ECE6703J

Computer-Aided Design of Integrated Circuits

Computational Boolean Algebra

Outline

- Cofactor and Shannon Expansion
- Combinations of Cofactors
 - Boolean Difference
 - Quantification
 - Quantification Application: Network Repair
- Application of Computational Boolean Algebra: Tautology Checking

Roadmap

- Going forward: Logic synthesis and verification
 - E.g., how to implement a Boolean function by a digital circuit? how to verify two digital circuits implement the same thing?
 - They deal with Boolean stuffs
- Begin with computational Boolean algebra

Computational Boolean Algebra

Motivation

- Background
 - You've done Boolean algebra, hand manipulations, Karnaugh maps to simplify...
 - But this is not sufficient for real designs!
- Example: a multiplier of two 16-bit numbers
 - It has 32 inputs.
 - Its Karnaugh map has $2^{32} = 4,294,967,296$ squares
 - This is too big!
 - There must be a better way...

Need a Computational Approach

- Need algorithmic, computational strategies for Boolean stuff.
 - Need to be able to think of Boolean objects as data structures + operators
- What will we study?
 - Decomposition strategies
 - Ways of decomposing complex functions into simpler pieces.
 - A set of advanced concepts you need to be able to do this.
 - Computational strategies
 - Ways to manipulate Boolean functions by programs.
 - Interesting applications
 - When you have new tools, there are some useful new things to do.

Advanced Boolean Algebra

Useful Analogy to Calculus

- In calculus, you can represent complex functions like e^x using simpler functions.
 - If you can only use $1, x, x^2, x^3, ...$ as the pieces ...
 - ... turns out $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$
- It corresponds to the **Taylor series expansion**.

•
$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

Question: Anything like this for Boolean functions?

Yes. It is called **Shannon Expansion**.

Shannon Expansion

- Proposed by Claude Shannon, the father of information theory.
- Suppose we have a function $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$.
- Define a new function if we set one of the $x_i = const$
 - $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_i = 1, ..., x_n)$
 - $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_i = 0, ..., x_n)$
- Example: $F(x, y, z) = xy + x\bar{z} + y(\bar{x}z + \bar{z})$
 - $\bullet F(x = 1, y, z) = y + \overline{z} + y\overline{z}$
 - $\bullet F(x, y = 0, z) = x\overline{z}$

Note: this is a new function that no longer depends on the variable x_i .

Shannon Expansion: Cofactors

- Turns out to be an incredibly useful idea.
- It is also known as **Shannon cofactor** with respect to x_i .
 - We write $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_i = 1, ..., x_n)$ as F_{x_i} . We call it positive cofactor.
 - We write $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_i = 0, ..., x_n)$ as $F_{\overline{x_i}}$. We call it negative cofactor.
 - Often, just write them as $F(x_i = 1)$ and $F(x_i = 0)$.
- Why are these useful functions to get from F?

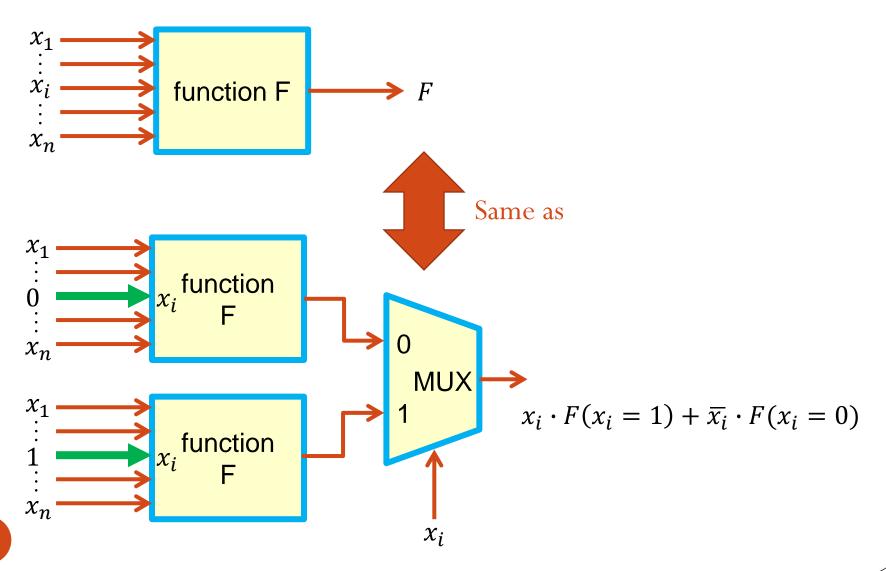
Shannon Expansion Theorem

- Why we care: **Shannon Expansion Theorem**
- Given any Boolean function $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ and pick any x_i in F's inputs, F can be represented as

$$F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = x_i \cdot F(x_i = 1) + \overline{x_i} \cdot F(x_i = 0)$$

- Proof:
 - Consider any $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n$
 - If $x_i = 1$:
 - If $x_i = 0$:

Shannon Expansion: Another View



10

Shannon Expansion: Multiple Variables

- Can do it on more than one variable, too.
 - Just keep on applying the theorem on each variable.
- Example: Expand F(x, y, z, w) around x and y
 - First, expand around x: $F(x, y, z, w) = x \cdot F(x = 1) + \bar{x} \cdot F(x = 0)$
 - Then, expand cofactors F(x = 1) and F(x = 0) around y: $F(x = 1) = y \cdot F(x = 1, y = 1) + \bar{y} \cdot F(x = 1, y = 0)$ $F(x = 0) = y \cdot F(x = 0, y = 1) + \bar{y} \cdot F(x = 0, y = 0)$
 - Final result:

$$F(x, y, z, w) = xy \cdot F(x = 1, y = 1) + x\bar{y} \cdot F(x = 1, y = 0) + \bar{x}y \cdot F(x = 0, y = 1) + \bar{x}\bar{y} \cdot F(x = 0, y = 0)$$

Shannon Cofactors: Multiple Variables

- There is notation for these multiple-variable expansions as well.
- Shannon cofactor with respect to x_i and x_i :
 - Write $F(x_1, ..., x_i = 1, ..., x_j = 0, ..., x_n)$ as $F_{x_i \overline{x_i}}$.
 - The same for any number of variables $x_i, x_j, x_k, ...$
 - Notice that order does **not** matter: $(F_x)_y = (F_y)_x = F_{xy}$.
- For the previous example:

$$F(x, y, z, w) = xy \cdot F_{xy} + x\bar{y} \cdot F_{x\bar{y}} + \bar{x}y \cdot F_{\bar{x}y} + \bar{x}\bar{y} \cdot F_{\bar{x}\bar{y}}$$

- Again, remember: each of the cofactors is a **function**, not a number.
 - $F_{xy} = F(x = 1, y = 1, z, w)$ is a Boolean function of z and w.

