

# HEURISTIC SYNTHESIS OF REVERSIBLE LOGIC – A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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**Abstract.** Reversible logic circuits have been historically motivated by theoretical research in low-power, and recently attracted interest as components of the quantum algorithm, optical computing and nanotechnology. However due to the intrinsic property of reversible logic, traditional irreversible logic design and synthesis methods cannot be carried out. Thus a new set of algorithms are developed correctly to synthesize reversible logic circuit. This paper presents a comprehensive literature review with comparative study on heuristic based reversible logic synthesis. It reviews a range of heuristic based reversible logic synthesis techniques reported by researchers (BDD-based, cycle-based, search-based, non-search-based, rule-based, transformation-based, and ESOP-based). All techniques are described in detail and summarized in a table based on their features, limitation, library used and their consideration metric. Benchmark comparison of gate count and quantum cost are analysed for each synthesis technique. Comparing the synthesis algorithm outputs over the years, it can be observed that different approach has been used for the synthesis of reversible circuit. However, the improvements are not significant. Quantum cost and gate count has improved over the years, but arguments and debates are still on certain issues such as the issue of garbage outputs that remain the same. This paper provides the information of all heuristic based synthesis of reversible logic method proposed over the years. All techniques are explained in detail and thus informative for new reversible logic researchers and bridging the knowledge gap in this area.

## Keywords

*Ancilla input, garbage output, heuristic, quantum cost, reversible logic, synthesis.*

## 1. Introduction

Landauer, has shown that when an irreversible computational system perform any logic operation, a bit of information is erased [1], each of this information erased is converted to  $kT \ln 2$  Joule of heat, where  $k$  is Boltzmann constant which is  $1.38065 \cdot 10^{-23}$  J/K and  $T$  is the environment temperature [2]. Today, all computers erase bit of information every time a logic operation is performed due to the irreversible computational system used. As Moore's Law continues to hold, whereby the number of transistor in an integrated circuit doubles every 18 months [3], with the current irreversible technologies, that heat generated by each IC also doubles accordingly [4]. If this situation proceeds, Moore's Law will not remain valid after year 2020 as the amount of heat generated by the large number of transistors in an IC had reached a limit that the IC can bear and unable to go further.

An alternative way to overcome this problem is to use logic operations that do not erase information [5]. These types of logic operations are called reversible logic operations. Bennett [6] has proved that information lost would not occur if a computation is carried in a reversible way, since the amount of energy dissipated in a system bears a direct relationship to the number of bits erased during computation.

Reversible gates are logic gates that use reversible logic operation, its operation do not erase information and dissipate very less heat. Nowadays, research in reversible logic has received considerable attention in various areas such as low-power computing devices, optical computing [7], quantum computing [8] and nanotechnology [9].

The synthesis of reversible logic differs significantly from traditional irreversible logic synthesis due to the difference in their characteristic. A reversible gate is a logical cell that has the same amount of inputs and out-

puts which has a bijective mapping between the input and output vectors. Direct fan-outs from a gate output to multiple gates and input as well as feedbacks from a gate output directly to its inputs are not allowed [10]. Due to such unique features of reversible circuits, existing algorithms and tools for circuit synthesis and optimization using irreversible logic gates cannot be used for reversible logic [11]. Therefore new methods are developed to synthesize and optimize reversible logic.

In this survey paper, we focused on heuristic based synthesis algorithm of reversible logic which includes most of the well-known algorithms proposed by different authors over the years.

## 2. Reversible Logic Preliminaries

### 2.1. Reversible Function

A logic function  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  of  $n$  Boolean variables is reversible if it maps each input assignment to an unique output assignment.

**Example:** Table 1 illustrates a reversible function of three variables. The function  $f = (1, 3, 5, 7, 6, 2, 0, 4)$  is permuted over  $(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)$  where there exist a one-to-one relationship of  $f(0) = 1, f(1) = 3, f(2) = 5, f(3) = 7, f(4) = 6, f(5) = 2, f(6) = 0, f(7) = 4$ . Each output is assigned to a unique input with no repeating.

Tab. 1: Reversible function.

	Input $x, y, z$	Output $p, q, r$	Permutation Function $F$
0	0 0 0	0 0 1	1
1	0 0 1	0 1 1	3
2	0 1 0	1 0 1	5
3	0 1 1	1 1 1	7
4	1 0 0	1 1 0	6
5	1 0 1	0 1 0	2
6	1 1 0	0 0 0	0
7	1 1 1	1 0 0	4

#### 1) Cycles

A cycle of length  $k$  which represented by disjoint cycles of variables is denoted by  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$  where  $f(x_1) = x_2, f(x_2) = x_3, \dots, f(x_k) = x_1$ . This representation is necessary for reversible logic because it is based on permutation which is a bijective function. The length of a cycle is the number of elements it contains [12]. A cycle with length two is called a transposition. When two cycles  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are disjoint they can commute,

i.e.  $c_1c_2 = c_2c_1$ . Other than that, a cycle may be written in different ways as a product of transpositions and using different numbers of transpositions. Cycles can be categorized as even and odd with respect to the number of permutations [13].

**Example:** The truth table in Tab. 2 can be represented by  $(2, 3) (6, 7)$  because the corresponding function swaps 010 and 011; and 110 to 111.

Tab. 2: Reversible function and its permutation function.

	Input $x, y, z$	Output $p, q, r$	Permutation Function $F$
0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0
1	0 0 1	0 0 1	1
2	0 1 0	0 1 1	3
3	0 1 1	0 1 0	2
4	1 0 0	1 0 0	4
5	1 0 1	1 0 1	5
6	1 1 0	1 1 1	7
7	1 1 1	1 1 0	6

### 2.2. Reversible Gates

A reversible gate realizes a reversible function. If a reversible gate has  $k$  input and output wires, it is called as a  $k \times k$  gate, or a gate on  $k$  wires [14]. Reversible gates have the same number of input and output i.e. one-to-one mapping between these two vectors. Therefore the input states can be always reconstructed from the output states. The commonly used reversible gates are illustrated below.

