

# Advanced Object Oriented Analysis of Hard Problems using UML

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# Capítulo 1

## Section 1: Introduction

### 1.1. Straighten the concepts

#### 1.1.1. Discrepancy of usage of terms

- Most people don't share the same concepts and refer to things with the same name but referring to different things.
- People make up new names for new and old concepts.
- How long would it take for this phenomenon to cause disasters.

### 1.2. Concepts as building blocks

“Concepts, pretheoretically, are the constituents of thoughts”

-Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy

#### 1.2.1. Prerequisites for knowledge

- The two constituents of knowledge are: intuition and concepts.

“Intuition and concepts constitute... the elements of all our knowledge, so that neither concepts without an intuition in some way corresponding to them, nor intuition without concepts can yield knowledge”

-Immanuel Kant 1724-1804

- Concepts are illusive to grasp.

“Nothing is more important than the formation of a fictional concept, which teaches us at last to understand our own.”

-Ludwig Wittgenstein 1889-1951

- Most concepts are rooted deeply in us.

“Our concept of governing is derived from our view of people. It is a concept deeply rooted in a set of beliefs firmly etched in the national conscience, of all of us.”

-Barbara Jordan 1936-1996

Concepts are more or less constructs of human societies.

“We coin concepts and we use them to analyse and explain nature and society. But we seem to forget, midway, that these concepts are our own constructs and start equating them with reality.”

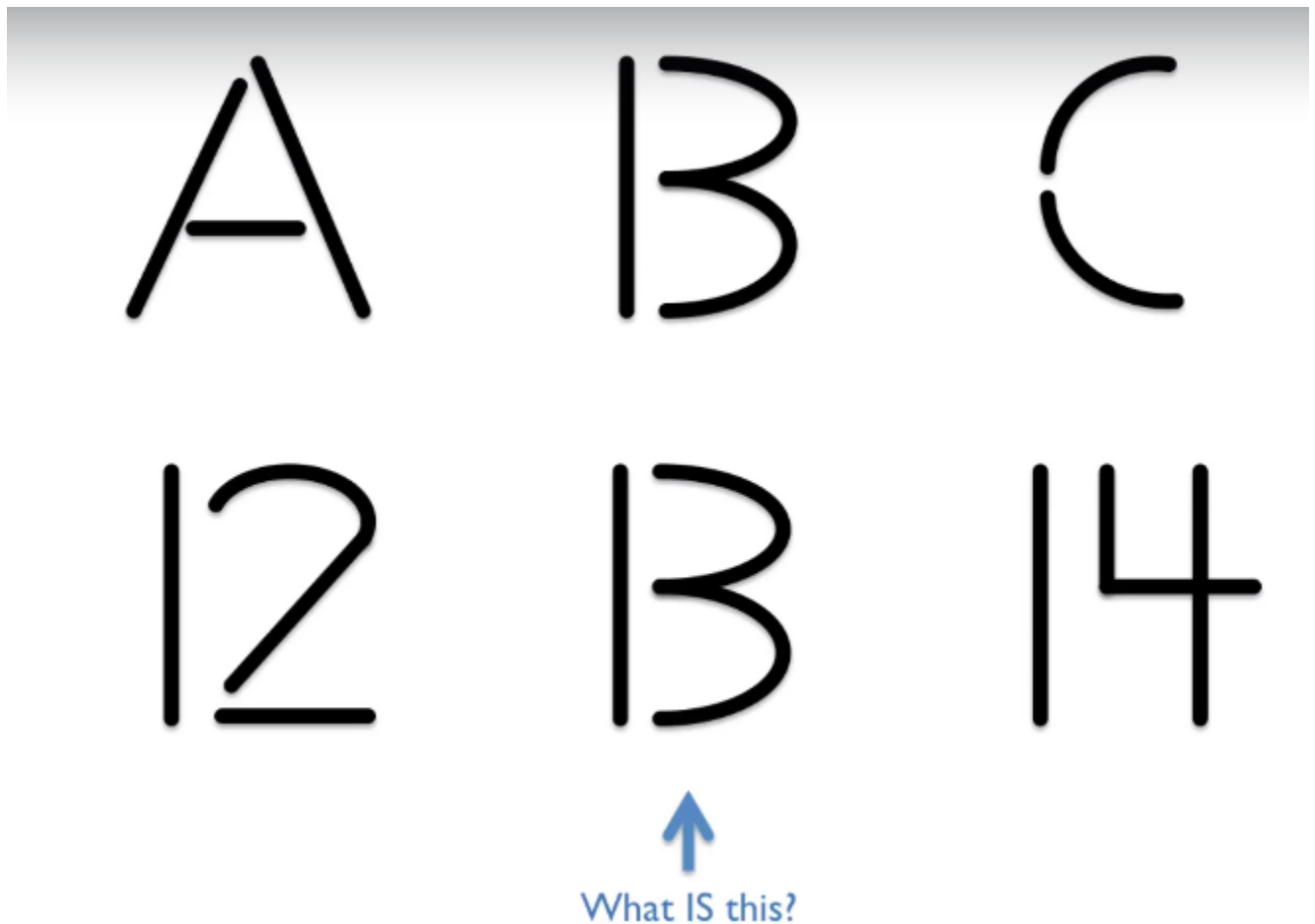
-Abdolkarim Soroush

- Concepts  $\neq$  reality, though concepts we understand reality.

“Society exists only as a mental concept; in the real world there are only individuals.”

-Oscar Wilde 1854-1900

- Example:



### 1.3. Visualization of concepts

- We can order concepts visually using maps.
- A conceptual map is a graphical tool that organizes and represents knowledge, it illustrates the concepts, also it shows the relationships between the concepts, it also labels the concept, specifies the relationship, this is to make a proposition.

- We use maps to boost concept learning, fast visualization of concepts, communicate better, to implement a better concept of our project.
- Creator of concept mapping: developed by Joseph Novak, initially used to analyze view psychological phenomenon in kids.
- This is a tool that can be applicable to almost anything.
- It helps transform tacit information to explicit.
- Every big project starts out as a conceptual map.
- You can use conceptual maps to create metrics.
- Sumarry, concepts are:
  - Concepts are the constituents of thoughts
  - Visual tool
  - Boost knowledge acquisition, communication, system development and creativity.
  - Applications are almost unlimited.
- A conceptual map represents and organizes knowledge.

## 1.4. Course goals and structure

- Introduction
- Foundations
- Notation - Models and UML
- Process and workshop techniques
- Packaging

## 1.5. Two ways to complete the course

1. Theory first: philosophical foundation and then notation.
2. Practice first: learn the notation first and then the theory.

