1985 VLSI Tools:
More Works by the Original Artists

Includes these smash hits:

- **Cifplot** by Dan Fitzpatrick
- **Crystal** by John Ousterhout
- **Eqntott** by Bob Cmelik
- **Esim** by Chris Terman (MIT)
- **Espresso** by Richard Rudell
- **Magic** by Gordon Hamachi, Robert Mayo, John Ousterhout, Walter Scott, and George Taylor
- **Mpack** by Robert Mayo and Fred Obermeier
- **Mpanda** by Grace Mah
- **Mpla** by Robert Mayo
- **Mquilt** by Robert Mayo
- **Multibus Design Frame** by Gaetano Borriello
- **Peg** by Gordon Hamachi
- **Pleasure** by G. D. Micheli and Duksoon Kay
- **Spice2summary** by Fred Obermeier
- **Vlsifont** by Robert Mayo

Plus many more of your old favorites...

*March 1985*

*Walter S. Scott, Gordon Hamachi, Robert N. Mayo, and John K. Ousterhout, editors*

**Computer Science Division**
**EECS Department**
**University of California at Berkeley**
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About this distribution.....

This manual describes the programs in the 1985 VLSI Tools Distribution put together by the CS Division of the Department of EECS, UC Berkeley. The distribution consists of about twenty programs for designing and analyzing VLSI circuits. The programs were designed to run on both VAXes and Suns under the Berkeley 4.2 distribution of Unix. The Magic VLSI layout editor also runs on a Pyramid under their version of Berkeley 4.2 Unix. The tools are not known to run under any other systems. They are available to the public on an internal-use-only basis. To find out how to obtain them, write to

John Ousterhout
CS Division, Dept. of EECS
University of California
Berkeley, CA 94720.

Several other design packages are available from other groups within the department. Inquiries about these programs may be addressed to

Industrial Liaison Program - ERL
Dept. of EECS
University of California
Berkeley, CA 94720.

Highlights

We have several new tools on this distribution, as well as enhancements to old tools. Here's an overview of the major tools:

Cifplot Plots CIF files. It can work with nMOS, CMOS, and other technologies.

Crystal A timing analyzer that helps the designer find performance problems in his design. This latest version of Crystal (Version 2) supports technologies other than nMOS, and allows the use of a slope model for more accurate estimation of signal delays.

Eqntott Converts a set of logic equations into a truth table format for input to our PLA optimization and layout tools.

Esim An event driven logic-level simulator developed at MIT and distributed with their permission. The version on this tape handles CMOS as well as nMOS.

Espresso A fast new boolean equation minimizer.

Ext2sim Part of the Magic suite of programs. Used for converting the output of Magic’s hierarchical extractor into a form usable by other tools on this tape, such as Esim and Crystal.

Magic The first release of our new graphical layout editor. Magic has an incremental and hierarchical circuit extractor, an incremental design-rule checker, and a router for wiring up your chip.

Mpack A new release of the tpack library for generating semi-regular modules. This version is compatible with Magic layout files.
These routines allow module generators to generate layouts by assembling tiles (which are small chunks of layout designed with Magic). The end result is a module generator that can generate different styles of modules depending upon what set of tiles is used.

Mpanda A technology-independent generator of split and folded PLAs built using Mpack. Used in conjunction with Pleasure.

Mpla A technology-independent generator of ordinary PLAs built using Mpack.

Mquilt A generator of personalized arrays built using Mpack.

Peg A tool that compiles a high-level description of a finite state machine into logic equations. These logic equations can be fed into the PLA tools for automatic layout and optimization of the FSM.

Pleasure Minimizes the area of a PLA by splitting and folding its and or planes. Used in conjunction with Panda.

Several of the programs on this tape were developed by authors outside of the Computer Science Division. We wish to thank Prof. Alberto Sangiovanni-Vincentelli of Electrical Engineering and his students for allowing us to distribute their PLA optimization tools Espresso and Pleasure. Panda and Eqntott were developed by Prof. Richard Newton and his students, also in Electrical Engineering. Esim, the switch-level simulator, was developed by Chris Terman of MIT. We are grateful for the authors' permission to distribute these tools.

**Installation Instructions**

The tape is written in Unix "tar" program format, 1600 BPI, 20 blocks per record. There are about 16000 kbytes of stuff on the tape. Installing the tools on a VAX or Sun running Berkeley 4.2 Unix is relatively easy. First, create a new user, cad. Then change your current directory to ~cad, and load all the information from the tape into the ~cad area with the command tar x. To install the tools on a VAX, next type INSTALL VAX. To install the tools on a Sun workstation, type INSTALL SUN2 instead.

The above instructions may be inconvenient if you already have ~cad directories that you've been using. One alternative is to save all the current ~cad information (mv the subdirectories to other names), then load the tools, then mv any programs that you want back from the old subdirectories. Another alternative is to tar the tape into another area, "cad85" for example, then move individual programs over to try them. Be careful if you use this approach, since many of the programs (like Magic, Cifplot, Mpack, Mquilt, and Mpla) use library information in ~cad/lib.

There is very little machine-specific configuration. Most is done by the INSTALL script. If the normal troff -man macros are not in the standard place (/usr/lib/tmac), the cadman macros in ~cad/man/tmac/tmac.anc will need to be modified to reflect the location of these standard macros. Also, visfont expects the Berkeley fonts to be present in the standard place (/usr/lib/vfont). Finally, if
you are installing the tools on a VAX, you should set up the file
~cad/lib/displays to reflect the locations and types of graphics terminals in your
system.

If you’re interested in playing around with any of the other programs, most
of their source directories have files called README or ReadMe or something
similar. See these files for information on installation and maintenance.

Using the Tools

To use the various tools, have each would-be user add "~cad/bin" to the
path in his or her .login or .cshrc file. To get information about the programs, use
"cadman": it works just like "man" except that it deals with VLSI CAD tools.
In addition to manual pages, many of the tools have longer tutorial-style user
manuals in ~cad/doc and its subdirectories. These manuals can be printed with
ditroff and/or deqn and/or dtbl. Some of them contain gremlin files, however,
and so require grn to print them. Along with the tape you should get a printed
copy of the manuals, in order to save you time running them off.

While ~cad/bin is the only directory that contains binaries, there are several
other directories in the ~cad area:

lib Contains library files used by the various programs.
man Contains manual pages.
src Contains the sources for all of the programs.
doc Contains tutorial-style user manuals for a few of the more
complicated programs.

At Berkeley we create a ~cad/new area that is just like ~cad/bin except that it
holds the latest experimental binaries of programs. If you also follow this
convention then be sure to include ~cad/new in your search path before
~cad/bin.

Support

These tools work fine for us at Berkeley, but they almost certainly have bugs.
The programs are distributed on an as-is basis. We are busy building the next
generation of tools, so we can’t provide installation assistance, tutorial help, or
other support. We continue to welcome comments from our test sites, and we will
listen to reports of major bugs discovered by other sites.

Acknowledgements

In order to turn our programs from academic exercises into useful tools, we
depend on designers to use the systems, explain to us their problems, and be
patient while we fix them. For Magic, we’ve been fortunate to have a large and
unusually cooperative group of early users. Without them the system would
never have reached a usable state. Some of the pioneering users at Berkeley and
at our beta sites are listed below. Apologies to anyone that we’ve missed.

Joan Pendleton, Shing Kong (SOAR project, UCB)
Randy Katz and the CS250 classes of Fall 1983 and Fall 1984 (UCB)
Norman Jouppi (Digital Equipment Corporation)
Peng Ang, Jonathan Greene (LSI Logic)
Mark Horowitz and the 1985 VLSI Design Class (Stanford University)
MITRE Integrated Electronics Group (MITRE-Bedford)
W. Worth Kirkman, Brian Beattie (MITRE-Washington)
The Computer Sciences Division of Bolt, Beranek, and Newman
Larry McMurchie, Bill Beckett (University of Washington)
Ellen Szeto (Bell Communications Research)
NAME
cadman - run section of UNIX manual
SYNOPSIS
cadman [-t] <section>

DESCRIPTION
Cadman is a program which prints sections of the CAD manual. A section is an
optional section of the CAD manual. The sections may be followed by a single
section title, i.e., a section title may be used to indicate a change
in a section. If the standard output is a teletype, then cadman prints
sections of the CAD manual, giving preference to sections
of the CAD manual, in the following order:

If the standard output is a teletype, then cadman prints sections of
the CAD manual, giving preference to sections
in the following order:

FILES
~cad/man/man/
NAME
  chksum – checksum a file

SYNOPSIS
  chksum

DESCRIPTION
  Chksum reads from standard input and prints the character count and checksum on standard
  output. This checksum and character count matches that of the program used by MOSIS and is
  useful for checking large CIF files transmitted from one site to another.

AUTHOR
  John Foderaro
NAME

cifplot - CIF interpreter and plotter

SYNOPSIS

\texttt{cifplot} [\textit{options}] \texttt{file1.cif} [\texttt{file2.cif} ...]

DESCRIPTION

Cif/plot takes a description in CalTech Intermediate Form (CIF) and produces a plot. CIF is a
low-level graphics language suitable for describing integrated circuit layouts. Although CIF can
be used for other graphics applications, for ease of discussion it will be assumed that CIF is used
to describe integrated circuit designs. Cif/plot interprets any legal CIF 2.0 description including
symbol renaming and Delete Definition commands. In addition, a number of local extensions have
been added to CIF, including text on plots and include files. These are discussed later. Care has
been taken to avoid any arbitrary restrictions on the CIF files that can be plotted.

To get a plot call \texttt{cifplot} with the name of the CIF file to be plotted. If the CIF description is
divided among several files call \texttt{cifplot} with the names of all files to be used. Cif/plot reads the
CIF description from the files in the order that they appear on the command line. Therefore the
CIF \texttt{End} command should be only in the last file since \texttt{cifplot} ignores everything after the \texttt{End}
command. After reading the CIF description but before plotting, \texttt{cifplot} will print a estimate of
the size of the plot and then ask if it should continue to produce a plot. Type \texttt{y} to proceed and \texttt{n}
to abort. A typical run might look as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
% cifplot lib.cif sorter.cif
Window -5700 174000 -76500 168900
Scale: 1 micron is 0.004075 inches
The plot will be 0.510833 feet
Do you want a plot? y
\end{verbatim}

After typing \texttt{y} \texttt{cifplot} will produce a plot on the Benson-Varian plotter.

Cif/plot recognizes several command line options. These can be used to change the size and scale
of the plot, change default plot options, and to select the output device. Several options may be
selected. A dash(-) must precede each option specifier. The following is a list of options that may
be included on the command line:

\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{-w xmin xmax ymin ymax} (window) The \texttt{-w} options specifies the window; by default the window is set to be large
enough to contain the entire plot. The windowing commands lets you plot just a small
section of your chip, enabling you to see it in better detail. \texttt{Xmin}, \texttt{xmax}, \texttt{ymin}, and
\texttt{ymax} should be specified in CIF coordinates.
\item \texttt{-s float} (scale) The \texttt{-s} option sets the scale of the plot. By default the scale is set so that the
window will fill the whole page. \texttt{Float} is a floating point number specifying the number of
inches which represents 1 micron. A recommended size is 0.02.
\item \texttt{-1 layer_list} (layer) Normally all layers are plotted. The \texttt{-1} option specifies which layers NOT to plot.
The \texttt{layer_list} consists of the layer names separated by commas, no spaces. There are some
reserved names: allText, bbox, outline, text, pointName, and symbolName. Including the layer name \texttt{allText} in the list suppresses the plotting of text; \texttt{bbox}
suppresses the bounding box around symbols. \texttt{outline} suppresses the thin outline that
borders each layer. The keywords \texttt{text}, \texttt{pointName}, and \texttt{symbolName} suppress the
plotting of certain text created by local extension commands. \texttt{text} eliminates text
created by user extension 2. \texttt{pointName} eliminates text created by user extension 94.
\texttt{symbolName} eliminates text created by user extension 9. \texttt{allText}, \texttt{pointName}, and
\texttt{symbolName} may be abbreviated by \texttt{at}, \texttt{pn}, and \texttt{sn} respectively.
\end{itemize}

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-c n (copies) Makes n copies of the plot. Works only for the Varian and Versatec. Default is 1 copy.

-d n (depth) This option lets you limit the amount of detail plotted in a hierarchically designed chip. It will only instanciate the plot down n levels of calls. Sometimes too much detail can hide important features in a circuit.

-g n (grid) Draw a grid over the plot with spacing every n CIF units.

-h (half) Plot at half normal resolution. (Not yet implemented.)

-e (extensions) Accept only standard CIF. User extensions produce warnings.

-I (non-Interactive) Do not ask for confirmation. Always plot.

-L (List) Produce a listing of the CIF file on standard output as it is parsed. Not recommended unless debugging hand-coded CIF since CIF code can be rather long.

-a n (approximate) Approximate a roundflash with an n-sided polygon. By default n equals 8. (i.e. roundflashes are approximated by octagons.) If n equals 0 then output circles for roundflashes. (It is best not to use full circles since they significantly slow down plotting.) (Full circles not yet implemented.)

-b "text" (banner) Print the text at the top of the plot.

-C (Comments) Treat comments as though they were spaces. Sometimes CIF files created at other universities will have several errors due to syntactically incorrect comments. (i.e. the comments may appear in the middle of a CIF command or the comment does not end with a semi-colon.) Of course, CIF files should not have any errors and these comment related errors must be fixed before transmitting the file for fabrication. But many times fixing these errors seems to be more trouble than it is worth, especially if you just want to get a plot. This option is useful in getting rid of many of these comment related syntax errors.

-r (rotate) Rotate the plot 90 degrees.

-V (Varian) Send output to the varian. (This is the default option.)

-W (Wlde) Send output directly to the versatec.

-S (Spool) Store the output in a temporary file then dump the output quickly onto the Versatec. Makes nice crisp plots; also takes up a lot of disk space.

-T (Terminal) Send output to the terminal. (Not yet fully implemented.)

-Gh

-Ga (Graphics terminal) Send output to terminal using its graphics capabilities. -Gh indicates that the terminal is an HP2648. -Ga indicates that the terminal is an AED 512.

-X base

(eXtractor) From the CIF file create a circuit description suitable for switch level simulation. It creates two files: base.name.sim which contains the circuit description, and base.name.node which contains the node numbers and their location used in the circuit description.

When this option is invoked no plot is made. Therefore it is advisable not to use any of the other options that deal only with plotting. However, the window, layer, and approximate options are still appropriate. To get a plot of the circuit with the node numbers call cifplot again, without the -X option, and include base.name.nodes in the list of CIF files to be plotted. (This file must appear in the list of files before the file with
the CIF End command.)

- e n (copies) The -e specifies the number of copies of the plot you would like. This allows you to get many copies of a plot with no extra computation.

-P pattern_file
(Pattern) The -P option lets you specify your own layers and stipple patterns. Pattern_file may contain an arbitrary number of layer descriptors. A layer descriptor is the layer name in double quotes, followed by 8 integers. Each integer specifies 32 bits where ones are black and zeroes are white. Thus the 8 integers specify a 32 by 8 bit stipple pattern. The integers may be in decimal, octal, or hex. Hex numbers start with '0x'; octal numbers start with '0'. The CIF syntax requires that layer names be made up of only uppercase letters and digits, and not longer than four characters. The following is an example of a layer description for poly-silicon:

"NP" 0x08080808 0x04040404 0x02020202 0x01010101 0x08080808 0x04040404 0x02020202 0x01010101

-F font_file
(Font) The -F option indicates which font you want for your text. The file must be in the directory '/usr/lib/vfont'. The default font is Roman 6 point. Obviously, this option is only useful if you have text on your plot.

-O filename
(Output) After parsing the CIF file, store an equivalent but easy to parse CIF description in the specified file. This option removes the include and array commands (see next section) and replaces them with equivalent standard CIF statements. The resulting file is suitable for transmission to other facilities for fabrication.

In the definition of CIF provisions were made for local extensions. All extension commands begin with a number. Part of the purpose of these extensions is to test what features would be suitable to include as part of the standard language. But it is important to realize that these extensions are not standard CIF and that many programs interpreting CIF do not recognize them. If you use these extensions it is advisable to create another CIF file using the -O options described above before submitting your circuit for fabrication. The following is a list of extensions recognized by cifplot.

0I filenames
(Include) Read from the specified file as though it appeared in place of this command. Include files can be nested up to 6 deep.

0A s m n dz dy
(Array) Repeat symbol s m times with dz spacing in the x-direction and n times with dy spacing in the y-direction. s, m, and n are unsigned integers. dz and dy are signed integers in CIF units.

1 message
(Print) Print out the message on standard output when it is read.

2 "text" transform

2C "text" transform
(Text on Plot) Text is placed on the plot at the position specified by the transformation. The allowed transformations are the same as those allowed for the Call command. The transformation affects only the point at which the beginning of the text is to appear. The text is always plotted horizontally, thus the mirror and rotate transformations are not really of much use. Normally text is placed above and to the right of the reference point. The 2C command centers the text about the reference point.
(Name symbol) name is associated with the current symbol.

94 name x y;
94 name x y layer;

(Name point) name is associated with the point (x, y). Any mask geometry crossing
this point is also associated with name. If layer is present then just geometry crossing
the point on that layer is associated with name. For plotting this command is similar to
text on plot. When doing circuit extraction this command is used to give an explicit
name to a node. Name must not have any spaces in it, and it should not be a number.

FILES
~cad/.cadrc
~/cadrc
~cad/lib/fix.6
~cad/lib/pat.*
/usr/tmp/#cif*

SEE ALSO
cadrc(5)
A Guide to LSI Implementation by Hon and Sequin, Second Edition (Xerox PARC, 1980) for a
description of CIF.

AUTHOR
Dan Fitzpatrick

BUGS
The -r is somewhat kludgy and does not work well with the other options. Space before semi-
colons in local extensions can cause syntax errors.

The -O option produces simple cif with no scale factors in the DS commands. Because of this
you must supply a scale factor to some programs, such as the -l option to cif2ca.

The -X option is no longer supported.
NAME
Crystal – VLSI timing analyzer

SYNOPSIS
Crystal [file]

DESCRIPTION
Crystal is a semi-interactive program for analyzing the timing characteristics of large integrated circuits. It estimates the speed of a circuit and prints out information about the critical paths. If file is specified, it is read in as though the build command (see below) had been invoked. Crystal processes commands from the standard input, one per line. Lines beginning with exclamation points are ignored. Unique abbreviations for commands are acceptable. The order of commands in the input is important. Commands are divided into seven groups, which should appear in the following order:

Model commands
These commands modify the circuit and timing models used by Crystal, and should appear before the circuit is read in. The model commands are model, parameter, and translator.

Circuit commands
Used to input and describe the circuit being analyzed. The circuit commands are build, bus, capacitance, inputs, outputs, and resistance.

Dynamic node command
This group includes the single command markdynamic, used to find and mark the dynamic memory nodes in the circuit.

Check commands
Includes two commands, check, and ratio. These commands examine the circuit’s structure for suspicious-looking electrical features.

Setup commands
There are three commands in this group, flow, precharged, predischarged, and set. These commands are used to restrict the analysis performed for a given clock phase.

Delay command
The delay command invokes the actual delay analysis.

Miscellaneous commands
These commands may be invoked at any time: alias, critical, dump, fillin, help, options, quit, precapacitance, prefets, preresistance, source, statistics, undump, and watch.

The only command outside these groups is the clear command, which resets information that was set by setup and delay commands. After clear, input may resume with anything except model commands.

NODE NAMES
Where node names are called for in commands, they can appear in any of several forms:

1. A simple node name.
2. A name of the form "a<x:y>b". Crystal tries all names of the form "acb" where c ranges from x to y. To get a "<" character in the name, precede it with a backslash.
3. A name of the form "a". Crystal searches the entire node table for names containing the string "a". Note: this kind of name specification is slow on large chips, since the entire table has to be searched. For example, on a sample 45000 transistor chip, 20 seconds of CPU time were used for each search.

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GRAPHICAL COMMAND FILES
Several of the commands can be used with the -g argument to generate output for graphical display of information. At present, Crystal will generate command files for either Caesar, Magic, or Squid. To use Caesar command files, run Caesar on the chip and pick a view large enough to hold the whole chip (e.g. with the "v" short command). Then use the "source" long command to read in the command file. The command files place labels and paint on the error layer to mark places, and also push boxes onto the stack so that you can step from one label to the next using the ":popbox" long command. To use Magic command files, run Magic on the layout, place the cursor in the window containing the layout, and use the "source" long command to read in the command file. A collection of feedback areas will be generated. These can be examined using Magic's "feedback" command.

COMMANDS
alias file
Read in aliases from the information in file. Each line of the alias file is of the form "== name name name ...", where the first name is a node name that appears in the .sim file and each additional name is another name for the same node. After the alias command, any of the names may be used to refer to a node. An alias file shouldn't be read in until after the .sim file has been read.

build file
Build a circuit description from the information in file, which must be in .sim format. This command is unnecessary if a file is specified on the shell command line, but is necessary if non-standard models are used.

bus node node...
This command should only rarely be needed. Each of the nodes gets marked as a bus. When a node is a bus, Crystal assumes that delays through the node can be treated as separate stages to the node and from the node. Nodes with large capacitances are automatically considered to be busses: see the bus option below.

capacitance pfs node node...
The parasitic capacitance value for each node is set to the given value. This overrides the capacitance estimate made from the mask layout.

check
Make a series of static electrical checks on the circuit. This command prints out information about nodes with no transistors connected to them, nodes that are not driven, nodes that don't drive anything, transistors that are permanently forced off, transistors connecting Vdd and GND, and transistors that are bidirectional but haven't been marked with a flow attribute.

clear
All information set by setup and delay commands is cleared, in preparation for an additional timing analysis. Information set by circuit commands isn't affected. After the clear command, input may continue with any commands except those in the model group. Information from the watch command is also cleared.

critical [file] [-g graphicfilename] [-a spicefilename] [pathnumber][m][w]
Print out information about the critical paths. If pathnumber isn't specified, then the slowest path is printed. If it is specified, the pathnumber'th slowest path is printed. If pathnumber is followed by an m, then the pathnumber'th slowest path leading to a memory node is printed. If pathnumber is followed by a w then the pathnumber'th slowest path leading to a watched node is printed (see the watch command). Only the very slowest paths are recorded by Crystal, controlled by the paths, mempaths, and watchpaths options (see the options command below). Furthermore, Crystal does not record a path if its total delay is within .1% of another path already recorded on the list (this is to alleviate the problem of the lists getting flooded by essentially equivalent
paths). If the file argument is given, then output goes to that file instead of standard output. If the -g argument is given, a graphics command file is generated in graphicsfile. If the -a argument is given, a SPICE deck is created in spicefile describing the transistors and parasitics along the path (no model parameters or body bias voltages are output).

```
delay node risetime falltime
   Propagate delay information through the circuit. Assume that the worst-case time for
   node to become 1 is risetime, and the worst-case time for it to become 0 is falltime.
   Propagate timing information through nodes that node can impact, until the the worst-
   case settling times for the entire network have been found. A -1 value for risetime or
   falltime means that there is no transition to that level.
```

dump file
   This is a special wizards-only command for saving critical path information in a way that
   Crystal can read it back later using the undump command, without having to reprocess
   the whole .sim file. Don’t use this command unless you really know what you are doing.

```
filln time/edgeSpeed inFile outFil e keyword path path ...
   This command is useful in order to interface Crystal to other programs that process
   Crystal’s output. inFile is read by the command, and its contents are copied to
   outFile. Along the way, each occurrence of keyword is replaced by a number from one of
   the critical paths (each path is specified as for the critical command). If time is
   specified, then the time at the end of each stage along the critical path is used to replace
   occurrences of keyword, with smaller times replacing earlier occurrences. If edgeSpeed is
   specified, then the edge speeds from the stages of the path are used to replace keywords.
   If more than one path is specified, the paths are processed in order of their occurrence on
   the command line. If there are more stages in the paths than occurrences of keyword,
   then the last stages are ignored. If there are more occurrences of keyword than stages,
   only the first few keywords will be replaced. If no path is specified, it defaults to "1".
```

```
flow direction attribute attribute ...
   For each source/drain attribute given, mark the attribute so that information will only
   be permitted to flow in the given direction. Direction may be either in, out, off,
   ignore, or normal. in and out require information to flow only in the specified
   direction. off does not permit any flow through the tagged transistors. If ignore is
   specified then no restrictions are enforced whatsoever. normal returns the flow to its
   normal operation.
```

```
help
   Print a short listing of the valid commands.
```

```
inputs node node ...
   Mark each of the nodes as an input. This has two effects. First, it indicates that the
   node can take on values of either 0 or 1 (otherwise, Crystal may conclude that the node
   can’t ever reach one or both values). Second, if the node isn’t also an output node, then
   Crystal assumes that the timing of the node is fixed by the outside world and is not
   affected by anything in the circuit: if no delay command is given for the node, Crystal
   assumes the value never changes.
```

```
markdynamic node value node value ...
   This statement causes Crystal to examine all nodes and mark dynamic memory nodes. A
   node is considered to be a dynamic memory node if it is electrically isolated when each
   node takes its corresponding value. Normally the command is invoked with all of the
   clock phases turned off, e.g. “markdynamic Phi1 0 Phi2 0 Phi3 0 Phi4 0”.
```

```
model name
   Use name as the model for delay calculations. Currently, two models, rc and slope, are
```
available. The re model approximates each transistor with a fixed resistance value. The slope model uses the gate rise and fall speeds to modify the effective resistance.

**options [name [value]] [name [value]] ...**
This command is used to see and set a variety of internal options used by Crystal. **Options with no arguments prints out the current setting of all options.** Each option consists of an option name and perhaps a value for the option. Some options do not have values. See the section “OPTIONS” below for the available options.

**outputs node node ...**
Marks each of the given nodes as an output. Crystal assumes that information (0's and 1's) flows from sources (supply rails and inputs) to targets (gates and outputs). If a piece of circuit doesn’t drive any gates, Crystal won’t compute delays through it unless the result nodes are labelled as outputs.

**parameter [name [value]]**
This statement is used to see or change several overall model parameters. **Name is the name of a parameter, and value is a new value for that parameter.** If both name and value are specified, then the value of the parameter is changed. If only name is specified, then the current value is printed. If neither name or value is specified, then the values of all parameters are printed. The valid parameter names are listed in the section “MODEL PARAMETERS” below.

**prcapacitance [-g file] [-t threshold] node node ...**
Print out information for each of the indicated nodes whose total capacitance is at least threshold pf (the default is 0 if the argument isn’t present). If no node names are given, then all nodes in the the circuit are checked. The -g argument can be used to generate a graphical command file.

**precharged node node ...**
Mark each of the given nodes as precharged. This means that only falling transitions are considered during timing analysis. Each of the nodes is also treated as a bus.

**predischarged node node ...**
Mark each of the given nodes as precharged to 0. This means that only rising transitions are considered during timing analysis. Each of the nodes is also treated as a bus.

**prfets node node ...**
For each node that is given, information is printed about all transistors whose gates attach to the node. If no node is specified, then information is printed about all transistors in the circuit.

**prresistance [-g file] [-t threshold] node node ...**
Print out information for each of the indicated nodes whose internal resistance exceeds threshold ohms. If no threshold is given, 0 is used by default. If no node names are given, then check all nodes in the circuit. The -g argument is used to generate a graphics command file.

**quit**
Exit Crystal and return to the shell. End-of-file on the input stream will also cause Crystal to exit.

**ratio [limit value] [limit value] ...**
Examine the circuit for nMOS ratio violations. Normal circuits are expected to have pullup/pulldown ratios between 3.8 and 4.2. Pass-transistor driven circuits must have ratios between 7.8 and 8.2. Ratios outside this range are printed out. If the same illegal pullup/pulldown ratio is duplicated more than 20 times, only the first 20 are printed. The limits of acceptability may be changed by providing arguments to the ratio command. **Limit must be one of normalow, normalhl, passlow, or passhl (unique abbreviations**
are acceptable).

resistance ohms node node ...
The internal node resistance associated with each node is set to ohms. This overrides the value computed from the mask layout.

set value node node ...
Force each node always to have the given value (0 or 1). Furthermore, do a static logic simulation to propagate this information as far as possible throughout the network. Thus, if the input to an inverter or NAND gate is forced to 0, the output is forced to 1, and so on.

source file
Read commands from file. On end-of-file, go back to reading commands from the previous source. Source files may be nested.

statistics
Prints a variety of statistics gathered internally by Crystal. Probably not useful except to a system maintainer.

transistor [name [field value] [field value] ...]
The transistor command is used to define new transistor types, or see or modify existing types. Name is the name of a transistor type, field is the name of a field associated with the transistor, and value is a new value for that field. The valid field names are listed in the section "TRANSISTOR FIELDS" below. If name matches the name of an existing transistor type (see below for the predefined types), then the field and value arguments are used to change some of its fields. If name is not an existing transistor type, a new type is created. If there are no arguments to the transistor command, then all fields for all defined types are printed out. If name is supplied with no field values, then all the fields for that transistor are printed out. To use a user-defined type for a transistor, place an attribute on the gate of the transistor. The the attribute contains the name of the transistor type to use for it.

undump file
This is another wizards-only command. Don't use it unless you really know what you are doing. The undump command is provided to read back the output of the dump command, so that Crystal can get critical paths without having to re-extract them.

watch node node ...
Mark each of the given nodes so that delays to them will be recorded on the list of slowest watched nodes (these nodes will still be recorded on the lists of arbitrary and memory nodes too, if they are among the slowest in those categories). The watch flags are cleared by the clear command.

OPTIONS
The options defined below are used in various and sundry places inside Crystal to control calculations and printout. They can be changed with the options command.

bus value
Gives the amount of capacitance a node must have to automatically be considered a bus by Crystal (default is 2 pF).

graphics style
Sets the style for graphical output. Currently, three styles are understood: caesar, magie, and squid (default is caesar).

limit value
Gives the maximum of stage delays Crystal will calculate before giving up in despair
mempaths value
Gives the number of worst-case paths Crystal will record for delays to memory nodes (default is 5, maximum is 100).

noprintedgespeeds
When printing critical paths, print only the delay to each node, without the edge rise or fall speeds (default).

noseedelays
Tells Crystal not to print out information about delays as they are calculated in delay commands (default).

noseedynamic
Tells Crystal not to print out the dynamic memory nodes as they are found in the markdynamic command (default).

noseesettings
Tells Crystal not to print out nodes when they are set to values during the set command (default).

paths value
Gives the number of worst-case paths Crystal will record on the list of slowest nodes overall (memory nodes and watched nodes will also be recorded on lists for each of those categories; mempaths and watchpaths options are used to control the lengths of those lists). The default is 5 and the maximum is 100.

printedgespeeds
When printing critical paths, in addition to printing the delay to each node, also print the speed at which the edge rises or falls at that node. This only makes sense when using the slope model.

ratiodups value
When printing out ratio errors in the ratio command, if a number of errors occur with exactly the same erroneous ratio, only the first ratiodups of these duplicate errors will be printed. The default is 20.

ratiolimit value
Controls the maximum number of ratio errors that will be printed in any one ratio command. The default is 1000.

seealldelays
Causes Crystal to print out each new delay as it is calculated during the delay command.

seeallsettings
Causes Crystal to print out each node setting as it is found during the set command.

seedelays
Causes Crystal to print out new delays as they are found during the delay command, but only for nodes whose names have alphabetic first characters.

seedynamic
Causes Crystal to print out the name of every dynamic node as it is found in markdynamic.

seesettings
Causes Crystal to print out new node settings during the set command, but only for nodes whose names have alphabetic first characters.

units value
Tells Crystal what units to use when printing out information. If units is 2.0 (default) then a printed value of 1 corresponds to 2 microns.

**watchpaths value**

Gives the number of paths to record on the list of slowest watched nodes (default is 5, maximum is 100).

**TRANSISTOR FIELDS**

Each transistor type is parameterized by the following fields. They can be changed using the **transistor** command.

- **cperarea**
  Gate-channel capacitance of the transistor, in pFs per square micron.

- **cperwidth**
  Gate-source and gate-drain overlap capacitance, in pFs per micron of transistor width.

- **histrength**
  An integer value giving the logical strength of the transistor when it is pulling to Vdd. This is used in simulation to determine which transistor wins when different transistors drive a node in different directions (e.g. histrength for pullup loads is less than loststrength for enhancement pulldowns).

- **loststrength**
  An integer value giving the logical strength of the transistor when it is pulling to ground.

- **on**
  This field has one of three values: gate0, gate1, or always. Gate0 means that the transistor is turned on only when the gate is zero (in other words, it is a p-channel enhancement device). Gate1 means that the transistor is turned on only when the gate is one (it is an n-channel enhancement device). Always means the device is always turned on (it is a depletion device).

- **rdown**
  The resistance per square of the transistor when it is pulling down. Used to calculate delays in the rc model.

- **rup**
  The resistance per square of the transistor when it is pulling up. Used to calculate delays in the rc model.

- **slopeparmedown**
  Gives table values used for interpolation in the slope delay model. The value consists of any number of triplets. Each triplet contains an edge speed ratio, an effective resistance, and an output edge speed. The table is used when the transistor is driving to ground. The mkcp program is useful for generating these parameters from SPICE model parameters.

- **slopeparamup**
  Gives table values used for interpolation in the slope delay model. The value consists of any number of triplets. Each triplet contains an edge speed ratio, an effective resistance, and an output edge speed. The table is used when the transistor is driving to Vdd. The mkcp program is useful for generating these parameters from SPICE model parameters.

- **spicebody**
  Spicebody is the node number to use for the body when outputting this type of transistor in SPICE decks. The body node number must be 0-3. 0 is GND, 1 is Vdd, and 2 and 3 are user-controlled body bias voltages.

- **splicetype**
  A single letter identifier used as the type of this transistor in SPICE decks.
PREDEFINED TRANSISTOR TYPES

The following types of transistors are predefined by Crystal. When Crystal reads in files, it selects one of the following transistor types for each transistor, unless overridden by an attribute giving a type not listed below. Their fields can be changed using the transistor command.

nenh  Enhancement transistors in nMOS.

nenhp Enhancement transistors in nMOS whose gates are driven by pass transistors (i.e. any transistor whose gate is not a circuit input and does not attach to an nload or nsuper transistor). Transistor types are switched between nenh and nenhp during flow marking.

ndep  Depletion devices in nMOS (most depletion devices are turned into either type nload or nsuper by Crystal).

nload nMOS depletion devices where the gate connects to either source or drain and the other terminal connects to Vdd.

nsuper nMOS depletion devices where either the source or drain connects to Vdd but the other terminal doesn't connect to the gate.

nchan  N-channel enhancement devices in CMOS. This is provided separately from type nenh as a convenience to accommodate different delay characteristics in nMOS and CMOS.

pchan  P-channel enhancement devices in CMOS.

MODEL PARAMETERS

The following are the model parameters that aren't associated with particular transistor types. They are used in the parameter command.

diffcperarea  Capacitance between diffusion and substrate, in pfs per square micron.

diffcperperim Sidewall capacitance of diffusion, in pfs per micron of perimeter.

diffresistance Resistance of diffusion, in ohms per square.

metalcperarea Capacitance between metal and substrate, in pfs per square micron.

metalresistance Resistance of metal, in ohms per square.

polycperarea Capacitance between polysilicon and substrate, in pfs per square micron.

polyresistance Resistance of polysilicon, in ohms per square.

vdd The supply (logic 1) voltage. Used in the slope model, and also in outputting SPICE decks.

vlnv The logic threshold voltage (usually Vdd/2). Used in the slope model to compute edge speeds for resistors.

SEE ALSO
mkcp(1)

AUTHOR
John Ousterhout
NAME
eqntott – generate truth table from Boolean equations

SYNOPSIS
eqntott [ -l | [-f | -s | [-r | -R | [-key | [ cc options | [ files

DESCRIPTION

Eqntott generates a truth table suitable for PLA programming from a set of Boolean equations which define the PLA outputs in terms of its inputs. When neither -f nor -s is specified, input and output variables must be mutually exclusive. If the -s option is given, an output variable may be used in an expression defining another output variable: the expression for the first output is substituted for the the name of that output when it is encountered. The -f option allows outputs to be defined in terms of their previous values in a synchronous system (e.g. an FSM); the same name appearing as both an input and an output may be thought of as referring to two distinct variables, or the same variable at two distinct times. (The -f and -s options are mutually exclusive.)

If the -r option is specified, eqntott will attempt to reduce the size of the truth table by merging minterms. The -R option (implies -r) forces eqntott to produce a truth table with no redundant minterms. The truth table generated does not represent a minimal covering of the truth functions, but does preserve some “don’t care” information for some other program to use.

If the -l option is specified, eqntott will output a truth table which includes the name of the pla and its inputs and outputs as specified in PLA(5).

The form that the output takes is controlled by the string key, described below. Input is taken from files (standard input default) and run through the C macro preprocessor of cc(1), to permit comments, file inclusion, macros, and conditional processing. The cc options -D, -I, and -U are recognized and passed on to the preprocessor.

Equation Syntax:

name = expression;

Associates a truth function defined by expression with the output name, both of which are defined below. If an output name is assigned more than one expression, the effect is identical to a single assignment to the output of the logical disjunction of all the original expressions.

NAME = name ;

Defines the name of the pla to be “name”. If not specified, the name of the pla is the name of the input file with any postfixed removed.

INORDER = name [name]... ;

Defines the order in which inputs appear in the truth table. If not specified, the order is that in which the inputs appear in the source.

OUTORDER = name [name]... ;

Defines the order in which outputs appear in the truth table. If not specified, the order is that in which the outputs appear in the source.

Expression Syntax:

name

A name may be used to specify an input or output. The name must begin with a letter or underscore; subsequent characters may be letters, digits, underscores, asterisks, periods, square brackets, or angle brackets.
ZERO (or 0)
   Built-in input that always has the value zero (false).

ONE (or 1)
   Built-in input that always has the value one (true).

?  
   Built-in input that always has the value “don’t care”.

(expression )  
   Parenthesis may be used to change the order of evaluation.

! expression  
   Gives the complement of expression.

expression & expression  
   Gives the logical conjunction of the two expressions. The & operator associates left to right, and has the same precedence as !.

e xpression | expression  
   Gives the logical disjunction of the two expressions. The | operator also associates left to right, and has a lower precedence than &.

Output Format
The output format may be controlled to a small extent using the character string key. The string is scanned left to right, and at each character code, a piece of output is generated corresponding to the character encountered. If -key is not specified, the string “lopte” is used, or “ioptie” with the -f option.

code  output generated
    .e  .a
    .f output-number input-number
        (one line for each feedback path, numbers refer to Or- and And-plane truth table column numbers)
    .h a human readable version of the truth table (q.v.)
    .l .1 number-of-inputs
    .I .1 input-name
        (one line for each input, in order)
    .l a truth table with the name of the pla, its inputs and its outputs
    .p .p number-of-product-terms
    .n .n number-of-product-terms
    .o .o number-of-outputs
    .O .O output-name
        (one line for each output, in order)
    .s PLA connectivity summary
    .t PLA personality matrix (q.v.)
    .v eqntott version information

The truth table (personality matrix) consists of a line for each minterm, beginning with that minterm and followed by the values of the various outputs. The minterm is composed of a single character (0, 1, or -) for each input in the conventional fashion. The output values are represented by one of the three characters (0, 1, or x). Some white space is added for readability’s sake.
In the human readable format, each line of output represents one term in the sum-of-products expression for an output. The line begins with the name of the output, which is enclosed in parentheses for the value "don't care". Then follow the names of the inputs in the product; complemented inputs are preceded by a !.

SEE ALSO
cc(1).

DIAGNOSTICS
Syntax errors are written to the standard error output and should be self-explanatory.

BUGS
-I should be the default, but some pla tools can't handle the full format. Eqntott likes its options separately; i.e. -f -I works but -fl doesn't.

AUTHOR
Bob Cmelik.
-I option added by Jeff Deutsch.
NAME
esim – event driven switch level simulator

SYNOPSIS
esim [file1 [file2 ...]]

DESCRIPTION
Esim is an event-driven switch level simulator for nMOS or CMOS transistor circuits. Esim
accepts commands from the user, executing each command before reading the next. Commands
come in two flavors: those which manipulate the electrical network, and those to direct the
simulation. Commands have the following simple syntax:
c arg1 arg2 ... argn

where c is a single letter specifying the command to be performed and arg1 through argn are
arguments to that command. The arguments are separated by spaces or tabs, and the command
is terminated by a newline.

To run esim type
esim file1 file2 ...

Esim will read and execute commands, first from file1, then file2, etc. If one of the file names is
preceded by a ‘-‘, then that file becomes the new output file (the default output is stdout). For
example,
esim f.slm -f.out g.slm

This would cause esim to read commands from f.slm, sending output to the default output.
When f.slm was exhausted, f.out would become the new output file, and the commands in g.slm
executed.

After all the files have been processed, and if the q command has not terminated the simulation
run, esim will accept further commands from the user, prompting for each one like so:
sim>
The user can type individual commands or direct esim to another file using the 'Q' command:
sim> Q patchfile.slm

This command would cause esim to read commands from patchfile.slm, returning to interactive
input when the file was exhausted.

It is common to have an initial network file prepared by a node extractor with perhaps a patch
file or two prepared by hand. After reading these files into the simulator, the user would then
interactively direct esim. This could be accomplished as follows:
esim file.slm patch.1 patch.2

After reading the files, esim would prompt for the first command. Or we could have typed:
% esim file.slm
sim> Q patch.1
sim> Q patch.2

Network Manipulation Commands
The electrical network to be simulated is made up of enhancement and depletion mode transistors
interconnected by nodes. Components can be added to the network with the following commands:
eg gate source drain
d gate source drain

e gate source drain length width key xpos ypos area
Adds enhancement mode transistor to network with the specified gate, source,
and drain nodes. The longer form includes size and location information as
provided by the node extractor – when making patches the short form is usually
used.
d gate source drain

do gate source drain length width key xpos ypos area
Like e except for depletion mode devices.
p gate source drain

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**Simulator Commands**

The user can specify which nodes are to have their values displayed after each simulation step:

- **w node1 node2 node3 ...**
  - Watch node1 and node3, stop watching node2. At the end of a simulation step, each watched node will be displayed like so:
    - node1=0
    - node3=X
  - To remove a node from the watched list, preface its name with a '-' in a w command.

- **W label node1 node2 ... noden**
  - Watch bit vector. The values of nodes node1, ..., noden will be displayed as a bit vector:
    - label=010100 20
  - Where the first 0 is the value of node1, the first 1 the value of node2, etc. The number displayed to right is the value of the bit vector interpreted as a binary number; this is omitted if the vector contains an X value. There is no way to unwatch a bit vector.

Before each simulation step the user can force nodes to be either high (1) or low (0) inputs (an input's value cannot be changed by the simulator!):

- **h node1 node2 ...**
  - Force each node on the argument list to be a high input. overrides previous input commands if necessary.

- **l node1 node2 ...**
  - Like h except forces nodes to be a low input.

- **x node1 node2 ...**
  - Removes nodes from whatever input list they happen to be on. The next simulation step will determine their correct value in the circuit. This is the default state of most nodes. Note that this does not force nodes to have an X value — it simply removes them from the input lists.

The current value of a node can be determined in several ways:

- **v**
  - View. prints the values of all watched nodes and nodes on the high and low input
lists.

`f node1 node2` ...

Prints a synopsis of the named nodes including their current values and the state of all transistors that affect the value of these nodes. This is the most common way of wondering through the network in search of what went wrong...

`! node1 node2` ...

For each node in the argument list, prints a list of transistors controlled by that node.

`f` and `!` allow the user to go both backwards and forwards through the network in search of that piece causing all the problems.

The simulator is invoked with the following commands:

`s`

Simulation step. Propagates new values for the inputs through the network, returns when the network has settled. If things don’t settle, command will never terminate — try the `w` and `D` commands to narrow down the problem.

`c`

Cycle once through the clock, as defined by the `K` command.

`I`

Initialize. Circuits with state are often hard to initialize because the initial value of each node is `X`. To cure this problem, the `I` command finds each node whose value is charged-X and changes it to charged-0, then runs a simulation step. If one iterates the `I` command a couple times, this often leads to a stable initialized condition (indicated when an `I` command takes 0 events, i.e., the circuit is stable). Try it — if circuit does not become stable in 3 or 4 tries, this command is probably of no use.

Miscellaneous Commands

`D`

toggle debug switch. useful for debugging simulator and/or circuit. If debug switch is on, then during simulation step each time a watched node is encountered in some event, that fact is indicated to the user along with some event info. If a node keeps appearing in this printout, chances are that its value is oscillating. Vice versa, if your circuit never settles (i.e., it oscillates), you can use the `D` and `w` commands to find the node(s) that are causing the problem.

`>` filename

write current state of each node into specified file. useful for make a break point in your simulation run. Only stores values so isn’t really useful to dump a run for later use — see `<` command.

`<` filename

read from specified file, reinitializing the value of each node as directed. Note that network must already exist and be identical to the network used to create the dump file with the `>` command. These state saving commands are really provided so that complicated initializing sequences need only be simulated once.

`L`

invokes network processor that finds all subsets corresponding to simple logic gates and converts them into form that allows faster simulation. Often it does the right thing, leading to a 25% to 50% reduction in the time for a single step. [We know of one case where the transformation was not transparent, so caveat simulaee...]

`X` ...

call extension command — provides for user extensions to simulator.

`q`

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exit to system.

Local Extensions

V node vector
   Define a vector of inputs for the node. The first element is initially set as the
   input for node. Set the next element of the vector as the input after a cycle.

R n
   Run the simulator through n cycles. If n is not present make the run as long as
   the longest vector. All watch nodes are reported back as vectors.

N
   Clear all previously defined input vectors.

K node1 vector1 node2 vector2 ... nodeN vectorN
   Define the clock. Each cycle, nodes 1 through N must run through their
   respective vectors.

SEE ALSO
   mextra(1), sim(5)

AUTHOR
   Chris Terman
   CMOS enhancements by Mike Klein and Joan Pendleton
NAME

espresso – Boolean Minimization

SYNOPSIS

espresso [type] [file] [options]

DESCRIPTION

Espresso takes as input a two-level representation of a two-valued (or a multiple-valued) Boolean function, and produces a minimal equivalent representation. The algorithms used are new and represent an advance in both speed and optimality of solution in heuristic Boolean minimization.

Espresso reads the file provided (or standard input if no files are specified), performs the minimization, and writes the minimized result to standard output. Espresso automatically verifies that the minimized function is equivalent to the original function.

The default input and output file formats are compatible with the Berkeley standard format for the physical description of a PLA. The input format is described in detail in espresso(5). Note that the input file is a logical representation of a set of Boolean equations, and hence the input format differs slightly from that described in pla(5) (which provides for the physical representation of a PLA). The input and output formats have been expanded to allow for multiple-valued logic functions, and to allow for the specification of the don’t care set which will be used in the minimization.

Type specifies the logical format for the function. The allowed types are -f, -r, -fr, -fd, -dr, and -fdr which have the same meanings assigned in espresso(5).

The command line options described below can be specified anywhere on the command line and must be separated by spaces:

-d Verbise detail describing the progress of the minimization is written to standard output. Useful only for those familiar with the algorithms used.

-do [s] This option executes subprogram [s]. Some of the more useful ones are:

check – checks that the function is a partition of the entire space (i.e., that the ON-set, OFF-set and DC-set are pairwise disjoint, and that their union is the Universe)

echo – implies "-out fdr" and echoes the function to standard output. This can be used to compute the complement of a function.

opo – choose a good assignment of output function phases, and minimize the function

qmn – generate all prime implicants of a function, compute the "reduced prime implicant table" and perform a simple greedy covering of this table. Will also provide a bound on the size of the minimum solution if option -d is used.

stats – provide simple statistics on the size of the function

The remaining subprograms (contaia, compact, essen, expand, intersect, irred, lexsort, mincov, minieword, minireordord, pop, primes, reduce, sharp, taut, union, unravel, verify + surely others by now) are intended for those heavily into manipulating Boolean functions.

-fast Stop after the first EXPAND and IRREDUNDANT operations (i.e., do not iterate over the solution).

-kles Sets up a kles-style minimization problem.

-nsh Esential primes will not be detected and removed from the minimization.

-nirr The final result will not necessarily be forced irredundant.

-help Provides a quick summary of the available command line options.

-out [s] Selects the output format. By default, only the ON-set (i.e., type f) is output after the minimization. [s] can be one of f, d, r, fd, dr, fr, or fdr to select any combination of the ON-set (f), the OFF-set (r) or the DC-set (d).
-pos  Swaps the ON-set and OFF-set of the function after reading the function. (This can be used to minimize the OFF-set of a function.)

-s    Will provide a short summary of the execution of the program including the initial cost of the function, the final cost, and the computer resources used.

-t    Will produce a trace showing the execution of the program. After each main step of the algorithm, a single line is printed which reports the processor time used, and the current cost of the function.

-x    Suppress printing of the solution.

DIAGNOSTICS
      espresso will issue a warning message if a product term spans more than one line. Usually this is an indication that the number of inputs or outputs of the function is specified incorrectly.

SEE ALSO
      pla(5), espresso(5)

AUTHOR
      Richard Rudell

BUGS
      Always passes comments from the input file, and passes unrecognized options straight from the input file to standard output (sometimes this isn’t what you want).

      There are a lot of options, but the most typical use is the following:
      eqntott -r file.eqn | espresso >file.pla
      The -R option of eqntott should not be used (it is much too expensive).
NAME
ext2sim – convert hierarchical .ext extracted-circuit files to flat .slim files

SYNOPSIS

DESCRIPTION
Ext2sim will convert an extracted circuit from the hierarchical representation (.ext) produced by Magic to the flat representation (.slim) currently required for simulation. The root of the tree to be extracted is the file root.ext; it and all the files it references are recursively flattened. The result is a single, flat representation of the circuit that is written to the file root.slim, a list of node aliases written to the file root.ali, and a list of the locations of all nodenames in CIF format, suitable for plotting, to the file root.nodes. The file root.slim is suitable for use with programs such as crystal(1), esim(1), or simspice(1).

The following options are recognized:

- -a aliasfile
  Instead of leaving node aliases in the file root.ali, leave it in aliasfile.

- -c ccap
  Set the capacitance threshold to ccap femtofarads. Only capacitances greater than or equal to ccap will appear in the .slim file as C lines. This includes both capacitance to substrate (GND) and internodal capacitances. The default value for ccap is 100 femtofarads.

- -l labelsfile
  Instead of leaving a CIF file with the locations of all node names in the file root.nodes, leave it in labelsfile.

- -o outfile
  Instead of leaving output in the file root.slim, leave it in outfile.

- -p path
  Normally, the path to search for .ext files is determined by looking for path commands in first ~cad/lib/magic/sys_magic, then ~/.magic, then .magic in the current directory. If -p is specified, the colon-separated list of directories specified by path is used instead. Each of these directories is searched in turn for the .ext files in a design.

- -r res
  Set the resistance threshold to res ohms. Only nodes with resistances greater than or equal to res will appear in the .slim file as R lines. The default value for res is 10 ohms.

- -A
  Don't produce the aliases file.

- -C
  Don't output capacitances (no C lines will appear in the .slim file). Because this avoids any internodal capacitance processing, ext2sim will run faster when this flag is given.

- -L
  Don't produce the label file.

- -R
  Don't output resistances (no R lines will appear in the .slim file). This is required if the .slim file is to be read by programs that don't understand about explicit resistances in .slim files.

- -T tech
  Set the technology in the output .slim file to tech. This overrides any technology specified in the root .ext file.

SCALING AND UNITS
If all of the .ext files in the tree read by ext2sim have the same geometrical scale (specified in the
scale line in each .ext file), this scale is reflected through to the output, resulting in substantially smaller .sim files. Otherwise, the geometrical unit in the output .sim file is a centimicron.

Resistance and capacitance are always output in ohms and picofarads, respectively.

SEE ALSO
magic(1), ext(5), sim(5)

AUTHOR
Walter Scott
NAME
Fsleeper – run sleeper remotely

SYNOPSIS
fsleeper [-t tty] [-l user] [ remotemachine ]

DESCRIPTION
Fsleeper is used if you wish to run a program such as magic(1) on a different machine
(remotemachine) than the one to which a graphics terminal is attached, and the local graphics
terminal has no login process.

Normally, fsleeper will start a remote sleeper on the companion graphics terminal for your
terminal. This graphics terminal is found by looking in the file ~cad/lib/displays, as described in
displays(5). If a different graphics terminal is desired, it may be specified by the -t flag. Note
that this is the terminal on the local machine, not the remote machine. (The remote terminal will
be printed by sleeper(1) when it starts up on the remote machine).

Also, normally fsleeper will attempt to log in as the user sleeper on the remote machine. If a
different user name is desired, it may be specified with the -l flag. This user name must exist on
remotemachine.

FILES
~cad/lib/displays

SEE ALSO
magic(1), rsleeper(1), sleeper(1), displays(5)

AUTHOR
Walter Scott

BUGS
If no remotemachine is specified, it defaults to ucbkrm. This is fine for Berkeley, but useless
elsewhere.
NAME
grSunProg - internal process for Magic's Sun display driver

SYNOPSIS
grSunProg colorWindowName textWindowName notifyPID

DESCRIPTION
GrSunProg is an internal program used by Magic when using the Sun workstation's display. This
manual page is intended only for Magic maintainers.
GrSunProg collects button pushes from the color window and sends them over a pipe to Magic.
The program also responds to requests from Magic for the mouse position. In addition, this
program tells Suntools to forward characters typed in the color window directly to Magic's text
window.

ARGUMENTS
All three arguments are required:

    colorWindowName
    This is the name of the color window that magic is running under (such as
    /dev/mw03). Magic normally opens up the color monitor with a single, large,
    window on it.

    textWindowName
    This is the name of the text window that contains Magic's command log.
    Keyboard events are forwarded to this window.

    notifyPID
    If this processID is not 0, then SIGIO signals are sent to this process when there is
data for it.

INTERFACE
Button pushes are sent out over file descriptor 2 (stderr). A button push is encoded as two
characters followed by two integers giving the location of the button push. The first character is
either 'L', 'M', or 'R' depending on the button pushed: Left, Middle, or Right. The next character
is either 'D' or 'U' depending on the action: Up or Down. The two numbers are the X and Y
coordinates of the button push. This string is followed by a newline. Example: LD 123 342
means that the left button was pushed down at location (123, 342).
GrSunProg sometimes receives a character from Magic over file descriptor 0 (stdin). If this
character is an EOF, then the program terminates. If this character is an 'A', then grSunFrog
responds with a 'P' and the current mouse coordinates over file descriptor 1 (stdout). This string is
followed by a newline. Example: P 101 23 means that the mouse is currently at location (101,
23).

SEE ALSO
    magic(1)

AUTHOR
    Robert N. Mayo
NAME
  magic - VLSI layout editor

SYNOPSIS
  magic [ -g graphics_port ] [ -d device_type ] [ -m monitor_type ] [ -l tablet_port ] [ -T technology ] [ -F object_file save_file ] [ file ]

DESCRIPTION
  Magic is an interactive editor for VLSI layouts. It uses two displays: one for text (usually black-and-white) and the other for displaying layouts in color. A mouse is used to point to things on the color display. Run Magic from the text terminal. Normally, Magic gets information about the color display from ~/cad/lib/displays. However, the following command line switches can be used when running Magic from a patchboard port:

  -g The next argument is the name of the port to use for communication with the graphics display. This is usually of the form /dev/ttyzz.

  -d The next argument is the type of graphics terminal being used. Magic currently works with these types:

  UCBS12
  An AED812 with the Berkeley microcode roms, with attached bitpad (SummaGraphics Bitpad-One).

  AED1024
  An AED1024 with a SummaGraphics Mouse and rev. D roms. Because of a lack of features in this device, programmable cursors do not work. Many thanks to Peng Ang and LSI Logic Corp for porting Magic to this device.

  NULL A null device for running Magic without using a graphics display.

  SUN120
  A Sun Microsystems workstation, model Sun2/120 with the SunColor option (/dev/cgcam) and the Sun optical mouse. Also works on some old Suns with the 'Sun2 brain transplant'. You must be running Suntools on the black and white display.

  On VAXes, UCBS12 is the default. On Sun workstations, SUN120 is the default type. Types listed in ~/cad/lib/displays override the default type.

