

# Toggle Equivalence Preserving (TEP) Logic Optimization

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## Abstract

We describe a procedure (called the TEP procedure) that, given a multi-output circuit  $M$ , builds another multi-output circuit  $M^*$  that is toggle equivalent to  $M$ . The TEP procedure can be used in the following two scenarios. First, since for single-output circuits toggle equivalence means functional equivalence, the TEP procedure can be used in “regular” logic synthesis. Second, the TEP procedure enables a powerful synthesis method called LS\_TE (Logic Synthesis preserving Toggle Equivalence). Given a circuit  $N$  and its partitioning into subcircuits  $N_i$ , LS\_TE builds an optimized circuit  $N^*$  by replacing subcircuits  $N_i$  with their toggle equivalent counterparts  $N_i^*$ . The replacement of  $N_i$  with  $N_i^*$  is done by the TEP procedure. We give results of optimizing single-output circuits by the TEP procedure and some preliminary results of using the TEP procedure in LS\_TE. These results show the promise of the TEP procedure and LS\_TE.

## 1. Introduction

In [4], a new method of logic synthesis was introduced. We refer to this method as LS\_TE, which stands for Logic Synthesis preserving Toggle Equivalence. As shown in Figure 1, assume that a partitioning of  $N$  into subcircuits  $N_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, k$  is specified. The main idea of LS\_TE is to optimize  $N$  by replacing each subcircuit  $N_i$  with a toggle equivalent counterpart  $N_i^*$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, k$ .

Let us consider how LS\_TE works by the example of Figure 1 where circuit  $N$  is partitioned into four subcircuits  $N_1, \dots, N_4$ . First, subcircuits  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are replaced with their toggle equivalent counterparts  $N_1^*$  and  $N_2^*$ . Then the relations  $CF(N_1, N_1^*)$  and  $CF(N_2, N_2^*)$  between outputs of  $N_1$  and  $N_1^*$  and  $N_2$  and  $N_2^*$  are computed. (These relations are called correlation functions (CF)). Then a single-output subcircuit  $N_3^*$  that is toggle equivalent to the single-output subcircuit  $N_3$  under the constraints specified by  $CF(N_1, N_1^*)$  and  $CF(N_2, N_2^*)$  is built. Since toggle equivalence for single output

circuits means functional equivalence (modulo complement), outputs  $y_1$  and  $y_1^*$  are functionally equivalent (modulo complement). Finally single-output subcircuit  $N_4$  is replaced with a single-output toggle equivalent subcircuit  $N_4^*$ , which makes outputs  $y_2$  and  $y_2^*$  functionally equivalent (modulo complement). So the optimized circuit  $N^*$  consisting of subcircuits  $N_1^*, \dots, N_4^*$  is functionally equivalent to  $N$  modulo complement of its outputs.

The advantage of LS\_TE is twofold (at least). First, LS\_TE is *scalable*. The complexity of LS\_TE is *linear* in the number of subcircuits  $N_i$  and exponential in the size of the largest subcircuit  $N_i$  or  $N_i^*$ ,  $i=1, \dots, k$ . Since the number of subcircuits toggle equivalent to  $N_i$  is huge even if  $N_i$  is very small, LS\_TE can explore a very large search space and still have *linear complexity*. Second, LS\_TE can *escape local minima* that would trap a solution obtained by a traditional logic synthesis procedure (Section 3).

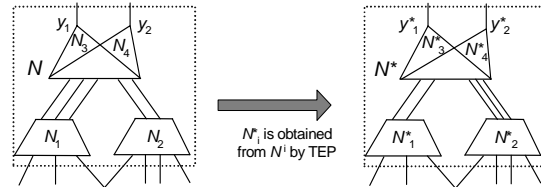


Figure 1. Optimization of circuit  $N$  by LS\_TE

Unfortunately, [4] did not provide a specific procedure that, given a subcircuit  $N_i$ , would build a toggle equivalent subcircuit  $N_i^*$ . The main contribution of this paper is the introduction of such a procedure which we refer to as the Toggle Equivalence Preserving (TEP) logic optimization procedure. In the TEP procedure, we use a non-trivial convergence scheme that makes this procedure structure-agnostic. That is if a circuit  $M'$  toggle equivalent to an original circuit  $M$  is built by the TEP procedure, the topology of  $M'$  is not limited to that of  $M$ . This important feature of TEP is discussed in Section 3.

In the formulation of LS\_TE given in [4], circuit  $N$  to be optimized is *partitioned* into subcircuits  $N_i$ ,  $i=1,\dots,k$ . However, LS\_TE can be also applied if, for example, subcircuits  $N_i$  *share* internal gates. Suppose, for instance, that subcircuits  $N_3$  and  $N_4$  of Figure 1 share internal gates. Then when building subcircuit  $N_4^*$  toggle equivalent to  $N_4$ , one can reuse the logic of  $N_3^*$  (assuming that  $N_3^*$  was synthesized before  $N_4^*$ ). Such logic sharing can be done by the TEP procedure (slightly modified). However, a discussion of this topic is beyond the scope of this paper.