#### 1) Multiple-Control Toffoli Gate

A multi-control Toffoli gate [15], [16] can be written as  $C^n\text{NOT}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1})$  on  $\text{TOF}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1})$ .

The gate maps a Boolean pattern  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1})$  to  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; x_1x_2\dots x_n \oplus x_{n+1})$  for case  $n \geq 2$ . For  $n = 1$ , it maps a Boolean pattern of  $(x_1)$  to  $(\bar{x}_1)$ . For  $n = 0, 1, 2$  the gate are called as NOT, CNOT and Toffoli ( $C^n\text{NOT}$ ) gate. These three gates compose the universal NCT library. The general structure of NOT, CNOT and Toffoli gate is illustrated in Fig. 1.

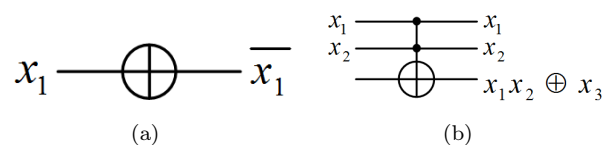


Fig. 1: (a) NOT gate (b) Toffoli gate.

### 2) Multi-Control Fredkin Gate

A multi-control Fredkin gate [17] can be written as  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2})$ . The gate maps a Boolean pattern  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2})$  to  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+2}, x_{n+1})$  if and only the Boolean product  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n = 1$ , otherwise the input will not be swapped. For  $n = 0, 1, 2$  the gate are called SWAP and Fredkin gate. By adding these two gates to the NCT library, they form the NCTSF library. The general structure of SWAP and Fredkin gate is illustrated in Fig. 2.

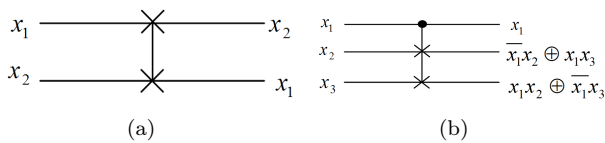


Fig. 2: (a) SWAP gate (b) Fredkin gate.

### 3) Peres Gate

Peres gate [18] has only three inputs and outputs. The gate maps a Boolean pattern  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  to  $(x_1, x_2 \oplus x_2, x_1, x_2 \oplus x_3)$ . The general structure of Peres gate is illustrated in Fig. 3(a).

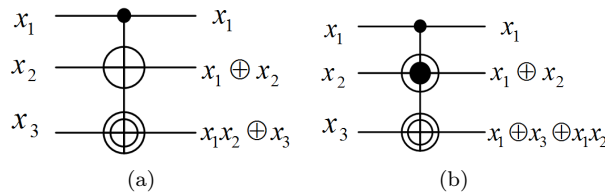


Fig. 3: (a) Peres gate (b) Inverse Peres gate.

### 4) Inverse Peres Gate

The inverse Peres gate is also known as the TF gate in [19]. The gate is the inverse connection of the Peres gate where we treat its outputs as inputs and inputs as outputs. The gate maps a Boolean pattern  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  to  $(x_1, x_1 \oplus x_2, x_1 \oplus x_3 \oplus x_1x_2)$ . The general structure of inverse Peres gate is illustrated in Fig. 3(b).

## 2.3. Elementary Quantum Gate

All reversible gates greater than 2 bits are realized with a combination of several elementary quantum gates [20]. The widely used elementary gates are the NOT, the CNOT, the controlled - V and controlled - V+ [16]. Unlike normal logic gates operation, elementary quantum gates manipulate with qubits rather than bits. In

a bit, there are two states which are either 0 or 1, whereas for qubit, the two states are  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ , where notation ‘ $|\psi\rangle$ ’ is called the Dirac notation [21]. The difference between bits and qubits is that the qubit can be in the state other than  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ . It is also possible to form a linear combinations of  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  often called as *superposition*, where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are complex numbers such that  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ .

The diagram of controlled - V and controlled - V+ gates and operation are illustrated in Fig. 4. The elementary quantum gate constructing the Toffoli, Peres, SWAP and Fredkin gate are illustrated in Fig. 5.

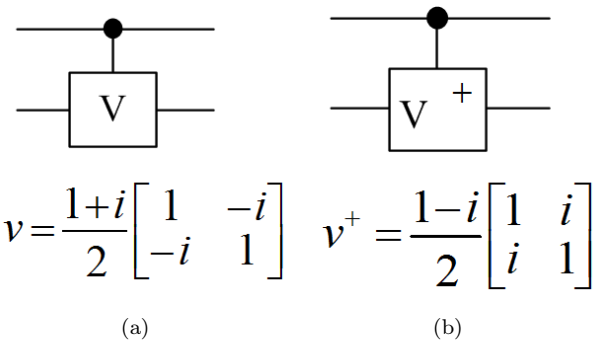


Fig. 4: (a) Controlled - V gate (b) Controlled - V+ gate.