## Capítulo 2

# Section 2: The cognitive Foundation of concept mapping

### 2.1. The cognitive foundation introduction

- Contract example:
  - How to communicate the same concept.
  - How to show the idea to convey vast amounts of knowledge.
- Why is this so intuitive? Cognitive research proves these maps are intuitive.
  - Knowledge acquisition
  - Visual communication
  - Creative thinking

### 2.2. Three memory systems

- The brain has three memory systems:
  1. Sensory information storage: two subdivisions, we hold information for 0.5 sec, whether we do something with that information determines if this information passes to the working memory.
    - Iconic memory
    - Echoic memory
  2. Working memory: Central executive, can store for 10 sec.
  3. Long term memory: three subdivisions, memory can be stored for years, weeks, months, etc.
    - Semantic memory
    - Procedure memory
    - Episodic memory

### 2.3. Semantic memory

- It organizes knowledge in networks.
- Example:
  - Iconic memory, holds for 0.5 sec

- Working memory, process 10 seconds
- Long term memory:
  - Semantic memory, encoded in different ways, in images or words or other ways. These nodes become connected with previous memory, this is how it is remembered in the long term.
  - Episodic memory: holds specific situations I have been through, the semantic memory you “don’t know why you know it you just know it, this is because of the links it does to an already existing memory network”
  - Procedure memory: how you remember procedures, you can’t probably say how you do it because it’s procedural.
- How to encode knowledge? there is a process it’s not just encoded by the information we see.
- Example:
  - A group given complex material.
  - Directly after, their understanding was tested.
  - Sometime later they were probed again.
  - The ones who got the meaning from the beginning had much better memory when probed again.
  - The ones who understood this from the very beginning recalled it better.
- # This means that whether we store semantic memory:
  - Shallow: poor resistance, mechanical rehearsal, methods of regurgitations.
  - Intermediate: better resistance, Attention to sound and appearance, details method.
  - Deep processing: best resistance, focus on semantic meaning, this is a process that links new links from the existing memory to the new.
- This means that in order for knowledge to stick we need to create new links and to the new memory nodes.
- The best resistance method, deep processing, allows us to fetch with great effectiveness knowledge from the long term memory to the working memory.

## 2.4. Brains like visualizations

- Brains are likely to recall with resistance knowledge when they are shown elements that are integrated, remember the example of the doll sitting on a chair holding a flag, rather than the three objects shown separately.

## 2.5. How does creative thinking work

- Where does creativity come from?
  - Understand the problem’s structure
  - Activate spreading in the knowledge network.
  - The more knowledge - more activation
  - If knowledge is richly interconnected then ...
  - ... Creative leaps might occur.



## 2.6. A concept map of the cognitive foundation

- A tool that puts focus on meaning in the subject area.
- Creates a scaffold for the limited working memory so it does not lose context in the constant iterations with long term memory.
- Utilizes integrated visualization that maps the to-be-learned to already established knowledge.
- Increases the associative links which increase the possibility for creative “leaps”
- The conceptual map does all these things.

## 2.7. Resources

- Eric Ries: “The lean startup”

## Capítulo 3

# Section 3: Philosophical foundations of conceptual analysis - introduction

### 3.1. Section overview

- From brute facts to social facts.

Exists independently to us	Existis since we use and treat as such	Exist since we have jointly declared the to do so
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Bacteria</li><li>• Sun</li><li>• Tree</li><li>• Mountain</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Hammer</li><li>• Table</li><li>• Computer Screwdriver</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• University</li><li>• Birthday party</li><li>• Loan</li><li>• Insurance</li></ul>

- Example dollar bill:
  - Declaration: this note is legal tender to all debts public and private.
- An assertion exits by it's self, a declarations exists from an assertion, from an accepted declarations we create social facts. (confusing)
- We are creating evergrowing sistems of concepts, this is how we create the reality concept.
- Concepts triangle.

### 3.2. What happens when we visualize concepts together?

- It's useful for knowledge transmittion.
- Knowledge is usually heterogenic.
- Some people have the power to emit declarations, others don't. Some people have lacking powers to assert their beliefs.
- If the normal person says war then it's just an asertion, if the president says that then it is war declaration.
- Visualizing concepts makes it easier to:

1. Transfer knowledge
2. Spot knowledge differences
3. Acquire knowledge
4. Makes it clear which declarations are made
5. Visualizing concepts makes it easier to develop complex systems of any kind
6. Facilitates creative thinking

### 3.3. Philosophical foundations overview analysis

- This is an ongoing debate.
- Section structure:
  - Ogden's triangle
  - We know objects, we have concepts in our mind, then we use language to refer to both the object and the concept.

### 3.4. Four theories about concepts - First corner of the triangle

- Why is the concept "concept" so hard to define:
  - Concepts are the constituents of thoughts.
- Four theories:
  - The classical theory
  - The prototype theory
  - The theory theory
  - The conceptual atomism theory

### 3.5. The classical theory of concepts

- It's been around for 2,000 to 2,500 years.
- A concept C has definitional structure in that it is composed of:
  - Simpler concepts that express
  - Necessary and
  - Sufficient conditions for
- The man, unmarried, bachelor concept.
  - Bachelor: unmarried man
  - Man and unmarried is a bachelor.
- Categorization: A psychological process where a concept is matched to an item if,
  - Each and every one of the concept's definitional constituents
  - Applies to the target
- Example: set of people, some man some women, some are married, the not married and man are bachelors.

### 3.5.1. Problems of the conceptual view:

- Plato's problem:
  1. Even the simplest concepts are hard to define clearly.
  2. Easy to spot counter examples.
    - Paint: to paint or not to paint, defined "x covers y with paint", does this provide sufficient condition for something falling under a concept?
    - First try: "A paint factory (x) explodes and covers spectators (y) with paint." Has x painted y?
    - Let's add X needs to be an agent and Y needs to be a surface.
    - Second try: "you x accidentally kicks paint over your (y) shoes"
    - Let's add x needs to paint intentionally.
    - Third try: "Michaelangelo wasn't painting the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, he was painting a picture on the ceiling", the painting unintentionally painted the ceiling.
    - Let's add that the primary intention should be to paint it.
    - Fourth try: "Michaelangelo does have a primary intention to dip the tip of the paintbrush in the paint when painting the picture"
    - Has Michaelangelo painted the paint brush?
- These are counter examples.
- The typicality effect: We rank items with respect to how "typical they are" as members of a category. This is problematic, considering this concept undefines the classical theory definition.
- The classical theory definition is binary.

## 3.6. Prototype theory of concepts

- The prototype theory states that a concept C doesn't have a definitional structure but has probabilistic structure in that:
  1. Something falls under C
  2. Just in case it satisfies a
  3. Sufficient number of properties
  4. Encoded by C's constituents.

### 3.6.1. Wittgenstein

- Wittgenstein:
  - Example: Poker, solitaire, fishing, chess
  - There are all different but can be considered a family of objects game.
  - They don't have the same attributes.
  - Family resemblance.
- "Fuzzy" concepts:
  - You cannot define a concept more clearly than it appears to us in the world, "for imagine having to sketch a sharply defined picture corresponding to a blurry one".
- "If you are surprised that one can know something and not be able to say it, you are perhaps thinking of a case like the first."

### 3.6.2. Problems of the prototype

- Many concepts lack prototypes, there are somethings that can't be cataloged by prototyping because they don't have a clear prototype to identify, example you can prototype fish, birds but "a pet fish that swallowed their owner in Armenia" cannot be prototyped.
- No compositionality, prototypes are often not functions of the prototypes of their constituent concepts, remember the bachelor, man, unmarried, they can not be applied in the theory of prototyping.

