

Logic

Why Study Logic?

- A basis for computer hardware
- A basis for computer programming
- A basis for program optimization
- A basis for specification
- A basis for verification and testing

In a certain sense
Computing is Logic

Is all Logic Computing?

No, but
a lot of it can be reduced to
computing.

Flavors of Logic

- Proposition Logic
 - Predicate Logic
 - Temporal Logic
 - Modal Logics
 - Programming Logics
 - Fuzzy Logic
- } Studied in CS60
- } Some exposure in CS80
- } Some exposure in CS152 (Neural Networks)

Proposition Logic

- Also known as Switching Logic
- Basic elements are
 - 0 (false)
 - 1 (true)
 - proposition variables (take values 0 or 1)
 - either
 - functions (functional view)
 - connectives (expression view)

Mostly we use

- the function view
- and occasionally
 - the expression view

Proposition Logic Domain

- {false, true} (for purists)
 - or
- {0, 1} (more readable)
 - or
- {⊥, ⊤} (more symmetric)

Proposition Logic Functions

- and
- or
- not
- implies
- iff (if, and only if)
- others

and

- rex "table":
 - and(0, 0) => 0;
 - and(0, 1) => 0;
 - and(1, 0) => 0;
 - and(1, 1) => 1;



and

- shorter rex rules (using sequential convention):
 - and(1, 1) => 1;
 - and(x, y) => 0;

and

- form 1 table:

x	y	and(x, y)
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

 arguments  results

and

- form 2 table:

and(x, y)	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1



results

or

- rex "table"

- or(0, 0) => 0;
- or(0, 1) => 1;
- or(1, 0) => 1;
- or(1, 1) => 1;

or

- shorter rex rules:

- or(0, 0) => 0;
- or(x, y) => 1;

or

- form 1 table:

x	y	or(x, y)
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

or

- form 2 table:

or(x, y)	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

not

- rex rules:

- not(0) => 1;
- not(1) => 0;

not

- form 1 table = form 2 table:

x	not(x)
0	1
1	0

implies

- form 1 table:

x	y	implies(x, y)
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

implies

- form 2 table:

implies(x, y)	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1

implies

- rex rules:

- implies(0, 0) => 1;
- implies(0, 1) => 1;
- implies(1, 0) => 0;
- implies(1, 1) => 1;

implies

- shorter rex rules (sequential):

- implies(1, 0) => 0;
- implies(x, y) => 1;

Concise Summary

(sequential convention applies)

- and(1, 1) => 1;
- and(x, y) => 0;
- or(0, 0) => 0;
- or(x, y) => 1;
- not(0) => 1;
- not(1) => 0;
- implies(1, 0) => 0;
- implies(x, y) => 1;

Expression Forms

- Use for greater readability of certain equalities
- Similar to ordinary discourse

Expression Forms

- Function symbols
 - and: \wedge \cdot $\&\&$ *juxtaposition*
 - Example: $x \wedge y$ means $x \cdot y$
 - or: \vee $+$ \parallel
 - not: \neg $!$ 'superscript' $\bar{\quad}$ (overbar)
- Example: These mean the same thing:
 - $(a \wedge b) \vee (c \wedge \neg d)$
 - $ab + cd'$
- Binding order: not, and, or

Expression Forms

- Function symbols:
 - implies: \rightarrow \supset
 - iff: \equiv $=$ \Leftrightarrow

What We'll Use

- To start, we'll use
 \wedge \vee \neg \rightarrow \equiv
- When we discuss circuits, we'll use
 \cdot $+$ $'$ $=$

Logical Equivalences
(These can be shown by substituting all combinations of 0, 1 for variables)

- $a \wedge b = b \wedge a$
- $a \vee b = b \vee a$
- $(a \wedge b) \wedge c = a \wedge (b \wedge c)$
- $(a \vee b) \vee c = a \vee (b \vee c)$
- $(a \vee b) \wedge c = (a \wedge c) \vee (b \wedge c)$
- $(a \wedge b) \vee c = (a \vee c) \wedge (b \vee c)$

More Logical Equivalences

- $(a \wedge 0) = 0$
- $(a \wedge 1) = a$
- $(a \vee 0) = a$
- $(a \vee 1) = 1$

More Logical Equivalences

- $\neg(a \wedge b) = (\neg b \vee \neg a)$
 - $\neg(a \vee b) = (\neg b \wedge \neg a)$
- } DeMorgan's Laws
- $(a \vee \neg a) = a \vee b$
 - $(a \wedge (\neg a \vee b)) = a \wedge b$

