explore routing solutions with DRC if the DRC does not provide sufficient cost [part (a) of the figure], before a DRC-clean solution is found [part (b)]. In a real-world scenario, the interactions among different nets are much more complicated than in Fig. 14. Hence, simple net ordering heuristics (e.g., shuffling) may not efficiently converge to a feasible solution. Fig. 14(a) illustrates how ripup-and-reroute flows in our [12] and other previous works suffer from being only aware of the short violation between *net0* and *net1*, while leaving unutilized the fact that *net0* is routed before *net1*. The latter is a key piece of information that can help improve DRC convergence.

# B. Queue-Based Ripup-and-Reroute Flow

In this work, we propose a queue-based ripup-and-reroute flow to improve the efficiency of ripup-and-reroute, thus improving DRC convergence and runtime. Rather than relying on ordering a certain number of nets and rerouting them in a batch followed by a full DRC on all objects, we introduce an incremental route-and-check flow, based on the use of a FIFO queue and the capability shown in Section V-E. Each net is rerouted and design rule-checked incrementally. When we pop a net from the queue, we perform either: 1) rerouting and incremental design rule checking or 2) design rule checking only. If new violations are found related to the popped net, we push relevant nets back to the queue. Each net in the queue is designated for a task that is either 1) or 2). Each element in the queue is a 3-tuple that contains a net, associated with: 1) task type (type 1) is *true* since it does perform reroute) and

#### Algorithm 11 Queue-Based Routing Flow

```
1: Input: Database, DRC markers markers
 2: WorkerDBInit()
3: aueue.update(markers)
 4: addMarkerCost(markers)
 5: while queue.size() do
      net = queue.front.net
      isRoute = queue.front.isRoute
 8:
      numReroute = queue.front.numReroute
 9.
       queue.pop_front()
10:
       if isRoute and numReroute < maxIter then
         ripupNet(net)
11:
12:
          subObjCost(net)
13:
         routeOneNet(net)
14:
         addObjCost(net)
15:
          decayMarkerCost()
16:
       end if
17:
       netMarkers = GC(net)
18:
       addMarkerCost(netMarkers)
19.
       queue.update(netMarkers)
20: end while
21: GCO
22: DBCommit()
```

2) number of times that the net has been rerouted when it is pushed to the queue. Note that if this number does not match the actual number of times that a net has been routed, we will skip routing the net. The next paragraphs discuss details of our ripup-and-reroute queue.

To illustrate how we push nets to the queue, we introduce the concept of aggressor and victim. Recall that in Fig. 14, net0 is routed first. When net1 is being routed, net1 attempts to avoid DRC, but the detour cost is so large that net1 routes across net0. In this case, we consider net0 as the aggressor and net1 as the victim because net0 invades the solution space where net1 can achieve DRC-clean routing solution. Therefore, the aggressor should be ripped up and rerouted next and the victim should be DRC checked after the aggressor is rerouted. In general, after a certain net is routed, if the net has any violation with other nets, the net that is lastly routed is considered as the victim and the other nets are considered as the aggressors. We first push all aggressors for task 1) and then push the victim for task 2).

We describe the queue-based ripup-and-reroute flow in Algorithm 11. Line 2 first initializes the worker database. Line 3 initializes the ripup-and-reroute *queue* with existing DRC markers. Line 4 adds the marker cost for all input markers. In lines 5–20, we perform iterative ripup-and-reroute until the *queue* is empty. Lines 6–8 obtain the information of the front element of the *queue*. Line 9 pops the front element. Lines 10–16 rip up and reroute the *net* and decays marker costs only if the *net* is set for reroute and it has not been rerouted more than *maxIter* times. Line 17 performs incremental DRC check for the *net*. For the DRC markers associated with the *net*, line 18 adds the marker cost and line 19 updates the *queue* accordingly. Line 21 performs DRC check for all nets in the worker and line 22 commits the routing from the worker.