## 3.7. Theory theory

- Concepts stand in:
  1. Relation with one another in the same way as
  2. The terms of a scientific theory and
  3. Categorization is a process that strongly resembles
  4. Scientific theorizing
- Shape concepts in iterations:
  - Develop abstract, coherent system or a *theory*
  - Make predictions and interpret and explain evidence.
  - Experiment to test the theory and reevaluate it
  - When it's falsified we seek alternatives
  - Repeat if falsified //
- The theory is not said as truth but is thought of as the most accurate way to explain up to date.

### 3.7.1. Problems - Stability

- If concepts are theories that are ever evolving,
- How could ever two persons share the same concept?
- Do we know the same concept as yesterday?

## 3.8. The conceptual atomism theory

- A causal relation between
- The concept and it's
- Instance determines it's reference
- A causal relation between the instance determined it's reference.
- Concepts are primitive and have no structure.

### 3.8.1. 2,500 years of philosophy

- It's not settled, the conceptual structure is unsettles.
- Solution?:
  - No "one true" structure of concepts
  - Different structure for different explanatory functions

### 3.8.2. A pluralism about concepts

- Concepts might have multiple “parallel” structure operation in our minds.
- This is called the Dual Theory where we differentiate between:
  - Identification procedure
  - Core component
- Identification procedure:
  - Quick categorization
  - Based on prototype theory
- Core component:
  - Used when resources are not limited, a combination of classical and theory and atomism theory.
  - There is more knowledge.
- Concept of concepts are not universally defined, in artificial intelligence this is a problem, this is a disagreement because sometimes we must model the human mind and we are not in agreement as to how a human mind handles concepts.

## 3.9. Resources

- Wittgenstein heritage
- Concept series Eric Ergo
- Gregory All Murphy Concepts

# Capítulo 4

## Section 4: Philosophical Foundations of Conceptual Analysis - Continued

### 4.1. Intentionality

- The “aboutness” of the mind
- Intentionality is the way that the mind is directed at or about the world.
- An intentionality state consists of:
  1. A propositional content,  $p$
  2. A psychological mode,  $S$it is noted as  $S(p)$
- Propositional content:
  - Whatever that-clauses contribute to whatever the intentionality is about.
  - Example:
    - Ralph believes that Jack Sparrow is alive.
    - Ralph hopes that Jack Sparrow is alive.
    - Ralph desires that Jack Sparrow is alive.
  - This will formally be noted as Ralph:
    - The first one: Believe(is alive)
- Psychological mode:
  - You can keep the propositional content constant while varying the mode.
  - There are generic modes.
  - Some people think that beliefs and desires can form all the other modes..
  - Remember the logical operators and the double negatives.
- Conditions of satisfaction:
  - The propositional content also determines what will count as its condition of satisfaction:
    - What makes the belief true?
    - What makes the intentions and desires fulfilled?
  - Propositional content doesn't have to be text.

- Condition of satisfaction is a necessity fulfilled from doing a task.
- Direction of fit:
  - (Water) If I desire water (CoS) when water gets inserted into my mouth that is the condition of satisfaction (Mind)

## 4.2. Sumarry lecture

- We have concepts about objects in propositional content as part of intentional states in the mind.
- Concepts, objects are instances of objects.

## 4.3. The network of intentionality and the background

- Intentional states come in a network.
- Example: Intend to drive to work, but you can't do that unless you believe you have a job, you have a license, you have teh capacity...
- There form a network not individual units.
- Background:
  - Wittgenstein: You woudn't even understand an action with out a background.
  - We have a hurly-burly that are going on at the same time and only this can give something meaning, this is called background.
  - If im playing the piano I don't think of how I place fingers but just playing the chords.
- The "background":
  - The network is not infinite
  - If you follow out the threads and you will find non-intentional states.
  - You don't belive that your finges can grip the steering wheel you just take that for granted.
  - This is a very impotant role when we conceptualize anything.

## 4.4. Collective intentionality

- Emerges when we have intentional states about other people's intentionality states.
- In coordination with others we create the possibility of collective intentionality.
- It emerges as a result of:
  1. Multilie people
  2. Having intentional states andmutual intentional beliefs about
  3. each other's intentional states.
- They have an intenional state of each other's intentional state.
- Multiplier effect:
  - Systems exists in out collective intentionality. There are no objective independent systems.
  - They only exist because I think they exist, you think they exist and I think you think they exist and you think I think they exist.
  - This is recursive, reciprocity in concepts of one individual with respect to the other.
  - This is the way we form institutional facts, such examples of these facts is money, money just has value in our minds.



## 4.5. Sumarry

- We use our concepts about objects and facts in the world as part of the propositional content in intentional states in our minds.
- These intentional states come in a network that takes certain background abilities for granted.

## 4.6. Language overview - second corner

- Language: “The systematic creation maintenance and use of systems of symbols, which dynamically reference concepts and assemble according to structured patterns to communicate meaning”
- It’s something that is systematic, there are rules, languages also evolves, it’s a systems of symbols as well.
- Components of languages:
  1. Phonology: how words and sentences are pronounced.
  2. Syntax: how words are arranged in sentences.
  3. Semantics: meaning of words and morphems.
  4. Pragmatics: sets general constraints on the use of language.
- What do we do with a language?
  - We use language to communicate our intentional states and, as a subset of that, to inform about the world.

## 4.7. Terms and propositions

- Proposition in phylosophy of language:
  1. The “content” or “meaning” of a meaningful declarative sentence.
  2. The pattern of symbols, marks, or sounds that make up a meaningful declarative sentence.
- A propositions is:
  - A pattern of symbols, a proposition is the pattern of symbols, marks or sounds that make up a meaningful declarative sentence.
- Symbols (os sign or term etc):
  - Link of relationship between the signified and the signifier:
    - The signified is entity in the world or concept in the mind.
    - Carl(sign referencing a real person) is a head master(sign refering to a concept “headmaster” in the mind).
- Terms refer to concepts:
  - Concepts do not have “names”
  - We refer to concepts using signs or terms.
  - Think of a concept, the concept in the mind doesn’t have a name, name the concept agreement or name the concept contract?
  - It’s a misunderstanding.
  - This is actually called synonyms and homonyms.
  - Homonyms and synonyms are common sources for misunderstanding.

## 4.8. Generativity and compositionality

- Features of propositions, propositions have compositionality.
  - Compositionality is the framework of rules in which morphemes can be composed, it applies to both syntax and semantics.
  - The lion ate the apple, or, the apple ate the lion; both have meaning to us.
- Generativity: is the feature of a language in which it:
  - Through recursive syntactical operations (subordinate clauses and conjunctions)
  - You could produce an infinite number of sentences.
  - Example: you can append to a sentence more and more compositionality and generativity infinitely.

