

BPEL-TIME

WS-BPEL Time Management Extension

Amirreza Tahamtan, Christian Oesterle, A Min Tjoa
*Institute of Software Technology & Interactive Systems, Information & Software Engineering Group
Vienna University of Technology, Favoritenstrasse 9-11/188, A-1040 Vienna, Austria*

Abdelkader Hameurlain
*Institut de Recherche en Informatique de Toulouse, University Paul Sabatier
Route de Narbonne, 31062 Toulouse Cedex, France*

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Abstract: Temporal management and assurance of temporal compatibility is an important quality criteria for processes within and across organizations. Temporal conformance increases QoS and reduces process execution costs. WS-BPEL as the accepted industry standard lacks sufficient temporal management capabilities. In this paper we introduce BPEL-TIME, a WS-BPEL extension for time management purposes. It allows the definition, execution and monitoring of business processes with time management capabilities. This extension makes a fixed, variable and probabilistic representation of temporal constraints possible and checks if the model is temporally compliant. Our approach avoids temporal failures by the prediction of the future temporal behavior of business processes.

1 INTRODUCTION

Temporal conformance and compliance are important quality criteria for business processes and interorganizational workflows. Processes may have deadlines. The assigned deadlines may be part of the service level agreement between partners or enforced by law or organizational policies. It must be ensured that the right information is delivered to the right activity at the right time and the process executes in a timely manner in order to be able to hold the deadlines. Temporal conformance on the one hand increases the QoS and on the other hand reduces the cost of process execution as costly exception handling mechanisms can be avoided. Temporal management can be used for three different purposes (Tahamtan, 2009):

- Predictive time management: to predict the possible temporal behavior of the system and pre-calculate future possible violations of temporal constraints.
- Pro-active time management: to detect potential future violations and raise alarm in these cases such that counter-measure mechanisms can be tri-

ggered early enough.

- Reactive time management: to react and trigger exception handling mechanisms if a temporal failure has already occurred.

Web Services and SOA offer several advantages for implementation of business processes such as interoperability, loosely coupling and composition. WS-BPEL has become the accepted standard for description and execution of business processes based on Web Services. In the realm of web services we mainly talk about two concepts: choreographies and orchestrations or in the WS-BPEL notation, abstract and executable processes.

A WS-BPEL executable process or orchestration is controlled and run by one partner. A partner's internal logic and business know-how are contained in his executable process. Other tasks such as data transformations, data handling, arithmetic operations and the actual performed work are as well contained in this process. An executable process is solely visible to its owner and other external partners have no view on and knowledge about it. An executable process is a process viewed only from the perspective of its owner.

On the other hand, a choreography, which is called abstract process in WS-BPEL, describes business protocols. An Abstract Process may be used to describe observable message exchange behavior of each of the parties involved, without revealing their internal implementation (Alves et al., 2007). An abstract process can use all the construct of an executable process and have the same expressive power but it is not intended to be executed. It has merely a descriptive role. An abstract process defines a collaboration among involved partners to reach an overall business goal. It contains only visible exchanged messages between partners in course of a business process. An abstract process has no owner or a super user in charge of control and all involved partners are treated equally. It is a process definition from a global perspective shared among all involved partners (Peltz, 2003).

In order to ensure that cooperating business processes are temporally compliant, it must be guaranteed that both the tasks performed in executable processes and the protocols described in abstract processes have a compliant temporal behavior. The Contribution of this paper is an extension of WS-BPEL called BPEL-TIME (WS-BPEL Time Management Extension) to ensure temporal compatibility of business processes. BPEL-TIME consists of two components, a design time component and a run time component. The design time component allows the definition of temporal constraints. At design time it is checked if the model is temporally feasible, i.e. if there is a solution that satisfies all the temporal constraints. If the system is temporally not feasible, it can be detected at design time and necessary modifications performed. We calculate a valid temporal window for each activity in this phase. If an activity executes within its valid temporal window it is guaranteed that the whole process terminates successfully. The run time component monitors the execution of the process and informs the process manager if any deviation from valid temporal windows is detected. Based on the calculations at design time, the run time component predicts the future temporal behavior of the flow and informs the process manager about its status. Our approach is based on prevention of errors rather than repairing them after their occurrence. By predicting the behavior of a flow appropriate measures can be triggered in order to guarantee its successful execution. BPEL-TIME offers two different possibilities: an interval-based and a probabilistic approach. The interval-based approach allows the definition of fixed and/or variable temporal constraints such as deadlines and durations. The probabilistic approach enables a probabilistic representation of temporal constraints and takes also branching probabili-

ties into account.

2 MODEL DESCRIPTION

For modeling and calculation of temporal plans of WS-BPEL executable and abstract processes three types of constraints have to be considered:

- **Implicit Constraints** are derived implicitly from the structure of a process, e.g. an activity can start execution if and only if all of its predecessors have finished execution. This kind of constraints also can be referred to as *structural constraints*.
- **Explicit Constraints**, e.g. assigned deadlines, can be set explicitly by the process designer or enforced by law, regulations or business rules.
- **Dependencies with other Processes** may impose a temporal restriction on a process. It is not enough to perform a temporal analysis in isolation. The dependencies with other abstract and executable processes must also be taken into account.

The first two constraints are needed to calculate the temporal plan of one single process. The third constraint must be considered in order to check the temporal conformance and calculate the temporal plans of a set cooperating processes. We model the first two constraints using two different modeling approaches: the interval-based and the probabilistic approach. Both models are described in subsections 2.1 and 2.2 respectively.

