

# SkyEgg: Joint Implementation Selection and Scheduling for Hardware Synthesis using E-graphs

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## Abstract

Hardware synthesis from high-level descriptions remains fundamentally limited by the sequential optimization of interdependent design decisions. Current methodologies, including state-of-the-art high-level synthesis (HLS) tools, artificially separate implementation selection from scheduling, leading to suboptimal designs that cannot fully exploit modern FPGA heterogeneous architectures. Implementation selection is typically performed by ad-hoc pattern matching on operations, a process that does not consider the impact on scheduling. Subsequently, scheduling algorithms operate on fixed selection solutions with inaccurate delay estimates, which misses critical optimization opportunities from appropriately configured FPGA blocks like DSP slices.

We present SkyEgg, a novel hardware synthesis framework that jointly optimizes implementation selection and scheduling using the e-graph data structure. Our key insight is that both algebraic transformations and hardware implementation choices can be uniformly represented as rewrite rules within an e-graph, modeling the complete design space of implementation candidates to be selected and scheduled together. First, SkyEgg constructs an e-graph from the input program. It then applies both algebraic and implementation rewrites through equality saturation. Finally, it formulates the joint optimization as a mixed-integer linear programming (MILP) problem on the saturated e-graph. We provide both exact MILP solving and an efficient ASAP heuristic for scalable synthesis. Our evaluation on benchmarks from diverse applications targeting Xilinx Kintex UltraScale+ FPGAs demonstrates that SkyEgg achieves an average speedup of  $3.01\times$  over Vitis HLS, with improvements up to  $5.22\times$  for complex expressions.

## 1 Introduction

Hardware synthesis has emerged as a critical technology for bridging the gap between high-level software descriptions and efficient hardware implementations. As computing demands grow increasingly diverse and performance requirements become more stringent, the ability to automatically translate software algorithms, either in general programming languages [5, 18, 28, 46] like C/C++ or domain-specific languages (DSLs) [16, 29, 36], into optimized hardware accelerators has become essential for domains ranging from machine learning [20] to signal processing [4].

The fundamental challenge in hardware synthesis lies in resolving the semantic differences between software and hardware representations. Software descriptions are inherently *untimed* and *abstract*—operations are specified without explicit timing constraints and executed as processor instructions. In contrast, hardware implementations require *precise timing* and *concrete resource mapping*—every operation must be scheduled to specific clock cycles

and bound to physical hardware modules. This semantic gap necessitates sophisticated compilation techniques that can efficiently navigate the complex trade-offs between performance, resource utilization, and design constraints.

Current hardware synthesis methodologies, including high-level synthesis (HLS) tools [5, 46] and accelerator design language compilers [29, 36], address this challenge through sequential optimization phases. Typically, these tools first select a target hardware implementation for software operations in an ad-hoc manner to obtain their scheduling properties. We refer to this process as *implementation selection*, which is crucial, especially for heterogeneous FPGAs that have different hardware blocks like LUTs and DSP slices [2] as implementation candidates with diverse timing properties. Subsequently, they perform *scheduling* to determine the temporal execution timing of the operations. After scheduling, real hardware modules are allocated with implementations mapped on them, producing the synthesized hardware. While this sequential approach simplifies the synthesis process, it suffers from fundamental limitations leading to non-optimal designs.

The core problem stems from the artificial separation of interdependent optimization decisions. Scheduling algorithms must make timing decisions based on implementations’ detailed properties, while traditional approaches’ inaccurate models lead to conservative schedules that underutilize available hardware performance. Conversely, implementation selection must select appropriate implementations and configure them properly to schedule the optimal design. The selection design space is huge, including packing a group of operations into highly-optimized intellectual property (IP) blocks like floating-point units or dedicated hardware blocks like DSP slices [2], and configuring their pipeline depth or modes. Existing tools [5, 8, 18, 46] make heuristic, ad-hoc selection decisions before scheduling, irreversibly causing sub-optimal schedules with significantly worse performance.

Recent advances in compiler optimization have demonstrated the power of *e-graphs* [34, 48] for exploring large design spaces efficiently [7]. E-graphs provide a compact representation of equivalent program expressions, referred to as *terms*, and enable systematic exploration of optimization opportunities through rewrite rules. This approach has proven successful in making selection decisions for software compiler optimization [38], hardware logic synthesis [9, 10, 14], and FPGA technology mapping [26, 40, 41]. However, prior work has not explored the potential of e-graphs by combining the implementation selection and scheduling for addressing the fundamental software-hardware semantic gap.

In this paper, we propose SkyEgg, a novel hardware synthesis framework that performs joint implementation selection and scheduling using e-graphs. Our key insight is that both operation rewrites and hardware implementation choices can be uniformly represented as rewrite rules in an e-graph, which models the complete operation

selection design space through *equality saturation*. We formulate the joint selection and scheduling problem as a mixed-integer linear programming (MILP) problem over the saturated e-graph structure, and propose a heuristic scheduler for scalable solving. Specifically, we use eggLog [48]’s Python binding [39] to create an e-graph from the software program in MLIR [32]. We introduce *implementation* e-nodes in the e-graph to represent the candidate implementations for the terms in the same e-classes. SkyEgg models each implementation candidate on the target FPGA device as an *implementation* rewrite rule that matches the implementation’s software functionality. We propose a profile-based timing model to calculate the scheduling properties of implementations with the configurations enumerated. After running equality saturation, the e-graph represents the implementation selection design space, and SkyEgg’s joint problem formulation includes constraints for both the legal selection and the legal scheduling, globally optimizing the objective. For practicality, SkyEgg reduces the constraints involved for the exact MILP solving, and proposes an ASAP (As-Soon-As-Possible) scheduler for much faster and scalable problem solving.

Our approach makes the following contributions:

- **Joint synthesis paradigm:** We introduce the first hardware synthesis approach that jointly optimizes implementation selection and scheduling using e-graphs, thereby overcoming the suboptimality inherent in sequential heuristics. We implement an [open-source](#)<sup>1</sup> prototype framework, SkyEgg.
- **Design space definition on e-graph:** We define operation implementation candidates with modeled scheduling properties as rewrite rules, enabling compact representation and expansion of hardware synthesis design space.
- **Problem formulation and solving:** We formulate the joint selection and scheduling problem as a mixed-integer linear programming problem over the e-graph structure, and propose an as-soon-as-possible heuristic for scalable solving.

**Evaluation.** We evaluate SkyEgg across diverse benchmarks against Xilinx’s state-of-the-art commercial toolchain. The results show that SkyEgg achieves an average speedup of 3.10× (and up to 5.22×). This performance gain comes with competitive resource usage compared to the baseline: for the MILP and ASAP schedulers, flip-flop (FF) usage was 0.87× and 0.95×, respectively, while look-up table (LUT) usage was 1.51× and 1.28×, respectively. All SkyEgg designs meet timing constraints while Vitis HLS fails 48% of cases at high frequency. Our ASAP-based heuristic solver scales to programs with over 600 operations in less than one second, while achieving nearly identical performance.

## 2 Background and Motivation

We first present the background on hardware synthesis and e-graph data structure and then discuss the motivation of our work through an example on the Xilinx platform.

