

An Introduction to Zero-Suppressed Binary Decision Diagrams

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June 8, 2001

Abstract

Zero-suppressed binary Decision Diagrams (ZDDs) [21] provide an efficient way of solving problems expressed in terms of set theory. This tutorial paper presents ZDDs for a reader with a background in Boolean algebra and Binary Decision Diagrams [4], without any prior experience with ZDDs.

The case studies considered in the tutorial include the computation of the union of two sets, the generation of all primes of a Boolean function, and the computation of the Irredundant Sum-of-Products of an incompletely specified Boolean function, the latter being perhaps the most practical and useful ZDD operator. The tutorial contains the complete annotated source code implementing a ZDD-based procedure in C with CUDD decision diagram package.

The appendix to the paper contains a list of 35+ ZDD procedures included in the decision diagram package CUDD Release 2.3.1 [36] and 50+ additional ZDD procedures included in the EXTRA library [30] available as a public-domain extension of CUDD.

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1 Introduction

Fifteen years ago, Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs) [4] and their variations entered the scene of computer design. Since that time they have been often used in research software and industrial CAD tools. The role of BDDs is two-fold. They are used as (1) a memory-efficient storage and convenient processing media for Boolean or multi-valued functions and (2) a representation facilitating the analysis of data leading to new *implicit* algorithms, which tend to be more efficient than the classical ones [9].

One of the reasons why decision diagrams, and in particular BDDs, became useful for the CAD tool developers, is that they provide *canonical* representation of discrete objects. Canonical means that under certain condition for every object there is only one representation of this kind. This property is extremely important for verification because in order to prove the identity of two objects it is sufficient to build their canonical representations and show that these representations are identical. This property is also important in synthesis. For example, canonical representations are useful as signatures when storing objects in hash tables.

The experience of using BDDs in numerous applications shows that they are not a panacea for all types of problems. In some cases, due to the specific properties of the discrete data arising in particular settings, the BDDs grow large making processing inefficient or impossible. In particular, this situation occurs when the applications work with sparse sets represented by characteristic functions [5].

A set is *sparse* if the number of elements in it is much smaller than the total number of elements that may appear in the set. Cube covers are an example of sparse sets, because a typical cube contains only a few literals, out of all possible literals that may appear in the cube. The maximum number of literals is reached when a cube is a minterm containing each variable as either the negative or the positive literal. In the case of minterms, the sparseness of the set is $\frac{1}{2}$, because each minterm contains exactly one half of all possible literals that may appear in the cubes.

The problem of prohibitively large BDD size of the sparse set representation can be remedied by introducing a different brand of decision diagrams, called Zero-suppressed binary Decision Diagrams (ZDDs) [21]. These diagrams are similar to BDDs with one of the underlying principles modified. The latter explains the improved efficiency of ZDDs when handling sparse sets and a number of other semantic differences between the two types of diagrams.

While BDDs are better for the representation of functions, ZDDs are better for the representation of covers. Additionally, there are efficient procedures to perform conversions between them. Taken together, BDDs and

ZDDs provide a powerful framework to solve problems in logic synthesis, such as two-level sum-of-product (SOP) minimization [8], three-level minimization, factorization [27][35], and decomposition [18].

The use of ZDDs is not limited to logic synthesis. They have been used, independently of BDDs, in a number of applications, ranging from the graph-theory problems to handling polynomials and regular expressions. (See Section 8 for what is intended to be a complete list of ZDD applications published to date.)

This tutorial paper is designed to be an introduction to ZDDs for a reader with background in Boolean algebra and an understanding of basic principles of BDDs. The goal is to present the three major types of applications:

- ZDDs for sets
- ZDDs for cube covers
- Mixed BDDs/ZDDs for functions and cube covers

To this end, we first discuss the basic principles and uses of ZDDs. In particular, Section 3 focuses on the main differences between BDDs and ZDDs when it comes to representing Boolean functions, sets, and cube covers.

In Section 4, we classify and discuss the elementary ZDD operators provided by the DD package. After this discussion, we explore the generic structure of the DD-based recursive procedure. This is important for the understanding of the material of the following sections.

Section 5 shows how ZDDs can be used to manipulate sets. The set-union operator is considered as an illustrative example. The complete source code of this operator in the CUDD package is included in the paper and explained assuming the reader's familiarity with the C programming language.

Section 6 introduces the basics of ZDDs for manipulation of cube covers using the cover-product operator as an illustrative example.

Section 7 contains two practically important examples of mixed ZDD/BDD applications: generation of a ZDD representing all primes of the completely specified Boolean function given as a BDD, and computation of a ZDD representing an Irredundant Sum-of-Products of the incompletely specified Boolean function.

Section 8 provides the complete list of ZDD applications published to date, followed by conclusions in Section 9.

Two complementary appendices contain annotated lists of ZDD-based procedures implemented in the CUDD package [36] and the EXTRA library [30], respectively.

Ideally, after completing the tutorial, the reader should be able to write his or her own ZDD-based procedures using the CUDD package.

2 Definitions

A *literal* is a propositional variable or its negation, e.g. a, \bar{b} . A *product*, or cube, is a Boolean product of literals, e.g. $\bar{b}c$. A *cover* is a set of products. The *cardinality* of the cover is the number of cubes in the cover. A *complement*, or a negative phase, of cover S is a cover T such that the union of S and T is a *tautology*, that is, the Boolean function constant-1.

Let $f: B^n \rightarrow B$, $B \in \{0,1\}$, be a completely specified Boolean function (CSF). Let $F: B^n \rightarrow \{0,1,-\}$ be an incompletely specified Boolean function (ISF) represented by two CSFs: the *on-set*, $f^1 = \{x \mid F(x) = 1\}$ and the *don't-care-set*, $f^{dc} = \{x \mid F(x) = -\}$.

A CSF can be represented by a set of cubes. This representation is known as a two-level *sum-of-product representation* (SOP). An SOP, or cover, is *irredundant*, if no cubes can be removed without reducing the area of the covered Boolean space and no two cubes can be combined into one cube.

A function *essentially* depends on a variable if the variable appears in an irredundant SOP or in a reduced ordered BDD of the Boolean function. The variable set X , on which f essentially depends, is called *support* of f .

A *minterm* is the smallest cube, in which every variable is represented by either a negative or a positive literal. A variable that is not represented by a negative or a positive literal in the cube is said to have the *don't-care literal*. Each don't-care literal can be seen as a sum of the positive literal and the negative literal. This leads to splitting the cube into two smaller cubes. In general, if a cube has k don't-care literals, it is equal to the sum of 2^k minterms, created by splitting each don't-care literal.

The *area* of the Boolean space covered by the cube consists of all minterms created by splitting the don't-care literals of the cube. Two areas of the Boolean space *overlap* if they have common minterms.

Two cubes are *disjoint* if the areas of the Boolean space covered by the cubes do not overlap. Two covers are *disjoint* if the areas covered by their cubes do not overlap.

Given a Boolean function f , the *negative cofactor* of f with respect to (w.r.t.) variable x is the Boolean function $f_{x=0} = f(x=0)$. Similarly, the *positive cofactor* is the Boolean function $f_{x=1} = f(x=1)$.

The following terminology is accepted in the BDD research [4]. The BDD represents the function as a rooted directed acyclic graph. Each non-terminal node N is labeled by a variable v and has edges directed towards two successor (children) nodes, $else(N)$ and $then(N)$, representing the cofactors of N w.r.t. v . Each terminal node is labeled with 0 or 1. For a given assignment of the variables, the value of the function is found by tracing a path from the root to a terminal vertex following the branches indicated by the values assigned to the variables.

