Simultaneous Shield Insertion and Net Ordering for Capacitive and Inductive Coupling Minimization

KEVIN M. LEPAK, MIN XU, JUN CHEN, and LEI HE University of Wisconsin

In this article, we first show that existing net ordering formulations to minimize noise are no longer sufficient with the presence of inductive noise, and shield insertion is needed to minimize inductive noise. Using a K_{eff} model as the figure of merit for inductive coupling, we then formulate two simultaneous shield insertion and net ordering (SINO) problems: the optimal SINO/NF problem to find a minimal area SINO solution that is free of capacitive and inductive noise, and the optimal SINO/NB problem to find a minimal area SINO solution that is free of capacitive noise and is under the given inductive noise bound. We reveal that both optimal SINO problems are NP-hard, and propose effective approximate algorithms for the two problems. Experiments show that our SINO/NB algorithm uses from 51% to 82% fewer shields compared to uniform shield insertion and net ordering (US + NO), and uses from 4% to 47% fewer shields compared to separated net ordering and shield insertion (NO + SI). Furthermore, the SINO/NB solutions under practical noise bounds use from 38% to 61% fewer shields compared to SINO/NF solutions, and use up to 36% fewer shields compared to the theoretical lower bound for optimal SINO/NF solutions. Moreover, we show that the K_{eff} model has a high fidelity versus the noise voltage computed using accurate RLC circuit models and SPICE simulations. To the best of our knowledge, it is the first work that presents an in-depth study on the automatic layout optimization of multiple nets to minimize both capacitive and inductive noise.

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Address for Correspondence: Lei He, UCLA, Electrical Engineering Department, 66-117 Engineering IV, Box 951594, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1594; email: lhe@ee.ucla.edu.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In deep sub-micron (DSM) designs, the wire thickness is often larger than the wire width, and the spacing between adjacent wires is often smaller than the distance between adjacent metal layers. This makes the coupling capacitance (herein referred to as Cx) between adjacent wires on the same layer larger than the ground capacitance (the sum of area and fringe capacitance), and in turn makes the coupling noise between adjacent wires a concern for DSM designs. Because the coupling capacitance between nonadjacent wires is negligible, we may permute the net ordering (or track assignment) so that sensitive nets¹ are not adjacent in order to reduce the impact of coupling noise. The net ordering (track assignment) problem has been studied in Gao and Liu [1993, 1994], Xue and Kuh [1997], Yim and Kyung [1999], Kay and Rutenbar [2000], and Chang and Cong [2000], under the assumption that coupling is determined only by directly adjacent nets. However, this assumption is no longer true if we consider coupling inductance. This has been illustrated by the experiment in He et al. [1999], where the coupling of an 18-bit bus is computed by SPICE simulations using an RLC interconnect model. This experiment assumes that all signal wires in the bus are switching simultaneously, except that the two central wires which are quiet victims. As shown in Table I, when there are no shielding wires (in short, shields), the noise in the quiet victims is 0.71 V. When two or five shields are inserted uniformly, the noise is drastically reduced to 0.38 V and 0.17 V, respectively. In either case, the shields are not adjacent to the victims and therefore do not change the Cxcoupling for the victims. Hence, the noise reduction is achieved by reducing the inductive coupling (i.e., Lx coupling) through shield insertion. As explained and illustrated through this example, Lx coupling depends on both adjacent and non-adjacent nets. It is assumed in He et al. [1999] that all nets are sensitive to one another, and the uniform shield insertion scheme is used without net ordering. As shown later in this paper, uniform shield insertion may lead to larger routing area compared to simultaneous shield insertion and net ordering (SINO) in the general case where not all nets are sensitive to one another.

This article studies the SINO problems for capacitive and inductive coupling minimization. The rest of this article is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces the formula-based K model, the K_{eff} model based on it, and formulates the SINO/NF and SINO/NB problems. Section 3 presents properties and algorithms for the two SINO problems. Section 4 details the experimental settings and compares results obtained by different problem formulations and algorithms. Section 5 studies fidelity of the K_{eff} model to the SPICEcomputed noise voltage for SINO solutions. Section 6 concludes the article. An extended abstract about the earlier results of this study appeared in Lepak and He [2000].

¹See Section 2.1.2 for the definition of net sensitivity.



Fig. 1. A cross-sectional view of a coplanar interconnect structure with a shield inserted.

2. PROBLEM FORMULATIONS

2.1 Preliminaries

2.1.1 Coplanar Interconnect Structures. Throughout this work, we consider only parallel coplanar interconnect structures with all wires having the same length. These are characterized as a number of signal wires and power/ground wires which run parallel in the same layer. We give an example of this structure in Figure 1. In the figure, P and G represent the power and ground grids (P/G grids), s represents signal wires (denoted as *s*-wire), and g is a *shield* that often has similar width as an s-wire and is connected to P/G grids. Both P/G grids and shields provide dedicated current return paths for signals, and are denoted as *g*-wire's in this article. We use the terms "wire" and "net" interchangeably.

An interconnect structure can be represented by a string, where each symbol stands for an s-wire or a g-wire. For example, the interconnect structure in Figure 1 can be represented by gssgssg if we do not distinguish these s-wires (or alternatively, g2sg2sg). If we label the s-wires from left to right as s_1 , s_2 , s_3 and s_4 , then the string $gs_1s_2gs_3s_4g$ is a unique representation of a net ordering and shield insertion solution (referred to as a SINO solution or a SINO string). In this paper, a SINO string implicitly includes shields (the power and ground grids) as its first and last elements. These P/G grids are shield resources, but are not considered explicitly in solution size computations as they are present generally, with or without noise considerations. The "size" of a SINO solution can be determined directly from the length of the SINO string. As an example, consider the following: $\langle g \rangle s_1 s_3 g s_2 s_4 s_5 g s_7 s_6 s_0 \langle g \rangle$. This string represents an eight (signal) bit interconnect structure with two g-wires (plus two implicit g-wires for the P/G grids denoted as $\langle g \rangle$). Note that we can apply our formulations and algorithms to be presented to any group of wires which may contain pre-routed g-wires more than just a pair of P/G grids. We call the group of wires sandwiched between adjacent g-wires a *block*, and the number of s-wires in a block as the block size. A block can be represented as a substring of a SINO string (i.e. the first block of the above string would be written as s_1s_3).

