

# Abstract

LUNIYA, SONALI. SPICE Like Sparse Transient Analysis. (Under the direction of Michael B. Steer)

A state variable transient circuit analysis using sparse matrices is developed. The equations are formulated using time discretization based on Newton's iterative method of equations of the nonlinear part of the circuit. The system thus formed is an algebraic system of linear equations. The program uses advanced numerical techniques, such as automatic differentiation for calculating the Jacobian of the system. The program is tested by simulating a Soliton line and a Wideband amplifier. The results of this analysis is compared to those obtained from SPICE, and conclusions are made.

# **SPICE Like Sparse Transient Analysis**

by

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## Biographical Summary

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Motivations and Objectives of this study

Time marching transient analysis is the most common type used in circuit simulators. Research efforts are being made to extend this method to solve large nonlinear circuits using state variables, as this improves robustness and dramatically simplifies model development. One issue of concern with time marching transient analysis using state variables, as implemented to date, is that the analysis matrix is dense. This is due to the fact that the storage of the Jacobian matrix, requires  $n_s^2$  words, and its factorization time is  $O(n_s^3)$ , where  $n_s$  is the number of state variables used in the circuit [1]. For large systems with more than a few hundred state variables the factorization of the Jacobian matrix is expensive. So reformulating the transient analysis scheme to obtain sparse matrices and eliminating the need to factor the Jacobian are essential to efficiently handle large circuits. These sparse matrix equations can be solved using a sparse-matrix solver, effectively improving the speed of the

system.

This work has primarily focused on developing an efficient time marching transient analysis using state variables for large systems. The approach used was:

1. Using the minimum number of state variables and error functions to reduce redundancy of the matrix.
2. Setting the entries of the matrix, whose magnitude is smaller than a specific threshold, to zero.
3. Use time and Newton discretization of the nonlinear elements to convert circuit analysis to successive analyses of linear resistive circuits.
4. Use sparse-matrix techniques to solve the linear system thus formed.

This approach was successfully implemented in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> and the results using different time marching simulation techniques were compared. With respect to memory requirements and simulation time, our program performs about the same as commercial tools for medium and large size problems. However this is achieved with substantial increase in robustness and reduction in modeling complexity.

## 1.2 Thesis Overview

Chapter 2 presents a review of the published material on transient analysis of circuits. Chapter 3 discusses in detail the transient analysis formulation used in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> first, and then the implementation of the algorithm. Chapter 4

presents the results of the analysis for a 47 section Nonlinear Transmission Line(NLTL) and a wideband amplifier.

The last chapter concludes and discusses future research in this area.

### **1.3 Original Contributions**

Sparse matrix formulation are ideally suited for solving large system problems. The SPICE-like sparse transient analysis, presented in Chapter 3, is an original contribution in this thesis. The formulation and implementation of the equations for this analysis are an original contribution. It is shown that this analysis is best suited for large systems as the matrix gets larger and sparser with increasing number of circuit elements.

# Chapter 2

## Literature Review

### 2.1 Introduction

The most widespread method of nonlinear circuit analysis is time-domain analysis [3] (also called transient analysis) using programs like SPICE. Such programs use numerical integration methods to determine the response at one instance of time given the circuit's response at a previous instance of time. The success of SPICE is that the associated discrete modeling approach works extremely well; whereby the analysis of a nonlinear dynamic circuits is converted into successive analysis of linear resistive circuits developed from the original circuit using time discretization based on Newton's iterative method.

### 2.2 Nodal Analysis

In the nodal formulation of the network equations a matrix equation is developed that relates terminal voltages to external current sources. This formula-

tion requires that elements have admittance descriptions such as  $i = vG$  for a resistor, where  $i$  is the current flowing through the resistor,  $v$  is the voltage (edge voltage) across it, and  $G$  is the conductance of the resistor. The edge voltages in this description can be related to nodal voltages using network topology.

### 2.2.1 Formulating Network Equations for Linear Circuits

Consider the general network  $\mathcal{N}$  with  $N$  internal terminals in addition to the reference terminal and  $E$  internal edges (not including the edges with external current sources). In general the reference terminal is not part of the circuit. All of the terminals of the network have external current sources  $\mathbf{J}$  with  $J_n$  being the external current source between the  $n^{\text{th}}$  terminal and the reference terminal. Formulation of the network equations requires

- knowledge of the network topology for which the incidence matrix is used, and
- constitutive relations describing the element characteristics.

The admittance of an element relates the edge current through it to the voltage across it which is the edge voltage. In matrix form the relation between the edge currents ( $\mathbf{i}_e$ ) and edge voltages ( $\mathbf{v}_e$ ) is given by,

$$\mathbf{i}_e = \mathbf{Y}_e \mathbf{v}_e \tag{2.1}$$

where  $\mathbf{Y}_e$  is the edge-admittance matrix and contains the required constitutive relations of the network. To formulate the network equations the result that external current sources can be related to node voltages is used. To begin with, the relationship,

$$\mathbf{v}_e = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{v}_n \quad (2.2)$$

is used, where  $\mathbf{A}^T$  is the transpose of the incidence matrix and  $\mathbf{v}_n$  is the vector of node voltages. Now  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{i}_e$  is the vector of the net currents leaving a node so that KCL requires that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{i}_e = \mathbf{J}_n \quad (2.3)$$

where  $\mathbf{J}_n$  is the vector of the external current sources at each node. Combining the above three equations, results in

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}_e\mathbf{A}^T \quad (2.4)$$

where  $\mathbf{Y}$  is the nodal admittance matrix. This equation enables us to calculate, using standard matrix solution techniques, the node voltages given the external current sources. But as long as the grounded reference terminal is part of the network there is a linear dependence of the rows of  $\mathbf{Y}$  ( $|\mathbf{Y}| = 0$ ) and so  $\mathbf{Y}$  is called the indefinite Nodal Admittance Matrix (NAM). One row and one column can be deleted from  $\mathbf{Y}$  to yield the definite NAM. This approach cannot be used with multi terminal elements as they do not have admittance descriptions. Hence the modified nodal analysis technique is used.

### 2.2.2 Modified Nodal Analysis

In this method each element that does not have a nodal-admittance description is treated specially and the network equation matrix being formed is modified to account for the new element. Solution of the network using the modified nodal formulation comes down to solving a set of equations which in matrix form is

$$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \quad (2.5)$$

which in expanded form can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_n & \mathbf{E} \\ \mathbf{F} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_n \\ \mathbf{i}_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ \mathbf{K} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

where

$\mathbf{v}_n$  is a vector of all of the terminal (or node) voltages in a circuit.

$\mathbf{i}_k$  is a vector of edge currents but only those required to describe the network equation for those elements that cannot be represented in nodal admittance form.

$\mathbf{Y}_n$  is the nodal admittance matrix.

$\mathbf{E}$  is similar to an incidence matrix and relates the variables  $\mathbf{i}_k$  to the terminals. For the most part  $\mathbf{E}$  contains only 0, +1, and -1. In the special case of a current controlled current source the gain factor are entries in  $\mathbf{E}$ .

$\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  describe the constitutive relations of elements that do not have nodal admittance representations. These are elements that have current elements of  $\mathbf{i}_e$  as independent variables, and

$\mathbf{J}$  and  $\mathbf{K}$  are source vectors.  $\mathbf{J}$  is the vector of external current sources that appears in the nodal admittance formulation as contains the contributions of independent current sources.  $\mathbf{K}$  contains the contributions of independent current sources.

The major advantage of this technique is that the network equations are as close to the nodal-admittance form as possible. The only additional equations are those required to describe elements that can not be described by a nodal admittance matrix. The resulting network equation matrix has a low sparsity (for, say, circuits of less than 100 terminals) and is relatively small.

### 2.2.3 Nodal Analysis for Nonlinear Resistive Circuits

The analysis of nonlinear resistive circuits, or equivalently the analysis of circuits at dc is an important first step in the ac analysis of electronic circuits and in transient analysis. In both cases nonlinear resistive analysis determines the initial starting point for further analysis incorporating the energy storage elements. To develop dc nonlinear nodal equations, each element is replaced by a general element including the external sources. In the nodal approach all elements are assumed to be voltage controlled current sources so that,

$$i_k = g_k(v_j) \tag{2.7}$$

where,  $i_k$  is the current through the  $k$  th element (or the  $k$  th edge),  $v_j$  is the voltage across the  $j$  th element (or  $j$  th edge), and  $g_k$  is some function. For a linear resistor  $g_k$  is a constant. Applying the same approach used for linear circuits with  $\hat{v}_k = v_k + E_k$  we get the equation

$$f(v_n) = A(g(A^T v_n + E)) = AJ = 0 \quad (2.8)$$

This equation can be solved using some iterative method like Newton's iteration method.

## 2.2.4 State Variable Formulation

Let the nonlinear subnetwork be described by the following generalized parametric equations: [4]

$$\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{NL}}(t) = u[\mathbf{x}(t), \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d^m \mathbf{x}}{dt^m}, \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{D}}(t)] \quad (2.9)$$

$$\mathbf{i}_{\mathbf{NL}}(t) = w[\mathbf{x}(t), \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d^m \mathbf{x}}{dt^m}, \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{D}}(t)] \quad (2.10)$$

where  $\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{NL}}(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{i}_{\mathbf{NL}}(t)$  are vectors of voltages and currents at the common ports,  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  is a vector of state variables and  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{D}}(t)$  a vector of time-delayed state variables, i.e.,  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{D}\mathbf{i}}(t) = \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}(t - \tau_{\mathbf{i}})$ . The time delays  $\tau_{\mathbf{i}}$  may be functions of the state variables. All the vectors in (2.9) and (2.10) have a same size  $n_d$  equal to the number of common (device) ports. This kind of representation is very convenient from the physical viewpoint, because it is in fact equivalent to a set of implicit integro-differential equations in the port currents and voltages. The resulting system of nonlinear equations is generally much smaller than

the nonlinear system resulting from formulations based on voltage controlled current sources. More about this method is discussed in section 3.1

## 2.3 Time Marching Transient Analysis

The circuit equations for nonlinear resistive circuits are formulated using Kirchoff's laws, Tableau Analysis or Nodal Analysis [3]. These resistive circuit elements form a system of nonlinear algebraic equations. These nonlinear algebraic equations can be solved using Newton and Quasi-Newton iterative techniques, as in resistive circuits the solution at one particular instant of time does not depend on the solution at any other instant. However general lumped circuits or distributed circuits also include circuit elements, like capacitors and inductors, that cannot be defined by algebraic relationships involving only their terminal voltages and currents. As these elements store energy, their branch equations involve derivatives, and hence their circuits are described by Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs) or Partial Differential Equations (PDEs). Like many time-domain nonlinear circuit simulators, the equations are formulated considering only linear and nonlinear lumped elements and linear time-invariant distributed elements. This avoids having to solve PDEs as these elements have their behavior described by "generalized" ODEs, which in addition to derivatives, also include time-delayed variables and convolution integrals.

The basic strategy in time-domain methods for integrating systems of ODEs is to replace derivatives with respect to time by approximate expres-

sions involving only values of variables at discrete time points. The solution of the system of ODEs is then discretized and computed only at these time points. The approximate equations for derivatives effectively turn ODEs into finite difference equations [6]. These nonlinear algebraic equations are then be solved iteratively at each time step.

Converting the differential equations describing the element characteristics into nonlinear algebraic equations changes the network from a nonlinear dynamic circuit into a nonlinear resistive circuit, thus this method is called associated discrete modeling [7] (as used in SPICE). Effectively the ODEs describing the capacitors and inductors are approximated by resistive circuits associated with the numerical integration method. The term “associated” refers to the model’s dependence upon the integration method while “discrete” refers to the model’s dependence on the discrete time value.