The function value is given by the terminal vertex label. For example, Fig. 1 (left) shows the BDD of the Boolean function $F = ab + cd$. The edges are directed downwards. The dashed edges (solid) edges correspond to $v = 0$ ($v = 1$).

In the following, we use the terms “procedure”, “functions”, “routine” and “operator” interchangeably to denote a fragment of functionality implemented with DDs.

3 Comparing BDDs and ZDDs

Both BDDs and ZDDs can be seen as decision trees, simplified using two reduction rules that guarantee the canonicity of the resulting representation. The second reduction rule (merging of isomorphic subgraphs) holds for both BDDs and ZDDs; however, they differ in the first reduction rule (node elimination).

For BDDs, the node is removed from the decision tree if both its edges point to the same node. For ZDDs, the node is removed if its positive edge (then-edge) points to the terminal node 0. This variation in the rule, as mentioned before, explains the improved efficiency of ZDDs when handling sparse sets and the semantic differences between the two types of diagrams.

One way of understanding the principles of ZDDs is to compare them with BDDs for simple illustrative functions while keeping in mind their main difference.

3.1 Boolean functions

It can be shown that, in a BDD, all paths from the root to terminal node 1 can be seen as cubes constituting a disjoint cover of the function. A variable is present in the *positive (negative) polarity* in the corresponding cube if the path contains the 1-edge (0-edge) of a node labeled by this variable; the variable is *absent* in the cube if the path does not go through a node labeled by this variable.

In a ZDD for the same function, all paths from the root to terminal 1 also represent a disjoint cover of the function. (This cover is the same if the variable ordering is the same in both diagrams.) A variable is present in the *positive polarity* in the corresponding cube if the path goes through the 1-edge of a node labeled with this variable. A variable is present in the *negative polarity* in the cube if the path goes through the 0-edge *or* if the path does not go through a node labeled by this variable. A variable is *absent* in a cube, if the path goes through a node labeled by this variable and both edges of the node point to the same node.

Consider a BDD and a ZDD of the function $F = ab + cd$ shown in Fig. 1. Both diagrams can be used to trace the disjoint cover of the function: $\{ab, \bar{a}cd, a\bar{b}cd\}$. As can be seen from Fig. 1, the size of the ZDD, expressed as the number of nodes in the diagram, is almost two times larger than that of the BDD. This is because ZDDs are not as efficient as BDDs when it comes to representing typical Boolean functions.

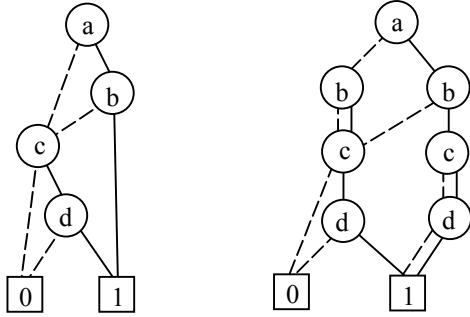


Figure 1. BDD and ZDD for $F = ab + cd$.

3.2 Sets of subsets

The classical BDDs represent completely specified Boolean functions. In order to represent sets* (and sets of subsets), the characteristic functions have been introduced [5] in such a way that each set is put in one-to-one correspondence with its characteristic function.

Informally, the characteristic function of a set of subsets is a CSF that depends on as many input variables as there are elements that can potentially appear in a subset. For each subset in the set, one minterm is added to the on-set of the characteristic function. In this minterm, variables appear in positive (negative) polarities if they are present (absent) in the set. In the extreme case of one subset (that is, if a set of subsets contains only one subset), the characteristic function has only one minterm in its on-set.

For example, given three elements (a,b,c), consider the set of subsets $\{\{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{c\}\}$. If we associate each element with a binary variable having the same name, the characteristic function of the set of subsets is $F = abc + \bar{a}bc + \bar{a}\bar{b}c$. The first minterm corresponds to the subset $\{a,b\}$, and so on.

Important for our discussion are the following observations. The empty subset is represented by the minterm $F = \bar{a}\bar{b}\bar{c}$, while the subset containing all elements is represented by $F = abc$. The empty set is represented by the characteristic function $F = 0$, while the set composed of all possible subsets is represented by the characteristic function $F = 1$. The latter is obvious if we observe that the constant-0 function has no on-set minterms, while the constant-1 function has 2^n on-set minterms, corresponding to the complete Boolean space.

Notice that there is a difference between the empty set and the set of subsets composed of the empty set only. The

* In this paper, sets stand for unordered arrangements of elements from a finite collection. In other words, when defining the uniqueness of a set, only the presence of elements matters, not their order. Sets $\{a,b\}$ and $\{b,a\}$ are considered identical, while sets $\{a,b,c\}$ and $\{a,b\}$ are different. Sometimes it is convenient to assume that the elements are initially ordered and appear in the sets only in this order. Assuming that a precedes b in the order, both $\{a,b\}$ and $\{b,a\}$ will be represented by $\{a,b\}$.

former has the characteristic function equal to constant 0, while the latter has the characteristic function $F = \bar{a}\bar{b}\bar{c}$.

Once the characteristic function is constructed, it can be represented using a BDD or a ZDD. The two representations of the set of subsets $\{\{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{c\}\}$ are given in Fig. 2.

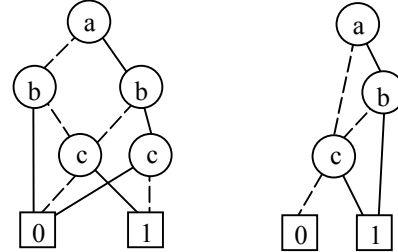


Figure 2. The BDD and the ZDD for the set of subsets $\{\{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{c\}\}$.

In both diagrams, there are three paths from the root node (on top) to the terminal node 1, which correspond to the subsets $\{a,b\}$, $\{a,c\}$, and $\{c\}$. The encoding of the variables in the paths is discussed in section 3.1.

Notice that the size of the ZDD in Fig. 2 is smaller than that of the BDD. It can be proved that the upper bound on the size of the ZDD is the total number of elements appearing in all subsets of a set. Meanwhile, the upper bound on the size of the BDD is given by the number of subsets multiplied by the number of all elements that can appear in them. This observation shows that ZDDs should be much more compact when representing sets of subsets. The above theoretical upper bound on the ZDD size is rarely reached; in practice ZDDs tend to be even more compact.

3.3 Cube covers

Let us now consider the ZDD representation of cube covers. First, it is necessary to introduce additional variables, because BDDs and ZDDs depending on the primary input variables represent only one type of *disjoint* covers. To represent *arbitrary* covers, two variables are used for each primary input: one of them stands for the positive literal and another for the negative literal. These variables are always kept adjacent in the variable order. Similarly to the set of subsets, a cube cover is represented by its characteristic function introduced as follows:

- The characteristic function depends on the $2 \cdot n$ variables, where n is the number of primary inputs.
- For each cube of the cover, one minterm is added to the on-set of the characteristic function.
- The minterm has those variables in the positive polarity that correspond to literals present in the cube and those variables in the negative polarity that correspond to literals missing in the cube.

For example, to represent arbitrary covers of the four-variable function $F = ab + cd$, eight variables are used: $(a_1, a_0, b_1, b_0, c_1, c_0, d_1, d_0)$. These variables correspond to the positive and negative literals of each input variable.