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Fig. 2. Illustration of net sensitivity. The y-axis indicates signal (voltage) level and the x-axis indicates time. The switching event on the aggressor induces a noise voltage in the two victims as shown. For $victim_1$, the noise pulse occurs within its sampling window-hence the aggressor and $victim_1$ are sensitive. For $victim_2$, the noise pulse does not occur during its sampling window-hence the aggressor and $victim_2$ are not sensitive.

As in the original SINO string, the g-wires on each end are implicit with the substring.

2.1.2 Net Sensitivity. We define two nets s_1 and s_2 to be sensitive to each other if a switching signal on s_1 will cause s_2 to malfunction (due to extraordinary crosstalk or delay variation) or vice-versa. Further, we assume that two nonsensitive nets do *not* switch simultaneously. Net sensitivity is depicted graphically in Figure 2.

The sensitivity for all s-wires in a given problem can be represented compactly with a sensitivity matrix S of size $n \times n$, where n is the number of s-wires and an entry S_{ij} of 1 or 0 in location (i, j) indicates that s_i and s_j are sensitive or not sensitive, respectively, to one another. By definition, the matrix must be symmetric (i.e., $S_{ij} = S_{ji}$). For all formulations, we assume that an appropriate sensitivity matrix indicating design parameters and net relationship semantics is given a priori.

2.1.3 Characteristics of Inductive Coupling. For the formulation of the SINO problems, we assume that current will return from shields and therefore we assume a loop inductance model.² Under such a model, we illustrate the characteristics of inductive coupling in Figure 3, where we show the mutual inductance from the leftmost s-wire to all other s-wires. Cases (a) and (b) in the figure show two interconnect structures, g 18sg and g6sg6sg6sg, respectively. As shown by (a) where there is no shield between s-wires, the mutual inductance decreases slowly from left to right. This explains why net ordering is not effective to reduce inductive coupling. In comparing (a) with (b) in the figure, the mutual inductance between wires separated by shields becomes much smaller compared with coupling to wires within the same block. Therefore, shields are effective to reduce inductive coupling.

In this article, we use the coupling coefficient between two s-wires to characterize the inductive coupling effect between them. The coefficient is

 $^{^{2}}$ However, we use the Partial Equivalence Circuit (PEEC) model [Ruehli 1974; He et al. 1999] and SPICE simulations to verify our modeling and problem formulation in Section 5. The PEEC model does not assume any current return path, and is widely regarded as an accurate circuit model.

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Fig. 3. Illustration of mutual inductive coupling from a signal wire (s_1) to other signal traces for two coplanar structures. Structures (a) and (b) show coupling from s_1 to all other s-wires as a function of wire-order number for the g18sg and g6sg6sg6sg structures, respectively.

Table II. Coupling Coefficients between One s-Wire and Other s-Wires Inside a Block for the $g(6sg)^2 6sg$ Structure

w, d, t, l, f	K_{12}	K_{13}	K_{14}	K_{15}	K_{16}
0.8, 0.8, 2.0, 2000, 30	0.71 (0%)	0.53(0%)	0.41 (0%)	0.31 (0%)	0.21 (0%)
0.8, 0.8, 2.0, 1000, 30	0.72(1.4%)	0.54(1.8%)	0.42(2.3%)	0.32(2.7%)	0.22(3.0%)
0.8, 1.6, 2.0, 2000, 30	0.71(0.0%)	0.52(1.8%)	0.41(0.0%)	0.30~(2.7%)	0.20 (3.0%)
1.6, 0.8, 2.0, 2000, 30	0.71(0.4%)	0.54(1.9%)	0.42(2.3%)	0.32(2.3%)	0.21(2.6%)
0.8, 0.8, 1.0, 2000, 30	0.73(2.8%)	0.54(1.8%)	0.42(2.3%)	0.32(2.7%)	0.22 (3.0%)
0.8, 0.8, 2.0, 2000, 50	0.74~(4.2%)	0.55~(3.8%)	0.43(4.9%)	0.32~(2.3%)	0.22(3.0%)

defined as

$$K_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{\sqrt{l_i \cdot l_j}} \tag{1}$$

where m_{ij} is the mutual inductance between s_i and s_j , and l_i and l_j is self inductance for s_i and s_j , respectively.

Computing the coupling coefficient (K_{ij}) efficiently is of paramount importance in our coupling minimization techniques. Therefore, we need to understand the variance of the coupling coefficient under differing technology parameters to efficiently approximate it. To explore this variance, we present K_{ij} 's of the same $g(6sg)^2 6sg$ (i.e., g 6sg 6sg 6sg) structure under varying technology parameters of width (w), thickness (t), length (l), spacing of g-wires and s-wires (d), as well as frequency (f). The resulting values for K_{ij} 's are computed by the three-dimensional field solver FastHenry [Kamon et al. 1994] and are presented in Table II.

We use the following parameters for high performance global interconnects as the baseline case: $w = 0.8 \ \mu m, d = 0.8 \ \mu m, t = 2.0 \ \mu m, l = 2000 \ \mu m,$ and f = 30 GHz,³ where the parameters correspond to wire width, spacing, thickness, length, and frequency (see row 1 in the table). When we change the

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³30 GHz here is the operating frequency used by FastHenry to calculate inductance. It is defined as $0.34/t_r$ with t_r being the signal transition time [Lillis et al. 1999].