As we mentioned above, for single-output Boolean functions, toggle equivalence is the same as functional equivalence modulo negation. So, besides enabling LS\_TE, the TEP procedure can be used in traditional logic synthesis. In order to compare the TEP procedure with traditional logic synthesis, the focus in this paper is on optimization of single-output functions. Even though the vast optimization flexibility of the TEP procedure can not be invoked for single-output functions, it still has the advantage of being structure-agnostic. As a consequence, for many single-output circuits the TEP procedure found better solutions than SIS [9]. Our initial results also show that for multiple output circuits (where the vast optimization flexibility can be exploited), the LS\_TE procedure gave significant improvements over SIS

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses related previous work, including a comparison and contrasting of LS\_TE and TEP with SPFDs [1][10][12]. In Section 3, we emphasize some important features of LS\_TE and TEP procedure. Section 4 provides definitions. Section 5 details our TEP procedure. In Section 6, we report results of our experiments. Section **Error! Reference source not found.** concludes the paper, with some directions for future work in this topic.

## 2. Previous work

Multi-level logic synthesis can be performed using algebraic means such as factorization [2], kernelling [2][11] etc. Although these techniques are fast, being algebraic, they explore only a limited portion of the optimization space. Other techniques like ODC [6][7] and CODC [8] perform don't care based optimization, but they do not modify the structure of the circuit. (Sometimes a node gets removed as a result of don't care based optimization. However, such an occurrence is rare.) Toggle equivalence is different from the algebraic techniques, since it explores the "Boolean" options in the search space, while it differs from multi-level

don't care based techniques since it does not restrict itself to the original circuit topology.

Sets of Pairs of Functions to be Distinguished (SPFDs) were introduced in [1][10][12] as a new way to do logic optimization. One should distinguish between SPFDs as a means to express circuit flexibility and concrete *methods* for computing SPFDs. The main difference between LS\_TE and the method for computing SPFDs of [10][12] is that LS\_TE is scalable. The method for computing SPFDs of [10][12] is unscalable because SPFDs are built by computing *non-local* relations between points of the circuit. Besides, when computing SPFDs by the method of [10][12] one has to follow the circuit topology. On the other hand, computations in LS\_TE are *local* because they involve only subcircuits  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  (and correlation functions relating their inputs). Besides, LS\_TE preserves only the high-level structure of the circuit (because subcircuits  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  are connected in the same way) but the topology of subcircuits  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  can be vastly different.

The "language" of SPFDs is sufficient to express the notions of toggle implication and equivalence that we use in the paper. For example, to test that circuits  $M$  and  $M'$  are toggle equivalent one can build SPFDs of  $M$  and  $M'$  and check them for graph isomorphism. However, toggle equivalence of  $M$  and  $M'$  can be computed much more efficiently without building their SPFDs (by performing two SAT-checks). Moreover, the formulation of the TEP procedure in terms of SPFDs is hard at best. An SPFD is a relation between input assignments while the TEP procedure operates on output assignments and the same pair of output assignments (i.e. the same toggle) may be caused by an *exponential* number of pairs of input assignments. In a sense, the problem is that the definition of SPFDs was tailored to facilitate their computation from outputs to inputs, while in LS\_TE and TEP procedure computations go in the opposite direction.

## 3. Importance of LS\_TE and the TEP procedure

In this section, we emphasize two important features of LS\_TE and the TEP procedure. In Subsection 3.1, we show that LS\_TE, in terms of equivalent transformations, can make moves that increase the size of intermediate circuits. This allows LS\_TE to escape local minima that would trap a solution built by a traditional method of logic synthesis. In Subsection 3.2 we discuss the

importance of the novel convergence scheme of the TEP procedure.

### 3.1 Escaping local minima in LS\_TE

Given a circuit  $N$ , a typical synthesis transformation is to replace a multi-output subcircuit  $N'$  of  $N$  with a *functionally equivalent* subcircuit  $N''$  such that  $|N''| < |N'|$ . (Here  $|M|$  is the size of circuit  $M$ .) The size of  $N'$  is kept small for complexity reasons. Suppose there is no transformation decreasing the size of  $N$  such that  $|N'| < p$ . This means that circuit  $N$  is stuck in a local minimum. To escape this minimum, one needs to make equivalent transformations that affect subcircuits of  $N$  larger than  $p$ . But how does one make such transformations in a scalable manner?

LS\_TE answers the question above. Let  $N$  be partitioned into subcircuits  $N_1, \dots, N_k$ . By replacing subcircuits  $N_i$ ,  $i=1, \dots, k$  with toggle equivalent counterparts  $N_i^*$  LS\_TE makes a *single* equivalent transformation that may encompass the entire circuit  $N$  (then the subcircuit  $N'$  we replace with an equivalent one is  $N$  itself). If the size of subcircuits  $N_i$  is small, this transformation can be done efficiently. Note that LS\_TE can optimize  $N$  even if  $|N_i| < p$ ,  $i=1, \dots, k$ . The reason is that replacement of  $N_i$  with  $N_i^*$  is *not an equivalent transformation*. So LS\_TE can get  $N$  out of a local minimum even by making transformations of “small scope”.

Suppose  $N$  implements the expression  $x^2 < 100$  as shown in Figure 2. Here subcircuit  $N_1$  implements  $y = \text{square}(x)$  and subcircuit  $N_2$  implements  $y < 100$ . (Let assume that the number  $n$  of bits in  $x$  is small enough to be handled efficiently.) LS\_TE can optimize  $N$  as follows. First  $N_1$  is replaced with an optimized subcircuit  $N_1^*$  toggle equivalent to  $N_1$  (e.g.  $N_1^*$  may implement the function  $\text{abs}(x)$  which is the simplest function toggle equivalent to  $\text{square}(x)$ ). Then output relation  $CF(N_1, N_1^*)$  is computed (as described in [4]). After that a subcircuit  $N_2^*$  toggle equivalent to  $N_2$  under constraint  $CF(N_1, N_1^*)$  is built. (If  $N_1^*$  implements  $y^* = \text{abs}(x)$ , then  $N_2^*$  implements  $y^* < 100$  modulo negation.) Note that  $N$  can not be optimized much by replacing  $N_1$  with a *functionally equivalent* subcircuit  $N_1^*$  (for example,  $N_1$  can be an optimal implementation of  $\text{square}(x)$ ). At the same time, LS\_TE can dramatically optimize  $N$  because it can replace  $N_1$  with a *toggle equivalent* subcircuit.