  -m The next argument is the type of color monitor being used, and is used to select the right color map for the monitor's phosphors. "Std" works well for most monitors, some sites (not Berkeley) have a type "pale" for monitors with especially pale blue phosphor.

  -I The next argument is the name of the port to use for input from the tablet. This defaults to whatever port is being used for the graphics output, and thus only needs to be specified under unusual circumstances.

  In addition, Magic accepts the following command line switches:

  -T The next argument is the name of a technology. The tile types, display information, and design rules for this technology are read by Magic from a technology file when it starts up. The technology defaults to "amos" if not specified.

  -F The next two arguments are two filenames. The first, object_file, is the name of the file that was executed to run this version of Magic. The second, save_file, is the name of a new file. After performing all initializations (reading in the technology file, loading the style information and colormap, etc), an executable image of Magic is stored in save_file. This executable image may then be run as a normal Magic, except that it starts up much more quickly. The symbol table from object_file is copied to save_file so the new version
can be debugged. The -F feature only works on VAXes right now.

When Magic starts up it looks for a command file in ~/.cad/lib/magic/sys/.magic and processes it if it exists. Then Magic looks for a file with the name “.magic” in the home directory and processes it if it exists. Finally, Magic looks for a .magic file in the current directory and reads it as a command file if it exists. The .magic file format is described under the source command.

COMMANDS — GENERAL INFORMATION
Magics uses three sorts of commands. Pressing a mouse button is one sort of command. You can also enter commands by typing a `;` character followed by the text of the command. Multiple commands may be specified on one line by separating them with a semicolon. “Macros” are single-letter abbreviations for commands; macros are invoked by pressing keys without typing a `;` first. The next sections describe the Magic commands.

Many commands deal with the window underneath the cursor, so if a command is not doing what you would expect, make sure that you are pointing to the correct place on the screen. There are several different kinds of windows in Magic (layout, color, and netlist); each window has a different command set.

MOUSE BUTTONS FOR LAYOUT
On four-button cursors, the top button is not used by Magic. The remaining three cause the following actions if pressed in the interior of a window that contains VLSI layout:

left
This button is used to move the box by one of its corners. Normally, the lower-left corner is used for this button. To use a different corner, click the right button while the left button is down. This switches the corner to the one nearest the cursor. When the button is released, the box is moved to position the corner at the cursor location.

right
Change the size of the box by moving one corner. Normally, the upper-right corner is used for this button. To use a different corner, click the left button while the right button is down. This switches the corner to the one nearest the cursor. When you release the button, three corners of the box move in order to place the selected corner at the cursor location (the corner opposite the one you picked up remains fixed).

middle (bottom)
Used to paint or erase. If the crosshair is over paint, then the area of the box is painted with the layer(s) underneath the crosshair. If the crosshair is over white space, then the area of the box is erased.

LONG COMMANDS FOR LAYOUT
These commands work if you are pointing to the interior of a layout window. Commands are invoked by typing a colon (“;”), followed by a line containing a command name and zero or more parameters. In addition, macros may be used to invoke commands with single keystrokes. See the macro section below for a list of default macros. Unique abbreviations are acceptable for all keywords in commands. The commands are:

array zsize ysize
Make the current cell into an array with zsize instances in the x-direction and ysize instances in the y-direction. The array is numbered from 0 to zsize-1 in the x-direction, and from 0 to ysize-1 in the y-direction. The spacing between elements is determined by the box x- and y-dimensions.

array zlo ylo zhi yhi
Make the current cell into an array, numbered left-to-right from zlo to zhi and bottom-to-top from ylo to yhi. The spacing between array elements is determined by the box x-
and y-dimensions.

**box [args]**

Used to change the size of the box or to find out its size. There are several sorts of arguments that may be given to this command:

*(No arguments.)*

Show the box size and its location in the edit cell or root cell of its window, if the edit cell isn't in that window.

**direction [distance]**

Move the box distance units in direction, which may be one of left, right, up, or down. Distance defaults to the width of the box if direction is right or left, and to the height of the box if direction is up or down.

**width [size]**

**height [size]**

Set the box to the width or height indicated. If size is not specified the the width or height is reported.

**x1 y1 z1 y2**

Move the box to the coordinates specified (these are in edit cell coordinates if the edit cell is in the window under the cursor; otherwise these are in the root coordinates of the window). x1 and y1 are the coordinates of the lower left corner of the box, while x2 and y2 are the upper right corner.

**channels**

This command will run just the channel decomposition part of the router, deriving channels for the area under the box. The channels will be displayed as outlined feedback areas over the edit cell.

**clf [option] [args]**

This command is used to read and write files in Caltech Intermediate Form (CIF). If no arguments are given, it generates a CIF file for the root cell in the window beneath the cursor in file.cif, where file is the name of the root cell. The CIF file describes the entire cell hierarchy in the window. Option and args may be used to invoke one of several additional CIF operations:

**clf help**

Print a short synopsis of all of the clf command options.

**clf latstyle [style]**

Select the style to be used for CIF input. If no style argument is provided, then Magic prints the names of all CIF input styles defined in the technology file and identifies the current style. If style is provided, it is made the current style.

**clf oostyle [style]**

Select the style to be used for CIF output. If no style argument is provided, then Magic prints the names of all CIF output styles defined in the technology file and identifies the current style. If style is provided, it is made the current style.

**clf read file**

The file file.cif is read in CIF format and converted to a collection of Magic cells. The current input style determines how the CIF layers are converted to Magic tiles. The new cells are marked for design-rule checking.

**clf see layer**

In this command layer must be the CIF name for a layer in the current output style. Magic will display on the screen all the CIF for that layer that falls under
the box, using stippled feedback areas. It's a bad idea to look at CIF over a large area, since this command requires the area under the box to be flattened.

**cif statistics**
Prints out statistics gathered by the CIF generator as it operates. This is probably not useful to anyone except system maintainers.

**cif write fileName**
Writes out CIF just as if no arguments had been entered, except that the CIF is written into *fileName.cif* instead of using the root cell name for the file name. The current output style controls how CIF layers are generated from Magic tiles.

**clockwise [degrees [yb]]**
Rotate the current cell by the largest multiple of 90 degrees less than or equal to *degrees*. *Degrees* defaults to 90. If a single-character, lower-case yank buffer name *yb* is specified, this yank buffer is rotated instead of the current cell.

**copycell**
Make a copy of the current cell, and position it so that its lower-left corner coincides with the lower-left corner of the box. If the current cell is an array, the whole array is copied.

**deletecell**
Delete the current cell. This only removes the current cell, other uses of this cell remain intact, as does the disk file containing the cell. If the current cell is an element of an array, the whole array is deleted.

**drc option [args]**
This command is used to interact with the design rule checker. *Option* and *args* are used to specify a specific drc option and its arguments (if needed):

**drc catchup**
Let the checker process all the areas that need rechecking. This command will not return until the design-rule checking is completed (unless break is typed). The checker will run even if the background checker has been disabled with *drc off*.

**drc check**
Completely recheck the area under the box, in all cells that intersect the box. This command is not normally necessary, since Magic automatically remembers which areas need to be rechecked. It should only be needed if the design rules are changed.

**drc count**
Find all the cells (expanded or unexpanded) that intersect the box. For each cell, count the number of error tiles, and print out the counts for all cells with any error tiles.

**drc find [nth]**
Place the box over the *nth* error area in the current cell, and print out information about the error (just as if *drc why* had been typed). If *nth* isn't given (or is less than 1), the command will move to the next error area. Successive invocations of *drc find* will cycle through all the error tiles in the current cell. Note: this command only considers errors in the current cell.

**drc help**
Print a short synopsis of all the drc command options.

**drc off** Turn off the background checker. From now on, Magic will not recheck design rules immediately after each command (but it will record the areas that need to be rechecked; the commands *drc on* and *drc check* can be used to run the
**drc on**
Turn on the background checker. From now on, after every command, Magic will reverify design rules in any areas modified by the command.

**drc printrules [file]**
Print out the compiled rule set in *file*, or on the text terminal if *file* isn't given.
For system maintenance only.

**drc statistics**
Print out statistics kept by the design-rule checker. For each statistic, two values are printed: the count since the last time drc statistics was invoked, and the total count in this editing session. This command is intended primarily for system maintenance purposes.

**drc why**
Recheck the area underneath the box and print out the reason for each violation found. Since this command causes a recheck, the box should normally be placed around a small area (such as an error area).

**edit**
Make the current cell the edit cell, and edit it in context. The edit cell is normally displayed in brighter colors than other cells (see the see command to change this).

**erase [layers]**
For the area enclosed by the box, erase all paint in *layers*. If *layers* is omitted it defaults to *layers* labels. See the layer table below for layer names.

**expand [all]**
If the keyword all is supplied, all of the cells underneath the box are expanded recursively until there is nothing but paint under the box. If all isn't specified, then only the current cell is expanded, without regard to the box location.

**extract option [args]**
This command is used to extract a layout, producing one or more hierarchical .ext files that describe the electrical circuit implemented by the layout. The extract command, when given with no option or args, causes the timestamps in the root cell in the window beneath the crosshair, and in all cells beneath it, to be compared with the timestamps in their corresponding .ext files. (A cell's .ext file is stored in the same directory as its .mag file). If a cell has been modified since it was extracted, it and all its parents are marked for re-extraction. If a cell has no .ext file, it also is marked for re-extraction. Magic will display any errors encountered during circuit extraction using stippled feedback areas over the area of the error, along with a message describing the type of error. Option and args are used in the following ways:

**extract all**
The root cell in the window beneath the cursor, and all the cells beneath it are extracted regardless of whether they have changed since last being extracted.

**extract cell name**
Extract only the currently selected cell, placing the output in the file *name*.

**extract help**
Prints a short synopsis of all the extract command options.

**extract parents**
Extract the currently selected cell and all of its parents. All of its parents must be loaded in order for this to work correctly.

**extract showparents**
Like extract parents, but only print the cells that would be extracted; don't
actually extract them.

extract warnings [on | off]
Normally the extractor only reports fatal errors (warnings off). To see any
warning messages produced by the extractor, warnings may be enabled with
warnings on.

feedback option [args]
This command is used to examine feedback information that is created by several of the
Magic commands to report problems or highlight certain things for users. Option and
args are used in the following ways:

feedback add text [style]
Used to manually create a feedback area at the location of the box. This is
probably most useful as a way for other programs like Crystal to highlight things
on a layout. Such programs can do that by generating a command file consisting
of a feedback clear command, and a sequence of box and feedback add
commands. Text is associated with the feedback (it will be printed by feedback
why and feedback find). Style tells how to display the feedback, and is one of
dotted, medium, outline, pale, and solid (if unspecified, style defaults to
pale).

feedback clear
Clears all existing feedback information from the screen.

feedback count
Prints out a count of the current number of feedback areas.

feedback find [nth]
Used to locate a particular feedback area. If nth is specified, the box is moved to
the location of the nth feedback area. If nth isn't specified, then the box is
moved to the next sequential feedback area after the last one located with
feedback find. In either event, the explanation associated with the feedback
area is printed.

feedback help
Prints a short synopsis of all the feedback command options.

feedback save file
This option will save information about all existing feedback areas in file. The
information is stored as a collection of Magic commands, so that it can be
recovered with the command :source file.

feedback why
Prints out the explanations associated with all feedback areas underneath the
box.

fill direction [layers]
Direction is one of up, down, left, or right. The paint visible under one edge of the
box (respectively, the bottom, top, right, or left edge) is sampled. Everywhere that the
dge touches paint, the paint is extended in the given direction to the opposite side of the
box. If layers is specified, then only the given layers are considered; if layers isn't
specified, then all layers are considered. North, south, east, or west may also be used
as directions.

findbox [zoom]
Center the view on the box. If the optional zoom argument is present, zoom into the
area specified by the box. This command will complain if the box is not in the window
you are pointing to.
flush [cellname]
Cell cellname is reloaded from disk. All changes made to the cell since it was last saved are discarded. If cellname is not given, the edit cell is flushed.

getcell cellname
This command adds a child cell instance to the edit cell. The child is taken from cellname and is positioned at the box location. The child cell cellname must not be the edit cell or one of its ancestors.

grid [spacing]
If spacing isn't given, a one-unit grid is toggled on or off in the window underneath the cursor. If spacing is given, the grid is turned on, and grid lines will be spaced spacing units apart. The spacing will be retained for that window until explicitly changed by another grid command. When the grid is displayed, a solid box is drawn to show the origin of the edit cell.

identify instance_id
Set the instance identifier of the selected cell use to instance_id. instance_id must be unique among all instance identifiers in the parent of the selected cell. Initially, Magic guarantees uniqueness of identifiers by giving each cell an initial identifier consisting of the cell definition name followed by an underscore and a small integer.

label string [pos [layer]]
A label is positioned at the box location and the text string is displayed with the label (if string contains spaces, be sure to enclose it in double quotes). Normally the box is collapsed to either a point or to a line (when labeling terminals on the edges of cells). Normally also, the area under the box is occupied by a single layer. If the pos and layer arguments are omitted, then the label is attached to the layer under the box, or space if no layer covers the entire area of the box. If layer is specified but layer doesn't cover the entire area of the box, the label will be moved to another layer or space. Labels attached to space will be considered by CIF processing programs to be attached to all layers overlapping the area of the label. Pos is optional, and specifies where the label is to be displayed relative to the box. If pos isn't given, Magic will pick a position to ensure that the label text doesn't stick out past the edge of the cell.

layers Prints out the names of all the layers defined for the current technology.
l1nformation
Prints out the names, containing cells, and layers for each of the labels that is visible inside the box.

load [file]
Load the cell hierarchy rooted at file.mag into the window underneath the cursor. If no file is supplied, a new unnamed cell is created. In either event, the root cell of the hierarchy is made the edit cell if there isn't already an edit cell in a different window.

movecell [direction [amount]]
If no arguments are given, the current cell is moved so that its lower left corner is at the lower-left corner of the box. If direction is given, it must be a Manhattan direction (e.g. north). The cell is moved in the given direction by the height or width of the box. If amount is given, then the cell is moved by that number of units rather than the size of the box.

paint layers
The area underneath the box is painted in layers.

path [searchpath]
This command tells Magic where to look for cells. Searchpath contains a list of
directories separated by colons or spaces (if spaces are used, then searchpath must be surrounded by quotes). When looking for a cell, Magic will check each directory in the path in order, until the cell is found. If the cell is not found anywhere in the path, Magic will look in the system library for it. If the path command is invoked with no arguments, the current search path is printed.

plow direction [layers]
This command is not currently available in Magic. This command invokes the plowing operation to stretch and/or compact a cell. Direction is a Manhattan direction. Layers is a collection of mask layers, which defaults to * . One of the edges of the box is treated as a plow and dragged to the opposite edge of the box (e.g. the left edge is used as the plow when plow right is invoked). All edges on layers that lie in the plow's path are pushed ahead of it, and they push other edges ahead of them to maintain design rules, connectivity, and transistor and contact sizes. Subcells are pushed as subcells without being modified internally.

redraw
Redraw the graphics screen.

reset
Reset the graphics controller and redraw the graphics screen. You should usually reset the graphics hardware manually before invoking this command.

save [name]
Save the edit cell on disk. If the edit cell is currently the "(UNNAMED)" cell, name must be specified; in this case the edit cell is renamed to name as well as being saved in the file name.mag. Otherwise, name is optional. If specified, the edit cell is saved in the file name.mag; otherwise, it is saved in the file from which it was originally read.

see options
This command is used to control what is displayed in the window under the cursor. It has several forms:

see no layers
Do not display the given layers in the window under the cursor. If labels is given as a layer name, don't display labels in that window either.

see layers
Reenable the given layers to be displayed.

see no
Don't display any mask layers or labels. Only subcell bounding boxes will be displayed.

see
Reenable display of all mask layers and labels.

see allSame
Display all cells the same way. This disables the facility where the edit cell is displayed in bright colors and non-edit cells are in paler colors. After see allSame, all mask information will be displayed in bright colors.

see no allSame
Reenable the facility where non-edit cells are drawn in paler colors.

select [name]
If no name is specified then the cell underneath the cursor is selected as the current cell. When there are multiple cells under the cursor (and this is usually the case), select selects the smallest visible one. If select is invoked repeatedly without moving the cursor, it will step through all the cells under the cursor in order from smallest to largest. If name is given, select selects the subcell of the current cell whose use identifier is name.

sideways [g/b]
Flip the current cell sideways (i.e. about a vertical axis). If the name of a yank buffer, \textit{y}, is specified, that yank buffer is flipped instead of the current cell.

\textbf{stuff [layers \textit{y}]}

The yank buffer information is copied back to the box location. If \textit{layers} is specified, it indicates which layers are to be copied back. If it isn't specified, all layers are copied back (*, subcell, label). If \textit{y} is specified, it is a single-letter, lower-case yank buffer name. If not specified, \textit{y} defaults to \textit{y}.

\textbf{unexpand [all]}

If the all keyword is specified, then unexpand all cells that touch the box but don't completely contain it. If all isn't specified, just unexpand the current cell.

\textbf{upside down [\textit{y}]}\footnote{1}

Flip the current cell upside down. If a yank buffer, \textit{y}, is specified, it is flipped upside down instead of the current cell.

\textbf{writeall}

This command steps through all the cells that have been modified in this edit session and gives you a chance to write them out.

\textbf{yank [\textit{y}]}

Save in the yank buffer all information underneath the box. \textit{Y} is the single-character name of the yank buffer in which the yanked material is to be placed. It defaults to \textit{y}.

\textbf{ysave file [\textit{y}]}

Save a yank buffer as a cell in \textit{file}. \textit{Y} is a single character that selects a yank buffer to use; it defaults to \textit{y}.

\section*{MOUSE BUTTONS FOR WINDOWS}

When pressed in the border area of a window, the left and right mouse buttons resize the window instead of resizing the box. The buttons behave in the same way that they do for the box. For example, the left button moves the whole window by the lower left corner while the right button moves just the upper right corner. The use of scroll bars and the middle button is explained in "Magic Tutorial #4: Multiple Windows".

\section*{COMMANDS FOR ALL WINDOWS}

These commands are not used for layout, but are instead used for overall, housekeeping sorts of functions. They are valid in all windows.

\textbf{center}

Adjust the view in the window under the cursor so that the point underneath the cursor is at the center of the window.

\textbf{closewindow}

The window under the cursor is closed. That area of the screen will now show other windows or the background.

\textbf{echo [-n] str1 str2 ... strN}

Prints \textit{str1} \textit{str2} ... \textit{strN} on the text terminal, separated by spaces and followed by a newline. If the -n switch is given, no newline is output after the command.

\textbf{grow}

Grows a window up to full-screen size. Typing the command again causes the window to shrink down to its former size and position.

\textbf{help [pattern]}

Displays a synopsis of commands that apply to the window that you are pointing to. If \textit{pattern} is given then only command descriptions containing the pattern are printed. \textit{Pattern} may contain '*' and '?' characters, which match a string of non-blank characters.
or a single non-blank character (respectively).

**logcommands** [/file [update] [times]]

If file is given, all further commands are logged to that file. If no arguments are given, command logging is terminated. If the keyword update is present, commands are output to the file to cause the screen to be updated after each command when the command file is read back in. If the keyword times is specified, commands are output to the file that cause Magic to simulate crudely the pauses between commands.

**macro** [char [command]]

Command is associated with char such that typing char on the keyboard is equivalent to typing ";" followed by command. If command is omitted, the current macro for char is printed. If char is also omitted, then all current macros are printed. If command contains spaces, tabs, or semicolons then it must be placed in quotes. The semicolon acts as a command separator allowing multiple commands to be placed in a single macro.

**openwindow**

Open a new, empty window at the cursor position. It will be of a standard size, but may be resized with the cursor buttons.

**over**

Move the window under the cursor so that it appears above all other windows.

**pushbutton** button action

Simulates a button push. Button should be left, middle, or right. Action is one of up, down, or abort. This command is normally only invoked from command scripts produced by the logcommands command.

**redo** [n]

Redo the last n commands that were undone using undo (see below). The number of commands to redo defaults to 1 if n is not specified.

**scroll** direction [amount]

The window under the cursor is moved by amount screenfulls in direction relative to the circuit. If amount is omitted, it defaults to 0.5.

**send** type command

Send a given command to the window client named by type. See the entry for speciopen, below, for the allowable types of windows.

**setpoint** x y

Fakes the location of the cursor (point) up until the next interactive command. This command is normally only invoked from command scripts produced by the logcommands command.

**sleep** n

Causes Magic to go to sleep for n seconds. This command is normally only invoked from command scripts produced by the logcommands command.

**source** filename

The given command file is read, and each line is processed as one command (no colons are necessary). Any line whose last character is backslash is joined to the following line. The commands setpoint, pushbutton, echo, sleep, and updatedisplay are useful in command files, and seldom used elsewhere.

**speciopen** [x1 y1 x2 y2] type [args]

Open a window of type type. If the optional x1 y1 x2 y2 coordinates are given, then the new window will have its lower left corner at screen coordinates (x1, y1) and its upper right corner at screen coordinates (x2, y2). The args arguments are interpreted differently depending upon the type of the window. Currently these types are known:
layout This type of window is used to edit a VLSI cell. The command takes a single argument which is used as the name of a cell to be loaded. The command
open filename
is a shorthand for the command
specialopen layout filename.

color (For system maintainers only.) This sort of window allows the color map to be edited. Displayed in the window are two sets of colored bars. The first set is labeled Red, Green, and Blue; these correspond directly to the proportion of red, green, and blue in the color being edited. The second set of bars is labelled Hue, Saturation, and Value; these correspond to the same color but in a color space whose axes are hue (spectral color), saturation (spectral purity), and value (intensity). The large rectangle at the top of the window shows the color currently being edited. See the section COMMANDS FOR COLORMAP EDITING below.

netlist This sort of window presents a menu that can be used to place labels, and to generate and edit net-lists. See the section COMMANDS FOR NETLIST EDITING below.

quit Exit Magic and return to the shell. If any cells, colormaps, or netlists have changed since they were last saved on disk, you are given a chance to abort the command and continue in Magic.

underneath Move the window pointed at so that it lies underneath the rest of the windows.

undo [count] Undoes the last count commands. Commands that do not modify user-visible data, such as changing the view, moving the box tool, toggling of the grid, etc, are not considered as part of count. If count is unspecified, it defaults to 1. In the current implementation, only the last ten modifications are recorded for undoing.

updatedisplay Update the display. This command is normally only invoked from command scripts produced by the logcommands command. Command scripts that do not contain this command update the screen only at the end of the script.

view Choose a view for the window underneath the cursor so that everything in the window is visible.

zoom [factor] Zoom the view in the window underneath the cursor by factor. If factor is less than 1, we zoom in; if it is greater than one, we zoom out.

windscrollbars [on|off] Set the flag which determines if new windows will have scroll bars.

windowpositions [file] Write out the positions of the windows in a format suitable for the resource command. If file is specified, then write it out to that file instead of to the terminal.

MOUSE BUTTONS FOR NETLIST EDITING
When the netlist menu is opened using the command special netlist, a menu appears on the screen. The colored areas on the menu can be clicked with various mouse buttons to perform various actions, such as placing labels and editing netlists. For details on how to use the menu, see “Magic Tutorial #6: Netlists and Routing”.

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COMMANDS FOR NETLIST EDITING

The commands described below work if you are pointing to the interior of the netlist menu. They may also be invoked when you are pointing at another window by using the send netlist command. Terminal names in all of the commands below are hierarchical names consisting of zero or more cell use ids separated by slashes, followed by the label name, e.g. toplat/chicken/1/in. When processing the terminal paths, the search always starts in the edit cell.

add term1 term2
Add the terminal named term1 to the net containing terminal term2. If term2 isn't in a net yet, make a new net containing just term1 and term2.

cleanup
Check the netlist to make sure that for every terminal named in the list there is at least one label in the design. Also check to make sure that every net contains at least two distinct terminals, or one terminal with several labels by the same name. When errors are found, give the user an opportunity to delete offending terminals and nets. This command can also be invoked by clicking the "Cleanup" menu button.

dnet name name ...
For each name given, delete the net containing that terminal. If no name is given, delete the currently-selected net, just as happens when the "No Net" menu button were clicked.

dterm name name ...
For each name given, delete that terminal from its net.

extract
Pick a piece of paint in the edit cell that lies under the box. Starting from this, trace out all the electrically-connected material in the edit cell. Where this material touches subcells, find any terminals in the subcells and make a new net containing those terminals. Note: this is a different command from the extract command in layout windows.

join term1 term2
Join together the nets containing terminals term1 and term2. The result is a single net containing all the terminals from both the old nets.

netlist [name]
Select a netlist to work on. If name is provided, read name.net (if it hasn't already been read before) and make it the current netlist. If name isn't provided, use the name of the edit cell instead.

print [name]
Print the names of all the terminals in the net containing name. If name isn't provided, print the terminals in the current net. This command has the same effect as clicking on the "Print" menu button.

ripup [netlist]
This command has two forms. If netlist isn't typed as an argument, then find a piece of paint in the edit cell under the box. Trace out all paint in the edit cell that is electrically connected to the starting piece, and delete all of this paint. If netlist is typed, find all paint in the edit cell that is electrically connected to any of the terminals in the current netlist, and delete all of this paint.

savenetlist [file]
Save the current netlist on disk. If file is given, write the netlist in file.net. Otherwise, write the netlist back to the place from which it was read.

shownet
Find a piece of paint in any cell underneath the box. Starting from this paint, trace out
all paint in all cells that is electrically connected to the starting piece and highlight this paint on the screen. To make the highlights go away, invoke the command with the box over empty space. This command has the same effect as clicking on the "Show" menu button.

**showterms**
Find the labels corresponding to each of the terminals in the current netlist, and generate a feedback area over each. This command has the same effect as clicking on the "Terms" menu button.

**switchtools**
This command has the same effect as clicking the terminal tool button in the netlist menu: it switches the cursor from terminal tool to box tool or vice versa.

**trace [name]**
This command is similar to shownet except that instead of starting from a piece of paint under the box, it starts from each of the terminals in the net containing name (or the current net if no name is given). All connected paint in all cells is highlighted.

**verify**
Compare the current netlist against the wiring in the edit cell to make sure that the nets are implemented exactly as specified in the netlist. If there are discrepancies, feedback areas are created to describe them. This command can also be invoked by clicking the "Verify" menu button.

**writeall**
Scan through all the netlists that have been read during this editing session. If any have been modified, ask the user whether or not to write them out.

**MOUSE BUTTONS FOR COLORMAP EDITING**
The value of a color is changed by pointing somewhere inside the region spanned by one of the color bars and clicking any mouse button. The color bar will change so that it extends to the point selected by the crosshair when the button was pressed. The color can also be changed by clicking a button over one of the "pumps" next to a color bar. A left click makes a 1% increment or decrement, and a right click makes a 5% change. The color being edited can be changed by pressing the left button over the current color box in the editing window, then moving the mouse and releasing the button over a point on the screen that contains the color to be edited. A color value can be copied from an existing color to the current color by pressing the right mouse button over the current color box, then releasing the button when the cursor is over the color whose value is to be copied into the current color.

**COMMANDS FOR COLORMAP EDITING**
These commands work if you are pointing to the interior of a colormap window. The commands are:

**color [number]**
Load number as the color being edited in the window. Number must be an octal number between 0 and 377; it corresponds to the entry in the color map that is to be edited. If no number is given, this command prints out the value of the color currently being edited.

**load [file]**
Load a new color map. If file is specified, the color map is loaded from file.monitor_type, where monitor_type is the type of monitor currently being used (usually "std"). If file is not specified, it defaults to the name of the current technology.

**save [file]**
Save the current color map. If file is specified, the color map is saved in
file_monitor_type, where monitor_type is the type of monitor currently being used. If file
is not specified, it defaults to the name of the current technology.

SHORT COMMANDS (MACROS)
The macro command may be used to associate single keystrokes with particular commands. When Magic begins execution it sets up several default macros for you (the file ~cad/lib/magic/sys/magic contains commands to set up these macros). These may be changed if you wish by using macro commands. The default macros are intended to make Magic look as much like Caesar as possible:

a :yank
c :unexpand
C :expand
d :erase $
e :box up 1
f :select
g :grid
q :box left 1
r :box down 1
s :stuff
u :undo
U :redo
v :view
w :box right 1
x :unexpand all
X :expand all
z :findbox zoom
Z :zoom 2
4 :findbox
5 :center
^L :redraw

DIRECTIONS
Many of the commands take a direction as an argument. The valid direction names are north, south, east, west, top, bottom, up, down, left, right, northeast, ne, southeast, se, northwest, nw, southwest, sw, and center. In some cases, only Manhattan directions are permitted, which means ne and other such directions are disallowed.

LAYERS
The mask layers are different for each technology, and are described in the technology documentation. The layers below are defined in all technologies:

* All mask layers.
All layers underneath the cursor.

labels Label layer.

subcell Subcell layer.

Layer masks may be formed by constructing comma-separated lists of individual layer names. The individual layer names may be abbreviated, as long as the abbreviations are unique. For example, to indicate polysilicon and diffusion, use poly,diff or diff,poly. The special character − causes all subsequent layers to be subtracted from the layer mask. For example, *−p means "all layers but polysilicon". The special character + reverses the effect of a previous −; all subsequent layers are once again added to the layer mask.

ALSO SEE

magicusage(1), ext2sim(1), sleeper(1), fssleeper(1), rnsleeper(1), ext(5), magic(5), displays(5), net(5)
"Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started"
"Magic Tutorial #2: Painting and Plowing"
"Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies"
etc.

FILES

∼cad/lib/magic/sys/magic startup file to create default macros
∼cad/lib/magic/amos/* some standard amos cells
∼cad/lib/magic/cmos/* some standard cmos cells
∼cad/lib/magic/sys/* Magic technology files, colormaps, etc.
∼cad/lib/display configuration file for Magic stations

AUTHORS

Gordon Hamachi, Bob Mayo, John Ousterhout, Walter Scott, George Taylor

BUGS

Let's just pretend there aren't any. If you discover one please mail a description of it to magic@uebklm.
NAME
magicusage – print the names of all cells and files used in a Magic design

SYNOPSIS
magicusage [ -T technology ] [ -p path ] rootcell

DESCRIPTION
Magicusage will print the names of all cells and files used in the design whose root cell is rootcell. Each line of the output is of the form

    cellname $==$ filename

where cellname is the name of the cell as it is used, and filename is the .mag file containing the cell. If a cell is not found, a line of the form

    cellname $==$ << not found >>

is output instead.

If -p path is specified, the search path used to find .mag files will be path. Otherwise, the search path is initialized by first reading the system-wide .magic file in ~cad/lib/magic/sys, then the .magic file in the user's home directory, and finally the .magic file in the current directory. The most recent path command read from the three files determines the search path used to find cells.

In addition, a library path of ~cad/lib/magic/techname is used when searching for cells. By default, techname is the technology of the first cell read, but it may be overridden by specifying an explicit technology with the -T techname flag.

FILES
~cad/lib/magic/tech
~cad/lib/magic/sys/.magic
~/.magic

SEE ALSO
magic (1), magic (5)

AUTHOR
Walter Scott
NAME
Mkcp - Make Crystal parameters

SYNOPSIS
mkcp [vlow vmin vhigh]

DESCRIPTION
Mkcp is a program that generates the model parameters used by Crystal's slope model. It reads a
SPICE deck from its standard input, runs SPICE several times using modified versions of that
SPICE deck, extracts Crystal parameter information from the SPICE output, and writes the
parameters to standard output. A single run of Mkcp will generate all of the slope parameters for
a single transistor type driving its output either high or low (but not both in the same Mkcp run).

The SPICE input deck describes a simple circuit to test the characteristics of a single transistor
type. See the files in ~cad/lib/mkcp for examples of input decks. Each deck must contain two
particular capacitor cards: one with "c1" in the first columns, and one with "c2" in the first
columns. The "c1" card must describe the capacitance on the gate of the transistor being
modelled. It has the standard format for a SPICE capacitor card, except that there may be any
number of capacitance values, separated by spaces (each of the capacitances must be specified in
pF). Mkcp makes one SPICE run with each of the given values and expects that changing the
capacitance will change the edge speed of the signal on the transistor gate. The first capacitance
value should generate an edge that rises or falls as quickly as possible. The "c2" card describes
the capacitance being driven by the transistor, and is used to compute the effective resistance of
the device. This card is not modified by Mkcp.

The deck must also have a "print" card that generates three columns of output. The first
column must be time, the second column must be the voltage on the gate of the transistor being
modelled, and the third column must be the output being driven by the transistor. There must be
a "tran" card in the deck that allows enough simulation time for the the output to stabilize when
using the first value of c1. Mkcp will modify the "tran" card before each run after the first one
so that the simulation time will be long enough for signals to settle in that run.

Mkcp makes one SPICE run for each c1 value that is given. After each run it outputs four
values: the edge speed on the gate of the transistor, the ratio of that edge speed to the edge
speed on the output of the transistor during the first SPICE run, the effective resistance of the
transistor (delay from input to output divided by c2), and the edge speed on the output being
driven by the transistor, divided by c2. If the driving transistor is a minimum-size device, then
the last three of these values are exactly the slope parameters needed by Crystal. If the transistor
isn't minimum-size, then you must divide each of the last two parameters by the length/width
ratio of the driving transistor.

Three voltages are used by Mkcp to compute edge speeds and resistances. They can be specified on
the command line as vlow, vmin, and vhigh. If any of these voltages is given, then all must be
given. The defaults are 2.0 volts for vlow, 2.2 volts for vmin, and 2.4 volts for vhigh; these are
about right for the standard MOSIS nMOS process. Vinv is the logic threshold voltage; the delay
from input to output is the time from when the input reaches vinv to when the output reaches
vout. Vlow and vhigh are used to compute edge speeds; the speed of an edge is the time it takes
its voltage to pass from vlow to vhigh (or vice versa) divided by the voltage difference between
vlow and vhigh.

HINTS FOR USING MKCP
You should choose the c2 value and the c1 values so that the range of edge speed ratios is about
what you expect to encounter when running Crystal. The fewer data points you use for each
transistor, the faster Crystal will run. However, Crystal uses linear interpolation between points,
so use enough points to keep the interpolation error low.
Make sure that you use a relatively large value for c2. If you use a small value for c2, then the delay of the circuit will be determined primarily by the internal capacitance of the driving transistor (which Mkcp ignores). To get accurate results, use a c2 value that’s larger than the internal capacitance of the circuit. If you’re not sure whether you’ve chosen a good c2 value, try doubling it; if you get a different effective resistance for the same edge speed ratio, then your initial c2 value was probably too small.

It’s not at all unusual for a resistance value to come out negative. This happens if the vinu value you’re using isn’t exactly the logic threshold of the circuit; under some conditions the output may reach vinu before the input. This is nothing to worry about: negative values can be entered into Crystal and will produce correct results.

SEE ALSO

  crystal(1)

J. Ousterhout, *Using Crystal for Timing Analysis*

FILES

  ~/cad/lib/mkcp/*

AUTHOR

  John Ousterhout
NAME

mpanda - technology independent PLA generator for multiply-folded PLAs

SYNOPSIS


DESCRIPTION

mpanda is a PLA generator that generates multiply-folded, simply-folded, and non-folded PLAs. MPanda is a program written with the mpack(3) system.

The input format for mpanda is compatible with the .machine output of pleasure(1). Including the .machine control line in the pleasure input file results in the proper output format for mpanda.

Input files to mpanda contain control lines and a personality matrix of the PLA to be made. Each control line must begin with a "." (dot or period). The following control lines are understood by mpanda:

...[and | or] num1 num2 [num3 ...]

This line must be in the input file. It describes the structure of the PLA, with the and or or specifying that the leftmost plane is an AND or OR plane. The AND plane is the input plane and the OR plane is the output plane. The numbers following the first plane designator are the numbers of inputs/outputs (depending on which plane is first) in each successive plane. For instance, the control line: ".and 9 3 5 .or 3 4 5" means that this PLA has an OR-AND-OR-AND structure with 9 inputs in the first OR plane, 3 inputs in the next AND plane, 4 outputs in the next OR plane, and 5 inputs in the last AND plane. Note that at least two numbers must follow the first plane designator since a PLA must have at least one AND and OR plane.

.row [number of rows]

This line describes the height of the input personality matrix.

.top [l1 l2 l3 ...]
.bottom [l1 l2 l3 ...]
.left [l1 l2 l3 ...]
.right [l1 l2 l3 ...]

These control lines list the labels for inputs and outputs along the top, bottom, left, and right respectively, of the PLA. The label "0" is not allowed. Note that these labels are not designated as being either inputs or outputs. The AND-OR-AND... structure of the PLA is determined by the .and | or control line.

.product [l1 l2 l3 ...]

This control line lists the labels for product rows within the PLA. These labels are used for debugging within the PLA and can be automatically numbered if no labels are put in. The label "0" is not allowed.

.end

This line signals the end of the input file.
The personality matrix format is compatible with pleasure, see PLA(5) for details. The table below summarizes the symbols mpanda accepts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbols for AND Plane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact Signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbols for OR Plane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact to Output Signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Additional Symbols</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; &lt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That is,

An example of an input file is shown below.

```
..and 2 4 3 1
..row 7
  * X ++X+ X * X +
X1--- ~i~I - - 1 - - ~X
X --- I~i , ; 1 - 1 - iX
X_ ! --- ~!~I 1 - _ ! - - ~X
X1 - - 1 |~I~I - - - - - - 1 ~X
X - - 1 - i~i~ - - - - - - ~X
* c      X
X>c      X
X ! - 1 - ~|~I 1 - : # - - ~X
X --- I~i~ - - - - - - iX
X - - 1 - ~i~i~ - - - - - - IX
* *      +++++ * * +
..end
```

Note that the AND plane is expanded such that each input is represented as two columns, one for the signal, the other for its complement. Note also, that only one contact row can occur between successive product rows.
STYLES OF PLAs AVAILABLE

As of 2/28/85, there are no templates for mpanda. A Caesar format template for panda is provided as a starting point for template designers. Here is the description of that template:

CS3 CMOS static version with p-channel pull-ups as resistive loads. 3 micron MOSIS rules. Micron-based rules, not lambda-based. The pull-ups are placed in the between the AND and OR planes.

It is easy to create a template for a new style of PLA, and mpanda(5) has information on how to do it.

OPTIONS

-a produce Magic(1) format (this is the default)
-c produce CIF format
-p (pipe mode) Send the output to stdout.
-v Be verbose, and show (in the magic output) how the PLA was constructed from its basic components.
-V Be verbose, and print out information about what mpanda is doing. This option implies -v.
-s The next argument specifies the style of PLA to generate. (This causes mpanda to use the file ~cad/lib/mpanda/pa-style.mag as its template).
-G Insert an extra ground line every num rows in the AND plane and every num columns in the OR plane. This defaults to what is appropriate for the static 3 micron CMOS PLA, approximately every 10 rows. Note that for styles other than CS3, this option should be used for specifying extra ground lines.
-S Stretch power and ground lines by num lambda. This defaults to whatever is appropriate for the corresponding CMOS PLA. Note that for styles other than CS3, this option should be used for specifying stretching power and ground lines.
-I Set cif output style, where style is a Magic cif output style. (See mpack(3) for details.)
-t The next argument specifies the template to use, this normally defaults to the standard library. This option is useful for generating styles of PLAs that are not included in the standard library.
-D num1 num2 The Demo or Debug option. This option will cause mpack to place only the first num1 tiles, and the last num2 of those will be outlined with rectangular labels. In addition, if a tile called blotch is defined then a copy of it will be placed in the output tile upon each call to the align function during the placing of the last num2 tiles. The blotch tile will be centered on the first point passed to align, and usually consists of a small blotch of brightly colored paint. This has the effect of marking the alignment points of tiles. The last tile painted into is assumed to be the output tile.
-o The next argument is taken to be the base name of the output file. The default is the input file name with any extensions removed. If the input comes from the standard input and the -o option is not specified then the output will go to the standard output.

input_file

The file containing the control lines and personality matrix. See PLA(5) for a description of the personality matrix symbols. If this filename is omitted then the input is taken from the standard input.

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FILES

~cad/lib/mpanda/pa-* .mag — standard templates for PLAs

SEE ALSO

eqntott(1), espresso(1), pleasure(1), pla(5),mpla(5),mpack(3)

AUTHOR

Grace H. Mah

HISTORY

This program is panda converted from tpack to mpack. Conversion by Bob Mayo.

BUGS

The -G and -S options have no way of knowing what the grounding requirements are for the style of PLA actually being generated.

This program inherits any bugs that may exist in mpack(3).

This program isn't very useful until someone designs templates for it!
mpla – technology independent PLA generator

mpla [-acv] [-s style] [-o output_file] input_file

mpla is a PLA generator that generates PLAs in several different styles and technologies. The input format is compatible with eqnott, see PLA(5) for details. Mpla does not handle split and folded PLAs.

Mpla is a program written with the Mpack system.

Styles of PLAs Available

The following styles of PLAs are currently supported:

- **Bcls** Buried contacts, nMOS, cис version (inputs and outputs on same side of the PLA). Clocked inputs and outputs are supported. Berkeley design rules.

- **Btrans** Buried contacts, nMOS, trans version (inputs and outputs on opposite sides of the PLA). Clocked inputs and outputs are supported. Berkeley design rules.

- **CD3cis** CMOS cис version, MOSIS 1.25/3.0 micron CMOS process, dynamic PLAs with two separate precharge lines for the AND and OR planes, no inverting buffers between planes, cis version. Since the default for extra grounds lines is based on an nMOS PLA, use "-G 10" for this style. Clocked inputs and outputs are not supported.

- **CD3trans** Same as CD3cis except trans version (input and outputs on opposite sides of the PLA).

- **CS3cis** CMOS cis version, MOSIS 1.25/3.0 micron CMOS process, static PLA with p-channel pullups (pullup/pulldown = 1/2). Since the default for extra grounds lines is based on an nMOS PLA, use "-G 10" for this style. Clocked inputs and outputs are not supported.

- **CS3trans** Same as CS3cis except trans version.

It is easy to create a template for a new style of PLA, and mpla(5) has information on how to do it.

**Options**

- **-I** Clock the inputs to the PLA, if this feature is supported for this style.

- **-O** Clock the outputs to the PLA, if this feature is supported for this style.

- **-G** Insert an extra ground line every num rows in the AND plane and every num columns in the OR plane. This defaults to whatever is appropriate for the corresponding nMOS PLA.

- **-S** Stretch power and ground lines by num lambda. This defaults to whatever is appropriate for the corresponding nMOS PLA.

- **-v** Be verbose, and show (in the Magic output) how the PLA was constructed from its basic components.

- **-V** Be verbose, and print out information about what mpla is doing. This option implies -v.
produce Magic format (this is the default)
produce CIF format (see mpack(3) for details)
The next argument is taken to be the base name of the output file. The default is the
input file name with any extensions removed. If the input comes from the standard input
and the -o option is not specified then the output will go to the standard output.
The next argument specifies the style of PLA to generate. (This causes mpla to use the
file ~cad/lib/mpla/p-style.mag as its template).
Set the cif output style to style. Style is a cif output style as found in the Magic
technology file.
The next argument specifies the template to use, this normally defaults to the standard
library. This option is useful for generating styles of PLAs that are not included in the
standard library.
The file containing the truth_table. If this filename is omitted then the input is taken
from the standard input (such as a pipe).

FILES
~cad/lib/mpla/p*.mag — standard templates for PLAs

SEE ALSO
eqntott(1), espresso(1), pla(5), mpla(5), mpack(3)

HISTORY
This is a port of the program 'tpla' to the Mpack system.

AUTHOR
Program by Robert N. Mayo.
Robert Mayo and Fred W. Obermeier: Bcis, Btrans, templates.
CD3cis, CD3trans, CS3cis, and CS3trans templates by Fred W. Obermeier.

BUGS
The -G and -S options have no way of knowing what the grounding requirements are for the style
of PLA actually being generated.

This program inherits any bugs that may exist in mpack(3).
NAME
mquilt – assemble tiles into a rectangular array

SYNOPSIS
mquilt [-acv] [-s standardTemplate] [-t template] [-o output_file] text_file

DESCRIPTION
The user of MQuilt first creates a Magic file, called the template, containing a circuit layout over
which single-character rectangular labels have been placed. These labels define blocks of the
circuit called tiles. Using a text editor, the user then creates an array of characters (each line
defines one row in the array). MQuilt reads in the array of characters and produces a layout
where each character is replaced by the tile of the same name. Spaces and blank lines in the text
file are ignored.

For example, we can produce a 3x3 checkerboard with this input file:

ABA
BAB
ABA

The template file would contain rectangular labels called A and B. The paint and subcells
underneath these labels would be placed in the output file in a checkerboard fashion.

Tiles are normally placed so that they abut with each other in the following fashion: the lower
edges of all tiles in a row are aligned, tiles are packed together horizontally as closely as possible
within a row, and the first tile in a row touches the first tile in the row above it and the first tile
in the row below it.

If we wish tiles to be spaced a certain distance apart, instead of what was described previously, we
can use spacing tiles. Spacing tiles are tiles which indicate, by their size, how far apart two tiles
should be spaced. For horizontal spacing, the single-character name of a spacing tile should be
placed in parentheses between the names of the two tiles on either side of it. The left edges of the
two tiles will be spaced apart by the width of the spacing tile. For example, the form "AB"
places tiles A and B next to each other while "A(C)B" places them apart by a distance
determined by C. If C is of zero width, A and B will be placed on top of each other. If C is the
same width as A, A and B will abut (note that "A(A)B" is the same as "AB"). If the width of C is
less than the width of A the tiles will overlap, and if C has a width greater than A they will be
separated.

Spacing tiles may also be used to control the vertical spacing. A spacing tile at the beginning of a
row (such as "(C)AB") will cause the bottom of the first tile in this row (in this case tile A) to be
separated from from the bottom of the first tile in the row above by a distance equal to the height
of the spacing tile.

MQuilt is a small program written with the Mpack system.

OPTIONS
-s produce Magic format (this is the default)
-c produce CIF format (see -I under mpack(1) for details).
-v be verbose (sequentially label the tiles in the output, for debugging purposes)
-o The next argument is taken to be the base name of the output file. The default is the
input file name with any extensions removed.
-t The next argument specifies the template to use.
-s style Use the template with the name q-style located in ~/cad/lib/mquilt.
text_file
The name of mquilt's text file. If this filename is omitted then the input is taken from the standard input (such as a pipe). If the input comes from the standard input and the -o option is not specified then the output will go to the standard output.

**other options**
Several other options are inherited from mpack(1).

**FILES**

```
~cad/lib/mquilt/q-*        -- location of standard templates
```

**SEE ALSO**

mpack(1), vlsifont(1), quilt(1)

**HISTORY**

This program is a port of quilt set up to generate Magic files instead of Caesar files.

**AUTHOR**

Robert N. Mayo

**BUGS**

This program inherits any bugs that may exist in mpack(3).
NAME
peg - finite state machine compiler

SYNOPSIS
peg [ -s ] [ -t ] [ file ]

DESCRIPTION
Peg (PLA Equation Generator) is a finite state machine compiler. It translates a high level language description of a finite state machine into the logic equations needed to implement the state machine design. Peg uses the Moore model for finite state machines, in which outputs are strictly a function of the current state. Input is read from the named file or from stdin if no file is specified.

A set of equations is generated on standard output. The equations are in the egn format used by eqntott. Output from peg may be piped directly to PLA generators such as mpla thus:

peg infile | eqntott | mpla -e -s Bcls -I -O -o outfile

This command generates a PLA implementation of the finite state machine in the file outfile.cif.

The PLA will have clocked, dynamic latches on all inputs and outputs. From left to right, the PLA inputs and outputs are the fsm inputs, fsm state inputs, fsm state outputs, and fsm outputs. The feedback lines connecting the next-state outputs to the current-state inputs must be manually added to the resulting circuit.

Peg options have the following meanings.
-s Generate a truth table for the fsm in the file peg.summary.
-t Print summary information in the file peg.summary.

PROGRAM STRUCTURE
A peg program is composed of a list of input signal names, a list of output signal names, and a list of state descriptions, in that order. The input and output lists are optional.

Inputs
An input signal list consists of the keyword INPUTS and a list of fsm input signal names, terminated with a semicolon. Every input list must have at least one input. If the fsm has no inputs, this statement is omitted. PLA inputs will have the left-to-right ordering specified in the INPUTS list.

Outputs
A list of output signal names begins with the keyword OUTPUTS and is terminated with a semicolon. PLA outputs will have the ordering specified in the OUTPUTS list.

State List
The remainder of a peg program consists of a list of state definitions. A state definition has the form

[ state-name ] [ ASSERT signal-list ] [ control ]

There is at most one ASSERT statement per state definition. Asserted output signals are set to 1. Signals that are not asserted have value 0.

There is at most one control statement per state definition. Control may be one of

IF [ NOT ] input THEN state-name | ELSE state-name |

GOTO state-name
CASE (input-signal-list) selectors ENDCASE [default]

Each case selector specifies the next-state for a particular set of values of the CASE input signals. Case selectors are lines of the form

{ 0 | 1 | ? }+ => state-name

Case selectors are applied one at a time from top to bottom until one is found that applies to the particular set of inputs. Because of this, one must be particularly careful when using don't-cares in case selectors.

If no control is specified – by omitting the ELSE clause from an IF, by specifying a CASE with no default, or by omitting control information entirely – next state defaults to the next sequential state on the state list. The default next state is undefined for the last state in the program. Therefore, the next-state must be explicitly specified for this state. The special state name LOOP may be used to specify that the next state is the same as the current state.

Comments
Comments may appear at any location in a peg program. They begin with a double dash, "--", and terminate at the end of the line on which they appear.

Reset Logic
There are two ways of handling fsm initialization. If the keyword RESET appears as one of the input signals, then the fsm will jump to the first state on the state list when the signal RESET is asserted high. Alternatively, the user may force a jump to the first state on the state list by adding logic to the PLA state outputs to pull all of the state output lines low when a reset is desired.

Example
The following peg program illustrates a variety of features:

- Decode inputs a, b, and c into
- 0, 1, 2, 3, or "other".

INPUTS: RESET Select a b c;

OUTPUTS:
- Found0 Found1 Found2 Found3 FoundOther;

Start:
- This is the reset state
- IF NOT Select THEN LOOP;

: CASE (a b c) -Second state
- 0 0 0 => Zero;
- 0 0 1 => One;
- 0 1 0 => Two;
- 0 1 1 => Three;
- ENDCASE => Other;

Zero: ASSERT Found0; GOTO Start;
One: ASSERT Found1; GOTO Start;
Two: ASSERT Found2; GOTO Start;
Three: ASSERT Found3; GOTO Start;
Other: ASSERT FoundOther; GOTO Start;
SEE ALSO
mpla(1), eqntot(1)
Gordon Hamachi, Designing Finite State Machines with Peg

FILES
peg.summary: Summary information file

AUTHOR
Gordon Hamachi

BUGS
The parser quits after the first error is found.

The interpretation of ambiguous case statements has been redefined. Existing peg programs may exhibit new behavior.
NAME
pleasure — A PLA Folding Program

SYNOPSIS
pleasure [< input ] | > output ]

DESCRIPTION
Pleasure is a program that performs topological optimization of PLA's using folding technique, and optimizes the silicon area occupied by the PLA. Two different heuristic algorithms are used to achieve the best area minimization.

Pleasure can be run in a batch mode or in an interactive mode. In batch mode, the input file should begin with the keyword pleasure. In interactive mode, you can invoke pleasure by typing pleasure without the input and output file option. The following commands are understood by pleasure in the interactive mode:

help
This command provides the menu of the commands in the interactive mode.

read
Reads the input file; Pleasure will ask for the input file name.

show best | heu1 | heu2
Shows the folded/unfolded PLAs on the standard output. The options heu1 and heu2 are related to the two different heuristic algorithms. The option best will choose the better result between heuristic scheme 1 and 2.

showpan best | heu1 | heu2
Shows the folded/unfolded PLA for panda on the standard output. The options are same as in show.

save
Saves the output file. Pleasure will ask for the filename.

savepan
Saves the output file for panda. Pleasure will ask for the filename.

run
Runs the folding algorithm.

step
Runs one step of the folding algorithm. Folding instruction .option should be set to only one of heu1 or heu2.

select
Runs one step of the folding algorithm on user selected row or column folding candidates. Folding instruction .option' should be set to only one of 'heu1' or 'heu2'.

clear
Clears the program before restart.

sys
Returns control to the shell.

quit
Stops the execution.

.(any folding instructions)
Sets the folding instructions in the interactive mode. This instructions are identical to the ones to be inserted in the input file under running the program in batch mode. Folding instructions are as follows:

.cofold [and[==mult]] [or[==mult]]
.rofold [ 00a | oao | mult ]
.label in1 in2 ... out1 out2 ...
.first [ row | column ]

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The above folding instructions are explained in detail in pleasure(5).

reset options
It resets the folding instructions in the interactive mode. Options are all, cofold, rowfold, window, first, group,

status
Shows the status of the folding instructions already set.

The input file consists of the folding instructions and the PLA symbolic table, which are described in detail in pleasure(5). Logic minimizer Espresso(1) output file can be fed into pleasure with additional folding instructions if necessary. Folding instructions begin with a period. Comment line begins with "#".

Pleasure reads the input file, performs the folding and shows the folded PLA on the standard output [if no files are specified]. Pleasure can have different output format depending on the folding instructions the user specifies. The default output format is human readable. The special output format for panda(1) can be obtained by setting the folding instruction (.machine).

Simply-folded PLAs can be assembled by program plaid(1) provided that the pleasure output file is processed by program pain(1) first, to convert the symbolic table to the format described in pla(5). Both simply-folded and multiply-folded PLAs can be assembled by program panda(1).

FILES
/cad/new/pleasure — executable
/cad/src/pleasure/* — source files

SEE ALSO
eqtott(1), espresso(1), espresso(5), panda(1), mpanda(1), plain(1), pla(5), pleasure(5), pop(1), plaid(1)

DIAGNOSTICS
The input routine gives out warning and/or error messages in case of incompatible or wrong folding instructions. The self-checking routine compares the folded PLA with the original unfolded PLA automatically after folding and reports the result.

AUTHOR
Giovanni De Micheli
modications by Duksoon Kay
For inquiries, contact Duksoon Kay, 321 Cory Hall, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720. Arpanet mail address is duksoon@ucbrcad.

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BUGS

In batch mode, the heading will appear in the output file. As a present limitation for the input PLA, the maximum columns(rows) are 300 and the maximum cares are 10,000.
NAME
Releeper – run sleeper remotely

SYNOPSIS
releeper remotemachine

DESCRIPTION
Releeper is used if you wish to run a program such as magic(1) on a different machine (remotemachine) than the one to which a graphics terminal is attached, and the local graphics terminal has a login process.

To use it, log in on the graphics terminal and run releeper. The tty printed will be on the remote machine, and can be used as the graphics display device for programs such as magic(1).

For releeper to work, there must be an account sleeper on the remote machine. Its login shell should be the program sleeper(1). Users must be able to rlogin to the sleeper account without supplying a password.

SEE ALSO
fsleeper(1), magic(1), sleeper(1), displays(5)
NAME
sim2spice – convert from .sim format to spice format

SYNOPSIS
sim2spice [-d def] file.sim

DESCRIPTION
Sim2spice reads a file in .sim format and creates a new file in spice format. The file contains just
a list of transistors and capacitors, the user must add the transistor models and simulation
information. The new file is appended with the tag .spice. One other file is created, which is a
list of .sim node names and their corresponding spice node numbers. This file is tagged .names.

Defs is a file of definitions. A definition can be used to set up equivalences between .sim node
names and spice node numbers. The form of this type of definition is:

set sim_name spice_number [tech]

The tech field is optional. In NMOS, a special node, ‘BULK’, is used to represent the substrate
node. For CMOS, two special nodes, ‘NMOS’ and ‘PMOS’, represent the substrate nodes for the
‘n’ and ‘p’ transistors, respectively. For example, for NMOS the .sim node ‘GND’ corresponds to
spice node 0, ‘Vdd’ corresponds to spice node 1, and ‘BULK’ corresponds to spice node 2. The
defs file for this set up would look like this:

set GND 0 nmos
set Vdd 2 nmos
set BULK 3 nmos

A definition also allows you to set a correspondence between .sim transistor types and and spice
transistor types. The form of this definition is:

def sim_trans spice_trans [tech]

Again, the tech field is optional. For NMOS these definitions would look as follows:

def e ENMOS nmos
def d DNMOS nmos

Definitions may also be placed in the .cadrc file, but the definitions in the defs file overrides those
in the .cadrc file.

