

# OpenPCells

## PCell Design Guide and API

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This is the official documentation of the OpenPCells project. It is split in several different files for clarity. This document provides an overview of the creation of PCells in the OpenPCells environment as well as a detailed API documentation. If you are looking for a general overview of the project and how to use it, start with the user guide, which also contains a tutorial for getting started quickly. If you want to know more about the technical details and implementation notes, look into the technical documentation.

## Contents

### 1 PCell Creation – Introductory Examples

We will start this documentation by a series of examples to show the main features and API functions. The to-be-created cells will get increasingly complex to demonstrate various features.

Every cell is defined by a function where all shapes making up the shape are described. This function gets called by the cell generation system, which passes the main object and a table with all defined parameters. The name for this function is `layout()`. Additional functions such as `parameters()` are also understood.

#### 1.1 Simple Rectangle

The first example is a simple rectangle of variable width and height. As mentioned, all the code for the rectangle resides in a function `layout()`. The parameters of the cell are defined in a function `parameters()`, which is optional in theory, but since we're designing pcells, there is not much point of leaving it out. In `layout()`, we receive the main object and the defined parameters. Here we can modify the object based on the parameters.

The simple rectangle looks like this:

```
-- define parameters
function parameters()
    pcell.add_parameters(
        { "width", 100 },
        { "height", 100 }
    )
end

-- define layout
function layout(obj, _P)
    -- create the shape
    local rect = geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(1),
        _P.width, _P.height)
    -- merge into main cell
    obj:merge_into_shallow(rect)
end
```

Let's walk through this line-by-line (sort of). First, we declare the function for the parameter definition:

```
function parameters()
```

In the function, we add the parameters, here we use the width and the height of the rectangle:

```
    pcell.add_parameters(
        { "width", 100 },
        { "height", 100 }
    )
```

We can add as many parameters as we like (`pcell.add_parameters()` accepts any number of arguments). For every argument, the first entry in the table is the name of the parameter, the second entry is the default value. This is the simplest form, we can supply more information for finer control. We will see some examples of this later on.

The default value for both parameters is 100, which is a *size*, meaning it has a unit. Physical/geometrical parameters like width or height are specified in nanometers.<sup>1</sup>

This is all for the `parameters()` function, so let's move on to `layout()`. This function takes two arguments: the main object that will be placed in the layout and the table with parameters for the cell (which already includes any parsed arguments given before the cell creation).

We can name them in any way that pleases us, the common name used in all standard cells distributed by this project is `_P` (as homage to the global environment `_G` in lua). Of course it is possible to “unpack” the parameters, storing them in individual variables, but for cells with many parameters this rather is a bloat.

```
function layout(obj, _P)
```

---

<sup>1</sup>Of course you can do what you want in a cell, but the modules that process the cells after creation work in nanometers. It is best practice to do the same.

Now that we have all the layout parameters, we can already create the rectangle:

```
local rect = geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(1),
    _P.width, _P.height)
```

There is a lot going on here: We use the `geometry.rectangle` function to create a rectangle with width and height (second and third argument). Since we are creating shapes of IC geometry, we have to specify a layer. But we also want to create technology-independent pcells, so there is a generics system for layers. Right now we are just using the `generics.metal` function, which takes a single number as argument. `generics.metal(1)` specifies the first metal (counted from silicon), you can also say something like `generics.metal(-2)`, where -1 is the index of the highest metal. Lastly we save the return value of `geometry.rectangle` in a local variable `rect`, which is a hint to the type: All geometry functions return objects, which has some consequences for the use of these functions. We will get into that later.

That is all we have to do for the geometry of the cell, so we merge that into the main cell:

```
obj:merge_into_shallow(rect)
```

`merge_into_shallow` is a *method* of objects and needs a little explaining of the object system. As mentioned earlier, every geometry function creates what is called an object. An object is a collection of shapes, where each shape is made up of a layer-purpose-pair and points (which can currently be interpreted as rectangles or polygons). The cell generation systems expects all created shapes to be merged into the main object passed as argument (`obj` in this case). The function postfix *shallow* is a hint towards cell hierarchies, where cells contain children, which can again have children and so on. Shallow in this case means that we only regard shapes that are in the referenced cell, not in the children.