The replacement of  $N_1$  with  $N_1^*$  can be “simulated” as an equivalent transformation as shown in Figure 2 (on the right). Here  $R_1^*$  is a re-encoding circuit such that  $N_1 = R_1^*(N_1^*)$ . (The second step of LS\_TE is “simulated” as replacing  $N_1^*$  and  $R_1^*$  with

$N_2^*$ .) Note that even though  $N_1^*$  is much smaller than  $N_1$  it may be the case that  $|N_1| < |N_1^*| + |R_1^*|$ . In other words, the reason why LS\_TE can escape local minima is that it may make transformations that *temporarily* increase the circuit size. (A discussion of this topic can be found in [5].)

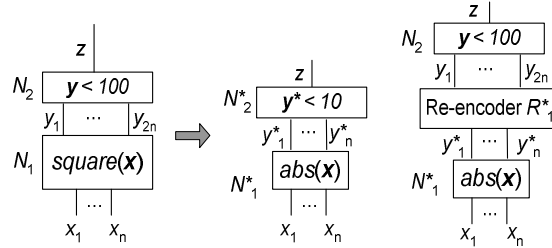


Figure 2. Optimization of expression  $x^2 < 100$  by LS\_TE

### 3.2 Novel convergence scheme of the TEP procedure

As we mentioned above, the importance of the TEP procedure is due to its enabling LS\_TE. However, the TEP procedure is also important in its own right. Given a single-output circuit  $N$ , the TEP procedure can build a functionally equivalent circuit  $N^*$  with a *completely different topology*. (So it can be used in “regular” logic synthesis without any relation to LS\_TE.) This property is extremely important for at least three reasons. First,  $N$  may not have any topology to reuse (e.g. if  $N$  is specified as the truth table or is represented implicitly). Second,  $N$  may contain some non-local redundancy, which makes reusing its topology unreasonable. Third, one may need to implement  $N$  using a particular library of gates (e.g. in technology mapping) and the current topology of  $N$  may be not good for these library.

In the current synthesis methods, if the topology of  $N$  can not be reused for some reason, a new circuit  $N^*$  is obtained from a *very limited space of implementations* ( $N^*$  may be further optimized using local transformations). For example, in SIS [9], if  $N$  is represented as the truth table, first, a circuit  $N^*$  equivalent to  $N$  is synthesized as a sum-of-products (which is a very limited class of circuits). Then by local transformations a multi-level circuit is obtained from  $N^*$ . (Another approach would be to build a circuit  $N^*$  of multiplexers (i.e. build a BDD [3]) equivalent to  $N$  and then optimize it using some local transformations. BDDs is another example of a restricted class of circuits.)

The reason why current methods have to restrict the class of implementations considered when changing the topology of  $N$  is the “convergence problem”. Suppose we build a circuit  $N^*$  that does not use the topology of  $N$ . Then we have to make sure that the network of gates being built “converges” to a circuit equivalent to  $N$ . The TEP procedure solves this problem by introducing a very simple and general convergence scheme. Namely, it builds a sequence of circuits  $N^1, N^2, \dots$  such that a)  $N^{i+1}$  toggles strictly less than  $N^i$  and b) every circuit of this sequence toggles at least as much as the original circuit  $N$ . Here  $N^1$  is an “empty circuit” consisting only of inputs of  $N$ . In other words, the TEP procedure builds a sequence of circuits that monotonically lose toggles until a circuit  $N^m$  toggle equivalent to  $N$  is built. The TEP procedure also restricts the class of implementations it considers since it requires that only primary outputs of  $N^i$  are allowed to feed the gates of  $N^{i+1}$  that are not in  $N^i$ . However, this is a mild restriction in comparison to ones used by existing methods. So, the TEP procedure can select an optimized implementation from a very general class of multi-level circuits.

## 4. Preliminaries and terminology

In this section, we recall the notion of toggle equivalence and its properties. All the propositions given in this paper are either proven in [4], or can be easily derived from them.

### 4.1 Toggle equivalence of Boolean functions

**Definition 1.** Let  $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  be an  $m$ -output Boolean function. Then, given  $y' = f(x')$  and  $y'' = f(x'')$ , the pair  $(y', y'')$  is a *toggle* if  $y' \neq y''$ .

**Definition 2.** Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  respectively be two  $m$ -output and  $k$ -output Boolean functions with the same set of variables. Functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are called *toggle equivalent* if  $f_1(x') \neq f_1(x'') \Leftrightarrow f_2(x') \neq f_2(x'')$ . Circuits  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  implementing toggle equivalent functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are called *toggle equivalent circuits*.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $f_1: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  and  $f_2: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^k$  be  $m$ -output and  $k$ -output Boolean functions of the same set of variables. Let  $f_1$  be  $f_2$  toggle equivalent. Then there is an invertible function  $H$  such that  $f_1(x) = H(f_2(x))$  and  $f_2(x) = H^{-1}(f_1(x))$ .

