Hierarchical Organization of Variant Logic



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Abstract In modern logic, various systems have been proposed extending classical Boolean logic & switching theory. Such logic frameworks include multiple-valued logic, probability logic, fuzzy logic, module logic, quantum logic and various other frameworks. Although these extensions have been applied to many applications in mathematics, in science and in engineering, all extensions to Boolean logic invalidates at least one of the six fundamental rules of Boolean logic shown in L1 to L6. We propose a new framework of logic, variant logic, extending Boolean logic whilst satisfying the six fundamental rules (L1–L6). By defining the Variant–Invariant behaviour of logical operations, this framework can be constructed using four types of general operators. Main results of the chapter are summarized in Theorems 8-10, respectively. To show significant differences between classical logic and new variant logic, invariant properties of this hierarchical organization are discussed. Simplest cases of one-variable conditions are illustrated. Variant logic can provide the necessary framework to support analysis and description of Cellular Automata, Fractal Theory, Chaos Theory and other systems dealing with complexity. Such applications of this framework will be explored in future papers.

Keywords Switching theory · Boolean/multiple valued/probability/fuzzy logic Variant/invariant property · Hierarchical organization · Variant logic

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1 Laws of Logic Systems

1.1 Laws in Classical Logic Systems

Classical logic identifies a class of formal logic that are characterized by a number of properties [1-17].

Definition 1 For any logic system if all CL1–CL5 are satisfied, then it is a classical logic system. The five properties of classical logic (CL1–CL5) are listed as follows:

CL1: Law of the excluded middle and double negative elimination

CL2: Law of non-contradiction

CL3: Monotonicity and idempotency of entailment

CL4: Commutativity of conjunction

CL5: De Morgan duality

Examples of such classical logic systems include works of philosophy and religion (Aristotle's Organon; Nagarjuna's tetralemma; and Avicenna's temporal modal logic) as well as foundational logic systems such as reformulations by George Bool and Gottlob Frege [4–17]. These properties can be rewritten as simplified equations describing basic properties of a logic system using characteristics of the five classical properties. The following equations (L1–L6) describe such a system.

L1: $P \cup P = P$ Idempotency L2: $P \cap P = P$... L3: $\neg P \cup P = P$ Excluded Middle L4: $\neg P \cap P = P$... L5: $\neg \neg P = P$ Double Negative Elimination L6: $P, P \rightarrow Q$

The set of equations can be applied in the analysis of modern logic systems to determine if they are all satisfied. The equations will be defined as canonical properties and a logic system satisfying all six properties will be defined as a canonical system. If any logic system does not, they are categorized as non-canonical.

1.2 Current Logic Systems

Many modern logic systems cannot satisfy the six canonical properties. Three-valued logic proposed by Luckasiewicz 1920 can satisfy L3–L6, cannot satisfy L1–L4. Probability logic proposed by Reichenbach 1949 can satisfy L5–L6, cannot satisfy L1–L4. Fuzzy logic proposed by Zadeh 1965 satisfy L1, L2, L5, L6, cannot satisfy L3–L4. Since they cannot satisfy canonical properties, they are all non-canonical logic systems [1–22].

2 Truth Valued Representation in Boolean Logic Systems

For any *n*-variable Boolean logic system, it is natural to establish 2^n states. Under either selected or not selected operation, it can be building up a truth table for a given Boolean function. Collecting all possible selections, a full truth table is constructed in 2^n columns and 2^{2^n} rows in presentation. We can list this table as follows:

$0 \le I < 2^n$	$2^{n} - 1$	 Ι	 1	0
	111	 $I_{n-1}I_iI_0$	 001	000
$0 \le J < 2^{2^n}$				
0	0	 0	 0	0
1	0	 0	 0	1
2	0	 0	 1	0
J	$J_{2^{n}-1}$	 J_I	 J_1	J_0
$2^{2^n} - 2$	1	 1	 1	0
$2^{2^n} - 1$	1	 1	 1	1

where there are three parameters: $i, I, J : 0 \le i < n, 0 \le I < 2^n, 0 \le J < 2^{2^n}$ corresponding to variable, state and function numbers, respectively. Under such conditions, for any J, it is convenient to use Karnaugh map or relevant logic tools to construct the given Boolean function in combination [6–17].

