

Complexity of XOR/XNOR Boolean Functions: A Model using Binary Decision Diagrams and Back Propagation Neural Networks

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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes a model that predicts the complexity of Boolean functions with only XOR/XNOR min-terms using back propagation neural networks (BPNNs) applied to Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs). The BPNN model (BPNNM) is developed through the training process of experimental data already obtained for XOR/XNOR-based Boolean functions. The outcome of this model is a unique matrix for the complexity estimation over a set of BDDs derived from Boolean expressions with a given number of variables and XOR/XNOR min-terms. The comparison results of the experimental and BPNNM underline the efficiency of this approach, which is capable of providing some useful clues about the complexity of the circuit to be implemented. It also proves the computational capabilities of NNs in providing reliable classification of the complexity of Boolean functions.

Key words: Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs), Reduced Ordered Binary Decision diagrams (ROBDDs), XOR/XNOR min-terms, Complexity, Boolean Functions.

1. INTRODUCTION

The continuous increase of integration level of modern digital circuits imposes high and increasing needs for methods and algorithms used in VLSICAD design verification and testing [1], [2], [3]. The efficiency of any method depends on the complexity of Boolean functions representing circuits under test and verification. Research on the complexity of Boolean functions using non-uniform computation models is today an active research area in theoretical computer science [4], [5]. It has a direct relevance to practical problems in the CAD of digital circuits.

ROBDD is an efficient structure for representing and manipulating Boolean functions symbolically and has been successfully applied to solving many problems in VLSICAD [4], [5], [6]. The BDD representation is defined and proposed by Akers [7] and extended by Bryant [8]. BDDs are compact representations for many functions and lend themselves for fast execution of logical operations. One of the constraints required to achieve canonicity is the ordering imposed by the input variables [9]. The size of ROBDD, measured in number of nodes it contains, depends on this order and may vary drastically from one ordering method to the other. Some functions, such as adders, lead to a BDD size that exponentially or linearly varies with the number of variables depending on the variable order selection [9]. Due to memory and processing-time constraints associated with real world CAD applications, it is important to minimize the ROBDD size as much as possible [10], [11].

BPNNs are common classes of artificial NNs. They are named after a very familiar *teaching* method for NNs

called the Back-Propagation. Some examples of inputs and their corresponding known-correct outputs are presented to the BPNN. Internal structures of the BPNN are then numerically adjusted to iteratively improve the difference between the input and desired outputs [12], [13], [14]. A lot of research works have been carried out to study the relationship of Boolean function and NN [15] as well as to analyze the measure of the Boolean function complexity related to their implementation in NN [15].

The base of this work is the mathematical model obtained for the BDD complexity using XOR/XNOR min-terms [16]. In this work we apply the BBNN method to ROBDD to estimate the complexity of Boolean function with only XOR/XNOR min-terms. The proposed BPNNM provides good alternative to other methods previously proposed by the same authors. In section 2 we provide some background information pertaining to BDDs and NNs. Section 3 reviews the previous works done by the same authors on the estimation of BDD complexity based on mathematical models. The proposed BPNNM for the complexity estimation of Boolean functions with only XOR/XNOR min-terms is explained in the 4th and 5th sections. Finally we conclude this paper with our future developments.

2. PRELIMINARIES

2.1 Binary Decision Diagram (BDD)

Basic definitions for binary decision diagrams are detailed in [6], [7], [8], [9].

Definition 1: A BDD is a directed acyclic graph (DAG). The graph has two sink nodes labeled 0 and 1, representing the Boolean functions 0 and 1. Each non-sink node is labeled with a Boolean variable v , and has two out-edges labeled 1 (or *then*) and 0 (or *else*). Each non-sink node represents the Boolean function corresponding to its 1 edge if $v=1$, or the Boolean function corresponding to its 0 edge if $v=0$.

Definition 2: An *Ordered Binary Decision Diagram (OBDD)* is a BDD in which each variable is encountered no more than once in any path and always in the same order along each path.