**Proposition 2.** Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be toggle equivalent single output Boolean functions. Then  $f_1 = f_2$  or  $f_1 = \sim f_2$ .

**Definition 3.** Let  $N$  be a circuit. Let  $Y$  be the set of all variables of  $N$ . Let  $Sat(N)$  be the CNF expression for  $N$ , such that  $Sat(N) = 1$  iff the assignment  $y$  to  $Y$  is consistent within the circuit  $N$ . For example, if  $N$  consists of just one AND gate  $w = x_1 \wedge x_2$ , then  $Sat(N) = (\sim x_1 \vee \sim x_2 \vee w) \wedge (x_1 \vee \sim w) \wedge (x_2 \vee \sim w)$ .

**Proposition 3.** Let  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  be two toggle equivalent circuits, with variables  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  respectively. Let the output variables of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  be  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  respectively. Then the function  $H^*(Z_1, Z_2)$  specifying the one-to-one mapping  $H$  between the output vectors produced by  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  can be obtained from  $Sat(N_1) \wedge Sat(N_2)$  by existentially quantifying away the variables of  $(Y_1 \cup Y_2) \setminus (Z_1 \cup Z_2)$ . (Then  $H^*(z_1, z_2) = 1$  iff there is an input vector  $x$  such that  $N_1(x) = z_1$  and  $N_2(x) = z_2$ .)

### 4.2 Implication of toggling

In this subsection, we introduce the notion of implication of toggling and describe how toggle equivalence and implication of toggling can be tested.

**Definition 4.** Let  $f_1: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  and  $f_2: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^k$  respectively be two  $m$ -output and  $k$ -output Boolean functions with the same set of input variables. Toggling of  $f_1$  *implies toggling* of  $f_2$  iff for any pair of input variable assignments  $x'$  and  $x''$ ,  $f_1(x') \neq f_1(x'') \Rightarrow f_2(x') \neq f_2(x'')$ .

**Definition 5.** Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be multi-output Boolean functions. Toggling of  $f_1$  *strictly implies toggling* of  $f_2$  if toggling of  $f_1$  implies toggling of  $f_2$  and there is a pair of assignments  $x'$  and  $x''$  such that  $f_1(x') = f_1(x'')$  while  $f_2(x') \neq f_2(x'')$ . We will denote by  $f_1 \leq f_2$  (respectively  $f_1 < f_2$ ) the fact that toggling of function  $f_1$  implies toggling of (respectively strictly implies toggling of)  $f_2$ . Let circuits  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  implement functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  respectively. We will denote by  $N_1 \leq N_2$  (respectively  $N_1 < N_2$ ) the fact that  $f_1 \leq f_2$  (respectively  $f_1 < f_2$ ).

**Proposition 4.** Boolean functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are toggle equivalent iff  $f_1 \leq f_2$  and  $f_2 \leq f_1$ .

### 4.3 Testing for Implication of Toggling.

Let  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  be two Boolean circuits to be checked for implication of toggling. Let  $X$  be the set of input variables of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , while  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are

respectively the sets of variables of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . Let  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  be the sets of output variables of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  respectively. Also, assume  $N_1^*$  and  $N_2^*$  are copies of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , with output variables  $Y_1^*$  and  $Y_2^*$  respectively, and input variables  $X^*$ . Then  $N_1 \leq N_2$  holds iff the function  $S(N_1, N_2)$  is unsatisfiable, where  $S(N_1, N_2) = SAT(N_1) \wedge SAT(N_2) \wedge SAT(N_1^*) \wedge SAT(N_2^*) \wedge (Y_1 \neq Y_1^*) \wedge (Y_2 = Y_2^*)$ .

Based on this, we can make the following three comments. 1) To test if  $N_1 \leq N_2$ , we simply test the satisfiability of  $S(N_1, N_2)$ . If it is unsatisfiable (i.e. a constant zero), we conclude that  $N_1 \leq N_2$ . 2) If  $S(N_1, N_2)$  is satisfiable, it means that there exists a pair of input vectors  $x$  and  $x^*$  for which circuit  $N_1$  toggles, while  $N_2$  does not. 3) Let  $S(N_1, N_2)$  be satisfiable. If we removed all toggles from  $N_1$  that “are not in”  $N_2$ , we would have  $N_1 \leq N_2$ . In other words, given two circuits  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , we can define a function  $find\_toggle\_setdifference(N_1, N_2) = ALLSAT(S(N_1, N_2))$  which returns toggles of  $N_1$  that are not matched by toggles of  $N_2$ . This is the set of toggles that must be removed from  $N_1$ . If the resulting set  $ALLSAT(N_1, N_2)$  is too large, its manageable subset can be used.

From Proposition 4, it follows that checking for toggle equivalence reduces to two satisfiability checks (henceforth called **SAT checks**).

#### 4.4 Correlation function

In this section, we briefly introduce the notion of correlation function, to extend definitions of toggle implication and toggle equivalence to the case when functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  have different sets of input variables.

**Definition 6.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two disjoint sets of Boolean variables (the number of variables in  $X$  and  $Y$  may be different). A function  $CF(X, Y)$  is called a **correlation function** if there are subsets  $S^X \subseteq \{0,1\}^{|X|}$  and  $S^Y \subseteq \{0,1\}^{|Y|}$  such that  $CF(X, Y)$  specifies a bijective mapping  $M: S^X \rightarrow S^Y$ . Namely,  $CF(x, y)=1$  iff  $x \in S^X, y \in S^Y$  and  $y = M(x)$ .

