Part III  Systems and Signals

Section 1  Computer-Aided Design

Section 2  Digital Signal Processing
Section 1  Computer-Aided Design

Chapter 1  Custom Integrated Circuits

Chapter 2  Computer-Integrated Design and Manufacture of Integrated Circuits
Chapter 1. Custom Integrated Circuits

Academic and Research Staff
Professor Jonathan Allen, Professor John L. Wyatt, Jr., Professor Srinivas Devadas, Professor Anantha P. Chandrakasan, Professor Jacob K. White, Professor Berthold K.P. Horn, Professor Hae-Seung Lee, Professor Martin A. Schmidt, Professor Stephen D. Senturia, Professor Chales G. Sodini, Dr. Robert C. Armstrong, Dr. Donald G. Baltus, Dr. Scott B. Dynes, Dr. Ichiro Masaki

Visiting Scientists and Research Affiliates
Daniel W. Engels, Dr. Andrew Lumsdaine, Mark W. Reichelt, Dr. Herre S.J. van der Zant

Graduate Students

Technical and Support Staff
Susan E. Chafe, Dorothy A. Fleischer

1.1 Custom Integrated Circuit Design

Sponsors
IBM Corporation
MIT School of Engineering

Project Staff
Professor Jonathan Allen, Dr. Robert C. Armstrong, Dr. Donald G. Baltus, Dr. Scott B. Dynes, Michael S. Ehrlich, Robert G. McDonald, Chin Hwee Tan

The goal of this group includes the study of performance-directed synthesis of custom VLSI circuits. Nineteen-ninety-five was a transition year as many group members finished their projects and left MIT. Dr. Donald Baltus completed his doctoral dissertation on the design of systolic arrays. His dissertation was one of two selected by MIT for submission to the annual ACM thesis prize competition, a significant recognition and honor. Chin Hwee Tan completed her SM thesis on transistor sizing for power minimization under a delay constraint and presented her research at the annual Workshop on Low-Power Design. Dr. Robert Armstrong completed his postdoctoral study on further refinement to the FICOM consistency maintenance CAD environment. Finally, Robert McDonald, who was developing a CAD system for the design of self-resetting CMOS circuits, has left MIT to apply these techniques in industry.

The major continuing effort has been the design and implementation of an interactive learning environment for VLSI design. There are two major components of this research. First, most of a major text has been developed for and utilized in MIT  

1 Notre Dame University, Notre Dame, Indiana.
2 Mathworks, Natick, Massachusetts.
3 Hewlett-Packard Corporation.
Chapter 1. Custom Integrated Circuits

subject 6.371 (Introduction to VLSI Systems) by Professor Jonathan Allen. This text, with its accompanying illustrations, has been well received for two semesters, and it continues to be extended and refined. The text will be converted to hypertext, and the figures will be realized in several formats. Simple illustrations, including photographs and graphs, will be digitized and represented as static figures. In addition, circuit schematics and layout will be represented in a CAD system environment so that users (students) can directly explore the behavior of the circuit. Thus, for example, when a student encounters a schematic diagram of a circuit in hypertext, control can be shifted directly to a circuit schematic editor.

In this environment, various input signals can be applied to the circuit, and results obtained immediately from a simulator with appropriate viewing software. In addition, the circuit schematic can be edited by the student (for example, transistor sizes can be modified), and the behavior of the resulting circuit studied and compared to other versions. It is believed that this ability to experiment directly with circuits is central to developing an understanding of large-voltage-swing (nonlinear) digital circuits. Tight coupling between the hypertext and the CAD system is central to the goals of this project.

Considerable effort has been devoted to the selection of an appropriate CAD environment. It must be small, fast, and inexpensive, yet with sufficient capability to serve the needs within this interactive learning environment. Both schematic and layout editors are required, and a circuit extraction (from layout) program is needed. A circuit simulator with viewing routines is also needed along with appropriate input-output interfaces.

For these requirements, the large, well-known CAD systems are inappropriate, and so significant effort was devoted to develop the FICOM design editing system, which was developed by Dr. Robert Armstrong to a point where it could be incorporated into the overall interactive learning environment system. Unfortunately, this effort was not successful. Attention is now focused on the use of a small, commercially available CAD system that can be readily learned and easily controlled from the hypertext. Experiments with a candidate system are now underway, and methods to couple the hypertext and CAD systems are under study. Dr. Scott Dynes, who has extensive multimedia design and programming experience, has joined the project as a postdoctoral associate. Graduate student Michael Ehrlich is contributing to the design of the system from a user perspective. Plans are to have an initial prototype of the system running by the fall of 1996, so that user feedback can be solicited and guidance for further development can be obtained.

1.2 Cost-Effective Hybrid Vision Systems for Intelligent Highway Applications

Sponsor
National Science Foundation
Grant MIP 94-23221

Project Staff
Professor Berthold K.P. Horn, Professor Hae-Seung Lee, Dr. Ichiro Masaki, Professor Martin A. Schmidt, Professor Charles G. Sodini, Professor John L. Wyatt, Jr., Jason R. Bergendahl, Geoffrey J. Coram, Steven J. Decker, Jeffrey C. Gealow, David R. Martin, Ignacio S. McQuirk, Paul C. Yu

1.2.1 Project Summary

The cost of machine vision systems is limiting their application. The goal of this project is to develop new cost-effective architectures for vision systems and to evaluate them for intelligent highway applications. We propose an advanced modular architecture as a way of improving the cost and performance of vision systems. We call this architecture the heterogeneous nanocomputer network because it consists of variety of functional modules. Some modules are application-specific integrated circuits (ASIC) chips for straight-forward early-vision processing while the others are highly programmable. The modules can be either analog, digital, or mixed signal. Examples of other modules include focal plane processors with visible light and an infrared imager. The heterogeneity provides a significant opportunity to lower the cost of each module by tailoring its architecture to a particular function with minimum constraints. Each functional module is called a nanocomputer because its computational silicon area is significantly smaller than a conventional microcomputer. Reducing module size is important for reducing total system cost. A small-grain architecture also provides greater flexibility for integrating modules. A network architecture is essential for integrating multiple modules without communication bottlenecks.

The next section details substantial progress on nine subprojects. Two image acquisition chips are under development: one for visible and the other for infrared lights. Please refer to sections 1.2.2 and 1.2.8 for more details. Two analog VLSI chips have both image acquisition and image processing functions (sections 1.2.4 and 1.2.10). We are developing two image processor chips (sections 1.2.3 and 1.2.5). An analog-to-digital conversion chip was...
also developed (section 1.2.6). Two other projects are related to automotive applications and noise models for solid-state devices, respectively (sections 1.2.7 and 1.2.10).

