UNIT-I / Discrete Mathematics What is discrete mathematics. Discrete mathematics is mathematics that deal with Definition ! discrete objects. Discrete objects are those which are Separated from (not connected to / destinct from) each i.e Objects that can assume only district, separated other. The term "Discrete mathematics" is therefore used in values. contrast with "continuous mathematics" which its the branch of mathementics dealing with objects. Enemples of objects with discrete values - Entegens, graphs / stutements in logic, automobiles, peoples, Discrete mathematics and <u>Computer</u> Science - concepts from discrete mathematics are useful for describing objects and problems in computer algorithms and problems programming languages. - These have applications in csyptography, automated theorem proving; and software development. Why discrete mathematics: "Let us first see why we want to be Psterested the formal theoretical approaches in computer ski

Some of the major reasons that we adopt approaches are 1) we can handle Prfinity or large quartity and indefiniteness with them. 2) results from formal approaches are reusable. Standart applications of Discrete mothematics in computer Science! UNIT-I: (propositional logic). O The design of digital circuits is entirely based on propositional logiec, so much so that its engeneers call et "logne design" rather than " circuit design" 2) Even writing a computer program its after thought to involuinvolve deviking its "logic". - (note that "logic" in the later sense is an external idea rather that formal looper), used to refer to the tow a enformation through the program and whether It is being processed correctly.

Mathematical Cogic: what is begic -restantial or propositional logs c . -The area of logst ket dellaits the proportion, hr A start formulae Which is nearcer a turto logs nor a contraction is called contingency. (P-22) A (PAQ) MS a contangency. Gab tautology or contongery or contralisation i) p-1(2-1) -T 71) (21) ~ (タレッタ) - し rii) 2 v (ng Ap) - C.

logic ? It deals with methods of reasoning. The mains aron of logic is to gravide oulds by which we can determine whether the particular seasoning argument is valid V Greek philosopher, Anistotle was the proneer of the logical reasoning. Def. proposition: 21 Mg Collection of declarative start that has either on touts values, "brue" or "fulse" Can be addighed but not both. Vaib, G, --- d \_\_\_\_ alphabets N words. V cat, dog, man, chair -He is a boy \_\_\_\_\_ either T/F. 2 Impentive - no 5/F. Sontenus - Interogative -(?) Enclamatory. - (1). Marin Mostly lower case letters can be used to depresent the propositions.

Mathematical Logic (UNIT-I) Pil Mathematical or propositional logic The rules of mathematical logic specity Methods of reasoning mathematical statements. logic is the discipline that deals with methods of reasoning. The main aim of Logie is to provide rules by which we can determine whether the particular reasoning or argument its valid. -> Greek philosopher, Anistotle was the porneer of logical - logical reasoning is used to in many disciplines to establish valid results. Rules of logge are used to provide :-() proofs of theorems in mathematics (2) to verify the correctness of computer programs. (3) to draw the conclusions from scientific experiments. It has many practicel applications in computer science Leke delign of computing machines, artificial Intelligence, definition of data structures for programming language, etc propositions or stutements:-It the pay when Detenition: (propositional logic) It is concerned with statements to which the truth values, "true" or "false" can be assigned. The purpose is to analyze these statements lither individually or in a composite manner.

tind at Dropotitions' Detinition! ( Proposition) A proposition is a collection of declarative Statements that has either a truth value "true" (Ox) false" can be assigned but not both. -> sentences which are exclamatory, interrogative or imperative in nature are not propositions. -> Lower case letters such as Pilir --- are used to denote the propositions. For example; we consider the following sentences. 1\_ valid propositions ! I-New Delhi is the apitul city of india (T) cted to 2. 2+2=3 (F) a studies to walk of a with a more 3. Man & mortul. (T) of bors q."12+9 = 3-2" (F). invalid propositions: 1. How beautitul is rose? (interrogative) 2. Take a cup of coffee (imperative) 3." A is less thay 2" (It is because unless we give a specific value of A, we can not say whether the statement is true or false.). JEF the proposition is true, we say that the truth value of that proposition is true. denoted by "T" or "1" -) If the proposition is false, the truth value is said to be false ' denoted by "F" or "O". condityse these statements or in a complete mounce

There are two types of propositions: 1-2 Aprimitive or primary or atomic V@ compound or molecular proposition () primitive or pramary: proposition which do not contain any of the logical operator or connectives are called atomic or primitive or primary proposition. 3 compound or molecular: combine two or more atomic statements Using connectives are called molecular or compound statement. rach possible -) to propositional Loger; The area of logic that deals with propositions is Called propositional calculus or propositional logic. The truth value of a compound stutement or proposition Note; depends on those of sub propositions. And the way in which they are combined which (onnective). (onnectives: There are five types of connectines. () Conjunction · Manas ( ) (2) disjunction p: canada ri a 3 carditional (4) bi conditional sat to constance ?? 6) negation Vanual à la donnal : gry

O Conjunction:

let pand 2 are two statements. The statement pag is called conjunction of the "p and q".

which is read as pand q.

The statement has the truth value T when both Pand q have the touth value T. Otherwise it is false (F).

and the fire

Truth tuble ;-

netenition: netermine the truth value of statement formula for each possible combination of the truth values of the compound statement. Londingon A table showing all such touth values is called the fruth tuble of the tormula.

Truth table for conjunction:

. \	P q		P12	July 1		
	T	T	T	8 8 3	1. 20 1	
	Τ	F	F			
	F	Τ	F			
	F	F	IF VA	found -	11.6 4.98	

Example:

P: Canada Ma a Country

2: mascow is the capital of spain.

Prq: Canada is a country "and" mascow is the capital of spain.

FRI P: Today is Monday q: There are 50 tables in thirs noon. The conjunction of Pand 9, that is PAQ may be written as PAQ: Today is monday and there are 50 tubles in this room. 2 disjunction; The disjunction of the statements P.q. is denoted by prq. which is sead as "por q" The statement prog has too the truth value Fonly when both p and q have the truth value F. Otherwise it is T. skorwige of as T. Truth table for disjunction: metalistic not what what PV2 2 P P T T T T F T T T F F F F Example: e varbe 1) pvq: canada is a country or maslow is the apital ( P-18: IA of spain. as all to his for (2) prq: Today is monday or there are 50 tubles in 10 -moar Kitt of this room. In ping' transferts stated Implication And 9 is Called in

(3) Conditional or implication; The implectation of two statements P.9 is denoted 6y P= 2. which is read as O if p then & @ pis sufficient for 2. 3 pits sufficient condition for 2 (4) q is necessary for p. Pit (5) 2, is necessary condition for P. 6 Ponly if 2. etc. -> The statements page has a truth value 'F' when P has touth value I and g has tothe value F. otherwise et as T. Pt 18 T. Truth table for implications: PV9 P-12 2 P T T F F T The verbal translation of P-22 is. OP-12: If canada is a country then mascow is the Capital of spain. @ P-19: It today is monday then there are 30 tubles in this room Note: The statement 'p' is called "hypothesis" of the implication. And q is called " conclusion",

· @ Biston detional or bimplicition: If P, 2 are two statements then the bilonditions of two stutements P.2 are denoted by PEDE or PZ2. which is read as Opif and only if 2 (2) P if & 2 (3) P is necessary and sufficient for 2. rate all a (4) Ef P then 2, and conversely. -) The statement PK32 has the tothe value T when both pand & have identical trity values. otherwise it has a tothe value F. Truth tuble for bilonditional: · Dimai Canada is a low Mr. Conada 13 not 2 Conner. 2 (G) Enample: OPENQ: Canada is a country if and only if mascow is a capital of spain. DPG9: Today in monday if and only if there are 50 tables in this soom.

3 Negation: If pin a statement then its negation in 7. or NP ' which is read as inot pil. -III the truth value of pist, then truth value of NP is F. also id tothe value of Pis F, then the truth value of NP PS T. Truth table for negation! (4) which sharest press have started with values. both pand & here identical chermise it has a Enample: 6. Const. to am D p: canada is a country NP: Canada is not a country. 2 p: chennan is a city. wp: It is not the case that chenna is a city. color to I and sty if there are 10000 State of the Colors

as	fol	lo w?	regation	an ope	rator 1	as pse	cudente ave	r all the
	lo	gila	l op	erators	thus nears	(NP) 1 9	e but not	~(P12).
(Z	76	e 10	njuner	tion of	perator	has p	neudence of	ver the disjund
	op	erat	די דו	hus		¢ε→((	121 (12-19	( <i>I</i> )
			PAC	yur n	neans (p	(2) UY	, but not	PA(qur)
© (3)	the	: Cor	ndition	nal a	nd bilo	ndton	al operators	s - ) and
	$\Leftrightarrow$	ha	we a	lower	Phelede	ha th	an other of	nerators.
	an	nong	. the	$m, \rightarrow$	has ,	preced	ence over	E.
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0			1	1				

THETH table for N(PV(2M)) construct the truth tuble for N(PAQ) > NPANG . DEND Dexa NZ NP N(PAQ) 0 PA2 0 2 0 0 I 1 1 ) 1 0 11 215 1 0 0 0 01 0 0 1 D D 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 -> construct the toth table for the following formulas. (P) (21 (P+4)) -) P (ii) ~ CPV (quri) (pv2) 1 (pvr). (3) the conditional and bilandetional operators - and Truthtable for (2N(P+12)) -> Pours and operatory. Nort Ethem, Pheledinic 21(P-22) (21(P-12)) 5 10 10: P-12 2 truth tuble 12 tor 0 0 Pur YM0 PF. nus 21 Y-DUY 0 2 (2) 0 0 1 1 1 0 D 0 ŀ 1 0 a 1 . 0 1 D 1 0 1. 0 ł

Truth table for N(Pr (217)) (> (Pra) 1 (Pur) 1.A Y QAY PU(QAY) N(PU(QAY)) Pvg pvr (pvg)Apr, Dest P 9 (î) 2 0 0 0 0 D 0 0 0 0 0 D 0 0 D Past 0 0 0 00 0 0 0 6 and 6 to 12 0 0 1. 0 0 0 0 applications 0 D 0 CAN the fal 0 0 0 0 0 Anala well flow F ((DVA)) Well-Formed Formulation) 5 ((41-2) N (21-9) 4,5,6 Definition: (statement Fismula) A stutement formula is an expression which is a string Confisting of variables, parentheses, and connectine symbols. wote that every string of these symbols is a statement of well flored formula. Examplezi fomula. we shall now give a rear live detenition of a Statement formula, often Called a well formed formula met widd. because and ea Example 35 (wft). A well fined formula can be generated by the following in the beginning rules Ri: A statement variable standing alone is a well formed (coup) cy) formula. R2: Ef A M well formed formula, then NA M BA well fismed formular ) - (1900) (-9) V St

" It A and B are well fined finulas, then " AB), (AUB), (ADB), and (ACD, B) are well formed. formulas. Definition; (well formed formula) A string of symbols containing the statement variables, connectioner, and parenthetis its said to be well formed formula if it can be obtained by finetely many applications of sules Ri, Rz and Rz. Exit A dording to this definition, the following are well formed formulas. N(PAO), N(PVO), (P-)(PVO)), (P-)(O+R)) and  $\left(\left(\left(P\rightarrow \alpha\right)\Lambda\left(\alpha\rightarrow R\right)\right)\stackrel{\sim}{=}\left(\left(P\rightarrow R\right)\right)$ Eneryle 1: NINO is not a well thread finala because a with would be either (NMO) or N(MD). Here NPAQ does not contres perenthetis. Heart every String Enemple 27 PCP-30 is not well formed formula. bit (P-10) Ma well formed formula (wff). wai (Pro)-) 0) is not with because one of the parenthed's in the beginning is misting. Enempley - man well formed formula. (p-> (pue)) is a Enemples:- man ((P) (NP)) - (NP) is a weld.

