

**A Dissertation
On
Evolutionary Logic Circuit Synthesis Based On Mutual
Information Based Fitness Function**

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Certificate

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ABSTRACT

Evolutionary Algorithms (EAs) cover all the applications involving the use of Evolutionary Computation in electronic system design. It is largely applied to complex optimization problems. EAs introduce a new idea for automatic design of electronic systems; instead of using model, abstractions, and conventional techniques, it uses search algorithm to design a circuit.

In this project we have used Genetic Algorithm (GA) as the Evolutionary Algorithm and Entropy based measures, such as Mutual Information and Normalized Mutual Information are investigated as tools for similarity, measures between the target and evolving circuit.

The target circuit evolved is combinational logic circuit, a Majority Function using Genetic algorithm and Information Theory Measures. The circuit evolved uses only 2x1 multiplexers and the evolved circuit is compared to the circuit identified using the ROBDD (Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagram)

Table of Contents

I. Introduction.....	2
II. Related Works.....	6
III. Genetic Algorithm.....	12
1. Introduction.....	12
1.1. Background.....	13
1.2. Natural Selection.....	14
1.3. Simulated Evolution.....	14
1.4. Genetic algorithm vocabulary.....	16
2. Fitness Function.....	16
3. GA operators.....	18
3.1. Selection.....	19
3.2. Crossover.....	20
3.3. Mutation.....	22
4. Schema Theorem.....	25
IV. Information Theory.....	26
1. Information.....	26
2. Entropy.....	26
3. Conditional Entropy.....	27
4. Joint Entropy.....	28
5. Mutual Information.....	28
6. Entropy and Circuits.....	29
V. Binary Decision Diagrams (BDD).....	31
1. Introduction.....	31
2. Implementation.....	32
VI. MATLAB EDA Simulator Link.....	34
1. Writing Test Bench in MATLAB for HDL Combinational Logic.....	34
2. HDL Cosimulation Using MATLAB Component Function.....	35
VII. Circuit Evolution.....	36
1. 3,2 Majority Logic Circuit.....	36
2. Universal Logic Module for 3 Variables.....	37
3. Fitness Function.....	42
4. GA Parameters.....	43

VIII. Results and Conclusion.....	44
1. Verification of the Evolved 3,2 Majority Function.....	44
2. Evolved and Optimized Module	45
3. Binary Decision Diagrams (BDD) and Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagrams (ROBDD) .	48
4. GA Convergence.....	50
5. Conclusion	52
6. Future Work.....	52
Appendix – 1.....	53
Verilog Module for Universal Logic Module for 3 Variables	53
Appendix – 2.....	57
Testbench File for Veirlog Module in MATLAB	57
Appendix -- 3	60
Evaluation Function File	60
References.....	62

I. Introduction

Evolving Algorithms are capable of evolving 100% functional arithmetic circuits.

Evolutionary Algorithms include Genetic Algorithms (GA), Genetic Programming (GP), Evolutionary Strategies etc. In our study we will be concentrating on Genetic Algorithm. The largest of these circuits are the most complex digital circuits to have been designed by purely evolutionary means. The algorithm is able to re-discover conventionally optimum designs for the combinational circuits like full adder and parity generators, but more significantly is able to improve on the conventional designs. By analyzing the history of an evolving design up to complete functionality it is possible to gain insight into evolutionary process.

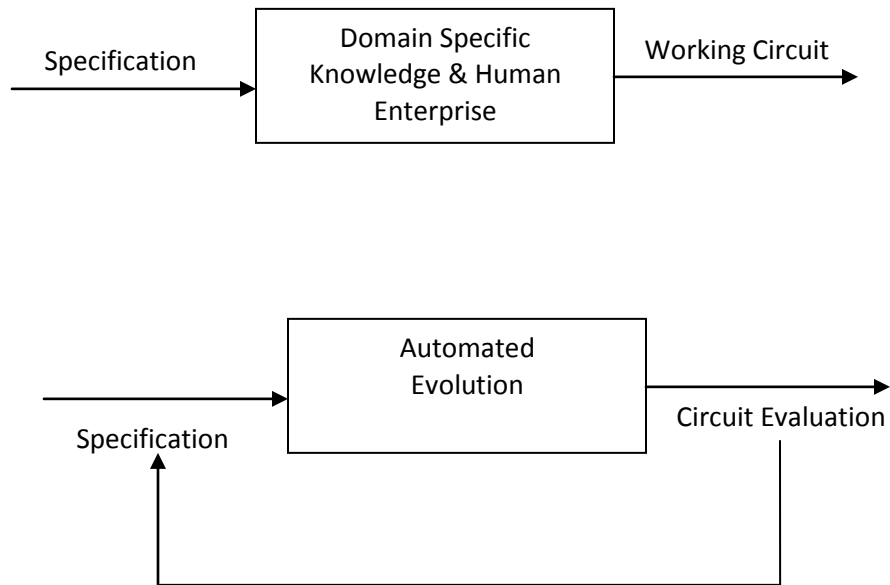
The design of electronic circuits is generally a complex task requiring knowledge of large collection of domain-specific rules. In particular the process of implementing a digital electronic circuit in hardware has typically involved transforming the original logical specification into a form suitable for, the target technology (i.e. choosing the gate types), minimising the representation, optimising the representation with respect to user defined constraints (i.e. timing characteristics, fan-in/outs, etc.) and finally carrying out technology mapping onto the target device. This latter step typically involves placing and routing of the component gates which comprise the complete design. It should

been emphasised that during all these stages great care has to be taken to maintain the logical functionality of the original circuit specification. This new approach is perhaps best expressed as a black-box view of the problem. In this view one regards the problem of implementing the circuit as being equivalent to designing a black-box with inputs and outputs with the property that on presentation of the original input signals the desired outputs are delivered. The key new feature of this technique is that the details inside the box are encoded into chromosomes and subjected to the usual processes of evolutionary algorithms. In this technique the fitness of a particular chromosome is measured purely as the degree to which the black-box outputs behave in the desired way.

Up until now, most electronic systems of any complexity were created by a designer who had been trained in a particular way to understand the operation of individual electronic components, and who would, therefore, be able to use these rules of behavior to construct larger systems from the basic parts. This was true whether the system to be created was purely analogue (responding to real-world signals), purely digital (responding to binary streams), or some combination of the two.

This method of working is somewhat constrained both by the training and experience of the designer and by the domain-specific knowledge which he may or

may not possess. For example, some designers will be more expert in the analogue domain, some more expert in the digital domain. Instead, those who advocate the use of evolution to assist in the design process are not so concerned with this type of expertise, but merely seek to set up the appropriate conditions which will allow solution to evolve naturally. Figure demonstrates the difference between the two approaches.



The reason for the recent increase of research activity in the evolvable hardware field is probably due in availability of programmable electronic components. Unlike traditional components, these devices have no fixed operation or functionality when first obtained. Instead it is the responsibility of the user/designer to decide - via the appropriate programming - what that functionality should be either during or after implementation within a given system. In many instances, these devices, once programmed, are even then not dedicated to that particular operational characteristic, but may afterwards be re-programmed to adopt yet another different functionality.

We intend to evolve a 3,2 majority function combinational circuit using Genetic Algorithm as the Evolutionary Algorithm. The circuit is evolved using a programmable module written in Verilog HDL called the Universal Module for 3 variables, it can implement any combinational circuit of 3 variables depending upon the fact that how it is programmed. The fitness function used in the evolution is based upon the Information Theory indices of Normalised Mutual Information. The Evolution process is carried out in real time using MATLAB EDA simulator link and Modelsim.

II. Related Works

I. Mutual Information-based Fitness Functions for Evolutionary Circuit Synthesis[7]

Entropy-based measures, such as Mutual Information and Normalized Mutual Information are investigated as tools for similarity, measures between the target and evolving circuit. Three fitness functions are built over a primitive one. It is shown that the search landscape of Normalized Mutual Information looks more amenable for evolutionary computation algorithms than simple Mutual Information. The evolutionary synthesized circuits are compared to the known optimum size. A discussion of the potential of the Information Theoretical approach is given in this paper.

II. Evolutionary Synthesis of Logic Functions using Multiplexers[8]

This paper presents a genetic programming based approach to the synthesis of logic functions by means of multiplexers. This method uses 1-control line multiplexer as the only design unit for the synthesis of any logic function. Logic design with multiplexers is similar to logic design with binary decision diagrams which can be transformed into ordered binary decision diagrams. It is argued that

since the metric of the designs is minimum number of components, ordered diagrams are not suitable approach for this particular goal.

III. Gate level synthesis of Boolean Functions using Binary Multiplexers and Genetic Programming [9]

In this paper genetic programming approach for synthesis of logic functions by means of multiplexers is presented. This approach uses 1-control line multiplexers as the only design unit. Any logic function defined by the truth table can be produced through the replication of this single unit. Its fitness function works in two stages, first it finds the feasible solution and then it concentrates on minimization of the circuit. The proposed approach does not require any knowledge of the application domain.

IV. Information Theory Method for Flexible Network Synthesis [10]

This paper introduces a novel approach to extend flexibility of combinational multi-level networks synthesis based on Information Theoretical Measure (ITM). This problem is related to optimization for combinational multi-level networks, artificial evolution and machine learning in circuitry design. Using ITMs, we

verify not only that an evolved network achieves the target functionality, but also that this network can be corrected in a simple regular way to achieve it.

We demonstrate experimental results by evolutionary strategy on gate-level network design: effectiveness in evolved valid networks increases dozens of times.

V. Evolutionary Algorithms and Their Use in the Design of Sequential Logic Circuits^[11]

In this paper an approach based on an evolutionary algorithm to design synchronous sequential logic circuits with minimum number of logic gates is suggested. The proposed method consists of four main stages. The first stage is concerned with the use of genetic algorithms (GA) for the state assignment problem to compute optimal binary codes for each symbolic state and construct the state transition table of finite state machine (FSM). The second stage defines the subcircuits required to achieve the desired functionality. The third stage evaluates the subcircuits using extrinsic Evolvable Hardware (EHW). During the fourth stage, the final circuit is assembled. The obtained results compare favorably against those produced by manual methods and other methods based on heuristic techniques.