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Fig. 4. Illustration of K_{ij} computation. N_i and N_j are two signal wires in the same block sandwiched by ground wires g_l and g_r . f(i) and g(j) are two linear interpolation functions as shown by the sloping dotted line. The mutual inductive coupling is given by the mean of f(i) and g(j).

wire length from 2000 μm to 1000 μm (comparing rows 1 and 2 in the table), the maximum difference for K_{ij} is only 3.0%. When we change the wire spacing from 0.8 μm to 1.6 μm (comparing rows 1 and 3 in the table), the maximum difference for K_{ij} is only 3.0%. When we change the wire width from 0.8 μm to 1.6 μm (comparing rows 1 and 4 in the table), the maximum difference for K_{ij} is only 2.6%. When we change the wire thickness from 2.0 μm to 1.0 μm (comparing rows 1 and 5 in the table), the maximum difference for K_{ij} is only 3.0%. When we change the frequency from 30 GHz to 50 GHz (comparing rows 1 and 6 in the table), the maximum difference for K_{ij} is only 4.9%. This data shows that the coupling coefficient is relatively independent of technology parameters, making it a desirable metric for measuring inductive coupling. In Section 5 we will further explore the correlation of the weighted sum of K_{ij} (defined as K_{eff} model in Section 2.1.5) to actual observed noise voltage.

2.1.4 Modeling of Inductive Coupling Coefficient. We use a formula-based K model to compute the inductive coupling coefficient between two s-wires. When s-wires i and j are in different blocks, the coupling coefficient $K_{ij} = 0$ or a small constant. When the two s-wires are in the same block, as shown in Figure 4 where N_i and N_j are track ordering numbers for the two s-wires, and g_l and g_r are track ordering numbers for the two edge g-wires, we consider the following cases for the coupling coefficient computation: when i = j, the mutual inductance is reduced to self inductance and $K_{ii} = 1$ by definition; when N_i (or N_j) becomes g_l (or g_r), because we assume the loop inductance model with current returning from shields, inductive coupling K_{ij} is between the two segments of the same current loop and is 0 under the loop inductance model; for other general cases, $K_{ij} = K_{ji}$ should be between 0 and 1, and is approximated by

$$K_{ij} = \frac{f(i) + g(j)}{2},$$
(2)

where $f(i) = \frac{(N_i - g_l)}{(N_j - g_l)}$ and $g(j) = \frac{(g_r - N_j)}{(g_r - N_i)}$ are two linear interpolation functions. In Figure 5, we compare K_{ij} calculated by (2) and FastHenry. We consider

1000 cases for different wire widths, thicknesses, lengths, spacings, and frequencies as summarized in Table III. The shielding configurations are randomly

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Fig. 5. Comparison between (2) and FastHenry computed K_{ij} under different bus configurations and wire geometries.

Table III. The Parameters Used in FastHenry to Compute K_{ij} for Comparison Against the Formula-Based K Model

wire width (μm)	0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 1.4, 1.6
wire thickness (μm)	0.8, 1.0, 1.2
wire length (μm)	1000, 1200, 1500, 1800, 2000
wire spacing (μm)	0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 1.4, 1.6
frequency (GHz)	30, 40, 50
block size	[3, 10]

generated with block size between 3 and 10. In the figure, the x-axis is the coupling coefficient given by FastHenry and the y-axis is the value calculated by (2). We divide the data points into two groups in Figure 5: one for adjacent signal nets, and the other for nonadjacent nets. Clearly, (2) approximates FastHenry consistently *within* each group. Therefore, we propose to improve the modeling accuracy by,

$$K_{ij} = \alpha \frac{f(i) + g(j)}{2},\tag{3}$$

where α is a empirical constant, and $\alpha = 0.76$ for adjacent s-wires, and $\alpha = 0.67$ for non-adjacent s-wires otherwise.⁴

To verify the accuracy of the formula-based K model in (3), we generate another set of more than 3000 data points in Figure 6. The three dotted lines indicate when the formula-based K model overestimates by 20%, is exactly equal to, or under-estimates by 10%, the true value of K_{ij} computed by FastHenry. We observe that all data points essentially fall within the +20% to -10% range. Therefore, the formula-based K model is reasonably accurate and tends to be conservative.⁵ The computational simplicity of the formula-based K model,

⁴Because the SINO formulation prevents an aggressor being adjacent to a victim in order to achieve a solution free of capacitive noise, only the model for nonadjacent s-wires is needed by the SINO problem to be presented in Section 3.

⁵In practice, a model for K_{ij} is accurate enough whenever it leads to a high fidelity for the K_{eff} model to be defined in Section 2.1.5. Therefore, the high fidelity shown in Section 5 further validates the effectiveness of our formula-based K model.

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Fig. 6. Comparison of K_{ij} between (3) and FastHenry under different bus configurations and wire geometries. The dotted lines indicate errors in the formula-based K model of +20%, 0%, and -10%.

along with its technology independence (shown previously), makes it highly desirable, and therefore we use it extensively in the problem formulations and algorithms to be presented.

2.1.5 K_{eff} Model as a Figure of Merit for Inductive Coupling Considering Net Sensitivity. We define the effective inductive coupling, or the effective K model (in short, K_{eff} model) as

$$K_i = \sum_{j \neq i} S_{ij} \cdot K_{ij}, \tag{4}$$

where s_j is another s-wire. We will use the K_{eff} model as the figure of merit for the inductive noise that is induced on s_i . In Section 5 we will show that the K_{eff} model has a high fidelity over the SPICE-computed noise voltage for SINO solutions under distributed RLC circuit models.