Next Question: Properties of Cofactors

- What *else* can you do with cofactors?
- Suppose you have 2 functions F(X) and G(X), where $X = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$.
- Suppose you make a new function H, from F and G, say...
 - \bullet $H = \overline{F}$
 - $H = F \cdot G$, i.e., $H(X) = F(X) \cdot G(X)$
 - H = F + G, i.e., H(X) = F(X) + G(X)
 - $H = F \oplus G$, i.e., $H(X) = F(X) \oplus G(X)$
- Question: can you tell anything about H's cofactors from those of F and G?
 - $(F \cdot G)_{x} = \text{what}? (\overline{F})_{x} = \text{what}?$

Nice Properties of Cofactors

- Cofactors of F and G tell you everything you need to know.
- Complements
 - $(\overline{F})_{\chi} = \overline{(F_{\chi})}$
 - In English: cofactor of complement is complement of cofactor.
- Binary Boolean operators
 - $(F \cdot G)_{x} = F_{x} \cdot G_{x}$ cofactor of AND is AND of cofactors
 - $(F+G)_x = F_x + G_x$ cofactor of OR is OR of cofactors
 - $(F \oplus G)_{x} = F_{x} \oplus G_{x}$ cofactor of XOR is XOR of cofactors
- Very useful! Can often help in getting cofactors of complex formulas.

Outline

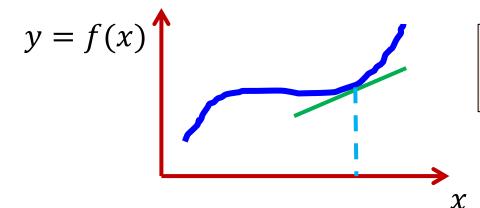
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Combinations of Cofactors

- Now consider **operations** on cofactors themselves.
- Suppose we have F(X), and get F_{χ} and $F_{\overline{\chi}}$.
 - $F_{\chi} \oplus F_{\overline{\chi}} = ?$
 - $F_x \cdot F_{\overline{x}} = ?$
 - $F_{\chi} + F_{\overline{\chi}} = ?$
- Turns out these are all useful **new** functions.
 - Indeed, they even have names!
- Next: let's look at these interesting, useful new functions.

Calculus Revisited: Derivatives

- Remember how you defined derivatives?
 - Suppose you have y = f(x).



Defined as slope of curve at point x.

• How to compute?

•
$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{f(x+\Delta) - f(x)}{\Delta}$$

Boolean Derivatives

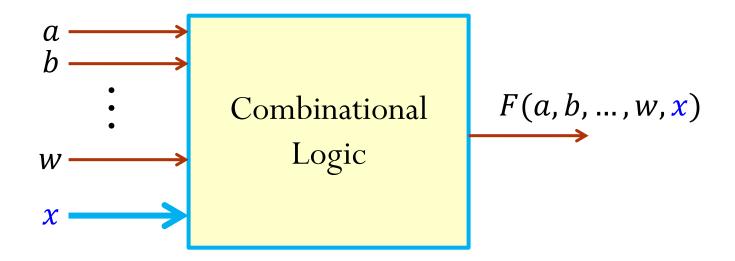
- So, do Boolean functions have "derivatives"?
 - Actually, yes. Trick is how to define them...
- Basic idea
 - For real-valued f(x), $\frac{df}{dx}$ tells how f changes when x changes.
 - For 0,1-valued Boolean function, we cannot change \boldsymbol{x} by small delta.
 - Can only change $0 \leftarrow \rightarrow 1$, but can still ask how f changes with $x \dots$
 - For Boolean function f(x), define $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f_x \oplus f_{\overline{x}}$

Boolean Derivatives

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f_x \oplus f_{\overline{x}}$$

- Compare value of f when x = 0 against when x = 1.
- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 1$ if and only if f(x = 0) is different from f(x = 1).
- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ is also known as **Boolean difference**.

Interpreting the Boolean Difference



- What does $\partial F(a, b, ..., w, x)/\partial x = 1$ mean?
 - If you apply a pattern of inputs (a, b, ..., w) that makes $\partial F/\partial x = 1$, then any change in x will force a change in output F.

Boolean Difference: Gate-Level View

- Consider simple examples for $\partial f/\partial x$.
- Inverter: $f = \bar{x}$
 - $f_x = 0$, $f_{\overline{x}} = 1$, $\partial f / \partial x = f_x \oplus f_{\overline{x}} = 1$
- AND: f = xy
 - $f_x = y$, $f_{\overline{x}} = 0$, $\partial f / \partial x = f_x \oplus f_{\overline{x}} = y$
- OR: f = x + y
 - $f_x = 1$, $f_{\overline{x}} = y$, $\partial f / \partial x = f_x \oplus f_{\overline{x}} = \overline{y}$
- XOR: $f = x \oplus y$
 - $f_x = \overline{y}$, $f_{\overline{x}} = y$, $\partial f / \partial x = f_x \oplus f_{\overline{x}} = 1$

Meaning: When $\partial f/\partial x = 1$, then f changes if x changes!

Boolean Difference

- Boolean difference also behaves sort of like regular derivatives...
- Can do on multiple vars. Order of variables does not matter $(\partial f/\partial x)/\partial y = (\partial f/\partial y)/\partial x$
- Derivative of XOR is XOR of derivatives

$$\frac{\partial (f \oplus g)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \oplus \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$$

- Like addition
- If function f is constant (f = 1 or f = 0 for all inputs), then $\partial f/\partial x = 0$ for any x.

Boolean Difference

- But some things are just more complex
 - Derivatives of $(f \cdot g)$ and (f + g) do not work the same...

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f \bullet g) = \left[f \bullet \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right] \oplus \left[g \bullet \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right] \oplus \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \bullet \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f+g) = \left[\overline{f} \bullet \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right] \oplus \left[\overline{g} \bullet \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right] \oplus \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \bullet \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right]$$

- Why?
 - Because AND and OR on Boolean values do not always behave like MULTIPLICATION and ADDITION on real numbers.