3 Cellular Automata Representations

Cellular Automata—CA uses a different mechanism [23–35] to represent a given function. In a one-dimensional form of CA, a *N*-length binary sequence is

$$X = X_{N-1}X_{N-2} \dots X_j \dots X_1X_0, 0 \le j < N, X_j \in \{0, 1\} = B_2$$

For a given function f, the output sequence is defined as follows: $f: X \to Y, Y = f(X)$,

$$Y = Y_{N-1}Y_{N-2} \dots Y_j \dots Y_1Y_0, 0 \leq j < N, Y_j \in B_2$$

It is feasible to use a moving window with a fixed length n to separate X into a local kernel in length n. The kernel can be presented as

$$[\ldots X_j \ldots] = x_{n-1} \ldots x_i \ldots x_0, x_i \in B_2.$$

For a given function f

$$y = f(x_{n-1} \dots x_i \dots x_0)$$

It is necessary to assign a certain position i in the kernel for special care to associated with j position of both sequences. We have

$$y = f(x_{n-1} \dots x_i \dots x_0) = f(\dots X_j \dots) == Y_j$$

or $X_j = X_j^{t-1}, Y_j = X_j^t$ i.e.

$$f: X_j^{t-1} \to X_j^t, X_j^{t-1}, X_j^t \in B_2$$

4 Variant Construction

4.1 Four Variation Forms

Considering $f: X_j^{t-1} \to X_j^t$ for any function of Boolean logic system to analyse their variation properties [36–40], it is normal to have following proposition.

Proposition 1 For any $f: X_j^{t-1} \to X_j^t$ transformation, four forms of transforming classes are identified: $TA: 0 \to 0, TB: 0 \to 1, TC: 1 \to 0, TD: 1 \to 1$.

Proof X_i, Y_i are 0-1 variables, only four classes listed are possible.

Definition 2 Four transforming forms are corresponding to following sets: TA: Invariant class for 0 value, TB: Variant class for 0 value, TC: Variant class for 1 value, TD: Invariant class for 1 value.

Under such definition, the following proposition can be established.

Proposition 2 Using four classes of transformation, four variant operations are defined.

Type	$X_j \rightarrow$	Y_j	Truth	Variant	Invariant	False
TA	0	0	0	0	1	1
TB	0	1	1	1	0	0
TC	1	0	0	1	0	1
TD	1	1	1	0	1	0

Proof Truth (False) values are determined by $Y_j(\bar{Y}_j)$ and Variant(Invariant) values are determined by {TB, TC} for 1(0) and {TA, TD} for 0(1) respectively.

Theorem 1 In { Truth, Variant, Invariant, False} groups, only two pairs of groups: {Truth, False} and {Variant, Invariant} satisfy L1–L6 to form a canonic logic system.

Proof Both groups are composed of 0-1 variables, in addition, Truth/False, Variant/Invariant are formed complement relationships. Other combinations contain common parts, it is not possible for them to satisfy logic canonic conditions L1–L6.

Definition 3 Sequential number of binary is defined as SL coding to remember Y. Shao and Leibniz contribution [41–49] on binary logic.

Definition 4 The operator $BN : J \rightarrow B$ converts an integer to its binary representation. The operator $DC : B \rightarrow J$ converts a binary number to its decimal representation.

Definition 5 The SL coding scheme is an ordering of binary table outputs $T : B_2^{2^n} \to J$. An element $J_I \in SL$ at position I, where $0 \leq I < 2^n$ represents function T_I such that the binary representation of T_I is defined as

$$BN(J) = T_{2^n-1}[J_{2^n-1}] \dots T_I[J_I] \dots T_0[J_0]$$

For any *n* variable structure, *J* is composed of 2^n bits to represent $0 \le J < 2^{2^n}$ numbers.