1.2.2 Brightness Adaptive Imager with Analog and Digital Output

Graduate student Steven Decker, working with Professor Sodini, has been designing an imager to act as the front end of a modular vision system. The imager was originally designed with a 64 x 64 pixel array of pixels in a 1.75 µm CCD/CMOS technology, which was later expanded to a 256 x 256 array in a 0.8 µm CMOS process. Other features of the imaging chip include large fill factor, operating speed on the order of 1000 frames/sec, column parallel output, brightness adaptation capability, and 10-bit digital output. Static chip power at 1000 frames/second is estimated to be about 370 mW, 90 percent of which is dissipated by the on-chip A/D converters.

CCD and CMOS implementations of the wide dynamic range imager were compared, and the results presented at the 1995 IEEE Workshop on Charge-Coupled Devices and Advanced Image Sensors. It was concluded that the CMOS implementation had no significant disadvantages and would tend to have lower smear levels than a CCD implementation. Since commercially available CMOS processes have finer linewidths than available CCD/CMOS processes, a denser array is possible in the CMOS process.

A 256 x 256 CMOS imager was designed, laid out, and fabricated in the HP 0.8 µm process. Four issues were addressed in the design of the CMOS imager: pixel design, generation of the lateral over- flow gate waveform, reduction of fixed-pattern noise, and analog-to-digital conversion.

A board was designed and constructed to test for basic functionality of the imager chip. The board allows the output from any single pixel in the array to be examined under realistic operating conditions. A different board will be required later to read data from the entire array.

An analysis of the sensitivity of the brightness adaptive algorithm was performed with Professor Wyatt. The goal of the analysis was to determine how much various mismatch sources in the pixel contribute to a mismatch in the voltage output from the pixel, given a desired compression ratio. Another goal was the determination of optimal barrier waveforms to minimize the effect of the mismatch terms. It was found that timing errors present a particularly important hazard. A separate analysis was undertaken to determine the expected mismatch in CMOS pixels generally and find the extent to which correlated double sampling can compensate for them.

1.2.3 Analog versus Digital Approaches to Machine Vision Hardware

Graduate student David Martin, under the supervision of Professor Hae-Seung Lee, graduate student Steven Decker under the supervision of Professor Charles Sodini, and Dr. Ichiro Masaki are developing a stereo vision system in collaboration with Professors John Wyatt, Berthold Horn, and Jacob White. The goals of this project are twofold: (1) comparison of analog versus digital approaches, and (2) development of a practical stereo distance measurement system.

A case study to compare analog versus digital approaches is important in identifying what kinds of processing are suitable for analog implementation. An array processing function was chosen as the case for the comparison. The level of this function-definition is high enough for the generality of the result; and, at the same time, it is low enough to make the result independent from the algorithm. A hybrid analog/digital array processor chip is being developed as an example of the analog implementation. It will consist of an array of mixed signal processing elements which will work in an multi-instruction multiprocessor (MIND) scheme. Each processing element will include a digital memory unit which will control an analog arithmetic unit and a data flow network. Examples of the digital array processors, for this comparison, include various schemes such as a pixel-parallel array processor architecture. With this scheme, a digital processing element is assigned for each pixel, and multiple processing elements work in a single-instruction multiple-data (SIMD) fashion.

In the first step, the vision algorithms that will run on the array processor were simulated to determine their accuracy and speed requirements. These simulations revealed that the algorithms could tolerate random errors of up to 10 percent as long as no information was lost from arithmetic overflow. In the second step, key circuits were designed, simulated, fabricated, and tested. As a result of these tests, it was determined that conventional analog circuits for arithmetic were too large and inaccurate for a general purpose arithmetic unit. Therefore, a novel analog arithmetic circuit was designed, simulated, and sent to MOSIS for fabrication. This new circuit essentially performs an A/D on a voltage and then immediately performs a D/A on the digital value. The output voltage is equal to the product of the
input voltage and the D/A reference voltage divided by the A/D reference voltage. Setting the reference voltages correctly allows the circuit to perform multiplication, division, addition, and subtraction.

The final processor cell is about 700 microns by 270 microns using Hewlitt-Packard's 0.8 μm triple metal process. Simulations indicate that it can operate at about two million instructions per second and consumes about 2 mW of power at this speed. Two test chips have been fabricated through MOSIS and are now being tested. One test chip has a single processing cell, the other a 5 x 5 array.

1.2.4 A BiCMOS/CCD Focus-of-Expansion Chip for Estimating Camera Motion

Graduate student Ignacio McQuirk, working with Professors Berthold Horn and Hae-Seung Lee, has continued testing the real-time analog VLSI chip he designed for determining the direction of camera motion from time-varying image sequences. The approach assumes the presence of a camera moving through a fixed world with translational velocity. There is no restriction on the shape of the surfaces in the environment, only an assumption that the imaged surfaces have some texture, that is, spatial variations in reflectance. It is also assumed that the camera is stabilized so that there is no rotational motion. The focus of expansion (FOE) is the projection of the camera translation vector onto the image plane and gives the direction of camera. This location is the image point towards which the camera is moving and other image points appear to be expanding outward from.

The algorithm we use for estimating the FOE minimizes the sum of squares of the differences at every picture cell between the observed time variation of brightness and the predicted variation given the assumed position of the FOE. This minimization is not straightforward because the relationship between the brightness derivatives depends on the distance to the surface being imaged and that distance is not only unknown, but varies from picture cell to picture cell. However, image points where brightness is instantaneously constant play a critical role. Ideally, the FOE would be at the intersection of the tangents to the iso-brightness contours at these stationary points. In practice, image brightness derivatives are hard to estimate accurately given that the image itself is quite noisy. Hence the intersections of tangents from different stationary points may be quite scattered. Reliable results can nevertheless be obtained if the image contains many stationary points and the point is found that has the least weighted sum of squares of perpendicular distances from the tangents at the stationary points. The chip itself calculates the gradient of this minimization sum, and the actual FOE estimation is performed by closing a feedback loop around it. The FOE chip has been implemented using an embedded CCD imager for image acquisition/storage and a row-parallel processing. A 64 x 64 version was fabricated through MOSIS in a 2 μm BiCMOS/CCD process with a design goal of 100 mW of on-chip power and a top frame rate of 1000 frames/second. Further algorithmic work also continues with Professor Wyatt to examine more robust, but more complex, algorithms which may also be suitable for implementation in analog VLSI.

A complete test setup for the chip was constructed. Current testing has moved into its final phase: examining the processed output of the FOE chip and using it in a closed loop manner to estimate the FOE in real time.