Boolean Difference: Example

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
a & \longrightarrow \\
b & \longrightarrow \\
c_{in} & \longrightarrow \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{cccc}
& 1-\text{Bit Full} & \longrightarrow & s & s = a \oplus b \oplus c_{in} \\
& \longrightarrow & c_{out} & c_{out} = ab + ac_{in} + bc_{in}
\end{array}$$

- When is $\partial c_{out}/\partial c_{in} = 1$?
 - $c_{out}(c_{in} = 1) = a + b$
 - $c_{out}(c_{in} = 0) = ab$
 - $\partial c_{out}/\partial c_{in} = c_{out}(c_{in} = 1) \oplus c_{out}(c_{in} = 0)$ = $(a + b) \oplus (ab) = a \oplus b$
- Make sense?
 - $a \oplus b = 1 \Longrightarrow a \neq b$

Boolean Difference: Summary

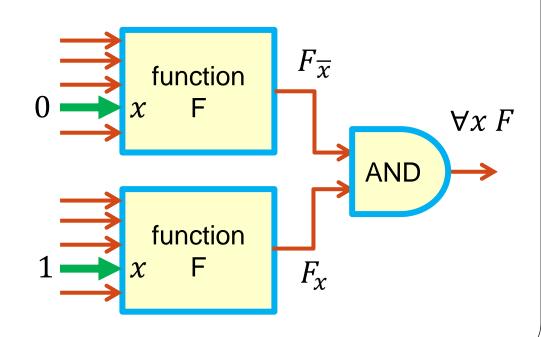
- ullet Boolean difference explains under what situations an inputchange can cause output-change for a Boolean function f.
- $\partial f/\partial x$ is another Boolean function, but it does not depend on x!
 - It cannot, because it is made out of cofactors with respect to x, which eliminate all the x and \bar{x} terms by setting them to constants.
- Very useful! (we will see more, later...)

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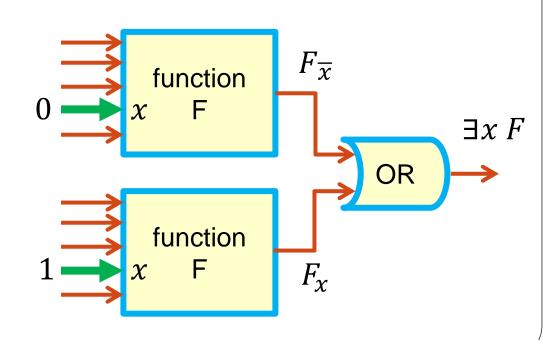
AND of F_{χ} and $F_{\bar{\chi}}$: Universal Quantification

- AND the cofactors: $F_{x_i} \cdot F_{\overline{x_i}}$
 - Name: **Universal Quantification** of function F with respect to variable x_i .
 - Represented as: $(\forall x_i F)(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, ..., x_n)$
- $(\forall x_i F)$ is a new function
 - It does not depend on $x_i!$
 - "∀" sign is the "for all" symbol from logic.

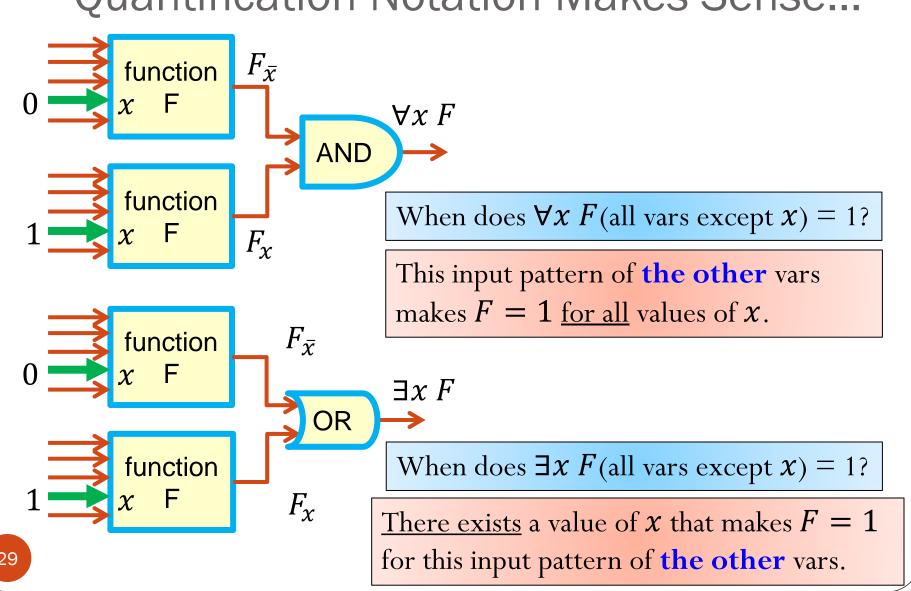


OR of F_{χ} and $F_{\bar{\chi}}$: Existential Quantification

- OR the cofactors: $F_{x_i} + F_{\overline{x_i}}$
 - Name: Existential Quantification of function F with respect to variable x_i .
 - Represented as: $(\exists x_i \ F)(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, ..., x_n)$
- $(\exists x_i F)$ is a new function
 - It does not depend on $x_i!$
 - "∃" sign is the "there exists" symbol from logic.



Quantification Notation Makes Sense...



Quantification: Gate-Level View

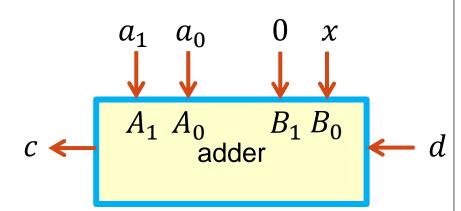
- Consider simple examples for $(\forall x \ f)$ and $(\exists x \ f)$.
- Inverter: $f = \bar{x}$
 - $f_x = 0$, $f_{\overline{x}} = 1$, $(\forall x f) = f_x f_{\overline{x}} = 0$, $(\exists x f) = f_x + f_{\overline{x}} = 1$
- AND: f = xy
 - $f_x = y$, $f_{\overline{x}} = 0$, $(\forall x f) = f_x f_{\overline{x}} = 0$, $(\exists x f) = f_x + f_{\overline{x}} = y$
- OR: f = x + y
 - $f_x = 1$, $f_{\overline{x}} = y$, $(\forall x f) = f_x f_{\overline{x}} = y$, $(\exists x f) = f_x + f_{\overline{x}} = 1$
- XOR: $f = x \oplus y$
 - $f_x = \overline{y}$, $f_{\overline{x}} = y$, $(\forall x f) = f_x f_{\overline{x}} = 0$, $(\exists x f) = f_x + f_{\overline{x}} = 1$

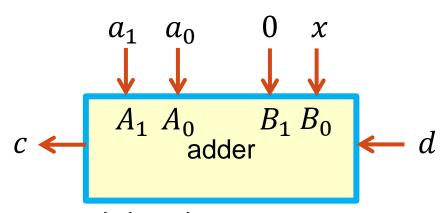
Make sense?