Definition 6 A G coding scheme is defined as an ordering of binary table outputs T: $B_2^{2^n} \rightarrow J$. An element $J_I \in SL$ at position I where $0 \leq I < 2^n$ represents function T_I such that the binary representation of T_I is defined as

$$G = \{\forall J | T(J), 0 \leq J < 2^{2^n}\};$$

 $T(J) = T_{2^{n}-1}[Y(J_{2^{n}-1})] \dots T_{I}[Y(J_{I})] \dots T_{0}[Y(J_{0})], 0 \leq I < 2^{n}$

Where $\{Y(J_I), 0 \leq I < 2^n\}$ are 2^{2^n} length 0-1 vectors, $Y(J_{2^n-1}) \neq \ldots \neq Y(J_I) \neq \ldots \neq Y(J_0)$, respectively.

Under G coding scheme, ordering number is an integer sequence with 2^{2^n} positions. Different transformations will make this sequence extremely complex. In convenient to do representation, a two-dimensional W coding scheme is proposed.

Definition 7 A W coding scheme is defined as an ordering pair of binary table outputs $T : B_2^{2^n} \to \langle J^1 | J^0 \rangle$. Each component is composed of 2^{n-1} bits in representation:

$$\langle J^{1}|J^{0} \rangle = T_{2^{n}-1}[Y(J_{2^{n}-1})] \dots T_{I}[Y(J_{I})] \dots T_{0}[Y(J_{0})], 0 \leqslant I < 2^{n}$$
$$J^{0} = \{\forall I | BN(J_{I}mod2^{n-1}), 0 \leq I < 2^{n-1} \}$$
$$J^{1} = \{\forall I | BN(J_{I}mod2^{n-1}), 2^{n-1} \leq I < 2^{n} \}$$

Under this construction, a G coding scheme is transformed into a W coding scheme to represent two-dimensional structure for different permutation results. In general, J^0 represents lower 2^{n-1} bits and J^1 represents higher 2^{n-1} bits, respectively. A general structure of W coding is a $2^{2^{n-1}} \times 2^{2^{n-1}}$ matrix shown in the following figure.

$\langle 0 0\rangle$	 $\langle 0 J^0 angle$	 $\langle 0 2^{2^{n-1}}-1\rangle$
		•••
$\langle J^1 0 angle$	 $\langle J^1 J^0 angle$	 $\langle J^1 2^{2^{n-1}} - 1 \rangle$
$\frac{\ldots}{\langle 2^{2^{n-1}}-1 0\rangle}$	 $\frac{\ldots}{\langle 2^{2^{n-1}}-1 J^0\rangle}$	 $\frac{\dots}{\langle 2^{2^{n-1}} - 1 2^{2^{n-1}} - 1 \rangle}$

 $0 \le J^0, J^1 < 2^{2^{n-1}} \{ \langle J^1 | J^0 \rangle \}$: 2D Space for 2^{2^n} Functions

4.2 Complement and Variant Operators

Definition 8 In B_2^n , the generalized complement Y^Q , $Q \in B_2^{2^n}$ of a variable *Y* is defined to be the element obtained from complementing the components of *Y* according to the value of corresponding component of *Q*; *Y*₁ is complemented or un-complemented if *Q*₁ is 0 or 1, respectively, where *Y*₁ and *Q*₁ designate the Ith component of *Y* and *Q*.

For example, given B_2^4 for $Q = \{0101, 0110\}$ are as follows:

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

To apply Q operator on 2^n meta vectors, a vector family can be generated.

Proposition 3 In $B_2^{2^n}$, generalized complement operator $Q \in B_2^{2^n}$ has 2^{2^n} different cases.

Proof Q is a 2^n bits vector, each position can be selected as 0 or 1, so a total of selections is equal to 2^{2^n} .