2.1 Interval-based Approach

The interval-based approach allows modeling of fixed and variable durations of activities. The duration of an activity can take any value within an interval bounded by minimum and maximum durations, e.g. $a.d = [a.d_{min}, a.d_{max}]$, where $a.d$ refers to duration of an activity a . We use upper-bound and lower-bound constraints (Eder and Panagos, 2001) to model the interval within which the duration of an activity lies.

Lower-bound Constraint identifies the minimum temporal distance between two events. Let a be the source event and b the destination event. $lbc(a, b, \delta)$ denotes that between the event a and the event b at least δ time points must pass.

Upper-bound Constraint identifies the maximum temporal distance between two events. Let a be the source event and b the destination event. $ubc(a, b, \delta)$ denotes that between the event a and the event b at most δ time points can pass.

$a.d_{min}$ and $a.d_{max}$ can be modeled by defining the minimum and maximum allowed time points between start event and end event of an activity respectively. This scenario as depicted in fig. 1, where $a.d = [2, 7]$, a_s and a_e refer to the start event and end event of the activity a . Obviously an activity can also be assigned a fixed value, if $a.d_{min} = a.d_{max}$. Note that in the rest of this paper, for the sake of brevity, we do not illustrate lbc and ubc as well as start and end events in the graphs. lbc and ubc are not only used for modeling d_{min} and d_{max} of activities. They can also be used for modeling temporal constraints between different activities. For example ubc and lbc can be used for modeling requirements such as approval or rejection of an application may take at most one week after its receipt and sending a notification to the applicant takes at least three days.

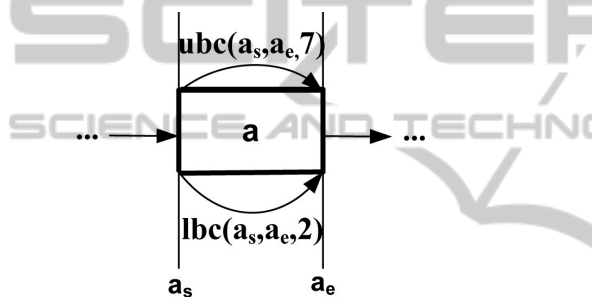


Figure 1: Modeling d_{min} and d_{max} by lbc and ubc .

As the basic modeling language, we adapt the model presented in (Tahamtan, 2009). It is a timed activity graph or timed graph (Panagos and Rabinovich, 1997) augmented with start and end events for activities. Timed graphs are familiar workflow graphs where nodes correspond to activities and edges to the dependencies between activities, enriched with temporal information. Fig. 2 shows an example of the model. All activities have a unique name and two corresponding events (start and end events). The other notions used in the fig. 2 are described in subsection 2.1.1. Because BPEL-processes are full-blocked (WMC, 2002), in this work we restrict the graphs to full-blocked ones, i.e. each split node has a counterpart join node and vice versa.

2.1.1 Calculation of Temporal Values

For calculation of temporal values, we extend the algorithms developed in our previous works (Eder and Tahamtan, 2008; Eder et al., 2008). All activities have durations. $a.d$ denotes the duration of an activity a . The duration is an interval bounded by minimum and maximum durations. At the first use of a model an es-

timization of the activity durations, e.g. expert opinion, may be used. Later, workflow logs can be mined for actual activity durations. An interval in which an activity may execute is calculated. This interval is delimited by *earliest possible start* (eps-value) and *latest allowed end* (lae-value). $a.eps$ denotes the eps-value of an activity a and is the earliest point in time in which the activity a can start execution. eps-values reflect the implicit constraints of a flow. $a.lae$ represents the latest point in time in which an activity a can finish execution in order to hold the assigned deadline. lae-values reflect the explicit constraints of a flow. Both eps and lae values are calculated for *best case* and *worst case*. Best case and worst case identifies the execution of the shortest and longest path of a flow respectively. $a.bc.eps$ refers to best case eps and $a.wc.eps$ refers to worst case eps of an activity a . The same applies to lae-values. eps-values are calculated in a forward pass by adding the eps-value of the predecessor to its duration. Minimum duration for best case and maximum duration for worst case are considered. For example $b.bc.eps = a.bc.eps + a.d_{min}$ and $b.wc.eps = a.wc.eps + a.d_{max}$ if an activity a is a predecessor of an activity b . If an activity a has multiple predecessors, e.g. if activity a is an immediate successor of an AND-join or the target node of an lbc , the maximum of eps-values of predecessors of a and the lbc is taken into account. The eps-value of the first activity or the set of first activities are set to 0.

In contrast to the eps-values, lae-values are calculated in a backward pass by subtracting the lae-value of the successor from its duration, e.g. $a.bc.lae = b.bc.lae - b.d_{min}$ and $a.wc.lae = b.wc.lae - b.d_{max}$ if an activity b is a successor of an activity a . If an activity a has multiple successors, e.g. if activity a is source of an lbc , the minimum of lae-values of predecessors of a and the lbc is taken into account.

Temporal values of a simple graph are depicted in fig. 2. Given known activity durations, in addition we can calculate *earliest possible end* (epe-values) and *latest allowed start* (las-values) for an activity, using the following formulas: $a.epe = a.eps + a.d$ and $a.las = a.lae - a.d$. We refer to eps-values and epe-values as e-values and to lae-values and las-values as l-values. In this approach we handle loops as complex activities. For calculation of the temporal plan at design time we consider only one iteration. Because the actual iterations of a loop is not known at design time, its execution is monitored at run time and process manager receives notifications about the temporal status of the process. For a more detailed discussion on calculation of interval-based values and their algorithms, refer to (Tahamtan, 2009; Eder and Tahamtan, 2008).

