Fast Algebraic Rewriting based on And-Inv-Graphs

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Abstract—Computer algebra method with polynomial representations is believed to be the state-of-the-art technique for analyzing gate-level arithmetic circuits. However, the existing approach applies algebraic rewriting directly on the gate-level netlist, which has potential memory explosion problem. In this paper, an algebraic rewriting technique, through the AIGs of the gate-level design, is introduced. Using the AIG-based structural hashing, an efficient order of rewriting, that provides the maximum polynomial reductions during the rewriting process is identified. This approach is based on detecting the pairs of Majority3 and XOR3 functions in AIGs. An automatic approach which reduces the complexity of algebraic rewriting and generates redundant polynomials is proposed.

I. Introduction

MPORTANCE of arithmetic verification problem grows with an increased use of arithmetic modules in embedded systems to perform computation-intensive tasks for multimedia, signal processing, and cryptography applications. One of the remaining challenges in formal verification is formal verification of gate-level integer arithmetic circuits, such as multipliers, used extensively in those applications. Despite a considerable progress in verification of random and control logic, advances in formal verification of arithmetic designs have been lagging. This can be attributed mostly to the difficulty in the efficient modeling of arithmetic circuits and datapaths without resorting to computationally expensive Boolean methods, such as BDDs, SAT, SMT, etc., that require "bit blasting", i.e., flattening the design to a bit-level netlist. Until recently, formal techniques based on computer algebra have been successfully applied to the verification problems of gatelevel arithmetic circuits.

Computer algebra techniques with polynomial representations is believed to offer best solution for analyzing arithmetic circuits [1][2][3][4]. These works address the verification problems of Galois field arithmetic and integer arithmetic implementations, including abstractions and reverse engineering [3][4][1]. The verification problem is typically formulated as a proof that the implementation satisfies the specification, solved by polynomial division or algebraic rewriting. The results show that the computer algebra techniques provide several orders of magnitude performance improvement. The main advantage of computer algebra methods for verifying arithmetic circuits is that it provides a large number of polynomial reductions (by eliminating non-linear terms) while applying those techniques to a binary encoded specification

polynomial. For example, let a polynomial expression be $E = 2x_1 + a + b - 2ab$, where x_1 is an output of an AND2 gate with inputs a and b. After rewriting the algebraic model of AND2(a,b) = ab, E = 2ab + a + b - 2ab = a + b. We can see that the non-linear term ab has been eliminated. Note that non-linear terms could explode exponentially after rewriting the variables in that term if they were not eliminated at the right time (order).

The order of rewriting or performing polynomial divisions has a significant impact on the performance of computer algebra techniques [4][5]. However, computer algebra techniques may be limited by finding the efficient orders in the gate-level arithmetic circuits. The main reason is that those techniques are applied to the original netlist. Yu et al. [5] compared the performance for different topological orders of the combinational gate-level multipliers. It showed that efficient topological order may not exist in the postsynthesized gate-level netlist. Such an ordermay be difficult to be identified because of the polynomial reductions hidden in the complex standard cells. In addition, redundant polynomials detected from combinational and sequential arithmetic circuits can provide significant polynomial reductions [6]. However, detecting such polynomials is limited by manual operations and depends on the structure of the circuits.

The approach presented in this paper aims at improving the efficiency of algebraic rewriting for arithmetic verification. It addresses the problem by using a *Directed-Acyclic-graph* (DAG) representation of Boolean network, called *And-Inverter-Graph* (AIG) [7]. Algebraic rewriting is done by deriving arithmetic function computed by the circuit from its low-level circuit implementation. Instead of directly applying to the gate-level netlist, the algebraic rewriting is performed on AIGs. Also, this approach allows to automatically generate redundant polynomials, which significantly reduce the complexity of algebraic rewriting.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Formal Verification of Arithmetic Circuits