### 2.1 Synthesis for Heterogeneous FPGAs

Modern FPGAs, most of which are heterogeneous, are equipped with specialized hard blocks for more efficient operation implementations. Leading vendors such as Xilinx [2], Altera [27], and

Lattice [31] all provide dedicated DSP blocks, designed to accelerate arithmetic-intensive operations. Among them, Xilinx’s DSP48E2 integrates a pre-adder, a multiplier, and either a four-input or a two-input ALU. These three units are internally connected in sequence and can be combined to implement hundreds of arithmetic expressions. Within this slice, up to four configurable pipeline registers can be enabled or bypassed, dividing the pre-adder, multiplier, and ALU into separate pipeline stages. It allows designers to configure staging according to the operations to be implemented for optimal timing and performance. Enabling all registers can raise the maximum operating frequency to 600MHz compared to 304 MHz when bypassing all registers [3]. Besides DSP units, LUTs remain a common alternative: they are far more flexible but inevitably introduce larger routing delay in deep logic. Therefore, they are typically used for low-bitwidth operations. Both DSPs and LUTs can serve as valid implementation candidates, each exhibiting distinct characteristics. In general, each operation or a combination of operations admits multiple possible implementations with configuration options, thereby calling for careful selection to achieve efficient designs.

The hardware synthesis flow for traditional FPGA architecture comprises phases like scheduling and binding. Scheduling determines the operations’ execution timing, and binding assigns each operation to a specific hardware resource, with resource sharing considered. For heterogeneous FPGAs, *implementation selection* becomes a primary concern in the hardware synthesis flow. Vitis HLS [5] utilizes a sequential flow that first selects the implementation for operations through matching partial computation patterns supported by DSPs or IP blocks, then schedules the operations with the fixed selection solution and the scheduling properties.

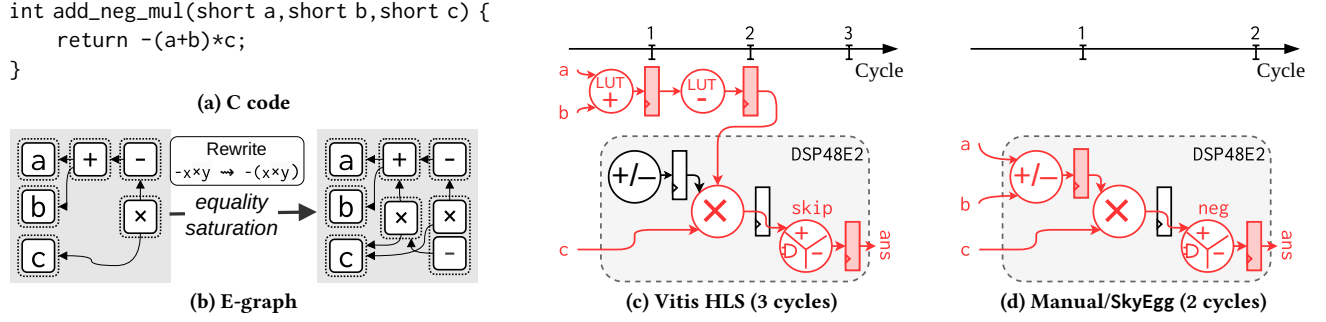
### 2.2 E-graph and egglog

An *e-graph* [34] is a data structure that compactly represents sets of equivalent *terms* (or *expressions*) as equivalence classes. Figure 1b shows an example of an e-graph. Each equivalence class, called an *e-class*, contains a group of *e-nodes*, each of which represents a function symbol (also referred to as *constructor*) applied to argument e-classes. E-graphs enable efficient exploration of large design spaces by applying rewrite rules through a process called *equality saturation*, which systematically discovers all equivalent expressions reachable from an initial program. egglog [48] extends traditional e-graphs with a logic programming interface, enabling more expressive rewrite rules and constraint-based reasoning. This work utilizes egglog’s Python binding [39] to encode both algebraic patterns and hardware implementations as rewrite rules, representing the complete design space of *implementation selection* in the e-graph to formulate a joint optimization problem on it.

### 2.3 Motivation

The fundamental limitation of sequential hardware synthesis is that it oversimplifies the interaction between implementation selection and scheduling phases. Neither phase has complete information about the other’s decisions, leading to suboptimal performance. Both commercial tools [5] and open-source frameworks [18, 28, 46]

<sup>1</sup><http://link-omitted-for-blind-review>



**Figure 1: Motivating example: A simple neg-add-mul kernel synthesized with different approaches. (a) Original C code. (b) E-graph example. (c) Vitis HLS produces a conservative 3-cycle solution with sub-optimal selection. (d) Manual configuration achieves 2 cycles by mapping all operations to a single DSP48E2 slice, SkyEgg can discover this solution automatically.**

suffer from this limitation. Prior works [11, 12, 15, 22–25, 33, 37, 42–45, 47, 49] explored the interaction between HLS and physical design, such as delay prediction and HLS-layout co-optimization, but do not consider the implementation selection problem. Therefore, the limitation remains unaddressed.

The limitation becomes evident when we examine how current tools handle even simple computations. Consider the representative example shown in Figure 1: a add-neg-mul kernel that computes  $-(a+b)*c$  in bitwidths of 16. Although this expression appears straightforward, it reveals critical deficiencies in how existing synthesis methodologies balance implementation selection and scheduling decisions. We synthesize this kernel using Vitis HLS 2024.1, targeting the xcku3p FPGA with a target frequency of 450MHz. The results reveal a striking performance gap that illustrates the core problem with sequential optimization.

**Sequential synthesis dilemma example.** Vitis HLS produces a conservative 3-cycle solution (Figure 1c) that exhibits both poor performance and questionable resource allocation. The tool maps add and neg operations to fabric resources while utilizing a DSP48E2 slice only for the mul operation, although all these operations can be done by properly utilizing one DSP48E2 slice. The implementation selector misses the optimal mapping solution for the scheduling, and the scheduler makes timing decisions based on the sub-optimal selection, wasting one clock cycle and two fabric resources.

**Manual optimization.** A manual optimization, which requires substantial effort and detailed hardware knowledge about DSP48E2 capabilities, demonstrates the unexploited potential. Rewriting the expression as  $-((a+b)*c)$  makes it possible to map all three operations onto a single DSP48E2 slice. This approach exploits the fast pre-adder, fusing the addition and multiplication into a single cycle and enabling the entire computation to complete in just two pipeline stages (Figure 1d). This handcrafted solution not only satisfies all timing requirements but also delivers 33% better performance than the default synthesis result. This manual optimization succeeds because it considers implementation and scheduling choices jointly. The DSP48E2 slice can efficiently implement the entire computation within its pipelined structure, eliminating the need for fabric resources and their associated routing delays. However, achieving this result requires over ten rounds of tuning, synthesis, and report analysis, as well as detailed knowledge of the DSP48E2, and its

timing—information that sequential synthesis tools cannot effectively exploit due to their phase-separated design.

The performance gap between automated and manual synthesis reveals two interconnected problems in sequential optimization. First, the implementation selector cannot explore the full design space with equivalent rewrites considered. The original expression  $-(a+b)*c$  cannot be pattern-matched to DSP48E2 capabilities. However, after the manual algebraic rewriting,  $-((a+b)*c)$  can be mapped to one DSP48E2 implementation. However, even given the rewritten expression, Vitis HLS’s ad-hoc pattern matching mechanism cannot identify the optimal implementation, since it does not support the full computation pattern space of DSP48E2. An exploration of DSP48E2 configurations with the multiplier and either the four-input ALU or the pre-adder reveals the limitations of the tool. Among 128 possible cases, we generate equivalent C++ code for Vitis HLS synthesis. Of these, 31 cannot be mapped to a single DSP unit, thus limiting the full exploitation of DSP resources. Second, the scheduler operates with a bad selection solution, making conservative decisions based on pessimistic delay estimates. For the example above, Vitis HLS’s scheduler assumes that the add and neg operations will execute on fabric with high routing delays, allocating separate cycles for what could be a single-cycle operation when properly mapped to a pipelined DSP48E2 slice. The conservative scheduling solution cannot be mutated by the subsequent synthesis process, causing irreversible performance degradation.

