Abstract. Standard tools for CAD have limited modes of the sensitivity analysis: PSPICE only contains a static mode and SPECTRE includes frequency-domain and static modes. However, many RF systems use symmetrical structures for enhancing the circuit properties. For such systems, the static sensitivities are zero on principle and hence the time-domain sensitivity analysis should be used. In the paper, a novel recurrent formula for the time-domain sensitivity analysis is derived which uses by-products of an efficient implicit integration algorithm. As the selected integration algorithm is more flexible than the Gear’s one that is ordinarily used, the sensitivity analysis is more efficient in comparison with the standard CAD tools. An implementation of the method is demonstrated using the analysis of a low-voltage four-quadrant RF multiplier. Nonstandard temperature sensitivity analyses are also tested in the static and dynamic modes.

Keywords
Implicit integration algorithm, sensitivity analysis, RF CMOS circuits, analog multiplier, four-quadrant mixer.

1. Introduction

The circuit equations can only be defined in an implicit form in most cases. Therefore, a robust and effective algorithm for the implicit integration of a system of algebraic-differential equations must be used. Hence, main features of such algorithm are described at first. Thereafter, a novel formula is derived for the time-domain sensitivity analysis that cooperates with this integration algorithm in a natural way.

2. Definition of the Algorithms

The system of nonlinear algebraic-differential equations of a circuit is generally defined in the implicit form

\[
\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t), t] = 0. \tag{1}
\]

Let us assume now that the first \( n \) steps of a numerical integration of (1) have finished. Let us mark \( x(t_n) \) by \( x_n \) and define backward scaled differences by the formulae

\[
\begin{align*}
\delta^{(0)} x_n &= x_n, \\
\delta^{(k)} x_n &= \delta^{(k-1)} x_n - \alpha_n^{(k-1)} \delta^{(k-1)} x_{n-1}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, k_n + 2 \tag{2}
\end{align*}
\]

(a concept of the backward scaled differences with a detailed stability investigation can be found in [1], e.g.), where \( k_n \) is the order of the polynomial interpolation used in the last integration step, and the \( \alpha_n^{(i)} \) multipliers are also determined using the recurrent scheme:

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha_n^{(0)} &= 1, \\
\alpha_n^{(k)} &= \alpha_n^{(k-1)} - \frac{t_n - t_{n-k}}{t_{n-1} - t_{n-1-k}}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, k_n + 1. \tag{3}
\end{align*}
\]

The predictor of the variables for the next chosen time (i.e., for \( t_{n+1} \)) marked by \( x_n^{(0)} \) is determined by the polynomial extrapolation using the backward scaled differences (2):

\[
x_{n+1}^{(0)} = \sum_{k=0}^{k_n+1} \alpha_{n+1}^{(k)} \delta^{(k)} x_n \tag{4}
\]

(4) is a more sophisticated form of the Newton interpolation polynomial—see the proof of Theorem 1 in the Appendix.

The corrector of the variables \( x_{n+1} := x_{n+1}^{(\max)} \) for \( t_{n+1} \) is determined by the modified Newton iterations

\[
\left[ \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(j)}{\partial x} \right)_{n+1} + \gamma_{n+1} \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(j)}{\partial x} \right)_{n+1} \right] \Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)} = -f_{n+1}^{(j)}, \quad j = 0, \ldots, j_{\max}, \tag{5}
\]

i.e., by repeated solving the linear system (5) with applying the \( \gamma_{n+1} \) factor approximated by (see Theorem 2 in the Appendix)

\[
\gamma_{n+1} = \sum_{k=1}^{k_n+1} \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+1-k}}. \tag{6}
\]

which gives the standard formula \( \gamma_{n+1} = 1/(t_{n+1} - t_n) = 1/\Delta t_{n+1} \) if the first-order (i.e., Euler’s) method is used.
After resolving the linear system (5), the vectors $x_{n+1}^{(j)}$ and $\dot{x}_{n+1}^{(j)}$ are updated in the standard way:

$$
x_{n+1}^{(j+1)} = x_{n+1}^{(j)} + \Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)},
$$

$$
\dot{x}_{n+1}^{(j+1)} = \dot{x}_{n+1}^{(j)} + \gamma_{n+1} \Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)},
$$

(7)

which completes the $j + 1$ iteration of the $n + 1$ time step. However, if an indication of divergence is detected during the iterations, then the logarithmic damping [2] is applied to each component $\Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)}$ of the vector $\Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)}$:

$$
i \Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)} := \text{sgn}(i \Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)}) |i x_{n+1}^{(j)}| \ln \left(1 + \frac{|i \Delta x_{n+1}^{(j)}|}{|i x_{n+1}^{(j)}|}\right),
$$

(8)

before the execution of (7) ($m$ is the dimension of $x$ and $\dot{x}$).