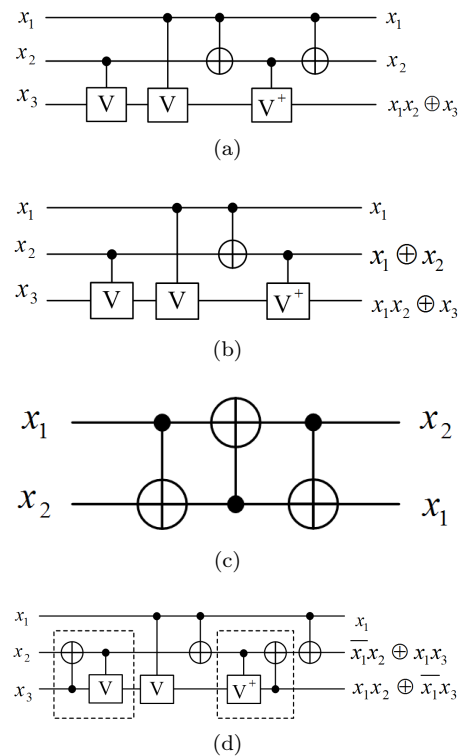


Fig. 5: (a) Elementary gate realized Toffoli gate (b) Elementary gate realized Peres gate (c) Elementary gate realized SWAP gate (d) Elementary gate realized Fredkin gate.

### 2.4. Quantum Cost

Tab. 3: Toffoli gate costs.

Size (n)	Farbage Output	Name	Quantum Cost( $\Delta$ )
1	0	NOT	1
2	0	CNOT	1
3	0	Toffoli	5
4	0	C <sup>4</sup> NOT	13
5	0	C <sup>5</sup> NOT	29
5	2	C <sup>5</sup> NOT	26
6	0	C <sup>6</sup> NOT	61
6	1	C <sup>6</sup> NOT	52
6	3	C <sup>6</sup> NOT	38
7	0	C <sup>7</sup> NOT	125
7	1	C <sup>7</sup> NOT	80
7	4	C <sup>7</sup> NOT	50
8	0	C <sup>8</sup> NOT	253
8	1	C <sup>8</sup> NOT	100
8	5	C <sup>8</sup> NOT	62
9	0	C <sup>9</sup> NOT	509
9	1	C <sup>9</sup> NOT	128
9	6	C <sup>9</sup> NOT	74
10	0	C <sup>10</sup> NOT	1021
10	1	C <sup>10</sup> NOT	152
10	7	C <sup>10</sup> NOT	86
n>10	0	C <sup>n</sup> NOT	2 <sup>n</sup> - 3
n>10	1	C <sup>n</sup> NOT	24 <sup>n</sup> - 88
n>10	n-3	C <sup>n</sup> NOT	12 <sup>n</sup> - 34

All reversible gates are associated with a cost called quantum cost. Quantum cost denotes the effort required to transform a reversible circuit into a quantum circuit. Quantum cost is measured based on the number of elementary quantum gate realized in the gate [22]. Each elementary gate contributes a quantum cost of  $\Delta 1$ . In Fig. 5(a), Toffoli gate have five elementary quantum gates, so its quantum cost is  $\Delta 5$ . In Fig. 5(d), Fredkin gate has seven elementary quantum gates, however it only has a quantum cost is  $\Delta 5$ , this is because two elementary quantum gates which shares the same line (quantum gates bracketed in the box) is consider as one. Quantum cost for SWAP, Peres and inverse Peres gate are  $\Delta 3$ ,  $\Delta 4$  and  $\Delta 4$ . Quantum cost of generalized Toffoli gates can be found in Tab. 3 [23]. For  $n \geq 3$  size Fredkin gate, the quantum cost is the same as the Toffoli gate.

### 2.5. Reversible Circuits

Reversible circuits are logic circuit constructed using only a combinational of reversible logic gates. In a reversible circuit connection, direct fan-outs from a gate output to multiple gates and input as well as feedbacks

from a gate output directly to its inputs are not allowed [8], [10].

### 2.6. Garbage Output

The unused output of a reversible circuit which does not perform any operation is called the garbage output. These outputs are required to maintain the circuit in reversible to have an equal number of inputs and outputs [24]. Figure 6 shows an example of reversible function of  $f = x_1x_2 \oplus x_3$ , the two unused pins are the garbage outputs.

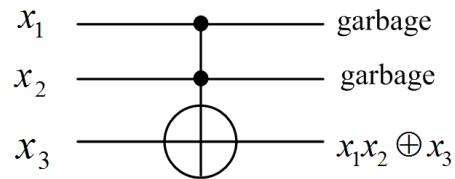


Fig. 6: Garbage output.

### 2.7. Ancilla Input

The constant value input to a reversible circuit is called the ancilla input. In reversible circuit design, a reversible circuit with less ancilla input is preferred. However, some reversible function cannot be generated without using ancilla inputs i.e. a reversible AND gate required one ancilla as shown in Fig. 7(a). An ancilla input is added to a CNOT gate to act as a copying gate to explicit fan-out as shown in Fig. 7(b).

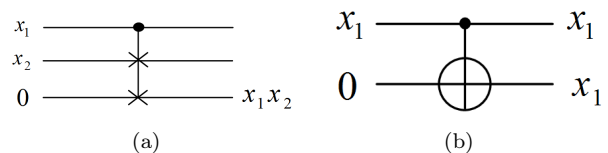


Fig. 7: (a) Reversible AND gate (b) CNOT gate as copying gate.

### 2.8. Representation Model

Reversible functions can be described in several ways as below:

#### 1) Truth Table

Truth table is a straightforward representation to represent a Boolean function but become cumbersome for a large number of variables [25]. A reversible function of  $n$  variable can be represented in a column wide of  $n$

and a row of  $2^n$ . Figure 8 and Tab. 4 shows an example of a reversible circuit and its truth table representation.

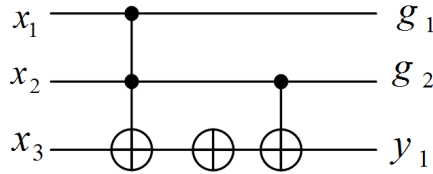


Fig. 8: Reversible circuit.