## 4.9. Sentence meaning is not enough

- Signs are composed in propositions according to syntactical rules and creates: Sentence meaning.
  - Example: can you go to the desk overthere? r// yes i can, I would just use my legs.
  - From a sentence meaning it's a correct answer, but clearly the person is asking a favor in the way "I would like you to go to the desk"
  - Sentence meaning doesn't transmit intentionality.
  - This is a computer problem, it's ambiguous to talk to a computer using only sentence meaning, you need to speak literally.

## 4.10. The king of France is bald

- "The king of France is bald" Bertrand Russell.
- Natural languages can sometimes be very ambiguous.
- If the king of France isn't bald then the negation must be true? this is not always the case.
  - $$\exists x(\text{King of France}(x) \ \& \ \forall y(\text{King of France}(y) \rightarrow y = x) \ \& \ \text{Bald}(x))$$
  - Or:
    1. There is an  $x$  such that  $x$  is presently king of France.
    2. For any  $x$  and  $y$ , if  $x$  is presently King of France and  $y$  is presently King of France then  $x = y$
    3. For every  $x$  that is presently King of France,  $x$  is bald.
  - # In this case one condition fails, there is no presently a king of France.

## 4.11. The indeterminacy of translation

- "The indeterminacy of translation" Willian Van Oranam Quine.
- The rabbit example: "your out in the bushes, with a native speaker of the language Arunta, a rabbit passes by, he yells 'Gavadai' how could you translate this statement? "
  - Lo food?
  - Let's go hunting?
  - There will be a storm tonight?

- How do you determine the transation?
- This is not about the fact that you don't speak arunta, every child struggles with this, in the business world people speaking the same language sometimes are not clear in their comunciations.
- The theory theory "how do we know that we all have the same concept?"

## 4.12. Speech acts

- Speech acts are the Uttarances real, intended meaning.
- The insufficient sentence meaning, an enourmous amount of background that is presupused when we communicate. There is always an underlying background given when we communicate.

Example:

- Let's go out for a drink?
- Sorry I can't, my doctos wond't allow me.
- What's the matter with you?
- \_\_\_\_\_
- Let's go out for a drink?
- Sorry,i can't my mother in law won't allow me.
- What's the mater with you?

See the difERENCE? Language is ambiguous.

- We can't spell out all the context, this would make communication imposible, communication is necessarily lacking.
- Intentionality's natural extension, intentional states lead to speech acts.
- The intentional state "S" about a proposition "p":

$S(p)$

Translates to an illocutionary force "F" about the same proposition "p":

$F(p)$

Example:  $\underbrace{\text{"The salt passed to me (p)"}_{\text{Intentional state}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{"Please hand me the salt! (p)"}_{\text{Speech act}} \rightarrow \text{Request (F)}$

## 4.13. Meaning through speech acts

- Example:  $\underbrace{\text{"True is a cat sits on a mat"}}_{\text{Condition of satisfaction}}^{\text{Belief (S)}}, \text{Intention } \underbrace{\text{"This utterance has identical condition of satisfaction as my belief (S)"}}_{\text{Intention (S)}}$   
 $\text{"}, \text{the speech act } \underbrace{\text{"There is a fluffy mouse catcher on the mat"}}_{(p)}^{\text{Assertion(F)}}, \text{ given mind to world and a word to fit world.}$

## 4.14. Five types of speech acts

### 1. Assertives:

- Commits a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition.
- Commits me to the truth given that I said something.

### 2. Directives:

- Cause the hearer to take a particular action, a request or order.
- Example: SALT, NOW!

### 3. Commissives:

- That commits a speaker to some future action, a promise.

### 4. Expressive:

- Used to express the speakers attitudes and emotions towards the proposition.

### 5. Declarations:

- Change the reality in accordance with the proposition of the declaration, for example declaring someone guilty.

They have relation with intentionality:

- Assertive  $\leftrightarrow$  Belief
- Directive  $\leftrightarrow$  Desire
- Commissive  $\leftrightarrow$  Intention
- Expressive  $\leftrightarrow$  Emotive

## 4.15. The strange thing about declarations

- “This party starts now”, as Declaration (F): there is no intentional state directly linked to that, I can believe and desire the party has started but it will not start until I perform the declaration.
- If you are a judge you can’t just judge you have to declare.
- Declarations have double direction of fit: Its conditions of satisfaction are fulfilled when:
  - The act as such
  - Alter the world in the way that
  - The world is represented to be altered in propositional content.

We have double direction of fit.

- Power of declaration: declarations are one of the most important aspects of language:
  - We as humans use this to create our social world.
  - Declarations are the building blocks of the social world, they are used recursively.
  - Examples: you need to declare it to make it happen.

## 4.16. Language summary

- We are a race of humans who have consciousness, intentionality and the capacity of the collective intentionality. We can represent objects and facts that we believe, desire, intent to do, etc.
- Language has different components and on the lowest level, terms are combined into propositions that have sentence meaning.
- Language is also the natural extension of the intentionality. Speech acts are utterances real, intended, meaning and is made up of illocutionary force and a proposition (statement).
- The illocutionary force connects the intentionality with the language usage and corresponding facts and objects in the world.

## 4.17. Metaphysics - introduction

- Metaphysics of the world: objects, properties and relations, facts and truth, functions and social facts.

## 4.18. Objects

- Objects exist so we need a metaconcept of existence.
- Existence - familiar, yet elusive:
  - We know how to use the word but have a hard time describing it.
  - One could be inclined to call only material stuff.
  - However, that will rule out a lot of the things that we with just a reflection also would call objects. Example: products, agreements, etc.
  - A general notion that tends to hold for most situations is “anything that may be presented to the mind; object of thought”.
- Concrete objects:
  - They only have spatiotemporal properties, they occupy space and exist for a period of time. Examples: mountains, trees, etc.
  - Not only spatio-temporal: do human-created material objects exist in the same way as natural objects? Example: upside down woman, upside down table.
  - Even spatiotemporal objects are always tied to something else.
- To be or not to be, four different meanings of “is”,
  - the “is” of existence:
    - “Socrates is”,  $\exists x(x = \text{Socrates})$  ”
  - The “is” of identity:
    - “Hesperus is Phosphorus”  $\text{Hesperus} = \text{Phosphorus}$ , here we have two words for the same objects.
  - “The is of predication”
    - “Socrates is wise”  $\text{Wise}(\text{Socrates})$
  - “The “is” of general implication”:
    - “Man is an animal”  $\forall x(\text{Man}(x) \rightarrow \text{Animal}(x))$  if  $x$  is a man then  $x$  is also an animal.
- Objects of objects: Objects can be composed out of smaller parts, Objects are not always simple, there are objects composed of objects, this is called aggregation. This is called a whole-part relation.

- When is an object composed of parts?

Examples:

- In contact? Must all parts have to be in contact with each other? is an atom an object? under this definition an atom wouldn't be an object, and that is wrong.
- We can say that they must have a force-wise collectively fastened to each other? How much fastened? Example: deck of cards, is it a deck of cards if I spread them around?
- The "two-woman": if two people shake and their fingers get stuck, are they then one object? no, they are still two different women.
- Maybe there are no composite objects, only mereological simples? identity crisis? but if there were only simples, how can human beings with identity exist? we are actually a composition of a lot of objects.

