

DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL AND
COMPUTER ENGINEERING

TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN

Master's Thesis in Electrical Engineering

**Signal Distribution Networks in Automatic
QCA Standard Cell Placement and Routing**

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Signalverteilungs-Netzwerke in automatisierter QCA Standard Zellen Plazierung und Verdrahtung

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Submission Date:	08.02.2023

I confirm that this master's thesis in electrical engineering is my own work and I have documented all sources and material used.

Munich, 08.02.2023

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Acknowledgments

Abstract

New technologies to compete with CMOS, one of them QCA

Placement and Routing as key to producibility.

Challenges of Placement and Routing in previous algorithms.

Goals of this work:

I minimizing area/tiles,

II making it possible to place majority-gates (which is a promising aspect of QCA),

III making it possible to P&R sequential circuits

This is done by introducing several signal distribution networks

Results are compared with already existing algorithms...

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1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation

About the technology, why its promising and important.

Lack of automated algorithms for P&R

P&R as sign of producibility

Why the distribution networks are able to make QCA better producible / cheaper

1.2 Objective

The thesis is divided in ...

2 Preliminaries

This chapter establishes declarations and definitions, which provide the basis required for the understanding the ideas and their implementations in form of algorithms proposed in this work. The three fields forming this basis are the representation of Logic Circuits, QCA technology and the placement and routing problem.

2.1 Representation of Logic Circuits

Logic Circuits provide a powerful construct that allows an abstraction of digital circuits to a logic level and thereby makes it possible to discuss and argue about them scientifically. This abstraction was made possible by the Boolean algebra, formed by the mathematician George Boole in 1847. It shows that every digital circuit can be represented by logic functions, independent of their underlying technology. In the following sections first, a definition of a Boolean algebra is given, and second, it is shown how logic networks can be formed using them.

2.1.1 Boolean Functions

A definition of Boolean calculus was first provided by Edward V. Huntington in 1933. From *set of independent postulates for the algebra of logic* and his own correction [17, 16], the following equations form the basis of every Boolean algebra:

Definition 2.1.1 (Basis for Boolean algebra). Let a, b, c be arbitrary elements of an abstract algebra $(L, +, ')$ with their set denoted as B_{abc} . The algebra includes the binary function disjunction $+$: $B_{abc} \times B_{abc} \rightarrow B_{abc}$ and the unary function $'$: $B_{abc} \rightarrow B_{abc}$.

$$\begin{aligned}a + b &= b + a \\(a + b) + c &= a + (b + c) \\(a' + b')' + (a' + b)' &= a\end{aligned}$$

The last of his postulates is named after the inventor and is commonly known as *Huntington equation*. There also exists an "universe element" $u \in B_{abc}$ for which holds:

$$\begin{aligned}\exists u' : a + u' &= a \\ \exists u : a + a' &= u.\end{aligned}$$

Even though the two operands disjunction and negation function are powerful enough to form a Boolean algebra, the most common definition also uses the conjunction function $\cdot : B_{abc} \times B_{abc} \rightarrow B_{abc}$ in order to form shorter and more readable logic terms. The most common Boolean algebra \mathbb{B} is defined by the 6-tuple $(B_{abc}, \vee, \wedge, \neg)$, where \vee and \wedge are other denotations for binary operands for disjunction $+$ and conjunction \cdot in \mathbb{B} . The third function \neg describes the unary negation function, which was previously denoted as $'$. The set B_{abc} contains exactly two distinct elements $\{0, 1\}$, with $u = 1$ and $\neg u = 0$ respectively [14].

Since this definition is restricting the use of only the three Boolean functions (\vee, \wedge, \neg) , we want to extend it by the following definition [30]:

Definition 2.1.2 (Boolean function). A Boolean function can be described as $f: \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, with $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$ being the number of arguments or arity of the function. A function with k arguments is referred to as k -ary. Multi-output Boolean functions can be described as $\{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$, with $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and the integer $m > 0$.

Nonetheless, every k -ary function can still be decomposed into a set of common Boolean functions (\vee, \wedge, \neg) . A common notation for Boolean functions is *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) or *disjunctive normal form* (DNF), using literals.

Definition 2.1.3. A literal is either an atom a (positive literal) or the negation of an atom $\neg a$ (negative literal).

Definition 2.1.4. A propositional Boolean formula is said to be in CNF if it is a conjunction of *clauses*, each of which is a disjunction of literals [43]:

$$\bigwedge_i \bigvee_j (\neg)v_{ij},$$

where $v_{ij} \in \mathbb{B}$.

A propositional Boolean formula is said to be in DNF if it is a disjunction of clauses, each of which is a conjunction of literals:

$$\bigvee_i \bigwedge_j (\neg)v_{ij},$$

where $v_{ij} \in \mathbb{B}$.

Using the CNF or rather the DNF and *De Morgan's laws* following from the definitions in 2.1.1, it follows that any Boolean algebra can be reduced to only two operands, e.g., conjunction (\vee) and negation (\neg) or disjunction (\wedge) and negation (\neg). Any set of such two Boolean functions is called *universal*.

2.1.2 Logic Networks

There are many ways of representing Boolean Functions. But most of them, including, e.g. truth tables or reduced sum of products, suffer from exponential representations, making them impractical for big logic circuits. Even if a reasonable representation exists for a given function, simple operations like forming the complementary could yield an exponential function representation. Logic networks overcome these restrictions and have proven to be very useful in transforming logic circuits into gate representations. This process is also called *logic synthesis*. An approach to logic networks is given in [5], describing *function graphs*:

Definition 2.1.5 (Function graph). A function graph is a rooted, directed graph with vertex set V containing two types of vertices. A *non-terminal* vertex v has as attributes an argument index $index(v) \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, and two children $low(v), high(v) \in V$. A *terminal* vertex v has as attribute a value $value(v) \in \{0, 1\}$.

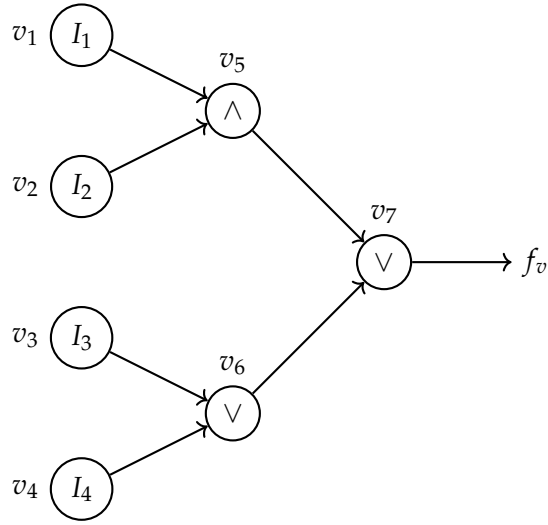
Furthermore, for any non-terminal vertex v , if $low(v)$ is also non-terminal, then we must have $index(v) < index(low(v))$. Similarly, if $high(v)$ is non-terminal, then we must have $index(v) < index(high(v))$.

Definition 2.1.6 (Function Graph Boolean Functions). A function graph G having root vertex v denotes a function f_v defined recursively as:

1. If v is a terminal vertex:
 - a) If $value(v) = 1$, then $f_v = 1$
 - b) If $value(v) = 0$, then $f_v = 0$
2. If v is a non-terminal vertex with $index(v) = i$, then f_v is the function
$$f_v(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \bar{x}_i \cdot f_{low(v)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) + x_i \cdot f_{high(v)}(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Since the definition reduces the number of children connected to a vertex to two, therefore only allowing binary Boolean Functions, a custom definition is given:

Definition 2.1.7 (Logic Network). A logic network $N(V, E)$ is a rooted, directed graph with vertex set V and edge set E . For any vertex $v \in V$, vertices connected by incoming edges $e_{inc} \in E$ are called children. A vertex connected by and outgoing edge $e_{out} \in E$ is



The corresponding recursive Boolean function reads:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_v &= f_v(v_7) & f_v(v_6) &= f_v(v_3) \wedge f_v(v_4) \\
 f_v(v_7) &= f_v(v_5) \vee f_v(v_6) & f_v(v_5) &= f_v(v_1) \vee f_v(v_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

with primary inputs: $f_v(v_1), f_v(v_2), f_v(v_3), f_v(v_4) \in \{0, 1\}$

Figure 2.1: Binary Logic Network

called parent. V contains two types of vertices. A *non-terminal* vertex v has as attributes an argument index $index(v) \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, and l children $child_1(v), \dots, child_l(v) \in V$. A *terminal* vertex v has as attribute a value $value(v) \in \{0, 1\}$.

Furthermore, for any non-terminal vertex v , if $child_i(v)$ with $1 \leq i \leq l$, then we must have $index(child_i(v)) < index(v)$ respectively.

Definition 2.1.8 (Logic Network Boolean Functions). A set of nary Boolean Functions $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{B}$ is assigned to every vertex via the argument index $index(v) = i$. The graph function f_v is defined recursively as:

1. If v is a terminal vertex:
 - a) If $value(v) = 1$, then $f_v = 1$
 - b) If $value(v) = 0$, then $f_v = 0$
2. If v is a non-terminal vertex with $index(v) = i$, then f_v is the function $f_v(v_i) = x_i(f_{child_1(v)}(v_{i-1}), \dots, f_{child_l(v)}(v_{i-n}))$.

The recursive nature of the Boolean Function definition in logic networks can be seen in 2.1.

Definition 2.1.9 (Majority Function). The ternary Boolean majority function is defined as: $\langle a, b, c \rangle = ab + ac + bc$, so that the function value equals the majority of it's incoming values.

It follows: $\langle a, b, 0 \rangle = a \cdot b$ and $\langle a, b, 1 \rangle = a + b$.

Adapting the names used in the underlying libraries used to program the algorithms proposed subsequently following in this work (chapter 4), a terminal vertex is referred to as *primary input* (PI) with their set denoted as I . The set of non-terminal vertices referred to as *nodes* is denoted as Λ . The definition follows $I \cap \Lambda = \emptyset$. An edge connecting a child v_i and a parent vertex v_j is called a *signal*. With $i < j$ the notation of a signal is given as (v_i, v_j) . The set of all signals is denoted as Σ . If an edge is dangling, so it doesn't point to another vertex, it is called *primary output* (PO) and their set is denoted as O . Therefore also $\Sigma \cap O = \emptyset$ holds true. From the definition of a logic network, we can now describe it as acyclic directed graph $N = (\Lambda, I, \Sigma, O)$.

As already mentioned in subsection 2.1.1, a universal set of two Boolean functions can form any Boolean algebra. As long as this universality is contained the set of node functions in a logic network can be extended arbitrarily. Common logic networks containing only two network functions are e.g. *AND-Inverter Graphs* (AIGs) allowing only conjunction and negation. Another widely used binary logic network is the *Majority-Inverter Graphs* (MIGs) utilizing the ternary majority function and negation.

But there also exists a wide range of logic networks that permit more than just two-node functions. One widely used example is the *XOR-AND-Inverter Graph* (XAG) with the parity function, conjunction, and negation functions, respectively.

As part of the logic synthesis, a suitable logic network representation of the combinational circuit has to be determined. Because, even though these logic networks can implement any Boolean function given in a specification, not every logic network can be synthesized into any given technology. Looking at the current standard technology *complementary metal-oxide semiconductor* (CMOS), the logic network is then synthesized by using building blocks consisting of *metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistors* (MOSFETs), the elemental unit in this technology.

One drawback, that sticks to this definition of logic networks and holds also true for the aforementioned representations is that they are all *non-canonical*, which means that a given function can be represented by different logic networks. This property can be explained by the fact that nodes with the identity function are allowed, which can be inserted everywhere in the logic network, while the function representation of the logic network stays the same. Even the exclusion of such identity nodes has no impact, since simple node combinations, like two negation nodes, collapse to the identity function. Following this argumentation, there exists an infinite number of logic networks representing one Boolean Function, resulting in the widely accepted assumption, that the determination of an optimal logic network is a \mathcal{NP} -complete problem [39]. Attempts to create canonical logic networks, seem to evade this problem, but include $\text{co}\mathcal{NP}$ -complete problems in itself [5]. Algorithms used for logic synthesis are therefore based on approximate solutions .