VI. Application of Design Style in Evolutionary Multi-Level Networks Synthesis^[12]

This paper considers evolutionary design of logical networks from the Computer Aided Design (CAD) point of view. It states that scanning of a space of all possible network solutions by a scanning window is the crucial point of an evolutionary paradigm. This is the base for implementation of CAD methods in order to improve the recently obtained results on evolutionary approach for a network synthesis. Firstly, it introduces the concept of a target design style in evolutionary network synthesis and shows that it is closely related to the CAD problem of multi-level networks design over a fixed library of cells. Secondly, because the network search space is partitionable, we use the technique of decomposition of switching functions. Therefore, independent parallel processing of subspaces via genetic algorithms (GAs) is possible. Moreover, since GA is inherently parallel, it achieves massive parallel processing. The experimental data demonstrate the efficiency of the proposed approach and large improvements over recently obtained results.

VII. Binary Decision Diagrams [13]

This paper describes a method for defining, analyzing, testing, and implementing large digital functions by means of binary decision diagram. This diagram provides a complete, concise, "implementation-free" description of the digital functions involved. Techniques are then outlined for using the diagrams to analyze the functions involved, for test generation, and for obtaining various implementations. It is shown that the diagrams are especially suited for processing by a computer. Finally, methods are described for introducing inversion and for directly "interconnecting" diagrams to define still larger functions.

VIII. Graph-Based Algorithms for Boolean Function Manipulation [14]

In this paper a new data structure for representing Boolean functions and an associated set of manipulation algorithms. Functions are represented by directed, acyclic graphs in a manner similar to the representation, but with further restrictions on the ordering of decision variables in the graph. Although a function requires, in the worst case, a graph of size exponential in the number of arguments, many of the functions encountered in typical applications have a more reasonable

representation. These algorithms have time complexity proportional to the sizes of the graphs being operated on, and hence are quite efficient as long as the graphs do not grow too large. The experimental results from applying these algorithms to problems in logic design verification that demonstrates the practicality of this approach.

III. Genetic Algorithm

1. Introduction

Genetic Algorithms are a family of computational models inspired by evolution. These algorithms encode a potential solution to a specific problem on a simple chromosome-like data structure and apply recombination operators to these structures as to preserve critical information. Genetic algorithms are often viewed as function optimizers, although the range of problems to which genetic algorithms have been applied are quite broad. An implementation of genetic algorithm begins with a population of (typically random) chromosomes.

One then evaluates these structures and allocates reproductive opportunities in such a way that these chromosomes which represent a better solution to the target problem are given more chances to 'reproduce' than those chromosomes which are poorer solutions. The 'goodness' of a solution is typically defined with respect to the current population.

1.1. Background

Many human inventions were inspired by nature. Artificial neural networks is one example, another example is Genetic Algorithms (GA). GAs search by simulating evolution, starting from an initial set of solutions or hypotheses, and generating successive "generations" of solutions. This particular branch of AI was inspired by the way living things evolved into more successful organisms in nature. The main idea is survival of the fittest, a.k.a. natural selection. A chromosome is a long, complicated thread of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid). Hereditary factors that determine particular traits of an individual are strung along the length of these chromosomes, like beads on a necklace. Each trait is coded by some combination of DNA (there are four bases, A (Adenine), C (Cytosine), T (Thymine) and G (Guanine)). Like an alphabet in a language, meaningful combinations of the bases produce special instructions to the cell. Changes occur during reproduction. The chromosomes from the parents exchange randomly by a process called crossover. Therefore, the offspring exhibit some traits of the father and some traits of the mother. A rarer process called mutation also changes some traits. Sometimes an error may occur during copying of chromosomes (mitosis). The parent cell may have -A-C-G-C-T- but an accident may occur and changes the new cell to -A-C-T-C-T-. Much like a typist copying a book, sometimes a few mistakes are made. Usually this results in a nonsensical word and the cell does not survive. But over

millions of years, sometimes the accidental mistake produces a more beautiful phrase for the book, thus producing a better species.

1.2. Natural Selection.

In nature, the individual that has better survival traits will survive for a longer period of time. This in turn provides it a better chance to produce offspring with its genetic material. Therefore, after a long period of time, the entire population will consist of lots of genes from the superior individuals and less from the inferior individuals. In a sense, the fittest survived and the unfit died out. This force of nature is called natural selection. The existence of competition among individuals of a species was recognized certainly before Darwin. The mistake made by the older theorists (like Lamarck) was that the environment had an effect on an individual. That is, the environment will force an individual to adapt to it. The molecular explanation of evolution proves that this is biologically impossible. The species does not adapt to the environment, rather, only the fittest survive.

1.3. Simulated Evolution

To simulate the process of natural selection in a computer, we need to define the following: A representation of an individual, at each point during the search process we maintain a "generation" of "individuals". Each individual is a data structure representing the "genetic structure" of a possible solution or hypothesis.

Like a chromosome, the genetic structure of an individual is described using a fixed, finite alphabet. In GAs, the alphabet 0, 1 is usually used. This string is interpreted as a solution to the problem we are trying to solve. For example, say we want to find the optimal quantity of the three major ingredients in a recipe (say, sugar, wine, and sesame oil). We can use the alphabet 1, 2, 3 ..., 9 denoting the number of ounces of each ingredient. Some possible solutions are 1-1-1, 2-1-4, and 3-3-1. As another example, the traveling salesperson problem is the problem of finding the optimal path to traverse, say, 10 cities. The salesperson may start in any city. A solution is a permutation of the 10 cities: 1-4-2-3-6-7-9-8-5-10.

As another example, say we want to represent a rule-based system. Given a rule such as "If color=red and size=small and shape=round then object=apple" we can describe it as a bit string by first assuming each of the attributes can take on a fixed set of possible values. Say color=red, green, blue, size=small, big, shape=square, round, and fruit=orange, apple, banana, pear. Then we could represent the value for each attribute as a sub-string of length equal to the number of possible values of that attribute. For example, color=red could be represented by 100, color=green by 010, and color=blue by 001. Note also that we can represent color=red or blue by 101, and any color (i.e., a "don't care") by 111. Doing this for each attribute, the above rule might then look like: 100 10 01 0100. A set of rules is then represented

by concatenating together each rule's 11-bit string. For another example see page 620 in the textbook for a bit-string representation of a logical conjunction.

1.4. Genetic algorithm vocabulary

Explanation of Genetic Algorithm terms:

Genetic Algorithms	Explanation
Chromosome(string, individual)	Solution (coding)
Genes (bits)	Part of solution
Locus	Position of gene
Alleles	Values of gene
Phenotype	Decoded solution
Genotype	Encoded solution

2. Fitness Function

As mentioned earlier, GAs mimic the survival-of-the-fittest principle of nature to make a search process. Therefore, GAs are naturally suitable for solving

maximization problems. Maximization problems are usually transformed into maximization problem by suitable transformation. In general, a fitness function $F(i)$ is first derived from the objective function and used in successive genetic operations. Fitness in biological sense is a quality value which is a measure of the reproductive efficiency of chromosomes. In genetic algorithm, fitness is used to allocate reproductive traits to the individuals in the population and thus act as some measure of goodness to be maximized. This means that individuals with higher fitness value will have higher probability of being selected as candidates for further examination. Certain genetic operators require that the fitness function be non-negative, although certain operators need not have this requirement. For maximization problems, the fitness function can be considered to be the same as the objective function or $F(i) = O(i)$. For minimization problems, to generate non-negative values in all the cases and to reach the relative fitness of individual string, it is necessary to map the underlying natural objective function to fitness function form. A number of such transformations is possible. Two commonly adopted fitness mappings is presented below.

$$F(x) = 1 / \{1 + f(x)\} .$$

This transformation does not alter the location of the minimum, but converts a minimization problem to an equivalent maximization problem. An alternate function to transform the objective function to get the fitness value $F(i)$ as below.

$$F(i) = V - \frac{O(i)P}{\sum_{i=1}^P O(i)}$$

where, $O(i)$ is the objective function value of i th individual, P is the population size and V is a large value to ensure non-negative fitness values. The value of V adopted in this work is the maximum value of the second term of equation 5 so that the fitness value corresponding to maximum value of the objective function is zero. This transformation also does not alter the location of the solution, but converts a minimization problem to an equivalent maximization problem. The fitness function value of a string is known as the string fitness.

3. GA operators

The operation of GAs begins with a population of a random strings representing design or decision variables. The population is then operated by three main operators; reproduction, crossover and mutation to create a new population of points. GAs can be viewed as trying to maximize the fitness function, by evaluating several solution vectors. The purpose of these operators is to create new solution vectors by selection, combination or alteration of the current solution vectors that have shown to be good temporary solutions. The new population is further evaluated and tested till termination. If the termination criterion is not met, the population is iteratively operated by the above three operators and evaluated. This

procedure is continued until the termination criterion is met. One cycle of these operations and the subsequent evaluation procedure is known as a generation in GAs terminology. The operators are described in the following steps.

3.1. Selection

Reproduction (or selection) is an operator that makes more copies of better strings in a new population. Reproduction is usually the first operator applied on a population. Reproduction selects good strings in a population and forms a mating pool. This is one of the reasons for the reproduction operation to be sometimes known as the selection operator. Thus, in reproduction operation the process of natural selection causes those individuals that encode successful structures to produce copies more frequently. To sustain the generation of a new population, the reproduction of the individuals in the current population is necessary. For better individuals, these should be from the fittest individuals of the previous population. There exist a number of reproduction operators in GA literature, but the essential idea in all of them is that the above average strings are picked from the current population and their multiple copies are inserted in the mating pool in a probabilistic manner.