Exemple 6: ((P-) (a+L)) - ((P-ia) - ((1+L))) is not with. because are of the perenthesis My the beganing Exemple 7: (((19-10) - (0-10))) It is not with because one more parenthe is in the end. suns has built Encryle 8: in the stalle. ((Pro)=) is a with. Tautologics and Contradictions It is compound statement that is always the. - the truth table of a tautology will contain only 'T' entries in the Last column. remple: Row that Importance of tautology: ? ( [PAG] Tautology helps conclude some statement some gener statements. For Enemple: if the statements "P=2" is a tuntology, then it is easy to conclude the tota of 2 from the tota of P. This with the help of tautology we none for Some given statement to some concluding statement Pra step-by-step manner.

which is justified with in the frame water. of mathematical logic. Enemple's show That pump is a tuntology. PUNP NP P  $\left(\left( e_{1},e_{2}\right) \right)$ T P T BUT STORE With Kertin and T punp has touth value 'I' for all it's entires : it is a tou tology. tautology. This is also called in the false. of enclose middle " substand loss applitus " Law i e estret 1 is true or pt PS fulst. there is no middle possibility: realistant middle possibility: prototo (Mg) =) & Asa hintology, Enemple: Show that statement (Mg) =) & Asa hintology, (pra) -> 2 reportente to anatrapas pra 2 reacteby helps concluder same T mansfield statements F · Spear Co All entres in the East column has touth valuer RAD C. C. : it is a tuntology. /2+ unt man se figst freeherd for the mare so see advert to same conclusing statement · variation ...

Contradiction! A statement is said to be contradiction its truth value is always fulse (F) for all its entries Same front - 1 in the truth tuble. -> Ef the statement is a contradition, then its regarding, will be a fautology. Energle: Show that PAND is a tuntology or Contraction. PA~P' NP P Equinalence of prof 1 F T (ON Equinational of formation : since the statement prop has ons fulse value in the truth table. B(P1,P3, for all its entries Hence it is a contradiction. Granty 1/12)E 0 NOUNY NP ~(M2) Ng PAQ. ~pr~q the F K Folav E. AF T To SP Doruge T F T T P F T P11P2113 T F Crost do gara F T T'S' 0. Edin L. Tic T Т F F Frs denoted 0,5 11. generatest to the given statement is a tautology. Note: D, = there are 130

Enemplusi ( Encercises for student) () show that (M2) => (Pv2) is fautology but (pvg) =) (p12). is not. (2) show that pun(M2) is a tuntology 3 show that (M2) 1 ~ (NUQ) is a contradiction or tantology. · lac. tology. @ Make the bruth tuble for (PV2) 1 (PLr), (prair) and (POZEr). Equivalence of propositions (or) Logically equivalent (Or Equivalence of formulas (E) Two compound stutements ACP1, P2, --- Pn) and B(PI, Pa, --- Pr) are said to be copically equivalent or semply equivalent of they have identical bruth swaln) (2 (2v6)~ fashes. Clarifit the bruth value of A is equival equival to the truth value of B tos every one of 25 possible sets of truth values assigned to P11P21P3 - - - Ph. The equevalence of two propositions A and B is denoted as A A or A = B. "Whichting read as "A' is equivalent to B" Note! D) = these are not a connection.

1.2 . ar Truth table Method : Ex: prove that (PHO2) (~PVQ) 1 (~qVP) NEUP OND NZ NP ~Pv2 Pt>2 P 2 0 T F T T Fise T T T F T F T F F F T P F T F T F T F ĩ T T T T P T F : Pt>q = (~Pvq) 1 (~qvp). Example: prove that pr(veur) and pr(21NT) are logically equivalent or not. DPV (21~Y). 1 PA (ngur) = sol-21NT PU(2N) Nr NOUR PA(~QUY) P NQ 2 Y 0 F FA T T F T T T T - if T T F PUNG T IRO T F T F T T T F F. F T T T T F F TI F F F FT F T T F 5 F FA T F F F T F F. F FT T F F T TY T FI 1 F P. T T :. PA (NOW) \$ PV (UNN).

Enemples prove that the following equivalences and N(PAZ) = PINZ. a (B) (Pvg) 1 (Pv~q) = P. (PAQ) V (PANQ) = P Ò PAN2 ~(P-12) NY PAQ 2 0 P F F F T T T Equevalist F T T T F r F F P T F T P R PURA F J. T pung (Bug) (Pung) NZ pv2 (b) 2 F.( T F T T TIV To T T F T Equirclent 100 F F F T T T F į. P P F T (prg) v (prng) PANQ Ne PA2 O 9 F Fa T T T Th F F TI T T F FT F F F P P F T P Equivalent pr(TANS).

. (6) Replacement process : Cantider a formula A: P-1 (D+E). The franka QAR is a part of the formula A. If we replace ask by an equivalent flimula Nouk in A. we get another flow war B: P-2(Nour). one can reading verity that the final A3B are equivalent to each other. This process of obtaining B from A is known as the replacement process. EX: prove that P-> (Q->R) => (Pro) -> R. Replacing QAR by NOUR . Weget Sola P-1 (Q-1R) = P-1 (NQUR) which is equivalent to = ~PV (~evr) = NPVNOVR = roto (~puna) VR = ~(pro) UR. = (PAO) -) R. 19 - 24.7 Segn ad (ges) 69

Exi prove that (P->0) n (R->0) (AND) -> (Q. Sol: (P-DQ) A (R-DQ) ED (NPVO) A (NRVO) (=) (~PANR) V PR [:(s, vs2) 1 (s3 v 52) (s1 ns3) (s2 v 52) = N(PVR)VR. E) (PUR) -> Q. (Frei) P-1(0-1P) @ ~P->(P-10). Soli- P-1(Q-JP) => ~PV(Q-JP). E NPV (NOVP). E) NPVNOVP. E) (NAVP) VNO. of E) Tig (L.H.S). allowing (15) TUNO.  $NP \rightarrow (P \rightarrow 0) \iff N(NPV(P \rightarrow 0))$ (=)~(~pv (~pv @)). (=) PV(~PVQ) E) (pv~p)v Q. E) TVR 12 Q.T. (R.H.S.). L.H.S = R.H.S. 50 P→ (a→P) (a→P), (p→a),

- Converse, Contrapositive and inverse Cay arrange some new conditional statements we Using a conditional statements. P-19 Converse :-Converse of the p-12 is propulition 2-2p The contrapolitive of pag is the propulition NgaNp. Contrapo for time : The inverse of Pog is the proposition NPONQ inver se! Note: The above three conditional statements formed from 1-12. where Pig represents the statements. Enc mp Ce. P. Proya is concerned about her cholesterol levels. 2: priya walks at least two miles three tomer a week. O Implication (P-72). If priya is concerned about her cholesterol levels then she will walk at least two miles three times a week. If priya walks at foost two nides three time 2) Converk (9+P) UTTEN " PNSU week then she is cancerned about her 2 Govern Conner a cholesten levels

(3) contrapositive: (Nq-3NP) It priva weetters does not walks at lest two miles three times a week. Then she is not Conterned about her cholesterol levels. It irrya is not concerned about her cholesters! (4) inverse: (NP-INZ) levels then she will not walks Ext confider the statements. 9, you are punished. p: you are guilty Ent P: Today is a holiday 2: 2 will go for a moute Gut let Pig and & be the proposistions. E p; you have the q; you miss the fond 81 you pass the course. enpress the each of the following tormula as as gwsh ventence. a) p-12 b) ~26) r (2-1~r d) puErr. English Sentence. e) (P-1NT) V (2+NT) 2) (PN2) V (ver). 1: 2 bought a lotting ticket kins week. Bur let pand q be the proposition; 9:2 was the million dollar jackpot in Addry. Express each of the following formula as an English Sentence a) NP J) P12 6) P-18 9) NP ->NE c) DESE 6) NPV(PAZ). a) ~pr~~

1.12 Fongsandly complete sets of connectives Owe have already defined the connectives 1, V, N, > Can be anyour and Z. (2) NOW introduce some other connectives namely NAND, NOR and YOR. Wharry 10 The word NAND is componition of NOT and AND " MOT and DR NOR · (any you). 11 NOT and (>> 1-10 (=) WPUC XOR 11 NAND = N Conjunction (2) () a (2) () NOR = NOR NOW disjunction NY NOR = N Bi implication. () () 3) The connectives A and I have seen defined interms (c) Therefore, for any formula cartaining the connectius T or J, one can obtain an equivalent tormula containing the connections 1, V and N only. each other of O Note - Nand & are dual not Therefore in order to obtain the dual of a tormal, which indudes Tort we should inteching Tanto Defenition: (functionally complete set of connectived) if every formula can be expressed interms of an equivalent formula containing the connective's only from this set.

10) O In other words, for every termula, we can trid a on equivalent formula containing the connectius Co ( VIN and the time bin Ity land any langlate thes . (3) Hence by first replacing all be conditioned they I tunctionely completed set should not contain any liter the register and disjunction or only or the Connectives the sets of connectives [ Mr) and we an obtain an equer-lent tormula which anters ( pupales (Nova) a (prus). the disjunctions on any formula. vand a or 1 and a only. negation and conjunction only. the and time time to all the conjunctions or all 3 ordendent connectives is a other connectives. 2) NOC (=) N(NVND). O NOR (C) ~ (NANCO) Already we have , P-10 (=) NPVB. Connective which can be expensed interves of Contractions advantage to

. (II) The set SAIN I is not functionally completed, as for the formula up, let is not possisle to tind tan equivalent formula containing connectives only from the set { n, v }. 11 (a) ann () {TY, {}} are tractionally completes. Proof: In order to prove, it in sufficient to show that the Sets of connectives fronty and Sving Con se enpressed Bither Enterns of A alone or interms of I alone. TO show that I'ven' of Inctionally complete, it is crough to show that wand v pot can be expressed Faterms of I alone. he have NP (=) NPINP (=) N(PVP) (=) P LP. pro (=) ~ (~pono) (=) ~pt~ (=) ~ (.~pune) N N(NO) (NPINP) & (NOANR) =) ~(pvp) & ~(aro) ~[920] =) (PIP) 2 (020). then Ily is a functionally completed set. (13) TO Show the (N, 1) is functionally completed, we have to enpress Wand 1 sh terms of A dare.