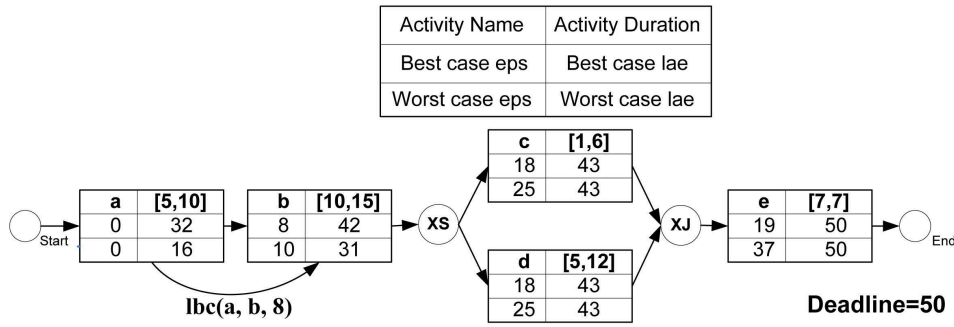


Figure 2: An example of a timed graph with deadline= 50.

2.2 Probabilistic Approach

Fixed or variable duration of activities can be modeled using the interval-based approach. However, in some use cases one may need to consider branching probabilities. The probabilistic approach described in the following subsections caters for probabilistic representation of temporal constraints.

2.2.1 Probabilistic Model Description

In order to express variable duration of activities, the notion of time histograms (Pichler, 2006; Eder and Pichler, 2002) is used. A duration histogram is a data structure for representation of the (probabilistic and variable) duration of basic activities, complex activities, subworkflows and workflow itself. A duration histogram is a tuple (p,d) , where p is a probability and d a duration. For example the probabilistic duration of an activity can be represented as $\{(0.1, 10), (0.25, 12), (0.32, 15), (0.33, 20)\}$. This duration can be interpreted as follows: the duration of this activity is with the probability 10%, 10 time points, with the probability 25%, 12 time points, with the probability 32%, 15 time points and with the probability 33%, 20 time points. If a duration histogram contains any tuples whose time values are the same, these tuples must be merged by adding the probabilities of tuples with the same duration. A workflow graph augmented with probabilistic temporal information for activities and nodes is referred to as probabilistic timed graph (PTG). Fig. 3 illustrates an example of such a probabilistic timed graph. The duration of activities are given in the table above the graph.

All control nodes have the duration 0. The deadline of the workflow is also given in form of a (probability, duration) tuple. Further, it is assumed that there is no delay between end of an activity and start of its successor or the set of its successors. Analogous to duration histograms (d-histograms), (Pichler, 2006) defines e-histograms for presentation of e-values and l-histograms for presentation of l-values. Note that

for probabilistic calculations we do not consider best and worst case or lbc and ubc .

2.2.2 Histogram Operations

In order to calculate the temporal values, operations on histograms are necessary. These histograms operations are briefly introduced in this subsection.

The *histogram addition* generates the cartesian product of the tuples of two histograms, where probabilities are multiplied and time values are added: $\{(0.25, 3), (0.75, 5)\} + \{(0.5, 3), (0.5, 5)\} = \{(0.125, 6), (0.125, 8), (0.375, 8), (0.375, 10)\}$. Resulting tuples with equal time values are *aggregated*, which means they are merged by summing up their probabilities: $\{(0.125, 6), (0.5, 8), (0.375, 10)\}$.

The *histogram subtraction* $h_1 - h_2$ is a variation of the addition, with the only difference that time values for the resulting tuples are subtracted.

The *histogram conjunction* also generates a cartesian product. Again probabilities are multiplied, but this time the maximum time value of each tuple-combination determines the time value of the resulting tuple. Therefore it is also called the *max-conjunction*: $\{(0.25, 3), (0.75, 5)\} \wedge_{max} \{(0.5, 3), (0.5, 5)\} = \{(0.125, 3), (0.125, 5), (0.375, 5), (0.375, 5)\}$. Again the final resulting histogram has to be aggregated, which results in $\{(0.125, 3), (0.875, 5)\}$. A variation of this operation is the *min-conjunction* which determines the time value of the resulting tuple by applying a minimum-operation.

The *weight*-operation multiplies all probabilities of a histogram with a given probability: $\{(0.25, 3), (0.75, 5)\} * 0.25 = \{(0.0625, 3), (0.1875, 5)\}$. Please note that the weight operation produces an *invalid* histogram, as the sum of probabilities is less than 1.0. Therefore it always appears in combination with the *histogram disjunction*, which merges two weighted histograms:

$$\{(0.0625, 3), (0.1875, 5)\} \vee \{(0.375, 3), (0.375, 5)\} =$$

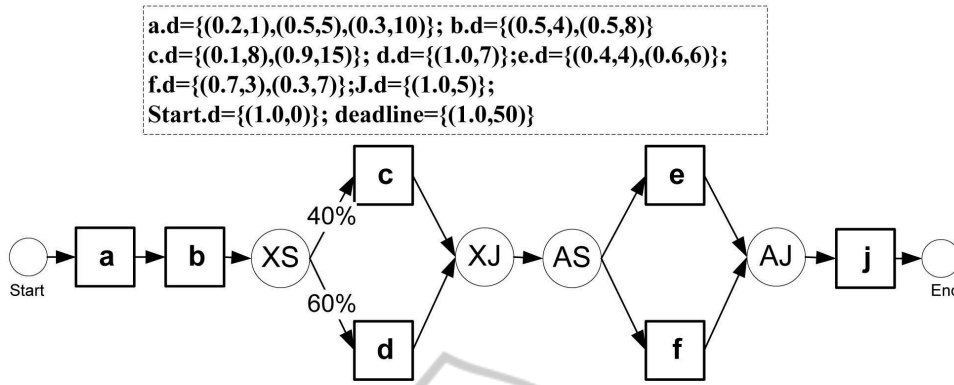


Figure 3: A sample probabilistic timed graph (PTG).

