# CSC384 <br> Knowledge Representation Part 1 

Bahar Aameri \& Sonya Allin

Summer 2020

We gratefully acknowledge those who have contributed to these slides, most recently Bahar Aameri, who merged and augmented slides from Yongmei Liu and a CSC384 slide deck historically developed by Craig Boutilier, Fahiem Bacchus, Sheila McIlraith, Sonya Allin, Hojjat Ghaderi, and others. We also acknowledge the use of material written by Michael Winter, and the use of material originating from slides and the book by Ron Brachman and Hector Levesque.

## What is Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KR\&R)?

Symbolic encoding of propositions believed by some agent and their manipulation to produce propositions that are believed by the agent but not explicitly stated.

## Why KR\&R:

- Large amounts of knowledge are used to understand the world around us.
- Reasoning provides compression in the knowledge we need to store.
- Without reasoning we would have to store an infeasible amount of information: Example: Elephants can't fit into teacups, Elephants can't fit into cars, instead of just knowing that larger objects can't fit into smaller objects.
- Information:
(1) Block $A$ is above block $B$;
(2) Block $B$ is above block $C$.
- Query: Is $A$ above $C$ ?

Given the information, human can easily draw the conclusion. How can a machine do the same?

- Tony, Mike, and John are members of the Alpine Club.
- Every member of the Alpine Club who is not a skier is a mountain climber.
- Mountain climbers do not like rain, and anyone who does not like snow is not a skier.
- Mike dislikes whatever Tony likes, and likes whatever Tony dislikes.
- Tony likes rain and snow.
- Is there a member of the Alpine Club who is a mountain climber but not a skier?


## Logical representations

- are mathematically precise; thus it's possible to analyze their limitations, properties, and complexity of inferences.
- are formal languages; thus computer programs can manipulate sentences in the language.
- typically, have well-developed proof theories: formal procedures for reasoning to produce new sentences.

In this module we will study First-Order logic (FOL), and a reasoning mechanism called resolution that operates on First-Order logic.

## Review: Propositional Logic - Syntax

Propositional Variable: A variable which takes only True or False as values.

The set of all propositional formulas is defined recursively as follows:

- Every propositional variable is a propositional formula;
- If $\varphi$ is a propositional formula, then so is $\neg \varphi$;
- If $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ are propositional formulas, then so are
- $\varphi_{1} \wedge \varphi_{2}$ (Conjunction);
- $\varphi_{1} \vee \varphi_{2}$ (Disjunction);
- $\varphi_{1} \rightarrow \varphi_{2}$ (Implication);
- $\varphi_{1} \leftrightarrow \varphi_{2}$ (Bi-implication).


## Review: Propositional Logic - Semantic

Truth Assignment: A function $\tau$ from the propositional variables into the set of truth values $\{T, F\}$.

Let $\tau$ be a truth assignment. The extension $\bar{\tau}$ of $\tau$ assigns either $T$ or $F$ to every formula and is defined as follows:

- If $A=x$, where $x$ is a variable, then $\bar{\tau}(A)=\tau(x)$.
- $\bar{\tau}(\neg A)=T$ iff $\bar{\tau}(A)=F$;
- $\bar{\tau}(A \wedge B)=T$ iff $\bar{\tau}(A)=T$ and $\bar{\tau}(B)=T$;
- $\bar{\tau}(A \vee B)=T$ iff $\bar{\tau}(A)=T$ or $\bar{\tau}(B)=T$;
- $\bar{\tau}(A \rightarrow B)=F$ iff $\bar{\tau}(A)=T$ and $\bar{\tau}(B)=F$.


## Review: Propositional Logic - Semantic

Example: Let $V=\{p, r, q\}$ be a set of propositional variables and $\tau_{1}: V \rightarrow\{T, F\}$ and $\tau_{2}: V \rightarrow\{T, F\}$ be two truth assignments s.t.:

- $\tau_{1}(p)=T, \tau_{1}(q)=F, \tau_{1}(r)=F$.
- $\tau_{2}(p)=F, \tau_{2}(q)=T, \tau_{2}(r)=F$.

Then
$\overline{\tau_{1}}((\neg p \wedge q) \rightarrow r)=$
$\overline{\tau_{2}}((\neg p \wedge q) \rightarrow r)=$

## Review: Propositional Logic - Semantic

A truth assignment $\tau$ satisfies a formula $A$ iff $\bar{\tau}(A)=T$.
$\tau$ satisfies a set $\Phi$ of formulas iff $\tau$ satisfies all formula in $\Phi$.

