Towards a Theory of Domain Descriptions

— Bergen 8 May Mini-course Notes —

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Contents

1 Introduction				
	1.1	Rôles of Domain Engineering		
		1.1.1 Software Development		
		Requirements Construction		
		Software Design		
		1.1.2 Domain Studies "In Isolation"		
	1.2	Additional Preliminary Notions		
		1.2.1 Types and Values		
		1.2.2 Algebras		
		Abstract Algebras		
		Heterogeneous Algebras		
		Behavioral Algebras		
	1.3	On 'Method' and 'Methodology'		
	1.4	An Ontology of Descriptions		
		1.4.1 Entities and Properties		
		1.4.2 Categories of Entities		
	1.5	Structure of Paper		
2	Don	nains 16		
	2.1	Informal Characterisation		
	2.2	Mereology		
	2.3	Rough Sketch Hints of Domains		
	2.4	What are Domains?		
		2.4.1 An Informal Characterisation of Domains		
		2.4.2 A Formal Characterisation of Domains		
	2.5	Six Examples		
		2.5.1 Air Traffic		
		2.5.2 Buildings		
		2.5.3 Financial Service Industry		
		2.5.4 Machine Assemblies		

		2.5.5	Oil Industry
		2.5.6	A Concretised Composite parts
3	Enti	ties	25
			Examples
	3.1	Parts .	26
			Examples
		3.1.1	Atomic Parts
			Examples
		3.1.2	Composite Parts
		212	Examples
		3.1.3	Part Attributes
			Atomic Part Attributes
			•
			Composite Part Attributes 28 Examples 28
			Static Part Attributes
			Examples
			Dynamic Part Attributes
			Examples
			Indivisibility of Attributes
			Examples
		3.1.4	Subparts Are Parts
		0.1	Examples
		3.1.5	Subpart Types Are Not Subtypes
			Examples
		3.1.6	Mereology of Composite Parts
			Examples
		3.1.7	Part Descriptions
			Examples
		3.1.8	States
			Examples
	3.2	Action	s
			Examples
	3.3	Events	36
			Example
	3.4	Behav	iours
	0.5	Б.	Example
	3.5	Discus	s <mark>ion</mark>
4	Des	cribing	Domain Entities 39
	4.1	_	escribing
		4.1.1	Informal Descriptions
			Domain Instances Versus Domains
			Non-uniqueness of Domain Descriptions
			A Criterion for Description
			Reason for 'Description' Failure $\dots \dots \dots$
			Guidance
		4.1.2	Formal Descriptions

4.2	A For	mal Description Language	41
	4.2.1		41
	4.2.2		41
		Abstract Types	41
		Concrete Types	42
		Type Definitions	42
		Type Properties	44
		Subpart Type Observers	45
		Unique Identifier Functions	45
		Mereologies and Their Functions	46
		General Attributes and Their Functions	47
	4.2.3	Describing Actions	49
		Function Names	49
		Informal Function Descriptions	49
		Formal Function Descriptions	50
		Agents	52
	4.2.4	Describing Events	52
		Deliberate and Inadvertent (Internal and External) Events	52
		Event Predicates	52
	4.2.5	Describing Behaviours	54
		Behaviour Description Languages	54
		Simple Sequential Behaviours	54
		— Snapshot Description of a Simple Sequential Behaviour:	54
		Simple Concurrent Behaviours	55
		Communicating Behaviours	55
		External Non-deterministic Behaviours	55
		Internal Non-deterministic Behaviours	56
	_	General Communicating Behaviours	56
4.3	-	oral Issues	61
	4.3.1	Three Abstract Time Concepts	61
	4.3.2	Concrete Time Concepts	61
	4.3.3	Some Interval Relations	62
	4.3.4	Time Phenomena	62
		Parts and Time	62
		Actions and Time	63
		Events and Time	63 64
	125		67
	4.3.5	Temporal Descriptions	07
Disc	covering	Domain Entities	68
5.1	_	inaries	68
	5.1.1	Part Signatures	68
	5.1.2	Domain Indices	68
	5.1.3	Inherited Domain Signatures	69
	5.1.4	Domain and Sub-domain Categories	69
	5.1.5	Simple and Compound Indexes	69
	5.1.6	Simple and Compound Domain Categories	70
	5.1.7	Examples	70
	5.1.8	Discussion	74
5.2	Propo	sed Type and Signature 'Discoverers'	75
	5.2.1	••	76