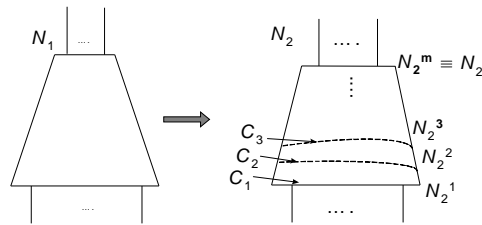
**Definition 7.** Let Boolean functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  have different sets of variables ( $X$  and  $Y$  respectively) that are related by a correlation function  $CF(X, Y)$ .  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are said to be **toggle equivalent under input constraint**  $CF(X_1, Y)$ , if for any pairs  $(x, y)$  and  $(x', y')$  of input vectors such that  $CF(x, y) = CF(x', y')=1$ , it is true that  $f_1(x) \neq f_1(x') \Leftrightarrow f_2(y) \neq f_2(y')$ . (Definition of toggle implication can be reformulated in a similar manner).

In LS\_TE, the output relation between toggle equivalent subcircuits  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  is computed by existentially quantifying from  $SAT(N_i) \wedge SAT(N_i^*) \wedge Constr(inp\_vars(N_i), inp\_vars(N_i^*))$  all but output variables of  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  [4]. If  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  are subcircuits of the first topological level (and so have identical sets of input variables), then  $Constr(inp\_vars(N_i), inp\_vars(N_i^*))$  just describes equivalence of corresponding variables. Since toggle equivalence of  $N_i$  and  $N_i^*$  means one-to-one mapping between output assignments, their output relation is a correlation function. In general,  $Constr(inp\_vars(N_i), inp\_vars(N_i^*))$  is the conjunction of correlation functions that are output relations of all the subcircuits  $N_j, N_j^*$  feeding  $N_i, N_i^*$ . For the sake of simplicity, in Section 5, when describing the TEP procedure, we assume that circuit  $N_1$  and its toggle equivalent counterpart  $N_2$  have *identical sets of variables*.

### 5. TEP procedure

The TEP procedure produces the circuit  $N_2$  (given a combinational circuit  $N_1$ ) in a topological manner from inputs to outputs. These operations are illustrated in

Figure 3. The circuit  $N_2$  is built up as a sequence of circuits  $N_2^1, N_2^2, \dots, N_2^m$ . Each circuit  $N_2^i$  specifies a cut  $C_i$  of  $N_2$  consisting of the primary outputs of  $N_2^i$ . In this way, the sequence of cuts  $C_i$  that are produced, are *topologically ordered*. This means that for a pair of cuts  $C_i$  and  $C_p$  such that  $i < p$  no path from a primary input to a primary output of  $N_2$  can traverse  $C_p$  before  $C_i$ , although  $C_i$  and  $C_p$  may have common nodes. Then, if a node in  $C_p$  toggles for a given pair of input vectors, then there must be at least one node in  $C_i$  that toggles as well. So just from the fact that  $C_i$  and  $C_p$  are topologically ordered it follows that  $N_2^p \leq N_2^i$ .



**Figure 3. Sequence of circuits  $N_2^i$  constructed by TEP**

The TEP procedure starts with  $N_2^1 = \emptyset$  i.e. with an *empty* circuit which allows all possible toggles. As a result,  $N_1 \leq N_2^1$  (which is trivially true since the set

of inputs forms a cut of  $N_1$ ). At each successive step,  $N_2^{i+1}$  is created from  $N_2^i$  such that  $N_2^{i+1} < N_2^i$ . The *invariant* that the TEP procedure maintains at each step is  $N_1 \leq N_2^{i+1} < N_2^i$ . In other words, the TEP procedure selectively removes one or more toggles in each step, until it is true that  $N_2^m \leq N_1$ . At this step, since  $N_1 \leq N_2^m$ ,  $N_2^m$  is toggle equivalent to  $N_1$ , and the procedure returns the circuit  $N_2^m$ .

```

TEP( $N_1$ )
{ if ( $is\_constant(N_1)$ ) return "constant";
   $N_2^{current} = \emptyset$ ;
  while(true)
  { if ( $N_2^{current} \leq N_1$ ) return  $N_2^{current}$ ;
     $N_2^{current} = discard\_toggles(N_2^{current}, N_1)$ ;
     $N_2^{current} = remove\_redundant\_outputs(N_2^{current})$ ;
  }
}

```

**Figure 4. Pseudocode of the TEP procedure**

It is not hard to see that the TEP procedure has the desirable property of convergence. Since  $N_2^1$  has all toggles, and  $N_2^{i+1} < N_2^i$ , the sequence of circuits  $N_2^1, N_2^2, \dots, N_2^m$  must converge to a circuit that is toggle equivalent to  $N_1$ .

The pseudocode of the TEP procedure is shown in Figure 4. To start with, we test if the input circuit  $N_1$  is a constant, in which case the TEP procedure reports this fact. The sequence of circuits  $N_2^i$  mentioned earlier is built in the while loop. This sequence starts with an empty circuit  $N_2^{current}$ , which allows all possible toggles. In the while loop, we first check if  $N_2^{current} \leq N_1$ . If so,  $N_2^{current}$  is toggle equivalent with  $N_1$  (since  $N_1 \leq N_2^{current}$  by construction) and we return  $N_2^{current}$  as the resulting circuit  $N_2$ . If  $N_2^{current} \leq N_1$  does not hold, then a new circuit  $N_2^{current}$  is generated, such that it has at least one less toggle than the previous  $N_2^{current}$ . This operation is performed by the function *discard\_toggles*, which is described in the next subsection. Finally, redundant outputs of  $N_2^{current}$  are removed in the function *remove\_redundant\_outputs*. An output of  $N_2^{current}$  is redundant if, after its removal from  $N_2^{current}$ , the condition  $N_1 \leq N_2^{current}$  still holds.