A different angle:

- Existence is a second level feature that applies to concepts, not objects.
- That something exists is to say that the concepts have instances.
- It's in the concepts, in this way, the existence of composition is dependent on the concepts we have, not a specific feature of the physical object.
- Example: duck or a rabbit? where is the criteria.

## 4.19. Properties and relations

- Properties: are the

- attributes or
- qualities or
- features or
- characteristics of

things.

- Phenomena of interest:

- Properties are typically introduced to help explain or account for phenomena of philosophical interest.

- How do we notice properties? when we have a breakdown case: related to phenomenology of Heidegger "A just perfect hammer for me"

- When the hammer weighs "just perfect for me" then we don't hammer and at the same time think "such a perfect weight for a hammer" the hammer is just a natural part of the world. I won't think of the hammer if it's perfect for me.
- Something stops us: for some reason we stop and start contemplating the tool, it suddenly for this particular job it's too heavy,
- Breakdown case, we contemplate on the hammer and notice that hammers in general could be too light, perfect, too heavy, but they are all for me.
- De-worlding: we remove ourselves from the equation and attribute hammers as having weight. If there were no breakdown case we wouldn't notice the object's properties.
- In 99.999% of the cases we don't notice the properties of an object unless the object doesn't "do its job" or if we are reflecting on the nature of the object.

- No breakdown case  $\rightarrow$  no property. Example: does money have the property weight? in the old times it did, it was a property weight, now there isn't a weight property in today's money.
- Primary and secondary properties:
  - Primary: properties are objective features of the world: shapes, size, mass, etc.
  - Secondary properties are mind-dependent: colors, tests, etc. (intrinsic or relative properties)
- Relations:
  - "Being in love is a specific type of property" love involves multiple types of objects, this is a special property.
  - Relations are a type of property, relations are properties that exist in multiple things, the property being in love is a two-place relation, there can be multi-place relations as well.
  - Relations have a single relation:
    - Romeo  $\underbrace{\leftrightarrow}_{\text{Loves}}$  Juliet

The objects have roles in the relation or they can be multidimensional.  
Example:

    - Work well together.
- Instantiation: "instantiates" is a special kind of relation between an object and a property (concept).
  - Relation between objects and the concept we have in our mind.

## 4.20. Facts

- Facts: a situation that the actual world must be in to make a given proposition about the world true: the truth maker.
  - At any given situation, the world of objects with their properties is arranged in a certain way. This we call a fact.
  - Example: 7 yellow ducks, it is a "state of affairs" or "fact"; the proposition "means" the fact.
- The fact is not just an alone object, the fact obtains if an object exemplifies:
  1. at least one property or
  2. one or more objects stand in relation
  - "A car" is not a fact, "two pink cars that face each other" is a fact they stand in relation and exemplify the properties.
- The truth-maker and truth bearer:
  - Truth-maker: the fact.
  - Truth bearer: the actual proposition about the fact. In this relation.
- Facts are not true or false:
  - Propositions can be true or false, the truth value is a meta-linguistic property of a proposition.
  - A fact in itself is not true nor false, or more generically state-of-affairs, can only obtain or fail-to-obtain.
- Propositions picture simple facts:

- In the simplest case, the proposition can be thought of as a “picture” of the real world fact. The propositional content is the content of the “picture”.
  - Counterfactuals are also facts: the negation of some facts. Picture the negation of the fact or the fact with variation, there are endless ways to negate a fact so this is tricky.
- Facts are any condition that makes a proposition true:
    - Not just a picture.

## 4.21. Social facts

- All types of objects and properties are involved in facts, not only natural kinds. Example: the money is on the mat, that is a fact.
- Objective knowledge: this means that we can have objectively true knowledge about subjective relative phenomena. The statement, proposition can be true, where as the subjective opinion is isolated. Example: the country is in a region is a fact based on the subjective fact.
- There is no true knowledge at all, because all knowledge is derived from subjective phenomena, this is called the **pragmatic truth**.

## 4.22. Status functions and institutional facts

- Function:
  - Function is always observer relative, secondary property that is.
  - Example: hammer, it's part of a whole, a function is defined in a context of others.
  - Functions are contextualized explicitly or implicitly in systems.
  - We assign a function to an object, this function plays a role in the system.
- System has goals:
  - The system strives towards some type of perceived goal, value, purpose or goal, a system. This shown by the fact that they can fail, or malfunction.
  - Example: hammer, nails, planks function as a shelter.
  - Exists on a background, the whole system exists within an intentional network and presupposes a background.
  - Example: I use hammers to drive nails into planks to build a house, which is a shelter. I need shelter because otherwise I would freeze.
- No purpose, goal or value, no function: true also for bio-physical function.
  - This is true for all systems.
  - Biological functions are assigned in respect of some higher imposed value.
  - The function serves a role in the explanation of a theory.
  - The functions are not intrinsic: We impose them on organs to explain them, if you change the value to destruction from survival, then the organs are malfunctioning, the system always strives to accomplish a higher goal or purpose.
- Status functions: A special type of agentive function is the status function. We use the declaration speech act to create a function. Example: “this hereby counts as money in this room” if everyone accepts this declaration then that piece of paper is money in that room.  
We impose functions on objects using declaration of the format:

$X$  counts as  $Y$  in  $C$



- Recursion does the rest for us:
  - This is the way we create social reality.
  - We declare status functions with the format and then we use recursion to construct the social reality.
- Steps for status functions:
  1. Declare a system
    - Example: there is hereby a concept called money which the central bank is our state is allowed to issue. Declaration (F).
  2. Recognize and accept:
    - Everyone accepts the intitution and the money concept.
  3. Assign a function to agents:
    - Who does what.
  4. Recognize and accept the declaration of powers:
    - We know the concept and assign status functions to the concept and object.
  5. Declare intititional facts:
    - We trust and know the social facts of intitutions.
    - Recursion
- Functions in “thin air”:
  - They don’t need for an object at all, these function are called be Searle “free-standing Y terms”, there is no X in the statement.
  - You can have a status function without the X.
  - The normal status function has the power to issuea declaration, example: “thereby counts as a corporation (declaration F)” Corporation is Y, the word corporation is Y, a corporation exists from the declaration, and is sometimes independent of X.
  - We can’t do this without language, we can’t just think and make it so, a declaration is requiered.
  - Language is super important.
- With:
  1. Collective intentionality.
  2. Declare speech acts and
  3. Recursion

We create our social world:

  - This realli exists in our collective minds, somethings don’t exist out of the social collective mind.
- Things can exist in diferent forms:

Exists independently to us	Exists since we use and treat as such	Exists since we have jointly declared them to do so
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Human</li> <li>• Being</li> <li>• Bacteria</li> <li>• Sun</li> <li>• Tree</li> <li>• Mountain</li> <li>• Earth</li> <li>• River</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hammer</li> <li>• Table</li> <li>• Computer</li> <li>• Screwdriver</li> <li>• Fork</li> <li>• Engine</li> <li>• Thermometer</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• University degree</li> <li>• Birthday party</li> <li>• President</li> <li>• Money</li> <li>• Loan</li> <li>• Insurance</li> </ul>

- We use language to create social reality.