			Domain Part Sorts and Their Observers	76			
			A Domain Sort Discoverer	76			
			Domain Part Types and Their Observers	77			
			Do a Sort Have a Concrete Type ?	77			
			A Domain Part Type Observer	78			
			Concrete Part Types	79			
			Part Type Analysers	79			
			Unique Identity Analysers	79			
			Mereology Analysers	79			
			General Attribute Analysers	80			
			— Attribute Sort Exploration	82			
		5.2.2	Discovering Action Signatures	82			
			General	82			
			Function Signatures Usually Depend on Compound Domains	82			
			The ACTION_SIGNATURES Discoverer	82			
		5.2.3	Discovering Event Signature	83			
		5.2.4	Discovering Behaviour Signatures	83			
	5.3	What	Does Application Mean ?	85			
		5.3.1	PART_SORTS	86			
		5.3.2	HAS_A_CONCRETE_TYPE	86			
		5.3.3	PART_TYPES	86			
		5.3.4	UNIQUE_ID	87			
	5.4	Discus	ssion	87			
6	Conclusion 8						
	6.1		al	89			
	6.2		Have We Achieved ?	89			
	6.3		Formal Models	89			
	6.4		rch Issues	89			
	6.5	_	eering Issues	89			
	6.6		arable Work	89			
	6.7	Ackno	owledgements	89			
7	D:LI	iograph	nical Notes	90			
1	7.1		lotes	90			
	7.2		ences	90			
	1.2	Kelere	sites	90			
8	Inde	exes		93			
	8.1	Index	of Concepts	93			
	8.2		of Examples				
	8.3		of Formulas				
	8.4		of Inquieries				

Abstract

We seek foundations for a possible theory of domain descriptions. Sect. 2 informally outlines what we mean by a domain. Sect. 3 informally outlines the entities whose description form a description of a domain. Sect. 4 then suggests one way of formalising such description parts¹. There are other ways of formally describing

¹The exemplified description approach is model-oriented, specifically the RAISE [23] cum RSL [22] approach.

domains², but the one exemplified can be taken as generic for other description approaches. Sect. ?? outlines a theory of domain mereology. Sect. 5 suggests some 'domain discoverers'.

These research notes reflect our current thinking. Through seminar presentations, their preparation and post-seminar revisions it is expected that they will be altered and honed.

May 1, 2012: 16:34

²Other model-oriented approaches are those of Alloy [28], Event B [1], VDM [7, 8, 17] and Z [42]. Property-oriented description approaches include CafeOBJ [19], Casl [13] and Maude [32, 12]

6

1 Introduction

In this section we shall cover a number of concepts ("Preliminary Notions" and "An Ontology of Descriptions", Sects. 1.2–1.4) that lie at the foundation of the theory and practice of domain science and engineering. These are general issues such as (i) software engineering as consisting of domain engineering, requirements engineering, and software design, (ii) types and values, and (iii) algebras. But first we shall put the concept of domain engineering in a proper perspective.

1.1 Rôles of Domain Engineering

By domain engineering we shall understand the engineering³ of domain descriptions, their study, use and maintenance. In this section (Sect. 1.1) we shall focus on the use of domain descriptions (i) in the construction of requirements and, from these, in the design of software, and (ii) more generally, and independent of requirements engineering and software design, in the study of man-made domains in a search for possible laws.

1.1.1 Software Development

We see domain engineering as a first in a triptych phased software engineering: (I) domain engineering, (II) requirements engineering and (III) software design. Sections 3–4 cover some engineering aspects of domain engineering.

Requirements Construction As shown elsewhere [3, 4, 5, 6] domain descriptions, \mathcal{D} , can serve as a firm foundation for requirements engineering. This done is by systematically "deriving" major part of the requirements from the domain description. The 'derivation' is done in steps of refinements and extensions. Typical steps reflect such 'algebraic operations' as projection, instantiation, determination, extension, fitting, etcetera In "injecting" a domain description, \mathcal{D} , in a requirements prescription, \mathcal{R} , the requirements engineer endeavors to satisfy goals, \mathcal{G} , where goals are meta-requirements, that is, are a kind of higher-order requirements which can be uttered, that is, postulated, but cannot be formalised in a way from which we can "derive" a software design. For the concept of 'goal' we refer to [30, Axel van Lamsweerde].

So, to us, domain engineering becomes an indispensable part of software engineering. In [6] we go as far as suggesting that current requirements engineering (research and practice) rests on flawed foundations!

