Improved Algorithms for Debugging Problems on Erroneous Reversible Circuits

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Abstract. Reversible circuits and their synthesis methods have been actively studied in order to realize reversible computation. However, there are few known ways to debug erroneous reversible circuits. In this paper, we propose new algorithms for debugging problems. For single gate error, we improve the theoretical efficiency of previous methods, which use worst case exponential time algorithms such as SAT or decision diagrams. We also propose an algorithm debugging multiple gate error circuits by using π DDs, decision diagrams for permutation sets. We evaluate our algorithms theoretically and experimentally, and confirm significant improvement.

Keywords: Reversible computation · Circuit design · Permutations · Algorithms · Decision diagrams · Dynamic programming

1 Introduction

Reversible computation is a fundamental technology for next generation computation such as quantum computation [11] and optical computing [3]. Computation is reversible if we can determine an input pattern for a given output pattern. This means reversible computation is information-lossless. Therefore, reversible computation is also used for low power design [1,8].

Due to the reversible property, a reversible logic circuit has neither fanout nor feedback, i.e. formed as a cascade of reversible logic gates. This distinguishes synthesis of reversible circuits from irreversible ones, and attracts many researchers to study synthesis approaches [2,4,9,13,16].

On the other hand, there are few results concerning debugging such circuits, which is another important process to analyze reversible circuits. Wille et al. [17] proposed the first algorithm to debug reversible circuits using SAT formulation and solvers based on debugging techniques for irreversible circuits. Frehse et al. [6] gave a simulation-based approach and combined it with the SAT-based approach. Since their methods consider only a single gate error, Jung et al. [7] proposed an extended approach for multiple gate errors.

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Tague et al. [14] provided another approach for a single gate error using π DDs [10], decision diagrams for permutation sets. However, there are two problems to be considered:

- These algorithms use exponential algorithms or data structures, i.e. they are intractable in the worst case.
- These algorithms only detect error positions, i.e. cannot fix errors efficiently.

In this paper, we address these tasks with different approaches for a single error and multiple errors, respectively. For a single error, we propose a theoretically improved debugging algorithm. This algorithm uses the lemma in [17], which states correction is determined by function composition, and valid gate checking algorithms. For multiple errors, we provide a dynamic programming approach using π DDs. Although this algorithm has worst-case complexity similar to the approach for a single error of Tague et al. [14], it can fix multiple errors and debug them.

We evaluate the efficiency of our algorithms using computational experiments. For single error circuits, our algorithm achieves a significant improvement compared with previous approaches. For multiple error circuits, our algorithm succeeds to fix errors with minimal corrections in circuits with few lines.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly reviews reversible circuits and π DDs, which are used in our algorithm. In Section 3, we define the problem of debugging single error circuits, review previous work, and introduce our algorithm for debugging single error circuits. In Section 4, we extend the debugging problem of single error circuits to multiple errors, and provide our π DD-based debugging method. Experimental results to evaluate the practical performance of our algorithms are in Section 5 and Section 6 concludes this paper.

2 Preliminary

In this section, we review reversible functions and circuits before proceeding to πDDs , which are used in both previous work and our proposed method.

2.1 Reversible Functions and Permutations

A function $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^n$ is *reversible* if it is bijective, i.e., we can determine an input from the corresponding output. Hence, a function f is considered as a permutation on $\{0, 1, \ldots, 2^n - 1\}$.

We define notations of permutations. A permutation on $\{0, 1, \ldots, m-1\}$, *m*-permutation for short, is written in a one-line form $\pi = \pi(0)\pi(1)\ldots\pi(m-1)$. The identity *m*-permutation is denoted by e_m , which satisfies $e_m(i) = i$ for each $0 \le i \le m-1$. We denote by π^{-1} the inverse permutation of π , which satisfies $\pi * \pi^{-1} = \pi^{-1} * \pi = e_m$, where * means composition of permutations: p = q * r means p(i) = r(q(i)) for all *i*.