Definition 3: A *Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagram (ROBDD)* is an OBDD where each node represents a distinct logic function. It has the following two properties:

- (i) There are no redundant nodes in which both of the two edges leaving the node point to the same next node are present within the graph. If such a node exists, it is removed and the incoming edges redirected to the following node.

- (ii) If two nodes point to two identical sub-graphs (i.e. isomorphic sub-graphs), then one sub-graph will be removed and the remaining one will be shared by the two nodes.

2.2 Neural Networks (NNs)

NN mimic the ability of a human brain to find patterns and uncover hidden relationships in data. NNs can be more effective than statistical techniques for organizing data and predicting results, and are very efficient in modeling non-linear systems [17], [18], [19]. A NN is defined as a computational system comprising of simple but highly interconnected processing elements (PEs) (or neurons) (Figure 1) [13]. PEs are NN equivalents of biological neurons. Similarly, neural network interconnections are equivalents of synapses that connect a neuron to others. Information is processed by the PE's by dynamically responding to their inputs. Unlike conventional computers that process instruction and data stored in the memory in a sequential manner, the NNs produce outputs based on a weighted sum of all inputs in a parallel fashion.

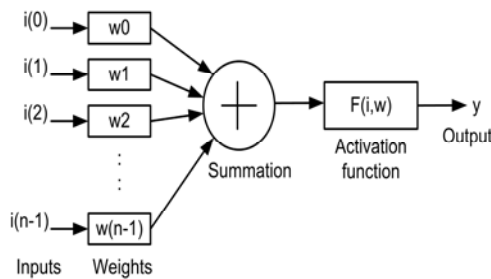


Figure 1. Processing element (PE) – building block of a neural network

In Figure 1 the inputs ($i(0)..i(n-1)$) to a PE are scaled with weights ($w(0) .. w(n-1)$) and summed up before being passed through an activation function. The activation function determines whether a PE activates (fires) or not. A sigmoid (non-linear) activation function has an s-shaped output between the limits [0, 1]. The function (1) is defined as [20]:

$$Y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \tag{1}$$

Each input of an NN corresponds to a single attribute of the system being modeled. The output of the NN is the prediction we are trying to make. Figure 2 shows the topology of a simple 5-layer feed-forward NN with 2 inputs and one output.

The NN has 2 input neurons (PE(ip1), PE(ip2)), three hidden layers with 5 neurons each (PE(hnm) is the mth neuron in nth hidden layer), and one neuron in the output layer (PE(op1)) [20]. The BPNN is fully-connected, meaning; all neurons in one layer connect to all neurons in the next layer. NNs use different types of learning (or training) mechanisms, the most common of them being supervised learning. In this method of learning, a set of inputs is provided to the NN and its output is compared with the desired output.

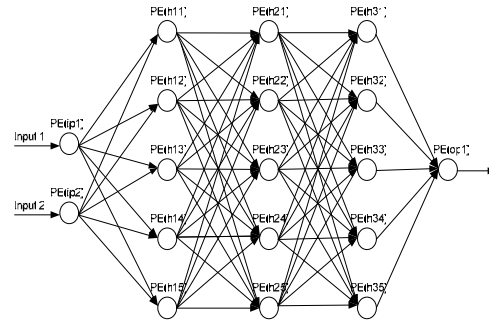


Figure 2. Topology of 5-layer feed-forward neural network

The difference between the actual and the desired outputs is used to adjust the weights (Figure 1) to different PEs in the network. The process of adjusting weights is repeated until the output falls within an acceptable range.

To ensure a robust NN design, the set of input data and corresponding output data has to be chosen carefully. The input-output data set for an NN is called a training set. Additionally, special attention has to be paid to the formatting and scaling of the data for effective NN training [20]. The available data is divided into training and validation sets. An NN is only trained with the training set. Validation set is run on the NN to verify that the inputs are producing desirable outputs. If the validation phase produces large deviations, the training set or the network structure needs to be re-examined; re-training is required in this case [20].