Verification of arithmetic circuits is solved using *combinational equivalence checking* (CEC), typically as referred to *arithmetic combinational equivalence checking* (ACEC) [4]. Several approaches have been applied to check an arithmetic circuit against its functional specification, including *canonical diagrams*, *satisfiability* theories, *theorem proving*, etc. Different variants of canonical, graph-based representations have been proposed, including Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs) [8], Binary Moment Diagrams (BMDs) [9] [10], Taylor Expansion Diagrams (TED) [11], and other hybrid diagrams. While BDDs have been used extensively in logic synthesis,

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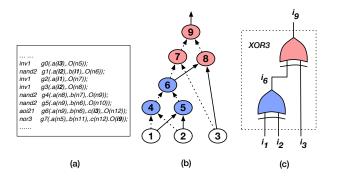


Fig. 1. a) Post-synthesized XOR3 gate-level netlist. b) AIG of the synthesized XOR3 gate-level netlist. (c) The extracted two XOR2 functions (nodes 6 and 9) and one XOR3 function (node 9).

their application to verification of arithmetic circuits is limited by the prohibitively high memory requirement needed to represent complex arithmetic circuits, such as multipliers. Boolean satisfiability (SAT) or satisfiability modulo theories (SMT) solvers have also been applied to solve ACEC problems [12]. Recently, several state-of-the-art SAT and SMT solvers have been applied to those problems, including MiniSAT[13], Lingeling[14], Boolector [15], Z3 [16], etc. However, the complexity of checking equivalence of large arithmetic circuits is extremely high [17][5]. Alternatively, this problem can be modeled as checking equivalence against the arithmetic function, e.g. checking whether the binary encoded output function is equivalent to the expected arithmetic function using bit-vector formulation of SMT. However, the complexity of this method is the same as the CEC method [5].

B. Computer Algebra Approaches

Computer algebra method is believed to be the best technique for solving arithmetic verification problems. Using computer algebra methods, the verification problem is typically formulated as a proof that the implementation satisfies the specification [1][2][3][4]. This task is accomplished by performing a series of divisions of the specification polynomial by a set of polynomials, representing components that implement the circuit. Techniques based on Gröbner Basis demonstrate that this approach can efficiently transform the verification problem to membership testing of the specification polynomial in the ideals [2]. A different approach to arithmetic verification of gate-level circuits has been proposed using the algebraic rewriting technique, which transforms the polynomial at the primary outputs to a polynomial of primary inputs [1], called *function extraction*. This approach has successfully been applied to 512-bit multipliers, due to a large number of polynomial reductions gained by rewriting a binary encoded polynomial of the outputs [5]. A similar approach has been applied to arithmetic combinational equivalence checking [4]. Although those works showed good performance in solving arithmetic verification problems, they still suffer from potential polynomial (memory) explosion problem since they all applied restrictedly to the original gate-level netlist.

C. Boolean network

A Boolean network can be represented using directed acyclic graph (DAG) with nodes representing logic gates and directed edges representing wires connecting the gates. In the sequential network, the memory elements are assumed to be D flip-flops with known initial states. And-Inverter-Graph (AIG) is a combinational Boolean network composed of two-input AND gates and inverters [7]. In an AIG, each node has either 0 or two incoming edges. A node with no incoming edges is a primary input. Primary outputs are represented using specific output nodes. Each node in an AIG represents an AND function. Based on DeMorgan's rule, the combinational logic of an arbitrary Boolean network can be transformed into an AIG [18], with the properly labeled edges to indicate the inversion of the signals. AIG has been extensively used in logic synthesis, technology mapping [18] and verification [19].