Definition 9 For 2^n meta states composed of vector Ψ , the *i*th vector $\Psi(i)$, $0 \le i < n$ has 2^n bits. Four vectors: $\{\mathbf{0}, \Psi(i), \neg \Psi(i), \mathbf{1}\}$ in 2^n bits can be selected as Q operators. This special form of Q type operations is defined as QV operation.

Proposition 4 For a QV operator, $QV \in \{0, \Psi(i), \neg \Psi(i), 1\}$, four QV vectors provide following complement results respectively in transformation:

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{0}: False \ Operator \\ \textbf{1}: Truth \ Operator \\ \Psi(i): Invariant \ Operator \\ \neg \Psi(i): Variant \ Operator \end{array}$

Proof 1 operator keeps original truth table values; 0 operator reverses all values; $\Psi(i)$ operator makes invariant condition and $\neg \Psi(i)$ operator generates variant property.

Proposition 5 Undertaken QV operations, 2^{n+1} cases are generated as a complement variant group.

Proof Only $0 \le i < n$ selected, each position have two selections associated with *i* plus two constant vectors. So a total of $2 \times 2^n = 2^{n+1}$ cases can be generated.

Definition 10 For 2^n meta vectors *Y*, its *I*th component $Y(I) \in B_2^{2^n}$, Y(I) has 2^{2^n} bits. A permutation operator *P* makes the *I*th component into P(I)th component for $\forall I, 0 \leq I < 2^n$, respectively.

Proposition 6 Undertaken P operation to 2^n meta vectors in Y, a total of 2^n ! permutations can be generated.

Proof P operator is equal to permutation on 2^n integers. This generates a symmetric group contained 2^n ! members.

Proposition 7 Undertaken Q and P operators in Y, a total of $2^{2^n} \cdot 2^n!$ cases can be created. This creates a Complement Permutation Structure—CPS.

Proof Q and P operators are independent of each other. Their results can be multiplied together.

Proposition 8 Undertaken QV and P operators in Y, a total of $2^{n+1} \cdot 2^n!$ cases can be created. This creates a Complement Variant Structure—CVS.

Proof QV and *P* operators are independent each other. Their results can be multiplied together.

4.3 Other Global Coding Schemes

Under QV + P and Q + P operations, more coding schemes can be defined.

Definition 11 The F coding scheme is defined as a subset W. For any W code, if any two meta state can be paired, such that $\forall j_1, j_1 - 2^{n-1} = j_0, 0 \le j_0 < 2^{n-1} \le j_1 < 2^n, I_{j_1} = I_{j_0}$ indicate state I_{j_1} be I_{j_0} 's complement.

F coding provides restricted pair conditions to the structure. Its corresponding forms are as follows:

$$J^{1} j\text{-th meta state} \rightleftharpoons J^{0} j\text{-th mate state}$$

$$\uparrow F \text{ coding base} \qquad \uparrow X$$

$$\overrightarrow{X} \rightleftharpoons \overrightarrow{X}$$

Definition 12 A coding scheme satisfies general conjugate condition if $\forall I_{j_0} \in I_{J^0}$, for the selected position $i, \forall a_i \in I_{j_0}, a_i = 0, 0 \le i < n$.

In other words, the general conjugate condition makes selected position on lower part in 0 valued and higher part in 1-valued, respectively.

Definition 13 The C coding scheme is defined as a set of the F coding whereby $\forall I_{j_0} \in I_{J^0}$, for the selected position $i, \forall a_i \in I_{j_0}, a_i = 0, 0 \le i < n$.