Roulette-Wheel Selection: The commonly-used reproduction operator is the proportionate reproduction operator where a string is selected for the mating pool

with a probability proportional to its fitness. Thus, the i th string in the population is selected with a probability proportional to F_i . Since the population size is usually kept fixed in a simple GA, the sum of the probability of each string being selected for the mating pools must be one. Therefore, the probability for selecting the i th string is

$$p_i = \frac{F_i}{\sum F_i}$$

where n is the population size. One way to implement this selection scheme is to imagine a roulette-wheel with its circumference marked for each string proportionate to the string's fitness.

3.2. Crossover

A crossover operator is used to recombine two strings to get a better string. In crossover operation, recombination process creates different individuals in the successive generations by combining material from two individuals of the previous generation. In reproduction, good strings in a population are probabilistically signed a larger number of copies and a mating pool is formed. It is important to note that no new strings are formed in the reproduction phase. In the crossover operator, new strings are created by exchanging information among strings of the mating

pool. The two strings participating in the crossover operation are known as parent strings and the resulting strings are known as children strings. It is intuitive from this construction that good sub-strings from parent strings can be combined to form a better child string, if an appropriate site is chosen. With a random site, the children strings produced may or may not have a combination of good sub-strings from parent strings, depending on whether or not the crossing site falls in the appropriate place. But this is not a matter of serious concern, because if good strings are created by crossover, there will be more copies of them in the next mating pool generated by crossover. It is clear from this discussion that the effect of cross over may be detrimental or beneficial. Thus, in order to preserve some of the good strings that are already present in the mating pool, all strings in the mating pool are not used in crossover. When a crossover probability, defined here as p_c is used, only $100p_c$ per cent strings in the population are used in the crossover operation and $100(1-p_c)$ percent of the population remains as they are in the current population. A crossover operator is mainly responsible for the search of new strings even though mutation operator is also used for this purpose sparingly.

Many crossover operators exist in the GA literature. One site crossover and two site crossover are the most common ones adopted. In most crossover operators, two strings are picked from the mating pool at random and some portion of the strings are exchanged between the strings. Crossover operation is done at string level by

randomly selecting two strings for crossover operations. A one site crossover operator is performed by randomly choosing a crossing site along the string and by exchanging all bits on the rightside of the crossing site. In one site crossover, a crossover site is selected randomly. The portion rightof the selected site of these two strings are exchanged to form a new pair of strings. The new strings are thus a combination of the old strings. Two site crossover is a variation of the one site crossover, except that two crossover sites are chosen and the bits between the sites are exchanged. One site crossover is more suitable when string length is small while two site crossover is suitable for large strings. Hence the present work adopts a two site crossover. The underlying objective of crossover is to exchange information between strings to get a string that is possibly better than the parents.

3.3. Mutation

Mutation adds new information in a random way to the genetic search process and ultimately helpsto avoid getting trapped at local optima. It is an operator that introduces diversity in the population whenever the population tends to become homogeneous due to repeated use of reproduction and crossover operators. Mutation may cause the chromosomes of individuals to be different from those of their parent individuals. Mutation in a way is the process of randomly disturbing genetic information. They operate at the bit level; when the bits are being

copied from the current string to the new string, there is probability that each bit may become mutated. This probability is usually a quite small value, called as mutation probability p_m . A coin toss mechanism is employed; if random number between zero and one is less than the mutation probability, then the bit is inverted, so that zero becomes one and one becomes zero. This helps in introducing a bit of diversity to the population by scattering the occasional points. This random scattering would result in a better optima, or even modify a part of genetic code that will be beneficial in later operations. On the other hand, it might produce a weak individual that will never be selected for further operations. The need for mutation is to create a point in the neighborhood of the current point, thereby achieving a local search around the current solution. The mutation is also used to maintain diversity in the population. For example, the following population having four eight bit strings may be considered:

```
01101011
00111101
00010110
01111100.
```

It can be noticed that all four strings have a 0 in the left most bit position. If the true optimum solution requires 1 in that position, then neither reproduction nor crossover operator described above will be able to create 1 in that position. The inclusion of mutation introduces probability p_m of turning 0 into 1. These three

operators are simple and straightforward. The reproduction operator selects good strings and the crossover operator recombines good sub-strings from good strings together, hopefully, to create a better sub-string. The mutation operator alters a string locally expecting a better string. Even though none of these claims are guaranteed and/or tested while creating a string, it is expected that if bad strings are created they will be eliminated by the reproduction operator in the next generation and if good strings are created, they will be increasingly emphasized. Further insight into these operators, different ways of implementations and some mathematical foundations of genetic algorithms can be obtained from GA literature. Application of these operators on the current population creates a new population. This new population is used to generate subsequent populations and so on, yielding solutions that are closer to the optimum solution. The values of the objective function of the individuals of the new population are again determined by decoding the strings. These values express the fitness of the solutions of the new generations. This completes one cycle of genetic algorithm called a generation. In each generation if the solution is improved, it is stored as the best solution. This is repeated till convergence.

4. Schema Theorem

$$m(H,t+1) \geq m(H,t) * \frac{f(H)}{f} [1 - p_c * \frac{\delta(H)}{l-1} - O(H) * p_m]$$

The equation above describes how many schema of type H can be observed in the next generation i.e. t+1 given their numbers in this generation i.e. t is m(H,t).

According to this theorem highly fit short defining length schemata are propagated from generation to generation.

m(H,t) = no. of strings of schema of type H in a population

f(H) = Average fitness of schema H

f = Average fitness of the population

δ(H) = Defining distance of schema (distance between the 1st and last fixed position)

O(H) = Order of schema (no. of fixed positions in schema)

p_c = Crossover probability

p_m = Mutation probability

IV. Information Theory

1. Information

Let E be some event which occurs with probability $P(E)$. If we are told that E has occurred, then we say that we have received.

$$\mathbf{I(E) = - \log_2 P(E)} \text{bits of information.}$$

Base 2 of log signifies that we are dealing in bits of information. We'll stick with bits, and always assume base 2. We can also think of information as amount of "surprise" in E (e.g. $P(E) = 1$, $P(E) = 0$)

- Example: result of a fair coin flip ($\log_2 2 = 1$ bit)
- Example: result of a fair die roll ($\log_2 6 = 2.585$ bits)

2. Entropy

A Zero-memory information source S is a source that emits symbols from an alphabet $\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k\}$ with probabilities $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$, respectively, where the symbols emitted are statistically independent. The average amount of information in observing the output of the source S called as Entropy and mathematically is given by

$$H(s) = \sum_i p_i * I(s_i) = \sum_i p_i * \log_2\left(\frac{1}{p_i}\right)$$

Other definitions of the entropy may be stated as follows

1. average amount of information provided per symbol
2. average amount of surprise when observing a symbol
3. uncertainty an observer has before seeing the symbol
4. average number of bits needed to communicate each symbol

(Shannon: there are codes that will communicate these symbols with efficiency arbitrarily close to $H(S)$ bits/symbol; there are no codes that will do it with efficiency $< H(S)$ bits/symbol)

3. Conditional Entropy

If T is alphabet of symbols of a transmitter and R is the alphabet of the receiver then conditional entropy defined by $H(T/R)$ defines the measure of average uncertainty of the transmitted symbol t given the received symbols r .

Mathematically it is given by

$$H(T/R) = \sum_i \sum_j p(t, r) \log\left(\frac{p(r)}{p(t, r)}\right)$$

4. Joint Entropy

The joint entropy measures how much entropy is contained in a joint system of two random variables, in our case a receiver R and a transmitter T and represented by $H(T,R)$. Mathematically it is given by

$$H(T,R) = \sum_i \sum_j p(t, r) \log \frac{1}{p(t, r)}$$

$$H(T,R) = H(R/T) + H(T)$$

$$H(T,R) = H(T/R) + H(R)$$

5. Mutual Information

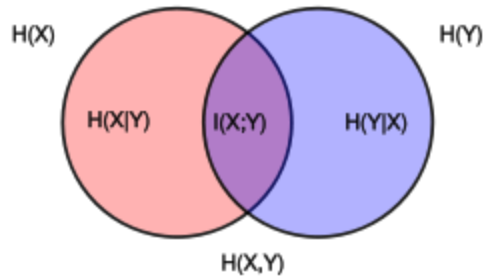
It is the measure of information that one random variable has about the other random variable. It resolves the uncertainty in one random variable after observing the other. Mathematically it is given by

$$I(T,R) = H(T) - H(T/R)$$

$$I(T,R) = H(R) - H(R/T)$$

$$I(T,R) = H(T) + H(R) - H(T,R)$$

$$I(T,R) = H(R) - H(R/T)$$



6. Entropy and Circuits

Entropy has to be carefully applied to the synthesis of Boolean functions. Let us assume any two Boolean functions, F_1 and F_2 , and a third F_3 which is the one's complement of F_2 , then $F_3 \neq F_2$. For these complementary functions, $H(F_2) = H(F_3)$ $MI(F_1, F_2) = MI(F_1, F_3)$. Also Mutual Information shows a similar behavior. The implications for Evolutionary Computation are important since careless use of entropy-based measures can prevent the system from attaining convergence. Assume the target Boolean function is T . Then, $MI(T, F_2) = MI(T, F_3)$, but only one of the circuits implementing F_2 and F_3 is close to the solution since their Boolean functions are complementary. A fitness function based on mutual information will reward both circuits with the same value, but one is better than the other, Things could get worse as evolution progresses because the mutual information increases when the circuits are closer to the solution, but in fact, two complementary circuits are then given larger rewards. The scenario is one in which the population is driven by two equally strong attractors, hence

convergence is never reached. Mutual information is not an invariant measure between random variables because it contains the marginal entropies. Normalized Mutual Information is a better measure of the prediction that one variable can do about the other. Normalized Mutual Information is given by

$$\text{NMI} = \frac{H(R) + H(T)}{H(T, R)}$$

V. Binary Decision Diagrams (BDD)

1. Introduction

With the ever increasing complexity of digital functions and systems, the researcher who is charged with their analysis, testing, and implementation is faced with a very real "description" dilemma. On the one hand, he has at his disposal a variety of sophisticated design languages which can provide concise functional descriptions of the device or system with which he is concerned. However, when he attempts to use such descriptions in any sort of formal analysis procedure, he typically discovers that their very conciseness virtually precludes any detailed logical investigation. On the other hand, when he turns to those descriptions which are amenable to extensive analysis, he finds that these take the form of truth tables, Boolean equations, Karnaugh maps, etc.-all of which have the unpleasant property of growing exponentially with the number of variables involved. What he would like to have would be a concise, "implementation-free" description which could still yield meaningful results about the logical structure and testing requirements of the function involved. This paper will explore one possible approach to bridging this "description gap." The general idea will be to define a digital function in terms

of a "diagram" which tells the user how to determine the output value of the function by examining the values of the inputs. We shall begin by describing these diagrams and showing how they may be derived for various digital devices.

