Making Fourier-Envelope Simulation Robust

Jaijeet Roychowdhury
University of Minnesota

Abstract

Fourier-envelope algorithms are an important component of the mixed-signal/RF verification toolbox. In this paper, we address the unpredictability and lack of robustness that has been reported for these algorithms. We show that the problem stems from fast oscillations in envelopes that are expected to be slowly varying. We demonstrate that this is related to the fact that the envelope equations are always stiff, whether or not the underlying system is. We show that careful choice of envelope initial conditions is necessary to obtain useful solutions, and propose two techniques for finding good initial conditions. Applying these, and solving the envelope equations with stiffly-stable numerical methods, we improve the robustness and reliability of Fourier-envelope methods. We illustrate the new methods with a direct-downconversion mixer circuit.

1 Introduction

A long-standing problem of considerable importance in mixed-signal/RF simulation and verification is that of predicting slow envelopes of circuit responses. Envelopes are of interest, for example, when investigating startup transients of circuits that have rapid oscillations which change amplitude/phase only much more slowly. Another area of application is in communication circuits, where fast carrier waveforms are modulated by much slower information signals.

Finding these envelopes via initial-value simulation of differential equations (e.g., using SPICE’s transient simulation capability) is often not practical because of the widely-separated time scales of the waveforms involved. Initial value solution techniques are constrained to taking timesteps that are much smaller than the time-period of the fastest components of the signal. Hence an excessive number of time-points can be required to track the envelopes, which are often slower by orders of magnitude. As a result, numerical algorithms that alleviate this limitation have been sought.

Several such techniques have appeared in the literature. The earliest appears to be the time-domain-envelope-following technique proposed in [7], later adapted for circuit applications in [5]. So-called Fourier-envelope methods, which compute slowly-varying Fourier components of fast oscillations as they change with time, were proposed in 1996 [3, 6, 14]. Shortly after, multi-time PDE techniques were used to place Fourier-envelope methods on a sounder mathematical footing, and also to propose novel time-domain envelope methods [12, 13]. Following their advent, Fourier-envelope techniques were implemented in commercial simulation tools, notably from Agilent Technologies.

Despite this progress, practitioners have observed that Fourier-envelope techniques do not always succeed in finding slow envelopes in a predictable and robust manner. Even in some extremely simple linear circuits, it has been noted that Fourier-envelope simulation can produce, instead of the smooth envelope expected, large and seemingly random oscillations [9]. Yet, at the same time, Fourier envelope appears to produce meaningful results for many circuits.

In this paper, we address the issue of incorrect and strange behaviour in Fourier-envelope methods. We find that the root cause of the problem is not purely numerical, but that even the exact solution of the Fourier-envelope equations need not be slowly-varying and can, indeed, be expected to have fast oscillations in the typical case. We show that the Fourier-envelope differential equations are stiff even when the underlying circuit has no stiffness. We find that, however, rapid oscillations can be reduced to insignificance via selection of envelope initial conditions.

We propose two methods for the important task of finding ‘good’ envelope initial conditions to eliminate rapid envelope oscillations. The methods are based on, respectively, mapping initial conditions between orthogonal lines in the multi-time domain, and the use of artificial damping. Together with good initial conditions, we advocate the use of stiffly-stable integration techniques.

These enhancements have a significant positive impact on the reliability of Fourier-envelope techniques. We present an application of the enhanced method to a direct-downconversion mixer circuit. We are able to avoid the aforementioned problems and predict 10kbps bit-streams recovered from a 900MHz carrier, in the presence of slow gain modulation.

Throughout the paper, multi-time PDE concepts are used for both diagnosis and circumvention of Fourier-envelope problems. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we demonstrate the failure of existing Fourier-envelope techniques. In Section 3, we develop an understanding of the underlying phenomena responsible for this failure. In Section 4, we propose and discuss remedial enhancements, and in Section 5, demonstrate their application.

2 Failure of Fourier-envelope methods

Consider the standard test problem for investigating stability and accuracy properties of linear multistep integration methods [2, 11]:

$$\dot{x} = \lambda x + b(t).$$

In circuit terms, this corresponds to a simple RC network, with a capacitor voltage of $x(t)$, and driven by a voltage source with value $b(t)$. For illustration, we use the values

$$\lambda = 10^{3}, \quad b(t) = \sin(2\pi 10^{6}t),$$

corresponding to an RC time constant of 1ms and a sinusoidal excitation of 1MHz.