$\{(0.0.625,3), (0.1875,5), (0.375,3), (0.375,5)\}$; and the aggregation which yields to $\{(0.4375,3), (0.5625,5)\}$.

Both, conjunction and disjunction, are commutative and associative, therefore they can be extended to k histograms, e.g.: $h = h_1 \vee \dots \vee h_k = \bigvee h_i$, where $1 \leq i \leq k$.

The *histogram comparison* is applied for comparing two histograms with each other. Unlike discrete values, two histograms h_1 and h_2 may partially overlap. Thus an expression like $h_1 < h_2$ can be true and false at the same time, each at least up to a certain degree. The comparison of two histograms h_1 and h_2 with the comparison-operator $\bowtie \in \{\leq, <, =, >, \geq\}$ for a given degree $0 \leq deg \leq 1$ is defined as follows:

$$h_1 \bowtie_{deg} h_2 = \begin{cases} true : & \sum p_1 * p_2 \geq deg \wedge t_1 \bowtie t_2, \\ & \forall (p_1, t_1) \in h_1, \forall (p_2, t_2) \in h_2 \\ false : & otherwise \end{cases}$$

Based on the histograms h_1 and h_2 , depicted in fig. 4, we can make the following statements: up to a degree of 0.545, h_1 is greater than h_2 and up to a degree of 0.35, h_1 is equal to h_2 . For instance, the following expressions are true: $h_1 <_{0.05} h_2$, $h_1 >_{0.25} h_2$, $h_1 >_{0.545} h_2$, and the following are false: $h_1 >_{0.7} h_2$, $h_1 \geq_{0.9} h_2$. In order to check the total histogram equality the certainty degree must be set to 1.0: $h_1 =_{1.0} h_2$. To ensure that two histograms have no overlapping regions at all, they must be compared with the certainty degree of 1.0: $h_1 <_{1.0} h_2$ or $h_1 >_{1.0} h_2$.

A relaxed certainty allows for overlapping regions, which might prove useful especially if there are (extreme) outliers in histograms. For example imagine that the mean of a histogram h_3 is 5 and it contains one extreme outlier, the tuple (0.005,1000). Even with a histograms h_4 that contains much higher time values, a $<$ -comparison with 100%-certainty always yields *false*. Relaxing the certainty-value just by 0.01% will avoid most conformance-conflicts (still, one day this highly improbable case might occur).

2.2.3 Calculation of Probabilistic Timed Graphs

e-histograms (eps-histograms, epe-histograms) of nodes of a workflow can be calculated by applying the forward calculation rules in a topological order. These rules are specified in table 1 according to the node types. In table 1, *node.eps* denotes the eps-histogram of the current node, *node.epe* its epe-histogram, *node.d* the duration histogram of the current node, *pred.epe* identifies the epe-histogram of the predecessor node, *node.Pred* the set of predecessor nodes of the current node and $p_{pred \Rightarrow node}$ identifies the execution probability of the edge connecting the predecessor node to the current node.

Except for nodes with multiple incoming paths, i.e. AND-join and XOR-join, the duration-histograms are summed up to calculate the according e-histograms. For AND-joins the max-conjunction is applied because the longest path (or histogram-tuple) determines the resulting tuple. For XOR-joins, the histograms of predecessors are weighted with the according branching probability and subsequently they are merged applying the conjunction.

Analogously, for calculation of l-histograms (las-histograms and lae-histograms) the backward calculation rules, as specified in table 2, have to be applied in a backward topological order. In table 2 *node.lae* refers to the lae-histogram of the current node, *node.las* the las-histogram of the current node, $\{(1.0, \delta)\}$ denotes the assigned deadline, *node.d* the duration histogram of the current node, *succ.las* identifies the las-histogram of the successor node, *node.Succ* the set of successor nodes of the current node and $p_{node \leftarrow succ}$ the execution probability of the edge connecting the current node with the successor node.

When reversing the direction of calculation, beginning from the end-node to the start-node, histogram subtraction is applied instead of histogram ad-

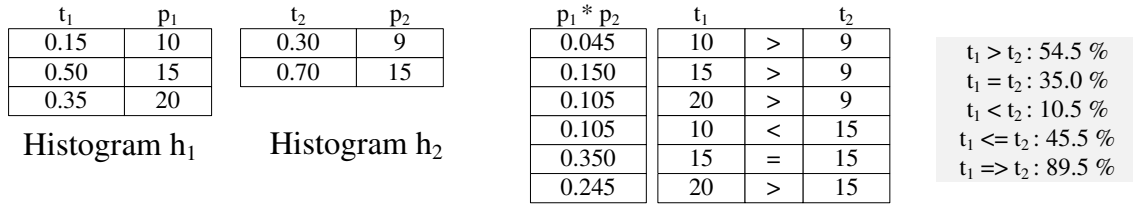


Figure 4: Calculating the values for histogram comparison.