2. Implementation

This technique is based on the Shannon's expansion

$$f(A,B,C,..)=!Af_0(0,B,C,..) + Af_1(1,B,C..)$$

Consider the switching function,

$$f= A+(!B.C)$$

and assume we are interested in defining a procedure for determining the binary value of f given the binary values of A , B , and C . One way to do this would be to begin by looking at the value of A . If $A = 1$, then $f = 1$ and we are finished. If $A = 0$, we look at B . If $B = 1$, then $f = 0$ and again we are finished. Otherwise, we look at C and its value will be the value of f . Fig. 1 shows a simple diagram of this procedure.

We enter at the node indicated by the arrow and then simply proceed downward through the diagram, noting at each node the value of its variable and then taking the indicated branch. When a 0 or 1 value is reached, this gives the value of f and the process ends. There is little difficulty in confirming that the diagram does indeed

describe a procedure for finding the value of the indicated function. We shall refer to these diagrams as binary decision diagrams.

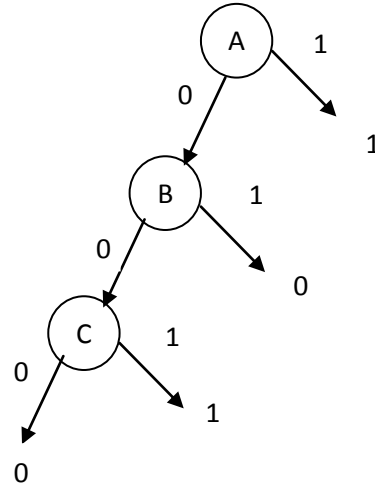
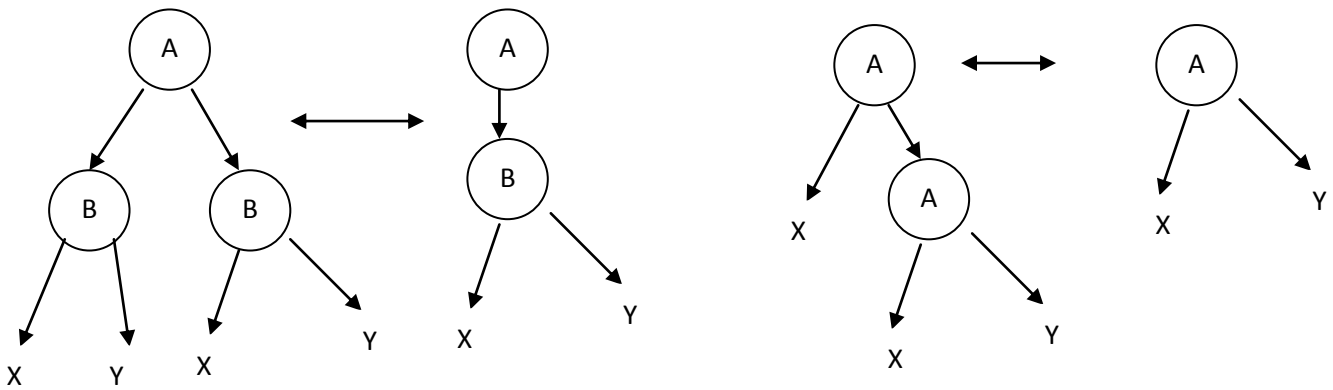


Figure 1

There can be redundant nodes in the BDD which can be pruned by following rules which are described below with the help of diagrams.



Rule 1

Rule 2

VI. MATLAB EDA Simulator Link

1. Writing Test Bench in MATLAB for HDL Combinational Logic

The EDA

Simulator

Link software provides a means for verifying HDL modules within the MATLAB Be

nvironment.

You do so by coding an HDL model and

a MATLAB function that can share data with the HDL model.

MATLAB test bench functions let you verify the performance of the HDL

model, or of components within the model.

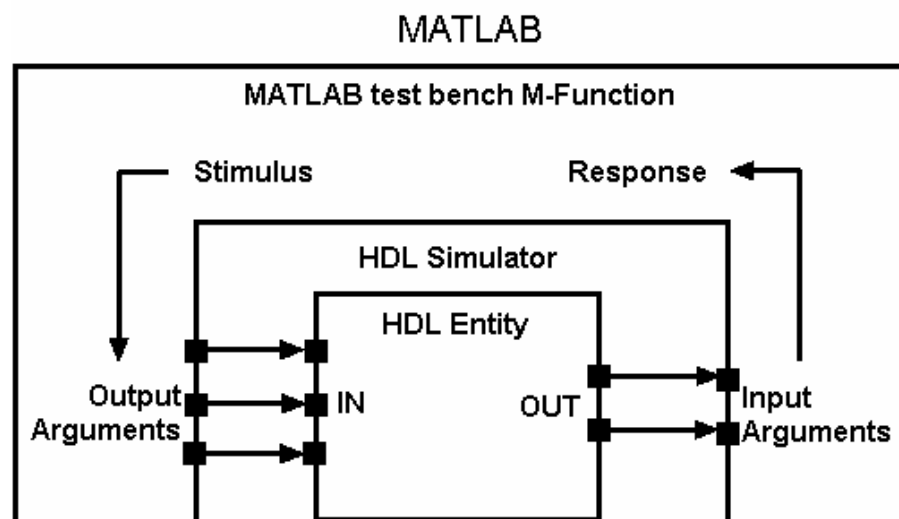
A test bench function drives

values onto signals connected to input ports of an HDL design under test and

receives signal values from the output ports of the module. The following figures show

how a MATLAB function wraps around and

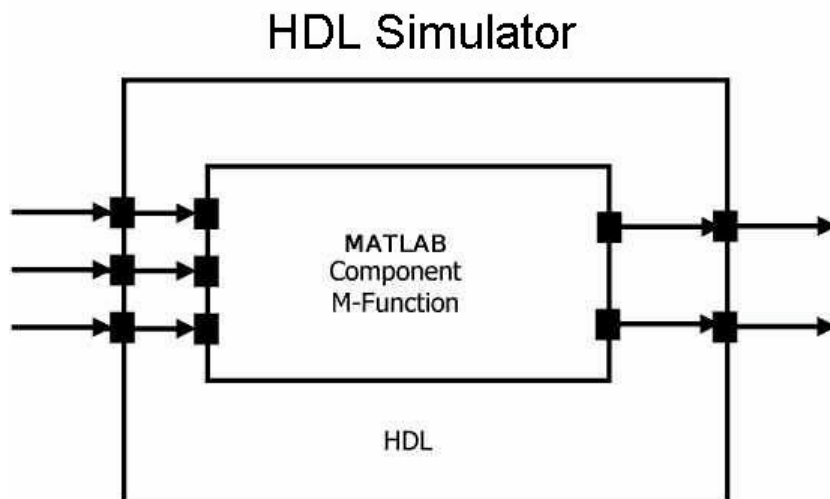
communicates with the HDL simulator during a test bench simulation session.



2. HDL Cosimulation Using MATLAB Component Function

The EDA Simulator Link software provides a means for visualizing HDL components within the MATLAB environment. You do so by coding an HDL model and a MATLAB function that can share data with the HDL model. *MATLAB component* functions simulate the behavior of components in the HDL model. A stub module (providing port definitions only) in the HDL model passes its input signals to the MATLAB component function. The MATLAB component processes this data and returns the results to the outputs of the stub module. A MATLAB component typically provides some functionality (such as a filter) that is not yet implemented in the HDL code.

The following figures show how an HDL simulator wraps around a MATLAB



component

function and how MATLAB communicates

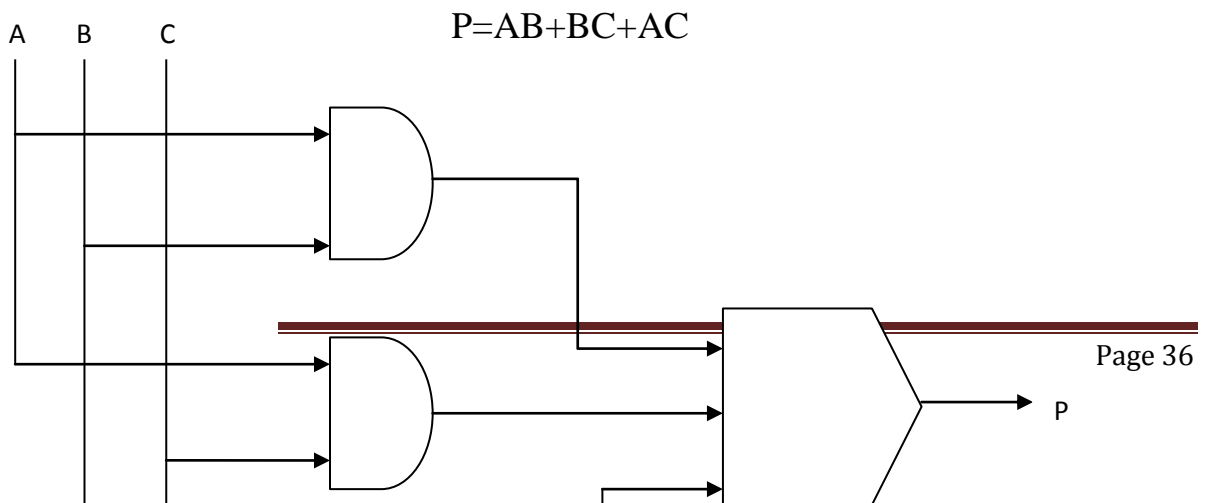
with the HDL

simulator during a component simulation session.