A solution of (1) with initial condition $x(t=0) = 0$ is shown in Figure 1. As expected, the 1MHz excitation results in a ‘fast response’ that varies at the same rate; due to the slow RC time-constant, however, there is also a decaying transient ‘slow response’, that eventually dies out in this case. This is the classic widely-separated time scale issue.
a challenge for transient simulation because of the large number of timepoints required.

The goal of envelope methods is to predict the waveform in Figure 1 more efficiently than lengthy initial-value simulations. Fourier envelope is particularly attractive for this system, since the response can be captured exactly in the form

$$x(t) = X_0(t) + a(t) \sin(2\pi 10^6 t + \phi(t))$$

$$= X_0(t) + X_1(t)e^{2\pi 10^6 t} + X_{-1}(t)e^{-2\pi 10^6 t}. \quad (3)$$

$X_0(t)$ is called the DC envelope, while $a(t)$, $\phi(t)$, $X_1(t)$ and $X_{-1}(t)$ are various components of the first harmonic envelope. For envelope simulation to be useful, these must all be slowly-varying quantities. Simply from examination of Figure 1, it may be expected that the DC envelope for this system should be a slowly-decaying curve, while the first harmonic envelope (i.e., the amplitude of the oscillations) should remain substantially constant.

$$\dot{x}(t_1, t_2) = \lambda \hat{x} + \sin(2\pi 10^6 t_2). \quad (4)$$

Recall that the usefulness of (4) stems from that if $\hat{x}(t_1, t_2)$ is a solution, then $x(t) = \hat{x}(t, t)$ solves (1). In the above MPDE, $t_2$ is the artificial time scale corresponding to the 1MHz fast variations, while $t_1$ captures slow variations. The envelope should then be a slow function of $t_1$.

To find a unique envelope solution of (4), an envelope initial condition must be specified (akin to the initial condition for (1)). We set the envelope initial condition at $t_1 = 0$ to be

$$\hat{x}(t_1 = 0, t_2) \equiv 0. \quad (5)$$

Note that this envelope initial condition is consistent with the zero initial condition used for the initial value solution of (1).

### 3.1 Rapid undulations in envelopes

For the simple MPDE (4) with initial condition (5), an exact analytical solution can easily be found; it is

$$\dot{x}(t_1, t_2) = \lambda \frac{e^{-(\lambda + 2\pi 10^6) t_1} - 1}{4\pi 10^6 - 2j\lambda} e^{j2\pi 10^6 t_2} + \text{c.c. terms}. \quad (6)$$

Observe that the $t_2$-variation of (6) is a pure sinusoid at 1MHz, periodic with period 1μs. $\hat{x}(t_1, t_2)$ is plotted in Figure 3 for $t_1 = [0, 3\mu s]$.

Figure 3 reveals an unexpected phenomenon: the ‘slow’ envelope, i.e., variation of $\hat{x}(t_1, t_2)$ with respect to $t_1$, contains fast oscillations of frequency about 1MHz. This is contrary to the fundamental expectation for envelope techniques, i.e., that the envelope will vary slowly. We remind the reader that Figure 3 is plotted from the exact analytical solution (6), and is therefore not affected by any possible numerical artifacts. This is borne out by the multi-time envelope simulation results shown in Figure 4.

### 3 Non-slow envelopes, and stiff systems

To investigate the problem identified above, we use the mathematical framework of multi-time partial-differential equations (MPDEs, e.g., [1, 13]). The MPDE formulation is useful in this context because it provides an underlying unifying basis from which a number of envelope simulation techniques, including Fourier envelope, can be derived [13]. An MPDE corresponding to (1) is

$$\frac{d}{dt_1} \hat{x}(t_1, t_2) + \frac{d}{dt_2} \hat{x}(t_1, t_2) = \lambda \hat{x} + \sin(2\pi 10^6 t_2). \quad (4)$$

We now turn to the manifestation of this phenomenon in Fourier-envelope methods. The Fourier-envelope equations corresponding to (4) are