1.2.5 Integrated Computing Structure for Pixel-Parallel Image Processing

Graduate student Ignacio McQuirk, working with Professors Berthold Horn, and Jeffrey Gealow, working with Professor Sodini, have been developing an dense integrated processing element array to perform low-level real-time image processing tasks in the desktop computer environment. The layout pitch of one-bit-wide processing element logic is matched to the pitch of memory cells, maximizing the bandwidth between memory and logic and minimizing processing element area.

A two-dimensional network connects the processing elements. Control and data paths are distinct. The processing element array receives instructions from the controller, which is managed by the host computer. Analog images from a video camera or other source are converted to digital signals, then reformatted for processing using the processing element array. Output images from the array are converted to a format appropriate for subsequent use. Processing element logic is integrated with 128-bit DRAM columns in place of DRAM column decode logic.

To demonstrate the capability of the processing element array, execution of several low-level image processing tasks has been simulated. One of the investigated tasks is median filtering. The value of each output pixel is the median of all input values in a region centered at the output pixel. Median filtering eliminates spikes while maintaining sharp edges and preserving monotonic variations in pixel values. Operating at 10 MHz, the processing element array would perform a true 5 x 5 median filtering operation in less than 1 ms.
Circuit design and layout of the core processing element array has been completed. A compact logic implementation has been developed meeting the tight layout constraints imposed by pitch-matching memory and logic. Logic circuits operate with a low-voltage supply (2.5 V), minimizing power dissipation.

A completed integrated circuit design will soon be submitted for fabrication through MOSIS. A single device will provide a 64 x 64 block of processing elements. Expected typical power dissipation is 250 mW. Packaged chips will be used to build a complete image processing system. Sixteen chips may be employed to handle 256 x 256 images.

1.2.6 A Pipelined CMOS Analog-to-digital Conversion

Graduate student Paul Yu, working with Professor Hae-Seung Lee, has been working on various techniques of achieving low-power video-rate analog-to-digital conversion (ADC) using CMOS technology. A 2.5-V 12-b 5-MSample/s CMOS pipelined ADC is used as a vehicle to demonstrate efficient methods of power minimization for analog systems without sacrificing performance. One of the main power minimization techniques is a commutated feedback capacitor switching (CFCS) scheme that achieves 12-b resolution while using only 6-7 b accurate capacitor matching.

In a wide range of imaging applications, high-resolution, but medium accuracy are required. This requirement is due to the fact that human eyes, while sensitive to the difference in intensities between adjacent pixels, are quite insensitive to the absolute individual pixel intensities. Exploiting this relaxed requirement on absolute accuracy, an ADC with 12-b differential nonlinearity (DNL), only needs to have about 6-8 b of integral nonlinearity (INL). Similarly, signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), as opposed to signal-to-noise-and-distortion (SNDR) will be the primary target.

Fabricated in a 1.2 μm, double poly, double metal process in August 1994, the test chip was characterized from September 1994 to October 1995. We used a variety of characterization techniques including histogram and fast Fourier transform (FFT) tests. Maximum differential nonlinearity (DNL) of +0.63/-0.78 LSB at 5 MSample/s have been obtained. In July 1995, the conversion rate was pushed from 1 MHz to 5 MHz using reduced output swing logic. In August 1995, a discrete LC filter was designed and constructed to obtain a clean 2.2-MHz sine wave from an RF frequency synthesizer for FFT testing. At this near-Nyquist input frequency, a peak signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of 67.6 dB was obtained. The single-ended input capacitance of the ADC is only 1.0 pF. This is significantly lower than many previously reported video rate ADCs, especially those using the flash architecture.

1.2.7 Real-time Vision System for Automotive Applications

Graduate student Jason Bergendahl, under the supervision of Professor Berthold Horn and Dr. Ichiro Masaki, is developing a real-time machine vision system for stereo distance measurements in automotive applications. The basic approach differs substantially from those used by other stereo vision systems under development. First, the stereo distance measurements will rely on edge correlation between stereo pairs, instead of area correlation. The algorithm is greatly simplified to allow real-time performance at frame rate (30 frames/second) to be realized. Another important difference is that the distance measurements are based on sub-pixel disparity measurements between the stereo pairs, allowing for a compact camera arrangement that does not preclude accurate distance measurement.

The system, consisting of three miniature cameras and supporting image processing hardware, will be installed in a test vehicle for on-road trials. Thus, we will be able to directly evaluate the feasibility of vision-based adaptive cruise control under realistic highway conditions. We can also make meaningful performance comparisons between vision-based methods and millimeter wave radar approaches. Our goal is to demonstrate a stereo vision system with performance equal to that of millimeter-wave radar. However, unlike radar systems, a vision-based system may be expanded to provide additional functionality, such as as lane tracking. To meet the computational demands of real-time machine vision at frame rate, commercially available image processing hardware and personal computers are used in our system.

The first phase of the project consisted of a thorough evaluation of candidate host systems to oversee the image acquisition and processing tasks. Desktop PCs, "luggable" PCs, laptop PCs, workstations, and VME systems were considered. The primary concern was availability of off-the-shelf plug-in hardware; however each candidate system was also evaluated for processing power, bus bandwidth, and portability. A Pentium-based desktop PC with PCI bus was selected to serve as the host system. This host's key advantage is the high sustainable data transfer rates (up to 133 MBytes/sec) between bus mastering PCI cards and the host.
In parallel with host selection, software development of simple stereo vision algorithms was begun. The objective was twofold: (1) to evaluate the performance of candidate algorithms, and (2) to estimate the capabilities of a workstation or PC for performing image processing without the aid of additional hardware. One software implementation of a simplified algorithm, performed by Gideon Stein, realized 6 Hz performance on a Silicon Graphics workstation. This result suggests that while image processing software is a useful tool for algorithm development, real-time performance with our algorithms requires that most computationally intensive image processing tasks be performed in hardware.

1.2.8 Uncooled Infrared Imager

The micromachined, uncooled infrared detector design which we are investigating consists of a thermally-isolated silicon island containing a bipolar transistor configured as a temperature sensing diode. The island is thermally isolated by suspending it several microns above the silicon chip surface and supporting it with thin silicon nitride tethers. A process technology is used which facilitates integration of electronics in the region surrounding the pixels. This technology employs silicon wafer bonding and has previously been demonstrated on micromachined pressure sensors and accelerometers.