VII. Circuit Evolution

1. 3,2 Majority Logic Circuit

A 3,2 majority circuit is a combinational circuit that has one output (P) which is equal to 1 if the number of 1s on the input are greater than the number of 0s and the output (P) equals 0 if the number of 1s on the input are less than the number of 0s. The switching function, the logic diagram and the truth table are given below.



Inputs			Outputs
A	B	C	P
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

Table

1

shows the truth table of the 3,2 Majority function

Table -1

2. Universal Logic Module for 3 Variables

The Universal Logic module for 3 variables is capable of implementing any combinational logic function out of a possible combination of $2^8=256$ for 3 input variables. It has 3 inputs **a**, **b** & **c** and one output **f**, in addition there is **cntl** input 29 bits wide which is used to programme the module.

The module consists of 7, 2x1 multiplexers, the control inputs to each multiplexers can be programmed through cntl input of the module. Any switching function of n variables can be programmed using 2^n-1 2x1 multiplexers. The module is written in Verilog HDL and the code for the module is available in Annexure-. The module has been designed deliberately using only 2x1 multiplexers as in the VLSI system design where the emphasis is to reduce the whole manufacturing cost rather than reduce the number of components used. It is common therefore to replicate the same unit as many times as possible, although it may lead to larger number of gates. Our interest in VLSI system design leads us to restate the circuit design problem in such a way that the issues mentioned previously are taken into account. Figure 1 shows the block diagram of the module and figure 2 shows the internal structure of the module.

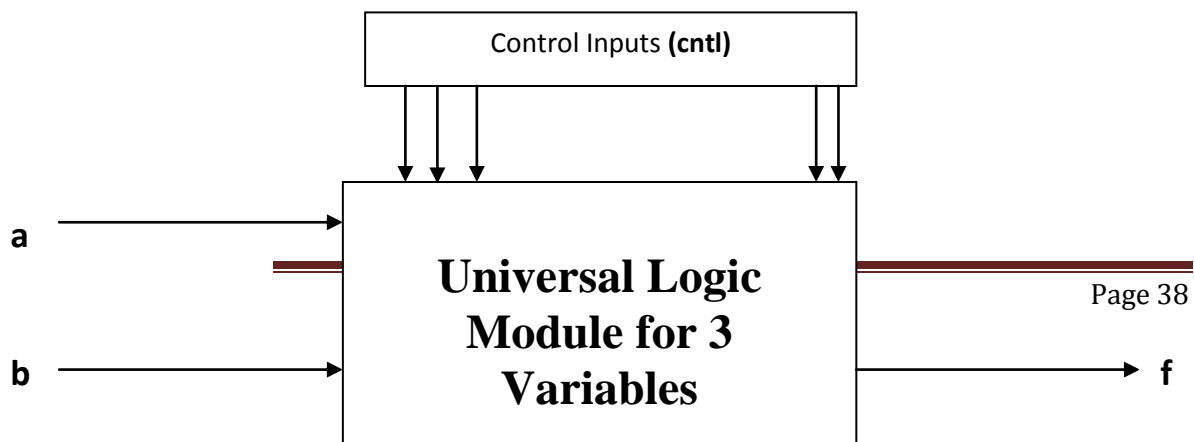


Figure -1

In figure 2, the internal structure of the module, all the control inputs of the muxes are programmable, they can have either of the values 0,1,a,~a,b,~b,c,~c depending upon the control input “**cntl**”. The inputs to the muxes 1,2,3 and 4 can have value either 0 or 1 again depending upon the control input “**cntl**”. The control muxes are not shown in the figure 2. Table 2 shows the relation of input values to muxes 1,2,3 and 4 vis a vis the control input. The input values can either be a ‘0’ or a ‘1’ depending upon the implementation of the function. Table 3 shows the relation between the control input of every 2x1 mux and the vis a vis control input.

Control Input	Output
0	0
1	1

Table 1

Control Input	X
000	0
001	1
010	a
011	!a
100	b
101	!b
110	c
111	!c

Table 2

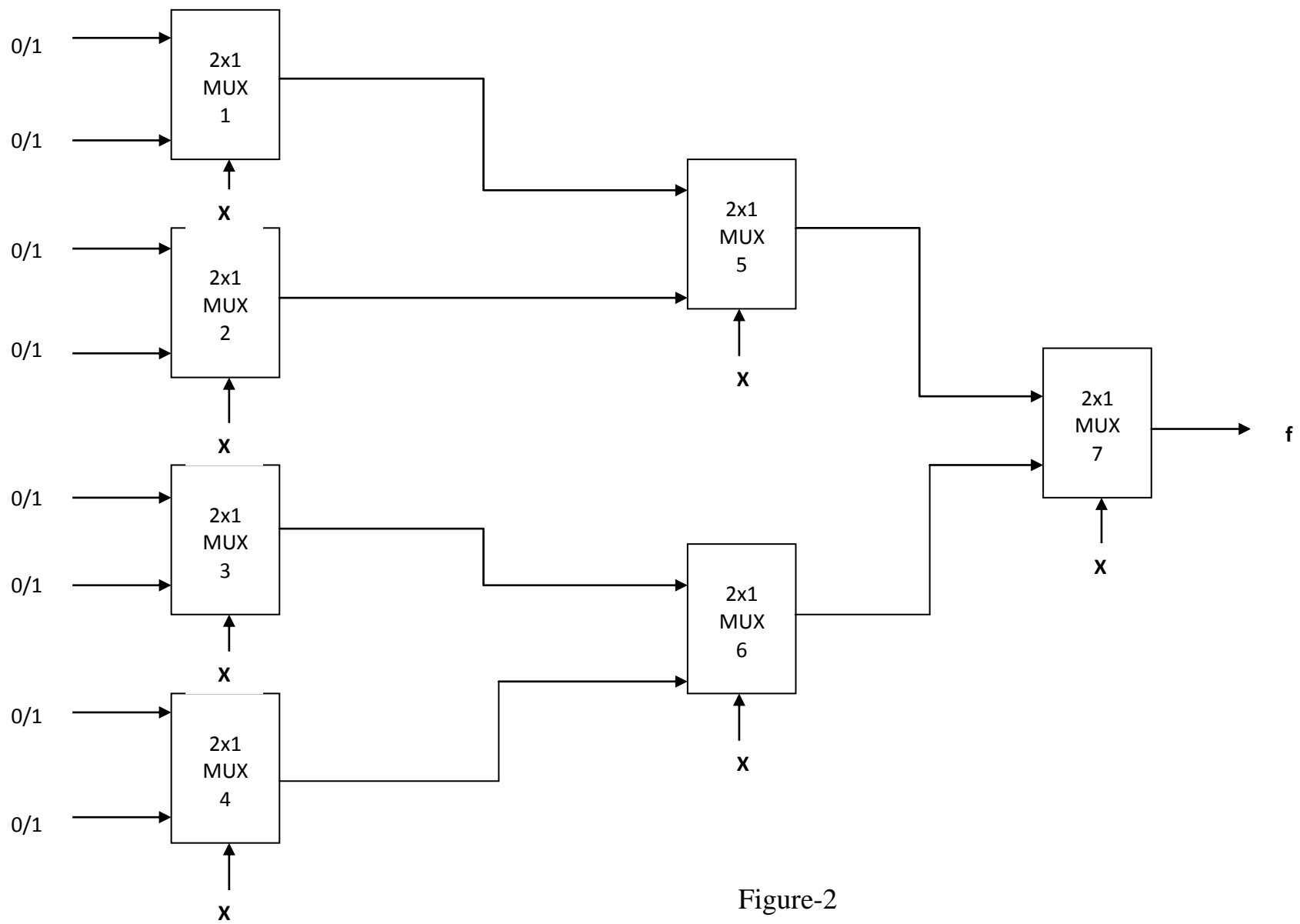


Figure-2

3. Fitness Function

Information Theory measures were used for the calculation of the fitness function. Conditional Entropy can be used as one of the measures for the calculation of the fitness functions, but as stated earlier It has a big drawback that it rewards both the function and complement of the function equally, we may end up with a circuit that does not meet our requirement. Instead we can Normalised Mutual Information (NMI) and function that uses Conditional Entropy that does not reward the complement of the function as can be seen in equation (3).

$$fitness = (Length(T) - Hamming(T,C)) \times NMI(T,C) \quad (1)$$

$$fitness1 = \sum_i \frac{fitness}{NMI(A_i,C)} \quad (2)$$

$$fitness2 = (Length(T) - Hamming(T,C)) \times (10 - H(T/C)) \quad (3)$$

Where T is the actual output and C is the simulated output. A_i are the attributes (variables) of the target function. To evolve the required combinational circuit both (2) and (3) have to be maximized. As the tool used by us for GA optimization is able to achieve global minimum we have to convert both equation (2) and (3) to using a transformation. Thus we have a function given by (4) used as a fitness function.

$$f = \frac{1}{1 + fitness1} \quad (4)$$

4. GA Parameters

Table 3 shows the parameters used in GA for evolution of the 3,2 majority function circuit. The tool used for optimization was Global Optimization Toolbox of MATLAB.