AIG has been applied to search unobserved Boolean function such as Multiplexer-function [20] in an arbitrary gate-level circuits. This is based on computing a Cut in the AIG. A cut C of node n is a set of nodes of the network, called *leaves*, such that each path from PIs to n passes through the leaf nodes. Node n is the *root* of a Cut. A Cut is K-feasible if the number of leaves does not exceed K. The cut function is the function of node n in terms of the cut leaves. An AIG node n in an AIG structure that represents a Boolean function F, is called an F-node. Each node is an AND function and the edges indicate the inversions of Boolean signals¹. An example of identifying unobserved XOR functions using AIG is shown in Figure 1. The AIG shown in Figure 1(b) represents a subcircuit described in Figure 1(a). It includes a 3-feasible Cut of node 9 and a 2-feasible Cut of node 6, among other possible 3-feasible cuts. Let the function of the AIG nodes be i_x , and x be the index value of the node. The function of node 6 is $i_1 \oplus i_2$, and the function of node 9 is $i_1 \oplus i_2 \oplus i_3$. Hence, node 6 is an XOR2-node, and node 9 is an XOR3-node. This means that an unobserved XOR3 function consisting of two XOR2s exists and can be detected in the sub-circuit shown in Figure 1(a). Similarly, an AIG can be applied to identify unobserved Majority functions.

D. Computer Algebraic model

In this approach, the circuit is modeled as an AIG, including (AND, INV, and implicit MAJ3, XOR3), instead of a network of standard cells after synthesis and technology mapping [1]. The following algebraic equations are used to describe the algebraic model used in this work.

$$\neg a = 1 - a$$

$$a \wedge b = ab$$

$$MAJ(a, b, c) = ab + ac + bc - 2abc$$

$$a \oplus b \oplus c = a + b + c - 2ab - 2ac - 2bc + 4abc$$
(1)

Similarly to the work of [1], the algebraic rewriting process of the circuits is specified by two polynomials, referred to as *output signature* and *input signature*. The *input signature*, Sig_{in} , is a polynomial in primary input variables that

¹In Fig.1, the dash edges are inversion signals, e.g. $i_4 = \overline{i_1} \ \overline{i_2}$, $i_5 = i_1 i_2$.

uniquely represents the integer function computed by the circuit, i.e., its *specification*. For example, an n-bit binary adder with inputs $\{a_0, \cdots, a_{n-1}, b_0, \cdots, b_{n-1}\}$, is described by $Sig_{in} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i a_i + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i b_i$. In our approach, the input specification need not be known; it will be derived from the circuit implementation as part of the verification process. The *output signature*, Sig_{out} , of the circuit is defined as a polynomial in the primary output signals. Such a polynomial is uniquely determined by the n-bit encoding of the output, provided by the designer. This means that the binary encoding of the output bits is assumed to be known.

E. Polynomial Reductions

According to [5], for efficiency of algebraic rewriting of Sig_{out} is dictated by amount of significant internal polynomial reductions. This is because there is a large number of nonlinear terms generated by carry out (MAJ) and sum(XOR) functions, since multiplication is done by a series of additions. Finding the maximum polynomial cancellations were previously addressed by improving the topological order of the gates [5]. For example, let a sub-polynomial expression be $Nx_1+2Nx_2+..., x_1 = XOR3(a, b, c), x_2 = MAJ3(a, b, c),$ where a, b, c are the inputs of XOR3 and MAJ3 functions. According to Equation 1, rewriting x_1 and x_2 together, four non-linear terms will be eliminated, namely 2Nab, 2Nbc, 2Nac and 4Nabc generated by the XOR3 and MAJ3 algebraic models. However, if rewriting is applied directly to the gatelevel netlist, its efficiency is restricted when the MAJ3 and XOR3 functions are mapped into other standard cells by logic synthesis and technology mapping to reduce the timing and area of the hardwares. For example, the mapped XOR3 function using standard cells is shown in Figure 1(a). In this case, there is no ordering that provides the maximum polynomial reductions.

III. APPROACH

This section presents the algebraic rewriting approach based on AIG. Similarly to [1], the algebraic rewriting process rewrites the output signature through all the nodes in the AIG in a topological order. As discussed in Section III-E, the rewriting order that provides a large number of polynomial reductions, has significant impact on the performance of rewriting. However, there are many topological orders available in an AIG, since many nodes can have the same topological depth. This approach detects a topological order for algebraic rewriting that provides the maximum polynomial reductions. This is achieved by searching the pairs of MAJ3 and XOR3 nodes by computing the AIG *Cuts*.