Table 1: Calculation of e-histograms.

type of node	$node.eps =$	$node.epe =$
Start	$\{(1.0, 0)\}$	$node.eps + node.d$
End	$pred.epe$	$node.eps + node.d$
Activity	$pred.epe$	$node.eps + node.d$
AND-split	$pred.epe$	$node.eps + node.d$
XOR-split	$pred.epe$	$node.eps + node.d$
AND-join	$\forall pred \in node.Pred : \bigwedge_{max}(pred.epe)$	$node.eps + node.d$
XOR-join	$\forall pred \in node.Pred : \bigvee(pred.epe * p_{pred \Rightarrow node})$	$node.eps + node.d$

dition. lae-histogram of the end node is initialized with the assigned deadline. Special rules must be applied when calculating the l-histograms of the nodes with multiple outgoing paths: AND-split and XOR-split. lae-histogram of an AND-split is calculated by a min-conjunction over its outgoing paths. XOR-splits are calculated by a weighted disjunction of the outgoing paths. The probabilistic approach provides better means for handling loops. Again here, loops are handled as complex activities. The number of iterations can be reflected in durations of the complex activity with different probabilities. At run time the execution is monitored. For a more detailed discussion of the probabilistic approach and some examples, refer to (Eder et al., 2008).

3 TEMPORAL MANAGEMENT OF WS-BPEL EXECUTABLE AND ABSTRACT PROCESSES

The interval-based and the probabilistic approach presented above can be used to calculate the temporal plan of one single executable or abstract process in isolation. However, in order to calculate the temporal plans of a set of cooperating executable and abstract processes and check their temporal conformance, it is necessary to consider the dependencies between them. Executable and abstract processes may be linked in several ways. A typical scenario (Barros et al., 2005; Decker et al., 2006; Dijkman and

Dumas, 2004) of web service composition assumes one abstract process shared among several partners where each partner realizes its parts of the abstract process in its executable process. The shared abstract process defines the communication among executable processes. This scenario is depicted in fig. 5. An executable process does not solely contain (a subset of) of activities of an abstract process rather it may contain other internal tasks of its owner. (Eder et al., 2007) provides a technique for checking if the ordering of the activities in executable and abstract processes is structurally compliant.

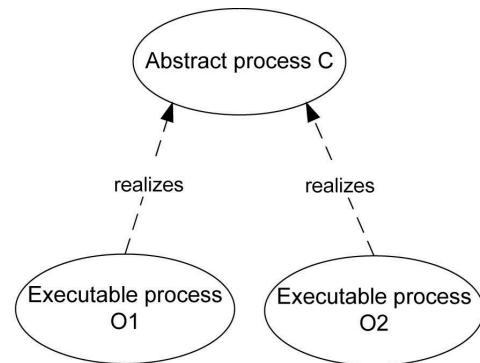


Figure 5: A typical scenario of Web Service composition.

(Eder et al., 2006; Tahamtan and Eder, 2011) introduce other architectures for web service composition. This architecture is a two layered model where an abstract or executable process can be an extended subset of another abstract process. The most im-

Table 2: Calculation of l-histograms.

type of node	$node.lae =$	$node.las =$
End	$\{(1.0, \delta)\}$	$node.lae - node.d$
Start	$succ.las$	$node.lae - node.d$
Activity	$succ.las$	$node.lae - node.d$
AND-join	$succ.las$	$node.lae - node.d$
XOR-join	$succ.las$	$node.lae - node.d$
AND-split	$\forall succ \in node.Succ : \bigwedge_{min}(succ.las)$	$node.lae - node.d$
XOR-split	$\forall succ \in node.Succ : \bigvee (succ.las * p_{node \leftarrow succ})$	$node.lae - node.d$

portant issue to consider regarding the dependency between two nodes (abstract and/or executable processes) is the greatest common divisor (GCD) of their activities. GCD identifies the set of common activities in two nodes. A dependency between two nodes implies that GCD of activities of two nodes is not empty, i.e. these two nodes have at least one activity in common. Dependencies between activities are depicted using links between them as in fig. 5. Fig. 6 depicts the abstract process *C* and the executable process *O1* in fig. 5. The GCD of two graphs include the activities *Receive request* and *Reply request*. For the sake of brevity the the executable process *O2* is omitted.

If two nodes have no common activities, these two nodes are temporally independent from each other and their temporal plans can be calculated in isolation. If GCD of two nodes is not empty these two nodes affect each other through the common activities. In this case a cycle of calculation-assignment-recalculation beginning with the abstract process and along the all links in the model must be repeated. In the assignment phase, temporal values of the activities of GCD are assigned from the source node to the target node. The assignment is only performed if e-values of the source node are greater than e-values of the target node. l-values are assigned if l-values of the source node are smaller than those of the target node. In other words an assignment is only allowed if the current valid execution interval of an activity in the target node becomes tighter. The concept of assignment is depicted in fig. 6. If any temporal value changes after the assignment, the temporal plan of the graph must be recalculated as described above. Again here, current values can be overwritten if newly calculated e-values are greater than current values and newly calculated l-values are smaller than current l-values. This cycle is repeated until a stable state is reached or the conformance condition is violated. A stable state is reached if no changes is made after assignment of values from one node to another. Conformance condition is violated if e-value of an activity becomes greater than its corresponding l-value. The

top part of the Fig. 6 illustrates the graphs after calculation of *C* and *O1* and assignment of values from *C* to *O1*. The bottom part of the figure illustrates the values after recalculation at *O1*, assignment of the values from *O1* to *C*. A recalculation at *C* does not change the values at *C* and hence these values are final values. As you can see the same activities in different graphs have the same final temporal values. The arrows only shows the assigned values. For example in the top part of the figure the e-values of the activity *Receive request* in the abstract process *C* are equal to those in the executable process *O1* and hence not assigned. The probabilistic approach, as well, uses the same concept for assignment and calculation of temporal plans. The histogram comparison as described above can be used for comparing histograms and assignment of values from one graph to another. The same technique (calculation-assignment-recalculation) also applies if there are more than one abstract process present in the model. In fig. 6 please also note the difference between deadline and maximum duration (dmax). A deadline is a point in time whereas maximum duration is a time period. For example deadline of a process may be 15th of July, 12:00 but maximum duration says that a process can execute for 10 hours after starting execution.