Fig. 1. Truth table of a reversible function f and a reversible circuit G realizing f

We denote by π_f the permutation corresponding to f such that we consider input and output bit vectors as binary representations of integers. For example, π_f corresponding to the reversible function f on the left of Fig. 1 is $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ \end{pmatrix}$, which is briefly written as $\pi_f = 10325674$.

2.2 Reversible Circuits and Gates

Reversible circuits realize reversible functions and consist of reversible gates. A reversible circuit for an *n*-bit Boolean function has *n* lines as shown on the right of Fig. 1. Reversible circuits have no fan-out or feedback due to their reversible properties. Therefore, a reversible circuit is a cascade of reversible gates. Several reversible gates have been invented to synthesize reversible circuits, such as Toffoli [15], Fredkin [5], and Peres [12] gates. In this paper, we focus on Toffoli gates.

Let $L = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ be a set of lines. Toffoli gates have multiple (possibly zero) control lines $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\} \subset L$ and one target line $t \in L \setminus C$. For example, the Toffoli gate g_3 in Fig. 1 has the control lines $C = \{1, 3\}$ and the target line t = 2. A Toffoli gate inverts the target line when all control lines are 1. Let x_i and y_i be the *i*-th line's input and output of a Toffoli gate, respectively. Then, we formally define Toffoli gates as follows:

$$y_t = x_t \oplus x_{c_1} \cdots x_{c_k},$$

$$y_i = x_i \quad \text{if } i \neq t.$$

Since a Toffoli gate itself represents a reversible function, we can represent the function corresponding to a Toffoli gate as a permutation. We denote by π_g the permutation corresponding to a gate g as well as a reversible function. Then the permutation representation π_G of the function realized by a reversible circuit $G = g_1 \cdots g_d$ equals $\pi_{g_1} * \cdots * \pi_{g_d}$.

2.3 πDD

First, we define a transposition $\tau_{i,j}$ as the permutation such that $\tau_{i,j}(i) = j$ and $\tau_{i,j}(j) = i$, but $\tau_{i,j}(k) = k$ for other k. Any n-permutation can be uniquely





Fig. 3. Two reduction rules of π DDs

Fig. 2. The π DD representing {2431,4231,1423} = { $\tau_{1,2} * \tau_{1,4}, \tau_{1,4}, \tau_{2,3} * \tau_{3,4}$ }

decomposed into a composition of at most n-1 transpositions by the following algorithm: we start with e_n and repeat swaps to move $\pi(k)$ to the k-th position in its one line form, where k runs from right to left.

A πDD is a rooted directed graph representing a set of permutations compactly, and has efficient set operations for permutation sets [10]. πDDs consist of five components: labeled internal nodes, 0-edges, 1-edges, the 0-sink, and the 1-sink. Fig. 2 shows an example of a πDD . Each internal node has exactly two edges, a 0-edge and a 1-edge. Each path to the 1-sink in a πDD represents a permutation in the set represented: if a 1-edge originates from a node with label $\tau_{x,y}$, the decomposition of the permutation contains $\tau_{x,y}$, while a 0-edge means that the decomposition excludes $\tau_{x,y}$.

A π DD becomes a compact and canonical form by fixing its transposition order and applying the following two reduction rules (Fig. 3):

- (1) sharing rule: share all nodes which have the same labels and child nodes.
- (2) deleting rule: delete all nodes whose 1-edge points to the 0-sink.

In many practical cases, π DDs demonstrate high compression ratio, although π DD size (i.e. the number of nodes) in the worst case is exponential in the length of permutations.

In addition, π DDs support efficient set operations such as union and intersection on permutation sets. In particular, Cartesian product operation $P \times Q$, which returns the union set of compositions of all pairs $p \in P$ and $q \in Q$, is important and useful for our algorithm to be described later. Since the computation time of these operations depends on the size of π DDs, compactness helps to speed-up π DD operations.