A. Outline of the Approach

The proposed flow is outlined in Algorithm 1. The inputs to the algorithm are: the gate-level netlist and the output signature Sig_{out} . The flow includes three basic steps: 1) convert the gate-level implementation into AIG; 2) detect all pairs of XOR3 and MAJ3 nodes with identical inputs; topologically sort the AIG nodes while considering the detected pairs as

Algorithm 1 Algebraic Rewriting in AIG

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Input: Gate-level netlist, output signature Sig_{out}
Output: Pseudo-Boolean expression extracted by rewriting

1: Structural hashing the gate-level netlist into AIG, denoted G(V, E).

2: Detect all XOR3 and MAJ3 nodes in G(V, E).

3: Pair the XOR3 and MAJ3 if they have identical signals, denoted as P.

4: Topological sort G(V,E) considering each element in P as one node.

5: i=0; F_i=Sig_{out}

6: while there are no elements remained in the topological order do

7: Rewrite: F_{i+1}=F_i by substituting the variables with algebraic equations;

8: i=i+1

9: return F=F_i (to be compared with Sig_{in})
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one element; and 3) apply algebraic rewriting from POs to PIs following the topological order determined in step 2. Note that XOR2 and MAJ2(AND2) are the special cases of XOR3 and MAJ3, where one of the inputs is constant zero. The second step specifically processes as follows:

- Compute all 3-feasible (3-input) cuts of all AIG nodes.
- Compute truth tables of all cuts.
- Store the cuts in the hash table by their ordered set of inputs.
- Find pairs of 3-input cuts with identical inputs w.r.t to different nodes, such that the Boolean functions of the two cuts with the shared inputs are in NPN classes of XOR3 and MAJ3, respectively.

Note that, in this approach, matching the XOR3 and MAJ3 nodes do not require the inputs and outputs polarity to be the same. Instead, all the cut-points are matched without considering the complement. For example, instead of being an exact XOR3, the function of a 3-feasible cut can be either XOR3 or XNOR3. Similarly, instead of being exactly MAJ3, the function of can be one of the eight functions forming the NPN class of MAJ3 [21]. To compute the cuts, the 3-input cut enumeration is performed in a topological order as described in [22]. The truth tables of the cuts are obtained as a byproduct of the cut enumeration. Thus, when two fanin cuts are merged during the cut computation and the resulting cut is 3-feasible, the truth tables of fanin cuts are permuted to match the fanin order of the resulting cut. These truth tables are then ANDed or XORed, depending on the node type, to get the resulting truth table. For the case of 3-input cuts, a dedicated pre-computation reduces the runtime of truth table computation to a small fraction of that of cut enumeration.

As soon as the XOR3 and MAJ3 pairs are detected, algebraic rewriting will be applied to the AIG network in a constrained topological order, in which each XOR3 and MAJ3 pair is considered as one element. This means that at one topological depth, whenever either XOR3 or MAJ3 node of a pair (or its complement) is rewritten, the following rewriting element is of the other type. The AIG nodes with the same topological depth that do not exist in any pairs are ordered by their hashing value (in decreasing order). The algebraic rewriting ends when all elements in AIG network have been rewritten and the algorithm returns the extracted input signature.

