Searching for optimal Boolean chains

Adam P. Goucher

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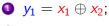
Boolean chains

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For example, the full adder has n = 5 gates and k = 3 inputs:

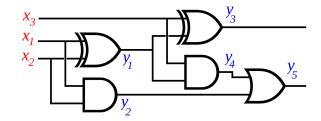


2
$$y_2 = x_1 \wedge x_2$$
;

3
$$y_3 = y_1 \oplus x_3$$
;

$$y_4 = y_1 \wedge x_3$$
;

$$y_5 = y_2 \vee y_4$$
.



Each gate can only depend on inputs or previously-computed values.

Five normal gates

Without loss of generality we can assume that all gates o are:

- **Nontrivial**: $a \circ b$ depends on both a and b;
- Zero-preserving: $0 \circ 0 = 0$.

Knuth (2011) calls these **normal** chains.

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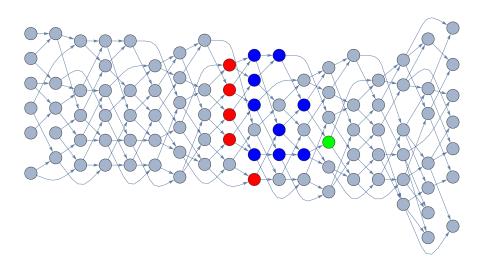
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These correspond to AVX instructions vpxor, vpand, vpor, vpandn.

Rewriting

Many logic synthesis tools (e.g. Berkeley's ABC) work by **local rewriting**: replacing small subcircuits with more efficient equivalents.



Prior work

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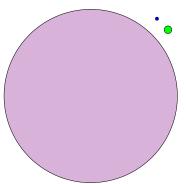
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We shall take this to its ultimate logical conclusion: finding all optimal chains for **616125** of the 616126 equivalence classes of 5-input functions.

Equivalence classes

We can transform a k-input ℓ -output function into an equivalent function by:

- Permuting inputs (k! possibilities);
- Negating inputs (2^k possibilities);
- Permuting outputs (\(\ell!\) possibilities);
- Negating outputs (2^ℓ possibilities);

which generate the group $(S_2 \wr S_k) \times (S_2 \wr S_\ell)$ of order $2^{k+\ell}(k!)(\ell!)$.

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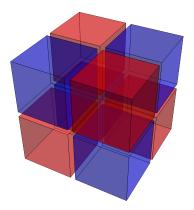
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$$0001 < 0010 < 0100 < 0111 < 1000 < 1011 < 1101 < 1110$$

We describe the lexicographically first truth table in an equivalence class as **canonical**.

Counting equivalence classes



We can count the equivalence classes using Burnside's lemma; the dominant term will be:

$$|C| \approxeq \frac{2^{2^k\ell}}{2^{k+\ell}(k!)(\ell!)}$$

Number of classes of functions of each cost

n	5-input 1-output	4-input 2-output
0	2	4
1	2	8
2	5	38
3	20	193
4	93	916
5	389	4869
6	1988	27219
7	11382	135402
8	60713	475926
9	221541	713796
10	293455	117828
11	26535	19
12	1	0
Total	616126	1476218

Size of search space

With k inputs and n gates, the total number of Boolean chains is:

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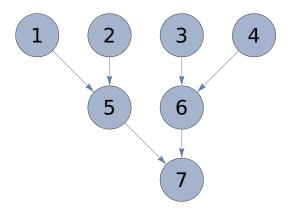
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This is about **60x more** than the number of floating-point operations used to train GPT-3 (3.14×10^{23}).

Room for improvement I: canonical ordering

In many cases, a single DAG can correspond to multiple Boolean chains:

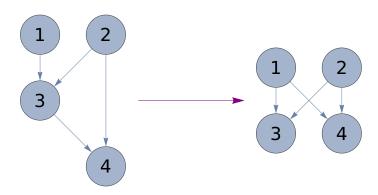


For example, the order of computing variables 5 and 6 could be swapped.