3. PREVIOUS WORK

In this section we briefly describe the background concept and results achieved in the area of the estimation of BDD complexity prior to introducing the BPNNM.

3.1 Relation between the Size of a Boolean function and the BDD Complexity

The complexity of the ROBDD mainly depends on the number of nodes represented by the BDD. An experiment was done in [21] to analyze the complexity variation in BDDs i.e. the relation between the number of product terms and the number of nodes for any number of variables. The experimental and equation graph (Figure 3) shows that the complexity of the BDD can be modeled mathematically by (2).

$$NN = \alpha \cdot NPT^\beta \cdot e^{(-NPT \cdot \gamma)} + 1 \tag{2}$$

where, NN is the number of nodes that represents the complexity of the BDD, NPT is the number of non-repeating product terms in the Boolean function, α , β and γ are three constants. Using curve fitting techniques, the variations of α , β and γ were mathematically modeled and represented by the following equations (3), (4) and (5).

$$\alpha = 0.9855 \cdot e^{(0.063 \cdot NV^{1.51})} \tag{3}$$

$$\beta = 1.03115 \cdot e^{(-0.01552 \cdot NV)} + 67.2072 \cdot e^{(-1.298 \cdot NV)} \tag{4}$$

$$\gamma = 0.96228 \cdot e^{(-0.4188 \cdot NV)} + 41.9723 \cdot e^{(-1.5072 \cdot NV)} \tag{5}$$

Where, NV is the Number of Variables.

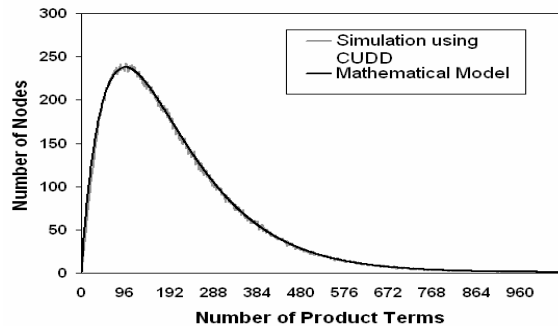


Figure 3. Simulation / Mathematical ROBDD Complexity for 11 Variables

3.2 XOR/XNOR Min-term Representations

In this work, the complexity of ROBDD for a specific group of XOR/XNOR min-terms is analyzed [16]. A graph that represents the ROBDD complexity and the behavior of XOR/XNOR is modeled mathematically by equation (6): Figure 4 shows that the mathematical model represented by this equation provides a good approximation of the experimental results of ROBDD complexity.

$$NN = \alpha \cdot [\beta^2 - (NXM - \beta)^2]^{0.5} + 1 \quad (6)$$

where, NN is the number of nodes that represents the complexity of ROBDD, NXM is the number of XOR/XNOR min-terms in the Boolean function, β is $2n-1$ with n the number of input variables, and $\alpha = 0.605234$ for 10 variables.