Consider the cover $\{ab, cd\}$. The characteristic functions of this cover is: $\chi = a_1\bar{a}_0b_1\bar{b}_0c_1\bar{c}_0d_1\bar{d}_0 + \bar{a}_1\bar{a}_0\bar{b}_1\bar{b}_0c_1\bar{c}_0d_1\bar{d}_0$.

ZDD for the characteristic function is shown in Fig. 3.

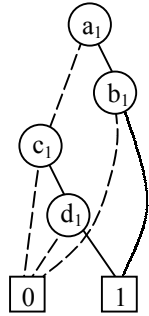


Figure 3. ZDD for the cover $\{ab, cd\}$.

Unlike the BDD for function χ , which depends on all eight variables, the ZDD depends on four variables only. These are the variables that appear in the characteristic function in the positive polarity and correspond to literals actually present in the cover. All other variables are missing in the ZDD, because according to the ZDD reduction rules a variable missing on the path is interpreted as a variable taking the value 0 in the minterm of the characteristic function. This property makes ZDD ideal for representing and manipulating large cube covers.

The terminal node 0 in a ZDD representing covers stands for the empty cover. In this case, there are no assignments for which the characteristic function evaluates to 1 and therefore there are no cubes in the cover.

The terminal node 1 stands for the cover containing only the *tautology cube*, that is the cube in which all the literals are missing. Indeed, there is only one path for which the characteristic function evaluates to 1, and this path does not go through any nodes. According to the ZDD reduction rules, it means that all the variables on the path are equal to zero, which in turn means that all the literals are missing in the cube.

The decomposition of a cover w.r.t. the primary input variable is a triple of covers that contain cubes: (1) with the variable as the positive literal, (2) with the variable as the negative literal, (3) without the variable (or with the variable as a don't-care literal).

The inverse operation is the composition of the three covers into one cover. The composition is performed using a primary input variable that is not currently used in the covers.

For example, consider the cover $C = ab\bar{c} + \bar{a}b\bar{d} + ac + d$. Decomposing C w.r.t. the primary input variable b yields: $C_0 = ad$, $C_1 = a\bar{c}$, $C_2 = ac + d$. The reverse operation, the

composition of the covers C_0 , C_1 , and C_2 w.r.t. b , which does not appear in them, produces the initial cover C .

If the cover is represented by its ZDD, the decomposition and composition operations are performed by functions of the ZDD package. In the traversal procedures presented in this paper, the functions are denoted `DecomposeCover()` and `ComposeCover()`.

`DecomposeCover()` takes the cover and the primary input variable and returns three subcovers. `ComposeCover()` takes three subcovers and the primary input variable and returns the composed cover.

For a detailed analysis of ZDD in the representation of cube covers, it is recommended for the reader to review references [23][26][27] where some basic ZDD-based recursive operators are introduced and explained.

4 Basic ZDD procedures

The basic functions dealing with ZDDs can be classified as follows:

4.1 Procedures working with functions

These procedures are similar to those developed to manipulate Boolean functions using BDDs.

- *Procedures returning elementary functions:*
 - Constant-0 ZDD (constant zero function, $F = 0$)
 - Universal ZDD (constant one function, $F = 1$)
 - Single-variable ZDD (the function equal to the elementary variable, $F = v$)
- *Procedures performing boolean operations:*
 - If-Then-Else (ITE) operator. This function returns the result of applying ITE to A , B , and C :

$$\text{ITE}(A, B, C) = AB + \bar{A}C.$$

Notice that the complement of a ZDD cannot be computed by complementing a pointer, as it is done using BDDs with complement edges. Instead, we should apply the ITE operator to the function and constants and compute the complement as follows: $\bar{F} = \text{ITE}(F, 0, 1)$.

4.2 Procedures working with sets

- *Procedures returning elementary sets:*
 - Constant-0 ZDD (the empty set, $\{\}$)
 - Constant-1 ZDD (the set of subsets consisting of the empty set, $\{\{\}\}$)
 - Single-variable ZDD (the set of subsets with a subset containing element v , $\{\{v\}\}$)
- *Procedures performing operations on the set of subsets w.r.t. to a single element (variable):*
 - `Subset0(S, v)` returns the set of subsets of S not containing element v .
 - `Subset1(S, v)` returns the set of subsets of S containing element v .
 - `Change(S, v)` returns the set of subsets derived from S by adding element v to those subsets that

did not contain it and removing element v from those subsets that contain it.

- *Procedures performing standard set operations for two sets of subsets:*
 - Union(X, Y) returns the set of subsets belonging to X or Y .
 - Intersection(X, Y) returns the set of subsets belonging to both X and Y .
 - Difference(X, Y) returns the set of subsets of X not belonging to Y .

It is important to distinguish single-variable ZDDs as used in the manipulation of functions and from those used in the manipulation of sets. Fig. 4 shows the ZDDs for $F = b$, assuming that there are three variables (a, b, c). In the case of functions, this ZDD represents the function $F = b$. In the case of sets, the ZDD represents the characteristic function of the set containing a single element b . In this case, the characteristic function is $F = \bar{a}b\bar{c}$.

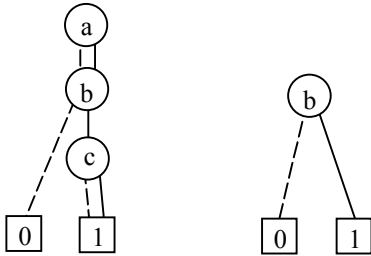


Figure 4. ZDDs for elementary variable b used in functions manipulation (left) and in set manipulation (right).

In addition to the above nine elementary operators defined for sets, the two pairs of set product and weak-division operators have been implemented using ZDDs.* These two pairs of operators correspond to unate and binate algebras [23][27].

Speaking informally, in unate algebra, every literal of a cube is either positive polarity or missing, while in binate algebra every literal may be non-complemented, complemented, or missing.

Correspondingly, to manipulate sets in unate algebra every literal is encoded with one ZDD variable, while to manipulate sets in binate algebra, two literals are used, one represents the variable in positive polarity, the other presents it in negative polarity.[†]

In terms of the definitions introduced above, ZDDs used to manipulate sets of subsets implement the unate algebra, while ZDD used to manipulate the cube covers implement the binate algebra.

* The remainder can be considered as an operator related to each pair. In practice, however, it is implemented by reducing it to the product and weak-division as follows: $X\%Y = X - X*(X/Y)$.

[†] In terms of procedures implemented in the main distribution of the CUDD package, unate product and division are `Cudd_zddUnateProduct()` and `Cudd_zddDivide()`, while binate product and division are `Cudd_zddProduct()` and `Cudd_zddWeakDiv()`.

4.3 Generic structure of a recursive ZDD procedure

In this subsection, we discuss the generic structure of a recursive ZDD procedure. The presentation is also true for recursive procedures written using other types of decision diagrams, in particular, BDDs and ADDs [2]. Therefore, in this subsection we use the term “DD” instead of “ZDD”.

Procedures written with DDs can be roughly divided into two classes:

- Recursive procedures that rely on the DD structure to perform computation.
- Non-recursive procedures that do not use the DD structure but may call the recursive procedures.

The former type is also known as *traversal procedures*, because, in the process of recursion, all nodes of the DD are visited in the depth-first manner starting from the root. The efficiency of traversal procedures comes from the fact that, due to the caching of the intermediate results of computation, each node in the tree of recursive calls is visited only once.