3 Debugging Single Error

We define the single error debugging problem of reversible circuits. Let $f : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^n$ be a reversible function and $G = g_1 \cdots g_d$ be a reversible circuit with n lines such that $\pi_G = \pi_f$. We define G' to be a single error circuit for f if $\pi_{G'} \neq \pi_f$ and G' has:



Fig. 4. An erroneous circuit G' and two fixed circuits realizing f

- a replaced error: there is a gate $g' \neq g_i$ s.t. $G' = g_1 \cdots g_{i-1} g' g_{i+1} \cdots g_d$, an inserted error: there is a gate g' s.t. $G' = g_1 \cdots g_{i-1} g' g_i g_{i+1} \cdots g_d$, and
- a removed error: $G' = g_1 \cdots g_{i-1} g_{i+1} \cdots g_d$.

The goal of the single error debugging problems is to find the position of an error in an erroneous circuit G' and fix it in order to realize f correctly. We note that even if the number of embedded errors is only one, sometimes there are several ways to debug the circuit. For example, Fig. 4 describes an erroneous circuit G' and an objective function f. At this instance, we have the two ways to debug G': replacing g_2 with g'_2 or inserting g' between g_3 and g_4 . In general, we cannot determine which of them the original error is. Therefore, we set our goal to list all ways to debug G'.

3.1**Related Work**

Wille et al. proposed a debugging method using SAT solvers [17]. They used SAT (Boolean satisfiability) formulation for debugging problems and solved it with SAT solvers. This method has three problems to be overcome:

- There are O(nd) variables in SAT formula. Though state-of-the-art SAT solvers work practically fast, solving SAT is believed to require exponential time in the worst case. This is therefore not scalable for a large d.
- Their method can find only error candidates, which may include non-errors.
- Their method can debug only a replaced error.

We also note that this method requires verification preprocess to obtain some counterexamples.

Frehse et al. provided a simulation-based debugging algorithm [6]. Their method eliminates error candidates based on the fact that an error gate must be activated (i.e. all the inputs of control lines are 1) for all counterexamples. This method is fast because it runs in linear time with respect to the number of gates and lines. However, outputs of this method also can contain non-errors, since the activation property is a necessary condition but not a sufficient condition.

Tague et al. gave a debugging method using πDDs for a removed error [14]. They considered a gate as a permutation, and used πDDs to represent the set of gates. They insert a π DD into an erroneous circuit G' as an arbitrary gate, and calculate the compositions by Cartesian product operations. If the compositions contain π_f , it means G' has a removed error. This method also has two problems:

- The size of π DDs for a set of N-permutations is $O(2^{N^2})$, and now $N = 2^n$. It is not scalable for even small n.
- Their method can detect an error but cannot find its position and fix it.

In the next subsection, we provide an algorithm overcoming these problems. More precisely, we propose a worst-case $O(n2^nd)$ time algorithm, which can find and fix all the three types of errors.

3.2 **Proposed Method for Single Error**

Our method is based on Lemma 3 in [17]:

Theorem 1 (Lemma 3 in [17]). Let F be an error-free circuit of a reversible function and $G = G_1 g_i G_2$ be an erroneous circuit of F. Then G can be fixed by replacing any gate g_i of G with a cascade of gates $G_i^{fix} = G_1^{-1}FG_2^{-1}$.

This theorem states that, if G_i^{fix} can be represented by a Toffoli gate, the *i*-th gate is a replaced error and we can fix it by replacing it with the Toffoli gate corresponding to G_i^{fix} . Hereafter, we assume the objective function f and each gate q_i are represented as permutations, and a cascade of gates means the composition of permutations. Then the single replaced error circuit problem can be solved as follows: checking whether $G_i^{rep} = g_{i-1}^{-1} \cdots g_1^{-1} f g_d^{-1} \cdots g_{i+1}^{-1}$ can be represented as a single Toffoli gate for all $1 \leq i \leq d$. Similarly, debugging problems for other types of errors can be solved too:

- an inserted error: checking whether $G_i^{ins} = g_{i-1}^{-1} \cdots g_1^{-1} f g_d^{-1} \cdots g_{i+1}^{-1}$ can be
- represented as an identity permutation e_{2^n} for all $1 \le i \le d$. a removed error: checking whether $G_i^{rem} = g_i^{-1} \cdots g_1^{-1} f g_d^{-1} \cdots g_{i+1}^{-1}$ can be represented as a single Toffoli gate for all $0 \le i \le d$.