**Joint synthesis.** SkyEgg eliminates these limitations by treating implementation selection and scheduling as a unified optimization problem. Our approach encodes both algebraic rewrites and hardware implementations as rewrite rules within an e-graph framework, enabling systematic exploration of the complete design space. The key insight is that e-graphs naturally capture the interdependence between implementation and timing choices. By representing DSP48E2 slices as implementation libraries and encoding their timing characteristics alongside computational capabilities, SkyEgg’s equality saturation process discovers that the entire expression in Figure 1a can be mapped to a single resource. The joint optimization formulation then automatically selects this implementation and schedules it to achieve the optimal 2-cycle solution. This motivating example demonstrates the potential of joint optimization. By unifying implementation and scheduling decisions within a single

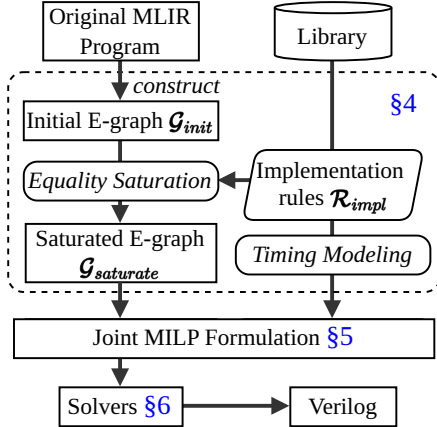


Figure 2: The overview of SkyEgg.

optimization phase, SkyEgg navigates design spaces that remain inaccessible to sequential approaches, consistently discovering better solutions that traditional methodologies cannot reach.

### 3 Overview

Figure 2 presents the overview of SkyEgg. SkyEgg takes an input MLIR program that includes the operations to be synthesized and creates the corresponding initial e-graph,  $G_{init}$ . Then, SkyEgg generates the implementation rewrite rules  $R_{impl}$  from the target FPGA platform library. Every rewrite from  $R_{impl}$  bridges the software operations and hardware implementations, with the specialized hardware blocks (e.g., DSPs)’s computation functionality represented by the *matcher* pattern and their implementation properties modeled and included by the *applier* pattern. The equality saturation process expands the full implementation selection design space, represented as an e-graph  $G_{saturate}$ , by applying both general algebraic rewrites and implementation rewrite rules ( $R_{impl}$ ). SkyEgg then formulates the joint selection and scheduling phase on the saturated e-graph as a mixed-integer linear programming (MILP) problem, considering the implementation’s timing properties. The MILP problem is solved by either an exact solver or an ASAP (As-Soon-As-Possible) scheduler. The implementation selection and schedule solution are used to generate the hardware description in SystemVerilog for FPGA deployment.

### 4 E-graph Representation and Modeling

To construct the complete design space for operation implementation selection, we first build an e-graph from the input expressions as MLIR programs. The construction process is straightforward: each value in the static single assignment (SSA) form of the MLIR inputs is represented by an e-node in the e-graph, with the name of the MLIR operation defining the value as the e-node’s constructor. The e-node’s arguments are the e-classes containing the e-nodes of the operand values. For example, the input MLIR program representing the computation  $-(a+b)*c$  constructs the e-graph<sub>init</sub> in Figure 3. The e-graph currently does not provide implementation information for the contained operations, and SkyEgg will apply *implementation rules* to saturate the e-graph to provide implementation candidates for each operation or a group of operations.

#### 4.1 Equality Saturation with Implementation

To represent the design space of possible operation implementation selection solutions, we need to represent the possible implementation candidates in the e-graph data structure. We define a specific class of e-nodes to represent implementation candidates, called *implementation e-nodes*: `identifier(Vec(arg1, arg2, ...))`. The identifier is a unique name to represent an implementation, such as DSP (short for DSP48E2) or LUT, and the Vec constructor takes a list of arguments as the inputs of the implementation.

**Implementation Rules.** With the *implementation e-nodes*, we still need to insert them in the appropriate e-classes to denote that the implementation can equivalently produce the value of the e-class. To do so, we define *implementation rules* to pattern match each implementation’s functionality in the e-graph<sub>init</sub> and insert the implementation e-nodes to the matched positions. Specifically, we define each *implementation rule* to include three parts:

- (1) *Matcher*: an algebraic pattern that matches one or a group of operations. It represents the software functionality of the implementation, describing what computation it can perform.
- (2) *Applier*: an implementation e-node pattern with the variables from the *matcher* as the input arguments.
- (3) *Condition*: a set of constraints on the implementation arguments. It generally contains data type or bitwidth requirements.

For example, Figure 3 shows four *implementation rules* that are provided by the target implementation library. Each rule is described in the form: *matcher*  $\rightsquigarrow$  *applier*, with *conditions* omitted for brevity. The first two rules match patterns that are supported by a DSP implementation, both of which require integer data type and strict bitwidth constraints due to the DSP48E2 unit’s physical design: input  $A \leq 30$  bits,  $D \leq 27$  bits, and  $B \leq 18$  bits. The last two rules match basic operations supported by LUTs.

In addition to implementation rules from the target implementation library, SkyEgg also considers algebraic rewrite rules, such as  $-a \times b \rightsquigarrow -(a \times b)$  in Figure 3, to consider the equivalence of different algebraic patterns for more comprehensive implementation matching. With the combination of two types of rules, SkyEgg performs *equality saturation* to expand the e-graph to the e-graph<sub>saturate</sub> in Figure 3. In the saturated e-graph, the algebraic rule rewrites the original expression  $-(a+b)*c$  to  $-((a+b)*c)$ , which is represented by the *negation* (-) e-node in the root e-class on the lower left. The e-graph<sub>saturate</sub> optionally presents the inserted implementation e-nodes, including two LUT e-nodes (for  $a+b$  and  $-(a+b)$ ) and two DSP e-nodes that correspond to Figure 1c and Figure 1d, respectively. Legal implementation selection solutions are terms with only implementation e-nodes in the saturated e-graph, suggesting that the e-graph<sub>saturate</sub> is a representation of the expanded implementation selection design space.

**Implementation Configuration.** As introduced in Section 2.1, implementation candidates, such as DSP48E2, not only provide multiple computation functionalities that have been modeled by *matchers* in *implementation rules*, but also can be configured to have different scheduling properties. We classify hardware implementations into three categories based on how they can be configured:

- (1) *Basic logics*: LUT-based implementations of basic logics described using Verilog operators without configuration variants.



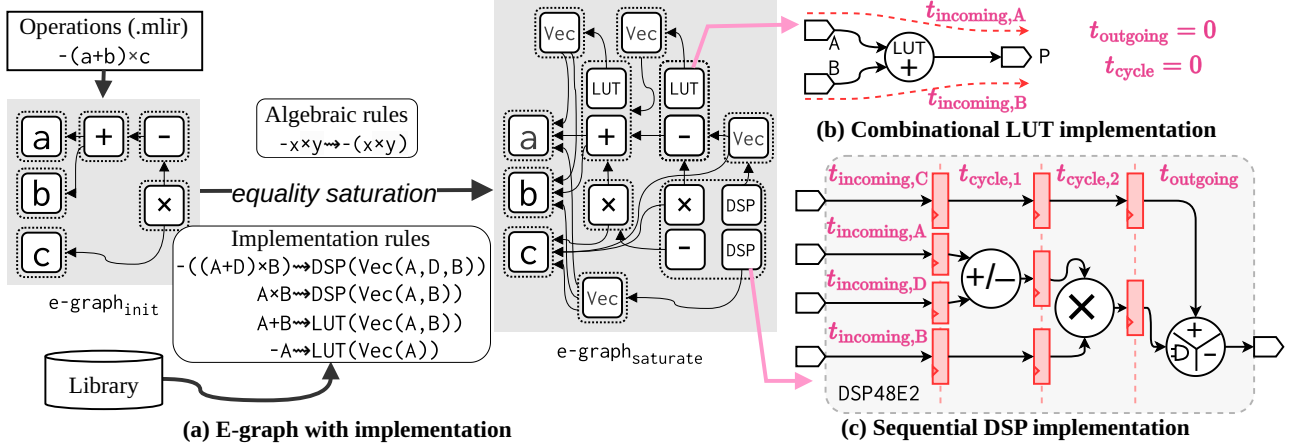


Figure 3: Example of e-graph construction and equality saturation with implementation modeled.