Software Design Finally, from the requirements prescription, \mathcal{R} , software, \mathcal{S} , can be designed through a series of refinements and transformations such that one can prove

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³Engineering is the discipline, art, skill and profession of acquiring and applying scientific, mathematical, economic, social, and practical knowledge, in order to design and build structures, machines, devices, systems, materials and processes . . . [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Engineering]

 $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{S} \models \mathcal{R}$, that is, the software design, \mathcal{S} , models, i.e., is a correct implementation of the requirements, \mathcal{R} , where the proof makes assumptions about the domain, \mathcal{D} .

1.1.2 Domain Studies "In Isolation"

10

But one can pursue developments of domain descriptions whether or not one subsequently wishes to pursue requirements and software design. Just as physicists study "mother nature" in order just to understand, so domain scientists cum engineers can study, for example, man-made domains — just to understand them. Such studies of man-made domains 11 seem worthwhile. Health care systems appear to be quite complex, embodying hundreds or even thousands of phenomena and concepts: parts, actions, events and behaviours. So do container lines, manufacturing, financial services (banking, insurance, trading in securities instruments, etc.), liquid and gaseous material distribution (pipelines), etcetera. Proper studies of each of these entails many, many years of work.

1.2 Additional Preliminary Notions

12

We first dwell on the "twinned" notions 'type' and 'value', Sect. 1.2.1. And then we summarise, Sect. 1.2.2, the notions of (universal, or abstract) algebras, heterogeneous algebras and 'behavioural' algebras. The latter notion, behavioural algebra, is a "homecooked" term. (Hence the single quotes.) The algebra section, Sect. 1.2.2, is short on definitions and long on examples.

1.2.1 Types and Values

13

Values (0, 1, 2, ...) have types (**integer**). We observe values (**false, true**)), but we speak of them by their types (**Bool**ean); that is: types are abstract concepts whereas (actual) values are (usually) concrete phenomena. By a type we shall here, simplifying, mean a way of characterising a set of entities (of similar "kind"). Entity values and types are related:when we observe an entity we observe its value; and when we say that an entity is of a given type, then we (usually) mean that the observed entity is but one of several entities of that type.

Example 1 (Types and Values of Parts) Three naïve examples

When we say, or write, the [or that] net, we mean

When we say, or write, the [or that] account, we mean When we say, or write, the [or that] container, we mean

- 1. an entity, a specific value, n,
- 3. an entity, a specific value, a,
- 5. an entity, a specific value, c,

- 2. of type net, N.
- 4. of type account, A.
- 6. of type container, C.

type	$ ext{type}$	type
2. N	4. A	6. C
value	value	value
1. n:N	3. a:A	5. c:C

Example 2 (Types and Values of Actions, Events and Behaviours) We continue the example above: A set of actions that all insert hubs in a net have the common signature:

value

15

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insert: $H \to N \xrightarrow{\sim} N$

The type expression $H \rightarrow N \xrightarrow{\sim} N$ demotes an infinite set of functions from Hubs to partial functions from Nets

to Nets. The value clause insert: $H \rightarrow N \xrightarrow{\sim} N$ names a function value in that infinite set insert and non-deterministically selects an arbitrary value in that infinite set. The functions are partial $(\xrightarrow{\sim})$ since an argument Hub may already "be" in the N in which case the insert function is not defined. A set of events that all result in a link of a net being broken can be characterised by the same predicate signature:

value

link_disappearance: $N \times N \rightarrow Bool$

The set of behaviours that focus only on the insertion and removal of hubs and links in a net have the common signature:

type

Maintain = Insert_H | Remove_H | Insert_L | remove_L

value

maintain_N: N \rightarrow Maintain* \rightarrow N maintain_N: N \rightarrow Maintain $^{\omega}$ \rightarrow **Unit**

If insertions and removals continue ad infinitum, i.e., $^{\omega}$, then the maintenance behaviour do likewise: Unit.

Inquiry: Type and Value

The concept of type and its study in the last 50 years, is, perhaps, the finest contribution that computer science have made to mathematics. It all seems to have started with Bertrand Russel who needed to impose a type hierarchy on sets in order to understand the problem posed by the question: "is the set of all sets a member of itself". Explicit types were (one may claim) first introduced into programming languages in Algol 60 [2].