Note that for each test for implication of toggling (i.e each " $\leq$ " check), we utilize the SAT-based algorithm described in subsection 4.3.

## 5.1 Discard toggles from $N_2^i$

Figure 5 describes the pseudocode of the *discard\_toggles* procedure used by the TEP procedure (Figure 4). The procedure *discard\_toggles* consists of two parts. The

procedures *remove\_toggles* and *add\_toggles* are explained in detail in the following subsections. In both these procedures, toggle removal and addition is done with AND gates, with their inputs appropriately complemented.

```

discard_toggles( $N_2^{current}, N_1$ )
{  $R^* = find\_toggle\_setdifference(N_2^{current}, N_1)$ ;
  ( $N_2^{temp}, R$ ) = remove_toggles( $R^*, N_2^{current}$ );
   $D = find\_toggle\_setdifference(N_1, N_2^{temp})$ ;
   $N_2^{new\_current} = add\_toggles(R, D, N_2^{current}, N_2^{temp})$ ;
  return  $N_2^{new\_current}$ ; }

```

**Figure 5. Pseudocode of the *discard\_toggles* procedure**

The *find\_toggle\_setdifference*( $N_2^{current}, N_1$ ) routine was sketched in subsection 4.3. The heuristics of *remove\_toggles* and *add\_toggles* are aimed at minimizing the size of  $N_2$ .

**5.1.1 Procedure *remove\_toggles*.** The function *remove\_toggles* adds an AND gate  $G$  to  $N_2^{current}$ , to remove at least one toggle in the set  $R^*$  that is computed in line 1 of the *discard\_toggles* procedure. ( $R^*$  specifies either the complete set of additional toggles that are present in  $N_2^{current}$  and are not required in  $N_1$  or a *manageable subset* of this set.) The resulting circuit is called  $N_2^{temp}$ , and the set of toggles of  $R^*$  actually removed are referred to as  $R$ .

Recall that each circuit  $N_2^i$  specifies a cut  $C_i$  of  $N_2$  (consisting of the primary outputs of  $N_2^i$ .) Suppose the circuit  $N_2^{current}$  specifies the cut  $C^{current}$ . Then the AND gate  $G$  above may have as its inputs, any of the nodes on  $C^{current}$ . After the addition of the AND gate  $G$ , the new cut  $C^{new}$  is formed from  $C^{current}$  by a) adding to  $C^{current}$  the node corresponding to the output of  $G$ ; b) eliminating from  $C^{current}$  the nodes that are *toggling inputs* of  $G$ .

Suppose the cut  $C^{current}$  consists of the set of nodes  $Y$ . Suppose that  $r = (y, y')$  is a toggle from the set  $R^*$ . Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  form a partition of  $Y$ , such that  $Y_1$  ( $Y_2$ ) corresponds to the components of  $y$  and  $y'$  which are different (same). In other words,  $Y_1$  ( $Y_2$ ) corresponds to the nodes of  $Y$  that have different (same) values for the toggle  $r = (y, y')$ .

To remove the toggle  $r$ , we add an AND gate  $G$ . We consider two cases.

**Case i):** If  $Y_1 = 1$ , then gate  $G$  has two inputs. One of these inputs is specified by the variable of  $Y_1$ , and another input is chosen from  $Y_2$ . All possible polarities of the second input are considered as well. The configuration for which  $G(y) = G(y') = 0$  and that removes the *largest number* of toggles of  $R^*$  is selected.

**Case ii):** if  $|Y_1| > 1$ , then gate  $G$  has  $|Y_1|$  inputs. These inputs are connected to the variables in  $Y_1$ , with appropriate polarity selection to guarantee that  $G(\mathbf{y}) = G(\mathbf{y}') = 0$ .

In both cases, the construction of gate  $G$  guarantees that  $G(\mathbf{y})=G(\mathbf{y}')=0$ . After adding the gate  $G$ , we form the cut  $C^{\text{new}}$  by removing from  $C^{\text{current}}$  all the nodes in  $Y_1$  and adding the output of  $G$ . Then, the toggle  $r = (\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}')$  is removed from the nodes of  $C^{\text{new}}$ . The circuit resulting from this operation is called  $N_2^{\text{temp}}$ .

**5.1.2 Procedure *add\_toggles*.** Unfortunately, adding the gate  $G$  (described in the previous subsection) may sometimes remove certain toggles that are required in  $N_1$ . As a consequence, we have to perform a "clean-up" step, and add these toggles back into the design.

We begin with computing  $D$ , the set of toggles that need to be added.  $D$  is computed by *find\_toggle\_setdifference*( $N_1, N_2^{\text{temp}}$ ). The objective is to add minimum number of AND gates that re-introduce all toggles from  $D$ , and at the same time minimize the number of toggles that get re-introduced from  $R$ . It is not hard to prove that one can always re-introduce a toggle from the set  $D$ , by using a 2-input AND gate  $H$ , with appropriately selected inputs and input polarities, without re-introducing a toggle from the set  $R$ . The proof is omitted due to space constraints.