- (2) *Hardware primitives*: Implementations where each pipeline register can be independently enabled or bypassed, offering fine-grained control over internal pipelining (e.g., DSP48E2 slices).
- (3) *Parameterized IP cores*: Implementations with configurable overall latency, where internal pipeline stages are automatically adjusted (e.g., floating-point IP cores). Similarly, their resource usage can also be selected from given presets.

For each operation implementation provided by the target library, SkyEgg enumerates all possible configurations according to the classification above, and generates the corresponding implementation rules with the configuration parameters encoded in the identifier. Since each implementation-configuration pair corresponds to a fixed hardware circuit structure, it can be directly translated to the corresponding hardware instantiation during code generation. In the following, every implementation represents a configured implementation with the specific scheduling properties.

## 4.2 Timing Properties of Implementations

To model implementations' scheduling properties, we adopt a timing model illustrated in Figure 3b and c. Each implementation is modeled with  $N$  input ports and one output port, containing combinational logic, wiring, and optionally pipeline registers. The timing behavior of implementation  $I$  is characterized by four key attributes: latency ( $L$ ), incoming delay ( $t_{\text{incoming}}$ ), outgoing delay ( $t_{\text{outgoing}}$ ), and cycle delay ( $t_{\text{cycle}}$ ). For *sequential operations* with  $L > 0$  (Figure 3c), we organize pipeline registers into tiers labeled from 1 to  $L$ . Stage  $s$  represents the logic between tier  $s - 1$  and tier  $s$  registers (with stage 0 being the input logic). The timing attributes are defined as:

$$t_{\text{incoming},p} = t_{\text{logic},0,p} + t_{\text{su}} \quad (1a)$$

$$t_{\text{incoming}} = \max_p t_{\text{incoming},p} \quad (1b)$$

$$t_{\text{outgoing}} = t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q} + t_{\text{logic},L} \quad (1c)$$

$$t_{\text{cycle},s} = t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q} + t_{\text{logic},s} + t_{\text{su}} \quad (1d)$$

$$t_{\text{cycle}} = \max_s t_{\text{cycle},s} \quad (1e)$$

where  $t_{\text{logic},s,p}$  denotes the combinational delay through stage  $s$  starting from port  $p$ , with  $p$  omitted when  $s > 0$ .  $t_{\text{su}}$  and  $t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q}$

are registers' setup and clock-to-Q delays respectively. Specifically,  $t_{\text{incoming},p}$  measures the critical path from input port  $p$  through stage 0 logic to satisfy the setup requirement of tier 1 registers.  $t_{\text{outgoing}}$  captures the delay from the tier  $L$  register's clock edge through the final stage logic to the output.  $t_{\text{cycle},s}$  represents the register-to-register logic path within stage  $s$ , and  $t_{\text{cycle}}$  constrains the minimum clock period across all stages. For *combinational operations* (latency = 0, Figure 3b), the model simplifies to  $t_{\text{incoming},p} = t_{\text{logic},0,p}$ , capturing the port-specific combinational path from input  $p$  to the output, unifying combinational and sequential timing models. We also set  $t_{\text{outgoing}} = 0$  and  $t_{\text{cycle}} = 0$  as no registers exist.

**Profile-based Timing Data Acquisition.** As vendor timing data for FPGA primitives is proprietary, we systematically profile them using Vivado's synthesis tools to obtain their timing characteristics. For each implementation and configuration pair, we instantiate the target implementation, apply timing constraints, run synthesis with optimization, and extract our timing model parameters from the synthesis reports. This profiling generates a timing property database for all supported implementations. The post-synthesis timing provides a good approximation under the wire load model, sufficient to guide scheduling decisions during optimization.

**Timing Analysis.** With the timing properties modeled above, we can perform timing analysis on the e-graph to determine critical paths between implementations. Note that implementations are already assigned valid configurations. We use superscript to distinguish between implementations in the following definition.

**Definition 4.1 (Edge Delay).** An edge  $e: \langle i, j, p \rangle$  indicates the connection of  $I_i$ 's output with  $I_j$ 's input port  $p$ . The edge delay of  $e$  can be calculated as:

$$t_{\text{edge}}(e) = t_{\text{outgoing}}^{I_i} + t_{\text{net}} + t_{\text{incoming},p}^{I_j} \quad (2)$$

where  $t_{\text{net}}$  represents the wiring delay.

**Definition 4.2 (Path Delay).** A *combinational path*  $\pi = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k)$  is a sequence of edges where the target of each  $e_i$ , the implementation  $I_i$ , is also the source of  $e_{i+1}$  for  $1 \leq i < k$ . All intermediate

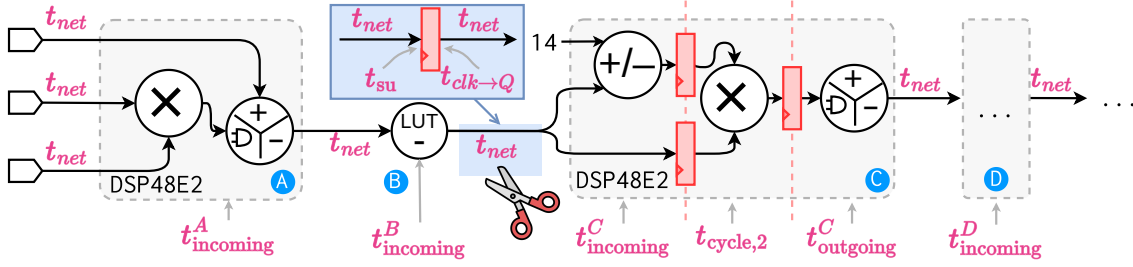


Figure 4: Example of timing analysis across connected e-nodes with different implementations and configurations.

implementations should be combinational. The path delay of  $\pi$  is:

$$t_{\text{path}}(\pi) = \begin{cases} t_{\text{incoming},p}^{I_1} + \sum_{e \in \pi} t_{\text{edge}}(e) & \text{if } L(I_1) = 0 \\ \sum_{e \in \pi} t_{\text{edge}}(e) & \text{if } L(I_1) > 0 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Note that when the first implementation is combinational, the incoming delay  $t_{\text{incoming},p}^{I_1}$  should also be accounted for in the calculation process, where  $p$  is the selected input port of  $I_1$ .

**Definition 4.3 (Chain Delay).** The chain delay from implementation  $I_i$  to implementation  $I_j$ , denoted as  $t_{\text{chain}}(I_i, I_j)$ , is the maximum path delay among all valid timing paths:

$$t_{\text{chain}}(I_i, I_j) = \max_{\pi \in \Pi(I_i, I_j)} t_{\text{path}}(\pi) \quad (4)$$

where  $\Pi(I_i, I_j)$  is the set of all combinational paths from  $I_i$  to  $I_j$ .