Operating-point analysis is performed using the static variant of (1)

$$
f(x_0, 0, t_0) = f(x_0) = 0,
$$

(9)

which is solved by the static variants of (5) and (7):

$$
\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_0}\right)^{(j)} \Delta x_0^{(j)} = -f_0^{(j)}, \quad x_0^{(j+1)} = x_0^{(j)} + \Delta x_0^{(j)},
$$

$$
j = 0, \ldots, j_{\text{max}}.
$$

(10)

However, the convergence in the operating-point analysis is often more problematic than that in the transient analysis. (In the transient analysis, the results of the previous step serve as a good estimate for the following step.) To avoid possible divergence, a novel control mechanism has been developed [3] for handling the differences $\Delta x_0^{(j)}$ during each iteration:

if $j = 0$ then

$$
\ddot{x} := x_0^{(0)},
$$

$$\Delta \dot{x} := \Delta x_0^{(0)},
$$

$$\ddot{f} := f_0^{(0)},
$$

iteration is accepted,

else

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{|f_0^{(j)}|}{|f| + |f_{\text{null}}|} < 1$$

then

$$
\ddot{x} := x_0^{(j)},
$$

$$\Delta \dot{x} := \Delta x_0^{(j)},
$$

$$\ddot{f} := f_0^{(j)},
$$

iteration is accepted,

else

$$\Delta \dot{x} := \Delta \dot{x} + \Delta \dot{x},
$$

$$x_0^{(j)} := \ddot{x},
$$

$$\Delta x_0^{(j)} := \Delta \dot{x},
$$

iteration is rejected,

which checks the residual value of $f_0^{(j)}$ after each iteration.

The basic idea of handling the differences $\Delta x_0^{(j)}$ in accord with (11) relates to the fundamental property of the Newton-Raphson method. If the average value of the residues does not decrease then the difference is halved and the iteration is repeated. The halving continues until the average residual value has decreased. It is sure that the occurrence of the decreased average residue will be found and therefore the algorithm does not even contain a check for a possible infinite loop (!). As a result, only such $\Delta x_0^{(j)}$ is used for updating the vector $x_0^{(j)}$ that ensures the decrease of the average value of the residues.

Note that the parameters $f_{\text{null}}$ prevent possible division by zero and $\ddot{x}$, $\Delta \dot{x}$, and $\ddot{f}$ are auxiliary vectors.

Using the Newton-Raphson method (10) with the controlling procedure (11) leads to a very reliable convergence. However, the number of iterations could be very large in that case and therefore the logarithmic damping (8) should not be applied if its use is not necessary for another reason.

### 2.1 A Novel Recurrent Formula for the Time-Domain Sensitivity Analysis

With respect to the notation used above, a system of the parametric algebraic-differential equations of a circuit can be symbolically written in the form

$$
f(x(t, p), \dot{x}(t, p), t, p) = 0,
$$

(12)

where $p$ is one of the circuit parameters on which the sensitivities are requested. Differentiating (12) with respect to $p$ and using the abbreviations $x'(t, p) \equiv \partial x(t, p)/\partial p$ and $\dot{x}'(t, p) \equiv \partial \dot{x}(t, p)/\partial p$, we obtain

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x'(t, p) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}} \dot{x}'(t, p) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = 0.
$$

(13)

After a derivation with using the backward scaled differences (2, 3) and corrector (5, 6) (see the proof of Theorem 3 in the Appendix), we obtain the novel recurrent formula

$$
\left[\left\{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right\}_{n+1} + \gamma_{n+1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n+1}}\right]\dot{x}_{n+1}^{t} = -\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial p}\right)_{n+1} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}}\right)_{n+1} \times \sum_{l=1}^{k_{n+1}} \alpha_{n+1}^{l-1} \dot{\vartheta}^{l-1} \sum_{k=1}^{k_{n+1}} \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+1-k}},
$$

(14)

which has the same Jacobian as that in (5) (for each $p$)—therefore, the laborious LU factorization of that matrix must be executed only once (of course) for each $t_{n+1}$, $n = 0, \ldots$.