Tab. 4: Truth table representation.

Input $x_1, x_2, x_3$	Output $g_1, g_2, y_1$
0 0 0	0 0 1
0 0 1	0 0 0
0 1 0	0 1 0
0 1 1	0 1 1
1 0 0	1 0 1
1 0 1	1 0 0
1 1 0	1 1 1
1 1 1	1 1 0

2) Matrix

Matrix based representation can better reflects the quantum state evolution and the properties of quantum computation however it become cumbersome for reversible function with a large number of variable. It represents the permutation function of a reversible function in a 0-1 matrix with only one 1 appears in each column. Example below shows a matrix representation of a CNOT gate with it truth table defined in Tab. 5.

Tab. 5: Truth table representation.

	Input $x, y$	Output $p, q$
0	0 0	0 0
1	0 1	0 1
2	1 0	1 1
3	1 1	1 0

The specific definition of CNOT assumes an eigen-basis of:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |00\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, & |01\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\
 |10\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, & |11\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

writing all the output in column, we obtain:

$$CNOT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{2}$$

3) Binary Decision Diagram (BDD)

Any Boolean function can be graphically represented by different type of Decision Diagrams (DD) [26], [27]. A BDD is a directed acyclic graph where a Shannon decomposition ( $f = \bar{x}_1 f_{x_1=0} + \bar{x}_1 f_{x_1=1}$ ) is carried out in each non-terminal node. Generally BDD of a function may require a large amount of nodes which become impractical for function with large variables. Fig. 9 shows an example of a BDD.

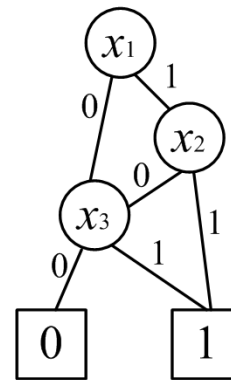


Fig. 9: BDD for  $f = x_2 + x_1x_2$ .

4) Positive Polarity Reed-Muller (PPRM) Expansion

Any Boolean function can be described using an EXOR sum-of-product (ESOP) expansion [28]. The PPRM expansion only uses uncomplemented variables and it can be derived from the function's sum-of-product (SOP) expression. To uncomplemented a complemented variable, this rules can be applied  $\bar{a} = 1 \oplus a$ . The PPRM expansion of a function is canonical and is defined as following:  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = a_0 \oplus a_1x_1 \oplus \dots \oplus a_{13}x_1x_3 \oplus \dots \oplus a_{n-1,n}x_{n-1}x_n \oplus \dots \oplus a_{12\dots n}x_1x_2\dots x_n$ . Where  $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $x_i$  are all uncomplemented (positive polarity).

3. Synthesis Algorithm

In this section, all heuristic based synthesis algorithms are described in the following subsections.

### 3.1. BDD-Based Synthesis Algorithm

Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs) synthesis algorithm was first proposed by Kerntopf in [29]. The algorithm selects reversible gates, one at a time, based on the complexity of the reminder logic. In this method the Decision Diagrams are constructed for all the possible functions and minimal node BDD is selected. In [30], the algorithm synthesis a function starts by directly constructing a BDD. Then each node of the BDD is substituted by a cascade of reversible gates as seen in Fig. 10. As BDDs may contain shared nodes which result in fan-outs which are not allowed in reversible logic, therefore, additional circuit lines are needed to overcome this problem. The function being synthesis will result in a circuit composed of Toffoli or elementary quantum gates respectively are obtained in linear time and with memory linear to the size of the BDD. The algorithm is able to synthesize large functions with more than a hundred of variable in low running-time. This algorithm leads to a good reduction in both quantum cost and run-time, but many constant and garbage lines are added which makes the results impractical.

In [31], a post-process optimization method is used to reduce the number of lines by merging some garbage output lines with appropriate constant input lines. Therefore, the resulting circuit generated by [30] can apply the algorithm in [31] to reduce the constant and garbage lines.

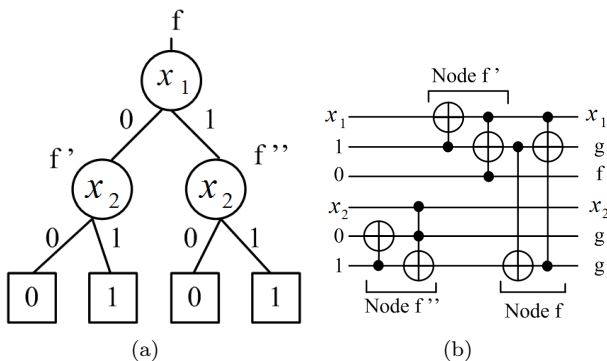


Fig. 10: (a) BDD (b) Resulting circuit for a function  $f = x_1 \oplus x_2$ .

### 3.2. Cycle-Based Synthesis Algorithm

Cycle-based synthesis methods can be described as in Fig. 11. The method works by separating the entire permutation into a set of cycles and synthesize them separately. This divide and conquer method is effective against reversible functions that leave many inputs unchanged.

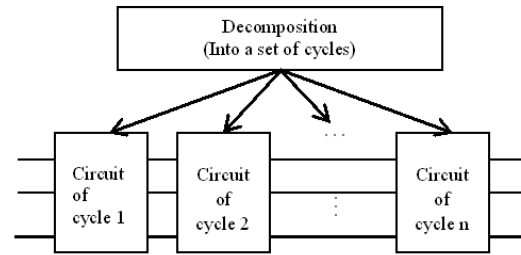


Fig. 11: A general outlines of cycle-based methods.

