



# Propositional Logic

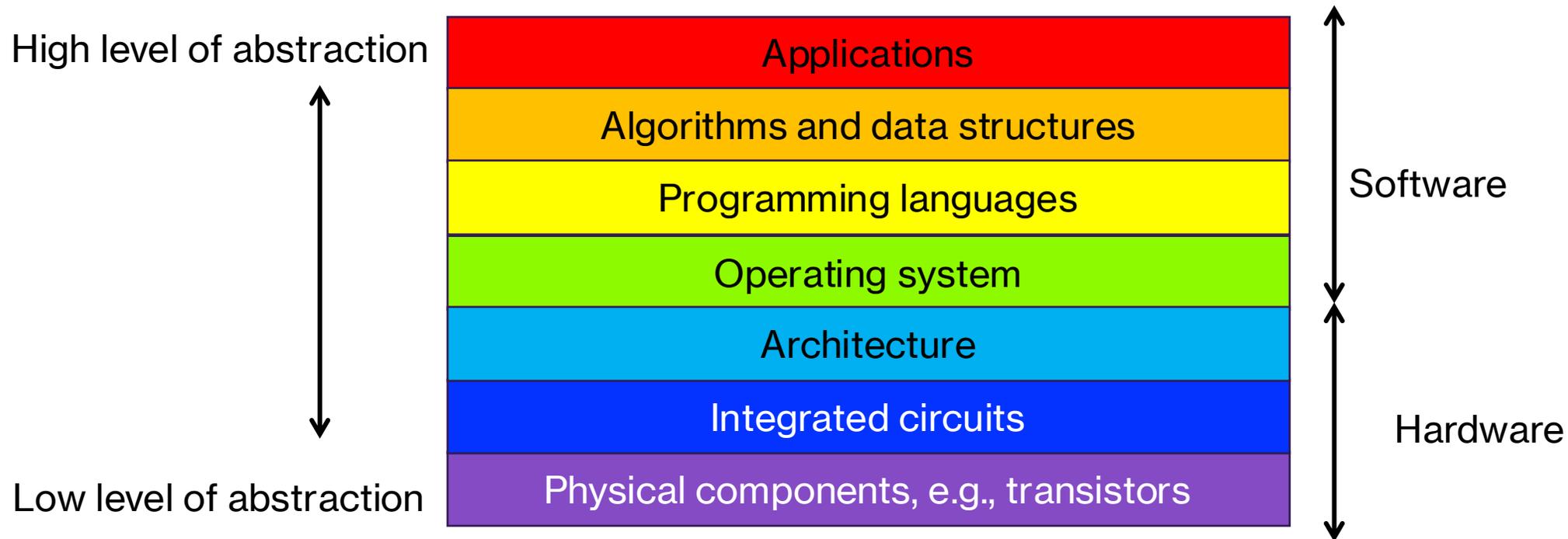
CS51 – Spring 2026

<https://xkcd.com/1153/>

[https://www.explainxkcd.com/wiki/index.php/1153:\\_Proof](https://www.explainxkcd.com/wiki/index.php/1153:_Proof)

# Abstraction

- Critical technique for managing complexity. We will simplify and generalize information by hiding details when they are not important. This allows us to cultivate a higher level of understanding without being overwhelmed with insignificant details.



# Proofs

- **Proofs** are mathematical techniques that will allow us to demonstrate the truth of a claim, starting with certain assumptions and using logical reasoning to reach the conclusion while leaving no doubt to us or the reader of our proof.
  - For example, the claim might have to do about the correctness or efficiency of an algorithm or circuit we designed to solve a problem.
- Proofs have both practical implications as they reduce bugs and theoretical implications as they give us insights into structural aspects of problems we try to tackle.
- Proofs demonstrate that a statement is true for *all possible cases*. This contrasts “good-enough” experimental approaches where we just try a few cases.