### 4.23. The triangle in new light - Summary

1. We take for granted that there are concrete objects and state of affairs that exists.
2. We have concepts about these objects
3. We form intentional states based on the concepts
4. We use language signs that represent the objects and concepts.
5. We make declarations of new concepts and assignments of these.
6. Those status functions are collectively recognized and accepted
7. We apply the new concept and thus we create new abstract objects in the world.
8. Repeat and repeat.

This is done very implicitly, the objective is to grab those facts and objects and make them explicit.

### 4.24. Resources

- Making the social world

# Capítulo 5

## Section 5: Lessons learned by our deeper knowledge about how we create our world

### 5.1. Lessons Learned

- Let's do some analysis: we now have the tools to understand what is going on in communication between people.
- Let's use them to make sense situations where communication “waste” is produced.
- And see how the waste can be eliminated using concept modelling.
- This is lean thinking, which pursues the elimination of “muda” or waste.
- How to use the tools now learned to eliminate waste.
- Case studies:
  - The meaning of breakdown
  - The slow knowledge
  - The language legacy
  - The rigid IT system
  - The lack of creative leaps

### 5.2. Case studies: Meaning breakdown

- Let's say:
  - A group of people are discussing a problem, thus an agreement is created.
  - Do they think that they agree or do they actually agree?
- They are using the same references to concepts but who knows if they all have the same concept.
- Do they think they agree?
  - Taking in to account the differences in concepts, in plain sight nothing indicates disagreement, but some can have different concepts of strategy or action plan.
- So:

- How many agreements will the customer need to sign?
- What happens if we just broker a service and “we” are not the supplier of the service?
- How many agreement templates need to be developed?
- This is the meaning breakdown, this produces waste, they sit down and try to explain their concepts for hours and hours, and never reach anything of an agreement because they all have different conceptualizations of the same terms they are using.

### 5.3. Slow knowledge acquisition

- Let’s say:
  - People are discussing solutions in a business.
  - Someone suggests to increase some product sales.
  - He is answered yes I will do that.
  - The conceptualizations are different, though the conceptualization is very simple, they are different.
  - Something goes wrong, then waste comes, then the agreement of the persons are different conceptualizations.
- The conceptual map gives us easier agreement and more precise conceptualization of solution:
  - You need to consider all the premises.
  - Then connect all the ideas.
  - Define the types, the relations and the properties of each step of conception in the conceptual map.
  - What happens if this? what happens if that? evaluate.
  - Adverbs, they are very ambiguous, how we describe actions can invite easy mistake.
- So many situations where you need to gain knowledge very fast and modeling and visualizing can enable us to do so.

### 5.4. The language legacy

- Language gets stuck in conversation, it’s stuck.
- Let’s say:
  - Implicitly declared set of status function concepts.
  - Persons that declared the status functions are long gone.
  - For strategic reasons (this happens)
  - In early conceptualization of a concept the terms were changed, so they are referring to different objects with different properties and concepts and instances with the same term.
  - Until you see that the object is another you’re stuck.
  - They keep referring to and treating this crucial object as another term.
  - This creates waste, lots of waste.
  - Example of customer as provider.
- New status functions implied in the strategy must be declared explicitly by the agent with the power and collectively accepted by the organization.
  - Agreement 1: customer agreement, make the declaration explicitly.
  - Agreement 2: broker agreement, who is the broker, what is his role.
- You can get stuck in an old language and how that sometimes can prevent you from implementing a new business strategy.

## 5.5. The rigid information systems

- Group of people that are sketching out the idea of a new project:
  - The model of the project is encoded in the IT system and database, the service is becoming very popular, the larger it grows the harder it becomes to change its structure.
  - Years after... they want to implement new features to the model, now implementing this would take too much work, adding this “modifiability” from the beginning would have been a small thing, adding it now results in costs that are exorbitant.
  - This is waste!

## 5.6. The creative leaps catalyst

- This is a success story:
  - Starting position - lack of a common language (and concepts)
  - Study of other domains and gain new knowledge.
  - Let’s say that we study lean, and we connect the patterns that we study to my challenge, then a framework is formed.
  - Not treating this creative process the same way is waste.

## 5.7. Early customer acceptance language

- Once you create status functions you need to make sure your organization does understand your model.
- Declaring the status functions is not enough to make their instances “alive” in the collective intentionality...
- This declared set of status functions needs to be “rooted”, incorporated and accepted in the user’s existing intentional network and background...
- Once you have learned the language you will be able to communicate better.
- Teach your language to real consumers as early as possible!
- You will need to adjust your status functions for best optimal fit with existing user’s network and background to eliminate waste.
- Pick your language and test it on real customers, try to fit it in to the collective intentionality if they don’t understand it you need rework it and make it clearer. This will eliminate waste.

## 5.8. Final conclusions

- Concept of concept: we create our social reality when creating function concepts, declaring instances of them and getting people to recognize these as existing. This is done using language.
- In the same way as a hammer can be too heavy, a malfunction conceptual system of status functions could prevent growth, development and lead to disasters.
- When we communicate we often leave out the network and background to a level that we think is common with the people that we communicate. This is natural, if we said everything in our collective intentionality it would take ages to explain “I’m taking a walk”, we tend however to leave out a little bit too much. Try to be too detailed in explaining the collective intentional network to understand your domain. Say a little bit more about the network you want to create.

- This process is so deeply part of what is to be human that we often neglect it's logical mechanisms and lack the tools to fix the problems that arise from it.
- What to do then? Eliminate communication waste,
  - Pay attention to implicit differences.
  - Visualise conceptual structures. Doing it visually helps the brain understand.
  - Reconsider the shared legacy of concepts when game shifts occur.
  - Make the language flexible for future changes. Make your construct flexible.
  - Find conceptual similarities between different domains. This jump starts the creative leap process.
  - Get early "acceptance" from all users of the language, get feedback in small iterations.
  - Refine the language in iterations to let it ground itself in the collective network of intentionality. People have different conceptualizations about the same world, with tools such as conceptual maps it's easier to see the differences.
- Conceptual maps help a lot to eliminate communication waste.

## 5.9. Resources

- The lean startup, Eric Ries

# Capítulo 6

## Section 6: Notation - The boxes and arrows and their semantics

### 6.1. What is a model?

- UML, Unified Modeling Language.
- Why do we model?
  - It's important to differentiate the subject matter and the model.
  - To make complex subject matters more comprehensible and possible to grasp on a higher level.
  - We create a model to understand, we use it to simulate.
  - To be able to simulate real-world scenarios to get an approximation on how the subject may react and work.
  - We create models to understand complex things and once we have the model to run simulations.
  - Specify, not yet build tangible subjects, we use a model to specify a subject.
  - Specify, not yet developed intangible subjects. Like businesses or business models.
- Models:
  1. To understand complex subject matters.
  2. To do simulations and try to predict the future.
  3. To specify not yet built physical things and intangible things.