Logical Equivalences for Implies

- $(a \rightarrow b) = (\neg a \vee b)$
- $(a \rightarrow b) = \neg(a \wedge \neg b)$
- $(0 \rightarrow b) = 1$
- $(1 \rightarrow b) = b$
- $(a \rightarrow 0) = \neg a$
- $(a \rightarrow 1) = 1$

More Logical Equivalences for Implies

- $(a \rightarrow bc) = (a \rightarrow b) \wedge (a \rightarrow c)$
- $((a \rightarrow b) \wedge (b \rightarrow c)) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow c)$
- $(a \rightarrow b) = (\neg b \rightarrow \neg a)$

Checking Relations using the Boole-Shannon Principle

- Relations hold iff they hold for any substitution of 0 and 1 for the variables (uniformly throughout the expression)
- Therefore, a relation holds if, choosing *any* variable V , it holds for $V = 0$ and for $V = 1$.
- But substituting 0 or 1 for a variable often yields simplifications that make the relation obvious.

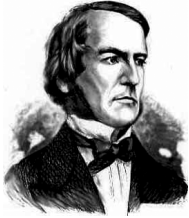
Example

- Verify $(a \rightarrow b) = (\neg b \rightarrow \neg a)$
- Choose a as the variable.
 - Substituting 0 for a :
 - $(0 \rightarrow b) = (\neg b \rightarrow 0)$
 - which simplifies to:
 - $1 = (\neg b \rightarrow 1)$, a known equivalence
 - Substituting 1 for a :
 - $(1 \rightarrow b) = (\neg b \rightarrow 1)$
 - which simplifies to:
 - $b = (\neg b \rightarrow 0)$

Boole and Shannon

- Boole
 - Invented "Boolean algebra" (switching theory)
 - (In modern mathematics, "Boolean algebra" is a more general, abstract, system)
- Shannon
 - Wrote thesis on switching theory
 - Invented "Information theory"
 - Maze-solving mouse
 - Wrote first chess-playing program
 - Wrote paper on the mathematics of juggling

Boole and Shannon



George Boole (1815-1864)



Claude Shannon (1916-2001)

Tautologies

- An expression that always evaluates to 1 (true) regardless of what value each variable is assigned is called a *tautology*.
- The property of being a tautology can be checked using:
 - Truth-table construction
 - Boole-Shannon Principle, recursively
- Example of a tautology checker (applet):
<http://www.cs.hmc.edu/~keller/javaExamples/taut/taut.html>

Encodings

- In order to use logic to build computers and other devices, we need to represent or *encode* general finite domains into the logic domain.

Encodings

- At a sufficiently low-level, most information in a digital system is encoded into strings (or tuples) of bits.
- This may be true for the universe as a whole (e.g. Fredkin's theory).

Encodings

- Let $\{0, 1\}^n$ mean the set of all n -tuples of 0's and 1's, e.g.
- $\{0, 1\}^3 = \{000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111\}$
- In general, an encoding of a set S is a function from S into $\{0, 1\}^n$ for some n (the "number of bits").

Encoding Examples (note: \rightarrow is maps to, not implies)

- Encode the set {red, green, blue, black}
 - Encoding #1:
 - red \rightarrow 00, green \rightarrow 01, blue \rightarrow 10, black \rightarrow 11
 - Encoding #2:
 - red \rightarrow 01, green \rightarrow 10, blue \rightarrow 11, black \rightarrow 00
 - Encoding #3 (called "one-hot" encoding)
 - red \rightarrow 1000, green \rightarrow 0100, blue \rightarrow 0010, black \rightarrow 0001

Convention

- When the ordering is implied in the set itself (such as in a set of numbers), we will often omit the red → part and just list the target value.
- Example: {red, green, blue, black}
{00, 01, 10, 11}

How many bits are enough?

- To encode a set of size N,
 $\lceil \log_2(N) \rceil$ bits are needed, at a minimum
- $\lceil K \rceil$ is the smallest integer $\geq K$
(read the "ceiling" of K).

Encoding Examples

- Encode the set {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15}
- Encoding #1 (straight binary encoding)
 - 0000, 0001, 0010, 0011, 0100, 0101, 0110, 0111, 1000, 1001, 1010, 1011, 1100, 1101, 1110, 1111
- Encoding #2 (Gray encoding)
 - 0000, 0001, 0011, 0010, 0110, 0111, 0101, 0100, 1100, 1101, 1111, 1110, 1010, 1011, 1001, 1000

Gray Code

- Invented by Frank Gray.
- U.S. Patent 2 632 058, March 17, 1953.
- Many important applications.