2.2 QCA Technology

Following the well-known Moore's law, CMOS technology is facing a multitude of challenges. Well-known are e.g. the short channel effect, impurity variations, and most importantly the heat, resulting from static and dynamic power losses. To tackle these challenges the International Roadmap for Devices and Systems (IRDS), former ITRS, provides a platform proposing solutions within the semiconductor domain, e.g. new materials and multi-core architectures. But new technologies are also researched, including quantum computing and the domain of *Field-Coupled Nanocomputing* (FCN). This work focuses on one of the most promising FCN technologies, namely *Quantum-dot Cellular Automata* (QCA). The main difference of this technology compared to CMOS is the representation of logical modes, using the location of electron pairs in QCA-

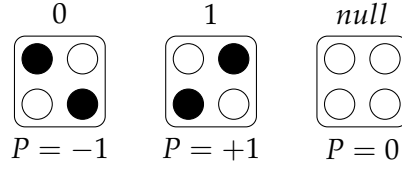


Figure 2.2: QCA-Cell states

cells, rather than voltage levels. Data between cells are transferred based on Coulomb repulsion, utilizing electromagnetic fields. This enables the technology to achieve high performance in terms of device density, clock frequency, and power consumption [24].

2.2.1 Cells

As already mentioned, the elemental unit of this technology is a QCA cell. Since there is no uniform way of building the quantum dots and connecting them to cells, we look at a rather lower-level abstraction depicted in figure 2.2. The four circles in the corners of the QCA-cells show quantum-dots, that can be implemented by any charge container with discrete electrical energy states. Further, a cell contains two excess electrons, which can be localized by the quantum dots. The energy barriers or the quantum dots are able to trap the charge of the electron. If an electron is trapped inside a quantum-dot it is filled black. Due to Coulomb repulsion, electrons occupy diagonally opposed quantum dots, resulting in two possible stable cell configurations and one unstable cell configuration [28, 20, 21].

A stable state indicates that it is well distinguishable from the usual energy band. Therefore, the energy difference between two consecutive energy states must be well above the thermal noise energy ($k_B T$). Only such states are suited for information transfer. The stable states can be derived from cell polarization, which can be $+1$ and -1 or *null* in the unexcited state. The two stable states contain the same electrostatic energy and are used to encode the binary values 0 and 1 [28].

In order to transfer information, cells are placed side by side, causing the polarization of the driver cell, which is the cell on the left in which the information is entered, to change the polarization of the adjacent cell. When the adjacent cell is polarized, it can give its state to the next cell and so on [20]. This simple structure is representing a wire in QCA-technology and its function is depicted in Figure 2.3.

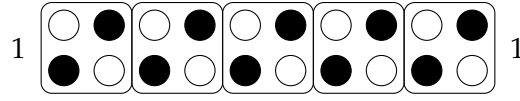


Figure 2.3: Adjacent QCA-cells forming a wire segment

2.2.2 Clocking

As already mentioned, the transfer of data in the QCA paradigm is accomplished by cell-to-cell interaction. Given a fixed polarization of a cell, the next cell reacts to the Coulomb repulsion and changes its polarization accordingly. Looking at the wire segment in figure 2.3, the leftmost cell has a fixed polarization and is called the input. After some time the information propagates through to the rightmost cell, representing the output of the simplified QCA-circuit. The depicted state of the cell, where all neighboring cells have the same polarization, is called the ground state. Since the logic is deterministic, there exists exactly one ground-state configuration of cell polarization for one choice of inputs. When in ground state, the circuit has minimum state energy.

Given a circuit in ground state, when the input of the system is changed, the system energy rises as depicted in figure 2.5. It results from the so called *kink*-energy, which describes the energy difference between two QCA-cells with opposing polarization. Since the polarization of the cells changes one cell after the other, also the *kink* moves along the cells. After time τ , the system dissipates again into the ground state, with newly computed outputs. While the kink energy stays the same with an increasing number of cells, the degeneracy of the excited states rises. This again means, that the system can be illegally in an excited state at non-zero temperature [21].

The described process is called abrupt switching with dissipative coupling to the environment and can be summarized in the following three steps [21]:

1. Write the input bit by fixing the polarization state of cells along the input edge.
2. Allow the array to relax to its ground state while the new inputs are kept fixed.
3. Noninvasively read the results of the computation by sensing the polarization state of cells.

In the second step, highly complex dissipation mechanisms like phonon and plasmon emission take place, making it nearly impossible to get a complete theoretical description of the system. The dissipation time τ is therefore determined via experiments. The first and third step require an environment, which provides the features for fixing inputs and sensing the output polarization. Such a system has to be integrated with

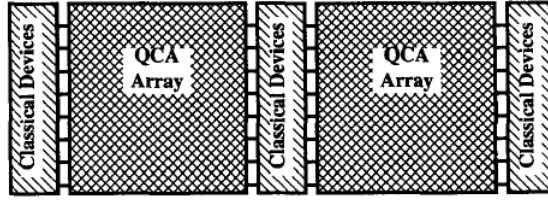


Figure 2.4: Schematic of a combined QCA and CMOS sytem [21].

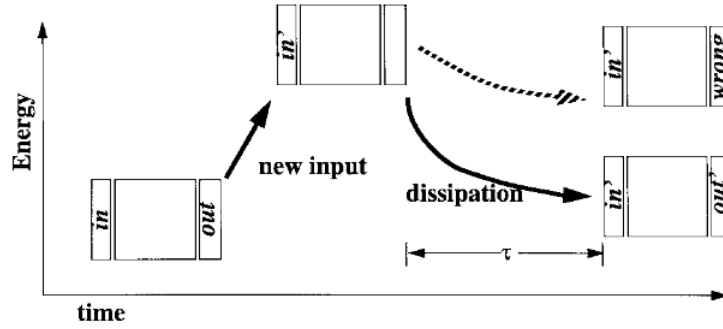


Figure 2.5: Schematic representation of a metastable state. Instead of relaxing correctly to the new ground state, a system may be delayed in an excited state due to an inability to tunnel through a kinetic barrier [20].

classical CMOS devices as seen in Figure 2.4.

In order to implement a full QCA system without CMOS components, the QCA-Array has to be divided into smaller decoupled subregions. Therefore, an adiabatic switching or rather a clocking is introduced. The clocked regions are referred to as clocking zones. The clocking utilizes an external signal, the clock, to activate and deactivate said clocking zones. The approach first used decreases the interdot barriers of all cells in a clocking zone, when applying a new input. When all cells in the region are stable, the barriers are raised again, while the barriers of the subsequent clocking zone are lowered simultaneously. This way the ground state gradually propagates through the whole circuit [20]. Today's used approaches create electrical fields with an external clock generator and distribute it to the cells through the device substrate using embedded electrodes. Thereby the energy level of the *null* state can be controlled, resulting in a equivalent effect as in the former approach [39].

A wire, divided in such clocking zones is shown in 2.3. The colors of the zones

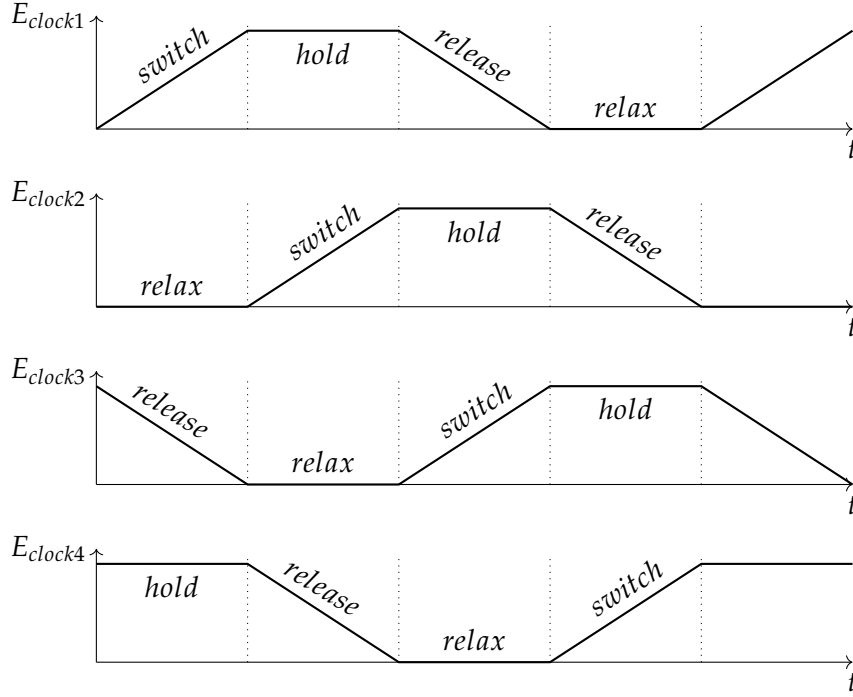


Figure 2.6: QCA clocking pipeline

and cells, as well as the zone number, show redundant information about the type of clocking zone. They differ in the external applied electrical field and therefore the energy of the cells. In QCA the clocking is divided into the four consecutive states, *switch*, *hold*, *release* and *relax*. They are aligned in a pipeline-like structure, where each of these states is phase shifted by $\pi/2$, forming a 2π clock cycle. In the switch phase, cells start to get polarized, dependent on the polarization of the driving cell. When the cells are polarized they get fixed in the hold-phase. Afterwards in the release-phase the excitation gradually decreases, resulting in the unexcited relax-state [28]. The scheme of such a pipeline as clocking is depicted exemplarily on a wire segment in Figure 2.6.

The described clocking is named *Landauer clocking*. The inventor Rolf Landauer himself pointed out the vast power dissipation of this clocking mechanism. This impairing property is already well known from the CMOS technology, resulting in several drawbacks including extreme cases of switched off chip areas referred to as dark silicon. One common approach in CMOS is the lowering of circuit frequency utilizing e.g. multi-chip architectures. To tackle this problem in the QCA domain, Landauer pointed out that the *erase* function has to be eliminated from the clocking. This function is logically irreversible and describes the erasing of information in a

clock zone, when passed to the next. He argues that every erased bit dissipates at least $k_B T \ln(2)$ in heat dissipation. Exemplary if a QCA-cell has size $1nm \times 1nm$ and operating frequency of $100GHz$, the corresponding density of devices results to $10^{14} cm^{-2}$. Further a dissipation of $0.1eV$ per electron every clock cycle is assumed, resulting in a total power dissipation of $160 kW cm^{-2}$. This directly yields to the statement, that a device operating with this clocking would be inoperable (it would evaporate due to the heat) [19]. The *Bennet clocking* tackles exactly this problem by altering the timing of the clocking signals. Just as in the Landauer clocking, the clocking wave moves from left to right, but leaving no trailing edge, when information is passed. Instead, the cells will be held in the excited state until the information propagates through the whole QCA-array. When the output was read, the excitation is released in reverse order resulting in no erase functions. This means, that this *quasi-adiabatic* clocking leads to a minimal power dissipation but with two constraints. The effective clock rate is at least halved due to the additional backwards propagation and since only one signal vector can be transmitted through the system, the pipeline capabilities are reduced [19].

In order to apply Bennet clocking, it was already stated that the QCA-array has to be divided into clock zones. Allowing an arbitrary number of cells in one clock zone gives lots of freedom in designing clock zones with variable geometries. This clocking is referred to as *cell-based* and increases the fabrication process due to its variety in clock zone geometries. Assuming the necessity of an uniform fabrication in order to fabricate circuits with millions of cells, this clocking gets infeasible for large circuits. The scheme also supports single cell clocking, which means that electrodes of the same size must be fabricated. Since this is also not feasible, this design is obsolete. To achieve uniform clocking zones with a possible distribution of clocking signals, the *tile-based* clocking is introduced. The approach of this design is to provide uniform square tiles of size 3×3 or 5×5 . For clocking tiles larger than this, information propagation was suggested to be erroneous, also following an argument against cell-based clocking [34].

The tile-based clocking leads to several proposals of clocking-schemes, which give a certain distribution of clock zones. Since they follow an uniform pattern they can be extended easily for every size of the circuit. In 2.7 three clocking schemes are shown, each of them based on a different idea. Since information is only allowed in ascending clock order (except 4 to 1), the 2DDWave clocking scheme in figure 2.7(a) only allows information to propagate in two directions, south and north [38]. This simplicity allows no back propagation, prohibiting the placement of sequential circuits. Also, it restricts gates in the scheme to have a maximum input size of two. The USE scheme 2.7(b) tackles the first problem by introducing clocking loops into the scheme, giving the possibility to place sequential circuits [7]. To tackle the second problem, the RES scheme 2.7(c) gives the opportunity to place gates of input size three. Since one tile is restricted to four adjacent cells, of which one has to output the information of

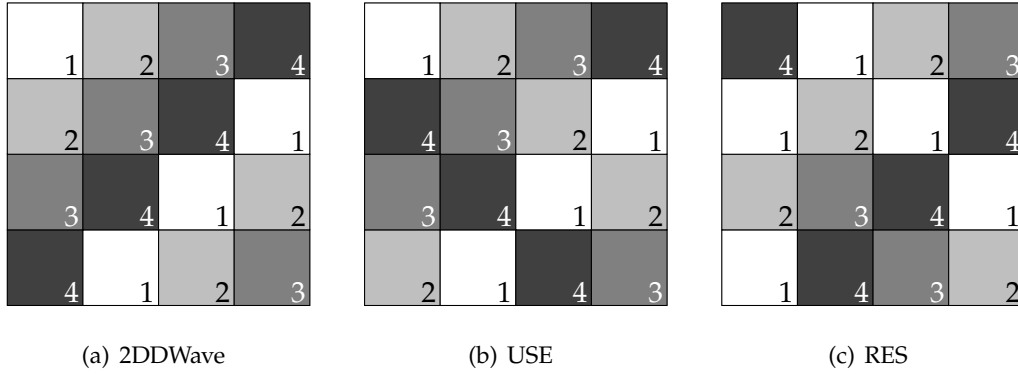


Figure 2.7: Different clocking Schemes in QCA

the cell, this gives the maximum input size allowed. This is especially important for the placement of majority gates [13]. In QCA-technology, they can be represented by only one tile, making it to a huge advantage over CMOS technology. This is further evaluated in the next subsection on gates.