A set $\Phi$ of formulas is satisfiable iff some truth assignment $\tau$ satisfies $\Phi$. Otherwise, $\Phi$ is unsatisfiable.

## Example:

$\Phi_{1}=\{r \rightarrow(p \wedge q), \neg p\}$
$\Phi_{2}=\{r \rightarrow(p \wedge q), r \wedge \neg p\}$

A formula $A$ is a logical consequence of $\Phi$ (denoted by $\Phi \models A$ ) iff for every truth assignment $\tau$, if $\tau$ satisfies $\Phi$, then $\tau$ satisfies $A$.

Example: Let $\Phi=\{r \rightarrow((p \wedge q) \vee s), r \wedge p\}$.

Then $\Phi \models$

## Limitations of Propositional Language

- Only Boolean variables: Without non-Boolean variables cross references between individuals in statements are impossible.
Example: 'If a person has a sibling and that sibling has a child, then the person is an aunt or an uncle.'
$S$ : a person has a sibling.
$C$ : a sibling has a child.
$A$ : a person is an aunt or an uncle.
$S \wedge C \rightarrow A$

This approach doesn't work:
person in $S$ and $A$ are not related.
sibling in $S$ and $C$ are not related.

- No quantifiers: To state a property for all (or some) members of the domain we have to explicitly list them.
Example: 'Every member of the Alpine Club who is not a skier is a mountain climber'


## First-Order Logic: Syntax

For first-order logic following components are required:

- A set $V$ of variables.
- A set $F$ of function symbols.
- A set $P$ of predicate (relation) symbols.
- Functions and variables are used to construct terms.

Terms denote elements of the domain.

- Predicates are defined over terms.

Atomic formulas denote properties and relations that hold about the elements in the domain.

- Predicates and terms are used to construct formulas.

Other formulas generate more complex assertions by composing atomic formulas.

A set $\mathcal{L}$ of function and predicate symbols is called a first-order vocabulary.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a set of function and predicate symbols.

1. Every variable is a term.
2. If $f$ is an $n$-ary function symbol in $\mathcal{L}$ and $t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are $\mathcal{L}$-terms, then $f\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ is a $\mathcal{L}$-term.

Note: 0-ary functions symbols are called constant symbols. Example:

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a vocabulary. The set of first-order $\mathcal{L}$-formulas is defined recursively:

1. Atomic Formula: $P\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$, where $P$ is an $n$-ary predicate symbol in $\mathcal{L}$ and $t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are $\mathcal{L}$-terms.
2. Negation: $\neg f$, where $f$ is a $\mathcal{L}$-formula.
3. Conjunction: $f_{1} \wedge f_{2} \wedge \ldots \wedge f_{n}$, where $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}$ are $\mathcal{L}$-formulas.
4. Disjunction: $f_{1} \vee f_{2} \vee \ldots \vee f_{n}$, where $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}$ are $\mathcal{L}$-formulas.
5. Implication: $f_{1} \rightarrow f_{2}$, where $f_{1}, f_{2}$ are $\mathcal{L}$-formulas.
6. Existential: $\exists x f$, where $x$ is a variable and $f$ is a $\mathcal{L}$-formula.
7. Universal: $\forall x f$, where $x$ is a variable and $f$ is a $\mathcal{L}$-formula.

## Converting English to First-Order Language

- Individuals: Constants (0-ary Functions)
- tony, mike, john rain, snow
- Types: Unary Predicates
- $A C(x): x$ belongs to Alpine Club.
- $S(x): x$ is a skier.
- $C(x): x$ is a mountain climber.
- Relationships: Binary Predicates
- $L(x, y): x$ likes $y$.


## Converting English to First-Order Language

## - Basic Facts:

- Tony, Mike, and John belong to the Alpine Club:
$A C$ (tony), $A C$ (mike), $A C$ (john)
- Tony likes rain and snow:
$L$ (tony, rain), $L$ (tony, snow)
- Complex Facts:
- Every member of the Alpine Club who is not a skier is a mountain climber.
- Mountain climbers do not like rain, and anyone who does not like snow is not a skier.


## Converting English to First-Order Language

- Mike dislikes whatever Tony likes, and likes whatever Tony dislikes.
- Is there a member of the Alpine Club who is a mountain climber but not a skier?