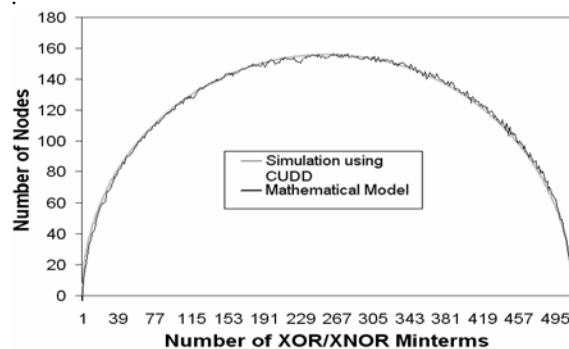


Figure 4. Simulation / Mathematical ROBDD Complexity for XOR/XNOR Min-terms

4. ANALYSIS OF XOR/XNOR MIN-TERM REPRESENTATIONS

The Colorado University Decision Diagram (CUDD) package [22] was used to analyze the complexity variation in ROBDDs for a specific group of XOR/XNOR min-terms [19]. The number of variables was fixed to n . The Symmetric Sift variable ordering technique was selected from the CUDD and hundred different Boolean functions with one XOR min-term and another hundred different Boolean functions with one XNOR min-term were generated. The ROBDDs for all 200 Boolean functions were built and the average number of nodes in all ROBDDs was computed. The same procedure was repeated for different number of XOR/XNOR min-terms (2, 3, 4...etc) until the maximum possible number of XOR/XNOR min-terms (2^{n-1}). A graph that represents the ROBDD complexity in terms of the number of nodes with

respect to the number XOR/XNOR min-terms of the Boolean function was then plotted.

5. APPLICATION OF NEURAL NETWORKS TO BOOLEAN FUNCTION COMPLEXITY MODELING

This section covers the definition and implementation of the BPNNM for modeling the XOR function complexity (Figure 5). Inputs to the model are (1) number of variables and (2) min-terms; and the output (or prediction) is the tree-size.

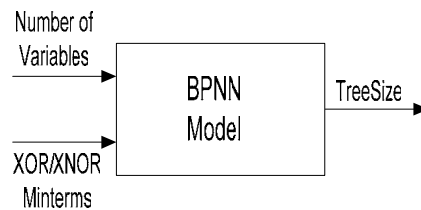


Figure 5. BPNNM block diagram for XOR function complexity prediction

5.1 Data Collection and Processing

For the BPNNM in this paper, the training and validation data sets were obtained based on the experiments of section 4. Pre-processing the data sets can take a considerable amount of resources for a practical and reliably functioning BPNNM [18], [23]. In our research, the first data pre-processing step was to transform the data set in such a way that inputs have equitable distribution of importance. In other words, the larger absolute values of an input should not have more influence than the inputs with smaller magnitudes [13]. The need of such equitable distribution can be explained with Figures 6 and 7. Figure 6 shows the raw (original) data for 2 to 12 variables. Notice that the plots for 2 to 7 variables are hardly visible when all variables are plotted on the same scale. If the data were presented in its original form to the NN for training, only the 8- to 12-variable cases may be learnt by the BPNN and 2 to 7 variables values may be ignored. So in order to provide similar importance to all variable values (2 to 12), we performed pre-processing as explained in section 5.2. The data after pre-processing is plotted in Figure 7. As we can see now, the different plots (for 6-, 7-, and 8-variables) are in similar ranges which can ease the BPNN learning process.

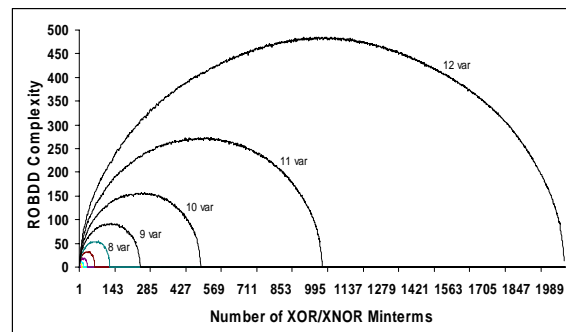


Figure 6: Un-scaled (raw) data for XOR function complexity.

5.2 Training and Testing the BPNNM

In order to ‘use’ or ‘run’ a trained BPNN, de-normalization and de-transformation has to be done to restore the predicted outputs to the original ranges. Steps employed in ‘training’ and ‘running’ the network is summarized here:

5.2.1 Data set

We had acquired a total of 4106 data sets (also called facts/training facts) during our simulations of XOR/XNOR functions. We used 90% of the data sets (facts) as training set and the remaining 10% as validation set.