Extends to More Variables in Obvious Way

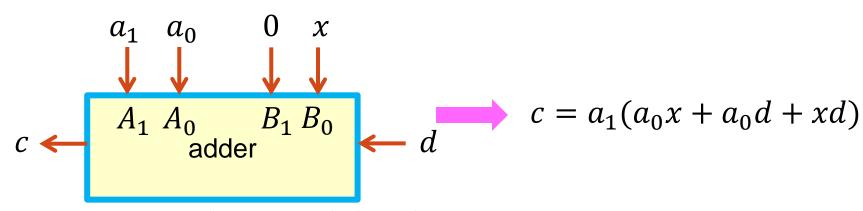
- Like Boolean difference, can do with respect to more than 1 variable
 - Suppose we have F(x, y, z, w).
 - $(\forall xy \ F)(z, w) = (\forall x \ (\forall y \ F)) = F_{xy} \cdot F_{x\overline{y}} \cdot F_{\overline{x}y} \cdot F_{\overline{x}\overline{y}}$
 - $(\exists xy \ F)(z, w) = (\exists x \ (\exists y \ F)) = F_{xy} + F_{x\overline{y}} + F_{\overline{x}y} + F_{\overline{x}y}$

- Consider the following circuit, it adds x = 0 or x = 1 to a 2-bit number $a_1 a_0$.
 - It's just a 2-bit adder, but instead of b_1b_0 for the second operand, it is just 0x.
 - ullet It has a carry-in d and produces a carry-out c.
 - Hence, c is function of a_1 , a_0 , d and x.
- Questions:
 - What is $(\forall a_1 a_0 c)(x, d)$?
 - What is $(\exists a_1 a_0 c)(x, d)$?





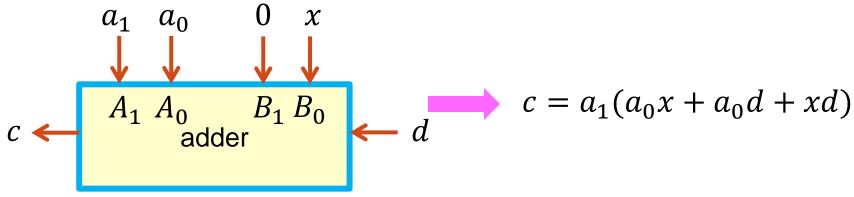
- What is $(\forall a_1 a_0 c)(x, d)$?
 - A function of only x and d. x and d that let this function be 1 should make carry c = 1 for all values of inputs a_1 and a_0 .
- What is $(\exists a_1 a_0 c)(x, d)$?
 - A function of only x and d. x and d that let this function be 1 should make carry c = 1 for **some value** of inputs a_1 and a_0 , i.e., there exists some a_1 and a_0 that for this x and d, c = 1.



- Compute $(\forall a_1 a_0 c)(x, d)$
 - $c_{a_1 a_0} \cdot c_{a_1 \bar{a}_0} \cdot c_{\bar{a}_1 a_0} \cdot c_{\bar{a}_1 \bar{a}_0}$ = 0
- Compute $(\exists a_1 a_0 c)(x, d)$
 - $c_{a_1 a_0} + c_{a_1 \bar{a}_0} + c_{\bar{a}_1 a_0} + c_{\bar{a}_1 \bar{a}_0}$ = x + d

Need four cofactors:

- $\bullet \ c_{a_1 a_0} = x + d$
- $c_{a_1\bar{a}_0} = xd$
- $c_{\bar{a}_1 a_0} = 0$
- $c_{\bar{a}_1\bar{a}_0} = 0$



- $\bullet (\forall a_1 a_0 c)(x, d) = 0$
 - Make sense: No values of x and d that make c=1 independent of a_1 and a_0
- $(\exists a_1 a_0 c)(x, d) = x + d$
 - Make sense: If at least one of x and d = 1, then there exist a_1 and a_0 that let c = 1.

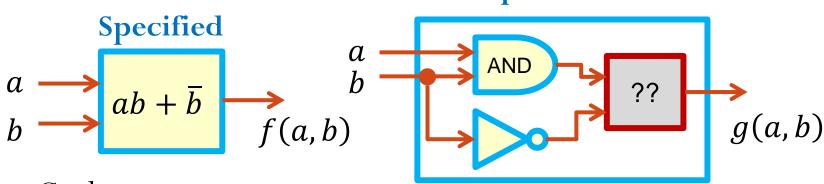
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Quantification Application: Network Repair

- Suppose that some one specified a logic block for you to implement: $f(a,b) = ab + \overline{b}$
 - ...but you implemented it **wrong**: in particular, you got ONE gate wrong.

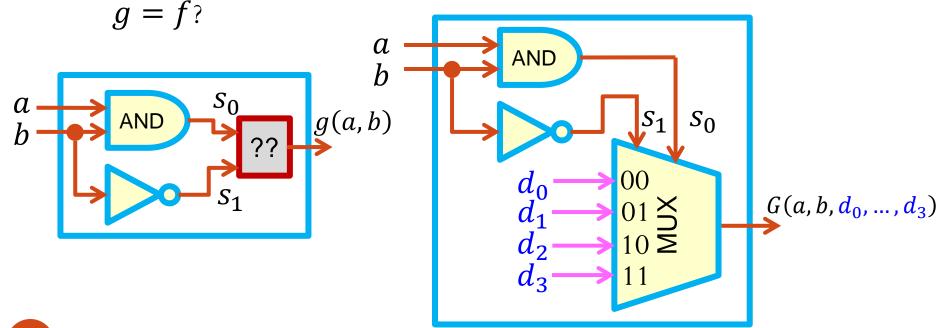
 Implemented



- Goal
 - Can we deduce how precisely to **change this gate** to restore correct function?
 - Go with this very trivial test case to see how mechanics work...

