

# Global Optimization Approach to Transistor Sizing for High Performance CMOS VLSI circuits

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## Abstract

A stochastic global optimization approach is presented for skew minimization in CMOS VLSI circuits. This is a direct search strategy for the best design among feasible ones, with the designer determining when the search is stopped. Through examples, we show the power of this technique in quickly obtaining very good designs, even for constrained problems.

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# 1 Introduction

In designing high performance CMOS circuits, it is often necessary to properly size the various transistors in a skeletal cell, in order to meet performance requirements. For example, transistor sizing has been extensively used for delay and power optimization of digital CMOS circuits. [3], [8]. In this paper, we describe a sizing program based on stochastic optimization of a model function. This is a direct search method which is more accurate than traditional nonlinear optimization programs, and is considerably faster than simulated annealing.

There are two basic approaches for transistor sizing that have been explored by various researchers. The first approach involves developing a simplified model of signal delay through a CMOS gate, either analytically [3], or by macromodels based on simulations [8]. Then, the delay of the entire cell is computed using this model. The transistor sizing problem is then formulated as an optimization problem with the objective of minimizing the delay, as predicted by the model. Some optimization problems have a special form to guarantee efficiency and accuracy of the optimization process, e.g. the posynomial objective function, used in [3], [5]. Otherwise, a nonlinear optimization tool is required.

The second approach involves coupling a circuit simulator to a nonlinear optimization tool (or tool set). For example, Chotta et. al. [13] employ an augmented asymptotic waveform evaluation technique to evaluate the behavior of each circuit visited by a simulated annealing program. In Delight.Spice [12], a set of nonlinear optimization programs are integrated with the SPICE circuit simulator.

The first, 'equation based', approach, though effective for delay optimization, is difficult to generalize to other problems, such as delay skew optimization, as is required for wave-pipelined circuits. Skew, in general, cannot be estimated using a single process corner or data vector. Maintaining accuracy in estimating the spread in delay over input data vector and process variations using a simple model is very difficult. The only solution is to evaluate each sizing scheme through detailed circuit simulations, to account for data and process variations. This makes objective computation a very expensive task, even for very small sized circuits.

The second, ‘simulation based’ approach has the combined computational burden of running a non-linear optimization program and running at least one full circuit simulation each time the objective function needs to be evaluated. There are some additional hindrances in employing a conventional non-linear optimization program for this task:

1. Gradient information is very difficult to obtain. Though there are numerical optimization techniques which do not require explicit gradient information, these techniques tend to be slow. Also, they try to evaluate the gradient through perturbation. This implies a further increase in the number of objective evaluations.
2. Transistor sizes can only be varied in certain quanta. Most numerical optimization techniques operate on a continuous parameter range. Hence the final solution might be an infeasible sizing scheme. Moving the solution to the closest feasible size may lead to a sub-optimal solution.
3. Constraints in the optimization problem, e.g. area and power, further complicate the optimization task.
4. The user has no direct control over the optimizer, i.e., the optimization task is not interactive, and it is difficult for the engineer to use his or her judgement in guiding the optimizer.
5. The optimization routines look for strict local minima. Usually, the designer is interested only in obtaining a rough approximation to a globally optimal solution. To achieve the global minimum, the optimizer has to be run from multiple, random initial solutions. Even then, there are not even theoretical guarantees of achieving a globally optimal solution, except for some very restricted problems.

One way of avoiding gradient evaluation and restricting the solutions to feasible sizings is by employing simulated annealing [6] for optimization. However, simulated annealing programs tend to be prohibitively slow, specially when each objective evaluation is so expensive.

In view of these difficulties, we present a new approach to transistor sizing in small, high performance circuit blocks. This approach is based on stochastic modeling of the

circuit responses of interest. It is a direct search for the best design among feasible ones. No gradient computations are required. The designer has direct control over the number of simulations conducted, and the search process can be stopped any time the designer is satisfied with the best solution produced thus far. The stochastic model helps in identifying the most promising design based on the existing information about the problem. Only the most promising designs are simulated. Hence simulations are organized naturally and efficiently. The method is capable of identifying the global minimum much faster than exhaustive search.