Note that the position of a removed error is between two gates or two ends. We say a removed error occurs at the 0-th position if the error position is the left g_1 , and at the *i*-th position if the error position is the right of q_i .

We let $N = 2^n$ for brevity. If we had an O(h(n)) time algorithm checking whether a given permutation represents a Toffoli gate, we could solve the single error circuit problem in O(d(Nd+h(n))) by calculating the products G_i^{rep}, G_i^{ins} , and G_i^{rem} of O(d) N-permutations and running a checking algorithm for all $0 \leq i \leq d$. We can improve this complexity by using the following properties:

$$\begin{array}{l} - \ G_i^{rep} = G_i^{ins}, \\ - \ G_i^{rem} = g_i^{-1}G_i^{ins}, \\ - \ G_i^{ins} = G_{i-1}^{rem}g_i. \end{array}$$

That is, incremental calculation of G_i^x from G_{i-1}^y costs only O(N) time, hence we can solve a single error circuit problem in O(d(N+h(n))). Algorithm 1 gives the entire procedure.

Algorithm 1. Debugging single error circuits							
1: procedure DEBUGSINGLEERROR (f, G)							
2: $G_0^{rem} \leftarrow fg_d^{-1}g_{d-1}^{-1} \cdots g_1^{-1}$							
3: if $ISTOFFOLI(G_0^{rem})$ then							
4: Report a removed error: the gate G_0^{rem} is removed at the 0-th position.							
5: end if							
6: for $i = 1$ to d do							
$7: \qquad G_i^{ins} \leftarrow G_{i-1}^{rem} g_i$							
8: if $G_i^{ins} = e_N$ then							
9: Report an inserted error: g_i is an extra gate.							
10: else if $ISTOFFOLI(G_i^{ins})$ then							
11: Report a replaced error: g_i should be replaced by G_i^{ins} .							
12: end if							
13: $G_i^{rem} \leftarrow g_i^{-1} G_i^{ins}$							
14: if ISTOFFOLI (G_i^{rem}) then							
15: Report a removed error: the gate G_i^{rem} is removed at the <i>i</i> -th position.							
16: end if							
17: end for							
18: end procedure							

The Toffoli gate checking problem is also solved in O(nN) time by Algorithm 2. A permutation representing a Toffoli gate works as a transposition between integers a and b if a and b differ exactly a target bit and their bits in a control bit set are all 1. Lines 3–22 of Algorithm 2 identify control lines and a target line, eliminating cases not satisfying necessary conditions. Lines 24–31 check whether control lines and a target line work as an expected Toffoli gate. This algorithm works as not only a check but also an identification of the corresponding Toffoli gate. That is, we can directly debug G' using the Toffoli gate. It costs O(nN) time and therefore we can solve the single error circuit problem in O(nNd) time.¹

We can design checking algorithms for Fredkin gates and Peres gates similarly. Generally speaking, given a set of gates, we can solve the single error circuit problem in O(d(N + h(n))) time if we have an O(h(n)) time checking algorithm for the gates. We also can easily adapt to deal with negative control

¹ If we assume w-bit word RAM model, we can improve it to $O(\lfloor \frac{n}{w} \rfloor Nd)$ by adopting bit parallel techniques to manage control lines C.

lines. A Toffoli gate with positive and negative control lines inverts its output of the target line when the inputs of the positive controls are all 1 and the negative controls are all 0.