SEE ALSO
ext2sim(1), magic(1), spice(1), cadrc(5), ext(5), sim(5)

AUTHOR
Dan Fitzpatrick CMOS fixes by Neil Soiffer

BUGS
The only pre-defined technologies are nmos, cmos-pw, and cmos (the same as cmos-pw).
Only one definition file is allowed.
NAME
Sleeper - acquire a graphics terminal and hang around

SYNOPSIS
sleeper

DESCRIPTION
Certain programs such as magic(1) can require the use of a graphics terminal separate from the
terminal used to run the program. If the graphics terminal has an ordinary login process running
on it, it is necessary to run sleeper to acquire ownership of the terminal, set up its modes
appropriately, and prevent the login process from eating input destined for the CAD tool.

When sleeper is run, it will print a message of the form:

tty ls:
/dev/ttynname

Here, /dev/ttynname is the device name of the graphics terminal. This is particularly useful
when sleeper is run over the network, or when using fsleeper(1) or rslaveper(1).

Sleeper may be killed by sending it two QUIT signals within ten seconds of each other. This is
most easily done by typing two quit characters (usually CTRL-D or CTRL-SHIFT-L) in a row on
the graphics terminal.

For sleeper to work best, there should be an account named sleeper, whose login shell is
~cad/bin/sleeper and with no password. This enables users to log in as the user sleeper, and is
also necessary for the programs fsleeper(1) and rslaveper(1) to work. (Note that you will have to
include the full pathname of ~cad/bin/sleeper in /etc/passwd; the initial ~cad does not get
expanded).

SEE ALSO
fsleeper(1), magic(1), rslaveper(1)
NAME
spice2summary - summarize numerical spice output

SYNOPSIS
spice2summary options namesfile < spice_output
or
spice ... | spice2summary options namesfile

DESCRIPTION
Spice2summary can quickly provide information on a circuit’s operating speed and power. Spice2summary reads spice output and determines critical signal information from the tabular numeric portion. The spice lines for the numeric format must be set up so that the first column gives the time values, and the second contains the voltage for a reference input node. The rest of the columns can contain any combination of voltages and currents of interest. (See FORMAT for suggested spice format.) The analysis for each column of numbers depends on its type: voltage or current.

For voltage signals, the stable values in response to applied low (Gnd) and high (Vdd) voltages on the reference input are determined (which indicates its logic relationship to the input signal). Also, the time over which this signal is stable is indicated. This is the period that the signal stays within each logic threshold (as set by -val and -vah).

Signal transitions are measured by the time it takes to pass between the low and high logic thresholds (as set by -v1l and -v1h). Four points are naturally defined by the rising and falling transients for each waveform. Rise time is determined by the time spent moving from the low to the high logic thresholds (2 points). Fall time is determined by the time spent moving from the high logic threshold to the low logic threshold (2 points).

Propagation times from the rising and falling portions of the input reference signal (second column) to the other nodes are also printed. For generality, propagation times are determined by another set of logic thresholds as defined by -vpl and -vph. Which of these points are used to determine the propagation delay from the input signal and the output signal are controlled by eight flags.

The total delay can be broken down into three distinct time portions which are defined by the logic levels: input change time, intersignal propagation delay, and output change time. First is the rise time (or fall time) of the input reference signal. It is measured from the last time that the reference signal is within the low logic level to the first time that it is within the high logic level (high to low for the input fall time). Next, the intersignal propagation delay is taken from the point where the input has stabilized to the time when the output starts to change. More precisely, the intersignal propagation time is calculated from the point the input reaches the high logic level (low for falling edge) to the time that the output begins to leave the appropriate logic level. The logical relationship of the reference signal to the output signal is determined by checking the output value at the point when the input signal is about to leave each logic threshold. Finally, the transition time for the output signal between the other logic level is defined to be the output change time (i.e. rise time for rising signals and fall time for falling signals).

Each set of four flags is associated with the input rising or input falling portion of the signal. The four possible options for the delay time for the rising portion of the input signal are: -r1po, -r1p, -rpo and -rp. The delay time from the rising input is calculated by totaling the times associated with each letter given: Input change time, intersignal propagation time and output change time. (Similarly f stands for the falling input signal for similar options: -f1po, -f1p, -fpo and -fp). Note that the propagation delay may be a negative number for a slow input and a fast switching output. The default settings are -r1p and -f1p. For pessimistic analysis, use the -r1po and -f1po options since these give the total time the input and output signals are in transition along with the intersignal propagation delay.
For current signals, the stable values in response to applied low and high input are determined (which indicates the DC current draw under both input conditions). By default, the DC current is calculated by averaging the stable low and high currents. This measure assumes a 50% duty cycle for the current. The duty cycle can be taken into account by using either the -a or -ab option. The -a option causes the DC value of the current to be averaged over the first complete input pulse (reference input's first low and high portions). Care must be taken to avoid averaging current spikes at the beginning part of the analysis due to incorrectly specified initial voltage values. The -ab option specifies the current to be averaged over the first high and second low portion of the input reference. The user should avoid terminating the analysis too soon. Both DC averaging methods reject current peaks by using the corresponding stable current values when the current is outside the corresponding limits. (The output text indicates this difference).

The three remaining measures for current examine the transient (AC) effects. The first two provide the average current for each transient (rising and falling). The frequency at which the DC and total current (AC and DC) differ by a percentage (specified by -It option) is reported. The figure estimates when DC power (and DC current) will no longer approximate the total power (and total current) for the circuit or circuit portion.

The last lines in the summary list the slowest node (ignoring non-converging nodes) by name, slowest transition direction and time. If II(VDD) appears in the table, the total circuit power dissipation will be printed as well as average power and critical frequency.

Signals that do not reach the user-defined limits (such as a node not pulling up to 50% of Vdd before returning to ground) will be flagged with an error message.

If namesfile is specified (i.e. the .names file output by simespice), the textual node names are substituted for the node numbers. The other arguments modify the analysis method or redefine signal parameters as defined in the OPTIONS section.

OPTIONS
Valid optional options and their default settings (v below is any real number, pct is any real percentage from 0.0 to 100.0, and periods is an integer. The sum of the percentages for each pair of low and high settings should not exceed 100.0):
Level specifying options:
-vdd v
   Set Vdd (power supply - the higher supply value) to v volts. Default is 5.0V.
-gnd v
   Set Gnd (the lower supply value) to v volts. Default is 0.0V.
-val pct
   Set the highest voltage considered Gnd (low logic threshold). This point is set as a percentage pct within Vdd and Gnd from Vdd. This value is used to determine the stable period for signals. Default value is 10%.
-vth pct
   Set the lowest voltage considered Vdd (high logic threshold). This point is set as a percentage pct within Vdd and Gnd from Gnd. This value is used to determine the stable period for signals. Default value is 10%.
-vth pct
   Set the highest voltage considered Gnd (low logic threshold). This point is set as a percentage pct within Vdd and Gnd from Vdd. This value is used to determine the transition time for signals (i.e. rise time and fall time). (Default measures a 10% to 90% rise time or 90% to 10% fall times.)
-vth pct
   Set the lowest voltage considered Vdd (high logic threshold). This point is set as a percentage pct within Vdd and Gnd from Gnd. This value is used to determine
the transition time for signals (i.e. rise time and fall time). Default value is 10%.
(Default measures a 10% to 90% rise time or 90% to 10% fall times.)

-vpl pct
Set the highest voltage considered Gnd (low switching threshold) for determining
the propagation delay with respect to the reference signal. It is set as a
percentage pct within Vdd and Gnd (from Gnd). Default value is 50%. (Default
measures from 50% point to 50% point. Rise and fall flags options have little
effect for this setting. However, 10%/90% times can be found by setting this to
10%.)

-vph pct
Set the lowest voltage considered Vdd (high switching threshold) for determining
the propagation delay with respect to the reference signal. It is set as a
percentage pct within Vdd and Gnd (from Vdd). Default value is 50%. (Default
measures from 50% point to 50% point. Rise and fall flags options have little
effect for this setting. However, 10%/90% times can be found by setting this to
10%.)

-il pct Set the range of current acceptable as DC for the lowest (absolute) stable current.
The lowest stable current is lowest of the currents corresponding to the point
where the reference input crosses the stable low logic threshold on a rising
transient or its dual (stable high logic threshold on falling transient). If both
currents are negative, the absolute values (lowest) are used. This point is set as a
percentage pct of the lowest stable current. Default value is 10%.

-lih pct Set the range of current acceptable as DC for the highest (absolute) stable current.
The highest stable current is highest of the currents corresponding to the
point where the reference input crosses the stable low logic threshold on a rising
transient or its dual (stable high logic threshold on falling transient). If both
currents are negative, the absolute values (highest) are used. This point is
set as a percentage pct of the highest stable current. Default value is 10%.

-lt pct Used to determine the critical frequency. The critical frequency is the frequency
at which total power (and total current) (AC and DC) is above or below DC
power (and DC current) by pct percent. Default value is 5%.

Propagation delay flags:
Calculate the propagation delay from the rising input reference signal to all the changing
voltage signals using one of the following options:

-rlpo Include the Input rise time, intersignal propagation delay time and output
change time (rise time or fall time) in the propagation delay.

-rlp Include the Input rise time and intersignal propagation delay time in the
propagation delay. Default.

-rpo Include the intersignal propagation delay time and output change time (rise time
or fall time) in the propagation delay.

-rp Report the intersignal propagation delay time as the propagation delay.
Calculate the propagation delay for the falling input reference signal to all the changing
voltage signals using one of the following options:

-flpo Include the Input fall time, intersignal propagation delay time and output change
time (rise time or fall time) in the propagation delay.

-flp Include the Input fall time and intersignal propagation delay time in the
propagation delay. Default.
-fpo Include the intersignal propagation delay time and output change time (rise time or fall time) in the propagation delay.

-fp Report the intersignal propagation delay time as the propagation delay.

Current flags:

-a Flag to average over the stable high and low portions of the current signal corresponding to the first input low and first input high portions of the input reference signal. One should make sure that the initial conditions on voltages are provided to avoid unrealistic initial transients. (Rather use the -ab option.) This DC averaging method rejects current peaks by using the corresponding stable current values when the current is outside the corresponding limits. The duty cycle is inherently set by the input reference signal. If this option or the -ab option is not specified, the two discrete stable high and low values for the current will be averaged. Therefore, the default assumes a 50% duty cycle.

-ab Average over the stable low and high portions of the current signal corresponding to the first input high and second input low portions of the input reference signal. One should make sure that the analysis is inappropriately terminated. This DC averaging method rejects current peaks by using the corresponding stable current values when the current is outside the corresponding limits. The duty cycle is inherently set by the input reference signal. If this option or the -ab option is not specified, the two discrete stable high and low values for the current will be averaged.

Miscellaneous:

-s periods Skip past periods of the input reference signal to start the analysis in a stabilized region. Default is 0 which means take the first gnd, Vdd, gnd pulse. Negative values denote start the search backwards from the end of the spice input. Nonzero values are used to skip past the initial transients due to incorrect initial conditions and to skip possible incomplete periods.

-v Request verbose output. Print the critical points found in the reference signal which indicate which portion of the spice output is used for analysis. (etc.)

FORMAT
Suggested spice input format for meaningful analysis:

... (skipping some lines)
.WIDTH out=133
...
* pulse of; init. value=0v, pulsed value=5v, delay=10ns
* rise time=0ns, fall time=0ns, pulse width=130ns
VIN 7 0 pulse (0 5 10ns 0ns 0ns 120ns)
.tran ...
/print tran V(7) V(8) ... I(VDD) (0,6)
...

where node 7 is the pulse applied input.

NOTES
Spice2summary automatically determines power levels and propagation times with respect to a reference signal. These figures give a designer quick indication of circuit performance by extracting critical information. (Also eliminates much of the tedium of examining volumes of numbers.) If a given node does not reach a particular level, it is reported by a descriptive
message.

This program can also be used to verify the slowest nodes thus providing another check for crystal(1).

SEE ALSO

crystal(1), sim2spice(1), spice(1)

AUTHOR

Fred W. Obermeier
NAME
vlsifont - create text logos for VLSI chips

SYNOPSIS
vlsifont [-k key] [-f font] word  | mquilt -s vlsifont

DESCRIPTION
The word on the command line is rasterized into a matrix of characters suitable for input to
mquilt or viewing on a text terminal. word may be surrounded by quotes to allow embedded
spaces. The background characters in the rasterized image will be the same as the first character
of key, while the foreground characters will be the same as the second character of key. Key
defaults to "em".

If the output is piped to mquilt, the user should use the standard template
~cad/lib/mquilt/vlsifont.mag by specifying the -s vlsifont switch, or else supply his own
(see mquilt(1) for how to do this using Magic). The standard template recognizes these
foreground and background characters:

e  — a small empty square
p  — a small poly square
d  — a small diffusion square
m  — a small metal square
e, p, d, or M — larger versions of the above

FILES
~cad/lib/mquilt/q-vlsifont.mag — standard template for quilt
/usr/lib/vfont/* — standard place for fonts

SEE ALSO
mquilt(1), magic(1), vfont(5), vfontinfo(1)
The Berkeley Font Catalogue

AUTHOR
Robert N. Mayo

BUGS
If the font does not specify the width of a space character then the width of the letter 'o' is used
instead.

NOTES
MOSIS will not fabricate chips containing logos or text over 50 microns high, unless permission
is obtained first. (As of January 1983.)

HISTORY
This program is a modified version of the tool 'vfontinfo' from Berkeley.
NAME
MDF - an nMOS frame for the integration of custom VLSI into Multibus-based systems

SYNOPSIS
magic -T nmos ~/cad/lib/mdf/MDF
- starts magic with the entire Multibus Design Frame loaded.

magic -T nmos ~/cad/lib/mdf/MDFCONNECTIONS
- starts magic with the cell containing the outline of the user circuit cavity.

DESCRIPTION
The Multibus Design Frame is an nMOS frame for the integration of custom VLSI into Multibus-based computer systems. The design frame provides a simplified interface to the backplane of the computer system. A circuit designed within the context of a design frame can be quickly integrated into a computer system upon fabrication. In many ways, a design frame is much like a hardware operating system. It can be used to rapidly prototype custom VLSI circuits and for the evaluation of the design in a real system context.

The Multibus Design Frame consists of elements at the chip and board levels. The nMOS circuitry within which the user circuit is placed and then sent to fabrication is provided in magic(5) format. The top-level cell is **MDF.mag**. It contains all the circuitry of the Multibus Design Frame. For the convenience of the designer a cell containing a 3 lambda wide outline of the user circuit cavity is also available (**MDFCONNECTIONS.mag**). All the connections points are labeled with the name of the signal. This cell is called by **MDF.mag**. If a circuit is designed within **MDFCONNECTIONS.mag**, CIF for the entire design can be generated by simply loading **MDF.mag**.

Designers may also find the need to have inputs and outputs other than those to the frame interface. Pads are available in **PADINUSER.mag** and **PADOUTUSER.mag**. The pads used by the design frame can also be used by the user, however, these pads invert their inputs and outputs.

When the fabricated chips are returned they can be placed on the Multibus Design Frame board and placed in a Multibus card-cage. The file **MDFPCB.cif** is the CIF used to fabricate the Multibus Design Frame printed circuit board through the PCBIS service of MOSIS. This file is provided as an example of what a printed circuit board description looks like, users are not expected to fabricate their own boards.

FILES

~cad/lib/mdf/MDF.mag
- The top level cell of the Multibus Design Frame

~cad/lib/mdf/MDFCONNECTIONS.mag
- Cell containing the outline of the user circuit cavity and labels on all the connection points.

~cad/lib/mdf/*/mag
- Magic files for all the cells in the Multibus Design Frame

~cad/lib/mdf/MDFPCB.cif
- CIF description of the Multibus Design Frame printed circuit board.
NOTES

Complete documentation, users' guide, and a detailed specification of the
Multibus Design Frame chip and board level frames
is available by writing:

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SEE ALSO

magic(1), magic(5)

AUTHOR

Gaetano Borriello
NAME
mpack – routines for generating semi-regular modules

DESCRIPTION
Mpack is a library of 'C' routines that aid the process of generating semi-regular modules. Decoder planes, barrel shifters, and PLAs are common examples of semi-regular modules.

Using Magic, an mpack user will draw an example of a finished module and then break it into tiles. These tiles represent the building blocks for more complicated instances of the module. The mpack library provides routines to aid in assembling tiles into a finished module.

MAKING AN EXAMPLE MODULE
The first step in using mpack is to create an example instance of the module, called a template. The basic building blocks of the structure, or tiles, are then chosen. Each tile should be given a name by means of a rectangular label which defines its contents. If the tiles in the module do not abut (e.g. they overlap) it is useful to define another tile whose size indicates how far apart the tiles should be placed.

Templates should be in Magic format and, by convention, end with a .mag suffix. With some programs, it is possible to generate the same structure in a different technology or style by changing just the template. If this is the case, each template should have a filename of the form basename-style.mag. The style part of the filename interacts with the -s option (see later part of this manual).

WRITING AN MPACK PROGRAM
An mpack program is the 'C' code which assembles tiles into the desired module. Typically this program reads a file (such as a truth table) and then calls the tile placement routines in the mpack library.

The mpack program must first include the file ~cad/lib/mpack.h which defines the interface to the mpack system. Next the TPInitialise procedure is called. This procedure processes command line arguments, opens an input file as the standard input (stdin), and loads in a template.

The program should now read from the standard input and compute where to place the next tile. Tiles may be aligned with previously placed tiles or placed at absolute coordinates. If a tile is to overlap an existing tile the program must space over the distance of the overlap before placing the tile.

When all tiles are placed the program should call the routine TPwrite_tile to create the output file that was specified on the command line.

To use the mpack library be sure to include it with your compile or load command (e.g. cc your_file ~cad/lib/mpack.lib).

ROUTINES
Initialization and Output Routines

TPInitialise(argc, argv, base_name)
The mpack system is initialized, command line arguments are processed, and a template is loaded. The file descriptor stdin is attached to the input file specified on the command line. The template's filename is formed by taking the base_name, adding any extension indicated by the -s option, and then adding the .mag suffix. The -s option allows the user to override base_name from the command line.

 argc and argv should contain the command line arguments. argc is a count of the number of arguments, while argv is an array of pointers to strings. Strings of length zero are ignored (as is the flag consisting of a single space), in order to
make it easy for the calling program to intercept its own arguments. \texttt{argv} and \texttt{argc} are of the same structure as the two parameters passed to the main program. A later section of this manual summarizes the command line options.

\textbf{TPLoad_tile(file_name)}

The given \texttt{file_name} is read, and each rectangular label found in the file becomes a tile accessible via \texttt{TPname_to_tile}. No extensions are added to \texttt{file_name}.

\textbf{TILE TPread_tile(file_name)}

A tile is created and \texttt{file_name} is read into it. The tile is returned as the value of the function.

\textbf{TPwrite_tile(tile, filename)}

The tile \texttt{tile} is written to the file specified by \texttt{filename}, with .ca or .cif extensions added. See the description of the \texttt{-o} option for information on what file name is chosen if \texttt{filename} is the null string. The choice between Magic or CIF format is chosen with the \texttt{-a} or \texttt{-c} command line options.

Tile creation, deletion, and access

\textbf{TPdelete_tile(tile)}

The tile \texttt{tile} is deleted from the database and the space occupied by it is reused.

\textbf{TILE TPcreate_tile(name)}

A new, empty tile is created and given the name \texttt{name}. This name is used by the routine \texttt{TPname_to_tile} and in error messages. The type \texttt{TILE} returned is a unique ID for the tile, not the tile itself. Currently this is implemented by defining the type \texttt{TILE} to be a pointer to the internal database representation of the tile.

\textbf{int TPtile_exists(name)}

\texttt{TRUE} (1) is returned if a tile with the given \texttt{name} exists (such as in the template or from a call to \texttt{TPcreate_tile}).

\textbf{TILE TPname_to_tile(name)}

A value of type \texttt{TILE} is returned. This value is a unique ID for the tile that has the name \texttt{name}. This name comes from a call to \texttt{TPcreate_tile()}, or from the rectangular label that defined it in a template that was read in by \texttt{TPread_tiles()} or \texttt{TPinitialize()}. If the tile does not exist then a value of \texttt{NULL} is returned and an error message is printed.

\textbf{RECTANGLE TPsize_of_tile(tile)}

A rectangle is returned that is the same size as the tile \texttt{tile}. The rectangle's lower left corner is located at the coordinate (0, 0). All coordinates in mpack are specified in half-lambda.

Painting and Placement Routines

\textbf{RECTANGLE TPpaint_tile(from_tile, to_tile, ll_corner)}

The tile \texttt{from_tile} is painted into the tile \texttt{to_tile} such that its lower left corner is placed at the point \texttt{ll_corner} in the tile \texttt{to_tile}. The location of the newly painted area in the output tile is returned as a value of type \texttt{RECTANGLE}. The
tile to_tile is often an empty tile made by TPcreate_tile(). The point ll corner
is almost never provided directly, it is usually generated by routines such as
align().

TPdissap_tile(from_tile, ll_corner)
A rectangle the size of from_tile with the lower left corner located at ll_corner is
returned. Note that this routine behaves exactly like the routine TPpaint_tile
except that no output tile is modified. This routine, in conjunction with the
align routine, is useful for controlling the overlap of tiles.

RECTANGLE TPpaint_cell(from_tile, to_tile, ll_corner)
This routine behaves like TPpaint_tile() except that the from_tile is placed as
a subcell rather than painted into place. The tile from_tile must exist in the file
system (i.e. it must have been read in from disk or have been written out to disk).

Label Manipulation Routines

TPplace_label(tile, rect, label_name)
A label named label_name is place in the tile tile. The size and location of the
label is the given by the RECTANGLE rect.

int TPfind_label(tile, &rect1, str, &rect2)
The tile tile is searched for a label of name str. The location of the first such
label found is returned in the rectangle rect2. The function returns 1 if such a
label was found, and 0 otherwise. The rectangle pointer rect1, if non-NULL,
restricts the search to an area of the tile.

TPstrip_labels(tile, ch)
All labels in the tile tile that begin with the character ch are deleted.

TPstretch_tile(tile, str, num)
The string str is the name of one or more labels within the tile tile. Each of
these labels must be of zero width or zero height, i.e. they must be lines. Each of
these lines define a line across which the tile will be stretched. The amount of the
stretch is specified by num in units of half-lambda. Stretching such a line turns
it into a rectangle. Note that if the tile contains 2 lines that are co-linear, the
stretching of one of them will turn both into rectangles.

Point-Valued Routines

POINT tLL(tile)
POINT tLR(tile)
POINT tUL(tile)
POINT tUR(tile)
The location of the specified corner of tile tile, relative to the tile's lower left
corner, is returned as a point. LL stands for lower-left, LR for lower-right, UL for
upper-left, and UR for upper-right. Note that tLL() returns (0, 0).

POINT rLL(rect)
POINT rLR(rect)
POINT rUL(rect)
POINT rUR(rect)
The location of the specified corner of the rectangle rect is returned as a point. LL stands for lower-left, LR for lower-right, UL for upper-left, and UR for upper-right.

POINT align(p1, p2)
A point is computed such that when added to the point p2 gives the point p1. p1 is normally a corner of a rectangle within a tile and p2 is normally a corner of a tile. In this case the point computed can be treated as the location for the placement of the tile.

For example, TP paint_tile(outtile, fromtile, align(rUL(rect), tLL(fromtile))) will paint the tile fromtile into outtile such that the lower left corner of fromtile is aligned with the upper-left corner of rect. In this example rect would probably be something returned from a previous TP paint_tile() call.

Point and Rectangle Addition Routines

POINT TPadd_pp(p1, p2)
POINT TPsub_pp(p1, p2)
The points p1 and p2 are added or subtracted, and the result is returned as a point. In the subtract case p2 is subtracted from p1.

RECTANGLE TPadd_rp(r1, p1)
RECTANGLE TPsub_rp(r1, p1)
The rectangle r1 has the point p1 added or subtracted from it. This has the effect of displacing the rectangle in the X and/or Y dimensions.

Miscellaneous Functions

Int TPget_lambda()
This function returns the current value of lambda in centi-microns.

INTERFACE DATA STRUCTURES
In those cases where tiles must be placed using absolute, (half-lambda) coordinates, it is useful to know that RECTANGLEs and POINTs are defined as:

```c
typedef struct {
    int x_left, x_right, y_top, y_bot;
} RECTANGLE;

typedef struct {
    int x, y;
} POINT;
```

The variable ORIGIN_POINTER is predefined to be (0, 0). ORIGIN_RECT is defined to be a zero-sized rectangle located at the origin.

OPTIONS ACCEPTED BY TPInitalize()
Typical command line: program_name [-t template] [-s style] [-o output_file] input_file
-a produce Magic format (this is the default)
-c produce CIF format
be verbose (sequentially label the tiles in the output for debugging purposes; also print out information about the number of rectangles processed by mpack)

-s style generate output using the template for this style (see TPinitialize for details)

-o The next argument is taken to be the base name of the output file. The default is the input file name with any extensions removed. If there is not input file specified and no -o option specified, the output will go to stdout.

-p (pipe mode) Send the output to stdout.

-t The next argument specifies the template base name to use. This overrides the default supplied by the program. (see TPinitialize)

-l name
Set the cif output style to name. name is the name of a cif output style as defined in Magic's technology file. If this option is not specified then the first output style in the technology file is used. (Note: In the old tpack system this option set the size of lambda.)

input_file
The name of the file that the program should read from (such as a truth table file). If this filename is omitted then the input is taken from the standard input (such as a pipe).

-M num
This option is accepted by mpack, but ignored. It is a leftover from the tpack system.

-D num1 num2
The Demo or Debug option. This option will cause mpack to place only the first num1 tiles, and the last num2 of those will be outlined with rectangular labels. In addition, if a tile called "blotch" is defined then a copy of it will be placed in the output tile upon each call to the align function during the placing of the last num2 tiles. The blotch tile will be centered on the first point passed to align, and usually consists of a small blotch of brightly colored paint. This has the effect of marking the alignment points of tiles. The last tile painted into is assumed to be the output tile.

EXAMPLE
It is highly recommended that the example in ~cad/src/mquilt be examined. Look at both the template and the 'C' code. A more complex example is in ~cad/src/mpla.

FILES

~cad/lib/mpack.h (definition of the mpack interface)
~cad/lib/mpack.lib (linkable mpack library)
~cad/src/mquilt/* (an example of an mpack program)
~cad/lib/magic/sys/*tech* (technology description files)

ALSO SEE
magic(CAD), mquilt(CAD), mpla(CAD)
'C' Manual

HISTORY
This is a port of the tpack(1) system which generated Caesar files.

AUTHOR
Robert N. Mayo

BUGS
When a tile contains part of a subcell, or touches a subcell, then the whole subcell is considered to be part of the tile. The same goes for arrays of subcells.

1985 VLSI Tools Distribution 2/20/85
NAME
.cadrc - Initialization file

DESCRIPTION
The .cadrc file is an ASCII text file which is used to initialize several CAD programs. Each user may place a .cadrc file in his home directory. Several CAD programs read this file as part of their initialization routine to set up various default settings. In addition to the .cadrc file in the user's home directory there is a .cadrc file in ~cad. This file is read before the one in the user's directory and is used to tell the program where it can find various files and library programs. This allows program binaries to be transported between systems without recompiling.

The .cadrc file contains several lines, each line is a separate command. The first word on the line is called the keyword. The keyword tells the program how to interpret the line. When a program reads a keyword it doesn't understand it ignores the line. The case of the keyword is ignored. This allows several program to share .cadrc files. What follows is a list of .cadrc command lines.

AreaToCap layer value
This command is read by the cifplot circuit extractor and mextra. It is used to set up the default capacitance per unit area. layer can be 'metal', 'poly', 'diff', or 'poly/diff'. value is in atto-farads (10\(^{-18}\) farads) per square micron. Also see the command 'perimertocap'.

CapThreshold value
This command is read by mextra. Mextra will not report any node capacitance below value. value is in femto-farads.

Cifplot options
This line allows you to select default command line options for cifplot. Call this command just as you would call cifplot from the shell but without any CIF file.

Device devch zmax ymax resolution DumpProg
This command sets up information about a particular plotting device. This command is used by cifplot. DevCh is a single character which indicates which output device. The characters 'U', 'V', and 'W' are black and white raster scan type devices. Lower case letters are for output in traperoid format and is generally used for driving random access displays. The letter 'P' is for pen plotters. DumpProg is the program to actually display the plot on the device. For raster scan output the program is called with the name of the dump file. For other type of devices the program is called so that information is piped into standard output. zmax and ymax indicated the range in device co-ordinates in the x and y direction. resolution is the resolution of the device in dots per inch.

FontDir dirname
dirname is the name of the directory in which to find font files. This keyword is recognized by cifplot. dirname must end with a backslash.

MachineName name
name is the net address of the machine. (E.g. on Ernie the command would be "machine name ernie").

MaxLength length
length specifies the maximum length in feet that can be plotted. This command is recognized by cifplot.

PatFile file
file is a file of stipple patterns to be used as the default stipple. This command is recognized by cifplot.

PerimeterToCap layer value

1985 VLSI Tools Distribution 5/12/81 1
This command is read by the cifplot circuit extractor and mextra. It is used to set up the default capacitance per unit length. layer can be 'metal', 'poly', 'diff', or 'poly/diff'. value is in atto-farads (10^-18 farads) per micron. Also see the command 'areatocap'.

**Sim2Spl TransType parameter value**

This command is read by sim2spl. It is used to set default parameters to give to splice. TransType is a '.sim' transistor type, either 'e' or 'd'. parameter is one of the splice parameters: 'vt', 'kp', 'gam', 'phi', or 'lam'. value is the value given to that parameter.

**TmpDir dirname**

dirname is the name of a directory with a lot of free space. This directory is used to set up dump files by cifplot. dirname must end with a backslash.

SEE ALSO

cifplot(1), mextra(1), sim2spl(1)

BUGS

Not yet completely implemented, and yet mostly obsolete.
NAME

displays – Display Configuration File

DESCRIPTION

The interactive graphics programs Caesar, Magic, and Gremlin use two separate terminals: a text
terminal from which commands are issued, and a color graphics terminal on which graphical
output is displayed. These programs use a displays file to associate their text terminal with its
corresponding display device.

The displays file is an ASCII text file with one line for each text terminal/graphics terminal pair.
Each line contains 4 items separated by spaces: the name of the port attached to a text terminal,
the name of the port attached to the associated graphics terminal, the phosphor type of the
graphics terminal’s monitor, and the type of graphics terminal.

An applications program may use the phosphor type to select a color map tuned to the monitor’s
characteristics. Only the std phosphor type is supported at UC Berkeley.

The graphics terminal type specifies the device driver a program should use when communicating
with its graphics terminal. Magic supports types UCB512, AED1024, and SUN120. Other
programs may recognize different display types. See the manual entry for your specific
application for more information.

A sample displays file is:

/dev/tty11 /dev/tty10 std UCB512
/dev/tty10 /dev/ttyj1 std UCB512
/dev/ttyjf /dev/ttyhf std UCB512
/dev/ttyhc /dev/ttyhc std UCB512
/dev/ttybc /dev/ttybb std UCB512

In this example, /dev/tty11 connects to a text terminal. An associated UCB512 graphics
terminal with standard phosphor is connected to /dev/tty10.

FILES

Magic uses the displays file ~cad/lib/displays. Gremlin looks in /usr/local/displays.

SEE ALSO

magic(1)
NAME
espresso — input file format for espresso(1)

DESCRIPTION
*Espresso* accepts as input a two-level description of a Boolean switching function. This is described as a character matrix with keywords imbedded in the input to specify the size of the matrix and the logical format of the input function. Comments are allowed within the input by placing a pound sign (\#) as the first character on a line. Comments and unrecognized keywords are passed directly from the input file to standard output. Any white-space (blanks, tabs, etc.), except when used as a delimiter in an imbedded command, is ignored. It is generally assumed that the PLA is specified such that each row of the PLA fits on a single line in the input file.

KEYWORDS
The following keywords are recognized by *espresso*. The list shows the probable order of the keywords in a PLA description. [d] denotes a decimal number and [s] denotes a text string.

.1 [d] Specifies the number of input variables.

.o [d] Specifies the number of output functions.

.type [s] Sets the logical interpretation of the character matrix as described below under "Logical Description of a PLA". This keyword must come before any product terms. [s] is one of f, r, fd, fr, dr, or fdr.

.phase [s] [s] is a string of as many 0's or 1's as there are output functions. It specifies which polarity of each output function should be used for the minimization (a 1 specifies that the ON-set of the corresponding output function should be used, and a 0 specifies that the OFF-set of the corresponding output function should be minimized).

.pair [d] Specifies the number of pairs of variables which will be paired together using two-bit decoders. The rest of the line contains pairs of numbers which specify the binary variables of the PLA which will be paired together. The binary variables are numbered starting with 1. The PLA will be reshaped so that any unpaired binary variables occupy the leftmost part of the array, then the paired multiple-valued columns, and finally any multiple-valued variables.

.klss Sets up for a klss-style minimization.

.p [d] Specifies the number of product terms. The product terms (one per line) follow immediately after this keyword. Actually, this line is ignored, and the ".e", ".end", or the end of the file indicate the end of the input description.

.e (.end) Marks the end of the PLA description.

LOGICAL DESCRIPTION OF A PLA
When we speak of the ON-set of a Boolean function, we mean those minterms which imply the function value is a 1. Likewise, the OFF-set are those terms which imply the function is a 0, and the DC-set (don't care set) are those terms for which the function is unspecified. A function is completely described by providing its ON-set, OFF-set and DC-set. Note that all minterms lie in the union of the ON-set, OFF-set and DC-set, and that the ON-set, OFF-set and DC-set share no minterms.

The purpose of the *espresso* minimization program is to find a logically equivalent set of product-terms to represent the ON-set and optionally minterms which lie in the DC-set, without containing any minterms of the OFF-set.
A Boolean function can be described in one of the following ways:

1) By providing the ON-set. In this case, expresso computes the OFF-set as the complement of the ON-set and the DC-set is empty. This is indicated with the keyword ".type f" in the input file, or ".f" on the command line.

2) By providing the ON-set and DC-set. In this case, expresso computes the OFF-set as the complement of the union of the ON-set and the DC-set. If any minterm belongs to both the ON-set and DC-set, then it is considered a don't care and may be removed from the ON-set during the minimization process. This is indicated with the keyword ".type fd" in the input file, or ".fd" on the command line.

3) By providing the ON-set and OFF-set. In this case, expresso computes the DC-set as the complement of the union of the ON-set and the OFF-set. It is an error for any minterm to belong to both the ON-set and OFF-set. This error may not be detected during the minimization, but it can be checked with the subprogram ".do check" which will check the consistency of a function. This is indicated with the keyword ".type fr" in the input file, or ".fr" on the command line.

4) By providing the ON-set, OFF-set and DC-set. This is indicated with the keyword ".type fdr" in the input file, or ".fdr" on the command line.

If at all possible, expresso should be given the DC-set (either implicitly or explicitly) in order to improve the results of the minimization.

A term is represented by a "cube" which can be considered either a compact representation of an algebraic product term which implies the function value is a 1, or as a representation of a row in a PLA which implements the term. A cube has an input part which corresponds to the input plane of a PLA, and an output part which corresponds to the output plane of a PLA (for the multiple-valued case, see below).

SYMBOLS IN THE PLA MATRIX AND THEIR INTERPRETATION

Each position in the input plane corresponds to an input variable where a 0 implies the corresponding input literal appears complemented in the product term, a 1 implies the input literal appears uncomplemented in the product term, and - implies the input literal does not appear in the product term.

With logical type f, for each output, a 1 means this product term belongs to the ON-set, and a 0 or - means this product term has no meaning for the value of this function. This logical type corresponds to an actual PLA where only the ON-set is actually implemented.

With logical type fd (the default), for each output, a 1 means this product term belongs to the ON-set, a 0 means this product term has no meaning for the value of this function, and a - means this product term belongs to the DC-set.

With logical type fr, for each output, a 1 means this product term belongs to the ON-set, a 0 means this product term belongs to the OFF-set, and a - means this product term has no meaning for the value of this function.

With logical type fdr, for each output, a 1 means this product term belongs to the ON-set, a 0 means this product term belongs to the OFF-set, a - means this product term belongs to the DC-set, and a ~ implies this product term has no meaning for the value of this function.

Note that regardless of the logical type of PLA, a ~ implies the product term has no meaning for the value of this function. 2 is allowed as a synonym for ~, 4 is allowed for 1, and 3 is allowed for ~. Also, the logical PLA type can also be specified on the command line.
MULTIPLE-VALUED FUNCTIONS

Espresso will also minimize multiple-valued Boolean functions. There can be an arbitrary number of multiple-valued variables, and each can be of a different size. If there are also binary-valued variables, they should be given as the first variables on the line (for ease of description). Of course, it is always possible to place them anywhere on the line as a two-valued multiple-valued variable. The function size is described by the imbedded option ".mv" rather than ".i" and ".o".

```
.mv [num_var] [num_binary_var] [s1] ... [sn]
```

Specifies the number of variables (num_var), the number of binary variables (num_binary_var), and the size of each of the multiple-valued variables (s1 through sn). A multiple-output binary function with ni inputs and no outputs would be specified as ".mv ni+1 ni no." ".mv" cannot be used with either ".i" or ".o" – use one or the other to specify the function size.

The binary variables are given as described above. Each of the multiple-valued variables are given as a bit-vector of 0 and 1 which have their usual meaning for multiple-valued functions. The last multiple-valued variable (also called the output) is interpreted as described above for the output (to split the function into ON-set, OFF-set and DC-set). A vertical bar "|" may be used to separate the multiple-valued fields in the input file.

If the size of the multiple-valued field is less than zero, than a symbolic field is interpreted from the input file. The absolute value of the size specifies the maximum number of unique symbolic labels which are expected in this column. The symbolic labels are white-space delimited strings of characters.

To perform a kiss-style encoding problem, either the keyword .kiss must be in the file, or the -kiss option must be used on the command line. Further, the third to last variable on the input file must be the symbolic "present state", and the second to last variable must be the "next state". As always, the last variable is the output. The symbolic "next state" will be hacked to be actually part of the output.
EXAMPLE #1

A two-bit adder which takes in two 2-bit operands and produces a 3-bit result can be described completely in minterms as:

```
# 2-bit by 2-bit binary adder (with no carry input)
.i 4
.o 3
.type fr
.pair 2 (1 3) (2 4)
.phase 011
 00 00 000
 00 01 001
 00 10 010
 00 11 011
 01 00 001
 01 01 010
 01 10 011
 01 11 100
 10 00 010
 10 01 011
 10 10 100
 10 11 101
 11 00 011
 11 01 100
 11 10 101
 11 11 110
.end
```

The logical format for this input file (i.e., type fr) is given to indicate that the file contains both the ON-set and the OFF-set. Note that in this case, the zeros in the output plane are really specifying "value must be zero" rather than "no information".

The imbedded option .pair indicates that the first binary-valued variable should be paired with the third binary-valued variable, and that the second variable should be paired with the fourth variable. The function will then be mapped into an equivalent multiple-valued minimization problem.

The imbedded option .phase indicates that the positive-phase should be used for the second and third outputs, and that the negative phase should be used for the first output.
EXAMPLE #2

This example shows a description of a multiple-valued function with 5 binary variables and 3 multiple-valued variables (8 variables total) where the multiple-valued variables have sizes of 4, 27, and 10 (note that the last multiple-valued variable is the "output" and also encodes the ON-set, DC-set and OFF-set information).

```
.mv 8 5 4 27 10
0-010 1000 1000000000000000000000000000000001 0010000000
10-10 1000 0100000000000000000000000000000001 1000000000
0-111 1000 001000000000000000000000000000001 0001000000
0-10- 1000 000100000000000000000000000000001 0001000000
00000 1000 000010000000000000000000000000001 0001000000
00010 1000 000010000000000000000000000000001 0001000000
01001 1000 000001000000000000000000000000001 0000000010
0101- 1000 000001000000000000000000000000001 0000000000
0-0-0 1000 000000001000000000000000000000001 1000000000
10000 1000 000000000100000000000000000000001 0000000000
11100 1000 000000000010000000000000000000001 0010000000
10-10 1000 000000000010000000000000000000001 0000000000
11111 1000 000000000001000000000000000000001 0010000000
.

11111 | 0001 | 0000000000000000000000000000000001 | 0000000000
```
EXAMPLE #3

This example shows a description of a multiple-valued function setup for *kiss*-style minimization. There are 5 binary variables, 2 symbolic variables (the present-state and the next-state of the FSM) and the output (8 variables total).

```
.mv 8 5 -10 -10 6
.type fr
.kiss
# This is a translation of IOFSM from OPUS
# inputs are IOI IOO INIT SWR MACK
# outputs are WAIT MINIT MRD SACK MRW DL1
# reset logic
    --1-- - init0 110000
# wait for INIT to go away
    --1-- init0 init0 110000
    --0-- init0 init1 110000
# wait for SWR
    --00-- init1 init1 110000
    --01-- init1 init2 110001
# Latch address
    --0-- init2 init4 110100
# wait for SWR to go away
    --01-- init4 init4 110100
    --00-- init4 iowait 000000
# wait for command from MFSM
    0000-- iowait iowait 000000
    1000-- iowait init1 110000
    01000-- iowait read0 101000
    11000-- iowait write0 100010
    01001-- iowait rmack 100000
    11001-- iowait wnack 100000
    --01-- iowait init2 110001
# wait for MACK to fall (read operation)
    --0-0 rmack rmack 100000
    --0-1 rmack read0 101000
# wait for MACK to fall (write operation)
    --0-0 wnack wnack 100000
    --0-1 wnack write0 100010
# perform read operation
    --0- -- read0 read1 101001
    --0- read1 iowait 000000
# perform write operation
    --0- -- write0 iowait 000000
.end
```
NAME
ext – format of .ext files produced by Magic's hierarchical extractor

DESCRIPTION
Magic's extractor produces a .ext file for each cell in a hierarchical design. The .ext file for cell name is name.ext. This file contains three kinds of information: environmental information (scaling, timestamps, etc), the extracted circuit corresponding to the mask geometry of cell name, and the connections between this mask geometry and the subcells of name.

A .ext file consists of a series of lines, each of which begins with a keyword. The keyword beginning a line determines how the remainder of the line is interpreted. The following set of keywords define the environmental information:

techno name
Identifies the technology of cell name as technname, e.g., nmos, cmos.
time timestamp
Identifies the time when cell name was last modified. The value time is the time stored by Unix, i.e., seconds since 00:00 GMT January 1, 1970. Note that this is not the time cell was extracted, but rather the timestamp value stored in the .mag file. The incremental extractor compares the timestamp in each .ext file with the timestamp in each .mag file in a design; if they differ, that cell is re-extracted.

version version
Identifies the version of the extractor used to write name.ext. This information is currently unused, but may be used by future versions to allow compatibility with old format .ext files.
scale rscale cscale lscale
Sets the scale to be used in interpreting resistance, capacitance, and linear dimension values in the remainder of the .ext file. Each resistance value must be multiplied by rscale to give the real resistance in milliohms. Each capacitance value must be multiplied by cscale to give the real capacitance in attofarads. Each linear dimension (e.g., width, height, transform coordinates) must be multiplied by lscale to give the real linear dimension in centimicrons. At most one scale line may appear in a .ext file. If none appears, all of rscale, cscale, and lscale default to 1.

The following keywords define the circuit formed by the mask information in cell name. This circuit is extracted independently of any subcells; its connections to subcells are handled by the keywords in the section after this one.

node name R C x y [atts] 
Defines an electrical node in name. This node is referred to by the name name in subsequent equiv lines, connections to the terminals of transistors in fet lines, and hierarchical connections or adjustments using merge or adjust. The node has a total capacitance to ground of C attofarads, and a lumped resistance of R milliohms. For purposes of going back from the node name to the geometry defining the node, (x, y) is the coordinate of a point inside the node. If there were any attribute labels attached to geometry in this node, they appear in the comma-separated list atts.

equiv node1 node2
Defines two node names in cell name as being equivalent: node1 and node2. In a collection of node names related by equiv lines, exactly one must be defined by a node line described above.

fet type x1 y1 x2 y2 area perim sub GATE T1 T2 ...
Defines a transistor in name. The kind of transistor is type, a string that comes from the
technology file and is intended to have meaning to simulation programs. The coordinates of a square entirely contained in the gate region of the transistor are \((xl, yl)\) for its lower-left and \((xh, yh)\) for its upper-right. All four coordinates are in the name's coordinate space, and are subject to scaling as described in scale below. The gate region of the transistor has area \(area\) square centimeters and perimeter \(perim\) centimeters. The substrate of the transistor is connected to node \(sub\), which is defined in the technology file for this type of transistor.

The remainder of a \texttt{net} line consists of a series of triples: \texttt{GATE}, \texttt{Ti}, \ldots Each describes one of the terminals of the transistor; the first describes the gate, and the remainder describe the transistor's non-gate terminals (e.g., source and drain). Each triple consists of the name of a node connecting to that terminal, a terminal length, and an attribute list. The terminal length is in centimeters; it is the length of that segment of the channel perimeter connecting to adjacent material, such as polysilicon for the gate or diffusion for a source or drain.

The attribute list is either the single token "0", meaning no attributes, or a comma-separated list of strings. The strings in the attribute list come from labels attached to the transistor. Any label ending in the character "$" is considered a gate attribute and appears on the gate's attribute list. Gate attributes may lie either along the border of a channel or in its interior. Any label ending in the character "$" is considered a non-gate attribute, and appears on the list of the terminal along which it lies. Non-gate attributes may only lie on the border of the channel.

The keywords in this last section describe the subcells used by name, and how it makes connections to and between them.

\texttt{use def use-id TRANSFORM}

Specifies that cell \texttt{def} with instance identifier \texttt{use-id} is a subcell of cell name. If cell \texttt{def} is arrayed, then \texttt{use-id} will be followed by two bracketed subscript ranges of the form: \([lo, hi, sep]\). The first range is for \(x\), and the second for \(y\). The subscripts for a given dimension are \(lo\) through \(hi\) inclusive, and the separation between adjacent array elements is \(sep\) centimeters.

\texttt{TRANSFORM} is a set of six integers that describe how coordinates in \texttt{def} are to be transformed to coordinates in the parent \texttt{name}. It is used by \texttt{ext2sim}(1) in transforming transistor locations to coordinates in the root of a design. The six integers of \texttt{TRANSFORM} \((ta, tb, tc, td, te, tf)\) are interpreted as components in the following transformation matrix, by which all coordinates in \texttt{def} are post-multiplied to get coordinates in name:

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
ta & td & 0 \\
tb & te & 0 \\
tc & tf & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\texttt{merge path1 path2 R C}

Used to specify a connection between two subcells, or between a subcell and mask information of name. Both \texttt{path1} and \texttt{path2} are hierarchical node names. To refer to a node in cell name itself, its pathname is just its node name. To refer to a node in a subcell of name, its pathname consists of the \texttt{use-id} of the subcell (as it appeared in a use line above), followed by a slash (/), followed by the node name in the subcell. For example, if \texttt{name} contains subcell \texttt{sub} with use identifier \texttt{sub-id}, and \texttt{sub} contains node \(n\), the full pathname of node \(n\) relative to \texttt{name} will be \texttt{sub-id/n}.

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Connections between adjacent elements of an array are represented using a special syntax that takes advantage of the regularity of arrays. A use-id in a path may optionally be followed by a range of the form [lo:hi] (before the following slash). Such a use-id is interpreted as the elements lo through hi inclusive of a one-dimensional array. An element of a two-dimensional array may be subscripted with two such ranges: first the y range, then the x range.

Whenever one path in a merge line contains such a subscript range, the other must contain one of comparable size. For example,

```
connect sub-id[1:4,2:8]/a sub-id[2:5,1:7]/b
```

is acceptable because the range 1:4 is the same size as 2:5, and the range 2:8 is the same size as 1:7.

When a connection occurs between nodes in different cells, it may be that some resistance and capacitance has been recorded redundantly. For example, polysilicon in one cell may overlap polysilicon in another, so the capacitance to substrate will have been recorded twice. The values $R$ and $C$ in a merge line provide a way of compensating for such overlap. The value $R$ milliohms (usually negative) is added to the sum of the resistances of nodes path1 and path2 to give the resistance of the aggregate node. The value $C$ attofarads (also usually negative) is added to the sum of the capacitances to substrate of nodes path1 and path2 to give the capacitance of the aggregate node.

```
adjust path R C
```

Provides a way of adjusting the resistance of the node named by the hierarchical path, without specifying a connection. $R$ milliohms and $C$ attofarads are added to the resistance and capacitance respectively of node path.

```
cap node1 node2 C
```

Defines a capacitor between the nodes node1 and node2, with capacitance $C$. This construct is used to specify both internodal capacitance within a single cell and between cells.

**AUTHOR**

Walter Scott

**SEE ALSO**

ext2sim (1), magic (1)
NAME
magic – format of .mag files read/written by Magic

DESCRIPTION
Magic uses its own internal ASCII format for storing cells in disk files. Each cell name is stored in its own file, named name.mag.
The first line in a .mag file is the string
magic
to identify this as a Magic file.
The next line is optional and is used to identify the technology in which a cell was designed. If present, it should be of the form
tech techname

If absent, the technology defaults to a system-wide standard, currently nmos.
The next line is also optional and gives a timestamp for the cell. The line is of the format
timestamp stamp

where stamp is a number of seconds since 00:00 GMT January 1, 1970 (i.e., the Unix time returned by the library function time()). It should be the last time this cell or any of its children changed. The timestamp is used to detect when a child is edited outside the context of its parent (the parent stores the last timestamp it saw for each of its children; see below). When this occurs, the design-rule checker must recheck the entire area of the child for subcell interaction errors. If this field is omitted in a cell, Magic supplies a default value that forces the rechecks.

Next come groups of lines describing rectangles of the mask layers. These rectangles should be non-overlapping, although this is not essential. They should also already have been merged into maximal horizontal strips (the neighbor to the right or left of a rectangle should not be of the same type), but this is also not essential.

Each group of rectangles is headed with a line of the format
<<< layer >>>

where layer is a layername known in the current technology (see the tech line above). Each line after this header has the format
rect zbot ybot xtop ytop

where (zbot, ybot) is the lower-left corner of the rectangle in Magic (lambda) coordinates, and (xtop, ytop) is the upper-right corner. Degenerate rectangles are not allowed; zbot must be strictly less than xtop, and ybot strictly less than ytop. The smallest legal value of zbot or ybot is −87108858, and the largest legal value for xtop or ytop is 67108858. Values that approach these limits (within a factor of 100 or 1000) may cause numerical overflows in Magic even though they are not strictly illegal. We recommend using coordinates around zero as much as possible.

After all the groups of lines describing rectangles are zero or more groups of lines describing cell uses. Each group is of the following form:
use filename use-id

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array xlo xhi zsep ylo yhi ysep
timestamp stamp
transform a b c d e f
box xbot ybot ztop ytop

Each group may be preceded by one or more blank lines. A group specifies a single instance of
the cell named filename, with instance-identifier use-id. The instance-identifier use-id must be
unique among all cells used by this .mag file. If use-id is not specified, a unique one is generated
automatically.

The array line need only be present if the cell is an array. If so, the X indices run from xlo to
xhi inclusive, with elements being separated from each other in the X dimension by zsep lambda.
The Y indices run from ylo to yhi inclusive, with elements being separated from each other in the
Y dimension by ysep lambda. If xlo and xhi are equal, zsep is ignored; similarly if ylo and yhi are
equal, ysep is ignored.

The timestamp line is optional; if present, it gives the last time this cell was aware that the
child filename changed. If there is no timestamp line, a timestamp of 0 is assumed. When the
subcell is read in, this value is compared to the actual value at the beginning of the child cell. If
there is a difference, the "timestamp mismatch" message is printed, and Magic rechecks design-
rules around the child.

The transform line gives the geometric transform from coordinates of the child filename into
coordinates of the cell being read. The six integers a, b, c, d, e, and f are part of the following
transformation matrix, which is used to postmultiply all coordinates in the child filename
whenever their coordinates in the parent are required:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
a & d & 0 \\
b & e & 0 \\
c & f & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

Finally, box gives an estimate of the bounding box of cell filename (covering all the elements of
the array if an array line was present), in coordinates of the cell being read.

The last part of a .mag file is a list of the labels present in the cell. If present, this section begins
with the line

<< labels >>

and is followed by zero or more lines of the following form:

label layer xbot ybot ztop ytop position text

Here layer is the name of one of the layers specified in the technology file for this cell. The label
is attached to material of this type. Layer may be space, in which case the label is not
considered to be attached to any layer.

Labels are rectangular. The lower-left corner of the label (the part attached to any geometry if
layer is non-space) is at (xbot, ybot), and the upper-right corner at (ztop, ytop). The width of the
rectangle or its height may be zero. In fact, most labels in Magic have a lower-left equal to their
upper right.

The text of the label, text, may be any sequence of characters not including a newline. This text
is located at one of nine possible orientations relative to the center of the label's rectangle.
Position is an integer between 0 and 8, each of which corresponds to a different orientation:

0 center
1 north
2 northeast
3 east
4 southeast
5 south
6 southwest
7 west
8 northwest

A .mag file is terminated by the line

<< end >>

Everything following this line is ignored.

NOTE FOR PROGRAMS THAT GENERATE MAGIC FILES
Magic's incremental design rule checker expects that every cell is either completely checked, or contains information to tell the checker which areas of the cell have yet to be examined for design-rule violations. To make sure that the design-rule checker verifies all the material that has been generated for a cell, programs that generate .mag files should place the following rectangle in each file:

<< checkpoint >>
rect xbot ybot xtop ytop

This rectangle may appear anywhere a list of rectangles is allowed; immediately following the timestamp line at the beginning of a .mag file is a good place. The coordinates xbot etc. should be large enough to completely cover anything in the cell, and must surround all this material by at least one lambda. Be careful, however, not to make this area too ridiculously large. For example, if you use the maximum and minimum legal tile coordinates, it will take the design-rule checker an extremely long time to recheck the area.

SEE ALSO
magic(1)

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NAME

Template format for mpanda(1)

DESCRIPTION

Making a template for mpanda consists of first designing a sample multiply-folded PLA in the desired style, and then labeling tiles using the Magic(1) graphics editor. A tile is a rectangular area of paint, and is defined by a named label outlining the area. MPanda assembles these tiles, row by row, to form a multiply-folded PLA.

There are 11 groups of tiles in a mpanda template:

1) the core of the AND plane
2) the core of the OR plane
3) the sides of the AND plane
4) the sides of the OR plane
5) the top and bottom of the AND plane
6) the top and bottom of the OR plane
7) the tiles between planes
8) the horizontal spacing tiles in the AND plane
9) the vertical spacing tiles in both planes
10) the horizontal ground tiles
11) the vertical ground tiles

Any of the tiles not in the core areas may contain linear labels with the name [GND] or [Vdd]. Linear labels are lines with a name attached. Labels with the names [GND] and [Vdd] will be stretched to allow increased current through the PLA. That is, the tile would be figuratively "cut" along the line label and then the two "pieces" would be stretched apart by a designated amount. A given tile may contain many occurrences of these linear labels, but none of them can be colinear. If 2 labels within a tile are colinear, the stretching of one of them will turn the other one into a rectangle, and it is not possible to stretch along a rectangle.

Point labels may occur anywhere in a tile. Global point labels GND! and Vdd! may be put in corner tiles, to be placed in all mpanda-generated PLAs. The point label $input$ may occur in tiles on the top or bottom of the AND plane, and the $output$ label may occur in tiles on the top or bottom of the OR plane. These labels will be replaced with the name of the corresponding input or output. There should be no more than one $input$ label on each input, and no more than one $output$ label on each output. Tiles between the AND and OR cores may contain point labels, $product$, which are placed when a product term bridges between AND and OR planes. These $product$ labels are useful for debugging purposes within a PLA.

MPanda builds PLAs by rows of tiles. All of the tiles in a row (except the bottom row) have their bottom edges aligned. The top row of tiles would be made up of edge tiles arranged from the left to the right of the PLA, all stacked together along a line. A product row of the PLA would have a left edge tile, core tiles for the AND and OR plane(s), and a right edge tile, all aligned. Each row of tiles is placed one beneath the next according to the alignment of the first tile on the left side of each row. The alignment of the first tile in each row will be discussed below. In the last row of tiles (bottom tiles), all of the tiles are aligned with each other by their top edges. The whole row is aligned to the previous string above it by aligning to the bottom edge of that previous row (the last product row).