In [12], the authors proposed a synthesis method which can be implemented without temporary storage channels using the NCT library set. Each pair of disjoint transpositions is implemented by a synthesis algorithm and the final circuit is constructed by cascading individual circuits.

In [32], an extension of the method from [12] is done which it reduces the unnecessary large number of cycle and synthesis cost by applying NOT and CNOT gate instead of Toffoli gate for many situations.

In [33], the synthesis algorithm decomposed a given large cycle into a set of single 3-cycles, pairs of 3-cycles and pair of 2-cycles and synthesize the resulted cycle directly.

However in [34], the authors develop a  $k$ -cycle-based synthesis method that uses a set of seven building blocks directly to synthesize a given permutation to reduce both quantum cost and average run-time. The seven building blocks includes a pair of 2-cycle, a single 3-cycle, a pair of 3-cycles, a single 5-cycle, a pair of 5-cycles, a single 2-cycle (4-cycle) followed by a single 4-cycle (2-cycle) and a pair of 5-cycles. In [35], a more efficient decomposition algorithm was proposed. The algorithm produces all minimal and in-equivalent factorizations each of which contains the maximum of disjoint cycles. Then a graph perfect matching algorithm is used to select the best possible matching pairs with the minimum cost.

In [36], the authors presented an implementation of an algorithm for finding optimal gate count of any 4-bit based reversible function. The algorithm is based on the set of all functions that have an optimal circuit up to 9 gates can be effectively stored in the computer nowadays. For each equivalent class of reversible function the algorithm stores them only in their canonical form and thus reduces in the memory consumption. The reversible function database used in the algorithm is stored as hash tables. Using the database, the gate count of the optimal circuit can be easily found in a short amount of time through lookup in their canonical representative form. For synthesized reversible function that requires more than 9 gate counts; an optimal circuit additional processing is used. The algorithm



will partitioned the function into two circuits such that  $f = g \circ r$ , where  $f$  refers to the synthesized function,  $g$  and  $r$  refers to the two partitioned circuits and  $\circ$  denotes cascading of the circuits. By using the database, and partitioned synthesis, the algorithm archives great synthesis time.

In [37] the authors proposed a similar approach to [36] however their objective is to optimize in term of quantum cost with a given gate count. The authors have further extended their work in [38] which further improves the quantum cost result and able to optimize circuits of more than 4-bits.

In [39], an extension of the method from [36] is presented. The algorithm removes all inverse functions and added several new functions to the circuit databases. This improves the performance of the algorithm and allows to synthesize more 4-bit reversible functions.

In [40], the algorithm in [36] and [39] is extended which it combines the algorithm with depth-first search method for more effective pruning in the search tree. During the synthesis, a reversible gate is selected at each step and is added at the end of the previous analysed gate cascade and result is checked if it gives a circuit for the specified reversible function with the selected number of gates. The check is done by calculating the reversible function to be constructed and calculate the optimal gate count required. Once a solution is found, the algorithm backtracks and uses other possible reversible gates for the specific reversible function to get a better solution. Besides, the authors have added polarity control to the NCT library gate. The result shows improvement in term of gate count and quantum cost.

### 3.3. Search-Based Synthesis Algorithm

Search-based synthesis methods can be described as in Fig. 12. The method works by separating the entire permutation into a set of cycles and synthesize them separately. This divide and conquer method is effective against reversible functions that leave many inputs unchanged.

In [41], the authors' algorithm uses the positive-polarity Reed-Muller decomposition at each stage to synthesize the function using only CNOT and  $C^2$ NOT(Toffoli) gate. The primary objective of their algorithm is to minimize the number of gates (ie. factors) needed to transform a PPRM expansion into the identity function. Their secondary objective is to minimize the size of the individual gates (i.e. the number of literals in each factor). In order to take advantage of shared functionality among multi-output func-

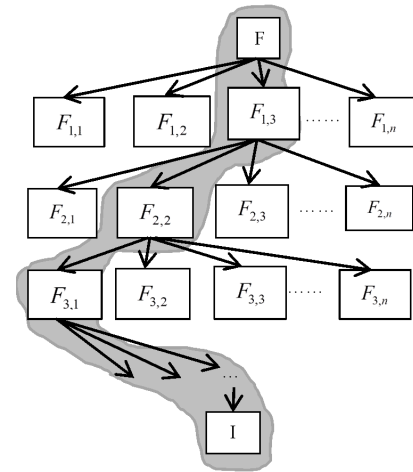


Fig. 12: Search-based synthesis algorithm.

tions, candidate factors are selected among common sub-expressions of PPRM expansions. However the method does not guarantee that the resulted PPRM expression contains fewer terms. In [42], the authors proposed a hybrid behavior of depth-first search (DFS) and breadth-first search (BFS) synthesis algorithm. Their algorithm is able to reduce the tree depth without decreasing the quality of results. In [43] improves the method of [41] by introducing Peres, reverse Peres and Fredkin gates into their search-based algorithm.

### 3.4. Non-Search-Based Synthesis Algorithm

In [11], the author proposed a non-search based synthesis algorithm. Compared with most widely used search-based methods whereby they evaluate all possible gates to find an implementation of the circuits, this method cannot be used when synthesize large functions. However this can be avoided in non-search based synthesis algorithm as it is able to produce a solution for a given specification without evaluation of all possible gates during each step. The synthesis algorithm is similar to [44] just that they have used multiple-controlled Toffoli gates with both positive and negative controls. The algorithm works on the truth table into the identity function. The algorithm always converges and leads to a valid result very fast compared to search-based method. The following example shows a reversible function generates into its reversible circuit using the non-search based method.

Table 6 represents the truth table of transformation in each step of the reversible function. During each step of the transformation, a Karnaugh map is used to decide what gate to be used as seen in Fig. 13 and Fig. 14.