2.2.3 Gates

In this chapter, a library of gates is introduced which is later used in the placement and routing algorithms. Some of these gates are inherited from the QCA ONE library [26], which is used as a basis for some works on placement and routing CITE. The QCA ONE library proposes gates formed by one tile as well as gates formed by multiple tiles. A major drawback of this library is the prerequisite of a clocking scheme (USE) in order to form multiple tile gates. This restricts the underlying placement and routing algorithm in the clocking domain. Also manual changes of the standard cells clock zones, size or positioning is not allowed [26], imposing the designer with even more restrictions. For this work, the standard cell library should contain only gates that occupy one tile. Every other logic function is composed out of these standard cells. The tiles used are of the dimension 5×5 , which means that all standard gates are reduced to this area.

The first gate in the library is the inverter or NOT gate. The simplest implementation is shown in figure 2.8(a). It consists of two wire segments which are shifted by exactly one cell height, so that the polarization is transferred diagonally resulting in an inversion of the input [28]. In order to get a more robust gate regarding disturbance, the C-shaped inverter shown in figure 2.8(b) is introduced. This gate is used as standard in many libraries and works CITE but it still has to be mentioned that this implementation is

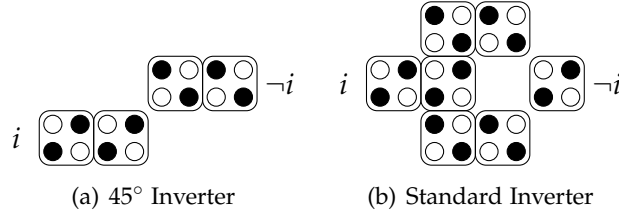


Figure 2.8: Different QCA Inverter representations

really prone to complex single-electron faults [23] and even common displacement faults [31], suggesting the addition of an inverter leg resulting in a gate structure of E-shaped. Nevertheless the C-shaped inverter gate is part of the QCA ONE library and is also selected as standard cell for this work.

The next gate, which has to be investigated, is the majority gate, being the most important gate in QCA technology. Definition 2.1.9 suggests that the implementation of this function in CMOS technology requires multiple AND and OR gates to be placed and routed. In QCA technology on the other hand a majority function can be represented by exactly one gate, making it one of the major advantages over CMOS technology. There are two main implementations of the majority gate. The rotated majority gate in figure 2.9(a), which is used in QCA ONE, and the +-majority gate 2.9(b). Both of these implementations have their advantages and drawbacks. On the one hand, the rotated majority gate exhibits a sufficiently high degree of fault tolerance against cell displacement or misalignment but has a very poor degree of fault tolerance against single cell omission or extra cell deposition [18]. On the other hand, the +-majority gate is very prone to cell displacement, but it is also used as a building block for the AND and OR gates in most work. This means that the fabrication process for all these gates is very similar and since this work is more aimed to enhance the production of QCA circuits, the +-majority gate is chosen as standard gate for this work.

Following Definition 2.1.9 the AND gate can be derived by fixing one input of the majority gate to logic 0, while the OR gate is obtained by fixing one input to logic 1. The resulting gates, which are also part of the standard gate library of this work are shown in figure 2.9(c).

Another major topic regarding gates are wires. Until now only straight planar wires have been introduced. In order to distribute information on the 2D grid, provided by the tile-based layout, also bent wires have to be introduced. They are depicted in Figure 2.11(f) and show a 90-degree bend. Given that all tiles can be rotated by 90° , 180° and 270° respectively, a tile connected to a bent wire can be routed to each adjacent tile of

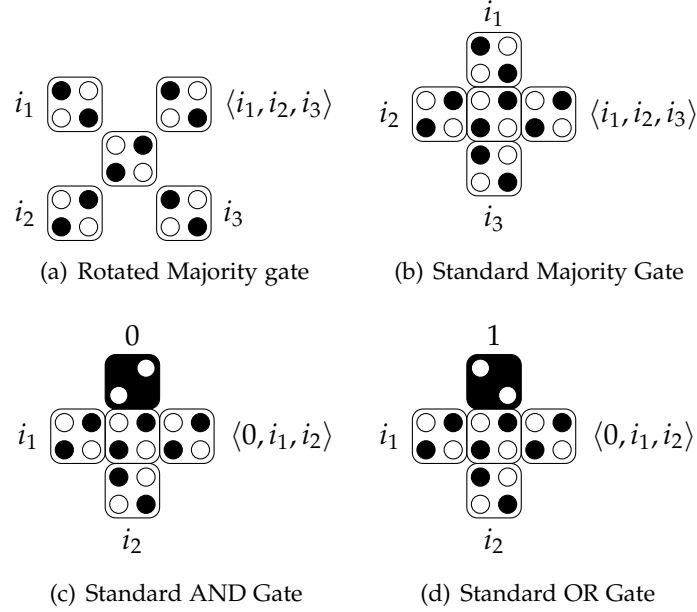


Figure 2.9: The QCA Majority gate

a bent wire. Also, since all gates introduced so far have a fan-out of one we need a fan-out node to multiply signals. This is done by adding a bent wire to a straight wire resulting in the fan-out shown in Figure 2.11(g).

The last special case of wires is the crossing case. By rotating the cells of one wire string by 45° the rotated cells do not have crosstalk with nonrotated cells [31] as shown in figure 2.10(a). This solution is very handy because it supports the planar structure of the circuit and is therefore called *coplanar crossover*. Further the possibility of multi-layer QCA has been investigated and found especially useful in the case of wire crossings. To use this, one wire string is raised to an additional higher layer, which is connected with a vertical interconnect as in figure 2.10(b). The signal transmission in the vertical stacked cells works just as in the horizontal direction. To impede any crosstalk between the wire strings, two intermediate layers of cells are used in vertical direction. Theoretically the added layer cannot only be used as wire but since the signal distribution works just as in the ground layer also gates can be placed in these multi-layers. Simulations have shown that coplanar crossovers significantly reduce the coupling between the horizontal string segments. This makes the horizontal interconnect very sensitive to crosstalk and therefore highly prone to cell displacements. Multilayer circuits, on the other hand, show high robustness and therefore are used as standard in this library. In the gate 5×5 representation of the multilayer interconnect, the raised wire string is

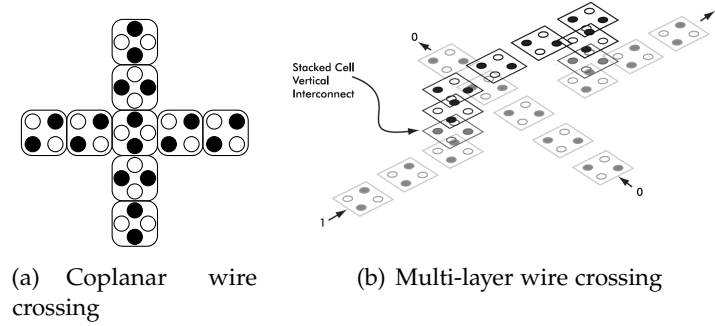


Figure 2.10: Different wire QCA wire crossing implementations

described with a \times , while the vertical layers are described with a circle. In Figure 2.11 all gates used in this work are summarized.

Latches and Flip-Flops

Looking at a sequential circuit, it is the marriage of a combinational logic part and registers. When treating the combinational logic as black-box, the outputs of it are storing the newly computed information into the registers and in the next cycle this information can be reused by connecting the registers again to the inputs of the combinational logic. This introduces a back-loop property, describing a signal propagating through combinational logic before being stored and stabilized by a register and being reused again. This back-looping represents the key property of sequential circuits. Assuming that combinational logic can be implemented in QCA, registers or rather storage elements in general leave to be discussed. As already mentioned their task is to stabilize and store information which is then looped back via wires. To get a better understanding of how they can be implemented in QCA, first their main characteristics have to be derived from the well-known CMOS technology. Due to the already shown basic differences in signal propagation and clocking between the two technology domains, it will become clear that the implementation of latches and registers also has to be rethought from scratch.

The simplest storage element in CMOS, which can store one bit, is the so-called Eccles-Jordan flip-flop (FF). It is formed by connecting the output of one inverter to the input of another inverter and vice versa. Therefore the logic level is propagated from one inverter stage to the other, while the same value is held in it. Due to its simplicity, a high voltage shift is needed in order to change its stored value, making the FF really sluggish.

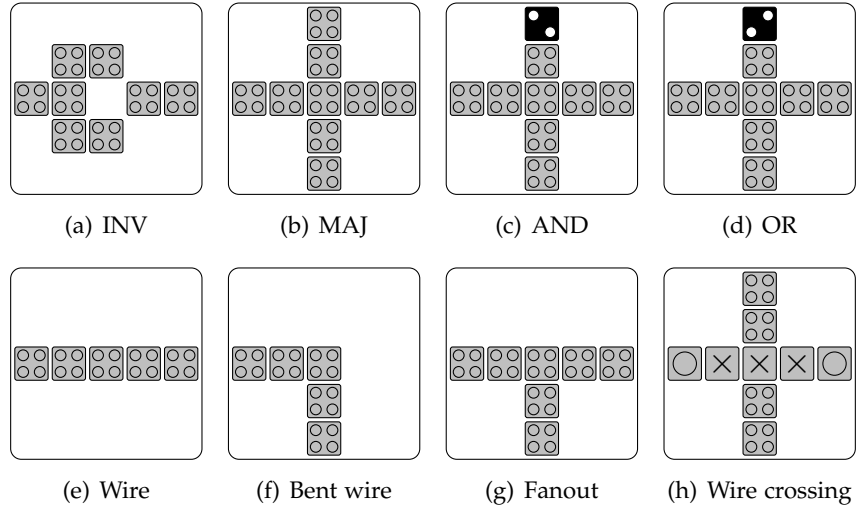


Figure 2.11: QCA Standard Library

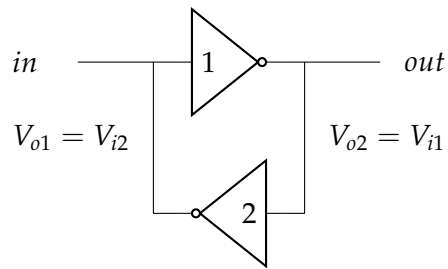


Figure 2.12: Eccles-Jordan-Flip-Flop

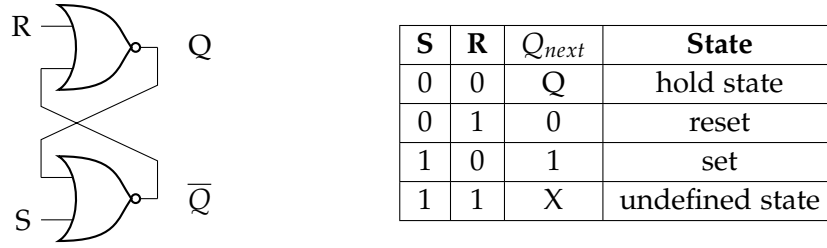


Figure 2.13: SR-Latch

Also the direct connection of the input and output makes their voltage levels highly dependent on each other, which can be interpreted as noisy behavior, also referred to as transparency [15]. To avoid errors caused by the transparent behavior in the transition region, the input voltage needs to be really stable. In order to receive more robust storage elements, more sophisticated ideas were implemented while preserving the general idea introduced by the EJ-FF.

By replacing the inverters in a EJ-FF with NOR gates, the transparency gets reduced and two inputs a set S and a reset R are introduced leading to four possible input combinations and clear states. When both $S = 0$ and $R = 0$, the current value is latched and the storage element is in the hold state. By holding $R = 0$ and changing $S = 1$, the latch output is forced to $Q = 1$, called the set state. Reversing both inputs to $R = 1$ and $S = 0$ leads to the reset state where the latch output is $Q = 0$. Furthermore, with $S, R = 1$, the latch value is unstable, and therefore we get an undefined state, prohibiting this input combination. Based on its behavior, this element is called *Set-Reset-Latch* (SR-Latch).