The following valid equilities help us to this . direction . NP (=) NFUND (=) N(PAP) (=) PAP. PAO (=) ~ (~ (PAO)) ~ (PAR) D~ (PAR) (=) ~ (PTIO) (PLO) A (PLO) (=) (pre) n (pro)) Then (n) is a functionally complete set. Mite, Adams attack (BBC) & (100) 6 almer mention of an and a standard of the cost of And a Constant of Constant of Constant of Constants and a constant of Constant of Constant of Constants and a constant constant of Constants (constants) and constant (constants) (constants (co) and a co) proce (co) a (anone) (co) and a co) Proz ~ (Queron) & (queron) proz ~ (~ (pro)) ~ (queron) ~ =~(PLO) (PLO) 2(PLO) (949) LEVO) & ~(PUD) .= (PLO) 2(PLO) (949) LEVO) & ~(PUD) .= (PLO) 2(PLO) (949) LEVO) & ~(PUD) (and) & (and) in tradinally they lake the use W and A 24 down of M clare. 201.105

114 () prome that (PAO) (R-30) => (PUR) -30. It 2) show that (wp1(~qar)~(qar) (par) () she that implications. (3) ( ( vland) v P) + a NON (P-10) =P (a) NON (190) -> Pina Timm) (11) NON ( Sepre) ] -> p. Du ( (any) ) T) ~[~on step(~pro)] v Pin (and) (av ~ (~Iva)) vP (ov (Prie)] VP. [(ovp) (ov No)] VP ((pro) 1 T) UP ((ona) 09) ( (009)) Provp La Pupua D Propu Ptils not a taut logical Implications. ( presta (most =) ( ( on pro) ~ ( on pro) ) ( ( on pro) (mul 1 (ma) + an MT - (bug -) m ~ [ (and a cree) vo. (on (a) (- (and)) (~(Pup) v~(~p)) v (~ )) v (m) ) . (~(propro) v (p) (p) ~ (m) ~ (m) (~panda) va) va. (~pbra) & frava) v Q

(PUO) ( ~ P) => 0. L B sol: ((p.o) ∧ (~p)) → (0. 3 T. ~ ((OVA) A (~P)) VO. (~ (Pue) V P) VO. ( (NPANO) VP) VQ. 101 (200) 41 ( (~PVP) A (NOVP)) V ON MA (OCH) A MAN (TA (PVNO)) VO. AC [angulanon (pune) URAV (compain non) prouve. =) (proma) [. vol  $(P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow (P \land Q)) (Q \land Q) (Q$ O (~ prov =) (p-p(ma)) (-) (vora) (NPVO) -> (NPV (Price)) = Jon (1) (~nva) -) ( (~nvp) ~ (~pva)) ~ (~ pule) - ( Takere) (on) ( ()) (~nva) -> (~pva). ov (com) ( and) ~ ~ (~pva) V (~pva) · Econov (angla) (~Pra) V ~ (~Pra) (or com) range ou (ou lapan De la consecta de la contra : L.H.S = R.H.S (PLO (=) and OVP)

Example Prove that NANID (7) and NOR (1) both are commutative but not associative. Ans,-(i) PROGONP, MA GOUP (Commutative) by using truth talle Plo proforp. Plo projorp In a mail The connective sit, I are commutative. without constructing truth table Standary PUCCEUR) (AND) N (=) 990 (=) NOVNP What when give ye (ITE) NOVNO : L.H.S = R.H.S. [: (170) => (0. T.D.) (i) PLO (=) OLP PLQ (=) ~ (Pro) (=) ~PANO - L.H.S OUP (=) ~ (avP) (=) NOANP 1 (=) NPANQ. -R.H-S L-H-S=R.H-S / PLO(=) ()

(11) The connections Thand I are not associative ie PA (OAR) ( (PAO) AR. 1-16 PULOUR) (PLO)UR. L.H.S - PA(OAR) (=) PA~(OAR) (Z) ~ (PA~(OAR)). (=) NPV N(N(ONR))) 1 1 2 1920 C (=) ~PV (ONR) 0 (=) (~PVQ) ~ (~PVR) 0 R.H-S - (PAU) TR (=) ~(Ma) TR confections (2) ~ ) and (manutertine. The such constal in (and) is (and): (E) cle (E) (PVNR) 1 (aVNR) OI PM - RALOAR) (MOITR. semilarly PUCOUR) ( PUO) UR. By using truth table OTR (PR(OTR). PID (PAD) TR = 2-11-2 procho 9201(=) 264P 0 0 0 0 0 1 (1) (2) v (2) (1) 124 mar О 12.4.1 quillon (=) (9/2) (3 (3) (3) 0 6-H.20. 0-19m (=) both are not equal. Simiellarly (PLO) JR ( PULOUP)

|·|b (a) (Ma) - 6 = ( Nue) (P-10) -10 -1 (Pul) [~(P-1a) vo] -> (pva) [~ (~pro) vo] -> (pro) ~ [~ (~pva) va] v (pva) ((~Pro)ANO) V(AVO) ((~PM ~@).v(anne)] v (pre) ( NPANO VF) V (PUO) (NPINO) V (Pro) (NANANO) A (NONANO) (TVO) 1(TVP) =)PACE.

Normal Forms (UNIT-3).1.10 Law of Logic ment page For any primitive statement P.2 and r any tautology To and any contradiction for the meaning Statement - Law of double negating ~~P (=) P (PAQ) (=) ~PI~2 b - demorgan's Laws. ~(PAQ) (=) ~PU~2 PAQ (=) QAP } - Commutative Laws. 3 Prq (=) 9rp <u>\_\_\_</u> (1) pr(2rr) (2) (Pr2) Vr / - arrowatsue laws. PA(EAR) @ (PAE)Ar J  $(p_{1}(q_{1}r)) = (p_{2}) \wedge (p_{1}r) - distributive Laws$  $p_{1}(q_{1}r) (=) (p_{1}q) \vee (p_{1}r) - distributive Laws$ B PVP (=) P Edempotent Laws PAP (=) P 3 PVFO (SP, ] - Identity Laws. PATO (=) P (B) pr~p (=) TO - Enverse Laws (or) complement lay PANP (=) FO (9) puto @ To domination laws PAFO (=) FO . (10) pr (PAQ) (=) P Absorption Laws. PA(PV9) (=) P
Condrants 1 and success 1 1 2 1 (a) why a low of toplications. (1) ~ (1+2) (~ pang -() P-98 (c) ~9 A ~ - Law of contrapositions ( pray () T prop (=) F ] - Complement law ON- P.F ~ (Pr (~PA2)) = ~ pAN2. w (~PA (~ (~PAS)) - dranger hand => (~P) ~ (~P ~ ~?) - here and 2) ip A (pring) - Low of dade nearling =) (~PAP) V.(~PA~2) - distributine =) FOV (~pang) - By contradiction 2) NPAND = KHS By identity · per ~ (Pr(~PAZ)) = ~PANZ. (2) (PA3) -> (Pr2) Prome this is a turbology. we know 1-12 = NPV2 (Low of Prophilation) =) ~ (PA2) V (PV2) 2) NPVNEV PV2 - demorgant 2) (PVAP) V(2VA2) - Phurk Low DIT.V'

() ~ (P42) = (P1~2) v(21~P) Note: PLOS = (PAR) & (mar) Note: PLOS = (PAR) & (mar) DU (21 NP) Or (P-32) A(2-38) ~(PL)=> > ~(P==) ~~ (2=) =) ~(~pvg) ~~ ~ (~qvp) =) (~~ M~~ 2 v (~~ 2) A~P > prt~2 v2x~p =) (PK~P) v(2 M~9). =) R.H.S. A MAR (F) PTI (27) = ~PV(210) By using to the table. 5 (PAQ)Ar = (PAQ)VN8 6 PU(218) = NPA(2Vr). (PJ2) &r = (Pv2) ∧ ~r. -1 (PT2) 7 r = [N(DAZ) 1 r] = ~ ( ~ (AQAY) = (PAQ) V ~~.  $PU(2Ur) = PU \sim (9vr)$ -) = ~ ( p v. (200) ( ( PA)) = NPA (2VD)

Duality Law :-

Two formulas A and A\* are Inid to be the duals of each other if either one can se obtained from, the other by replacing 1 by V and V by 1. - The connectines 1 and V are also called duals of lach other. -If the formula A contains the special variable T or F then At, its dual is obtained by replacing T by F and F by T. ER! write the duals of (i) (PAQ) VR Jol- (Pro)AR (ii) (PVR) N.F. Jol- (PAR)VT. (11) ~ (PAQ) V (PA~ (QU~S)). Sot ~ (Pro) A (Pr~ (QANS)). ENT ARPINE ~ (~PI~(OVR))(=)(PV(avk)) NOP- (. Ext ~ (P12) -> ~ PV (~ PVQ)) (=) (~ PVQ). (=) (PA2). V (~PVQ) (~PVQ)) (=) (PA2) V (~PV4) (PV~P) A(PVQ) 1 (2VD) V(2V2)  $(\exists)$ (2) arny

(2) NPVQ.

Normal Forms Normal forms: To determine whether a given compand propositions A(PI,P2 -- Pn) is a tauplosy or a conhadiction or atleast schisticable. and whether two given compound propositions A(PI,P2 --- PA) and B(PI,P2 --- PD) are equivalent, we have to construct the tota tables and longare them. - But the contraction of the tables may not be provetical, When the noiof primary propositions (variaslus) PirPy - Py -1 A Better method is to reduce A and B to some stundard form called "normal turm". (00 "Cononical form" And we then for deviding the mane of A &B and for comparing A and B. There are the types of normal firms. O ANF (disjunctive normal form) Sol) (D) CNF (conjunctive normal firm) pos. 3 Notion we shall use the word "product" in place of Carjunction sun' in day of disjunction. ODNF: (disjunction normal form) part Son product Variables and their negations are called - A of the an elementary for product

i.e A formula absorb is equivalent to a given formula and which consists of a top of elementary protocts is surger (alled disjunctive normal form. (DNF).

Ex? Elementary Suni 9, ~9, PA~9, NPA~2. Occo ER! PA (Pase) white DNP =) (PANP) V (PA.2) - Sum of product - (up No Victorian) poduct im. - the read (may) (and Nº - AA (~pvq). Oral AV ~ (prq) <> (p1q). write DNF (P-19)1(9-1P) 6 21~21 2000 [PE->9: - (PA2) V (~PANE) . Sof:- (where) ~ (PAR) ] v [~(~(Pra)) ~ ~ (PAR)] (=) [NPANEA DAE] ~ [(D-2) A (NPVNE)] (pv2)1~p] (pv2)1~p] ((pv2)1~p] (pv2)1~2] (=) (~P1~21P12) V ((P1~P) V (21~P)) V [(Pn~q)v(21~2)] (=) (~PANGAPAQ)V (PAND)V (~PANQ)V (PANQ)V Froduct and 1910 sun of product. Exis (~Av~q) -> (PL>~2) white DNF (P-12 = ~pv9) (P-2~2)1 ( O GA (NPVN2) -> ( (PANA)V(NPAA))

(=)~(~PV~q) V (GAMA) A (PVD) (n+y) · (n'+j'). antangla yala (p) (ma) ~ Must 971. (2) Et (MAD) V [ (MPAD) V (MPAD) V (MPAD) V (MPAD) (=) (PAR) V (~PAR) V FO V (PAR). (=) (ANQ) V (NANQ) V (PANQ) . son of product. : this is ONF. (and Procedure of officing the only or CNF O If the (matching -) and to) are prepart in a given formula, they are replaced by 1, V and N. To let the negation is present before a gener formula or a part of the gives formula, ne margand laws are applied So that negation is brought before the variables only. (3) If reasony, the distributive and idempotent laws and opplied. A second to have the

CNF = ( lanjuncture normal form) A product of residue and their negation are A called an elementary prostuct-sung 2.V ice A formula which is equivalent to a given firmula and (mANSt of product of clementary Dun MS Colled Il confirmatione normal torm "of the given formula. 53 Elementary product : P. No. Power, NP22, NP22, NP22. Exis RA (P-19,) write CNF PA(P-12) (=) PA (~pvq) - A product of Jum. - this is sequined firms. EX: ~(PVQ) (P1Q) white ENF. (Prizh(2)) () [ (PNQ) V (PAQ)] A [~(PNQ) I ~(PVQ)] ( ( ( PV2 VP) ) ( PV2 V. 2.)] 1 ( ( ~ PV~2) V ( ~ P. 1~ 2.))] ( ( pv qv P.) A ( pv q v q ) A ( ~pv~ q v~ p) A ( ~pv~ q v~ q ) (2) (PV2) 1 (PV2) 1 (PV2) 1 (NPV2) +V product of sim. キー . TRMM INF

Ex: PA (P-12) High (NF- . PA (~pvg). () PUFO 3P (?) ( PVF) A (NPV?). 91~2=Fo (2) ( PV(gANg)) A (~PVq) (=) (PV2) 1(PV~2) 1 (~PV2). : this is product of Jum. B Principal disjunctive normal firm (PDNF). -> For a gives formula, an equivalent formula conditioning of disjunction of mistand its known as its power. -> This is also called "our of products conmitted form " Ext let P, P2 --- Ph be n Statement variables. the expression P, \* A P2 \* A P3 \* - - A P3 \* . Where PP is either Pi or ~Pi Celled minterns. 2n a such min kons. for n variables. are There menterns Y 2 Pri f ~ B1~2.1~1 FZNT D D D F-JP NPINGAY ) 0 0 NPAQANY 0 1 0 NPAQAY l 0 D PINZINY 0 D PANGAY D PA 2 ANY P12112.