Tab. 6: Truth table representation.

$a_1 a_2 a_3$	F	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
$f_1 f_2 f_3$	$f_1 f_2 f_3$	$f_1 f_2 f_3$	$f_1 f_2 f_3$	$f_1 f_2 f_3$
0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1
1 0 0	1 1 1	1 0 1	1 0 0	1 0 0
1 0 1	1 0 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 0 1
1 1 0	1 1 0	1 1 0	1 1 0	1 1 0
1 1 1	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 1	1 1 1

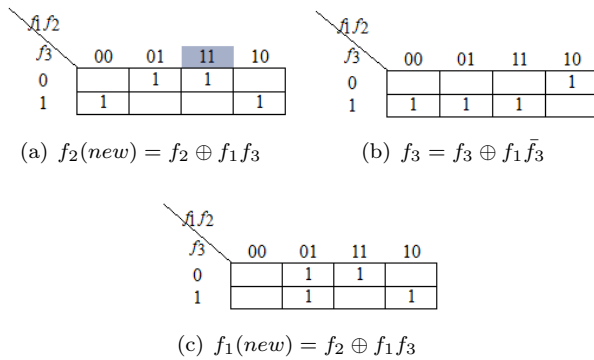


Fig. 13: Karnaugh map.

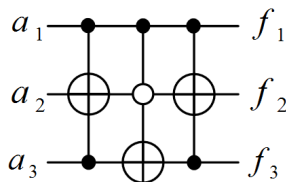


Fig. 14: Resulting final circuit.

### 3.5. Rule-Based Synthesis Algorithm

In [45] a rule-based optimization approach of reversible logic is introduced. The synthesis algorithm uses both positive and negative control Toffoli gate during the optimization. A set of rules for removing NOT gates and optimizing sub-circuits with common-target gates are proposed. The synthesis algorithm can be broken into two steps, the first step uses NOT gates across a given reversible circuit to delete redundant NOT gate to improve the total circuit cost as can be seen in Fig. 15. Then the second step is to use a Karnaugh map-based optimization introduced in [46] to optimize sub-circuits with common-target gates as can be seen in one of the examples in Fig. 16 where the reversible circuit is further optimized using the Karnaugh map.

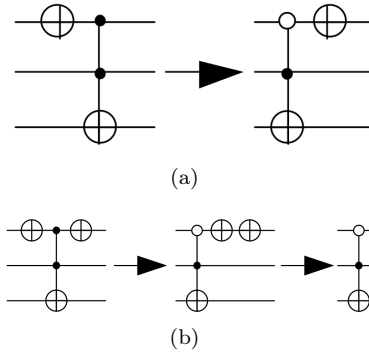


Fig. 15: Deleting redundant NOT gate.

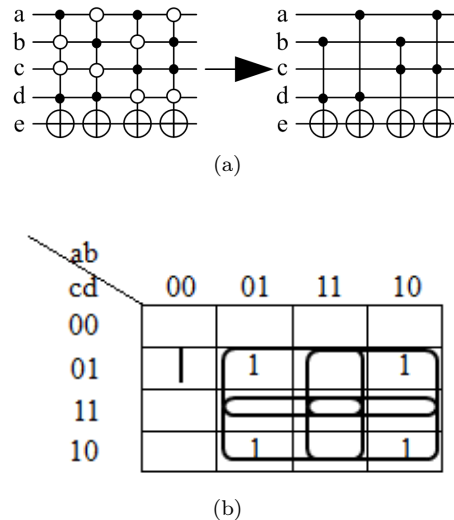


Fig. 16: (a) Sub-circuit optimization (b) Truth table reduction.

### 3.6. Transformation-Based Synthesis Algorithm

In [47] a set of Toffoli based network transformation rules is introduced. The algorithm mainly served to bring a network to a canonical form. The transformation is done based on six local transformation rules which are applied for a sequence of Toffoli based gates. The disadvantages of the approach are that it produces a high number of garbage bits. All the application rules were further extended in [44]. The synthesis algorithm synthesizes reversible function in terms of  $n \times n$  Toffoli gates and uses several transformation rules on a set of predefined patterns called templates. The circuit is constructed by a single pass through the specification with a minimal look ahead and no back tracking. Reduction rules are applied using simple template matching. The synthesis method works by comparing the truth table between the input and the output. For a given input or output, reversible gates are applied to transform them into identity function. To select which function to transform on which gate to be used, Hamming Distances between the input and output are



used. The algorithm iterates through the row of the truth table looking for the different in input and output and transforms them with multiple-control Toffoli gates. The function of the algorithm can be illustrated in Fig. 17.

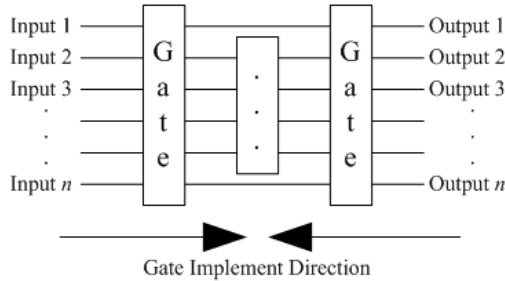


Fig. 17: Gate implementation direction.

Later in [48] the synthesis of Toffoli networks are divided into two steps, the first step finds a network that realizes the desired function and the second stage transform the network such that it uses lesser gates while realizing the same function. In [49], the authors further improved the template matching algorithm proposed in the previous work in [48] by replacing the Hamming Distance method with the Reed-Muller Spectra. Using the Reed-Muller Spectra, the reversible functions are represented in their PPRM expansion which can be easily substituted using reversible gates and thus improves in the overall synthesis result.