2.2 Optimal SINO Problems

We say that an s-wire s_i is capacitive noise free if it is not directly adjacent to any other s-wire s_j that is sensitive to it. Similarly, we say that s_i is inductive noise free if it does not share a block with any other sensitive wire s_j . We say a placement P (or equivalently, a SINO solution, or a SINO string) is noise free if, and only if, all nets s_i within P are free of both capacitive noise and inductive noise. With respect to these concepts, we define the following SINO problem to eliminate Cx and Lx noise and call it the noise-free SINO problem (SINO/NF).

FORMULATION 1 (OPTIMAL SINO/NF PROBLEM). For a given placement P, find a new placement P' by simultaneous shield insertion and net reordering such that P' is noise free and the total area of P' is minimal.

In general, the SINO/NF problem is over-constrained and may lead to overdesigned solutions, as will be shown in Section 4. To address more realistic design constraints, we define the following SINO problem to meet a given noise bound and call it the noise-bounded SINO problem (SINO/NB).

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FORMULATION 2 (OPTIMAL SINO/NB PROBLEM). For a given placement P, find a placement P' with the minimum area by simultaneous shield insertion and net re-ordering such that any s_i in P' is free of capacitive noise and its inductive coupling to all sensitive wires s_i is less than a given noise bound.

Therefore, we solve the following optimal SINO/NB problem under the K_{eff} model (defined as SINO/NB- K_{eff} problem): For a given placement P, find a new placement P' by simultaneous shield insertion and net re-ordering such that P' is free of capacitive coupling and the inductive coupling K_i satisfies $K_i \leq \bar{K}_i$ for any s-wire s_i where \bar{K}_i is given a priori and is a measure of inductive noise that can be tolerated in s_i to maintain correct operation. Throughout the rest of this article, we use a uniform value of \bar{K}_i denoted as K_{th} (a noise threshold for K_i). However, our formulation, algorithms, and implementation are all able to handle non-uniform K_{th} 's. We only consider insertion of minimum width shields because it has already been shown that, in general, using additional shields is more effective than increasing the shield wire width [He et al. 1999].

We attempt to solve both the SINO/NF problem and SINO/NB- K_{eff} problem in Section 3. For simplicity of presentation, we use SINO/NB as shorthand for SINO/NB- K_{eff} throughout the remainder of the article. Note that our formulation and algorithms to be presented are applicable to inductive noise models more accurate than the K_{eff} model.

3. PROPERTIES AND ALGORITHMS

3.1 Properties of SINO/NF and SINO/NB Problems

THEOREM 1. The Optimal SINO/NF problem is NP-hard.

PROOF. The optimal graph coloring problem determines a minimum number of colors and a color assignment for nodes in a graph such that no two adjacent nodes have the same color [Garey and Johnson 1979]. Given a graph coloring problem, we may always formulate a SINO/NF problem to solve it.⁶ In the SINO/NF problem, an s-wire is a node in the graph, and two s-wires are sensitive to one another if there is an edge between two corresponding nodes in the graph. By definition, a solution to the SINO/NF problem separates all sensitive s-wires into different blocks. If we assign a unique color to each and every block, then the optimal SINO/NF solution with the minimal number of blocks solves the optimal graph coloring problem. Because the optimal graph coloring problem is NP-complete [Garey and Johnson 1979], the SINO/NF problem is NP-hard.

Because we can view the SINO/NF problem as a special case of the SINO/NB problem with the minimum noise bound (for SINO/NF, the noise bound is zero), we have the following theorem concerning the complexity for the

 $^{^{6}}$ We are free to consider only inductive coupling in this case (and capacitive coupling is automatically included) because any capacitively coupled nets will always be inductively coupled (for SINO/NF).

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Fig. 7. Sensitivity graphs: (a) Both the maximum clique size and the number of blocks are two; (b) The maximum clique size is two, but the minimum number of required blocks is three.

SINO/NB problem:

THEOREM 2. The optimal SINO/NB problem is NP-hard.

Given that the SINO/NF and SINO/NB problems are NP-hard, we will focus on developing heuristic/approximate algorithms to solve the problems with satisfactory results. Before we present these algorithms, we first introduce the concept of a sensitivity graph. We can build a sensitivity graph such that a node corresponds to an s-wire and an edge exists between two nodes if and only if the correspondent s-wires are sensitive to one another. We then propose the following lower bound for the optimal SINO/NF solution:

THEOREM 3. The maximum clique size in the sensitivity graph is a lower bound of the number of blocks required in all optimal SINO/NF solutions.

The theorem follows directly from the formulation of the sensitivity graph and the definition of the maximum clique in a graph [Garey and Johnson 1979]. To illustrate this conclusion and further show that the maximum clique size is not an upper bound for the total number of blocks in optimal SINO/NF solutions, we present two examples in Figure 7. For the sensitivity graph in Figure 7(a), it is easy to verify that the graph has a maximum clique size of two. An optimal SINO/NF solution is ABgCDE, and there are two blocks in the solution. The sensitivity graph in Figure 7(b) is nearly the same as in Figure 7(a), except that an edge is added between C and D, that is, nets C and D are sensitive to each other. The reader may easily verify that indeed this graph still only has a maximum clique size of two, but it is not possible to find a SINO/NF solution for this graph with two blocks. One optimal solution, consisting of three blocks, is AEgCDgB. Therefore, the maximum clique size is not a strict lower bound of the number of blocks required in an optimal SINO/NF solution. Equivalently, it is not a strict upper bound on the number of shields. Comparisons between the lower bound and the number of shield wires used will be presented in Section 4 to illustrate the quality of our approximate algorithms.