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_0(t) = -\lambda X_0(t),$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_1(t) = -\left(\lambda + 2\pi 10^6\right) X_1(t) - \frac{1}{2}j\lambda, \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_{-1}(t) = -\left(\lambda - 2\pi 10^6\right) X_{-1}(t) + \frac{1}{2}j\lambda.$$
The solution of these equations with initial condition \( X_0(0) = 0 \) corresponds to the multi-time solution (6), from which it is apparent that the Fourier envelope solution is

\[
X_0(t) \equiv 0, \quad X_1(t) = \hat{X}_1(t) = \frac{\lambda}{2i\lambda - 4\pi 10^6} e^{-(\lambda t + i2\pi 10^6 t)} - 1.
\]

(8)

Observe that rapid undulations (of frequency 1MHz) are present in the envelope waveform given by (8); these are verified by a few fast cycles of Fourier-envelope simulation, shown in Figure 5.

### 3.2 Envelope initial conditions

The above observations begin to shed light on the undesired phenomena of Figure 2. Clearly, if the analytically-obtained envelope has fast oscillations that persist, it is only to be expected that numerical integration with time-steps much larger than the oscillation period will provide meaningless, artifact-ridden results.

Note, however, that (6) and (8) are not the only possible envelope solution to this problem. As noted earlier, the envelope is determined as much by the initial condition (5) as by the system itself. The only requirement on the envelope initial condition \( \hat{x}(t_1 = 0, t_2) \) is that it be consistent with the original problem’s initial condition at \( t = 0 \), i.e., \( \hat{x}(t_1 = 0, 0) = x(t = 0) \). This leaves open the possibility that with appropriate choice of initial condition, the envelope solution can be made free of fast undulations.

To illustrate this, we return to the Fourier-envelope equations (7). Instead of the previous initial condition \( X_0(0) = 0, X_1(0) = \hat{X}_1(0) \equiv 0 \), consider the alternative initial condition

\[
X_1(0) = \frac{\lambda}{2i\lambda - 4\pi 10^6}, \quad X_0(0) = -2\Re\{X_1(0)\}.
\]

(9)

It may be verified that this new envelope initial condition leads to the envelope solution

\[
X_1(t) \equiv X_1(0) \forall t, \quad X_0(t) = X_0(0) e^{-\lambda t},
\]

(10)

Unlike (8), the envelopes (10) do not contain fast variations, and it is thus meaningful to use numerical methods to find them.

### 3.3 Envelope equations are stiff

Having established that proper initial conditions are critical for obtaining meaningful and slowly-varying envelopes, we now turn our attention to properties of the Fourier-envelope equations that may impact their numerical solution.

We first note that the test problem (1) has only a single intrinsic time-constant \( \lambda \), which in our illustrative example is 1ms. The problem is therefore not stiff\(^1\). It is the fact that the external input is far more rapid than the system’s intrinsic relaxation rates that creates a widely-separated time scale problem requiring envelope methods for efficient solution.

Now consider the corresponding Fourier-envelope equations given by (7). Note that the input to each of these equations has no fast variations (being constants); this is the feature that enables the envelope equations, potentially, to have slowly-varying solutions. However, note that the intrinsic time-constants of the envelope equations are now widely separated. For example, in the equation for \( X_1(t) \), the real part of the time constant is \( \lambda = 10^3 \), while the imaginary part is \( 2\pi 10^6 \). The fast-time variation of the input to (1) has been transformed into an intrinsic time-constant in the envelope equations.

In other words, even though the original circuit or DAE problem was not stiff, the Fourier-envelope equations (7) are. It is the stiffness that manifests itself as fast oscillations that decay only as slowly as (potentially) the slowest time-constant of the original system. It is also apparent that the larger the number of harmonics considered in the Fourier-envelope method, the stiffer the Fourier-envelope equations become.

The main insights obtained in this section are:

- The exact solution of envelope equations can have rapid variations in addition to slow ones, thereby undermining the purpose of envelope simulation. Without first addressing this basic issue, it is pointless to seek or apply ‘better’ numerical techniques.
- The nature of the envelope solution, in particular its fast variations, depends strongly on the envelope initial condition applied. The possibility remains that with appropriate initial conditions, the envelope solution will have only slow variations.
- Even when using initial conditions that eliminate fast variations, care must be taken to use numerical integration methods appropriate for stiff problems, to avoid numerical artifacts stemming from stiffness of the Fourier-envelope equations.

In the next section, we propose techniques to address these issues and devise a robust Fourier-envelope method.