If the traversal procedure takes only one DD as an argument, the number of nodes in the tree is equal to the number of nodes in the DD. If there are more arguments, the number of nodes in the tree has the upper bound of the product of the number of nodes in the argument DDs. This upper bound is rarely reached in practice.

```
dd TraversalProcedure( dd A, dd B, ... )
{
    // (1) consider terminal cases
    if ( A = 0 ) return ...;
    if ( A = 1 ) return ...;
    ...

    // (2) perform a cache lookup
    R = CacheLookup( A, B, ... );
    if ( R exists ) return R;

    // (3) find the topmost variable in A, B, ...
    Var = TopMostVariable( A, B, ... );

    // (4) cofactor arguments w.r.t. Var
    A0 = Cofactor( A, Var' );
    A1 = Cofactor( A, Var );
    ...

    // (5) recursively solve subproblems
    R0 = TraversalProcedure( A0, B0, ... );
    R1 = TraversalProcedure( A1, B1, ... );
    ...

    // (6) derive the solution of the problem
    // from those of the subproblems
    R = GetResult( R0, R1, ... );

    // (7) cache the result
    CacheInsert( A, B, ..., R );

    // (8) return the result
    return R;
}
```

Figure 5. Structure of the recursive DD-based procedure.

Fig. 5 shows the structure of a recursive traversal procedure. Steps (2)-(5) and (7)-(8) are similar for the majority of the recursive procedures. Steps (1) and (6) are application-specific.

In particular, step (1) solves the problem in the extreme case when the argument DDs are such that no further recursive calls are necessary. Step (6) answers the question: How to solve the problem if partial solutions of subproblems are known? In some cases, this step requires a lot of creativity to implement. Some of the algorithms cannot be implemented recursively, because Step (6) cannot be solved, or has not been solved so far. Here are two examples of such hard problems:

- Complementation of the cover represented by a ZDD. The simplest known solution requires two traversals: create the BDD of the function represented by the cover, complement the BDD (this is done in constant time for BDDs with complement edges), and compute the ZDD of the complemented cover.
- Computation of the set of dominated columns and rows in the unate covering problem represented by BDDs. So far, this problem has been solved either explicitly, without DDs, or by applying formulas with quantifiers to the BDDs of dominance relations [19].

5 Manipulation of sets

In this section, we apply the principles of traversal procedures discussed above to a particular example of computation of the union of two sets of subsets.

For example, given the two sets of subsets: $A = \{\{a,b\}, \{c\}\}$ and $B = \{\{a,b\}, \{a,c\}\}$, the union of A and B is $\{\{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{c\}\}$.

```
set Union( set A, set B )
{
    // (1) consider terminal cases
    if ( A = { } ) return B;
    if ( B = { } ) return A;
    if ( A = B ) return A;

    // (3) find the topmost variable in A and B
    var x = TopVariable( A, B );

    // (4) cofactor arguments w.r.t. x
    set A0 = Subset0( A, x );
    set A1 = Subset1( A, x );
    set B0 = Subset0( B, x );
    set B1 = Subset1( B, x );

    // (5) recursively solve subproblems
    set R0 = Union( A0, B0 );
    set R1 = Union( A1, B1 );

    // (6) derive the solution of the problem
    // from those of the subproblems
    set R = CreateZdd( x, R1, R0 );

    // (8) return the result
    return R;
}
```

Figure 6. Pseudo-code of the union of two sets of subsets.

The pseudo-code of the set-union operator is shown in Fig. 6, where steps (2) and (7) (the cache lookup and insert) have been omitted for clarity. Notice how the steps (1) and (6) are solved in the pseudo-code.

The terminal cases take place when at least one of the arguments is an empty set (in this case, the union is equal to the other argument) or when both arguments are equal (in this case, the union is any of the sets).

Procedures `Subset0()` and `Subset1()` compute the cofactors of the initial sets, that is the sets that do not contain the topmost element and the sets that contain the topmost element.

The solution R of the problem can be derived from the solution of the subproblems. To get the subsets with(out) the topmost element, R0 and R1, we compute the union of the argument subsets with(out) the topmost element. This is done using two recursive calls to `Union()`.

Next, we create the ZDD with the topmost element x and the cofactors R0 and R1. This way we include into the resulting set of subsets all the subsets with(out) the topmost element if they appear with(out) the topmost element in one of the argument sets of subsets, A or B.

5.1 A case study of the CUDD source code

Now, consider the source code of the procedure `cuddZddUnion()`, which implements the recursive step of the set-union operator in the CUDD package (Fig. 7). The code is taken from the file “`cuddZddSetop.c`” of the CUDD Release 2.3.1. Here it is reproduced with minor changes to improve its readability.

The procedure `cuddZddUnion()` is called with three arguments: the pointer to the decision diagram manager (`zdd`), and the ZDDs, P and Q. The local variables defined in the function store the levels of the topmost nodes in P and Q (`p_top` and `q_top`), the partial results (`t` and `e`), and the final result (`res`). Variables `t`, `e`, and `res` stand for R0, R1 and R in Fig. 6.

Function `statLine()`, implemented as a macro, is called with the pointer to the manager. It collects statistics about the number of recursive calls. It does not influence the functionality of `cuddZddUnion()`.

The next three lines of the code implement the terminal cases. The macro `DD_ZERO(zdd)` returns the constant-0 node of the DD manager that represents the ZDD of the empty set.

Function `cuddCacheLookup2Zdd()` performs the cache lookup for a recursive procedure with two DD arguments. This function takes four arguments: the pointer to the manager, the pointer to the calling function (used as a signature to distinguish this cache entry from entries created by other functions called with the same argument DDs), and two arguments, P and Q. This function returns NULL if there is no matching entry in the cache; otherwise, it returns the pointer to the ZDD of the result.

Each DD node F in the CUDD package is annotated with the variable number (F->index). The terminal nodes have the variable number equal to CUDD_CONST_INDEX. Because reordering of variables may have taken place in the manager, the variable number alone is not enough to find the position of the given DD node in the variable order. To find the position, the levels of nodes should be determined.

The next two if-statements in the source code determine levels, p_top and q_top, of the topmost nodes in the argument DDs, P and Q. The level is the same as the variable index (CUDD_CONST_INDEX), if the DD node represents the constant function; otherwise it is determined using the mapping of variables into the corresponding levels, which is stored in the array zdd->permZ.

Next, three cases are considered:

- P is higher in the variable order than Q
- Q is higher in the variable order than P
- P is on the same level as Q

We discuss only the last one, the other two being similar.

Macros cuddT() and cuddE() return the “then” and “else” children (cofactors) of the given DD node. In ZDDs, these cofactors correspond to the sets of subsets, in which the topmost element is present (the “then” cofactor) or absent (the “else” cofactor). The cofactors are used in the recursive calls to cuddZddUnion(), which determine the two components of the result: the set of subsets with the topmost element (t) and without it (e).

All the DDs returned by the function calls are checked for being NULL. If the returned pointer to the node is not NULL, the node is referenced. If the returned pointer is NULL, it means that during the call either (1) the operating system has run out of memory when the CUDD package tried to extend the node table, or (2) the dynamic variable reordering has been triggered. In both cases, the recursive traversal is interrupted and NULL is returned to the caller. Notice also that the intermediate results of computation, which have been referenced so far, are dereferenced by calling Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd().