THE CORE OF THE AND PLANE:

Required: sp-and, 10-and, 11-and, 1l-and, l-and, l0-and, r1-and, r1-and, r1-and, r1-and, l0-and, rc-and
Optional: lu-and, lb-and, lb-and, ru-and, rh-and, rb-and

These tiles contain transistors that implement the PLA function. The vertical and horizontal pitch of the core of the AND plane is set by the tile sp-and. The first character of the tile name indicates whether it is a left tile or a right tile. Left tiles are placed in every other column in the AND plane core, starting with the first column. Right tiles are placed in every other column starting with the second column. The tile sp-and determines the amount of overlap between columns.

The second character of the name represents the function of the tile according to the format for folded PLAs (see PLA(5)). For instance, a 1 stands for for tiles that contain a transistor and a 0 for tiles that pass the input line up to the next tile but have no transistor. For folded PLAs, additional tiles have, for the second character of the name, an for tiles that contain a transistor and are split below, a for tiles that contain a transistor and are folded to the right, and an for tiles that contain a transistor and are folded below and to the right. For multiply-folded PLAs, a represents a contact tile that will make a contact between a vertical and horizontal signal line, as is the case when an input or output is brought into the core from the sides of the PLA.

Optional tiles that minimize excess interconnect in the length and width of the PLA begin with for tiles that do not pass the vertical signal up to the next row, for tiles that do not pass the horizontal signal across to the next column, and for tiles that do not pass both the vertical and horizontal signals. These tiles are not necessary for the functionality of PLAs, but they help reduce capacitances and therefore delay times throughout the PLA.

Columns in the PLA AND plane are grouped into (left, right) pairs, according to (signal, complement) pairs. The selection of the core tiles in these column pairs is determined by the symbols occurring in the personality matrix as is described in PLA(5). If the symbol is a "0", then the tiles 10-and and r1-and are placed in the column as a pair. If the symbol is a "1", then the tiles 11-and and r0-and are placed. If the symbol is a "1", then the tiles 11-and and r0-and are placed. If the symbol is a "0", then the tiles 10-and and r1-and are placed. Similar pairings of tiles are done for the symbols "1", "1", "1", and "1".

The optimizing tiles are used to replace 10-and and 10-and tiles when signal lines do not need to extend the full length and width of the PLA. For example, all 10-and tiles above the topmost 11-and (11-and, 11-and, and 11-and) tile are replaced with lu-and tiles in order to allow shortened vertical poly lines. A similar substitution is done with ru-and tiles in the alternating right columns.

In a similar fashion, all 10-and and 10-and tiles that extend horizontally to the edge of the PLA are replaced with lb-and and rh-and, respectively. If a horizontal and vertical line can be minimized, the lb-and and rb-and tiles automatically replace the 10-and and 10-and tiles.

All of the tiles in this group are assumed to be of the same height. (However, creative designers may design otherwise.) When mpanda aligns a row of core tiles in the AND plane, the sp-and tile is used to control the overlap between column pair tiles. When the core of the AND plane is made, the lower left corner of a left (or right) tile is aligned to the lower left corner of the sp-and tile. The next right (or left) tile is then aligned such that its lower left corner is aligned to the sp-and tile's lower right corner. This pattern of placing a core tile (left or right), spacing a distance of sp-and, and then placing the next tile (left or right), is done throughout the core of the AND plane. It is highly recommended that the user look at the ps-CS3.mag template before trying to design a new one.

THE CORE OF THE OR PLANE:

Required: sp-or, ub-or, u1-or, ul-or, ul-or, u1-or, r0-or, d1-or, dl-or, d1-or, dl-or, dq-or

Optional: uu-or, uh-or, ub-or, du-or, dh-or, db-or

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These tiles are similar to the ones in the AND plane. A $u$ as the first character indicates that the tile occurs in every other row, starting with the first (the up rows). A $d$ indicates that the tile will be placed in the other down rows. All of the tiles in this group are assumed to be of the same width. The tile sp-or sets the horizontal spacing for the OR plane. Since mpanda builds PLAs row by row, all tiles defined in the OR plane for one row are aligned in a line by their bottom edges.

**THE SIDES OF THE AND PLANE**
Required: ul-and, ll-and, ur-and, lr-and, right-and, left-and, left-in, right-in
Optional: hul-and, hur-and, nul-and, nur-and, vui-and, vll-and, vur-and, vlr-and, nright-and, nleft-and

These tiles align to the left and right sides of the AND plane, when the AND plane is an exterior plane, as in an AND-OR-AND structure. The tile ul-and is placed in the upper left corner of the AND plane, while the tile ll-and goes in the lower left corner. Along the left side of the AND plane, each product row has a left-and tile. For AND planes on the outer right edge of the PLA, the tile ur-and is placed in the upper right corner of the AND plane, while the tile lr-and goes in the lower right corner. The rows in between the top and bottom contain right-and tiles along the right side of the AND plane.

AND planes which are interior to a PLA, such as in an OR-AND-OR PLA, do not have side tiles. When a multiply-folded PLA is made, the tiles left-in and right-in replace the left-and and right-and tiles, respectively. These side input buffers are twice as tall as the left-and and right-and tiles because connections must be made to the input signal and its complement in the multiply-folded column.

Optional corner tiles provide for PLAs that do not have folding. The extra overhead is in either the height (those tiles that begin with ) or the width (those tiles that begin with ) of the tile. Tiles that begin with are used in PLAs that are not folded and thus, do not have the extra overhead in the horizontal and vertical direction.

The tiles along the top of the PLA are placed in a row with their bottom edges aligned. The tiles along the bottom of the PLA are placed in a row with their top edges aligned. The side tiles of the AND plane are assumed to match the height of the core tiles of the AND plane and to be aligned along the same edge as the core tiles for each row.

Since the first tile in a row determines the alignment for the whole row, the left-and or left-in tiles (for PLA structures which begin with an AND plane) are assumed to be stacked exactly below succeeding rows. That is, there is no overlapping of left side tiles for AND-first PLAs.

**THE SIDES OF THE OR PLANE**
Required: ul-or, ll-or, ur-or, lr-or, rightu-or, rightd-or, leftu-or, leftd-or, leftu-out, leftd-out, rightu-out, rightd-out
Optional: hul-or, hur-or, nul-or, nur-or, vui-or, vll-or, vur-or, vlr-or, nrightu-or, nleftd-or, nleftu-or, nleftd-or

These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the sides of the AND plane. Note that the rightu-or tile is placed in the up rows, while the rightd-or tile is placed in the down rows. The output buffer tiles, leftu-out, leftd-out, rightu-out, and rightd-out, are the same height as tiles in the core of the OR plane.

When creating rows of tiles (for PLAs that begin with an OR plane), there is some overlapping of these first "left" tiles. The leftu-or (or leftu-out or leftu-out or leftd-out) tiles, for PLA structures which begin with an OR plane, are assumed to be stacked below succeeding rows such that they overlap an amount controlled by sp-or. That is, when aligning a new "left-or" tile for a new row, the sequence of alignments is as follows: align the lower left corner of the previous row with the upper left corner of the sp-or tile, align the lower left corner of the sp-or tile with the
lower left corner of the "left-or" tile. Thus, there is overlapping of left edge tiles for OR-first
PLAs.

THE TOPS AND BOTTOMS OF AND PLANES:
Required: top-in, bot-in, top-and, bots-and, tops-and
Optional: ntop-and
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the left and right sides of the AND and
OR planes. The top-in and bot-in tiles contain input buffers coming into the PLA from the top
and bottom, respectively. All of these tiles are only placed in every other column, starting with
the first because connections must be made with signal and complement lines. The tiles bots-
and and tops-and control the amount of horizontal spacing and overlap between adjacent tiles
in the same way that the ap-and tile controls horizontal spacing in the AND plane. The ntop-
and tile is used for PLAs that do not have column folds.

The top tiles are aligned by their bottom edges in a row. The bottom tiles are aligned by their
top edges.

THE TOPS AND BOTTOMS OF OR PLANES:
Required: top-out, bot-out, botl-out, botr-out, topi-or, topl-or
Optional: ntopl-or, ntop-or, nbottl-or, nbotr-or
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the top and bottom sides of the AND
plane, except that the topi-or tile is placed in every other column starting with the first (the left/
columns) while topl-or is placed in the alternating columns. These tiles are also aligned along
the top edges (unlike the top tiles in the AND plane which are aligned along the bottom edges).

THE TILES BETWEEN PLANES:
Required: topmid-so, botmid-so, topmid-oa, botmid-oa, mlmi-so, mlmi-ao, mlmi-oa, nmlmi-so, nmlmi-ao, nmlmi-oa, cmmlmi-so, cmmlmi-ao, cmmlmi-oa
Optional: ntopmid-so, ntopmid-oa
These tiles are between the AND and OR planes. When an AND plane is followed by an OR
plane, the ao tiles are used, and when an OR plane is followed by an AND plane, the os tiles
are used. The tiles that connect product rows between the AND and OR cores, mlmid_so, mlmi_so,
mlmi_ao, and mlmi_oa, usually contain some type of circuit element that pulls up each product
row. Tiles that begin with a n do not contain these circuit elements and are placed when the
product row does not need to be connected between two planes. The tiles that begin with a c are
for middle tiles in contact rows.

In the top row of tiles, the topmid-so tile matches the AND tiles in the top rows by its lower left
corner. The topmid-oa tile matches the OR tiles in the top rows by its upper left corner. In the
bottom row of tiles, the botmid-so and botmid-oa tiles match the other tiles in the bottom
rows by their top edges. The "midd" and "midu" tiles are assumed to be the same height as the
core tiles in the AND plane. Their bottom edges are aligned along the same edge as the other
tiles in their row.

THE HORIZONTAL SPACING TILES IN THE AND PLANE
Required: sh-and, both-and, topb-and
Optional: shx-and
These tiles handle the extra horizontal spacing that is needed in the AND plane for folding rows in
the AND plane. When two logical rows must share one physical row, the structure of the AND
plane (pairings of left and right core tiles) is such that they may need extra spacing in the
horizontal direction. This occurs when right tile (containing a transistor) of one logic row is
adjacent to the left tile (containing a transistor) of another logic row. Usually, one contact is used
between these transistors to connect them to the product term. However, when a logical fold must be made between these transistors, the contact can not be split, so the duplication of the contact and the extra space needed for physical correctness is contained in the shx-and (for no connection between right and left tiles) and sh-and tiles (for connecting between right and left tiles, when the logical rows are not folded but horizontal spacing was required on another row). The both-and and toph-and tiles provide the same amount of horizontal spacing in the top and bottom tiles in the AND plane.

**THE VERTICAL SPACING TILES IN BOTH PLANES**

Required: sv-or, lv-and, rv-and, mldv-ao, mlvd-ao, shv-and, leftv-and, leftv-or, rightv-and, rightv-or

Optional: svx-or, lvx-and, rvx-and

These tiles function in a manner analogous to the horizontal space tiles in the AND plane. In the OR plane, the up and down tiles require the sv-or (for connecting) and svx-or (for non-connecting) tiles for vertical splits along columns in the OR plane. The consequences of spacing out the OR plane vertically, require the tiles, leftv-and, rightv-and, leftv-or, and rightv-or along the sides of the PLA. In the AND plane, the tiles lv-and and rv-and, allow for vertical spacing and connect the vertical signals. The tile lvx-and and rvx-and provide vertical spacing and donot connecting (the in the name) vertical signals. The shv-and tile is placed when vertical and horizontal spacing intersect in the core of the AND plane. The mlvd-ao and mldv-ao tiles contain the vertical spacing in the middle tiles between planes.

These tiles are assumed to be the same height as the core tiles in the AND plane. Their bottom edges are aligned along the same edge as the other tiles in their row.

**THE HORIZONTAL GROUND TILES**

Required: HGlleft-and, HGlright-and, HGl-and, HGr-and, HGlright-or, HGleft-or, HGlmd-ao, HGlmd-ao, HG-or, HGshv-and

Optional: nHGlleft-and, nHGlright-and, nHGlright-or, nHGleft-or, HGlx-and, HGrx-and

For the extra ground lines that are needed for large PLAs, these horizontal ground tiles contain metal lines that run the width of the PLA from one side to the other. These tiles are aligned in the PLA in a manner similar to the horizontal spacing tiles.

**THE VERTICAL GROUND TILES**

Required: VGtop-or, VG-or, VGD-or, HVG-or, cHVG-or, VGbot-or

Optional: nVGtop-or, VGux-or, VGdx-or

These tiles are aligned in the PLA in a manner analogous to the horizontal ground tiles and vertical spacing tiles.

**SEE ALSO**

mpanda(1), mpack(3), PLA(5), mpl(1), mpl(5)

**AUTHOR**

Grace H. Mah
NAME
Template format for Mpla(1)

DESCRIPTION
Making a template for mpla(1) consists of first drawing a sample PLA in the desired style, and then labeling tiles using the Magic(1) graphics editor. A tile is a rectangular area of paint, and is defined by a named label outlining the area. Mpla assembles these tiles to form a finished PLA.

GETTING STARTED
Before reading this manual page, it would be helpful to get a plot of one of the MPLA templates located in ~/cad/lib/mpla and a copy of the two gremlin figures located in ~/cad/arc/mpla. If this man page is hardcopy, then the two gremlin figures may already be attached.

OVERVIEW OF THE TILES
There are 11 groups of tiles in a mpla template:

1) the core of the AND plane
2) the core of the OR plane
3) the left side of the AND plane
4) the top of the AND plane
5) the bottom of the AND plane
6) the top of the OR plane
7) the bottom of the OR plane
8) the right of the OR plane
9) the tiles between the two planes
10) horizontal ground grid tiles
11) vertical ground grid tiles

There are also 2 optional groups of tiles which are used for clocked inputs and outputs:

12) clocking (if any) for the AND plane
13) clocking (if any) for the OR plane

Any of the tiles not in the core areas may contain linear labels with the name <GND>, <Vdd>. A linear label is just a rectangle label in which has either zero width or zero height. Labels with the names <GND> and <Vdd> will be stretched to allow increased current through the PLA. A given tile may contain many occurrences of these 2 labels, but none of them can be colinear.

The <input> label may occur in tiles on the top or bottom of the AND plane, and the <output> label may occur in tiles on the top or bottom of the OR plane. The labels will be replaced with the name of the corresponding input or output. There should no more than one <input> label on each input, and no more than one <output> label on each output.

THE CORE OF THE AND PLANE: sp-and, l0-and, ll-and, l-and, r0-and, r1-and, r-and
These tiles contain transistors that implement the PLA function. The vertical pitch of the whole PLA is set by the tile sp-and, as is the horizontal pitch of the AND plane.

The first character of the tile name indicates whether it is a left tile or a right tile. Left tiles are placed in every other column in the AND plane core, starting with the first column. Right tiles, on the other hand, are placed every other column starting with the second column. The second character of the name is a 1 for tiles that contain a transistor, a 0 for tiles that pass the input line up to the next tile but have no transistor, and . for tiles that do not pass the input line up to the next row and have no transistor.
Columns in the PLA AND plane are grouped into (left, right) pairs, and the selection of the core tiles in these column pairs is determined by the input bit in the truth table row for the current minterm. If that bit is a 0, then the tiles 10-and and 11-and are placed in the column pair. If the bit is a 1, then the tiles 01-and and r0-and are placed. All 10-and tiles above the topmost 11-and tile are replaced with 1.-and tiles in order to allow shortened poly lines, as in the standard nMOS PLA. A similar substitution is done with the r.-and tile in the right columns.

The AND plane core will be surrounded by tiles on its perimeter. It is possible for these tiles to overlap the core, this is described in the section that deals with these surrounding tiles.

THE CORE OF THE OR PLANE: sp-or, u0-or, u1-or, u-or, d0-or, d1-or, d-or
These tiles are similar to the ones in the AND plane. A 'u' as the first character indicates that the tile occurs in every other row, starting with the first (the up rows). A 'd' indicates that the tile will be placed in the other down rows. The tile sp-or sets the horizontal spacing for the OR plane.

THE LEFT SIDE OF THE AND PLANE: Oleft-and, ul-and, leftu-and, leftd-and, il-and
The tile ul-and is placed in the Upper Left corner of the AND plane, while the tile il-and goes in the Lower Left corner. The rows in between contain leftu-and and leftd-and tiles, with the former in odd numbered rows (up rows) and the latter in the even numbered rows (down rows). The tile Oleft-and controls the amount of overlap between the other 3 tiles and the core of the AND plane. In particular, the right sides of the ul-and, left-and, and il-and tiles are lined up such that they overlap the AND plane core by the width of the tile Oleft-and.

THE TOP OF THE AND PLANE: Otop-and, ul-and, top-and
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the left side of the AND plane, except that the tile top-and is only placed in every other column, starting with the first. Note that the tile ul-and occurs in two groups of tiles. It is included in this group since its overlap with the top of the AND plane is controlled by the tile Otop-and, even though its overlap with the left side of the plane is controlled by the tile Oleft-and in the left-and-plane group.

THE BOTTOM OF THE AND PLANE: Obot-and, il-and, bot-and
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the top side of the AND plane.

THE TOP OR THE OR PLANE: Otop-or, topl-or, top-or, ur-or
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the top side of the AND plane, except that the top-or tile is placed in every other column starting with the first (the left columns) while top-or is placed in the other columns.

THE BOTTOM OF THE OR PLANE: Obot-or, botl-or, botr-or, lr-or
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the top side of the OR plane.

THE RIGHT SIDE OF THE OR PLANE: Oright-or, rightu-or, rightd-or, ur-or, lr-or
These tiles function in a manner analogous to the tiles on the left side of the and plane. Note that the rightu-or tile is placed in the up rows, while the rightd-or is placed in the down rows.

THE AREA BETWEEN PLANES: top-mld, Otop-mld, bot-mld, Obot-mld, mlud, mldd
Similar to the right side of the OR plane.

HORIZONTAL GROUND LINES: Hleft-and, HGl-and, HGl-and, HGr-and, HGr-and, HG-mld, HG-or, HGright-or
Horizontal ground lines may be inserted in the PLA. They always are placed such that there is an even (and nonzero) number of rows above and a nonzero (but odd or even) number of rows below. Gl.-and has a vertical input poly line in it, while HGl-and does not.

VERTICAL GROUND LINES: VGtop-or, VGl-or, VGd-or, VGu-or, VGu-or, HVG-or
These lines are placed in the OR plane. They always have an even number of OR columns to the left, and either an even or an odd number to the right. Central tiles without a dot in the name contain an extension of the minterm to the right, while tiles with the dot don't. The tile HVG-or
is placed at the intersection of a horizontal and vertical ground line.

CLOCKED INPUTS: Cul-and, Ctop-and, CIb-and, Cbot-and
If any of these tiles exist and the user has asked for clocked inputs, they will be used in preference to the tiles which do not start with the letter 'C'.

CLOCKED OUTPUTS: Cur-or, Ctopl-or, Ctoptr-or, CIr-or, CIbotl-or, CIbotr-or
Similar to clocked inputs.

SEE ALSO
mpla(1), mpack(1)

HISTORY
Mpla is a port of the program 'tpla'.

AUTHOR
Robert N. Mayo

BUGS
There really should be a way for template designers to specify what they want aligned with what. Currently this is fixed in the mpla code, but you can think of ways to specify this graphically in the templates instead.
Exploded View of AND Plane

NOTES:
1) Thin lines indicate corners that line up.
2) Topmost row in the PLA is a 'u' (UP) row, and last row may be either a 'u' or 'd' (DOWN) row.
3) Extra ground rows are inserted only in places where there is a 'd' row above and a 'u' row below.
4) Overlap amounts \( MTO \) and \( MBO \) apply only to the tiles in the 'mid' section.
Exploded View of OR Plane

NOTES:
1) Thin lines indicate corners that line up.
2) Left most column in the plane is a 'l' (LEFT) row, and last column may be either a 'l' or 'r' (RIGHT) column.
3) Extra ground columns are inserted only in places where there is a 'r' column to the left and a 'l' row to the right.
4) Tiles on the left side of the figure are the tiles from the right side of the AND plane.
5) Y-pitch of the OR plane is set by the Y-pitch of the AND plane.

1985 VLSI Tools Distribution 2/28/85
NAME

net – format of .net files read/written by Magic's netlist editor

DESCRIPTION

Netlist files are read and written by Magic's netlist editor in a very simple ASCII format. The first line contains the characters "Netlist File" (the leading blank is important). After that comes a blank line and then the descriptions of one or more nets. Each net contains one or more lines, where each line contains a single terminal name. The nets are separated by blank lines. Any line that is blank or whose first character is blank is considered to be a separator line and the rest of its contents are ignored.

Each terminal name is a path, much like a file path name in Unix. It consists of one or more fields separated by slashes. The last field in the path is the name of a label in a cell. The other fields (if any), are cell instance identifiers that form a path from the edit cell down to the label. The first instance identifier must name a subcell of the edit cell, the second must be a subcell of the first, and so on.

Instance identifiers are unique within their parent cells, so a terminal path selects a unique cell to contain the label. However, the same label may appear multiple times within its cell. When this occurs, Magic assumes that each of the labels is a terminal in the net, and it will attempt to wire them all together.

An example netlist file follows below. It contains three distinct nets.

```
Netlist File

alu/bit_1/cout
alu/bit_2/cin

regcell[21,2]/output
latch[2]/input
    This line starts with a blank, so it's a separator.
opcode_pla/out6
shifter/drivers/shift2
```

SEE ALSO

magic(1)
NAME
pla – Format for physical description of Programmable Logic Arrays.

SYNOPSIS
pla

DESCRIPTION
This format is used by programs which manipulate plas to describe the physical implementation. Lines beginning with a ‘#’ are comments and are ignored. Lines beginning with a ‘.’ contain control information about the pla. Currently, the control information is given in the following order:

.d <number of inputs>
.o <number of outputs>
.p <number of product terms (pterms)>
and optionally,
.mn <name> (the name to be used for the pla)

What follows then is a description of the AND and OR planes of the pla with one line per product term. Connections in the AND plane are represented with a ‘1’ for connection to the non-inverted input line and a ‘0’ for connection to the inverted input line. No connection to an input line is indicated with ‘x’, ‘X’, or ‘-‘ with ‘-‘ being preferred. Connections in the OR plane are indicated by a ‘1’ with no connection being indicated with ‘x’, ‘X’, ‘0’, or ‘-‘ with ‘-‘ being preferred. Spaces or tabs may be used freely and are ignored.

The end of the pla description is indicated with:

.e

Programs capable of handling split and folded arrays employ the following format:

AND PLANE

Columns (1) Contact to input (2) No contact to input

(1) (2) | Description
-------|---------------------
1     | Normal contacts, no splits or folds
!     | Split below
;     | Fold to right
:     | Split below and fold to right

OR PLANE

Columns (1) Contact to output (2) No contact to output

(1) (2) | Description
-------|---------------------
1     | Normal contacts, no splits or folds
i     | Split below
i     | Fold to right
j     | Split below and fold to right

ADDITIONAL ELEMENTS

* Input buffer
+ Output buffer
D Depletion load associated with product term
N No depletion load associated with product term

Note that the decoding function of the AND plane is separated from the specification of its connectivity. This makes the AND and OR plane specifications identical.

These programs handle the following more general set of parameters:

- $\text{lil}$ <number of left-AND plane inputs>
- $\text{rir}$ <number of right-AND plane inputs>
- $\text{oli}$ <number of left-OR plane inputs>
- $\text{ori}$ <number of right-OR plane inputs>
- $\text{p}$ <number of product terms>
- $\text{llt}$ <labels left-top-AND plane>
- $\text{llb}$ <labels left-bottom-AND plane>
- $\text{lrt}$ <labels right-top-AND plane>
- $\text{lrb}$ <labels right-bottom-AND plane>
- $\text{o1b}$ <labels left-bottom-OR plane>
- $\text{o1t}$ <labels left-top-OR plane>
- $\text{orb}$ <labels right-bottom-OR plane>
- $\text{ort}$ <labels right-top-OR plane>
- $\text{pl}$ <labels left product terms>
- $\text{pr}$ <labels right product terms>

The first group of parameters must precede the second group. If there is only one AND or OR plane it is assumed to be the left one and the companion parameters may be shortened by dropping their (left,right) designation character.

In order to better deal with folded and split PLAs, the following parameters are proposed:

- $\text{lg}$ <input group>
- $\text{og}$ <output group>
- $\text{lins}$ <inputs excluded from splitting>
- $\text{linf}$ <inputs excluded from folding>
- $\text{ons}$ <outputs excluded from splitting>
- $\text{onf}$ <outputs excluded from folding>

In order to build finite state machines, the following parameters are proposed:

- $\text{liltf}$ <left-top-AND feedback terms>
- $\text{llbft}$ <left-bottom-AND feedback terms>
- $\text{lirtf}$ <right-top-AND feedback terms>
- $\text{lrbtn}$ <right-bottom-AND feedback terms>
- $\text{olitf}$ <left-top-OR feedback terms>
- $\text{olbft}$ <left-bottom-OR feedback terms>
- $\text{orft}$ <right-top-OR feedback terms>
- $\text{orbft}$ <right-bottom-OR feedback terms>
- $\text{llr}$ <left re-ordered inputs>
- $\text{lrr}$ <right re-ordered inputs>
- $\text{olr}$ <left re-ordered outputs>
- $\text{olrf}$ <left re-ordered outputs>
The .XXXf parameters must occur in pairs, with the .oXXXf line first. Input and output terms must occur on the same side (top, bottom) of the PLA. Feedback terms must be given in ascending order. The re-order .parameters simplify feedback routing.

SEE ALSO
eqtott(1), espresso(1), espresso(5), panda(1), mpanda(1), tpla(1), mplas(1), pop(1), blam(1), pleasure(1), plaid(1)
NAME
pleasure – file formats for pleasure(1)

INPUT FILE FORMAT
Input file consists of two parts: the folding instruction part and the PLA symbolic description part. Comment lines must begin with a "#".

(a) Folding instructions.
Folding instructions begin with a period. The period should be placed in the first column of the input file. The instructions can be placed anywhere between ".list" and the PLA table. If symbolic names are assigned to inputs and outputs of the PLA, the instruction "label" can be used to let this assignment be known to pleasure. Once a label is assigned to any one column, then all the columns have to have labels as well. In other folding instructions, the same symbolic name has to be used.

The following instructions are understood by pleasure:

.list
Input file records following ".list" are displayed on the standard output during the read phase.

.cofold [=mult] [ or [=mult] ]
Column folding requested in the AND and/or OR plane. Multiple folding is specified by the string "=mult".

.rofold [ aoa | oao | mult ]
Row folding: the trailing character string specifies AND-OR-AND, OR-AND-OR, or multiple folded architecture.

.label in1 in2 ... out1 out2 ...
Each label should be in one-to-one correspondence to each column. Once every column has been labelled, the assigned name should be used for other folding instructions which refer to the columns such as "top", "bottom", "group", "order" and "window". If this label instruction is not given, the user can use an integer number to match the columns.

.first [ row | column ]
Specifies if rows or columns are to be folded first. If omitted, the fold sequence will be chosen by the program.

.top [ c1, c2, ..., cn ]
The columns in the list are folded on the top only.

.bottom [ c1, c2, ..., cn ]
The columns in the list are folded on the bottom only.

.left [ r1, r2, ..., rn ]
The rows in the list are folded on the left only.

.right [ r1, r2, ..., rn ]
The rows in the list are folded on the right only.

.order left | right
Column folding in the leftmost (rightmost) array is constrained so that each column can be contacted to a connection row and connection rows are in the same sequence as columns in the original PLA. (See references)

\texttt{.window row | column | contact [n1,l1,n1, ... ,nn,ln,nn]}

Folding is constrained so that rows, columns, and contacts to connection rows are kept inside a window. The lower and upper bounds for row (column or contact) nj is specified by lj and uj respectively. Note that row and contact (column) windows are compatible only with column (row) folding.

\texttt{.array left [c1, c2, ... , cn]}
\texttt{.array right [c1, c2, ... , cn]}

The PLA is segmented and specified columns are placed in the left (right) array.

\texttt{.group vt | hr [c1 c2] (c4 c7 c9 e10) (c34 c35) ... ]}

Folding is constrained so that the signals grouped together can be placed contiguously in the output PLA. The constraints are meant to handle the physical positions of the signal carrying the outputs of 1-input and 2-input decoder. For the time being, this instruction is compatible with multiple folding and it requires expanded PLA input. Option "vt" means: multiple column folding with group constraints on the connection rows. Option "hr" means: multiple row folding with group constraints on the columns. At present, the output format for Fanda cannot be processed directly in case of group constraints.

\texttt{.machine}

Output format of batch mode will be set for Fanda input format.

\texttt{.side}

Folding is constrained so that the signals are connected by the connection rows from the left or right side.

\texttt{.option pttlall | heu1 | heu2}

ptall : prints row, column and contact positions on output file.

heu1 : a fast heuristic selection is used based on the degree of the nodes corresponding to the columns or rows to be folded in the node graph of the problem. (See references) Good for large arrays.

heu2 : another heuristic selection based on the number of descendant and descendant.

If you don't specify anything for heu1 or heu2, or if you specify both of them, the program will be executed twice and the best result will be selected.

\texttt{.end}

End of file.

\texttt{(b) The PLA symbolic description.}

PLA's are described as two-level sum-of-products logical implicants. The PLA input format is compatible with the output format of Espresso. In the AND-PLANE, a 1 means a connection to the input variable, a 0 means a connection to the complemented input variable, and any other character (except 0, 1 or /) means no connection. Likewise, in the OR-plane, a 1 means a connection to the output function, and any other character (except 1 or /) means no connection.
Each input file record is up to 80 characters long. A "/" in the last position means that the implicant continues on the next record. Blanks separate the AND PLANE from the OR PLANE. No other character is allowed between the two planes. No blank is allowed inside a plane.

OUTPUT FILE FORMAT

(a) Format for General Usage

This output format is provided for the user so that he can look at the folding results. It consists of the folding lists, the report of the percentage for the optimal area over the original area and the folded PLA personality matrix. The character set used to represent the folded array is reported in the following table:

```
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>;</td>
<td>@</td>
<td>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

AND PLANE

(1) Contact to input
(2) Contact to complement
(3) No contact

Normal contacts, no splits or folds
Split below
Fold to right
Split below and fold to right

OR PLANE

(1) Contact to output
(2) No contact to output

Normal contacts, no splits or folds
Split below
Fold to right
Split below and fold to right

(b) Format for the Panda Input

This output format is meant to be processed by a "silicon assembler" program, which generates the folded PLA mask layout in CIF 2.0 standard format. Panda is the program which is connected to Pleasure. Pleasure provides a special output format for Panda. For more information on input format, please refer to the manual Panda.

The output file consists of the control lines and a personality matrix of the folded PLA. The symbolic name 'B' or 'BLANK' means no signal which corresponds to 'X'(No buffer). However,
they are not necessarily in one-to-one correspondence. The personality matrix of the folded PLA has the same character set as the general-usage output format except for the contact symbol for the complement signal in the AND plane. There is no difference between contact symbol of the signal and that of its complement any more since the AND plane has been expanded. The column which is connected to "*" (input buffer) is the signal and the next column which is located just right side of the signal is the complemented signal. Therefore the characters for the contact of the complemented signal are not used here. The additional symbol characters are as follows:

Symbols

* Input buffer
+ Output buffer
X No buffer
c Contact within AND or OR plane
> < Routing lines to contact for multiple folds

INTERACTIVE MODE

Example of a typical pleasure session:

pleasure
pleasure => (dot)xxx
pleasure => read
filename

pleasure => status
pleasure => reset xxx
pleasure => run
pleasure => show
pleasure => show best
pleasure => showpan best
pleasure => clear
pleasure => read
filename

pleasure => .option heu1
pleasure => step
pleasure => show heu1
pleasure => step
pleasure => show heu1
pleasure => run
pleasure => show best
pleasure => save
filename
pleasure => showpan
pleasure => savepan
filename
pleasure => quit
REFERENCES


(b) G. De Micheli and A. Sangiovanni-Vincentelli, "PLEASURE: A computer program for simple/multiple constrained/unconstrained folding of programmable logic arrays." Proc. 20th Design Automation Conference, Miami Beach (FL), pp. 530-537, June 1983.

Example #1: Input file ex1

.list
.label in1 in2 in3 in4 in5 in6 out1 out2 out3 out4
.cofold and=mult or
.bottom 3
.option prtal
xx1xx0 1000
x1x0xx 0100
lxxxx0 0001
lxxxx1 0100
0xxxxx 0010
xxxxxl 0001
.end

Example #2: Input file ex2

#pleasure
# TEST PLA #2
.list
.cofold and=mult or=mult
.label in1 in2 in3 in4 in5 in6 out1 out2 out3 out4
.window contact in1 1 1 1 2 1 1 3 in6 4 6 out1 1 1 1 out3 4 6
.side
.option prtal
xx1xx0 1000
x1x0xx 0100
lxxxx0 0001
lxxxx1 0100
0xxxxx 0010
xxxxxl 0001
.end
Example #3: General use output from ex1

pleasure2 version 3 on 08/15/84 9:00
Type "help" for help.
# FOLDING REQUESTED:
  # SIMPLE COLUMN FOLDING IN THE OR PLANE
  # MULTIPLE COLUMN FOLDING IN THE AND PLANE
# FOLDING REQUESTED:
  # SIMPLE COLUMN FOLDING IN THE OR PLANE
  # MULTIPLE COLUMN FOLDING IN THE AND PLANE
# *** Folded pla has no comparison error ***
# OUTPUT BASED ON THE HEURISTIC SCHEME 2
COLUMN FOLDINGS:

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 1
out1 out3

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 2
in6 in5 in2

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 3
in1 in4

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 4
out4 out2

COLUMNS FROM THE TOP
in1 in3 in6 out1 out4

ROWS FROM THE LEFT
  1  3  5  6  4  2
In this heuristic scheme 2, new PLA takes 50% of the original area
The heuristic scheme 1 takes 60%

PERSONALITY MATRIX
-10 i~
1-0 i~
0-1 i~
--! i~
!-! i~
0-1 i~
Example #4: General use output from ex2

pleasure2 version 3 on 08/15/84 9:00
Type "help" for help.
# FOLDING REQUESTED:
# MULTIPLE COLUMN FOLDING IN THE AND PLANE
# MULTIPLE COLUMN FOLDING IN THE OR PLANE
# COLUMN FOLDING WITH CONSTRAINED CONTACT POSITIONS
# OUTPUT FORMAT IS SET FOR PANDA
# I/O BUFFERS ARE ALL SET FROM SIDES
# *** Folded pla has no comparison error ***
# OUTPUT BASED ON THE HEURISTIC SCHEME 1
COLUMN FOLDINGS:

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 1
out1 out4 out2 out3

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 2
in3 in2

ORDERED COLUMN FOLDING LIST # 3
in6 in4

COLUMNS FROM THE TOP
in1 in3 in5 in6 out1

ROWS FROM THE LEFT
1 3 6 4 2 5

CONTACTS ON THE LEFT PLANE:
in1 in3 in2 in6 in4 in5

CONTACTS ON THE RIGHT PLANE:
out1 out4 BLANK out2 BLANK out3
In this heuristic scheme 1, new PLA takes 50% of the original area
The heuristic scheme 2 takes 50%

PERSONALITY MATRIX
-1-0 i
1--0 I
---1 i
1-1 I
-1-0 i
0--- I

1985 VLSI Tools Distribution 10/9/84 8
NAME

sim - format of .sim files read by esim, crystal, etc.

DESCRIPTION

The simulation tools crystal(1) and esim(1) accept a circuit description in .sim format. There is a single .sim file for the entire circuit, unlike Magic's ext(5) format in which there is a .ext file for every cell in a hierarchical design.

A .sim file consists of a series of lines, each of which begins with a key letter. The key letter beginning a line determines how the remainder of the line is interpreted. The following are the list of key letters understood:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>unitas</th>
<th>tech: tech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If present, this must be the first line in the .sim file. It identifies the technology of this circuit as tech and gives a scale factor for units of linear dimension as s. All linear dimensions appearing in the .sim file are multiplied by s to give centimicrons.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>type g</th>
<th>s d l w x y g=gattrs s=sattrs d=dattrs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defines a transistor of type type. Currently, type may be e or d for NMOS, or p or n for CMOS. The name of the node to which the gate, source, and drain of the transistor are connected are given by g, s, and d respectively. The length and width of the transistor are l and w. The next two tokens, x and y, are optional. If present, they give the location of a point inside the gate region of the transistor. The last three tokens are the attribute lists for the transistor gate, source, and drain. If no attributes are present for a particular terminal, the corresponding attribute list may be absent (i.e., there may be no g=g field at all). The attribute lists gattrs, etc. are comma-separated lists of labels. The label names should not include any spaces, although some tools can accept label names with spaces if they are enclosed in double quotes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C n1 n2 cap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defines a capacitor between nodes n1 and n2. The value of the capacitor is cap femtofarads.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R node res</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defines the lumped resistance of node node to be res ohms. This construct is only interpreted by a few programs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N node darea dperim parea pperim marea mperim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As an alternative to computed capacitances, some tools expect the total perimeter and area of the polysilicon, diffusion, and metal in each node to be reported in the .sim file. The N construct associates diffusion area darea (in square centimicrons) and diffusion perimeter dperim (in centimicrons) with node node, polysilicon area parea and perimeter pperim, and metal area marea and perimeter mperim. This construct is technology dependent and obsolete.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A node attr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Associates attribute attr for node node. The string attr should contain no blanks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>= node1 node2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Each node in a .sim file is named implicitly by having it appear in a transistor definition. All node names appearing in a .sim file are assumed to be distinct. Some tools, such as esim(1), recognize aliases for node names. The = construct allows the name node2 to be defined as an alias for the name node1. Aliases defined by means of this construct may not appear anywhere else in the .sim file.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SEE ALSO
  crystal(1), esim(1), ext2sim(1), sim2spice(1), ext(5)
NAME
prleak — aid for debugging programs using malloc/free

SYNOPSIS
prleak [-a] [-d] [-l] [ objfile [ tracefile ] ]

DESCRIPTION
Prleak is a tool for use in debugging programs that make use of Magic's versions of malloc and free. It examines the trace file produced by special versions of malloc and free produced when they are compiled with the -DMALLOCTRACE flag. The output of prleak is the average allocation size, a list of 'leaky' allocations (blocks still allocated at program exit) if -l is specified, a list of duplicate frees (blocks that the program attempted to free after they had already been deallocated) if -d is specified, and a list of all calls to malloc and free if -a is specified. If no switches are given, the default action is as though -l and -d were in effect.

For each entry output, both the address of the allocated block and a stack backtrace at the time of the call to malloc or free are printed. Prleak attempts to use the namelist from objfile (a.out if no file is given) to produce a symbolic backtrace. If no namelist can be found, the backtrace is printed in hex. If tracefile is specified, the malloc trace is read from it; otherwise, it is read from the file malloc.out in the current directory.

An example output might be as follows:

Average allocation size = 12 bytes

Leaks:

0x11540 [11 bytes]
  at _foo+0x14
  called from ~main+026

0x11556 [14 bytes]
  at _bar+0x50
  called from _foo+0x38
  called from ~main+0x26

Duplicate frees:

0x11556
  at _bar+0x40
  called from _foo+0x38
  called from ~main+0x26

FILES
malloc.out

SEE ALSO
ACM SIGPLAN Notices, Vol 17, No 5 (May 1982), the article by Barach and Taenzer.

1985 VLSI Tools Distribution
AUTHOR
Walter Scott

BUGS
Local symbols (beginning with "\~") in the backtrace output should be tagged with the source file
to which they refer.
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

1. What is Magic?

Magic is an interactive system for creating and modifying VLSI circuit layouts. With Magic, you use a color graphics display and a mouse or graphics tablet to design basic cells and to combine them hierarchically into large structures. Magic is different from other layout editors you may have used. The most important difference is that Magic is more than just a color painting tool: it understands quite a bit about the nature of circuits and uses this information to provide you with several additional operations. For example, Magic has built-in knowledge of layout rules; as you are editing, it continuously checks for rule violations. Magic also knows about connectivity and transistors, and contains a built-in hierarchical circuit extractor. Magic will eventually have a plow operation that you'll be able to use to stretch or compact cells. Lastly, Magic has routing tools that you can use to make the global interconnections in your circuits.

Magic is based on the Mead-Conway style of design. This means that it uses simplified design rules and circuit structures. The simplifications make it easier for you to design circuits and permit Magic to provide powerful assistance that would not be possible otherwise. However, they result in slightly less dense circuits than you could get with more complex rules and structures. For example, Magic permits only Manhattan designs (those whose edges are vertical or horizontal). Circuit designers tell us that our conservative design rules cost 5-10% in density. We believe that the density sacrifice is more than compensated by reduced design time, and many circuit designers agree with us.
2. How to Get Help and Report Problems

There are several ways you can get help about Magic. If you are trying to learn about the system, you should start off with the Magic tutorials, of which this is the first. Each tutorial introduces a particular set of facilities in Magic. There is also a set of manuals intended for system maintainers. These describe things like how to create new technologies. Finally, there is a set of technology manuals. Each one of the technology manuals describes the features peculiar to a particular technology, such as layer names and design rules. Table I lists all of the Magic manuals. The tutorials are designed to be read while you are running Magic, so that you can try out the new commands as they are explained. You needn’t read all the tutorials at once; each tutorial lists the other tutorials that you should read first.

The tutorials are not necessarily complete. Each one is designed to introduce a set of facilities, but it doesn’t necessarily cover every possibility. The ultimate authority on how Magic works is the reference manual, which is a standard Unix man page. The man page gives concise and complete descriptions of all the Magic commands. Once you have a general idea how a command works, the man page is probably easier to consult than the tutorial. However, the man page may not make much sense until after you’ve read the tutorial.

A third way of getting help is available on-line through Magic itself. The help command will print out one line for each Magic command, giving the command’s syntax and an extremely brief description of the command. This facility is useful if you’ve forgotten the name or exact syntax of a command. If interested in information about a particular subject, you can type

```
help subject
```

This command will print out each command description that contains the subject string.

If you have a question or problem that can’t be answered with any of the above approaches, don’t hesitate to contact a member of the Magic team. We
are: Gordon Hamachi, Bob Mayo, John Ousterhout, and Walter Scott. Magic is a relatively young program, so you will probably run across bugs and unpleasant features. When this happens, please let us know by sending mail to magic@ucbmkim. This will reach everyone in the group and will also log the message in a system file so we can't forget about the problem. Please tell us about problems with the manuals too.

3. Hardware Configuration

Magic runs in two configurations right now. One configuration uses VAX processors: each workstation consists of a standard video terminal, called the text display, and a color display. You use the keyboard on the text display to type in commands, and Magic uses its screen to log the commands and their results. The color display is used to display one or more portions of the circuit you are designing. You will use a graphics tablet or mouse to point to things on the color display and to invoke some commands. If there is a keyboard attached to the color display (as, for example, with AED512 displays) it is not used except to reset the display. The current version of Magic supports UCB512 displays, and AED1024 displays. (UCB512's are AED512 displays with special Berkeley microcode; virtually all of the AED512's at Berkeley are UCB512's). More displays are being added, so check the Unix man page for the most up-to-date information.

The second configuration supported by Magic is a Sun model 120 with the SunColor option. Magic uses the black-and-white display to log commands (we'll refer to it as the "text display"), and the color screen to display layouts. The optical mouse is used to point on the color screen. If you run with the Sun configuration, we recommend that you get as much memory as you possibly can (e.g. 4 Mbytes).

4. Running Magic

From this point on, you should be sitting at a Magic workstation as you read the manual so you can experiment with the program. Starting up Magic is usually pretty simple. If you are using a UCB512 workstation, log yourself in on the text display next to the color display. Reset the color display (hit the left button in the top row twice; the display should beep, and two lines should appear in red at the upper left corner of the screen, the first line should read "UC-Berkeley" and the second line "AED V92.B1"; if something else appears, then the display isn't a UCB512). If you are on a Sun, run suntools and open up a shell window. Then type the shell command

```
magic tutorial1
```

Tutorial1 is the name of a library cell that you will play with in this tutorial. At this point, several colored rectangles should appear on the color display along with a white box and a blinking cursor (if you're running on a Sun workstation, the cursor will still be over a window on the black-and-white screen; slide it off the right edge of the black-and-white screen to get it onto the color screen). A
message will be printed on the text display to tell you that tutorial1 is unwritable (it's in a read-only library), and a ">" prompt should appear. If this has happened, then you can skip the rest of this section (except for the note below) and go directly to Section 5.

Note: in the tutorials, when you see things printed in boldface, for example, magic tutorial1 from above, they refer to things you type exactly, such as command names and file names. These are usually case sensitive (A is different from a). When you see things printed in italics, they refer to classes of things you might type. For example, a more complete description of the shell command for Magic is

\texttt{magic file}

You could type any file name for file, and Magic would start editing that file. It turns out that tutorial1 is just a file in Magic's tutorial library.

If things didn't happen as they should have when you tried to run Magic, any of several things could be wrong. If a message of the form "magic: Command not found" appears on your screen it is because the shell couldn't find the Magic program. The most stable version of Magic is the directory \texttt{~cad/bin}, and the newest public version is in \texttt{~cad/new}. You should make sure that both these directories are in your shell path. Normally, \texttt{~cad/new} should appear before \texttt{~cad/bin}. If this sounds like gibberish, find a Unix hacker and have him or her explain to you about paths. If worst comes to worst, you can invoke Magic by typing its full name:

\texttt{~cad/bin/magic tutorial1}

Another possible problem is that Magic might not know which color display to use. This happens when you run Magic from a video terminal that isn't hardwired to a VAX. On VAXes, Magic reads the file \texttt{~cad/libDisplays} to find out which color display to use for each hardwired terminal, but if you connect via a patchboard, port selector, or Ethernet then Magic might not know what to use. In this case, you must tell Magic which port to use for the color display using the \texttt{-g} (graphics port) switch:

\texttt{magic -g port tutorial1}

\texttt{Port} is the device name for a port, e.g. \texttt{/dev/ttyj1}. If you use the \texttt{-g} switch, Magic will assume that a standard monitor is attached to the display. It is possible to use the \texttt{-m} switch to chose a colormap for a different sort of monitor, such as a colormap designed for especially pale blue phosphor. At Berkeley all our monitors work fine with the standard colormap, so we haven't designed any special colormaps.

If you were running with an AED display and got a message of the form "Unable to open mouse..." when you tried to run Magic, it is because there was a login process on the color display, and it prevented Magic from opening the port for reading. In this case, you must login a special job called "sleeper" on the color display. Sleeper will reset the port so that Magic can use it. Type breaks on the color display if necessary to get a login prompt, then login a user named "sleeper". No password should be necessary. After this, Magic should work.
correctly. Most of the displays at Berkeley are configured without login processes, so sleeper is not usually needed. By the way, there are special versions of sleeper called rslpere and fslpere, which can be used to run Magic remotely over the Ethernet. Consult your local wizard for details.

5. Tools: the Box and the Cursor

Two tools, called the box and the cursor, are used to select things on the color display. As you move the mouse, the cursor moves on the screen. The left and right mouse buttons are used to position the box. If you press the left mouse button and then release it, the box will move so that its lower left corner is at the cursor position. If you press and release the right mouse button, the upper right corner of the box will move to the cursor position, but the lower left corner will not change. These two buttons are enough to position the box anywhere on the screen. Try using the buttons to place the box around each of the colored rectangles on the screen.

Sometimes it is convenient to move the box by a corner other than the lower left. To do this, press the left mouse button and hold it down. The cursor shape changes to show you that you are moving the box by its lower left corner:

![Box](image)

(some displays, like the AED1024, don't support programmable cursors, so the cursor will never change shape). While holding the button down, move the cursor near the lower right corner of the box, and now click the right mouse button (i.e. press and release it, all the while holding down the left button). The cursor's shape will change to indicate that now you are moving the box by its lower right corner. Move the cursor to a different place on the screen and release the left button. The box should move so that its lower right corner is at the cursor position. Try using this feature to move the box so that it is almost entirely off-screen to the left. Try moving the box by each of its corners.

You can also reshape the box by corners other than the upper right. To do this, press the right mouse button and hold it down. The cursor shape shows you that you are reshaping the box by its upper right corner:

![Box Reshaping](image)

Now move the cursor near some other corner of the box and click the left button, all the while holding the right button down. The cursor shape will change to show you that now you are reshaping the box by a different corner. When you release the right button, the box will reshape so that the selected corner is at the cursor position but the diagonally opposite corner is unchanged. Try reshaping the box by each of its corners.
6. Invoking Commands

Commands can be invoked in Magic in three ways: by pushing buttons on
the puck or mouse; by typing single keystrokes on the text keyboard (these are
called macros); or by typing longer commands on the text keyboard (these are
called long commands). Many of the commands use the box and crosshair tools
to help guide the command.

To see how commands can be invoked from the buttons, first position the
box over a small blank area in the middle of the screen. Then move the cursor
over the red rectangle and press the middle mouse button (if you’re using a four-
button puck, use the bottom button wherever the Magic documentation says
“middle”). At this point, the area of the box should get painted red. Now move
the cursor over empty space and press the middle button again. The red paint
should go away. Note how this command uses both the cursor and box locations
to control what happens.

As an example of a macro, type the g key on the text keyboard. A grid will
appear on the color display, along with a small black box marking the origin of
the cell. If you type g again, the grid will go away. You may have noticed
earlier that the box corners didn’t move to the exact cursor position: you can see
now that the box is forced to fall on grid points.

Long commands are invoked by typing a colon (";"). After you type the
colon, the “>” prompt on the text screen will be replaced by a “:” prompt. This
indicates that Magic is waiting for a long command. At this point you should
type a line of text, followed by a return. When Magic is waiting for a long
command, it removes the cursor from the color display. When the long command
has been processed, the cursor reappears on the color display and a “>” prompt
reappears on the text display. Try typing colon followed by return to see how
this works. Occasionally a “[” prompt will appear. This means that the design-
rule checker is reverifying part of your design. For now you can just ignore this
and treat “]” like “>”.

Each long command consists of the name of the command followed by
arguments, if any are needed by that command. The command name can be
abbreviated, just as long as you type enough characters to distinguish it from all
other long commands. For example, :h and :he may be used as abbreviations for
:help. On the other hand, :u may not be used as an abbreviation for :undo
because there is another command :upside down that has the same abbreviation.
Try typing :u.

As an example of a long command, put the box over empty space on the
color display, then invoke the long command

:paint red

The box should fill with the red color, just as if you had used the middle mouse
button to paint it. Everything you can do in Magic can be invoked with a long
command. It turns out that the macros are just conveniences that are expanded
into long commands and executed. For example, the long command equivalent to
the g macro is
:grid

Magic permits you to define new macros if you wish. See the magic(1) man page under the command :macro.

One more long command is of immediate use to you. It is

:quit

Invoke this command. Note that before exiting, Magic will give you one last chance to save the information that you've modified. Type y to exit without saving anything.
Magic Tutorial #2: Painting

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started

Commands covered in this tutorial:

Macros covered in this tutorial:
a, d, g, s, u, U, z, Z

1. Cells and Paint

In Magic, a circuit layout is a hierarchical collection of cells. Each cell contains three things: colored shapes, called paint, that define the circuit's structure; textual labels attached to the paint; and subcells, which are just pointers to other cells. The paint is what determines the eventual function of the VLSI circuit. Labels and subcells are a convenience for you in managing the layout and provide a way of communicating information between various synthesis and analysis tools. This tutorial explains how to create and edit paint and labels in simple single-cell designs. For information on how to build up cell hierarchies, see "Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies".

2. Basic Painting Commands

Enter Magic to edit the cell tutorial2a (type magic tutorial2a to the Unix shell; follow the directions in "Tutorial #1: Getting Started" if you have any problems with this). The tutorial2a cell is a sort of palette: it shows a splotch
of each of the paint layers and gives the names that Magic uses for the layers.

There are six commands for manipulating paint: `paint`, `erase`, `yank`, `stuff`, `fill`, and `plow`. To paint, position the box over the area you'd like to paint, then move the cursor over a color and click the middle mouse button. To erase everything in an area, place the box over the area, move the cursor over a blank spot, and click the middle mouse button. Try painting and erasing various colors. If the screen gets totally messed up, you can always exit Magic and restart it. While you're painting, white dots may occasionally appear and disappear. These are design rule violations detected by Magic, and will be explained in "Magic Tutorial #5: Design Rule Checking". You can ignore them for now.

It's completely legal to paint one layer on top of another. When this happens, one of three things may occur. In some cases, the layers are independent, so what you'll see is a combination of the two, as if each were a transparent colored foil. This happens, for example, if you paint metal (blue) on top of polysilicon (red). In other cases, the new layer replaces the old ones: this happens, for example, if you paint a transistor on top of poly-metal contact. The third possibility is that when you paint one layer on top of another you'll get something different from either of the two original layers. For example, painting poly on top of diff produces enhancement transistor. Try painting different layers on top of each other to see what happens. The meaning of the various layers is discussed in more detail in Section 7 below.

There is a second way of erasing paint that allows you to erase some layers without affecting others. This is the macro `d` (for "delete paint"). To use it, position the box over the area to be erased, then move the crosshair over a splotch of paint containing the layer(s) you'd like to erase. Press the `d` key on the text keyboard: the colors underneath the cursor will be erased from the area underneath the box, but no other layers will be affected. Experiment around with the `d` macro to try different combinations of paints and erases. If the cursor is over empty space then the `d` macro is equivalent to the middle mouse button: it erases everything.

The third and fourth painting commands, `yank` and `stuff`, are used to pick up and move around larger pieces of the design. These pieces are stored temporarily in a place called the `yank buffer`. (Actually, there are several yank buffers. You'll use only the default one here. See Section 8 for details on how to use the others.) To pick up a piece of the design, place the box over the area to be copied and press the `a` key on the text keyboard. This key is a macro for the `:yank` command; it causes all of the paint underneath the box to be copied into the yank buffer. Now move the box to an empty area of the screen and press the `s` key, which is a macro for `:stuff`. Paint will be copied from the yank buffer back into the cell at the location of the box. Once you have yanked information, you can stuff it many times. Experiment with the yank and stuff operations. Try both the short forms `a` and `s` and also the long forms `:yank` and `:stuff`. You can yank and stuff subcells as well as paint; this is explained in "Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies".

The fifth painting command has the syntax
:fill direction [layers]

and is used to extend a whole bunch of paint in a given direction. The direction parameter is one of up, down, right, left, north, south, east, or west, and indicates the direction in which the :fill will operate. The :fill command will find all paint touching one side of the box and will extend that paint to the opposite side of the box. For example, :fill up will look underneath the bottom edge of the box for paint, and will extend that paint to the top of the box. The effect is just as if all the colors visible underneath that edge of the box constituted a paint brush; Magic sweeps the brush across the box in the given direction. If layers isn't specified, then all layers are filled; if layers is given, then only those layers are filled. In this command, as in all other commands with a layers parameter, layers may be either a single layer name or a list of layers separated by commas (no spaces!). For example, :fill up poly,diff will affect only the poly and diff layers; metal will not be affected. Try filling in various directions. You can use :fill to stretch a cell in the middle by deleting one half of the cell (which puts the deleted paint into the yank buffer), then :stuff it back in an offset position, then :fill in the gap.

(Plowing is currently disabled pending a major revision, so the following paragraph can be skipped) The last painting command is called plowing, and is used to stretch and compact cells. It has the syntax

:plow direction [layers]

where direction is a direction as in :fill and layers is a collection of mask layers. The plow command treats one side of the box as if it were a plow, and shoves the plow over to the other side of the box. For example, :plow up treats the bottom side of the box as a plow, and moves the plow to the top of the box. As the plow moves, every edge in its path is pushed ahead of it (if layers is specified, then only edges on those layers are moved). Each edge that is pushed by the plow pushes other edges ahead of it in a way that preserves design rules, connectivity, and transistor and contact sizes. This means that material ahead of the plow gets compacted down to the minimum size permitted by the design rules, and material that crossed the plow's original position gets stretched behind the plow. You can compact a cell by placing a large plow off to one side of the cell and plowing across the whole cell. You can open up space in the middle of a cell by dragging a small plow across the area where you want more space. To try out plowing, edit the cell tutorial2b, place the box over the rectangle that's labelled "Plow here", and try plowing in various directions.

3. Labels

Labels are pieces of text attached to the paint of a cell. Labels are used to provide information to other tools that will process the circuit. Most labels are node names; they provide an easy way of referring to nodes in tools such as routers, simulators, and timing analyzers. Labels may also be used for other purposes: for example, some labels are treated as attributes that give Crystal, the timing analyzer, information about the direction of signal flow through transistors.
To create a label, make the box into a cross at the point where you'd like the label attached (put the upper-right corner on top of the lower-left). Then invoke the command