Parameters	Value
Population Size	150
No. of Generations	25
Crossover Rate	0.8
Crossover Type	Two Point
Mutation Rate	0.2
Mutation Type	Uniform
Scaling	Rank
Elitism	2
Selection	Stochastic Uniform

Table 3

VIII. Results and Conclusion

1. Verification of the Evolved 3,2 Majority Function

The 3,2 majority function circuit was evolved using programmable universal module for 3 variables having a programming input of 29 bits labeled as “cntl”. These 29 bits were used by the GA to evolve the 3,2 majority function. The module itself constituted a mux tree of 7, 2x1 multiplexers, with control inputs of either 0,1,a, !a, b, !b c, !c depending upon the control input “cntl”. The inputs to level 3 mux can take values of either a ‘0’ or a ‘1’ again depending upon the control input “cntl”.

The GA string which is nothing but the control input “cntl” is coded in the following manner. The chromosome consists of a string of 29 bits which form the control input “**cntl**” to the universal logic module for 3 variables. Bits from 0 to 7 decide what inputs to be fed to inputs of level 3 multiplexers, the inputs to the muxes can have a value of either a ‘0’ or a ‘1’ only. Bits from 8 to 19 decide what variable is to be fed as control inputs to muxes at level 3, similarly the bits from 20 to 25 decide the control input for level 2 muxes and bits 26 to 28 decide control input for level 1 mux. The relation, for what input combination what control signal is chosen has already been described table 2 of the previous chapter.

The GA was able to identify a number of input combinations for which the output met the desired criteria. The one describe here uses minimum number of muxes which can be considered as the optimum solution to the problem of evolving 3,2 majority function. The figure 1 below of the simulated clearly shows that the objectives have been met and circuit has been evolved.

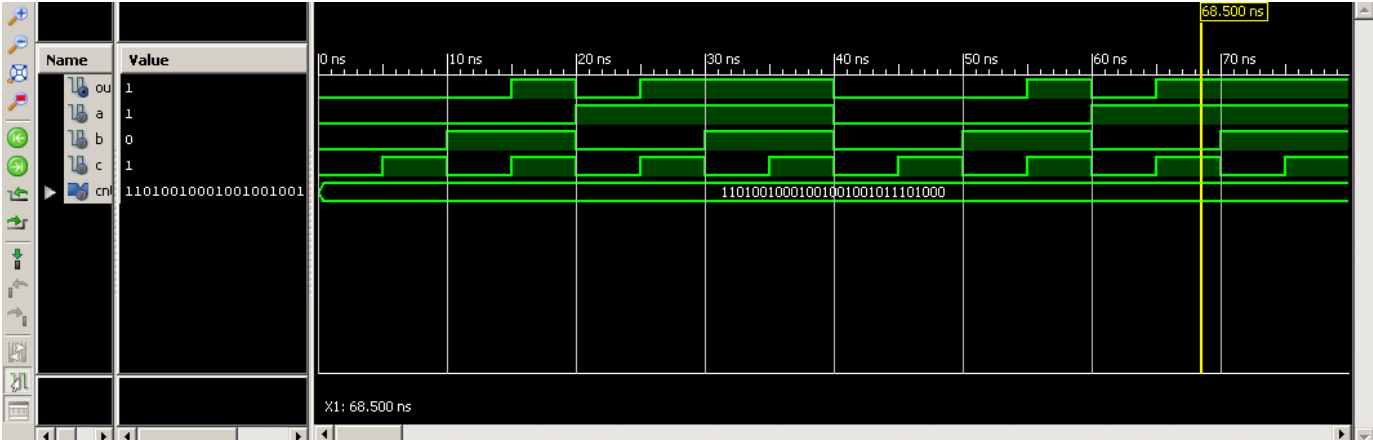


Figure 1

2. Evolved and Optimized Module

The evolved module with inputs to stage 3 and control stages to all the 3 stages is shown in figure 2. The optimized module with thewith minimum number of multiplexers is shown in figure 3.