A few remarks should be made regarding the referencing conventions accepted in the CUDD package. A detailed treatment is given in CUDD User Manual [36].

Decision diagrams are stored in the DD manager as a shared directed acyclic graph of nodes. To mark the nodes that are in use, they are reference-counted. The reference counter of a DD node tells how many times this node participates in the DDs currently present in the manager. Therefore, each time a new DD node is created, its reference counter is incremented by the call to cuddRef().

```
DdNode *
cuddZddUnion(
    DdManager * zdd,
    DdNode * P,
    DdNode * Q)
{
    int p_top, q_top;
    DdNode *t, *e, *res;
```

```
    statLine(zdd);

    if ( P == DD_ZERO(zdd) ) return ( Q );
    if ( Q == DD_ZERO(zdd) ) return ( P );
    if ( P == Q ) return ( P );

    /* check cache */
    res = cuddCacheLookup2Zdd(zdd,cuddZddUnion,P,Q);
    if ( res != NULL ) return ( res );

    if ( cuddIsConstant( P ) )
        p_top = P->index;
    else
        p_top = zdd->permZ[P->index];

    if ( cuddIsConstant( Q ) )
        q_top = Q->index;
    else
        q_top = zdd->permZ[Q->index];

    if ( p_top < q_top )
    {
        e = cuddZddUnion( zdd, cuddE( P ), Q );
        if ( e == NULL ) return ( NULL );
        cuddRef( e );
        res = cuddZddGetNode(zdd,P->index,cuddT(P),e);
        if ( res == NULL )
        {
            Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd( zdd, e );
            return ( NULL );
        }
        cuddDeref( e );
    }
    else if ( p_top > q_top )
    {
        e = cuddZddUnion( zdd, P, cuddE( Q ) );
        if ( e == NULL ) return ( NULL );
        cuddRef( e );
        res = cuddZddGetNode(zdd,Q->index,cuddT(Q),e);
        if ( res == NULL )
        {
            Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd( zdd, e );
            return ( NULL );
        }
        cuddDeref( e );
    }
    else
    {
        t = cuddZddUnion( zdd, cuddT(P), cuddT(Q) );
        if ( t == NULL ) return ( NULL );
        cuddRef( t );
        e = cuddZddUnion( zdd, cuddE(P), cuddE(Q) );
        if ( e == NULL )
        {
            Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd( zdd, t );
            return ( NULL );
        }
        cuddRef( e );
        res = cuddZddGetNode( zdd, P->index, t, e );
        if ( res == NULL )
        {
            Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd( zdd, t );
            Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd( zdd, e );
            return ( NULL );
        }
        cuddDeref( t );
        cuddDeref( e );
    }
    cuddCacheInsert2( zdd,cuddZddUnion,P,Q,res );
    return ( res );
} /* end of cuddZddUnion */
```

Figure 7. CUDD source code implementing the union of two sets represented as ZDD.

Similarly, each time an old DD node is deleted, its reference counter is decremented. If after decrementing the reference counter becomes zero, the node is considered “dead” and the reference counters of the successor nodes are decremented in turn. This recursive decrementing of the reference counters is performed by the call to `Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd()`.

Functions in the CUDD package (with very few exceptions mentioned in the user manual) return *non-referenced* DD nodes. It is the responsibility of the caller function to reference the returned node after checking it for not being NULL.

This principle is used in the source code in Fig. 7 several times. First of all, the returned nodes are referenced after each function call, except for the last call to `cuddZddGetNode()`. In this case, there is no need to reference the node to be returned (`res`) because the function should return the non-referenced node. Of course, it would not be an error to reference it by `cuddRef(res)` and then dereference it right before returning by `cuddDeref(res)`. In the CUDD source code, these two steps are skipped for the sake of efficiency.

The last comment is about function `cuddZddGetNode()`. It returns the new ZDD node of the manager (`zdd`) with the given variable (`P->index`) and cofactors (`t` and `e`). Notice the order of cofactors in the argument list: first the “then” cofactor, next the “else” cofactor. After the call to `cuddZddGetNode()`, the cofactor DDs (`t` and `e`) should be dereferenced because `cuddZddGetNode()` references them when it creates the new node (`res`). Because cofactor ZDDs (`t` and `e`) are now part of the result ZDD (`res`), there is no need for recursive dereferencing by the call to the function `Cudd_RecursiveDerefZdd()`. The cofactor ZDDs can be efficiently dereferenced using `cuddDeref()`.

Notice that this implementation can be improved by taking advantage of the commutativity of the set-union operation. It means that the argument ZDDs (`P` and `Q`) can be ordered to increase the cache hit-rate.

There are several ways to implement this improvement. One of them is based on the assumption that the ordering of arguments is given by the ordering of the pointers to the argument `DdNode`-structures. In this case, it is enough to replace each recursive call to `cuddZddUnion(zdd, A, B)` by the lines

```
if ( (unsigned)A < (unsigned)B )
    cuddZddUnion( zdd, A, B );
else
    cuddZddUnion( zdd, B, A );
```

This improvement may lead to approximately 5% speedup in the applications, which perform many calls to `Cudd_zddUnion()`, the exported function of the package, which calls the internal function `cuddZddUnion()`.

6 Manipulation of cube covers

This section gives an illustrative example of a traversal procedure working with cube covers represented by ZDDs. Fig. 8 shows the pseudo-code of the function implementing the product of two cube covers. As in the case with `Union()`, the cache lookups are omitted.

```
cover Product( cover A, cover B )
{
    if ( A = {} || B = {} ) return {};
    if ( A = {{{}} } ) return B;
    if ( B = {{{}} } ) return A;
    if ( A = B ) return A;

    var x = TopVariable( A, B );

    cover A0, A1, A2, B0, B1, B2;
    ( A0, A1, A2 ) = DecomposeCover( A, x );
    ( B0, B1, B2 ) = DecomposeCover( B, x );

    cover TA0B0 = Product( A0, B0 );
    cover TA0B2 = Product( A0, B2 );
    cover TA1B1 = Product( A1, B1 );
    cover TA1B2 = Product( A1, B2 );
    cover TA2B0 = Product( A2, B0 );
    cover TA2B1 = Product( A2, B1 );
    cover TA2B2 = Product( A2, B2 );

    cover R0 = Union( Union(TA0B0, TA0B2), TA2B0 );
    cover R1 = Union( Union(TA1B1, TA1B2), TA2B1 );
    cover R2 = TA2B2;
    cover R = ComposeCover( x, R0, R1, R2 );
    return R;
}
```

Figure 8. Pseudo-code of the product of two covers.

Consider the terminal cases. If any of the covers contains no cubes, the function represented by the cover is the constant-0 function and the product is 0, so the empty cover is returned. If any of the covers is the tautology cube, the product is equal to the other cover. Finally, if the covers are the same, the product is equal to any of them.

When the topmost variable `x` is determined, notice that this is a primary input variable, not a ZDD variable. Each primary input variable is represented by two ZDD variables. This is taken into account by the function `TopVariable()`, which is more complex than the function with the same name used in the procedure `Union()`. Next, both argument covers are cofactored into three subcovers containing cubes with the given variable in the negative polarity (`A0` and `B0`), in the positive polarity (`A1` and `B1`), and without the given variable (`A2` and `B2`).