Recently, global optimization methods have been proposed for optimization of continuous functions based on stochastic modeling [17], [10]. Since this approach is relatively unknown in the circuit optimization domain, we will briefly review its important features in the next section. In section III we will propose an optimization algorithm consistent with the stochastic modeling philosophy. In section IV we present results obtained on two example circuits. Finally, section V is devoted to a discussion of the scope and limitations of this method.

## 2 Optimization by stochastic modeling of objective function

Consider the following unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_x \zeta(x) \quad x \in A \subset R^d \tag{1}$$

where  $x$  is a  $d$  dimensional vector,  $A$  is a finite subset of  $R^d$ .  $\zeta(x)$  is the objective function whose value at any  $x \in A$  can be determined only through an expensive simulation. Besides this, there is very little information about the objective function. Suppose the objective function is perceived to be continuous and "smooth", but not unimodal. In such a situation, it is reasonable to approximate  $\zeta(x)$  by a simpler function and to perform an optimization on this simplified function. However, a global polynomial approximation is inappropriate; information is lost in fitting the model to data, unless the degree of the polynomial is as large as the data set. A better approach to function approximation is needed.

Recently, stochastic models have been proposed to capture complex objective functions [14]. With this approach, the value of the unknown function at each point in  $A$  is assumed to be a random variable. Then, the unknown function itself is a *sample path of a stochastic function*. In the general case, a stochastic function  $\phi(x)$  is defined by a family of multidimensional probability distributions,  $F_{\mathbf{x}}(y_1, \dots, y_m) = P(\phi(x_i) < y_i, i = 1, \dots, m)$ . For example, if this distribution is joint Gaussian, then the stochastic *a priori* average function  $\mu(x)$  and covariance  $\sigma(x)$  of the stochastic function are known, i.e.  $\zeta(x) = \phi(x_1, \dots, x_k)$  then the *conditional distribution* of  $\phi(x)$  at any  $x$  is normal with the mean value

$$m_k(x | \phi(x)) = \zeta(x, i = 1, \dots, k) = \mu(x) + (\sigma(x, x_1), \dots, \sigma(x, x_k)) \Sigma^{-1} (\zeta(x_1) - \mu(x_1), \dots, \zeta(x_k) - \mu(x_k))^T \quad (2)$$

and variance

$$s_k^2(x | \phi(x)) = \zeta(x, i = 1, \dots, k) = \sigma(x, x) - (\sigma(x, x_1), \dots, \sigma(x, x_k)) \Sigma^{-1} (\sigma(x, x_1), \dots, \sigma(x, x_k))^T, \quad (3)$$

where  $\Sigma^{-1}$  is the inverse of the  $k \times k$  covariance matrix of the random process where the function values are known.

Using a stochastic model, and a set of “measurements” on the object, prediction of the value of  $\zeta(x)$  at untried points can be made using the conditional distribution of  $\phi(x)$ . This prediction is only probabilistic, i.e., at each point  $x$  a distribution associated with the possible values for  $\zeta(x)$ , specified by the conditional distribution given above. This allows a search strategy for points of small  $\zeta(x)$  on the conditional distribution. It seems more likely to find a point with a small value when  $\sigma(x)$  is small. However, large regions of high uncertainty, i.e. regions where function values can differ greatly, are also likely to be found. Hence a rational choice has to be discriminate between points of small variance or points of small variance but somewhat larger mean. We have proposed algorithms that fit the stochastic modeling paradigm.

stochastic modeling of unknown functions, see reference [14]. Global optima are further described by Mockus in [10].

## 2.1 Algorithms based on Statistical Modeling

Several algorithms for optimization using a stochastic model function are presented. We summarize some interesting approaches and finish with the P-Algorithm as the basis of our optimization procedure. These approaches essentially consist of a model chosen and the method used for minimizing the model function.