### 2.3.1 Associated Discrete Model of a Linear Element

The development of the discrete model of a linear element begins with a time-discretization of the constitutive relation of the element. The simplest integration algorithm, the *Backward Euler* algorithm, for solving the first order differential equation  $x' = f(x)$  with a *step size* of  $h$  is given by,

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + hf(x_{n+1}) = x_n + hx'_{n+1} \quad (2.11)$$

where the subscript  $n$  refers to the  $n^{th}$  time sample.

#### LINEAR CAPACITOR

For a linear capacitor

$$i(t) = C \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = C v'(t) \quad (2.12)$$

or

$$v'(t_{n+1}) = \frac{1}{C} i(t_{n+1}). \quad (2.13)$$

Using Backward Euler formula,

$$v_{n+1} = v_n + h v'_{n+1} \quad (2.14)$$

Equation (2.13) is an exact relationship, whereas Equation (2.14) is an approximate solution. Approximating the exact solutions  $v'(t_{n+1})$  and  $i(t_{n+1})$  by  $v'_{n+1}$  and  $i_{n+1}$  respectively and substituting in Equation (2.12),

$$i_{n+1} = \frac{C}{h} v_{n+1} - \frac{C}{h} v_n. \quad (2.15)$$

This equation is in the form

$$i_{n+1} = g_{eq} v_{n+1} + i_{eq} \quad (2.16)$$

and so is modeled by a constant conductance  $g_{eq} = C/h$  in parallel with a current source  $i_{eq} = -(C/h)v_n$  that depends on the previous time step, as shown in Figure 2.1.

Similarly an associated discrete model of a linear inductor can be formulated using the constitutive relation  $v(t) = L \partial i / \partial t$ , thus making  $g_{eq} = h/L$  and  $i_{eq} = i_n$ , that depends on the previous time step [7].

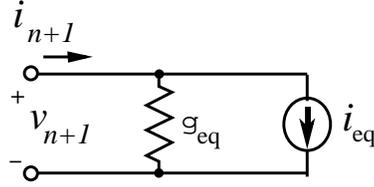


Figure 2.1: Associated discrete model of a two terminal element obtained using Backward Euler method.

### 2.3.2 Associated Discrete Model of a Nonlinear Element

The development of the discrete model of a nonlinear element begins with a time-discretization of the constitutive relation of the element [3]. The nonlinearity of this constitutive relation is solved using Newton iterations. Newtons iterations for solving the equation,  $x = f(y)$ , is given by

$${}^{(j+1)}x = f({}^jy) + \frac{\partial f({}^jy)}{\partial {}^jy} ({}^{(j+1)}y - {}^jy) \quad (2.17)$$

#### NONLINEAR CAPACITOR

For a nonlinear capacitor

$$i(t) = \frac{dq(v)}{dt} \quad (2.18)$$

where  $q(v)$  is a nonlinear function of voltage. Using the backward Euler algorithm of Equation (2.11) leads to the following discretized form of the constitutive relation:

$$i_{n+1} = \frac{1}{h} (q_{n+1} - q_n) \quad (2.19)$$

where  $q_n = q(v_n)$  and  $q_{n+1} = q(v_{n+1})$  is evaluated using the Newton iteration method of Equation (2.17). Through the iteration defined by

$${}^{(j+1)}q_{n+1} = {}^j q_{n+1} + \frac{\partial^j q_{n+1}}{\partial^j v_{n+1}} \left( {}^{(j+1)}v_{n+1} - {}^j v_{n+1} \right) \quad (2.20)$$

$$= {}^j q_{n+1} + C({}^j v_{n+1}) \left( {}^{(j+1)}v_{n+1} - {}^j v_{n+1} \right) \quad (2.21)$$

where

$$C({}^j v_{n+1}) = \frac{\partial^j q_{n+1}}{\partial^j v_{n+1}}.$$

Combining Equation (2.19) and Equation (2.21) results in

$${}^{(j+1)}i_{n+1} = \frac{1}{h} \left[ {}^j q_{n+1} + C({}^j v_{n+1}) \left( {}^{(j+1)}v_{n+1} - {}^j v_{n+1} \right) - q(v_n) \right] \quad (2.22)$$

Rearranging

$${}^{(j+1)}i_{n+1} = \frac{1}{h} C({}^j v_{n+1}) {}^{(j+1)}v_{n+1} + \frac{1}{h} \left[ {}^j q_{n+1} - q_n - C({}^j v_{n+1}) {}^j v_{n+1} \right] \quad (2.23)$$

which has a circuit representation of a conductance in parallel with a current source as shown in Figure 2.1 with

$$g_{\text{eq}} = \frac{C({}^j v_{n+1})}{h} \quad (2.24)$$

and

$$i_{\text{eq}} = \frac{1}{h} \left[ {}^j q_{n+1} - q_n - C({}^j v_{n+1}) {}^j v_{n+1} \right] \quad (2.25)$$

This associated discrete model is consistent with the associated discrete model of the linear capacitor developed in the previous section. For a linear capacitor  $C$  is independent of voltage and so  $q = Cv$ . Now Equation (2.23) becomes

$${}^{(j+1)}i_{n+1} = \frac{1}{h} C {}^{(j+1)}v_{n+1} + \frac{1}{h} \left[ {}^j q_{n+1} - q_n - {}^j q_{n+1} \right] \quad (2.26)$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} C {}^{(j+1)}v_{n+1} - \frac{1}{h} q_n \quad (2.27)$$

Which is identical to the linear discretized model of Equation (2.15) except that it is in iterative form.

Thus if all the energy storage elements in the circuit are replaced by their associative discrete model, the resulting circuit becomes purely resistive, which can be solved using any efficient method, such as nodal analysis. Hence the associated discrete models can be conveniently incorporated in a modified nodal admittance formulation of the network equations. Solution of the network using the modified nodal formulation comes down to solving a Newton iterate  $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}^j)\mathbf{x}^{(j+1)} = \mathbf{y}^j$  which in expanded form can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_n(\mathbf{x}^j) & \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}^j) \\ \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^j) & \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{x}^j) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_n^{j+1} \\ \mathbf{i}_n^{j+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^j) \\ \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}^j) \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.28)$$

The modified nodal admittance matrix is reformulated and solved until the changes of the voltages and currents are sufficiently small. The modified nodal admittance matrix is filled by inspection based on the iterative associated discrete models of individual elements.

### 2.3.3 Multi Terminal Elements

It is apparent from the above discussion that a problem can result from convergence difficulties, particularly when the initial conditions are poorly chosen. In the case of distributed elements with time delay, the voltage and current samples must be kept at all time instants back to the delay,  $\tau$ , of the longest line. The state of the circuit may be represented at any time by its state variables, which define the memory of previous events. This set typically includes the capacitor voltages, inductor currents, and the consecutive time samples of

the voltages and currents at the ports of the distributed elements. When the initial conditions selected correspond to the physical turn on of the circuit, SPICE enables the build up of transients to be readily examined. However, when only the steady-state response is desired, this can be a burden, particularly in the case when the differential equations representing the network are stiff.

## 2.4 Iteration Methods

The two basic approaches to the iterative solution of nonlinear network equations are the fixed point algorithm, and the Newton algorithm. The notation  $\mathbf{x}^j$  is used to indicate the  $j^{\text{th}}$  iterative of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

### 2.4.1 Fixed Point Method

In the fixed point algorithm a function  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$  needs to be developed with the special property that  $\mathbf{x}^{j+1} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^j)$  is a better estimate of the function than  $\mathbf{x}^j$  for the solution of  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . The standard method of defining  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$  is

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^j) = \mathbf{x}^j - \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}^j)f(\mathbf{x}^j) \quad (2.29)$$

where  $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x})$  is a matrix function of  $\mathbf{x}$ . The speed of convergence and whether or not the iteration scheme is divergent depends heavily on the choice of  $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x})$ . Then the iteration algorithm is

$$\mathbf{x}^{j+1} = \mathbf{x}^j - \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}^j)f(\mathbf{x}^j). \quad (2.30)$$

The iteration terminates when the difference between  $\mathbf{x}^{j+1}$  and  $\mathbf{x}^j$  is less than some prescribed acceptable error. This method requires that the error reduces monotonically. Generally this occurs only for a narrow range of  $\mathbf{x}$  near the solution. If the fixed point iteration scheme is convergent, then it is linearly convergent so that the error of consecutive iterations reduces linearly.

### 2.4.2 Newton Method

This is a variation of the fixed point method but with a good estimate of  $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x})$ . Newtons method uses  $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})]^{-1}$  where  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})$  is the Jacobian of  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . The iteration algorithm now becomes

$$\mathbf{x}^{j+1} = \mathbf{x}^j - [\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^j)]^{-1}f(\mathbf{x}^j) \quad (2.31)$$

- The Newton method has good convergence properties and, if it is convergent, has quadratic convergence. That is, if  $\mathbf{x}^j$  is close to the solution then the error of consecutive iterations reduces quadratically.
- Higher order, e.g. cubic convergent schemes, can be used only with a very narrow class of problems and estimates of  $\mathbf{x}$  must be very close to the solution for the schemes to converge.
- There can be a substantial cost, however, in storing, calculating and inverting the Jacobian and so a Newton iteration followed by several fixed point iterations are sometimes used (and termed the Shamanskii method). This iteration scheme will be superlinearly (that is, more than linearly but not quadratically) convergent.

## 2.5 Summary

The use of state variables for transient analysis help represent the state of the circuit at any time instant, which define the memory of previous events. The set of nonlinear equations representing the elements of a circuit can be discretized in time to form a set of linear algebraic equations. These equations can be solved recursively at every time step, to find the nodal voltages of each element and current flowing through the element.

## Chapter 3

# SPICE-Like Sparse Transient Analysis

### 3.1 Nonlinear Equation Formulation

In this chapter the equations for the transient analysis are formulated with the minimum number of unknowns starting from the nodal admittance matrix of the linear part of the circuit. This approach has advantages that all the flexibility of the modified nodal admittance matrix is maintained, and at the same time has advantages given by the state variable approach.

The formulation of the system equations begins with the partitioned network of Figure 3.1 with the nonlinear elements replaced by variable voltage or current sources [8]. For each nonlinear element one terminal is taken as the reference and the element is replaced by a set of sources connected to the reference terminal. Both voltage and current sources are valid replacements for the nonlinear elements, but current sources are more convenient because

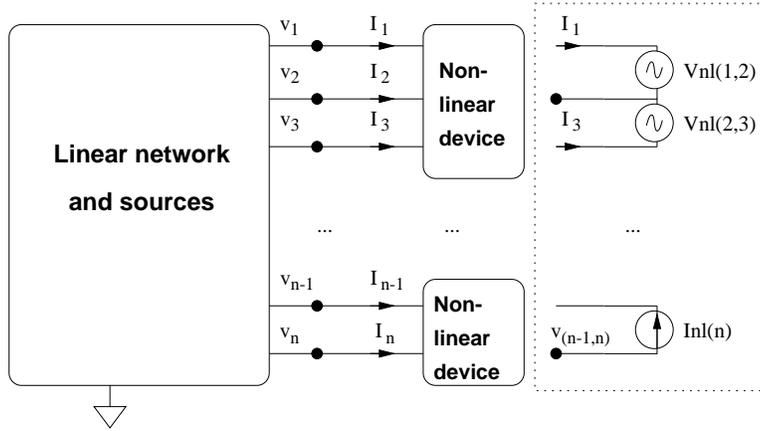


Figure 3.1: Network with Nonlinear elements

they yield a smaller modified nodal admittance matrix (MNAM).