The main part of computation of cover-product (step (6)) is based on the following equality:

$$\begin{aligned} A * B &= (\bar{x} A0 + x A1 + A2) * (\bar{x} B0 + x B1 + B2) = \\ &= \bar{x} (A0 * B2 + A2 * B0 + A0 * B0) + \\ &\quad + x (A1 * B2 + A2 * B1 + A1 * B1) + A2 * B2. \end{aligned}$$

This equality reduces the computation of the cover-product to seven recursive calls to cover-product of the cofactor DDs. Out of nine possible combinations (each of the three subcovers of `A` with each of the three subcovers of

B), there is no need to consider only two combinations, $A0*B1$ and $A1*B0$, because the product of the negative and the positive literals reduces these sets to zero.

Finally, after five two-argument set-union operations which computes the three subcovers, $R0$, $R1$, and $R2$, the resulting cover R is composed from them using the topmost primary input variable.

Another implementation of this function is possible that replaces two (out of seven) calls to `Product()` for two additional calls to `Union()`. Because the implementation of `Union()` is simpler, this implementation of `Product()` is more efficient. The alternative implementation is explained by the following equality:

$$\begin{aligned} A * B &= (\bar{x}A0 + xA1 + A2) * (\bar{x}B0 + xB1 + B2) = \\ &= \bar{x}(A0*B2 + B0*(A0+A2)) + \\ &+ x(A1*B2 + B1*(A1+A2)) + A2*B2. \end{aligned}$$

7 Mixed ZDD/BDD applications

In this section, we discuss two procedures, which play an important role in the SOP minimization. These are (1) the computation of all primes of the CSF and (2) the computation of an irredundant SOP of the ISF. In both cases, the function arguments are represented as BDDs while the return values are represented by ZDDs. Other procedures may take ZDDs and return BDDs or have more complex argument assignments.

7.1 Computation of the set of all primes

The recursive approach to the prime computation has been proposed in [30] and implemented using BDDs/ZDDs in [8]. The pseudo-code is shown in Fig. 9.

The terminal cases are simple. If the input function is constant-0, the set of primes is empty. If the input function is constant-1, the prime set composed of the tautology cube is returned. Notice that the set of subsets that includes only the empty subset, $\{\{\}\}$, represents the cube with no literals, that is the tautology cube.

If it is not a terminal case, the topmost variable in the BDD of F is determined and the function is decomposed w.r.t. this variable. Next, the problem is solved in three steps.

First, the set of primes ($P2$) belonging to the intersection of cofactors is computed. These primes do not have the topmost variable as the positive or the negative literal.

Second, the set of all primes of the negative cofactor of the function ($P0$) is computed. These primes will have the topmost variable in the negative polarity. Before the topmost literal is added (when composing the result at the end of the procedure), some of them may be identical to the primes in $P2$. After adding the literal corresponding to the topmost variable, some of the cubes in $P2$ will contain the corresponding cubes in $P0$, because cubes in $P0$ get the negative literal while the cubes in $P2$ do not get a literal

associated with this variable. Because the contained cubes are, by definition, not primes, they should be removed. This is done by the set-difference operator applied to $P0$ and $P2$.

```
cover Primes( func F )
{
  if ( F = 0 ) return { };
  if ( F = 1 ) return { { } };

  var x = TopVariable( F );

  func F0, F1;
  (F0, F1) = DecomposeBdd( F, x );

  cover P2 = Primes( F0 & F1 );
  cover P0 = Primes( F0 );
  P0 = P0 - P2;
  cover P1 = Primes( F1 );
  P1 = P1 - P2;

  cover P = ComposeCover( x, P0, P1, P2 );
  return P;
}
```

Figure 9. Pseudo-code of the prime set computation.

Similarly, in the third step we compute the set of all primes with the positive literal ($P1$).

Finally, the resulting set of primes is composed from the three subsets, $P0$, $P1$, and $P2$ and returned.

Again, the prime computation procedure can be improved by detecting situations when the given function is unate in its topmost variable. In this case, there is no need to make one out of the three recursive calls to `Primes()` because the primes of the unate function do not have the given variable in any polarity of have it in only one polarity, either negative or positive, depending on the type of unateness.

The mixed BDD/ZDD implementation of `Primes()` is very efficient, as witnessed by the fact that it takes less than a second to compute the primes of any function from the Espresso PLA benchmark set (including the so-called hard benchmarks) on a 500MHz Pentium computer with 128Mb RAM. For this purpose, multi-output functions are converted into single-output functions, as described in [5].

7.2 Computation of an irredundant SOP

The algorithm for recursive computation of ISOP has been proposed in [30]. It has been implemented in [7][20]. The pseudo-code is given in Fig. 10. Symbols “+”, “&”, and “-“ in the pseudo-code stand for the Boolean operations OR, AND, and SHARP.

The procedure `IrrSOP()` to compute the irredundant sum-of-products is called with two arguments representing an ISF. The first argument F is the on-set, while the second argument FD is the sum of the on-set and the don't-care-set. If the ISF is represented by the on-set and off-set, FD is computed by complementing the off-set.

The following are the terminal cases. If the on-set F is empty, the function can be implemented as a constant-0 function, so the empty cover is returned. If the union of the on-set and dc-set, FD , covers the whole Boolean space,

returned is the set composed of the empty subset standing for the tautology cube.

Next, the topmost variable x and the cofactors of F and FD w.r.t. the variable x are derived. To find the decomposition of BDDs, the ordinary BDD cofactoring w.r.t. the topmost variable is used. Notice that if one of the functions, F or FD , does not depend on the topmost variable, its cofactors w.r.t. the topmost variable are equal to the function itself.

The ISOP is computed in three steps. The first step consists of finding the ISOP cover of that part of the on-set F , which cannot be covered by the cubes without the given variable. To achieve this, we compute the ISOP of the part of F_0 that is outside FD_1 . This part can be covered only by the cubes that contain the topmost variable in the negative polarity. These cubes are assigned to R_0 .

Similarly, in the second step, we compute the ISOP of the part of the on-set covered only by the cubes with the topmost variable in the positive polarity. These cubes are represented by R_1 .

In the third and final step, we compute the area in the intersection of FD_0 and FD_1 , which (1) belongs to F_0 or F_1 and (2) is not covered by the cubes in R_0 and R_1 . The pseudo-code employs the function $Bdd()$, which takes the cover as a ZDD and returns the BDD of the area of the Boolean space corresponding to the cover.

The CUDD package provides the implementation of the ISOP procedure, in which two values are returned in each call: the ZDD of the ISOP cover and the BDD of the area covered by the cover. In this way, there is no need for the call to $Bdd()$. The penalty for this solution is the necessity to cache two values, the ZDD and the BDD, and the repetition of the recursive call if at least one of the values is lost in the cache (losing values in the cache happen when two different computed results hash into the same cache entry resulting in the loss of the earlier result).

The EXTRA library gives an alternative implementation of this procedure, in which only one value is cached and returned. This implementation is based on a specialized operator, which takes two arguments, the BDD of the area and the ZDD of the cover and returns the BDD of the area that is not covered by the cover. This operator can implement expressions of the type $A - Bdd(B)$ in one traversal, while in the pseudo-code of Fig. 10, expressions of this kind are implemented by two traversals: $Bdd()$ and Boolean SHARP. Experimentation shows that this implementation of ISOP cover is more efficient than the one proposed in the CUDD package.

