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**COMPARISON OF TWO METHODS FOR DESIGN CENTERING**

by

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# COMPARISON OF TWO METHODS FOR DESIGN CENTERING<sup>1</sup>

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## ABSTRACT

Two methods recently proposed to solve the design centering problem [2,9] are compared. Although the methods are formulated differently, they are shown, under general assumptions, to yield the same solutions. Simplifications required to make the methods efficiently implementable introduce, however, significant differences from an utilization point of view.

## 1. Introduction

Finding the best nominal design in order to maximize the yield is an important problem in TC design. Because of the unavoidable fluctuations in the manufacturing process, the actual values of the circuit parameters, denoted by the vector  $p$ , is characterized by the known joint density distribution  $\langle p | p^0 \rangle$ , where  $p^0$  represents the nominal values. Design centering methods [1,5,31] try to imbed in the so-called region of acceptability  $R_a$ , the largest convex domain  $B_r(p)$  related to  $\langle p | p^0 \rangle$ , as shown below. The region of acceptability can for our purposes be defined as the

$$R_a = \{p \mid f_i(p) \leq f_{i,max}, i = 1, \dots, m\} \quad (1)$$

where the  $f_i$  represent the performance functions which characterize the circuit behavior.  $R_a$  is assumed to be simply connected. The contours of equal probability of  $\langle p \rangle$  can be associated for all the distribution of interest with a norm  $n(p)$ . See for example [3].  $B_r(p)$ , often referred to as a norm body, is defined relative to  $n(p)$

$$B_r(p^0) \ll \{p \mid n(p - p^0) \leq r\} \quad (2)$$

and represents a body centered at  $p^0$  whose size is proportional to  $r$ . The first method we will look into is the approach referred to as (VTP) in [2], and can be formulated as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(VTP): maximize } & r \\ \text{such that } & \max_{i \in I} \max_{y \in Y} f_i(y) \leq f_{i,max} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

In this approach a maximally sized body is to be found, such that inside the body none of the performance functions will exceed their maximum allowable value. We note from the outset that the main difficulty in solving (3) derives from the maximization subproblem

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$$\text{maximize}_{y \in Y, p \in P} f_i(y) \quad (4)$$

as it must be solved for all constraints  $i = 1, \dots, m$  and is likely to have local maxima, making gradient based methods unreliable. That (4) is likely to have local maxima can be inferred from the fact that quite often the  $f_i(y)$  are convex functions and  $B_r(p^0)$  is a parallelepiped.

The second method, referred to as the (HP) method, is formulated as:

$$\text{(UP): } \max_r \min_{i \in I} \min_{y \in Y} (r - f_i(y)) \quad (5)$$

In this method the points on the boundary of the region of acceptability which are closest to the nominal design are located and then this distance is maximized. Searching for these near points is based upon the fact that they limit further expansion of the body  $B_r(p)$ . It is possible to prove that if the performance functions are either quasiconvex or quasiconcave, their accumulation points are the points where the largest body touches the boundary of the region of acceptability.

The domain of the innermost minimization is the intersection of the region of acceptability with the surface  $f_i(y) = f_{i,max}$ , i.e. in the boundary of  $R_a$ , we will assume this domain to be nonempty. Otherwise the constraint  $f_i(y) \leq f_{i,max}$  is superfluous in the sense that if dropped from the set of constraints the region of acceptability remains unchanged. An algorithm can easily detect this situation by verifying that for the constraint  $i$  there is no feasible solution to the minimization problem. The main difficulty that arises in solving (5) is the subproblem

$$\begin{aligned} \text{minimize } & n(y - p^0) \\ \text{such that } & f_j(y) \leq f_{j,max}, j = 1, \dots, m \\ & f_i(y) \geq f_{i,max} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The difficulty here is that (6) is a constrained minimization problem which is computationally intensive in itself, and one which must be solved repeatedly.

## 2. Equivalence of Methods

It is illustrative to recognize that if  $R_a$  is simply connected, the performance functions are differentiable and their gradients do not vanish at the boundary of  $R_a$ , then a locally optimal solution to (3) is also locally optimal to (5).