Example 1 (2-bit CSA-multiplier): The mapped gate-level netlist of a 2-bit CSA-multiplier is shown in Figure 2(a). First, the gate-level netlist is converted to an AIG representation (Figure 2(b)). Then, a set of XOR3 nodes X, and a set of

NAND2 g0(.a(a0), .b(b0), .y(n9)); NOT g1(.a(n9), .y(m0)); NAND2 g2(.a(a1), .b(b0), .y(n11)); NAND2 g3(.a(a0), .b(b1), .y(n12)); XOR2 g4(.a(n11), .b(n12), .y(m1)); NAND4 g5(.a(a1), .b(b1), .c(b0), .d(a0), .y(n14)); NAND2 g6(.a(a1), .b(b1), .y(n15)); XOR2 g7(.a(n14), .b(n15), .y(m2)); NAND4 g8(.a(a1), .b(b1), .c(b0), .d(a0), .y(n17)); NOT g9(.a(n17), .y(m3));

(a)

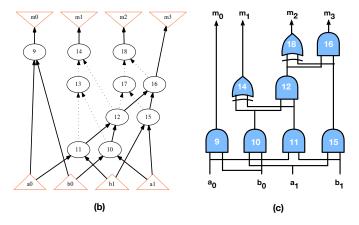


Fig. 2. (a) Post-synthesized 2-bit multiplier gate-level netlist; (b) The AIG of the 2-bit multiplier shown in Figure 2(a); (c) Detected unobserved functions from the AIG and the correspondences to AIG nodes. The index value in Figure 2(c) corresponds to the hash value of each node in Figure 2(b).

MAJ3 nodes M are detected. $X = \{14, 18\}$, $M = \{12, 16\}$. Node 14 is XOR3(10, 11, 1'b0) and node 12 is MAJ3(10, 11, 1'b0), where nodes 10 and 11 and constant zero 1'b0 are the inputs; node 18 is XOR3(12, 15, 1'b0) and node 16 is MAJ3(12, 15, 1'b0); 1'b0 is Boolean false. Hence, two pairs of XOR3 and MAJ3 are generated, (14, 12) and (18, 16). The order of rewriting is determined as follows: 1) node 18 is the node with highest depth; it is detected as a XOR3 and paired with a MAJ3 node 16; hence, the first rewriting starts from node 18 and 16, and ends at node 12 and 15; 2) similarly to the first rewriting, the second rewriting starts from nodes 14 and 12, and ends at nodes 11 and 10; 3) the remaining AIG nodes are ordered by their index value in decreasing order. The logic network after detecting all XOR3 and MAJ3 functions are shown in Figure 2(c).

B. Redundant Polynomial Determination

In addition to the order of algebraic rewriting, identifying and using redundant polynomials could also provide significant polynomial reductions. For example, *don't-care* polynomials and *vanishing* polynomials are used for verifying sequential arithmetic circuits [6]. Those polynomials are generated by observing that the signals that are removed for design efficiency contain algebraic information that is needed to cancel algebraic terms of the remaining output bits in the design. For example, the polynomial associated with the most significant bit (MSB) of an adder or a multiplier is such a polynomial. Such truncated designs are widely used in energy efficient applications by reducing critical paths and pruning the logic. However, automatically generating the redundant polynomials has not been adequately solved yet.

To efficiently apply algebraic rewriting to the multipliers with output bits truncated, an approach that automatically generates *don't-care* polynomials is presented. This approach is based on an observation that the logic obtained by removing output bits is either a carry-out function or a sum function of one-bit addition. It is known that MAJ3 and XOR3 are the components that construct a 1-bit addition. Hence, using the approach of detecting pairs of XOR3 and MAJ3 (Section III-A), the XOR3/MAJ3 nodes that do not belong to any such pair

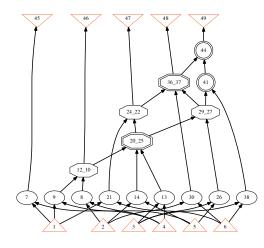


Fig. 3. Detecting MAJ3-XOR3 of a 3-bit post-synthesized CSA-multiplier with MSB z_5 deleted.

can be detected. For example, a n-bit CSA-multiplier with 2n-1 output bits (with MSB removed), there is a missing MAJ3, i.e., the MAJ3s with identical inputs of an unpaired XOR3. Since one pair of XOR3 and MAJ3 constructs a 1-bit addition, removing the carry bit (MAJ3) makes the function an addition $modulo\ 2$. In this case, the algebraic model of XOR3 (Equation 1) is reduced to $a \oplus b \oplus c = a+b+c \mod 2$.