We illustrate the operation of a ripup-and-reroute *queue* in Fig. 15 with three two-pin nets to be routed in 2-D. Each figure shows the layout and the corresponding elements in the *queue* before a net are to be routed. Each net has an associated counter to keep track of the number of times that the net

# Algorithm 12 Update Ripup-and-Reroute Queue

```
1: Input: Ripup-and-reroute queue queue, DRC markers
2: uniqueAggressors = ∅
3: uniqueVictims = ∅
4: for all marker ∈ markers do
5: for all aggressor ∈ marker.getAggressors() do
6: uniqueAggressors.insert(aggressor)
7: end for
8: uniqueVictims.insert(marker.getVictim())
9: end for
10: for all aggressor ∈ uniqueAggressors do
11: queue.push_back(<aggressor, true, 0>)
12: end for
13: for all victim ∈ uniqueVictims do
14: queue.push_back(<victim, false, 0>)
15: end for
```

has been routed. Such a counter prevents a net from being: 1) routed more than the number of allowed ripup-and-reroute iterations (i.e., *maxIter*) and 2) routed unnecessarily for a DRC that has already been addressed [see Figs. 15(e) and (f), for example]. Fig. 15(a) shows that the three nets are initially routed in the order of *net0*, *net1*, and *net2*. Fig. 15(b) illustrates the layout and *queue* after *net0* is routed. Fig. 15(c) shows that after *net1* is routed, there is a short violation between *net0* and net1. Considering that net0 is routed before net1 and net0, as the aggressor, is pushed to the back of the queue for rerouting. net1, as the victim, is pushed to the back of the queue for DRC checking. Similarly, Fig. 15(d) shows that after *net2* is routed, net2 has a short violation with net0. Therefore, net0 is pushed to the back of the *queue* for rerouting and *net2* is pushed to the back of the queue for DRC checking. Fig. 15(e) shows that after *net0* is rerouted, both of the two short violations are resolved and DRC checking from net1 does not detect new violations. Fig. 15(f) shows that when *net0* is popped from the *queue*, the routing is skipped because *net0* has been routed twice while the routing counter indicates that net0 is pushed to the queue for routing when it was routed only once. At this point, the last two elements in the queue are popped without pushing new elements to the queue. Therefore, the routing for the three two-pin nets is completed.

# C. Ripup-and-Reroute Queue Update

Algorithm 12 describes the procedure to populate the ripupand-reroute *queue* based on a given list of DRC markers. Lines 2 and 3 initialize a *uniqueAggressors* set and a *unique-Victims* set. Pushing redundant element into the *queue* can cause exponential increase in size of the *queue*. Lines 4–9 iterate all DRC markers, obtain the aggressors and the victim of each marker, and update the two aforementioned sets accordingly. Lines 10–12 push all unique aggressors involved in DRC markers to the *queue* for ripup-and-reroute. Lines 13–15 push all victims of the markers to the *queue* for DRC checking.

#### VII. EXPERIMENTS

We implement our router in C++ with LEF/DEF parser [34] and Boost C++ libraries [32]. We enable multi-threading with OpenMP [35]. We perform experiments using the ISPD-2018 and ISPD-2019 benchmark suites [16], [19] with overall 20 testcases in 65-, 45-, and 32-nm technology nodes, with up to 899K standard cells and 895K nets.

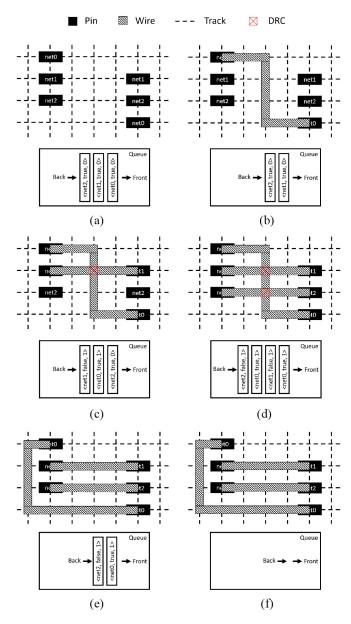


Fig. 15. Illustration of ripup-and-reroute queue on three two-pin nets.

Compared to the ISPD-2018 benchmark suite, the ISPD-2019 benchmark suite includes more advanced routing rules, which make the testcases more challenging and closer to real-world routing problems. We summarize the benchmark information in Table II. Additionally, we perform an experiment with a foundry 14-nm technology node and a commercial 14-nm library.