In Groch et. al. [4], the model in the multidimensional case is a linear function. Instead, the conditional mean and variance of the one dimensional case are generalized. The choice of the next point of evaluation is made by minimizing the variance.

$$r_i^{k+1}(x) = \frac{1}{|A_i|} \left( \int_{A_i} f(x) dx - c_i^k(x) \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (4)$$

where the experimental region  $A_i$  is divided into  $N$  disjoint simplexes. The constant, determining the weight given to variance with respect to the mean, of each new point causes the experimental region to be further subdivided. A feature of this method is that it is simple;  $r$  can be minimized analytically. The location of the global optimum can be located by minimizing  $r$ . Also, the variance can be then performed.

In Adachi et. al. [7], the model function is a stationary stochastic process. The conditional mean is an interpolating function. This interpolating function is defined by points and its derivatives are easy to compute. The variance of a response by this function is also easy to compute. The optimal point is found by minimizing the interpolating function starting from the smallest data point. There is a constraint on the coefficient of variation. The coefficient of variation is defined as the ratio of the mean and variance of the conditional distribution. The procedure is iterative, leading to (hopefully) a different local optimum of the objective function. All local optima can be located. The auxiliary computations are done by using a nonlinear optimizer at every iteration to find the minimum of the

Bernardo et. al. [1], employ a stochastic model function to perform optimization of electronic circuits. Their approach relies heavily on design significant parameters through parameter effect plots and also to explore regions in the design space.

The P- algorithm was developed and characterized in [19], [20] procedure. At each iteration, a new observation is emphasized that has the highest probability of being small  $\epsilon_k$  which is some chosen value smaller than the mean value of  $\phi$  at each point in  $A$  i.e.,

$$x_{k+1} = \text{Arg max}_{x \in A} P_x(y_k) \quad (5)$$

is chosen as the next observation point where  $\epsilon_k$  is a chosen value smaller than  $x_i, \zeta(x_i), i = 1, \dots, k$ , and

$$P_x(y_k) = \text{Probability}(\phi(x) \leq y_k) \quad (6)$$

Based on rather intuitive axioms, it is shown in [17] that  $\phi(x)$  can be modeled as a random variable whose conditional distribution is given as:

$$m_k(x | \zeta(x_i), i = 1, \dots, k) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i^k \zeta(x_i) \quad (7)$$

$$s_k^2(x | \zeta(x_i), i = 1, \dots, k) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i^k (\sigma(x, x_i) - \sigma(x_i))^2 \quad (8)$$

where  $w_i^k$  are weights chosen such that  $\sum_{i=1}^k w_i^k = 1$  and  $m_k(x | \zeta(x_i), i = 1, \dots, k) \rightarrow \zeta(x)$  at the  $k$  observed points, i.e. the mean value interpolates the known values. It is proved that a sequence of points thus generated, converges to the minimum.

The P- algorithm is a general formulation of a strategy to maximize the information gained by each function evaluation, and is quite easy to implement. In the implementation of the P- algorithm [17], several decisions have to be made regarding the accuracy of the method, namely the following:

- The appropriate form of the weight function  $w_i^k$  is not obvious.

- The appropriate form of the covariance  $\sigma(x, y)$  has to be chosen. That  $\sigma$  should be such that  $(\sigma(x, x) - \sigma(x, z)) = \|x - z\|$  where  $\|x - z\|$  is the norm.
- An appropriate search method must be designed. This could be an multimodal optimization problem.
- An appropriate value  $\alpha$  has to be chosen. It has been shown in [20] that a value  $\alpha$  leads to the points of greatest decrease in  $\sigma$  or  $\sigma^2$  to  $\min_{x \in A} m_k(x | \sigma(x, \cdot))$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , then the next point chosen will be values that attain this minimum.

In the next section, we detail our implementation of the P- algorithm, iterative, hence the user can stop the iterations any time that is satisfactory. The number of simulations to be run are directly proportional to the number of iterations. The algorithm only identifies the most promising points for simulation.

### 3 Implementation

The P- Algorithm is a formalization of an intuitive search strategy in a framework for devising global optimization algorithms. We now present the implementation of the P- Algorithm.