### 4 Robust Fourier envelope

As pointed out in the previous section, the two main tasks in devising a robust Fourier-envelope method are 1. to find envelope initial conditions that result in slowly-varying solutions, and 2. to use stiffly-stable integration techniques for solving the envelope equations numerically.

The latter task is the easier to address. A wide body of literature on effective numerical methods is available for stably integrating stiff differential equations (e.g., see [2, 4, 8, 11]). For example, the second-order Backward Differentiation Formulae (BDF), better known as Gear’s methods, are popular in circuit simulation.

The task of finding good envelope initial conditions, for a general system, is more challenging. In the remainder of this section, we present two approaches towards this end. The first uses several short transient simulations of the underlying DAE to find an initial condition for the envelope equations. The second exploits numerical damping properties of ‘overstable’ integration methods, specifically the Backward Euler (BE) method in this work, to arrive at an envelope initial condition.

To facilitate exposition, the remainder of this section uses the simple illustrative example already encountered in Section 2 and Section 3. It should be kept in mind, however, that the techniques proposed are motivated by, and applicable to, the general problem posed by the potentially large system of DAEs

\[
\dot{q}(x) + f(x) + b(t) = 0,
\]

(11)

\(^1\)Recall that differential equations are stiff if they have widely-separated intrinsic time-constants or eigenvalues [2, 4].
and its corresponding MPDE

\[
\left( \frac{d}{dt_1} + \frac{d}{dt_2} \right) q(\bar{t}) + f(\bar{t}) + \hat{b}(t_1, t_2) = 0, \tag{12}
\]

descriptions adequate not only for circuit applications, but for a variety of optical, mechanical and mixed-domain problems.

### 4.1 Mapping slow-timescale initial conditions

The insight behind the first approach is best grasped using multiple time scales. Consider Figure 3. The envelope initial condition is specified along the entire t2 line, at t1 = 0; in the figure, this condition is identical zero, which as noted in the previous section, leads to the fast variations along t1.

The only real constraint on the envelope initial condition is that it be consistent with whatever initial condition is specified for the underlying DAE problem (1) – in this case, that the value at \( t_1 = 0, t_2 = 0 \) is zero.

Furthermore, there is no real necessity that the envelope initial condition be specified at exactly \( t_1 = 0 \), so long as consistency with the DAE initial condition is retained. It could, for instance, be specified along the t2-line at \( t_1 = T_2 \), where \( T_2 \) is the period of the fast time scale \(-1\mu s\) in our example.

The key idea behind finding a ‘good’ envelope initial condition is the following: instead of directly specifying a (hard-to-guess) envelope initial condition along the t2 line at \( t_1 = 0 \), a) specify instead a slowly-varying initial condition along a short segment of the t1 line, specifically \( t_1 = [0, T_2] \) at \( t_2 = 0 \), and then b) map this slow \( t_1\)-initial-condition to the t2-line at \( t_1 = T_2 \). The envelope simulation is then started from \( t_1 = T_2 \) instead of \( t_0 = 0 \).

The mapping between the two lines is carried out simply through transient simulations (i.e., initial value solutions of the underlying DAE). This is possible because diagonal lines along the \((t_1, t_2)\) plane of the MPDE correspond to initial value solutions of the underlying DAE with appropriate time-shifts to the excitation term [13].

The idea is illustrated in Figure 6. Using the underlying DAE initial condition at \((t_1, t_2) = (0, 0)\), a transient simulation (i.e., initial value DAE solution) is first carried out to \((t_1, t_2) = (T_2, T_2)\). This is a short transient simulation, corresponding to one fast cycle. Periodicity with respect to \( t_2 \) implies that the solution at \((t_1, t_2) = (T_2, 0)\) has been obtained. A smooth curve is now fitted between the end-points \((t_1, t_2) = (0, 0)\) and \((t_1, t_2) = (T_2, 0)\) to obtain the slowly-varying initial condition along \( t_1 = [0, T_2] \), \( t_2 = 0 \).

Starting with these initial conditions, a number of transient simulations are now carried out for periods less than \( T_2 \), as indicated by the diagonal arrows in Figure 6. The initial condition at \( t_1 = T_2, t_2 = 0 \) is thus obtained, using which the envelope simulation along \( t_1 \), employing large timesteps, is initiated.