Because in QCA we only discuss synchronous logic, we also need to make this latch synchronous by clocking the Set and Reset inputs resulting in a gated SR-Latch. To eliminate the undefined state, the set and inverted reset inputs are connected together, forming the D-Latch. Now a value is held when the clock $clk = 0$ and the D lock propagates the input value D when $clk = 1$. To give a memory element the ability to clock Boolean operations from one stage to another, *edge triggered* flip flops are introduced. Rising clock edges determine when the FF overwrites and passes its data. An edge-triggered D-FF can be constructed by connecting two D-latch stages behind each other. The master slave is activated at rising edges, while the slave stage is activated at falling clock edges. In this way, the D-FF takes new data at a rising edge and passes them in the next clock cycle from its output. Also, the master-slave principle eliminates the transparency. Regarding the term edge-sensitive for D-FFs, latches are considered to be level-sensitive [15].

The goal of a storage element in QCA is to have all the properties of a D-FF, so it can

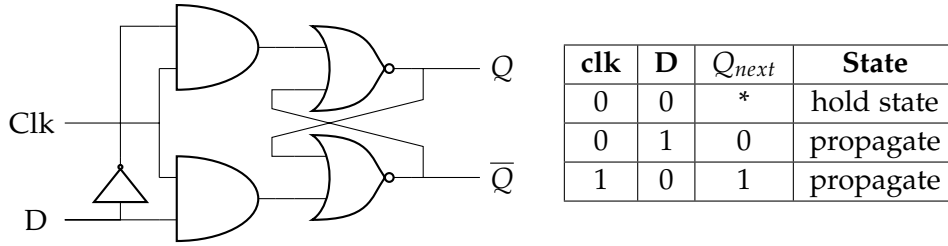


Figure 2.14: D-Latch

store data from one clock cycle and pass it to the combinational logic in the next clock cycle. Also the element should not be transparent and the effect of an edge triggered element has to be discussed. In the QCA ONE library an effort was made to translate the D-FF into QCA by just replacing the CMOS gates and wires with the corresponding QCA gates. Thus a second external *clk* signal is introduced, mimicking the clock of a CMOS circuit. But since the QCA circuit already has its own clock with a dependency on all gates of the circuit and the clocking has some major differences from QCA to CMOS, as already observed in 2.2.2, this implementation is questionable.

This leads us to ideas to look at QCA storage elements dependent on their corresponding clocking. The effort of rethinking storage elements in QCA from scratch was already made in [39]. The proposed solution to create a QCA element which is able to store one bit is rather simple. Since every tile is clocked on its own, a simple latch can be formed by a wire segment held in the hold phase of the clocking. In Figure 2.15 the clocking of this wire segment is depicted. The data is propagating into the latch and by holding the hold phase by exactly one clock cycle the data is passed to the next logic block exactly one clock cycle later. Also the question arises if this element is a level-sensitive latch or if it is a edge-sensitive FF. For the latch we could argue that the information is clearly not sampled at one time point like in an ideal FF, but rather the information is taken into the latch during the whole switch phase. On the other hand one could argue that the switch phase could be seen like a real-time rising clock edge, where the data is sampled and then held while the clock is in hold phase or "1". For this work, the comparison to a FF seems to be more suited because also no transparency is allowed due to the strictly independent clocked tiles in QCA. The only functionality the wire-FF misses is a set-reset option. The idea for this was also proposed in [39] by exchanging the wire with a majority gate but the same clocking. Now the D-FF basically has the same functionality but has two external inputs which can force the gate to zero by setting both inputs to zero or force the gate to one by setting both inputs to one. In the other configurations, the majority-FF would act as normal storage element.

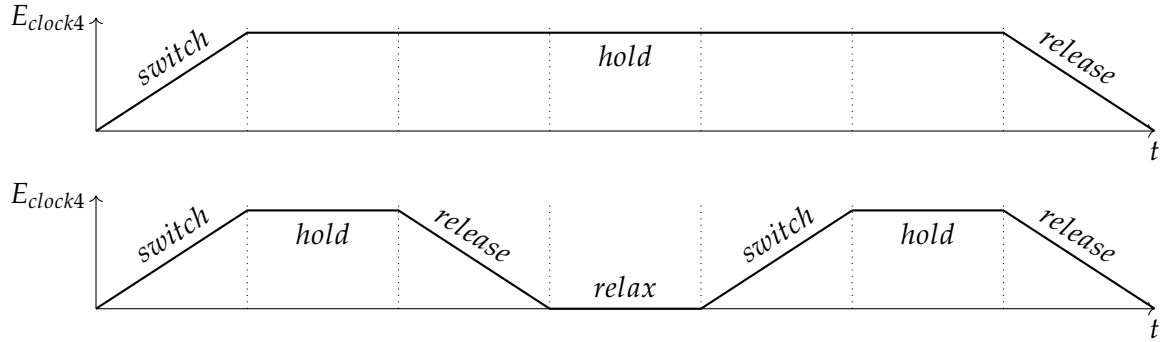


Figure 2.15: Clocking of a basic latch in QCA

Further the idea of an FF wire should be discussed in the domain of placement and routing and not only as a single element. First of all it can be examined that the proposed FF implementation requires more complex clock generators for every latch, and it is not sure if this is possible to implement. Also if we look back at the analogy of CMOS have now a combinational logic block and our storage element formed by a wire FF. But there is still a big difference. While in CMOS the information can just be arbitrarily wired back from the storage to the inputs of the combinational logic, in QCA the wiring back implies the placement of wire segments of which each is delaying the information by one clocking zone already. When looking back to the functionality of a storage element, it can be found that this delay is exactly the purpose of a clocking element. The idea proposed in this work is now to use the delay, which occurs naturally due to sequential wiring to mimic storage elements. Figure 2.16 shows a schematic of a sequential circuit with combinational logic and the wiring that results from the need for a back loop. At the output of the combinational logic there are the normal primary outputs and also register inputs. The register inputs are then wired to the corresponding register outputs, which are treated as the primary input of the next cycle of the circuit. Because the information needs additional clock cycles to pass through the register, the throughput of the logic is slowed. But since the loop has to be closed, this slow-down cannot be prevented in QCA following this approach.

2.3 P&R problem

As seen in the last sections of this chapter, placement and routing are strongly related to the clocking inside the QCA domain. In this section, the denotation and constraints of placement and routing in the QCA domain are introduced. The P&R problem evolves

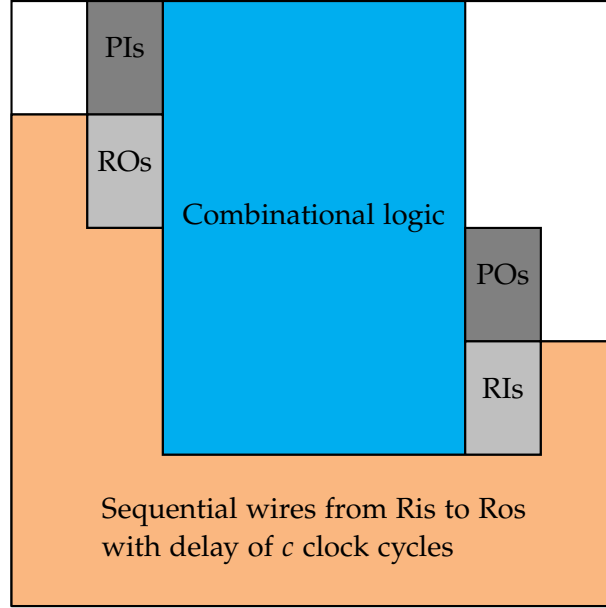


Figure 2.16: Scheme of a sequential circuit layout after placement and routing

from a grid enabling tile-based design in conjunction with a logic network.

Definition 2.3.1. A *layout* is defined by a $w \times h$ grid $\Gamma_{w,h}$ and a graph $G(V, E)$, which is placed on the grid. Each *tile* of the layout can be accessed via its x and y coordinates. The set of tiles is denoted as T with $t = (x, y) \in T$. For any vertex of the graph, $v(x, y)$ is restricted to the boundaries $x < w$ and $y < h$. For edges $\{(x, y), (x^*, y^*)\}$ it holds $|x - x^*| + |y - y^*| = 1, 0 \leq x, x^* \leq w, 0 \leq y, y^* \leq h$.

Definition 2.3.2. A *gate-level* layout describes a layout grid in combination with a logic network $N = (\Lambda, I, \Sigma, O)$. In addition to the already known mapping *placement* p , which assigns nodes to tiles, there are two additional mappings. The *routing* r , which assigns logic network signals to layout paths (connected tiles) and a *clocking* c assigning clock numbers to tiles. The gate-level layout is therefore described as $L = (\Gamma, N, p, r, c)$. Further, nodes placed on the gate-layout are referred to as *gates*. Two tiles $t_i = (x_i, y_i)$ and $t_j = (x_j, y_j)$ where $|x_i - x_j| + |y_i - y_j| = 1$ are called *adjacent*. A path which is wired through adjacent tiles is called *wire*. In this context, one tile corresponds to a *wire segment*. If neither a gate nor a wire segment is placed on a tile, it is empty. It follows that a layout with only empty tiles is also empty. A layout is said to be S-clocked if it follows a clocking scheme S . Otherwise, it is irregularly clocked. Moreover an adjacent tile of a tile $t \in T$, where T is the set of all tiles, is incoming t^- if $c(t) - c(t^-) \bmod clk = 1$. This means that the incoming tile can forward information to the viewed tile according to

pipelined clocking. For outgoing tiles t^+ it holds $c(t^+) - c(t) \bmod clk = 1$ accordingly. For QCA it was already stated that the clock number $clk = 4$.

From this definition we can outline the difficulty of placing and routing a logic network onto a two-dimensional grid, with exception of wire crossings, which however are really costly and therefore should be minimized. One major challenge for P&R algorithms is the signal synchronization, which results in a strong dependency of clocking and signal distribution. As already pointed out, for every signal path it has to hold true that information can only propagate from a tile with clocking number i to an outgoing tile with clocking number $(i + 1 \bmod clk)$. This property is called the *local synchronization constraint*. The existence of possible signal paths can be assured by using predefined clocking schemes, but, however, can comprise some constraints. In addition, *global synchronization constraint* states that every two signal paths leading to the same tile need to pass the same amount of tiles starting at their primary input. Since this constraint has to hold true for every gate, the complexity increases rapidly with growing network sizes. Therefore, the combination of all these challenges forms a P&R problem, which is commonly accepted as \mathcal{NP} -complete [40].

After reaching a gate-level layout still a technology has to be mapped onto it. For this work the in subsection 2.2.3 proposed standard library is used for the mapping. Although the definitions in this work are quite generic because they are based on the book [39], defining the P&R problem for the domain of field-coupled nanotechnologies. This means that, for example, a change of clock to $clk = 3$ also allows a placement and routing for *Nanomagnet Logic* (NML). Even though the algorithm in this work is designed only for QCA, the ideas may also be derived for other FCN technologies.

3 State of the Art

In this chapter various approaches trying to solve the placement and routing problem for QCA are reviewed. In the first part algorithms, which are able to work only with combinational circuits are investigated under the theoretical groundwork done in chapter 2. First the use of both algorithms determining *optimal* and those who determine *scalable* solutions are explained. In the second part ideas and challenges of sequential placement and routing algorithms are investigated.