A model to predict the sensitivity and noise of a single pixel has been developed utilizing standard lumped parameter thermal models and first order models for the temperature sensitivity of diodes. Using these models and some target performance specifications, a set of geometric parameters were determined. In some instances, the geometry had additional constraints imposed by the practical limitations of the technology. In particular, the minimum dimension of the pixel element is 5 micron, which was a conservative limitation imposed by the several micron step heights between the silicon island and the nitride tethers. While the current geometry is chosen to be conservative, more aggressive geometry can be attempted after the first prototype is fabricated and the limitations of the technology are understood. The total pixel size is 140 micron by 140 micron. The silicon nitride membrane is 1 micron thick, and the silicon island which contains the diode is 3 microns thick. The thermal conductivity is strongly influenced by the interconnect metal, which is made as thin as possible to reduce the conductivity. There is a trade-off against the increase in interconnect resistance, which impacts noise. The metal thickness was chosen to be 0.1 micron.

The process technology development plan we are pursuing involves several steps and leverages off previous technology which we have developed for integrated sensors. The process enhancements which are needed for the infrared detector are: silicon nitride membranes; diode processing on silicon islands; and metalization on the nitride and silicon island. The first step is to demonstrate the integrity of the nitride membranes through high temperature processes. The next step is to develop the metalization process with the required step coverage. The final step in process development will be the actual fabrication of the pixel elements.

1.2.9 Physically Correct Noise Models for Solid-State Devices

Noise imposes a fundamental limit to analog circuits, especially in low-power operation. Under the direction of Professor Wyatt, graduate student Geoffrey Coram has been studying nonlinear device noise models for agreement with fundamental physical theory. Accepted models for noise in nonlinear devices do not agree with thermodynamic principles. Mr. Coram is looking to resolve this discrepancy while maintaining consistency with experimental results.

In general, continuous-time Gaussian white noise is nonphysical, since it has an infinite variance. Poisson (i.e., shot noise) models give a more physical basis for accurate models. Probability theory tells us that Poisson processes can become Gaussian in the limit of numerous small jumps, and it is possible to derive Nyquist-Johnson thermal noise (4 kT/2) as the limit of a Poisson-noise system.

We have recently shown that no Gaussian white-noise model can be physically correct for nonlinear devices—all such models predict circuit behavior that is contrary to thermodynamic principles. More importantly, we have also found a Poisson process model that agrees with thermodynamic theory. It accurately describes noise behavior of the pn junction and the subthreshold MOSFET at arbitrary bias points. Using the requirements of a Maxwell-Boltzmann equilibrium distribution and conformance with the Second Law of Thermodynamics, one can calculate the rates of the Poisson sources solely from the constitutive (current-voltage) relation for the device. This sort of nonlinear fluctuation-dissipation relation has been long sought in the literature.

This model accurately describes devices where the current results solely from thermal fluctuations over a barrier and/or from diffusion. It also fits the linear...
resistor, with a pure drift transport mechanism. Professor Wyatt and Mr. Coram are now attempting to extend the model to the more general class of devices with both drift and diffusion.

1.2.10 Time-to-Collision Warning Chip

Under certain circumstances, it is possible to estimate the time-to-collision (TTC) from a time varying image. It would be useful to encapsulate an algorithm for doing this into a cheap camera, ideally with computation done on the chip that senses the image, or at least within the enclosure of the camera box itself. In this way, there is no need to move large volumes of image data from an image sensor to an image processor.

Such a device performs an extreme bandwidth compression: it has high bandwidth in (image sequence) and low bandwidth out (time-to-collision). This device could be outfitted with a cheap plastic lens and used as a warning system, aimed out the rear of a car into the two "blind spots" not easily visible in a driver’s mirrors.

The key to recovering the time-to-collision is the realization that there are constraints between the brightness gradient (spatial derivatives of brightness) and the time derivative of brightness at a point in the image. These depend on the motion field, and the motion field in turn depends on the rigid body motion between the camera and the object being viewed.

We have formulated the problem using the (1) perspective projection equation, (2) motion field equation, and (3) constant brightness assumption. This leads to equations relating camera motion and image brightness gradients.

We have developed a least squares formulation that involves minimizing the sum of a set of error terms. The error terms are simply the differences between observed rates of change of brightness and predicted rates of change, based on the motion parameters and the scene description. The least squares problem does yield to a closed form solution, but this involves eigenvectors and eigenvalues. While these can be computed in digital or analog hardware, it is a difficult task.

Instead, we are now exploring an iterative method that alternately solves for the surface normal of the plane used to approximate the scene and the translational motion vector. This will be much easier to implement in either digital or analog hardware. We expect it to be fast enough despite the iterative nature of this method.

We will first explore a number of algorithmic alternatives on existing work stations using both real image sequences created under controlled conditions as well as synthetic sequences where the motion and shapes of objects are known exactly.

1.3 Computer-Aided Design Techniques for Embedded System Design

Sponsor
Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency/
U.S. Army Intelligence Center
Contract DABT63-94-C-0053

Project Staff
Professor Srinivas Devadas, George I. Hadjiyiannis, Silvina Z. Hanono, Stan Y. Liao, Daniel W. Engels

1.3.1 Embedded Systems and Hardware/Software Codesign

One of the challenges of micro-architectural design is to harness the capabilities supplied by improved semiconductor processing. The advent of submicron processing allows for the integration of 5-10 million transistors on a single integrated-circuit (IC). One micro-architecture that effectively exploits the capability of the silicon integrates a microprocessor, digital-signal processor (DSP) or a micro-controller, with a ROM and an ASIC all in a single IC (figure 1). Micro-architectures of this style can currently be found in such diverse embedded systems as FAX modems, laser printers, and cellular telephones. To justify the design costs of such a product, as well as the utilization of such a level of integration, these embedded system designs must be sold in very large numbers and as a result, they are also very cost sensitive. The cost of the IC is most closely linked to the size of the IC, and that is derived from the final circuit area. It is not unusual for the single largest factor in the area of such ICs to be the ROM storing the program code for the microprocessor. In these embedded systems, the incremental value of using logic optimization to reduce the size of the ASIC is smaller because the ASIC circuitry is a relatively smaller percentage of the final circuit area. On the other hand, the potential for cost reduction through diminishing the size of the program ROM is great. There are also often strong real-time performance requirements on the final code, so there is a necessity for producing high-performance code as well.
In a hardware/software codesign flow for such an embedded system, the designer first determines which parts of the functionality of the system will be implemented in hardware and which parts in software. The designer then proceeds to design each of the hardware and software components. The system is simulated and evaluated with a hardware-software co-simulator. If the results of the simulation meet design specifications (e.g., correctness and timing constraints), then the design is accepted. Otherwise, the designer may re-partition the original algorithmic specification and iterate the same process. This is illustrated in figure 2.