1. Choose  $k$  points  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  uniformly from  $A$  using Latin Hypercube Sampling and compute  $\sigma(x_i, x_j)$  simulation. Start iteration  $l = 1$ .
2. Using the BLUP and MSE expression in [15] (see Appendix 1, eq. 1) find the mean  $\bar{m}_j$  and variance  $s_j^2$  at  $N \gg k$  uniformly distributed points  $x_j$ .
3. Find the smallest value of  $m(x)$

$$m_l(x) = \min_{j \in \{1, \dots, N\}} m(x_j) . \quad (9)$$

Let  $x_j^l = m_l(x) - \epsilon$ . At each  $j$  find the probability  $P_j$



4. Choose points with largest probability in the  $N$  points.
5. Compute  $\zeta(x)$  at points found above. If  $\zeta(x)$  is satisfactory, then stop, else continue.
6.  $k = k + 1$ . If  $k > K$ , then stop, else  $l = l + 1$ , go to step 2.

This algorithm is parameterized by a number of parameters. These parameters have to be adapted to the specific problem or left to the designer.  $k = 10 * d$ ,  $n = 2 * d$ , where  $d$  is the dimensionality of the design space. A good value for  $N$  is 1000. In this way the designer directs the number of simulations to be run. The choice of  $N$  search points can be suitable by judgement, and can account for constraints on the design space, e.g. a polytope constrained by linear inequalities on the design variables. The mean and variance has to be estimated at the  $N$  points, which is

This leads us to another very important question, namely, handling constraints in design. If the constraints are linear, they can be handled very easily by checking of the  $N$  points for violation. When the constraints are implicit and nonlinear, after simulation, e.g. a maximum delay or power restriction when a constraint is violated, the procedure needs to be modified. There are two immediate possibilities. If the constraint can be evaluated through the same simulation, then another stochastic simulation can be used to model the constraint. A certain tradeoff has to be established between the secondary model and the actual objective. If a penalty method is used, the true objective and the constraint in a single objective function. This is a little more difficult, as the overall model might have to account for the constraint. Alternatively, the constraint can be modeled piece-wise linearly. This is an experiment [16]. Then the optimization task is considerably simplified. It depends on the severity of the constraints. For a very tight constraint, the designer should pay close attention to the constraining function and use the first approach. For a loose constraint, the second approach would be more suitable. In the algorithm given below, the first approach was adopted for meeting a maximum delay constraint in addition to optimizing the delay skew.

In the next section, the algorithm described above is executed to be optimized for maximum delay variation. In the first example, with a maximum delay constraint. The second is an essentially unconstrained problem.

## 4 Optimization examples

### 4.1 Delay Controlled Elements for Wave-pipelined circuits

The design of wave-pipelined circuits involves very careful control in the combinational blocks. Techniques have been proposed by D. [1] for balancing the path delays by inserting active delay elements. [2] have shown how the delay of each gate can be accurately controlled. For CMOS gates, however, the delay is data dependent. For the CMOS example, the rising delay is substantially smaller when both inputs are opposed to one input being fixed at 1 and the other switching from 0 to 1. Avoiding this data dependence is to use the cross coupled biased-PMOS in figure 1 [2]. This gate, however, consumes substantial static current. Another gate structure suitable for wave pipelining is shown in figure 2. Transistor M3 is used to add extra resistance to the pull-up chain to avoid simultaneous switching of both inputs. It also has the deleterious effect of increasing the delay spread in the circuit. Hence a proper balance has to be struck between the maximum delay through the gate, as well as the data-dependent spread [11]. The delay spread is also affected by process variations also. Of course, the easiest parameters to control are the transistor sizes. Hence the goal of the optimization is to obtain a gate structure such that the delay spread through each circuit block is minimized for a given maximum delay through the circuit.

The optimization problem is formalized as follows:

$$\text{Find } x = \text{Arg min}_{x \in A} \max_y \delta^*(x) \quad (10)$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall x \max_y (x)_{m \leq D} \quad (11)$$

Here  $V$  denotes the nominal and the four process corner MOSFET hypercube formed by restricting the widths of M1-M3 between  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  between  $0.0$  and  $2.0$  V. The widths of N1 and N2 are constrained to be of M1 and M2 respectively.  $x$  is an arbitrary vector of feasible transistor voltage. Note that the minimum allowed feature size is  $0.6 \mu\text{m}$  and N1 and N2 were restricted to vary in quanta of  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$  and  $0.2 \mu\text{m}$  respectively. The skew  $\delta$  is the variation in delay through the circuit shown in figure 2 over the size of the input (see figure 3), and the  $\text{delay}(x)$  is the largest delay over the input size.  $D_{\text{max}}$  is the maximum delay constraint.