4 PROTOTYPICAL IMPLEMENTATION

Our prototype has been implemented based on the open source softwares Eclipse BPEL designer and Apache ODE (Orchestration Director Engine). The prototype consists of two components: A design time component that allows the definition of cooperating processes, their dependencies and temporal constraints (deadline, activity durations, lower and upper bound constraints between activities). The design time component also checks the temporal satisfiability of the model. It checks if there exists a solution that satisfies temporal constraints of all pro-

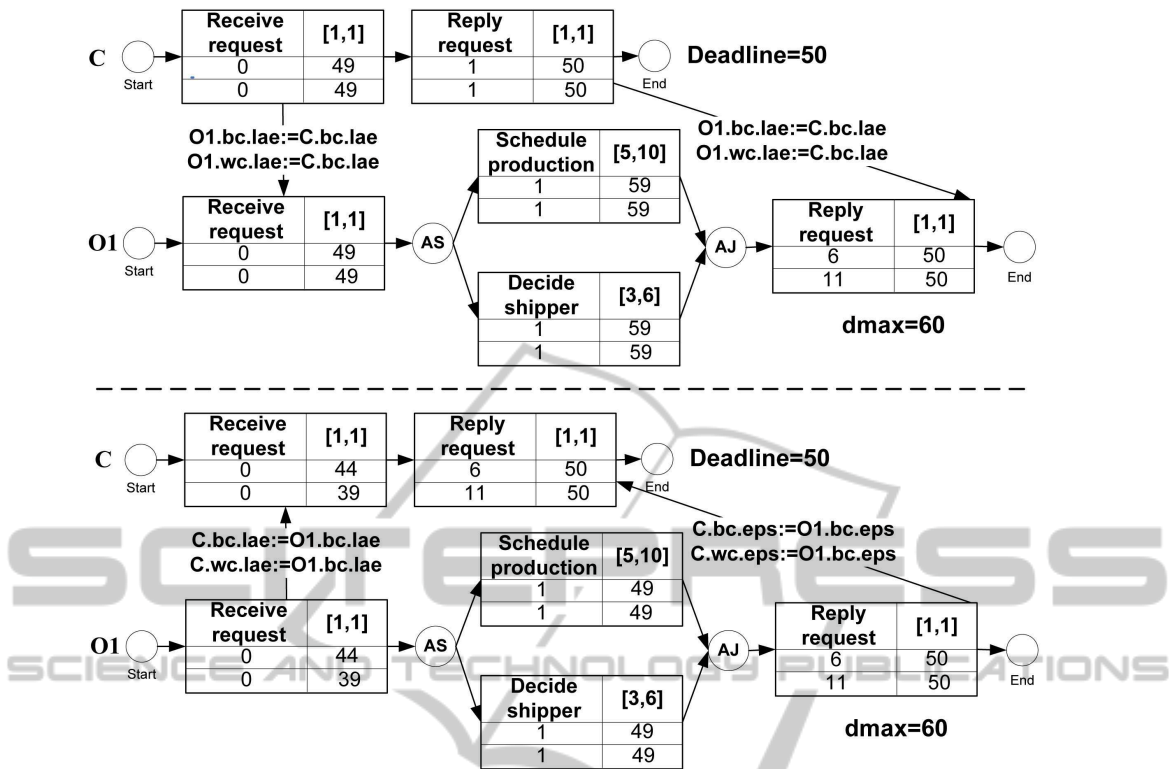


Figure 6: Propagation of values for the same activity in different graphs.

cesses. If such a solution does not exist the user will be informed which part of the process has temporal conflicts. In this case process structure or temporal constraints should be redefined such that the temporal constraints can be satisfied. Design time component calculates a valid temporal window for each activity. If activities execute within their valid temporal window it can be guaranteed that all cooperating processes execute and terminate in a temporally compliant way. The run time component monitors the execution of each activity and checks if it executes within its valid temporal window. If any deviation is found the user receives an alarm about the process status. We use the traffic light model presented in (Eder and Panagos, 2001). If all activities executes within their valid temporal window the traffic light is green and everything is ok. If some activities deviate from their precalculated valid temporal window but it is still possible to hold the deadline and satisfy the temporal constraints (e.g. by executing the shortest path of a conditional structure) the traffic light turns to yellow. If some activities took longer than expected and in any case, even in best case scenario, temporal constraints will be violated, the traffic light turns to red. In this case the process manager can decide to cancel the execution prematurely or skip some activities. The

prototype, an installation and troubleshooting guide and an introduction how to perform basic tasks such as defining BPEL-process, preparing wsdl-files and setting up variables can be found on our homepage (VUT, 2011).

4.1 Design Time Component

The design time component is prototyped under Eclipse Helios. The required functionalities are implemented under *properties* as depicted in fig. 7. After definition of the structure of the processes, the dependencies between processes can be defined using the property *choreography*. A supported process can be chosen using *Select Process*. A supported process identifies processes that have a link to this process, i.e. their GCD is not empty. This can be an executable process or another abstract process. The combo box beneath allows for choosing processes that support this process. Dependencies can be added or removed. The result is written in an XML-file called *dependencies.xml*.