3.1 Combinational P&R Algorithms

In order to understand optimal solutions for placement and routing, it has to be reviewed from section 2.3 that this problem is \mathcal{NP} -hard. Here the complexity class \mathcal{NP} (nondeterministic polynomial time) describes a set of decision problems, where problem instances with a formula, that can be evaluated to true, have a proof, that can be verified in polynomial time by a deterministic Turing machine. The existence of these problems lead to several ideas on solving them, one of these being *Satisfiability Modulo Theories* (SMT). The *satisfiability problem* can be formulated as the question if there exists a model evaluating the first-order formula over some theories to true. The consequent solving instance for propositional logic is a *Boolean Satisfiability Solver* (SAT), with its proposition being Boolean equations, that have to be proven true. With this basic instance two different solving strategies were proposed. The first strategy is called *Eager SMT-solving* and is used for uninterpreted functions or bit-vectors, which can be derived to propositional logic. Therefore the first step implies the transformation of theory constraints into *equisatisfiable* propositional logic. These problem instances are then passed to SAT solvers, checking for satisfiability. Due to the *equisatisfiability* of the problems, a solution for the original problem can be derived from the solution of the propositional logic. The second approach called *lazy SMT-solving* refers to the assisting use of *theory solvers* and its process is depicted in figure 3.1. In the first step the first-order problem with formula φ is transformed to a *Boolean abstraction* φ' mapping the concrete problem to an abstract problem under a set of finite Boolean predicates [2]. The abstraction is then passed to the SAT-solver, which again computes solutions and gives them to a set of theory solvers. They in turn check if the Boolean predicates hold true or rather if they are consistent in the provided solution. If so, the abstraction

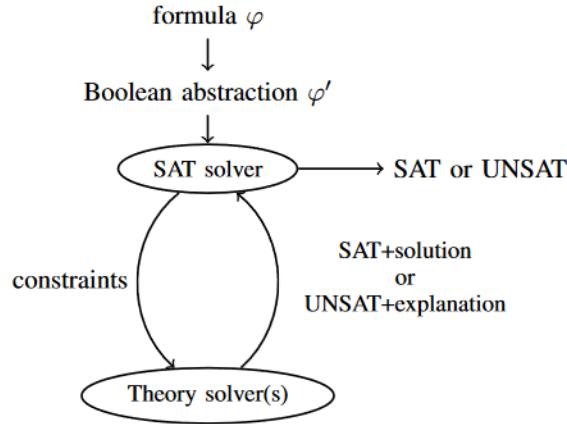


Figure 3.1: Lazy SMT-solving process [1]

is satisfiable and the theory solver instance returns SAT. Otherwise UNSAT with an explanation is passed back to the SAT-solver aiding the improvement of the abstraction. If the abstraction is finally found to be unsatisfied the problem is said to be unsatisfiable [1].

With this knowledge optimal placement and routing algorithms can be discussed by reviewing two approaches proposed in [39]. The first algorithm "Exact Placement and Routing" finds a valid placement, routing and clocking, also described as tuple (p, r, c) , given an empty layout L and a logic network N . In order to find an optimal solution, the minimum layout size $w \times h$ has to be determined for which the constraints of (p, c, r) hold true. Therefore all possible sizes of layouts are encoded and passed to a SAT-solver iteratively and the first layout for which the solver returns true is the minimum or rather the optimal solution. The experimental results show that the determined layouts of the algorithm are many times smaller than the compared state of the art CITE. But due to the complexity of the algorithm utilizing satisfiability solvers, the algorithm times out for quite small circuits already, making it insufficient for the manufacturing of commercial QCA circuits.

The other exact P&R algorithm proposed in [39] creates a *one-pass synthesis*, which combines logic synthesis and physical design in a single run with the idea to adapt the whole design-process to the needs of the QCA design rules. Therefore this algorithm has to tackle two \mathcal{NP} -hard problems relying again on the power of satisfiability solvers. This particular algorithm uses eager SMT-solving. The idea is to eliminate some shortcomings of the two-step synthesis derived from CMOS. This includes treating wires as gates since the costs are equal in QCA and including data synchronization, which is dependent on the tiles passed. In this manner a SAT problem can be formed and

passed to a SAT-solver. The instances are now created only passing a empty layout L of size $w \times h$. Even though this algorithm is able to find *truly minimal* solution since the non-optimal logic networks are eliminated, the experimental results show the same problems as in the exact P&R approach. This means that the high complexity of the satisfiability solver leads to a time-out of the algorithms for circuits with a gate size $|N| \geq 30$.

These shortcomings lead to the usage of *scalable* placement and routing algorithms. This approach trades optimality of the circuit for computing time, yielding larger, more expensive layouts, but in short time. This makes them scalable in the time domain and therefore applicable for the manufacturing of commercial QCA circuits. All algorithms reviewed in the following are based on the original VLIS process, meaning they treat logic synthesis and physical design as their own problem and not as one-pass synthesis. Starting at the logic synthesis, many works present a preprocessing of logic networks enabling them to be translated directly into gate level representations. There are several steps which are widely used to modify logic networks. The first of them is the node duplication or rather dummy node insertion. The idea of this process is to minimize wire-crossings, which we have analyzed to be very costly in QCA and reduce the number of fan-outs at the nodes, leading to a reduction of the place and rout complexity. One simple algorithm for this is to visit every node in a breadth-first search from each primary output to the primary inputs. If the current node hasn't been visited its marked as visited and if a already marked node is visited it is duplicated. This process is quite problematic, because not only the visited node is duplicated, but also all the nodes included in the sub tree rooted by it [35]. From this simple example we can already suggest that the insertion of dummy nodes can lead to uncontrollable growth of the logic network and also layout size. More dedicated algorithms don't have such a high overhead in dummy nodes but for that they can't eliminate all wire crossings, making it necessary to include nodes for crossings called *crossing edge insertions* [9]. Another preprocessing steps including the insertion of so called *buffer nodes* is aiming for the synchronization of signals in order to meet the global timing constraint. Since this constraint requires two paths leading to the same node to pass the same amount of tiles, a valid layout can be easily deduced from the logic network, if every path has the same amount of nodes. Also the insertion of buffers allows the generation of different partitions of a logic network [6]. Some approaches insert even a higher number of nodes in order to obtain a complete ternary logic network representation of a QCA circuit. This idea is based on the majority function representation of gates GRAPH. When extra nodes are included in the logic network, also extra area is produced and this in turn leads to an increase in wire lengths. Because these approaches are based on cell-based clocking, this implies that if the longest wire has to be split into more than one clock zone also the shortest wire has to be split into the same amount of clock

zones in order to preserve the signal synchronization for gates with two or three inputs [35]. Another big problem of these algorithms is the requirement of cell-based clocking itself, which we have already showed to be insufficient. Even though there also exist algorithms using tile-based clocking they are limited by the general drawbacks of pre-processing [37] leading to exploding logic networks and even use greedy placement and routing algorithms limiting the approach to small and simple reconvergent patterns [11].

All these reasons lead to the proposal of *ortho*, an algorithm implementing a scalable placement, routing and clocking without preprocessing steps proposed in [41]. Since this algorithm forms the base of this work, the algorithm is explained detailed in the following.

First of all, a proper representation of the logic network is needed. Therefore in some works already the idea of an orthogonal embedding, had been proposed [6]. Orthogonal embedding is the mapping of a logic network onto a two-dimensional grid, so it can be seen as an assignment of the tuple (p, r) . For *ortho* this is done by orthogonal graph drawing (OGD), which is described in [10].

Definition 3.1.1 (Orthogonal Graph Drawing). An OGD maps a graph $G = (V, E)$ onto a plane grid with size $w \times h$. The mapping assigns vertices $v \in V$ with coordinates (x, y) to grid points, with $1 \leq x < w$ and $1 \leq y < h$. Edges $e \in E$ are assigned to paths in the grid, so they consist only from horizontal and vertical segments. The paths are non-overlapping, meaning that they are not allowed to cross any vertices.

Figure 3.2 shows an example OGD. The dots in the graph represent vertices and are connected via straight line paths. Therefore the graph is drawn orthogonally.

Nonetheless an OGD only respects the placement and routing, leaving the clocking to be addressed. The problem of insufficient clocking in a valid OGD representation can be shown from the example in figure 3.3. For the given OGD in subfigure 3.3(b) there has to be no clocking which can resolve the timing constraints. In subfigure 3.3(c) it stands out that for the down right corner no clocking zone can be found so that either the local synchronization constraint but also the global synchronization constraint are satisfied. Since the clocking or rather signal synchronization was a main task of the preprocessing, which is not used here, some other solution has to be found.

The idea used for the *ortho* algorithm comes from an extension to OGDs, which allows to determine a special OGD from a logic network in polynomial time being the constraint needed for a scalable approach. The base used in [41] is formed by Therese Biedl [4], who proposes a OGD with an additional edge coloring. Although the effectiveness and complexity bounds in her work were proven on the restriction of *undirected 3-graphs* and as we already examined from the previous chapter a logic network is neither containing only nodes of most degree 3 nor undirected. To overcome

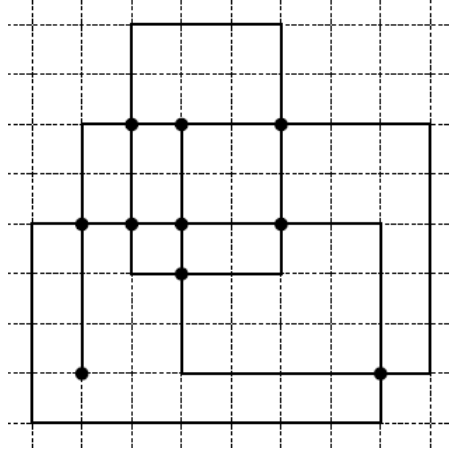


Figure 3.2: Example OGD drawing

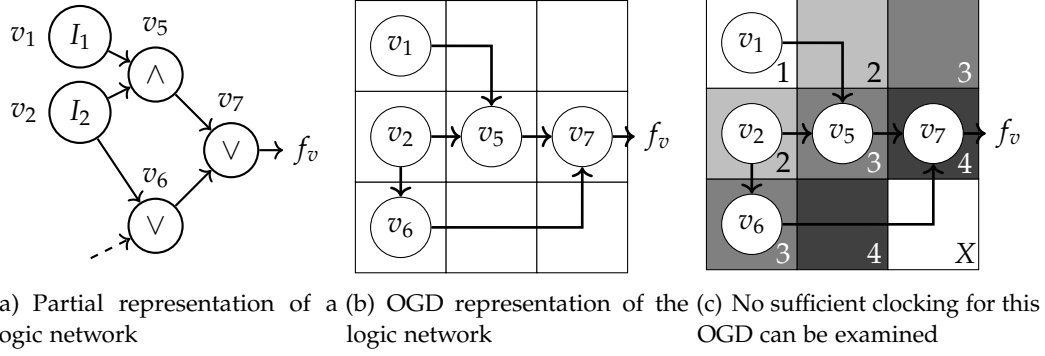


Figure 3.3: Insufficient timing constraints of a OGD representation [39]

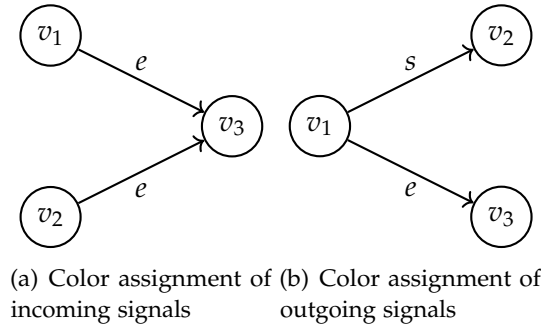


Figure 3.4: Relative positions of an OGD graph with correct color assignment

the first restriction, a custom logic network can be created by assigning own nodes for fanouts and inverters. This way the maximum node degree gets decreased to three, while the expressiveness of the logic network representation is maintained. The second restriction can be overcome by a custom coloring built on the original approach, which also serves as direction assignment. Given a logic network converted to a 3-graph, the coloring in form of edge directions $d : \Delta \rightarrow \{east, south\}$ is assigned. The coloring can be understood as relative position arrangement. If an edge (v_i, v_j) is colored *east*, means that the vertex v_j is positioned east of v_i , so that $x_j > x_i$. The color *south* for an edge (v_i, v_j) assigns v_j a relative position of v_i , so that v_j is south of v_i or $y_j > y_i$. In order to color a graph with only these two colors the following *assignment constraints* must hold true:

1. All **incoming** edge of a vertex has to be painted with the **same** color.
2. All **outgoing** edges of a vertex have to be painted with **opposite** colors.

The relative position assignment under the proposed constraints can be seen at an arbitrary example in figure 3.4. In the example for outgoing edges (figure 3.4(a)), the assignment constraint makes sure that two outgoing edges of the same vertex are routed in different directions to avoid a conflict. Equivalent to the definition of the colors, the layout is increased in x-direction for an east-coloring and analogously extended in the y-Direction for a south-coloring. Figure 3.4(b) depicts the assignment constraint for the incoming edges of one vertex. This assignment has to use one color and the node can be set non-conflicting for both incoming nodes in the layout by extending it in x-direction based on the east-coloring. However, there exist logic networks for which no coloring in regards to the constraints can be found. Figure !! shows such a coloring conflict. For the edge with a "X", no direction can be assigned for which the formulated constraints hold true. So an auxiliary node is introduced resolving the conflict. In order to allow data to

propagate, ortho needs to map a valid clocking onto the layout. Because ortho uses OGDs with exactly two directions *east* and *south*, the 2DDWave scheme, which also supports the data flow in exactly two directions, is perfectly suited for the algorithm. Also the usage of a predefined clocking scheme already gives a solution for the local synchronization constraint and due to the uniformity and simplicity of the 2DDWave scheme also the global synchronization constraint for nodes placed and routed after the proposed direction assignment is maintained.