The two concepts: 'type' and 'value' go hand-in-hand. MORE TO COME

1.2.2 Algebras

17

Abstract Algebras By an abstract algebra we shall understand a (finite or infinite) set of parts (e_1, e_2, \ldots) called the carrier, A (a type), of the algebra, and a (usually finite) set of functions, f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n , [each] in Ω , over these. Writing $f_i(e_{j_1}, e_{j_2}, \ldots, e_{j_m})$, where f_i is in Ω of signature:

$$signature \omega : A^n \rightarrow A$$

and each $e_{j_{\ell}}$ (ℓ : {1..m}) is in A. The operation $f_i(e_{j_1}, e_{j_2}, \ldots, e_{j_m})$ is then meant to designate either **chaos** (a totally undefined quantity) or some e_k in A.

Heterogeneous Algebras A heterogeneous algebra has its carrier set, A, consist of a number of usually disjoint sets, also referred to as sub-types of A: A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n , and a set of operations, ω : Ω , such that each operation, ω , has a signature:

signature
$$\omega: A_i \times A_j \times \cdots \times A_k \rightarrow A_r$$

where A_i, A_j, \ldots, A_k and A_r are in $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n\}$.

Example 3 (Heterogeneous Algebras: Platoons) We leave it to the reader to fill in missing narrative and to decipher the following formalisation.

- 7. There are vehicles.
- 8. A platoon is a set of one or more vehicles.

type

- 7. V
- 8. $P = \{ | p \cdot p: V-set \land p \neq \{ \} | \}$
 - 9. A vehicle can join a platoon.
 - 10. A vehicle can leave a platoon.
 - 11. Two platoons can be merged into one platoon.
 - 12. A platoon can be split into two platoons.
- 9. join_0: $V \times P \rightarrow P$
- 9. $join_0(v,p) \equiv p \cup \{v\}$ **pre**: $v \notin p$
- 10. leave_0: $V \times P \rightarrow P$
- 10. leave_0(v,p) $\equiv p \setminus \{v\}$ **pre**: $v \in p$
- 11. merge_0: $P \times P \rightarrow P$

18

19

22

23

24

- 11. merge_0(p,p') \equiv p \cup p' **pre**: p \neq {} \neq p' \wedge p \cap p' = {}
- 12. split_0: $P \rightarrow P$ -set
- 12. $\operatorname{split}_{0}(p) \equiv \operatorname{let} p', p'' : P \cdot p' \cup p'' = p \text{ in } \{p', p''\} \text{ end pre: card } p \geq 2$

The above formulas define a heterogeneous algebra with types V and P and operations (or actions) $join_0$, $leave_0$, $merge_0$, and $split_0$.

Behavioral Algebras An abstract algebra is characterised by the one type, A, of its parts and by its operations all of whose signatures are of the form $A \times A \times \cdots \times A \to A$. A heterogeneous algebra is an abstract algebra and is further characterised by two or more types, A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m , and by a set of operations of usually distinctly typed signatures. A behavioral algebra is a heterogeneous algebra and is further characterised by a set of events and by a set of behaviours where events are like actions and behaviours are sets of sequences of actions, events and behaviours.

Example 4 (A Behavioural Algebra: A System of Platoons and Vehicles) Our example may be a bit contrived. We have yet to unfold, as we do in this paper, enough material to give more realistic examples.

- 13. A well-formed platoon/vehicle system consists of a pair:
 - a convoys which is a varying set of [non-empty] platoons and
 - b reservoir which is a varying set of vehicles —
 - c such that the convoys platoons are disjoint, no vehicles in common, and
 - d such that reservoir have no vehicle in common with any platoon in convoys.
- 14. Platoons are characterised by unique platoon identifiers.
- 15. These identifiers can be observed from platoons.
- 16. Vehicles from the *reservoir* behaviour may join [leave] a platoon whereby they leave [respectively join] the pool.
- 17. Two platoons may merge into one, and a platoon may split into two.
- 18. Finally, vehicles may enter [exit] the system by entering [exiting] reservoir.

```
type 13. S = \{ | (c,r):C \times R \cdot r \cap \cup c = \{ \} | \} 13a. C = \{ | c:P\text{-set} \cdot wf\_C(c) | \} value
```

```
wf_C: C \to Bool
13c.
          \operatorname{wf_-C}(c) \equiv \forall p, p' : P \cdot \{p, p'\} \subset c \Rightarrow p \neq \{\} \neq p' \land p \cap p' = \{\}
type
13b. R = V-set
value
           join_1: S \xrightarrow{\sim} S
16.
           leave_1: S \xrightarrow{\sim} S
16.
           merge_1: S \xrightarrow{\sim} S
17.
           split_1: S \xrightarrow{\sim} S
17.
           enter_1: S \xrightarrow{\sim} S
18.
           exit_1: S \xrightarrow{\sim} S
18.
```

19. join_1 selects an arbitrary vehicle in r:R and an arbitrary platoon p in c:C, joins v to p in c and removes v from r.