# Logic

- We are familiar with the concept of truth and falsity, both through Boolean algebra and working with circuits.
- A lot of what we have been learning falls under **Logic**, the study of truth and falsity, of theorems, and proofs.
- Logic is the foundation of all computer science. It's behind the programs we write and behind the gates we connect to build circuits.
- Many types of logic. We will focus on **propositional logic**.

# Propositions

- A **proposition** is a statement that is true or not. For example,
  - “CS51 has an enrolment of 47 students.”
  - “Pomona College is the founding college of the Claremont Colleges Consortium.”
- For a particular proposition  $p$ , the **truth value** of  $p$  is its truth or falsity. The truth values for those statements are false and true, respectively.
- Propositional logic is the study of propositions, including how to formulate statements as propositions, how to evaluate whether a proposition is true or false, and how to manipulate propositions.

# Atomic propositions

- An **atomic proposition** is a proposition that is conceptually indivisible. It is also known as a **Boolean variable**. For example:
  - “Pomona College’s mascot is Cecil the Sagehen.”
- **Practice Time:** Can you come up with an example of an atomic proposition?

# Compound propositions

- A **compound proposition** is a proposition that is built up out of atomic propositions  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  that are connected with **logical connectives**.
- It is also called a **Boolean expression** or **Boolean function/formula** over  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$ . For example:
  - Claremont is a city in Southern California *or* Portland is a city in Southern California.
- **Practice Time:** What logical connectives have we seen so far?

# Logical connectives we have seen: $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \oplus$

- **Logical connectives** are the glue that creates the more complicated compound propositions from simpler propositions. We have already seen four:
  - Negation [not,  $\neg$ ]. The proposition  $\neg p$  (“not  $p$ ,” called the negation of the proposition  $p$ ) is true when the proposition  $p$  is false, and is false when  $p$  is true.
  - Conjunction [and,  $\wedge$ ]. The proposition  $p \wedge q$  (“ $p$  and  $q$ ,” the conjunction of the propositions  $p$  and  $q$ ) is true when both propositions  $p$  and  $q$  are true and is false when one or both of  $p$  or  $q$  is false.
  - Disjunction [or,  $\vee$ ]. The proposition  $p \vee q$  (“ $p$  or  $q$ ,” the disjunction of the propositions  $p$  and  $q$ ) is true when one or both propositions  $p$  or  $q$  is true and is false when both  $p$  and  $q$  are false.
  - Exclusive or [xor,  $\oplus$ ]. The proposition  $p \oplus q$  is true when one of  $p$  or  $q$  is true, but not both. Thus  $p \oplus q$  is false when both  $p$  and  $q$  are true, and when both  $p$  and  $q$  are false.
- **Practice Time:** Can you come up with an example of compound proposition?

# New logical connective: $\Rightarrow$

- Implication [if/then,  $\Rightarrow$ ]. It expresses a familiar idea from everyday life, though one that's not quite captured by a single English word.
- Consider the sentence "If you tell me how much money you make, then I'll tell you how much I make."
- The proposition  $p \Rightarrow q$  is true when the truth of  $p$  implies the truth of  $q$ . In other words,  $p \Rightarrow q$  is true unless  $p$  is true and  $q$  is false.
- In the implication  $p \Rightarrow q$ , the proposition  $p$  is called the *antecedent* or the *hypothesis*, and the proposition  $q$  is called the *consequent* or the *conclusion*.
- Implication doesn't mean that  $p$  caused  $q$ . Only that  $p$  being true implies that  $q$  is true.
  - Or in other words,  $p$  being true lets us conclude that  $q$  is true.

$p$	$q$	$p \Rightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$

# Practice Time: truth values of implications

- What will the following propositions evaluate to?
  - $1 + 1 = 2$  implies that  $2 + 3 = 5$ .
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  implies that  $2 + 2 = 4$ .
  - $2 + 2 = 4$  implies that  $2 + 1 = 5$ .
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  implies that  $2 + 3 = 6$ .