5.2.2 Data pre-processing

We pre-processed/scaled both the horizontal and vertical axis; horizontal axis represents the min-terms (MT) and vertical axis the Tree-size (TS). Equations for MT (7) and TS (8) scaling are given below:

$$MT_{scaled} = \frac{MT \cdot MT_{max}}{2^{v-1}} \tag{7}$$

Where,

MT = original value of minterm

MT_{scaled} = scaled value of minterm

MT_{max} = maximum value of minterm for all (2 to 12) variables = 2048

V = number of variables

$$TS_{scaled} = TS \cdot SF_v \tag{8}$$

Where,

TS = original value of tree-size

TS_{scaled} = scaled value of tree-size

SF_v = scaling factor corresponding to variable v (listed in Table 1)

Table 1: Scaling factors for different variables

Variables V	Max Tree-size TS_{peak}	Scaling Factor $SF_v = \max(TS_{peak}) / TS_{peak}$
2	3.00	161.77
3	5.00	97.06
4	7.50	64.71
5	11.70	41.48
6	18.88	25.73
7	32.00	15.16
8	54.20	8.95
9	91.86	5.28
10	156.33	3.10
11	272.71	1.78
12	485.33**	1.00

** max (TS_{peak}) = 485.33

Effect of scaling on 2- and 3-variable data can be seen numerically in Table 2

All variables (2 to 12) have horizontal and vertical ranges close to each other thus greatly improving the chances of NNs learning all the curves.

Table 2: Effect of pre-processing/scaling on min-terms and tree-size

Variables v	ORIGINAL VALUES		SCALED VALUES	
	Minterms MT	TreeSize TS	Minterms MT_{scaled}	TreeSize TS_{scaled}
2	0	1	0	161.77
2	1	3	1024	485.33
2	2	3	2048	485.33
3	0	1	0	97.06
3	1	4	512	388.26
3	2	4	1024	388.26
3	3	5	1536	485.33
3	4	4	2048	388.26

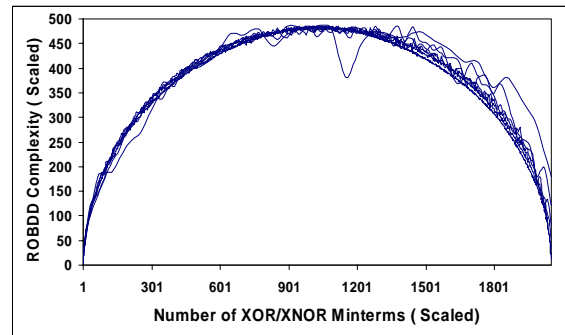


Figure 7. Scaled data (after pre-processing the raw data with equations 7 and 8) for XOR function complexity.

After the NN has been trained with the scaled data, its running/use would involve these steps:

- a) Scale the input by using the equations in section 5.2.2
- b) Present the scaled value to the BPNN
- c) Restore to its original range the output of the BPNN to get the actual result

5.2.3 BPNNM configuration and training

In general, as the number of hidden layers increases, the prediction performance of a BPNN goes up, but this continues only up to certain extent, after which the BPNN performance starts to deteriorate [23]. To find the optimum topologies for our BPNNs, we experimented with up to 3 hidden layers; each layer consisted of a different number of neurons. Most practical problems can be modeled with one or two hidden layers [24]. However, we explored a larger design space by experimenting with a maximum of 3 hidden layers. The details of some of our BPNN’s experiments are listed in Table 3. Two neurons in the input layer correspond to two inputs, i.e., number of variables and min-terms. The single output neuron represents the model output of tree-size.

The performance metric for an BPNN was the "percentage of facts learnt with 96% (or more) accuracy". We chose to limit the training iterations (called epochs) to 500 because most of our BPNN configuration stopped improving their performance before they reached the 500-epoch count. From multiple BPNN configurations we experimented with, we chose one hidden-layer BPNN (highlighted row #3 in the table 3) with 5 neurons in its hidden layers. This configuration provided nearly the same training accuracy as its larger counterparts (rows #4, #7, #8, #10 and #11).