C coding provides more strong restrictions to separate all 0-valued meta states in lower part and all 1-valued meta states in higher part.

$$J^{1} j\text{-th mate state} \iff J^{0} j\text{-th} \qquad \text{F coding}$$

$$\uparrow \qquad C \text{ coding base} \qquad \uparrow \qquad +$$

$$\forall x_{i} \in J^{1}, x_{i} = 1 \qquad \rightleftharpoons \qquad \forall x_{i} \in J^{0}, x_{j} = 0 \text{ General Conjugate}$$

Some coding samples are listed in following table:

No.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	Normal sequential number
SL	111	110	101	100	011	010	001	000	Ordering sequence
Truth	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	G: $J = 30$; W: $\langle 1 12 \rangle$
Variant	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	G: $J = 210$; W: $\langle 13 2 \rangle$
W	111	110	010	011	001	000	100	101	General Conjugate, without pairs
Truth	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	G: $J = 58$; W: $\langle 3 10 \rangle$
Variant	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	G: $J = 202$; W: $\langle 12 10 \rangle$
F	111	110	101	100	000	001	010	011	Meta states in pairs
Truth	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	G: $J = 23$; F: $\langle 1 7 \rangle$
Variant	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	G: $J = 212$; F: $\langle 13 4 \rangle$
C	111	110	010	011	000	001	101	100	General Conjugate + pairs
Truth	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	G: $J = 54$; C: $\langle 3 5 \rangle$
Variant	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	G: $J = 197$; C: $\langle 12 5 \rangle$

4.4 Sizes of Variant Spaces

Definition 14 Under QV + P operations, W, F and C coding schemes are defined as WV, FV and CV coding schemes, respectively.

Theorem 2 For a W coding scheme of n variables, it has a total of $2^{2^n} \cdot 2^n!$ cases distinguished.

Theorem 3 For a WV coding scheme of n variables, it has a total of $2^{n+1} \cdot 2^n!$ cases distinguished.

Theorem 4 For a *F* coding scheme of *n* variables, it has a total of $2^{2^n} \cdot 2^{2^{n-1}} \cdot 2^{n-1}! = 2^{2^n(1+1/2)} \cdot 2^{n-1}!$ cases distinguished.

Theorem 5 For a FV coding scheme of n variables, it has a total of $2^{n+1} \cdot 2^{2^{n-1}} \cdot 2^{n-1}! = 2^{2^n+n+1} \cdot 2^{n-1}!$ cases distinguished.

Theorem 6 For a C coding scheme of n variables, it has a total of $2^{2^n} \cdot 2^{n-1}!$ cases *distinguished.*

Theorem 7 For a CV coding scheme of n variables, it has a total of $2^{n+1} \cdot 2^{n-1}$! *cases distinguished.*

Using definitions of different coding schemes, shown in various sequences of one variable cases in the following table:

Function	Truth	W coding	Variant	W coding	Invariant	WV coding	False	WV coding
0	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$	1	$\langle 0 1\rangle$	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$
\bar{x}	1	$\langle 0 1\rangle$	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$
x	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$	1	$\langle 0 1\rangle$
1	3	$\langle 1 1 \rangle$	1	$\langle 0 1 \rangle$	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$
0	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$	1	$\langle 0 1\rangle$	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$
\bar{x}	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$	1	$\langle 0 1\rangle$
x	1	$\langle 0 1\rangle$	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$
1	3	$\langle 1 1\rangle$	2	$\langle 1 0\rangle$	1	$\langle 0 1 \rangle$	0	$\langle 0 0\rangle$

using 2D W coding to arrange 1D sequences into 2D matrices:

	Truth	Variant		Truth	Variant
	$0 \bar{x}$	x 1		0 <i>x</i>	<i>x</i> 0
Original	x 1	$0 \bar{x}$	Permutation:	\bar{x} 1	$1 \bar{x}$
Original:	$\bar{x} 0$	1 <i>x</i>	r ennutation.	\bar{x} 1	$1 \bar{x}$
	1 x	$\bar{x} 0$		0 <i>x</i>	<i>x</i> 0
	Invariant	False		Invariant	False

5 Invariant Properties of Variant Constructions

It is interesting to notice that under QV operations, there are 2n + 2 vectors available to generate QVS. This makes significant differences among classical logic and Variant logic construction [50–56]. The main results of this chapter are summarized in the following theorems.