This cell can now be created by calling the main program with an appropriate export and technology. Note that there's another manual about that, so we won't get into any details here. The simplest call would be something like:

```
opc --technology generic --export gds --cell simple_rectangle
```

## 1.2 Array of Rectangles

Now that we know how to create a rectangle, we want to create an entire array, that is a rectangular area made up of several individual rectangles. This could be used for example as filling. We will setup the cell exactly as before, we only have to add two new parameters: the repetition and the pitch (we will start with quadratic arrays with equal pitch in both directions):

```
function parameters()
    pcell.add_parameters(
        { "width", 100 },
        { "height", 100 },
        { "pitch", 200 },
        { "rep", 10 }
    )
end
```

The default arguments are 200 for the pitch and 10 for the number of repetitions, which creates a ten-by-ten array of rectangles with a spacing of 100 and a width and height of 100. Again, remember that we work in nanometers here.

For the repetition we could use a loop to create the objects:

```
for i = 1, P.rep do
  for j = 1, P.rep do
    local o = geometry.rectangle(
      generics.metal(1), P.width, P.height
    )
    obj:merge_into_shallow(o)
  end
end
```

In order for this to work, we also have to move the rectangles to the correct position, something that we didn't learn yet. This comes later, as this also involves some math we don't want to talk about right now. Just keep in mind that the above loop is wrong and cumbersome. In any ways, there is a function that does exactly what we want to achieve: `geometry.multiple`. It takes an object as first argument and then the repetition in x and y and the pitch in x and y and returns an array of repeated objects with the center in the origin. With it, we can replace the whole loop construct with:

```
obj:merge_into_shallow(geometry.multiple(
  geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(1), P.width, P.height),
  P.rep, P.rep, P.pitch, P.pitch
))
```

`geometry.multiple` also already merges all objects so we don't have to take care of that. Therefore, we receive a single object which we simply can merge directly into the main cell. The whole cell looks like this:

```
function parameters()
  pcell.add_parameters(
    { "width", 100 },
    { "height", 100 },
    { "pitch", 200 },
    { "rep", 10 }
  )
end

function layout(obj, _P)
  -- first naive (and wrong) attempt (don't use!)
  for i = 1, P.rep do
    for j = 1, P.rep do
      local o = geometry.rectangle(
        generics.metal(1), P.width, P.height
      )
      obj:merge_into_shallow(o)
    end
  end
end
```

```

-- better approach
obj:merge_into_shallow(geometry.multiple(
    geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(1), P.width, P.height),
    P.rep, P.rep, P.pitch, P.pitch
))
end

```

Now you already now how to create rectangles, with generic layers, `geometry.multiple` and object merging. With this, one can already built a surprising amount of pcells. However, we have to discuss how we can create layers other than metals, vias and shapes with more complex outlines than rectangles. We will talk about that in the remaining cell tutorials.

### 1.3 Metal-Oxide-Metal Capacitors

Many technologies don't have so-called metal-insulator-metal capacitors (mimcaps), so the standard way to implement capacitors is be using interdigitated metals. Let's do that. As before, we set up the pcell. Useful parameters are the number of fingers, the width and height of the fingers and the spacing in between. Furthermore, we shift one collection of fingers (one plate) up and the other down to separate them and connect them together. Lastly, we also specify the used metals and the width of the connecting rails:

```

function parameters()
    pcell.add_parameters(
        { "fingers(Number of Fingers)", 4 },
        { "fwidth(Finger Width)", 100 },
        { "fspace(Finger Spacing)", 100 },
        { "fheight(Finger Height)", 1000 },
        { "foffset(Finger Offset)", 100 },
        { "rwidth(Rail Width)", 100 },
        { "firstmetal(Start Metal)", 1 },
        { "lastmetal(End Metal)", 2 }
    )
end

```

The parameter definition also shows how you can use better names for displaying: Simply write them in parantheses. When querying the defined parameters of a cell, the display names are used, but within the cell the regular names are significant. This enables easier syntax: `_P.fingers` as opposed to `_P["Number of Fingers"]`.

In `layout()` we loop over all metals to draw the fingers. We don't have to create every finger separately, with `geometry.multiple` this becomes very simple. Since the upper and lower fingers are one-off and `geometry.multiple` centers all objects, we only have to move them a little bit up/down. This is done with `object.translate` (a method of an object), taking x- and y-offset as arguments:

```

local pitch = _P.fwidth + _P.fspace

```

```

for i = _P.firstmetal, _P.lastmetal do
    momcap:merge_into_shallow(geometry.multiple_x(
        geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(i), _P.fwidth, _P.fheight),
        _P.fingers + 1, 2 * pitch
    ):translate(0, _P.foffset / 2))
    momcap:merge_into_shallow(geometry.multiple_x(
        geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(i), _P.fwidth, _P.fheight),
        _P.fingers, 2 * pitch
    ):translate(0, -_P.foffset / 2))
end

```

We create two arrays of fingers, one for the “upper plate”, one for the “lower plate”. All fingers have the same width, height and pitch. For the upper plate, we use one more finger, the placement in `geometry.multiple` automatically arranges them centered, so that this “just works”. The `ypitch` for `geometry.multiple` is 0, which is ok since we only have a yrep of 1.