In [50], a modification of [44] is presented which transverse the truth table according to specially constructed ordering of rows. Explicit storage of truth tables has also been avoided and the data for synthesis is represented implicitly allowing for the synthesis of very large functions.

### 3.7. ESOP-Based Synthesis Algorithm

In [3], the author has proposed an exclusive-or sum-of-products (ESOP)-based Toffoli gate cascade synthesis algorithm. The algorithm is capable of generating a cascade of reversible gates for large reversible functions. The algorithm uses a simple cost metric heuristic during a recursive divide and conquer function to determine the placement of the NOT and Toffoli gate. For an ESOP represented function, the ESOP-based synthesis approach generates a circuit with  $2n + m$  lines, where  $n$  is the number of inputs to the function and  $m$  is the number of outputs. The last  $m$  circuit lines are assigned to 0 during initialization. Having those gates selected such that the desired function is realized. A single product  $x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik}$  of an ESOP description directly corresponds to a Toffoli gate with control lines  $C = \{x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik}\}$ . For those with negative proposi-

tional variable, NOT gates are applied to generate appropriate values (Toffoli gates with  $C = 1$ ). Figure 18 shows an example of a reversible circuit generated using ESOP-based synthesis method generated from the ESOP truth table in Tab. 7.

Tab. 7: ESOP truth table.

Input	Output
$x_1, x_2, x_3$	$y_1, y_2, y_3$
1 - 1	1 0 0
0 1	1 1 0
1 1	0 0 1
0 0	0 0 1
0 1 0	0 1 0

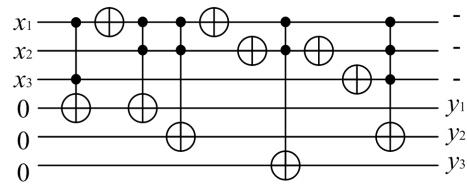


Fig. 18: ESOP resulting reversible circuit.

## 4. Finding, Discussion and Comparison

To analyze the effectiveness of reversible logic synthesis algorithms results, a certain benchmarking circuits are used. Benchmarking circuits are taken from [51] and [52] where these web pages offers a widely used reversible benchmark functions and a list of the proposed algorithm review over the years. All benchmarking are clearly listed and their currently best known circuit is presented. In Table 8 all the key features of each synthesis algorithm are listed. This table has five columns: 1<sup>st</sup>: describes synthesis methods proposed by researchers; 2<sup>nd</sup>: important feature considered for different approaches; 3<sup>rd</sup>: Limitation of each algorithm; 4<sup>th</sup>: library function used and the last column indicates the metric.

Table 9 shows those benchmarks functions with most synthesis algorithm comparing side by side in terms of gate count and quantum cost. For several synthesis algorithm which their synthesis result using benchmarking functions cannot be found are neglected. For those synthesis algorithms which are listed in Tab. 9, not all benchmarking result can be obtained, therefore for those we are not able to obtain, a symbol “-” are present in the table.

From Tab. 9, we observed that for the same approaches, the newer algorithm has slightly improved

the synthesis outcome. For [31], as their algorithm reduction is many circuit dependent therefore to have the condition met their algorithm for reduction are less. As a result, their synthesis algorithm outcome only slightly improved from their previous one [30]. For benchmarking functions which have less number of variable such as the  $4mod5$ ,  $hwb5$ ,  $sym6$  where the function contain the most 6 variables, [43] and [49] can perform good simulation.

## 5. Conclusion

Research in reversible logic has gain enthusiastic response for the computing technologies future. Research on reversible logic has been over the past 30 years [15]. Reversible logic library has been increased over the years from NOT, CNOT and Toffoli gate to multiple-controlled Toffoli gate and Peres gate. New synthesis techniques will always exist to replace the existing ones to more efficient synthesis Boolean function into reversible circuits. Despite the significant progress in reversible logic synthesis, several open challenges problems will still remain.

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**Tab. 8:** Comparison table of all discussed synthesis methods.

Synthesis Method	Features	Limitations	Library	Metric
Kerntopf (2004) [29]	BDD-based synthesis	Limited scalability	NCTSF	QC
Wille and Drechsler (2009) [30]	BDD-based synthesis Able to cope with large function	Large amount of ancilla inputs and garbage output	NCT	QC
Wille, et al. (2010) [31]	BDD-based synthesis Able to cope with large function	Ancilla input Garbage output Circuit dependency	NCT	Ancilla input
Shende, et al. (2003) [12]	Cycle-based synthesis No ancilla input	Circuit dependency Limited scalability	NCT	QC
Prasad, et al. (2006) [32]	Cycle-based synthesis No ancilla input	Function dependency Limited scalability	NCT	QC
Sasanian, et al. (2009) [33]	Cycle-based synthesis No ancilla input	Limited scalability	NCT	GC
Saeedi, et al. (2010) [34]	Cycle-based synthesis No ancilla input	Function dependency	NCT	QC
Saeedi, et al. (2010) [35]	Cycle-based synthesis No ancilla input	Circuit dependency	Any	Locality
Golubitsky, et al. (2010) [36]	Cycle-based synthesis Fast synthesis time	Function dependency Limited scalability Requires large amount of storage	NCT	GC
Golubitsky, et al. (2012) [39]	Cycle-based synthesis Fast synthesis time Able to cope with large function	Function dependency Limited scalability Requires large amount of storage	NCT	GC
Szyprowski, et al. (2011) [37]	Cycle-based synthesis Fast synthesis time	Function dependency Limited scalability	NCT	GC then QC
Szyprowski, et al. (2011) [38]	Cycle-based synthesis Fast synthesis time	Function dependency Limited scalability	NCT	GC then QC
Szyprowski, et al. (2013) [40]	Cycle-based synthesis Fast synthesis time	Function dependency Limited scalability	m NCT	GC, QC QC
Gupta (2006) [41]	Search-based synthesis	Limited scalability	NCT	QC
Saeedi (2007) [42]	Search-based synthesis	Limited scalability	NCT	QC
Donald and Jha (2008) [43]	Search-based synthesis Slow synthesis time	Limited scalability	NCTSPF	QC, QC
Saeedi, et al. (2007) [11]	Non-search-based synthesis Able to cope with large function No ancilla input	High quantum cost	NCT	GC
Arabzadeh, et al. (2010) [45]	Rule-based synthesis No ancilla input	Circuit dependency	m-NCT	QC
Iwan, et al. (2002) [47]	Transformation-based synthesis	Large amount of ancilla inputs and garbage out. Circuit dependency	NCT	QC
Miller, et al. (2003) [44]	Transformation-based synthesis No ancilla input	Limited scalability Circuit dependency	NCT	QC
Maslov et al. (2005) [48]	Transformation-based synthesis No ancilla input	Limited scalability	NCT	QC
Maslov (2007) [49]	Transformation-based synthesis	Limited scalability	NCT	QC
Alhagi, et al. (2010) [50]	Transformation-based synthesis No ancilla input	Limited scalability	NCT	GC, QC
Fazel, et al. (2007) [3]	ESOR-based synthesis Able to cope with large function	Ancilla input	NCT	QC