$p$	$q$	$p \Rightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$

# Answer: truth values of implications

- What will the following propositions evaluate to?
  - $1 + 1 = 2$  implies that  $2 + 3 = 5$ . (“True implies True” is true.)
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  implies that  $2 + 2 = 4$ . (“False implies True” is true.)
  - $2 + 2 = 4$  implies that  $2 + 1 = 5$ . (“True implies False” is false.)
    - This is false because  $2 + 2 = 4$  is true, but  $2 + 1 = 5$  is false.
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  implies that  $2 + 3 = 6$ . (“False implies False” is true.)

$p$	$q$	$p \Rightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$

# New logical connective: $\Leftrightarrow$

- If and only if [ $\Leftrightarrow$ ]: The proposition  $p \Leftrightarrow q$  (“ $p$  if and only if  $q$ ”) is true when the propositions  $p$  or  $q$  have the same truth value (both  $p$  and  $q$  are true, or both  $p$  and  $q$  are false), and false otherwise.
- The reason that  $\Leftrightarrow$  is read as “if and only if” is that  $p \Leftrightarrow q$  means the same thing as the compound proposition  $(p \Rightarrow q) \wedge (q \Rightarrow p)$ .

$p$	$q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$	$p \Rightarrow q$	$q \Rightarrow p$	$(p \Rightarrow q) \wedge (q \Rightarrow p)$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$

# Practice Time: truth values of if and only if

- What will the following propositions evaluate to?
  - $1 + 1 = 2$  if and only if  $2 + 3 = 5$ .
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  if and only if  $2 + 2 = 4$ .
  - $2 + 2 = 4$  if and only if  $2 + 1 = 5$ .
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  if and only if  $2 + 3 = 6$ .

$p$	$q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$T$

# Answer: truth values of if and only if

- What will the following propositions evaluate to?
  - $1 + 1 = 2$  if and only if  $2 + 3 = 5$ . ("True if and only if True" is true)
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  if and only if  $2 + 2 = 4$ . ("False if and only if True" is false)
  - $2 + 2 = 4$  if and only if  $2 + 1 = 5$ . ("True if and only if False" is false)
  - $2 + 3 = 4$  if and only if  $2 + 3 = 6$ . ("False if and only if False" is true)

$p$	$q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$T$

# Precedence of logical connectives

- The **precedence** of our logical connectives is:
  - negation ( $\neg$ ) has the highest precedence;
  - then there is a three-way tie among  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ , and  $\oplus$ ;
  - then there's  $\Rightarrow$ ;
  - then finally  $\Leftrightarrow$  has the lowest precedence.

# Truth tables for basic logical connectives

$p$	$\neg p$
$T$	$F$
$F$	$T$

$p$	$q$	$p \wedge q$	$p \vee q$	$p \oplus q$	$p \Rightarrow q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$

# Practice Time: Compound propositions

- We can now build truth tables for more complex propositions. For example, what is the truth table for  $p \wedge q \Rightarrow \neg q$  ?

# Practice Time: Complex propositions

- We can now build truth tables for more complex propositions. For example, what is the truth table for  $p \wedge q \Rightarrow \neg q$  ?

$p$	$q$	$p \wedge q$	$\neg q$	$p \wedge q \Rightarrow \neg q$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$

- The given proposition is true precisely when at least one of  $p$  and  $q$  is false.

# Practice time

- Cecil Sagehen, who is 47 years old, was asked at the doctor's office: "If you are over 55 years old, do you have an advance care directive?"
- What should Cecil answer?
- *Hint:* translate this English statement to propositional logic

# Answer

- $p$  = "over 55 years old"
- $q$  = "have an advance care directive"
- $p \Rightarrow q$  is true whenever  $p$  is false, and  $p$ ="over 55 years old" is false. (That is,  $\text{False} \Rightarrow \text{anything is true.}$ )
- Thus, Ceil should answer "yes"

# Practice time: More compound propositions

- What are the truth tables for the following compound propositions?
  - $[p \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)] \Rightarrow q$
  - $[\neg q \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)] \Rightarrow \neg p$

# Answer: More compound propositions

$p$	$q$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$p \Rightarrow q$	$p \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)$	$[p \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)] \Rightarrow q$	$\neg q \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)$	$[\neg q \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)] \Rightarrow \neg p$
$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$

# Tautologies

- A proposition is a **tautology** if it is true under every truth assignment.
- For example, if we had a compound proposition over the propositions  $p$  and  $q$ , it would be a tautology because it is true under all possible assignments for  $p$  and  $q$ .