```
label text position layer
```

*Text* must be supplied, but the other arguments can be defaulted. If *text* has any spaces in it, then it must be enclosed in double quotes. *Position* tells where the text will be displayed, relative to the point of the label. It may be any of *north*, *south*, *east*, *west*, *top*, *bottom*, *left*, *right*, *up*, *down*, *center*, *northeast*, *ne*, *southeast*, *se*, *southwest*, *sw*, *northwest*, *nw*. For example, if *ne* is given, the text will be displayed above and to the right of the label point. If no *position* is given, Magic will pick a position for you. *Layer* tells which paint layer to attach the label to. If *layer* covers the entire area of the label, then the label will be associated with the particular layer. If *layer* is omitted, or if it doesn’t cover the label’s area, Magic initially associates the label with the “space” layer, then checks to see if there’s a layer that covers the whole area. If there is, Magic moves the label to that layer. It is generally a bad idea to place labels at points where there are several paint layers, since it will be hard to tell which layer the label is attached to. As you edit, Magic will ensure that labels are only attached to layers that exist everywhere under the layer. To see how this works, go back to cell *tutorial2a* (if you’re not currently editing that cell, type the command `:load tutorial2a`). Place a label on one of the red areas. Don’t supply a layer name; Magic will pick *polysilicon*. Now paint the layer *pmc* over the same area: the label will switch layers. Finally, erase *poly* over the area, and the label will move again.

Labels can be yanked, stuffed, and erased just like paint by specifying the *labels* "layer". There are three ways of erasing labels. The first way is to make the box into a cross on top of the label, then click the middle button with the cursor over empty space. Technically, this will erase all paint layers and labels too. However, since the box has zero area, erasing paint has no effect: only the labels are erased. The second way is to position the box so it covers one or more labels to be erased. Then invoke the command

```
erase labels
```

This will erase all labels that lie under or touch the box. The third way to erase a label is to erase the paint that contains it. If the paint is erased all around the label, then the label will be deleted automatically.

Try painting a red area, attach a label to the red area, then paint blue over the red. Note that if you erase blue the label stays (since it’s attached to red), but if you erase the red then the label is deleted. Labels can be yanked and stuffed just like paint.

Although many labels are point labels, this need not be the case. You can label any rectangular area by setting the box to that area before invoking the label command. This feature is used for labelling terminals for the router (see below), and for labelling tiles used by Mpack, the tile packing program.
4. Labelling Conventions

When creating labels, Magic will permit you to use absolutely any text whatsoever. However, many other tools, and even parts of Magic, expect label names to observe certain conventions. Except for the special cases described below, labels shouldn't contain any of the letters "!". Most labels are node names: each one gives a unique identification to a set of things that are electrically connected. There are two kinds of node names, local and global. Any label that ends in "!" is treated as a global node name; it will be assumed that all nodes by this name, anywhere in any cell in a layout, are electrically connected. The most common global names are \texttt{Vdd!} and \texttt{GND!}, the power rails. You should always use these names exactly, since many other tools require them. Nobody knows why "GND!" is all in capital letters and "Vdd!" isn't.

Any label that does not end in "!" or any of the other special characters discussed below is a local node name. It refers to a node within that particular cell. Local node names must be unique within the cell: there shouldn't be two electrically distinct nodes with the same name. On the other hand, it is perfectly legal, and sometimes advantageous, to give more than one name to the same node. It is also legal to use the same local node name in different cells: the tools will be able to distinguish between them and will not assume that they are electrically connected.

The only other labels currently understood by the tools are attributes. Attributes are pieces of text associated with a particular piece of the circuit: they are not node names, and need not be unique. For example, an attribute might identify a node as a chip input, or a transistor terminal as the source of information for that transistor. Any label whose last character is "@", "$", or "" is an attribute. There are three different kinds of attributes. Node attributes are those ending with "@"; they are associated with particular nodes. Transistor source/drain attributes are those ending in "$"; they are associated with particular terminals of a transistor. A source or drain attribute must be attached to the channel region of the transistor and must fall exactly on the source or drain edge of the transistor. The third kind of attribute is a transistor gate attribute. It ends in "\text{"}" and is attached to the channel region of the transistor. To see examples of attributes and node names, edit the cell \texttt{tutorial2c} in Magic.

There is one last convention about label usage. The routing tools ignore all labels except for those on the edges of cells. If you expect to use the router to connect to a particular node, you should place the label for that node on its outermost edge. The label should not be a point label, but should instead be a horizontal or vertical line covering the entire edge of the wire. The router will choose a connection point somewhere along the label. A good rule of thumb is to label all nodes that enter or leave the cell in this way. For more details on how labels are used in routing, see "Magic Tutorial #6: Netlists and Routing".
5. Files and Formats

Magic provides a variety of ways to save your cells on disk. Normally, things are saved in a special Magic format. Each cell is a separate file, and the name of the file is just the name of the cell with .mag appended. For example, the cell tutorial2a is saved in file tutorial2a.mag. To save cells on disk, invoke the command

```
:writeall
```

This command will run through each of the cells that you have modified in this editing session, and ask you what to do with the cell. Normally, you'll type write, or just hit the return key, in which case the cell will be written back to the disk file from which it was read (if this is a new cell, then you'll be asked for a name for the cell). If you type autowrite, then Magic will write out all the cells that have changed without asking you what to do on a cell-by-cell basis. Flush will cause Magic to delete its internal copy of the cell and reload the cell from the disk copy, thereby expunging all edits that you've made. Skip will pass on to the next cell without writing this cell (but Magic still remembers that it has changed, so the next time you invoke :writeall Magic will ask about this cell again). Abort will stop the command immediately without writing or checking any more cells.

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** Unlike vi and other text editors, Magic doesn't keep checkpoint files. This means that if the system should crash in the middle of a session, you'll lose all changes since the last time you wrote out cells. It's a good idea to save your cells frequently during long editing sessions.

You can also save the cell you're currently editing with the command

```
:save name
```

This command will append ".mag" to name and save the cell you are editing in that location. If you don't provide a name, Magic will use the cell's name (plus the ".mag" extension) as the file name, and it will prompt you for a name if the cell hasn't yet been named.

Once a cell has been saved on disk you can edit it by invoking Magic with the command

```
magic name
```

where name is the same name you used to save the cell (no ".mag" extension).

Magic can also read and write files in CIF format (CIF stands for Caltech Intermediate Form, and is the representation that is sent off to fabricate chips). CIF is also used to communicate with programs like Cifplot that only understand CIF. Magic's CIF facilities are described in "Magic Tutorial #8: Reading and Writing CIF". That tutorial also tells how to port Caesar files to Magic, using CIF.
6. Utility Commands

There are several commands that you will probably find useful once you start working on real cells. The command

:grid spacing

will toggle a one-lambda reference grid on and off if no *spacing* is given. If *spacing* is given, the grid will be turned on, and the grid lines will be *spacing* units apart. The macro *g* provides a short form for :grid. When the grid is on a small black box is displayed to mark the origin of the cell you're editing.

There are probably going to be times when you'll do things that you'll later wish you hadn't. Fortunately, Magic has an undo facility that you can use to restore things after you've made mistakes. The command

:undo

(or, alternatively, the macro *u*) will undo the effects of the last operation you invoked that changed the database. If you made a mistake several operations ago, you can type :undo several times to undo successive operations. However, there is a limit to all this: Magic only remembers how to undo the last half-dozen or so modifications. If you undo something and then decide you wanted it after all, you can undo the undo with the command

:redo

(U is a macro for this command). Try making a few paints and erases, then use :undo and :redo to work backwards and forwards through the changes you made.

If you want to create a cell that doesn't fit on the screen, you'll need to know how to change the screen view. This can be done with two commands:

:zoom factor
:findbox [zoom]

If *factor* is given to the zoom command, it is a zoom-out factor. For example, the command :zoom 2 will change the view so that there are twice as many units across the screen as there used to be. The new view will have the same center as the old one. The command :zoom .5 will increase the magnification so that only half as much of the circuit is visible.

The *findbox* command is used to change the view according to the box. The command alone just moves the view (without changing the scale factor) so that the box is in the center of the screen. If the *zoom* argument is given then the magnification is changed too, so that the area of the box nearly fills the screen.

The macro Z corresponds to :zoom 2, which shows more on the screen. The macro z corresponds to :findbox zoom, which zooms in on the box. Experiment around with the zoom commands to see how they work.
7. What the Layers Mean

The paint layers available in Magic are different from those that you may be used to in Caesar and other systems because they don't correspond exactly to the masks used in fabrication. We call them abstract layers because they correspond to constructs such as wires and contacts, rather than mask layers. We also call them logs because they look like sticks except that the geometry is drawn fully fleshed instead of as lines. In Magic there is one paint layer for each kind of conducting material (polysilicon, diffusion, metal, etc.), plus one additional paint layer for each kind of transistor (enhancement, depletion, etc.), and, finally, one further paint layer for each kind of contact (buried contact, poly-metal contact, diffusion-metal contact, etc.). Each layer has one or more names that are used to refer to that layer in commands. To find out the layers available in the current technology, type the command

:layers

In addition to the mask layers, there are a few pseudo-layers that are valid in all technologies; these are listed in Table I. Each Magic technology also has a technology manual describing the features of that technology, such as design rules, routing layers, CIF styles, etc. If you haven't seen the technology manual for NMOS, this is a good time to take a look at it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>labels</th>
<th>subcells</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>* (all mask layers)</td>
<td>$ (all mask layers visible under cursor)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table I. Pseudo-layers available in all technologies.

If you're used to designing with mask layers (e.g. you've been reading the Mead-Conway book), Magic's log style will take some getting used to. One of the reasons for logs is to save you work. In Magic you don't draw implants, wells, buried windows, or contact via holes. Instead, you draw the primary conducting layers and paint some of their overlaps with special types such as depletion transistor or polysilicon contact. For depletion transistors, you draw only the actual area of the transistor channel. Magic will generate the polysilicon and diffusion, plus any necessary implants, when it creates a CIF file. For contacts, you paint the contact layer in the area of overlap between the conducting layers. Magic will generate each of the constituent mask layers plus vias and buried windows when it writes the CIF file. Figure 1 shows a simple cell drawn with both mask layers (as in Caesar) and with logs (as in Magic).

If you paint a fancy layer such as poly-metal contact over a poly or metal region, Magic will delete the poly or metal paint and replace it with contact. If you paint poly over buried contact, the buried contact won't change since it contains poly anyway. As a convenience, if you paint poly over diffusion, Magic automatically turns the overlap area into enhancement transistor. As a general rule of thumb, you can assume that if it looks right, it is right. Experiment with painting and erasing until you feel comfortable with the abstract layers.
Figure 1. An example of how the logs are used. The figure on the left shows actual mask layers for a shift register cell, and the figure on the right shows the layers used to represent the cell in Magic.

Another advantage of the logs used in Magic is that they simplify the design rules. Most of the formation rules (e.g., contact structure) go away, since Magic automatically generates correctly-formed structures when it writes CIF. All that are left are minimum size and spacing rules, and Magic's abstract layers result in fewer of these than there would be otherwise. This helps to make Magic's built-in design rule checker very fast (see "Magic Tutorial #5: Design Rule Checking"), and is one of the reasons plowing is possible.

8. Additional Commands

Now that you know about paint layers, you're ready for a complete description of the painting commands. The command

```plaintext
:paint layers
```

is used to paint. Layers is one or more layer names, separated by commas (you can also use spaces, but only if you enclose the entire list of layers in double-quotes). Any layer can be abbreviated, as long as the abbreviation is unambiguous. For example, paint poly,met will paint polysilicon and metal. The erase command is

```plaintext
:erase layers
```

and d is a macro for :erase 3. If layers isn't given in :erase then it defaults to *,:labels.

There are actually several yank buffers in Magic, one for each lower-case letter of the alphabet. The full syntax for the yank and stuff commands is

```plaintext
:yank buf
:stuff layers buf
```

In each of the commands, buf is a single letter buffer name, which defaults to y
(for "yank buffer"). The :stuff command takes a layers parameter (with default *, labels), and will only put back those layers. The :yank command always operates on *, labels. The a macro is equivalent to :yank, and the s macro is equivalent to :stuff.

The yank buffers can also be flipped and rotated using the commands

:upside-down
:sideways
:clockwise

In each of these commands, buf is the name of a yank buffer, and cannot be defaulted. If no buffer is given, the commands operate on the current cell instead (this is explained in "Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies"). Use y for the default yank buffer. In the :clockwise command, degrees is the number of degrees to rotate the yank buffer. It must be an integer multiple of 90 degrees.

The last command that deals with yank buffers is

:ysave file

This command will save the contents of the yank buffer buf in the file named file.mag as a new cell. If buf is omitted, it defaults to y.
Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
Magic Tutorial #2: Painting

Commands covered in this tutorial:
:upsidedown, :writeall, :yank

Macros covered in this tutorial:
c, C, f, x, X

1. Introduction

In Magic, a layout is a hierarchical collection of cells. Each cell contains three things: paint, labels, and subcells. “Magic Tutorial #2: Painting” showed you how to create and edit paint and labels. This tutorial describes Magic’s facilities for building up cell hierarchies. Strictly speaking, hierarchical structure isn’t necessary: any design that can be represented hierarchically can also be represented “flat” (with all the paint and labels in a single cell). However, many things are greatly improved if you use a hierarchical structure, including the efficiency of the design tools, the speed with which you will enter the design, and the ease with which you can modify it later.
2. Viewing Hierarchical Designs

Hierarchical structure merely means that each cell can contain other cells as components. To look at an example of a hierarchical layout, enter Magic with the shell command `magic tutorial3`. The cell `tutorial3` contains two instances of the subcell `shiftrow`, plus some paint. Initially, each instance is displayed in unexpanded form. This means that no details of the subcell are displayed; all you see is the cell’s bounding box, plus two character strings inside the bounding box. The top string is the name of the subcell (the name you would type when invoking Magic to edit the cell; the cell’s contents are stored in a file with this name plus a `.mag` extension). All instances of a subcell have the same name. The bottom string is called an instance identifier, and is used to distinguish subcells of the same parent, particularly different instances of the same subcell. Instance id’s are used for routing and circuit extraction, and are discussed in Section 6.

To see what’s inside a cell instance, you must expand it. First, move the cursor over the upper left corner of the top `shiftrow` instance, then type the command

```
:select
```

This selects the instance underneath the cursor as the current cell and sets the box to coincide with the instance’s bounding box. The name of the selected cell will be printed on the text terminal. Most of the Magic commands described in this tutorial operate on the current cell. The macro `f` (“find”) is equivalent to `:select`. Once you have selected the top `shiftrow` cell, expand it with the

```
:expand
```

command, or with the macro `C` (“expand Cell”), which is equivalent.

As you can see now, the `shiftrow` cell contains nothing but an array of `shiftcell` cells. In Magic, an array is a special kind of instance containing multiple copies of the same subcell spaced at fixed intervals. Arrays can be one-dimensional or two-dimensional. It’s important to remember that the whole array is a single instance, and that most of the cell commands operate simultaneously on all elements of the array. The instance identifiers for the elements of the array are the same except for an index. Now select one of the elements of the array and expand it. Notice that the entire array is expanded at the same time.

When you have expanded the array, you’ll see that the paint in `tutorial3` is displayed more brightly than the paint in the `shiftcell` instances. `Tutorial3` is called the edit cell, because its contents are currently editable. The paint in the edit cell is displayed more brightly than other paint to make it clear that you can change it. As long as `tutorial3` is the edit cell, you cannot modify the paint in `shiftcell`. Try erasing paint from the area of one of the `shiftcell` instances: nothing will be changed. Section 4 tells how to switch the edit cell.

Place the cursor over one of the `shiftcell` instances again. At this point, the cursor is actually over three different cell instances: `shiftcell` (an element of an array instance within `shiftrow`), `shiftrow` (an instance within `tutorial3`), and `tutorial3`. Note that even the topmost cell in the hierarchy is treated as an
instance by Magic. When you press the f key to select a cell, Magic initially chooses the smallest cell visible underneath the cursor, shiftcell in this case. However, if you invoke the f macro again (or type select) without moving the cursor, Magic will step through all of the cells under the cursor in order. Select the shiftrow instance and unexpand it by typing the command

:unexpand

or by typing the macro c ("unexpand cell"). This causes the selected cell to be displayed in bounding box form again.

Experiment with the :expand and :unexpand commands. Two additional commands,

:expand all
:unexpand all

may also be useful. The :expand all command will recursively expand every cell that intersects the box until there are no unexpanded cells left under the box. The :unexpand all command will unexpand every cell whose area intersects the box but doesn’t completely contain it. The macro X is equivalent to :expand all, and x is equivalent to :unexpand all.

3. Rearranging Subcells

There are several commands in Magic for adding subcells to an existing cell, and for rearranging the subcells. The command

:getcell name

will incorporate an instance of cell name within the edit cell, with its lower left corner aligned with the lower left corner of the box. Use the getcell command to get an instance of the cell tutorial3b. After the getcell command, the new instance is made the current cell. If you want to make a second copy of an instance, you can either use :getcell again, or select an existing instance of the subcell and invoke the

:copycell

command. The new copy will be placed with its lower left corner at the lower left corner of the box (be careful: it’s easy to place two copies of the same cell on top of each other). To get rid of an instance, select it and then invoke the

:deletecell

command. When you delete a subcell, it doesn’t affect the disk file containing that subcell; it merely deletes the instance from the edit cell. If you copy or delete one element of the array, the entire array is copied or deleted. Try out these commands on the subcells of tutorial3b.

Remember that you are currently editing tutorial3. This means that you cannot invoke :deletecell on any of the shiftcell instances: they are children of shiftrow, so deleting them requires shiftrow to be modified. This cannot happen without making it the edit cell first. Try to delete one of the shiftcell
instances to see what happens.

There are four Magic commands for rearranging subcells:

:clockwise degrees
:movcell direction distance
:sideways
:upsidedown

Each of these commands operates on the current cell, and in each case the current cell must be a child of the edit cell. The :clockwise command rotates the current cell clockwise by the given number of degrees (degrees must be a multiple of 90). The :sideways command flips the current cell sideways, and :upsidedown flips it upside down. As mentioned in “Tutorial #2: Painting”, these three commands can be followed by a single lower-case letter to operate on one of the yank buffers instead of the current cell.

The :movcell command is used to reposition the current cell. It has three forms. If it is typed with no arguments, it moves the current cell so that its lower left corner coincides with the lower-left corner of the box. If direction and distance are specified, then the current cell is moved distance units in direction. If no distance is used, then the height or width of the box is used as the distance to move the cell (the box’s height is used for up or down; its width is used for left or right).

To turn a normal instance into an array, select the instance and then invoke the :array command. It has two forms:

:array xsize ysize
:array xlo xhi ylo yhi

In the first form, xsize indicates how many elements the array should have in the x-direction, and ysize indicates how many elements it should have in the y-direction. The spacing between elements is controlled by the box’s width (for the x-direction) and height (for the y-direction). By changing the box size, you can space elements so that they overlap, abut, or have gaps between them. The elements are given indices from 0 to xsize-1 in the x-direction and from 0 to ysize-1 in the y-direction. The second form of the command is identical to the first except that the elements are given indices from xlo to xhi in the x-direction and from ylo to yhi in the y-direction. You can also invoke the :array command on an existing array to change the number of elements or spacing. Use a size of 1 for xsize or ysize in order to get a one-dimensional array.

If any element of an array is moved or flipped or rotated, the entire array is modified in the same way. Make an array of tutorial3b cells, and try out the re-arranging commands on the array and on other cells. It will be easier to see the effects of the command if you expand the instances you are re-arranging.

4. Using the Painting Commands on Subcells

The painting commands :yank, :stuff, and :erase all operate on subcells as well as paint. When yanking, all unexpanded subcells that are visible underneath
the box are yanked (as cells, not paint), and the :stuff command will put this information back in subcell form also. If the "layer" subcells is specified in :erase, then all subcells under the box will be erased (regardless of whether or not they are expanded). The :erase command can be used to delete a large number of subcells at once, or to move many subcells at once. To move all the subcells in an area, delete them with :erase, move the box, and :stuff them back again.

5. Switching the Edit Cell

At any given time, you are editing the definition of a single cell. This definition is called the edit cell. You can modify paint and labels in the edit cell, and you can re-arrange its subcells. You may not re-arrange or delete the subcells of any cells other than the edit cell, nor may you modify the paint or labels of any cells except the edit cell. You may, however, copy information from other cells into the edit cell, using :yank, :put, and :copycell. To help clarify what is and isn’t modifiable, Magic displays the paint of the edit cell in brighter colors than other paint (you can use the :see command to arrange for all cells to be displayed brightly, or to cause some layers not to be displayed at all; see the man page for details).

Besides the edit cell, there are two other special cells in Magic. The current cell has already been introduced: it selects the instance to be used in cell commands. The third special cell is called the root cell. It is the topmost cell in the hierarchy, the one you named when you ran Magic (tutorial3). As you will see in “Magic Tutorial #4: Multiple Windows”, there can actually be several root cells at any given time, one in each window. For now, there is only a single window on the screen, and thus only a single root cell.

Up until now, the root cell and the edit cell have always been the same. However, this need not always be the case. You can switch the edit cell to any cell in the hierarchy by selecting an instance of the definition you’d like to modify, and then typing the command

:edit

Use this command to switch the edit cell to one of the shiftcell instances in tutorial3. Its paint brightens, while the paint in tutorial3 becomes dim.

When you edit a cell, you are editing the master definition of that cell. This means that if the cell is used in several places in your design, the edits will be reflected in all those places. Try painting and erasing in the shiftcell that you just made the edit cell: the modifications will appear in all instances of the cell.

There is a second way to change the edit cell. This is the command

:load name

The :load command loads a new hierarchy into the window underneath the cursor. The cursor must be on the screen for this command to work. Name is the name of the root cell in the hierarchy. If no name is given, a new unnamed cell is loaded and you start editing from scratch.
6. Subcell Usage Conventions

At present, Magic doesn't place any restrictions on how you arrange subcells: they may overlap in arbitrary ways. However, the design-rule checker flags certain kinds of overlaps as errors, and in addition the tools will run much more efficiently if you are careful about how you use overlap. This section gives some conventions that you should follow.

Overlaps between cells are occasionally useful to share busses and control lines running along the edges. However, overlaps cause the analysis tools to work much harder than they would if there were no overlaps: wherever cells overlap, the tools have to combine the information from the two separate cells. Thus, you shouldn't use overlaps any more than necessary. For example, suppose you want to create a one-dimensional array of cells that alternates between two cell types, A and B: "ABABABABABAB". One way to do this is first to make an array of A instances with large gaps between them ("A A A A A A"), then make an array of B instances with large gaps between them ("B B B B B B"), and finally place one array on top of the other so that the B's nestle in between the A's. The problem with this approach is that the two arrays overlap almost completely. So Magic will have to go a lot of extra work to handle the overlaps (in this case, there isn't much overlap of actual paint, but Magic won't know this so it will spend a lot of time worrying about it). A better solution is to create a new cell that contains one instance of A and one instance of B, side by side. Then make an array of the new cell. This approach makes it clear to Magic that there isn't any real overlap between the A's and B's.

If you do create overlaps, you should use the overlaps only to connect the two cells together, and not to change their structure. This means that the overlap should not cause transistors to appear, disappear, or change size. The result of overlapping the two subcells should be the same electrically as if you placed the two cells apart and then ran wires to hook parts of one cell to parts of the other. The convention is necessary in order to be able to do hierarchical circuit extraction easily (it makes it possible for each subcell to be circuit-extracted independently).

Three kinds of overlaps are flagged as errors by the design-rule checker. First, you may not overlap polysilicon in one subcell with diffusion in another cell in order to create transistors. Second, you may not overlap transistors or contacts in one cell with different kinds of tranistors or contacts in another cell (there are a few exceptions to this rule in some technologies). Third, if contacts from different cells overlap, they must be the same type of contact and must coincide exactly: you may not have partial overlaps. This rule is necessary in order to guarantee that Magic can generate CIF for fabrication.

You will make life a lot easier on yourself if you spend a bit of time and choose a clean hierarchical structure. It's tempting to slap down cells willy-nilly on top of each other in totally confused organizations without thinking about what you're doing. But if you do this, you'll find it's very hard to modify the design, and you'll also find that the tools run slowly. VLSI circuits are complex even with the most carefully-chosen organization; they can become completely unmanageable if you aren't careful.
7. Instance Identifiers

Instance identifiers are used to distinguish the different subcells within a single parent. The cell definition names cannot be used for this purpose because there could be many instances of a single definition. Magic will create default instance id's for you when you create new instances with the :get or :copy commands. The default id for an instance will be the name of the definition with a unique integer added on. You can change an id by selecting an instance (which must be a child of the edit cell) and invoking the command

:identify newid

where newid is the identifier you would like the instance to have. Newid must not already be used as an instance identifier of any subcell within the edit cell. It is acceptable to re-use the same identifier for instances with different parents.

Any node or instance can be described uniquely by listing a path of instance identifiers, starting from the root cell. The standard form of such names is similar to Unix file names. For example, if id1 is the name of an instance within the root cell, id2 is an instance within id1, and node is a node name within id2, then id1/id2/node can be used unambiguously to refer to the node.

8. Writing and Flushing Cells

When you make changes to your circuit in Magic, there is no immediate effect on the disk files that hold the cells. You must explicitly save each cell that has changed, using either the :save command or the :writeall command. Magic keeps track of the cells that have changed since the last time they were saved on disk. If you try to leave Magic without saving all the cells that have changed, the system will warn you and give you a chance to return to Magic to save them. Magic never flushes cells behind your back, and never throws away definitions that it has read in. Thus, if you edit a cell and then use :load to edit another cell, the first cell is still saved in Magic even though it doesn't appear anywhere on the screen. If you then invoke :load a second time to go back to the first cell, you'll get the edited copy.

If you decide that you'd really like to discard the edits you've made to a cell and recover the old version, there are two ways you can do it. The first way is using the flush option in :writeall. The second way is to use the command

:flush cellname

If no cellname is given, then the edit cell is flushed. Otherwise, the cell named cellname is flushed. The :flush command will expunge Magic's internal copy of the cell and replace it with the disk copy.

When you are editing large chips, Magic may claim that cells have changed even though you haven't modified them. Whenever you modify a cell, Magic makes changes in the parents of the cell, and their parents, and so on up to the root of the hierarchy. These changes record new design-rule violations, as well as timestamp and bounding box information used by Magic to keep track of design changes and enable fast cell read-in. Thus, whenever you change one cell you'll
generally need to write out new copies of its parents and grandparents. If you
don’t write out the parents, or if you edit a child “out of context” (by itself,
without the parents loaded), then you’ll incur extra overhead the next time you
try to edit the parents. “Timestamp mismatch” error messages are printed when
you’ve edited cells out of context and then later go back and read in the cell as
part of its parent. These aren’t serious problems; they just mean that Magic is
doing extra work to update information in the parent to reflect the child’s new
state.

9. Search Paths

When many people are working on a large design, the design will probably be
more manageable if different pieces of it can be located in different directories of
the file system. Magic provides a simple mechanism for managing designs spread
over several directories. The system maintains a search path that tells which
directories to search when trying to read in cells. By default, the search path is
“.”, which means that Magic looks only in the working directory. You can
change the path using the command

```
:path searchpath
```

where `searchpath` is the new path that Magic should use. `Searchpath` consists of a
list of directories separated by colons. For example, the path “:~ouster/x:a/b”
means that if Magic is trying to read in a cell named “foo”, it will first look for a
file named “foo.mag” in the current directory. If it doesn’t find the file there, it
will look for a file named “~ouster/x/foo.mag”, and if that doesn’t exist, then it
will try “a/b/foo.mag” last. To find out what the current path is, type `:path`
with no arguments. In addition to your path, this command will print out the
system cell library path (where Magic looks for cells if it can’t find them anywhere
in your path), and the system search path (where Magic looks for files like
colormaps and technology files if it can’t find them in your current directory).

Because there is only a single search path that is used everywhere in Magic,
you must be careful not to re-use the same cell name in different portions of the
chip. A standard problem with large designs is that different designers use the
same name for different cells. This works fine as long as the designers are
working separately, but when the two pieces of the design are put together using
a search path, a single copy of the cell (the one that is found first in the search
path) gets used everywhere.
Magic Tutorial #4: Multiple Windows

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
Magic Tutorial #2: Painting (not a critical prerequisite)

Commands covered in this tutorial:

Macros covered in this tutorial:

(none)

1. Introduction

A window is a rectangular viewport. You can think of it as a magnifying glass that may be moved around on your chip. Magic initially displays a single window on the screen. This tutorial will show you how to create new windows and how to move old ones around. Multiple windows allow you to view several portions of a circuit at the same time, or even portions of different circuits.

Some operations are easier with multiple windows. For example, let's say that you want to paint a very long line, say 3 lambda by 800 lambda. With a single window it is hard to align the box accurately since the magnification is not great enough. With multiple windows, one window can show the big picture while other windows show magnified views of the areas where the box needs to be aligned. The box can then be positioned accurately in these magnified windows.
2. Manipulating Windows

2.1. Opening and Closing Windows

Initially Magic displays one large window. The

```
:openwindow cellname
```

command opens another window and loads the given cell. To give this a try, start up Magic, point at the center of the screen and type: `openwindow palette`. A new window will appear where you are pointing. Move the cursor over a bit and type: `openwindow shiftcell`. Another window will appear. Both of these windows contain cells. Magic has other sorts of windows, and they are described in Section 4 below.

To get rid of a window, point to it and type:

```
:closewindow
```

Point to a portion of the original, large window and close it. You will notice that some parts of the screen are not covered by any window — these areas are a light green background color. Magic doesn’t care how many windows you have (within reason) nor how they overlap.

2.2. Resizing and Moving Windows

If you have been experimenting with Magic while reading this you will have noticed that windows opened by `openwindow` are all the same size. This is done so that windows may be opened quickly, but many times you may want them to be a different size. Magic allows you to move and resize windows using the same techniques used for moving the box for painting operations (see “Magic Tutorial #2: Painting”). Point somewhere in the border area of a window, except for the lower left corner, and press and hold the right button. The cursor will change to a shape like this:

```
[ ]
```

This indicates that you have hold of the upper right corner of the window. Point to a new location for this corner and release the button. The window will change shape so that the corner moves. Now point to the border area and press and hold the left button. The cursor will now look like:

```
[ ][ ]
```

This indicates that you have hold of the entire window by its lower left window. Move the cursor and release the button. The window will move so that its lower
left corner is where you pointed.

The other button commands for positioning the box by any of its corners also work for windows. Just remember to point to the border of a window before pushing the buttons.

The middle button can be used to grow a window up to full-screen size. To try this, click the middle button over the caption of the window. The window will now fill the entire screen. Click in the caption again and the window will shrink back to its former size.

After setting up a bunch of windows you may want to save the configuration (for example, you may be partial to a set of 3 non-overlapping windows). To do this, type:

```
:windowpositions filename
```

A set of commands will be written to the file. This file can be used with the :source command to recreate the window configuration later. (However, this only works well if you stay on the same kind of display; if you create a file on a Sun and then :source it on a VAX, you won't get very satisfactory results)

2.3. Shuffling Windows

By now you know how to open, close, and resize windows. This is sufficient for most purposes, but sometimes you want to look at a window that is covered up by another window. The :underneath and :over commands help with this.

The :underneath command moves the window that you are pointing at underneath all of the other windows. The :over command moves the window on top of the rest. Create a few windows that overlap and then use these commands to move them around. You'll see that overlapping windows behave just like sheets of paper: the ones on top obscure portions of the ones underneath.

2.4. Scrolling Windows

Some of the windows have thick bars on the left and bottom borders. These are called scroll bars, and the light blue slugs within them are called elevators. The size and position of an elevator indicates how much of the layout (or whatever is in the window) is currently visible. If an elevator fills its scroll bar, then all of the layout is visible in that window. If an elevator fills only a portion of the scroll bar, then only that portion of the layout is visible. The position of the elevator indicates which part is visible — if it is near the bottom, you are viewing the bottom part of the layout; if it is near the top, you are viewing the top part of the layout. There are scroll bars for both the vertical direction (the left scroll bar) and the horizontal direction (the bottom scroll bar).

Besides indicating how much is visible, the scroll bars can be used to change the view of the window. Clicking the middle mouse button in a scroll bar moves the elevator to that position. For example, if you are viewing the lower half of a chip (elevator near the bottom) and you click the middle button near the top of the scroll bar, the elevator will move up to that position and you will be viewing the top part of your chip. The little squares with arrows in them at the ends of the scroll bars will scroll the view by one screenful when the middle button is
clicked on them. They are useful when you want to move exactly one screenful. The :scroll command can also be used to scroll the view (though we don't think it's as easy to use as the scroll bars). See the man page for information on it.

The bull's-eye in the lower left corner of a window is used to zoom the view in and out. Clicking the left mouse button zooms the view out by a factor of 2, and clicking the right mouse button zooms in by a factor of 2. Clicking the middle button here makes everything in the window visible and is equivalent to the :view command.

3. How Commands Work Inside of Windows

Each window has a caption at the top. Here is an example:

mychip EDITING shiftecell

This indicates that the window contains the cell mychip, and that a subcell of it called shiftecell is being edited. You may remember from the tutorial on cells and hierarchy that at any given time Magic is editing exactly one cell. If the cell being edited is in another window then the caption on this window would read:

mychip [NOT BEING EDITED]

Let's do an example to see how commands are executed within windows. Close any windows that you may have on the screen and open two new windows, each containing the cell shiftecell. (Use the :closewindow and :openwindow shiftecell commands to do this.) Try moving the box around in one of the windows. Notice that the box also moves in the other window. This illustrates one example of a more general rule:

The box can only be in one cell at a time, but if that cell is loaded into several windows it may be manipulated in all of them.

If you change shiftecell by painting or erasing portions of it you will see the changes in both windows. This is because both windows are looking at the same thing: the cell shiftecell. Go ahead and try some painting and erasing until you feel comfortable with it. Try positioning one corner of the box in one window and another corner in another window. You'll find it doesn't matter which window you point to, all Magic knows is that you are pointing to the shiftecell.

These windows are independent in some respects, however. For example, you may scroll one window around without affecting the other window. Use the :zoom and :scroll commands to give this a try.

We have seen how Magic behaves when both windows view a single cell. What happens when windows view different cells? To try this out load palette into one of the windows (point to a window and type :load palette). You will see the captions on the windows change — only one window contains the cell currently being edited. The box cannot be positioned by placing one corner in one window and another corner in the other window because that doesn't really make sense. Many commands work between windows. For example, it is possible to :yank information from one window and :stuff it into another window. To try this, position the box over part of the shiftecell window and type the :yank command. Now move the box over part of the palette window and type the :stuff command. Material yanked from shiftecell will be painted into the palette.
cell. Remember that if `palette` was not being edited you would not be able to:

:stuff paint into it — in that case you would have to use the `edit` command first.

The operation of many Magic commands is dependent upon which window you are pointing at. If you are used to using Magic with only one window you may, at first, forget to point to the window that you want the operation performed upon. For instance, if there are several windows on the screen you will have to point to one before executing a command like `grld` — otherwise you may not affect the window that you intended!

4. Special Windows

In addition to providing multiple windows on different areas of a layout, Magic provides several special types of windows that display things other than layouts. For example, menus are implemented using a special window type, and there is a special window type that may be used to adjust the colors displayed on the screen. Some of the special window types are described in the sections below; others are described in the other tutorials. The

:[specialopen] type [args]

command is used to create these sorts of windows. The `type` argument tells what sort of window you want, and `args` describe what we want loaded into that window. The `"openwindow" cellname" command is really just short for the command `"specialopen layout" cellname"`.

5. Color Editing

Special windows of type `color` are used to edit the red, green, and blue intensities of the colors displayed on the screen. To create a color editing window, invoke the command

:[specialopen] color [number]

`Number` is optional; if present, it gives the octal value of the color number whose intensities are to be edited. If `number` isn’t given, 0 is used. Try opening a color window on color 0.

A color editing window contains 6 “color bars”, 12 “color pumps” (one on each side of each bar), plus a large rectangle at the top of the window that displays a swatch of the color being edited (called the “current color” from now on). The color bars display the components of the current color in two different ways. The three bars on the left display the current color in terms of its red, green, and blue intensities (these intensities are the values actually sent to the monitor). The three bars on the right display the current color in terms of hue, saturation, and value. Hue selects a color of the spectrum. Saturation indicates how diluted the color is (high saturation corresponds to a pure color, low saturation corresponds to a color that is diluted with gray, and a saturation of 0 results in gray regardless of hue). Value indicates the overall brightness (a value of 0 corresponds to black, regardless of hue or saturation).

There are several ways to modify the current color. First, try pressing any mouse button while the cursor is over one of the color bars. The length of the bar, and the current color, will be modified to reflect the mouse position. The
color map in the display is also changed, so the colors will change everywhere on the screen that the current color is displayed. Color 0, which you should currently be editing, is the background color. You can also modify the current color by pressing a button while the cursor is over one of the "color pumps" next to the bars. If you button a pump with "+" in it, the value of the bar next to it will be incremented slightly, and if you button the "-" pump, the bar will be decremented slightly. The left button causes a change of about 1% in the value of the bar, and the right button will pump the bar up or down by about 5%. Try adjusting the bars by buttoning the bars and the pumps.

If you press a button while the cursor is over the current color box at the top of the window, one of two things will happen. In either case, nothing happens until you release the button. Before releasing the button, move the cursor so it is over a different color somewhere on the screen. If you pressed the left button, then when the button is released the color underneath the cursor becomes the new current color, and all future editing operations will affect this color. Try using this feature to modify the color used for window borders. If you pressed the right button, then when the button is released the value of the current color is copied from whatever color is present underneath the cursor.

There are only a few commands you can type in color windows, aside from those that are valid in all windows. The command

```
:color [number]
```

will change the current color to number. If no number is given, this command will print out the current color and its red, green, and blue intensities. The command

```
:save [file]
```

will save the current color map in a file named file.mon, where mon is the type of the current monitor (usually std). If file isn't given, the name of the current technology is used as the file name. The command

```
:load [file]
```

will load the color map from the named file (with the monitor type added as extension). If file isn't given, the name of the current technology is used as the file name. When loading color maps, Magic looks first in the current directory, then in the system library.
Magic Tutorial #5: Design-Rule Checking

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
  Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
  Magic Tutorial #2: Painting
  Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies

Commands covered in this tutorial:
  :drc

Macros covered in this tutorial:
  none

1. Continuous Design-Rule Checking

When you are editing a layout with Magic, the system automatically checks design rules on your behalf. Every time you paint or erase, and every time you move a cell or change an array structure, Magic rechecks the area you changed to be sure you haven’t violated any of the layout rules. If you do violate rules, Magic will display little white dots in the vicinity of the violation. This error paint will stay around until you fix the problem; when the violation is corrected, the error paint will go away automatically. Error paint is written to disk with your cells and will re-appear the next time the cell is read in. There is no way to get rid of it except to fix the violation.

Continuous design-rule checking means that you always have an up-to-date picture of design-rule errors in your layout. There is never any need to run a massive check over the whole design. When you make small changes to an existing layout, you will find out immediately if you’ve introduced errors, without
having to completely recheck the entire layout.

To see how the checker works, run Magic on the cell tutorial5a. This cell contains several areas of metal (blue), some of which are too close to each other. Try painting and erasing metal to make the error paint go away and re-appear again.

2. Getting Information about Errors

In many cases, the reason for a design-rule violation will be obvious to you as soon as you see the error paint. However, Magic provides several commands for you to use to find violations and figure what’s wrong in case it isn’t obvious. All of the design-rule checking commands have the form

:drc option

where option selects one of several commands understood by the design-rule checker. If you’re not sure why error paint has suddenly appeared, place the box around the error paint and invoke the command

:drc why

This command will recheck the area underneath the box, and print out the reasons for any violations that were found. Try this on some of the errors in tutorial5a. It’s a good idea to place the box right around the area of the error paint: :drc why rechecks the entire area under the box, so it may take a long time if the box is very large.

If you’re working in a large cell, it may be hard to see the error paint. To help locate the errors, select a cell and then use the command

:drc find [nth]

If you don’t provide the nth argument, the command will place the box around one of the errors in the current cell, and print out the reason for the error, just as if you had typed :drc why. If you invoke the command repeatedly, it will step through all of the errors in the current cell. (remember, the “.” macro can be used to repeat the last long command; this will save you from having to retype :drc find over and over again). Try this out on the errors in tutorial5a. If you type a number for nth, the command will go to the nth error in the current cell, instead of the next one.

A third drc command is provided to give you summary information about errors in hierarchical designs. The command is

:drc count

This command will search every cell (visible or not) that lies underneath the box to see if any have errors in them. For each cell with errors, :drc count will print out a count of the number of error areas. This count corresponds to the number of different locations where :drc find will place the box.
3. Errors in Hierarchical Layouts

The design-rule checker works on hierarchical layouts as well as single cells. There are three overall rules that describe the way that Magic checks hierarchical designs:

[1] The paint in each cell must obey all the design rules by itself, without considering the paint in any other cells, including its children.

[2] The combined paint of each cell and all of its descendants (subcells, sub-subcells, etc.) must be consistent. If a subcell interacts with paint or with other subcells in a way that introduces a design-rule violation, an error will appear in the parent. In designs with many levels of hierarchy, this rule is applied separately to each cell and its descendants.

[3] Each array must be consistent by itself, without considering any other subcells or paint in its parent. If the neighboring elements of an array interact to produce a design-rule violation, the violation will appear in the parent.

To see some examples of interaction errors, edit the cell tutorial5b. This cell doesn’t make sense electrically, but illustrates the features of the hierarchical checker. On the left are two subcells that are too close together. In addition, the subcells are too close to the red paint in the top-level cell. Move the subcells and/or modify the paint to make the errors go away and reappear. On the right side of tutorial5b is an array whose elements interact to produce a design-rule violation. Edit an element of the array to make the violation go away. When there are interaction errors between the elements of an array, the errors always appear near one of the four corner elements of the array (since the array spacing is uniform, Magic only checks interactions near the corners; if these elements are correct, all the ones in the middle must be correct too).

It’s important to remember that each of the three overall rules must be satisfied independently. This may sometimes result in errors where it doesn’t seem like there should be any. Edit the cell tutorial5c for some examples of this. On the left side of the cell there is a sliver of paint in the parent that extends paint in a subcell. Although the overall design is correct, the sliver of paint in the parent is not correct by itself, as required by the first overall rule above. On the right side of tutorial5c is an array with bad spacing between the array elements. Even though the paint in the parent masks some of the problems if the entire design is considered, the array is not consistent by itself so an error is flagged. The three overall rules are more conservative than is strictly necessary, but they reduce the amount of rechecking Magic must do. For example, the array rule allows Magic to deduce the correctness of an array by looking only at the corner elements; if paint from the parent had to be considered in checking arrays, it would be necessary to check the entire array since there might be parent paint masking some errors but not all (as, for example, in tutorial5c).

Error paint appears in different cells in the hierarchy, depending on what kind of error was found. Errors resulting from paint in a single cell cause error paint to appear in that cell. Errors resulting from interactions and arrays appear in the parent of the interacting cells or array. Because of the way Magic makes interaction checks, errors can sometimes “bubble up” through the hierarchy and
appear in multiple cells. When two cells overlap, Magic checks this area by copying all the paint in that area from both cells (and their descendants) into a buffer and then checking the buffer. Magic is unable to tell the difference between an error from one of the subcells and an error that comes about because the two subcells overlap incorrectly. This means that errors in an interaction area of a cell may also appear in the cell's parent. Fixing the error in the subcell will cause the error in the parent to go away also.

4. Turning the Checker Off

We hope that in most cases the checker will run so quickly that you'll hardly know it's there. However, there are some times when it can take quite a while to recheck things you've changed. For example, if a large subcell is moved to overlap another large subcell, the entire overlap area will have to be rechecked, and this could take several minutes. If the prompt on the text screen is a "|" character, it means that the command has completed but the checker hasn't caught up yet. You can invoke new commands while the checker is running, and the checker will suspend itself long enough to process the new commands.

If you get tired of waiting for the checker, you have several options. First, you can hit the break key on the keyboard. This will stop the checker immediately and wait for your next command. As soon as you issue a command or push a mouse button, the checker will start up again. To turn the checker off altogether, type the command

:drc off

From this point on, the checker will not run. Magic will record the areas that need rechecking but won't do the rechecks. If you save your file and quit Magic, the information about areas to recheck will be saved on disk. The next time you read in the cell, Magic will recheck those areas, unless you've still got the checker turned off. There is nothing you can do to make Magic forget about areas to recheck; :drc off merely postpones the recheck operation to a later time.

Once you've turned the checker off, you have two ways to make sure everything has been rechecked. The first is to type the command

:drc catchup

This command will run the checker and wait until everything has been rechecked and errors are completely up to date. When the command completes, the checker will still be enabled or disabled just as it was before the command. If you get tired of waiting for :drc catchup, you can always hit the break key to abort the command; the recheck areas will be remembered for later. To turn the checker back on permanently, invoke the command

:drc on
5. Porting Layouts from Other Systems

You should not need to read this section if you've created your layout from scratch using Magic or have read it from CIF using Magic's CIF reader. However, if you are bringing into Magic a layout that was created using a different editor or an old version of Magic that didn't have continuous checking, read on. You may also need to read this section if you've changed the design rules in the technology file.

In order to find out about errors in a design that wasn't created with Magic, you must force Magic to recheck everything in the design. Once this global recheck has been done, Magic will use its continuous checker to deal with any changes you make to the design; you should only need to do the global recheck once. To make the global recheck, load your design, place the box around the entire design, and type

:drd check

This will cause Magic to act as if the entire area under the box had just been modified: it will recheck that entire area. Furthermore, it will work its way down through the hierarchy; for every subcell found underneath the box, it will recheck that subcell over the area of the box.

If you get nervous that a design-rule violation might somehow have been missed, you can use :drd check to force any area to be rechecked at any time, even for cells that were created with Magic. However, this should never be necessary unless you've changed the design rules. If the number of errors in the layout ever changes because of a :drd check, it is a bug in Magic and you should notify us immediately.
Magic Tutorial #6: Netlists and Routing

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
- Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
- Magic Tutorial #2: Painting
- Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies
- Magic Tutorial #4: Multiple Windows

Netlist commands covered in this tutorial:
- :extract, :ripup, :savenetlist, :trace, :verify, :writeall

Layout commands covered in this tutorial:
- :channel, :route

Macros covered in this tutorial:
- (none)

1. Introduction

This tutorial describes how to use Magic's automatic routing tools to make interconnections between subcells in a design. The tools are unusual because they provide an obstacle-avoidance capability: if there is mask material in the routing areas, the Magic router can work under, over, or around that material to complete the connections. This means that you can pre-route key signals by hand and have Magic route the less important signals automatically. In addition, you can route power and ground by hand (right now we don't have any power-ground routing tools, so you have to route them by hand).

The first step in routing is to tell Magic what should be connected to what. This information is contained in a file called a netlist. Sections 2, 3, 4, and 5
describe how to create and modify netlists. Once you've created a netlist, the
next step is to invoke the router. Section 6 shows how to do this, and gives a
brief summary of what goes on inside the routing tools. Unless your design is very
simple and has lots of free space, the routing probably won't succeed the first
time. Section 7 describes the feedback provided by the routing tools and discusses
how you can modify your design to improve its routability. You'll probably need
to iterate a few times until the routing is successful.

2. Terminals and Netlists

A netlist is a file that describes a set of desired connections. It contains one
or more nets. A net is a list of terminals that should all be wired together. Each
terminal is the name of a label attached to a piece of mask material at the edge of
a subcell. The first step in building a netlist is to label the terminals in your
design. Figure 1 shows an example. Each label should be a horizontal or vertical
line along the edge of the cell. The router will bring routing material up to the
edge of the cell somewhere along the length of the label. The label must be at
least as wide as the minimum width of the routing material; the wider you make
the label, the more flexibility you give the router.

![Cell Boundary Diagram]

Figure 1. An example of a terminal label. Each terminal should be labelled with a
horizontal or vertical line along the edge of the cell.

Terminal labels must be attached to mask material that connects directly to
a routing layer. For example, in a CMOS process where the routing layers are
metall1 and metal2, diffusion may not be used as a terminal since neither of the
routing layers will connect directly to it. On the other hand, a terminal may be
attached to diffusion-metall1 contact, since the metall1 routing layer will connect
properly to it. Terminals can have arbitrary names, except that they should not
contain slashes ("/"), and should not end in "@", "$", or "". See "Tutorial #2:
Painting" for a complete description of labelling conventions.

For an example of good and bad terminals, edit the cell tutorial8a (it's a
CMOS cell, so type magic -T cmos tutorial8a to the shell). The cell doesn't
make any electrical sense, but contains several good and bad terminals. All the
terminals with names like bad1 are incorrect for one of the reasons given above,
and those with names like good4 are acceptable.
3. Menu for Label Editing

Magic provides a special menu facility to assist you in placing labels and editing netlists. To make the menu appear, invoke the Magic command

```
specialopen netlist
```

A new window will appear in the lower-left corner of the screen, containing several rectangular areas on a purple background. Each of the rectangular areas is called a button. Clicking mouse buttons inside the menu buttons will invoke various commands to edit labels and netlists. Figure 2 shows a diagram of the netlist menu and Table I summarizes the meaning of button clicks in various menu items. The netlist menu can be grown, shrunken, and moved just like any other window; see "Magic Tutorial #4: Multiple Windows" for details. It also has its own private set of commands. To see what commands you can type in the netlist menu, move the cursor over the menu and type

```
:help
```

You shouldn't need to type commands in the netlist menu very often, since almost everything you'll need to do can be done using them menu. See Section 9 for a description of a few of the commands you can type; the complete set is described in the manual page `magic(1)`. The top half of the menu is for placing labels and the bottom half is for editing netlists. This section describes the label facilities, and Section 4 describes the netlist facilities.

The label menu makes it easy for you to enter lots of labels, particularly when there are many labels that are the same except for a number, e.g. `bus1`, `bus2`, `bus3`, etc. There are four sections to the label menu: the current text, the placer, two pumps, and the Find button. To place labels, first click the left mouse button over the current text rectangle. Then type one or more labels on the keyboard, one per line. You can use this mechanism to enter several labels at
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Button</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Current Text| Left-click: prompt for more labels  
Right-click: advance to next label |
| Placer      | Left-click: place label  
Right-click: change label text position |
| Pumps       | Left-click: decrement number  
Right-click: increment number |
| Find        | Search under box, highlight labels matching current text |
| Current Netlist | Left-click: prompt for new netlist name  
Right-click: use edit cell name as netlist name |
| Verify      | Check that wiring matches netlist (same as typing :verify command) |
| Print       | Print names of all terminals in selected net  
(same as typing :print command) |
| Terms       | Place feedback areas on screen to identify all terminals in current netlist (same as :showterms command) |
| Cleanup     | Check current netlist for missing labels and nets with less than two terminals (same as typing :cleanup command) |
| No Net      | Delete selected net (same as :dnet command) |
| Show        | Highlight paint connected to material under box  
(same as typing :shownet command) |
| Terminal Tool | Exchange normal cursor for terminal tool  
(same as typing :switchtools command) |

Table 1. A summary of all the netlist menu button actions.

Once. Type return twice to signal the end of the list. At this point, the first of the labels you typed will appear in the current text rectangle.

To place a label, position the box over the area you want to label, then click the left mouse button inside one of the squares of the placer area. A label will be created with the current text. Where you click in the placer determines where the label text will appear relative to the label box: for example, clicking the left-center square causes the text to be centered just to the left of the box. You can place many copies of the same label by moving the box and clicking the placer area again. You can re-orient the text of a label by clicking the right mouse button inside the placer area. For example, if you would like to move a label's text so that it appears centered above the label, place the box over the label and right-click the top-center placer square.

If you entered several labels at once, only the first appears in the current text area. However, you can advance to the next label by right-clicking inside the current text area. In this way you can place a long series of labels entirely with the mouse. Try using this mechanism to add labels to tutorial6a.
The two small buttons underneath the right side of the current text area are called pumps. To see how these work, enter a label name containing a number into the current text area, for example, bus1. When you do this, the “1” appears in the left pump. Right-clicking the pump causes the number to increment, and left-clicking the pump causes the number to decrement. This makes it easy for you to enter a series of numbered signal names. If a name has two numbers in it, the second number will appear in the second pump, and it can be incremented or decremented too. Try using the pumps to place a series of numbered names.

The last entry in the label portion of the menu is the Find button. This can be used to locate a label by searching for a given pattern. If you click the Find button, Magic will use the current text as a pattern and search the area underneath the box for a label whose name contains the pattern. Pattern-matching is done in the same way as in csh, using the special characters “*”, “?”, “\”, “[”, and “]”. Try this on tutorial6a: enter “good*” into the current text area, place the box around the whole cell, then click on the “Find” button. For each of the good labels, a feedback area will be created with white stripes to highlight the area. The feedback find command can be used to step through the areas, and feedback clear will erase the feedback information from the screen. The feedback command has many of the same options as drc for getting information about feedback areas; see the Magic manual page for details, or type feedback help for a synopsis of the options.

4. Netlist Editing

The bottom half of the netlist menu is used for editing netlists. The first thing you must do is to specify the netlist you want to edit. Do this by clicking in the current netlist box. If you left-click, Magic will prompt you for the netlist name and you can type it at the keyboard. If you right-click, Magic will use the name of the edit cell as the current netlist name. In either case, Magic will read the netlist from disk if it exists and will create a new netlist if there isn’t currently a netlist file with the given name. Netlist files are stored on disk with a “.net” extension, which is added by Magic when it reads and writes files. You can change the current netlist by clicking the current netlist button again. Start up Magic on the cell tutorial6b (magic -T cmos tutorial6b), open the netlist menu, and set the current netlist to tutorial6b. Then expand the subcells in tutorial6b so that you can see their terminals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Button</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Select net, using nearest terminal to cursor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Toggle nearest terminal into or out of current net.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>Find nearest terminal, join its net with the current net.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II. The actions of the mouse buttons when the terminal tool is in use.
To edit the netlist, you must first pick up the terminal tool. To do this, move the cursor over the small square at the bottom of the netlist menu (it's labelled "Terminal Tool" in Figure 2) and click any mouse button. This changes the cursor shape to a small square instead of a crosshair, and causes a crosshair to appear instead of a square at the bottom of the netlist menu. From now on, when you click mouse buttons in a layout window, the button meanings are totally different. Instead of moving the box and painting, the buttons invoke netlist editing actions. To get back the old cursor and button meanings, move the cursor back over the crosshair at the bottom of the netlist window and click a mouse button. Try this a few times until you are comfortable with the idea of changing tools.

When the terminal tool is in use the left, right, and middle buttons invoke select, toggle, and join operations respectively (see Table II). To see how they work, pick up the terminal tool, move the cursor over the terminal right4 in the top subcell of tutorial6b and click the left mouse button. This causes the net containing that terminal to be selected. Three hollow white squares will appear over the layout, marking the terminals that are supposed to be wired together into right4's net. Left-click over the left3 terminal in the same subcell to select its net, then select the right4 net again.

The right button is used to toggle terminals into or out of the current net. If you right-click over a terminal that is in the current net, then it is removed from the current net. If you right-click over a terminal that isn't in the current net, it is added to the current net. A single terminal can only be in one net at a time, so if a terminal is already in a net when you toggle it into another net then Magic will remove it from the old net.

The middle button is used to merge two nets together. If you middle-click over a terminal, all the terminals in its net are added to the current net. Play around with the three buttons to edit the netlist tutorial6b.

Note: the netlist editor permits you to select terminals that are in the top-level cell, for example foo in tutorial6b. However, the router will not be able to make connections to such terminals. The router can only work with terminals in subcells, or sub-subcells, etc.

If you left-click over a terminal that is not currently in a net, Magic creates a new net automatically. If you didn't really want to make a new net, you have several choices. Either you can toggle the terminal out of its own net, you can undo the select operation, or you can click the No Net button in the netlist menu (you can do this even while the cursor is in the square shape). The No Net button removes all terminals from the current net and destroys the net. It's a bad idea to leave single-net terminals in the netlist: the router will treat them as errors.

There are two ways to save netlists on disk; these are similar to the ways you can save layout cells. If you type