In the following, based on the ISPD-2018 and ISPD-2019 benchmark suites, we perform: 1) DRC convergence comparison between DR results with and without ripup-and-reroute queue; 2) comparison between our DR work and K.B. DR solutions from all published academic detailed routers; 3) DRC convergence comparison between our GR solutions and contest GR solutions; and 4) comparison between our GDR flow and the other academic GDR flow. We perform additional DR experiment with an RISC-V processor [23] in 14 nm. All experiments are performed using eight threads on an Intel Xeon 2.4-GHz server.

TABLE II BENCHMARK INFORMATION [16], [19]

Benchmark	#std	#blk	#net	#pin	#layer	Tech.					
ISPD-2018											
ispd18_test1	8879	0	3153	0	9	45nm					
ispd18_test2	35913	0	36834	1211	9	45nm					
ispd18_test3	35973	4	36700	1211	9	45nm					
ispd18_test4	72094	0	72401	1211	9	32nm					
ispd18_test5	71954	0	72394	1211	9	32nm					
ispd18_test6	107919	0	107701	1211	9	32nm					
ispd18_test7	179865	16	179863	1211	9	32nm					
ispd18_test8	191987	16	179863	1211	9	32nm					
ispd18_test9	192911	0	178857	1211	9	32nm					
ispd18_test10	290386	0	182000	1211	9	32nm					
		ISP	D-2019								
ispd19_test1	8879	0	3153	0	9	32nm					
ispd19_test2	72094	4	72410	1211	9	32nm					
ispd19_test3	8283	4	8953	57	9	32nm					
ispd19_test4	146442	7	151612	4802	5	65nm					
ispd19_test5	28920	6	29416	360	5	65nm					
ispd19_test6	179881	16	179863	1211	9	32nm					
ispd19_test7	359746	16	358720	2216	9	32nm					
ispd19_test8	539611	16	537577	3221	9	32nm					
ispd19_test9	899341	16	895253	3221	9	32nm					
ispd19_test10	899404	16	895253	3221	9	32nm					

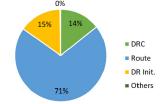


Fig. 16. DR runtime breakdown.

# A. Queue-Based Ripup-and-Reroute DRC Convergence Study

In this section, we compare the DR based on ISPD-2018 and ISPD-2019 benchmark testcases using our detailed router with and without the ripup-and-reroute queue enablement that is described in Section VI-B. For the version that is without the ripup-and-reroute queue, we use the ripup-and-reroute strategy in [12] while keeping every other aspect the same as the version using ripup-and-reroute queue. For this experiment, we set a runtime limit of 24 h. Table III gives the wirelength, via count, DRC count, and runtime comparisons. We can observe that with the ripup-and-reroute queue, we are able to converge on DRC (i.e.,  $\#DRC \le 50$ ) for all testcases. Moreover, for testcases where both versions converge on DRC, ripup-andreroute queue can reduce runtime by an average of 33.5% (up to 85.4%). Since the DR runtime is closely proportional to the overall number of ripup-and-reroutes, the queue-based ripupand-reroute strategy's more adaptive control on net ordering can achieve DRC convergence more efficiently.

#### B. DR Comparison to Known Best Solutions

In this section, we compare our DR solution to the K.B. from all published academic detailed routers based on ISPD-2018 and ISPD-2019 benchmark testcases. We determine the K.B. solutions based on the DRC from the official ISPD-2019 evaluator, which is more comprehensive as compared to the ISPD-2018 evaluator. Therefore, for all ISPD-2018 benchmark testcases, the K.B. solutions are from TritonRoute (TR) [12]. For all ISPD-2019 benchmark testcases, the K.B.