### 3.1.1 Linear Network

The MNAM of the linear subcircuit is formulated as follows. Define two matrices  $\mathbf{G}$  and  $\mathbf{C}$  of equal size  $n_m$ , where  $n_m$  is equal to the number of non-reference nodes in the circuit plus number of additional required variables [5]. Define a vector  $\mathbf{s}$  of size  $n_m$  for the right hand side of the system. The contributions of the fixed sources and the nonlinear elements (which depend on the time  $t$ ) will be entered in this vector. All conductors and frequency dependent MNAM stamps arising in the formulation will be entered in  $\mathbf{G}$ , whereas capacitors and inductor values and other values that are associated with dynamic elements will be stored in matrix  $\mathbf{C}$ . The linear system obtained is the following.

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{C}\frac{d\mathbf{u}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{s}(t), \quad (3.1)$$

where  $\mathbf{u}$  is the vector of the nodal voltages and required currents, and  $\mathbf{s}$  is composed of an independent component  $s_f$  and a component  $s_v$  that depends on the state variables, as in **HB** case [8].

$$\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{s}_f(t) + \mathbf{s}_v(t). \quad (3.2)$$

The  $s_f$  vector is due to the independent sources in the circuit. The  $s_v$  vector is the contribution of the currents injected into the linear circuit by the nonlinear network.

### 3.1.2 Nonlinear Network

The concept of state variable used in this work is the one defined in Section 2.2.4. The Equations (2.9) and (2.10) are rewritten here for convenience:

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(t) = u[\mathbf{x}(t), \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d^m\mathbf{x}}{dt^m}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{D}}(t)] \quad (3.3)$$

$$\mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(t) = w[\mathbf{x}(t), \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d^m\mathbf{x}}{dt^m}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{D}}(t)]. \quad (3.4)$$

The error function of an arbitrary circuit is developed using connectivity information (described by an incidence matrix and constitutive relations describing the nonlinear elements). The incidence matrix,  $\mathbf{T}$ , is built as follows. The number of columns is  $n_m$ , and the number of rows is equal to the number of state variables,  $n_s$ . In each row, enter “+1” in the column corresponding to the positive terminal of the row nonlinear element port and “-1” in the column corresponding to the negative terminal (the local reference of the port). Then, each row of  $\mathbf{T}$  has at most 2 nonzero elements and the number of nonzero elements is at most  $2n_s$ .

The following equations are true for all  $t$ :

$$\mathbf{v}_L(t) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{u}(t) \quad (3.5)$$

$$\mathbf{s}_v(t) = \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{i}_{NL}(t) \quad (3.6)$$

where  $\mathbf{v}_L(t)$  is the vector of the port voltages of the nonlinear elements calculated from the nodal voltages of the linear network.

### 3.1.3 Error Function Formulation

Now we have all the equations necessary to build a nonlinear error function for the entire circuit. Combining Equations (3.1), (3.2) and (3.6), the general equation for the linear network is obtained:

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{C} \frac{d\mathbf{u}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{s}_f(t) + \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{i}_{NL}(t). \quad (3.7)$$

The reduced error function  $\mathbf{f}(t)$  is defined as follows

$$\mathbf{f}(t) = \mathbf{v}_L(t) - \mathbf{v}_{NL}(t) = \mathbf{0}. \quad (3.8)$$

Replacing  $v_L(t)$  from Equation (3.5)

$$\mathbf{f}(t) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{u}(t) - \mathbf{v}_{NL}(t) = \mathbf{0}. \quad (3.9)$$

Equations (3.3), (3.4), (3.7) and (3.8) confirm the generalized state variable reduction formulation. The error function in Equation (3.8) only depends on the state variables and the time derivatives:

$$\mathbf{f} \left[ \mathbf{x}(t), \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d^m \mathbf{x}}{dt^m}, \mathbf{x}_D(t) \right] = \mathbf{0}. \quad (3.10)$$

The dimension of the error function and the number of unknowns are equal to  $n_s$ , and this number is the minimum necessary to solve the equations of a circuit without any loss of information. To reduce the error function formulation the differential equations in an algebraic system of nonlinear equations are converted to nonlinear algebraic systems using time marching integration methods.

First Equations (3.3) and (3.4) are expressed using discretized time

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n) = u[\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}'_n, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n^{(m)}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{D},n}] \quad (3.11)$$

$$\mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n) = w[\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}'_n, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n^{(m)}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{D},n}] \quad (3.12)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{x}(t_n)$ ,  $\mathbf{x}'_n = \mathbf{x}'(t_n)$ ,  $(\mathbf{x}_{\text{D},n})_i = \mathbf{x}_i(t_n - \tau_i)$  and  $t_n$  is the current time.

Discretization of Equation (3.7) yields

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{u}_n + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{u}'_n = \mathbf{s}_{f,n} + \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n). \quad (3.13)$$

The time marching integration approximation used is given by,

$$x'_n = ax_n + b_{n-1} \quad (3.14)$$

where  $a$  is a constant and  $b_{n-1}$  depends on previous history of  $x$ . Applying this equation to calculate the  $\mathbf{u}'_n$  vector gives,

$$\mathbf{u}'_n = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{u}_n + \mathbf{b}_{n-1} \quad (3.15)$$

where  $\mathbf{b}_{n-1}$  has the same dimension as  $\mathbf{u}_n$ . Replacing  $\mathbf{u}'_n$  in Equation (3.13),

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{u}_n + \mathbf{C}[\mathbf{a}\mathbf{u}_n + \mathbf{b}_{n-1}] = \mathbf{s}_{f,n} + \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n). \quad (3.16)$$

The size of the resulting algebraic system of nonlinear equation is  $n_s$ .

### 3.1.4 Sparse Matrix Formulation

The solution to these nonlinear algebraic equations is transformed in the successive solution of a sequence of linear circuits. This successive solution is introduced by applying Equation (2.31) to calculate the  $\mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n)$  vector and the  $\mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n)$

$$\mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)}) = \mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n^j) + \mathbf{J}_i[\mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)} - \mathbf{x}_n^j] \quad (3.17)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)}) = \mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n^j) + \mathbf{J}_v[\mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)} - \mathbf{x}_n^j]. \quad (3.18)$$

Replacing  $\mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n)$  in Equation (3.16) results in,

$$[\mathbf{G} + \mathbf{Ca}]\mathbf{u}_n^{(j+1)} - \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{J}_i \mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)} = [\mathbf{s}_{f,n} - \mathbf{Cab}_{n-1}] + \mathbf{T}^T [\mathbf{i}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n^j) - \mathbf{J}_i \mathbf{x}_n^j]. \quad (3.19)$$

Replacing  $\mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n)$  in Equation (3.9) results in,

$$\mathbf{T} \mathbf{u}_n^{(j+1)} - \mathbf{v}_{\text{NL}}(\mathbf{x}_n^j) - \mathbf{J}_v[\mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)} - \mathbf{x}_n^j] = \mathbf{0}. \quad (3.20)$$

From Equation (3.19) and Equation (3.20) it can be seen that there are two equations and two unknowns,  $\mathbf{u}_n^{(j+1)}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)}$ . These equations can be solved simultaneously. Since all the quantities in the two equations are vectors or matrices, they can be put together giving a matrix equation of the form  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{B}$ , where  $\mathbf{A}$  is the coefficient matrix,  $\mathbf{x}$  is the vector of unknown quantities and  $\mathbf{B}$  is the right hand side matrix.

Combining Equation (3.19) and Equation (3.20) results in,

$$\begin{pmatrix} [\mathbf{G} + \mathbf{Ca}] & -[\mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{J}_i] \\ \mathbf{T} & -\mathbf{J}_v \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_n^{(j+1)} \\ \mathbf{x}_n^{(j+1)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} [sf, n - \mathbf{Cab}_{n-1}] + \mathbf{T}^T [\mathbf{i}_{NL}(\mathbf{x}_n^j) - \mathbf{J}_i \mathbf{x}_n^j] \\ \mathbf{v}_{NL}(\mathbf{x}_n^j) & -\mathbf{J}_v \mathbf{x}_n^j \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.21)$$

From the above Equation it can be seen that an equivalent linear circuit is formed for every nonlinear element. The circuit is only equivalent to the nonlinear element at the  $j^{th}$  iteration because its element values (but not its topology) change by discrete amounts at every iteration. This circuit is repeatedly solved with updated element values till convergence is achieved.

In the above Equation the following observations can be made:

- Matrix  $\mathbf{G} + \mathbf{Ca}$  is sparse
- Matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  is sparse
- Matrices  $\mathbf{J}_i$  and  $\mathbf{J}_v$  are sparse and block diagonal

Hence the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  thus formed is sparse. The above Equation can be solved using LU factorization technique [9]. After solving Equation (3.21), the value of the state variable vector and  $\mathbf{u}_n$  is known, so finding  $v_{NL}$  and  $i_{NL}$  is straightforward.

The size of the resulting algebraic system of linear equations is  $(n_m + n_s) \times (n_m + n_s)$ .  $\mathbf{G} + \mathbf{Ca}$  is constant as long as the time step  $h$  is constant.  $\mathbf{T}$  is constant. The right hand side vectors,  $\mathbf{J}_i$  and  $\mathbf{J}_v$  change at every Newton iteration and every

time step. Thus with every iteration the equivalent circuit of every element remains same, as the topology remains the same, but the values of the elements in the equivalent circuit change by discrete amounts at every iteration.

Note the matrices formed are sparse, so as the number of devices increase nonlinear behavior of the elements is still handled the same way, unlike Harmonic Balance where the nonlinear behavior is handled poorly as the number of devices increase. As parameterized device models are used the DC bias point for the circuit is calculated at the first time step with  $t = 0$ . These voltages are set as the initial conditions for the transient analysis that follows.

### 3.1.5 Initial Operating Point

All circuits are biased at some dc operating point. This point should be determined before the transient for better convergence. To determine the dc operating point, all capacitors are opened, all inductors are shorted and all controlled sources are set to zero. To realize this with the state variable formulation, the derivatives of the state variables with respect to time are set to zero.

## 3.2 Implementation in fREEDA™

Equation (3.21) resulted in a system of linear algebraic equations at every time step and every Newton iteration. As the error function changes only slightly from time step to time step, efficient matrix solving schemes can be used, as a very good preconditioner is available from the previous time step. This system

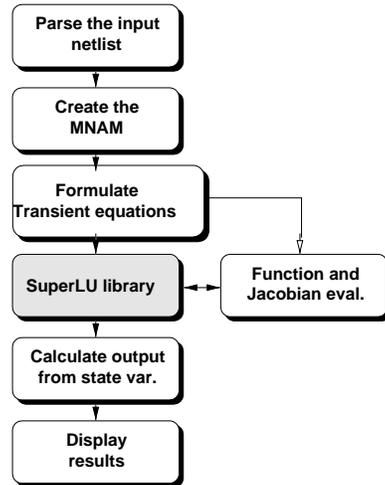


Figure 3.2: General flow diagram of the program.

is solved using LU factorization. The general flow of the analysis is shown in Figure (3.2) and was implemented in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup>.

After the netlist is parsed, the Time-Domain MNAM of the linear network is created using the package *Sparse 1.3* [9]. This MNAM is constant as far as the time step  $h$  is constant.