Like variables in programming languages, the variables in FOL have a scope which is determined by the quantifiers.
Lexical scope for variables:
$\operatorname{Animal}(x) \wedge \exists x[\operatorname{Human}(x) \vee W \operatorname{Tomen}(x)]$.
$\exists x[\operatorname{Animal}(x) \rightarrow \neg \operatorname{Human}(x)] \wedge \exists x[\operatorname{Human}(x) \vee \operatorname{Women}(x)]$

- In the propositional logic, a truth assignment provides meaning to a formula.
- In FOL we can talk about (non-Boolean) individuals and elements.

So the simple universe of truth values is not rich enough to provide a suitable interpretation for FOL formulas.

- We need more complicated objects to give meaning to formulas and terms.
- These objects are called structures.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a first-order vocabulary. An $\mathcal{L}$-structure $\mathcal{M}$ consists of the following:

1. A nonempty set $M$ called the universe (domain) of discourse.
2. For each $n$-ary function symbol $f \in \mathcal{L}$, an associated function $f^{\mathcal{M}}: M^{n} \rightarrow M$. Note: If $n=0$, then $f$ is a constant symbol and $f^{\mathcal{M}}$ is simply an element of $M$. $f^{\mathcal{M}}$ is called the extension of the function symbol $f$ in $\mathcal{M}$.
3. For each $n$-ary predicate symbol $P \in \mathcal{L}$, an associated relation $P^{\mathcal{M}} \subseteq M^{n}$. $P^{\mathcal{M}}$ is called the extension of the predicate symbol $P$ in $\mathcal{M}$.

## Blocks World:

Suppose $\mathcal{L}_{B W}$ includes the following symbols:

- Function Symbols:
- under $(x)$ : the block immediately under $x$ if $x$ is not on table; $x$ itself otherwise.
- Predicate Symbols:
- on $(x, y): x$ is place (directly) on $y$.
- above ( $x, y$ ): $x$ is above $y$.
- clear $(x)$ : no blocks are above $x$.
- ontable ( $x$ ): no blocks are under $x$.

Suppose $\mathcal{L}_{B W}$ includes the following symbols:

- Function Symbols:
- $\operatorname{under}(x)$ : the block immediately under $x$ if $x$ is not on table; $x$ itself otherwise.
- Predicate Symbols:
- on $(x, y)$ : $x$ is place (directly) on $y$.
- above $(x, y): x$ is above $y$.
- clear $(x)$ : no blocks are above $x$.
- ontable $(x)$ : no blocks are under $x$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{M}_{1} \text { is a } \mathcal{L}_{B W} \text {-structure such that: } \\
& M_{1}=\{A, B, C, D\} \\
& \text { on }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { above } \mathcal{M}_{1}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle,\langle A, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { clear }{ }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}=\{A, D\} \\
& \text { ontable }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}=\{C, D\} \\
& \text { under }{ }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}(A)=B, \text { under } \mathcal{M}_{1}(B)=C, \\
& \text { under }{ }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}(C)=C, \text { under }{ }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}(D)=D
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose $\mathcal{L}_{B W}$ includes the following symbols:

- Function Symbols:
- under (x): the block immediately under $x$ if $x$ is not on table; $x$ itself otherwise.
- Predicate Symbols:
- on $(x, y)$ : $x$ is place (directly) on $y$.
- above $(x, y): x$ is above $y$.
- clear $(x)$ : no blocks are above $x$.
- ontable $(x): x$ is placed on the table.

Represent the following configuration by a $\mathcal{L}_{B W}$-structure.


Every $\mathcal{L}$-formula becomes either true or false when interpreted by an $\mathcal{L}$-structure $\mathcal{M}$.

That is, the truth value of a first-order formulas $A$ is evaluated w.r.t to a first-order structure $\mathcal{M}$ :

- Terms (variables and functions) of a formula denote elements of the domain. So every term in $A$ must correspond with an element of the universe of $\mathcal{M}$.
- Atomic formulas denote properties and relations that hold about the elements in the domain. $P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ is true in $\mathcal{M}$ if $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are related to each other by $P^{\mathcal{M}}$.
- Other formulas generate more complex assertions by composing atomic formulas. Their truth is dependent on the truth of the atomic formulas in them.


## Semantic of First-Order Logic: Variable Assignments

Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a structure and $X$ be a set of variables. An object assignment $\sigma$ for $\mathcal{M}$ is a mapping from variables in $X$ to the universe of $\mathcal{M}$.


Remember the recursive definition of term:
Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a set of function and predicate symbols.