 $TABLE\ III \\ DR\ COMPARISON\ OF\ WIRELENGTH,\ VIA\ COUNT,\ DRC\ COUNT,\ AND\ RUNTIME\ BETWEEN\ TR-WXL\ AND\ TR$ 

Benchmark	Wirelength (µm)		Via count		DRC co	unt	Runtime (s)		
Dencima K	TR-WXL	TR	TR-WXL	TR	TR-WXL	TR	TR-WXL	TR	
ispd18_test1	86440	86533	35406	35466	0	0	23	33	
ispd18_test2	1572819	1573641	359982	360246	0	0	171	278	
ispd18_test3	1751762	1752728	355758	356233	0	0	352	1757	
ispd18_test4	2621560	2623393	723918	725856	4	10	1428	9762	
ispd18_test5	2763875	2766182	889397	891318	0	0	452	538	
ispd18_test6	3551801	3555372	1369517	1372596	0	0	683	875	
ispd18_test7	6475058	6481683	2228504	2235910	0	0	1337	1479	
ispd18_test8	6503655	6510428	2245489	2252179	0	1	1226	1454	
ispd18_test9	5433658	5439825	2238810	2244617	0	0	1106	1528	
ispd18_test10	6760047	6768788	2419830	2432820	1	927	1652	86400	
ispd19_test1	63151	63194	37194	37246	0	1	84	93	
ispd19_test2	2470886	2471332	787289	790438	0	0	1053	1289	
ispd19_test3	82414	82538	63852	64532	0	1	221	488	
ispd19_test4	3001424	3007376	1046033	1073473	0	0	539	3121	
ispd19_test5	474240	474846	165477	166581	0	0	55	64	
ispd19_test6	6537203	6537793	1928030	1930705	3	2	2138	2934	
ispd19_test7	12157089	12159501	4511435	4516760	0	0	4003	5324	
ispd19_test8	18694589	18696221	6980714	6977429	0	0	5463	7125	
ispd19_test9	28280152	28281276	11581559	11574769	0	0	8846	12167	
ispd19_test10	27957631	27955832	11711427	11699849	2	12	9827	13842	

#### TABLE IV

DR COMPARISON OF WIRELENGTH, VIA COUNT, DRC COUNT, RUNTIME, AND 8T RUNTIME SPEEDUP BETWEEN TR-WXL AND K.B. DR SOLUTION. RUNTIME (S) IS OBTAINED WITH EIGHT THREADS. FOR 8T SPEEDUP (×) OVER 1T, NOTE THAT ISPD18\_TEST1—ISPD18\_TEST10 RESULTS ARE FROM [12] WITHOUT MULTITHREADING SUPPORT AND ISPD19\_TEST1—ISPD19\_TEST10 RESULTS ARE FROM [14] WITH MULTITHREADING CAPABILITY

Benchmark	Wirelength (µm)		Via count		DRC count		Runtime (s)		8T speedup (×)	
Deliciiliai K	TR-WXL	K.B.	TR-WXL	K.B.	TR-WXL	K.B.	TR-WXL	K.B.	TR-WXL	K.B.
ispd18_test1	86440	86025	35406	32912	0	0	23	61	4.14	1.00
ispd18_test2	1572819	1570651	359982	319855	0	17	171	614	5.95	1.00
ispd18_test3	1751762	1750028	355758	319456	0	142	352	824	4.70	1.00
ispd18_test4	2621560	2620890	723918	695901	4	326	1428	1866	2.77	1.00
ispd18_test5	2763875	2763186	889397	831775	0	2	452	1722	5.83	1.00
ispd18_test6	3551801	3557744	1369517	1241673	0	8	683	2682	5.79	1.00
ispd18_test7	6475058	6482066	2228504	2041794	0	13	1337	5023	5.66	1.00
ispd18_test8	6503655	6513278	2245489	2062997	0	6	1226	4916	6.25	1.00
ispd18_test9	5433658	5442527	2238810	2049839	0	5	1106	4378	5.89	1.00
ispd18_test10	6760047	6769942	2419830	2226243	1	1681	1652	10129	5.02	1.00
ispd19_test1	63151	64258	37194	36797	0	183	84	118	4.07	2.91
ispd19_test2	2470886	2496133	787289	811080	0	10475	1053	1260	6.02	4.52
ispd19_test3	82414	84216	63852	65501	0	667	221	56	3.62	3.03
ispd19_test4	3001424	3049119	1046033	1031333	0	2612	539	1328	5.34	3.76
ispd19_test5	474240	478046	165477	153504	0	450	55	115	5.00	5.25
ispd19_test6	6537203	6606659	1928030	1998487	3	8441	2138	2213	6.11	5.19
ispd19_test7	12157089	12255810	4511435	4833913	0	32067	4003	5288	6.27	4.97
ispd19_test8	18694589	18847259	6980714	7365292	0	20213	5463	7401	6.22	4.86
ispd19_test9	28280152	28539077	11581559	12249476	0	36729	8846	10166	6.31	4.79
ispd19_test10	27957631	28217821	11711427	12544541	2	36930	9827	10665	5.96	4.83

solutions are from Dr. CU 2.0 (CU) [14]. Table IV gives the wirelength, via count, DRC, and runtime comparisons. We achieve DRC-clean routing for 16 testcases and reach near-DRC-clean (<5) routing for the remaining testcases. For 19 out of the 20 testcases, we complete DR faster than the K.B. Overall, we achieve an average of 99.93% (up to 100%) DRC reduction with an average of 30.36% (up to 83.69%) runtime reduction.