The nonlinear voltage vector  $v_{NL}$  is formed using the value of the state variable evaluated in the previous iteration. After that, the Jacobians  $\mathbf{J}_i$  and  $\mathbf{J}_v$  are created for every nonlinear element. The Jacobians are calculated using the package *Adol-C*. As *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> is an object oriented simulator, messages are passed from one class to another. To calculate the Jacobians different integration methods to calculate the time derivatives can be used. There is an interface class that links the analysis class to the ADOL-C library. This interface class is notified about which integration method, i.e. Backward Euler

or Trapezoidal method, has to be used to calculate the time derivatives.

With all these vectors the matrices in Equation (3.21) are formulated. These matrices are solved using the package *SuperLU*. From the evaluated value of state variables  $\mathbf{x}_n$  and nodal voltages  $\mathbf{u}_n$  the nonlinear currents  $\mathbf{i}_{NL}$  and nonlinear voltages  $\mathbf{v}_{NL}$  are calculated and stored to be used for the next iteration. If the values of  $\mathbf{x}_n$ ,  $\mathbf{u}_n$ ,  $\mathbf{i}_{NL}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_{NL}$  are within the tolerance limit, the analysis advances in time to the next time step.

Once the equations are solved for all time steps, the requested currents and voltages are saved in files.

The results are displayed using *gnuplot*. All the graphs requested in the input netlist are plotted.

### 3.3 Support Libraries

A large number of software libraries are available (many of them freely) and a few of them are used in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup>.

#### 3.3.1 Solution to Sparse Linear Systems

*Sparse 1.3* [9] is a flexible package of subroutines written in C used to numerically solve large sparse systems of linear equations. The package is able to handle arbitrary real and complex square matrix equations. Besides being able to solve linear systems, it is also able to quickly solve transposed systems, find determinants, and estimate errors due to ill-conditioning in the system of equations and instability in the computations. *Sparse* also provides a test pro-

gram that is able to read matrix equation from a file, solve it, and print useful information (such as condition number of the matrix) about the equation and its solution. Sparse was originally written for use in circuit simulators and is well adapted to handling nodal- and modified-nodal admittance matrices.

SuperLU is used to solve the Equation (3.21) with LU factorization. It contains a set of subroutines to numerically solve a sparse linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ . It uses Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting (GEPP). The columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  may be preordered before factorization; the reordering for sparsity is completely separate from the factorization. SuperLU is implemented in ANSI C. It provides support for both real and complex matrices, in both single and double precision.

### 3.3.2 Vectors and Matrices

Most of the vector and matrix handling in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> uses MV++ [11]. This is a small set of vector and simple matrix classes for numerical computing written in C++. It is not intended as a general vector container class but rather designed specifically for optimized numerical computations on RISC and pipelined architectures which are used in most new computer architectures. The various MV++ classes form the building blocks of larger user-level libraries. The MV++ package includes interfaces to the computational kernels of the Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms package (BLAS) which includes scalar updates, vector sums, and dot products. The idea is to utilize vendor-supplied, or optimized BLAS routines that are fine-tuned for particular platforms. The Matrix Template Library (MTL) is a high-performance generic

component library that provides comprehensive linear algebra functionality for a wide variety of matrix formats. It is used in the above transient analysis. As with the STL, MTL uses a five-fold approach, consisting of generic functions, containers, iterators, adaptors, and function objects, all developed specifically for high performance numerical linear algebra. Within this framework, MTL provides generic algorithms corresponding to the mathematical operations that define linear algebra. Similarly, the containers, adaptors, and iterators are used to represent and to manipulate matrices and vectors.

### 3.3.3 Automatic differentiation

The analytic Jacobian is calculated in the routine using Adol-C [10]. This is a software package written in C and C++ and performs automatic differentiation. The numerical values of the derivative vectors (required to fill the Jacobians) are obtained free of truncation errors at a small multiple of the run time required to evaluate the original function with little additional memory required. The implementation of automatic differentiation in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> is shown in Figure 3.3. The `eval()` method of the nonlinear element class is executed at initialization time and so the operations to calculate the currents and voltages of each element are recorded by Adol-C in a tape which is actually an internal buffer. After that, each time that the values or the derivatives of the nonlinear elements are required, an Adol-C function is called and the values are calculated using the tapes. This implementation is efficient because the taping process is done only once (this almost doubles the speed of the calculation compared to the case where the functions are taped each time they are

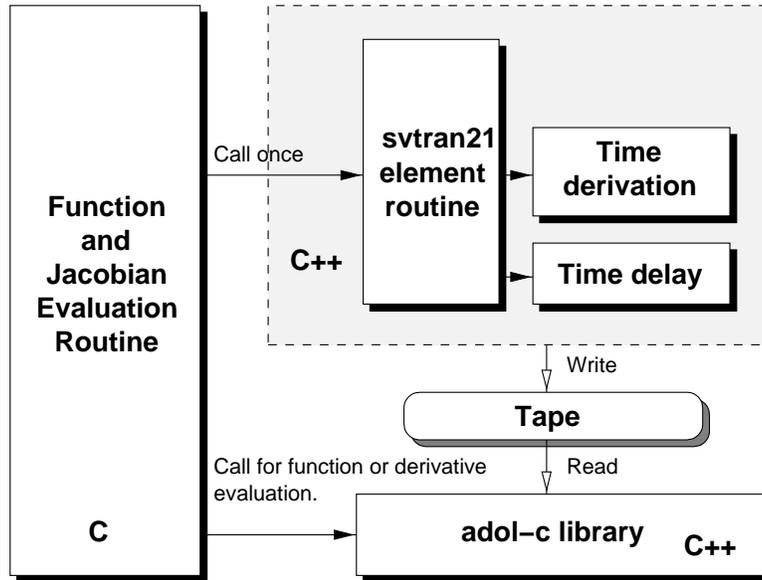


Figure 3.3: Automatic Differentiation

needed). The advantage in terms of rapid model development is significant. The majority of the development time in implementing models in simulators, is in the manual development of the derivative equations. Unfortunately the determination of derivatives using numerical differences is not sufficiently accurate for any but the simplest circuits. With Adol-C, full analytic accuracy is obtained and the implementation of nonlinear device models is dramatically simplified. Note that time differentiation, time delay and transformations are left outside the automatic differentiation block. The calculation speed achieved is approximately ten times faster than the speed achieved by including time differentiation, time delay and transformations inside the block.

### 3.4 Summary

The two aspects of the transient analysis of a nonlinear system are formulation of the nonlinear equations and the method used to solve these nonlinear equations. The nonlinear equations can be formulated as described in Section 3.1. This formulation keeps the flexibility of the modified nodal admittance matrix, and has the advantages given by a state variable approach. The nonlinear equations thus formed can be solved as a sequence of linear equations by applying Newton Raphson's iteration method. The linear equations thus formed can be represented in a sparse matrix, which can be solved using LU factorization or any other efficient sparse matrix technique. The technique discussed in this chapter can be efficiently applied to large systems.

# Chapter 4

## Results

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the analysis described in Chapter 3, which was implemented in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup>. Section 4.2 presents the results for a Wide Band Amplifier. The speed and accuracy of the results obtained from *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> are compared to those obtained from HSPICE. Section 4.3 describes the soliton line netlist used to validate the Sparse Matrix claim. The results in this section describe how the sparsity of the matrix varies with the number of elements used to model the line. A comparison of speed and accuracy of the results obtained from *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> and SPICE is made.

### 4.2 Wide Band Amplifier

The circuit used is from the *MCNC* benchmark suite established around 1990. The amplifier circuit consists of 11 Gummel-Poon Bipolar Transistors, see

Sparse Transient in <i>fREEDA</i> <sup>TM</sup> (s)	Time Marching Transient in <i>fREEDA</i> <sup>TM</sup> (s)	SPICE(s)
71	76	22

Table 4.1: Comparison of simulation times for the wide band amplifier.

Figure 4.1. This circuit was simulated to test the accuracy and speed of the new transient analysis implemented in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup>. The amplifier circuit was simulated in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> and SPICE. The output waveforms and voltage amplitudes were found to match, thus validating the accuracy of the new transient analysis. The netlist for this circuit is provided in Appendix B.

This circuit was simulated for 50 ns with a fixed time step of 10 ps on a Pentium III Xeon clocked at 500 MHz. Figures 4.2 and 4.3 show the voltages at the nodes out16 and out17 of the amplifier, shown in Figure 4.1. In Figure 4.2 waveform (a) and (b) are the output voltages at the terminals out17 and out16 respectively. From the two figures it can be seen that the output waveforms are in excellent agreement. During the simulation, a matrix of size  $54 \times 54$  was formed and 33 state variables were used. 7.784% of the elements in the matrix formed were non-zero, making the matrix approximately 92% sparse. The simulation was completed in 71s.

From Table 4.1 it can also be seen that a time marching transient analysis with state variables [1] is slower than the new analysis, but only marginally. This is because the time marching transient analysis factorizes the Jacobian, wherein maximum time is spent in inverting the Jacobian Matrix. The factorization of the Jacobian is expensive for circuits with large number of nonlinear

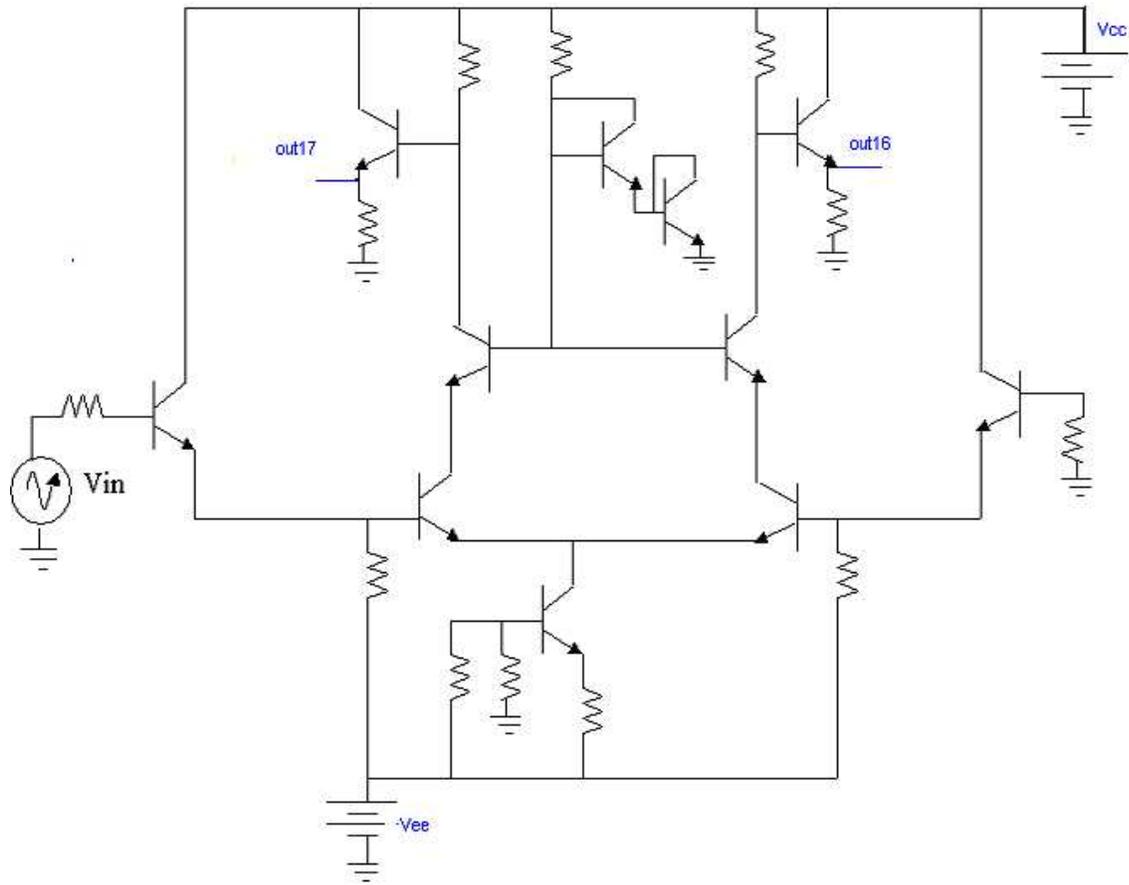


Figure 4.1: Wideband amplifier, from the *MCNC* benchmark suite with 11 Gummel-Poon Bipolar Transistors.