The rails connecting the fingers are created in a similar manner:

```

    momcap:merge_into_shallow(geometry.multiple_y(
        geometry.rectangle(generics.metal(i),
            (2 * _P.fingers + 1) * (_P.fwidth + _P.fspace), _P.rwidth
        ),
        2, _P.foffset + _P.fheight + _P.rwidth
    ))
end

```

The `end` delimits the `for`-loop.

What remains is the drawing of the vias between the metals. For this we introduce a new `generics` function: `generics.via`. It takes two arguments – one for the start- and one for the end-metal for the via stack. We don’t have to specify the individual vias between each layer in the stack, this is resolved later by the technology translation. The vias are placed in the rails:

```

momcap:merge_into_shallow(geometry.multiple_y(
    geometry.rectangle(generics.via(_P.firstmetal, _P.lastmetal),
        (2 * _P.fingers + 1) * (_P.fwidth + _P.fspace), _P.rwidth
    ),
    2, _P.foffset + _P.fheight + _P.rwidth
))

```

With this the pcell is finished, the entire listing is in `cells/passive/capacitor/mom.lua`.

## 1.4 Octagonal Inductor

RF designs often require on-chip inductors, which usually are built in an octagonal shape due to angle restrictions in most technologies (no true circles or better approximations available). We will show how to build a differential (symmetric) octagonal inductor with a variable number of turns (integers). We will skip some basic techniques that we already discussed a few times such as setting up the cell body, cell parameters and main object. Look into `cells/passive/inductor/octagonal.lua` for the defined parameters.

An inductor is basically a wire routed in a special manner, therefor we will describe the inductor as a [path](#). This is a series of points that gets converted into a polygon with a width. To create a path, we have to pass the points, which we will store in a [table](#). Here is how this looks for the octagonal inductor:

```
local pathpts = {}
local prepend = util.make_insert_xy(pathpts, 1)
local append = util.make_insert_xy(pathpts)

append(-r + _scale_tanpi8(_P.width / 2), sign * radius)
append(-r, sign * radius)
append(-radius, sign * r)
append(-radius, -sign * r)
append(-r, -sign * radius)
append(-r + _scale_tanpi8(_P.width / 2), -sign * radius)
```

[util.make\\_insert\\_xy](#) is a helper function, that returns a function that appends/prepends points to an array. It's purpose is to simplify code, one might as well just use [table.insert](#).

This is just an excerpt from the cell, the entire code generating the path points is a bit complex and involves some mathematical thoughts. Since this tutorial is about how to build the code for cells, the actual points will not be discussed.

After the points are assembled, we can create the path. The cell only draws half of the inductor, so we draw the path twice, one time with mirrored points (notice [util.xmirror](#)(pathpts) in the second line):

```
inductor:merge_into_shallow(
    geometry.path(mainmetal, pathpts, _P.width, true)
)
inductor:merge_into_shallow(
    geometry.path(mainmetal, util.xmirror(pathpts), _P.width, true)
)
```

The [geometry.path](#) function takes four arguments: the layer, the points of the path, the width and whether to use a miter- or a bevel-join. Bevel-join is default, so [true](#) is specified for a miter-join.

## 1.5 References and Inheritance

In order to be able to build larger layouts, cells must be reused in hierarchies (for instance, a current mirror is made up of several transistors). It would be a good decision to build everything from scratch. Therefore, openPCells offers some basic support for such things. We will look at logic gates to illustrate the different options. All gates are built from transistors, so we will assume for now that there is a cell to place one. Furthermore, digital designs mostly (always?) use a few geometry parameters for all cells, such as the gate length. It makes sense to store this in one place so we can redefine it for all cells in a hierarchy, if we want to change that. In the supplied logic cell family (cells/stdcells), this is handled by the stdcells/base cell. It is

a abstract cell, that is, it does not define a layout function, so it can't be called. But it does store the relevant parameters, which get referenced by the top cells (and temporarily changed). Other cells then access the parameters, for instance `stdcells/not_gate.lua`:

```
function parameters()
    pcell.reference_cell("stdcells/base")
    pcell.add_parameter("fingers", 1)
    pcell.add_parameter("shiftinput", 0)
    pcell.add_parameter("inputpos", "center", { posvals = set("center", "lower", "upper") })
    pcell.add_parameter("shiftoutput", 0)
end

function layout(gate, _P)
    local bp = pcell.get_parameters("stdcells/base")
    local xpitch = bp.gspace + bp.glength
```