Example 2 (3-bit CSA-multiplier with MSB z_5 detected): The AIG after detecting XOR3 and MAJ3 pairs of a 3-bit post-synthesized CSA-multiplier with MSB deleted is shown in Figure 3. The detected XOR3 and MAJ3 pairs are represented using the hash value of the root node of the XOR3 and MAJ3 nodes. We can see that there is one XOR3 (composed of two XOR2 nodes, 41 and 44) with inputs $i_{36,37}$, $i_{27,29}$ and i_{38} , that cannot be paired with any MAJ3. This is because synthesis process removed the redundant logic (last carry out) while the MSB has been removed. In this case, the algebraic model of that XOR3 is reduced to $2^4 \cdot z_4(i_{49}) = 2^4 \cdot (i_{36,37} + i_{27,29} + i_{38})$.

IV. RESULTS

The technique described in this paper was implemented in C, and embedded in the ABC system[18]. It applies algebraic

TABLE I
RESULTS OF APPLYING AIG-BASED ALGEBRAIC REWRITING ON
PRE-SYNTHESIZED CSA-MULTIPLIERS COMPARED TO function extraction
[11.

# bits	[1]		This approach	
	8	0.02	4.9	0.01
16	0.10	8.2	0.01	10.4
64	1.89	73.9	0.04	34.2
128	8.12	288.4	0.15	117.2
256	32.65	1157.3	0.82	440.5
512	130.22	4427.5	3.76	1695.1

rewriting on AIG network and generates the polynomial signature. The experimental results include rewriting on gatelevel Carry-save-adder (CSA) multipliers up to 512-bit, and compared to *function extraction* [1]. They show that our technique is more efficient than the state-of-the-art technique in extracting the polynomial expressions of CSA multipliers. The experiments were conducted on a PC with Intel(R) Xeon CPU E5-2420 v2 2.20 GHz x12 with 32 GB memory.

The results of applying AIG-based algebraic rewriting on pre-synthesized and post-synthesized CSA-multipliers are shown in Table I and Table II. The gate-level multipliers are taken from [1]. Runtime and memory usage of function extraction [1] are shown in columns 2 and 3, and the results of the described approach are shown in columns 4 and 5. The bit-width varies from 8 to 256 bits². First, we can see that the runtime of the proposing approach is lower than a second on both the pre- and post-synthesized CSA-multipliers from 8-bit to 256-bit. At the same time, the memory usage has been reduced on average 60% compared to function extraction [1]. Finally, the complexity of extracting the polynomial expression using function extraction is increased while the multipliers have been synthesized. For example, extracting post-synthesized 256-bit multiplier using function extraction requires 9x more runtime and more memory. However, using the proposed approach, the runtime of extracting pre- or postsynthesized multipliers are almost the same.

TABLE II

RESULTS OF APPLYING AIG-BASED ALGEBRAIC REWRITING ON
POST-SYNTHESIZED CSA-MULTIPLIERS COMPARED TO function extraction
[1].

# bits	[1]		This approach	
	runtime(s)	mem(MB)	runtime(s)	mem(MB)
8	0.04	2.9	0.01	9.7
16	0.14	6.1	0.01	10.4
64	5.50	76.3	0.04	34.3
128	39.64	299.2	0.16	120.0
256	285.22	1250.6	0.82	438.9

V. CONCLUSION

We propose an approach presented that aims at improving the efficiency of algebraic rewriting for arithmetic verification, using a Directed-Acyclic-graph (DAG) representation of the Boolean network, called And- Inverter-Graph (AIG). With this approach, we address the formal verification problem of practical multipliers that are heavily optimized and mapped using 14nm technology library. Also, an approach that automatically detects redundant polynomials to reduce the complexity of algebraic rewriting is proposed.

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²512-bit post-synthesized multipliers was not reported in [1].