```
:savenetlist [name]
```

with the cursor over the netlist menu, the current netlist will be saved on disk in the file name.net. If no name is typed, the name of the current netlist is used. If
you type the command

```
:writeall
```

then Magic will step through all the netlists that have been modified since they
were last written, asking you if you'd like them to be written out. If you try to
leave Magic without saving all the modified netlists, Magic will warn you and give
you a chance to write them out.

The **Print** button in the netlist menu will print out on the text screen the
names of all the terminals in the current net. Try this for some of the nets in
**tutorial8b**. The official name of a terminal looks a lot like a Unix file name,
consisting of a bunch of fields separated by slashes. Each field except the last is
the id of a subcell, and the last field is the name of the terminal. These
hierarchical names provide unique names for each terminal, even if the same
terminal name is re-used in different cells or if there are multiple copies of the
same cell.

The **Verify** button will check the paint of the edit cell to be sure it
implements the connections specified in the current netlist. Feedback areas are
created to show nets that are incomplete or nets that are shorted together.

The **Terms** button will cause Magic to generate a feedback area over each
of the terminals in the current netlist, so that you can see which terminals are
included in the netlist. If you type the command **feedback clear** in a layout
window then the feedback will be erased.

The **Cleanup** button is there as a convenience to help you cleanup your
netlists. If you click on it, Magic will scan through the current netlist to make
sure it is reasonable. **Cleanup** looks for two error conditions: terminal names
that don't correspond to any labels in the design, and nets that don't have at least
two terminals. When it finds either of these conditions it prints a message and
gives you the chance to either delete the offending terminal (if you type **dterm**),
delete the offending net (**dnet**), skip the current problem without modifying the
netlist and continue looking for other problems (**skip**), or abort the **Cleanup**
command without making any more changes (**abort**).

The last button is **Show**. It will highlight everything electrically connected
to material underneath the box. If there are several electrically-distinct nets
under the box, **Show** will just highlight one of them. All material in all cells will
be considered, so this command can be used to see everything in the entire circuit
that is connected to material under the box. If you click **Show** with the box over
Vdd or GND, the command may take a very long time to finish (you can always
abort it by typing control-C or break). You can use **Show** to locate power-
ground shorts by placing the box over Vdd, letting the command run a while, and
then aborting it. If both Vdd and GND have been highlighted, the short is in
that area. If not, try again in a different area until you find the problem.
5. Netlist Files

Netlists are stored on disk in ordinary text files. You are welcome to edit those files by hand or to write programs that generate the netlists automatically. For example, a netlist might be generated by a schematic editor or by a high-level simulator. See the manual page net(5) for a description of netlist file format.

6. Running the Router

Once you’ve created a netlist, it is relatively easy to invoke the router. First, place the box around the area you’d like Magic to consider for routing (no terminals outside this area will be considered, and Magic will not generate any paint outside this area). Then invoke the command

:route

When this command completes, the netlist will (hopefully) be routed. Try the router out on tutorial6b with netlist tutorial6b and routing area equal to the entire size of the circuit (you’ll probably need to re-run Magic to undo the changes you made while learning how to edit netlists). When the router completes, click the Verify netlist button to make sure the connections were made correctly. Try deleting a piece from one of the wires and verify again. Feedback areas should appear to indicate where the routing was incorrect. Use the :feedback command to step through the areas and, eventually, to delete the feedback (:feedback help gives a synopsis of the command options).

All of the wires placed by the router are of the same width, so the router won’t be very useful for power and ground wiring. Instead, you should wire power and ground by hand before running the router. The router will be able to work around your hand-placed connections to make the connections in the netlist. If there are certain key signals that you want to wire carefully by hand, you can do this too; the router will work around them. Signals that you route by hand should not be in the netlist. Tutorial6b has an example of “hand routing” in the form of a piece of metal in the middle of the circuit. Undo the routing, and try modifying the metal and/or adding more hand routing of your own to see how it affects the routing.

If the router is unable to complete the connections, it will report errors to you (you can make this happen in tutorial6b by hand-routing on both routing layers to block some of the terminals. Errors may be reported in several ways. For some errors, such as non-existent terminal names, messages will be printed. For other errors, cross-hatched feedback areas will be created. Most of the feedback areas have messages of the form “Net shifter/bit[0]/phi1: Can’t make bottom connection.” To see the message associated with a feedback area, place the box over the feedback area and type :feedback why. In this case the message means that for some reason the router was unable to connect the specified net (named by one of its terminals) within one of the routing channel. The terms “bottom”, “top”, etc. may be misnomers because Magic sometimes rotates channels before routing; the names refer to the direction at the time the channel was routed, not the direction in the circuit. However, the location of the feedback area indicates where the connection was supposed to have been made.
7. How the Router Works

The router runs in three stages, called channel definition, global routing, and channel routing. In the channel definition phase, Magic divides the area of the edit cell into rectangular routing areas called channels. The channels cover all the space under the box except the areas occupied by subcells. To see the channel structure that Magic chose, place the box as if you were going to route, then type the command

```
:channel
```

in the layout window. Magic will compute the channel structure and display it on the screen as a collection of feedback areas. In this case, each feedback area is displayed as a white rectangle. The feedback areas make it hard to see where the box is, so type :feedback clear when you’re through looking at them. All of Magic’s routing goes in the channel areas. It will not run wires over subcells.

The second phase of routing is global routing. In the global routing phase, Magic considers each net in turn and chooses the sequence of channels the net must pass through in order to connect its terminals. The crossing points (places where the net crosses from one channel to another) are chosen at this point, but not the exact path through each channel.

In the third phase, each channel is considered separately. All the nets passing through that channel are examined at once, and the exact path of each net is decided. Once the routing paths have been determined, paint is added to the edit cell to implement the routing.

The Magic router is grid-based: it places all its wires on a uniform grid. For the standard nMOS process the grid spacing is 7 units, and for the standard CMOS process it is 8 units. If you type :grid 8 after routing tutorial6b, you’ll see that all of the routing lines up with its lower and left sides on grid lines. Fortunately, you don’t have to make your cell terminals line up on even grid boundaries. During the routing Magic generates stems that connect your terminals up to grid lines at the edges of channels. Notice that there’s space left by Magic between the subcells and the channels; this space is used by the stem generator.

8. What to do When the Router Fails

Don’t be surprised if the router is unable to make all the connections the first time you try it on a large circuit. Unless you have lots of extra routing space in your chip, you’ll probably have to make slight re-arrangements to help the router out. The paragraphs below describe things you can do to make life easier for the router. This section is not very well developed, so we’d be delighted to hear about techniques you use to improve routability. If you find new things to do to make the router succeed, send us mail and we’ll add them to this section.
8.1. Channel Structure

One of the first things to check when the router fails is the channel structure. Use the :channel command to look at the channels. One common mistake is to have some of the desired routing area covered by subcells; Magic only runs wires where there are no subcells. Check to be sure that there are channels next to all your terminals. If you place cells too close together, there may not be enough room to have a channel between the cells; when this happens Magic won’t be able to make connections to any terminals along the channel-less sides of the cells. To solve the problem, move the cells farther apart. If there are many skinny channels, it will be difficult for the router to produce good routing. Try to re-arrange the cell structure to line up edges of nearby cells so that there are as few channels as possible and they are as large as possible (before doing this you’ll probably want to get rid of the existing routing by undo-ing or by flushing the edit cell).

8.2. Stems

Another problem has to do with the stem generator. The current stem generation code is pretty stupid. It simply finds the nearest routing grid point and wires out to that point, without considering any other terminals. If two terminals are too close together, Magic may decide to route them both to the same grid point. When this happens, you have two choices. Either you can move the cell so that the terminals have different nearest grid points, or if this doesn’t work you’ll have to modify the cell to make the terminals farther apart.

8.3. Obstacles

The router tends to have special difficulties with obstacles running along the edges of channels. When you’ve placed a power wire or other hand-routing along the edge of a channel, the channel router will often run material under your wiring in the other routing layer, thereby blocking both routing layers and making it impossible to complete the routing. Where this occurs, you can increase the chances of successful routing by moving the hand-routing away from the channel edges. It’s especially important to keep hand-routing away from terminals. The stem generator will not pay any attention to hand-routing when it generates stems (it just makes a bee-line for the nearest grid point), so it may accidentally short a terminal to nearby hand-routing.

When placing hand-routing, you can get better routing results by following the advice illustrated in Figure 3. First, display the routing grid. For example, if the router is using a 8-unit grid (which is true for the standard CMOS technology), type :grid 8. Then place all your hand routing with its left and bottom edges along the grid lines. Because of the way the routing tools work, this approach results in the least possible amount of lost routing space.

- 10 -
Figure 3. When placing hand routing, it is best to place all features with their left and bottom edges along grid lines. In this fashion, the hand routing will block as few routing grid lines as possible.

9. More Netlist Commands

In addition to the netlist menu buttons and commands described in Section 4, there are a number of other netlist commands you can invoke by typing in the netlist window. Many of these commands are textual equivalents of the menu buttons. However, they allow you to deal with terminals by typing the hierarchical name of the terminal rather than by pointing to it. If you don't know where a terminal is, or if you have deleted a label from your design so that there's nothing to point to, you'll have to use the textual commands. Commands that don't just duplicate menu buttons are described below; see the magic(1) manual page for details on the others.

The netlist command

:extract

will generate a net from existing wiring. It looks under the box for paint, then traces out all the material in the edit cell that is connected electrically to that paint. Wherever the material touches subcells it looks for terminals in the subcells, and all the terminals it finds are placed into a new net. Warning: there is also an extract command for layout windows, and it is totally different from the extract command in netlist windows. Make sure you've got the cursor over the netlist window when you invoke this command!

The netlist editor provides two commands for ripping up existing routing (or other material). They are

:ripup
:ripup netlist
The first command starts by finding any paint in the edit cell that lies underneath the box. It then works outward from that paint to find all paint in the edit cell that is electrically connected to the starting paint. All of this paint is erased. The second form of the command, \texttt{:ripup netlist}, is similar to the first except that it starts from each of the terminals in the current netlist instead of the box. Any paint in the edit cell that is electrically connected to a terminal is erased. The \texttt{:ripup netlist} command may be useful to ripup existing routing before rerouting.

The command

\texttt{:trace [name]}

provides an additional facility for examining router feedback. It highlights all paint connected to each terminal in the net containing \texttt{name}, much as the \texttt{Show} menu button does for paint connected to anything under the box. The net to be highlighted may be specified by naming one of its terminals, for example, \texttt{:trace shifter/b1[0]/phi1}. Use the trace command in conjunction with the nets specified in router feedback to see the partially completed wiring for a net. Where no net is specified, the \texttt{:trace} command highlights the currently selected net.
Magic Tutorial #7: Circuit Extraction

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
Magic Tutorial #2: Painting
Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies

Commands covered in this tutorial:
:extract

Macros covered in this tutorial:
none

Programs covered in this tutorial:
ext2sim

1. Introduction

This tutorial covers the use of Magic's incremental and hierarchical circuit extractor. The extractor is incremental: only part of the entire layout must be re-extracted after each change. Because it is hierarchical, the structure of the extracted circuit parallels the structure of the layout being extracted. The extractor produces a separate .ext file for each .mag file in a hierarchical design. This is in contrast to previous extractors, such as Mextra, which produces a single .sim file that represents the flattened (fully-instantiated) layout.

Sections 2 and 3 introduce Magic's .extract command. Section 4 describes what information actually gets extracted, and discusses limitations and inaccuracies. Although the hierarchical .ext format fully describes the circuit implemented by a layout, none of our tools yet accept it. Instead, it is necessary
to convert it to the flat `.sim` format using the `ext2sim` program described in Section 5.

2. Basic Extraction

You can use Magic's extractor in one of several ways. Normally it is not necessary to extract all cells in a layout. To extract only those cells that have changed since they were extracted, use:

```
:load root
:extract
```

It looks for a `.ext` file for every cell in the tree that descends from the cell `root`. The `.ext` file is searched for in the same directory as the one containing the cell's `.mag` file. Any cells that have been modified since they were last extracted, and all of their parents, are re-extracted. If a cell has no `.ext` file, this also causes it to be re-extracted.

To force all cells in the subtree rooted at cell `root` to be re-extracted, use:

```
:extract all:
:load root
:extract all
```

You can also use the `:extract` command to extract a single cell as follows:

```
:extract cell name
```

will extract just the selected (current) cell, and place the output in the file `name`. You should be careful about using this form of the `:extract` command, since even though you may only make a change to a child cell, all of its parents may have to be re-extracted. To re-extract all of the parents of the selected cell, you may use:

```
:extract parents
```

Finally, to see what cells would be extracted by `:extract parents` without actually extracting them, use:

```
:extract showparents
```

3. Feedback: Errors and Warnings

When the extractor encounters problems, it leaves feedback in the form of stippled white rectangular areas on the screen. Each area covers the portion of the layout that caused the error. Each area also has an error message associated with it, which you can see by using the `:feedback` command. (Type `:feedback help` while in Magic for assistance in using the `:feedback` command.)

The extractor will always report extraction errors. These are problems in the layout that may cause the output of the extractor to be incorrect. The layout should be fixed to eliminate extraction errors before attempting to simulate the circuit.
Extraction errors can come from violations of transistor rules. There are two rules about the formation of transistors: no transistor can be formed, and none can be destroyed, as a result of cell overlaps. For example, it is illegal to have poly in one cell overlap diffusion in another cell, as that would form a transistor in the parent where none was present in either child. It is also illegal to have a buried contact in one cell overlap a transistor in another, as this would destroy the transistor. Violating these transistor rules will cause design-rule violations as well as extraction errors.

In general, it is an error for material of two types on the same plane to overlap or abut if they don’t connect to each other. For example, in CMOS it is illegal for p-diffusion and n-diffusion to overlap or abut.

It is also an error for a transistor to have fewer diffusion terminals than the minimum for its type. For example, a dfet in nMOS must have two diffusion terminals: a source and a drain. If a capacitor with only one diffusion terminal is desired, dcap should be used instead.

In addition to errors, the extractor can give warnings. If only warnings are present, the extracted circuit is simulatable. Normally, warnings are not reported or displayed as feedback. To cause them to be displayed, use :extract warnings on. To revert to the default of not displaying warnings, use :extract warnings off.

Currently, warnings are only generated if you violate the following guideline for placement of labels. Whenever geometry from two subcells abuts or overlaps, you should make sure that there is a label attached to the geometry in each subcell, in the area of the overlap, or along the line of abutment. If you do not follow this guideline, the extractor will still work correctly, but will run slower.

4. What Gets Extracted; Limitations

Magic’s extractor computes from the layout the information needed to run simulation tools such as crystal(1) and esim(1). This information includes the sizes and shapes of transistors, and the connectivity, resistance, and parasitic capacitance of nodes. Both capacitance to substrate and several kinds of internodal coupling capacitances are extracted.

The details of the .ext files output by Magic may be found in the manual page ext(5). "Magic Maintainer’s Manual #2: The Technology File" describes how extraction parameters are specified for the extractor. The remainder of this section is intended as a description of the information that gets extracted, and the limitations of the extractor.

4.1. Resistance

Magic extracts a lumped resistance for each node, rather than a point-to-point resistance between each pair of devices connected to that node. The result is that all such point-to-point resistances are approximated by the worst-case resistance between any two points in that node.
Figure 1. Magic approximates the resistance of a node by assuming that it is a simple rectangular region. The perimeter and area of such a region are used to compute its length and width. (a) For non-branching nodes, this approximation is a good one. (b) The computed resistance for this node is the same as for (a) because the side branches are counted, yet the actual resistance between points 1 and 2 is significantly less than in (a).

Node resistances are approximated rather than computed exactly. For a node comprised entirely of a single type of material, Magic will compute the node's total perimeter and area. It then solves a quadratic equation to find the width and height of a simple rectangle with this same perimeter and area, and approximates the resistance of the node as the resistance of this "equivalent" rectangle. The resistance is always taken in the longer dimension of the rectangle. When a node contains more than a single type of material, Magic computes an equivalent rectangle for each type, and then sums the resistances as though the rectangles were laid end-to-end.

This approximation for resistance does not take into account any branching, so it can be significantly in error for nodes that have side branches. Figure 1 gives an example. For global signal trees such as clocks or power, Magic's estimate of resistance will likely be several times higher than the actual resistance between two points.

Figure 2. Each type of edge has capacitance to substrate per unit length. Here, the diffusion-space perimeter of 13 lambda has one value per unit length, and the diffusion-buried perimeter of 3 lambda another. In addition, each type of material has capacitance per unit area.
4.2. Capacitance

Capacitance to substrate comes from two different sources. Each type of material has a capacitance to substrate per unit area. Each type of edge (i.e., each pair of types) has a capacitance to substrate per unit length. See Figure 2. Internodal capacitance comes from three sources, as shown in Figure 3. When materials of two different types overlap, the capacitance to substrate of the one on top (as determined by the technology) is replaced by an internodal capacitance to the one on the bottom.

![Diagram showing capacitance components](image)

**Figure 3.** Magic extracts three kinds of internodal coupling capacitance. This figure is a cross-section (side view, not a top view) of a set of masks that shows all three kinds of capacitance. Overlap capacitance is parallel-plate capacitance between two different kinds of material when they overlap. Sidewall capacitance is parallel-plate capacitance between the vertical edges of two pieces of the same kind of material. Sidewall overlap capacitance is orthogonal-plate capacitance between the vertical edge of one piece of material and the horizontal surface of another piece of material that overlaps the first edge.

Magic makes several simplifications when extracting capacitance. Overlap coupling capacitance ignores what other material might happen to be present between two overlapping pieces of material. For example, if metal-2 overlapped poly, with metal-1 in the middle, Magic still records capacitance between metal-2 and poly. No adjustment to internodal capacitance is currently made between subcells, so if material in one cell overlaps material of a different type in another cell, no overlap coupling capacitance gets recorded between the two.

4.3. Transistors

Like the resistances of nodes, the lengths and widths of transistors are approximated. Magic computes the contribution to the total perimeter by each of the terminals of the transistor. See Figure 4. For rectangular transistors, this yields an exact $L/W$. For non-branching, non-rectangular transistors, it is still possible to approximate $L/W$ fairly well, but substantial inaccuracies can be introduced if the channel of a transistor contains branches. Since most transistors are rectangular, however, Magic's approximation works well in practice.
Figure 4.
(a) When transistors are rectangular, it is possible to compute $L/W$ exactly. Here $gatemargin = 4$, $sourceperim = 6$, $drainperim = 6$, and $L/W = 2/6$. (b) The $L/W$ of non-branching transistors can be approximated. Here $gatemargin = 4$, $sourceperim = 6$, $drainperim = 10$. By averaging $sourceperim$ and $drainperim$ we get $L/W = 2/8$. (c) The $L/W$ of branching transistors is not well approximated. Here $gatemargin = 16$, $sourceperim = 2$, $drainperim = 2$. Magic's estimate of $L/W$ is $8/2$, whereas in fact because of current spreading, $W$ is effectively larger than 2 and $L$ effectively smaller than 8, so $L/W$ is overestimated.

5. Ext2sim

Unfortunately, none of our tools yet take advantage of the .ext files produced by Magic's extractor. To use these files for simulation or timing analysis, you need to create a .sim file. You can do this by running the program ext2sim, which is described in a separate manual page, ext2sim(1). Note that this is not a Magic command, but a separate program. Writers of tools that read .ext format will probably find the code for ext2sim a good starting point.
Magic Tutorial #8: Reading and Writing CIF

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
Magic Tutorial #2: Painting
Magic Tutorial #3: Cell Hierarchies

Commands covered in this tutorial:
:cif

Macros covered in this tutorial:
None.

1. Basics

CIF (Caltech Intermediate Form) is the primary file format used in our community to transfer layouts between unrelated organizations and design aids. In addition, designs must be placed into CIF format before they can be fabricated by MOSIS. This document describes how Magic can be used to read and write CIF files.

To write out a CIF file, place the cursor over a layout window and type the command

:cif

This will generate a CIF file called name.cif, where name is the name of the root cell in the window. The CIF file will contain a description of the entire cell hierarchy in that window. If you wish to use a name different from the root cell, type the command
:cif write file

This will store the CIF in file.cif. Start Magic up to edit tutorial8a (it's a CMOS cell: use the command magic -Tcmos tutorial8a) and generate CIF for that cell. The CIF file will be in ASCII format, so you can use Unix commands like **more** and **vi** to see what it contains.

To read a CIF file, place the cursor over a layout window and type the command

**:cif read file**

This will read the file file.cif (which must be in CIF format), generate Magic cells for the hierarchy described in the file, make the entire hierarchy a subcell of the edit cell, and run the design-rule checker to verify everything read from the file. Start Magic up afresh and read in tutorial8a.cif, which you created above. It will be easier if you always read CIF when Magic has just been started up: if some of the cells already exist, the CIF reader will not overwrite them, but will instead use numbers for cell names.

You shouldn't need to know much more than what's above in order to read and write CIF. The sections below describe the different styles of CIF that Magic can generate and the limitations of the CIF facilities (you may have noticed that when you wrote and read CIF above you didn't quite get back what you started with; Section 3 discusses this).

## 2. CIF Styles

Magic usually knows several different ways to generate CIF from a given layout. Each of these ways is called a **style**. Different styles can be used to handle different fabrication facilities, which may differ in the names they use for layers or in the exact mask set required for fabrication. Different styles can be also used to write out CIF with slightly different feature sizes or design rules. CIF styles are described in the technology file that Magic reads when it starts up; the exact number and nature of CIF styles is determined by whoever wrote your technology file. There are separate CIF styles for reading and writing CIF; at any given time, there is one current input style and one current output style.

The standard CMOS technology file provides an example of how different CIF styles can be used. Start up Magic with the CMOS technology (**magic -Tcmos**). Then type the commands

: :cif ostyle
 : :cif istyle

The first command will print out a list of all the styles in which Magic can write CIF (in this technology) and the second command prints out the styles in which Magic can read CIF. The CMOS technology file provides two output styles. The initial (default) style for writing CIF is **lambda=1.5**. This style generates CIF layers for the MOSIS 3.0/1.5 micron CMOS process, where each Magic unit corresponds to 1.5 microns. The second style is **plot**. In this style, Magic generates CIF layers that are exact reflections of the Magic layers. Although this
form of CIF is useless for fabrication or exchange with other tools, we use it along with the cifplot program to produce plots that look like what's on the screen. To output files in the plot style, type the command

:cif ostyle plot

and then generate CIF.

The standard CMOS technology file has two input styles. The first is lambda=1.5, which corresponds exactly to the lambda=1.5 output style and can be used to read in CIF that was written in that style. The second style is caesar_lambda=2. This style is provided for reading in files generated in Caesar using the cmos-pw technology. To transfer CMOS files from Caesar, write out CIF files with a scale factor of 200 then read them into Magic using the caesar_lambda=2 style. To transfer nMOS files from Caesar, write out CIF files with a CIF scale factor of 200, then read them in using Magic's standard nMOS technology and the lambda=2 input style.

Each CIF style has a specific scalefactor; you can't use a particular style with a different scalefactor. To change the scalefactor, you'll have to edit the appropriate style in the cifinput or cifoutput section of the technology file. This process is described in "Magic Maintainer's Manual #2: The Technology File."

3. Problems with Reading and Writing CIF

You may have noticed that when you wrote out CIF for tutorial8a and read it back in again, you didn't get back quite what you started with. Although the differences shouldn't cause any serious problems, this section describes what they are so you'll know what to expect. There are three areas where there may be discrepancies: labels, arrays, and contacts. These are illustrated in tutorial8b. Load this cell (it's in CMOS), then generate CIF, then read the CIF back in again. When the CIF is read in, you'll get a couple of warning messages because Magic won't allow the CIF to overwrite existing cells: it uses new numbered cells instead. The information from the CIF cell appears as a subcell named 1 right on top of the old contents of tutorial8b; select 1, move it below tutorial8b, and expand it so you can compare its contents to tutorial8b.

The first problem area is that CIF cannot handle labels unless they are points. Where you have line or box labels in Magic, CIF labels are generated at the center of the Magic labels. The label in _tut8x is an example of a line label that gets smashed in the CIF processing.

The second problem is with arrays. CIF has no standard array construct, so when Magic outputs arrays it does it as a collection of cell instances. When the CIF file is read back in, each array element comes back as a separate subcell. The array of _tut8x cells is an example of this. Most designs only have a few arrays that are large enough to matter; where this is the case, you should go back after reading the CIF and replace the multiple instances with a single array.

The third discrepancy is that where there are large contact areas, when CIF is read and written the area of the contact may be reduced slightly. This doesn't
reduce the effective area of the contact; it just reduces the area drawn in Magic. To see what’s happening here, place the box around tutorial8b and 1, expand everything, then type

: cif see CC

This causes feedback to be displayed showing CIF layer “CC” (contact hole). Magic generates lots of small contact vias over the area of the contact, and if contacts aren’t exact multiples of the hole size and spacing then extra space is left around the edges. When the CIF is read back in, this extra space isn’t turned back into contact. The circuit that is read in is functionally identical to the original circuit, even though the Magic contact appears slightly smaller.

There is an additional problem with generating CIF having to do with the cell hierarchy. When Magic generates CIF, it performs geometric operations such as “grow” and “shrink” on the mask layers. Some of these operations are not guaranteed to work perfectly on hierarchical designs. Magic detects when there are problems and creates feedback areas to mark the trouble spots. When you write CIF, Magic will warn you that there were troubles. These should almost never happen if you generate CIF from designs that don’t have any design-rule errors. If they do occur, you’ll have to either get a Magic wizard to help you, or read the document on technology files: it describes the problem and its solutions.
Magic Maintainer's Manual #1: Hints for System Maintainers

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
All of them.

Commands covered in this tutorial:
.*profile, .*runstats, .*seeflags, .*watch

Macros covered in this tutorial:
None.

1. Introduction
This document provides some information to help would-be Magic maintainers learn about the system. It is not at all complete, and like most infrequently-used documentation, will probably become less and less correct over time as the system evolves but this tutorial doesn't. So, take what you read here with a grain of salt. We believe that everything in this tutorial was up-to-date as of the March 1985 Magic release. Before doing anything to the internals of Magic, you should read at least the first, and perhaps all four, of the papers on Magic that appeared together in the 1984 Design Automation Conference.

2. Installing Magic
If you've received Magic from Berkeley on the 1985 VLSI Tools tape, then it shouldn't take much work to get Magic running. The tools tape should be read into ~cad, which means that there will be a binary version of Magic in ~cad/bin and a set of library subdirectories in ~cad/lib/magic. If this isn't so, then at the very least you'll need to get a Magic system library set up in ~cad/lib/magic/sys:
this directory contains information like technology files and colormaps and Magic can’t run at all without it.

If you’re running on a Sun you shouldn’t need to do anything besides what’s mentioned above. Just run Suntools and then run Magic.

If you’re running on a VAX with an attached color display, you’ll probably need to do some additional setup. If the display is an AED512 or similar display, it will be attached to the VAX via an RS232 port. Magic needs to be able to read from this port, and there are two ways to do this. The first is simply to have no login process for that port and have your system administrator change the protection to allow all processes to read from the port and write to it. The second way is to have users log in on the display and run a process that changes the protection of the display. There is a program called Sleeper that we distribute with Magic; if it’s run from an AED port it will set everything up so Magic can use the port. Sleeper is clumsy to use, so we strongly recommend that you use the first solution (no login process).

When you’re running on VAXes, Magic will need to know which color display port to use from each terminal port. Users can type this information as command-line switches but it’s clumsy. To simplify things, Magic checks the file \texttt{~cad/lib/displays} when it starts up. The displays file tells which color display port to use for which text terminal port and also tells what kind of display is attached. Once this file is set up, users can run Magic without worrying about the system configuration. See the manual page for \texttt{displays(5)}.

One last note: if you’re running on an AED display, you’ll need to set communication switches 3-4-5 to up-down-up.

3. Source Directory Structure; Making Magic

If you are working on ucbkim at Berkeley, the Magic sources are rooted in the directory \texttt{~magic/src}. At most other sites, the root for the Magic sources should be \texttt{~cad/src/magic}. All pathnames given in this manual will assume that your current working directory is the root of the Magic sources.

There are approximately 30 source subdirectories in Magic. Most of these consist of modules of source code for the system, for example \texttt{database}, \texttt{main}, and \texttt{utils}. See Section 4 of this document for brief descriptions of what’s in each source directory. Besides the source code, the other subdirectories are:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{doc} Contains sources for all the documentation, including \texttt{man} pages, tutorials, and maintenance manuals. Subdirectories of \texttt{doc}, e.g. \texttt{doc/emos}, contain the technology manuals. The Makefile in each directory can be used to run off the documentation. The tutorials, maintenance manuals, and technology manuals all use the Berkeley Gnu/Ditroff package, which means that you can’t run them off without Gnu/Ditroff unless you change the sources.
  \item \texttt{include} Contains installed (i.e. “safe”) versions of all the header files (*.h) from all the modules.
\end{itemize}
lib
Contains installed (i.e. "safe") versions of each of the compiled and linked modules (*.o).

installed
Contains a copy of each source file, include file, and Makefile from each of the modules. These files correspond to the installed .o files in lib.

magic
This directory is where the modules of Magic are combined together to form an executable version of the system.

cadlib
This is a symbolic link to the directory where Magic stores cell libraries and official installed versions of technology files and color maps. Normally, cadlib is a symbolic link to ~cad/lib/magic.

Magic is a relatively large system: there are around 250 source files, 100000 lines of C code, and as many as four maintainers working on the system at once. In order to make all of this manageable, we’ve organized the sources in a two-level structure. Each module has its own subdirectory, and you can make changes to the module and recompile it by working within that subdirectory. In addition to the information in the subdirectory, there is an "installed" version of each module, which consists of the files in the lib, include, and installed subdirectories. The installed version of each module is supposed to be stable and reliable. At Berkeley, when a module is changed, it is tested carefully without re-installing it, and is only re-installed when it is in good condition. Note that "installed" doesn’t mean that Magic users see the module; it only means that other Magic maintainers will see it.

By keeping modules separate, it’s possible for several maintainers to work at once as long as they are modifying different source subdirectories. Each maintainer works with the uninstalled version of a module, and links that with the installed versions of all other modules. Thus, for example, one maintainer can modify database/DBcell.c and another can modify dbwind/DBWundo.c at the same time.

Putting together a runnable Magic system proceeds in two steps after a source file has been modified. First, the source file is compiled, and all the files in its module are linked together into a single file xyz.o, where xyz is the name of the module. Then all of the modules are linked together to form an executable version of Magic. The command make in each source directory will compile and link the module locally; make install will compile and link it, and also install it in the include, lib, and installed directories. The command make in the subdirectory magic will produce a runnable version of Magic in that directory, using the installed versions of all modules. To work with the uninstalled version of a module, create another subdirectory identical to magic, and modify the Makefile so that it uses uninstalled versions of the relevant modules. For example, at Berkeley, there are subdirectories hamachitest, mayotest, oustertest, and wsstest that we use to test new versions of modules before installing them. If you want to remake the entire system, type “make magic” in the top-level directory (~cad/src/magic).
4. Summary of Magic Modules

This section contains brief summaries of what is in each of the Magic source subdirectories.

cif
Contains code to process the CIF sections of technology files, and to generate CIF files from Magic.

cmwind
Contains code to implement special windows for editing color maps.

commands
The procedures in this module contain the top-level command handling routines for layout commands (commands that are valid in all windows are handled in the windows module). These routines generally just parse the commands, check for errors, and call other routines to carry out the actions.

database
This is the largest and most important Magic module. It implements the hierarchical corner-stitched database, and reads and writes Magic files.

dbwind
Provides display functions specific to layout windows, including managing the box, redisplaying layout, and displaying highlights and feedback.

debug
There's not much in this module, just a few routines used for debugging purposes.

drc
This module contains the incremental design-rule checker. It contains code to read the drc sections of technology files, record areas to be rechecked, and recheck those areas in a hierarchical fashion.

ext2sim
The ext2sim directory isn't part of Magic itself. It's a self-contained program that flattens the hierarchical .ext files generated by Magic's extractor into a single file in .sim format.

extract
Contains code to read the extract sections of technology files, and to generate hierarchical circuit descriptions (.ext files) from Magic layouts.

fsleeper
Like ext2sim, this directory is a self-contained program that allows a graphics terminal attached to one machine to be used with Magic running on a different machine. See the manual page fsleeper(1).

gcr
Contains the channel router, which is an extension of Rivest's greedy router that can handle switchboxes and obstacles in the channels.

graphics
This is the lowest-level graphics module. It contains driver routines for AED and SunColor displays. The code here does basic clipping and drawing, but knows nothing about windows. If you want to make Magic run on a new kind of display, this is the only module that should have to change.
grouter

The files in this module implement the global router, which computes the sequence of channels that each net is to pass through.

macros

Implements simple keyboard macros.

magicusage

Like ext2sim, this is also a self-contained program. It searches through a layout to find all the files that are used in it. See magicusage(1).

main

This module contains the main program for Magic, which parses command-line parameters, initializes the world, and then transfers control to textio.

misc

A few small things that didn't belong anywhere else.

mpack

Contains routines that implement the Tpack tile-packing interface using the Magic database.

netmenu

Implements netlists and the special netlist-editing windows.

parser

Contains the code that parses command lines into arguments.

pr leak

Also not part of Magic itself. Prleak is a self-contained program intended for use in debugging Magic's memory allocator. It analyzes a trace of mallocs/frees to look for memory leaks. See the manual page prleak(8) for information on what the program does.

router

Contains the top-level routing code, including procedures to read the router sections of technology files, chop free space up into channels, analyze obstacles, and paint back the results produced by the channel router.

signals

Handles signals such as the break key and control-Z.

tech

This module contains the top-level technology file reading code, and the current technology files. The code does little except to read technology file lines, parse them into arguments, and pass them off to clients in other modules (such as drc or database).

textio

The top-level command interpreter. This module grabs commands from the keyboard or mouse and sends them to the window module for processing. Also provides routines for message and error printout, and to manage the prompt on the screen.

tiles

Implements basic corner-stitched tile planes. This module was separated from database in order to allow other clients to use tile planes without using the other database facilities too.

undo

The undo module provides the overall framework for undo and redo operations, in that it stores lists of actions. However, all the specific actions are managed by clients such as database or netmenu.
utils

This module implements a whole bunch of utility procedures, including a geometry package for dealing with rectangles and points and transformations, a heap package, a hash table package, a stack package, a revised memory allocator, and lots of other stuff.

windows

This is the overall window manager. It keeps track of windows and calls clients (like dbwind and cmwind) to process window-specific operations such as redisplaying or processing commands. Commands that are valid in all windows, such as resizing or moving windows, are implemented here.

5. Technology and Other Support Files

Besides the source code files, there are a number of other files that must be managed by Magic maintainers, including color maps, technology files, and other stuff. Below is a listing of those files and where they are located.

5.1. Technology Files

See “Magic Maintainer’s Manual #2: The Technology File” for information on the contents of technology files. The sources for technology files are contained in the subdirectory tech, in files like emos.tech and nmos.tech. The technology files that Magic actually uses at runtime are kept in the directory cadlib/sys; make install in tech will copy the sources to cadlib/sys. Technology file formats have evolved rapidly during Magic’s life, so we use version numbers to allow multiple formats of technology files to exist at once. The installed versions of technology files have names like nmos.tech15, where 15 is a version number. The current version is defined in the Makefile for tech, and should be incremented if you ever change the format of technology files; if you install a new format without changing the version number, pre-existing versions of Magic won’t be able to read the files. After incrementing the version number, you’ll also have to re-make the tech module since the version number is contained in the code that reads the files.

5.2. Display Styles

The display style file sources are contained in the source directory graphics. See “Magic Maintainer’s Manual #3: The Display Style and Glyph Files” for a description of their contents. Make install in graphics will copy the files to cadlib/sys, which is where Magic looks for them when it executes.

5.3. Glyph Files

Glyph files are also described in Maintainer’s Manual #3; they define patterns that appear in the cursor. The sources for glyph files appear in two places: some of them are in graphics, in files like UCB512.glyphs, and some others are defined in windows/window.glyphs. When you make install in those directories, the glyphs are copied to cadlib/sys, which is where Magic
5.4. Color Maps

The color map sources are also contained in the source directory graphics. Color maps have names like nmos.std. nmos is the name of the technology to which the color map applies, and std is a type of monitor. If monitors have radically different phosphors, they may require different color maps to achieve the same affects. Right now we only support the std kind of monitor. However, some other sites have monitors with an especially pale blue phosphor — those sites often have a pale colormap. When Magic executes, it looks for color maps in cadlib/sys; make install in graphics will copy them there. Although color map files are textual, you shouldn’t edit them by hand; use Magic’s color map editing window instead.

6. New Display Drivers

The most common kind of change that will be made to Magic is probably to adapt it for new kinds of color displays. Each display driver contains a standard collection of procedures to perform basic functions such as placing text, drawing filled rectangles, or changing the shape of the cursor. A table (defined in graphics/grMain.c) holds the addresses of the routines for the current display driver. At initialization time this table is filled in with the addresses of the routines for the particular display being used. All graphics calls pass through the table.

If you need to build a new display driver, we recommend starting with the routines for either the AED (all the files in graphics with names like grAed1.c), or the Sun (names like grSun1.c). For stand-alone displays, the AED routines are probably the easiest to work from; for integrated workstations, I’m not sure which will be easiest. Copy the files into a new set for your display, change the names of the routines, and modify them to perform the equivalent functions on your display. Write an initialization routine like aedSetDisplay, and add information to the display type tables in graphics/grMain.c. At this point you should be all set. There shouldn’t be any need to modify anything outside of the graphics module.

7. Debugging and Wizard Commands

At Berkeley, we use sdb to debug Magic on VAXes and dbx on the Suns (there’s no sdb for the Suns). The Makefiles are set up to compile all files with the -gold switch, which creates debugging information in sdb’s format. If you want to use dbx you’ll have to change this to a -g switch and recompile the world.

Because of the size of Magic and the way Unix handles debugging symbols, it’s extremely slow to compile a complete version of Magic with debugging information for everything, and the executable file ends up being enormous. To solve this problem the Makefiles are set up to strip off debugging information before installing. Thus, you have to link with uninstalled versions to get
debugging information. In most cases, debugging information is only needed for a few modules at a time, namely the modules you're currently modifying. The database module is set up to install with debugging symbols, since it seems to be involved in almost all debugging.

If you try to use `dbx`, you'll discover that Magic has too many procedures for the default table sizes; `dbx` runs out of space and dies. The solution is either to recompile `dbx` with larger tables or throw away pieces of Magic to reduce the number of procedures (we recommend the first alternative).

There are a number of commands that we implemented in Magic to assist in debugging. These commands are called `wizard commands`, and aren't visible to normal Magic users. They all start with `*`. To get terse online help for the wizard commands, type `:help wizard` to Magic. The wizard commands aren't documented very well. Some of the more useful ones are:

*`watch plane`

This causes Magic to display on the screen the corner-stitched tile structure for one of the planes of the edit cell. For example, `*watch subcell` will display the structure of the subcell tile plane, including the address of the record for each tile and the values of its corner stitches. Without this command it would have been virtually impossible to debug the database module.

*`profile on|off`

If you're using the Unix profiling tools to figure out where the cycles are going, this command can be used to turn profiling off for everything except the particular operation you want to measure.

*`runstats`

This command prints out the CPU time usage since the last invocation of this command, and also the total since starting Magic.

*`seeflags flag`

If you're working on the router, this command allows you to see the various channel router flags by displaying them as feedback areas. The cursor should first be placed over the channel whose flags you want to see.
Magic Maintainer's Manual #2: The Technology File

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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

Tutorials to read first:
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started
Magic Tutorial #2: Painting
Magic Tutorial #5: Design-Rule Checking

You should also read at least the first, and probably all four, of the papers on Magic that appeared in the ACM IEEE 21st Design Automation Conference, and the paper "Magic's Circuit Extractor", which will appear in the ACM IEEE 22nd Design Automation Conference. The overview paper from the DAC was also reprinted in IEEE Design and Test magazine in the February 1985 issue.

Commands covered in this tutorial:
.*watch

Macros covered in this tutorial:
none

1. Introduction

Magic is a technology independent layout editor. All technology-specific information—mask layers, design rules, etc.—comes from a technology file. There is a different technology file for each technology supported by Magic. You can run Magic with a different technology by specifying the -Ttechfile flag on the command line you use to start Magic, where techfile is the name of a file of the form techname.techn in either the current directory, or the library directory
~cad/lib/magic/sys. (The n is a numeric suffix to identify the version of the
technology file, which is currently 15).

This tutorial describes the contents of a technology file, and gives hints for
building a new one. It assumes that your current working directory is the Magic
source directory, ~magic/src on ucbkim, or ~cad/src/magic on other
machines.

A technology file is organized into sections, each of which begins with a single
keyword and ends with the single word end. If you examine one of the Magic
technology files in the directory ~cad/src/magic/tech, e.g., nmos.tech, you
can see that it contains the following sections: tech, planes, types, styles,
contact, compose, connect, cifoutput, cifinput, drc, extract, and router.
These sections must appear in this order in all technology files.

A technology file can contain comments, blocks of text beginning with the
characters “/∗” and ending with the characters “∗/”. Comments are ignored
when processing a technology file. In nmos.tech you can see several lines just
before the drc section (near the end of the technology file) that are of the form
“#define ...”. These lines are definitions of macros that may be used in
subsequent lines in the technology file.

The form of comments and macro definitions should look familiar to “C”
programmers, for good reason: the “C” macro preprocessor is used to expand
macros and eliminate comments. Technology files cannot be read directly by
Magic in their “raw” form; the “C” preprocessor is run to produce a Magic-
readable version of the technology file. The last section in this tutorial describes
more about installing technology files.

Each section in a technology file consists of a series of lines. Each line
consists of a series of words, separated by spaces or tabs. If a line ends with the
character “\”, the “\” and the following newline are ignored. For example,

width allDiff 2 
   "Diffusion width must be at least 2"

is treated as though it had all appeared on a single line with no intervening “\”.
The rest of this part of the tutorial will describe each of the technology file
sections in turn.

2. Tech section

Magic stores the technology of a cell in the cell’s file on disk. When reading
a cell back in to Magic from disk, the cell’s technology must match the name of
the current technology, which appears as a single word in the tech section of the
technology file. See Table 1 for an example.

It may seem that storing the technology name as part of the technology file is
redundant. The name of the technology file itself is often the name of a
technology, e.g., “nmos.tech15” for technology nmos, or “cmos.tech15” for
technology cmos. However, because the technology name is stored explicitly,
several different files can implement the same technology. This has the advantage
that cells designed with one technology file can be edited with any of the other
files implementing the same technology. Users who wish to extend standard
technologies by writing their own technology files can still use cells designed with
the standard technology, as long as the old cells are still design-rule correct in the
new technology.

3. Planes, types, and contact sections

The planes, types, and contact sections are used to define the layers used
in the technology. Magic uses a new data structure, called corner-stitching, to
represent layouts. Corner-stitching represents mask information as a collection of
non-overlapping rectangular tiles. Each tile has a type that corresponds to a
single Magic layer. An individual corner-stitched data structure is referred to as a
plane.

Magic allows you to see the corner-stitched planes it uses to store a layout.
We'll use this facility to see how several corner-stitched planes are used to store
the layers of a layout. Enter Magic to edit the cell tutorial2m. Type the
command:*watch poly-diff demo. You are now looking at the poly-diff
plane. Each of the boxes outlined in black is a tile. (The arrows are stitches, but
are unimportant to this discussion.) You can see that some tiles contain layers
(polysilicon, diffusion, poly-metal-contact, diff-metal-contact, and enhancement-
fet), while others contain empty space. Corner-stitching is unusual in that it
represents empty space explicitly. Each tile contains exactly one type of material,
or space.

You have probably noticed that metal does not seem to have a tile associated
with it, but instead appears right in the middle of a space tile. This is because
metal is stored on a different plane, the metal plane. Type the command:
:*watch metal demo. Now you can see that there are metal tiles, but the
polysilicon, diffusion, and transistor tiles have disappeared. The two contacts,
poly-metal-contact and diff-metal-contact, still appear to be tiles.

The reason Magic uses several planes to store mask information is that
corner-stitching can only represent non-overlapping rectangles. If a layout were
to consist of only a single layer, such as polysilicon, then only two types of tiles
would be necessary: polysilicon, and space. As more layers are added, overlaps
can be represented by creating a special tile type for each kind of overlap area.
For example, when polysilicon overlaps diffusion, the overlap area is marked with
the tile type enhancement-fet.
Although some overlaps correspond to actual electrical constructs (e.g., transistors), other overlaps have little electrical significance. For example, metal can overlap polysilicon without changing the connectivity of the circuit or creating any new devices. To create new tile types for all possible overlapping combinations of metal with polysilicon, diffusion, transistors, etc. would be wasteful, since these new overlapping combinations would have no electrical significance.

Instead, Magic partitions the layers into separate planes. Layers whose overlaps have electrical significance must be stored in a single plane. For example, polysilicon, diffusion, and their overlaps (enhancement-fet, depletion-fet, and buried-contact) are all stored in the poly-diff plane. Metal does not interact with any of these tile types, so it is stored in its own plane, the metal plane.

Contacts between layers in one plane and layers in another are a special case and are represented on both planes. This explains why the poly-metal-contact and diff-metal-contact tiles appeared on both the poly-diff plane and on the metal plane.

The planes section of the technology file specifies how many planes will be used to store tiles in a given technology, and gives each plane a name. Each line in this section defines a plane by giving a comma-separated list of the names by which it is known. The first name in the list is the canonical name of the plane. Any name may be used in referring to the plane in later sections, or in commands like the :*watch command you used earlier. Table 2 gives the planes section from the nMOS technology file.

```
planes
poly-diff,poly.diff
metal
end
```

Table 2. Planes section

Magic uses three other planes internally. The subcell plane is used for storing cell instances rather than storing abstract layers. The designRuleCheck and designRuleError planes are used by the design rule checker to store areas to be reverified, and areas containing design rule violations, respectively.

There is a limit on the maximum number of planes in a technology, including the internal planes. This limit is currently 8. To increase the limit, it is necessary to change MAXPLANES in the file database/database.h and then recompile all of Magic as described in "Maintainer’s Manual #1".

The types section identifies the technology-specific tile types used by Magic. Table 3 gives this section for the nMOS technology file. Each line in this section is of the following form:
Table 3. Types section

plane names

Each type defined in this section is allowed to appear on exactly one of the planes defined in the planes section, namely that given by the plane field above. For contacts types such as poly-metal-contact, the plane will be the contact's home plane; there will be other tile types used to represent the contact on the other planes it connects (this is described later in this section).

The next field is a comma-separated list of names. The first name in the list is the "long" name for the type; it appears in the .mag file and whenever error messages involving that type are printed. The user can name a type, e.g. in the :paint or :erase commands, by giving a unique abbreviation for any of its names.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tile type</th>
<th>Plane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>space</td>
<td>all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error_p</td>
<td>designRuleError</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error_s</td>
<td>designRuleError</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error_ps</td>
<td>designRuleError</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>checkpoint</td>
<td>designRuleCheck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>checksubcell</td>
<td>designRuleCheck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Built-in Magic types.

Magic has certain built-in types as shown in Table 4. Empty space (space) is special in that it can appear on any plane. The types error_p, error_s, and error_ps record design rule violations. The types checkpoint and checksubcell record areas still to be design-rule checked.
There is a limit on the maximum number of types in a technology, including all the built-in types. Currently, the limit is 40 tile types. To increase the limit, you'll have to change `TT_MAXTYPES` in the file `database/database.h` and then recompile all of Magic as described in “Maintainer's Manual #1”. A number of macros in `database.h` also depend on the value of `TT_MAXTYPES/32`. They are currently set up assuming that `TT_MAXTYPES` is between 33 and 64; if `TT_MAXTYPES` is changed to lie outside this region they should be changed. See the comments in `database.h` for more information. Because there are a number of tables whose size is determined by the square of `TT_MAXTYPES`, it is very expensive to increase `TT_MAXTYPES` much beyond 64.