In the example of Figure 4, we consider the chain from  $I_A$  to  $I_C$ , which passes through  $I_B$ . The chain delay from  $I_A$  to  $I_C$  is

$$t_{\text{chain}}(I_A, I_C) = t_{\text{incoming}}^A + t_{\text{net}} + t_{\text{incoming}}^B + t_{\text{net}} + t_{\text{incoming}}^C \quad (5)$$

Note that each implementation's  $t_{\text{outgoing}}$  are all zero as they are all combinational.

If this chain's delay exceeds timing constraints, a pipeline register must be inserted to break the combinational chain. Suppose we insert a pipeline register after the LUT-based negation implementation (B). This splits the original path into two stages. The register insertion replaces the original direct routing from B to C with: routing delay from B to the register, register's setup time, register's clock-to-Q delay, and routing delay from register back to C. Since the original  $t_{\text{net}}$  between B and C is removed, the net effect is adding one extra  $t_{\text{net}}$ , plus  $t_{\text{su}}$  and  $t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q}$ . The data path timing for the split paths becomes:

$$t_1 = t_{\text{incoming}}^A + t_{\text{net}} + t_{\text{incoming}}^B + t_{\text{net}} + t_{\text{su}} \quad (6a)$$

$$t_2 = t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q} + t_{\text{net}} + t_{\text{incoming}}^C \quad (6b)$$

By inserting this register, we trade one additional cycle of latency for meeting timing requirements, but also introduce additional data path delays for both the upstream and downstream portions of the pipeline, which requires careful handling. This timing model forms the basis for our scheduling formulation in the next section, where we systematically determine register insertion to achieve optimal operation chaining and pipelining.

## 5 Problem Formulation

In this section, we formulate the joint selection and scheduling problem. The solution to the problem assigns each software operation to a selected implementation, allowing one implementation

Table 1: Notations for problem formulation

Symbol	Description
$\{I_i\}_{i=0}^N$	set of <i>implementation</i> e-nodes in $\text{e-graph}_{\text{saturate}}$
$\{cls_j\}_{j=0}^M$	set of <i>e-classes</i> in $\text{e-graph}_{\text{saturate}}$
$cls_{\text{root}}$	root e-class in $\text{e-graph}_{\text{saturate}}$
$I_k \in cls_j$	e-class $cls_j$ contains the e-node $I_k$
$child_{I_i}$	set of <i>child</i> e-classes of the e-node $I_i$
$f_{cls_j}$	finish time of the e-class $cls_j$
$b_{cls_j}$	whether the e-class $cls_j$ is selected
$s_{I_i} / f_{I_i}$	start/finish time of the e-node $I_i$
$b_{I_i}$	whether the e-node $I_i$ is selected

to finish multiple operations according to its functionality, and determines the execution clock cycles for each selected implementation. In addition to the notations used in SkyEgg's timing model (Section 4.2), we define more notations used in the formulation, as shown in Table 1. It's worth noting that only *implementation* e-nodes are considered in the formulation, while other software operation e-nodes are not included. In addition to general notations for the classic e-graph-based optimization problem, *extraction* [17, 35], which is the process of selecting e-nodes to compose the solution term with the minimized cost, we define more scheduling-related notations, including the start or finish time of the e-classes and e-nodes, for jointly optimizing both the implementation selection and scheduling simultaneously to produce the global optimal solution.

With the notations, we formulate an MILP problem as follows:

$$\text{minimize}_{f_{cls_j}, b_{cls_j}, s_{I_i}, f_{I_i}, b_{I_i}} f_{cls_{root}} + \alpha \sum_i^N b_{I_i} \quad (7a)$$

$$\text{s.t. } b_{cls_{root}} = 1 \quad (7b)$$

$$\forall j, b_{cls_j} \leq \sum_{I_i \in cls_j} b_{I_i} \quad (7c)$$

$$\forall i, \forall cls_j \in child_{I_i}, b_{I_i} \leq b_{cls_j} \quad (7d)$$

$$\forall i, \forall cls_j \in child_{I_i}, s_{I_i} \geq f_{cls_j} \quad (7e)$$

$$\forall i, f_{I_i} = s_{I_i} + L_{I_i} \quad (7f)$$

$$\forall j, \forall I_i \in cls_j, f_{cls_j} \geq f_{I_i} - M(1 - b_{I_i}) \quad (7g)$$

$$\forall \pi \in \Pi(I_i, I_j), s_{I_j} \geq f_{I_i} + \text{cuts}(t_{\text{path}}(\pi)) - M \sum_{I_l \in \pi} (1 - b_{I_l}) \quad (7h)$$

$$\forall I_i, b_{I_i} \in \{0, 1\} \quad (7i)$$

$$\forall cls_j, b_{cls_j} \in \{0, 1\} \quad (7j)$$

In the formulation, the objective function is to minimize the total latency of the program, represented as the finish time of the root e-class,  $f_{cls_{root}}$ . We use a penalty term with a small coefficient  $\alpha$  to reduce the number of selected implementations for achieving the best possible latency. The formulation includes two classes of constraints, as described below.

**Completeness Constraints:** ensure the correctness of implementation selection to provide the same functionality as the original program. Equation 7b ensures the root e-class is selected. Equation 7c ensures that when an e-class is selected, at least one of its contained *implementation* e-nodes is selected, representing that the e-class's value is properly computed by the selected implementation. Equation 7d ensures that when an *implementation* e-node is selected, its children e-classes are also selected, representing that the argument values of the implementation are provided.

**Scheduling Constraints:** require legal scheduling of the selected implementations. Equation 7e defines the *dependency constraint* of scheduling, ensuring the children e-classes generate the argument values before the implementation e-node starts. Equation 7f defines the *latency constraint* to ensure the finish time and start time satisfy the latency property of the implementation. Equation 7g defines the *selection constraint*, which is special for the scheduling on an e-graph. Specifically, we use the Big M [1] method to add a conditional constraint: the finish time of an e-class must not be earlier than the finish time of an included implementation e-node, if the e-node is selected. *Chaining constraints* are also necessary to ensure the operating frequency of the synthesized design meets the target. If all implementation e-nodes on the path  $\pi$  from  $I_i$  to  $I_j$  are selected, as required by the Big M term,  $\text{cuts}(t_{\text{path}}(\pi))$  registers should be inserted to cut the combinational path if the path delay exceeds the clock period  $T_{\text{clk}}$ . According to the timing model exemplified by Figure 4, we have the following constraint for timing closure:

$$t_{\text{path}}(\pi) + q(t_{\text{su}} + t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q} + t_{\text{net}}) \leq (q + 1)T_{\text{clk}} \quad (8)$$

The constraint states that if we need  $q$  registers to cut the combinational path, and the path delay plus the total extra wiring delay,

register setup, and clock-to-Q delays should be less than the total delay of  $q + 1$  split clock cycles. According to Equation 8, we calculate the minimum number of registers needed to cut the path:

$$\text{cuts}(t_{\text{path}}(\pi)) = \left\lceil \frac{t_{\text{path}}(\pi) - T_{\text{clk}}}{(T_{\text{clk}} - (t_{\text{su}} + t_{\text{clk} \rightarrow Q} + t_{\text{net}}))} \right\rceil \quad (9)$$

## 6 Efficient Solving

Although solving the MILP formulation in Equation 7 through an exact solver can produce the optimal implementation selection and scheduling solution with minimized latency and implementation usage, it is computationally expensive. In this section, we introduce two solving methods: calling an exact MILP solver with reduced chaining constraints and introducing a heuristic ASAP scheduler.