Once again, we have two cases to consider, analogous to those in the previous subsection:

**Case i):** When the gate  $G$  added by *remove\_toggles* was a 2-input gate, with  $|Y_1| = 1$ , then one of the inputs of  $H$  is the same as the node in  $Y_1$ . The other input of  $H$  is selected from among nodes in  $Y_2$ . All possible nodes and polarities are explored to *maximize* the weighted cost function  $n_1 + p \cdot n_2$ . Here,  $n_1$  is the number of toggles of  $R$  prevented from being re-introduced,  $n_2$  is the number of toggles of  $D$  re-introduced and  $p$  is the weight parameter (that was set to 1 in our experiments). We add only those gates for which  $n_1$  is 1 or more.

**Case ii):** If  $|Y_1| > 1$ , then select the first input of  $H$  from  $Y_1$ , and the second from  $Y$ , except the input already chosen as the first leg. The cost function to select inputs and their polarities is identical to the one explained in Case i above.

After each AND gate added to the circuit, the set  $D$  is recomputed. The routine *add\_toggles* continues to add AND gates until the set  $D$  reduces to  $\emptyset$ . At this point the resulting circuit  $N_2^{\text{new\_current}}$  is returned. It satisfies the property that  $N_1 \leq N_2^{\text{new\_current}} < N_2^{\text{current}}$ . Note that for a single gate added in

*remove\_toggles*, zero, one or more AND gates could be added in the following call of *add\_toggles*.

## 6. Experimental results

Our preliminary implementation of the TEP procedure is in SIS [9]. We performed various experiments to compare TEP with traditional logic synthesis commands. The experiments were performed on a 3 GHz Xeon CPU, with 2GB of memory.

**Table 1. Results for optimizing arithmetic expressions**

Exper	#bits	script.rugged		collapse, script.rugged		TEP		BDD
		time (s)	#gates	time (s)	#gates	time (s)	#gates	
$x^2 < C$	10	3	590	0.5	28	5	20	0.01
$x^2 < C$	14	34	1,361	95	44	17	21	0.25
$x^2 < C$	16	94	1,808	2,151	52	54	46	0.9
$x^2 < C$	27	35	7,037	>10h	-	282	50	Mem
$x^3 < C$	30	56	8,681	>10h	-	525	57	Mem
$C_1 * x < C_2$	16	24	1,054	121	15	14	19	0.07
$C_1 * x < C_2$	18	39	1,201	1,659	17	25	28	0.11
$C_1 * x < C_2$	38	37	6,709	>10h	-	497	58	Mem
$C_1 * x < C_2$	50	136	10,483	>10h	-	2,183	66	Mem

Table 1 provides the results of applying TEP procedure and SIS for optimizing circuits implementing the expressions  $x^2 < C$  and  $C_1 * x < C_2$  for different word sizes. (In contrast to the example of Subsection 3.1, the expressions above were optimized as *one circuit* i.e. by one call of the TEP procedure.) In all experiments, the value of  $C$  was chosen to be 200 (the results do not change much if one varies  $C$ ).  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  were set to decimal value 11111. The two expressions above can be reduced to much simpler expressions  $x < C'$  and  $x < C''$  respectively where  $C'$  is equal to  $\sqrt{C}$  and  $C''$  is equal to  $C_2/C_1$ . The objective of this experiment was to show that since TEP is structure-agnostic it can be used to simplify "non-local" redundancy. Note that although optimization of these expressions can be easily done manually, one can give examples of non-local redundancies that are much harder to find manually or by a program. Any logic synthesis procedure that changes the original circuit's structure locally (like SPFDs or don't care based optimizations) can easily get trapped in a local minimum. Note that only for smaller values of  $C$ ,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , it is possible to build ROBDDs. For the experiments in Table 1, we set the threshold of  $R^*$  at 10 as explained in sections 5.1 and 4.3 i.e.  $R^*$  contained only 10 (out of a huge number of) toggles

to be removed. The reason why the TEP procedure worked so well with such a small subset  $R^*$  was that by adding an AND gate to remove a toggle of  $R^*$  explicitly, we may implicitly remove a huge number of toggles that were “skipped” in  $R^*$ .

The first column in Table 1 represents the expression being simplified, while the second column represents the word size. Columns 3 and 4 represent the runtime and number of gates returned by *script.rugged*. Columns 5 and 6 represent the runtime and number of gates returned by *collapse* followed by *script.rugged*. The corresponding results for TEP are provided in Columns 7 and 8, while Column 9 represents the time taken to build a ROBDD (using the *nanotrav* package in CUDD). The notation “Mem” indicates a memory out condition. In all cases, the number of gates refers to the number of gates required after optimization and decomposition using AND2 and inverter gates.

We observe that the *script.rugged* requires significantly more gates than TEP. This is because *script.rugged* performs only local changes of the circuit and so SIS gets stuck in a local minimum. TEP, on the other hand, uses only the functionality of the circuit and so produces a dramatically smaller circuit. We may run *collapse* before *script.rugged*, to allow SIS to re-structure the logic better. However for all but the smallest word widths, *collapse* fails. Similarly, the ROBDD computation fails for large word widths, while TEP optimizes these circuits with less than 66 gates. Interestingly, the arithmetic expressions we used turned out to have “local redundancies” (however, in general, global redundancy of a circuit does not “translate” into local redundancies). So redundancy removal in SIS [9] can optimize them with comparable results by taking about two orders of magnitude more time than the TEP procedure.