In the following the pseudo code of ortho, derived from [41] is depicted as algorithm 1 and described in own words, before its evaluated on an example and its main characteristics are described. Following the VLSI design process the ortho algorithm has as input a Logic network N and a clocking scheme or rather a clock number clk for every tile in order to fulfill the timing constraints. As already mentioned N has to be converted into a 3-graph by substitution so a valid coloring can be assigned. Then an empty Layout L with a 2DD-Wave clocking scheme is created and the coloring is calculated for N . Also the nodes need to be topologically ordered starting with the lowest number at the inputs and the highest numbers at the outputs. Therefore the algorithm is starting with the lowest numbered vertices representing primary inputs. In order to connect the inputs to external signals they are placed at the borders of the layout. In ortho the first column of the layout is therefore reserved for placing the inputs under each other, but this leads to a conflict, when inputs are colored south, because the algorithm would then also wire their outgoing edges into y-direction and therefore over other primary inputs, which is forbidden in OGD and for QCA layouts. For this reason the primary inputs colored *south* need to be resolved by first rewiring them each on a new column before placing the nodes connected to their outgoing edges. For the placement and routing of all nodes in the logic network, the two parameters coloring and the updated parameter (w, h) , saving the current dimensions of L , need to be evaluated in each step. So if a node is colored *east*, the layout is extended by one column and the node is placed at $(w - 1, h_p)$, where w is the current width of L and h_p is the maximum vertical position of its childs. According to this scheme for nodes colored *south* the layout is extended by one row and the node is placed to $(w_p, h - 1)$, where w_p is the maximum horizontal position of the nodes childs and h is the current height of the layout. After placing the node, it is wired to its predecessors, while the placement into a new row or column makes sure the wiring doesn't pass over another gate. If only one predecessor exists the wiring also goes only *south* or *east*. But when two predecessors exist, in case of *east* the predecessor giving h_p is also only wired in x-Direction, while the other predecessor has to be wired with two wire segments, the first also going into x-Direction and the second one connecting in y-Direction. If the node is colored *south* the two segment wiring goes south first and then east. After all nodes were placed in this fashion the primary outputs are also connected to the bor-

ders either to the east or the south and the finished layout L is returned by the algorithm.

Algorithm 1 Ortho algorithm

Input: Logic network N
Input: Clock number clk
Output: Gate level layout L

- 1: Convert N to a 3-graph by substitution
- 2: $L \leftarrow$ empty 2DDWave-clocked layout of size $w = 0 \times (h = 0)$
- 3: Generate direction assignment $d : \Delta \rightarrow \{east, south\}$ and subdivide signals if necessary
- 4: Compute topological ordering $v_1, \dots, v_i \in N$
- 5: Extend L by one column and reserve it for primary inputs
- 6: **for all** vertex $v_1, \dots, v_i \in N$ with at most two incoming signals σ_1, σ_2 **do**
- 7: **if** vertex v is terminal/primary input **then**
- 8: Extend L by one row
- 9: Place v at position $(0, h - 1)$
- 10: **if** vertex v is colored *south* **then**
- 11: Extend L by one column
- 12: Wire the primary input to position $(w - 1, h - 1)$
- 13: **end if**
- 14: **else if** $d(\sigma_1) = d(\sigma_2) = east$ **then**
- 15: Extend L by one column
- 16: $h_p \leftarrow$ max. vertical position of v 's predecessors
- 17: Place v at position $(w - 1, h_p)$
- 18: **else if** signals are labeled *south* **then**
- 19: Extend L by one row
- 20: $w_p \leftarrow$ max. horizontal position of v 's predecessors
- 21: Place v at position $(w_p, h - 1)$
- 22: **end if**
- 23: Extend L by one column and one row
- 24: Wire the primary input to position $(w - 1, h - 1)$
- 25: **end for**
- 26: Draw orthogonal wire segments to connect v with its predecessor(s) accordingly
- 27: Connect the primary outputs to the respective borders **return** L

The example depicted in figure 3.5 shows the (p, r, c) of a 2:1 mux. Starting with a layout of size $1, 0$ the PI v_1 , the layout is extended by one column to $(1, 1)$ and is placed to $(0, h - 1) = (0, 0)$. Because the outgoing edge of the PI is labeled *south*, the wiring has to

be resolved by extending L to $(2, 1)$ and wiring the PI to $(w - 1, h - 1) = (1, 0)$. For the other PIs v_2, v_3 it follows the placement to $(0, 1)$ and $(0, 2)$ and an increase of one column per PI since they have both outgoing edges labeled south. The resolving wiring leads to $(2, 1)$ and $(3, 2)$. Now the remaining nodes can be placed following the *east, south* scheme. The size of the layout after the input network is $(4, 3)$. With v_4 a fanout node is placed south of the third input, which has coordinates $(3, 2)$. After extending L by one row, the y-coordinate is evaluated to be $w - 1 = 3$ and the x-coordinate 3 is adopted from its only predecessor. Therefore the node is placed on $(3, 3)$ and $L = (4, 4)$. In the same fashion the parent node of the fanout v_5 , representing an inverter is placed east of it. So the coordinates of the inverter are $(4, 3)$ and $L = (5, 4)$. Looking at the next node v_6 , which is the first node with two children and which is labeled south now the x-coordinate is determined by the eastern predecessor, so $v_5 = (4, 3)$. The y-coordinate is again adapted from the size of the layout, after it was increased in y-direction once, resulting in a placement on $(4, 4)$ and $L = (5, 5)$. The same way the AND-node $v_7 = (3, 5)$ ($L = (5, 6)$) and the OR-node $v_8 = (4, 6)$ ($L = (5, 7)$) are placed. Since all nodes are placed now the primary output has to be placed from v_8 . For this the layout is increased by one column again ($L = (6, 7)$) and the PO is placed to the eastern border.

From the returned layout we can see that the signal flow is straight forward in south-eastern direction due to the 2DD-Wave clocking scheme the algorithm is bound to and as already discussed in the section about clocking 2.2.2, this limits ortho in many ways. First of all due to the selection of the "+"-majority gate as standard gate, they cannot be placed on the 2DD-Wave scheme, because the clocking only allows two-input logic gates. Also back-loops are not allowed in the clocking, prohibiting the placement and routing of sequential circuits. Though, ortho provides an efficient tool for the placement and routing of purely combinational circuits. As shown in paper CITE, the 2DD-Wave scheme provides the most area efficient clocking when it comes to combinational circuits, beating both the USE and RES scheme.

With a deep understanding of the ortho algorithm with its constraints following some drawbacks and advantages, now other ideas with comparable approaches or based on the ortho algorithm can be discussed. *Ropper*, a placement and routing framework [12] proposes an algorithm, which is based on [37]. As already discussed in the part about preprocessing, this algorithm brings some disadvantages, because dummy nodes are inserted as part of logic synthesis, leading to an increased size of the logic network. In ortho this step is unnecessary. Nevertheless the authors of *Ropper* point out that they have overcome some restrictions of ortho, one of them being able to place majority gates and also a more area efficient placement and routing. But these improvements come at a price. First of all the framework only achieves the placement and routing of ortho not because of a clocking scheme providing three input tiles to a given tile,

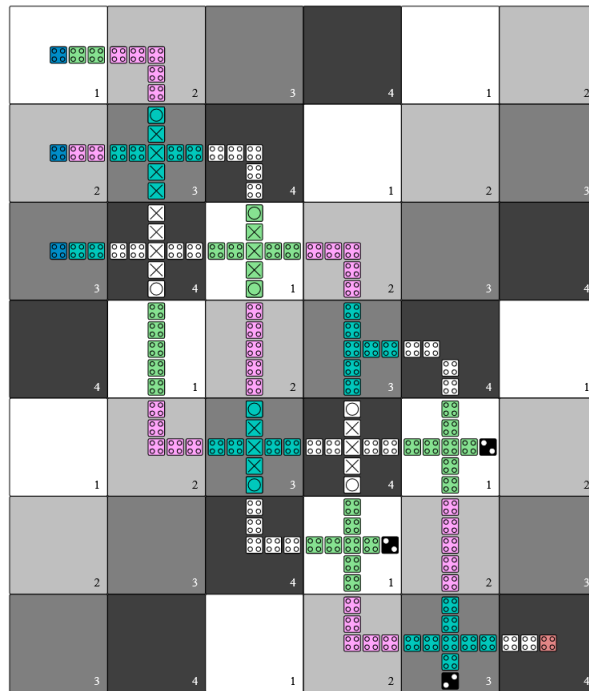


Figure 3.5: Placement and routing of a 2:1 mux network using the ortho algorithm

but supporting the use of rotated majority gates, which had been discussed to be very prone to crosstalk. Also custom gates and double wiring is used, so that many tiles have QCA cells placed only with a distance of one cell and not like [42] suggests a minimum distance of two QCA cells. The use of these custom gates is necessary in this algorithm, because the design used doesn't rely on the same strict constraints as ortho. The Ropper framework even routes wires above gates (solved with custom tiles) and doesn't use border inputs and outputs making it challenging to input and read data from the circuit. Based on the argumentation used in this work, the Ropper framework violates to many design rules, which have been analyzed to be necessary for a sufficient placement and routing algorithm.

Another paper trying to implement majority gates for QCA is *migortho*, which is based on the ortho algorithm provided in fiction. The difference of the algorithms is the use of the underlying gate-library. While this work uses the same as ortho, *migortho* utilizes the QCA-ONE library. From the preliminaries, it is already known that again the use of rotated majority gates and therefore the use of double wires is allowed. This means that circuits designed by *migortho* are also being considered to be prone to crosstalk, following the argumentation from above. But the algorithm shows that with the use of a different library ortho is already powerful enough to overcome some restrictions. This fact has motivated this work to implement some different ideas to enable ortho to be more area efficient, place "+"-majority gates and even implement a strategy for the automated placement and routing of sequential circuits.

3.2 Design of Sequential QCA circuits

In this section the state of the art for sequential circuit design in QCA is discussed. Compared to the algorithms existent for the placement and routing for combinational logic, this area is still in its infancy. Several attempts [22, 27, 32, 36] have been made to implement latches and FFs in order to obtain storage elements and enable sequentiality for QCA circuits. The basic idea for these works is to translate the Boolean CMOS equations into majority representations and then implement this representation with QCA gates. Thus, the received circuit is on the one hand based on the 4-phase clocking of the QCA circuit and on the other hand demands an external 2-phase clocking signal adopted from the CMOS domain [22]. The authors of [27] even state that a latching can be accomplished using the QCA clocking, but that this restricts the circuit and therefore the external clocking signal has to be applied. According to the theory provided in the subsections about clocking 2.2.2 and storage elements 2.2.3 this doesn't hold true. The rethinking of these elements in the QCA domain even suggests the use of the already provided 4-phase clocking to accomplish sequential functionalities. This observation

seems to be clear, considering that the clock used for synchronization in the storage elements should also drive signal propagation. Since in QCA the 4-phase clock is responsible for this, the use of an external clocking signal is questionable and invalid for this work. Although this state of the art already provided the proposal of far developed sequential circuits, e.g. dual edge triggered D-FFs [32] and reversible latches [36] it also is found that these works all use cell based clocking, which was already found to be insufficient in 2.2.2. The evolution to sequential tile based placement and routing was proposed through the USE clocking scheme [7], supporting back-looping. The paper shows as ideas the layout of a SR-latch and a full adder. Unfortunately the SR-latch is also implemented in the way as described above and the implementation of combinational logic was found to be worse for most benchmark problems than for 2DD-Wave [39]. The works [25] and [3] propose implementations of different latches and even an algorithm of implementing sequential elements based on the USE scheme. Still these approaches all share the shortcoming of translating sequential logic directly from the CMOS domain.

Another section of papers focus on the implementation RAM cells in QCA technology [42, 33]. Even though this paper focuses on a placement and routing algorithm for sequential logic, also the implementation of QCA storage could be adapted. An overview [8] over different RAM implementations shows that the state of the art is stuck at exactly this point. Without regards to the architecture of a QCA memory structure here a RAM cell according to the storage elements proposed in 2.2.3 is introduced. Figure 3.6 shows a RAM cell, with its respective wordline(s), bitline(s) and latch. The core of the cell is a latch, which is simply propagating the data in a circle and therefore producing a stable output once in every clock cycle. The input mechanism works via two majority gates. The majority gates with the wordlines decides if BL or \bar{BL} should be propagated to the majority gate connected to the loop. When $WL_1 = \bar{WL}_2$ the majority gate always outputs the third input BL . But for $WL_1 = WL_2 = \bar{BL}$ the first majority gate outputs \bar{BL} . If the first majority gate has as output BL , the second majority gate has BL twice as input and overrides the data in the RAM cell. If the first majority gate has as output \bar{BL} , the second majority gate has two distinct inputs and the data which is held in the cell. In this case the stored bit always decides the output and therefore it is latched meaning that the data is stored. For the read operation only one majority gate is needed and in order to read the RAM cell the output-wordlines have to be inverted. Otherwise if both output-wordlines are set to "0", the output isn't read. The corresponding truth tables for the RAM cell is shown in !.