Gives a noiof variables, the products in which en Minterns! Fr Variable or its negation, but not both, occurs only a are called minternos. "Acitson'- Note: there are 2" mintern's for n variables. BRI for the two varias ( pand 2, the possible minterms are PAR, PANZ, NP12 and NPANZ. PONF: - un of menterman - whook tothe value is 7'. "F". penti ( 11 manterns) -. ... = product of maniferms ' Francipal conjunctive normal forms! (PCNF) for a going formula, an equivalent formula contrology of conjunction of the mantern's only is known as principal Conjunctine normal form (penif). let PI,PL, P3 --- Pabl n verially starts. then the enpression PitPix P3 x --- Pot ØC where pie or wpi i's called mometimes. Hole: There are 27 monternos for 71 Variably. marternst Given a no : of variably, the sungs of which each variable or its negation, but not both, occurs only only is called the mascherms any maxterns. Ear For two vinishes Rand 2, the Postisle 4 marting prz, prnz, Npvz, and Npv~2.

1.15 FFF NPANQAN possible monterman 3 vanasly Fir 3 mankerms 152) 2 P IV 2Vr' D 0 Ø pr 2 var 1 0 0 NPAR N.Y. ·PV~QVY D l 0 prazvar ~ PV ~ 200 1 1 д -pragrr ×1. 0 0 NPVQVNX 1 0 1 NPV~2Vr D NPVNQVNY. V Note: mantern are simply dual of mentern. Ex1: By using buth task construct PONF & PENF for P+2, NPAq. prz and ~PAZ pv2 ~112 P-12 2 O-DA Pasi F T Ē T. Г F Fil T Γ F Г Т  $\hat{\land}$ T T F PDNIF -> T. P->q () (PA2) × (~PA2) v (~PA~2). (~PV-2) (pv2) (3 (p12) V (p1~2) V (~p12) (~P12) (=) (~P12). (pr2) (=) (pr2). 12CNF JF (P-> q) (=) (~PV2), (~PAE) (=) (~PV~2) A (~PV2) A (PV~9).

Et' Ex: Write PDAIF tor (NPV9) Q(ref A(quat)) V ( Ta (post) . . . Primp C=) To (Fourse Low) Prop= Fooduct (1) -> Canjurching Soli 9 WTO (=) 9 (identity law). 9VF=9 som (v) -) dosprekon. (~Pri) (=) (~PA (21~2)) V (21 (pr~p)) =) (~P12) ~ (PP1~2) ~ (21P) ~ (21~P) distilutive low. =) (~P19) V (~P1~2) V (P19) V (~P19) Commutative law. =) (~PA2) V (~PAN2) V (PA2). (ivp=p) idempotentlan Ex: Wisk PONF for (PAD) ~ (MAR) ~ (RAR). [(PNO) M(RV~R)] V [(PNR) M(QU~Q)] V [QNR M(PV~B) PUNP = TO EXTE = OF =) (PARAR) V (PARANR) V (~PARAR) V (~PARANR) V OARAPIV (aARANP). William Marking - - Carrier - 1 [PVP=P] 2) (PRONK) V (PRONK) V (NPRONK) V (NPANONK). , this is pont

1.16 Exè Pr(PAQ) (=)P. Pr(PAO) =) P1 (QVNO) V (MO) es. =) (PA e) v (PANO) v (PAO). 3 =) (pna) v (pna) = L.H.S [PVP = P] =) PA(arna) P (=) (PNO) V (PNNO). = Q.H.S · \_ L.H-S = R.H.S. Exi PV (~P10) (=) PVQ. pr(~pra) =) pr(erna) v (~pra) 2) (PNO) V (PNOC) V (NDAO) .= LiH-S. pro =) (pr (arwa)) r (ar (pr~p)) =) (Pro) v (Prro) v (anp) v (anp).  $=) (P \land Q) \lor (P \land Q) \lor (P \land Q) = Q \cdot H \cdot S$ L:H-S = R.H-SExt pro ((Pre) ~ ~ (~ avan) with ponf. P-> ((P>0) ~ (~ Q~~)) = P-> ((~p~0) ~ (pro)) DNPV ((NPVO) A (MO)] (= ~P V (~P n (Pro) V ON (Pra)] (2) NPV ((~PAP) A (~Pho) V (onP) 1 (eno) (3) NPV [(FON NPAR) V (MAR)] PADADAD

: por ←) ~P ~ (((FOAP) 1 &) ~ (PA@)) El NPV (FONO)V (MO)] ana=a PAND = FO (2) ~ pv (For (MO)) PAG = Fo (=) ~p V (PAD) prFo = P (=) [~ P 1 (arna)] V (PAQ) (=) (~PAQ) ~ (NPANQ) ~ (PAQ). 1. this is required PONF. PCNF Exi obtaing PINF of the formula 's' goven by (MP-1R) ~ (ac-2P)  $(=) (\sim P \rightarrow R) \land ( \otimes (P)$ (=) (~P+R) ~ (R+P) ~ (P+R). (=) (PYR) A (marp) A (mpra). (=) PVR X (Enve) ~ (nov P X (RMMR)) ~ (~pue v (anor)) (=) (pvRVQ) (pvRVNQ) A (NOVPVR) A (NOVPVNK, A (APVEVR) A (NAVEVNK). 22) (PVRVR) A (PUNEVR) A (PUNEVR) A (PUNEVNR N (NPravR) N (NPravNR). (=) (AVOVR) ~ (PVNOVR) ~ (PVNOV~R) ~ (~PVEVR) (~PVEVNR). this negwined PINF.

1.17 PONF is negation of PINF. SZPINF ~S=~PPNF. P1~ (=)~((pvovie) (pv~ovr)) (pv~ov~r) (pvovr) 1 (NPV WVAR)]. E) ~ (Prove) V~ (Prover) V~ (Provervar) V~ (~Prove) V~ (~PVaV~R) (=) (~PANOANR) V (~PAOANR) A (~PAOAR) W (PANCANR) V (PANOAR). Euf Obtains the Parp For (2=P) ( ~P12). S: (2-3P) 1 (~19-19) (=) (~2KP) 1 (~202) (=) (~2VP) 1 [[~pv (21~2)]1(2-v(PM~P))] (=) (~2VP) 1 (~PV2) 1 (~PV~2) 1 (2VP) 1 (2V~P) TPVP=P (2) (PV~2) A (~PV2) A (~PV~2) A (PV2). Extrophing the principal disjunctione and conjunctione normal forms of Jole P-) ((P-12) 1~ (~ ~ (~ ~ 2)). (=)~PV((P-)E)~~(~pv~2)) A1 -16 (=)~PV ((~PV2) 1 (P12)) (=)[~PM(2~~2)] v[[~PM(2~~2)] v (21(~~P))v (21P)] (2) ( (12) V (12) V (119) V (119) V (119) V (210) V (vange) v (2 nmp) v (P12) (2) (NPAQ) V (NPANQ) V (PAQ). OS the PDNF.

NS (=) remaining terms in PONP. En 6) (P1~2). ( PINF (=) ~ (~ s) (=) ~ (PANG) (2) NAVQ is the PONF. U End obtain the ANNE of PI (PAQ). 6 Eat obtain the PDNF \$\$\$ of (PA2)V (NPAO) V (210). by ving twee the bele. Sol- mertemit prair, Prank, NP121NV, NP121V, NPINGIV. PINF = Non of minterms. (2) (P1215) V (PARANE) V (NPARAT) V (NPAN215) Ext obtain the PENF of (NPSY) A (200P) by Using duth tably & replacement Process. soli pan mintern o prazar, NP121r, PIN21Nr, NPASINY, NPANZANY. PCNF = ( SUM Of the ansitem) == (PANGAT) V (~PAGAT) V (PANGANT) V (PANGANT) (SI) V (marg) V (~p1q1~rz). =) (~pv2v~r) ( (pr N2v~r) N (~pv2vr) A (pv2vr) A (PV2VY),

Encaple: prone the following (1) (2+1) (=) (P-1(P-12). C-H-S. N-> (2->p) (2) P-> (~2VP) (=) NPV ~2VP E) NPVPV2 (Z) PV~PV~VE CO TV~9 COT. R.H-S P-1(P-12) (=) N-> (~pv2) (2) NPV (NPV2). (=) NPUNPUQ. (2) ~p v 2: 27p (P-) (2-)p). (P-9 p-) (P-12). . 2 Þ F F T F T not logical equivalent

(2) p + (qur) (=(p -) 2) V (p-) Y. (-14-5 P-)(qvr) (=) ~pv(qvr). (=) NPV9VY. (=). Ritts (PHE) V (PHE) (D) (D) (V (NPUT) (=) ~pv2v~vpvr. (=) (NPVNP) V2VY. (2) NV2VY. L H - S = R - H - S"- Both are logicity equivalent. (3) (p+2)1 (r+2) (= (pvr) -> 2. (-41-5 (P-12) A (r-12) & (~p~2) 1 (~r~2). ()/ NP 1 Nr) V % (3) g v (~P1~r). (=) qu ~ (pvr) (7) ~ (pvr) 1 g; () (Ar) ->2.

(4)~(PL-12) (=) (PV2) ~~~(P12). N(PL-) 2) (=) ~ ((P-)2) ~ (2-)()) L-H-5 () ~ ( (~ pvq) ~ (~ qvp)). (1) (PANZ) V N(NZVP) (2) (PANZ) V (2ANP) Rottes (PV2) A N(PA2) (=) (PV2) A N(PA2) (>) (Pv2) ~ (pv2) ~ (pv2) ~ (>) (2) ((~PAP) V (~PA2)) ((PA~2) v) (21~2) (Z) FV (NP12) V/(P1~2)VP) (=) (~prg) V( prag) A) 1- (19-14) - 2) - 2 (19-19) - 2) (2

Tautological Emplication 8. plogi 11 prove that (p-20) = (v& = NP). 2) prove that was (pro) =) ~p. 3) ST ~ (P-1a) = p. Show that following mightentions n (ps(a+2)) => (p+a)-> (p+r).  $\mathcal{I} \mathcal{Q} \Rightarrow \mathcal{P} + \mathcal{R}$ 3) (MO) => p->e. Show the following implications without constructing the Entre Fably, 1) Nan(P-10) = > Np. 6) (pvo) 1 (~p) = Q. c) (P→0) => P→ (Pn0). d) (P-10) -> 0 => pre.  $e)\left(\left(\rho_{wvp}\right)\rightarrow o\right)\rightarrow\left(\left(\rho_{vvp}\right)\rightarrow L\right)\Rightarrow\left(o\rightarrow r\right).$ 

intological Inplications without construining Dutes tubles.  $\sim O (P + e) - + \sim P \cdot (P + e) = (P + e) + (P$ NON (NPVO) -> NP. (NONNP) V (NONO) -+ NP ~ [ (~ on ~p) \* (von e) J V ~p. (pvo) ~ (ov ~o) v ~p. ~ (wonvp) v FJ v~p. (pvo) n (Frvnp) ~ (NONNP) v (pvo) n T (pvo) n T Tro = (pup) 1 Np = Q: (Dug) ((puo) ~ ~ p) ) Q N ( CANO) INP) VQ. ((aprive) VP) Ve. N ((pvnp) n (pvnp))va. (a) TATVO. (aven VII TUR V CAUS)

() (P-10) => (P-)(PAO)) (1)-10)-> (1-1(1no)). (~pra) -) (~pv(Pra)). (and) -) ( (and N) ( (and N)) ~ (~pua) V / TA (~pva)) (PANO) V (NPVO). (pv~pva) ~ (~vev~pva) TA (TUNP) TAT =) T. TA (4) (P+0) +0 ⇒ (Pv0). ((P+0)-10) -> (Pra). ((~pra) -) (pra). (~(~pva) va) v (pva). ((pra) v (pra). ( (pro) 1 (Nove)) v (pro). (pra) 1 T) v (pra). FV (Pue). pra. not rotological implies.