```
contact
pmc poly metal
dmc diff metal
end
```

Table 5. Contact section

As mentioned before, contacts in Magic are represented on each plane containing material connected by the contact. Also mentioned before, though, each tile type defined in the `types` section appears on exactly one plane. This seeming conflict is resolved by having Magic automatically generate new tile types for each of the planes on which a contact appears. The `contact` section lets Magic know which types are contacts, and the planes that they connect.

Each line in the `contact` section begins with a tile type that is to be considered as a contact. This tile type is referred to as the `base` type of the contact. In Table 5, for example, the type `poly-metal-contact` is the base type of a contact. The remainder of each line is a list of tile types that are not contacts, each of which must have a different home plane. These tile types are referred to as the `component` types of the contact, and are the layers that would be present if there were no electrical connection. In the example, the component layers are `polysilicon` and `metal`.

New types get generated for all planes of a contact except for the home plane of its base type. In the example, this means that a new tile type will be generated to represent the contact on the metal plane. These generated types are called `images` of the contact. The type used to represent the contact on the poly-diff plane is `poly-metal-contact` itself. Figure 1 depicts the situation graphically. In later sections of the technology file, it is sometimes useful to refer separately to the various images of contact. A special notation using a “/” is used for this. If a tile type `aaa/bbb` is specified in the technology file, this refers to the image of contact `aaa` on plane `bbb`. For example, `pmc/metal` refers to the image of the poly-metal contact that lies on the metal plane, and `pmc/poly-diff` refers to the image on the poly plane, which is the same as `pmc`. 

- 6 -
Figure 1. A different tile type is used to represent a contact on each plane that it connects. Here, a contact between poly on the poly-diff plane and metal on the metal plane is stored as two tile types. One, pmc, is specified in the technology file as residing on the poly-diff plane; the other is automatically generated for the metal plane.

4. Styles section

Magic can be run on several different types of graphical displays. Although it would have been possible to incorporate display-specific information into the technology file, a different technology file would have been required for each display type. Instead, the technology file gives one or more display-independent styles for each type that is to be displayed, and uses a per-display-type styles file to map into the colors and stipplings specific to the display being used. The styles file is described in Magic Maintainer's Manual #3: "Styles and Colors", so we will not describe it further here.

Table 6 shows the styles section from the nMOS technology file. Each line consists of a tile type and a style number (an integer between 1 and 63). The style number is nothing more than a reference between the technology file and the styles file. Notice that a given tile type can have several styles (e.g., poly-metal-contact uses styles #1, #33, and #3), and that a given style may be used to display several different tiles (e.g., style #4 is used in enhancement-fet, depletion-fet, and buried-contact). If a tile type should not be displayed, it has no entry in the styles section.

5. Compose section

The semantics of Magic's paint operation are defined by a collection of rules of the form, "given material $X$ on plane $P$, if we paint $Y$, then we get $Z$", plus a similar set of rules for the erase operation. The default paint and erase rules are simple. Assume that we are given material $X$ on plane $P$, and are painting or erasing material $Y$. 

- 7 -
Table 6. Styles section

Table 7. Compose section

(1) You get what you paint. If the home plane of $Y$ is $P$, or $Y$ is space, you get $Y$; otherwise, nothing changes and you get $X$. 
(2) *You can erase all or nothing.* Erasing space or $Y$ from $Y$ will give space; erasing anything else has no effect.

These rules apply for contacts as well. Painting the base type of a contact paints the base type on its home plane, and each automatically generated type on its home plane. Erasing the base type of a contact erases both the base type and the automatically generated types.

It is sometimes desirable for certain tile types to behave as though they were "composed" of other, more fundamental ones. For example, in Tutorial #2 you saw that painting poly over diffusion produced enhancement-fet, instead of diffusion. Also, painting either poly or diffusion over enhancement-fet leaves enhancement-fet, erasing poly from enhancement-fet leaves diffusion, and erasing diffusion leaves poly. The semantics for enhancement-fet are a result of the following rule in the *compose* section of the nMOS technology file:

```
compose efet poly diff
```

Sometimes, not all of the "component" layers of a type are layers known to magic. For example, although both enhancement-fet and depletion-fet contain poly and diffusion, depletion-fet can be thought of as also containing implant (which is not a tile type). So while we can’t construct depletion-fet by painting poly and then diffusion, we’d still like it to behave as though it contained both materials. Painting poly or diffusion over a depletion-fet should not change it, and erasing either poly or diffusion should give the other. These semantics are the result of the following rule:

```
decompose dfet poly diff
```

The general syntax of both types of composition rules, *compose* and *decompose*, is:

```
compose type a1 b1 a2 b2 ...
de-compose type a1 b1 a2 b2 ...
```

The idea is that each of the pairs $a1 b1$, $a2 b2$, etc comprise *type*. In the case of a *compose* rule, painting any $a$ to its corresponding $b$ should give *type*, as well as vice-versa. In both *compose* and *decompose* rules, erasing $a$ from *type* gives $b$, erasing $b$ from *type* gives $a$, and painting either $a$ or $b$ over *type* leaves *type* unchanged.

Contacts are implicitly composed of their component types, so the result obtained when painting a type $Y$ over a contact type $C$ will by default depend only on the component types of $C$. If painting $Y$ doesn’t affect the component types of the contact, then it is considered not to affect the contact itself either. If painting $Y$ does affect any of the component types, then the result is as though the contact had been replaced by its component types in the layout before type $Y$ was painted. Similar rules hold for erasing.

A poly-metal-contact has component types poly and metal. Since painting poly doesn’t affect either poly or metal, it doesn’t affect a poly-metal-contact either. Painting diffusion does affect poly—it turns it into an enhancement-fet—so painting diffusion over a poly-metal-contact breaks up the contact, leaving
enhancement-fet on the poly-diff plane and metal on the metal plane.

The compose and decompose rules are normally sufficient to specify the
desired semantics of painting or erasing. In unusual cases, however, it may be
necessary to provide Magic with explicit paint or erase rules. For example, to
specify that erasing metal from a glass contact causes the contact to disappear,
the technology file contains the rule:

erase glass metal space

This rule could not have been written as a decompose rule because it is
asymmetric; erasing space from a glass contact does not yield metal. The general
syntax for these explicit rules is:

paint have t result [p]
erase have t result [p]

Here, have is the type already present, on plane p if it is specified; otherwise, on
the home plane of have. Type t is being painted or erased, and the result is type
result.

It's easiest to think of the paint and erase rules as being built up in four
passes. The first pass generates the default rules for all non-contact types, and
the second pass replaces these as specified by the compose, decompose, etc.
rules, also for non-contact types. At this point, the behavior of the component
types of contacts has been completely determined, so the third pass can generate
the default rules for all contact types, and the fourth pass can modify these as per
any compose, etc. rules for contacts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>connect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efet,dfet,dcap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Connect section

6. Connect section

For circuit extraction, routing, and some of the net-list operations, Magic
needs to know what types are electrically connected. Magic's model of electrical
connectivity used is based on signal propagation. Two types should be marked as
connected if a signal will always pass between the two types, in either direction.
For the most part, this will mean that all non-space types within a plane should
be marked as connected. The exceptions to this rule are devices (transistors). A
transistor should be considered electrically connected to adjacent polysilicon, but
not to adjacent diffusion. This models the fact that polysilicon connects to the
gate of the transistor, but that the transistor acts as a switch between the
diffusion areas on either side of the channel of the transistor.

The lines in the **connect** section of a technology file, as shown in Table 8,
each contain a pair of comma-separated lists of connecting types. Each type in
the first list connects to each type in the second list. This does not imply that the
types in the first list are themselves connected to each other, or that the types in
the second list are connected to each other.

Because connectivity is a symmetric relationship, only one of the two possible
orders of two tile types need be specified. Tiles of the same type are always
considered to be connected. Contacts are treated specially; they should be
specified as connecting to material in all planes spanned by the contact. For
example, poly-metal-contact is shown as connecting to several types in the poly-
diff plane, as well as several types in the metal plane. The connectivity of a
contact should usually be that of its component types, so poly-metal-contact
should connect to everything connected to poly, and to everything connected to
metal.

### 7. Cifoutput section

The layers stored by Magic do not always correspond to physical mask
layers. For example, there is no physical layer corresponding to depletion-fet;
instead, the actual circuit must be built up by overlapping poly and diffusion,
then covering the entire transistor area with a depletion implant. When writing
CIF (Caltech Intermediate Form) files, Magic generates the actual geometries
that will appear on the masks used to fabricate the circuit. The **cifoutput**
section of the technology file describes how to generate mask layers from Magic’s
abstract layers.

#### 7.1. CIF styles

The technology file can contain several different specifications of how to
generate CIF. Each of these is called a CIF **style**. Different styles may be used
for fabrication at different feature sizes, or for totally different purposes. For
example, some of the Magic technology files contain a style “plot” that generates
CIF pseudo-layers that have exactly the same shapes as the Magic layers. This
style is used for generating plots that look just like what appears on the color
display; it makes no sense for fabrication. Lines of the form

---

- 11 -
```plaintext
cifoutput
style fab4.0
scalefactor 200 200
layer NP poly,pmc,efet,dfet,dcap,bc
    labels poly,efet,dfet,dcap,bc
layer ND diff,dmc,efet,dfet,dcap,bc
    labels diff
layer NM metal,pmc,dmc,glass
    labels metal,pmc,dmc,glass
layer NI
    float-or dfet,dcap * 200 diff,bc 400
grow 100
    shrink 100
layer NC dmc
    squares 400
layer NC pmc
    squares 400
layer NG glass
layer NB
    float-or bc * 200 diff,dmc 400 dfet 0
grow 100
    shrink 100
end
```

Table 9. Cifoutput section

**style name**

are used to end the description of the previous style and start the description of a new style. The Magic command :cif style name is typed by users to change the current style used for output. The first style in the technology file is used by default for CIF output if the designer doesn’t issue a :cif style command. If the first line of the cifoutput section isn’t a style line, then Magic uses an initial style name of default.

### 7.2. Scaling

Each style must contain a line of the form

```
scalefactor scale [reducer]
```

that tells how to scale Magic coordinates into CIF coordinates. The argument scale indicates how many hundredths of a micron correspond to one Magic unit. Because of certain numerical problems with the CIF representation, scale must always be an even number. The second parameter, reducer, is optional. If it is
specified, it is used to increase the readability and decrease the size of CIF files. Each CIF coordinate is divided by reducer before being written to the CIF file, then a uniform upward scalefactor of reducer is specified once for the whole file. This has no effect on the CIF except to make the individual CIF numbers smaller and thereby reduce the sizes of CIF files. Reducer must be a positive integer, and must evenly divide into every other dimension specified in any statement for this style. Reducer must also divide one-half of scale. If this sounds confusing, the easiest thing is to leave reducer unspecified, in which case the value 1 is used.

7.3. Layer descriptions

The main body of information for each CIF style is a set of layer descriptions. Each layer description consists of one or more lines describing how to generate the CIF for a single layer. The first line of each description is one of

\[ \text{layer } \text{name} \ [\text{layers}] \]

or

\[ \text{templayer } \text{name} \ [\text{layers}] \]

These statements are identical, except that templayers are not output in the CIF file. They are used only to build up intermediate results used in generating the “real” layers. In each case, name is the CIF name to be used for the layer. If layers is specified, it consists of a collection of Magic layers and previously-defined CIF layers in this style; these layers form the initial contents of the new CIF layer. If layers is not specified, then the new CIF layer is initially empty. The following statements are used to modify the contents of a CIF layer before it is output.

After the layer or templayer statement come several statements specifying geometrical operations to apply in building the CIF layer. Each statement takes the current contents of the layer, applies some operation to it, and produces the new contents of the layer. The last geometrical operation for the layer determines what is actually output in the CIF file. The geometrical operations are:

\[ \text{or layers} \]
\[ \text{and layers} \]
\[ \text{grow amount} \]
\[ \text{shrink amount} \]
\[ \text{bloat-or layers layers2 amount layers2 amount ...} \]
\[ \text{bloat-max layers layers2 amount layers2 amount ...} \]
\[ \text{bloat-min layers layers2 amount layers2 amount ...} \]
\[ \text{squares size} \]
\[ \text{squares border size separation} \]

The operation or takes all the layers (which may be either Magic layers or previously-defined CIF layers), and or’s them with the material already in the CIF layer. The operation and is similar to or, except that it and’s the layers with the material in the CIF layer (in other words, any CIF material that doesn’t lie under material in layers is removed from the CIF layer). Grow and shrink will uniformly grow or shrink the current CIF layer by amount units, where amount is specified in CIF units, not Magic units.
Figure 2. The three different forms of **bloat** behave slightly differently when two different bloat distances apply along the same side of a tile. In each of the above examples, the CIF that would be generated is shown in bold outline. If **bloat-or** is specified, a jagged edge may be generated, as on the left. If **bloat-max** is used, the largest bloat distance for each side is applied uniformly to the side, as in the center. If **bloat-min** is used, the smallest bloat distance for each side is applied uniformly to the side, as on the right.

The three **bloat** operations provide selective forms of growing. In these statements, all the layers must be Magic layers. Each operation examines all the tiles in **layers**, and grows the tiles by a different distance on each side, depending on the rest of the line. Each pair **layers2 amount** specifies some tile types and a distance (in CIF units). Where a tile of type **layers** abuts a tile of type **layers2**, the first tile is grown on that side by **amount**. The result is or'ed with the current contents of the CIF plane. The layer "*" may be used as **layers2** to indicate all tile types. Where tiles only have a single type of neighbor on each side, all three forms of **bloat** are identical. Where the neighbors are different, the three forms are slightly different, as illustrated in Figure 2. Note: all the layers specified in any given **bloat** operation must lie on a single Magic plane. For **bloat-or** all distances must be positive. In **bloat-max** and **bloat-min** the distances may be negative to provide a selective form of shrinking.

Figure 3. The **squares** operator chops each tile up into squares, as determined by the **border**, **size**, and **separation** parameters. In the example, the bold lines show the CIF that would be generated by a **squares** operation. The squares of material are always centered so that the borders on opposite sides are the same.

The last geometric operation is called **squares**. It examines each tile on the CIF plane, and replaces that tile with one or more squares of material. Each square is **size** CIF units across, and squares are separated by **separation** units. A border of at least **border** units is left around the edge of the original tile, if
possible. This operation is used to generate contact vias, as in Figure 3. If only one argument is given in the squares statement, then separation defaults to size and border defaults to size/2. If a tile doesn’t hold an integral number of squares, extra space is left around the edges of the tile and the squares are centered in the tile. If the tile is so small that not even a single square can fit and still leave enough border, then the border is reduced. If a square won’t fit in the tile, even with no border, then no material is generated. The squares operation must be used with some care, in conjunction with the design rules. For example, if there are several adjacent skinny tiles, there may not be enough room in any of the tiles for a square, so no material will be generated at all. Whenever you use the squares operator, you should use design rules to prohibit adjacent contact tiles, and you should always use the no_overlap rule to prevent unpleasant hierarchical interactions. The problems with hierarchy are discussed in Section 7.5 below, and design rules are discussed in Section 9.

7.4. Labels

There is one additional statement permitted in the cifoutput section as part of a layer description:

labels Magiclayers

This statement tells Magic that labels attached to Magic layers Magiclayers are to be associated with the current CIF layer. Each Magic layer should only appear in one such statement for any given CIF style. If a Magic layer doesn’t appear in any labels statement, then it is not attached to a specific layer when output in CIF.

Figure 4. If the operator grow 100 is applied to the shapes in (a), the merged shape in (b) results. If the operator shrink 100 is applied to (b), the result is (c). However, if the two original shapes in (a) belong to different cells, and if CIF is generated separately in each cell, the result will be the same as in (a). Magic handles this by outputting additional information in the parent of the subcells to fill in the gap between the shapes.

7.5. Hierarchy

Hierarchical designs make life especially difficult for the CIF generator. The CIF corresponding to a collection of subcells may not necessarily be the same as the sum of the CIF’s of the individual cells. For example, if a layer is generated by growing and then shrinking, nearby features from different cells may merge together so that they don’t shrink back to their original shapes (see Figure 4). If
Magic generates CIF separately for each cell, the interactions between cells will not be reflected properly. The CIF generator attempts to avoid these problems. Although it generates CIF in a hierarchical representation that matches the Magic cell structure, it tries to ensure that the resulting CIF patterns are exactly the same as if the entire Magic design had been flattened into a single cell and then CIF were generated from the flattened design. It does this by looking in each cell for places where subcells are close enough to interact with each other or with paint in the parent. Where this happens, Magic flattens the interaction area and generates CIF for it; then Magic flattens each of the subcells separately and generates CIF for them. Finally, it compares the CIF from the subcells with the CIF from the flattened parent. Where there is a difference, Magic outputs extra CIF in the parent to compensate.

Magic's hierarchical approach only works if the overall CIF for the parent ends up covering at least as much area as the CIFs for the individual components, so all compensation can be done by adding extra CIF to the parent. In mathematical terms, this requires each geometric operation to obey the rule

\[ \text{Op}(A \cup B) \supset \text{Op}(A) \cup \text{Op}(B) \]

The operations and, or, grow, and shrink all obey this rule. Unfortunately, the bloat and squares operations do not. For example, if there are two partially-overlapping tiles in different cells, the squares generated from one of the cells may fall in the separations between squares in the other cell, resulting in much larger areas of material than expected. There are two ways around this problem. One way is to use the design rules to prohibit problem situations from arising. This applies mainly to the squares operator. Tiles from which squares are made should never be allowed to overlap other such tiles in different cells unless the overlap is exact, so each cell will generate squares in the same place. You can use the exact_overlap design rule for this.

The second approach is to leave things up to the designer. When generating CIF, Magic issues warnings where there is less material in the children than the parent. The designer can locate these problems and eliminate the interactions that cause the trouble. Warning: Magic does not check the squares operations for hierarchical consistency, so you absolutely must use exact_overlap design rule checks! Right now, the cifoutput section of the technology is one of the trickiest things in the whole file, particularly since errors here may not show up until your chip comes back and doesn’t work. Be extremely careful when writing this part!

8. Cifinput Section

In addition to writing CIF, Magic can also read in CIF files using the :cif read file command. The cifinput section of the technology file describes how to convert from CIF mask layers to Magic tile types. The section is very similar to the cifoutput section. It can contain several styles, with a line of the form

style name

used to end the description of the previous style (if any), and start a new CIF
input style called *name*. If no initial style name is given, the name *default* is assigned. Each style must have a statement of the form

```
scalfactor centimicrons
```

to indicate how many hundredths of a micron correspond to one unit in Magic.

```
cifinput
  style lambda=2microns
  scalfactor 200
  layer poly NP
    labels NP
  layer diff ND
    labels ND
  layer metal NM
    labels NM
  layer efet NP
    and ND
  layer dfet NI
    and NP
    and ND
  layer pmc NC
    grow 200
    and NM
    and NP
  layer dmc NC
    grow 200
    and NM
    and ND
  layer bc NB
    and NP
    and ND
  layer glass NG
end
```

Table 10. *Cifinput* section. The order of the layers is important, since each Magic layer overrides the previous ones just as if they were painted by hand.

Like the *cifoutput* section, each style consists of a number of layer descriptions. A layer description contains one or more lines describing a series of geometric operations to be performed on CIF layers. The result of all these operations is painted on a particular Magic layer just as if the user had painted that information by hand. A layer description begins with a statement of the form

```
layer magicLayer [layers]
```

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In the layer statement, magicLayer is the Magic layer that will be painted after performing the geometric operations, and layers is an optional list of CIF layers. If layers is specified, it is the initial value for the layer being built up. If layers isn't specified, the layer starts off empty. As in the cifoutput section, each line after the layer statement gives a geometric operation that is applied to the previous contents of the layer being built in order to generate new contents for the layer. The result of the last geometric operation is painted into the Magic database.

The geometric operations that are allowed in the cifinput section are a subset of those permitted in the cifoutput section:

   or layers
   and layers
   grow amount
   shrink amount

In these commands the layers must all be CIF layers, and the amounts are all CIF distances (centimicrons).

When CIF files are read, all the mask information is read for a cell before performing any of the geometric processing. After the cell has been completely read in, the Magic layers are produced and painted in the order they appear in the technology file. In general, the order that the layers are processed is important since each layer will usually override the previous ones. For example, in the nMOS tech file shown in Table 10 the commands for efet will result in the efet layer being generated not only where there are enhancement transistors but also where there are depletion transistors and buried contacts. The descriptions for dfet and be appear later in the section, so those layers will replace the efet material that was originally painted.

Labels are handled in the cifinput section just like in the cifoutput section. A line of the form

   labels layers

means that the current Magic layer is to receive all CIF labels on layers. This is actually just an initial layer assignment for the labels. Once a CIF cell has been read in, Magic scans the label list and re-assigns labels if necessary. In the example of Table 10, if a label is attached to the CIF layer NP then it will be assigned to the Magic layer poly. However, the polysilicon may actually be part of a poly-metal contact, which is Magic layer pme. After all the mask information has been processed, Magic checks the material underneath the layer, and adjusts the label's layer to match that material (pme in this case). This is the same as what would happen if a designer painted poly over an area, attached a label to the material, then painted pme over the area.

No hierarchical mask processing is done for CIF input. Each cell is read in and its layers are processed independently from all other cells; Magic assumes that there will not be any unpleasant interactions between cells as happens in CIF output (and so far, at least, this seems to be a valid assumption).
Table 11a. Abbreviations for sets of tile types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#define</th>
<th>allDiff</th>
<th>diff,dmc,bc,efet,dfet,dcap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>allPoly</td>
<td>poly,pmc,be,efet,dfet,dcap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>tran</td>
<td>efet,dfet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>contact</td>
<td>pmc,dmc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>allMetal</td>
<td>metal,pmc,dmc,glass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>allButEfet</td>
<td>s,diff,poly,dmc,pmc,be,dfet,dcap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>allpdTypes</td>
<td>s,diff,poly,dmc,pmc,be,dfet,dcap,efet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11b. Width rules in the drc section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>width</th>
<th>allDiff</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>&quot;Diffusion width must be at least 2&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>dmc</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&quot;Metal-diff contact width must be at least 4&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>allPoly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;Polysilicon width must be at least 2&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>pmc</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&quot;Metal-poly contact width must be at least 4&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;Buried contact width must be at least 2&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>efet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;Enhancement FET width must be at least 2&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>dfet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;Depletion FET width must be at least 2&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>dcap</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;Depletion capacitor width must be at least 2&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width</td>
<td>allMetal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>&quot;Metal width must be at least 3&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Drf section

The design rules used by Magic's design rule checker come entirely from the technology file. We'll look first at two simple kinds of rules, width and and spacing. Most of the rules in the drc section are one or the other of these kinds of rules.

9.1. Width rules

The minimum width of a collection of types, taken together, is expressed by a width rule. Such a rule has the form:

```
width types w error
```

where types is a set of tile types (a comma-separated list), w is an integer, and error is a string, enclosed in double quotes, that can be printed by the command :drf why if the rule is violated. A width rule requires that all regions containing any types in the set types must be wider than w in both dimensions. For example, in Table 11b, the rule

```
width dfet 2 "Depletion FET width must be at least 2"
```

means that depletion-mode devices must be at least 2 units wide whenever they
appear. The *types* field may contain more than a single type, as in the following rule:

```
width allMetal 3 "Metal width must be at least 3"
```

which means that all regions consisting of the types metal, poly-metal-contact, diff-metal-contact, or glass must be at least 3 units wide. Because many of the rules in the *drc* section refer to the same sets of layers, the `#define` facility of the C preprocessor is used to define a number of macros for these sets of layers. Table 11a gives a complete list.

All of the layers named in any one width rule must lie on the same plane. However, if some of the layers are contacts, Magic will substitute a different contact image if the named image isn’t on the same plane as the other layers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spacing</th>
<th>allDiff</th>
<th>allDiff</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>touching_ok</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Diff-diff separation must be at least 3&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacing</td>
<td>allPoly</td>
<td>allPoly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>touching_ok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Poly-poly separation must be at least 2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacing</td>
<td>tran</td>
<td>contact</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>touching_illegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Transistor-contact separation must be at least 1&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacing</td>
<td>efet</td>
<td>dfet,dcap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>touching_illegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Enhancement-depletion transistor separation must be at least 3&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacing</td>
<td>allMetal</td>
<td>allMetal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>touching_ok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Metal-metal separation must be at least 3&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacing</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>efet</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>touching_illegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Buried contact-transistor separation must be at least 3&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11c. Spacing rules in the *drc* section.

---

**Figure 5.** For design rule checking, the Manhattan distance between two horizontally or vertically aligned points is just the normal Euclidean distance. If they are not so aligned, then the Manhattan distance is the length of the longest side of the right triangle forming the diagonal line between the points.
9.2. Spacing rules

The second simple kind of design rule is a spacing rule. It comes in two flavors: touching_ok, and touchingIllegal, both with the following syntax:

```
spacing types1 types2 distance flavor error
```

The first flavor, touchingOk, does not prohibit types1 and types2 from being immediately adjacent. It merely requires that any type in the set types1 must be separated by a “Manhattan” distance of at least distance units from any type in the set types2 that is not immediately adjacent to the first type. See Figure 5 for an explanation of Manhattan distance for design rules. As an example, consider the metal separation rule:

```
 spacing allMetal allMetal 3 touchingOk
 "Metal-metal separation must be at least 3"
```

This rule is symmetric (types1 is equal to types2), and requires, for example, that a poly-metal-contact be separated by at least 3 units from a piece of metal. However, this rule does not prevent the poly-metal-contact from touching a piece of metal. In touchingOk rules, all of the layers in both types1 and types2 must be stored on the same plane (Magic will substitute different contact images if necessary).

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 6.** Design rules are applied at the edges between tiles in the same plane. A rule is specified in terms of type t1 and type t2, the materials on either side of the edge. Each rule may be applied in any of four directions, as shown by the arrows. The simplest rules require that only certain mask types can appear within distance d on t2's side of the edge.

The second flavor of spacing rule, touchingIllegal, disallows adjacency. It is used for rules where types1 and types2 can never touch, as in the following:

```
 spacing bc cset 3 touchingIllegal
 "Buried contact-transistor separation must be at least 3"
```

Buried contacts and enhancement mode transistors must be 3 units apart; they cannot touch. It is only with the touchingIllegal rules that types1 and types2 are not the same. In touchingIllegal rules, the layers in types1 and types2 may be on different planes; Magic will find violations between material on different planes.
Figure 7. If only the simple rules from Figure 6 are used, errors may go unnoticed in corner regions. For example, the polysilicon spacing rule in (a) will fail to detect the error in (b).

9.3. Edge rules

The width and spacing rules just described are actually translated by Magic into an underlying, edge-based rule format. This underlying format can handle rules more general than simple widths and spacings, and is accessible to the writer of a technology file via edge rules. These rules are applied at boundaries between material of two different types, in any of four directions as shown in Figure 6. The design rule table contains a separate list of rules for each possible combination of materials on the two sides of an edge.

In its simplest form, a rule specifies a distance and a set of mask types: only the given types are permitted within that distance on type$^2$'s side of the edge. This area is referred to as the constraint region. Unfortunately, this simple scheme will miss errors in corner regions, such as the case shown in Figure 7. To eliminate these problems, the full rule format allows the constraint region to be extended past the ends of the edge under some circumstances. See Figure 8 for an illustration of the corner rules and how they work. Table 12 gives a complete summary of the information in each design rule.

Edge rules are specified in the technology file using the following syntax:
Figure 8. The complete design rule format is illustrated in (a). Whenever an edge has \textit{type1} on its left side and \textit{type2} on its right side, the area A is checked to be sure that only \textit{OKTypes} are present. If the material just above and to the left of the edge is one of \textit{cornerTypes}, then area B is also checked to be sure that it contains only \textit{OKTypes}. A similar corner check is made at the bottom of the edge. Figure (b) shows a polysilicon spacing rule, (c) shows a situation where corner extension is performed on both ends of the edge, and (d) shows a situation where corner extension is made only at the bottom of the edge. If the rule described in (d) were to be written as an \texttt{edge} rule, it would look like:

\begin{verbatim}
edge poly space 2 allButPoly allButPoly 2 \
"Poly-poly separation must be at least 2"
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{edge types1 types2 d OKTypes cornerTypes cornerDist error \{plane\}}

Both \textit{types1} and \textit{types2} may be comma-separated lists of types; an edge rule is generated for each pair consisting of a type from \textit{types1} and a type from \textit{types2}. All the types in \textit{types1}, \textit{types2}, and \textit{cornerTypes} must lie on a single plane. See Figure 8 for an example edge rule.

Many of the edge rules in Magic have the property that if a rule is violated between two pieces of geometry, the violation can be discovered looking from either piece of geometry toward the other. Because this property is so common, Magic normally applies an edge rule only in two of the four possible directions: bottom-to-top and left-to-right, reducing the work it has to do by a factor of two. Also, the corner extension is only performed to one side of the edge: to the top for a left-to-right rule, and to the left for a bottom-to-top rule.

To allow for exceptions, an edge rule may be written as an \texttt{edge4way} rule instead of an \texttt{edge} rule, indicating that it must be checked in all four directions:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>type1</code></td>
<td>Material on first side of edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>type2</code></td>
<td>Material on second side of edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>d</code></td>
<td>Distance to check on second side of edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>OKTypes</code></td>
<td>List of layers that are permitted within <code>d</code> units on second side of edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cornerTypes</code></td>
<td>List of layers that cause corner extension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cornerDist</code></td>
<td>Amount to extend constraint area when <code>cornerTypes</code> matches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>plane</code></td>
<td>Plane on which to check constraint region (defaults to same plane as <code>type1</code> and <code>type2</code> and <code>cornerTypes</code>).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12. The parts of an edge-based rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><code>edge</code></th>
<th><code>diff</code></th>
<th><code>s,poly,pmc</code></th>
<th>1</th>
<th><code>s</code></th>
<th><code>s,poly,pmc</code></th>
<th>1 \</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Diff-poly separation must be at least 1&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge</code></td>
<td><code>poly</code></td>
<td><code>s,diff,dmc</code></td>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>s</code></td>
<td><code>s,diff,dmc</code></td>
<td>1 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Diff-poly separation must be at least 1&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge</code></td>
<td><code>dmc</code></td>
<td><code>s,poly</code></td>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>s</code></td>
<td><code>s,poly</code></td>
<td>1 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Diff-poly separation must be at least 1&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge</code></td>
<td><code>pmc</code></td>
<td><code>s,diff</code></td>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>s</code></td>
<td><code>s,diff</code></td>
<td>1 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Diff-poly separation must be at least 1&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge</code></td>
<td><code>tran</code></td>
<td><code>s</code></td>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>0</code></td>
<td><code>0</code></td>
<td>0 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Transistor overhang is missing&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge</code></td>
<td><code>s</code></td>
<td><code>tran</code></td>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>0</code></td>
<td><code>0</code></td>
<td>0 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Transistor overhang is missing&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge4way</code></td>
<td><code>bc</code></td>
<td><code>diff,dmc</code></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>allButEft</td>
<td>allp4Types</td>
<td>3 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Buried contact-transistor separation must be at least 4 on diff side&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge4way</code></td>
<td><code>dft</code></td>
<td><code>bc</code></td>
<td>3</td>
<td><code>bc</code></td>
<td><code>0</code></td>
<td>0 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Buried contact next to depletion transistor must be at least 5x2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge4way</code></td>
<td><code>tran</code></td>
<td><code>poly</code></td>
<td>2</td>
<td><code>poly,pmc</code></td>
<td><code>poly</code></td>
<td>2 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Polysilicon must overhang transistor by at least 2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>edge4way</code></td>
<td><code>tran</code></td>
<td><code>diff</code></td>
<td>2</td>
<td><code>diff,dmc</code></td>
<td><code>diff</code></td>
<td>2 \</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Diffusion must overhang transistor by at least 2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11d. Edge rules in the `drc` section.

`edge4way tran diff 2 diff,dmc diff 2 \  
"Diffusion must overhang transistor by at least 2"`

Not only are `edge4way` rules checked in all four directions, but the corner extension is performed to both sides of the edge. For example, when checking a
rule from left-to-right, the corner extension is performed both to the top and to the bottom.

Normally, an edge rule is checked completely within a single plane: both the edge that triggers the rule and the constraint area to check fall in the same plane. However, the plane argument can be specified in an edge rule to force Magic to perform the constraint check on a plane different from the one containing the triggering edge. In this case, OKTypes must all be tile types in plane. This feature is used, for example, in our CMOS process to ensure that polysilicon and diffusion edges don’t lie underneath metal2 contacts:

```
edge4way allPoly notPoly 1 m2,glass,space 0 0 \\
"Polysilicon edges must not appear under m2contact" metal2
```

9.4. Overlap Rules

In order for CIF generation and circuit extraction to work properly, certain kinds of overlaps between subcells must be prohibited. The design-rule checker provides two kinds of rules for restricting overlaps. They are

```
exact_overlap layers
no_overlap layers1 layers2
```

In the `exact_overlap` rule, layers is a list of layers. If a cell contains a tile of one of these types and that tile is overlapped by another tile of the same type from a different cell, then the overlap must be exact: the tile in each cell must cover exactly the same area. Abutment between tiles from different cells is considered to be a partial overlap, so it is prohibited too. This rule is used to ensure that the CIF `squares` operator will work correctly, as described in Section 7.6. See Table 11e for the `exact_overlap` rule from the standard `amos` technology file.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>exact_overlap</th>
<th>dmc,pmc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no_overlap</td>
<td>efet,dfet efet,dfet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Table 11e. Exact_overlap rule in the drc section.

The `no_overlap` rule makes illegal any overlap between a tile in `layers1` and a tile in `layers2`. You should rarely, if ever, need to specify `no_overlap` rules, since Magic automatically prohibits many kinds of overlaps between subcells. After reading the technology file, Magic examines the paint table and applies the following rule: if two tile types A and B are such that the result of painting A over B is neither A nor B, or the result of painting B over A isn’t the same as the result of painting A over B, then A and B are not allowed to overlap. Such overlaps are prohibited because they change the structure of the circuit. Overlaps are supposed only to connect things without making structural changes. Thus, for example, poly can overlap poly-metal-contact without violating the above rules, but poly may not overlap diffusion because the result is efet, which is neither poly nor diffusion. The only `no_overlap` rules you should need to specify are rules to
keep transistors from overlapping other transistors of the same type.

10. Router Section

The **router** section of a technology file provides information used to guide the automatic routing tools. The section contains four lines. See Table 13 for an example **router** section.

```
router
layer1 metal 3 metal,pmc/metal,dmc/metal,glass 3
layer2 poly 2 poly,efet,dfet,deap,pmc,be 2 diff,dmc 1
contacts pmc 4
gridspacing 7
end
```

Table 13. **Router** section

The first two lines have the keywords **layer1** and **layer2** and the following format:

```
layers1 wireType wireType types distance types distance ...
```

They define the two layers used for routing. After the **layer1** or **layer2** keyword are two fields giving the name of the material to be used for routing that layer and the width to use for its wires. The remaining fields are used by Magic to avoid routing over existing material in the channels. Each pair of fields contains a list of types and a distance. The distance indicates how far away the given types must be from routing on that layer. Layer1 and layer2 are not symmetrical: wherever possible, Magic will try to route on layer1 in preference to layer2. Thus, in a single-metal process, metal should always be used for layer1.

The third line provides information about contacts. It has the format

```
contacts contactType size
```

The tile type **contactType** will be used to make contacts between layer1 and layer2. Contacts will be **size** units square. In order to avoid placing contacts too close to hand-routed material, Magic assumes that both the layer1 and layer2 rules will apply to contacts.

The last line of the **routing** section indicates the size of the grid on which to route. It has the format

```
gridspacing distance
```

The **distance** must be chosen large enough that contacts and/or wires on adjacent grid lines will not generate any design rule violations.


Table 14. Extract section

11. Extract Section

The extract section of a technology file contains the parameters used by Magic's circuit extractor. Each line in this section begins with a keyword that determines the interpretation of the remainder of the line. Table 14 gives an example extract section.

The keywords areacap, perimcap, overlap, and resist define the capacitance to substrate and the sheet resistivity of each of the Magic layers in a
layout. All capacitances that appear in the extract section are specified as an integral number of attofarads (per unit area or perimeter), and all resistances as an integral number of milliohms per square.

The areacap keyword is followed by a comma-separated list of types and a capacitance to substrate, as follows:

\[
\text{areacap types } C
\]

Each of the types listed in types has a capacitance to substrate of \( C \) attofarads per square lambda. Each type can appear in at most one areacap line. If a type does not appear in any areacap line, it is considered to have zero capacitance to substrate per unit area.

The perimcap keyword is followed by two comma-separated lists of types and a capacitance to substrate, as follows:

\[
\text{perimcap intypes outtypes } C
\]

Each edge that has one of the types in intypes on its inside, and one of the types in outtypes on its outside, has a capacitance to substrate of \( C \) attofarads per lambda. This can also be used as an approximation of the effects due to the sidewalls of diffused areas. As for areacap, each unique combination of an intype and an outtype may appear at most once in a perimcap line. Also as for areacap, if a combination of intype and outtype does not appear in any perimcap line, its perimeter capacitance is zero per unit length.

The resist keyword is followed by a comma-separated list of types and a resistance as follows:

\[
\text{resist types } R
\]

The sheet resistivity of each of the types in types is \( R \) milliohms per square.

Magic also extracts internodal coupling capacitances, as illustrated in Figure 9. The keywords overlap, sidewall, sideoverlap, and sidehalo provide the parameters needed to do this.

Overlap capacitance is between pairs of tile types, and is described by the overlap keyword as follows:

\[
\text{overlap toptypes bottomtypes } cap
\]

where toptypes and bottomtypes are comma-separated lists of tile types, and \( cap \) is a capacitance in attofarads per square lambda. The extractor searches for tiles whose types are in toptypes that overlap tiles whose types are in bottomtypes, and that belong to different electrical nodes. When such an overlap is found, the capacitance to substrate of the node of the tile in toptypes is deducted (for the area of the overlap), and replaced by a capacitance to the node of the tile in bottomtypes.

Sidewall capacitance is between pairs of edges, and is described by the sidewall keyword:
Figure 9. Magic extracts three kinds of internodal coupling capacitance. This figure is a cross-section of a set of masks that shows all three kinds of capacitance. Overlap capacitance is parallel-plate capacitance between two different kinds of material when they overlap. Sidewall capacitance is parallel-plate capacitance between the vertical edges of two pieces of the same kind of material. Sidewall overlap capacitance is orthogonal-plate capacitance between the vertical edge of one piece of material and the horizontal surface of another piece of material that overlaps the first edge.

Figure 10. Sidewall capacitance is between pairs of edges. The capacitance applies between the tiles tinside and tfar above, where tinside's type is one of intypes, and tfar's type is one of fartypes.

sidewall intypes outtypes neartypes fartypes cap

where intypes, outtypes, neartypes, and fartypes are all comma-separated lists of tile types, described in Figure 10. Cap is a capacitance in attofarads per lambda when the edges are 2 lambda apart. Sidewall coupling capacitance is inversely proportional to the distance between two edges: at 1 lambda separation, it is twice the value cap; at 4 lambda separation, it is half of cap.

To reduce the amount of searching done by Magic, it is possible to set a threshold distance beyond which the effects of sidewall coupling capacitance are ignored. This is done as follows:

sidehalo distance

where distance is the maximum distance between two edges at which Magic considers them to have sidewall coupling capacitance.
Sidewall overlap capacitance is between material on the inside of an edge and overlapping material of a different type. It is described by the \texttt{sideoverlap} keyword:

```
sideoverlap intypes outtypes outtypes cap
```

where \texttt{intras}, \texttt{outtypes}, and \texttt{outtypes} are comma-separated lists of types, and \textit{cap} is capacitance in attofarads per lambda. This is the capacitance associated with an edge with a type in \texttt{intypes} on its inside and a type in \texttt{outtypes} on its outside, that overlaps a tile whose type is in \texttt{outtypes}. See Figure 9.

Transistors are represented in Magic by explicit tiletypes. The extraction of a fet (with gate, sources, and drains) from a collection of transistor tiles is governed by the information in a \texttt{fet} line. This line has the following format:

```
fet types ngtypes min-terms name snode gscap gccap
```

\textit{Types} is a comma-separated list of those tiletypes that make up this type of transistor. Normally, there will be only one type in this list, since Magic usually represents each type of transistor with a different tiletype.

\textit{Ngtypes} is a comma-separated list of those tiletypes that connect to the non-gate terminals of the fet. Each transistor of this type must have at least \textit{min-terms} distinct non-gate terminals; otherwise, the extractor will generate an error message. For example, an \texttt{efet} in the nMOS technology must have a source and drain in addition to its gate; \textit{min-terms} for this type of fet is 2. The tiletypes connecting to the gate of the fet are the same as those specified in the \texttt{connect} section as connecting to the fet tiletype itself.

\textit{Name} is a string used to identify this type of transistor to simulation programs. \textit{Snnode} is the name of the node to which the substrate of this transistor is connected. \textit{Gscap} is the capacitance between the transistor's gate and its non-gate terminals, in attofarads per lambda. Finally, \textit{gcaps} is the capacitance between the gate and the channel, in attofarads per square lambda. \textit{Currently}, \textit{gscap and gcaps are unused by the extractor}.

Often the units in the extracted circuit for a cell will always be multiples of certain basic units larger than centimicrons for distance, attofarads for capacitance, or milliohms for resistance. To allow larger units to be used in the \texttt{.ext} file for this technology, thereby reducing the file's size, the \texttt{extract} section may specify a scale for any of the three units, as follows:

```
cscale c
lambda l
rscale r
```

In the above, \textit{c} is the number of attofarads per unit capacitance appearing in the \texttt{.ext} files, \textit{l} is the number of centimicrons per unit length, and \textit{r} is the number of milliohms per unit resistance. All three must be integers. \textit{r} should divide evenly all the resistance-per-square values specified as part of \texttt{resist} lines. \textit{c} should divide evenly all the capacitance-per-unit values specified as part of \texttt{areacap} or \texttt{perimcap} lines.
12. Installing a Technology File

As mentioned earlier, "raw" technology files cannot be read directly by Magic. The C preprocessor must first be used to eliminate comments and expand macros in a technology file before it gets installed. As a consequence, the full power of the C preprocessor is available to the writer of a technology file. Not only may macro definitions be made with \#define, but "conditional compilation" using \#ifdef and the ability to use other files via the \#include mechanism are possible.

Technology files are installed as a file of the name techname.techn. The numeric version suffix n (currently 15) is added to the final .tech when the file is installed, and allows multiple versions of the technology file to coexist in the same directory. There is a shell script, tech/techinstall, to do all the necessary processing to install a new technology file.

Technology files can be installed in any directory. When Magic is run, it searches for a technology file first in the current directory and next in the system library directory, ~cad/lib/magic/sys. To install a new technology file whose source is techname.tech, run:

```
tech/techinstall techname.tech vers dir
```

where dir is the directory in which the technology file is to be installed, and vers is the proper version suffix to insure that this technology file is readable by the latest version of Magic. See the Makefile in tech for the string VERSION, which defines the current version number.
Magic Maintainer's Manual #3:  
The Display Style and Glyph Files

Robert N. Mayo

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Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences  
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This tutorial corresponds to Magic version 3.

This tutorial corresponds to display style format version 4 (.dstyle4 extension)  
This tutorial corresponds to glyph format version 0 (.glyph extension).

Tutorials to read first:  
Magic Tutorial #1: Getting Started

Commands covered in this tutorial:  
none

Macros covered in this tutorial:  
none

1. Introduction

This document describes the display style (.dstyle) files and the glyph (.glyph) files.  There can be one display style file for each display-technology combination, and there is one glyph file for each display type.  The display style file technology.device.dstyle describes how the bitmap for display type device should be used for technology technology.  The glyph file device.glyphs contains the cursors to be used for that particular display.  If the technology file for a particular device is not found, then Magic uses the file technology.DEFAULT.dstyle.  In a similar fashion, Magic uses the file DEFAULT.glyphs if the device-specific glyphs file is not present.
2. Display Style Files

There are 2 sections to a display style file. The first is the display_styles section, and the other is the stipples section.

2.1. display_styles section

This section contains many lines. Each line describes one type of color that the display can draw, and how to draw it. For example, one line might specify how to draw red (for polysilicon) or how to draw the window borders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Write Mask</th>
<th>Color</th>
<th>Outline</th>
<th>Fill</th>
<th>Stipple</th>
<th>Short Name</th>
<th>Long Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>stipple</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>example</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each line consists of fields separated by white space. The first field is the style number in decimal, as defined in styles.h. Style numbers 1 through 64 are for layout geometries, as referenced in the technology file. Styles 65-128 are for layout geometries when they are not being edited. Add 64 to the style number for normal layout geometry to get the style number of that style in non-edit cells. Styles 129 through 254 are for technology-independent colors such as window borders, the color of the box tool, colors used for debugging, etc. (see styles.h for details). They are not normally changed for new technologies, but they can be. Styles 0 and 255 are reserved for internal Magic use and should not be defined.

The next two fields of a style line are the write-mask and color, both specified in octal. For each pixel in the area to be drawn, only those bits that are in the write-mask will be changed, and they will be changed to match the bits in the color. The function is:

\[
\text{newPixel} = (\text{oldPixel} \& \neg \text{write-mask}) \mid (\text{color} \& \text{write-mask}).
\]

The fourth field is the outline field, specified in octal. A 000 for this field specifies no outline, while 377 specifies a solid outline. Other values specify some sort of dashed outline, according to the bit-pattern of the number.

The fifth field specifies how the area being drawn should be filled. The choices are solid, stipple, cross, outline, and grid. Solid areas are completely written with the specified write-mask and color, while stippled areas only have some pixels written, as specified by the next field. A cross fill style is drawn as 2 diagonal lines between opposite corners of the area to be drawn. The outline fill style only draws the outline and not the inside of the area. The grid style is a special style that draws lines on the lambda grid using the pattern specified by the outline field.

The next field is the stipple number. It only has significance if the fill style is stipple. It refers to a stipple pattern which is explained later on in this tutorial.

The next field is a one-character name for this style. This name is used in the specification of glyphs (such as cursors) and is referred to in some of the Magic code. If there is no name a dash is put in this field.
The last field is the long name of the style. Currently this is just a comment, but in the future it might have other uses.

When redisplay is done, the styles are drawn in ascending order. This fact is used when designing the colors. Some colors ‘or’ together, these are called transparent colors. The later colors overwrite all bits in the pixel, these are called opaque colors. This is the same scheme used in Caesar. For more information, see John K. Ousterhout, “The User Interface and Implementation of Caesar”, Report No. UCB/CSD 83/131, University of California, Berkeley, California, August, 1983.

2.2. stipple section

This section describes the pattern of bits for stipple patterns. There may be up to 16 stipple patterns, numbered 0 through 15. The pattern consists of eight eight-bit fields specified in octal. This is interpreted as a 8 by 8 array of bits. A one in a position indicates that that position should be written, while a zero indicates that that position should be left alone.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Stipple Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stipple Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Glyph Files

Glyph files describe sets of icons. Currently Magic uses these only for cursors. The first non-blank, non-comment line in the file begins with the keyword size, followed by the number of glyphs in the file, the width in pixels of a glyph, and the height in pixels of a glyph. All glyphs in a file must have the same width and height.

After the first line are lines describing the pixels in the glyphs, one line for each row of each glyph. Blank lines are ignored, as are lines with a ‘#’ in column 1. Each line consists of 2 characters for each pixel. The first character is the short name of a display style, as listed in the display styles file. The short name ‘*’ indicates a transparent pixel. The second character is normally a blank. If the second character is an ‘*’ instead of a blank, then the origin of the glyph (for pointing purposes) is set to this pixel. Something unspecified will occur if the second character is something other than a blank or an ‘*’, or if more than 1 pixel in a glyph has an ‘*’. In general, glyphs may contain lots of colors. SUN cursors,
however, must be black and white only.

Glyph files that are cursors for Magic (i.e. file name *device.glyphs*) must have 19 cursors. The first cursor is the default pointer or crosshair. The second cursor is an alternate cursor that is not used by Magic in the current release. The next 4 cursors are for grabbing the corners of the box, and the next 4 are for grabbing the whole box. The following 8 cursors are similar to the 8 for the box except that they are for the window borders. The 19th cursor is a box cursor for the net-list editor.

```
# example glyph file with only one glyph
size 1 16 16

. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
K K K K . . . . . . K K K K
K K K K K K K *K K K K K K
K K K K . . . . . . K K K K
. . . . . . K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
. . . . . . K K K . . . . . .
```

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Magic Technology Manual #1: NMOS

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1. Introduction

This document describes Magic's NMOS technology. It includes information about the layers, design rules, routing, CIF generation, and extraction. This technology is the default one in Magic, and is also available by the name nmos (run Magic with the shell command magic -T nmos). The design rules described here are for the standard Mead and Conway NMOS process with butting contacts omitted and buried contacts added. There is a single layer each of metal and polysilicon. If you’ve been reading the Mead and Conway text, or if you’ve already done circuit layout with a different editing system, don’t forget that these are not the layers that actually end up on masks. Contacts and transistors are drawn in a stylized form that omits implants, vias, and buried windows.

2. Layers and Design Rules

2.1. Metal

There is only one layer of metal, and it is drawn in blue. Magic accepts the names metal or blue for this layer. Metal must always be at least 3 units wide and must be separated from other metal by at least 3 units.
2.2. Polysilicon

Polysilicon is drawn in red, and can be referred to in Magic as either polysilicon or red. It has a minimum width of 2 units and a minimum spacing of 2 units.

2.3. Diffusion

Diffusion is drawn in green, and can be referred to in Magic as either diffusion or green. It has a minimum width of 2 units and a minimum spacing of 3 units.

2.4. Contacts to Metal

Contacts between metal and polysilicon, and between metal and diffusion, have similar forms. Poly-metal contacts can be referred to as pmc or poly-metal-contact; they are drawn to look like metal running on top of poly, with an "X" over the area of the contact. Diffusion-metal contacts are similar, except that they look like metal running on top of diffusion, and have names dmc and diff-metal-contact. Contacts are drawn differently in Magic than they will appear in the CIF: you do not draw the via hole. Instead, you draw the outer
area of the metal pad around the contact, which must be at least 4 units on each side. Magic will fill in the appropriate via when CIF is generated. If you draw contacts larger than 4 units on a side, Magic will fill in as many 2-by-2 CIF via holes (with 2-unit spacings) as it can. Contacts areas must be rectangular in shape: contacts of the same type may not abut.

An additional kind of contact, called glass-contact, is used to generate holes in the overglass layer for use in bonding to pads. This layer is drawn as gray stripes over blue, and includes both metal and the overglass hole.

2.5. Transistors

There are three transistor structures in the NMOS technology. Enhancement transistors are known by the names efet and enhancement-fet, and are drawn to look like red over green, with green stripes. You get efet automatically when you paint poly over diffusion or vice versa. Depletion transistors are known by the names dfet and depletion-fet, and are drawn the same way, except with yellow stripes. A third type of material is called depletion-capacitor or dcap. It is displayed with yellow crosses over the transistor area, and is identical to dfet except that there are no overhang design rules for it since it is assumed to be used only as a capacitor. You do not draw any implants in Magic, but just use a different material for the transistor. Magic will generate the implants automatically. All transistors must be at least 2 units on each side, and there must be a poly or diffusion overhang for 2 units on each side of efet or dfet (this is not required for dcap). Poly must be separated from diffusion by at least one unit except where it is forming a transistor. Dfet and dcap must be at least 3 units from efet in order to keep the implant from contaminating the enhancement transistor.
2.6. Buried Contacts

Buried contacts go by the names **bc** and **buried-contact**. They are drawn in a brownish color (the same as transistors), except with solid black squares over their area. As with other contacts, you draw just the area where the two connecting materials (poly and diffusion) overlap; Magic will generate the CIF buried window, which is actually larger than the overlap area. Buried contacts come in two forms. The normal form is 2 units on a side, and no poly or diffusion overhang is required. The second form is used only next to depletion transistors, and is a 3-by-2 structure abutting the depletion transistor. This form is a little controversial, since it results in larger-than-normal variations in the size of the depletion transistor. As a consequence, you shouldn’t use this structure next to short dfets. In the butting bc-dfet structure, measure the transistor length from the bc-dfet boundary.

2.7. Transistor Spacings

Transistors must be spaced at least 1 unit from any contact to metal, in order to keep the contact from shorting the transistor. In addition, buried contacts must be at least 4 units from enhancement transistors in the diffusion direction. This rule applies only to the side of buried contact where diffusion leaves the contact.
2.8. Hierarchical Constraints

The design-rule checker enforces several constraints on how subcells may overlap. The general rule is that overlaps may be used to connect portions of cells, but the overlaps must not change the structure of the circuit. Thus, for example, it is acceptable for poly in one cell to overlap poly-metal contact in another cell, but it is not acceptable for poly in one cell to overlap diffusion in another (thereby forming a transistor).

For contacts, there are additional restrictions. A contact in one cell may not overlap a contact in any other cell unless the two contacts have same type and they occupy exactly the same area. Partial overlaps are not permitted, nor are abutting contacts of the same type (contacts of different types may abut, as long as the abutment doesn’t violate any other design rules). The contact restrictions are necessary to guarantee that CIF can be generated correctly in a hierarchical fashion.

3. Routing

If you use Magic’s automatic routing tools on an NMOS design, the routing will be run in metal and polysilicon, with metal as the primary layer. The routing will be placed on a 7-unit grid.

4. Reading and Writing CIF

There is only one CIF output style available in the NMOS technology: \texttt{lambda=2}. The CIF layers in this style, and their meanings, are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>polysilicon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NI</td>
<td>diffusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NM</td>
<td>metal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NI</td>
<td>depletion implant: generated around depletion transistors and depletion contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>contact via: generated as small squares inside poly-metal contacts and diffusion-metal contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB</td>
<td>buried window: generated around buried contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NG</td>
<td>overglass via: generated for overglass contacts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To see exactly where each CIF layer is generated for a particular design, use the \texttt{:cif see} command. There is also just one CIF input style. It is called \texttt{lambda=2} and can be used to read files written by Magic in the \texttt{lambda=2} style, or files written by Caesar using the standard NMOS technology with a scale factor of 200.
5. Extraction

Transistors of type efet or dfet in the NMOS technology must have at least two diffusion terminals. A diffusion terminal is a contiguous region along the perimeter of the transistor channel that connects to diffusion, as shown below:

![Diagram of two and three diffusion terminals.](image)

A transistor may have more than two diffusion terminals, in which case it is modelled as a collection of two-terminal transistors. If only one diffusion terminal is present, the extractor flags this as an error and outputs a transistor with the source and drain shorted together.

Transistors of the special type dcap may have as few as one diffusion terminal. Although their normal use is as capacitors, the extractor will output them as though they were a dfet. It is up to simulation programs to compute the capacitance of a dcap from the area and perimeter of its channel.

The NMOS technology file currently contains no information on parasitic coupling capacitances. As a result, overlap capacitance, sidewall coupling capacitance, and sidewall overlap capacitance will always be zero.
1. Introduction

This document describes Magic's CMOS technology. It includes information about the layers, design rules, routing, CIF generation, and extraction. Use the -T switch when running Magic to get this technology: type the shell command `magic -T cmos`. This technology is a preliminary version of the scalable 1.2/3.0 micron CMOS technology that will be supported by the MOSIS fabrication service. The final technology will probably be slightly different from what appears here. The technology provides two levels of metal. The layout rules are valid for both p-well and n-well. This means that you must place well contacts for both pdiffusion and ndiffusion.

Remember that the layers you'll draw in Magic are "abstract layers" or "logs", and do not correspond exactly to the mask patterns that will be used to fabricate your circuit. In general, the interconnect layers (metal2, metal1, poly, diffusions) will come out as you draw them here, but Magic will generate implants and wells automatically, and these may be bloated or shrunk versions of the various contacts and diffusions. You generally draw contacts in terms of the total overlap area between the layers being connected, not in terms of the via holes.
2. Layers and Design Rules

2.1. Second-level Metal

The top level of metal is drawn in a purple color, and has the names `metal2` or `m2` or `purple`. It must always be at least 2 units wide, and metal2 areas must be separated from each other by at least 4 units.

2.2. First-level Metal

The lower level of metal is drawn in blue and has the names `metal1` or `m1` or `blue`. It has a minimum width of 2 units and a minimum spacing of 3 units.
2.3. Polysilicon

Polysilicon is drawn in red, and can be referred to in Magic as either polysilicon or red. It has a minimum width of 2 units and a minimum spacing of 2 units.

2.4. Diffusion

Pdiffusion is drawn with a light brown color; Magic accepts the names pdiffusion and brown for this layer. Ndiffusion is drawn in green, and can be referred to as ndiffusion, or green. In Magic you do not have to draw wells or implants; Magic will generate the appropriate wells and implants needed to produce each type of diffusion. The basic design rules for the two kinds of diffusion are the same: they must be at least 2 units wide and have a spacing (to the same kind of diffusion) of at least 3 units. Spacing between pdiffusion and ndiffusion is discussed below. Since almost all of the design rules are the same for both types of diffusion, both pdiffusion and ndiffusion are drawn with the same cross-hatch in this document; where the difference is important, the different diffusions are labelled as p-type or n-type.
2.5. Metal2 Contacts

All contacts involve the metal1 layer. Contacts from metal1 to metal2 are called m2contact. They are drawn as an area of metal1 overlapping an area of metal2, with a cross through the contact area. Metal2 contacts must be at least 4 units wide. For large contact areas Magic will automatically generate many small via holes in the CIF. All contacts, including metal2 contacts, must be rectangular: two contacts of the same type may not abut.

There is an additional special rule for metal2 contacts: there must not be any polysilicon or diffusion edges underneath the area of the contact (it is hard to fabricate a metal2 contact over the sharp rise of the poly or diffusion edge). Polysilicon or diffusion edges may lie at the edge of a metal2 contact, as long as the poly or diffusion material is outside the contact. It is also acceptable for poly or diffusion to lie under a m2contact area, as long as it completely covers the area of the m2contact with an additional 1-unit surround.

2.6. Polysilicon and Diffusion Contacts

Contacts between metal1 and polysilicon go by the name pcontact. They must be at least 4 units wide everywhere, and in the direction(s) where metal enters or leaves the contacts they must be at least 5 units wide. Contacts between metal1 and diffusion are called ndcontact (for ndiffusion) or pdcontact (for pdiffusion), and need only be 4 units wide. Both poly contacts
and diffusion contacts are drawn as an overlap between the two layers, with a cross over the contact area. Polysilicon and diffusion contacts must be at least 4 units wide, and polysilicon contacts must be at least 5 units wide in any direction where metal leaves the contact. Polysilicon and diffusion contacts may abut each other but not contacts of the same type.

2.7. Transistors

P-type transistors are drawn as an area of poly overlapping pdiffusion, with brown stripes in the transistor area. Magic accepts the names pfet or ptransistor for this layer. N-type transistors are drawn as an area of poly overlapping ndiffusion, with green stripes in the transistor area. The names nfet, and ntransistor may be used. Transistors of each type can be generated by painting polysilicon and diffusion on top of each other, or by painting the transistor layer explicitly. The design rules are the same for both types of transistor: transistors must be at least 2 units on a side, must be surrounded by either poly or diffusion for 2 units on each side, and must be separated from nearby contacts by at least 1 unit. Polysilicon must be at least 1 unit away from diffusion, except where it is forming a transistor (adjacent poly and diffusion contacts are an exception to this rule).
2.8. Well Contacts

![Diagram of well contacts]

Each connected area of pdiffusion or ndiffusion (including ptransistor and ntransistor, respectively) must contain a well-contact. Well contacts associated with ndiffusion are called pwcontact (they connect to the p-well surrounding the diffusion). Well contacts associated with pdiffusion are called nwcontact: they connect to the n-well or n-type substrate. Well contacts are drawn as metal over diffusion of the associated type, with square black staples to indicate the well contact. Pwcontact must be tied to Ground, and nwcontact must be tied to Vdd. We don't have specific rules yet as to how many well contacts you should place. If you place too few, you risk latch-up in your circuit, so a good rule of thumb is to place one nwcontact for each ptransistor that has its source tied to Vdd, and one pwcontact for each ntransistor that has its drain tied to GND. The well contacts can abut other types of contacts. Well contacts must be at least four units wide in each dimension.

2.9. Spacings between P and N

![Diagram showing spacings]

Diffusions, transistors, and well-contacts of the n type must be far away away from those of the p persuasion, in order to leave room for a transition from one well type to the other. Ndiffer and pdiffusion must be 12 units apart. Well contacts can be one unit closer to material of the opposite sex, so nwcontact need
only be 11 units from ndiffusion, pwcontact need only be 11 units from pdiffusion, and nwcontact and pwcontact need only be 10 units apart.

2.10. Hierarchical Constraints

The design-rule checker enforces several constraints on how subcells may overlap. The general rule is that overlaps may be used to connect portions of cells, but the overlaps must not change the structure of the circuit. Thus, for example, it is acceptable for poly in one cell to overlap poly-metal contact in another cell, but it is not acceptable for poly in one cell to overlap diffusion in another (thereby forming a transistor).

For contacts, there are additional restrictions. A contact in one cell may not overlap a contact in any other cell unless the two contacts have same type and they occupy exactly the same area. Partial overlaps are not permitted, nor are abutting contacts of the same type (contacts of different types may abut, as long as the abutment doesn’t violate any other design rules). The contact restrictions are necessary to guarantee that CIF can be generated correctly in a hierarchical fashion.

2.11. Special Layers for Pads

There are four additional layers provided for pads and other special circuits where guard rings and special well configurations are needed. They should not be used in normal circuits. Two of the layers, nring and pring, are used to generate guard rings. Nring is used for guard rings around n-wells: it will result in an n+ diffusion area, and will also generate n-well over the area of the ring. Pring is used for guard rings around p-wells: it will result in a p+ diffusion area, and will also generate p-well over the area of the ring. For rings, wells are generated only over the area of the rings (whereas for normal diffusion the wells are generated by bloating the diffusion area): this means that guard rings can be placed at the edges of wells. The minimum widths and spacings are the same for the rings as for diffusions, but the required spacings to opposite diffusions are different. Consult your technology file for details. Nring and pring may be adjacent.

In addition to the ring layers, an additional layer pwell is provided. This layer has no design rules, and is used only to fill in well areas where there would be insufficient well material generated otherwise. This layer should never be needed (!?) but is provided just in case. Eventually there will probably be an nwell layer also.

The fourth extra layer is called glass. It is used to make holes in the overglass layer for bonding to pads. The glass layer includes metal2, metal1, plus overglass via.

You should only use the special layers under extraordinary circumstances, such as pad design. You’ll probably need to use the scif see command frequently when using these layers so that you can see exactly what mask material will come out in the end.
2.12. Hierarchical Constraints

The design-rule checker enforces several constraints on how subcells may overlap. The general rule is that overlaps may be used to connect portions of cells, but the overlaps must not change the structure of the circuit. Thus, for example, it is acceptable for poly in one cell to overlap poly-metal contact in another cell, but it is not acceptable for poly in one cell to overlap diffusion in another (thereby forming a transistor).

For contacts, there are additional restrictions. A contact in one cell may not overlap a contact in any other cell unless the two contacts have same type and they occupy exactly the same area. Partial overlaps are not permitted, nor are abutting contacts of the same type (contacts of different types may abut, as long as the abutment doesn’t violate any other design rules). The contact restrictions are necessary to guarantee that CIF can be generated correctly in a hierarchical fashion.

3. Routing in CMOS

If you use Magic’s automatic routing tools on a CMOS design, the routing will be run in **metal1** and **metal2**. **Metal1** is the primary routing layer and will be used wherever possible. In order for Magic to route to terminals, they will have to be on layers that connect to either **metal1** or **metal2**. For example, terminals may be on the **pcontact** layer (since it connects to **metal1**) but not on the **polysilicon** layer. In this technology, the router will use an 8-unit grid.

4. Reading and Writing CIF

There are two output styles available for CIF: The default style is **lambda=1.5**, which writes out CIF layers according to the preliminary specifications of the MOSIS 3.0 micron scalable CMOS process. The CIF layers are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>second-level metal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF</td>
<td>first-level metal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>polysilicon and transistor gates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>diffusion (both p-type and n-type)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CV</td>
<td>via: contact holes in metal2 contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>cut: contact holes in all other contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CW</td>
<td>p-well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td>p-plus implant mask: surrounds all n-type diffusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>overglass cut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you’re curious to see exactly where these layers get generated for a particular design, read about the `::cif see` command in the Magic tutorials or man page.

The second CIF output style is called **plot**. It isn’t useful for fabrication or further processing by programs; it is intended to be used only for plotting. The CIF layers are almost exact copies of the Magic layers:
### Name | Meaning
--- | ---
CS | metal2 layer  
CF | metal1 layer  
CP | polysilicon layer (includes transistors)  
CND | ndiffusion layer (includes contacts)  
CPD | pdiffusion layer (includes contacts)  
CV | m2contact layer  
CC | pcontact, nwcontact, and pwcontact layers  
CWC | nwcontact and pwcontact layers  
CNR | nring layer  
CPR | pring layer  
CPW | pwell layer  
CO | glass layer

For reading CIF, there are two styles. Style \( \text{lambda}=1.5 \) is the default; use it to read files that were written by Magic in style \( \text{lambda}=1.5 \). The second style is \( \text{caesar_lambda}=2 \). Use this style for porting designs from Caesar’s \text{cmos-pw} technology: write files from Caesar with a scale factor of 200, then read into Magic using style \( \text{caesar_lambda}=2 \).

## 5. Extraction

The CMOS technology has only two types of transistor: \text{pfet} and \text{nfet}. Both must have at least two diffusion terminals. A diffusion terminal is a contiguous region along the perimeter of the transistor channel that connects to diffusion, as shown below:

![Diagram](image-url)
A transistor may have more than two diffusion terminals, in which case it is modelled as a collection of two-terminal transistors. If only one diffusion terminal is present, the extractor flags this as an error and outputs a transistor with the source and drain shorted together.

The CMOS technology file contains values for only two kinds of parasitic coupling capacitance: overlap capacitance and sidewall coupling capacitance. Sidewall capacitance is only computed between parallel edges within 4 lambda of each other.
Using Crystal for Timing Analysis

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This user manual corresponds to Crystal version 2.

1. Introduction

Crystal is a program that analyzes the performance of VLSI circuits. Its input consists of a circuit description extracted from the mask layout by the Mextra program. Users also supply a few lines of text to guide the analysis. Crystal then determines how long each clock phase must be and outputs information about the portions of the circuit that cause the worst delays.

Crystal helps in performance tuning by pointing out paths that limit clock speed. It is intended for circuits designed using multiple non-overlapping clocks. It will determine the length of each clock phase, but will not check clock skew or set-up and hold times. Circuits using more complex timing disciplines may require additional timing analysis besides what Crystal provides.

This manual is a tutorial on how to use the Crystal commands to get accurate timing information. It should be used together with the Unix man page, which provides detailed syntax information along with more concise descriptions of the commands, options, and built-in tables. Crystal is easiest to understand if you try it out on simple test cases while you read the manual sections.
2. Timing Analysis versus Simulation

Crystal's approach is very different from simulation, so the way you'll use it is quite different from the way you use a simulator. The difference is that Crystal does not consider specific data values. When you use a simulator like SPICE, you invoke a run by giving specific values for all the inputs to the circuit. The simulator then tells you exactly what will happen at each node at each point in time. When using Crystal, the goal is to specify as little as possible about your circuit. You only give Crystal vague information about a few nodes in the circuits (usually the clocks). Wherever Crystal doesn't have specific information from you, it chooses the worst possible alternative. Crystal combines all these worst possibilities to find the overall slowest path through the circuit, which it presents to you.

Simulation results are only as good as the specific choice of test cases: if your test cases don't exercise a particular portion of the circuit, bugs in that portion may go undetected. The advantage of Crystal's value-independent approach is that it is guaranteed to find the worst-case timing behavior of the circuit. Crystal tries all possibilities at each point and picks the worst, so it doesn't depend on designer input to find the critical paths. Furthermore, Crystal does all this in a single run. Simulation requires separate runs for the different test cases, which can be expensive for large circuits.

The disadvantage of Crystal's approach is that it may examine paths that could not occur in the actual chip. For example, Crystal may examine a path whose first portion can occur only when signal A is zero and whose second portion can occur only when A is one. Unless the value of A has been specified explicitly, Crystal will assume that A could be zero in the first portion of the path and one in the second portion. False paths like this result in camouflage that may hide the true critical paths. To eliminate false paths, you restrict Crystal's analysis by fixing a few node values, by restricting the way that signals can flow through transistors, and by giving Crystal specific information about which nodes to watch. Sections 10 and 11 show how to do this. You should try to get by with as little additional information as you possibly can: if you restrict the analysis too much, you may accidentally prevent Crystal from examining the true critical path. The best way to use Crystal is to start out with no additional information, and then add only the bare minimum that's needed to eliminate the false paths.

Crystal is not a replacement for a simulator. Since it ignores most data values, it doesn't give any information about whether your circuit is functionally correct; it will merely tell you how fast it will run. However, by analyzing the timing behavior for you, it allows you to use a fast high-level simulator that ignores timing behavior (ESIM, for example) instead of a slow circuit-level simulator like SPICE. Crystal's models for timing are much simpler than SPICE's. This makes the program run fast, but produces less accurate results in some situations. Section 14 discusses Crystal's models in detail.
3. Signal Flow, Stages, and Delay Analysis

Crystal analyzes your circuit in terms of \textit{signal flow}. \textquotedblleft Signals\textquotedblright{} means zero or one signals, not current or electrons. Signals flow from sources to targets. Signal sources are the chip inputs and the Vdd and GND supply rails. In addition, nodes of the circuit that are labelled as busses are also considered to be signal sources in some situations (see Section 9). Signal targets are places where information is used: gates of transistors and the chip outputs. A \textit{stage} is a path leading from an signal source through transistor channels and other nodes to a target. If all the transistors in a stage are turned on, then a signal can flow from the source to the target. See Figure 1.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{circuit_diagram}
\caption{The path from Vdd to C through transistors 2 and 3 is a stage. If you tell Crystal that node A can fall at a certain time, Crystal will infer that node C might rise at a later time, node E might fall at a still later time, and node F rise latest of all.}
\end{figure}

To start a delay analysis, you give Crystal the time when some signal in your circuit rises or falls (usually this is the input pad for a clock signal). Crystal finds all the signal targets that can be reached from that node. For each target that is a gate, Crystal looks for stages that might be activated by the change in the gate. For each stage that it finds, Crystal computes the time when the stage's target will change value. Then if the target is a gate, Crystal repeats the whole analysis recursively by finding other stages that the gate change might activate. This continues until all possible consequences have been examined.

For example, in the circuit of Figure 1, if you tell Crystal that node A can rise at time 0, Crystal will realize that this change could activate a stage from GND to C through transistors 1 and 3. Whether or not this happens in the actual circuit depends on the value of B; if you haven't specified that value, Crystal will assume that it might be 1, so it will examine the stage. Using the information in the stage, Crystal will compute the delay to C, and use it to update the worst-case fall time for C. Since C connects to the gate of transistor 5, Crystal will then realize that when C falls, it could turn off the pulldown stage from GND through transistors 4 and 5 to E. This could activate the pullup stage from Vdd to E through transistor 6, so Crystal will examine that stage (of course, if node D is 0 then the pulldown stage was already turned off and the change in C has no effect; if you haven't explicitly told Crystal that D is 0, it will assume that it might be 1). Finally, when E rises it could activate the stage from GND through transistor
7 to F, so the worst-case fall time for F will be updated.

If the circuit has many input signals, you invoke the delay analysis again for each of them. Crystal remembers the worst delays seen in any of the analyses. After all the delay analysis has been done, you tell Crystal to print out the worst-case paths through the circuit. A path is a sequence of stages, each causing a change in the next. The worst-case path is the one whose final target reaches its final value later than any other node in the circuit. For example, the path from A to C to E to F is the worst case path in Figure 1. Information about the worst-case paths is recorded by Crystal as part of the delay analysis; you can control how many paths Crystal records.

4. Naming Nodes

Many of the Crystal commands take node names as parameters. A name can either refer to a single node or to a group of nodes. There are two forms for group names. The first form selects nodes whose names form a numerical sequence. The limits of the sequence are delimited by angle brackets (which are not part of the name). Thus, Bit<1:4> selects the nodes with names Bit1, Bit2, Bit3, and Bit4. To select a node whose name contains an angle bracket, use a backslash character in front of the bracket. For example, type TrueleftX<Y to select the node whose name is TrueleftX<Y. To get a backslash in a node name, use two backslashes in a row.

The second form of group name selects all nodes whose names contain a given pattern. The name is specified as a star followed by the pattern. Thus, *abc selects all nodes containing the pattern abc. Only simple pattern matching is done. The name * selects all nodes in the circuit.

5. How to Run Crystal

Invoke Crystal with the shell command