The part of (14) which is enclosed by the box enables more accurate and efficient computing the sensitivities in comparison with other interpolation formulae defined in [4].
2.2 Operating-Point Sensitivity Analysis

For determining initial parametric derivative $x'(\Delta t, p)$ by the recurrent formula (14) (note that the implicit integration algorithm must always start with the first-order method), the static parametric derivative $x'(0, p) = x'_0(p)$ must be computed in advance. This vector can be obtained bydifferentiating a parametric version of (9)

$$f_0[ x_0(p), p ] = 0,$$

which gives the simpler system of linear equations than (14)

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial x_0} [ x_0(p), p ] x'_0(p) = -\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial p} [ x_0(p), p ].$$

3. Checking the Implementation

3.1 Four-Quadrant CMOS RF Multiplier

Let us consider a four-quadrant CMOS RF multiplier in Fig. 1 [5], which has been checked using the sensitivity analysis described in Section 2. Note that a medium-wave version of the circuit has been realized at our department, and we plan to perform the IM3 measurement. The output voltage of the multiplier is highly dependent on the controlling one applied to the gates of $m_6$ and $m_7$ transistors.

A comparison of the output signals corresponding to the two controlling voltages is shown in Fig. 2. For the controlling voltages $1$ and $1.5$ V, the magnitudes of the output signal are about 20 and 50 mV, respectively.

The output voltage of the multiplier is also very dependent on the zero-bias threshold voltages $V_{T0}$ ([6], [7]) of the transistors. The sensitivities of the output voltage on these important model parameters, i.e., the functions

$$\frac{\partial V_{Output}}{\partial V_{T0,MN1}(t)}, \frac{\partial V_{Output}}{\partial V_{T0,MN2}(t)}, \text{ and } \frac{\partial V_{Output}}{\partial V_{T0,MP}(t)}$$

are shown in Fig. 3. As we can observe, the sensitivity on the threshold voltage $V_{T0,MP}$ is the most significant. Let us emphasize that the utilized software tool [2] uses another definition for the zero-bias threshold voltages $V_{T0}$ ([6], [7]) of the transistors—original values for the standard PSPICE type model were $0.62$ and $-0.58$ V [5] (in the modified model [2], the threshold voltage is positive for both N and P channel enhancement mode transistors—this is the same convention as that in the PSPICE JFET modeling [8]).
The results in Fig. 3 can simply be checked. The zero-bias threshold voltages of the MNx and MP transistors were 0.47 and 0.44 V, respectively. We can execute another analysis with somewhat changed $V_{T0,MP}$ parameter and estimate the sensitivity numerically. For example, let us use a modified value $V_{T0,MP} = 0.4$ V. At 17 ns (where the sensitivity of $V_{Output}$ on $V_{T0,MP}$ has the maximum 0.0379411 as seen in Fig. 3), the values of the output voltage $V_{Output}$ and $V_{Output}'$ (computed using the values $V_{T0,MP} = 0.44$ V and $V_{T0,MP} = 0.4$ V) were 0.0139211 V and 0.0118593 V, respectively. Now let us compare these results: the predicted value obtained using the sensitivity is $V_{Output}' = 0.0139211 - 0.04 \times 0.0379411 = 0.0124035$ V, the actual output obtained using the value $V_{T0,MP}'$ is $V_{Output}' = 0.0118593$ V, so the error of the prediction is about 4.59%. At 20 ns, the values of $V_{Output}$, $\partial V_{Output}/\partial V_{T0,MP}$, and $V_{Output}'$ were 0.00152467 V, 0.00303789, and 0.00138769 V, respectively. Comparing again, the predicted value obtained using the sensitivity is $V_{Output}' = 0.00152467 - 0.04 \times 0.00303789 = 0.00140315$ V, the actual voltage obtained using the modified value $V_{T0,MP}'$ is $V_{Output}' = 0.00138769$ V, so the error of the prediction is about 1.11% now—of course, the error is lesser for the smaller magnitude of the output signal.

If we only want to compute the sensitivities on the zero-bias threshold voltages, the above experiments using the modified values $V_{T0}$ are possible. However, the semiempirical, BSIM [9], and EKV MOSFET models have many parameters and therefore it is impossible to check the circuit using small differences of the model parameters if we want to check all the sensitivities. For complex testing a circuit with respect to all its parameters, the sensitivity analysis seems to be the only effective way. Emphasize that the symmetrical circuit in Fig. 1 has zero static sensitivities (on principle). Hence, the PSPICE sensitivity analysis does not offer any usable results here.