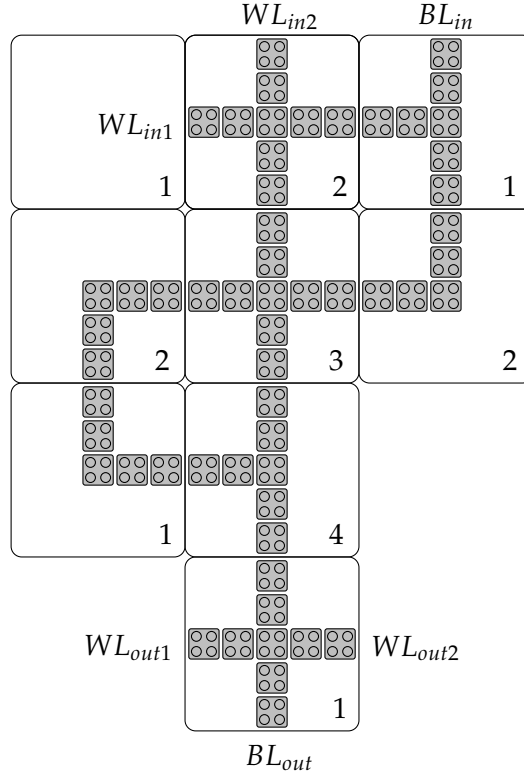


Figure 3.6: QCA RAM cell using a delay latch

Table 3.1: Truth table of a QCA RAM cell

	Input1	Input2	Input3	Output
Maj1	WL_1	$WL_2 = \overline{WL_1}$	BL	BL
	$WL_1 = \overline{BL}$	$WL_2 = \overline{BL}$	BL	\overline{BL}
Maj2	X	BL	BL	BL
	X	\overline{BL}	BL	X

4 Methodology

This chapter proposes a placement and routing algorithm, which overcomes the restrictions of ortho reviewed as state of the art in chapter 3. Therefore, three different signal distribution networks are introduced, which are implemented onto ortho both alone and in conjunction. Namely, an ordering, a majority gate, and a sequential distribution network. Since ortho has been shown to be restricted, but yet has a very powerful placement and routing procedure, the base of the algorithm should be maintained while implementing new functionalities as irregularities. The task of the signal distribution networks is to redistribute signals on the layout in a way that the irregular parts fit with the regular placement and routing and the basic algorithm can still work in a similar fashion as ortho. However, also the underlying logic network and the placement and routing itself have to be modified in order to add all the desired functionalities, resulting in the new algorithm. Because ortho is restricted to the use of only 2DD-Wave clocking, signal distribution networks need the power to change the clocking in the layout to implement the functionalities they provide. Therefore, signal distribution networks must be implemented with care and synchronization constraints must be considered very closely. The ordering distribution network is discussed below first, which aims to reduce the area in the input region of the layout. Afterwards the networks used for implementing majority gates and sequential parts are discussed and analyzed.

4.1 Ordering Distribution Network

Looking again at the resulting layout of a 2:1 mux or ortho in 3.5, it can be seen that in the first few rows, where the primary inputs are placed, no other gates are placed, because the space has to be reserved for rewiring in order to solve conflicts. The idea of the ordering distribution network is to allow gates to also be placed in this area to save space and to place inputs in a way that wire crossings may be minimized. To do so the ordering network has to resolve the conflicts in some other way. Recalling the pseudocode from the ortho algorithm, an input has a conflict when it is colored south because it is not allowed to wire over the other inputs laying in the same column. This means the area overhead in the input region is highly dependent on the coloring assigned to the outgoing edges of the inputs. The algorithm used in the pseudocode line 3 is implemented in a way that finds just *some* valid but not an *optimal* coloring for the given

logic network. Unfortunately due to the algorithms nature it often assigns the color south to exactly these edges resulting in the said area overhead. Therefore, the first step is to improve the coloring of the logic network and prevent excess wiring. Secondly, a new rule for edges colored south inside the conflicting area can be introduced, making the rewiring redundant. The third idea which can be implemented in the network is an ordering of the inputs in order to allow those who are connected with the same gates to be placed near each other reducing wire expenses and crossings.

Algorithm 2 Ortho changes with ordering distribution network

```

:
  Convert  $N$  to a 3-graph by substitution and balance inverters at fan-out nodes
  Order primary input nodes
  :
  Generate conditional direction assignment  $d : \Delta \rightarrow \{east, south\}$  and subdivide
  signals if necessary
  Compute topological ordering  $v_1, \dots, v_i \in N$ 
  Extend  $L$  by one column and reserve it for primary inputs
  for all vertex  $v_1, \dots, v_i \in N$  with at most two incoming signals  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  do
    if vertex  $v$  is terminal/primary input then
      Extend  $L$  by one row
      Place  $v$  at position  $(0, h - 1)$ 
    else if  $d(\sigma_1) = d(\sigma_2) = east$  then
      :
    else if signals are labeled south then
      if not root node exists then
        Extend  $L$  by one row
      end if
       $w_p \leftarrow \text{max. horizontal position of } v\text{'s predecessors}$ 
      Place  $v$  at position  $(w_p, h - 1)$ 
    end if
  end for
  :
  return  $L$ 

```

To discuss the idea, first the parts of the logic network, which belong to the ordering distribution network have to be determined. This can be deduced by looking at the layout, which shows the wasted area for mainly the primary inputs and nodes

connected with them. Thus, all primary inputs and the gates which they are wired to, skipping over inverters, are viewed as part of the ordering distribution network. Skipping means that if the outgoing edge of an primary input is an inverter, the gate hanging on the outgoing edge of the inverter is considered. Starting with the different gates inputs can be connected to, the coloring they can have should be discussed. The direction assignment of one-input nodes, including inverters and fan-out nodes, can be chosen arbitrarily because the primary input to which they are connected has always only one outgoing edge, resulting in no dependencies. In this case, always the non-conflicting *east* assignment can be chosen. When looking at two-input logic gates like AND and OR gates it has to be seen that the coloring can only be chosen arbitrarily if both input nodes are primary inputs, allowing again the non-conflicting assignment of *east*. In every other case, the direction assignment has to consider the coloring of the other incoming edge of the gate. In order find out the dependencies, the ordering distribution network places first every primary input connected to a fan-out node with its respective fan-out node itself into the layout. This has several advantages. First of all, the fan-out nodes give the constraints for the conditional coloring, which is introduced in the ordering distribution network. Also fan-out nodes produce new paths and therefore excess wiring, which means that their dependencies should be resolved as fast as possible by placing and routing them to their outgoing gates as fast as possible. Following the coloring rules, two outgoing edges of a node need to be colored in different directions, so that the fan-out gates placed into the network have one output assigned with color *east* and one output assigned with color *south*. Considering that the second coloring constraint requires the other incoming edge of the gate connected to the colored edge *south*, also to be colored *south*, and the second incoming edge being connected to a primary input, we can see that a conditional coloring alone is not powerful enough to resolve all conflicts. For this case a new placement rule for the *south* coloring is introduced in order to preserve the direction assignment rules but still resolve the conflict between primary inputs. The original algorithm part (lines 14-22) handling the placement of nodes based on their coloring makes sure that every gate placed *east* occupies a new column and every node colored *south* occupies a new row. These placement rules allow every gate to be placed without interfering with other gates, but the rules have been found too be too restrictive, allowing the following placement rule for *south*. If a node is labeled *south* and its predecessor, which has the lower horizontal position **also** has the higher vertical position, it is called *root node* and the layout is **not** extended by a column while the gate is still in position $(w_p, h - 1)$. Following this rule the gate is now placed in the same column as its predecessor with the higher y-coordinate. If we apply this to a two-input gate in the ordering distribution network with a primary input and a fan-out node as predecessors, the primary input is always the root node due to the ordering and new coloring. Thus, the new rule allows

the two-input gate connected to the primary input colored *south* and the fan-out node to be placed in the same column as the primary input, resulting in no conflict because the node is not *actually* placed south of its predecessors. It was found that this rule could not only be utilized for this special case, but also for the general *south* placement in the algorithm with one exception. Considering a fan-out node to be the root node, the coloring would wire both the eastern and the southern colored outgoing edges onto the same row, yielding a conflict. The resulting pseudo-code snippets replacing the used code are shown in algorithm 2. Also it has to be considered that the conditional coloring in the distribution network still needs to include helping nodes e.g. when three fan-out nodes are connected to each other. Also before the coloring, first the input nodes need to be ordered according to the ideas presented. Thus, primary input nodes connected to fan-out nodes are placed first and then the primary input nodes, which are connected to the outgoing edges of the fan-out nodes are placed. This is done to reduce the distance between coherent gates and therefore also the number of wire crossings. Afterwards primary inputs directly connected to a gate which has its other incoming edge connected to a second primary input are placed. Finally all input nodes, which are not connected to the rest of the ordering distribution network are placed arbitrarily and the logic network is topologically ordered according to the new order of the primary inputs. Some other issues are related to inverter nodes. As already mentioned they are skipped in the view of the ordering distribution network, but still need to be considered for the placement and routing. Assuming an inverter node which is assigned *south* e.g. after a fan-out node and it should be placed in the same row as an primary input, a conflict arises because the input always has to wire east first. Thus, all inverters colored *south* need to be placed to minimum the row of the most southern primary input plus one. In order to prevent too much overhead produced by inverters a balancing network is introduced, which aims to reduce the number of inverters in the logic network. Based on the substitution of the logic network into N with inverter and fan-out nodes in some cases a fan-out node has two inverters connected to its outgoing edges. Then these inverters are substituted by one single inverter as incoming node to the fan-out, resulting in an overall lower number of inverter nodes. Figure 4.1 shows the placement and routing of the ortho algorithm after implementing the proposed ordering distribution network. The ordering of the inputs puts first the fan-out node and then the two connected primary inputs. In this case the ordering distribution network also considered the inverter at the outgoing edge to be colored east in order to produce less overhead, because if the inverter would be colored *south* it would have to be placed underneath the primary inputs. Looking at the AND gate connecting the fan-out with the second primary input, we can see that the new rule for nodes placed south is used. This also applies for the AND gate connecting the third primary output to the inverter. The last OR gate is placed after the normal rules of the ortho algorithm.

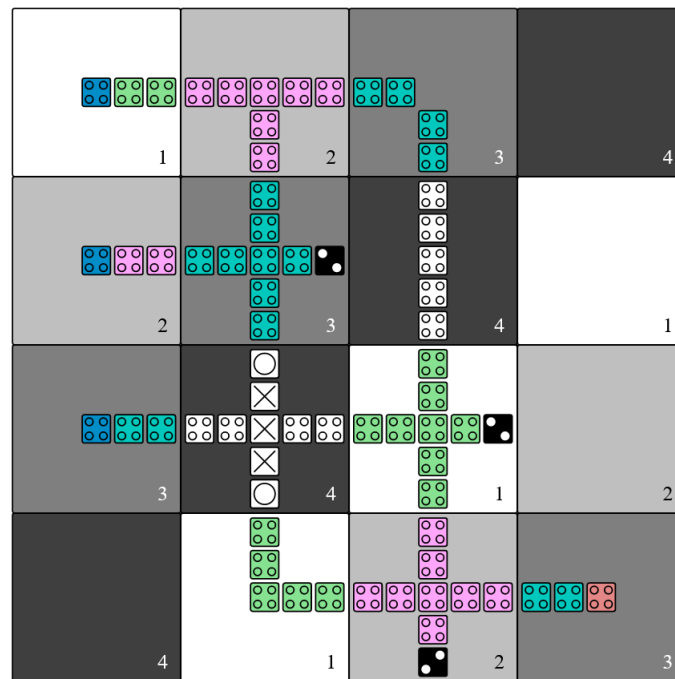


Figure 4.1: Placement and routing of a 2:1 mux network using the ortho algorithm with the ordering distribution network

In the comparison to the layout in figure 3.5 can be quickly seen that the resulting layout saves up place and even wire crossings. The exact results are presented and analyzed in the next chapter.

4.2 Majority Gate Distribution Network

In this section the placement and routing of majority gates, using the ortho algorithm is discussed and a distribution network is proposed. The placement and routing of majority gates plays a major role in QCA since the majority function can be implemented using only one gate in contrast to a CMOS implementation using multiple gates. But this theoretical advantage can only be exploited, if an efficient placement and routing exists. To this use a distribution network for ortho is introduced, allowing a comparison of design metrics after placing and routing a logic network using the majority gate distribution network with a logic network placed and routed using the QCA implementation without majority gates.