5) ((punp) -) a) -) ((nup) -) R) =) (C-1R. (~(PUNP) VQ) -) (~(PUNP) VR) -) (Q-SP). ~ ( (~pnp) va). V ((~pnp) vp) -) (~vevr). ((punp) n we) V (FUR) -) (NOUR). ((PUNP) N We) V (FUR) (NOUR). (FNNO) V OR. -7 (NOUR). NOVR. -) (NOUR). N(NOVR) V (NOUR).  $(0 \rightarrow (n n p)) \rightarrow (R \rightarrow (p n n p)) \Rightarrow (R \rightarrow 0).$ ((~vev(prvp)) -> (~vev(prvp)) -> e(~vev). ((noup) 1 (nounp)] - f(nrvp) 1 (nrvp)]-) (NEVO). ~ ((woup) ~ (~ (punp)) V ((punp) ~ (~ punp)) ~) (NPAQ) V (PAQ) V (PUNR) 1 (NPUNR) - (NRVC) ( (founder A (NP) ) V

write DNF O ~(pva) (→ (pra). (~(nu) -(na)) ~ ((na) -) ~ (nu)) ( (pro) v (pro)) 1 ( ~(pro) v v(pro)) (puoup) (puaua) 1 ((Npuna) V (Npina)) (pva) 1 (pva) 1 ( ( ( punaunp) 1 ( spunevig (pue) A (upuna) A (upuna). (pro) 1 (NPUNCe) (pn (~pure)) V (on (~pure)) (PANP) V(PANa) V (DAMP) V (DANA) Find CNF (D(~1+2) 1 (P 6) 2) OU(PAR)AN((PUR)AQ). @ obtain D. ( A MARCA MARCAND) V ( SANA) ( in ( frage) of ( warmy a fragment) ) on MICHARD VIEW MARY NO

1) Obtain PUNP of the following formulas. a) pv (~panoard) b) (on ~rans) v (an s).

MPA(P-12) conte cur. Pr (prov - produl of Sun, (2) ~(Prg) (mg) write cNF. [Npv2) -> (m2)] ~ [(pn2) -> ~(pv2)] ( pra) v (pra) n ( na) v «(pra)) (pra) V (pra) 1 ((rpraz) V (rpraz) (prgup n (prgrq)) n (fipragrap) n (rpragr (pr2) A (ova) A (~p~~q) A (~p~~e)-(=) (PV2) 1 (~PV~2) J J provet Sum . This is required form Ext write DDNF try (Npv 2) identity lows PIT = (~PNT) V(2NT). ( NPA (2022) V ( 21 (pung)) ((~112) v (~11~2)] v (21~2) v (21~2) (apra) V (apraz) V (prz).

 $(NP \rightarrow P) \land (Q \leftarrow P).$ PLNF (NPVR) 1 [(0-1P) 1 (1-30)] ((NPVR)VF) 1 (NOUPVR) 1 (NPVOVR). (NPVRV(21NZ)) 1 (Naupu(KIND)) 1 ((NPVQ) V (RANK)] (NPVRVE)A (NPVRVNE) 1 (NOUPUR) 1 (NOUPVNR) 1 (NPVQVR) 1 (~pv dv ~R). (and have by I which they (april 1 ( Barad alla)

# Unit – I

# **Mathematical Logic**

#### INTRODUCTION

**Proposition:** A **proposition** or **statement** is a declarative sentence which is either true or false but not both. The truth or falsity of a proposition is called its **truth-value**.

These two values 'true' and 'false' are denoted by the symbols T and F

respectively. Sometimes these are also denoted by the symbols 1 and 0 respectively.

**Example 1:** Consider the following sentences:

1. Delhi is the capital of India.

2. Kolkata is a country.

3.5 is a prime number.

4.2 + 3 = 4.

These are propositions (or statements) because they are either true of false. Next consider the following sentences:

5. How beautiful are you?

6. Wish you a happy new year

7. x + y = z

8. Take one book.

These are not propositions as they are not declarative in nature, that is, they do not declare a definite truth value T or F.

**Propositional Calculus** is also known as **statement calculus.** It is the branch of mathematics that is used to describe a logical system or structure. A logical system consists of (1) a universe of propositions, (2) truth tables (as axioms) for the logical operators and (3) definitions that explain equivalence and implication of propositions.

### Connectives

The words or phrases or symbols which are used to make a proposition by two or more propositions are called **logical connectives** or **simply connectives**. There are five basic connectives called negation, conjunction, disjunction, conditional and biconditional. **Negation** 

The **negation** of a statement is generally formed by writing the word 'not' at a proper place in the statement (proposition) or by prefixing the statement with the phrase 'It is not the case that'. If p denotes a statement then the negation of p is written as p and read as 'not p'. If the truth value of p is T then the truth value of p is F. Also if the truth value of p is T.

Table 1. Truth table for negation

р	¬p
Т	F
F	Т

**Example 2:** Consider the statement *p*: Kolkata is a city. Then ¬p: Kolkata is not a city.

Although the two statements 'Kolkata is not a city' and 'It is not the case that Kolkata is a city' are not identical, we have translated both of them by p. The reason is that both these statements have the same meaning.

#### Conjunction

The **conjunction** of two statements (or propositions) p and q is the statement  $p \land q$  which is read as 'p and q'. The statement  $p \land q$  has the truth value T whenever both p and q have the truth value T. Otherwise it has truth value F.

Table	2.	Truth	table	for	coni	unction
					5	

р	q	$p \land q$
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F
F	Т	F
F	F	F

**Example 3:** Consider the following statements *p* : It is

raining today.

q: There are 10 chairs in the room.

Then  $p \land q$ : It is raining today and there are 10 chairs in the room.

**Note:** Usually, in our everyday language the conjunction 'and' is used between two statements which have some kind of relation. Thus a statement 'It is raining today and 1 + 1 = 2' sounds odd, but in logic it is a perfectly acceptable statement formed from the statements 'It is raining today' and '1 + 1 = 2'.

**Example 4:** Translate the following statement:

'Jack and Jill went up the hill' into symbolic form using conjunction.

Solution: Let p : Jack went up the hill, q : Jill went up the hill.

Then the given statement can be written in symbolic form as  $p \land q$ .

#### Disjunction

The **disjunction** of two statements p and q is the statement  $p \lor q$  which is read as 'p or q'. The statement  $p \lor q$  has the truth value F only when both p and q have the truth value F. Otherwise it has truth value T.

р	q	$p \lor q$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

**Table 3:** Truth table for disjunction

**Example 5:** Consider the following statements *p* : I shall go to the game.

q : I shall watch the game on television.

Then  $p \lor q$ : I shall go to the game or watch the game on television.

#### **Conditional proposition**

If p and q are any two statements (or propositions) then the statement  $p \rightarrow q$  which is read as, 'If p, then q' is called a **conditional statement** (or **proposition**) or **implication** and the connective is the **conditional connective**.

The conditional is defined by the following table:

р	q	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	T
T	E	E
I	г	г
F	Т	Т
F	F	Т

Table 4. Truth table for conditional

In this conditional statement, p is called the **hypothesis** or **premise** or **antecedent** and q is called the **consequence** or **conclusion**.

To understand better, this connective can be looked as a conditional promise. If the promise is violated (broken), the conditional (implication) is false. Otherwise it is true. For this reason, the only circumstances under which the conditional  $p \rightarrow q$  is false is when p is true and q is false.

**Example 6:** *Translate the following statement:* 

'The crop will be destroyed if there is a flood' into symbolic form using conditional connective.

**Solution:** Let *c* : the crop will be destroyed; *f* : there is a flood.

Let us rewrite the given statement as

'If there is a flood, then the crop will be destroyed'. So, the symbolic form of the given statement is  $f \rightarrow c$ .

**Example 7:** Let p and q denote the statements:

p : You drive over 70 km per hour.

q : You get a speeding ticket.

Write the following statements into symbolic forms.

(i) You will get a speeding ticket if you drive over 70 km per hour.

(ii) Driving over 70 km per hour is sufficient for getting a speeding ticket.

(iii) If you do not drive over 70 km per hour then you will not get a speeding ticket. (iv) Whenever you get a speeding ticket, you drive over 70 km per hour. **Solution:** (i)  $p \rightarrow q$  (ii)  $p \rightarrow q$  (iii)  $p \rightarrow q$  (iv)  $q \rightarrow p$ .

**Notes:** 1. In ordinary language, it is customary to assume some kind of relationship between the antecedent and the consequent in using the conditional. But in logic, the antecedent and the

consequent in a conditional statement are not required to refer to the same subject matter. For example, the statement 'If I get sufficient money then I shall purchase a high-speed computer' sounds reasonable. On the other hand, a statement such as 'If I purchase a computer then this pen is red' does not make sense in our conventional language. But according to the definition of conditional, this proposition is perfectly acceptable and has a truth-value which depends on the truth-values of the component statements.

2. Some of the alternative terminologies used to express  $p \rightarrow q$  (if p, then q) are the following: (i) p implies q

(*ii*) p only if q ('If p, then q' formulation emphasizes the antecedent, whereas 'p only if q' formulation emphasizes the consequent. The difference is only stylistic.)

(*iii*) q if p, or q when p.

(*iv*) *q* follows from *p*, or *q* whenever *p*.

(v) p is sufficient for q, or a sufficient condition for q is p. (vi) q is necessary for p, or a necessary condition for p is q. (vii) q is consequence of p.

## **Converse, Inverse and Contrapositive**

If  $P \rightarrow Q$  is a conditional statement, then

(1).  $Q \rightarrow P$  is called its *converse* 

(2).  $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$  is called its *inverse* 

(3).  $\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$  is called its *contrapositive*.

Truth table for  $Q \rightarrow P$  (converse of  $P \rightarrow Q$ )

	~	
Р	Q	$Q \rightarrow P$
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	Т
F	Т	F
F	F	Т

Truth table for  $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$  (inverse of  $P \rightarrow Q$ )

Р	Q	$\neg P$	$\neg Q$	$\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$
Т	Т	F	F	Т
Т	F	F	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	Т

Truth table for  $\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$  (contrapositive of  $P \rightarrow Q$ )

Р	Q	$\neg Q$	$\neg P$	$\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$
Т	Т	F	F	Т
Т	F	Т	F	F
F	Т	F	Т	Т
F	F	Т	Т	Т

Example: Consider the statement P: It rains.
Q: The crop will grow.
The implication P → Q states that R: If it rains then the crop will grow.
The converse of the implication P → Q, namely Q → P sates that S: If the crop will grow then there has been rain.
The inverse of the implication P → Q, namely ¬P → ¬Q sates that U: If it does not rain then the crop will not grow.
The contraposition of the implication P → Q, namely ¬Q → ¬P states that T: If the crop do not grow then there has been no rain.

Example 7. C		rum iubic jor (p	$\gamma \gamma q \gamma \gamma (q \gamma p)$	
р	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$q \rightarrow p$	$(p \to q) \land (q \to p)$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	Т	F
F	Т	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	Т

**Example 9:** Construct the truth table for  $(p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$ 

#### **Biconditional proposition**

If p and q are any two statements (propositions), then the statement  $p \leftrightarrow q$  which is read as 'p if and only if q' and abbreviated as 'p iff q' is called a **biconditional statement** and the connective is the **biconditional connective**.

The truth table of  $p \leftrightarrow q$  is given by the following table:

14010 0	• • • • • • • • • • • •	• 101 •1••
р	q	p↔q
Т	Т	Τ
Т	F	F
F	Т	F
F	F	Т

Table 6. Truth table for biconditional

It may be noted that p q is true only when both p and q are true or when both p and q are false. Observe that p q is true when both the conditionals  $p \rightarrow q$  and  $q \rightarrow p$  are true, *i.e.*, the truth-values of  $(p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$ , given in Ex. 9, are identical to the truth-values of p q defined here.