The models for delay and skew were initially established by simulating 100 sizing schemes, selected randomly using Latin Hypercube Sampling. Figure 1 shows the sizing scheme with the best skew value, satisfying the constraints for these 100 points. This sizing scheme is not feasible. The second feasible point to this sizing and the delay and skew value for that sizing scheme are shown in figure 2.

Since the number of possible sizings is small, all the feasible sizing schemes were evaluated with five values of bias voltage (equations 17 and 19). This constitutes an exhaustive search of the feasible models. Since the smallest possible values for the delay and skew were chosen, the largest probability that the delay and skew values for the sizing schemes were chosen for resimulation. Table 1 shows the results of the simulations. The best sizing in the second set was considerably better than the first 100 samples and was considered quite suitable for design simulations were performed. The total time taken for simulation was 5000 DECstation seconds while the overhead of model building and searching was 100 seconds.

This example illustrates how the optimization procedure is employed.

is pruned by the designer's judgement and a good solution is found. In the next example, the methodology is further expanded to include with a very different objective formulation.

## 4.2 CMOS Clock Driver Circuit

The second example we present here is the skew optimization of a simple clock driver circuit shown in figure 4. It is desired to obtain a solution from this circuit's outputs such that there is minimum skew between the two outputs, to minimize  $\max(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ , as shown in figure 5. Again, this skew has to be minimized over the process variations. This optimization has to be done using a sizing scheme. The absolute delay through this circuit is not a concern as this is a custom circuit block used only sparingly. The optimization is essentially unconstrained. To test the scope of the optimization, process and power supply variations were also considered. The model was built using a range of transistor sizes, process, temperature and power supply variations. In this example, process variations were considered by simulating each of the process corners and the nominal process. The problem is formalized as follows:

$$\text{Find } x = \text{Arg min}_{x \in A} \max_v \delta^*(x) \quad (12)$$

Here,  $A$  is the hypercube formed by restricting the widths of P1-P6 to 12  $\mu\text{m}$ , the temperature variation is  $\pm 25^\circ\text{C}$  and  $V_{DD}$  is 4.75-5.25 V. As before, the widths of N1-N6 are constrained to be one-half the widths of P1-P6.  $v$  represents the process variations considered. The optimization is to find the worst delay skew over all *external noise* factors, i.e., temperature and power supply variations, has to be minimized over the *internal noise* factors, i.e., process variations. For this problem, the sizing provided by the resident circuit designer is used, with a skew of 290 ps (row 1 of table 2). For optimization purposes, the effect of temperature and supply variation was factored out. The optimization points were sampled in the 6-dimensional space of transistor widths.

these 1000 points, the *model* in equations (17) and (19) (see Appendix) different combinations of the supply voltage and temperature variations of the probabilities (equation 6) over these 9 combinations was found 1000 points. This value was used to estimate the likelihood of as

$$x_w^* = \text{Arg} \min_{x_w \in A_w} \max_E P_{x_w}(y_k) \quad (13)$$

was the target for further simulation. Here  $w$  is the transistor width and  $E$  represents the temperature. Again  $\alpha$  was chosen to be 0.0 which is the minimum possible value of the 1000 sizing schemes evaluated, the 10 sizing schemes (instead by equation 13) with the largest probability were chosen for further schemes were verified using the 5 process parameters and the 4 corner temperature fluctuations. The smallest worst-case skew among these a significant improvement over the expert's design (row 2 of table) time was 640 cpu seconds on a DEC station 5000 and the overhead of optimization was less than 10 cpu seconds.