```
crystal file
```

where file is the name of a .sim file. If you want to modify Crystal’s timing models, then you should not specify file on the command line; use the build command to read the file in after changing the models. The .sim file should have been created by Mextra. If Mextra was run with the -o switch (thereby generating “N” lines in the .sim file), then Crystal will know about parasitic capacitances and resistances associated with wires. If the -o switch wasn’t specified to Mextra, then there will be “C” lines in the .sim file instead of “N” lines and Crystal will only know about parasitic capacitances. A .sim file shouldn’t contain both “N” and “C” lines. Note: Crystal will not work with .sim files generated by Cifplot using its -x option.

Crystal reads its commands from standard input and writes its output to standard output. Each input line consists of a command name followed by arguments. The fields are separated by spaces or tabs. Any unique abbreviation for a command name is acceptable. If the first character of a command line is an
exclamation point, then the whole line is treated as a comment and ignored.

Commands are divided into seven groups, which should appear in the following order:

Model commands

These commands modify the timing models that Crystal uses to compute delays, and must appear before the circuit is read in. The model commands are model, parameter, and transistor. See Section 14 for information on how the models work and how to change them.

Circuit commands

Circuit commands are used to input the circuit and provide additional information about it, such as inputs and outputs. The circuit commands are build, bus, capacitance, inputs, outputs, and resistance.

Dynamic node command

This group includes the single command markdynamic, used to find and mark the dynamic memory nodes in the circuit. Section 13 describes how to use this command.

Check commands

There are two commands in this group, check, and ratio. They are used to examine the circuit's structure for suspicious looking electrical features, and may be useful in pointing out places where you need to provide extra information to Crystal. See Section 12.

Setup commands

Setup commands are used to restrict the paths that Crystal can examine in any given delay analysis. This group includes the flow, precharged, predischarged, and set commands.

Delay command

This group contains only a single command, delay, which performs the actual delay analysis.

Miscellaneous commands

These commands are used to set internal options and print out results and statistics. They can be invoked at any time. Commands in this group are: alias, critical, dump, fillin, help, options, precapacitance, prfets, prresistance, source, statistics, and undump.

The only command outside these groups is the clear command, which resets information that was set by setup and delay commands. After clear, input may resume with anything except model commands. Clear is used to perform several different timing analyses (for example, for different clock phases) without having to read in the circuit again.
6. Simple Runs on Combinational Circuits

The simplest use of Crystal is for combinational (unclocked) circuits, where you are interested in knowing how long it takes for a change in an input to propagate throughout the circuit. Only four commands need be used: inputs, outputs, delay, and critical. First, you must identify to Crystal the circuit inputs (nodes that are driven by the outside world, such as input pads) and the circuit outputs (nodes whose values are used by the outside world). This information is used by Crystal in figuring out how signals can flow. For example,

```
inputs Bus<31:0> Select
outputs Overflow
```

identifies the 32 bus bits and the Select signal as inputs, and the Overflow signal as an output. See Section 9 for more on the inputs and outputs commands.

Delay commands are used to tell Crystal when input signals change value. For example,

```
delay BusBit 0 2
```

indicates that the latest time when BusBit will rise is time 0ns and the latest time when BusBit will fall is time 2ns. Crystal will then examine the consequences of this change to determine the latest possible rise and fall times for all other nodes affected directly or indirectly by BusBit. A negative time in a delay statement means that the transition never occurs:

```
delay Select -1 0
```

means that Select is initially 1, and will become 0 no later than time 0. Thus, only the falling transition of Select will be considered in the delay analysis. Many consecutive delay statements can be used where there are many inputs that change at different times.

After the delay commands, all that is needed is to print out the critical path. The critical command can be used for this. It requires no arguments.

7. Simple Runs on Clocked Circuits

Clocked circuits are handled like combinational circuits, except that there is a separate group of delay and critical commands for each clock phase. Typically, things in the circuit happen in response to the rising edges of clocks, and we'd like to know how long it takes for everything to stabilize once the clock phase has begun. Thus, there is usually a delay command of the form

```
delay Phil 0 -1
```

in the group for each clock phase. If no other delay commands are given, it is assumed that all other input signals stabilize long before the clock rises.

The command

```
clear
```

is used between the commands for the different clock phases; it clears out old
delay information. An alternate way to handle different clock phases is with a completely separate Crystal run. However, for large chips it takes a long time to read in the circuit so it is usually faster to process all clock phases in a single run.

![Diagram of clock phases](Image)

**Figure 2.** If Crystal doesn't know that Phase2 is zero, then during Phase1 analysis it will consider a path from the left end of the shifter all the way to the right end. If a `set` command is used to tell Crystal that Phase2 is zero, then Crystal won't propagate delays through the pass transistors that are turned off.

In addition to the `clear` commands between clock phases, `set` commands will be needed just before the `delay` commands for each phase. A `set` command indicates that a particular node will always have a particular value during the ensuing delay analysis. For example,

```
set 0 Phi<2:3>
```

indicates to Crystal that `Phi2` and `Phi3` will be 0 during the analysis. Crystal uses `set` information to avoid delay paths that cannot occur, as illustrated in Figure 2. The `clear` command will erase information from previous `set` commands; see Section 10 for more details on `set`.

Although the simple set of commands described above will work for many circuits, there are other circuits where it won't work very well. In particular, circuits with networks of transistors used for multiplexors or shifters require additional information that is discussed in Section 11. If only the simple commands are used for these circuits, Crystal will either produce pessimistic results or it will never finish. The sections below describe how to get more information out of Crystal and how to feed additional information into Crystal to produce more accurate results more quickly.

### 8. More on the Printing Commands

Besides the simple usage of the `critical` command, there are several additional ways that Crystal can print information. All of the printing commands are in the "miscellaneous" command group, so they can be invoked at any time.

#### 8.1. Graphical Command Files

The printing commands will generate graphical command files if you wish. The command files can be used to highlight nodes and transistors using layout editors like Caesar, Magic, and Squid. The default for such files is Caesar format (the `options` command can be used to change the format to Squid or Magic style). The `-g` switch is used to generate the command files. For example,

```
critical -g dum
```

will generate in file `dum` a list of Caesar commands that will highlight the critical path. To use a Caesar command file generated in this way, do the following: first,
edit the circuit in Caesar; second, select a view that contains the entire circuit (using the v short command if necessary); third, use the :source long command to process the command file. The commands will place splotches of the error layer along with labels to identify “interesting points” on the circuit. Boxes are pushed on the box stack so that you can step from one interesting point to another using the :popbox long command. The interesting points and labels are different for different Crystal commands. In the critical command, for example, the points are the gates of transistors along the worst-case timing path, and the label for each point shows the delay to that point.

8.2. Critical Paths

The critical command prints out delay paths through the circuit and has the following form:

```
critical [-g graphicsFile] [-s spiceFile] [textFile] number number ...
```

For each number given, information about the numberth slowest path in the circuit is output (Crystal only records a small number of the slowest paths; to change this number use the options command). If the -g switch is given, graphics output is generated. If the -s switch is given, a SPICE deck is generated for the critical path. If textFile is given, a textual description of the critical path is written to that file. If none of graphicsFile, spiceFile, or textFile is given, a textual description is output on standard output.

SPICE decks generated by Crystal contain circuit description cards and transient analysis cards, but no model cards; you should add your own model cards to the beginning of the deck. The circuit contains all the transistors and parasitic resistances and capacitances along the path, including gate-source and gate-channel capacitances for transistors that aren’t part of the path but connect to it. Node 0 is used for GND, node 1 for Vdd, and node 2 for the substrate body. Crystal generates a card for Vdd, but it doesn’t know what the body bias voltage is, so you must add your own card to the deck to generate it.

Crystal actually records three separate lists of slow paths, corresponding to different categories of nodes. The first list is for all nodes. The second list is for paths leading to memory nodes, and the third list is for paths leading to nodes that you have specially requested to be watched, using the watch command. Normally the numbers in the critical command refer to the overall list. However, if you end the number with the letter “m”, then the the numberth slowest path to a memory node is printed. For example, “1m” refers to the slowest path to a memory node. Similarly, the suffix “w” is used to refer to the list for watched nodes: “2w” refers to the next-to-slowest path leading to a watched node. The lists for memory and watched nodes are explained in Section 13.

8.3. Capacitance and Resistance Information

Precapacitance and pResistance have similar syntax and are used to print out nodes with large capacitances or resistances:
precapacitance [-g graphicsFile] [-t threshold] node node ...
prresistance [-g graphicsFile] [-t threshold] node node ...

For precapacitance the threshold is in picofarads, and for prresistance the threshold is in ohms. The thresholds default to zero. If no nodes are specified, then the entire circuit is searched for nodes whose capacitance or resistance is greater than the threshold. If nodes are specified, then only those nodes are considered. A line of output is generated for each node exceeding the threshold. For example, prcap abc will print out the capacitance at node abc, and prres -t 10000 will print out all nodes with lumped resistance greater than 10 kohms. The -g switch is used to generate a graphical command file. If Crystal encounters several nodes with exactly the same resistance or capacitance, only the first is printed. At the end of the printout, Crystal lists how many duplicate values were discarded.

8.4. Information about Transistors

The command

prfets node node ...

will print out lots of information about each transistor whose gate attaches to one of the nodes. If no node is given, then information is printed about all transistors.

9. Circuit Commands

Commands in the "circuit" group are used to read in the circuit and give Crystal additional information about it. Information from circuit commands lasts for the entire Crystal run, and isn't affected by clear or any other commands.

9.1. Reading in the Circuit

The command

build file

is used to read in the circuit. File is the name of a file in .sim format. If you type a filename on the command line when you invoke Crystal, then the build command is automatically invoked. However, if you wish to modify the circuit models, you must do so before reading in the circuit. In this case, don't give a filename on the command line, but use build instead. See Section 14 for information on changing the models.

If a node has been labelled several times, then Mextra picks one of those labels to identify the node. The other names are recorded in an alias file but are not used in the .sim file. If you'd like to use one of the aliases to refer to a node, rather than the name Mextra chose, you can use the command

alias file

to read in the "al" file produced by Mextra and add the aliases to the Crystal's
name table.

![Logic Diagram]

**Figure 3.** If Input isn't marked as an input, Crystal will not realize that it is a source of signals, and will mistakenly assume that a change at A has no effect on B.

### 9.2. Inputs and Outputs

These two commands were introduced in Section 6. They have the form

```
inputs node node ...
outputs node node ...
```

Crystal uses information about inputs and outputs to determine how signals can flow around the circuit: inputs and Vdd and GND are assumed to be sources of either a logic one or logic zero, and outputs and gates are assumed to be signal targets (places to which signals flow). If you forget to tell Crystal which nodes are inputs and/or outputs, it may miss some signal flows and overlook the critical path (see Figure 3). The check command can help to find nodes that should be marked as inputs.

Any input node that is not also an output node is assumed to be driven entirely from off chip. Crystal assumes that nothing on the chip can affect the value of the node, so if the node isn't used in a delay command, then Crystal will assume that its value never changes during the timing analysis. However, if a node is marked as both an input and an output, then Crystal will calculate delays to the node from the rest of the circuit. Usually only pads are marked as inputs, but this need not necessarily be the case. Marking a node as in input is roughly equivalent to applying a probe to the circuit at that point.

### 9.3. Changing Parasitic Values

Two commands are available to override Crystal's computation of parasitic capacitance and resistance:

```
resistance ohms node node ...
capacitance pfs node node ...
```

These commands will replace Crystal's computed value for the parasitic resistance or capacitance of one or more nodes with the specified value. There are at least two situations where this may be useful. For pads, there is relatively little capacitance on-chip, compared to the off-chip capacitance that must be driven. The capacitance command can be used to simulate the presence of the off-chip capacitance. The resistance command is used primarily to compensate for errors in the way Crystal computes resistances. To compute the internal resistance of a node, Crystal sums all of the internal resistances of all the wires connected to the node. All of the transistor gates attached to the node are assumed to be driven through all of the resistance. If a node has no branches this will give an accurate
result, but if the node has many branches then Crystal will substantially overestimate the resistance (this happens commonly for clock lines). The \texttt{resistance} command should be used to correct such situations. Since Crystal's resistance calculation is conservative, I suggest that you not use the \texttt{resistance} command until you discover that a bad resistance value is causing Crystal to overestimate the critical path.

\section*{9.4. Bus}

There are a few occasions where, without guidance from the user, Crystal will chase around the circuit almost endlessly during a \texttt{delay} command without getting anywhere. This section describes once such scenario, and Section 11 describes another one that is even more serious.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{bus_diagram.png}
\caption{Without any additional information, Crystal will make a separate examination of every path from an output in one cell to an input in another cell. If Crystal knows about the presence of the bus, it first examines all paths from outputs to the bus, then examines paths from the bus to inputs. This makes the analysis much faster.}
\end{figure}

One situation where Crystal works too hard is the case of a bus with many elements attached to it. Figure 4 shows such a situation. During delay analysis, Crystal will check separately each path from the output of each bus element to the input of each other bus element, resulting in total work proportional to the square of the number of elements on the bus. If Crystal is told that the connecting node is a bus, then it breaks up the paths into separate stages from the elements onto the bus and from the bus to the inputs of the elements. For $N$ elements on the bus, this results in $2N$ stages to examine instead of $N^2$. The \texttt{bus} command has the following syntax:

\begin{verbatim}
bus node node ...
\end{verbatim}

Nodes marked as busses are treated both as signal sources and as signal targets.

It is only safe to mark a node as a bus if its capacitance is much greater than the internal capacitances of its elements. If this is not the case, then delays through the supposed bus will be underestimated. Crystal automatically marks all nodes with more than 2 pf of capacitance as busses (the threshold value can be changed with the \texttt{options} command; to prevent Crystal from automatically marking busses, use a very high threshold).
10. Setup Commands

Commands in the "setup" group are used to give Crystal additional information to restrict the paths it examines in delay commands. The clear command will erase any information provided by setup commands.

10.1. Set

The set command indicates that a node is fixed in value. Its syntax is

\texttt{set 0/1 node node ...}

When you tell Crystal that a node is fixed in value, Crystal performs a simple logic simulation to see if that fixed value causes other nodes to be fixed as well. For example, if an input of a NAND gate is set to 0, Crystal will deduce that the output is fixed at 1. If an input of a NOR gate is fixed at 1, then the output must be 0, and so on. See Section 14 for a description of how Crystal does the logic simulation. When processing delays, Crystal checks transistors to see if their gates are fixed in value. If a transistor's gate is forced to the value that turns the transistor off, then no signals can flow through the transistor.

If a node is forced to a value by a set command, then Crystal assumes that its value can never change during the timing analysis; that node will never appear in a critical path. Because of this, you should use set sparingly, lest you accidentally mask the critical path. Normally, set is used only to turn off all clock phases but one and to disable diagnostic circuitry such as scan-in-scan-out loops.

10.2. Precharging

The commands

\texttt{precharged node node ...}
\texttt{predischarged node node ...}

indicate to Crystal that the nodes are precharged to 1 or 0, respectively. When a node is precharged, Crystal assumes that it has an initial value of 1 and can only change to 0. Delays that would pull the node to 1 are ignored. When a node is predischarged, Crystal assumes that it has an initial value of 0 and can only change to 1. Delays that would pull the node to 0 are ignored. Precharged nodes are assumed to be highly capacitive, so they are treated like busses.

11. Pass Transistor Flow

As mentioned in Section 9.4, there are a few situations where Crystal can end up doing more work than necessary. The most severe examples of this concern pass transistors. Because Crystal does not generally have information about specific data values, it may examine impossible paths through pass transistors. Figures 5 and 6 show two cases. In Figure 5, Crystal will produce a pessimistic delay to Output2 by examining a path that passes forward and backward through
Figure 5. If Crystal doesn't know about pass transistor flow, it will consider the impossible path shown in (a). If the pass transistor flow is labelled with attributes, as in (b), then Crystal will consider paths from Input1 to Output1 and from Input2 to both outputs, but it will not consider the path from Input1 to Output2.

the multiplexer. In Figure 6, there is an enormous number of contorted paths through the shifter array. Crystal will attempt to examine every distinct path, even though the values on the control lines will prevent most of the paths from occurring in the actual circuit.

Figure 6. Crystal will consider long snake-like paths through this barrel shifter structure unless pass transistor flow information is provided.

To keep Crystal from chasing impossible paths, you must give it additional information about which way signals flow through pass transistors. Flow is indicated using transistor attributes in the CIF files that are input to Mextra. A transistor attribute is a label (CIF "94" construct, or a standard Caesar label) that touches the gate region of a transistor and ends in the character "$". Crystal ignores all attributes unless their first characters are either Cr: or Crystal: . To indicate the direction of signal flow, attach an attribute to a transistor's source or drain; this is done by placing the label exactly on the line between the gate and the source or drain (attributes placed entirely within the gate region are attached to the gate of the transistor and are used to identify the type of the transistor; see Section 14 for details).
For pass transistors that are unidirectional, two special attributes, **In** and **Out**, may be used. To use the **In** attribute, place a label of the form `Cr:In$` or `Crystal:In$` on the source or drain edge of a transistor gate. This indicates that whenever a 0 or 1 signal passes through the transistor, the source of the 0 or 1 is on the same side of the transistor as the **In** attribute (i.e. the 0 or 1 flows into the transistor from that side). The **Out** attribute indicates just the opposite, namely that 0's and 1's flow out of the transistor at that side.

![Diagram of pass transistors with attributes](image)

**Figure 7.** Named attributes can be used to control flow in bidirectional structures. In this case, paths from a to b and from c to d will be considered, but the path from a to c to d will not be considered (flow must be unidirectional with respect to tags of a given name).

Bidirectional pass transistors cause special problems. To handle bidirectional structures, one terminal of each pass transistor in the structure should be labelled with an attribute other than **In** or **Out**. See Figure 7. These attributes limit the way that signals may flow through the array: Crystal only allows signals to flow unidirectionally with respect to the attributes. This means that Crystal will consider any path through the array as long as the signal either a) flows into each transistor from the labelled side, or b) flows out of each transistor from the labelled side. A path will be ignored if a signal enters one transistor from the labelled side and leaves another from the labelled side. This allows signals to cross the structure in either direction, but will not allow them to criss-cross back and forth.

If different bidirectional structures are labelled with different attributes, then they are treated independently by Crystal. For example, Crystal will consider a path that enters at one transistor at a side labelled `Cr:A$`, and leaves another transistor at a side labelled `Cr:B$`. However, if the attribute `Cr:A$` is used for both transistors then the path is ignored.

Only a small number of transistors in any design should need to have flow attributes. These transistors can be identified in either of two ways. The easiest way is to use the `check` command, described in Section 12 below, to identify candidates for flow tagging. The hard way is just to run Crystal: if you haven't placed enough tags, then either Crystal will suggest impossible critical paths, or it will abort the delay analysis because it found too many paths. In the first case, it will be easy to identify the transistors that need flow tagging by looking at the critical path. In the second case, you'll have to examine the backtrace information printed after the abort to try to identify the transistors that need tagging (see Section 16).
11.1. Flow

The `flow` command allows you to restrict flow through named attributes, and has the form

```
flow direction attribute attribute ...
```

*Direction* must be one of *in*, *out*, *off*, *ignore*, or *normal*. If *direction* is *in* then Crystal treats each of the attributes as if it was an In attribute, and if *direction* is *out* then the attributes are treated as if they were Out. If *off* is specified then no flow is allowed through any transistors with the given attributes. If *ignore* is specified, Crystal will pretend that the attributes don’t exist. If *normal* is given, the flow is reset to do the normal thing. All flow attributes are reset to *normal* by the `clear` command. The `flow` command has no effect on attributes In or Out.

12. Checking Commands

Two commands are provided by Crystal to perform a static electrical analysis of the circuit. They are only indirectly related to timing analysis, but are useful to find problems such as improper ratios, nodes that aren’t marked as inputs, and transistors that should have flow attributes.

12.1. Check

The command

```
check
```

makes a series of static electrical checks on the circuit. It prints out information about nodes with no transistors connected to them, nodes that are not driven from anywhere, nodes that don’t drive anything, transistors that are permanently forced off, and transistors connecting Vdd and GND directly. Each of these situations is probably an error. The `check` command also identifies transistors that are bidirectional (each side of the transistor has both a signal source and a signal target), but do not have any flow attributes attached. In most cases, bidirectional transistors should have flow attributes to keep Crystal from examining impossible paths.

12.2. Ratio

The `ratio` command has the form

```
ratio [limit value] [limit value] ...
```

and may be used for nMOS circuits to detect improper pullup/pulldown ratios. Normal logic gates are expected to have pullup/pulldown ratios between 3.8 and 4.2, while logic gates driven through pass transistors must have ratios between 7.8 and 8.2. Any ratios outside this range are printed out. If the same erroneous ratio occurs more than 20 times, only the first 20 are printed. The acceptable range may be changed using *limit-value* pairs. *Limit* is one of *normalhi*, *normallow*, *lowhi*, and *lowlow*.
normal, passhi, or passlow.

13. Multi-phase Signals, Memory Nodes, and Watched Nodes

Crystal treats clock phases in a very simple fashion: each clock phase is assumed to be long enough for the circuit to completely settle. The critical command indicates how long this takes. Although this approach will produce correct circuits, it is an overly pessimistic view of how clocks are used. In most clocked designs, some signals will settle over more than one clock phase. For example, the input latch for an ALU might be loaded during phase 1, and the output of the ALU might not be used until phase 2. In situations like this, Crystal will normally charge the ALU delay entirely to phase 1, leading to a pessimistic timing estimate.

![Diagram](image.png)

**Figure 8.** Because node A is a memory node, Phase 1 must be long enough for A to settle. Nodes B, C, and D need not settle during Phase 1: they can settle anytime during Phase 1 or Phase 2. However, if they don't settle during Phase 1, enough time must be allowed during Phase 2 for them to settle and for the value at E to settle also.

For a circuit to function correctly, it isn't really necessary for everything to stabilize during each clock phase. All that matters is that clock phases are long enough for memory cells to be loaded correctly. This means that there can be some tradeoff between the lengths of the various clock phases: see Figure 8 for an example. Ideally, Crystal should deal only with memory nodes: when analyzing clock phase 1, Crystal should compute delays to memory cells loaded in phase 1, memory cells loaded in phase 2, and so on. Then, instead of outputting a single time and critical path, there would be separate times and critical paths for delays between the leading edge of phase 1 and the trailing edges of phase 1, phase 2, and so on. Unfortunately, Crystal doesn't provide this much detail. Instead, it uses memory nodes to provide a first-order approximation to this.

During the delay command, Crystal keeps three separate records of worst-case delays: one for all nodes, one just for memory nodes, and one for watched nodes. In the critical command, you can use the "m" suffix to print out memory nodes. For example, critical 1m will print out the path to the slowest memory node. This simple facility allows you to ignore signals that need not settle during the current clock phase. However, if a signal starts settling in one clock phase and is loaded into a memory cell in the next clock phase, Crystal will not check that the sum of the two phases is enough for this to happen safely. I suggest that you examine critical paths both for memory nodes and for all nodes: check to see that memory nodes will settle before the end of the current clock phase, and that all nodes will settle before the end of the next clock phase.

There are two kinds of memory nodes in a MOS circuit, static and dynamic (see Figure 9). Static memory nodes are those like cross-coupled NAND gates
Figure 9. In (a), nodes False and True are static memory nodes. In (b), A is a dynamic memory node.

where there is an ever-present feedback path. Crystal detects such feedback paths during delay analysis and marks the memory nodes. However, Crystal cannot identify dynamic memory nodes without help from the user. At the beginning of analysis, you should use the `markdynamic` command to tell Crystal which nodes are dynamic memory. The command has the form

```
markdynamic node value node value ...
```

During the `markdynamic` command, Crystal sets each node to the given value just as if the `set` command had been used. Any nodes that are electrically isolated by these settings (i.e. all transistors connecting to them are forced off) are marked as dynamic memory. Normally, `markdynamic` is used by turning off all of the clock phases.

If Crystal's memory mechanism isn't discriminating enough to pick out all the important paths, there is one more mechanism available as a last resort. You can indicate certain nodes to be handled specially. These nodes are called "watched nodes" because you select them with the command

```
watch node node ...
```

A special third list of slow memory nodes will be used to record the slowest delays to watched nodes. This allows you to select key nodes and see the delays to those nodes, even if those delays aren't great enough to make the nodes appear on the overall list or the memory list. The danger of the watch mechanism is that it forces you to pick out the key nodes. If you forget a key node then you may end up missing the critical path. I recommend that you work as much as possible with the overall and memory lists, and only use the watch mechanism as a last resort.

14. The Models

Crystal's model of circuit behavior has two parts: one part is used to do logic simulation during the `set` command, and the other part is used to do delay calculations during the `delay` command. Both the simulation and delay models are based on transistor types: there are several types of transistors in the circuit, and each is parameterized by several values. The `man` page lists the predefined transistor types and the fields associated with each type. The subsections below tell how this information is used by Crystal, how to change the predefined
information, and how to define new transistor types.

14.1. Simulation

In order to do logic simulation, each type of transistor is given two integer strength values: `histrength` tells how strongly the transistor can pull to logic 1, and `lostrength` tells how strongly the transistor can pull to logic zero. The strength values are the same for all transistors of a given type, and are independent of the geometry of the transistor. For example, all nMOS enhancement transistors have a `lostrength` greater than the `histrength` of all nMOS depletion pullups.

During the `set` command, the nodes listed in the command are forced to a given value. Then Crystal sees if these settings cause any transistors to be forced on or off. If this happens, nodes on either side of the forced-on or forced-off transistors may be forced to a value. The strength values are used to see if this is the case. For a node to be forced to 1 in this way, two conditions must be met. First, there must be a path from the node to a source of logic level 1, all of whose transistors are forced on. Second, all paths from the node to sources of logic 0 must either contain a forced-off transistor or be weaker than the path to logic 1. The strength of a path is the strength of its weakest transistor.

This simple simulation model is powerful enough to handle a variety of nMOS and CMOS structures. Its weakness is that it doesn’t take account of the sizes of transistors, so it may behave incorrectly if improper ratios are used.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 10.** To calculate the delay along this path with transistor T2 as the trigger device, the resistances from T1, N1, T2, N2, T3, and N3 will be summed, and the capacitances from N2, T3, N3, and T4 will be summed. The delay will be the product of the two sums.

14.2. Delay Calculation: the RC Model

Crystal has been designed to include several different delay models and to permit the user to switch between them. At present, there are two delay models, `rc` and `slope`. In the `rc` model each transistor type is characterized by two resistances, `rup` and `rdown`. The transistor is assumed to have a fixed resistance value `rup` per square whenever it is used to transmit a 1 signal, and `rdown` per square whenever it is used to transmit a 0 signal.
To calculate the delay in a stage, the RC model divides the stage into two portions, separated by the transistor that turned on or off to activate the stage (this transistor is called the trigger for the stage). See Figure 10. All the resistances along the stage are summed, including rup or rdown for each transistor, plus the resistance of the interconnect. All the capacitances between the trigger and the target are also summed, including the gate-channel capacitance of each transistor along the stage, the parasitic capacitances of the interconnect, and the gate-source or gate-drain capacitances of unrelated transistors that connect to nodes along the stage. Crystal assumes that the trigger is the last transistor in the stage to turn on or off, so that all the charge between the trigger and the signal source has already been drained. The total delay for the stage is computed by multiplying the total capacitance by total resistance.

14.3. Delay Calculation: the Slope Model

The RC model is simple and efficient, but it often produces optimistic delay estimates. It assumes that the effective resistance of a transistor is independent of the waveform on the transistor's gate, and this simply isn't true in reality. If the gate voltage of a transistor rises or falls very slowly, the transistor has a much higher effective resistance than if the gate voltage changes instantaneously. The same transistor may vary in effective resistance by an order of magnitude or more, depending on the exact waveform on its input.

In the RC model, the waveform at a node is characterized solely by the time at which it rises or falls. In the slope model, an additional parameter is added: the rate at which the signal rises or falls. This is called the edge speed, and is measured in ns/volt at the instant in time when the signal crosses its logic threshold voltage (the logic threshold voltage is a model parameter and can be changed with the parameter command). Although this is only a first-order approximation to the actual waveforms, in Mead-Conway style digital circuits the waveforms tend to have about the same shape except for slope, so this characterization is fairly accurate.

The slope model characterizes the effective resistance of a particular type of transistor in terms of the ratio of two edge speeds: the input edge speed, and the output native edge speed. The output native edge speed is the edge speed that would occur on the output if the input rose or fell infinitely fast (edge speed 0). If the edge speed ratios are small (inputs much faster than output), or if they are uniform across the whole circuit, then the RC model is accurate.

Two tables are used to characterize each transistor type. One table is used when the transistor is pulling up, and the other is used when the transistor is pulling down (these are the slopeparmsup and slopeparmsdown fields in the transistor models). Each table consist of several triplets. Each triplet contains three values: an edge speed ratio, the transistor's effective resistance per square when that edge speed ratio occurs, and the output edge speed (per pf of capacitance driven and per square of transistor), when that edge speed ratio occurs. The table entries must be in increasing order of edge speed, and the first
entry must have a zero edge speed ratio. If Crystal ever encounters a ratio larger than the largest in the table, it issues a warning message and extrapolates from the largest values. To simplify the task of gathering all this model information, use the \textit{Mkcp} ("make Crystal parameters") program.

Delay calculation in the slope model proceeds in much the same way as for the RC model, except that for the trigger transistor, Crystal interpolates in the tables to find the effective resistance. For transistors other than the trigger, the native resistance is used. In addition, the slope model computes an output edge speed contribution from each component along the path (transistor or node resistance), and sums these to compute the edge speed at the target. The edge speed contributions are computed for each component as if that component were driving the capacitance all by itself.

The slope model appears to be fairly accurate. Initial measurements suggest that it is usually within 5\% of the times that SPICE predicts for the same circuits, and is rarely worse than 20\% off. In contrast, the rc model often produces estimates that are optimistic by 40\% or more. The slope model is almost as fast as the rc model, so there is little reason to use the rc model anymore, except for comparison.

\section*{14.4. Changing the Models}

Crystal provides three commands that you can use to change its internal models. The command

\begin{verbatim}
model [name]
\end{verbatim}

will set the current delay model to \textit{name}, if it is specified. If \textit{name} is omitted, then the command will print out the valid model names with two stars next to the current model.

The command

\begin{verbatim}
transistor [name [field value(s)] [field value(s)] ...]
\end{verbatim}

is used to see and modify the values used to characterize each transistor. If \textit{transistor} is invoked with no arguments, all the transistor types and their current values are printed. If only \textit{name} is supplied with no fields or values, all the transistor type information for \textit{name} is printed. Otherwise, fields for transistor type \textit{name} are changed to the given values. The \textit{man} page lists the predefined transistor types and the field names. If \textit{name} isn't one of the predefined transistor types, then a new transistor type is created with the given field values.

The third command is used to see and set the model parameters that don't have to do with specific transistor types. At present, these parameters are used only for computing the parasitic resistance and capacitance of interconnect. The command has the form

\begin{verbatim}
parameter [name] [value]
\end{verbatim}

If both \textit{name} and \textit{value} are specified, then the selected parameter is set to the given value. If \textit{value} is omitted, then the value of the parameter is printed. If
neither value or name is given, then the values of all parameters for the current model are printed. See the man page for a listing of the parameter names.

14.5. Defining New Transistor Types

The transistor command can be used to define new transistor types besides the standard ones. To get Crystal to treat transistors in your circuit as one of the new ones you've defined, use transistor attributes. Normally, Crystal decides the type of each transistor based on its type in the .sim file (enhancement, depletion, p-channel, etc) and how it is used in the circuit. For example, depletion transistors with source or drain connected to Vdd and the other two terminals connected together are given type nload. If you want Crystal to use a type of your choosing for a transistor, place an attribute inside the gate area of the transistor. The name of the attribute will be taken by Crystal as the type of that transistor. For example, if you have defined a new transistor type bootstrap, then each of these devices should have an attribute Cr:bootstrap on its gate.

15. Miscellaneous Commands

The help command prints out a list of the commands and their parameters. For information on the commands that is more detailed than help, and more concise than this document, see the man page.

The command

source file

will cause Crystal to read commands from file until its end is reached. Upon end-of-file, Crystal continues reading from the standard input. Source files may be nested.

The options command is provided so that you can change internal thresholds and switch settings used by Crystal. For example, one of the options is the threshold capacitance value at which Crystal automatically marks nodes as busses. Normal users shouldn't need to use this command very frequently. See the man page for details on its syntax and on the available options.

The statistics command prints out a variety of statistics gathered by Crystal as it runs. This information is probably not useful except to system maintainers.

The quit command causes Crystal to return to the shell.

16. Deciphering Crystal's messages

Crystal outputs a huge variety of error messages, bug messages and hints. Most of them are in response to syntax errors in the .sim file or errors in commands: these are relatively easy to understand. You should never see a message beginning with the words "Crystal bug: " If you do, report it to me or to your local Crystal wizard. There are several other messages whose meaning is not obvious. They generally indicate that something not-quite-right happened and
are hints that either you are not issuing the right commands or you need to use flow tags or set commands to restrict Crystal's analysis. Each of the following subsections describes one such message.

16.1. Aborting: no solution after examining 200000 stages

Crystal has a limit on how many stages it will examine in delay calculations. If the limit is reached, Crystal gives up in despair. When it gives up, it usually means that you need to add more flow control to pass transistors to restrict the set of paths Crystal has to analyze. Occasionally, the built-in limit isn't sufficient for a particular clock phase, even after all the necessary flow control has been added. In this case, use the options command to increase the limit.

When the limit is reached, Crystal outputs many messages, the first of which is the "Aborting:" message. Following this will be many messages of two forms: "ChaseVG giving up at xyz", and "ChaseGates giving up at abc". ChaseVG and ChaseGates are the two internal routines that trace out paths through the circuit during delay analysis. The messages indicate the path Crystal was examining when it gave up in despair, in backwards order from the node where it gave up to the node in the delay command. Often, the node names in the messages will identify the area where more flow control is needed.

If Crystal aborts a delay calculation, then the information in critical and similar commands may not be accurate, since the delay analysis wasn't completed. However, the path provided by critical may indicate the place where more flow control is needed. Another way to locate transistors that need flow tagging is to use the check command.

16.2. More than 8 transistors in series

During delay analysis, if Crystal finds a single stage containing more than a certain number of transistors in series, it prints this message. The stage is also ignored (usually such stages cannot occur in practice anyway). A typical place where this might occur is in carry-chain precharging schemes where there are both parallel and serial paths to each node in the chain.

![Figure 11. A simple circuit with two non-overlapping clock phases, 32 data inputs, and 32 data outputs.](image-url)
17. An Example
For the circuit of Figure 11, the following Crystal commands might be used to do
timing analysis, assuming that data is read into the circuit only during Phi1 and
that it stabilizes no later than 20ns into the clock cycle. The BusIn signals are
unidirectional (if they could also be driven from on-chip then it would not be
necessary to specify them in the inputs command). As a result of this set of
commands, two Caesar command files will be created: phi1cmds and phi2cmds.

    inputs BusIn <0:31> Phi1 Phi2
    outputs BusOut <31:0>

    set Phi2 0
    delay Phi1 0 -1
    delay BusIn <0:31> 20 20
    critical -g phi1cmds

    clear
    set Phi1 0
    delay Phi2 0 -1
    critical -g phi2cmds
Designing Finite State Machines with PEG

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ABSTRACT

PEG is a finite state machine compiler. It translates high level language descriptions of finite state machines into the logic equations needed to implement state machine designs. Since the output format is compatible with eqnott, PEG may be used as a front end for Berkeley PLA tools.

1. Introduction

PEG (PLA Equation Generator) is a design tool for finite state machines. It compiles high level language descriptions of finite state machines into the logic equations needed to implement a design.

PEG programs are isomorphic to Moore machine state diagrams. There is a one-to-one correspondence between states in a state diagram and state definitions in the corresponding PEG program. The translation from state diagrams to PEG programs is simple and straightforward.

Designing with PEG provides a number of advantages over the traditional pencil-and-paper approach method of FSM design. PEG's high level language enables designs and design changes to quickly be implemented. PEG programs provide easy-to-understand documentation with clear control flow. PEG does the tedious and error-prone bookkeeping task of generating output and next state bits as a function of current state bits. It checks for design errors and eliminates redundant terms in logic equations.

As output PEG generates logic equations in the eqn format accepted by eqnott [Cmelik], another Berkeley design tool. By piping the output of PEG
through *eqntott*, PEG may be used as a front end for Berkeley PLA tools such as *mpla* [Mayo], and *espresso* [Rudell]. As an option, *PEG* will also print the unminimized truth table from which the logic equations are derived.

2. A Simple Example

Figure 1 shows the state diagram for a four-state finite state machine implementing a 2-bit binary counter. The *PEG* description of this design appears in Figure 2. The program has no inputs besides an implicit clock. The outputs of the state machine are its *next state* bits, which are automatically generated by *PEG*.

![State Diagram](#)

**Figure 1: State Diagram for Example 1**

In its most simple form, a *PEG* program consists of a list of state descriptions. The sample program has four states. Each state has four parts: an optional label, a colon, an optional signal assertion part, and and optional control part.

```
--Simple PEG program for 2-bit counter
--State transition on every clock
--No reset => starts in a random state

Start : -This is state 0
       : -This is state 1
       : -This is state 2
       : -This is state 3
       GOTO Start;
```

**Figure 2: PEG Program for Example 1**

The first state in the example is labeled with the identifier *Start*. The label is necessary only because of the GOTO from state 3 back to state 0.

States 1 and 2 are examples of the minimal state description. These states are completely defined by a colon, which acts as a place holder for the state. Empty states, in which no branching or signal assertions occur, are sometimes used to introduce necessary delays in FSMs.

- 2 -
Flow of control in PEG programs is sequential unless otherwise specified. Since no control information is present for states 0, 1, and 2, the program steps sequentially through the states 0, 1, 2, and 3. State 3 has control information specifying a jump back to the state labeled Start.

Since it has no sequential next state, control must always be defined for the last state in the program. PEG generates an error message and quits if control is not defined for the last state.

Although state transitions are performed on clock ticks, no clock is mentioned in the program. It is the user's responsibility to implement the state machine with synchronous logic to latch input and output signals.

Comments begin with a double dash "--" and terminate at the end of the line on which they appear. The first three lines of the program are comments. Comments also appear on lines 5 through 8.

Input is free-format. White space may appear anywhere in a program to enhance readability.

3. Interpreting the Output

Assuming that the PEG program for example 1 is in a file called counter, the following Unix command line may be used to invoke PEG:

```
peg counter
```

The resulting output is shown in figure 3. Generating a PLA from the same input file is accomplished with the command line:

```
peg counter | eqntott | mpla -I -O
```

Mpla will not automatically connect next-state outputs to current-state inputs. After generating the PLA the state outputs must be manually wired to the state inputs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INORDER</th>
<th>=</th>
<th>InSt0* InSt1*;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OUTORDER</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>OutSt1* OutSt0*;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OutSt1*</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>(!InSt1*);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OutSt0*</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>( InSt0* &amp; !InSt1* )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: PLA Equations for Example 1.

3.1. Equations

PEG generates the two input variables InSt0* and InSt1* which are the state inputs for the finite state machine. It also generates two output variables OutSt0* and OutSt1*, the next-state outputs. Any signal name ending with an
asterisk was generated by PEG.

The INORDER and OUTORDER statements specify that the resulting PLA inputs and outputs, from left to right, are InSt0*, InSt1*, OutSt1*, and OutSt0*.

Following the OUTORDER statement are the logic equations for the two output variables, OutSt1* and OutSt0*. The exclamation mark "!" indicates logical negation. The ampersand "&" signifies the logical AND, while the vertical bar "|" signifies a logical OR.

3.2. Truth Table

The -t option generates a truth table for the finite state machine. This truth table is written to the file peg.summary. The truth table for example 1 is shown in figure 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INPUTS:</th>
<th>s00: InSt0* (msb)</th>
<th>s01: InSt1* (lsb)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OUTPUTS:</td>
<td>n01: OutSt1* (lsb)</td>
<td>n00: OutSt0* (msb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Table</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: Truth Table for Example 1.

Labels across the top of the truth table identify its columns. The mapping from column labels to actual signal names is given in the lists of input and output signals which precede the truth table. To the right of the truth table are the names of the states described by the rows of the table.

4. Another Example

The second and more complex example shows the state diagram and corresponding PEG program for a FSM which recognizes the regular expression (110)*100. The state diagram for this FSM is shown in figure 5.

The PEG program which implements this design is given in figure 6. Figure 6 describes a state machine with four states. The state machine has two inputs, RESET and in, and one output, accept.

Assume the text of figure 2 is in a file called prog. Logic equations for the state machine are generated by running the command
Figure 5: State Diagram Recognizing \((1|0)^*100\)

```
peg prog
```

Since this program has two inputs, they are declared in the `INPUTS` statement. If a PEG program has any inputs they must be declared in an `INPUTS` statement which must be the first statement in the program. The input `RESET` is a special keyword input. The other program input, `InStream`, is used to generate the `next state` for the FSM.

`RESET` indicates that when the `RESET` signal is asserted the state machine jumps to the top of the program, which in this case is named `Top`. When this keyword is present, conditional branches to the first state are automatically added to the `next state` expressions for each state. If `RESET` is not listed as an input, the program initializes in a random state.

If the FSM designer does not want to pay the penalty of a larger and slower finite state machine, `RESET` may be omitted as it was in example 1. In this case
Simple FSM example: Accepts the regular expression (1|0)*100

**INPUTS**
- RESET InStream;

**OUTPUTS**
- accept;

**Top**
- IF NOT InStream THEN LOOP; $-0^*$

**Saw1**
- IF InStream THEN LOOP; $-1$
- IF InStream THEN Saw1; $-10$
- ASSERT accept;
- IF InStream THEN Saw1 ELSE Top; $-100$

Figure 6: PEG Program Recognizing (1|0)*100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INORDER</th>
<th>OUTORDER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RESET InStream InSt0* InSt1*;</td>
<td>OutSt1* OutSt0* Accept;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OutSt1*</td>
<td>(!RESET &amp; InStream)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OutSt0*</td>
<td>(!RESET &amp; !InStream &amp; InSt0* &amp; !InSt1*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>(InSt0* &amp; InSt1*);</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: Equations for Example 2.

the reset function may be external to the PEG program by implementing the FSM in such a manner that the next state feedback lines are pulled low when the RESET signal is asserted. This method will work because the top state in a PEG program is always assigned to state zero.

The OUTPUTS statement declares that this program has a single output called accept. The FSM asserts this signal high if a string in the given grammar is recognized. If any outputs are generated by a PEG program, they must be declared in an OUTPUTS statement which immediately follows the INPUTS statement. If no INPUTS statement is present, then the OUTPUTS statement is the first program statement.
Example 2 introduces the **IF-THEN-ELSE** control construct. This construct is used to provide two-way branches based only on a single input signal. Branches based on more than one input signal are handled by the **CASE** statement which has not yet been presented. **IF** statements do not nest: Statements of the form **IF-THEN-ELSE-IF** are not allowed. The syntax of the **IF** is:

```
IF [ NOT ] <signal> THEN <state name> [ ELSE <state name> ] ;
```

The **ELSE** clause is optional: If it is omitted, the **ELSE** defaults to the next sequential state in the program. Thus, in state **Top**, if **InStream** is high, then the condition in the **IF** is false and the program takes the default branch to state **Saw1**.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Table</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 1 0 1 1 0 0</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 0 0 0 0 0 -</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1 0 0 1 0 -</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 0 1 0 0 -</td>
<td>Saw1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 0 1 0 1 -</td>
<td>Saw1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1 0 1 1 0 -</td>
<td>Saw1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 1 0 0 0 -</td>
<td>Saw1+1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 1 -</td>
<td>Saw1+1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1 1 0 1 0 -</td>
<td>Saw1+1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 1 1 0 0 1</td>
<td>Saw1+2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 1 0 0 1</td>
<td>Saw1+2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1 1 1 1 0 1</td>
<td>Saw1+2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8: Truth table for Example 2.
The alert reader will have noticed that the state name \textit{LOOP} is used but not defined. This is intentional. \textit{LOOP} is a keyword which means to stay in the current state. It is an error to define a state with the label \textit{LOOP}.

The final state in example 2 shows the first use of the \textit{ASSERT} statement. The \textit{accept} signal is asserted only in the accepting state of the FSM. If an \textit{ASSERT} statement is present in the definition of a state, it must precede the state's control statement.

![State Diagram for Example 3](image)

\textbf{Figure 9: State Diagram for Example 3}

Figure 11 shows an ambiguous case specifier. It is ambiguous because more than one case selector applies to the input \(0 \ 1 \ 0\). In such cases \textit{PEG} processes
Figure 10: PEG Program for Example 3

the list of case selectors from top to bottom, using the first one that applies to the inputs. Since the case specifier for State2 comes first, it defines the next state for inputs (0 1 0) and (0 1 1). The case specifier for State3 defines the next-state only for the case (1 1 0).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State1</th>
<th>CASE (a b c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 1 ? =&gt; State2;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>? 1 0 =&gt; State3;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENDCASE =&gt; State4;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11: Ambiguity Resolution in Don't-Cares
5. Final Example

Figures 9 and 10 show the state diagram and PEG program for a state machine which decodes 3 bits into 0, 1, 2, 3, and "other". Example 3 shows the use of multiple inputs, multiple outputs, and multi-way branches.

Multi-way branches and branches based on two or more inputs are handled by the CASE statement. The CASE statement consists of the keyword CASE followed by an input signal list, a list of case selectors, and an ENDCASE.

A case selector specifies two things: a bit pattern corresponding to the input signals, and a next-state for that combination of inputs. Bit patterns are strings composed of the characters '0', '1', and signals in the input signal list. Don't-cares are specified with ?.

The ENDCALLSTATE statement optionally specifies the default next-state if none of the other case selectors applies to the input. In keeping with the model of sequential execution, if the ENDCALLSTATE does not specify a next-state, the next-state defaults to the state following the one in which the CASE statement appears.

6. References

[CADMan]
CAD Manual, Online Unix documentation.

[Danford]
Peggy Danford, Private communication with author, June 1982.

[Unix]
7. Peg Syntax

```
<program>  : <InputList> <OutputList> <StateList>

<InputList> : INPUTS : <IdentList> ; | /*NULL*/

<OutputList> : OUTPUTS : <IdentList> ; | /*NULL*/

<StateList>  : <State> | <StateList> <State>

<IdentList>  : <Identifier> | <IdentList> <Identifier>

<State>      : <Identifier> : <Signals> <Control> | : <Signals> <Control>

<Signals>    : /*null*/ | /*ASSERT*/ <IdentList> ;

<Control>    : CASE ( <IdentList> ) <Cases> <DefaultCase>
              | IF <Identifier> THEN <Identifier> ;
              | IF <Identifier> THEN <Identifier> ELSE <Identifier> ;
              | IF <NOT> <Identifier> THEN <Identifier> ;
              | IF <NOT> <Identifier> THEN <Identifier> ELSE <Identifier> ;
              | GOTO <Identifier>
              | /*NULL*/

<Cases>      : <Cases> <CaseStmt> | <CaseStmt>

<CaseStmt>   : <BitList> => <Identifier> ;

<Bit>        : 0 | 1 | ?

<BitList>    : <BitList> <Bit> | <Bit>

<DefaultCase> : ENDCASE => <Identifier> ; | ENDCASE ;

<NOT>        : "!" | "NOT" | "."  

<Comment>   : "-*."$

<Identifier> : [A-Za-z][A-Za-z0-9_]*
```

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