### 3.2 Operating-Point and Time-Domain Temperature Sensitivity Analyses

Consider a power operational amplifier in Fig. 4 for which both operating-point and time-domain temperature sensitivity analyses will be tested. The amplifier has input transistors symmetrically connected as the standard differential pair. Therefore, a sensitivity of the output voltage on local warming up $\Delta T$ of Q1 is to be complementary to a sensitivity of the output voltage on local warming up $\Delta T_2$ of Q2. The values of these nonstandard sensitivities will be monitored as an appropriate and unconventional test of the algorithm.

#### 3.2.1 Operating-Point Sensitivity Analysis

The operating-point sensitivities (i.e., the initial static ones) obtained by solving the static modification of (14) (i.e., by (16)) are precisely zero-symmetrical as expected

$$\frac{\partial V_{Output}}{\partial (\Delta T_1)} = -0.00192971 \text{ V/K},$$

$$\frac{\partial V_{Output}}{\partial (\Delta T_2)} = -0.00192971 \text{ V/K}. \quad (17)$$

In other words, if the two transistors have the same warming up (which is natural) by 10 K, e.g., the output voltage changes approximately by $-46 \text{ mV}$—the precise symmetry is very important because the output voltage is only about 1.3 mV when the amplifier works at its operating point.

#### 3.2.2 Time-Domain Sensitivity Analysis

The results of solving the recurrent system (14) for the first period of transient with the starting vector (17) are shown in Fig. 5. The best symmetry occurred (as also expected) when the input and output voltages are close to zero values. For other voltages, however, the symmetry is not accurate but sufficient which the analysis clearly validates.
4. Conclusion

A novel recurrent procedure for the time-domain sensitivity analysis has been proposed that efficiently uses the computational by-products of implicit integration algorithm. As the selected integration algorithm uses the backward scaled differences based on flexible Newton interpolation polynomial, the sensitivity analysis is more efficient than similar ones based on other interpolation schemes. The implementation has successfully been checked analyzing the sophisticated low-voltage low-power CMOS RF multiplier. The correctness of programming the formulae has been checked by means of the classical finite difference analysis assuming that the novel way gives more accurate results on principle. The implementation has also been checked from the physical point of view using the nonstandard temperature sensitivity analysis in both static and dynamic domains.

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![Fig. 4. Power operational amplifier used for testing the operating-point and time-domain temperature sensitivity analyses, respectively.](image)

![Fig. 5. Symmetrical temperature time-domain sensitivities of the output voltage of the amplifier on $\Delta T_1$ and $\Delta T_2$.](image)
Appendix

Theorem 1 The formula (4) can be regarded as a transformed Newton interpolation polynomial.

Proof: A member of the interpolation polynomial

\[ x_{n+1} = x_n + (t_{n+1} - t_n) x_{n,n-1} + \]
\[ (t_{n+1} - t_n) (t_{n+1} - t_{n-1}) x_{n,n-2} + \cdots + \]
\[ (t_{n+1} - t_n) \cdots (t_{n+1} - t_{n+k+1}) x_{n,n-k+1} \]

(18a)

with the backward scaled differences defined as

\[ x_{n,n-1} = \frac{x_n - x_{n-1}}{t_n - t_{n-1}} \]
\[ \cdots \]
\[ x_{n,n-k+1} = \frac{x_{n+k-1} - x_{n+k-2}}{t_n - t_{n-k+1}} \]

(18b)

can sequentially be transformed in the following way:

\[ (t_{n+1} - t_n) \cdots (t_{n+1} - t_{n+k-1}) x_{n,n-k} = \]
\[ (t_{n+1} - t_n) \cdots (t_{n+1} - t_{n+k-1}) \]
\[ \frac{x_{n,n-1} - x_{n,n-2}}{t_n - t_{n-1}} \]
\[ \cdots \]
\[ \frac{x_{n,n-k+1} - x_{n,n-k+2}}{t_n - t_{n-k+1}} \]

(19)