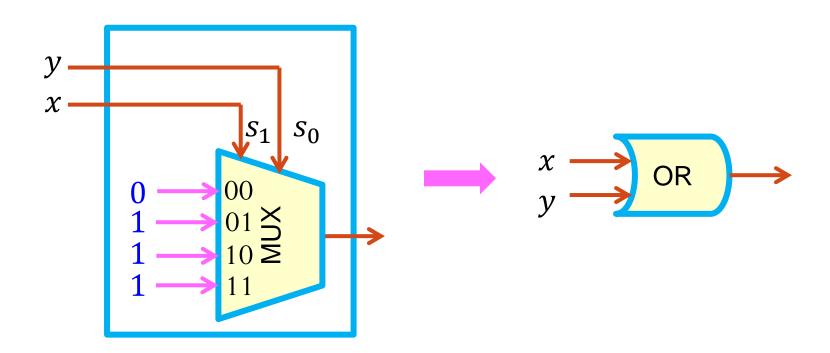
Network Repair

- Clever trick: Replace our suspect gate by a 4-to-1 MUX with 4 arbitrary new variables d_0 , d_1 , d_2 , d_3 .
 - By cleverly assigning values to d_0 , d_1 , d_2 , d_3 , we can **fake** any gate.
 - Question is: what are the right values of d_i 's so g is repaired, i.e.,



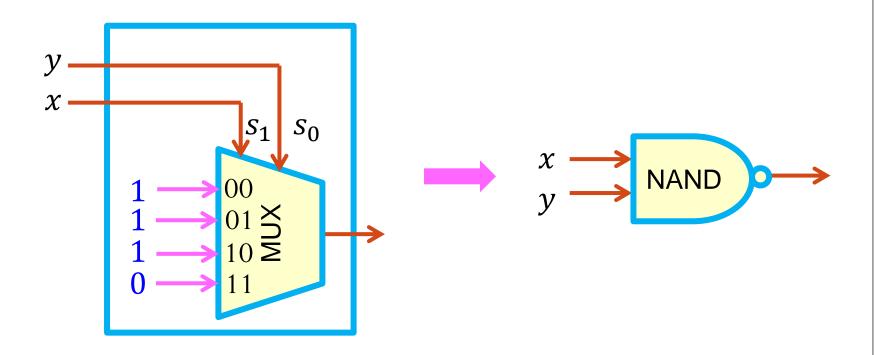
Aside: Faking a Gate with a MUX

• You can do **any** function of 2 variables with one 4-to-1 multiplexor (MUX).



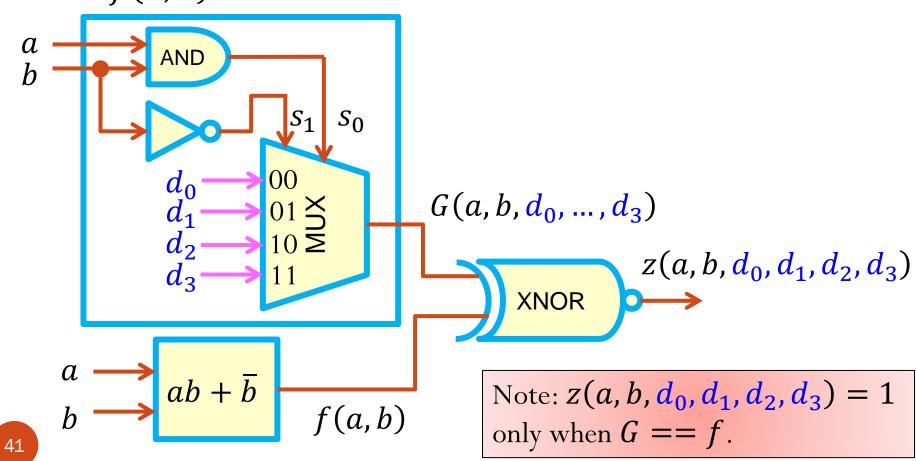
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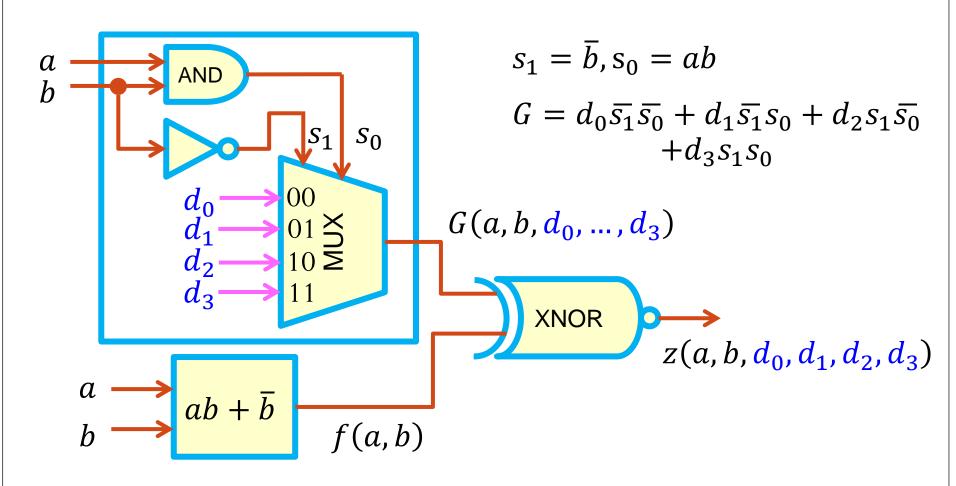
Network Repair: Using Quantification

• Next trick: XNOR $G(a, b, d_0, ..., d_3)$ with the specification f(a, b).



Using Quantification

- What do we need?
 - Values of d_0 , d_1 , d_2 , d_3 that make z = 1 for all possible values of inputs a, b.
 - They are values of d_0 , d_1 , d_2 , d_3 that let $(\forall ab\ z)(d_0,d_1,d_2,d_3)=1$
 - The above equation is **universal quantification** of function Z with respect to a, b!
 - Any pattern of (d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3) that makes $(\forall ab\ z)(d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3) = 1$ will do the repair!