Alg	Algorithm 2. Checking whether a given permutation represents a Toffoli gate.									
1:	procedure ISTOFFOLI(π)									
2:	$C \leftarrow \{1, \dots, n\}, T \leftarrow \phi$									
3:	for $i = 0$ to $N - 1$ do									
4:	if $\pi_{\pi_i} \neq i$ then	$\triangleright \pi_i$ is neither <i>i</i> nor swapped with π_{π_i}								
5:	return False									
6:	end if									
7:	if i and π_i are swapped	then								
8:	if i and π_i differ only	y the j -th bit in binary then								
9:	$T \leftarrow T \cup \{j\}$									
10:	$\mathbf{if} \ T > 2 \mathbf{ then}$	\triangleright there are two or more candidates of target lines								
11:	return False									
12:	end if									
13:	else	\triangleright there are two or more candidates of target lines								
14:	return False									
15:	end if									
16:	for $j = 1$ to n do									
17:	if the <i>j</i> -th bit of (j, j)	<i>i</i> in binary is 0 then								
18:	$C \leftarrow C \setminus \{j\}$	\triangleright eliminate candidates of control lines								
19:	end if									
20:	end for									
21:	end If									
22: 02.	The Toffeli gate correspondence	ading to π must have controls C and a target $t \in T$								
20: 94.	$rac{1}{2}$ for $i = 0$ to $N = 1$ do	Tuning to π must have controls C and a target $t \in I$								
24:	if $\forall i \in C$ the <i>i</i> th bit of	of π_i in binary is 1, but $\pi_i = i$ then								
20. 26.	$\mathbf{n} \forall j \in \mathbb{C}, \text{ the } j\text{-th bit } \mathbf{c}$	$n_i n_i$ in binary is 1, but $n_i = i$ then $n_i = i$ then								
20.27.	end if	v an controls are 1 but the target is not inverted								
21.	if $\exists i \in C$ the <i>i</i> -th bit <i>c</i>	of π_i in binary is 0, but $\pi_i \neq i$ then								
20. 29.	return False	$\land x_i$ in binary is 0, but $x_i \neq i$ then \land some controls are 0 but the target is inverted								
20. 30.	end if	v some controls are o but the target is inverted								
31:	end for									
32:	return True									
33:	end procedure									

4 Debugging Multiple Errors

We extend single error circuit problems to multiple error circuit problems. We define that k-error circuits are circuits including k errors. Note that k errors can consist of different kinds of errors; replaced errors, inserted errors, and removed errors can be mixed together. We also note that k-error circuits may be debugged by less than k corrections. For example, two inserted errors of a same Toffoli

gate at adjacent positions need not to be debugged, in other words these can be debugged by 0 corrections. In multiple error circuit problems, we set our goal to find minimum corrections.

4.1 Related Work

Jung et al. [7] proposed a SAT based debugging algorithm for multiple errors, which is an extension of [6]. They used pruning based on hitting set problems and encoded it into SAT formulation. Although their method can process large circuits, it has two problems to be considered:

- Their method can debug only replaced errors.
- Their method can detect only error candidates, which includes non-errors and cannot fix them directly.

In this section, we try to overcome these problems.

4.2 Naïve Extension of Existing Method

Our proposed method for k-error circuits is derived from Tague's π DD-based approach for single error circuits [14]. For an inserted error, this approach tries to insert a π DD representing usable gates into all possible positions. It can be easily extend to replaced errors and removed errors. If we insert (or replace, remove) $k \pi$ DDs as sets of usable gates at all possible positions for each, we can detect all error positions and error types. However, there are the following problems:

- The number of all combinations of k positions are $\binom{d}{k} = O(d^k)$. Furthermore, we consider 3 types of errors for each position, i.e. there are 3^k ways of combinations of error types. That is, this algorithm requires $O(3^k d^{k+1}) \pi DD$ operations.
- All error positions are can be detected, but correct gates for replaced errors and removed errors cannot be determined.

We attack these problems with our algorithm proposed in the next subsection.