Under this methodology, tools for code generation and hardware-software co-simulation are essential items in the designer’s tool-box. Specifically, compilers for software written in high-level languages are indispensable in the design of embedded systems.

1.3.2 Reducing Code Size

A given target die size for an embedded system product may limit the size of the ROMs and therefore the size of the code. In many embedded system projects, the ROM space estimated at the beginning becomes insufficient later in the development phase or during maintenance. Designers usually have to work diligently to reduce the code size in order to avoid excessive design modification.

The traditional approach to these problems has been to write the embedded code in assembly language. As the complexity of embedded systems grows, programming in assembly language and optimization by hand are no longer practical or economical, except for time-critical portions of the program that absolutely require it. Recent statistics from Dataquest indicate that high-level languages (HLLs) such as C (and C++) are definitely replacing assembly language, because using HLLs greatly lowers the cost and time of development, as well as the maintenance costs of embedded systems. However, programming in a HLL can incur a code size penalty.

There are a number of reasons for this. One reason is that compiler optimization techniques have classically focused on code speed and not code density. Also, most available compilers optimize primarily for speed of execution. Although some optimizing transforms such as common sub-expression elimination can improve both speed and size at the same time, in many cases there is a speed-size trade-off. For example, subroutine calls take less space than in-line code, but are generally slower. Where execution speed is not critical, minimizing the code size is usually profitable. A second reason is that compiler-optimization techniques have typically been limited to approaches which can be executed quickly \( O(n) \) because programmers require fast compilation times during development. For this reason the numerous NP-hard optimization problems associated with code optimization are rarely faced directly, as in computer-aided design, but are usually approached with simple linear-time heuristics.

Thus a central theme of our embedded system design project is that a new goal for code-optimization has emerged: The generation of the most dense code obtainable with the highest performance—within any reasonable compilation time. We have two important premises. First, the methodology required to generate this code will be most useful if it is retargetable—it can be easily changed to generate code for many different processors. Second, the methodology will require—in addition to traditional code optimizations—techniques analogous to the methodology employed in optimization of a circuit netlist than to traditional code-optimization. This does not imply that traditional Boolean logic-optimization techniques will be applied, but that the approach used commonly in logic optimization of attempting to define and achieve an optimal solution to a series of subproblems will be employed rather than applying a few heuristics in a top-down manner.
1.3.3 Experimental Compiler Framework

In our experimental framework, we use the SUIF Compiler as the front-end to translate source programs from C into the Stanford University Intermediate Form. (SUIF is the name of the compiler as well as the abbreviation for the intermediate form.) This project currently focuses on several optimization problems of the back-end. The overall compiler organization is illustrated in figure 3.

A program written in C is first translated into SUIF, which is a largely machine-independent representation of the program. Machine-independent optimizations, such as global common subexpression elimination and dead code elimination, are performed at this stage. Then, the program is translated via a preliminary code generation stage into another intermediate form called TWIF. The preliminary code generated is produced from a rule-based machine description written in OLIVE. OLIVE is a language for writing tree-matchers based on dynamic programming. If tree-covering for preliminary code generation is desired, OLIVE allows for compact specifications of code generators.

TWIF serves as a secondary intermediate form that captures some machine-dependent information such as most of the instruction set, while remaining largely machine-independent in form (e.g., call graph representation of the program and control-flow graph representation of the procedures). The purpose of this secondary intermediate form is to support optimizations which are to some extent
machine-dependent, but whose basic formulations and algorithms can be shared across a range of architectures. These optimizations include those based on global data-flow analyses, refinements to the schedule produced by the preliminary code generation phase, traditional register allocation, storage assignment, and interprocedural analyses and optimizations.

It is the task of the final code generation phase to translate macros and pseudo-instructions into actual target machine instructions. Also, because interprocedural analysis is performed in the TWIF intermediate form, this phase assumes the task of resolving symbolic addresses of global variables and procedures as well. Along with this step, we can perform peephole optimizations to eliminate redundancy that may have been neglected in earlier phases or may have arisen from the translation of macros and pseudo-instructions. With peephole optimization the compiler attempts to find small sequences (using a sliding peephole) in the assembly or object code and either remove useless instructions in the sequences or replace the sequences with shorter ones. Finally, if further reduction in code size is desired, code compression can be applied to the object code.
1.4 VLSI Design for Low-Power Dissipation

Sponsors
Mitsubishi Corporation
National Science Foundation/
Young Investigator Award
Fellowship MIP 92-58376

Project Staff
Professor Srinivas Devadas, Professor Anantha P. Chandrakasan, Farzan Fallah, George I. Hadjyiannis, José C. Monteiro

1.4.1 Design for Low Power

Average power dissipation has emerged as an important parameter in the design of general-purpose and application-specific integrated circuits.

Optimization for low power can be applied at many different levels of the design hierarchy. For instance, algorithmic and architectural transformations can trade off throughput, circuit area, and power dissipation; and logic optimization methods have been shown to have a significant impact on the power dissipation of combinational logic circuits.

It is important to develop optimization methods that are applicable to a broad class of circuits. To this end, we are developing a synthesis system capable of synthesizing low-power digital combinational and sequential circuits from high-level descriptions. Our recent work in this area is described in the section on scheduling. We are also issues involving the design of low-bandwidth protocols for remote terminals that can be implemented using low-power circuits. This work is described in the section on protocols.

1.4.2 Shutdown Techniques

It has been demonstrated at the gate and system levels that large power savings are possible merely by cutting down on wasted power—commonly referred to as power management. At the system level, this involves shutting down blocks of hardware that are not being used. Detection and shut down of unused hardware is done automatically in current generations of Pentium and PowerPC processors. The Fujitsu SPARClite processor provides software controls for shutting down hardware.

Graduate student José Monteiro applied power management techniques at the sequential logic and combinational logic levels in 1994. Application of power management at the gate level involves first identifying large portions of the circuit that frequently produce information that is either not essential for determining the values on the primary outputs, or information that could have been produced by much simpler hardware. Additional hardware is then added to the circuit that detects on a per-clock-cycle basis input conditions under which such a situation arises and shuts down the corresponding portions of the circuit for that clock cycle.

During 1995, Mr. Monteiro introduced power management into scheduling algorithms used in behavioral-level synthesis. Behavioral synthesis comprises of the sequence of steps by means of which an algorithmic specification is translated into hardware. These steps involve breaking down the algorithm into primitive operations and associating each operation with the time interval in which it will be executed (called operation scheduling) and the hardware functional block that will execute it (called hardware allocation). Clock-period constraints, throughput constraints, hardware resource constraints, and their combination make this a non-trivial optimization problem.