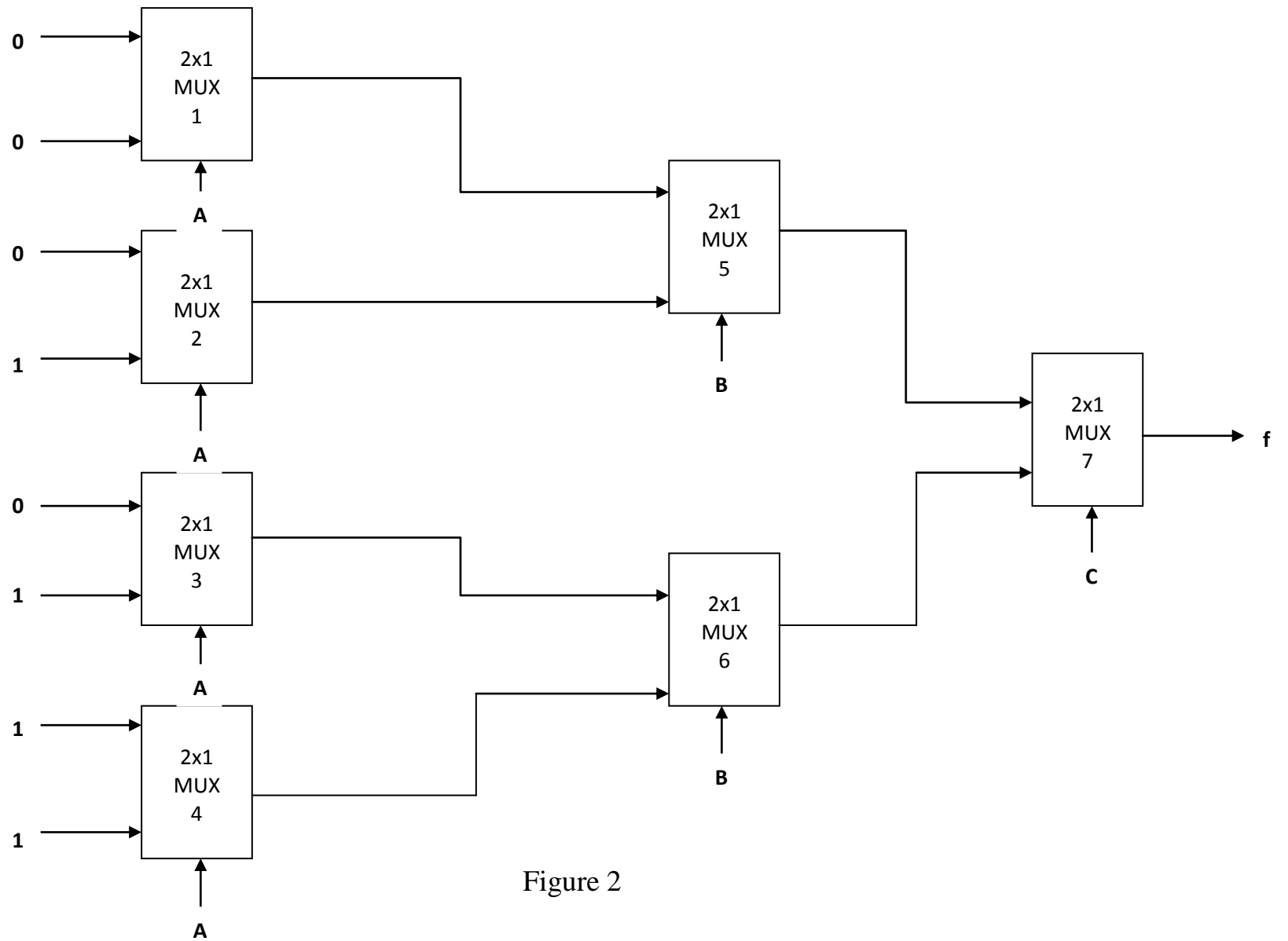


Figure 2

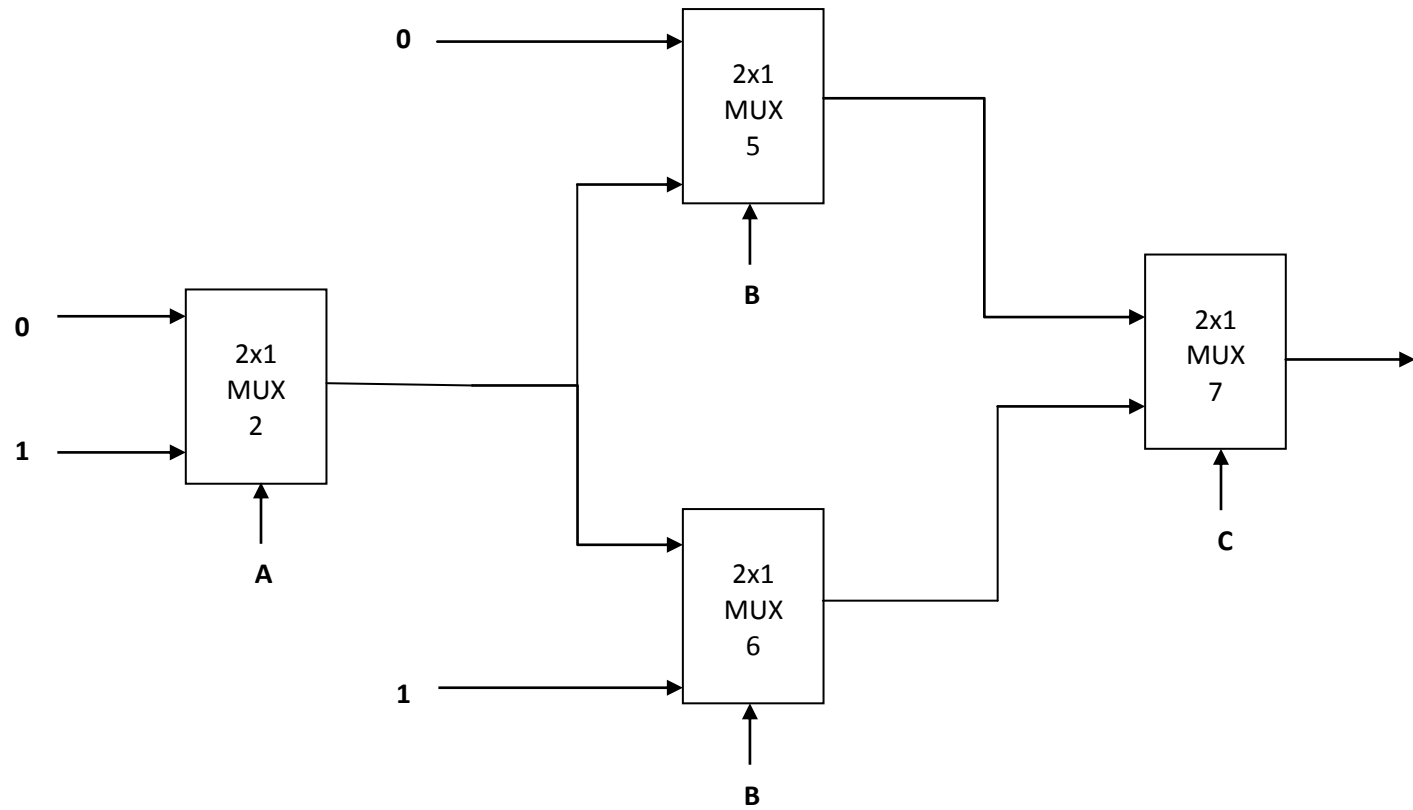


Figure 3

It is clearly visible from the figure 3 that the requirement for the number of multiplexers has come down from 7 to 4. It will be shown in the next section using ROBDD that this is the canonical form of the circuit and hence optimized.

3. Binary Decision Diagrams (BDD) and Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagrams (ROBDD)

In order to verify our conclusion we took the help of BDD and ROBDD. The BDD and ROBDD for the 3,2 Majority functions are presented in figure 4 and 5 respectively.

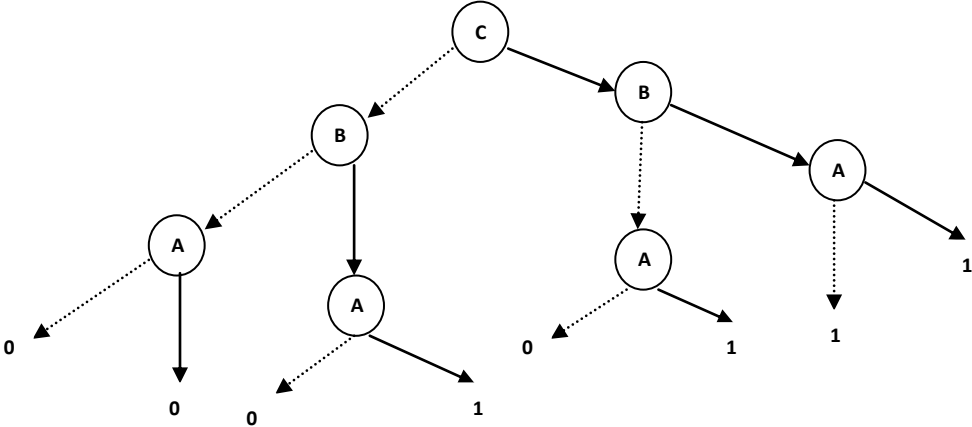


Figure 4

The dashed lines show '0' as the input and solid lines show '1' as the input. The BDD is in agreement with the evolved circuit of figure 2. The ROBDD is shown in the next figure with the order being $C < B < A$.

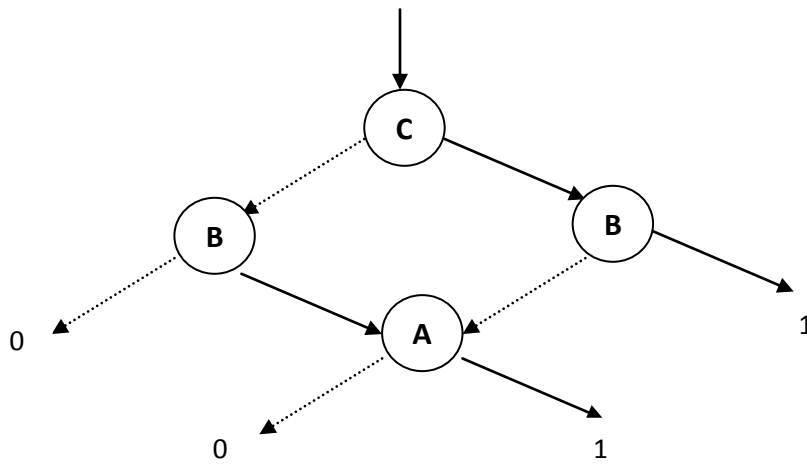


Figure 5

From figure 5 it can be clearly seen that the reduced and optimized circuit of the figure 3 is in agreement to that of ROBDD.

4. GA Convergence

Figure 6 shows the convergence of the GA with generations and the mean and the average value of the fitness function for a given generation. It can be seen that the value of the fitness function converges to 0.0185 after generation 9 till 25.

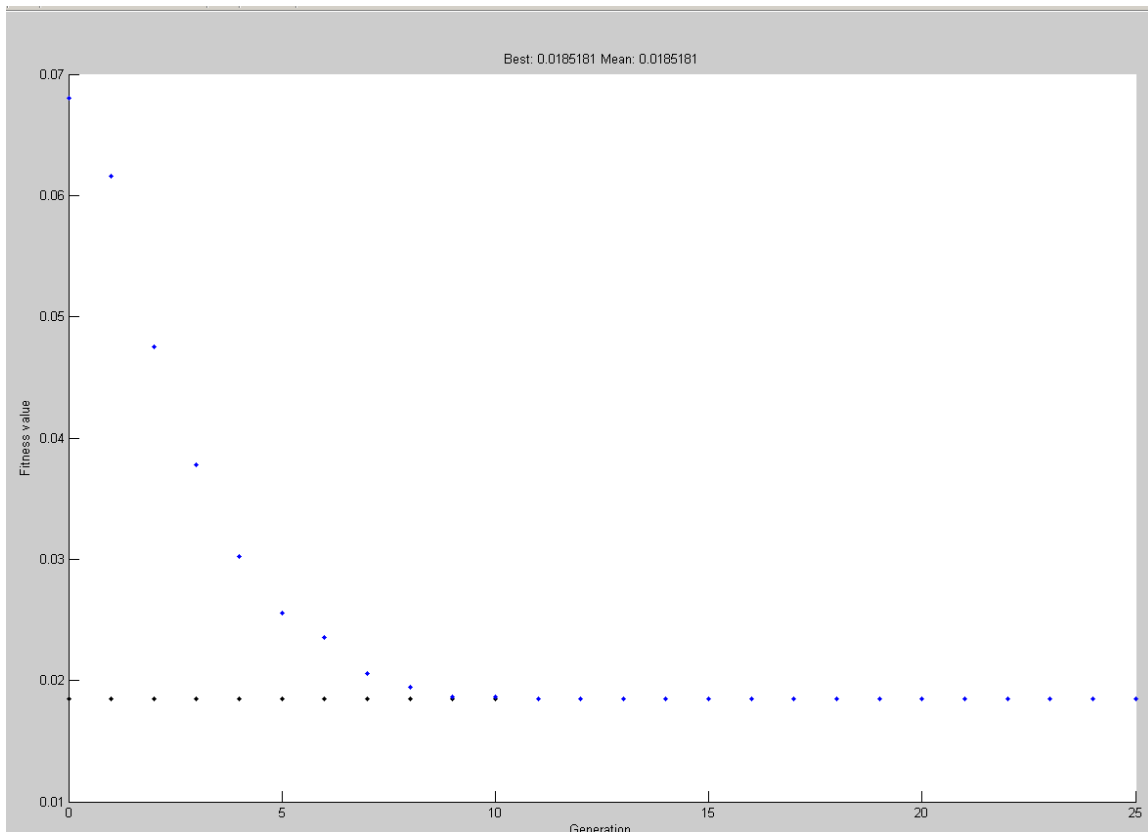


Figure 6

Figure 7 shows the best, worst and the mean values of the fitness function over the entire range of the 25 generations. Again from this graph it is very clear that after generation 10 the GA has converged to one single value of the fitness function

which is the global minimum for the fitness function having a value of 0.0185 and leads to the evolution of the combinational circuit.