We now discuss the runtime and multithread scalability of our current work. For runtime study, Fig. 16 illustrates the breakdown of the overall DR runtime of four parts—initialization, routing, design rule checking, and others. For multithread scalability study, we measure both single-thread and eight-thread (8T) runtime and calculate the 8T speedup. Table IV gives the multithread speedup comparison. We can

observe that our work can achieve an average of  $5.35\times$  (up to  $6.31\times$ ) 8T speedup. Note that TR [12] does not have multithreading support and Dr. CU 2.0 (CU) [14] has multithreading capability.

# C. GR-Based DR Convergence Study

In this section, we compare the DR convergence for all ISPD benchmark testcases. Using our detailed router, we perform DR based on: 1) our GR solutions and 2) ISPD GR solutions. Note that the ISPD Contest GR solutions are produced from a commercial routing tool [16], [19]. The contests include both high-quality solutions, which "contains DRC-free solution strictly within the GR solution," and low-quality solutions, which "has congestion issue that needs DR to escape from the

TABLE V
DR COMPARISON OF WIRELENGTH, VIA COUNT, DRC COUNT, AND RUNTIME OF TR-WXL BASED ON TR-WXL GR SOLUTIONS
AND ISPD CONTEST GR SOLUTIONS

Benchmark	Wirelength (µm)		Via count		DRC co	unt	Runtime (s)		
Dencima K	TR-WXL	ISPD	TR-WXL	ISPD	TR-WXL	ISPD	TR-WXL	ISPD	
ispd18_test1	85473	86440	35944	35406	0	0	20	23	
ispd18_test2	1561031	1572819	368689	359982	0	0	152	171	
ispd18_test3	1748277	1751762	366529	355758	0	0	634	352	
ispd18_test4	2608384	2621560	740861	723918	0	4	328	1428	
ispd18_test5	2739911	2763875	898203	889397	0	0	422	452	
ispd18_test6	3517814	3551801	1396604	1369517	0	0	588	683	
ispd18_test7	6419424	6475058	2282448	2228504	0	0	1306	1337	
ispd18_test8	6450911	6503655	2362445	2245489	2	0	1379	1226	
ispd18_test9	5387783	5433658	2343351	2238810	0	0	1004	1106	
ispd18_test10	6826702	6760047	2565965	2419830	0	1	1540	1652	
ispd19_test1	62910	63151	38524	37194	0	0	52	84	
ispd19_test2	2460555	2470886	864450	787289	2	0	834	1053	
ispd19_test3	82209	82414	63958	63852	0	0	184	221	
ispd19_test4	3405837	3001424	1177000	1046033	0	0	2002	539	
ispd19_test5	491124	474240	154285	165477	0	0	74	55	
ispd19_test6	6513294	6537203	2060740	1928030	0	3	1795	2138	
ispd19_test7	12042594	12157089	3895912	4511435	1	0	3768	4003	
ispd19_test8	18493958	18694589	6426055	6980714	0	0	4474	5463	
ispd19_test9	27964407	28280152	10673809	11581559	1	0	7205	8846	
ispd19_test10	27608084	27957631	10038232	11711427	11	2	8639	9827	

TABLE VI Comparison of Wirelength, via Count, DRC Count, and Runtime Between TR-WXL and CUGR-and-Dr. CU 2.0 (CU) Flow