**Top-k Chaining Constraints.** In the MILP formulation, the *chaining constraints* (Equation 7h) contribute the most to the complexity of the problem, since there exist many paths between every pair of implementation e-nodes in the saturated e-graph. In traditional scheduling approaches, such as the SDC scheduling [13], the common strategy is to only consider the longest timing path between every pair of implementation e-nodes, which is defined as the chain delay in Definition 4.3. However, this pruning approach can cause clock period violations in SkyEgg's joint optimization problem. This is because the implementation e-nodes on the chain may not be selected. Consequently, the actual longest timing path between a pair of e-nodes, which could be shorter than the chain delay, is not considered. As a result, the synthesized design may not be feasible due to *over-chaining*. Instead of modeling all paths as constraints or only considering the chain delay, we model the *top-k* paths (Definition 6.1) between every pair of implementation e-nodes. We set the default value of  $k$  to 3, which generates solutions meeting the clock period target for all experiments.

**Definition 6.1 (Top-k Path Delays).** The top- $k$  path delays from implementation  $I_i$  to implementation  $I_j$ , denoted as  $\mathcal{T}_{\text{top-}k}(I_i, I_j)$ , is the set of the  $k$  longest path delays from  $I_i$  to  $I_j$ :

$$\mathcal{T}_{\text{top-}k}(I_i, I_j) = \text{top-}k \{t_{\text{path}}(\pi) : \pi \in \Pi(I_i, I_j)\} \quad (10)$$

**Heuristic ASAP Scheduler.** Even after reducing the chaining constraints, solving the MILP problem with an exact solver remains NP-hard. This approach is not scalable given the potential size of the saturated e-graph. Therefore, we introduce a heuristic ASAP scheduler to solve the problem efficiently. Figure 5 presents the algorithm. It iterates over the e-classes in topological order and selects the implementation with the earliest finish time for each e-class. For every implementation e-node, it considers both *dependency constraints* and *chaining constraints* from *top-k* path delays ending at the e-node to determine the start time. The scheduler is efficient with linear time complexity on the e-graph scale. However, it is heuristic rather than optimal: selecting the implementation with the earliest finish time for each e-class does not guarantee the global optimal solution. The reason is that the selected implementation might imply serious chaining constraints for the subsequent e-classes as the source of long timing paths, which is not considered by the scheduler. Even so, the scheduler produces almost optimal solutions for most cases with much faster solving time compared

```

1  def asap_scheduler(
2       $\mathcal{G}_{\text{saturate}}$ , # saturated e-graph
3  ):
4      # Iterate over e-classes in topological order
5      for  $cls_j$  in  $\mathcal{G}_{\text{saturate}}$ .eclasses.topo_order():
6          # Determine the earliest start time for each e-node
7          for  $I_i \in cls_j$ :
8               $s_{I_i} = \max([f_{cls}, \text{for } cls \in \text{child}_{I_i}])$ 
9          # Consider the top-k path delays ending at  $I_i$ 
10         for  $\pi$  in  $\mathcal{T}_{\text{top-k}}(I_i)$ :
11             if all( $[b_{I'} \text{ for } I' \text{ in } \pi.\text{enodes}]$ ):
12                  $s_{I_i} = \max(s_{I_i}, f_{\pi.\text{src}} + \text{cuts}(t_{\text{path}}(\pi)))$ 
13              $f_{I_i} = s_{I_i} + L_{I_i}$ 
14         # Select the earliest-finish implementation
15          $I = \arg \min_{I_i \in cls_j} f_{I_i}$ 
16          $b_I, f_{cls_j} = 1, f_I$ 
17     return  $b_{I_i}, s_{I_i}$ 

```

Figure 5: The ASAP scheduler.

to the exact solver, as will be shown in Section 7, demonstrating it as a good trade-off.

## 7 Evaluation

We conduct comprehensive evaluations on diverse benchmarks to compare SkyEgg against the commercial state-of-the-art toolchain, demonstrating its effectiveness and scalability.

### 7.1 Methodology

We first lower the input programs into MLIR through HECTOR [46] and extract basic blocks, treating each block as a self-contained unit of computation. For each block, we translate it into a C++ kernel and synthesize it with Vitis HLS as a baseline. In parallel, we apply SkyEgg to jointly perform implementation and scheduling on these kernels, producing optimized hardware descriptions in Verilog, which are then synthesized with Xilinx Vivado 2024.1 targeting the same FPGA device. To ensure a fair comparison with SkyEgg’s pipelined designs, we enforce function-level pipelining in Vitis HLS using the `#pragma HLS PIPELINE` directive. Latency is collected from the scheduling reports of SkyEgg and Vitis HLS, while additional metrics, including timing slack and resource utilization, are obtained from the corresponding synthesis reports of Vivado and Vitis HLS. SkyEgg uses OR-Tools [21] to solve the MILP problem. We log the SkyEgg’s runtime and set a timeout of 3,600 seconds (1 hour) for the solving process. The overall design latency is computed as the sum of the latencies of all basic blocks.

We compare SkyEgg against the commercial toolchain Vitis HLS 2024.1. All experiments target the xcku3p FPGA with speed grade “-1”. For performance comparison, we use the speedup metric defined as

$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{\text{Latency}_{\text{Vitis}} + 1}{\text{Latency}_{\text{SkyEgg}} + 1} \quad (11)$$

where  $\text{Latency}_{\text{Vitis}}$  denotes the latency reported by Vitis HLS, and  $\text{Latency}_{\text{SkyEgg}}$  denotes the latency of our approach. The offset of +1 is introduced to handle cases where latency may be zero. A higher value indicates greater latency reduction compared to Vitis HLS.

In addition to performance, we also compare the timing closure and resource usage of the synthesized designs, comprehensively evaluating the effectiveness of the joint synthesis paradigm.

**Benchmarks.** We evaluate our approach on benchmarks from four application domains: mathematics, neural networks, scientific computing, and signal processing. Mathematical benchmarks from liquid-dsp [19] include five numerical computation kernels: bairstow, invgauss, landen, lngamma, and randf\_pdf, evaluated in float32. Neural network benchmarks from ggml [20] comprise activation functions including GeLU, GeGLU, SiLU, SwiGLU, and Softmax, as well as normalization layers including layernorm and rmsnorm, representing critical AI inference operators also evaluated in float32. For scientific computing, we select linear algebra kernels from PolyBench [30] using integer data type: durbin, jacobi-1d, and jacobi-2d. Since loop unrolling is commonly used to evaluate hardware parallelism in linear algebra kernels, we additionally test 16× unrolled versions of bicg, gemm, and gemver. Signal processing benchmarks from Vitis Library [6] include linear interpolation, WebP encoding kernels, and rotary embedding, implemented in integer. To evaluate scalability, we generate synthetic benchmarks containing 100 to 600 arithmetic operations and test them with both float32 and integer data types.

**Implementation Library.** Our evaluation employs implementation libraries covering both integer and floating-point operations. Integer arithmetic implementations include: LUT-based operations specified through RTL with the `(*use_dsp=no*)` synthesis directive to prevent DSP inference, DSP48E2 slices instantiated as Xilinx primitives, and Xilinx divider IP cores. Floating-point operations utilize Xilinx floating-point IP cores supporting various mathematical functions with configurable pipeline stages.