**Note:** The notation  $p \leftrightarrow q$  is also used instead of  $p \leftrightarrow q$ .

### TAUTOLOGY AND CONTRADICTION

**Tautology:** A statement formula which is true regardless of the truth values of the statements which replace the variables in it is called a **universally valid formula** or a **logical truth** or a **tautology**.

**Contradiction:** A statement formula which is false regardless of the truth values of the statements which replace the variables in it is said to be a **contradiction**.

**Contingency:** A statement formula which is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is known as a **contingency**.

# **Substitution Instance**

A formula A is called a substitution instance of another formula B if A can be obtained form B by substituting formulas for some variables of B, with the condition that the same formula is substituted for the same variable each time it occurs.

Example: Let  $B : P \to (J \land P)$ .

Substitute  $R \leftrightarrow S$  for P in B, we get

 $(i): (R \leftrightarrow S) \rightarrow (J \land (R \leftrightarrow S))$ 

Then A is a substitution instance of B.

Note that  $(R \leftrightarrow S) \rightarrow (J \land P)$  is not a substitution instance of B because the variables

P in  $J \land P$  was not replaced by  $R \leftrightarrow S$ .

# **Equivalence of Formulas**

Two formulas A and B are said to equivalent to each other if and only if  $A \leftrightarrow B$  is a tautology.

If  $A \leftrightarrow B$  is a tautology, we write  $A \Leftrightarrow B$  which is read as A is equivalent to B.

Note : 1.  $\Leftrightarrow$  is only symbol, but not connective.

- 2.  $A \leftrightarrow B$  is a tautology if and only if truth tables of A and B are the same.
- 3. Equivalence relation is symmetric and transitive.

Method I. Truth Table Method: One method to determine whether any two statement formulas are equivalent is to construct their truth tables.

Example: Prove  $P \lor Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)$ . Solution:

Р	Q	PVQ	$\neg P$	$\neg Q$	$\neg P \land \neg Q$	$\neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)$	$(P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)$
Т	Т	Т	F	F	F	Т	Т
Т	F	Т	F	Т	F	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	Т	F	F	Т	Т
F	F	F	Т	Т	Т	F	Т

As  $P \lor Q = \neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)$  is a tautology, then  $P \lor Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)$ .

Example: Prove  $(P \rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor Q)$ . Solution:

P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$	$\neg P$	$\neg P \lor Q$	$(P \to Q)  (\neg P \lor Q)$
Т	Т	Т	F	Т	Т
T	F	F	F	F	Т
F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т

As  $(P \to Q)$   $(\neg P \lor Q)$  is a tautology then  $(P \to Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor Q)$ .

Equivalence Formulas:

1. Idempotent lav	vs:
-------------------	-----

2.	(a) $P \lor P \Leftrightarrow P$ Associative laws:	(ե	$(P \land P \Leftrightarrow P) \land P \Leftrightarrow P$		
3.	(a) $(P \lor Q) \lor R \Leftrightarrow P \lor (Q \lor R)$ Commutative laws:	(ხ	$(P \land Q) \land P$	$R \Leftrightarrow P \land (Q \land A)$	<i>R</i> )
4.	(a) $P \lor Q \Leftrightarrow Q \lor P$ Distributive laws:	(b	$) P \land Q \Leftrightarrow Q$	ΛP	
5.	$P \lor (Q \land R) \Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \land (P$ Identity laws:	VR)	Р Л (	$Q \lor R) \Leftrightarrow (P \lor$	$1Q) V(P \land R)$
6	(a) (1) $P \lor F \Leftrightarrow P$ (b) (i) $P \land T \Leftrightarrow P$ Component laws:	(11) <i>P V</i> (11) <i>P A</i>	$T \Leftrightarrow T$ $F \Leftrightarrow F$		
0.	(a) (i) $P \lor \neg P \Leftrightarrow T$	(ii) <i>P A</i>	$\neg P \Leftrightarrow F$		
7.	(b) (i) $\neg \neg P \Leftrightarrow P$ Absorption laws:	(ii) <i>¬T</i>	$F \Leftrightarrow F, \neg F \Leftrightarrow$	T	
8.	(a) $P \lor (P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow P$ Demorgan's laws:	(b) <i>P 1</i> (	$(P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow P$		
	(a) $\neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q$	(b) ¬( <i>P</i>	$\land Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P$	$V \neg Q$	

**Method II. Replacement Process**: Consider a formula  $A : P \to (Q \to R)$ . The formula  $Q \to R$  is a part of the formula A. If we replace  $Q \to R$  by an equivalent formula  $\neg Q \lor R$  in A, we get another formula  $B : P \to (\neg Q \lor R)$ . One can easily verify that the formulas A and B are equivalent to each other. This process of obtaining B from A as the replacement process.

Example: Prove that  $P \to (Q \to R) \Leftrightarrow P \to (\neg Q \lor R) \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \to R.$ (May. 2010) Solution:  $P \to (Q \to R) \Leftrightarrow P \to (\neg Q \lor R)$  [ $\because Q \to R \Leftrightarrow \neg Q \lor R$ ]  $\Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor (\neg Q \lor R)$  [ $\because P \to Q \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor Q$ ]  $\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \lor R$  [by Associative laws]  $\Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q) \lor R$  [by De Morgan's laws]  $\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \to R[\because P \to Q \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor Q].$ Example: Prove that  $(P \to Q) \land (R \to Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \lor R) \to Q.$ Solution:  $(P \to Q) \land (R \to Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor Q) \land (\neg R \lor Q)$ 

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land \neg R) \lor Q \Leftrightarrow$$
$$\neg (P \lor R) \lor Q \Leftrightarrow P \lor$$
$$R \to Q$$

Example: Prove that 
$$P \rightarrow (Q \rightarrow P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \rightarrow (P \rightarrow Q)$$
.  
Solution:  $P \rightarrow (Q \rightarrow P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor (Q \rightarrow P)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor (\neg Q \lor P)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor P) \lor \neg Q$   
 $\Leftrightarrow T \lor \neg Q$   
 $\Rightarrow T$   
and

and

$$\neg P \rightarrow (P \rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg P) \lor (P \rightarrow Q)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P \lor (\neg P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$(P \lor \neg P) \lor Q \Leftrightarrow T$$
$$\lor Q$$
$$\Leftrightarrow T$$

So,  $P \to (Q \to P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \to (P \to Q)$ .

\*\*\*Example: Prove that  $(\neg P \land (\neg Q \land R)) \lor (Q \land R) \lor (P \land R) \Leftrightarrow R.$  (Nov. 2009) Solution:

$$(\neg P \land (\neg Q \land R)) \lor (Q \land R) \lor (P \land R)$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow ((\neg P \land \neg Q) \land R) \lor ((Q \lor P) \land R) \qquad [Associative and Distributive laws]$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg (P \lor Q) \land R) \lor ((Q \lor P) \land R) \qquad [De Morgan's laws]$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg (P \lor Q) \lor (P \lor Q)) \land R \qquad [Distributive laws]$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow T \land R \qquad [\because \neg P \lor P \Leftrightarrow T]$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow R$$

\*\*Example: Show (( $P \lor Q$ )  $\land \neg (\neg P \land (\neg Q \lor \neg R)$ ))  $\lor (\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg R)$  is tautology. Solution: By De Morgan's laws, we have

$$\neg P \land \neg Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q)$$
$$\neg P \lor \neg R \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land R)$$

Therefore

$$(\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg R) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q) \lor \neg (P \land R)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg ((P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R))$$

Also

$$\neg (\neg P \land (\neg Q \lor \neg R)) \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg P \land \neg (Q \land R))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P \lor (Q \land R)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$$
Hence  $((P \lor Q) \land \neg (\neg P \land (\neg Q \lor \neg R))) \Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$ 
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$$

Thus 
$$((P \lor Q) \land \neg (\neg P \land (\neg Q \lor \neg R))) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg R)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow [(P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)] \lor \neg [(P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)]$$
$$\Leftrightarrow T$$

Hence the given formula is a tautology.

Example: Show that  $(P \land Q) \rightarrow (P \lor Q)$  is a tautology.

Solution:  $(P \land Q) \rightarrow (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q) \lor (P \lor Q) [\because P \rightarrow Q \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor Q]$ 

 $\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \lor (P \lor Q) \qquad [by De Morgan's laws]$  $\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor P) \lor (\neg Q \lor Q) \quad [by Associative laws and commutative laws]$  $\Leftrightarrow (T \lor T) [by negation laws]$  $\Leftrightarrow T$ 

Hence, the result.

Example: Write the negation of the following statements.

(a). Jan will take a job in industry or go to graduate school.

(b). James will bicycle or run tomorrow.

(c). If the processor is fast then the printer is slow.

Solution: (a). Let *P* : Jan will take a job in industry.

Q: Jan will go to graduate school.

The given statement can be written in the symbolic as  $P \lor Q$ .

The negation of  $P \lor Q$  is given by  $\neg (P \lor Q)$ .

$$\neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q.$$

 $\neg P \land \neg Q$ : Jan will not take a job in industry and he will not go to graduate school.

(b). Let *P* : James will bicycle.

Q: James will run tomorrow.

The given statement can be written in the symbolic as  $P \lor Q$ .

The negation of  $P \lor Q$  is given by  $\neg (P \lor Q)$ .

 $\neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q.$ 

 $\neg P \land \neg Q$ : James will not bicycle and he will not run tomorrow.

(c). Let P: The processor is fast.

*Q*: The printer is slow.

The given statement can be written in the symbolic as  $P \rightarrow Q$ .

The negation of  $P \rightarrow Q$  is given by  $\neg (P \rightarrow Q)$ .

$$\neg (P \to Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow P \land \neg Q.$$

 $P \land \neg Q$ : The processor is fast and the printer is fast.

Example: Use Demorgans laws to write the negation of each statement.

- (a). I want a car and worth a cycle.
- (b). My cat stays outside or it makes a mess.
- (c). I've fallen and I can't get up.
- (d). You study or you don't get a good grade.

Solution: (a). I don't want a car or not worth a cycle.

(b). My cat not stays outside and it does not make a mess.

(Nov. 2009)

(c). I have not fallen or I can get up.

(d). You can not study and you get a good grade.

Exercises: 1. Write the negation of the following statements.

(a). If it is raining, then the game is canceled.

(b). If he studies then he will pass the examination.

Are  $(p \to q) \to r$  and  $p \to (q \to r)$  logically equivalent? Justify your answer by using the rules of logic to simply both expressions and also by using truth tables. Solution:  $(p \to q) \to r$  and  $p \to (q \to r)$  are not logically equivalent because Method I: Consider

$$(p \to q) \to r \Leftrightarrow (\neg p \ \forall q) \to r$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg p \ \forall q) \ \forall r \Leftrightarrow$$
$$(p \land \neg q) \ \forall r$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (p \land r) \ \lor (\neg q \land r)$$

and

$$p \to (q \to r) \Leftrightarrow p \to (\neg q \ Vr)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg p \ V(\neg q \ Vr) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$\neg p \ V \neg q \ Vr.$$

Method II: (Truth Table Method)

p	q	r	$p \rightarrow q$	(p -	$\rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$	$q \rightarrow r$	$p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)$
Т	Т	Т	Т		Т	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	Т		F	F	F
Т	F	Т	F		Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F		Т	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	Т		Т	Т	Т
F	Т	F	Т		F	F	Т
F	F	Т	Т		Т	Т	Т
F	F	F	Т		F	Т	Т

Here the truth values (columns) of  $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$  and  $p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)$  are not identical.

Consider the statement: "If you study hard, then you will excel". Write its converse, contra positive and logical negation in logic.