Gray Code: Based on "Reflection"

0 → 1
flip 1st (and only) bit

Gray Code: Based on "Reflection"

Two copies of previous sequence
0 → 1

0 → 1

Gray Code: Based on "Reflection"

Two copies of previous sequence (black)
Reverse the second copy.
Prepend 0 to first, 1 to second.

00 → 01
↓
10 ← 11
Giving 00 → 01 → 11 → 10

Gray Code: Based on "Reflection"

Two copies of previous sequence (black)
Reverse the second copy.
Prepend 0 to first, 1 to second.

000 → 001 → 011 → 010
↓
100 ← 101 ← 111 ← 110

Gray Code: Based on "Reflection"

0000 → 0001 → 0011 → 0010 → 0110 → 0111 → 0101 → 0100
↓
1000 ← 1001 ← 1011 ← 1010 ← 1110 ← 1111 ← 1101 ← 1100

Going from one codeword to next entails changing only 1 bit.
Contrast to straight binary, where all bits but one could change.

Gray Code: Based on "Reflection"

0000 → 0001 → 0011 → 0010 → 0110 → 0111 → 0101 → 0100
↑ ↓
1000 ← 1001 ← 1011 ← 1010 ← 1110 ← 1111 ← 1101 ← 1100

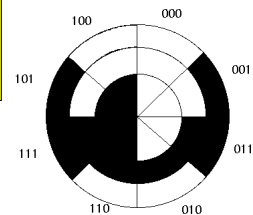
Bonus: The code is cyclic.

Gray code generator in rex

```
gray(0) => [[]];  
gray(n+1) => append(map((X) => [0 | X], gray(n)),  
                    map((X) => [1 | X], reverse(gray(n))));  
  
gray(3) →  
[[0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 1], [0, 1, 1], [0, 1, 0],  
 [1, 1, 0], [1, 1, 1], [1, 0, 1], [1, 0, 0]]
```

Application: Shaft-Position Encoder

1-bit change property
Cyclic encoding:
No "glitches"



Example of a Commercial "Shaft Encoder"



FD-850 SERIES
40915
© J.C. Tech Systems
Low Inertia High Torque

Position information is provided as parallel **Gray Code** or Natural Binary, serial RS422, or 0-10V and/or 4-20mA analog outputs.

Available Configurations
FD-850 Incremental Digital
FD-850A 8 to 12 bit Absolutes

More Encoding Examples

- Encode the set {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}
 - Encoding #1 (BCD: binary-coded decimal)
 - 0000, 0001, 0010, 0011, 0100, 0101, 0110, 0111, 1000, 1001
 - Encoding #2 (7-segment encoding)
 - 1110111, 0010010, 1011101, 1011011, 0111010, 1101011, 1101111, 1010010, 1111111, 1111010

Encoding Examples

- Encoding #2 (7-segment encoding)
 - 1110111, 0010010, 1011101, 1011011, 0111010, 1101011, 1101111, 1010010, 1111111, 1111010



Error-Correcting Codes

Information (bits) 00101101



Unreliable communication
(bits get changed)



00111101

Error Correction



Original Information (bits)

00101101

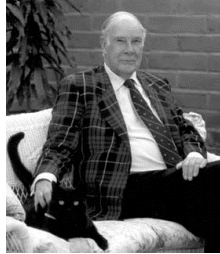
Error-Correcting Codes

- Uses:
 - Communication lines
 - Computer memory
- The trick:
 - Transmit extra bits
 - But how?
 - What if *those* bits are corrupted?

Hamming Code: Used for Error Correction

- The objective:
 - Tolerate bit *flips* due to errors in communication, memory loss, etc.
- The approach:
 - Add redundant bits
 - If one bit is flipped, the original can still be recovered based on the resulting configuration
- The clever part is that the "redundant" bits can also be flipped. The solution is symmetric about any code bit.

Richard W. Hamming, 1915-1998
worked with Shannon at Bell Labs

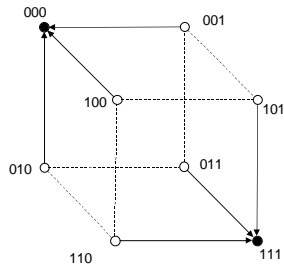


"The purpose of computing is insight, not numbers."