Benchmark	Wirelength (µm)		Via count		DRC c	ount	Runtime (s)		
Dencimark	TR-WXL	CU	TR-WXL	CU	TR-WXL	CU	TR-WXL	CU	
ispd18_test1	85473	85737	35944	35231	0	1554	24	13	
ispd18_test2	1561031	1559703	368689	365203	0	19207	167	143	
ispd18_test3	1748277	1753358	366529	361170	0	20718	653	201	
ispd18_test4	2608384	2634776	740861	727706	0	865	395	494	
ispd18_test5	2739911	2753732	898203	927063	0	897	507	1038	
ispd18_test6	3517814	3559424	1396604	1388121	0	720	671	785	
ispd18_test7	6419424	6488953	2282448	2289149	0	831	1503	2114	
ispd18_test8	6450911	6549767	2362445	2346013	2	897	1600	2057	
ispd18_test9	5387783	5436327	2343351	2341125	0	212	1093	1416	
ispd18_test10	6826702	6811827	2565965	2496257	0	1279	1730	2378	
ispd19_test1	62910	64101	38524	40687	0	126	55	116	
ispd19_test2	2460555	2500531	864450	842725	2	9500	876	1349	
ispd19_test3	82209	83901	63958	66492	0	491	190	98	
ispd19_test4	3405837	2994923	1177000	917094	0	2677	3756	3081	
ispd19_test5	491124	481224	154285	138834	0	492	300	320	
ispd19_test6	6513294	6629404	2060740	2190998	0	3223	1920	2180	
ispd19_test7	12042594	12243117	3895912	4073497	1	19578	3987	5381	
ispd19_test8	18493958	18721818	6426055	6830217	0	13463	4754	7458	
ispd19_test9	27964407	28301705	10673809	11394780	1	27058	7645	10290	
ispd19_test10	27608084	28047248	10038232	10331459	11	32292	9181	10297	

GR solution to fix DRC violations." Table V shows the DR results from the two sets of GR solutions. We can observe that compared to the ISPD contest GR solutions, our GR solutions enable faster DR convergence for 16 out of the 20 ISPD test-cases while maintaining a similar final DRC count. Note that although our GR solutions yield less wirelength and more via count for most testcases as compared to the ISPD GR solutions, the DR solutions based on our GR solutions achieve (avg. 1.10%) less wirelength and (10.93%) less via count for the four largest testcases. Overall, the faster convergence based on our GR solutions suggests the importance of correlation between GR and DR. Our results suggest that using consistent routing data (e.g., pin access location, pin access layer, etc.) is essential to improve GDR convergence.

# D. GDR Flow Comparison

In this section, we compare our GDR flow to an academic GDR flow composed of CUGR and Dr. CU 2.0. Table VI shows the GDR comparison of wirelength, via count, DRC

count, and runtime between TR-WXL and CUGR-and-Dr. CU 2.0 flows. We can observe that TR-WXL consistently achieves considerably lower DRC count with comparable, if not better, wirelength and via count. Meanwhile, for 15 out of the 20 ISPD testcases, TR-WXL completes routing with shorter runtimes. Overall, TR-WXL achieves routing solutions with an average of 99.99% (up to 100%) fewer DRCs with similar average wirelength, via count, and runtime compared to the CUGR-and-Dr. CU 2.0 flow.

#### E. Detailed Routing RISC-V Core in 14 nm

We perform a DR experiment by integrating our detailed router with OpenROAD physical design tool flow [1] in a 14-nm foundry technology node using a commercial 14-nm library. We perform our experiment using a global routed RISC-V core [23] (517K instances; runtime 20 361 s). The result confirms that our router is capable of delivering DRC-clean routing result in the sub-16-nm commercial context.

#### VIII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this work, we presented TR-WXL, an open-source router. For DR, with an integrated DRC engine along with the optimizations enabled by the DRC engine in DR, we delivered DRC-clean DR solutions for 16 of the 20 ISPD contest benchmark testcases. This translates to an average of 99.93% reduction of DRCs as compared to K.B. DR solutions from all published academic detailed routers, along with an average runtime reduction of 30.36%. Besides fulfilling the future works in [12], we present an end-to-end GDR flow. For GDR, compared to the other academic GDR flow, TR-WXL achieves an average of 99.99% reduction of DRCs. Our preliminary study also shows that TR-WXL is capable of delivering DRC-clean routing solution for sub-16-nm foundry technology nodes. Our future research directions include: 1) more sophisticated GR net ordering and 2) topology control during ripup-and-reroute in GR.

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