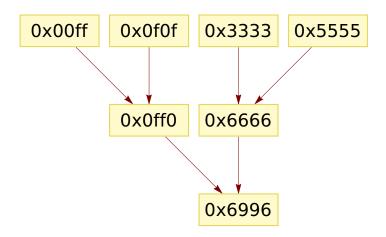


Room for improvement II: triangle-free

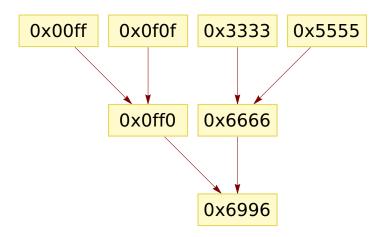
Also, triangles can be removed from our DAG without loss of generality:



Key insight



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Simply represent this as the set $\{0x0ff0,0x6666,0x6996\}$.

Reconstruction of chains from tt-sets

By performing a **backtracking search**, we can reconstruct all possible chains corresponding to a tt-set.

 Beginning with the set of truth tables corresponding to inputs, try applying all possible gates which result in a truth table belonging to the tt-set.

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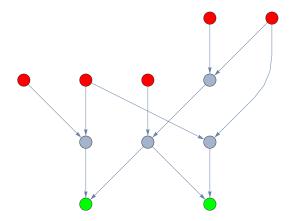
- Beginning with the set of truth tables corresponding to inputs, try applying all possible gates which result in a truth table belonging to the tt-set.
- We enforce the 'canonical ordering' and 'triangle free' properties at all times.
- The total runtime is $O(Sn^3)$ where S is the number of chains outputted by the algorithm.

Ends of tt-sets

A tt-set *T* is *attainable* if it corresponds to at least one chain.

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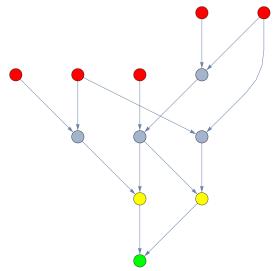
A tt-set T is attainable if it corresponds to at least one chain.



If $T \setminus \{e\}$ is still attainable, then we say that e is an *end* of T.

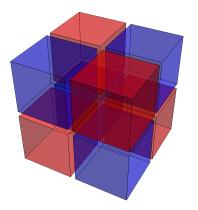
Appending a gate

Appending a gate cannot cause the number of ends to decrease by more than 1.



Symmetries

Recall that we have a large symmetry group at play.



The search becomes much faster if we only store canonical tt-sets.

Breadth-first search

Define N(T) to be the set of possible 'next functions':

$$N(T) = \{x \circ y : x, y \in T \cup I \text{ and } o \in \mathcal{O}\} \setminus (T \cup I \cup \{0\})$$

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- Define $X_0 = \{\{\}\}$ to be the set containing the empty tt-set.
- Define

$$X_{n+1} = \{ \text{canonicalise}(T \cup \{e\}) : T \in X_n \text{ and } e \in N(T) \}$$

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For a given search depth, we can also discard tt-sets with too many ends.

How does previous work differ?

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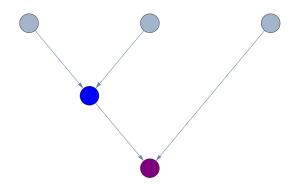
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Haaswijk, Soeken, Mishchenko, and De Micheli (2018) used SAT solvers to search for DAGs of a particular topology implementing a given function.

Reducing constant factors

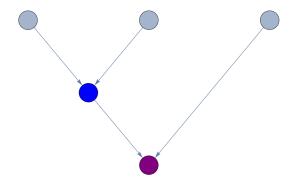
Canonicalising a tt-set is expensive. To do an 11-gate search, we do the following:

- Use the algorithm to compute all tt-sets in X_9 with ≤ 3 ends.
- Brute-force all possibilities for the last two gates.