4.3 Proposed Method for Multiple Errors

We propose a debugging algorithm requiring only $O(dk) \pi DD$ operations² for kerror circuits. Our approach uses dynamic programming calculating $S_{i,j}$, defined as a set of permutations representing functions which can be realized by the first j gates with i errors. The minimum x such that $\pi_f \in S_{x,d}$ is the size of minimum corrections. We can calculate $S_{i,j}$ by the following recurrence relations:

$$\begin{split} S_{0,0} &:= \phi, \\ S_{i,j} &:= (S_{i,j-1} \times \{g_j\}) \cup (S_{i-1,j-1} \times L) \cup (S_{i-1,j} \times L) \cup S_{i-1,j-1}, \end{split}$$

² Note that each π DD operation costs exponential time in N^2 in the worst case.

where L is a set of usable gates, which are Toffoli gates in this paper. The first term represents non-error, the second one represents a replaced error, the third one represents an inserted error, and the last one represents a removed error.

Since each $S_{i,j}$ is a set of permutations, we can use π DDs to represent them. Further, calculation of recurrence relations requires only permutation set algebra such as union and Cartesian product, which are supported by π DDs. Each calculation of $S_{i,j}$ requires at most a constant number (i.e. 6) of operations. Hence this algorithm takes only $O(dk) \pi$ DD operations. In addition, we can calculate this recurrence relation by incrementing k. This means if the minimum corrections of a given k-error circuit is k', this algorithm only costs $O(dk') \pi$ DD operations, instead of O(dk).

This algorithm can determine the minimum corrections, but cannot identify error positions and types yet. Error identification can be realized by starting from $S_{k',d}$ with π_f and reversely traversing to $S_{0,0}$. For example, if we now consider $S_{i,j}$ with π_x and $(\{\pi_x\} \times L^{-1}) \cap S_{i-1,j-1} \neq \phi$, an replaced error is detected at position j. Furthermore, let $\pi_y \in (\{\pi_x\} \times L^{-1}) \cap S_{i-1,j-1}$, we identify the original gate is $\pi_x * \pi_y^{-1}$. We then restart reverse traversal from $S_{i-1,j-1}$ with π_y until the first index is not 0.

5 Experiments

We implemented all algorithms in C++³ and carried out experiments on a 3.20GHz CPU machine with 64GB memory. We randomly generate d Toffoli gates with n lines and concatenate them to make correct reversible circuits G. We prepare objective functions f for each circuit by simulating the circuit. Next, we generate erroneous reversible circuits G' with k errors based on correct circuits: we randomly select a position and replace with a random gate, insert a random gate, or remove a gate k times.

Our implementation uses f and G' as inputs. For single error circuits, our implementation detects all corrections but only outputs the number of ways of corrections in order to reduce I/O time. For multiple error circuits, since the way of minimum corrections can be huge, our implementation detects only one way of minimum corrections and outputs it.

5.1 Experiments for Single Error

Computation time of Algorithm 1 for single error circuits (i.e. k=1) is shown in Table 1. This table shows that our algorithm is linear with the number of gates d and almost exponential with the number of lines n. It agrees with the theoretical complexity of our algorithm analyzed in Section 3.

In [17], the SAT solver-based algorithm takes about 2000 seconds or more for $n \ge 8$ and $d \ge 5000$ circuits. On the other hand, our algorithm takes under

³ Note that our implementation of Algorithm 2 uses bitwise operations of 64-bit integer (unsigned long long int in C++) to manage control lines C.

					d				
	10	50	100	500	1000	5000	10000	50000	100000
2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.10
4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.17
6	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.12	0.24
8	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.21	0.41
_ 10	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.11	0.54	1.08
n 12	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.21	0.40	2.05	3.99
14	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.20	0.38	1.90	3.78	8.83	17.64
16	0.03	0.10	0.19	0.89	1.75	8.78	17.61	87.71	149.00
18	0.16	0.52	1.03	4.81	9.46	48.37	97.47	493.42	987.10
20	0.60	1.87	3.88	18.28	35.90	187.28	377.66		—

Table 1. Computation time (seconds) for single error circuits

1 second for circuits of such scale. Further, in [14], the π DD-based algorithm takes more than 100 seconds for $n \ge 4$ and $d \ge 1000$ cases, while our algorithm takes under 0.01 seconds for these cases. This significant improvement is likely due to the theoretical improvement of our algorithm, and not simply to hardware and test case differences.