- As a result
 - $G(a, b, d_0, ..., d_3) = d_0 \bar{a}b + d_1 ab + d_2 \bar{b}$
 - $f(a,b) = ab + \overline{b}$
 - $z(a, b, d_0, \dots, d_3) = G(a, b, d_0, \dots, d_3) \overline{\bigoplus} f(a, b)$
- We want to get

$$(\forall ab \ z)(d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3)$$

= $z_{\bar{a}\bar{b}} \cdot z_{\bar{a}b} \cdot z_{a\bar{b}} \cdot z_{ab}$

• To simplify the computation, we will apply the relation:

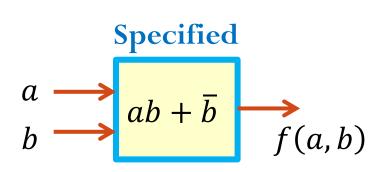
$$z_{ab} = G_{ab} \overline{\bigoplus} f_{ab}$$

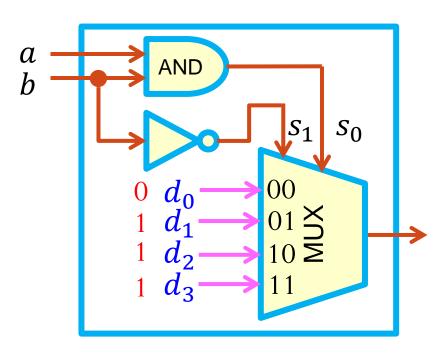
- $G(a, b, d_0, ..., d_3) = d_0 \bar{a}b + d_1 ab + d_2 \bar{b}$
- $f(a,b) = ab + \overline{b}$
- $z(a, b, d_0, \dots, d_3) = G(a, b, d_0, \dots, d_3) \overline{\bigoplus} f(a, b)$
- $z_{\bar{a}\bar{b}} = G_{\bar{a}\bar{b}} \overline{\bigoplus} f_{\bar{a}\bar{b}} = d_2 \overline{\bigoplus} 1 = d_2$
- $z_{\bar{a}b} = G_{\bar{a}b} \overline{\bigoplus} f_{\bar{a}b} = d_0 \overline{\bigoplus} 0 = \overline{d_0}$
- $z_{a\bar{b}} = G_{a\bar{b}} \overline{\bigoplus} f_{a\bar{b}} = d_2 \overline{\bigoplus} 1 = d_2$
- $z_{ab} = G_{ab} \overline{\bigoplus} f_{ab} = d_1 \overline{\bigoplus} 1 = d_1$
- $(\forall ab \ z)(d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3) = z_{\bar{a}\bar{b}} \cdot z_{\bar{a}b} \cdot z_{a\bar{b}} \cdot z_{ab} = \overline{d_0}d_1d_2$

- Finally, we obtain $(\forall ab\ z)(d_0,d_1,d_2,d_3)=\overline{d_0}d_1d_2$
- To repair, we should find values of d_0 , d_1 , d_2 , d_3 so that $(\forall ab\ z)(d_0,d_1,d_2,d_3)=1$
 - Not hard: $d_0 = 0$, $d_1 = 1$, $d_2 = 1$, $d_3 = X(\text{don't care})$

Network Repair

- Does $d_0 = 0$, $d_1 = 1$, $d_2 = 1$, $d_3 = X$ work?
 - Case 1: $d_0 = 0$, $d_1 = 1$, $d_2 = 1$, $d_3 = 1$

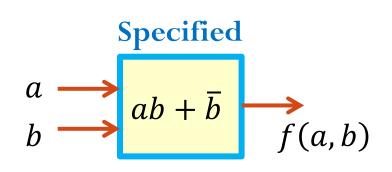


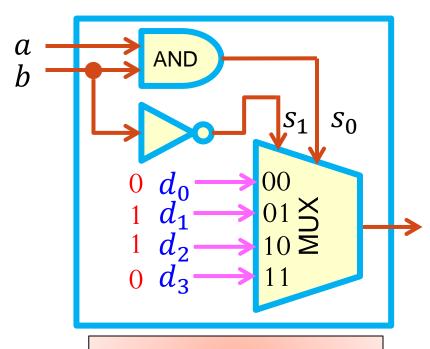


MUX is an OR gate. Expected!

Network Repair

- Does $d_0 = 0$, $d_1 = 1$, $d_2 = 1$, $d_3 = X$ work?
 - Case 2: $d_0 = 0$, $d_1 = 1$, $d_2 = 1$, $d_3 = 0$





MUX is an XOR gate.
Unexpected but works!

Network Repair: Summary

- This example is **tiny**...
 - But in a real example, you have a big network 100 inputs, 50,000 gates.
 - When the design doesn't work, it is a major hassle to go through the design to fix it.
 - This gives a mechanical procedure to answer: Can we change 1 gate to repair?
- What we haven't seen yet: **Computation strategy** to mechanically find inputs to make

$$(\forall ab \ z)(d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3) = 1$$

- This computation is called **Boolean Satisfiability (SAT)**.
- We will see how to solve Boolean SAT problem efficiently later.

Outline

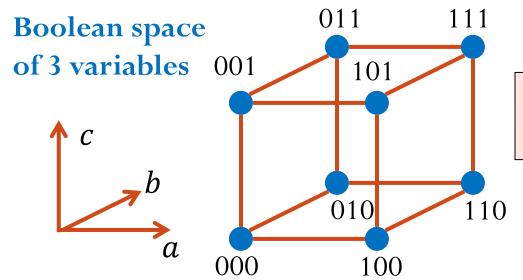
- Cofactor and Shannon Expansion
- Combinations of Cofactors
 - Boolean Difference
 - Quantification
 - Quantification Application: Network Repair
- Application of Computational Boolean Algebra: Tautology Checking

Important Example of Computation: Tautology Checking

- Tautology: a Boolean function is 1 for every input.
- We are going to look at how to do tautology checking, i.e. whether a Boolean function f is 1 for every input.
- Why study this problem?
 - To show a **representation**, i.e., a data structure, for a Boolean function f.
 - To show an important **computational strategy**: recursion
- How <u>hard</u> is this problem?
 - Very, very hard!
 - What happens if you are given a sum-of-product expression with 50 variables and 800 products?