For convenience we define

$$bd_r(R_j - \{p \in R, |f_r(p) - f_r^*| \leq \epsilon\}) \quad (7)$$

and the sets

$$M_r(p, r) = \{0 \leq t \leq 1 \mid f_r(0) + t \max_{p \in R} f_r(p) - f_r(p) \leq r\} \quad (8)$$

V. T. N. Centeşiu proved [10] that a solution  $0^*, r^*$  to problem (3) is locally optimal if

$$f_r(M_r(0^*, r^*)) \leq f_{\max} \quad (9)$$

and

$$0 \in \text{CO} \{y \mid \exists t \in [0, 1] \mid p \in M_r(0^*, r^*), f_r(p) = f_{\max}\} \quad (10)$$

This last expression can be interpreted geometrically to mean that the convex hull defined by gradients of the function at the points where the body touches the boundary of  $R$ , contains the origin, intuitively, if this situation occurs, there is no direction in which the center could be moved such that the radius of the body increases.

To establish the equivalence between the two problems\* it is enough to show that any point  $0 \in M_r(f^*, f)$ , exists in  $bd_r(R)$  and is at a minimum distance from  $0$ . Assume there is a point  $p \in bd_r(R)$  such that  $n(p) \cdot S < n(f^*)$  then  $p^*$  exists in the interior of  $B_r(f^*)$  and there is an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B_\epsilon(p) \subset B_r(f^*)$ . By assumption  $\forall f_r(p) > 0$  and there is therefore a point  $P^* \in B_\epsilon(p)$  such that  $f_r(P^*) > Kp$ . But this contradicts the hypothesis that  $(0, r)$  is optimal as for  $p^*$  we would have  $p^* \in M_r(0^*, r^*)$ .

### 3. Relation Between Subproblems (4) and (6)

The relation between problems (4) and (8) can be made clearer by dropping from (6) the requirement that  $f_i^* \leq f_i$ ,  $i=1, \dots, m$ . If the constraint  $i$  is not superfluous, these constraints for most cases are not active and the solution to (6) would remain unchanged. We rewrite therefore (6) in the following form

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && n(y-p^0) \\ & \text{such that} && f_i(p) \geq f_{\max} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

On the other hand, using (2) subproblem (4) can also be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize} && f_i(y) \\ & \text{such that} && n(y-p^0) \leq r \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

for  $p^0$  and  $r$  constants.

As illustrated in Fig. 1 for the norm  $n(x) = \|x\| = \max |x_i|$ ,  $i=1, \dots, n$ , in subproblem (10) for a constant sized parallelepiped we search for the

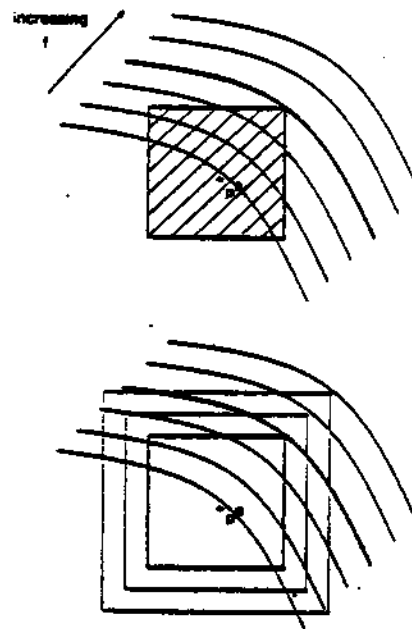


Figure 1:

point where  $f_i$  is maximized. In (11) the opposite problem is solved: given a fixed value of the function  $f_r$ , the minimum value of  $r$  is found such that the resulting norm body will have at least a common point with the surface  $f_r(p) = f_{\max}$ .

It is interesting to note that (11) and (12) are in some sense duals of each other since they have the objective function and the constraint interchanged. We saw before that the solution to these two subproblems for  $(0, r)$  was the same. We further notice that a local solution to (11), assuming that  $n(x)$  is locally Lipschitz, is given by [4].

$$\begin{aligned} & 0 \in \partial_r n(y-p^0) - r_1 \nabla f_i(y) \\ & r_0 r_1 \geq 0 \\ & r_1 [f_i(y) - f_{\max}] = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

where  $\partial n(y-p^0)$  represents the generalized gradient of  $n(y-p^0)$ . Similarly, for (12)

$$\begin{aligned} & 0 \in -r_0 \nabla f_i(y) + r_1 \partial n(y-p^0) \\ & r_0 r_1 \geq 0 \\ & r_1 [n(y-p^0) - r] = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

The similarity of these problems is enhanced if we notice that at the solution of (3) and (5) we must have  $r^* = f^*$ .