These examples illustrate the power of this approach in evaluating schemes efficiently for different optimization problems. The stochastic capture the relationship of any performance measure to the transistor accuracy is reflected in the few subsequent evaluations required to

## 5 Discussion

When optimizing high performance combinational subblocks, the knowledge about the objective function, e.g., the difference between minimum delay will always be greater than zero and less than some upper through the block. Also, the objective function is expected to be besides this, little can be said. Gradients are very hard to obtain difficult. Each objective function evaluation is going to be expected made through a full circuit simulation, especially for reasonable

of input parameters is usually fairly small, in the 5-20 range, components that can be sized independently. There might exist some input parameters. The algorithms based on stochastic modeling fit the main idea behind these algorithms is to maximize the chances of finding a better function after each evaluation. Almost any kind of a priori information can be used to help up the search for optimal sizing. For example, it's quite easy to be performed by this algorithm to the part of the design space that is most promising. The examples given in the previous section are all capable of optimizing complex sizing objectives, based only on one extremely attractive feature of this algorithm is its flexibility. Convergence is guaranteed to improve the best solution found thus far, investigation at any time when the attained solution is deemed to be good. This can also be perceived as a drawback of the algorithms since the convergence criterion, i.e. location of a stationary point. The only way to stop successive iterations return the same solution. Another limitation is the cost of model estimation grows rapidly with the number of data points. For the model equations (17 and 19) requires the inversion of a  $n \times n$  matrix. Many model evaluations are made on the same data set (as in step 2 of the algorithm) the matrix inversion needs to be done only once. This method shows problems of dimensionality up to 25-30. Beyond that, the simple method is not sufficient to guarantee close to optimal solutions.

## 6 Conclusion and Future Work

We have demonstrated how an algorithm based on stochastic modeling can solve some very difficult transistor sizing problems. This algorithm is a search strategy for the optimal sizing scheme. The only information needed for the algorithm is the value of the objective function which can be calculated by simulation. No gradient information is required. The main thrust of this work is to maximize the probability of improving the best known solution with each

objective function. This is consistent with the aim of obtaining a solution that is optimized through circuit simulations, while minimizing simulation time. A solution is found at each step of the algorithm and so the search can be stopped when a satisfactory solution is found. The example solutions can be quickly found using this approach.

Further work is needed on the program interfaces. Process variations are currently only using the process corner models. If more detailed models are given, the procedure needs to be modified. For example, if the process parameters are specified by a normal distribution, then the stochastic model can be used to model process parameters as variables also. Further investigation is needed in this scenario.

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## Appendix

The model used for the problem above was :

$$Y(x) = \beta + \sum_{j=1}^d \beta_j x_j + \phi(x) \quad (14)$$

where  $x$  is the  $d$  dimensional parameter vector  $\beta$  is a  $(d+1) \times 1$  vector of unknown coefficients.  $\phi(\cdot)$  is a random process with mean zero and covariance

$$V(w, x) = \prod_{i=1}^d \exp(-|w - x_j|) \quad (15)$$

Suppose that  $n$  values of  $Y(x)$  are given, a.s. sample points are in the  $n \times 1$  vector  $\zeta$  the  $n \times (d+1)$  matrix of the  $n$  parameter vectors at sites augmented by a unit vector, i.e.

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \dots & x_{d1} \\ \vdots & & & \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \dots & x_{nd} \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

Then the Best Linear Unbiased Predictor  $\hat{y}$  of  $Y(\cdot)$  is given as :

$$\hat{y} = X\hat{\beta} + r'(x) R^{-1}(\zeta - F\hat{\beta}) \quad (17)$$

where

$$\hat{\beta} = (FR^{-1}F)^{-1}F'R^{-1}\zeta \quad (18)$$

where, as before,  $R$  is the  $n \times n$  covariance matrix of the stochastic sample locations, and  $r$  is the  $n \times 1$  vector of covariances  $V(X, x) = [1 \ x \dots \ x]$ . The Mean Squared Error (MSE) is given as :

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{y}(x)) = \sigma^2 \left( X'(x) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & F \\ F & R \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} X' \\ r(x) \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad (19)$$

	M1	M2	M3	vbia	sdel	ay skew
Best Random Sizing	6.15e-06	6.79e-06	6.55e-06	0.698	9.9e-10	0.7e-10
Closest Feasible Sizing	6.15e-06	6.4e-06	6.4e-06	6.98	1.0e-10	0.7e-10
Best Sizing after Optimization	7.2e-06	6.04e-06	6.6e-06	60.0	8.8e-10	5.04e-10