The ISOP computed by the above algorithm has some remarkable properties studied in [29]. The actual cover depends on the ordering of variables in the DD manager. As shown in [7][20], in many cases the quality of the ISOP computed is close to the quality of the exact minimum cover (typically, the number of cubes is within 15% from the exact minimum).

```

cover IrrSOP( func F, func FD )
{
    if ( F = 0 ) return {};
    if ( FD = 1 ) return {};

    var x = TopVariable( F, FD );

    func F0, F1, FD0, FD1;
    (F0, F1) = DecomposeBdd( F, x );
    (FD0, FD1) = DecomposeBdd( FD, x );

    func G0 = F0 - FD1;
    cover R0 = IrrSOP( G0, FD0 );
    func G1 = F1 - FD0;
    cover R1 = IrrSOP( G1, FD1 );

    func H = (F0 - Bdd(R0)) + (F1 - Bdd(R1));
    func HD = FD0 & FD1;
    cover R2 = IrrSOP( H, HD );

    cover R = ComposeCover( x, R0, R1, R2 );
    return R;
}

```

Figure 10. Pseudo-code of Irredundant SOP computation.

The main advantage of the above computation procedure is its speed. For large benchmarks, good-quality covers containing thousands of cubes can be derived in a fraction of a second. Using ISOP instead of other heuristic algorithms for the SOP computation may lead to several-order-of-magnitude speedups in some applications, for example [18].

8 A complete list of published ZDD applications

ZDDs have been introduced by S. Minato [21] in 1993 and presented in [26][28]. Since that time several ZDD packages have been implemented [14][16][24][36]. ZDDs have been used to solve a number of problems arising in different areas of computer science and engineering:

- To represent sets in various problems [23][34].
- To represent cubes and essential primes in two-level SOP minimization [8] and factorization of cube covers [22][27][35].
- To solve unate covering problem arising in multi-layer planar routing [10].
- To find dichotomy-based constraint encoding [11][13].
- To solve graph optimization problems [12].
- To represent and manipulate regular expressions under length constraint [17].
- To represent and manipulate polynomials with integer coefficients [25].
- In exclusive SOP minimization [32][33][37].
- In symbolic traversal of FSMs and Petri Nets [38][41].
- In Davis-Putman resolution procedure [6].
- In pass-transistor logic synthesis [3].
- Finding all disjoint-support decompositions of completely specified logic functions [29].
- Unate decomposition of boolean functions [18].

9 Conclusions

This tutorial introduces the reader into the beautiful world of Zero-Suppressed Binary Decision Diagrams and shows by way of example how to use them for solving a number of computationally hard problems that are important for practical applications.

10 Acknowledgements

The author acknowledges his indebtedness to O. Coudert, J. Lind-Nielsen, T. Kam, S. Minato, T. Shiple, F. Somenzi, and the contributors to the CUDD package, whose books, papers, source code, or personal advice (or a combination of the above) helped him learn the use and implementation of the decision diagrams.

11 Appendix A:

ZDD procedures in CUDD (Release 2.3.1)

This section lists the ZDD procedures implemented in the package, as described in the CUDD user manual.

ZDD construction

Cudd_ReadZero: Returns a constant-0 ZDD node representing the empty set.

Cudd_ReadOne: Returns a constant-1 ZDD node representing the set composed of the empty subset only.

Cudd_ReadZddOne: Returns the ZDD of the constant-1 function assuming that this function depends on the given number of variables.

Cudd_zddIthVar: Returns the ZDD of the function equal to the elementary variable if this variable exists in the DD manager, or creates a new ZDD variable.

Cudd_zddIte: Computes the ITE of three functions represented by ZDDs.

Cudd_zddChange: Substitutes a variable by its complement in a ZDD.

Porting

Cudd_zddPortFromBdd: Converts a BDD into a ZDD.

Cudd_zddPortToBdd: Converts a ZDD into a BDD.

Cudd_zddVarsFromBddVars: Creates one or more ZDD variables for each BDD variable.

Cofactoring

Cudd_zddSubset0 (*Cudd_zddSubset1*): Computes the negative (positive) cofactor of a ZDD w.r.t. a variable.

Set operators

Cudd_zddUnion: The union of two sets.

Cudd_zddIntersect: The intersection of two sets.

Cudd_zddDiff: The difference of two sets.

Cudd_zddDiffConst: Inclusion test for sets (P implies Q).

Cudd_zddUnateProduct: The product of two unate covers. Unate covers use one ZDD variable for each BDD variable.

Cudd_zddDivide: The quotient of two unate covers.

Cover manipulation

Cudd_zddProduct: The product of two binate covers. The binate covers use two ZDD variables for each BDD variable.

Cudd_zddWeakDiv: The quotient of two binate covers.

Cudd_zddComplement: The complement of a cover.

Cudd_zddIsop: An irredundant sum of products (ISOP) in ZDD form BDDs for the on-set and the on+dc-set.

Cudd_BddFromZddCover: Returns the BDD of the function represented by a cover.

Counting functions

Cudd_zddDagSize: Counts nodes in a ZDD.

Cudd_zddCount: Returns the number of paths in a ZDD.

Cudd_zddCountMinterm (*Cudd_zddCountDouble*): Count the number of minterms of a ZDD.

Reordering

Cudd_zddReduceHeap: The main dynamic reordering routine for ZDDs.

Cudd_zddShuffleHeap: Reorders ZDD variables according to given permutation.

Cudd_zddSymmProfile: Prints statistics on symmetric ZDD variables.

Realignment of Variables

Cudd_zddRealignEnable: Enables realignment of the ZDD variable order to the BDD variable order after the BDDs and ADDs have been reordered.

Cudd_zddRealignDisable: Disables realignment of ZDD order to BDD order.

Cudd_zddRealignmentEnabled: Returns 1 if the realignment of ZDD order to BDD order is enabled.

Printing and visualization

Cudd_zddDumpDot: Writes a file representing the argument ZDDs in a format suitable for the graph drawing program DOT [1].

Cudd_zddPrintCover: Prints an SOP representation of a ZDD.

Cudd_zddPrintDebug: Prints a DD and its statistics to the standard output.

Cudd_zddPrintSubtable: Prints the ZDD table for debugging purposes.

12 Appendix B:

ZDD Procedures in the EXTRA library (Release 1.2)

The ZDD operators belonging to the library are grouped according to their purpose. Unless stated otherwise, all the operators are implemented in the bottom-up reorder-independent fashion, meaning that the operation restarts if the dynamic variable reordering has taken place.

ZDD construction

Cudd_zddCombination: Creates a ZDD of one combination.

Cudd_zddUniverse: Builds a ZDD for all possible combinations of variables from the given set.

Cudd_zddTuples: Builds a ZDD representing the set of all tuples of the given cardinality composed of variables from the given set.

Cudd_zddRandomSet: Builds the random set of k combinations, each of which may contain up to n elements with the average density d .

Cudd_zddConvertBddCubeIntoZddCube: Takes a BDD of the variable product and returns a ZDD cube composed of the same variables.

Set operators

Cudd_zddMaximal: Computes the maximal of the set of subsets defined as follows:

$$\max(S) = \{ s \in S \mid \forall s' \in S, s \subseteq s' \Rightarrow s = s' \}.$$

Cudd_zddMinimal: Computes the minimal of the set of subsets defined as follows:

$$\min(S) = \{ s \in S \mid \forall s' \in S, s \supseteq s' \Rightarrow s = s' \}.$$

Cudd_zddMaxUnion (*Cudd_zddMinUnion*): Computes the maximal (minimal) of the union of sets X and Y in one bottom-up traversal.