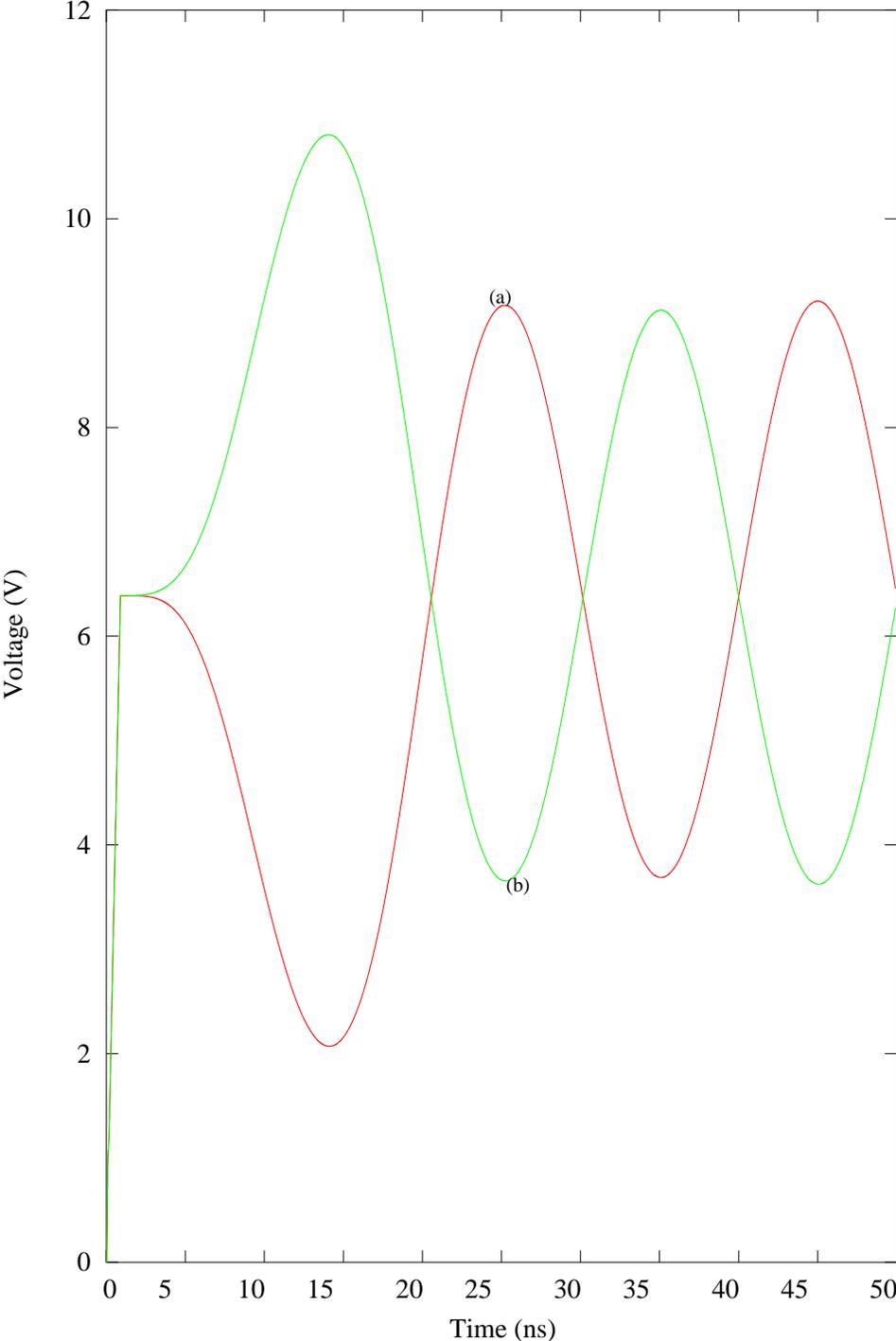


Figure 4.2: Output voltages at terminals out17, curve (a), and out16, curve (b), of the wideband amplifier simulated in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup>.

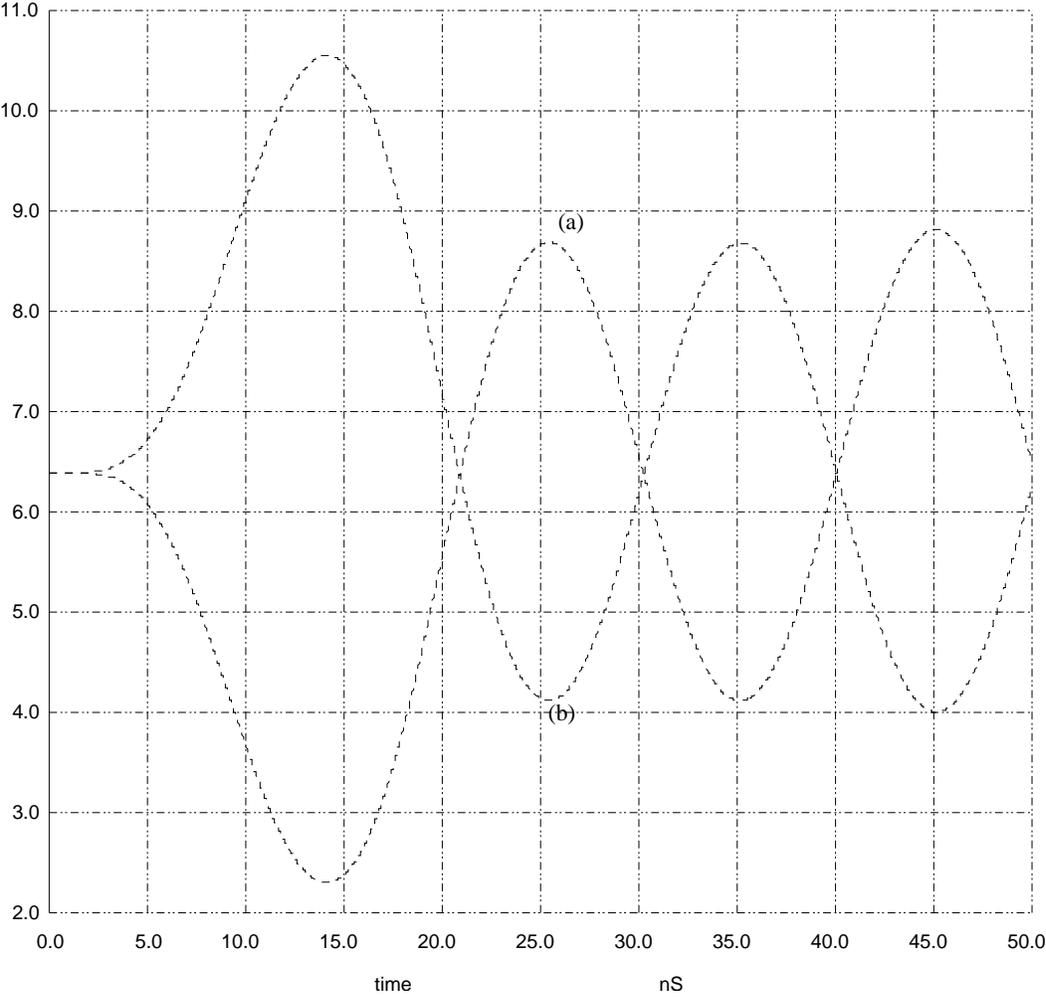


Figure 4.3: Output voltages at terminals out17, curve (a), and out16, curve (b), of the wideband amplifier simulated in SPICE.

devices. As the new analysis does not factorize the Jacobian, it is faster. The improvement in speed will be significant for circuits with large number of nonlinear elements (more than a few hundred).

This circuit was simulated in SPICE with a maximum time step of 10ps. From Table 4.1 it can be seen that, the new analysis is slower than SPICE. This can be explained as follows. Traditional circuit simulators like SPICE, must perform the decomposition of a sparse matrix (size  $n_m \times n_m$ ) at each iteration of the method to solve the nonlinear equations [3]. Here  $m$  corresponds to the number of terminals with the voltage at each terminal being an unknown. But as *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> uses the idea of state variables to model its elements, the new analysis has to decompose a sparse matrix of size  $(n_m + n_s) \times (n_m + n_s)$ , where  $n_s$  is the number of state variables used. Therefore size of the sparse matrix is larger because the number of unknowns is more. The state variable approach gives more accurate models and makes model development easier. Therefore speed is traded off here, for accuracy and ease of development of models. *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> is an object oriented simulator [13], and uses many support libraries. The object oriented approach speeds up the process of developing models i.e. writing code for the models. During simulation messages are passed and data is copied from one class to another. This is a little expensive than procedural programming. The most significant impact on speed is because the new analysis does not use variable time step control. Thus it cannot use long time steps at the beginning of the simulation. A state variable based time step control [12] can be easily implemented for the new analysis. This new time step algorithm uses a predictor-corrector technique, with high accuracy

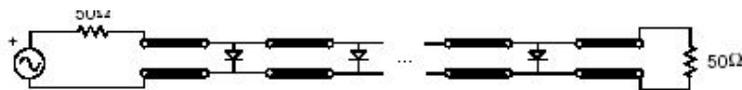


Figure 4.4: 47 diode soliton line.

of results.

## 4.3 Soliton Line

### 4.3.1 Circuit

A nonlinear transmission line is regarded by many in the field as an extreme test of the performance of transient and steady-state simulators. Nonlinear transmission lines (NLTLs) find applications in a variety of high speed, wide bandwidth systems including picosecond resolution sampling circuits, laser and switching diode drivers, test waveform generators, and mm-wave sources. They have three fundamental characteristics: nonlinearity, dispersion and dissipation. The NLTL considered here consists of coplanar waveguides (CPWs) periodically loaded with reverse biased Schottky diodes. A diode-based NLTL used for pulse generation is an extremely nonlinear circuits and is used to test the robustness of circuit simulators. The NLTL considered here was designed with a balance between the nonlinearity of the loaded nonlinear elements and the dispersion of the periodic structure which results in the formation of a stable soliton. The nonlinearity of NLTLs is principally due to the voltage dependent capacitance of the diodes and the dissipation is due to the conductor losses in the CPWs.