### 4. Implementation of the Methods

The implementation of the two methods is similar in the sense that the subproblems (4) and (6) are solved at each iteration and the function and gradient information gathered during this process is used by the outer maximization. In the first case the problem can be reduced to a constrained nonlinear problem which can be

solved by some constrained variable metric methods. Specifically, a variation of Poweffs algorithm [7] is used, in the second method, the equivalent information is used to generate a second order approximation to the constraining surfaces and the largest normbody is inscribed in that simplified approximation to the region of acceptability.

Solving subproblem (4) at each iteration would result in a computationally expensive expansion of the region. The corresponding norm is  $\| \cdot \|_{\infty}$ , i.e.

$$B_r(p) = \{x \mid |b_i - p_i| \leq r\} \quad (15)$$

The basis for this resmcon is that in most practical cases the maximum of (4) will occur at a vertex of  $B_r(p)$ , therefore reducing the set where the search is to be done to a finite set. This set can however still be very large and in [2] a scheme referred to as splitting is introduced. The technique, which is based on previous information, predicts where the local maxima of (4) are likely to occur. Reducing the search from maximum to the set of vertices of  $B_r(p)$  can however introduce significant errors in the case where the region of acceptability is not one (finitely convex [1], or the region of acceptability has holes in its interior, as illustrated in Fig. 2.

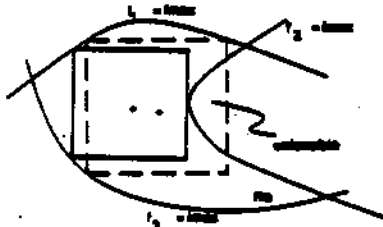


Figure 2:

The (NP) method does not have this limitation\*

Although methods exist for minimizing problems when the objective function is nondifferentiable, e.g. [6], and this is presently an area of active research, all algorithms for this general problem tend to require a very large number of function and gradient (generalized gradients) evaluations making them unsuitable to be used in subproblem (6) where repeated solutions are required. In our implementation we limited the algorithm (NP) to the case where the norm is differentiable, and used also Powers constrained variable metric algorithm to solve subproblems (5).

From the designer's point of view, the (NP) method yields interesting information on how well the constraints are formulated. At early stages of a design, it is very often the case that a large number of constraints are tentatively specified, clearly if the solution to (6) corresponds to a value of  $f^*$  the constraints can be modified. Further, the relative distances to the final nominal  $f^*$  give an indication on how strongly the constraint affects the circuit's yield.

A limitation of the NP method which could be serious is if the initial design is very far from the final solution, the quadratic approximations might have to be updated, thereby significantly increasing the number of iterations.

## 5. Examples

We tried both methods on a group of examples to compare the behavior of both methods. For the (VTP) we used the infinite norm, while for the (NP) we used the  $L_2$ -norm, this accounts for the

different solutions obtained with both methods. (Note also the theoretical advantage of the (VTP) methods of not requiring a feasible starting point).

Example 1 In this example we have a single convex. Quadratic performance function

$$f_1(p) = 0.505(p_1^2 + p_2^2) - 0.999p_1p_2$$

constrained to be smaller than a 1.

	Starting Point	Final Point	Number of F.E.	Number of O.E.
(VTP)	(2.04, 0)	(0.00, 0)	8	8
(NP)	(0.5, 0.6)	(0.00, 0)	6	6

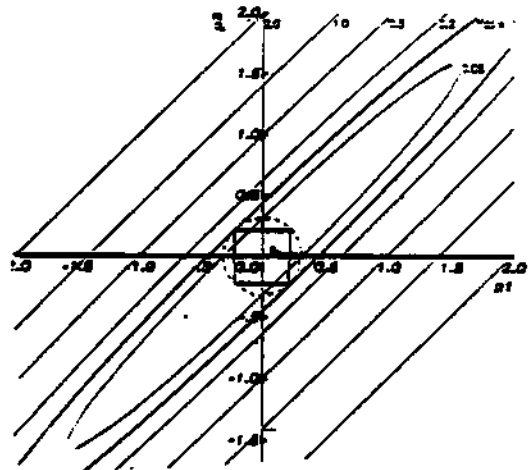


Figure 3:

Example 2 This example is taken from [8]

$$f_1(p) = e^{p_1} + 1 + ((p_2 - 1)^2 + 1)$$

$$f_2(p) = e^{p_1 - 2p_2} + 1$$

$$f_3(p) = p_1^2 + p_2^2 - 1$$

The constraints are  $f_i \leq 1.5, i = 1, 2, 3$

	Starting Point	Final Point	Number of F.E.	Number of G.E.
(VTP)	(2.0, 2.0)	(0.35, 1.01)	18	20
(NP)	(0.7, 0.9)	(0.35, 1.01)	15	46

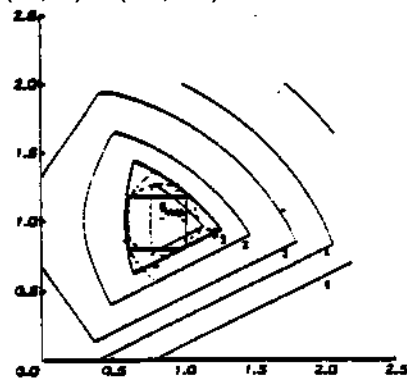


Figure 4:

Example 3 This example was taken from [8]

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(p) &= 1.5 - p_1(1-p_2) & f_4 &= -f_1 \\ f_2(p) &= 2.25 - p_1(1-p_2^2) & f_5 &= -f_2 \\ f_3 &= 2.625 - p_1(1-p_2^3) & f_6 &= -f_3 \end{aligned}$$

constrained to  $f_j \leq 1.5, j=1, \dots, 6$

	Starting Point	Final Point	Number of F.E.	Number of G.E.
(VTP)	(2.0,2.0)	(1.851,0.134)	33	87
(NP)	(1.3,0.3)	(1.832,0.142)	24	20

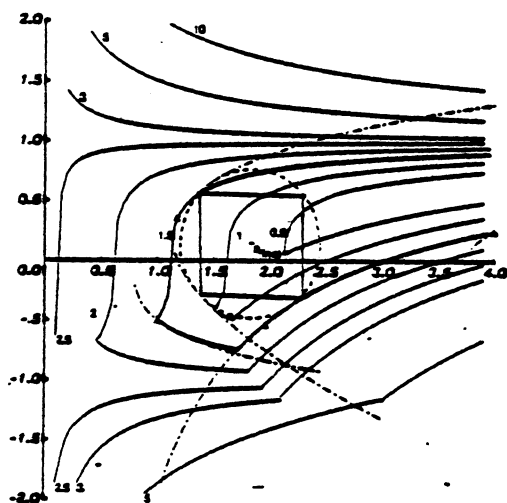


Figure 5:

Example 4 Also taken from [8] has two performance function, one convex and the other concave, both constrained to be smaller than 1.15

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(p) &= 0.96 + (p_1-1)^2 + (p_2-0.8)^2 \\ f_2(p) &= 1.16 - (p_1-1)^2 - (p_2-0.8)^2 \end{aligned}$$

	Starting Point	Final Point	Number of F.E.	Number of G.E.
(VTP)	(2.0,2.0)	(1.000,1.004)	31	32
(NP)	(0.8,0.9)	(1.000,1.016)	11	

For this example and for function  $f_2$  the solution to subproblem (4) is not in a vertex of the parallelepiped and therefore a significant part of the final tolerance box is infeasible.

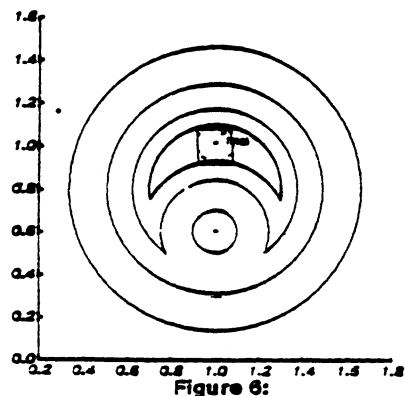


Figure 6:

## Conclusion

We have shown that two apparently very different problems can be seen as different formulations of the same body imbedding problem, yielding under general conditions an identical result. With reasonable assumptions the problems lend themselves to very different implementations: one (VTP) suitable for the worst case problem, the other (NP) for a general body center problem when the norm is differentiable. It is interesting to note further that when applied to similar problems they seem to have computational requirements of the same order, when measured in terms of the number of function and gradient evaluations.

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