4.2.1 The proposed signal distribution Network

The 2DDWave clocked ortho algorithm only supports the placement and routing of 2-input logic gates and therefore the direction assignment contains only two directions *east* and *south*. Since the goal of the distribution network is to introduce "+"-majority gates into the layout a RES-like clocking needs to be utilized, introducing tiles with three incoming tiles and one outgoing tile. In the RES scheme in figure 2.7(c) such a tile is on position (1, 1) and would be suited to place a "+" majority gate on it and allowing it to be connected with three incoming signals. However, simply changing the clocking scheme of ortho to RES would be really inefficient and could not be easily implemented. On the one hand, if the clocking would be completely changed to RES, the algorithm could not utilize every row and column of the clocking since the RES scheme also supports signals to flow into western or northern direction. In RES only the first and third row such as the second and fourth column support eastern and southern signal propagation, so only these part of the clocking would be utilized for the placement of two input gates, which should lead to about a doubling in area usage considering only two-input logic gates. On the other hand, for the placement of three input majority gates a new direction assignment would have to be introduced to the logic network, since one signal would need a direction assignment *west*, changing the theory and complexity underlying the ortho algorithm. Another idea utilizing the RES scheme would be to only support it in some evenly distributed regions, supporting majority gates just at some permanently assigned places. For this the layout could be devised into 4x4 sub-regions and e.g. every fifth sub-region would be RES clocked and the rest

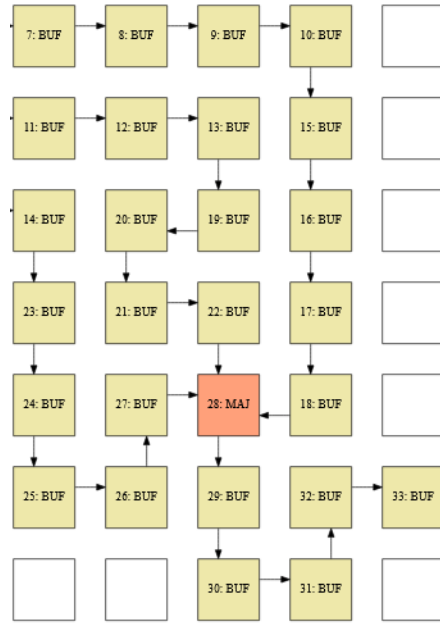


Figure 4.2: Proposed majority gate distribution network

would be occupied with the 2DDWave scheme. On the one hand this realization should not produce that much area overhead since only some regions are inaccessible for two input logic gates, but the permanent clocking assignment only allows the placement of majority gates gets forced on some permanent spots, leading again to large area overhead if a majority gate should be placed far away from such a sub-region. Another consideration would be if a network with only majority gates should be placed in this implementation all the 2DDWave clocked area would be wasted. Another aspect the ortho algorithm makes use of is the trivial global synchronization constraints within a uniformly 2DDWave clocked layout. By introducing irregular clocking e.g. RES sub-regions, signals can pass a different amount of tiles in order to reach the same tile, therefore violating the global synchronization constraint. Figure !! a RES sub-region embedded in a 2DDWave clocked layout. Drawing the paths from three synchronous starting points to the three input tile, it can be seen, that the paths have different lengths, violating the design rules.

To avoid these complications, the proposed distribution network utilizes a custom clocking only in areas where majority gates are placed and find a solution for the global signal synchronization constraint. Therefore the placement and routing of solely two input gates should not produce any excess area. Figure 4.2 shows the proposed majority gate signal distribution network, which is implemented into the

ortho algorithm. Although no area overhead is produced for the already existing placement and routing of two-input gates, it can already be seen that the distribution network itself produces excess area due to its complex wiring, resulting again from the synchronization conditions that had to be considered designing it. The implementation of an AIG representation of the majority function implemented with ortho is depicted next to the distribution network to visualize that the placement and routing of this single majority gate barely saves area, although it has to be highlighted that no wire crossings are used. Under the assumption of really high costs for wire crossings the found majority gate distribution network is considered to be more ideal, even though a meaningful cost comparison of these two implementations can only be done under a cost function representing wire crossings in cost of normal gates. In the following the design constraints used to design the signal distribution network are discussed. Firstly the distribution network should not contain any wire-crossings, since they are considered to be very costly. Introducing a cost-metric for wire-crossings may result in a more efficient implementation, but for this work wire-crossings should be excluded as design rule for the network. Secondly, the distribution network needs to meet the global synchronization constraint. Considering a 2DDWave clocked layout, every diagonal is synchronous and every signal wired on the same diagonal passes the same amount of tiles following the ortho placement and routing. If we look at the incoming tiles of a three input tile, it can be seen that only two of the incoming tiles are on the same diagonal and the third one is shifted by half a clock cycle. Hence the third incoming signal is delayed by half a clock cycle violating the global synchronization constraint. Also the signals need to pass a multiple of whole clock cycles in the signal distribution network in order to support the further use of 2DDWave and the local synchronization constraint. Therefore, first the initially synchronous signals are also delayed by half a clocking signal, satisfying the global synchronization constraint at the tile, where the majority gate is placed. Afterwards the output signal of the majority gate is again delayed by half a clock cycle so it can be connected to the regular 2DDWave clocking scheme used in the remaining layout. Adding up the delays resulting from the distribution networks leads to a total delay of one whole clock cycle of the signal propagating through the majority gate distribution network compared to all other signals in the logic network. Because the delay affects the global synchronization constraint, it has to be considered for each gate connected to the parents of a majority gate distribution network. In the following first the basic placement and routing of the majority gate distribution network and then the solution for meeting the global synchronization constraint in further placement and routing is discussed.

4.2.2 Placement and routing

The placement and routing of the proposed signal distribution network is again bound to some constraints. First of all the coloring of majority gates has to be reviewed, since the logic network now includes three input nodes. However, the coloring algorithm can include helping nodes to resolve coloring conflicts of edges and therefore dividing every edge with a helping node shows, that a trivial coloring can be found also including three input nodes into the logic network. Another aspect regarding coloring is the need for a new direction in order to connect a third signal to the majority gate, but since the only occasion such a wiring happens is inside the fixed distribution network, which again can be placed and routed in the usual south-eastern manner, no additional directions need to be included. Further, the irregular clocking inside the signal distribution network has to be reviewed. These irregularities don't allow the algorithm to wire connections over the network, demanding a special treatment for the placement of the majority gates. From the algorithms perspective therefore a majority gate cannot be placed just south or east of another gate because these gates could need a wiring through the majority gate distribution network. Instead the algorithm is forced to assign the majority gate distribution network always south **and** east direction to prevent routing conflicts. This can be done by dividing the incoming edges with auxiliary nodes, also allowing a valid coloring. This also allows the coloring to be included into the input ordering distribution network, so that all inputs connected to a majority gate need to be colored *east*. The major drawback of this is, that again the area is not used optimally and the layout is extended in two directions compromising the beneficial use of the "+"-majority gate.

4.2.3 Signal synchronization and buffer insertion

The placement and routing using the proposed distribution network results in a delay of one clock cycles of signals passing through a majority gates. Since the tile-based clocking doesn't support a speedup of a signal, every other signal which comes into contact with a delayed signal also has to be delayed. Therefore a function is introduced in order to compute the delay of signals and allowing signals which are connected together to be synchronized by buffer insertion. For the delay computation, the algorithms views every incoming edge from every node starting at the primary output. If an incoming edge is connected to a majority gate every other incoming edge of the same node gets a delay of one assigned, if this edge again is not connected to a majority gate. In the latter case all incoming edges of a node would be delayed, resulting again in a synchronous behavior. Hence the delay on one node can be maximum one clock cycle. After computing the delayed edges they are realized by inserting wire buffers. Figure

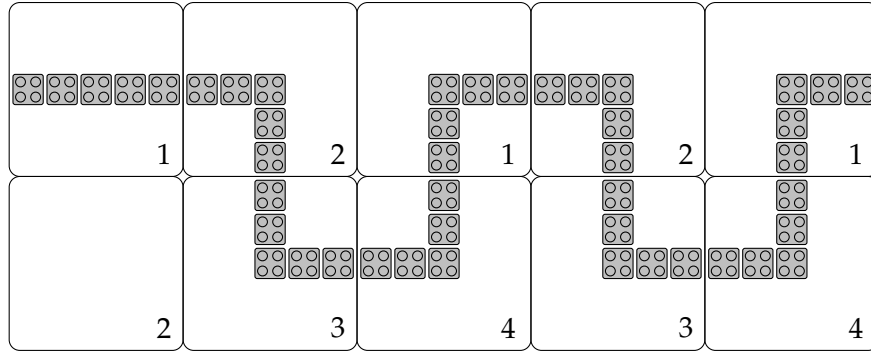


Figure 4.3: Buffer in *east* direction with resolve column and respective clocking

4.3 depicts a buffer in east direction, which can be used also in southern direction by just rotating it by 90 degrees. The snake-like structure delays a signal by exactly one clock cycle and is also used in the custom placement and routing resulting from the QCA ONE library [26]. As in the majority gate distribution network, the buffers support irregular clocking, creating zones the algorithm cannot wire through. In the case of buffers only one column or row is made impassable, allowing to track them and introducing a rewiring for conflicts. Figure 4.4 shows the placement of a majority gate inside the input distribution network and two and gates which have to be delayed in order to be connected with the delayed signal coming out of the majority gate distribution network. The insertion of the first buffer blocks the eastern direction of the second input. For this case a resolve column is introduced where the signal can be assigned to a new row and be wired without conflict. From this layout it can already be seen that the implementation of the majority gate distribution network brings several complications with it, all resulting in area overhead, which stands in contrast to the area which should be saved by introducing majority gates in the first place.

4.3 Sequential Distribution Network

In this section, a distribution network is provided, which enables ortho to automatically design sequential circuits. To the authors' knowledge, there has been no solution to place and route sequential circuits in QCA yet. The only algorithms dealing with sequentiality in QCA, presented in Chapter 3, only translate CMOS structures directly into QCA and therefore require an external clock signal, which was stated to be unnatural, because QCA has its own clocking paradigm. For the placement and routing used here the ideas of gates, able to delay signals from [39], was used and further developed for the automated placement and routing.



the same order as the register outputs. The ordering follows in a way that all RIs are put on a diagonal, and since to this point every gate is clocked uniformly with 2DDWave, the signals are all synchronized. With this starting position now wires with the same length have to be found between every register input and output. Since the wires now also have to go in western and northern directions in order to close the loop between the ROs in the upper left corner and the RIs in the down-right corner of the layout, the wiring is not arbitrary. One big issue is also that the clocking cannot be chosen independently for each back-loop because the loops cross each other. The solution found can be seen in an example depicted in figure !!. From this example another issue regarding timing can be derived. Considering a primary Input in a completely combinational circuit being placed in the fifth row of the layout. In this case the PI is set in a different *time zone*, because its signal is globally delayed by one clock cycle. Until now the assumption was made, that an input network can be used to delay the primary input by one clocking cycle to achieve again global synchronization. When an RO is placed in a different time zone, this also has to be respected by the wiring of the registers. As already mentioned, the registers do not delay the information by only one clocking cycle but by multiple clocking slowing down the performance of the circuit drastically. This huge delay is due to the fact that ortho lays the combinational logic only in the south-eastern direction, always increasing the distance between PIs/ROs and POs/RIs. Therefore the sequential signal distribution network always grows with the size of the combinational logic.

Maybe a folding operation can be found for the ortho algorithm so that the distance between RIs and ROs can be decreased and therefore the delay produced by the sequential distribution network can be decreased as well.

Importance of sequential circuits.

Point out how the registers are implemented.

Show how the distribution network is generated, where Ris and Ros are placed and how they are treated within the network.

Make clear that this implementation is slowing down the circuit significantly.

5 Experimental Evaluation

5.1 Benchmarks

For combinational and sequential

5.2 Results

Table 5.1: Add caption

Benchmark	SotA GN	SotA RT	SotA size	SotA wire sz	GN	RT	Sz	WN	Sz dff
trindade16/mux21	4	140417	30	22	4	13637	25	24	5
trindade16/xor2	4	3952	24	15	4	6662	12	11	12
trindade16/xnor2	6	4422	35	15	6	7314	20	16	15
trindade16/par_gen	10	5803	96	47	10	16026	72	53	24
trindade16/HA	6	5719	56	39	6	9992	42	32	14
trindade16/FA	5	14395	63	45	5	72583	42	34	21
trindade16/par_check	15	94395	198	93	14	171767	132	83	66

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