Start with: Representation

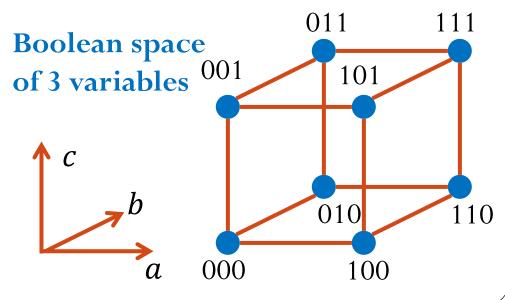
- We use a simple representation scheme for functions
 - Represent a function as a set of OR'ed product terms, i.e., a sum of products (SOP).
- Each product term is also called a ${\tt cube}$, e.g., abc is a cube.
 - Why call it cube?



How does f as a product terms look like?

Properties of Cubes

- In what follows, we refer to **product term** as **cube**.
- For each variable x, x and \bar{x} do not appear simultaneously.
 - However, for each variable x, it is possible that none of x and \bar{x} appears in the cube.
 - If **for each** variable x, one of x and \bar{x} appears in the cube. The cube is a **minterm**.
- The number of vertices in a cube is 2^k .



Positional Cube Notation (PCN)

- We represent a cube using <u>Positional Cube Notation (PCN)</u>.
 - One slot per variable.
 - In slot for variable x:
 - put "1", if cube has x in it;
 - put "0", if cube has \bar{x} in it;
 - put "-", if cube has no x or \bar{x} in it.
- Example: In a Boolean space on three variables a, b, c a b c
 - \bar{b} : [0]
 - $a\bar{c}$: [1 0]

Positional Cube Notation (PCN)

- To represent cube in program, we need to encode "1", "0", and "-".
 - We need at least two bits to encode three values.
 - One encoding: "01" to encode "1"; "10" to encode "0"; "11" to encode "-".
- Example: In a Boolean space on three variables *a*, *b*, *c*

PCN Cube List

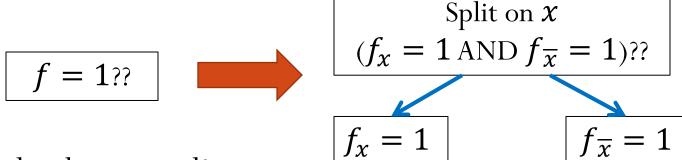
- A sum-of-products (SOP) expression of a Boolean function is also called a cover of cubes.
 - We present a cover of cubes using a list of cubes in positional cube notation.
- Example: $f = \bar{a} + bc + ab$

Tautology Checking

- How do we approach tautology checking as a computation?
 - ullet Input: a list of cube in PCN representing an SOP expression of f
 - Output: Yes, when f is always 1; No, when f is not always 1.
- Cofactors to rescue
 - Great result: f is a tautology if and only if f_{χ} and $f_{\bar{\chi}}$ are both tautologies.
 - This makes sense:
 - If function f = 1, then cofactors both obviously = 1.
 - If both cofactors = 1, then $f = x \cdot f_x + \bar{x} \cdot f_{\bar{x}} = x + \bar{x} = 1$

Recursive Tautology Checking

- Suggests a recursive computation strategy:
 - If you cannot tell immediately that f is a tautology, go try to see if each cofactor is a tautology.



- What else do we need?
 - Selection rules: which x is good to pick to split on?
 - Termination rules: how do we know when to stop splitting, so we can answer that the function at this node of tree is tautology or not?
 - Mechanics: how hard is it to actually obtain the cofactors?

Recursive Cofactoring

- Do mechanics first (easy!). For each cube in the list:
 - If you want **positive** cofactor w.r.t. var x, look at x slot in each cube:
 - [... 10 ...] \rightarrow just remove this cube from list, since it is a term with \bar{x} .
 - [... 01 ...] \rightarrow just make this slot 11 (don't care), since we will strike x from the product term.
 - [... 11 ...] \rightarrow just leave this alone, since this term doesn't have any x/\bar{x} in it.

Recursive Cofactoring

- Do mechanics first (easy!). For each cube in the list:
 - If you want **negative** cofactor w.r.t. var x, look at x slot in each cube:
 - [... 01 ...] \rightarrow just remove this cube from list, since it is a term with x.
 - [... 10 ...] \rightarrow just make this slot 11 (don't care), since we will strike \bar{x} from the product term.
 - [... 11 ...] \rightarrow just leave this alone, since this term doesn't have any x/\bar{x} in it.

Recursive Cofactoring: Example

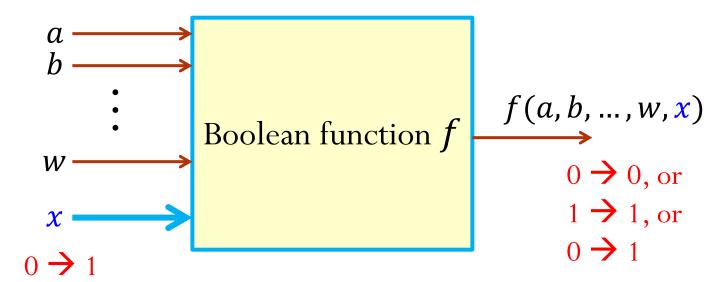
	$f = acd + b\bar{c}$	f_a	$f_{\overline{c}}$
acd	[01 11 01 01]	[11 11 01 01]	
$bar{c}$	[11 01 10 11]	[11 01 10 11]	[11 01 11 11]

Unate Functions

- Selection / termination, another trick: **Unate functions**
 - Special class of Boolean functions
 - f is **positive unate** in var x: if changing $x \ 0 \rightarrow 1$ but keeping other variables constant (no matter what values they are), keeps f constant or makes f change $0 \rightarrow 1$.
 - f is negative unate in var x: if changing $x \ 0 \rightarrow 1$ but keeping other variables constant (no matter what values they are), keeps f constant or makes f change $1 \rightarrow 0$.
 - f is unate in var x if f is either positive unate in var x or negative unate in var x.
- E.g., f = ab is positive unate in a
- E.g., $f = \bar{a}b + a\bar{b}$ is not unate in a.