### 6.2. Domain models

- What is a domain model:
  - Domain: encloses the content of a particular field of knowledge. Example: the domain of the Udemmy example is the things that encapsulates the whole area, it's the knowledge that limits that field.
  - This is recursive, a system is a part of a bigger system, the scope can be played with, it's also layered, I can describe something using biology or chemistry or physics or quantum physics. You can broaden the scope and tweak the abstraction.
  - A conceptual domain model is: can be described on the conceptual level, it includes the concepts used by the experts in that particular domain, used to create, reason understand and develop theories and systems within that domain.

- Depending on who you are there will be different concepts in the field.
- Problem and solution domain:
  - The conceptual model is explicitly chosen to be independent of design or solution concern.
  - This problem-solution domain is relative, it depends on who you ask.
- What is a business domain model:
  - It includes concepts the business experts use.
  - It's usually independent on any organization or software system.
  - It is detailed to a level that makes sense for the business experts.
  - Sufficient to describe the business logic.
  - Not only information entities.
  - Business concept models do not just include "what we have in our databases"

### 6.3. What is a model more formally?

- Definition of model in UML:
  - Three categories of elements: Classifiers, events, behaviours.
  - Each major category models individuals in an incarnation of the system being modeled.
  - An incarnation of the system being modeled.
  - An incarnation is one instance of the concept.
  - Example: a McDonald's restaurant is an instance of the McDonald's concept.
- Classifiers: A classifier describes a set of objects, an object is an individual thing with a state and relationships to other objects. Example: car.
- Events: describes a set of possible occurrences. An occurrence is something that happens that has some consequences within the system. Example: accident.
- Behavior: describes possible executions. An execution is the performance of an algorithm according to a set of rules. Example:  $A \rightarrow B$ ,  $A \rightarrow C$ , A behaviour is described as A can go to B or C.
- Models do not contain objects, occurrences, and executions, because those things are the subjects of models, not their content.
- You have subjects and you have models, A model can model aspects of individual objects, events or behavior. Example: occurrence of an accident, we model the event, type of accident, time of accident, occurrence specification; the occurrence will be complete the model will be incomplete.
- Value specifications, occurrences specifications, and execution specifications model individual objects, occurrences, and executions within a particular context.
- Is a diagram a model:
  - No, they are not.
  - The model is the "store" of the complete, often recursively composed, set of elements that describes a system.
  - A diagram/map is a view of specific aspects of the model's elements.
- Bare in mind "we often use the term model as a shorthand for diagram, maps or subset of a model", we must understand the distinction.
- One diagram showing one aspect of some of the elements. A model is thus composed of diagrams but the model isn't a diagram.



## 6.4. The unified modeling language

- A standard general-purpose modeling language in the field of software and business engineering. Managed by, the object management group.
- Includes a set of graphical notation techniques to create visual models of systems.
- Brief history:
  - Formed 1996, UML 1.0, released by the three amigos. They merged their methods for object oriented modeling.
  - Version 1.3,1.4 fixed bugs.
  - 2005 major revision was adopted.
  - 2012 is version 2.5, newest.
- UML is big, it's a tool set used to specify a complete systems. A lot of diagram types.
- The basics needed in this course:
  - Class: has attributes, they can have associations to others, they can have generalisations, they can have relations in the different types of classes.
  - A class is an instance, we can have links between instances.
  - This is linked to the philosophical course content.
  - We can have domains, can have dependences.
  - There is hundreds of elements in UML.

## 6.5. Classes, attributes and objects

- Classes:
  - Classes are rendered as boxes with a name indicating the “term” for the concept.
  - Concepts are modeled as classes in UML.
  - Classes have compartments that hold the features (such as attributes) of the class.
  - Compartments can be shown or hidden in a specific diagram.
- Attributes:
  - They model the non relational properties become attributes on the class in UML.
  - Examples: a group of people that have the concept car, color pink;
  - The attribute's instantiations describe the objects of the class.
  - Attributes could be set to a specific type, for example in an agreement will have the attribute date, valid date, identifier.
  - Get the concepts straight first. We notice attributes in the breakdown phase.
- Objects:
  - A classifier describes a set of instances that have features in common, classifier is the generic term for a class.
  - The special type of instances that are instances of classes are called objects.
  - The objects in the world are represented in UML as instances of a class. Instance specifications, are like constructors in java.

- A box with an underlined name is used as notation for an object, the class name is stated after the colon.
  - Objects can be anonymous. The name could be left blank.
  - Objects can be unclassified, you can set the class later in the process, you can have names and no object instantiation, you then add the class instantiation as you start to understand what you need.
  - Attribute's instantiations describe the objects of the class.
- Stereotypes:
    - What if I want to classify my classes?
    - You can add a stereotype to enrich the predefined semantics.
    - A common classification in business modelling is a stereotype business entities, business workers and business actors.
    - You can create "icons" for the stereotypes. You can have the default like this: <<something>>
    - Two equivalent UML diagrams of the same model.
  - Summary:
    - Classes are boxes with a name indicating the "term" for the concept, elements can be stereotyped. The attributes, which could have a type, are shown in the class compartments.
    - Objects are rendered as a box, with underlined name and optionally the instantiating class. The attributes instances that describe the object could optionally be shown in the objects compartment.

## 6.6. UML Associations - "The lines"

- Associations are the most common relationship used in class modeling, associations are shown as a solid line between two classes.
- Associations (ends) could have multiplicity.
  - It regulates which type of object constellations that are possible.
  - "An agreement must have at least one party but a party doesn't have to be involved in an agreement."
  - The 1..\* declares the dependencies, one dependency in this case.
- Associations can have role names. The association end has a role, in UML Language.
- Association end could have navigability, this is represented as an arrow.
  - Navigability specifies if the class "knows" about the relationship.
  - If no arrows are shown, both ends are navigable.
- Very common confusion about directions:
  - Static: meaning, the agreement concept "depends" on the existence of the product concept, the direction of the arrow implies the dependence.
  - Dynamic meaning, the process of defining products to sell is prior to the writing of agreements. In concept modeling mixing behavior and dependencies can be confusing.
- Reading directions are like comments in the diagram flow.
- Links:

- Links specify specific properties become links between objects in UML.
  - Links are shown as a solid line between two objects.
  - Examl: Romeo:Person  $\rightarrow$  Loves  $\rightarrow$  Juliet:Person (agent) vice versa.
  - Links are instances of associations.
- An associations declares that there can be links between the objects. So associations are also classifiers, as classes... An association can be instantiated thus they are classifiers as well.
  - What if I need to describe attributes for the associations:
    - Associations classes are shown as a regular class which has a dotted line that connctets them to the associations that they describe.
    - It's like a comment for attribute links.
  - Modeling compositions of objects:
    - Typically, a part instance is only “attached” to one whole instance at a time.
    - The composite aggregate are shown as a solid black “diamond” at the associations end for the “whole” class.
    - Objects that are composed of other objects are called aggregations (phylosophy mereology).
    - Example: a table is aggregating the top and the table legs.
    - Composite classifiers provides mechanisms for specifying structures of interconnected classifiers created within an instance of a containing classifier. Instead of showing the table as three diferent classes you can have an anidated box composed of the objects that are composed to aggregate the master object.
  - Summary:
    - Associations are shown as a solid line between two classes, a name and “reading” direction can be shown.
    - Association ends could have multiplicity, role names, and navigability.
    - Composite aggregations are shown as a black diamons on a side “owning” class.
    - Links between objects which are instances of associatons are **also** shown as solid lines between objects.
    - How we model depends on what is considered important in the domain.