$p$	$q$	compound proposition
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$

- One reason that tautologies are important is that we can use them to reason about logical statements, which can be particularly valuable when we're trying to prove a claim.

# Revisiting practice time – Rules of inference

- **Modus ponens:**  $[p \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)] \Rightarrow q$ . If we know both that (a)  $p$  is true and that (b) the truth of  $p$  implies the truth of  $q$ , then we can conclude that  $q$  is true.
  - Example:
    - Cecil is a Sagehen.
    - If Cecil is a Sagehen, then Cecil is a grouse.
    - Therefore, Cecil is a grouse.
- **Modus tollens:**  $[\neg q \wedge (p \Rightarrow q)] \Rightarrow \neg p$ . If we know both that (a)  $q$  is false and that (b) the truth of  $p$  implies the truth of  $q$ , then we can conclude that  $p$  is false.
  - Example:
    - Cecil is not cuddly.
    - If Cecil is a cow, then Cecil is cuddly.
    - Therefore, Cecil is not a cow.
- **Practice Time:** Can you come up with examples for both?

# Practice time

- What is the truth tables for the following compound proposition?
- $(p \Leftrightarrow q) \wedge (p \oplus q)$

# Answer

- What is the truth tables for the following compound proposition?
- $(p \Leftrightarrow q) \wedge (p \oplus q)$

$p$	$q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$	$p \oplus q$	$(p \Leftrightarrow q) \wedge (p \oplus q)$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	<b><math>F</math></b>
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	<b><math>F</math></b>
$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	<b><math>F</math></b>
$F$	$F$	$T$	$F$	<b><math>F</math></b>

# Satisfiable propositions

- A proposition is **satisfiable** if it is true under *at least one* truth assignment.
- A proposition is **unsatisfiable** if it is not satisfiable.
- That means, the proposition  $(p \Leftrightarrow q) \wedge (p \oplus q)$  is unsatisfiable.

$p$	$q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$	$p \oplus q$	$(p \Leftrightarrow q) \wedge (p \oplus q)$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$

# Practice time: Satisfiable or not?

- Is the proposition  $p \vee q \Rightarrow \neg p \wedge \neg q$  satisfiable?

# Practice time: Satisfiable or not?

- Is the proposition  $p \vee q \Rightarrow \neg p \wedge \neg q$  satisfiable?
  - *Yes, it is.*

$p$	$q$	$p \vee q$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$	$p \vee q \Rightarrow \neg p \wedge \neg q$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$	$F$
$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$

# Complexity theory

- Complexity theory is the subfield of computer science devoted to understanding the computational resources (e.g., time and memory) necessary to solve particular problems.
- One of the central problems is the SAT problem (Boolean Satisfiability problem): you are given a proposition  $\phi$  over  $n$  variables and asked to determine whether  $\phi$  is satisfiable.
- The problem is pretty simple to solve. For example, you construct the truth table for the proposition and then check whether there are any True rows in the  $\phi$ 's column.
- But this algorithm is not very fast because the truth table has  $2^n$  rows. Even a small  $n$  means that this algorithm will not terminate in our lifetime. E.g., for  $2^{300}$  we would exceed the number of particles in the known universe!
- So although there is an algorithm that solves the SAT problem, it is unclear whether there is a substantially more efficient algorithm to solve it.