Unate Functions

- Analogous to monotonic continuous functions.
 - A monotonically non-decreasing function: whenever $x_2 \ge x_1$, we have $f(x_2) \ge f(x_1)$.
- Example, for a Boolean function f positive unate in x:



Checking Unateness

- How to check unateness?
 - Not easy if *f* is represented using truth table.
 - Very easy if f is represented as an SOP.
- Suppose that f is represented as an SOP. Then f is unate in var x if ...
 - For all the cubes that contain var \mathcal{X} , \mathcal{X} appears in exactly **one** polarity, either all true, or all complemented.
 - E.g., $f = ab + a\bar{c}d + \bar{c}d\bar{e}$ is unate in a, b, c, d, e.
 - A <u>sufficient</u> condition only!! If not satisfied, may be either unate or not unate.
 - E.g., $f = xy + \bar{x}y + \bar{x}y\bar{z} + \bar{z}$ is unate in y, z, but may or may NOT be unate in x. (Actually, it is unate in x!)

Unate Functions

- If <u>for each</u> var x, f is either positive or negative unate in that var x, then f is said to be **unate**.
 - If <u>for each</u> var x, f is positive unate in that var x, then f is said to be positive unate.
 - If <u>for each</u> var x, f is negative unate in that var x, then f is said to be <u>negative unate</u>.
- Function that is not unate is called **binate**.
- E.g., $f = ab + a\bar{c}d + \bar{c}d\bar{e}$ is unate.
- E.g., $f = x\bar{y} + \bar{x}y$ is NOT unate.

Unate Cube-List

- A sufficient condition on cube list: A <u>cube-list</u> is unate if <u>for each</u> var \mathcal{X} and <u>for all</u> the cubes that contain var \mathcal{X} , \mathcal{X} only appears in one polarity, not both.
- Easier to see if draw the cube-list vertically.

$$a + bc + ac$$
 $a + \overline{b}c + bc$
 $a = [01 \ 11 \ 11]$ $a = [01 \ 11 \ 11]$
 $bc = [11 \ 01 \ 01]$ $bc = [11 \ 01 \ 01]$
 $bc = [01 \ 11 \ 01]$

Unate cube list

Cannot tell unateness

• A unate cube-list corresponds to a unate function

Using Unate Functions in Tautology Checking

- It is <u>very easy</u> to check a <u>unate</u> cube-list for <u>tautology</u>:
 - Unate cube-list for f is tautology iff it contains a cube whose elements are all don't care: [11 11 ... 11].
 - Question: what exactly is [11 11 ... 11] as a product term?
- This result actually makes sense...
 - If without [11 11 ... 11], then the SOP looks like $a + a\overline{b} + \overline{b}c$
 - It will be 0 for value which lets the variable be 0 (i.e., a = 0, b = 1, c = 0).

Termination Rules Using Unateness

- If we have a **unate** cube-list, we can check for tautology directly.
 - Rule 1: The function is a **tautology** if cube-list has an all-don't-care cube [11 11 ... 11].
 - Rule 2: The function is **NOT tautology** if cube-list does not have any all-don't-care cube [11 11 ... 11].
- There are some more possible termination rules. For example:
 - Rule 3: The function is **tautology** if cube list has **single var cube** that appears in <u>both polarities</u>.
 - Why? function = $x + \bar{x} + \text{stuff} = 1$

Selection Rule

- We can't use easy termination rules <u>unless</u> cube-list is <u>unate</u>
- Selection rule...? Pick splitting var to make unate cofactors
 - Strategy: pick "most non-unate (binate)" var as split var
 - Pick binate var with the **most** product terms dependent on it
 - Why? A product independent of a var is duplicated twice
 - If a tie, pick var with minimum | #true_var #compl_var |
 - Why? Left subtree and right subtree are balanced

```
      x
      y
      z
      w

      01
      01
      01
      01
      x: binate, in 4 cubes, | true-compl | = |2-2|=0

      10
      11
      01
      01
      y: unate

      10
      11
      11
      10
      x: unate

      01
      01
      11
      01
      w: binate, in 4 cubes, | true-compl | = |3-1|=2
```

Recursive Tautology Checking: Algorithm

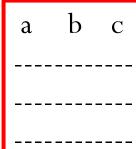
```
tautology(f represented as cubelist) {
  /* check if we can terminate recursion */
  if (f is unate) {
    if (f has all-don't-care cube) return 1
    else return 0
  else if (any other termination rules, like rule 3, work?) {
    return the appropriate value (1 or 0)
  else { /* cannot tell -- find splitting variable */
    \mathbf{x} = \text{most binate variable in } \mathbf{f}
    return ( tautology(f(x=1)) && tautology(f(x=0)))
```

Recursive Tautology Checking Example

• Example: $f = ab + ac + a\bar{b}\bar{c} + \bar{a}$

- *f* unate?
 - No
- Which var to pick?
 - Most binate var: *a*

- f_a unate?
 - No
 - Need to further split



 $f_{\bar{a}}$

- ---
- 11 11 1

- $f_{\bar{a}}$ unate?
 - Yes!
- Tautology?
 - Yes!
 - Terminate!

Recursive Tautology Checking Example

- f_a unate?
 - No
- Which var to pick?
 - Either *b* or *c*
 - For example, we pick *b*

 f_{ab}

- a b c 11 11 11 11 11 01
- f_{ab} unate?
 - Yes!
- Tautology?
 - Yes! (contain all-don't-care cube)
 - Terminate!

 $f_{a\bar{b}}$

b c

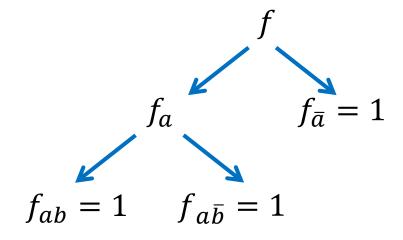
11 11 01

11 11 10

- $f_{a\bar{b}}$ unate?
 - No
- Can we terminate?
 - Yes, due to Rule 3

Recursive Tautology Checking Example

• The recursion tree we finally get is



- ullet The tree has tautologies at all leaves, so f is tautology.
- Note: if any leaf is NOT tautology, f is NOT!

Recursive Tautology Checking Summary

- This strategy is so general and useful it has a name: **Unate Recursive Paradigm (URP)**.
- Again, we see that **cofactors** are important and useful.
- Representations (data structures) for Boolean functions are critical.
 - Truth tables, Karnaugh maps, Boolean expressions cannot be manipulated by software.
 - See one real representation: **positional cube notation**