1. Every variable $x$ is a term.
2. If $f$ is an $n$-ary function symbol in $\mathcal{L}$ and $t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are $\mathcal{L}$-terms, then $f\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ is a $\mathcal{L}$-term.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a vocabulary and $\mathcal{M}$ be an $\mathcal{L}$-structure.
The extension $\bar{\sigma}$ of $\sigma$ is defined recursively:

1. for every variable $x, \bar{\sigma}(x)=\sigma(x)$;
2. for every function symbol $f \in \mathcal{L}, \bar{\sigma}\left(f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right)=f^{\mathcal{M}}\left(\bar{\sigma}\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots, \bar{\sigma}\left(t_{n}\right)\right)$.

## Semantic of First-Order Logic: Variable Assignments

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a vocabulary and $\mathcal{M}$ be an $\mathcal{L}$-structure.
The extension $\bar{\sigma}$ of $\sigma$ is defined recursively:

1. for every variable $x, \bar{\sigma}(x)=\sigma(x)$;
2. for every function symbol $f \in \mathcal{L}, \bar{\sigma}\left(f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right)=f^{\mathcal{M}}\left(\bar{\sigma}\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots, \bar{\sigma}\left(t_{n}\right)\right)$.


$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { under }^{\mathcal{M}}(A)=B & \text { under }^{\mathcal{M}}(B)=C \\
\text { under }^{\mathcal{M}}(C)=C & \text { under }^{\mathcal{M}}(D)=D
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
X=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\} \\
\sigma\left(v_{1}\right)=D, & \sigma\left(v_{2}\right)=C \\
\sigma\left(v_{3}\right)=B, & \sigma\left(v_{4}\right)=A
\end{array}
$$

$\bar{\sigma}\left(\operatorname{under}\left(\operatorname{under}\left(v_{4}\right)\right)\right)=$

For an $\mathcal{L}$-formula $C, \mathcal{M} \models C[\sigma]$ ( $\mathcal{M}$ satisfies $C$ under $\sigma$, or $\mathcal{M}$ is a model of $C$ under $\sigma$ ) is defined recursively on the structure of $C$ as follows (assuming $A, B$ are $\mathcal{L}$-formulas):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{M} & \models P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)[\sigma] & & \text { iff }
\end{aligned} \quad\left\langle\bar{\sigma}\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots, \bar{\sigma}\left(t_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in P^{\mathcal{M}} . .
$$

## First-Order Logic Semantic: Models (Interpretations)

For an $\mathcal{L}$-formula $C, \mathcal{M} \models C[\sigma]$ ( $\mathcal{M}$ satisfies $C$ under $\sigma$, or $\mathcal{M}$ is a model of $C$ under $\sigma$ ) is defined recursively on the structure of $C$ as follows (assuming $A, B$ are $\mathcal{L}$-formulas):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{M} & \models P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)[\sigma] \\
\mathcal{M} & \models(s=t)[\sigma] \\
\mathcal{M} & \models \neg A[\sigma] \\
\mathcal{M} & \models(A \vee B)[\sigma] \\
\mathcal{M} & \models(A \wedge B)[\sigma] \\
\mathcal{M} & \models(\forall x A)[\sigma] \\
\mathcal{M} & \models(\exists x A)[\sigma]
\end{aligned}
$$

iff $\quad\left\langle\bar{\sigma}\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots, \bar{\sigma}\left(t_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in P^{\mathcal{M}}$.
iff $\quad \bar{\sigma}(s)=\bar{\sigma}(t)$.
iff $\quad \mathcal{M} \not \vDash A[\sigma]$.
iff $\quad \mathcal{M} \models A[\sigma]$ or $\mathcal{M} \models B[\sigma]$.
iff $\quad \mathcal{M} \models A[\sigma]$ and $\mathcal{M} \models B[\sigma]$.
iff $\quad \mathcal{M} \models A[\sigma(m / x)]$ for all $m \in M$.
iff $\quad \mathcal{M} \models A[\sigma(m / x)]$ for some $m \in M$.

Note: $\sigma(m / x)$ is an object assignment function exactly like $\sigma$, but maps the variable $\mathbf{x}$ to the individual $m \in M$. That is:

For $y \neq x: \sigma(m / x)(y)=\sigma(y)$
For $x: \sigma(m / x)(x)=m$

## Models: Example

Let $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ be a structure such that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{3}=\{A, B, C, D\} \\
& \text { on }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { above } \mathcal{M}_{3}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle,\langle A, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { clear }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{A, D\} \\
& \text { ontable }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{C, D\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Does $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ satisfy
$\forall x \forall y($ on $(x, y) \rightarrow a b o v e(x, y))$