# **Duality Law**

Two formulas A and  $A^*$  are said to be *duals* of each other if either one can be obtained from the other by replacing A by V and V by A. The connectives V and A are called *duals* of each other. If the formula A contains the special variable T or F, then  $A^*$ , its dual is obtained by replacing T by F and F by T in addition to the above mentioned interchanges. Example: Write the dual of the following formulas:
(i).  $(P \lor Q) \land R$  (ii).  $(P \land Q) \lor T$  (iii).  $(P \land Q) \lor (P \lor \neg (Q \land \neg S))$ Solution: The duals of the formulas may be written as

(i).  $(P \land Q) \lor R$  (ii).  $(P \lor Q) \land F$  (iii).  $(P \lor Q) \land (P \land \neg (Q \lor \neg S))$ Result 1: The negation of the formula is equivalent to its dual in which every variable is replaced by its negation. We can prove

 $\neg A(P_1, P_2, ..., P_n) \Leftrightarrow A^*(\neg P_1, \neg P_2, ..., \neg P_n)$ 

Example: Prove that (a).  $\neg (P \land Q) \rightarrow (\neg P \lor (\neg P \lor Q)) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor Q)$ 

(b).  $(P \ VQ) \land (\neg P \land (\neg P \land Q)) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land Q)$ Solution: (a). $\neg (P \land Q) \rightarrow (\neg P \ V(\neg P \ VQ)) \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \ V(\neg P \ VQ)$   $\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \ V(\neg P \ VQ)$   $\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \ V \neg P \ VQ$   $\Leftrightarrow ((P \land Q) \ V \neg P)) \ VQ$   $\Leftrightarrow ((P \land V \neg P)) \ A(Q \ V \neg P)) \ VQ$   $\Leftrightarrow (Q \ V \neg P)) \ VQ$   $\Leftrightarrow (Q \ V \neg P) \ VQ$   $\Leftrightarrow (Q \ V \neg P) \ VQ$   $\Leftrightarrow (Q \ V \neg P) \ VQ$  $\Leftrightarrow (Q \ V \neg P) \ VQ$ 

(b). From (a)

$$(P \land O) \lor (\neg P \lor (\neg P \lor O)) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor O$$

Writing the dual

$$(P \lor Q) \land (\neg P \land (\neg P \land Q)) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land Q)$$

## **Tautological Implications**

A statement formula A is said to *tautologically imply* a statement B if and only if  $A \rightarrow B$  is a tautology.

In this case we write  $A \Rightarrow B$ , which is read as 'A implies B'.

Note:  $\Rightarrow$  is not a connective,  $A \Rightarrow B$  is not a statement formula.

 $A \Rightarrow B$  states that  $A \rightarrow B$  is tautology.

Clearly  $A \Rightarrow B$  guarantees that B has a truth value T whenever A has the truth value T.

One can determine whether  $A \Rightarrow B$  by constructing the truth tables of A and B in the same manner as was done in the determination of  $A \Leftrightarrow B$ . Example: Prove that  $(P \rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow (\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P)$ .

#### Solution:

Р	Q	$\neg P$	$\neg Q$	$P \rightarrow Q$	$\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$	$(P \to Q) \to (\neg Q \to \neg P)$
Т	Т	F	F	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	Т	F	F	Т
F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т	Т
F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т

Since all the entries in the last column are true,  $(P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow (\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P)$  is a tautology.

Hence  $(P \rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow (\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P)$ .

In order to show any of the given implications, it is sufficient to show that an assignment of the truth value T to the antecedent of the corresponding condi-

tional leads to the truth value T for the consequent. This procedure guarantees that the conditional becomes tautology, thereby proving the implication.

Example: Prove that  $\neg Q \land (P \rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow \neg P$ .

Solution: Assume that the antecedent  $\neg Q \land (P \rightarrow Q)$  has the truth value T, then both  $\neg Q$  and  $P \rightarrow Q$  have the truth value T, which means that Q has the truth value F,  $P \rightarrow Q$  has the truth value T. Hence P must have the truth value F.

Therefore the consequent  $\neg P$  must have the truth value *T*.

$$\neg Q \land (P \to Q) \Rightarrow \neg P .$$

Another method to show  $A \Rightarrow B$  is to assume that the consequent B has the truth value F and then show that this assumption leads to A having the truth value F. Then  $A \rightarrow B$  must have the truth value T.

Example: Show that  $\neg (P \rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow P$ .

Solution: Assume that P has the truth value F. When P has  $F, P \to Q$  has T, then  $\neg(P \to Q)$  has F. Hence  $\neg(P \to Q) \to P$  has T.

 $\neg (P \rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow P$ 

# **Other Connectives**

We introduce the connectives NAND, NOR which have useful applications in the design of computers.

**NAND:** The word NAND is a combination of 'NOT' and 'AND' where 'NOT' stands for negation and 'AND' for the conjunction. It is denoted by the symbol  $\uparrow$ .

If P and Q are two formulas then

$$P \uparrow Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q)$$

The connective  $\uparrow$  has the following equivalence:

 $P \uparrow P \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor \neg P \Leftrightarrow \neg P.$ 

$$(P \uparrow Q) \uparrow (P \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg (P \land Q)) \Leftrightarrow P \land Q.$$
$$(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (Q \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \uparrow \neg Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg P \land \neg Q) \Leftrightarrow P \lor Q.$$
NAND is Commutative: Let P and Q be any two statement formulas.

$$(P \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg (Q \land P) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$(Q \uparrow P)$$

: NAND is commutative.

NAND is not Associative: Let P, Q and R be any three statement formulas.

Consider 
$$\uparrow (Q \uparrow R) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land (Q \uparrow R)) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land (\neg (Q \land R)))$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor (Q \land R))$   
 $(P \uparrow Q) \uparrow R \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q) \uparrow R$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg (P \land Q) \land R) \Leftrightarrow$   
 $(P \land Q) \lor \neg R$ 

Therefore the connective  $\uparrow$  is not associative.

**NOR:** The word NOR is a combination of 'NOT' and 'OR' where 'NOT' stands for negation and 'OR' for the disjunction. It is denoted by the symbol  $\downarrow$ .

If P and Q are two formulas then

$$P \downarrow Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q)$$

The connective  $\downarrow$  has the following equivalence:

$$\begin{split} P \downarrow P \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg P \Leftrightarrow \neg P . \\ (P \downarrow Q) \downarrow (P \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg (P \lor Q)) \Leftrightarrow P \lor Q. \end{split}$$

$$(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (Q \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \downarrow \neg Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \Leftrightarrow P \land Q.$$

NOR is Commutative: Let P and Q be any two statement formulas.

$$(P \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg (Q \lor P) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$(Q \downarrow P)$$

 $\therefore$  NOR is commutative.

NOR is not Associative: Let P, Q and R be any three statement formulas. Consider

$$P \downarrow (Q \downarrow R) \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor (Q \downarrow R))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor (\neg (Q \lor R)))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg P \land (Q \lor R)$$
$$(P \downarrow Q) \downarrow R \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q) \downarrow R$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg (P \lor Q) \lor R) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$(P \lor Q) \land \neg R$$

Therefore the connective  $\downarrow$  is not associative.

Evidently,  $P \uparrow Q$  and  $P \downarrow Q$  are duals of each other. Since

$$\neg (P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor \neg Q$$
$$\neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q.$$

Example: Express  $P \downarrow Q$  interms of  $\uparrow$  only. Solution:

$$\downarrow Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q)$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \uparrow (P \lor Q)$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow [(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (Q \uparrow Q)] \uparrow [(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (Q \uparrow Q)]$$
  
Example: Express  $P \uparrow Q$  interms of  $\downarrow$  only. (May-2012)  
Solution:  

$$\uparrow Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q)$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \downarrow (P \land Q)$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow [(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (Q \downarrow Q)] \downarrow [(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (Q \downarrow Q)]$$

# **Truth Tables**

Example: Show that  $(A \oplus B) \lor (A \downarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (A \uparrow B)$ . (May-2012) Solution: We prove this by constructing truth table.

A	B	$A \oplus B$	$A \downarrow B$	$(A \oplus B) \lor (A \downarrow B)$	$A \uparrow B$
Т	Т	F	F	F	F
Т	F	Т	F	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т
F	F	F	Т	Т	Т

As columns  $(A \oplus B) \lor (A \downarrow B)$  and  $(A \uparrow B)$  are identical.

 $\therefore (A \oplus B) \lor (A \downarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (A \uparrow B).$ 

## Normal Forms

If a given statement formula  $A(p_1, p_2, ..., p_n)$  involves *n* atomic variables, we have  $2^n$  possible combinations of truth values of statements replacing the variables.

The formula *A* is a tautology if *A* has the truth value *T* for all possible assignments of the truth values to the variables  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ , ... $p_n$  and *A* is called a contradiction if *A* has the truth value *F* for all possible assignments of the truth values of the *n* variables. *A* is said to be *satis able* if *A* has the truth value *T* for atleast one combination of truth values assigned to  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ , ... $p_n$ .

The problem of determining whether a given statement formula is a Tautology, or a Contradiction is called a decision problem.

The construction of truth table involves a finite number of steps, but the construction may not be practical. We therefore reduce the given statement formula to normal form and find whether a given statement formula is a Tautology or Contradiction or atleast satisfiable.

It will be convenient to use the word "product" in place of "conjunction" and "sum" in place of "disjunction" in our current discussion.

A product of the variables and their negations in a formula is called an *elementary product*. Similarly, a sum of the variables and their negations in a formula is called an *elementary sum*.

Let *P* and *Q* be any atomic variables. Then *P*,  $\neg P \land Q$ ,  $\neg Q \land P \neg P$ , *P*  $\neg P$ , and  $Q \land \neg P$  are some examples of elementary products. On the other hand, *P*,  $\neg P \lor Q$ ,  $\neg Q \lor P \lor \neg P$ , *P*  $\lor \lor \neg P$ , *P*  $\lor \lor \neg P$ , and *Q*  $\lor \lor \neg P$  are some examples of elementary sums.

Any part of an elementary sum or product which is itself an elementary sum or product is called a *factor* of the original elementary sum or product. Thus  $\neg Q, \land \neg P$ , and  $\neg Q \land P$  are some of the factors of  $\neg Q \land P \land \neg P$ .

## **Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF)**

A formula which is equivalent to a given formula and which consists of a sum of elementary products is called a *disjunctive normal form* of the given formula.

Example: Obtain disjunctive normal forms of

(a) 
$$P \land (P \to Q)$$
; (b)  $\neg (P \lor Q) \leftrightarrow (P \land Q)$ .  
Solution: (a) We have  
$$P \land (P \to Q) \Leftrightarrow P \land (\neg P \lor Q)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land \neg P) \lor (P \land Q)$$
(b)  $\neg (P \lor Q) \leftrightarrow (P \land Q)$ 

(b) 
$$(P \lor Q) \leftrightarrow (P \land Q)$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow (\neg (P \lor Q) \land (P \land Q)) \lor ((P \lor Q) \land \neg (P \land Q)) \text{ [using}$   
 $R \leftrightarrow S \Leftrightarrow (R \land S) \lor (\neg R \land \neg S)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow ((\neg P \land \neg Q) \land (P \land Q)) \lor ((P \lor Q) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q))$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land \neg Q \land P \land Q) \lor ((P \lor Q) \land \neg P) \lor ((P \lor Q) \land \neg Q)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land \neg Q \land P \land Q) \lor (P \land \neg P) \lor (Q \land \neg P) \lor (P \land \neg Q) \lor (Q \land \neg Q)$ 

which is the required disjunctive normal form.

Note: The DNF of a given formula is not unique.

### **Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)**

A formula which is equivalent to a given formula and which consists of a product of elementary sums is called a *conjunctive normal form* of the given formula.

The method for obtaining conjunctive normal form of a given formula is similar to the one given for disjunctive normal form. Again, the conjunctive normal form is not unique.