This cell has only has a small number of parameters but uses the supplied parameters of `stdcells/base.lua` for the layout function. The parameters are used implicitly by creating other cells that reference these parameters, and explicitly by accessing them with `pcell.get_parameters`. In order to do this, a cell has to reference that cell with `pcell.reference_cell`. The referenced parameters reflect the current values, that is if a top cell instantiates the inverter, it can overwrite the values of referenced parameters, affecting all sub cells. This is achieved by calling `pcell.push_overwrites`, which can be seen in `stdcells/1_inv_gate.lua` (basic cell for and/or):

Cells that need to prevent parameters being changed from the toplevel have to include guards against that, which is exactly what can be seen in the previous listing. The overwrites are stack-based, so the last `push_overwrites` counts. In `stdcells/1_inv_gate.lua`, `rightdummies` can not be changed from outside anymore.

## 1.6 Translation, Object Placement and the Alignment Box

We already saw the `translate` object method to move objects. For more complex layouts, a better method exists. Cells can have anchors, that is, points at certain places in the layout which can be referenced. You can ask for the location of an anchor from an object (`get_anchor`) and you can move a cell so that the specified anchor lies at a certain point (`move_anchor`). Let's see an example:

```
local pmos
if _P.fingers > 0 then
    pmos = pcell.create_layout("basic/mosfet", { fingers =
        _P.fingers }):move_anchor("botgate")
```

The used anchors have to be present in the specific cell, and it is up to the designer of that cell to provide the needed anchors.



Of course do anchors move if an object is moved, but they also move if the cell is flipped/mirrored/rotated etc. This ensures that the anchors are always at the right place in the layout. However, in certain cases, the opposite behaviour is useful: If you want to, say, place two digital standard cells next to each other, you can use appropriate anchors for left and right (for instance at the leftmost and rightmost source/drain) and align them at these points. This works fine until a cell is mirrored at the y-axis. Then the anchor left becomes right and the other way around. This means that cells generating such layouts need to handle flipped/rotated/mirrored cells differently, which is a nuisance. There is a special set of anchors for exactly this problem: the alignment box. This box is also defined by the cell designer and in effect it provides the special anchors left, right, top, bottom and sensible combinations of those (e.g. topleft, NOT leftright). The alignment box undergoes translation, but not rotation/flipping/mirroring. This allows the following (from `stdcells/dff.lua`):

```
local yinvert = _P.clockpolarity == "positive" and 1 or -1

gate:merge_into_shallow(geometry.rectanglebltr(generics.metal(1),
    anchor("G1"):translate(-xpitch, -bp.gstwidth / 2),
```

Notice the calls in the last two lines, where the cell gets flipped in x direction (mirrored at the y axis) but still the left anchor is used for alignment (the cell is placed right of the isogate).

The above example shows another important fact about object transformation: Translation is always applied last (after rotation/flipping/mirroring). This is contrary to many other graphical programs, where for instance rotation is applied with the origin is center. In `opc`, the order of the transformation statements does not matter. This is intentional, as this is what is usually needed in layouts and simplifies the pcell code. The other behaviour can always be achieved by appropriate translation.

## 1.7 Cell Hierarchies

Layouts of integrated circuits usually make great use of repetition/reuse of cells. For instance, a shift register uses the same flip flop over and over again. Creating *flat* layouts (that is, layouts without any hierarchies) for these cells can be quite resource-intensive, as more shapes have to be calculated by `opc` and the resulting layout is very likely to be larger in file size than a hierarchical one. Therefore, `opc` supports hierarchical layouts. For every sub-cell (called a child), a reference is needed that defines the shapes of this child. A child link then connects to that reference. We can see a simple example of this in `stdcells/1_inv_gate.lua`:

```
pcell.push_overwrites("stdcells/base", { rightdummies = 0 })
local subgateref = pcell.create_layout(string.format("stdcells/%s",
    _P.subgate), { fingers = _P.subgatefingers })
pcell.pop_overwrites("stdcells/base")
```

`add_child` is an object method and a short cut for creating a reference and the link. For exports, that support children (like GDS), the layout will now be hierarchical with one toplevel cell with two children.

The above example showed how instead of `merge_into_shallow`, `add_child` is used to add another cell to a layout. For simple layouts, the advantage is mostly negligible, but it pays out for larger layouts. In `analog/current_starved_ringoscillator.lua`, multiple children links are placed:

```
local invname = pcell.add_cell_reference(inverterref, "inverter")
local inverters = {}
for i = 1, _P.numinv do
    inverters[i] = oscillator:add_child(invname)
    if i > 1 then
        inverters[i]:move_anchor("left", inverters[i - 1]:get_anchor(
            "right"))
    end
end
```

First, the reference has to be established with an object and a name (`add_child_reference`). This function returns the actual name that is used to refer to this cell, as the name has to be unique. With this name, child links can be added with `add_child_link`, which returns an proxy object. This proxy object behaves like a regular object and knows the same methods, but it has no shapes or children of its own.