Let $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ be a structure such that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{3}=\{A, B, C, D\} \\
& \text { on }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { above }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle,\langle A, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { clear }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{A, D\} \\
& \text { ontable }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{C, D\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Does $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ satisfy
$\forall x \forall y(\operatorname{above}(x, y) \rightarrow o n(x, y))$

Let $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ be a structure such that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{3}=\{A, B, C, D\} \\
& \text { on }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { above }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle,\langle A, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { clear }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{A, D\} \\
& \text { ontable }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{C, D\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Does $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ satisfy

$\forall x \exists y($ clear $(x) \vee O n(y, x))$

Let $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ be a structure such that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{3}=\{A, B, C, D\} \\
& \text { on }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { above }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle,\langle A, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { clear }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{A, D\} \\
& \text { ontable }^{\mathcal{M}_{3}}=\{C, D\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Does $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ satisfy

$\exists y \forall x($ clear $(x) \vee O n(y, x))$

An occurrence of $x$ in $A$ is bounded iff it is in a sub-formula of $A$ of the form $\forall x B$ or $\exists x B$. Otherwise the occurrence is free.

## Example:

$P(x) \wedge \exists x[P(x) \vee Q(x)]$

In a structure $\mathcal{M}$, formulas with free variables might be true for some object assignments to the free variables and false for others.

Example: Consider the formula $P(x, y) \wedge P(y, x)$ and the following structure $\mathcal{M}$ :
$M=\{a, b\} \quad P^{\mathcal{M}}=\{\langle a, a\rangle\}$

A formula $A$ is closed if it contains no free occurrence of a variable.
A closed formula is called a sentence.

## Example:

$P(x) \wedge \exists x[P(x) \vee Q(x)]$.
$\forall x P(x) \wedge \exists x[P(x) \vee Q(x)]$

If $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$ agree on the free variables of $A$, then $\mathcal{M} \models A[\sigma]$ iff $\mathcal{M} \models A\left[\sigma^{\prime}\right]$.
Proof: Structural induction on $A$.

Corollary: If $A$ is a sentence, then for any object assignments $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$,

$$
\mathcal{M} \models A[\sigma] \quad \text { iff } \quad \mathcal{M} \models A\left[\sigma^{\prime}\right]
$$

So, if $A$ is a sentence (no free variables), $\sigma$ is irrelevant and we omit mention of $\sigma$ and simply write $\mathcal{M} \vDash A$.

Let $\Phi$ be a set of sentences.

- $\mathcal{M}$ satisfies $\Phi$ (denoted by $\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$ ) if for every sentence $A \in \Phi, \mathcal{M} \models A$.
- If $\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$, we say $\mathcal{M}$ is a model of $\Phi$.
- We say that $\Phi$ is satisfiable if there is a structure $\mathcal{M}$ such that $\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$.


## Unintended Models: Example

Let $\Phi_{1}$ be a set containing the following sentences
( $\boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbf{1}}, \boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbf{2}}$ are constant symbols, we use bold font to distinguish constant symbols from variables):

- on $\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{2}\right)$
- clear $\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbf{1}}\right)$
- above $\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{2}\right)$

Consider a model of $\Phi_{1}$ with size three (i.e., the size of the domain of the model is three).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{1}=\{A, B, C\} \\
& \boldsymbol{c}_{1} \mathcal{M}_{1}=A \quad c_{2} \mathcal{M}_{1}=B \\
& \text { on }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}=\{\langle A, B\rangle,\langle B, C\rangle\} \\
& \text { clear }^{\mathcal{M}_{1}}=\{A, C\} \\
& \text { above } \\
& \mathcal{M}_{1}=\{\langle A, B\rangle\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Eliminating Unintended Models: Example

Let $\Phi_{2}$ be a set containing the following sentences $\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbf{1}}, \boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbf{2}}\right.$ are constant symbols):

- $\forall x($ clear $(x) \rightarrow \neg \exists y(o n(y, x)))$
- $\forall x \forall y(o n(x, y) \rightarrow a b o v e(x, y))$
- $\forall x \forall y \forall z((\operatorname{above}(x, y) \wedge \operatorname{above}(y, z)) \rightarrow \operatorname{above}(x, z))$
- on $\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{2}\right)$
- clear ( $\boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbf{1}}$ )
- above $\left(\boldsymbol{c}_{1}, \boldsymbol{c}_{2}\right)$

Construct two models of $\Phi_{2}$ with size three (i.e., the size of the domain of each model must be three).

## Logical Satisfiability: Practice Question

## Example: is $\{\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)), P(\mathbf{a}), \neg Q(\mathbf{a})\}$ satisfiable?