### 7.2 Effectiveness of Joint Synthesis

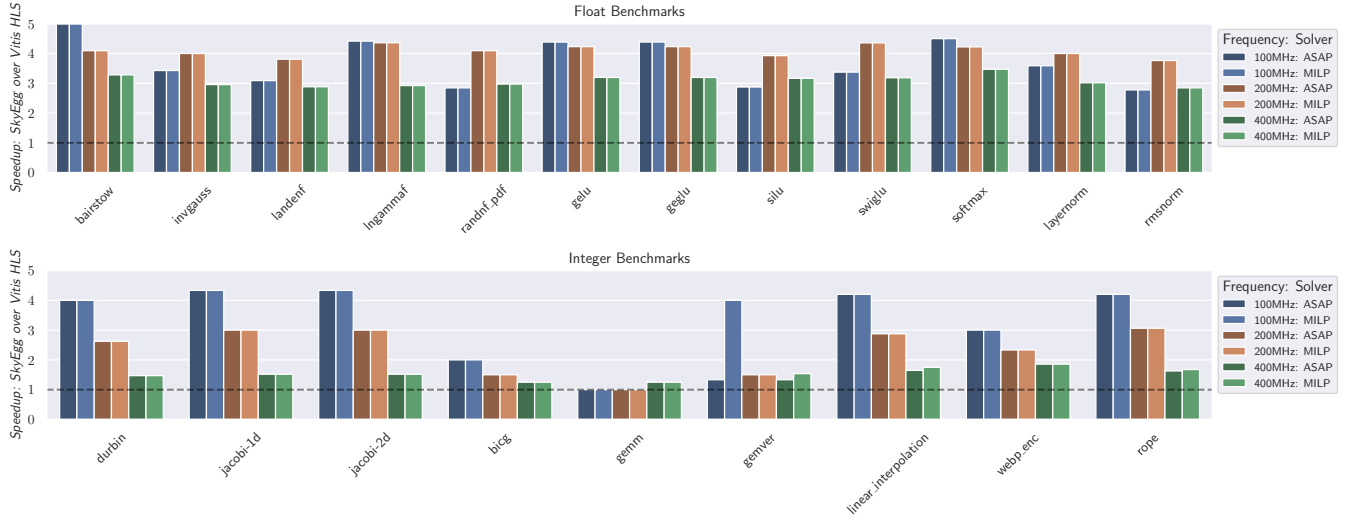
Figure 6 presents the performance comparison between SkyEgg and Vitis HLS on the benchmarks. We evaluate two schedulers in SkyEgg: ILP and ASAP, as introduced in Section 6, and calculate their speedup compared to Vitis HLS according to Equation 11. Across all benchmarks under three different frequency targets, SkyEgg’s joint optimization approach consistently outperforms traditional sequential optimization strategies, achieving an average speedup of 3.10× over Vitis HLS. Notably, the ASAP scheduling variant demonstrates high efficiency while producing results comparable to exact MILP solving across most benchmarks, achieving the average speedup of 3.08× compared to MILP’s 3.12×.

**Performance on Floating-Point Benchmarks.** For floating-point workloads, SkyEgg achieves speedups ranging from 2.78× to 5.22×, with an average of 3.64×. At 400MHz, the speedup is generally lower because this target frequency approaches the maximum operating frequency of the DSP48E2 units. This proximity limits the potential for optimization through aggressive operation chaining. At this frequency, the speedup primarily stems from SkyEgg’s better implementation selection. For example, in the rmsnorm benchmark targeting 400MHz, Vitis HLS defaults to a 28-cycle square root implementation for float32, which our profiling shows can achieve 979MHz—2.4× higher than required. To exploit this large timing margin, we examine our profiled timing data and observe that lower pipeline depth does not always lead to lower achievable



**Table 2: Benchmarks in SkyEgg evaluation**

Domain	Category	Data Type	Source	Benchmarks	# of Math Ops	Included Math Ops
Math	Mathematical	float32	[19]	bairstow, invgauss, landenf, lngammaf, randf_pdf	51,9,7,20,10	+, −, ×, /, Exp, Log, Sqrt
Neural Networks	Activation	float32	[20]	GeLU, GeGLU, SiLU, SwiGLU, Softmax	13,14,4,5,5	+, −, ×, /, Exp, Cmp
	Normalization	float32	[20]	layernorm, rmsnorm	12,7	+, −, ×, /, Sqrt
Scientific Computing	Linear Algebra	integer	[30]	durbin, jacobi-1d, jacobi-2d	12,6,10,10,11	+, −, ×, /
	Linear Algebra (unrolled by 16×)	integer	[30]	bigc, gemm, gemver	63,49,177	+, −, ×
Signal Processing	Transformation & Encoding	integer	[6]	linear_interpolation, webp_enc, rope	33,44,33	+, −, ×, /, Shift, Bitwise
-	Synthetic	both	-	90 random generated kernels with various sizes and types	100~600	+, −, ×, /, Exp, Sqrt, Log, 1/x, Bitwise

**Figure 6: Speedup of SkyEgg over Vitis HLS.**

frequency. While the 28-cycle implementation achieves 979MHz and the 25-cycle variant achieves 629MHz (a 55.6% reduction), all implementations from 14 to 25 cycles achieve the same 629MHz maximum frequency. Similarly, implementations from 10 to 13 cycles all achieve 431MHz. This reveals multiple frequency plateaus where latency can be reduced without sacrificing timing, making proper latency selection crucial. Leveraging this insight, SkyEgg aggressively selects the minimum-latency variant (10 cycles) that still meets the 400MHz requirement, reducing the overall design latency from 73 cycles to 25 cycles.

Moreover, we find that more DSP usage does not always improve performance in floating-point IP. When implementing exponential functions in the randnf\_pdf benchmark at 400MHz, Vitis HLS selects a *"Full DSP Usage"* configuration, achieving 699MHz at 30-cycle latency. However, *"Medium Usage"* reaches the same frequency with only 20 cycles—demonstrating that aggressive resource usage can be overly conservative without timing benefits. Building on this observation, SkyEgg further selects an 8-cycle *"Medium Usage"* implementation achieving 450MHz, still meeting the 400MHz

target. Based on selections like this, we further reduce the overall design latency from 154 cycles to 52 cycles. Traditional HLS tools, such as Vitis HLS, with their rude models, cannot handle these configuration decisions correctly. In contrast, SkyEgg leverages its profiled timing properties to select the optimal heterogeneous implementation, achieving the target frequency and latency-efficient designs.

**Performance on Integer Benchmarks.** For integer workloads, SkyEgg achieves an average speedup of 2.38× (up to 4.33×). We observe that lower frequencies yield higher speedups. At 100MHz, most cases reach peak performance because SkyEgg aggressively chains operations within single cycles, exploiting the available timing slack. In contrast, Vitis HLS conservatively assigns each DSP operation to separate cycles regardless of frequency targets. As frequency increases to 400MHz, the available implementation configurations become more constrained, narrowing the performance gap between approaches. For the benchmarks unrolled by 16×, the extracted basic blocks contain only simple arithmetic operations

**Table 3: Resource utilization and timing closure comparison.** Columns FF and LUT show the resource usage ratio of SkyEgg relative to Vitis HLS. I and A denote MILP and ASAP, respectively. V denotes Vitis HLS. T denotes timing met.