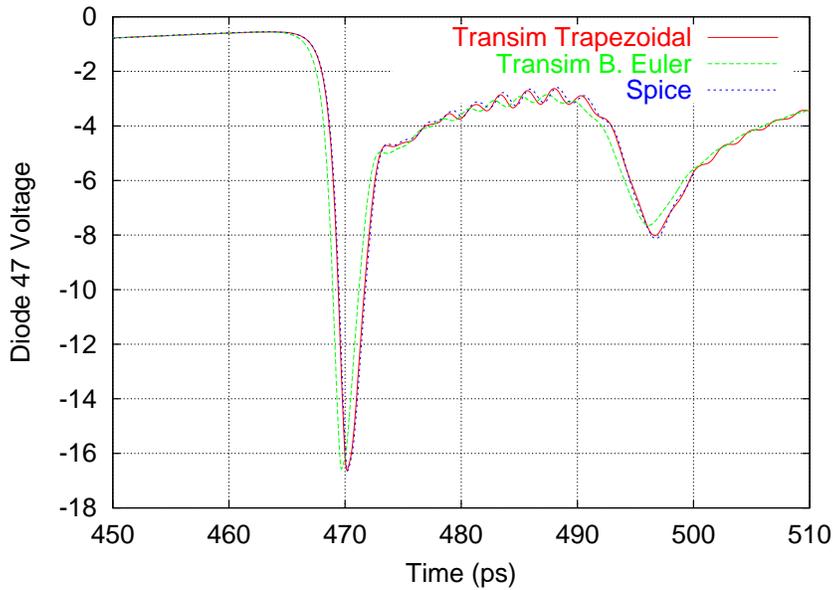


Figure 4.5: Comparison of the voltage at the last diode of the soliton line.

The NLTL was modelled using generic transmission lines with frequency dependent loss and Schottky diodes. Skin effect was taken into account in the modeling of the transmission lines. The NLTL model is shown in Figure 4.4 and is excited by a 9 GHz sinusoid. The NLTL was designed for a 24 GHz initial Bragg frequency, 225 GHz final Bragg frequency, 0.952097 tapering rule, and 120 ps total compression. It contains 48 sections of CPW transmission lines and 47 diodes. The drive is a 27 dBm sine wave at  $-3$  V dc bias. The netlist for this circuit is provided in Appendix C.

### 4.3.2 Results

This circuit was simulated with *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> for 0.55 ns. Figure 4.5 compares the voltage at the last diode obtained using Backward Euler and Trapezoidal integration method and the SPICE simulation. The fixed time step used was 0.01 ps for BE and 0.1 ps for Trapezoidal. The waveforms are in excellent agreement. Note that even though a small time step is used, the numerical damping introduced by BE method attenuates the small oscillations in the waveform.

From Figure 4.6 it can be seen that as the number of nonlinear elements in the circuit, here Schottky diodes, increases the sparsity of the matrix increases ( i.e. the percentage of non-zero elements decreases). This is because, the number of equations to be solved increases with the number of elements, making the matrix larger and sparser. The efficiency of the LU factorization technique improves with size and sparsity of the matrix.

In Figure 4.7 a comparison between the simulation time of a time marching transient analysis and the new analysis is made. The new analysis considers every element to be a nonlinear element. To make a fair comparison between the two analysis, every element in the time marching transient analysis is considered as a nonlinear element, and the required simulation time is found. The figure shows that the new analysis is faster. The new analysis is approximately 7.13 times faster than the time marching transient analysis.

From Table 4.2 it can be seen that SPICE is about 1.35 times faster than the new analysis. This is because SPICE does not model its devices with state variables, and hence has relatively less number of unknowns than those in

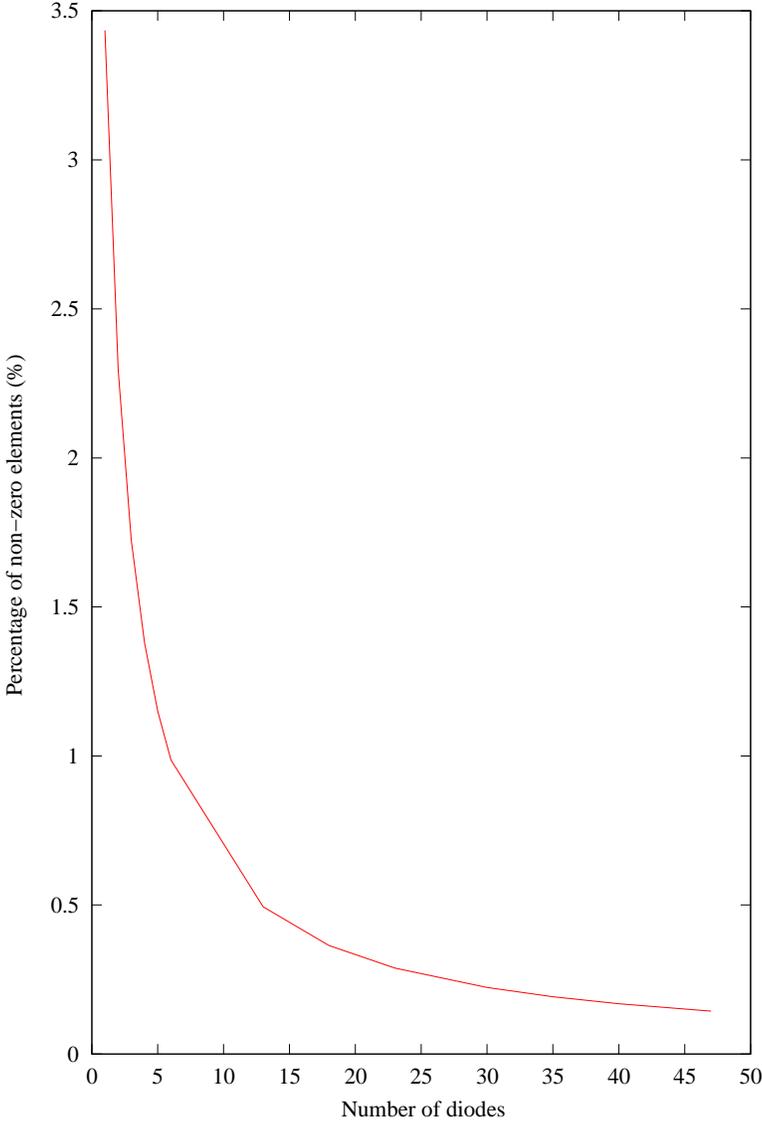


Figure 4.6: Sparsity of the matrix of the soliton line with different number of diodes.

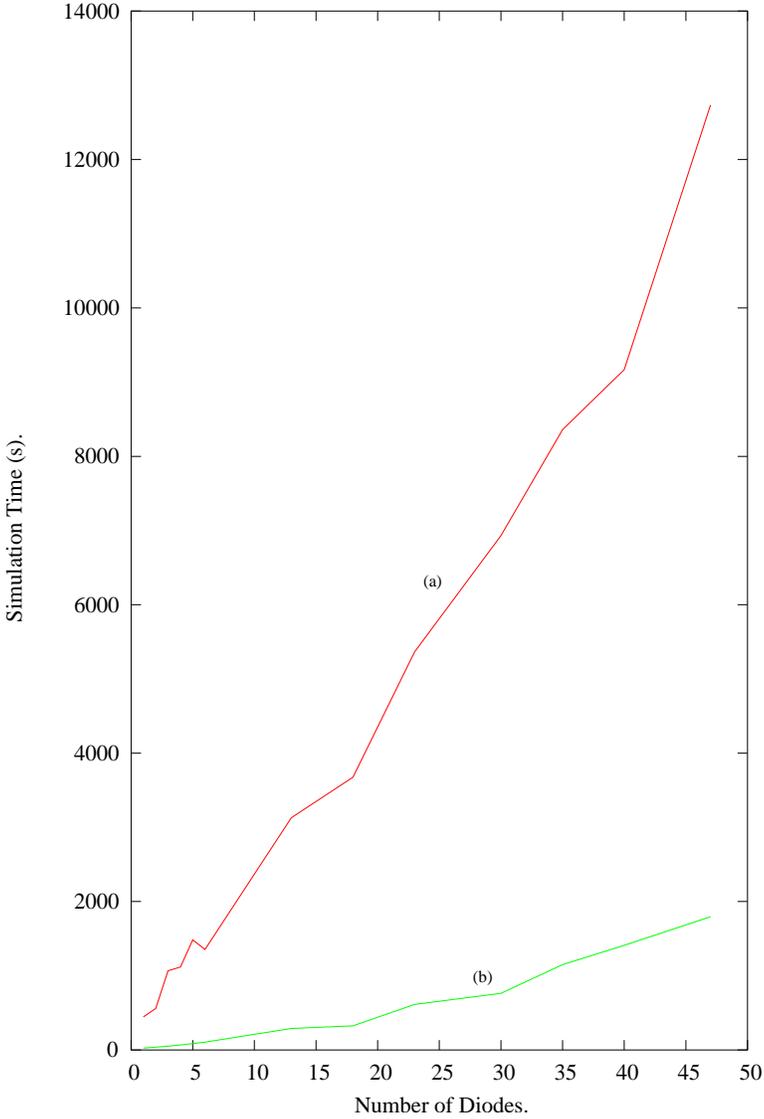


Figure 4.7: Simulation Time of a soliton line: with (a) time marching transient and (b) new sparse transient analysis.

Sparse Transient in $fREEDA^{\text{TM}}$ (s)	SPICE(s)
1795	1322

Table 4.2: Comparison of simulation times of a 47 diode soliton line.

$fREEDA^{\text{TM}}$ . Therefore the size of the matrix to be solved in SPICE is smaller than that in  $fREEDA^{\text{TM}}$ .

Note that the soliton line with 47 diodes, has 47 inductors and 48 transmission lines. The transmission lines are modelled in  $fREEDA^{\text{TM}}$  as a set RLC elements, i.e. a set of linear elements. Thus the total number of linear elements in the circuit is 95, which is greater than two times the number of nonlinear elements. This makes the incidence matrix ( $\mathbf{T}$ ) in Equation (3.21) large, thus making the multiplication ( $\mathbf{T}^T \times \mathbf{J}_i$ ) expensive for a circuit with a large number of linear elements. Whereas, in the previous section, the Wideband Amplifier circuit has 12 resistors and 11 transistors, i.e. the number of nonlinear elements is almost equal to the number of linear elements. This makes the incidence matrix ( $\mathbf{T}$ ) smaller in size, effectively improving the speed of the simulation. Thus from the above result it can be concluded that the new analysis is best suited for circuits with large number of nonlinear elements so  $n_s \gg n_m$ .

## 4.4 Summary

The use of sparse matrix techniques improves the efficiency of a state variable based transient analysis. The sparsity of the matrices increases with the size of the circuits. The reduction in simulation time is significant in large circuits, with large number of nonlinear elements. The comparison of output waveforms of the wideband amplifier and soliton line with different transient analysis techniques shows that, high accuracy is achieved with the new analysis.

# Chapter 5

## Conclusions and Future Research

### 5.1 Conclusions

This analysis was successfully developed in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup> and was found to be robust and flexible. A sparse matrix approach is generally used in simulators for the transient analysis of circuits. The challenge here was using universal device modeling where the code defining the model of an element needs to be written once and used in many different types of analyses.

The following conclusions are made:

- The equation formulation eliminates the need to factorize the Jacobian.
- Time and Newton discretization of the nonlinear elements results in an algebraic system of linear equations.
- The sparsity of the matrix increases with circuit size, improving efficiency

of the analysis.

- The analysis is best suited for circuits with large number of nonlinear elements so that the number of state variables ( $n_s$ ) is much greater than the number of terminals ( $n_m$ ).

## 5.2 Future Research

There are many improvements that can be made to the current implementation of the sparse transient analysis in *fREEDA*<sup>TM</sup>.

The most important of them is use of efficient memory management to manage the large sparse matrix formed. This large matrix is formulated and factorized at every iteration. As for every iteration only some part of the matrix changes, an efficient memory management technique, which uses pointer to pointer dereferencing, would avoid reformulating the matrix for every iteration. This would make the analysis faster.