Table 1: Results for Delay Controlled Element

	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	skew
Designer's choice	6.8e-06	6.8e-06	6.6e-06	6.8e-06	6.8e-06	6.8e-06	2.9e-10
Optimal Point	7.2e-06	6.6e-06	6.4e-06	6.6e-06	6.6e-06	6.8e-06	6.1e-10

Table 2: Results for Clock Driver Circuit

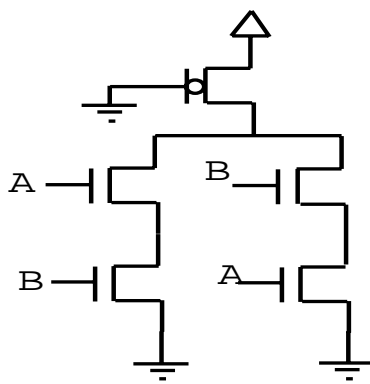
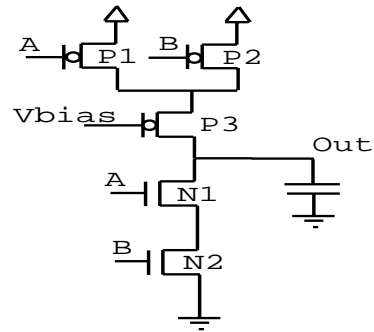
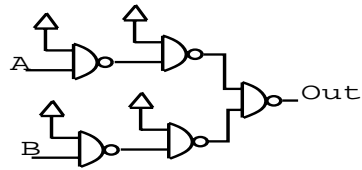