The simulation-based approach proposed by Frehse et al. in [6] seems to be faster than or equal to our algorithm: Their method completed simulation to detect error candedates in 20 seconds for the n = 15 and d = 716934 circuit. However, their method output over 30000 error candidates, which is impractical to check manually. In contrast, our algorithm returned only one correction for the n = 16 and d = 100000 erroneous circuit embedded a replaced error.

5.2 Experiments for Multiple Errors

We also carried out experiments for multiple error circuits. We randomly embedded k errors in circuits consisting of d gates with n lines. Figs. 5–8 show experimental results for 1-, 2-, 3-, and 4-error circuits, respectively.

For 1-error circuits in Fig. 5, i.e. single error circuits, our π DD-based algorithm can perform in 1000 seconds for n = 5 and d = 600 circuits. For 2-error circuits in Fig. 6, however, all cases with n = 5 are time-outs even at d = 50. Almost all n = 4 cases also time-out; the algorithm can debug up to 100-gate circuits. Results in [7] show that the SAT based method is more scalable: e.g. this method can process n = 8 and d = 637 circuits in about 300 seconds. However, outputs of this method can include non-errors, and cannot fix them automatically. On the other hand, our method can fix them. For sufficiently small circuits, our method can provide richer debugging information.

Results of 3- and 4-error circuits in Figs. 7 and 8. Our algorithm seems to be enough scalable for the circuits with $n \leq 3$. Debugging time for 3-errors and one of 4-errors seems similar. This is because in random circuits we prepared, the minimum correction of n = 2 circuits is usually 1, and for n = 3 circuits is



Fig. 5. Runtime for debugging 1error circuits



Fig. 7. Runtime for debugging 3error circuits



Fig. 6. Runtime for debugging 2error circuits



Fig. 8. Runtime for debugging 4error circuits

usually 2, regardless of the number of embedded errors. In Fig. 8, d = 50 and d = 500 in n = 3 cases seem to be somehow outliers. It is true; the minimum correction size of the d = 50 circuit is 3, and for d = 500 circuit it is 1.

These results indicate that the minimum correction and the number of lines exponentially affect computation time. On the other hand, the number of gates seems to affect linearly for small gates (n = 2, 3), but affect quadratically or exponentially for slightly larger gates (n = 4, 5).

6 Concluding Remarks

For debugging erroneous reversible circuits, we propose two kinds of algorithms. The first one is an efficient method for circuits having at most one error. This method uses permutation properties of reversible gates and gate checking algorithms. This method can handle more general gate library by designing gate checking algorithms. The efficient performance of this method is shown theoretically and experimentally, comparing with existing methods. The second algorithm can debug multiple error circuits based on a dynamic programming approach and π DDs. Although the scalability of this algorithm is exponentially

worse than the first one, the algorithm enables us to debug more general erroneous reversible circuits.

For future work, we would like to modify the first algorithm to handle circuits with garbage output lines. Garbage lines can output arbitrary values, i.e. multiple permutations can realize desired behavior. This means that multiple G_i 's should be considered. Of course π DDs can handle this, but such an algorithm will lose the efficiency of our first approach.

For multiple errors, more scalable algorithms are desirable. We are also interested in expected sizes of minimum corrections for circuits with n lines, d gates, and k randomly-embedded errors. From experimental results, we guess that minimum correction tend to become relatively small with the number of embedded errors. If we show that the size is sufficiently small with high probability, perhaps we need not to consider debugging circuits with a large number of errors.

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