- 20. leave_1 selects a platoon p in c and a vehicle v in p, removes v from p in c and joins v to r.
- 21. merge_1 selects two distinct platoons p,p' in c, removes them from c, takes their union and adds to c.
- 22. split_1 selects a platoon p in c, one which has at least to vehicles,
- 23. and partitions p into p' and p'', removes p from c and joins p' and p'' to c.
- 24. enter_1 joins a fresh vehicle v to r.
- 25. exit_1 removes a vehicle v from a non-empty r.

```
    join_1(c,r) ≡
    let v:V•v ∈ r,p:P•p ∈ c in
    (c\{p} ∪ {join_0(v,p)},r\{v}) end
    leave_1(c,r) ≡
```

20. let $v:V,p:P \cdot p \in c \land v \in p$ in 20. $(c \setminus \{p\} \cup \{\text{leave_0}(v,p)\}, r \cup \{v\})$ end

```
21. \operatorname{merge\_1(c,r)} \equiv
21. \operatorname{let} p, p' : P \cdot p \neq p' \land \{p, p'\} \subseteq c \text{ in}
21. (c \setminus \{p, p'\} \cup \{\operatorname{merge\_0(p,p')}\}, r) \text{ end}
```

22. $\operatorname{split_1(c,r)} \equiv$ 23. $\operatorname{let} p:P \bullet p \in c \land \operatorname{card} p \geq 2 \operatorname{in}$ 25

```
23. let p',p":P•p ∪ p' = p in
23. (c\{p} ∪ split_0(p),r) end end
24. enter_1(c,r) ≡ (c,let v:V•v∉ r ∪ ∪ c in r ∪ {v} end)
25. exit_1()(c,r) ≡ (c,let v:V•v ∈ r in r\{v} end) pre: r≠{}
```

The $r \cup \cup c$ in enter_1(c,r) expresses the union (with the vehicles of r) of all the vehicles in all the platoons of c, i.e., the distributed union of $c (\cup c)$.

The above model abstracts an essence of the non-deterministic behaviour of a platooning system. We make no assumptions about which vehicles are joined to or leave which platoons, which platoons are merged, which platoon is split nor into which sub-platoons, and which vehicle enters and exits the reservoir state.

- 26. We model the above *system* as a behaviour which is composed from a pair of concurrent behaviours:
 - a a convoys behaviour and
 - b a reservoir behaviour
 - c where these behaviours interact via a channel cr_ch and
 - d where the entering of "new" and exiting of "old" vehicles occur on a channel io_ch
- 27. Hence the communications between the reservoir behaviour and the convoys behaviour are of three kinds: Joining (moving) a vehicle to a ("magically" and platoon from the reservoir behaviour, Removing [moving] a vehicle from a named platoon to (mkV(v)) the reservoir behaviour

```
type
27. M == mkJ(v:V) \mid mkR \mid mkV(v:V)
channel
26c. cr\_ch:M
26d. io\_ch:V
value
26. system: S \rightarrow Unit
26. system(c,r) \equiv convoys(c) \parallel reservoir(r)
```

28. The convoys behaviour non-deterministically ([]) chooses either to

a merge platoons, or to

29

27

28

⁴In this example we skip the somewhat 'technical' details as to how the *reservoir* behaviour obtains knowledge of platoon names.

```
b split platoons, or to
```

- c interact with the reservoir behaviour via channel ct_ch
- d and based on that interactions
 - i. to either join a narbitrary vehicle v to a platoon, or
 - ii. to remove a named vehicle, v, from a platoon
 - iii. while "moving' that vehicle to reservoir.

```
28.
                                      convoys: C \rightarrow in,out cr_ch Unit
                                       convoys(c) \equiv convoys(merge(c)) \ [ \ convoys(split(c)) \ [ \ convoys(interact(c))
28.
                                             interact: C \rightarrow in,out cr_ch C
28c.
28c.
                                             interact(c) \equiv
                                                                      let m = cr_c ? in
28c.
28d.
                                                                       case m of
28(d)i.
                                                                                                                   mkJ(v) \rightarrow join\_vehicle(v,c),
                                                                                                                    mkR \rightarrow let (c',v) = remove\_vehicle(c) in
28(d)ii.
                                                                                                                                                                                              ct_{h} = c
28(d)iii.
```