As mentioned above, values of only some elements of the matrix change with every iteration and the non zero structure of the matrix does not change at every iteration. Some techniques, like chord iterations, take advantage of this. These techniques, decompose the matrix once and update the decomposed matrix at every iteration. This technique along with an efficient memory management scheme will speed up the simulation significantly.

Also, currently the sparse transient analysis does not use time step control. The use of variable time step, will allow the analysis to use long time steps at the beginning of the simulation. Hence it would improve accuracy and speed

of the analysis.

# Appendix A

## Computer Code

### Computer Code

This section contains the various functions in the C++ class of the sparse transient analysis.

```

/*****
*
* Contains the state variable based sparse transient analysis
*
*****/

/*The include files*/
#include "SVTran21.h" #include "TimeMNAM.h" #include
"TimeDomainSV.h" #include "NLSInterface.h" #include "Euler.h"
#include "Trapezoidal.h" #include "iostream.h" #include
MV_P"/mvblasd.h"

extern int superLU_print_enable ; extern "C" { #include
"../inout/ftvec.h" #include "../inout/report.h"
}

```

```

/*This routine develops the incidence matrix T.*/

void buildTIncidence(ElemFlag mask, Circuit*& my_circuit,
                    IntMatrix& T, ElementVector& elem_vec,
                    int& n_states, int& max_n_states);

// Element information
ItemInfo SVTran21::ainfo = {
    "SVTran2",
    "State-Variable-Based Time-Marching Transient Analysis with Newton Iterations.",
    "Sonali R. Luniya",
    DEFAULT_ADDRESS
};

/*Parameter information about the analysis.*/

ParmInfo SVTran21::pinfo[] = {
    {"tstop", "Stop time (s)", TR_DOUBLE, true},
    {"tstep", "Time step (s)", TR_DOUBLE, true},
    {"nst", "No save time (s)", TR_DOUBLE, false},
    {"deriv", "Approximate derivatives or use automatic diff.", TR_INT, false},
    {"msv", "Use Msv flag", TR_BOOLEAN, false},
    {"im", "Integration method", TR_INT, false},
    {"savenode", "Save node voltages", TR_BOOLEAN, false},
    {"permc_spec", "Permutation ordering to factor Msv (0, 1 or 2)",
    TR_INT, false},
    {"out_steps", "Number of steps skipped for output simulation progress",
    TR_INT, false},
    {"gcomp", "Compensation network conductance (S)", TR_DOUBLE, false}
};

/*Constructor to set the default values of the analysis
parameters.*/

```

```
SVTran21::SVTran21() : Analysis(&ainfo, pinfo,n_par), ls_size(0),
    superLU(false)
{
    // Parameter stuff
    paramvalue[0] = &(tf);
    paramvalue[1] = &(h);
    paramvalue[2] = &(nst = zero);
    paramvalue[3] = &(deriv = 0);
    paramvalue[4] = &(use_msv = true);
    paramvalue[5] = &(int_method = 1);
    paramvalue[6] = &(savenode = true);
    paramvalue[7] = &(permc_spec = 2);
    paramvalue[8] = &(out_steps = 200);
    paramvalue[9] = &(gcomp = 0);
}

/*The main analysis routine.*/

void SVTran21::run(Circuit* cir) {

    /* Build time domain MNAM */
    TimeMNAM mnam(cir, mnam_mask);

    /*Build T matrix and nonlinear element vector.*/
    buildTIncidence(mask, cir, T, elem_vec, n_states, max_n_states);

    /*Setup simulation variables (use circular vectors).*/

    SparseMatrix *M ;

    /*Set the type of integration method to be used Trapezoidal or
    Backward Euler.*/

    /*Copy the MNAM to sparsematrix M1.*/
    l_im->buildMd(M1, h);
```

```

M = new SparseMatrix(ls_size+n_states,ls_size+n_states);

/*Formulate the incidence matrix from the condensed incidence
matrix.*/
for(int k =0 ; k < n_states ; k++ )
{
  if (T(0,k))
  {
    tmpidx =T(0,k) -1 ;
    myT[k][tmpidx] = 1;
  }
  if(T(1,k) )
  {
    tmpidx =T(1,k) -1 ;
    myT[k][tmpidx] =-1;
  }
}

/*Add the MNAM to Sparse matrix M. The sparse matrix stores only
the nonzero values in vector elem_val[] and their row and columnn
indices in vectors row_index[] and col_pointer[] respectively.*/

/*Add incidence matrix T to Sparse Matrix.*/

/*Number of time steps.*/
n_tsteps = int(tf / h + 1);

/*Create a Time domain interface. This class has data structures
that store the values of the state variables, nodal voltages and
currents at every time step.*/

tdsv = new TimeDomainSV(&(cX->getCurrent()[0]),
&(cVnl->getCurrent()[0]),
&(cInl->getCurrent()[0]),max_n_states);

```

```

/*Start the simulation from time =0.*/
for ( nt=0; nt < n_tsteps; nt++)
{
/*Build the vector of independent sources.*/
l_im->buildSf(sf, ctime);

/*Start Newton Iterations.*/ do
{

/*For every element formulate the Jacobians.*/

elem_vec[k]->svTran(tdsv);
elem_vec[k]->deriv_svTran(tdsv);           // Call element evaluation

/*Multiply the Jacobian by T' and add to the Sparse Matrix M.*/
/*Add or subtract the value of the Jacobian according to a +1 or a
-1 in the Jacobian.*/

elem_val[i]+=Ji_elem(j,m);
elem_val[i]= -Ji_elem(j,m);

/*Add Ju to the sparse matrix M.*/ /*Multiply Ju by cX i.e the
state variable vector and add it to the RHS vector.*/

elem_val[scount]= -Ju_elem(i,m);
row_index[scount]=ls_size+i+ibase;
scount++;
rhs_Jv_X[i+ibase]+=Ju_elem(i,m)*cX->getCurrent()[m+ibase];

/*Multiply T'JiXi.*/
multiply(rhs_temp , xtmp1, tmp_vec1);

/*Multiply T'*Inl.*/ /*Prepare the RHS vector.*/ /*LU factorize
the matrix.*/

```

```
superLUFactor(M,ssv);

/*Check for error between the two Newton iterations.*/
    if(error > 0.001)
        { continue }

/*Update the values of the nodal voltages and currents.*/
    updateVINl(&(ssv[0]));

    if(iteration >= 40)
    {
        sprintf(msg , "Newton Raphson didn't converge |%f \t|",error);
        report(MESSAGE, msg);
    }
} while (error > 0.001 && iteration <40) /*End Newton
iterations.*/

/*Update previous derivatives in integration method (if
required).*/

/*Store state variables for next time step.*/
    cX->getCurrent()[i] =ssv[ls_size+i];

/*Write outputs .*/
    doOutput();
}

void SVTran21::superLUFactor(SparseMatrix*& M, DenseVector& ssv) {
/*Create the matrix A to be factorized.*/

/*Create the RHS vector B.*/ /*Create resultant matrix X.*/ /*get
the Permutations.*/
    get_perm_c(permc_spec, &A, perm_c);
```

```

/*Factorize and solve the matrix. The factors are stored in L and
U and the result in stored in ssv[].*
  dgssvx(&fact, &trans, &refact, &A, ftp, perm_c, perm_r, etree, &equed, r, c,
        &L, &U, work, lwork, &B, &X, &recip_pivot_growth, &rcond,
        &ferr, &berr, &mem_usage, &info);
}

void SVTran21::freeSuperLU() { /*Delete the storage required for
the LU factorization.* }

/*Simple matrix multiplication.*
  void SVTran21::multiply(DoubleMatrix& a , ExtVector& b ,
DoubleVector& c) {

}

void SVTran21::updateVInl(double* x_p) { /*Copy new value of U
into the Circ Vector.*
  for(int j=0 ; j< ls_size; j++)
    cU->getCurrent()[j] = x_p[j];

/*Copy new value of X into Circ Vector.*
  for (int j=0; j < n_states; j++)
    cX->getCurrent()[j] = x_p[ls_size+j];
}

/*Write the data to the output vectors.*
  void SVTran21::doOutput() { /* First check if the result
matrices contain any data.*

/*Create temporary storage.*
  /*Now fill currents and port
voltages of time domain devices.* /*For every element do the
following.*

```

```
/*For the current, decompensate while copying.*/
  for (int tindex=0; tindex < out_size; tindex++) {
    tmp_x[tindex] = cX->getPrevious(out_size - tindex)[j+i];
    tmp_i[tindex] = cInl->getPrevious(out_size - tindex)[j+i];
    tmp_u[tindex] = cVnl->getPrevious(out_size - tindex)[j+i];
  }
  elem_vec[k]->getElemData()->setRealX(j, tmp_i);
  elem_vec[k]->getElemData()->setRealI(j, tmp_i);
  elem_vec[k]->getElemData()->setRealU(j, tmp_u);
}
if (savenode) {
  /* For each terminal, assign voltage vector.*/
  /* Set the terminal vector.*/
  term->getTermData()->setRealV(tmp_u);
}
}
```

## Appendix B

# Wideband Amplifier Netlist

## Wideband Amplifier Netlist

This section contains the netlist for the wideband amplifier, discussed in section 4.2.

```
*rca netlist
* Wide Band Amp.

r:rs1 30 1 r=1k r:rs2 31 0 r=1k r:r1 5 3 r=4.8k r:r2 6 3 r=4.8k
r:r3 9 3 r=811 r:r4 8 3 r=2.17k r:r5 8 0 r=820 r:r6 2 14 r=1.32k
r:r7 2 12 r=4.5k r:r8 2 15 r=1.32k r:r9 16 0 r=5.25k r:r10 17 0
r=5.25k bjtnpn:q1 2 30 5 0 model="qnl" bjtnpn:q2 2 31 6 0
model="qnl" bjtnpn:q3 10 5 7 0 model="qnl" bjtnpn:q4 11 6 7 0
model="qnl" bjtnpn:q5 14 12 10 0 model="qnl" bjtnpn:q6 15 12 11 0
model="qnl" bjtnpn:q7 12 12 13 0 model="qnl" bjtnpn:q8 13 13 0 0
model="qnl" bjtnpn:q9 7 8 9 0 model="qnl" bjtnpn:q10 2 15 16 0
model="qnl" bjtnpn:q11 2 14 17 0 model="qnl"
*****bjt model
statement***** .model qnl bjtnpn(bf=80 rb=100
tf=.3ns tr=6ns rb=100 cje=3pf cjc=2pf vaf=50)
*****
```

```
vsourc:vin 1 0 vdc=0. vac=.1 f=50e6 phase = -90 delay = 1ns
vsourc:vcc 2 0 vdc=15 tr=10ps vsourc:vee 3 0 vdc=-15 tr=10ps
*****Transient
Analysis***** .tran21 tstop=50ns tstep=10ps im=0
out_steps=500
*****
.out plot term 1 vt in "out.vt1" .out plot term 16 vt in
"out.vt16" .out plot term 17 vt in "out.vt17"

.end
```

# Appendix C

## Soliton Line Netlist

### Soliton Line Netlist

This section contains the netlist for the soliton line discussed in section 4.3. Figures 4.6 and 4.7 show how the sparsity of the matrix and the simulation time vary with the number of diodes, respectively. To get these results the netlist given below was modified, such that the number of L-sections in the circuit is equal to the number of diodes. For example, for a soliton line with 1 L-section, the netlist included , diode d1, transmission line t1 and the inductor i1. Off course, the source (rs) and load (rl) resistors and the transmission line (t0) in series with the source resistor were always included. Similarly for higher number of diodes the necessary elements were included. The tapering rule was kept constant at 0.952097.