# Satisfiability and a million dollars prize

- This problem is so big that the Clay Mathematics Institute included it in the seven Millennium Prize Problems and will give a \$1 million prize to anyone who solves it.
- Why do we care so much about this problem?
- SAT is just as hard as many other computational problems that belong in the class of NP. For NP problems(non-deterministic polynomial time), it is easy to **verify** the correct answer (the correct answer can be verified in polynomial time).
- The question is whether these problems can also be **solved** in polynomial time. This class of problems is known as P.
- That is, we do not know whether  $P=NP$ .
- It is widely believed that  $P \neq NP$ . Solving this problem would have profound implications on fields like cryptography.

# Complexity theory pioneers

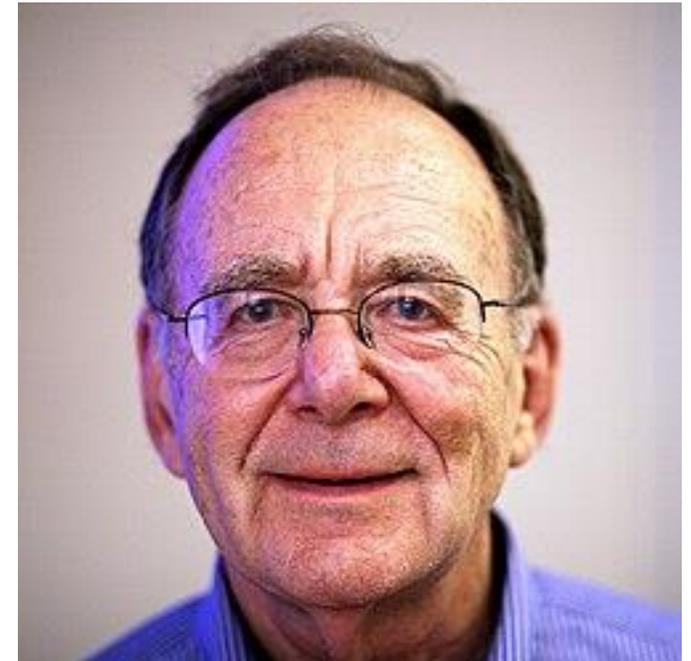
- **Cook-Levin Theorem:** If you can solve SAT efficiently, then you can solve any problem in NP efficiently.
- Karp also contributed to theory of NP-completeness and along with Lipton showed a relationship between SAT and circuits that have a polynomial number of logic gates



Stephen Cook



Leonid Levin



Richard Karp

# Tautology and satisfiability

- Let  $\varphi$  be any proposition. Then  $\varphi$  is a tautology exactly when  $\neg\varphi$  is unsatisfiable.
- $\varphi$  is a tautology when the truth table for  $\varphi$  is all trues, which happens exactly when the truth table for  $\neg\varphi$  is all falses. And that's precisely the definition of  $\neg\varphi$  being unsatisfiable!

$\varphi$	$\neg\varphi$
<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>

# Practice Time

- What are the truth tables for the following compound propositions?
- $\neg(p \wedge q)$
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- What are the truth tables for the following compound propositions?
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$p$	$q$	$p \wedge q$	$\neg q$	$\neg(p \wedge q)$	$(p \wedge q) \Rightarrow \neg q$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$

# Logical equivalence

- Two propositions  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are logically equivalent, written  $\varphi \equiv \psi$ , if they have exactly identical truth tables (in other words, their truth values are the same under every truth assignment).

$p$	$q$	$p \wedge q$	$\neg q$	$\neg(p \wedge q)$	$(p \wedge q) \Rightarrow \neg q$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$

# Logical equivalence and tautologies

- To state it differently:  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are logically equivalent whenever  $\varphi \Leftrightarrow \psi$  is a tautology.
- For example,  $\neg(p \wedge q)$  and  $(p \wedge q) \Rightarrow \neg q$  are logically equivalent:

$p$	$q$	$p \wedge q$	$\neg q$	$\neg(p \wedge q)$	$(p \wedge q) \Rightarrow \neg q$	$(\neg(p \wedge q)) \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge q) \Rightarrow \neg q$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$

# Important laws of logic

- **Law of identity.**  $p \wedge T \equiv p$  and  $p \vee F \equiv p$  : for any proposition  $p$ ,  $p$  is identical to itself.
- **Law of the excluded middle.**  $p \vee \neg p$ : for any proposition  $p$ , either  $p$  is true or  $p$  is false; there is nothing “in-between” true and false. This is a tautology.
- **Law of non-contradiction.**  $\neg(p \wedge \neg p)$ : for any proposition  $p$ ,  $p$  and its contradiction/negation,  $\neg p$ , cannot both be simultaneously true. This is a tautology.