Example: Obtain conjunctive normal forms of

(a) 
$$P \land (P \to Q)$$
; (b)  $\neg (P \lor Q) \leftrightarrow (P \land Q)$ .  
Solution: (a).  $P \land (P \to Q) \Leftrightarrow P \land (\neg P \lor Q)$   
(b). $\neg (P \lor Q) \leftrightarrow (P \land Q)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (\neg (P \lor Q) \to (P \land Q)) \land ((P \land Q) \to \neg (P \lor Q))$   
 $\Leftrightarrow ((P \lor Q) \lor (P \land Q)) \land (\neg (P \land Q) \lor \neg (P \lor Q))$   
 $\Leftrightarrow [(P \lor Q \lor P) \land (P \lor Q \lor Q)] \land [(\neg P \lor \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q)]$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q \lor P) \land (P \lor Q \lor Q) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg P) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg Q)$ 

Note: A given formula is tautology if every elementary sum in CNF is tautology. Example: Show that the formula  $Q \lor (P \land \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q)$  is a tautology. Solution: First we obtain a CNF of the given formula.

$$\begin{array}{l} Q \ V(P \ \Lambda \neg Q) \ V(\neg P \ \Lambda \neg Q) \Leftrightarrow Q \ V((P \ V \neg P) \ \Lambda \neg Q) \\ \Leftrightarrow (Q \ V(P \ V \neg P)) \ \Lambda (Q \ V \neg Q) \\ \Leftrightarrow (Q \ VP \ V \neg P) \ \Lambda (Q \ V \neg Q) \end{array}$$

Since each of the elementary sum is a tautology, hence the given formula is tautology.

#### **Principal Disjunctive Normal Form**

In this section, we will discuss the concept of principal disjunctive normal form (PDNF).

Minterm: For a given number of variables, the minterm consists of conjunctions in which each statement variable or its negation, but not both, appears only once.

Let P and Q be the two statement variables. Then there are  $2^2$  minterms given by  $P \land Q, P \land \neg Q$ ,

$$\neg P \land Q$$
, and  $\neg P \land \neg Q$ .

Minterms for three variables P, Q and R are  $P \land Q \land R$ ,  $P \land Q \land \neg R$ ,  $P \land \neg Q \land R$ ,  $P \land \neg Q \land R$ ,  $P \land \neg R$ ,  $\neg P$ 

 $\land Q \land R, \neg P \land Q \land \neg R, \neg P \land \neg Q \land R$  and  $\neg P \land \neg Q \land \neg R$ . From the truth tables of these minterms of *P* and *Q*, it is clear that

Р	Q	РЛД	$P \land \neg Q$	$\neg P \land Q$	$\neg P \land \neg Q$
Т	Т	Т	F	F	F
Т	F	F	Т	F	F
F	Т	F	F	Т	F
F	F	F	F	F	Т

(i). no two minterms are equivalent

(ii). Each minterm has the truth value T for exactly one combination of the truth values of the variables P and Q.

**Definition**: For a given formula, an equivalent formula consisting of disjunctions of minterms only is called the Principal disjunctive normal form of the formula.

The principle disjunctive normal formula is also called the sum-of-products canonical form.

#### Methods to obtain PDNF of a given formula

### (a). By Truth table:

(i). Construct a truth table of the given formula.

(ii). For every truth value T in the truth table of the given formula, select the minterm which also has the value T for the same combination of the truth values of P and Q.

(iii). The disjunction of these minterms will then be equivalent to the given formula.

Example: Obtain the PDNF of  $P \rightarrow Q$ . Solution: From the truth table of  $P \rightarrow Q$ 

Р	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$	Minterm
Т	Т	Т	РЛД
Т	F	F	$P \land \neg Q$
F	Т	Т	$\neg P \land Q$
F	F	Т	$\neg P \land \neg Q$

The PDNF of  $P \rightarrow Q$  is  $(P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q)$ .

 $\therefore P \to Q \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q).$ 

Example: Obtain the PDNF for  $(P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land R) \lor (Q \land R)$ . Solution:

P	Q	R	Minterm	РAQ	$\neg P \land R$	$Q \land R$	$(P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land R) \lor (Q \land R)$
Т	Т	Т	$P \land Q \land R$	Т	F	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	$P \land Q \land \neg R$	Т	F	F	Т
Т	F	Т	$P \land \neg Q \land R$	F	F	F	F
Т	F	F	$P \land \neg Q \land \neg R$	F	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	$\neg P \land Q \land R$	F	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	F	$\neg P \land Q \land \neg R$	F	F	F	F
F	F	Т	$\neg P \land \neg Q \land R$	F	Т	F	Т
F	F	F	$\neg P \land \neg Q \land \neg R$	F	F	F	F

The PDNF of  $(P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land R) \lor (Q \land R)$  is

 $(P \land Q \land R) \lor (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land Q \land R) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q \land R).$ 

### (b). Without constructing the truth table:

In order to obtain the principal disjunctive normal form of a given formula is constructed as follows: (1). First replace  $\rightarrow$ , by their equivalent formula containing only  $\Lambda$ , V and  $\neg$ .

(2). Next, negations are applied to the variables by De Morgan's laws followed by the application of distributive laws.

(3). Any elementarily product which is a contradiction is dropped. Minterms are ob-tained in the disjunctions by introducing the missing factors. Identical minterms appearing in the disjunctions are deleted.

Example: Obtain the principal disjunctive normal form of

(a) 
$$\neg P \lor Q$$
; (b)  $(P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land R) \lor (Q \land R)$ .

Solution:

$$(a) \qquad \neg P \lor Q \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land T) \lor (Q \land T) \qquad [\because A \land T \Leftrightarrow A] \\ \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land (Q \lor \neg Q)) \lor (Q \land (P \lor \neg P)) [\because P \lor \neg P \Leftrightarrow T] \\ \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (Q \land P) \lor (Q \land \neg P) \\ [\because P \land (Q \lor R) \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \lor (P \land R) \\ \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (P \land Q) \qquad [\because P \lor P \Leftrightarrow P]$$

 $(b) (P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land R) \lor (Q \land R)$ 

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q \land T) \lor (\neg P \land R \land T) \lor (Q \land R \land T)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q \land (R \lor \neg R)) \lor (\neg P \land R \land (Q \lor \neg Q)) \lor (Q \land R \land (P \lor \neg P))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q \land R) \lor (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land R \land Q)(\neg P \land R \land \neg Q)$$

$$\lor (Q \land R \land P) \lor (Q \land R \land \neg P)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q \land R) \lor (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land Q \land R) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q \land R)$$

$$P \ V(P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow P$$
$$P \ V(\neg P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow P \ VQ$$

Solution: We write the principal disjunctive normal form of each formula and com-pare these normal forms.

$$(a) P V(P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \land T) V(P \land Q) \qquad [\because P \land Q \Leftrightarrow P]$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land (Q \lor \neg Q)) V(P \land Q) \qquad [\because P \lor \neg P \Leftrightarrow T]$$
$$\Leftrightarrow ((P \land Q) \lor (P \land \neg Q)) \lor (P \land Q) \text{ [by distributive laws]}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \lor (P \land \neg Q) [\because P \lor P \Leftrightarrow P]$$
which is the required PDNF.

Now,

$$\Leftrightarrow P \land (Q \lor \neg Q)$$

 $\Leftrightarrow P \land T$ 

$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \lor (P \land \neg Q)$$

which is the required PDNF.

Hence,  $P \lor (P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow P$ .

$$(b) P V(\neg P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \land T) V(\neg P \land Q)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land (Q \lor \neg Q)) \lor (\neg P \land Q)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \lor (P \land \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land Q)$$

which is the required PDNF.

Now,

$$P \ VQ \Leftrightarrow (P \land T) \ V(Q \land T)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land (Q \lor \neg Q)) \ V(Q \land (P \lor \neg P))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \ V(P \land \neg Q) \ V(Q \land P) \ V(Q \land \neg P)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \ V(P \land \neg Q) \ V(\neg P \land Q)$$

which is the required PDNF.

Hence,  $P V(\neg P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow P \lor Q$ . Example: Obtain the principal disjunctive normal form of

$$P \to ((P \to Q) \land \neg (\neg Q \lor \neg P)).$$
 (Nov. 2011)

Solution: Using  $P \rightarrow Q \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor Q$  and De Morgan's law, we obtain

$$\rightarrow ((P \rightarrow Q) \land \neg (\neg Q \lor \neg P)) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \\ \lor ((\neg P \lor Q) \land (Q \land P))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor ((\neg P \land Q \land P) \lor (Q \land Q \land P)) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\neg P \lor F \lor (P \land Q)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor (P \land Q)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land T) \lor (P \land Q)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (P \land Q)$$

Hence  $(P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q)$  is the required PDNF.

### **Principal Conjunctive Normal Form**

The dual of a minterm is called a Maxterm. For a given number of variables, the *maxterm* consists of disjunctions in which each variable or its negation, but not both, appears only once. Each of the maxterm has the truth value F for exactly one com-bination of the truth values of the variables. Now we define the principal conjunctive normal form.

For a given formula, an equivalent formula consisting of conjunctions of the max-terms only is known as its *principle conjunctive normal form*. This normal form is also called the *product-of-sums canonical form*. The method for obtaining the PCNF for a given formula is similar to the one described previously for PDNF.

Example: Obtain the principal conjunctive normal form of the formula  $(\neg P \rightarrow R) \land (Q \leftrightarrow P)$ Solution:

$$(\neg P \to R) \land (Q \leftrightarrow P)$$

$$\Rightarrow [\neg (\neg P) \lor R] \land [(Q \to P) \land (P \to Q)]$$

$$\Rightarrow (P \lor R) \land [(\neg Q \lor P) \land (\neg P \lor Q)]$$

$$\Rightarrow (P \lor R \lor F) \land [(\neg Q \lor P \lor F) \land (\neg P \lor Q \lor F)]$$

$$\Rightarrow [(P \lor R) \lor (Q \land \neg Q)] \land [\neg Q \lor P) \lor (R \land \neg R)] \land [(\neg P \lor Q) \lor (R \land \neg R)]$$

$$\Rightarrow (P \lor R \lor Q) \land (P \lor R \lor \neg Q) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg R)$$

$$\land (\neg P \lor Q \lor R) \land (\neg P \lor Q \lor \neg R)$$

$$\Rightarrow (P \lor Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor Q \lor \neg R)$$

$$\Rightarrow (P \lor Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor Q \lor \neg R)$$
which is required principal conjunctive normal form.

Note: If the principal disjunctive (conjunctive) normal form of a given formula A containing n variables is known, then the principal disjunctive (conjunctive) normal form of  $\neg A$  will consist of the disjunction (conjunction) of the remaining minterms (maxterms) which do not appear in the principal disjunctive (conjunctive) normal form of A. From  $A \Leftrightarrow \neg \neg A$  one can obtain the principal conjunctive (disjunctive) normal form of A by repeated applications of De Morgan's laws to the principal disjunctive (conjunctive) normal form of  $\neg A$ .

Example: Find the PDNF form PCNF of  $S : P \lor (\neg P \rightarrow (Q \lor (\neg Q \rightarrow R)))$ . Solution:

$$\Leftrightarrow P \ V(\neg P \to (Q \ V(\neg Q \to R)))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P \ V(\neg(\neg P) \ V(Q \ V(\neg(\neg Q) \ VR)))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P \ V(P \ VQ \ V(Q \ VR)))$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P \ V(P \ VQ \ VR)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P \ V(P \ VQ \ VR)$$

which is the PCNF.

Now PCNF of  $\neg S$  is the conjunction of remaining maxterns, so PCNF of  $\neg S : (P \lor Q \lor \neg R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor Q \lor R)$   $\land (\neg P \lor Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg R)$ Hence the PDNF of S is  $\neg (PCNF \text{ of } \neg S) : (\neg P \land \neg Q \land R) \lor (\neg P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land Q \land R) \lor (P \land \neg Q \land \neg R)$  $\lor (P \land \neg Q \land R) \lor (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (P \land Q \land R)$