## 2 Available PCells

In the following subsections, all available cells will be documented. The current status is rather a poor one, but work is ongoing.

### 2.1 Transistor

The transistor might be the most important cell and currently it's also definitely the most complex one. Therefore, this documentation starts with a description of the goal. Figure ?? shows an example with all geometrical parameters, a summary of all parameters can be found in table ?. The cell draws a number of gates on top of an active area (with some implant/well/etc. markers). Furthermore, it draws some metals and vias (not shown in figure ??) in the source/drain regions and for gate contacts.

## 3 API Documentation

### 3.1 geometry Module

`geometry.rectangle(layer, width, height)`

Create a rectangular shape with a width of `width` and a height of `height` in the `layer-purpose-pair` layer (usually a generic). The function returns an object.

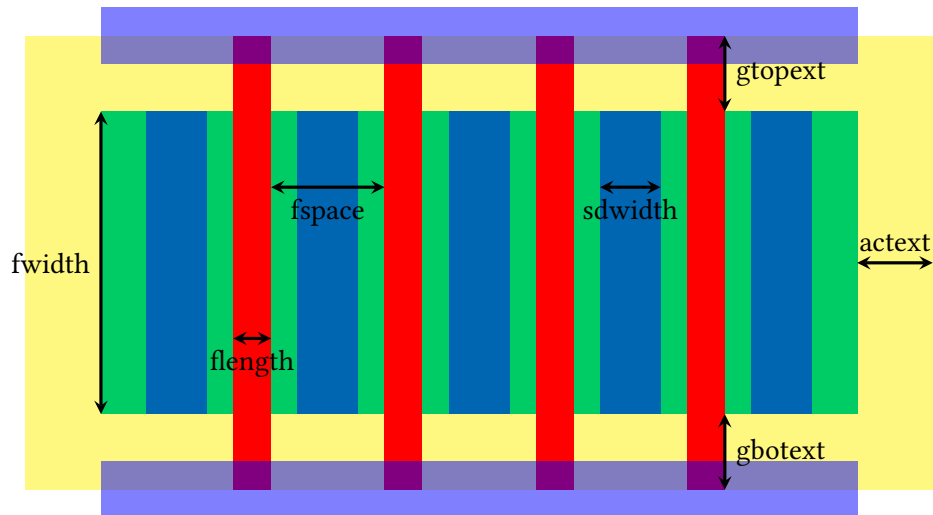


Figure 1: Overview of the transistor

`geometry.multiple(obj, xrep, yrep, xpitch, ypitch)`

Creates a rectangular array (mosaic) of an object with `xrep` repetitions in x and `yrep` repetitions in y. `xpitch` and `ypitch` are the center-to-center space in x and y direction. The entire array gets centered. The function returns the merged objects.

### 3.2 Object Module

### 3.3 Shape Module

### 3.4 Pointarray Module

### 3.5 Point Module

Parameter	Meaning	Default
channeltype	Type of Transistor	"nmos"
oxidetype	Oxide Thickness Index	1
vthtype	Threshold Voltage Index	1
fingers	Number of Fingers	4
fwidth	Finger Width	1.0
gatelength	Finger Length	0.15
fspace	Space between Fingers	0.27
actext	Left/Right Extension of Active Area	0.03
sdwidth	Width of Source/Drain Metals	0.2
sdconnwidth	Width of Source/Drain Connection Rails Metal	0.2
sdconnspace	Space of Source/Drain Connection Rails Metal	0.2
gtopext	Gate Top Extension	0.2
gbotext	Gate Bottom Extension	0.2
typext	Implant/Well Extension around Active	0.1
cliptop	Clip Top Marking Layers (Implant, Well, etc.)	false
clipbot	Clip Bottom Marking Layers (Implant, Well, etc.)	false
drawtopgate	Draw Top Gate Strap	false
drawbotgate	Draw Bottom Gate Strap	false
topgatestrwidth		0.12
topgatestext		1
botgatestrwidth		0.12
botgatestext		1
topgcut	Draw Top Poly Cut	false
botgcut	Draw Bottom Poly Cut	false
connectsource	Connect all Sources together	false
connectdrain	Connect all Drains together	false

Table 1: Summary of Transistor Parameters