$p$	$q$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$p \wedge T \equiv p$	$p \vee F \equiv p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$\neg(p \wedge \neg p)$
$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$

# Literals, CNFs, and DNFs

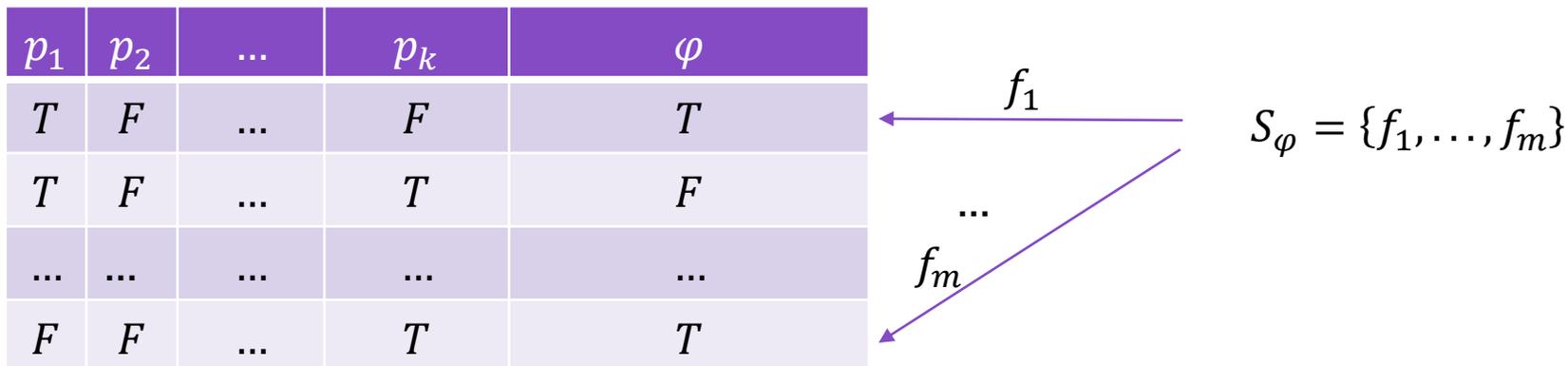
- A **literal** is a Boolean variable (a.k.a. an atomic proposition) or the negation of a Boolean variable.
  - This means that both  $p$  and  $\neg p$  are literals.
- A proposition is in conjunctive normal form (CNF) if it is the conjunction of one or more clauses, where each clause is the disjunction of one or more literals.
- A proposition is in disjunctive normal form (DNF) if it is the disjunction of one or more clauses, where each clause is the conjunction of one or more literals.
- Less formally, a proposition in conjunctive normal form is “the and of a bunch of ors,” and a proposition in disjunctive normal form is “the or of a bunch of ands.”

# A somewhat familiar theorem

- *Theorem:* For any proposition  $\varphi$ , there is a proposition  $\psi_{dnf}$  over the same Boolean variables and in disjunctive normal form such that  $\varphi \equiv \psi_{dnf}$ .

# Proof of Theorem

- Let  $\varphi$  be an arbitrary proposition, say over the Boolean variables  $p_1, \dots, p_k$ .
- Build the truth table for  $\varphi$ , and let  $S_\varphi = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m\}$  denote the set of  $m$  truth assignments for  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  under which  $\varphi$  is true.