Table 3. Configuration & Training Statistics For XOR function complexity BPNN's *

CONFIGURATION						TRAINING STATISTICS			
No.	Input Layer Neurons	Hidden Layer 1 Neurons	Hidden Layer 2 Neurons	Hidden Layer 3 Neurons	Output Neurons	Facts Learnt	Facts Not Learnt	% Facts Learnt	Epochs
1	2	3			1	3706	201	94.9%	183
2	2	4			1	3741	166	95.8%	188
3	2	5			1	3751	156	96.0%	38
4	2	7			1	3751	156	96.0%	150
5	2	10			1	3726	181	95.4%	500
6	2	3	3		1	3223	684	82.4%	500
7	2	5	5		1	3752	155	96.0%	74
8	2	7	7	3	1	3764	143	96.3%	88
9	2	3	3	5	1	3373	534	86.3%	500
10	2	5	5	5	1	3751	156	96.0%	279

* Brain Maker training parameters: Training tolerance = 0.07; testing tolerance = 0.07; learning rate adjustment type = heuristic. (See [26] for detailed explanation of these settings).

The matrices containing weights for different neuron layers of the chosen 2-5-1-neuron BPNN (#3) are given in Tables 4 and 5. For example, weight in ip1-h11 cell in Table 4 refers to weight between the input "ip1" and "h11" neuron of the first hidden layer. Similarly, in Table 3, the weights between the hidden and output layers are shown.

Table 4. Weight Matrix – Input Neuron Layer to Hidden Neuron Layer-1

	ip1	ip2
h11	2.127	7.687
h12	6.390	-3.640
h13	-2.748	6.275
h14	3.577	-4.510
h15	-5.157	-6.266

Table 5. Weight Matrix – Hidden Neuron Layer-1 to Output Layer

	h11	h12	h13	h14	h15
op1	-5.972	-0.307	1.187	-2.991	1.544

5.3 BPNN Modeling Results and Analysis

Due to the inherent nature of NN, the input values used for running the BPNNM should be kept somewhat close to, but not necessarily the same as, the input values in the training set. Any significant deviations of the running set from the training set can provide misleading results. We used an arbitrary set of values for number of variables and number of min-terms, and used the BPNNM to predict the XOR/XNOR function complexity.

Figure 8 indicates the comparison for experimental results and BPNNM predictions of ROBDD complexity for 10

variables. It can be inferred that the BPNNM results provide a very good approximation of the ROBDD complexity.

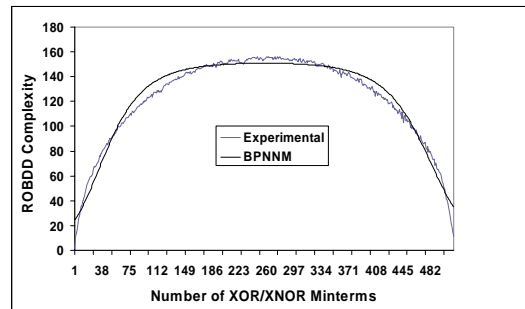


Figure 8. Complexity analysis of Experimental / Neural network models for 10 variables

The same work has been repeated for Boolean functions with 2 to 15 variables. Figures 10 and 11 illustrate experimental and predicted BPNNM results for variables 8 and 12 respectively.

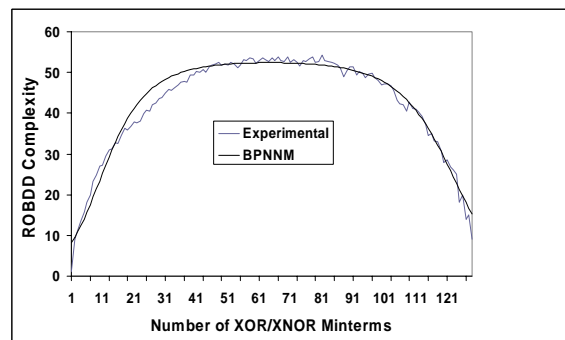


Figure 9. Complexity analysis of Experimental / Neural network models for 8 variables