Figure 1: Cross coupled NAND gate



**Delay Controlled Circuit Element**



**Test Circuit**

Figure 2: Circuit Block for Wave-pipelining

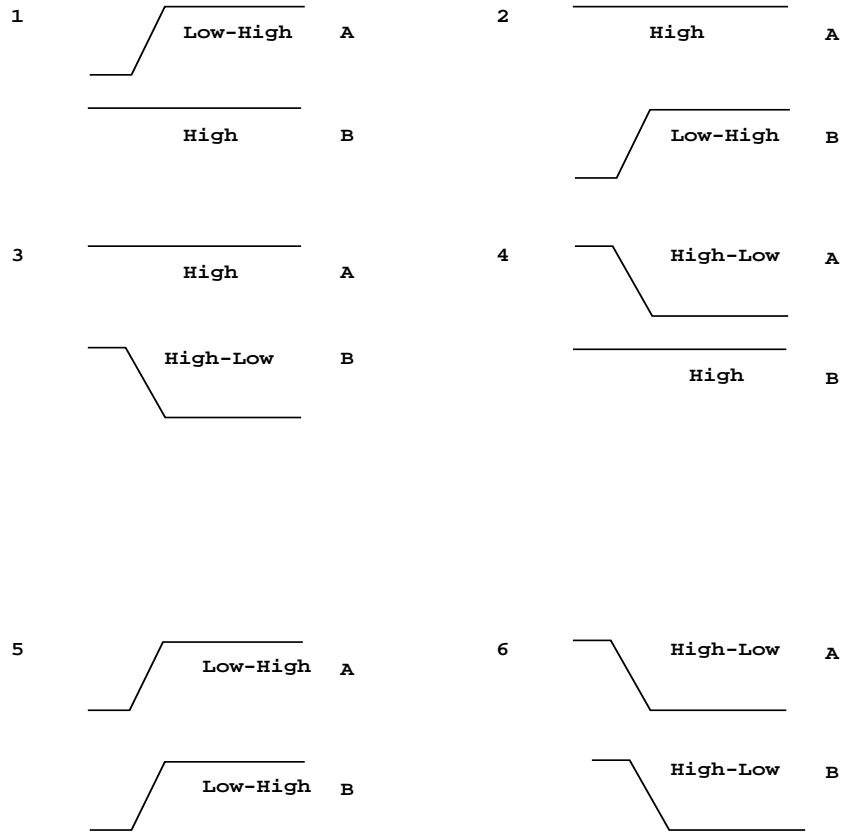


Figure 3: Possible input transitions

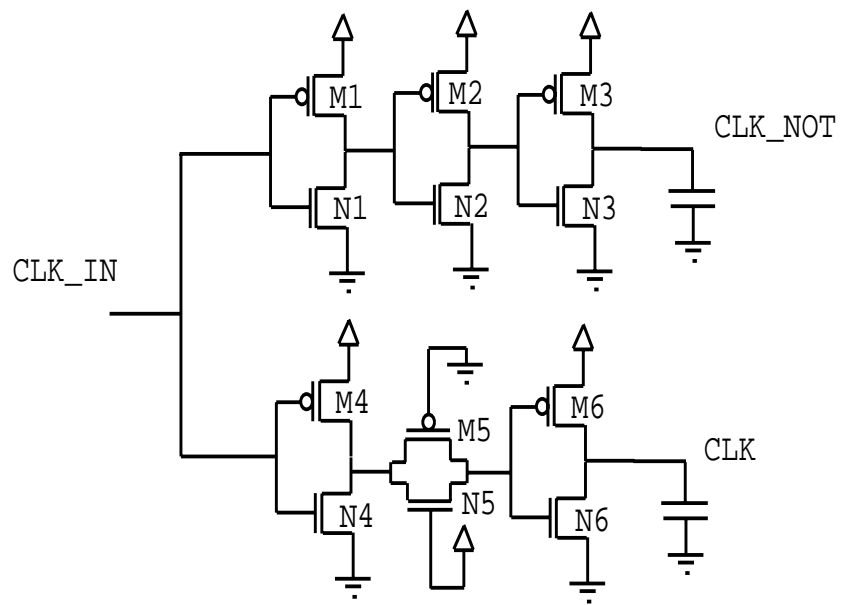


Figure 4: Clock Driver Circuit

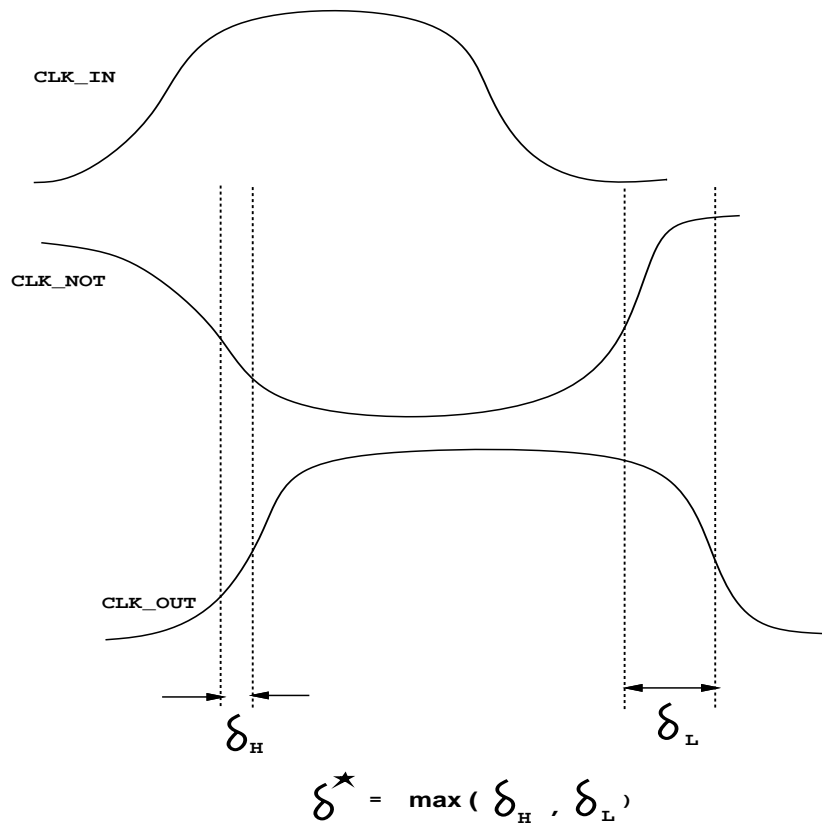


Figure 5: Skew Definition