28c. end end end

29. The merge_platoons behaviour

- a non-deterministically chooses two platoons of convoys (p,p'),
- b removes the two platoons from *convoys* and adds the *merge* of these two platoons to *convoys*.
- c If convoys contain less than two platoons then merge_platoons is undefined.

```
29. merge_platoons: C \to C

29. merge_platoons(c) \equiv

29a. let p,p',p'':P \cdot p \neq p' \land \{p,p'\} \subseteq c in

29b. c \setminus \{p,p'\} \cup \{merge\_0(p,p')\} end

29b. pre: card c \geq 2
```

33

31

- 30. The split_platoons function
 - a non-deterministically chooses a platoon, p, of two or more vehicles in convoys,
 - b removes the chosen platoon from *convoys* and inserts the split platoons into *convoys*.
 - c If there are no platoons in c with two or more vehicles then $split_platoons$ is undefined.

```
30. split_platoons: C \xrightarrow{\sim} C

30. split_platoons(c) \equiv

30a. let p:P • p \in c \wedge card p \geq 2 in

30b. c\{p} \cup {split_0(p)} end

30c. pre: \exists p:P • p \in c \wedge card p \geq 2
```

31. The reservoir behaviour interacts with the convoys behaviour and with "an external", that is, undefined behaviour through channels ct_ch and io_ch.

The reservoir behaviour [external] non-deterministically chooses between

- a importing a vehicle from "the outside",
- b exporting a vehicle to "the outside",
- c moving a vehicle to the convoys behaviour, and
- d moving a vehicle from the convoys behaviour.

```
31. reservoir: R \rightarrow \text{in,out} \text{ cr_ch, io\_ch } \text{Unit}
31. reservoir(r) \equiv
31a. (r \cup {io\_ch?}),
31b. [] let v:V • v \in t in io\_ch!mkV(v); reservoir(r\{v}) end
31c. [] let v:V • v \in t in ct_ch!mkJ(v); reservoir(r\{v}) end
31d. [] let mkV(v) = ct\_ch? in reservoir(r \cup {v}) end
```

We may consider Items 31a-31b as designating events.

This example designates a behavioural algebra.

Inquiry: Algebra

Algebra is a mathematical notion. We shall use this notion in seeking to describe domains as algebras.

MORE TO COME

1.3 On 'Method' and 'Methodology'

Inquiry: Method and Methodology

We present our characterisation of the concepts of 'method' and 'methodology'. When we use these terms then our characterisation is what we mean by their use. There are other characterisations. Be that as it may.

By a method we shall understanda set of principles, techniques and tools where the principles help select and apply these techniques and tools such that an artifact, here a domain description, can be constructed.

By methodology we shall understand the knowledge and study of one or more methods. Languages, whether informal, as English, or formal, as RSL, are tools.

35

1.4 An Ontology of Descriptions

37

"By ontology we mean the philosophical study of the nature of being, existence, or reality as such, as well as the basic categories of being and their relations. Traditionally listed as a part of the major branch of philosophy known as metaphysics, ontology deals with questions concerning what entities exist or can be said to exist, and how such entities can be grouped, related within a hierarchy, and subdivided according to similarities and differences."

1.4.1 Entities and Properties

38

A main stream of philosophers [34, 20, 18] appear to agree that there are two categories of discourse: entities⁶ and properties. Once we say that, a number of questions arise: (Q_1) What counts as an entity? (Q_2) What counts as a property? (Q_3) Are properties entities? (Q_4) Can properties predicate properties? We shall take no and yes to be answers to Q_3 and Q_4 . These lecture notes shall answer Q_1 and Q_2

1.4.2 Categories of Entities

39

40

We shall promulgate the following classes of entities: parts, and operations. where we further "sub-divide" operations into actions, events and behaviours That is, we can predicate entities, e, as follows: $\mathbb{IS_PART}(e)$, $\mathbb{IS_OPERATION}(e)$, that is, $\mathbb{IS_ACTION}(e)$, $\mathbb{IS_EVENT}(e)$ and $\mathbb{IS_BEHVAIOUR}(e)$. We shall justify the above categorisation through these lecture notes. So parts, actions, events and behaviours form an ontology of descriptions.

1.5 Structure of Paper

1. Introduction		
2. Domains		16-24
3. Entities		25-38
4. Describing Domain Entities		39-67
a Parts, Actions, Events	39-54	
b Behaviours	54-67	
5. Discovering Domain Entities		68-88
6. Conclusion		89-89

⁵http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ontology

⁶The literature [31, 10, 11, 34, 20, 18, 41] alternatively refer to entities by the term individuals.