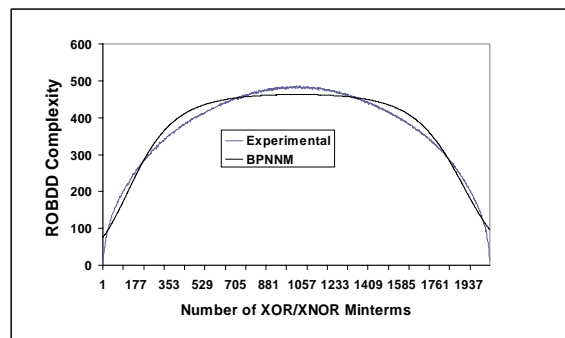


Figure 10. Complexity analysis of Experimental / Neural network models for 12 variables

Screen capture for a sample Brain-Maker training session is shown in the Figure 11. The top part shows the training statistics, i.e. number of 'good' and 'bad' facts, tolerance, etc. ('Good' facts refer to the training sets learnt that are within specified accuracy and the 'bad' facts are outside the required accuracy). The input and output data sets are also shown near the top left of the screen. The (set of four) graphs on the bottom left show the histograms for the neuron weights in different layers whereas the graph on the bottom right shows the NN error as the training progresses.

Figure 12 shows the efficiency of the proposed BPNN, which produces very close fit as the mathematical model

[16] for the prediction of XOR/XNOR function complexity. It can be inferred that the BPNN was able to match the experimental curve with minimum error for most of the XOR/XNOR Product terms.

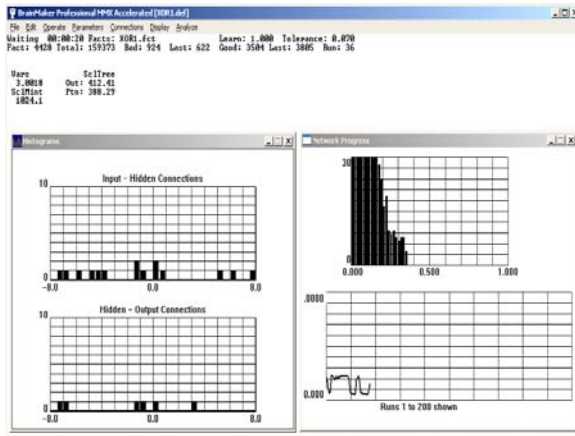


Figure 11. Training the BPNN using Brain-Maker

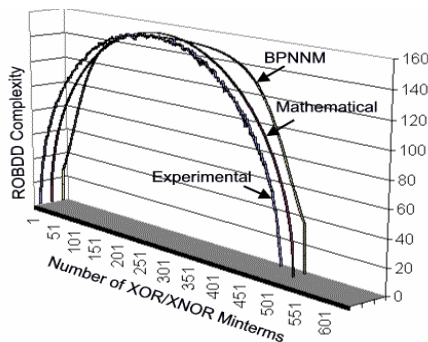


Figure 12. Comparison with Experimental and mathematical models

6. CONCLUSION

In this research work, we have proposed a new ROBDD complexity prediction methodology based on neural network as another alternative to the CUDD simulation and the mathematical models presented by the same authors. An advantage of this model is that it is a single BPNM for the calculation of ROBDD Complexity for different number of variables and number of XOR/XNOR minterms. Once the BPNM is developed, it could be used to conduct further experiments with different types of inputs, in a fraction of the time what a circuit simulator would take. The results show the capabilities of training algorithms in neural networks, which produce a close match for the CUDD simulation with average errors of 0.51% for the calculation of the ROBDD complexity. In light of the results, we conclude that the proposed BPNM in this work could be a valuable tool for exploring the complex computational capabilities of neural network. We are currently exploring the extension of this work to other complexity applications. Extending the BPNM for wider range of variables to verify the proposed method with real benchmark circuits will also be considered.

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