Figure 7 shows the initial condition obtained by this procedure for the test problem (1), as both a time-domain waveform and its Fourier components. It can be seen that the Fourier components are virtually identical to those in (9), even though they were obtained by a general procedure that does not rely on direct knowledge of the specific system. The Fourier-envelope simulation started with this initial condition (using a stiffly-stable integration method) are shown in Figure 8; observe that the slowly-varying solutions are consistent both qualitatively and quantitatively with Figure 1 and (10).

By construction, this mapping technique ensures that the envelope solution obtained is consistent with the specified initial condition of the underlying DAE problem. On the other hand, it does not guarantee an envelope initial condition that completely eliminates fast ringing, although these are substantially reduced in practice. Extensions of the mapping, using transient simulations for a few multiples of \( T_2 \), can produce even better initial conditions. However, when exact consistency with the underlying DAE’s initial condition is not mandatory and approximate consistency suffices (as is often the case in applications), using artificial numerical damping to augment mapping, as described below, is simple to implement and proves beneficial in practice.

### 4.2 Exploiting artificial numerical damping

It is a well-known fact [2, 11] that certain numerical integration methods, like Backward Euler (BE), are ‘overly stable’, i.e., they can artificially damp out growing or persistent oscillatory solutions. Since the resulting solutions are wrong, these artifacts are not desired in most situations. Particularly when simulating oscillators, for instance, BE is notorious for requiring extremely small timesteps to achieve any semblance of accuracy, and is therefore usually avoided.

It is instructive, however, to examine the mechanism and features of this artificial damping. In essence, the damping is caused by the introduction of spurious real (decaying) time-constants, of approximately the same order as the timesteps taken. If the timesteps taken are of the same order as the fast oscillatory time-constants, these are therefore rapidly eliminated within a few cycles. However, these spurious decaying time-constants have negligible impact on waveforms with much slower time-constants.

This insight suggests a way to use artificial damping to advantage for finding good envelope initial conditions. A few fast cycles of simulation with a numerical technique such as BE can be used to eliminate fast variations in the envelope. After the fast oscillations have (quickly)
died out, the remaining solution can be used as an initial condition to restart the envelope simulation with accurate numerical techniques and much larger timesteps.

The new initial condition obtained via artificial damping is not consistent with the originally specified DAE initial condition. If, however, the artificial damping procedure is itself started with the mapped envelope initial condition previously described, the oscillations that are damped out are already relatively small, hence the damped initial condition is approximately consistent with the specified DAE initial condition, to within the amplitude of the small oscillations that are damped out. This translates to a small change in the originally specified DAE initial conditions, which is often acceptable in applications requiring envelope simulation.

Figure 9a shows the effect of using BE with 20 timesteps per fast cycle on the MPDE (4) with zero envelope initial condition. The rapid elimination of $t_1$ oscillations can be seen. The damping solution is compared with the correct analytical solution in Figure 9b, which depicts a slice of the multi-time solution, as it varies with $t_2 \sim 0.5T_2$.

For the test ODE problem, the mapped initial condition described previously is excellent, hence there is little extra benefit to applying the damping procedure in addition. The damping procedure is beneficial in more complex circuits, however, as shown in Section 5.

A Fourier-envelope simulation was started from the DC initial condition of the circuit. The DC initial condition was first mapped, using the procedure described in Section 4.1, to an envelope initial condition at $t_1 = T_2 = 2.2\,\text{ns}$, the time-period corresponding to 450MHz. 80 short transient simulations were employed in the mapping. The mapped envelope initial condition at the drain of one of the upper MOSFETs is shown in Figure 12. The frequency-doubling action of the lower pair of MOSFETs is apparent. The initial condition was reduced to 16 Fourier components for the envelope simulation.

Figure 13 shows the DC and second-harmonic Fourier-components at the same output node, as they vary slowly with time. The initial startup transient of down-converted bitstream is apparent in the DC component. The effect of slowly varying the downconversion gain can also be seen from the changing amplitude of the bits. The 900MHz second harmonic component is largely filtered away at the outputs, but the small residual values can be seen to follow the same pattern as the down-converted bitstream.

5 Experimental results
6 Conclusion

Full exploitation of Fourier-envelope techniques has been hindered by robustness issues to date. We have clarified the mechanisms responsible for problems in these algorithms in this paper, and proposed effective remedies. The techniques presented in this paper, it is expected, will substantially alleviate ‘numerical’ robustness problems in envelope algorithms and enable their wider application.

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References