Decisions taken during behavioral synthesis have a far reaching impact on the power dissipation of the resulting hardware. For example, throughput-improvement by exploiting concurrency via transformations like pipelining and loop unrolling enables the hardware to be operated at lower clock frequencies and thereby at lower voltages. The lower supply voltage leads to a reduction in power dissipation.

Our work is centered around the observation that scheduling has a significant impact on the potential for power savings via power management. Based on this observation, we have developed a scheduling algorithm that is power-management-aware, i.e., it generates a schedule that maximizes the potential for power management in the resulting hardware. The algorithm operates under a user determined combination of throughput, cycle-time and hardware resource constraints. Starting from a high-level description, our implementation of the algorithm generates a logic implementation for the controller as well as the datapath corresponding to the power-management-aware schedule.

---

7 By "frequently," we mean for a large fraction of input vectors.
1.4.3 Protocols

The easiest way of reducing the power consumption of any computing device is to reduce the amount of computation it performs. A portable computer (hereafter called the terminal) can do just enough work to manage the input and output devices and defer all other computation to a separate cycle server (hereafter called the stationary cycle server or just cycle server for short) that will actually perform all the computationally intensive tasks. The terminal and the cycle server can be connected in such a fashion as to allow the terminal to transmit all input to the cycle server and the cycle server to transmit all output back. Then the cycle server can be made stationary, and therefore have an external power source. If the connection method is wireless, then the terminal becomes effectively a portable computer. Since the cycle server has an external power source, only the consumption of the terminal needs to be reduced. This becomes an easier task since the terminal can be designed to perform the minimal amount of computation necessary to manage the input and output devices. Nonetheless, to the user, the terminal appears to have all the processing power of the stationary cycle server.

The main problem with the above scheme is the bandwidth requirement between the terminal and the cycle server. Especially for color terminals this bandwidth can very easily become excessive. Graduate student George I. Hadjiyiannis has developed a protocol for a wireless remote terminal which emphasizes low bandwidth and low power requirements. Rather than using a hardwired protocol, it was decided that a general-purpose processor would be used, highly optimized for the task at hand. Thus, the terminal and its protocol would become infinitely flexible, allowing us to make use of better algorithms, new extensions to the X-server, and to make additions and modifications to the protocol at will. Then a more complex protocol was designed which reduces the bandwidth requirements while allowing the use of color. This was accomplished by giving the protocol the notion of higher level elements (for example, rectangles, polygons, lines, etc.), the protocol requires much less information to perform the same activities. For example, if the protocol had a notion of what a text character is, one would only need to send a command that identifies the character, its position, and the color to which it should be drawn, rather than sending a complex bitmap over the link.

Error correction and retransmission methods capable of dealing with burst error noise up to BERS of $10^{-3}$ were developed. The average bandwidth required by the protocol is 140 Kbits/sec for 8-bit color applications including the overhead for error correction.

1.4.4 Publications

Journal Articles


Conference Proceedings


1.5 Parallel Algorithms for Device Simulation

Sponsors

Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency/ U.S. Navy - Office of Naval Research
Contract N00014-94-1-0985

IBM Corporation

National Science Foundation
Grant MIP 91-17724

Project Staff

Dr. Andrew Lumsdaine, Mark W. Reichelt, Professor Jacob K. White, Professor Jonathan Allen

The growing importance of mixed circuit/device simulation, its enormous computational expense, as well as the increasing availability of parallel computers, have made the development of specialized, easily parallelized, algorithms for transient simulation of MOS devices necessary. In earlier work on the waveform overrelaxation device simulator (WORDS) program, the easily parallelized waveform relaxation (WR) algorithm was shown to be a computationally efficient approach to device transient simulation even on a serial machine. However, the WR algorithm typically requires hundreds of iterations to achieve an accurate solution.

To use WORDS in a mixed circuit/device simulator, we have been investigating ways of making WORDS more robust and efficient. We determined how to compute the terminal currents accurately using different timepoints at different mesh nodes. We also improved the timestep selection procedure by determining how to refine the timesteps as WR iterations proceed. Then we reduced the total computation by as much as a factor of 2 by using only a few coarse timesteps in early iterations. The more accurate electric field dependent mobility model was also implemented. Recent work on theoretical aspects of these methods have answered several long-standing questions about multirate stability.8

We found experimental evidence that WR using standard overrelaxation acceleration can produce oscillatory results and are investigating methods for eliminating this phenomenon. A frequency-dependent overrelaxation algorithm using lowpass filtering was developed, as well as a waveform

---

Chapter 1. Custom Integrated Circuits

Conjugate-direction approach.\textsuperscript{9} Experimental results indicate that both approaches reduce the number of waveform iterations required by more than a factor of seven. Finally, experimental results show that although the accelerated WR methods are as fast as the best of the standard algorithms for device transient simulation on a serial machine, WR algorithms are substantially faster on a parallel machine.\textsuperscript{9}

1.6 Numerical Simulation of Short Channel MOS Devices

Sponsors
IBM Corporation
U.S. Navy - Office of Naval Research
Contract N00174-93-K-0035

Project Staff
Khalid Rahmat, Professor Dimitri A. Antoniadis, Professor Jacob K. White

The model used in conventional device simulation programs is based on the drift-diffusion model of electron transport, and this model does not accurately predict the field distribution near the drain in small geometry devices. This is of particular importance for predicting oxide breakdown due to penetration by "hot" electrons. There are two approaches for more accurately computing the electric fields in MOS devices: one is based on adding an energy equation to the drift-diffusion model, and the second is based on direct solution of Boltzman's equation.