Cudd_zddDotProduct: Computes the set of subsets created by taking pair-wise unions of subsets from X and Y :

$$\text{DotProduct}(X, Y) = \{ x \cup y \mid x \in X, y \in Y \}.$$

Cudd_zddMaxDotProduct: Computes the maximal of the set of subsets created by taking pair-wise unions of subsets from X and Y :

$$\text{MaxDotProduct}(X, Y) = \max(\{ x \cup y \mid x \in X, y \in Y \}).$$

Cudd_zddSubSet: Computes the set of subsets in X that are contained in at least one subset of Y :

$$\text{SubSet}(X, Y) = \{ x \in X \mid \exists y \in Y, x \subseteq y \}.$$

Cudd_zddSupSet: Computes the set of subsets in X that contain at least one subset of Y :

$$\text{SupSet}(X, Y) = \{ x \in X \mid \exists y \in Y, x \supseteq y \}.$$

Cudd_zddNotSubSet: Computes the set of subsets in X that are not contained in at least one subset of Y :

$$\text{NotSubSet}(X, Y) = \{ x \in X \mid \forall y \in Y, x \not\subseteq y \}.$$

Cudd_zddNotSupSet: Computes the set of subsets in X that are not contained in at least one subset of Y :

$$\text{NotSupSet}(X, Y) = \{ x \in X \mid \forall y \in Y, x \not\supseteq y \}.$$

Cudd_zddMaxNotSupSet: Computes the maximal of the set of subsets in X that do not contain any subset of Y in one bottom-up traversal.

Cudd_zddEmptyBelongs: Returns 1 if the given ZDD contains the empty combination, and 0 otherwise.

Cudd_zddExistAbstract: Removes from a ZDD the occurrences of variables belonging to the given set.

Cudd_zddChangeVars: Changes the values of the variables belonging to the given set in all combination of the ZDD.

Cudd_zddCommonCube: Computes all the variables that appear in all combinations of a ZDD.

Cudd_zddCofactor0 (*Cudd_zddCofactor1*): Computes all combinations that contain (do not contain) the variables belonging to the given set.

Cudd_zddMaximum (*Cudd_zddMinimum*): Returns a ZDD representing all combinations of the set S containing the maximum (minimum) number of elements.

Cudd_zddSinglesToComb: Takes a ZDD of singleton combinations (combinations including exactly one element) and returns a ZDD containing one combination composed of all elements.

Cover manipulation

Cudd_zddPrimes: Given the BDD of the function F , computes a ZDD representing the set of all prime implicants of F .

Cudd_zddProductAlt: An alternative implementation of the product of two covers.

Cudd_zddPrimeProduct: Computes the product of two covers from which the contained cubes are removed “on the fly”.

Cudd_zddResolve: Computes all resolvents of the set of clauses S w.r.t. the set of variables $Vars$.

Cudd_zddCompatible: Computes all the cubes from the given set that overlap with the given cube.

Cudd_zddDisjointCover: Computes the ZDD of the cover represented by disjoint variable paths in the given BDD.

Cudd_zddSelectOneCube: Returns a randomly selected cube from the given cover.

Cudd_zddCheckUnateness: Returns 1 if the given cover is (positive or negative) unate in all its variables.

Cudd_zddUnionExor: Computes the union of two covers, while removing the cubes contained in both covers.

Cudd_zddSupercubes: Given two sets of cubes, computes the set of their pair-wise supercubes.

Cudd_zddSelectDist1Cubes: Selects cubes from the given set that have at least one distance-1 cube in another set.

Cudd_zddEssential: Computes the essential cubes.

cuddDecomposeCover: Find the cofactors of the cover w.r.t. the top variable, without creating new DD nodes.

cuddComposeCover: Composes the cover from the three subcovers using the given variable.

Cover/area manipulation

Cudd_zddCoveredByArea: Returns the cubes from the given cover, completely contained in the given area of the Boolean space.

Cudd_zddOverlappingWithArea: Returns the cubes from the given cover, overlapping with the given area do the Boolean space.

Cudd_zddNotCoveredByCover: Returns the cubes belonging to the given cover, that are not completely covered by another cover.

Cudd_zddNotContainedCubesOverArea: Computes the cubes that do not overlap with the cubes from the other set over the given area.

Cudd_zddConvertToBdd: An alternative implementation of the procedure *Cudd_MakeBddFromZddCover* from the CUDD package.

Cudd_zddConvertToBddAndAdd: Computes the Boolean OR of the given area and the area covered by the cover in one traversal.

Cudd_zddConvertEsopToBdd: Computes the BDD of the exclusive sum-of-products represented by a ZDD.

Cudd_zddSingleCoveredArea: Computes the area of the Boolean space covered by only one cube from the cover.

Cudd_zddGetMostCoveredArea: Computes the area covered by the maximum number of cubes in a ZDD.

Irredundant SOP computation

Cudd_zddIsopCover: A wrapper around *Cudd_zddIsop* from the CUDD package. This function returns only the ZDD of the cover and does not return its BDD.

Cudd_zddIsopCoverAlt: An alternative implementation of the ISOP computation. This function may be more efficient than *Cudd_zddIsop* and *Cudd_zddIsopCover*.

Cudd_zddIsopCoverRandom: Computes an ISOP cover assuming the random permutation of variables.

Cudd_zddIsopCoverAllVars: Tries all possible permutations of variables in every subcover and returns

the ISOP with the smallest number of cubes (potentially very slow for more than 10 variables).

Cudd_zddIsopCoverUnateVars: Detects unate variables and performs decomposition w.r.t. these variables first (this function is slower but gives smaller covers compared to *Cudd_zddIsop* and *Cudd_zddIsopCover*.)

Graph input/output

Cudd_zddGraphRead: Reads the file with the non-directed graph in DIMACS formats and creates its representation as a ZDD.

Cudd_zddGraphWrite: Writes the non-directed graph represented as a ZDD into a file in DIMACS ASCII format.

Cudd_zddGraphDumpDot: Writes a file representing the graph in a format suitable for the graph-drawing program DOT [1].

Graph operators

Cudd_zddCliques: Finds the set of all cliques of the graph represented as a ZDD.

Cudd_zddMaxCliques: Finds the set of all maximal cliques of the graph represented as a ZDD in one bottom-up traversal.

Cudd_zddIncrCliques: Given a ZDD of the graph and a ZDD of all cliques of size k , computes the set of all cliques of size $k+1$. (Notice that the graph representation is the set of all cliques of the size two.)

Cudd_zddGraphColoring: Given a ZDD of the graph, finds a heuristic coloring of the graph (not finished)

Cudd_zddRandomGraph: Generates a ZDD representing a random graph with n nodes and density d (not finished)

Set covering

Cudd_zddSolveUCP: Solves the set-covering problem specified as follows: Each element is encoded using a separate ZDD variable. The only argument S is the set of subsets that covers all elements. The set of elements is determined as the support of S (not finished).

Cudd_zddSolveCC: Solves the cyclic core specified by the pair of ZDDs representing the set of rows and the set of columns, using a fast greedy heuristic method.

Reordering

Cudd_zddPermute: Given a ZDD and the permutation of variables, creates a ZDD with permuted variables.

Counting functions

Cudd_zddLitCount: Counts how many times each element occurs in the combinations of the set.

Other functions

Cudd_zddSupport: Returns a ZDD representing a set of variables, on which the given DD depends.

Cudd_zddVerifyCover: Takes the cover and the function interval represented by two BDDs. Returns 1 if the cover belongs to the interval.

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