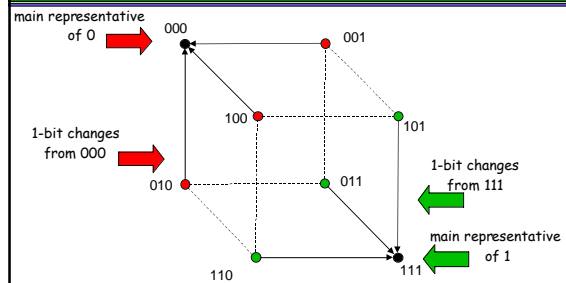
Hamming Code Example

- Encode set {0, 1}
- Attempt 1: Use 1 extra bit:
 - 0 → 00, 1 → 11
 - Not good enough: 01 could be from either 0 or 1.
- Attempt 2: Use 2 extra bits:
 - 0 → 000, 1 → 111
 - OK: 001, 010, 100 all identify with 0
 - 011, 101, 110 all identify with 1

**Hamming Code Visualization:
Hypercube**



**Hamming Code Visualization:
Hypercube**



Efficiency

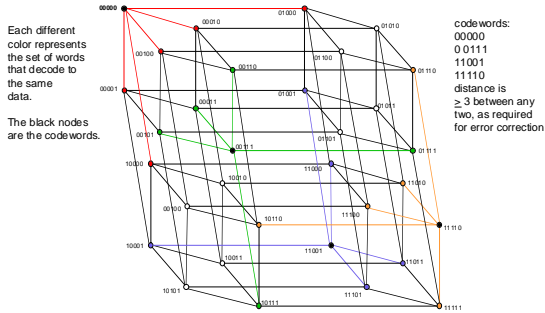
- The Hamming code may look inefficient (3 bits to encode 1 bit).
- However, it gets better as n gets larger.
- Among n bits total, only about $\log_2(n)$ are required to do support the error-correcting part.
- See text for larger example and how to compute Hamming code.

Analysis

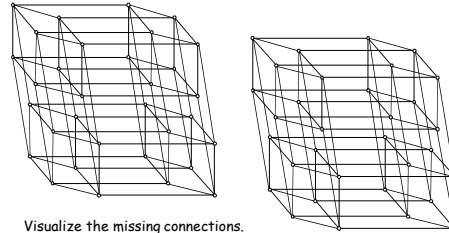
- Let b be the total number of bits in the code.
- Let d be the number of data bits (2^d data words).
- For each data word, we need 1+b combinations for error correction (any of b bits could be flipped).
- Therefore $2^d(1+b)$ combinations in all are required, so $2^b \geq 2^d(1+b)$.


```
size(d) = find(1, d);
find(b, d) = pow(2, b) >= pow(2, d)*(1+b) ? b : find(b+1, d);
```
- `map(size, range(1, 20))`:
[3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25]
- e.g. 1 million code words can be handled with 25 bits.

5-Dimension Hypercube 2 data bits = 4 code words



Partially-Completed 6-Dimensional Hypercube



Visualize the missing connections.
Find places for 8 code words.

7-bit Hamming Code 4 bits of data, 3 bits redundancy

7 bits = 2⁷ combinations total, 2⁴ of which are representatives.

decimal	binary	data	data	data	parity	data	parity	parity
		b ₇	b ₆	b ₅	b ₄	b ₃	b ₂	b ₁
0	00000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	00001	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
2	00010	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
3	00011	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
4	01000	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
5	01001	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
6	01010	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
7	01011	0	1	1	0	1	0	0
8	10000	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
9	10001	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
10	10100	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
11	10101	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
12	11000	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
13	11001	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
14	11100	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
15	11111	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

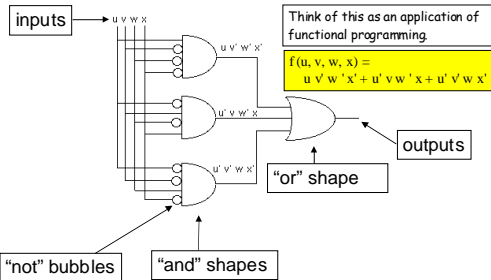
These are the representatives.

Clever checksum technique for identifying which, if any, bit is wrong:
 $[b_7 \oplus b_6 \oplus b_5 \oplus b_4, b_7 \oplus b_6 \oplus b_3 \oplus b_2, b_7 \oplus b_5 \oplus b_3 \oplus b_1]$ as binary
 \oplus is xor.
 indices having 1 in high-order bit indices having 1 in low-order bit

Logic Synthesis

Synthesizing Switching Functions

A "logic circuit" is composed of switching functions



Ways to Specify Switching Functions

- Logic circuit
 - Functional expression
 - SOP form
 - Minterm expansion
 - Truth table
 - Compressed truth table
 - BDD (Binary Decision Diagram)
 - Index number
 - Plot on a hypercube
 - Plot on a Karnaugh map
- These are seen on the previous page.