Table 2 shows the results of running a commercial tool (CT) on circuits produced by *script.rugged* and the TEP procedure. We used single-output circuits extracted from MCNC benchmarks. The objective of the experiment was to show that even for very small circuits, TEP can achieve better optimization. (The other reason for targeting small subcircuits is that in LS\_TE, the TEP procedure is used for optimizing subcircuits  $N^i$  of circuit  $N$  that are assumed to be *small*.) The first column of Table 2 shows names of circuits and the output number (in parentheses). The second column provides the number of inputs in the single output circuits. Columns 3 and 4 provide the mapped area and delay for the output of *script.rugged* mapped by

CT, while Columns 5 and 6 provide these numbers for the TEP output mapped by CT. The standard cell library had 38 gates, implemented in a 0.18 $\mu$  process. The licensing agreement for CT requires us not to identify its name. The results of Table 2 indicate that TEP based circuits, after mapping, result in a 12.5% area improvement, and a 1.6% delay penalty over circuits optimized with *script.rugged* before mapping with CT. The TEP results improve on the *script.rugged* results for 85% of the examples in terms of area, and for 45% of the examples in terms of delay.

The objective of the experiment summarized in Table 3 was to provide a brief demonstration of the ability of LS\_TE. The LS\_TE method was used to optimize two-stage circuits. Both stages correspond to standard benchmark circuits, with the second stage being a single output circuit. The outputs of the first stage are inputs to the second. MCNC benchmarks *rd84* and *squar5* were used as the first stage circuits. The second stage circuits are single-output circuits extracted from MCNC benchmarks (second column). Columns 3 through 6 give the number of gates in optimized circuits and runtimes for optimization by *script.rugged* and LS\_TE.

**Table 2. Optimization of single-output circuits**

Circuits	#in-puts	<i>script.rugged</i> →CT		TEP→CT	
		area	delay(ps)	area	delay(ps)
b12(3)	4	83.635	77	62.727	73
i5(37)	5	130.679	75	114.999	106
s_opt(6)	3	151.589	102	151.588	87
pm1(10)	8	182.952	120	156.815	109
squar5(1)	5	250.905	118	156.815	105
misex2(15)	5	177.725	128	156.816	113
x4(34)	8	224.771	124	172.497	142
x3(64)	5	250.906	110	224.769	121
5xp1(5)	4	308.405	163	229.996	164
squar5(3)	5	491.356	169	235.223	143
i7(10)	5	282.268	126	235.224	146
apex7(35)	8	360.675	149	245.678	165
b9(1)	7	282.270	134	245.679	150
ttt2(7)	5	224.769	131	250.905	121
apex1(43)	8	266.587	110	256.134	129
apex6(51)	7	392.040	178	277.042	183
ttt2(4)	6	266.586	136	297.950	127
i7(28)	6	444.312	161	308.405	142
qpcl(4)	8	392.040	160	423.402	139
sqrt8ml(3)	8	3183.359	652	2299.966	584

When optimizing a circuit  $N$  of Table 3, TEP is used twice. We first replace the stage 1 circuit  $N_1$  with its toggle equivalent counterpart  $N_1^*$ , using TEP. After this the correlation function relating outputs of  $N_1$  and  $N_1^*$  is computed as described in [4]. (One



needs to compute the correlation function because  $N_1$  is a multi-output circuit.) Using the correlation function, the second stage circuit  $N_2$  is replaced with a toggle equivalent counterpart  $N_2^*$ , using TEP a second time. The composition of circuits  $N_1^*$  and  $N_2^*$  form a circuit  $N^*$  functionally equivalent to  $N$  modulo negation. Since we assume that  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  were designed independently, any output encoding for  $N_1$  is in a sense as good as the original one. So the heuristics of TEP that aim at finding a toggle equivalent counterpart of  $N_1$  that is as small as possible makes sense.

Note that the number of gates resulting from TEP optimization is significantly smaller than for SIS. In fact, on average, TEP requires 50.5% fewer gates than *script.rugged*. Our current TEP implementation is unoptimized, and we have efforts underway to improve the runtimes of TEP.

**Table 3. Optimization of two-stage circuits by LS\_TE**

stage 1	stage 2	<i>script.rugged</i>		TEP	
		# gates	time(s)	# gates	time(s)
rd84	5xp1(5)	138	0.8	53	62
rd84	alu2(5)	78	0.5	47	62
rd84	b12(3)	101	0.6	37	62
squar5	alu4(1)	43	0.1	23	3.4
squar5	b12(2)	42	0.1	20	2.7
squar5	c8(11)	28	0.1	17	2.2

## 7. Conclusions

We have presented a new toggle equivalence preservation based procedure (TEP) for logic synthesis. This TEP procedure can be used in the scenario shown in Figure 1. The idea is to re-synthesize a circuit  $N$  (consisting of subcircuits  $N_i$ ), in a manner that the high-level partitioning structure of  $N$  is retained. Each subcircuit  $N_i$  is re-synthesized into a design  $N_i^*$ , using the TEP procedure. This re-synthesis explores a huge optimization flexibility since the outputs of  $N_i$  are re-encoded by TEP. This TEP procedure was formulated for multi-output circuits. The TEP procedure is structure-agnostic, unlike existing logic optimization procedures. Also, it is able to explore all possible output encodings efficiently during synthesis. For single-output circuits, toggle equivalence is the same as functional equivalence modulo negation. Therefore, we tested TEP on single-output circuits, to enable a fair

comparison with existing synthesis approaches, although the full power of TEP is exhibited for multi-output circuits. The preliminary implementation of TEP is done in SIS, using a SAT-based computation. First results show encouraging improvements over SIS. When the full power of TEP is utilized (for multi-output circuits) we expect yet further improvements.

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