Temporal constraints can be set under *Constraints* (see fig. 8). It is possible to set minimum and maximum duration of activities and the deadline for the process. Further it is possible to add and remove op-

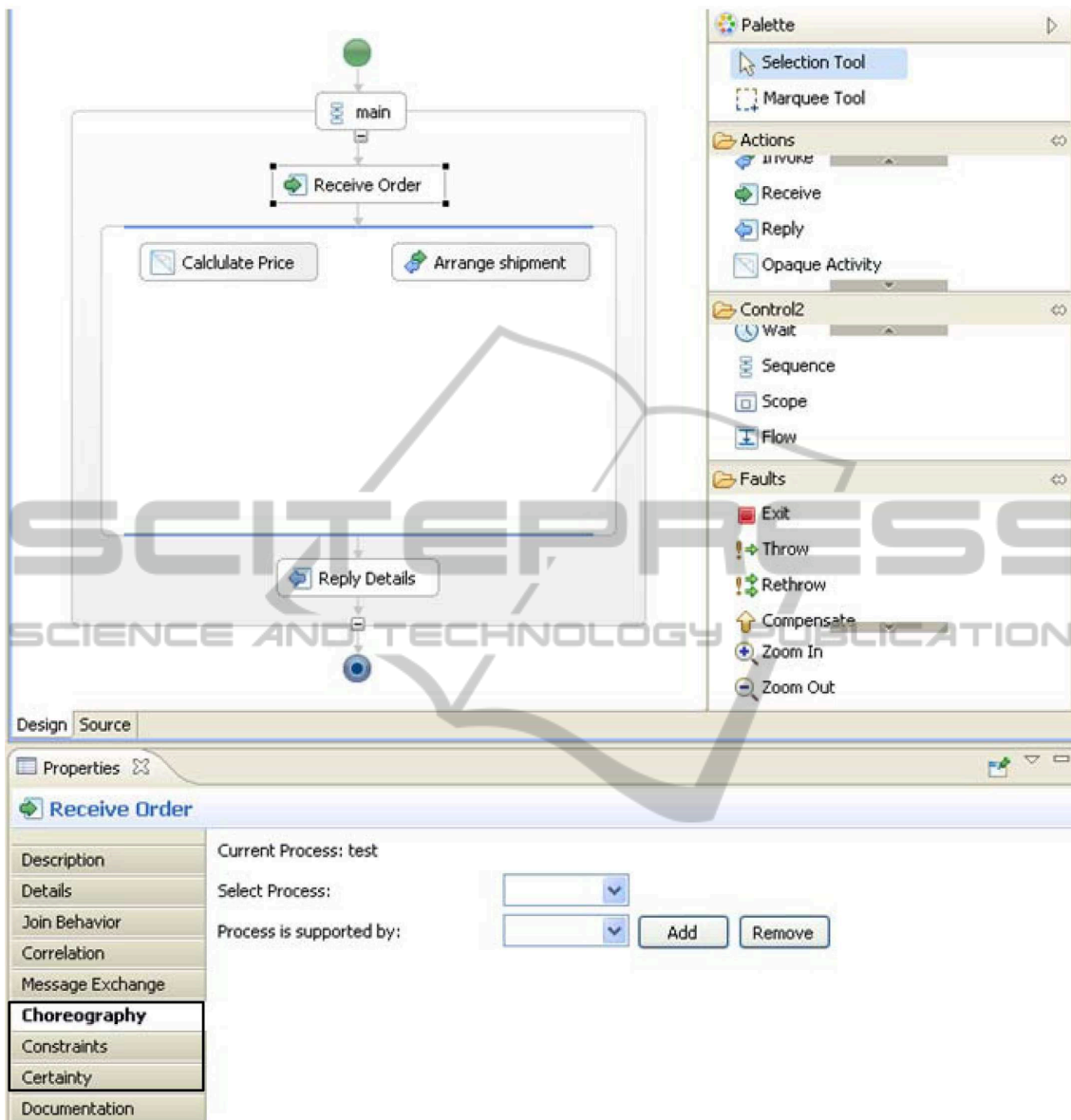


Figure 7: Definition of dependencies between processes.

tional lower and upper bound constraints between activities. The right part of the fig. 8 shows the temporal values of each activity after calculation.

Certainty allows the definition of probabilistic values: durations of activities and their probabilities as well as the deadline of the whole process. The probabilistic temporal values can be calculated by the *Calculate* button.

4.2 Run Time Component

The run time component is implemented in Apache ODE 1.3.4. It monitors the process execution and checks if activities are executed within their valid temporal interval. At process instantiation time, an actual calendar is used in order to transform all time information which was computed relative to the start of the flow to absolute time points (Eder et al., 1999). For every instantiated activity, the calendar e-value is compared with the start date of the instantiated activity. In the same way, the mapped calendar l-value is also compared with the end date of the instantiated

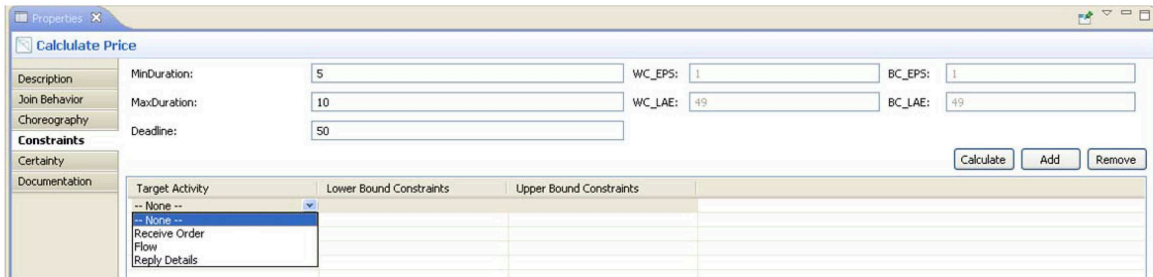


Figure 8: Definition and calculation of interval-based temporal values.