Tab. 9: Benchmark comparison.

	BDD				Cycle									
	Wille and Drechsler (2009) [30]		Wille and Drechsler (2010) [31]		Prasad et al. (2006) [32]		Saeedi et al. (2010) [35]		Golubitsky et al. (2012) [39]		Szyprowski et al. (2011) [38]		Szyprowski et al. (2013) [40]	
	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC
2of5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3_17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-
4_49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	12	32	12	28	9	30
4mod5	8	24	8	24	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5mod5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alu_9	9	29	9	29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cycle10	78	202	71	195	-	-	-	1206	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cycle17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Decod24_10	11	27	11	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ham3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ham7	61	141	61	141	-	-	-	49	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ham15	153	309	152	308	-	-	-	214	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb4	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	24	11	21	11	19	10	22
Hwb5	88	276	88	276	115	-	31	91	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb6	159	507	159	507	457	-	47	107	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb7	281	909	281	909	-	-	-	2630	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb8	449	1461	449	1461	-	-	2710	6940	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb9	699	2275	699	2275	-	-	6563	16173	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb10	-	-	-	-	-	-	12288	35618	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb11	-	-	-	-	-	-	32261	90745	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb12	-	-	-	-	-	-	55998	198928	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb13	-	-	-	-	-	-	147471	436305	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb14	-	-	-	-	-	-	266036	994340	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb15	-	-	-	-	-	-	592010	1999194	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb16	-	-	-	-	-	-	1226846	4730024	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mini-alu_84	20	60	19	59	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mod5adder	96	292	96	292	-	-	-	79	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mod1024adder	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Plus63mod4096	49	89	49	89	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Plus63mod8192	53	97	53	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Plus127mod8192	54	98	54	98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rd32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	12	4	12	4	12
Rd53	34	98	34	98	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rd73	73	217	73	217	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rd84	104	304	102	302	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sym6	29	93	28	92	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sym9	62	206	61	205	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

	Search				Rule		Transformation					
	Gupta et al. (2006) [41]		Donald and Jha (2008) [43]		Arabzadeh et al. (2010) [45]		Miller et al. (2003) [44]		Maslov et al. (2005) [48]		Maslov et al. (2007) [49]	
	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC	GC	QC
2of5	20	100	20	9	-	-	12	32	13	32	-	-
3_17	6	14	5	11	-	13	6	12	-	-	6	14
4_49	13	61	12	29	-	30	16	58	13	63	12	32
4mod5	9	25	5	13	-	-	8	24	9	19	5	9
5mod5	11	91	11	91	-	-	17	185	21	125	17	77
Alu_9	9	49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	25
Cycle10	26	1435	-	-	-	-	585	3867	19	1198	19	1206
Cycle17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48	6069
Decod24_10	11	31	11	31	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	19
Ham3	5	9	4	7	-	-	5	7	4	10	5	9
Ham7	23	68	22	67	-	-	23	81	21	65	25	49
Ham15					-	-	132	1827	70	453	109	206
Hwb4	15	35	10	19	-	-	17	63	11	81	11	23
Hwb5			35	175	-	101	55	313	24	248	24	104
Hwb6					-	140	126	1528	65	1171	42	140
Hwb7					-	2516	586	4385	236	3874	331	2611
Hwb8					-	6687	-	-	637	16522	749	7013
Hwb9					-	20207	1544	44702	1541	44653	1959	22502
Hwb10					-	52225	-	-	3595	136164	4540	59191
Hwb11					-	121830	-	-	9314	345020	11600	136756
Hwb12					-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb13					-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb14					-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb15					-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hwb16					-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mini-alu_84	21	173	-	-	-	-	95	670	-	-	36	248
Mod5adder	37	529	-	-	-	71	223	1379	17	77	17	81
Mod1024adder					-	-	-	-	-	-	55	1575
Plus63mod4096					-	-	-	-	-	-	24	4873
Plus63mod8192					-	-	-	-	-	-	28	9183
Plus127mod8192					-	-	-	-	-	-	25	9131
Rd32	4	12	5	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rd53	13	116	17	78	-	62	28	117	16	75	16	65
Rd73					-	-	20	64	20	64	1344	20779
Rd84					-	-	28	98	28	98	124	8738
Sym6	36	777	-	-	-	-	177	1340	20	62	15	119
Sym9					-	-	362	2845	28	94	27	201

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