3.2 Algorithms for SINO Problems

We develop graph coloring based algorithm (SINO/GC algorithm) to solve the SINO/NF problem, and greedy shield insertion (SI) algorithm, net ordering for minimizing Cx noise followed by SI algorithm (NO+SI algorithm), and

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 \begin{array}{l} \mbox{Graph Coloring (GC) Algorithm:} \\ \mbox{Given an initial sensitivity graph $S$ of signal nets:} \\ MC = Max\_Clique(S) \\ P = new placement with $MC$ blocks \\ \mbox{for each s-wire $s_i$} \\ \mbox{for each block $b$ in $P$ (sorted from largest to smallest) \\ $ if $Compute\_Block\_Coupling(s_i) == 0$ \\ $ Insert $s_i$ into $b$ \\ $ next $s_i$ \\ endfor \\ $ Insert\_Shield(end\_of\_placement)$ \\ $ Insert $s_i$ into the new block \\ endfor \\ \end{array}
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Fig. 8. Graph coloring based SINO/NF algorithm (SINO/GC).

simulated annealing based algorithm (SINO/SA algorithm) for the SINO/NB problem. We will compare different problem formulations and algorithms in Section 4. We consider Lx and Cx noise explicitly in all algorithms. In order to more succinctly describe the algorithms and not clutter them with trivial details, we also define the following operations and quantities:

- —*Insert_Shield*(*a*). Given a placement *P* of size *m*, move all wires (s-wires and g-wires) at locations a, a + 1, ..., m 1 to locations a + 1, a + 2, ..., m in the placement, creating a new placement *P'*. Then, insert a g-wire at location *a* in *P'*. Finally set P = P'.
- -Compute_Coupling(s_i). Given a placement P of size m, for each $s_k \neq s_i$ in the current block in P, if s_i is sensitive to s_k compute the K_{eff} between s_i and s_k . Sum the K_{eff} over all s_k 's.
- —*Compute_Block_Coupling*(s_i). For each s_i in the current block, find the maximal K_i computed by *Compute_Coupling*(s_i) and return it (the maximal K_i for any s-wire within the block).
- $-Max_Clique(S)$. Compute the maximum clique in sensitivity graph S.
- -Compute_Placement_Cost(). Compute the cost for a placement. Details of this are given in Section 3.2.3.1.

With these definitions in place, we can succinctly describe our SINO/NF and SINO/NB algorithms. The SI and SINO/GC algorithms can be described easily and intuitively. SINO/SA is slightly more complicated, hence we assume that the reader is familiar with SA (for a discussion of SA in other VLSI design contexts, see Sechen [1997] and Sherwani [1999]).

3.2.1 Graph Coloring Based SINO/NF Algorithm. In Figure 8, we present the graph coloring based SINO (SINO/GC) algorithm. This algorithm attempts to approximate a solution to the weighted graph coloring problem by using the maximum clique as a starting point. It works in the following way: First, determine the maximum clique in the sensitivity graph S. We saw in Section 2 that this is a lower bound for the number of shields required in the SINO/NF problem. Let m be the maximum clique size. We first create a placement with m blocks. We then take each net s_i and try to place it into a block with no other sensitive wires. If we cannot do this, we simply create a new block and place s_i into it.

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 \begin{array}{l} \text{SI Algorithm: Given a placement } P \\ \text{for each s-wire } s_i \text{ in } P \text{ at location } a\text{:} \\ \text{ if } s_j \text{ at location } P(a-1) \text{ is sensitive to } s_i \\ & Insert\_Shield(a) \\ BC = Compute\_Block\_Coupling(s_i) \\ \text{ if } (BC > K_{th}) \\ & Insert\_Shield(a) \\ P(a+1) = s_i \\ \text{ endfor} \end{array}
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Fig. 10. Simulated annealing based SINO/NB algorithm (SINO/SA).

Note that the SINO/NF problem can be mapped into the graph coloring problem as outlined in the proof of Theorem 3, and then be solved using the graph coloring algorithms given in Coudert [1997] and Kirovski and Potkonjak [1998].

3.2.2 Greedy Shield Insertion SINO/NB Algorithm. In Figure 9, we present the greedy shield insertion (SI) algorithm. The essence of the algorithm is the following: Run through the given placement P. If we encounter two adjacent sensitive nets, insert a shield between them. Also, at each location in the placement, calculate the maximum value of K_i that would exist in the current block if we allowed net s_i to become a member. If K_i is greater than K_{th} , then create a new block.

Because one shield is needed for every pair of adjacent sensitive wires, the solution given by the SI algorithm depends on the initial placement. Obviously, the number of shields can be reduced by first running existing net ordering algorithms to re-order nets so that no sensitive nets are adjacent to each other, then invoking the SI algorithm. This leads to the NO + SI algorithm.

3.2.3 *Simulated Annealing Based SINO/NB Algorithm*. In Figure 10, we present the simulated annealing based SINO (SINO/SA) algorithm. We give the details of our SINO/SA algorithm in the following subsections:

3.2.3.1 Cost Function. Compute Cost(P) computes the cost for a placement P. The cost is the weighted sum of the following components: (i) Cap_violation:

```
 \begin{array}{l} Total\_Violation\_Figure = 0; \\ \text{for each } s_i \text{ in placement } P \\ \quad \text{if } Compute\_Coupling(s_i) > K_{th} \\ \quad Total\_Violation\_Figure + = (1 + K_{eff} - K_{th})^3 - 1 \\ \text{end} \end{array}
```

Fig. 11. Computation of the Inductance-Violation-Figure.

total number of nets that are adjacent to their sensitive nets in P; (ii) Area: total number of g-wires present in P; (iii) Ind_Noise: total number of $K_i > K_{th}$ violations in P; and (iv) Inductance Violation Figure. It is computed for a placement as shown in Figure 11. The purpose of the Inductance Violation Figure is to penalize a placement for the magnitude of K_{th} violations. Its usage (as opposed to simply forbidding placements P' that have K_{th} violations) allows the algorithm to potentially trade inductive noise violations for smaller overall placement size depending on the result desired, and can be useful in different SINO formulations. The weighting factor for each cost component can be tuned for different design objectives. In this article, our stated goal is to minimize placement size without violating K_{th} noise constraints, hence weighting factors were chosen to help us achieve these goals with maximal efficiency.