Proof: The vector \( x_{n+1}^{(j)} \) is to be expressed as a polynomial created by (4) and (3):

\[ x_{n+1}^{(j)} = \]
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_{n+1}^{(j)} - x_{n+1}}{t_{n+1} - t_n} = \]
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \left[ \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+2}} x_{n+1}^{(j)} + \cdots + \right. \]
\[ \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \left. \left( \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+2}} \right) x_{n+1}^{(j)} + \cdots + \right. \]
\[ \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \left. \left( \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+k+1}} \right) x_{n+1}^{(j)} + \cdots + \right. \]
\[ \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \left. \left( \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+k+1}} \right) x_{n+1}^{(j)} + \cdots + \right. \]

(20)

and the last formula in (20) gives the \( \gamma_{n+1} \) factor in (5) directly—this process is often called “algebraization”. ■

Theorem 3 The derivatives of the sensitivities \( x_{n+1}^{'} \) with respect to \( t_{n+1} \) can be expressed by the formula

\[ x_{n+1}^{'} = \gamma_{n+1} x_{n+1}^{'} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+1-k}} \delta^{(k)} x_{n+1}^{(')} \]

(21)

Proof: For the substitution of \( x_{n+1}^{'} \), we can use the main interpolation system (see the last formula in (20) again)

\[ x_{n+1}^{'} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+1-k}} \delta^{(k)} x_{n+1}^{(')} \]

(22)

Using (2) gives the backward difference of \( k \)th order as

\[ \delta^{(k)} x_{n+1}^{'} = \delta^{(k-1)} x_{n+1}^{'} - \alpha^{(k-1)} \delta^{(k-1)} x_{n}^{'} \]

(23)

—the 2nd term in the right side of (23) contains known sensitivities at \( t_n \). Therefore, only the first term must be unraveled and such decreasing the order can continue until the sensitivity vectors at \( t_{1} \) and \( t_{n} \) are reached, i.e.,

\[ \delta^{(k-1)} x_{n+1}^{'} = \delta^{(k-2)} x_{n+1}^{'} - \alpha^{(k-2)} \delta^{(k-2)} x_{n}^{'} \]

(24)

The equations (23) and (24) give the general formula

\[ \delta^{(k)} x_{n+1}^{'} = x_{n+1}^{'} - \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} \alpha^{(l)} \delta^{(l)} x_{n}^{'} \]

(25)
which is an analogy of the last part of (19). Now we can evaluate the terms in the right side of (22) by means of (25). For the first term \((k = 1, i.e., l = 0\) in (25)), we obtain

\[ x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \alpha_n \delta_n x_n. \]  

(26)

For the second term \((k = 2, i.e., l = 0 \text{ or } 1)\), we obtain

\[ x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \times \left( \alpha_n \delta_n x_n + \alpha_{n+1} \delta_1 x_n \right). \]  

(27)

for the third term \((k = 3, i.e., l = 0, 1, \text{ or } 2)\), we obtain

\[ x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \times \left( \alpha_n \delta_n x_n + \alpha_{n+1} \delta_1 x_n + \alpha_{n+2} \delta_2 x_n \right). \]  

(28)

and, for the last term \((k = k_n + 1, i.e., l = 0, \ldots, k_n + 1 - 1)\), we obtain

\[ x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_n} \times \left( \alpha_n \delta_n x_n + \cdots + \alpha_{k_n+1} \delta_{k_n+1} x_n \right). \]  

(29)

The grouping of the related terms in (26) to (29) gives the compact form of \(x'_{n+1}\) (i.e., “a sensitivity algebraization”):

\[ x'_{n+1} = x_n \sum_{k=1}^{k_n+1} \frac{1}{t_{n+1} - t_{n+1-k}} \]

which is an unrolled form of (21)—all the above formulae are more flexible than possible ones that can be derived on the basis of Gear’s method [10].

A comparison with the first-order method

Several classical CAD tools have used the simplest first-order formula

\[ \left[ \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)_{n+1} \right] x'_{n+1} = \frac{1}{\Delta x_{n+1}} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)_{n+1} \]  

(30)

instead of (14). Comparing the efficiencies of (30) and (14) by means of the C.I.A. program [2], we obtain the CPU times (on Pentium IV/2.6 GHz/Windows 98 SE) in Tab. 1 for the sensitivity analyses of the circuit in Fig. 1—they clearly show the usefulness of the novel formula.

\[ \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{CPU time} & \text{Formula (30)} & 49 & 64 & 65 \\
\hline
\text{(s)} & \text{Formula (14)} & 34 & 38 & 38 \\
\hline
\end{array} \]

Tab. 1. Comparison of the efficiency of the classical formula with the novel one.

References


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