Energy-balance based simulation programs are limited in their ability to accurately predict hot-electron effects, and we have been investigating efficient techniques for solving the full Boltzman equation using a spherical-harmonics-based approach. We have implemented a Galerkin method for the solution of the Boltzmann equation which allows arbitrary order spherical harmonic expansions in momentum space. A self-consistent solution is obtained by directly solving the Boltzmann and Poisson equations simultaneously. The boundary conditions and discretization methods necessary for the arbitrary order method have also been investigated. Results up to third order in one real space dimension show the importance of including harmonics beyond first order to accurately calculate the distribution function in high field regions.\textsuperscript{10}

1.7 Coupled Simulation Algorithms for Microelectromechanical CAD (MEMCAD)

Sponsors
Analog Devices Corporation
Federal Bureau of Investigation
Contract J-FBI-92-196

Project Staff
Narayana R. Aluru, Mattan Kamon, Professor Martin A. Schmidt, Professor Stephen D. Senturia, Professor Jacob K. White

High fabrication costs and increasing microsensor complexity is making computer simulation of the realistic geometries necessary, both to investigate design alternatives and to perform verification before fabrication. At MIT, we are developing a microelectromechanical computer-aided design (MEMCAD) system to make it possible for microsensor designers to easily perform realistic simulations. Carefully selected commercial software packages have been linked with specialized database and numerical programs to allow a designer to easily enter a three-dimensional microsensor geometry and quickly perform both mechanical and electrical analysis. The system currently performs electromechanical analyses, such as calculating the capacitance versus pressure (or force) curve for both a square diaphragm deformed by a differential pressure, and can be used to calculate levitation forces in structures as complicated as a comb drive.\textsuperscript{11}

\begin{thebibliography}{99}
\end{thebibliography}
To support design of electromechanical structures, we are currently investigating two approaches to combining finite-element mechanical analysis with multipole-accelerated electrostatic analysis. The first method is the obvious relaxation algorithm and the second method is a more sophisticated surface/Newton generalized conjugate-residual scheme. By comparing the two methods, we have demonstrated both theoretically and by example that our surface/Newton-GCR algorithm is faster and more robust than the simpler relaxation scheme. We have also been working on the multipole accelerated Galerkin implementation of our electrostatic analysis program FASTCAP. The motivation for this is that Galerkin is less sensitive to the mesh of the structure than the original collocation approach and, particularly with dielectric interfaces, yields more accurate results.

We have also been investigating how to apply CAD to MEMS with the level of complexity of a practical, high-volume manufacturable sensor while avoiding computationally impractical models. Two methods were developed. One was a simple analysis method in which the ideal structure was assumed. This allowed prediction of the stability and the effects of structure misalignment on a surface-micromachined accelerometer. However, the simple method is limited because the actual structure has fabrication induced non-idealities, such as warpage, which can cause the simple method to be significantly in error. The second method discarded the ideal structure assumption and analyzed the non-ideal structure via a self-consistent analysis. This method is based on the calculation of an intermediate look-up table from which the electrostatic forces are obtained directly from the position of the moving mass, greatly reducing computation time and memory requirements in comparison to a standard self-consistent electromechanical analysis scheme. Using this lumped-model self-consistent scheme, we analyzed an Analog Devices, Inc. ADXL50 accelerometer including fabrication non-idealities (warpage, over-etching, residual stress, etc).

Finally, in our latest work we investigate the coupling of fluid forces and mechanical deformation to add additional capabilities to our existing MEMCAD system. To gain more control over the underlying algorithms of the current MEMCAD system first, we are currently implementing an elastostatic solver to replace the commercial mechanical solver used in the MEMCAD system.

1.8 Numerical Techniques for Simulating Josephson Junction Arrays

Sponsors

Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency/Consortium for Superconducting Electronics
Contract MDA 972-90-C-0021
National Defense Science and Engineering Graduate Fellowship

Project Staff

Joel R. Phillips, Dr. Herre S.J. van der Zant, Professor Terry Orlando, Professor Jacob K. White

Vortices play a central role in determining the static and dynamic properties of two-dimensional (2-D) superconductors. Artificial networks of superconducting islands weakly coupled by Josephson junctions are model systems to study the behavior of vortices. Through simulation, we have discovered that the static properties of vortices in an array of Josephson junctions can be significantly influenced by magnetic fields induced by the vortex currents. The energy barrier for vortex motion is enhanced, nearly doubling for penetration depths on the order of a cell size. Moreover, we have found that correct calculation of the vortex current distribution, the magnetic moment, and the lower critical field require modeling mutual inductance interactions between all cell pairs in the array. To make numerical simulation of the system with all inductive effects computationally feasible, a novel FFT-accelerated integral equation solver was derived. This algorithm is sufficiently efficient to

---


allow Shapiro steps and the dynamics of row-switched states in large (500x500 cells) arrays.\textsuperscript{15}

1.9 Efficient 3-D Interconnect Analysis

Sponsors

Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
Contract DABT63-94-C-0053

Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency/ Consortium for Superconducting Electronics
Contract MDA 972-90-C-0021

Digital Equipment Corporation
IBM Corporation
MIT Lincoln Laboratory
National Defense Science and Engineering Graduate Fellowship
Semiconductor Research Corporation
Contract SRC 95-SJ-558

U.S. Army
Contract DABT63-95-C-0088

Project Staff

Michael T. Chou, Mattan Kamon, Yehia M. Massoud, Keith S. Nabors, Joel R. Phillips, Johannes Tausch, Professor Jacob K. White

We have developed multipole-accelerated algorithms for computing capacitances and inductances of complicated 3-D geometries and have implemented these algorithms in the programs FASTCAP and FASTHENRY. The methods are accelerations of the boundary-element or method-of-moments techniques for solving the integral equations associated with the multiconductor capacitance or inductance extraction problem. Boundary-element methods become slow when a large number of elements are used because they lead to dense matrix problems which are typically solved with some form of Gaussian elimination. This implies that the computation grows as $n^3$, where $n$ is the number of panels or tiles needed to accurately discretize the conductor surface charges.

Our new algorithms, which use generalized conjugate residual iterative algorithms with a multipole approximation to compute the iterates, reduces the complexity so that accurate multiconductor capacitance and inductance calculations grow nearly as $nm$ where $m$ is the number of conductors. For practical problems which require as many as 10,000 panels or filaments, FASTCAP and FASTHENRY are more than two orders of magnitude faster than standard boundary-element based programs.\textsuperscript{16} Manuals and source code for FASTCAP and FASTHENRY are available directly from MIT.

In our latest work, we have developed an alternative to the fast-multipole approach to potential calculation. The new approach uses an approximate representation of charge density by point charges lying on a uniform grid instead of by multipole expansions. For engineering accuracies, the grid-charge representation has been shown to be a more efficient charge representation than the multipole expansions. Numerical experiments on a variety of engineering examples arising indicate that algorithms based on the resulting "precorrected-FFT" method are comparable in computational efficiency to multipole-accelerated iterative schemes and superior in terms of memory utilization.\textsuperscript{17}


The precorrected-FFT method has another significant advantage over the multipole-based schemes, in that it can be easily generalized to some other common kernels. Preliminary results indicate that the precorrected-FFT method can easily incorporate kernels arising from the problem of capacitance extraction in layered media. More importantly, problems with a Helmholtz equation kernel have been solved at moderate frequencies with only a modest increase in computational resources over the zero-frequency case. An algorithm based on the precorrected-FFT method which efficiently solves the Helmholtz equation could form the basis for a rapid yet accurate full-wave electromagnetic analysis tool.