3.2.3.2 Random Moves. Random_Move(P, P') performs one of the following changes to placement P to generate a new placement P': (i) Combine two random blocks in P, (ii) Swap two random s-wires in P, (iii) Move a single random s-wire to a new and random location in P, (iv) Insert a g-wire at a random location in P. It is worthwhile to note that combining two random blocks in a placement P is also equivalent to removing a g-wire if the two blocks are adjacent. Moves which create two adjacent g-wires in a placement are categorically rejected and a new move is tried.

3.2.3.3 *Temperature Adjustment and Stopping Criterion*. The method of temperature adjustment is shown in Figure 10. We use a simple multiplicative constant of the current temperature. At each temperature step, the variance of the current placement cost from its previous value is taken and averaged over several random moves to determine the stability of the system at each temperature. When the variance is less than a set threshold, we move to the next temperature step. The starting temperature, freezing point, temperature adjustment, and variance threshold factors were all determined experimentally.

4. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We have implemented all algorithms in the C programming language, and have tested our implementations using a large number of examples. In this section, we first compare results obtained by different approximate algorithms to the SINO/NB formulation, and then compare results given by the two formulations (noise-free versus noise-bounded). We also report the running times for the SINO/SA algorithm.

We use coplanar interconnect structures containing 32 and 64 s-wires as examples to determine the performance of the algorithms for different

Maximum and average values of K_i										
		noise-free	noise-bounded							
	K_{th}	SINO/GC	SI NO+SI SINO/SA US+N							
	Net sensitivity rate: 40%									
	0.5	0/0	0.39/0.21	0.48/0.40	0.43/0.32	0.32/0.18				
	1.0		0.64/0.55	0.84/0.66	0.82/0.73	0.61/0.52				
	1.5		1.27/1.18	1.36/1.29	1.44/1.38	1.28/1.16				
	2.0		1.53/1.34	1.73/1.49	1.86/1.62	1.66/1.43				
Net sensitivity rate: 50				%						
Number	0.5	0/0	0.50/0.38	0.44/0.31	0.46/0.37	0.45/0.33				
of nets: 32	1.0		0.75/0.62	0.86/0.64	0.93/0.75	0.73/0.60				
	1.5		1.31/1.19	1.37/1.21	1.45/1.32	1.38/1.17				
	2.0		1.68/1.56	1.70/1.56	1.87/1.73	1.58/1.52				
	Net sensitivity rate: 60%									
	0.5	0/0	0.47/0.44	0.45/0.41	0.46/0.43	0.44/0.35				
	1.0		0.83/0.69	0.88/0.74	0.92/0.84	0.80/0.65				
	1.5		1.39/1.22	1.47/1.42	1.43/1.31	1.27/1.13				
	2.0		1.74/1.59	1.88/1.76	1.95/1.82	1.75/1.62				
	Net sensitivity rate: 40%									
	0.5	0/0	0.42/0.29	0.46/0.43	0.44/0.39	0.35/0.26				
	1.0		0.70/0.61	0.92/0.74	0.85/0.77	0.69/0.58				
	1.5		1.35/1.23	1.42/1.34	1.41/1.35	1.30/1.22				
	2.0		1.62/1.47	1.77/1.53	1.95/1.78	1.74/1.60				
			Net sensit	ivity rate: 50	0%					
Number	0.5	0/0	0.46/0.39	0.44/0.28	0.43/0.40	0.47/0.39				
of nets: 64	1.0		0.74/0.65	0.91/0.76	0.96/0.84	0.80/0.67				
	1.5		1.35/1.18	1.46/1.30	1.45/1.28	1.41/1.24				
	2.0		1.73/1.59	1.79/1.62	1.90/1.77	1.64/1.60				
	Net sensitivity rate: 60%									
	0.5	0/0	0.42/0.38	0.42/0.36	0.47/0.42	0.45/0.36				
	1.0		0.80/0.69	0.91/0.78	0.94/0.85	0.87/0.70				
	1.5		1.34/1.15	1.44/1.36	1.43/1.35	1.29/1.23				
	2.0		1.78/1.67	1.86/1.73	1.94/1.85	1.82/1.66				

Table IV. Experiment Summary I: In Each Cell of Columns 3–7, the First Value is the Maximum Coupling and the Second Value is the Average Coupling Observed for Different SINO Algorithms

combinations of K_{th} and sensitivity rate. We consider the following values for K_{th} : 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, and 2.0. When $K_{th} = 0.5$, the total coupling value for any net is less than 0.5 in the target SINO solution. We iterate the following sensitivity rates: 40%, 50%, and 60%. When the sensitivity rate is 40%, each net is sensitive to 40% of all nets, and these sensitive nets are picked randomly for the given s-wire.

For each combination of K_{th} and sensitivity rate, we report the resulting numbers of shields for different formulations and algorithms. To make the comparisons "fair" among the different algorithms, we run each algorithm on the same set of 20 different random initial placements and sensitivity matrices. The average values of these 20 runs are shown in Tables IV and V. Note that there is no entry in Table IV for Cx noise because there was not any in all cases. Finally, it is worthwhile to point out that we did not tune our SINO/SA algorithm for different examples.