Benchmark	FF <sub>M</sub>	FF <sub>A</sub>	LUT <sub>M</sub>	LUT <sub>A</sub>	T <sub>M</sub>	T <sub>A</sub>	T <sub>V</sub>
bairstow	0.79	0.90	0.88	0.91	✓	✓	✓
invgauss	0.67	0.92	1.52	1.57	✓	✓	✗
landenf	1.46	1.52	2.29	2.30	✓	✓	✗
lmgamaf	0.85	0.93	1.44	1.45	✓	✓	✗
randnf_pdf	0.97	1.11	1.89	1.80	✓	✓	✗
gelu	0.84	0.87	1.07	1.04	✓	✓	✗
geglu	0.85	0.85	1.03	1.03	✓	✓	✗
silu	1.21	1.21	1.33	1.33	✓	✓	✗
swiglu	1.00	1.00	1.25	1.25	✓	✓	✗
softmax	1.16	1.16	0.81	0.81	✓	✓	✓
layernorm	1.14	1.35	2.05	2.11	✓	✓	✗
rmsnorm	2.06	2.06	5.11	5.11	✓	✓	✗
durbin	0.80	0.81	0.83	0.85	✓	✓	✓
jacobi-1d	0.85	0.85	0.83	0.83	✓	✓	✓
jacobi-2d	0.86	0.86	0.82	0.82	✓	✓	✓
bigc	0.30	0.31	0.85	0.79	✓	✓	✓
gemm	0.34	0.84	0.00	0.00	✓	✓	✓
gemver	0.51	0.76	4.26	0.64	✓	✓	✓
linear_int	0.66	0.68	0.79	0.79	✓	✓	✓
webp_enc	0.26	0.21	1.82	0.67	✓	✓	✓
rope	0.72	0.72	0.81	0.78	✓	✓	✓
Mean	0.87	0.95	1.51	1.28	1.00	1.00	0.52

```

func.func @rope(...) -> (...)
  attributes {latency = 33 : i32} {
    %13 = "skyegg.DSP48"(%9, %8, %7)
    {func = "(A*B)+C", timing = "t5_t6",
      start = 0 : i32}
    : (i16, i16, i16) -> i16
    %35 = "skyegg.IntDiv"(%34, %0)
    {timing = "lat12", start = 19 : i32}
    : (i16, i16) -> i16
    %36 = "skyegg.DSP48"(%32, %11,
      %28, %35)
    {func = "C-(B*(A+D))",
      timing = "t5_t6",
      start = 31 : i32}
    : (i16, i16, i16, i16) -> i16
  } // Other implementations omitted
}

module rope(input clk, input rst,
            input i1, ...);
  // ...
  DSP48E2 #(.AREG(0), .BREG(0),
    .MREG(1), .PREG(1), ...)
    U13 (.CLK(clk), .A(net9),
      .B(net8), .C(net7), ...);
  // ...
  Div_IP_16_lat12 U35 (
    .aclk(clk), .dividend(net34),
    .divisor(net0), ...);
  // ...
  DSP48E2 #(.AREG(0), .BREG(0),
    .MREG(1), .PREG(1), ...)
    U36 (.CLK(clk), .A(net32),
      .B(net11), .C(net28),
      .D(net35), ...);
  // Wires, regs, and other
  // modules are omitted
endmodule

```

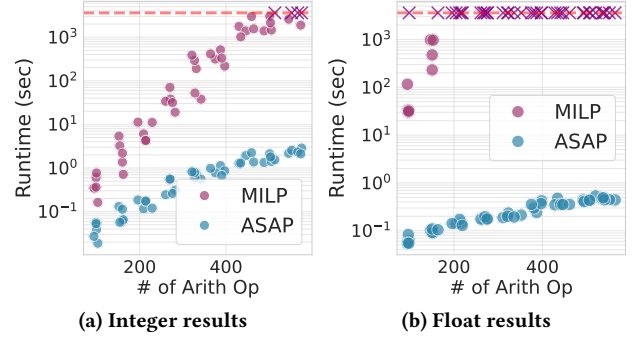
(a) Subexpression of RoPE kernel

(b) Generated RTL design

**Figure 7: Production for the RoPE kernel. (a) Scheduled MLIR with implementation selection and timing annotations. (b) Generated RTL showing primitive instances.**

with low logic depth. In these cases, Vitis HLS also selects combinational implementations, which SkyEgg also does, resulting in speedups of 1.0×. Specifically, the primary optimization opportunity lies in the reduction tree for summing partial results after unrolling. Despite this limited optimization scope, SkyEgg consistently outperforms Vitis HLS for the 400MHz frequency target. Moreover, the MILP scheduler achieves a higher speedup than ASAP for gemver at a 100MHz frequency target, demonstrating MILP’s capability to achieve optimal performance.

We use the rope benchmark as an example to illustrate the solution produced by SkyEgg. A representative subexpression from this



**Figure 8: Scheduler runtime on synthesized cases.**

kernel is shown in Figure 7a. In the synthesized design, SkyEgg successfully identifies the operation pattern  $A - (B + C) * D$ , which maps directly into a single DSP48E2 slice. Other configurations for pattern  $A + B$  and  $(A + B) * C$  are also utilized throughout the design. Through timing-aware implementation selection, the overall design is estimated to achieve 112MHz by our timing model, while minimizing latency. These optimized implementations are then converted to Verilog, whose segment is presented at Figure 7b, for Vivado synthesis and evaluation.

**Resource and Timing Comparison.** Table 3 lists the resource utilization and timing closure results. The resource usage values shown are averaged across all three frequency targets (100MHz, 200MHz, 400MHz) relative to Vitis HLS. For flip-flop (FF) utilization, SkyEgg achieves 0.87× for MILP and 0.95× for ASAP relative to Vitis HLS. LUT usage is moderately higher at 1.51× for MILP and 1.28× for ASAP, which reflects the trade-off between latency optimization and logic complexity. This modest increase in LUT usage is justified by the significant latency improvements achieved.

For timing closure, Table 3 also indicates whether each approach meets timing constraints across all three frequency targets. Both MILP and ASAP schedulers successfully achieve timing closure for all benchmarks at all frequencies. In contrast, Vitis HLS fails timing closure for 48% of the designs, primarily at 400MHz for complex floating-point operations. While these timing violations can be addressed by reducing the frequency target, this approach is unacceptable for designs with strict frequency requirements. SkyEgg’s ability to consistently meet timing constraints across all frequencies while achieving low latency demonstrates the effectiveness of joint optimization in producing robust, performant designs.

### 7.3 Scalability Analysis

Figure 8 shows the runtime comparison between MILP and ASAP schedulers on synthetic benchmarks containing 100 to 600 arithmetic operations, evaluated with both integer and floating-point data types. We generate 45 cases for each data type class. For integer workloads, ASAP consistently completes scheduling in under 3 seconds regardless of problem size, demonstrating excellent scalability. In contrast, the MILP solver reaches the 1-hour timeout limit when the operation count exceeds 400, limiting its applicability to larger designs. In total, MILP causes a timeout for 4 of 45 integer cases.

For floating-point operations, the scalability issue becomes more severe. ASAP can still produce solutions in less than a second across

designs, while MILP times out starting from just 150 operations, which can actually be reached in complex floating-point workloads. In total, MILP causes a timeout for 37 of 45 floating-point cases. This dramatic difference stems from the expanded design space created by rich configuration choices available for each floating-point operator, which increases the complexity of the problem.

As for the achieved performance, we observe that ASAP only achieves a slightly worse design latency than MILP for one integer case among 41 cases that both MILP and ASAP can solve. These results demonstrate that while MILP provides optimal solutions for smaller kernels, ASAP offers a scalable alternative that achieves near-optimal results with orders of magnitude faster run-time, demonstrating ASAP as a good choice for large tasks.

## 8 Conclusion

In this work, we propose SkyEgg, a hardware synthesis framework that can jointly optimize implementation selection and scheduling. Based on e-graph, SkyEgg uniformly considers algebraic property, implementation candidates, and timing properties during scheduling. SkyEgg proposes an MILP formulation of the problem and also introduces an ASAP-based heuristic solver with better scalability. Evaluation demonstrates an average speedup of  $3.01\times$  over the commercial Vitis HLS toolchain, demonstrating the potential of the joint synthesis paradigm.

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