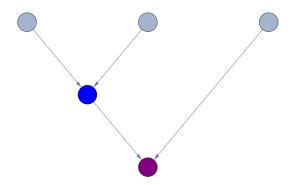
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We want to check optimality, i.e. determine whether the purple vertex cannot be attained with fewer gates.



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We use a 256 MB array (one bit for each of the 2^{31} normal functions) to indicate whether they've previously been constructed with lower cost.

Practical problems

Even a depth-9 search does not fit in memory (11 terabytes uncompressed).

n	tt-sets	uncompressed size	compressed size
6	3 million	73 MB	5 MB
7	130 million	3.6 GB	159 MB
8	6.2 billion	197 GB	6.4 GB
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We need to somehow **partition the search space** into manageable chunks, but this is not particularly easy.

Invariants and signatures

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Given an invariant f, the **signature** of a tt-set T is the **multiset** $\{f(x): x \in T\}$.

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We avoid saving tt-sets to disk in the last level of the search tree (n=9), because there are no downstream tasks to consume them.

Results

We applied this depth-11 exhaustive search procedure to two search problems:

- 5-input 1-output functions (616126 equivalence classes);
- 4-input 2-output functions (1476218 equivalence classes).

Each of the two searches took a few days on an AWS ${\bf r5a.24xlarge}$ instance (96 virtual cores + 768 GB memory), costing < \$1000.

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But how do we use these results?

Building a database

For each equivalence class of functions, we took all Boolean chains with **minimum cost** and **delay on the Pareto frontier**.

00136400					OI									oe			:0Cp
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00f5c4e0	21	30	43	70	82	84	96	a7	b5	dc	00	b0	6f	6e	e7	01	[!0Cp
00f5c4f0	21	30	43	70	82	84	96	a3	b5	dc	00	b0	6f	66	e7	01	!0Cpof
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00f5c580	21	21	50	54	63	87	98	ba	00	00	00	e0	af	fc	80	00	!!PTc
00f5c590	10	21	21	64	73	85	98	ba	00	00	00	30	bf	ec	0с	00	[.!!ds
00f5c5a0	30	43	54	61	72	85	91	ba	00	00	00	e0	ad	fe	07	00	0CTar
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00f5c5d0	21	41	54	65	80	91	a3	b7	00	00	00	e0	16	1e	07	00	[!ATe
00f5c5e0	21	41	65	70	74	81	a3	b9	00	00	00	e0	c2	1d	07	00	[!Aept
00f5c5f0	30	54	62	74	86	93	a1	b8	00	00	00	e0	71	1d	07	00	OTbt
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The k-perfect hashtable

We hash a canonical 5-input 1-output truth table using the following pair of functions:

```
auto h1 = (x ^ (x >> 7) ^ (x >> 4)) & 0x1fffff;
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The function h_1 is 15-perfect, mapping at most 15 of the 616124 canonical nontrivial truth tables to the same bucket.

The function h_2 is 1-perfect (injective) within each bucket.

Looking up a canonical truth table

By squeezing each bucket into 64 bytes, it is possible to lookup the cost and location of any canonical function by retrieving a single cache line:

```
uint32 t get cl and cost(const uint32 t* db, uint32 t x, int n bits) {
    uint32 t clc = 0:
    uint32 t hash1 = hh::boolchains::hthash1(x, n bits);
    uint32 t hash2 = hh::boolchains::hthash2(x):
    uint32 t cache line[16];
    memcpy(cache line, \&(db[hash1 << 4]), 64);
    for (size t i = 0; i < 15; i++) {
        uint32 t element = cache line[i];
        if ((element & 0 \times 1 \text{ff}) == hash2) {
            uint32 t cl = ((element \Rightarrow 9) & 0x7fff) + cache line[15];
            uint32 t cost = (element >> 24);
            clc = (cl << 4) \mid cost;
            break:
    return clc;
```

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- Lookup the cost and location: this is a single cache line retrieval plus a handful of instructions, so takes around 100 ns.
- Iterate over optimal chains: this step takes variable time, depending on the number of chains, but they're contiguous in memory so this is again reasonably fast.