In order to accurately compute the RC delay and cross-talk noise in complicated three-dimensional interconnects, it is necessary to numerically solve Maxwell's equation in the electro-quasistatic regime. It has been suggested that the analysis be performed by computing the time evolution of the electric field both inside and outside the conductors via a finite-difference discretization of Laplace's equation. While this method leads to a sparse matrix problem, it requires discretization of the entire physical domain and generates a large number of unknowns. More recently, a boundary-element approach based on Green's theorem was proposed, which performs the calculation using the same surface discretization used for ordinary capacitance extraction. However, this leads to dense matrix problems which are too expensive to solve directly. When the fast-multipole algorithm is applied to the iterative solution in the boundary-element method, we find that the small multipole errors are magnified to unacceptable levels due to the ill-conditioning in the steady-state problem.

We have formulated a new, mixed surface-volume approach, which requires both the conductor surfaces and interior volume be discretized. Given the conductor surface potentials, Laplace's equation is solved independently inside each conductor via the finite-difference method to determine the internal current flow. The vector of internal and external currents cause charging of conductor surfaces, which is used to compute the time-rate of change of surface potentials via the boundary-element method. The interior problem is dense and thus inexpensive to solve. The boundary-element problem is dense, but its solution can be accelerated by the fast-multipole algorithm to improve efficiency of the overall scheme. In this approach, accuracy is not affected by the ill-conditioning because the perturbed system has a physical analog close to the exact problem. Numerical experiments on realistic interconnect problems show that the new method can run twenty times faster and use two orders of magnitude less memory than using dense iterative methods.

1. Adaptive Gridding Techniques for Multipole-Accelerated Solution of Integral Equations

Sponsors
National Science Foundation
Grant MIP 91-17724
Semiconductor Research Corporation
Contract SRC-95-SJ-558

Project Staff
Michael T. Chou, F. Thomas Korsmeyer, Professor Jacob K. White

Finding computationally efficient numerical techniques for simulation of three dimensional structures has been an important research topic in almost every engineering domain. Surprisingly, the most numerically intractable problem across these

---


21 Research Staff, MIT Department of Ocean Engineering.
various disciplines can be reduced to the problem of solving a three-dimensional Laplace problem. Such problems are often referred to as potential problems. Examples of applications include (1) electrostatic analysis of sensors and actuators; (2) electro- and magneto-quasistatic analysis of integrated circuit interconnect and packaging; and (3) potential flow based analysis of wave海洋 using realistic examples from a wide variety of engineering disciplines, we will be able to determine the robustness of our procedures.

1.11 Coupled Circuit-Interconnect/ Packaging Analysis

Sponsors
Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
Contract DABT63-94-C-0053
Semiconductor Research Corporation
Contract SRC 95-SJ-558
U.S. Army
Contract DABT63-95-C-0088

Project Staff
Ibrahim M. Elfadel, Mattan Kamon, Joel R. Phillips, Michael T. Chou

To help support our work in interconnect analysis, we are developing algorithms for efficient SPICE-level simulation of elements with arbitrary frequency-domain descriptions, such as scattering parameters. That is, an element can be represented in the form of a frequency-domain model or a table of measured frequency-domain data. Our approach initially uses a forced stable decade-by-decade \( l_1 \) minimization approach to construct a sum of rational functions approximation, but the approximation has dozens of poles and zeros. This unnecessarily high-order model is then reduced using a guaranteed stable model order reduction scheme based on balanced realizations. Once the reduced-order model is derived, it can be combined with any inherent delay (for transmission line models) to generate an impulse response. Finally, following what is now a standard approach, the impulse response is efficiently incorporated in the circuit simulator SPICE3 using recursive convolution.

Reduced-order modeling techniques are now commonly used to efficiently simulate circuits combined

---


with interconnect. Generating reduced-order models from realistic 3-D structures, however, has received less attention. Recently we have been studying an accurate approach to using the iterative method in the 3-D magnetoquasistatic analysis program FASTHENRY to compute reduced-order models of frequency-dependent inductance matrices associated with complicated 3-D structures. This method, based on a Krylov-subspace technique, namely the Arnoldi iteration, reformulates the system of linear ODEs resulting from the FASTHENRY equation into a state-space form and directly produces a reduced-order model in state-space form. The key advantage of this method is that it is not more expensive than computing the inductance matrix at a single frequency. The method compares well with the standard Padé approaches; it may present some advantages because in the Arnoldi-based algorithm, each set of iterations produces an entire column of the inductance matrix rather than a single entry. If matrix-vector product costs dominate, then the Arnoldi-based algorithm produces a better approximation for a given amount of work.\(^\text{25}\)

### 1.12 Simulation Algorithms for Communication Circuits

**Sponsors**
Motorola Corporation
National Science Foundation
Grant MIP 91-17724

**Project Staff**
Oglen J. Nastov, Professor Jacob K. White

The determination of the steady-state distortion of clocked analog circuits such as switching filters and phase-locked loops, using conventional circuit simulation techniques, is an extraordinarily computationally intensive task. This is because the period of the clock is orders of magnitude smaller than the required time interval to reach the steady-state. One approach to computing steady-state distortion is the mixed frequency-time method (MFT). This method is based on the observation that the node waveforms in a particular high-frequency clock cycle are similar to the node waveforms in the neighboring cycles. Therefore, this suggests that by calculating the solution accurately over a few selected clock cycles, a solution accurate over many cycles can be constructed.

We are developing a generalization of the MFT algorithm which can be used to calculate the steady-state and intermodulation distortion for analog circuits whose inputs are a sum of periodic signals at unrelated frequencies. For example, computing the intermodulation distortion of narrow-band amplifiers by traditional circuit simulation is very difficult. The maximum usable time step is much smaller than the period of the difference frequency of the two frequencies in the input signal. The period of the difference frequency is large since the two input frequencies are required to be close in order for the distortion products to be within the bandwidth of the amplifier. If the amplifier is high-Q, the required simulation time interval will be many times larger than the period of the difference frequency. At present, the key problem in applying MFT methods to large problems is finding efficient techniques to solve the large linear systems generated by these methods. We are investigating using a variety of preconditioned matrix-free iterative methods.\(^\text{26}\) We are also exploring other possible extensions of the MFT ideas and their application to other nonlinear analog circuits that are difficult to simulate.

---


1.12.1 Publications


Chapter 1. Custom Integrated Circuits


Remote Microscope Interface

Console Window for controlling microscope

Global Window showing panoramic view at 50X

Zoomed Window showing image at 400X