Theorem 8 (Four Invariant Points for One Variable Condition) For a W coding scheme under one variable condition, four points of the structure correspond to four functions: $\{0, x, \bar{x}, 1\}$, respectively.

Proof When n = 1, four vectors are available for any Q or QV operations.

Theorem 9 (Two Invariant Points for Truth and False Schemes) For any n > 1, W(WV) coding schemes, for any truth or false representation, only full 0 or full 1 valued vectors can be invariant undertaken P operations.

Proof Undertaken P operation, if there is any not full 0 or 1 vectors, its binary number sequences will be changed.

Theorem 10 (Four Invariant Points for C Coding Scheme) For any C (CV) coding scheme in variant construction, four corner positions of 2D function matrix have extreme invariant properties.

Proof Under C(CV) coding scheme, four functions: $\{0, x, \bar{x}, 1\}$ correspond as follows: $x = \langle 0|0\rangle; 0 = \langle 2^{2^{n-1}} - 1|0\rangle; 1 = \langle 0|2^{2^{n-1}} - 1\rangle; \bar{x} = \langle 2^{2^{n-1}} - 1|2^{2^{n-1}} - 1\rangle.$ Four positions are all corner points of the variant matrix.

6 Comparison

It is convenient to list numeric parameters to compare the different coding schemes in the following table.

Var	State		ExPower	SL	W coding	WV coding		
n	2^n	2^{2^n}	$2^{n}!$	1	$2^{2^n}2^n!$	$2^{n+1}2^{n}!$	$2^{2^n}2^{n-1}!$	$2^{n+1}2^{n-1}!$
1	2	4	2	1	8	8	4	4
2	4	16	24	1	384	192	32	32
3	8	256	40320	1	10321920	645120	6144	384
4	16	216	16!	1	2 ¹⁶ 16!	32 · 16!	$2^{16} \cdot 8!$	32 · 8!
5	32	2^{32}	32!	1	$2^{32}32!$	64 · 32!	$2^{32} \cdot 16!$	64 · 16!

where we use Var: variable number; State: state number; Function: function number; ExPower: exponent power products; SL: SL coding number; W coding: W coding number under Q + P operations; WV coding: WV coding number under QV + Poperations; C coding: C coding number under Q + P operations; CV coding: CV coding number under QV + P operations in the table, respectively.

7 Conclusion

In this chapter, variant logic has been proposed to extend truth table representation that describes variant properties of binary sequences. This extension is required to ex-

pand traditional Boolean logic framework to a new variation space. Under two types of vector operations, the new space has $2^{2^n} 2^n!$ times more complexity than traditional Boolean function space with 2^{2^n} members. In order to manage this complexity, the framework has proposed a series of global coding schemes encoded through symmetric properties representing the elements in a matrix as a 2D map. Under this two-dimensional model, coding mechanism can be constructed and their invariant properties can be discussed.

Boolean function space represents a core invariant functional space and the newly expanded space broadens the descriptions and coding schemes used. Thus, a wide area of variation coding can be developed. In essence, the space of binary sequence functions can be thought of as a keyboard with 2^{2^n} notes. Each note contains a complete Boolean function set and its own representation. The set of notes can be represented using a coding scheme that orders the notes in a particular sequence (SL and G codes) or their 2D maps (W, F and C codes).

Under W coding representation mechanism, 2D matrix is suitable to visualize permutation sequences of n variable logic structures. Using invariant properties, classical logic and variant logic can be clearly identified. Further work on dynamic behaviours of complex dynamic systems can be explored. This chapter outlines the construction and notation of variant logic only. Future papers will show that the proposed scheme, with its foundation in symmetry, will have definite uses for predicting convergent and chaotic behaviour in dynamic binary systems such as the analysis of cellular automata rules using various visual methodologies.

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