Average number of shields								
		noise-free	noise-bounded					
	K_{th}	SINO/GC	SI	NO + SI	SINO/SA	US+NO		
	Net sensitivity rate: 40%							
	0.5	8.5 (6.0)	16.7	6.3	5.3	17		
	1.0		15.9	5.3	4.4	9		
	1.5		15.4	4.4	3.6	9		
	2.0		13.8	4.0	3.2	9		
		1	Net sens	itivity rate:	50%			
Number	0.5	11.0 (8.0)	18.9	8.4	5.7	17		
of nets: 32	1.0		18.4	5.7	5.4	17		
	1.5		18.0	4.8	4.2	9		
	2.0		17.5	4.4	3.8	9		
		1	Net sens	itivity rate:	60%			
	0.5	12.0 (9.0)	22.8	6.6	6.3	17		
	1.0		22.1	6.0	5.8	17		
	1.5		22.0	5.2	5.0	17		
	2.0		21.5	4.5	4.1	17		
	Net sensitivity rate: 40%							
	0.5	15.6 (13.0)	30.1	11.3	9.5	33		
	1.0		28.5	9.2	7.5	17		
	1.5		26.2	7.5	6.1	17		
	2.0		23.5	6.8	5.4	17		
		1	Net sensitivity rate: 50%					
Number	0.5	19.3 (16.0)	32.1	14.3	10.2	33		
of nets: 64	1.0		31.3	9.8	9.1	33		
	1.5		30.6	8.6	7.6	17		
	2.0		31.5	7.9	6.9	17		
		1	Net sens	itivity rate:	60%			
	0.5	21.6 (17.0)	39.7	12.8	12.0	65		
	1.0		39.2	11.4	10.7	33		
	1.5		38.0	9.4	9.0	33		
	2.0		36.8	8.1	7.4	33		

Table V. Experiment Summary II: Number of Shields Inserted by SINO-Different Algorithms. The Numbers in Parentheses in Each Cell of Column 3 are Lower Bounds on the Number of Shields Required in SINO/NF Solutions

4.1 Comparison between Different Noise-Bounded Algorithms

We first compare approximate SINO/NB solutions given by the following algorithms: greedy shield insertion (SI), net ordering followed by SI (NO + SI), and simulated annealing based SINO (SINO/SA). All solutions satisfy the required noise bound as shown in Table IV. One may also easily see from Table V: SI is always significantly worse than all of the other solutions in terms of the number of shields inserted. In the worst case, SI yields a result about 497% worse than SA (see 64 nets, 60% sensitivity rate, and 2.0 K_{th} in the table). Furthermore, performing net ordering before SI (i.e., NO + SI) significantly outperforms SI only because we need not insert shields for Cx violations which may be present without performing net ordering.

As we expect, SINO/SA always performs the best for any given settings. In terms of the number of shields, compared to NO+SI, it is minimally 4% better at 32 nets, 60% sensitivity rate, and $1.0 K_{th}$, and is maximally 47%

	Net sensitivity		Net sensitivity			Net sensitivity						
	rate: 40%			rate: 50%			rate: 60%					
Number	K_{th}				K_{th}			K _{th}				
of nets	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
16	1.5	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.0	2.3	1.9	1.6	1.4
32	2.9	2.4	2.1	1.5	3.4	3.0	2.2	1.8	4.5	3.6	3.1	2.6
48	4.3	3.5	3.0	2.3	5.5	4.4	3.6	2.9	7.0	5.7	5.0	4.5
64	5.5	4.8	3.9	2.7	6.7	5.7	4.5	3.7	9.2	7.1	6.4	5.3

Table VI. Approximate Running Times (in Seconds) for SINO/SA Algorithm

better at 32 nets, 50% sensitivity rate, and 0.5 K_{th} . Therefore, it is important to consider simultaneous net ordering and shield insertion, rather than separated net ordering and shield insertion.

Note that all the above noise-bounded SINO algorithms use random shields in the sense that all shields can be placed at arbitrary tracks. This may be undesirable when a uniform P/G structure is preferred due to other design constraints. Also in Table IV and Table V, we compare these solutions with the minimal area uniform shield insertion and net ordering (denoted as US + NO) problem formulation, which attempts to determine a minimum placement size subject to a noise bound (under the K_{eff} model) for each s-wire with the additional constraint of a uniform shielding structure. It is obvious from the table that the min-area US + NO solutions are only slightly better than the SI solutions, but much worse than the NO + SI and SINO/SA solutions, indicating that allowing random shields is critical for reducing overall shield resource usage.

4.2 Comparison between Noise-Free and Noise-Bounded Formulations

We base our comparison on the results produced by the best SINO/NB algorithm (SINO/SA) and the GC algorithm for the SINO/NF formulation. For the smallest K_{th} value of 0.5 (which makes SINO/NB most closely approximate SINO/NF), the SINO/NB formulation uses about 38% to 61% fewer shields as compared to the SINO/NF formulation for different numbers of nets and sensitivity rates. Because our GC algorithm provides an approximate to the SINO/NF formulation, we compute the average lower bound of the number of shields via average maximum clique size (based on Theorem 3), and present these lower bounds between parentheses in the column for GC algorithm, SINO/NF formulation in Table V. Compared to these lower bounds, the SINO/SA solutions still use up to 36% fewer shield wires for $K_{th} = 0.5$.

Finally, we report the running times of SINO/SA algorithm in Table VI for different combinations of number of nets, sensitivity rate, and K_{th} , where the times are for a single run for a single interconnect structure. The machine used to collect the running times has a 450 MHz Intel Pentium II processor. The running time is roughly linear with respect to the number of nets. Also the running time increases with respect to increased sensitivity rate and decreased K_{th} . For layout optimization at the full chip level, we expect to first divide the full chip into a number of routing regions and then carry out SINO within each region. Therefore, the chip level application should also have a roughly linear complexity in the number of regions (i.e., chip area). Nevertheless, a SINO

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algorithm that is more efficient than the simulated annealing based approach is planned as part of our future work.