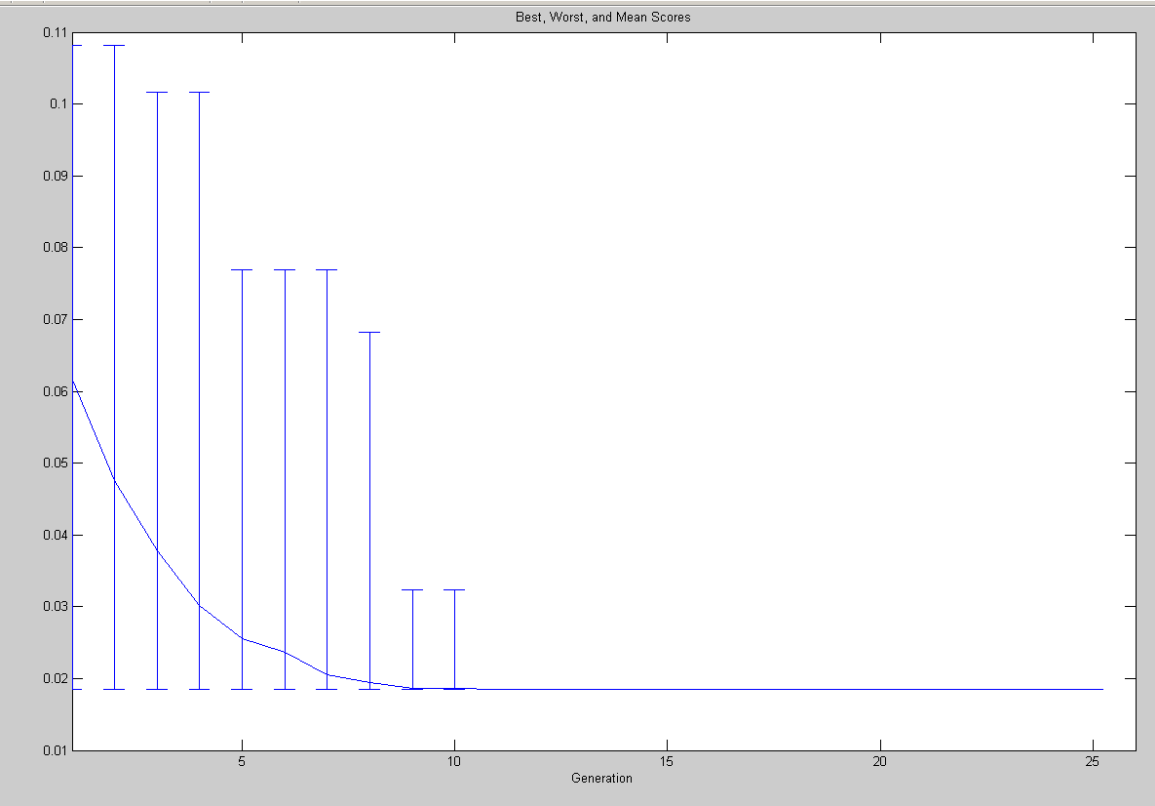


Figure 7

5. Conclusion

In this project we have been able to evolve a digital combination circuit using GA algorithm as a search tool for optimum solution in a very large search space. We have shown that it is possible to incorporate information theory indices like Normalized Mutual Information for the creation of fitness function. The solution so found was compared to the optimum solution which was determined by ROBDD and has least number of elements i.e. 2x1 muxes.

6. Future Work

We plan to take this work further and carry out the evolution to other more complex arithmetic combinational circuits such as multipliers. We also plan to carryout work on sequential circuits such as sequence detector.

Appendix – 1

Verilog Module for Universal Logic Module for 3 Variables

File Name :-majority_mux.v

```
modulemajority_mux(cnt1,a,b,c,out);
input [28:0] cnt1;
input a;
input b;
input c;
output out;
reg out;
reg [20:0] w;
always @(a,b,c) begin
if (cnt1[10:8]== 3'b000)
w[8]=1'b0;
else if (cnt1[10:8]== 3'b001)
w[8]=1'b1;
else if (cnt1[10:8]== 3'b010)
w[8]=a;
else if (cnt1[10:8]==3'b011)
w[8]=~a;
else if (cnt1[10:8]== 3'b100)
w[8]=b;
else if (cnt1[10:8]== 3'b101)
w[8]=~b;
else if (cnt1[10:8]==3'b110)
w[8]=c;
else if (cnt1[10:8]== 3'b111)
w[8]=~c;

if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b000)
w[8]=1'b0;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b001)
w[9]=1'b1;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b010)
w[9]=a;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b011)
w[9]=~a;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b100)
w[9]=b;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b101)
w[9]=~b;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b110)
w[9]=c;
else if (cnt1[13:11]== 3'b111)
w[9]=~c;

if (cnt1[16:14]== 3'b000)
```

```
w[10]=1'b0;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b001)
w[10]=1'b1;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b010)
w[10]=a;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b011)
w[10]=~a;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b100)
w[10]=b;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b101)
w[10]=~b;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b110)
w[10]=c;
else if (cntl[16:14]== 3'b111)
w[10]=~c;
```

```
if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b000)
w[11]=1'b0;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b001)
w[11]=1'b1;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b010)
w[11]=a;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b011)
w[11]=~a;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b100)
w[11]=b;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b101)
w[11]=~b;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b110)
w[11]=c;
else if (cntl[19:17]== 3'b111)
w[11]=~c;
```

```
if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b000)
w[16]=1'b0;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b001)
w[16]=1;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b010)
w[16]=a;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b011)
w[16]=~a;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b100)
w[16]=b;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b101)
w[16]=~b;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b110)
w[16]=c;
else if (cntl[22:20]== 3'b111)
w[16]=~c;
```

```
if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b000)
w[17]=1'b0;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b001)
w[17]=1'b1;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b010)
w[17]=a;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b011)
```

```
w[17]=~a;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b100)
w[17]=b;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b101)
w[17]=~b;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b110)
w[17]=c;
else if (cntl[25:23]== 3'b111)
w[17]=~c;
```

```
if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b000)
w[20]=1'b0;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b001)
w[20]=1'b1;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b010)
w[20]=a;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b011)
w[20]=~a;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b100)
w[20]=b;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b101)
w[20]=~b;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b110)
w[20]=c;
else if (cntl[28:26]== 3'b111)
w[20]=~c;
```

```
if (cntl[0]==1'b0)
w[0]=1'b0;
else
w[0]=1'b1;
```

```
if (cntl[1]==1'b0)
w[1]=1'b0;
else
w[1]=1'b1;
```

```
if (cntl[2]==1'b0)
w[2]=1'b0;
else
w[2]=1'b1;
```

```
if (cntl[3]==1'b0)
w[3]=1'b0;
else
w[3]=1'b1;
```

```
if (cntl[4]==1'b0)
w[4]=1'b0;
else
w[4]=1'b1;
```

```
if (cntl[5]==1'b0)
w[5]=1'b0;
else
w[5]=1'b1;
```

```
if (cntl[6]==1'b0)
w[6]=1'b0;
else
w[6]=1'b1;

if (cntl[7]==1'b0)
w[7]=1'b0;
else
w[7]=1'b1;

if (w[8]==0)
w[12]=w[0];
else
w[12]=w[1];

if (w[9]==0)
w[13]=w[2];
else
w[13]=w[3];

if (w[10]==0)
w[14]=w[4];
else
w[14]=w[5];

if (w[11]==0)
w[15]=w[6];
else
w[15]=w[7];

if (w[16]==0)
w[18]=w[12];
else
w[18]=w[13];

if (w[17]==0)
w[19]=w[14];
else
w[19]=w[15];

if (w[20]==0)
out=w[18];
else
out=w[19];
end
endmodule
```

Appendix – 2

Testbench File for Verilog Module in MATLAB

File Name :-majority_mux.m

```
function majority_mux(obj)
global s1;
global x1;
global y;
obj.tnext=obj.tnow+5e-9;
s1=s1+1;
if (strcmp(obj.simstatus,'Init'))
obj.portvalues.cnt1=dec2mvl(x1,29);
obj.userdata.sum=int16.empty;
y=int16.empty;
end
if (strcmp(obj.simstatus,'Running'))
mvl2dec(obj.portvalues.out);
y(s1-1)=mvl2dec(obj.portvalues.out);
end
if s1==8
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(1,1);
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(1,1);
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(1,1);

return
end
if s1==7
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(1,1);
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(1,1);
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(0,1);

return
end
if s1==6
```

```
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(1,1);  
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(1,1);
```

```
return
```

```
end
```

```
if s1==5
```

```
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(1,1);  
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(0,1);
```

```
return
```

```
end
```

```
if s1==4
```

```
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(1,1);  
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(1,1);
```

```
return
```

```
end
```

```
if s1==3
```

```
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(1,1);  
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(0,1);
```

```
return
```

```
end
```

```
if s1==2
```

```
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(1,1);
```

```
return
```

```
end
```

```
if s1==1
```

```
obj.portvalues.a= dec2mvl(0,1);
```

```
obj.portvalues.b=dec2mvl(0,1);  
obj.portvalues.c=dec2mvl(0,1);
```

```
return  
end
```

```
if s1==9  
obj.tnext=[];  
end  
end
```


Appendix -- 3

Evaluation Function File

File Name:-majority.m

```
function f=majority(x)
global y;
global r;
global z;
global s1;
global f;
global f1;
global x1;
s1=0;
global tclcmd;
a=[0;0;0;0;1;1;1;1];
b=[0;0;1;1;0;0;1;1];
c=[0;1;0;1;0;1;0;1];
r=[0;0;0;1;0;1;1;1];
r=int16(r);
x1=x;
commInfo = hdldaemon;
tclcmd = { ...
'vsimmatlabmajority_mux -t lns -novopt ;', ...
['matlabtb /majority_mux -mfuncmajority_mux.m -use_instance_obj ;'], ...
'run 100;',...
'quit -f',...
};
% Launch HDL simulator for use with MATLAB
vsim('tclstart',tclcmd,'runmode','Batch');
pause(8);
y=int16(y);
y=y';
```

```

f1=[(8-sum(abs(r-y)))*(entropy(r)+entropy(y))/(entropy(r)+entropy(y)-
mutualinformation(r,y))];
f2=f1*[(entropy(y)+entropy(a))/(entropy(y)+entropy(a)-
mutualinformation(a,y))+...
(entropy(y)+entropy(b))/(entropy(y)+entropy(b)-
mutualinformation(b,y))+...
(entropy(y)+entropy(c))/(entropy(y)+entropy(c)-mutualinformation(c,y))];
f=(1/(1+f2));
if (y==r)
done=dec2mvl(x1,29);
fprintf('correct value = %s\n',done);
fid = fopen('values.txt', 'a');
fprintf(fid, 'VectorXVectorYFunctionValue\n');
fprintf(fid, '%s %d %d %d %d %d %d %d %d %d %6.4f\n',done,y,f);
fclose(fid);
end

```

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