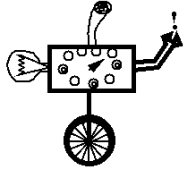


C S 6 0



## Logic

November 5, 2001

## Assignment 8

```
program -> { command }

command -> cs           // clear screen
          | home        // home turtle
          | pu          // lift pen up
          | pd          // put pen down
          | fd number // move forward
          | rt number // right-turn (deg.)
          | repeat number [ program ]
```

## Input: *Tokens*

```
// excerpts from the Logo.java
interface Token
class StringToken implements Token
class LeftBracketToken implements Token
class EOFToken implements Token
...
class LogoTokenizer {
    Token getToken()
    bool nextTokenIsNumber()
    double getNumber()
    ...
}
```

## Output: *Program*

```
// from the Logo.java
class Program {
    void addCommand(Command c)
    void execute()
    ...
}
interface Command { ... }
class PUCCommand implements Command
class FDCCommand implements Command
class RepeatCommand implements Command
...
```

## Why Study Logic?

- A basis for computer hardware
- A basis for computer programming
- A basis for specification
- A basis for verification and testing
  
- In a certain sense

Computing *is* Logic

## Propositional Logic

- Built up from
  - 0 (a.k.a. *false*)
  - 1 (a.k.a. *true*)
  - propositional variables  $p, q, r, x, y, z, \dots$ 
    - These variables may be true or false
  - and, either
    - functions (functional view)
    - connectives (expression view)

## Some Statements

- True Statements:
  
  
  
  
  
- False Statements:

## Truth Tables for and

p	q	and(p, q)
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

and	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Alternate notations:  $p \wedge q$   
 $pq$   
 $p \ \&\& \ q$

## Rex code for and

- 4-case definition:

```
and(0, 0) => 0;  
and(0, 1) => 0;  
and(1, 0) => 0;  
and(1, 1) => 1;
```

- Using convention that cases are sequential:

```
and(1, 1) => 1;  
and(p, q) => 0;
```

## Truth Tables for or

p	q	or(p, q)
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

or	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

Alternate notations:  $p \vee q$   
 $p+q$   
 $p \parallel q$

## Rex code for or

- 4-case definition:

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

- Using convention that cases are sequential:

## Negation

p	not(p)
0	1
1	0

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

Alternate notations:  $\neg p$   
 $p'$   
 $\bar{p}$   
 $!p$

## (Material) Implication

p	q	implies(p,q)
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

imp	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1

Alternate notations:  $p \supset q$   
 $p \Rightarrow q$   
 $p \rightarrow q$

## Rex code for `implies`

- 4-case definition:

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

- Using convention that cases are sequential:

## Expression Forms

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

## Logical Expressions

- Example (These mean the same thing)

$$(a \wedge b) \vee (c \wedge \neg d) \\ ab + cd'$$

- Precedence: not, and, or
- To start, we'll use

$$\wedge \quad \vee \quad \neg \quad \rightarrow \quad \equiv$$

- When we discuss circuits, we'll use

$$\cdot \quad + \quad ' \quad =$$

## Logical Equivalences

- Commutative Rules

$$a \wedge b = b \wedge a$$

$$a \vee b = b \vee a$$

- Associative Rules

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

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

- Distributive Rules

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

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

## More Logical Equivalences

$$(a \wedge 0) = 0$$

$$(a \wedge 1) = a$$

$$(a \vee 0) = a$$

$$(a \vee 1) = 1$$

$$\neg (a \wedge b) = (\neg b \vee \neg a)$$

$$\neg (a \vee b) = (\neg b \wedge \neg a)$$

## Equivalences for Implication

$$(a \rightarrow b) = (\neg a \vee b)$$

$$(a \rightarrow b) = \neg(a \wedge \neg b)$$

$$(0 \rightarrow b) = 1$$

$$(1 \rightarrow b) = b$$

$$(a \rightarrow 0) = \neg a$$

$$(a \rightarrow 1) = 1$$

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

$$((a \rightarrow b) \wedge (b \rightarrow c)) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow c)$$

$$(a \rightarrow b) = (\neg b \rightarrow \neg a)$$

## 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;
  - Check when  $a=0$  and when  $a=1$

## 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.
- At a sufficiently low-level, most information in a digital system is encoded into strings (or tuples) of **bits**.

## Encodings

- Let  $\{0, 1\}^n$  mean the set of all  $n$ -tuples of 0's and 1's, e.g.
- $\{0, 1\}^3 = \{000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111\}$
- An *encoding* of a set  $S$  is a function from  $S$  into  $\{0, 1\}^n$  for some  $n$  (the "number of bits").
  - Function should be *injective* (a.k.a. *one-to-one*)

## 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

## How many bits are enough?

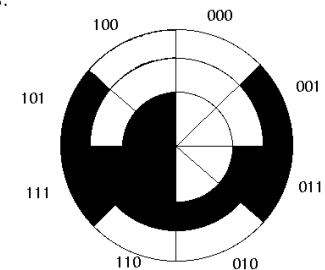
- To encode a set of size  $N$ ,  
 $\lceil \log_2(N) \rceil$  bits are needed, at a minimum
- $\lceil \kappa \rceil$  is the smallest integer  $\geq \kappa$   
(read the “ceiling” of  $\kappa$ ).

## More 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.
  - E.g., shaft-position encoder
  - No glitches!



## Example of a Commercial "Shaft Encoder"



FD-850 SERIES  
807778  
C-12 Lock Output  
Low Cost Plug-in Shaft Encoder

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

## Building Gray Codes

- A one-bit Gray code is easy:
- To get an  $n$ -bit Gray Code:
  - Take two copies of the  $(n-1)$ -bit Gray code
  - Reverse the second copy
  - Prepend 0 to the elements of the first copy
  - Prepend 1 to the elements of the second copy

## Building Gray Codes

## Gray code generator in rex

```
gray(0) => [[]];

gray(n) =>
  prev = gray(n-1),
  append(map((X) => [0|X], prev),
         map((X) => [1|X], reverse(prev)));

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]]
```