# Proof of Theorem

- Looking at the truth table of  $\varphi$ , for any particular assignment  $f_i$  for the variables  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  that makes  $\varphi$  true, we'll construct a conjunction  $c_{f_i}$  that's true under  $f_i$  and false under all other assignments that makes  $\varphi$  true.
- Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_l$  be the variables assigned true by  $f_i$ , and  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{k-l}$  be the variables assigned false by  $f_i$ . Then the clause:
- $c_{f_i} = x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \dots \wedge x_l \wedge \neg y_1 \wedge \neg y_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \neg y_{k-l}$  is true under  $f_i$ , and  $c_{f_i}$  is false under every other truth assignment.

$p_1$	$p_2$	...	$p_k$	$\varphi$
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	...	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>
<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	...	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>
...	...	...	...	...
<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	...	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>

$$c_{f_1} = p_1 \wedge \neg p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \neg p_k$$

# Proof of Theorem

- We will repeat this process for all truth assignments that make  $\varphi$  true, e.g.,

$p_1$	$p_2$	...	$p_k$	$\varphi$
$T$	$F$	...	$F$	$T$
$T$	$F$	...	$T$	$F$
...	...	...	...	...
$F$	$F$	...	$T$	$T$

$$c_{f_m} = \neg p_1 \wedge \neg p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_k$$

# Proof of Theorem

- We can now construct a DNF proposition  $\psi_{dnf}$  that is logically equivalent to  $\varphi$  by “or”ing together the clause  $c_{f_i}$  for each truth assignment  $f_i, i = 1, \dots, m, m \geq 1$  that makes  $\varphi$  true.
- Define  $\psi_{dnf} = c_{f_1} \vee c_{f_2} \vee \dots \vee c_{f_m}$  (\*)

$p_1$	$p_2$	...	$p_k$	$\varphi$	$\psi_{dnf}$
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	...	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	...	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
...	...	...	...	...	...
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	...	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>

$$\psi_{dnf} = c_{f_1} \vee \dots \vee c_{f_m}$$

# Proof of Theorem

- Then  $\psi_{dnf}$  is true under every truth assignment  $f_i$  under which  $\varphi$  was true (because the clause  $c_{f_i}$  is true under  $f_i$ ).
- And, for a truth assignment  $f$  under which  $\varphi$  was false, every disjunct in  $\psi_{dnf}$  evaluates to false, so the entire disjunction is false under such an  $f$ , too.
- Thus,  $\varphi \equiv \psi_{dnf}$
- Are we done?

$p_1$	$p_2$	...	$p_k$	$\varphi$	$\psi_{dnf}$
$T$	$F$	...	$F$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	...	$T$	$F$	$F$
...	...	...	...	...	...
$F$	$F$	...	$T$	$T$	$T$

$$\psi_{dnf} = c_{f_1} \vee \dots \vee c_{f_m}$$

$$\psi_{dnf} = c_{f_1} \vee c_{f_2} \vee \dots \vee c_{f_m} (*)$$

# Proof of Theorem

- There's one thing we have to be careful about: what happens if  $S_\varphi$  is an empty set, that is if  $\varphi$  is unsatisfiable?
- The construction in (\*) doesn't work, but it's easy to handle this case separately: we simply choose an unsatisfiable DNF proposition like the opposite of the law of non-contradiction, i.e.  $p \wedge \neg p$  as  $\psi_{dnf}$ .

$p_1$	$p_2$	...	$p_k$	$\varphi$	$\psi_{dnf}$
$T$	$F$	...	$F$	$F$	$F$
$T$	$F$	...	$T$	$F$	$F$
...	...	...	...	...	...
$F$	$F$	...	$T$	$F$	$F$

# Proofs in computer science

- The type of proof we saw is known as **proof by cases**, with two cases corresponding to  $\varphi$  being satisfiable and  $\varphi$  being unsatisfiable being proven separately.
- There are many types of proofs used in computer science.
  - Together, we will see loop invariant proofs and proofs by induction but if you continue with more advanced computer science courses you will encounter even more.
- There's genuine creativity in producing proofs along with key strategies that one can learn.