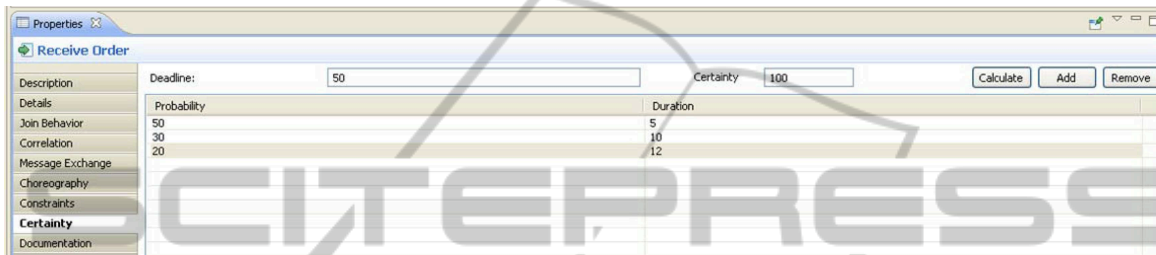


Figure 9: Definition and calculation of probabilistic temporal values.

activity. The traffic light model (Eder and Panagos, 2001) provides an overview for process manager. If activities execute within their calculated interval at design time it is guaranteed that all processes remain temporally compliant. If some activities are delayed and deviate from their valid temporal window, it is possible that a deadline be violated. In this case the traffic light turns to yellow indicating that some activities are delayed but it is still possible to finish the execution in time. The process manager may decide to force the process to execute the shortest path in order to guarantee the temporal compliance. If activities are delayed to the extent that future execution in any case leads to temporal violation, the traffic light turns to red. In this case, the process manager may want to cancel execution prematurely in order to reduce the process execution costs. Fig. 10 shows a screen shot of the run time component.

5 RELATED WORKS

One of the earliest works on time properties is (Allen, 1983). Allen describes a temporal representation using the concept of temporal intervals and introduces a hierarchical representation of relationships between temporal intervals applying constraints propagation techniques. This work describes thirteen ways in which an ordered pair of intervals can be related. Authors in (Eder et al., 1999) present a model for calculation of temporal plans and propose some algorithms

for calculation and incorporation of time constraints. (Eder and Panagos, 2001) provides a methodology for calculating temporal plans of workflows at design time, instantiation time and run time. It considers several temporal constraints such as lower-bound, upper-bound and fixed-date constraints and explains how these constraints can be incorporated. Moreover, a model for monitoring the satisfaction of temporal constraints at run time is provided. (Eder et al., 2000) provides a technique for modeling and checking time constraints whilst conditional and parallel branches are discriminated. In addition, an unfolding-method for detection of scheduling conflicts is provided. Marjanovic in (Marjanovic, 2000) represents the notions of duration space and instantiation space and describes a technique for verification of temporal constraints in production workflows. The approach presented in this paper is complementary to that introduced in (Marjanovic, 2000) in the way that a temporal plan for execution of all activities is calculated. (Benatallah et al., 2005) uses temporal abstractions of business protocols for their compatibility and replaceability analysis based on a finite state machine formalism. Kazhamiakin, Pandya and Pistori in (Kazhamiakin et al., 2006b), as well as in (Kazhamiakin et al., 2006a), exploit an extension of timed automata formalism called web service time transition system (WSTTS) for modeling time properties of web services. The approach presented in this work can cover cases which can be modeled in these works and additionally allows the definition of



Figure 10: The run time component monitors the execution.

explicit deadlines. This work extends previous works by addressing the conformance and verification problem and provides an a priori execution plan at design time consisting of valid execution intervals for all activities of participating abstract and executable processes with consideration of the overall structure and temporal restrictions. The calculated execution plans can be monitored at run time. (Bettini et al., 2002) proposes a formalism for representation of quantitative temporal constraints. A consistency service ensures the satisfiability of temporal constraints. Authors in (Kallel et al., 2009) propose an approach for specification and monitoring of relative and absolute temporal constraints based on XTUS-automata and Ao4BPEL. In this approach temporal constraints can be translated into modular aspect code that listens to activities during the execution of a process. An activity will be only executed if the temporal constraints are satisfied. Guermouche et al. in (Guermouche et al., 2008) study temporal aspects of Web Services. They differentiate between internal and external temporal constraints. Internal constraints specify a relative and absolute time period and can be used for

expression of activation and dependency conditions. External constraints are exposed by the client and the provider service. They have to be checked before interaction initialization. They infer from internal constraints and allow for detection of incompatibilities of services. Song et al. in (Song et al., 2009) use petri nets for description and modeling of behavior and temporal aspects of BPEL processes. The shortcoming of this approach is that only analysis is considered. Our approach is complementary in the sense that it allows for analysis and temporal reasoning and further a BPEL-extension for execution is provided.

6 CONCLUSIONS

Temporal management and consistency are important quality criteria for business processes. They improve QoS and reduce costs. WS-BPEL lacks sufficient time management capabilities. In this work we introduced an extension of WS-BPEL that makes business processes time aware and overcomes this shortcoming. The user can define different temporal constrain-

ts, check temporal feasibility and monitor the execution. The two considered techniques, interval-based and probabilistic, caters for different needs of the users in different scenarios.

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