5. FIDELITY OF KEFF MODEL

The K_{eff} model is computationally simple and convenient to use at a high design level or in an early design stage. The computational simplicity of the model also leads to extremely fast running times for high quality solutions as illustrated in Table VI. However, it is not clear how well the K_{eff} model works as a figure of merit for the actual noise voltage that will be seen in circuits. Specifically, one limitation of the K_{eff} model is its basis on the loop inductance model; thus it assumes the current returns from the nearest shield, which may not be true in general. The current often returns from quiet wires within the current block if there are plenty of quiet wires in the block, which would tend to make K_{eff} overestimate the actual observed Lx coupling. On the other hand, the current often returns from shields or quiet wires outside the current block when multiple wires in the current block switch simultaneously, which would tend to make K_{eff} underestimate the actual observed Lx coupling.

We study the fidelity of the K_{eff} model for SINO solutions in this section. We randomly generate about 1000 SINO solutions with random victims, aggressors, and shields but with a given fixed sensitivity. In our experiments we set the sensitivity rate to 50% and the length of the bus to be 2000 μm . We use SPICE to simulate the SINO solutions under 0.1 μm technology. We use the PEEC inductance model that is able to consider the skin effect [Ruehli 1974; He et al. 1999]. Different from the loop inductance model used in our problem formulation, the PEEC model does not assume a current return path during inductance extraction. The current return path is calculated via circuit simulations under the distributed RLC circuit model. We generate an RLC segment for each 100 μm wire segment with a coupling capacitance to its adjacent segment that does not belong to the same wire. There is a coupling inductance between any pair of segments even if they belong to the same wire. We use SPICE to simulate such an RLC circuit model, and use parameters based on ITRS [Semiconductor Industry Association 2000] predicted 0.1 μm technology (see Table VII). We carry out the SPICE simulation in two ways, with linear drivers and receivers and with BSIM device models [BSIM 2001]. We report the worst case noise of the victim in our results. With linear drivers and receivers, the worst case noise can be simply computed by the superposition algorithm [Chen and He 2002]. With the BSIM device model, the worst case noise is computed by the algorithm proposed in Chen and He [2002].

We compare the K_{eff} values with the noises obtained from SPICE simulations in Figure 12 and Figure 13. As shown in the figures, the bigger the K_{eff} value, the larger the SPICE calculated worst-case noise. Therefore the K_{eff} model has a high fidelity compared to the worst case noise calculated by SPICE simulations using accurate RLC circuit models.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

We have shown that existing net ordering formulations to minimize noise are no longer sufficient when considering inductive noise, and shield insertion is

Technology	$0.10 \ \mu m$
Vdd	1.05 V
clock frequency	3 GHz
input rising time	$33 \ ps$
driver size	$150 \times$
load size	50 imes
wire width	$0.6 \ \mu m$
wire thickness	$0.75 \ \mu m$
wire spacing	$0.6 \ \mu m$
wire length	$2000 \ \mu m$

Table VII. Experiment Settings for the Fidelity Study

We derive Vdd, clock frequency and rising time based on ITRS, and assume geometries and driver/receiver sizes for high-performance global interconnects.



Fig. 12. Comparison between K_{eff} values and noises from SPICE with linear driver and load model.



Fig. 13. Comparison between K_{eff} values and noises from SPICE with nonlinear device model.

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needed to minimize inductive noise. We have formulated two simultaneous shield insertion and net ordering (SINO) problems: the optimal SINO/NF problem to find a min-area SINO solution that is free of capacitive and inductive noise, and the optimal SINO/NB problem to find a min-area SINO solution that is free of capacitive noise and is under the given inductive noise bound. We have revealed that both optimal SINO problems are NP-hard, and have proposed effective approximate algorithms for the two problems. Experiments have shown that our best SINO/NB algorithm uses from 4% to 47% fewer shields when compared to separated net ordering and shield insertion (NO + SI). Furthermore, under practical noise bounds, the SINO/NB solutions use up to 61% fewer shields compared to SINO/NF solutions and use up to 36% fewer shields compared to the theoretical lower bound for optimal SINO/NF solutions. Additionally, the best simulated annealing based SINO/NB algorithm is very efficient and finishes all examples in a few seconds. In this work, the K_{eff} model is used as a figure of merit for inductive coupling. We have also applied the partial inductance model to generate accurate RLC circuit models and used SPICE simulations (without presetting any current return path) to verify our problem formulation and SINO solutions. Extensive experiments have shown that the K_{eff} model has a high fidelity versus the accurate noise voltage computed using accurate RLC circuit models and SPICE simulations for the coplanar interconnect structure we studied here, that is, the higher the coupling given by the K_{eff} model, the larger the accurate SPICE-computed noise voltage. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work that presents an in-depth study on the automatic layout optimization of multiple nets to minimize both capacitive and inductive noise.

An explicit noise computation model has been developed in Lepak et al. [2001]. It computes the worst-case noise voltage considering both capacitive coupling and long-range inductive coupling based on the partial inductance model and therefore allows for specification of an explicit noise voltage (N_{th}) as the noise bound as compared to K_{th} used in this work. The simulated annealing based SINO algorithm has been extended to consider this new noise model. Experimental results show that the new SINO solutions can use up to 20% fewer shields compared to US + NO and up to 30% fewer shields compared to NO + SI for explicit noise voltage bounds.

A parallel bus interconnect structure within a routing region is assumed in this work. We have incorporated the SINO formulation into a chip level global router with RLC crosstalk budgeting in Xiong and He [2004].

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