## 6.7. Generalizations

- Generalizations:
  - Are another type of relation, generalizations are the way to express general implications. Remember:
 
$$\forall x( \text{Man}(x) ) \rightarrow x = \text{Animal}$$
  - General implications become just generalizations in UML.
  - The generalization relationship is solid line with a non solid triangle in the parent side.
  - This is the way we relate concepts when the links are generalizations.
- Associations and links:
  - Example: Cows and barns, mammal is a generalization, a generalization of mammal is animal, so on.
  - Hence by definition there are only objcets of the lowest level clases.

- All superordinate classes in a generalization structure are abstract, this means you can't instantiate them directly.
- The name of an abstract class is put in italics, this means that this class can't be instantiated directly.
- Two orthogonal ways to subtype accounts:
  - A class can have multiple generalization sets.
  - Each set can also be further described with constraints within curly brackets {} and the set could be given a name, such as Liability Type and Account Type.
- What if you need to speak about the type before you have an object to speak about:
  - This is called powertypes.
  - Powertypes are shown as a class with the same name as the generalization set, stereotyped to "powertype".
  - A powertype is a class whose instances are also subclasses of another class.
  - Example:
    - Maple: Tree Species
    - a specific tree: Maple
- Multiple inheritance:
  - A class might specialize more than one class.
  - Be careful, it makes the model harder to interpret.
  - Example:
    - Vehicle → car → boat → amphibious vehicle.
  - One class inherits from another.
- Summary:
  - The generalization relationship is shown as a solid line with a non-filled arrow head.
  - The role in the relationship is called generalization (the parent) and specialization (the child).
  - A class can have multiple generalization sets which could have a constraint (such as incomplete, disjoint) and the set can have a name.
  - If needed a specific class, called a powertype can be modeled for each generalization set.

## 6.8. Packages - Divide and conquer

- Packages are used to decompose large UML models.
- Packaging are used to deal with complexity and modifiability of model by decomposing it in to smaller chunks.
- Packages depend on each other, dependencies are shown as dotted lines with an open arrow in UML.
- The direction of the dependency is derived from the ingoing elements' relationships.
- The packages are dependent.
- Sound packing is so important that the whole last section of this course talking about this.

# Capítulo 7

## Section 7: Concept modeling workshop techniques - Perform an outstanding workshop

### 7.1. Workshop overview

- Producing crystal clear models is a craftmanship.
- Workshop techniques:
  1. Preparing for a workshop
  2. Storytelling
  3. Object diagrams examples
  4. Pattern recognition
  5. Pattern utilization
  6. Process and concept modeling
  7. Diagram composition
- Three phases of the workshop:
  1. Preparation
  2. Facilitation
  3. Documentation

### 7.2. Workshop preparation

- You are the facilitator, you don't tell what to do, facilitate, you are the facilitator not the expert.
- Still, you must understand what experts are trying to say, you are after all the person who is going to make the diagrams.
- Hence, read and analyze as much you can find on the web sites, process descriptions, marketing material.
- Interview the assignor:
  - This is the one who is going to receive the result.
  - Why are we doing this? describe the purpose.

- What is the scope? state a domain.
  - As-is or to-be analysis? map the concepts that we are using, create new way of conceptual analysis for the future? you listen in the as-is and you propose in the to-be.
  - Who should attend?
  - When it should be done?
  - Where should we do it? online, phone, in a room? what limitations?
  - Which methods should be applied?
- Workshop agenda:
1. Icebreaker: break the language breaker. For example, introduce yourself, everyone will follow the format of introduction, even if they know themselves for 15 years they will start to think, this icebreaker can't be stiff.
  2. Introduction slides:
    - Background and purpose.
    - Workshop goals.
    - Scope.
    - Brief introduction to concept.
    - Description of the process.
  3. Workshop!
  4. Wrap up: (have 15 minutes to make a summary etc.)
    - Summary
    - Were the goals achieved
    - Next steps
  5. Ask them for comments.
- Steps:
1. Analysis
  2. Goals
  3. Organization
  4. Execution
  5. Evaluation
- You have different roles during the workshop:
- Domain experts: they are the persons who have the terminology and the specialized knowledge.
  - Facilitator: You have the idea of concepts and everything.
- Do not give up until you as the facilitator, understands!
- A fuzzed speech is often a fuzzed thought.
  - It is you that should deliver a coherent model, you are the one that is going to deliver this coherent model.
  - However, make sure that they are not trying to describe how a clarinet sounds. If you get stuck, leave it and get back. Maybe there are prerequisites not yet known to you.

## 7.3. Storytelling

- It's about telling stories, it's a powerful way of knowledge acquisition.
- It's a powerful way of organizing information.
- The magical words are: "let me tell you a story"
  1. People start listening.
  2. A new entity is created: the story.
  3. Listeners get emotionally involved.
  4. Create more persistent knowledge.
  5. Foster the shared understanding.
  6. Activation of prior knowledge.
  7. Foster collective creativity.
- Conceptual modeling using Storytelling:
  - The facilitator is not the story teller.
  - "Today you the participant is going to prepare us a story"
  - However, it's not just any stories. I am interested in what happens when a payment is sent invoice is received?
  - Then listen very carefully and model everything you hear.
  - "Sure, let me tell you a story... Payments are received to our bank accounts twice per day. Every payment has a reference text which we use to figure out which invoice the payment related to."
  - So a payment for an invoice is made by a payee and includes a payment reference. The is received at a bank account.
- Remember:
  - You are not the expert, you should be asking the questions.
  - Make parables from other similar situations.
  - This is one way of trying to make inferences for checking if the same conceptualizations are being done.
- Question current stated model:
  - Make specific question of the explicit model you have created, they may've only given you one scenario out of five right?
  - Raise "stupid" questions: play the role of the donkey.
    - "I might be a bit stupid... but can anyone here tell me exactly what a train is"
  - State implications from the current model:
    - Can you verify this statement=
    - "All product prices must be overridden and connected to an agreement price. "
  - Involve yourself as an actor in the actual story.
    - Let's say i'm the <role in the story> , what would happen?
    - Ok <this> will happen.
- The process:
  - Start by: which stories to use.

- Ask the participants to start telling stories.
- Tell the stories.
- Model the concepts. Glify a workshop tool.
- Pause, associate.
- Raise control questions
- Role playing
- Derive and implicate
- Recite where you stopped and start again.
- You do this until you are done, do it in iterations.