\*Soliton using good parameters

\* Transim file for NLTL with 24.00 GHz initial Bragg frequency,

```
* 225.00 GHz final Bragg frequency and 0.952097 tapering rule,
* and 120.00 ps total compression.

.options freq=9.GHz nonlin=4 rtol=1e-4 ftol=rtol maxit=100

.tran21 tstop=.55e-9 tstep=.1ps msv=1 im=1 savenode=0

*
* For 27dBm input use vac = 14V
* vsource:1 201 0 vac = 14. vdc = -6. f = freq phase=90 tr=.1e-9
r:rs 201 202 r=50.

*
* Diode parameters
*
* From thesis: js=2.24e-12, alfa=21.13
*
* From Libra netlist: js=51e-15, alfa=default
* .model carlos diode ( js=2.24e-12 alfa=21.13 e=10
ct0=1.32767e-15 r0=171.9 + fi=1.27517 gama=0.810205 jb=1.e-5
vb=-16. )

*
* Transmission line parameters
* .model c_line tlinp4 ( zomag=75.00 k=7 fscale=10.e9 alpha = 59.9
+ nsect = 20 fopt=10e9)

*
* Diodes
* diode:d1 101 0 model = "carlos" area=271.64 diode:d2 102 0 model
= "carlos" area=258.63 diode:d3 103 0 model = "carlos"
area=246.24 diode:d4 104 0 model = "carlos" area=234.45 diode:d5
105 0 model = "carlos" area=223.21 diode:d6 106 0 model =
"carlos" area=212.52 diode:d7 107 0 model = "carlos" area=202.34
diode:d8 108 0 model = "carlos" area=192.65 diode:d9 109 0 model
= "carlos" area=183.42 diode:d10 110 0 model = "carlos"
```

```

area=174.63 diode:d11 111 0 model = "carlos" area=166.27
diode:d12 112 0 model = "carlos" area=158.3 diode:d13 113 0
model = "carlos" area=150.72 diode:d14 114 0 model = "carlos"
area=143.5 diode:d15 115 0 model = "carlos" area=136.63 diode:d16
116 0 model = "carlos" area=130.08 diode:d17 117 0 model =
"carlos" area=123.85 diode:d18 118 0 model = "carlos" area=117.92
diode:d19 119 0 model = "carlos" area=112.27 diode:d20 120 0
model = "carlos" area=106.89 diode:d21 121 0 model = "carlos"
area=101.77 diode:d22 122 0 model = "carlos" area=96.89 diode:d23
123 0 model = "carlos" area=92.25 diode:d24 124 0 model =
"carlos" area=87.83 diode:d25 125 0 model = "carlos" area=83.63
diode:d26 126 0 model = "carlos" area=79.62 diode:d27 127 0
model = "carlos" area=75.81 diode:d28 128 0 model = "carlos"
area=72.18 diode:d29 129 0 model = "carlos" area=68.72 diode:d30
130 0 model = "carlos" area=65.43 diode:d31 131 0 model =
"carlos" area=62.29 diode:d32 132 0 model = "carlos" area=59.31
diode:d33 133 0 model = "carlos" area=56.47 diode:d34 134 0
model = "carlos" area=53.76 diode:d35 135 0 model = "carlos"
area=51.19 diode:d36 136 0 model = "carlos" area=48.73 diode:d37
137 0 model = "carlos" area=46.4 diode:d38 138 0 model =
"carlos" area=44.18 diode:d39 139 0 model = "carlos" area=42.06
diode:d40 140 0 model = "carlos" area=40.05 diode:d41 141 0
model = "carlos" area=38.13 diode:d42 142 0 model = "carlos"
area=36.3 diode:d43 143 0 model = "carlos" area=34.56 diode:d44
144 0 model = "carlos" area=32.91 diode:d45 145 0 model =
"carlos" area=31.33 diode:d46 146 0 model = "carlos" area=29.83
diode:d47 147 0 model = "carlos" area=28.4

```

\*

\* Parasitic inductors

```

* l:i1 1 101 l=21.8pH l:i2 2 102 l=21.8pH l:i3 3 103 l=21.8pH
l:i4 4 104 l=21.8pH l:i5 5 105 l=21.8pH l:i6 6 106 l=21.8pH
l:i7 7 107 l=21.8pH l:i8 8 108 l=21.8pH l:i9 9 109 l=21.8pH
l:i10 10 110 l=21.8pH l:i11 11 111 l=21.8pH l:i12 12 112 l=21.8pH
l:i13 13 113 l=21.8pH l:i14 14 114 l=21.8pH l:i15 15 115 l=21.8pH
l:i16 16 116 l=21.8pH l:i17 17 117 l=21.8pH l:i18 18 118 l=21.8pH

```

```

l:i19 19 119 l=21.8pH l:i20 20 120 l=21.8pH l:i21 21 121 l=21.8pH
l:i22 22 122 l=21.8pH l:i23 23 123 l=21.8pH l:i24 24 124 l=21.8pH
l:i25 25 125 l=21.8pH l:i26 26 126 l=21.8pH l:i27 27 127 l=21.8pH
l:i28 28 128 l=21.8pH l:i29 29 129 l=21.8pH l:i30 30 130 l=21.8pH
l:i31 31 131 l=21.8pH l:i32 32 132 l=21.8pH l:i33 33 133 l=21.8pH
l:i34 34 134 l=21.8pH l:i35 35 135 l=21.8pH l:i36 36 136 l=21.8pH
l:i37 37 137 l=21.8pH l:i38 38 138 l=21.8pH l:i39 39 139 l=21.8pH
l:i40 40 140 l=21.8pH l:i41 41 141 l=21.8pH l:i42 42 142 l=21.8pH
l:i43 43 143 l=21.8pH l:i44 44 144 l=21.8pH l:i45 45 145 l=21.8pH
l:i46 46 146 l=21.8pH l:i47 47 147 l=21.8pH

```

\*

\* Transmission lines

```

* tlinp4:t0 202 0 1 0 model = "c_line" length=501.29u tlinp4:t1 1
0 2 0 model = "c_line" length=978.57u tlinp4:t2 2 0 3 0 model =
"c_line" length=931.69u tlinp4:t3 3 0 4 0 model = "c_line"
length=887.06u tlinp4:t4 4 0 5 0 model = "c_line" length=844.57u
tlinp4:t5 5 0 6 0 model = "c_line" length=804.11u tlinp4:t6 6 0
7 0 model = "c_line" length=765.59u tlinp4:t7 7 0 8 0 model =
"c_line" length=728.92u tlinp4:t8 8 0 9 0 model = "c_line"
length=694.00u tlinp4:t9 9 0 10 0 model = "c_line" length=660.75u
tlinp4:t10 10 0 11 0 model = "c_line" length=629.10u tlinp4:t11
11 0 12 0 model = "c_line" length=598.97u tlinp4:t12 12 0 13 0
model = "c_line" length=570.27u tlinp4:t13 13 0 14 0 model =
"c_line" length=542.96u tlinp4:t14 14 0 15 0 model = "c_line"
length=516.95u tlinp4:t15 15 0 16 0 model = "c_line"
length=492.18u tlinp4:t16 16 0 17 0 model = "c_line"
length=468.61u tlinp4:t17 17 0 18 0 model = "c_line"
length=446.16u tlinp4:t18 18 0 19 0 model = "c_line"
length=424.79u tlinp4:t19 19 0 20 0 model = "c_line"
length=404.44u tlinp4:t20 20 0 21 0 model = "c_line"
length=385.06u tlinp4:t21 21 0 22 0 model = "c_line"
length=366.62u tlinp4:t22 22 0 23 0 model = "c_line"
length=349.05u tlinp4:t23 23 0 24 0 model = "c_line"
length=332.33u tlinp4:t24 24 0 25 0 model = "c_line"
length=316.41u tlinp4:t25 25 0 26 0 model = "c_line"

```

```
length=301.26u tlinp4:t26 26 0 27 0 model = "c_line"  
length=286.83u tlinp4:t27 27 0 28 0 model = "c_line"  
length=273.09u tlinp4:t28 28 0 29 0 model = "c_line"  
length=260.00u tlinp4:t29 29 0 30 0 model = "c_line"  
length=247.55u tlinp4:t30 30 0 31 0 model = "c_line"  
length=235.69u tlinp4:t31 31 0 32 0 model = "c_line"  
length=224.40u tlinp4:t32 32 0 33 0 model = "c_line"  
length=213.65u tlinp4:t33 33 0 34 0 model = "c_line"  
length=203.42u tlinp4:t34 34 0 35 0 model = "c_line"  
length=193.67u tlinp4:t35 35 0 36 0 model = "c_line"  
length=184.39u tlinp4:t36 36 0 37 0 model = "c_line"  
length=175.56u tlinp4:t37 37 0 38 0 model = "c_line"  
length=167.15u tlinp4:t38 38 0 39 0 model = "c_line"  
length=159.14u tlinp4:t39 39 0 40 0 model = "c_line"  
length=151.52u tlinp4:t40 40 0 41 0 model = "c_line"  
length=144.26u tlinp4:t41 41 0 42 0 model = "c_line"  
length=137.35u tlinp4:t42 42 0 43 0 model = "c_line"  
length=130.77u tlinp4:t43 43 0 44 0 model = "c_line"  
length=124.51u tlinp4:t44 44 0 45 0 model = "c_line"  
length=118.54u tlinp4:t45 45 0 46 0 model = "c_line"  
length=112.86u tlinp4:t46 46 0 47 0 model = "c_line"  
length=107.46u tlinp4:t47 47 0 48 0 model = "c_line"  
length=52.41u
```

```
res:rl 48 0 r=50.
```

```
*.out plot element "diode:d1" 0 ut in "diode1.v" *.out plot  
element "diode:d1" 0 it in "diode1.i" *.out plot element  
"diode:d1" 0 xt in "diode1.x"
```

```
*.out plot element "diode:d2" 0 ut in "diode2.v" *.out plot  
element "diode:d2" 0 it in "diode2.i" *.out plot element  
"diode:d2" 0 xt in "diode2.x"
```

```
*.out plot element "diode:d3" 0 ut in "diode3.v" *.out plot  
element "diode:d3" 0 it in "diode3.i" *.out plot element
```

```
"diode:d3" 0 xt in "diode3.x"

.out plot element "diode:d2" 0 ut in "diode2_tran2.v" .out plot
element "diode:d2" 0 it in "diode2_tran2.i" .out plot element
"diode:d2" 0 xt in "diode2_tran2.x"

*.out plot element "diode:d22" 0 ut in "diode22.v" *.out plot
element "diode:d22" 0 it in "diode22.i" *.out plot element
"diode:d22" 0 xt in "diode22.x"

*.out plot element "diode:d32" 0 ut in "diode32.v" *.out plot
element "diode:d32" 0 it in "diode32.i" *.out plot element
"diode:d32" 0 xt in "diode32.x"

*.out plot element "diode:d46" 0 ut in "diode46.v" *.out plot
element "diode:d46" 0 it in "diode46.i" *.out plot element
"diode:d46" 0 xt in "diode46.x"

*.out plot element "diode:d47" 0 ut in "diode47.v" *.out plot
element "diode:d47" 0 it in "diode47.i" *.out plot element
"diode:d47" 0 xt in "diode47.x"

.end
```

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