SOP and Minterm forms

$$f(u, v, w, x) = u'v'w'x' + u'vw'x + u'v'wx'$$

- This is called a SOP (sum-of-products) form. In this case, a "product" means product of variables or complemented variables.
- It is also a minterm form. A minterm is a product that uses *all* of the variables.
- Not *every* SOP is a minterm form.

Truth Table

$$f(u, v, w, x) = u'v'w'x' + u'vw'x + u'v'wx'$$

u	v	w	x	f
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	0

Note the Connection

$$f(u, v, w, x) = u'v'w'x' + u'vw'x + u'v'wx'$$

Read off each primed variable as 0, each unprimed as 1.

u	v	w	x	f
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	0

Note the Connection

$$f(u, v, w, x) = u'v'w'x' + u'vw'x + u'v'wx'$$

The "1" rows of the truth table correspond exactly to the minterms.

u	v	w	x	f
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	0

Shorthands

$$f(u, v, w, x) = u'v'w'x' + u'vw'x + u'v'wx'$$

Show only the "1" rows (be careful)

u	v	w	x	f
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	1

Represent whole table by a set of "minterm numbers":

{2, 5, 8}

Represent whole table by a single numeral: 0010010010000000 = 9344₁₀

These are Equal

- The number of switching functions of n variables.
- The number of ways to assign 0 or 1 to the 2^n rows of the truth table.
- The number of subsets of $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$

These are Equal

- The number of switching functions of n variables.
- The number of ways to assign 0 or 1 to the 2^n rows of the truth table.
- The number of subsets of $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$

• 2^{2^n}

Number of Switching Functions

- 2^{2^n}
- $n = 1: 2^2 = 4$
- $n = 2: 2^4 = 16$
- $n = 3: 2^8 = 256$
- $n = 4: 2^{16} = 65,536$
- $n = 5: 2^{32} = 4,294,967,296$
- $n = 6: 2^{64} = 18,446,744,073,709,551,616$

Each level squares the previous, since

$$2^{2^{n+1}} = 2^{2 \cdot 2^n} = 2^{2^n + 2^n} = (2^{2^n})^2$$

The 16 switching functions of 2 variables

args		Function number															
b	c	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1

and xor or nor iff nand implies

Logic Synthesis: Abstraction to Implementation

- From: Verbal problem description
- To: Implementation as a network of basic switching functions

Logic Synthesis: Stages

- 1 Provide verbal problem description.
- 2 Tabulate description as function on finite sets.
- 3 Encode finite sets into bits.
- 4 Transcribe the encoded tables.
- 5 Split into individual switching functions.
- 6 Realize as a network of basic gates.

Example

- Provide verbal description: Implement a "mod 3 adder using logic gates"
- A definition of mod3 addition:

$$f(a, b) = (a+b)\%3;$$

where $a, b \in \{0, 1, 2\}$

Tabulate definition of function

form 2 table:

$(x+y)\%3$	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

Encode sets into bits

- Set to be encoded: $\{0, 1, 2\}$
- Chosen encoding (among many):
 - $0 \rightarrow 00$
 - $1 \rightarrow 01$
 - $2 \rightarrow 10$

Transcribe the Function to the Encoded Values

Function	0	1	2	Encoding
$(x+y)\%3$	0	1	2	$0 \rightarrow 00$
0	0	1	2	$1 \rightarrow 01$
1	1	2	0	$2 \rightarrow 10$
2	2	0	1	

Encoded Function

uv	00	01	10
00	00	01	10
xy	01	01	10
10	10	00	01

Here first argument becomes uv, second becomes xy.

Split the Encoded Function into individual switching functions

Encoded Function	uv	00	01	10
00	00	0	0	1
xy	01	0	1	0
10	10	1	0	0

Call this f_1 .

uv	00	01	10
00	0	0	1
xy	0	1	0
10	1	0	0

Call this f_2 .

The resulting switching functions generally will only be *partially* specified; some combinations don't occur.

f_1	uv	00	01	10
xy	00	0	0	1
01	0	1	0	
10	1	0	0	

f_2	uv	00	01	10
xy	00	0	1	0
01	1	0	0	
10	0	0	1	

u	v	w	x	f_1	f_2
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	0	1	1	??	??
0	1	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	??	??
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	??	??
1	1	0	0	??	??
1	1	0	1	??	??
1	1	1	0	??	??
1	1	1	1	??	??

As the unspecified values will never occur, we can give the function either value 0 or 1.

For the time being, let's just make them all 0.

Now we can "read off" an expression for each function.

$$f_1(u, v, w, x) = u'v'wx' + u'vw'x + uv'w'x'$$

u	v	w	x	f_1	f_2
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0

