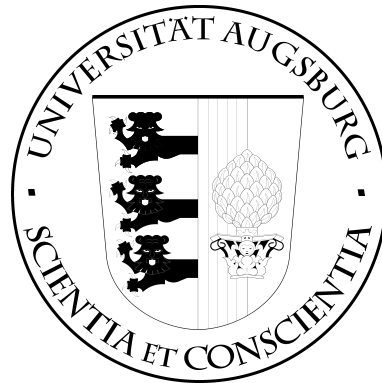


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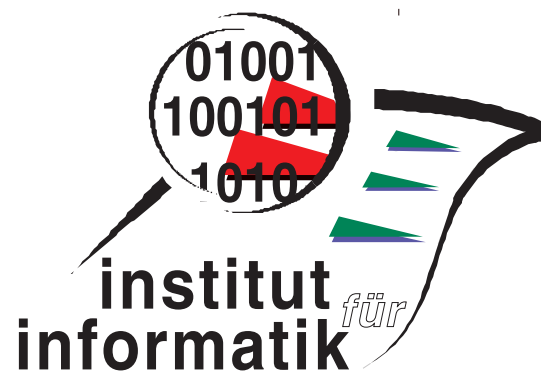
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# Algebraic Structure of Web Services

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## Abstract

The Service-Oriented Architecture is gaining more and more attention and one way of realising it is the usage of Web Services. But which Web Services need to be invoked to reach a goal and which parameters are necessary at the beginning or are returned at the end? In this report we present an algebraic structure of Web Services in order to formally describe the Web Services and assist the users in Web Service composition. Hence, we apply relation algebra, tests, Kleene star and modal operators to characterise Web Services and Web Service Composition.

*Keywords:* Web Service; Composition; Relation; Semiring

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## 1 Introduction

Today companies face challenges in changing jurisdiction, new products and rivalling competitors. This leads to the need of adapting their business processes frequently and in acceptable time. Hence, more loosely-coupled components are necessary in order to achieve this goal. The Service-Oriented Architecture (SOA) represents an approach that facilitates this loose coupling while at the same time providing sufficient quality of service necessary for acceptable solutions. Web Services are one possibility to fulfil the requirements of a service-oriented computing world. The W3C defines a Web Service as a software system designed to support interoperable machine-to-machine interaction over a network [8]. This definition encompasses many different systems, but in common usage the term refers to those services that use SOAP-formatted [7] XML envelopes and have their interfaces described by the Web Services Description Language (WSDL) [23]. With standards like WSDL and the Web Service Business Process Execution Language (WSBPEL) [14], both version 2.0, one can describe the data types, messages and flow of processes to model not only a simple Web Service but also the composition (or orchestration) of several Web Services. But this composition is still mostly done manually. There are already first (non-algebraic) approaches to use AI-based planners or different algorithms to achieve an orchestration. On the other hand, formal algebras for Web Services exist, but most of them are not used for Web Service composition so far.

In this report we present an algebraic structure for Web Services. It is used for characterising Web Service composition and to determine inputs and outputs of Web Services. The theoretical aspects and definitions are illustrated by a running example in order to assist the readers' understanding. We try to keep the theory simple and to focus on its application.

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We start with binary relations and relation algebras which have many applications in mathematics and computer science (e.g. [25,11]); they are well known and provide a rich theory. This report shows that Web Services are another application. Together with modal operators, tests and the Kleene star they can be used to describe Web Services and their composition in an acceptable manner.

This report is structured as follows: in the next section we describe related work on formal approaches on Web Services as well as on Web Service composition. In Section 3 we define Web Methods and Web Services based on relational algebras and show the benefits in a running example. We go into further detail about the algebraic structure in Section 4. Section 5 defines the composition of Web Services on the algebraic context. We establish the concept of Web Service restriction in Section 6. This paves the way to characterise preconditions and goals as elaborated in more detail in Section 7. Before presenting a small case study in Section 9 we recapitulate the concept of iteration and show how the used Web Services can be found using the algebra of traces. We conclude with an outlook on on-going and future work. In particular, we sketch how to determine the execution order of Web Services.

## 2 Related work

There are plenty of approaches to Web Service composition. A composition can be achieved agent-based (as in [18,6]), based on interaction protocols [26], symbolic transition systems [24] or based on some kind of logic [9]. Very often process algebras or petri nets are used, too. The semantic web community has used planning techniques to address the problem of automated composition of semantic Web Services, e.g. based on OWL-S [19] descriptions of input/output/precondition and effect. In [20] SHOP2, a hierarchical task network (HTN) planner, is employed for Web Service composition. The HTN planner creates workflows by task decomposition.

In [10] a composition algebra is defined which covers inputs and outputs of a Web Service and is based on CCS [21] and CSP [12]. It regards choices, parallel processes and synchronisation. This process algebra solves the composition problem which is generally addressed as finding a composite process showing a requested behaviour. The authors first perform a top-down behaviour decomposition and afterwards a bottom-up process composition and provide an algorithm for the composition of Web Services. Using our algebraic structure one does not need algorithms for the composition anymore, but the composition is automatically inferred via the algebra.

In [9] Web Services are defined based on service nets as a subclass of Petri nets. The created Web Service algebra includes empty services, sequences, choices, iterators, parallel constructs and more advanced workflow patterns like discriminators. Desired properties of that service algebra are described, but the aspect of Web Service composition is not considered. It describes the formal semantics and algebraic properties of single services and the (existing) orchestration of services. Also, it includes advanced workflow patterns, but the composition of services needs to be predefined and can not be inferred through the algebra automatically.

### 3 Towards a Formalisation of Web Services

In this section we develop an algebraic characterisation of Web Services and present also an algebraic definition of Web Service composition. Obviously, a Web Service consists of an interface and the implementation. In the interface (described in WSDL) several Web Methods are defined. These receive input messages and reply with output messages which both can be of a simple type such as string, integer, etc. or of a complex type. For our first formalisation of Web Services we assume that both, the types of the input data and the output data are known before and therefore there is a *knowledge set*  $\mathcal{K}$ , a set which includes the input and the output as subsets. Types which might be nested or semantically described are topics for further research and also the concrete binding and port information of Web Services are currently neglected for the sake of simplicity.

**Definition 3.1** A *Web Method* is a tuple  $(I, O)$ , where  $\mathcal{K}$  is a knowledge set and  $I \subseteq O \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ .

The condition  $I \subseteq O$  guarantees that we do not lose any information, i.e., any information which is known before the execution of a Web Method is also known afterwards. Mathematically, a Web Method is an *ordered pair*. In the definition,  $I$  denotes the set of all data needed by the Web Method. If all input is provided, an execution of the Web Method will produce all data which are given in the set  $O$ . Otherwise this specification means that if one element of  $I$  is missing, the Web Method cannot be executed and therefore no output is produced.  $(\emptyset, O)$ <sup>3</sup> represents a Web Method where no input is needed, i.e., it can be executed at any time.

Due to readability we want to avoid the repetition of the input data in the output as well as the brackets. Therefore we use a grammar-style notation. In particular

$$i_1 i_2 \dots i_n \rightarrow o_1 o_2 \dots o_m \Leftrightarrow_{df} (\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n\}, \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n\} \cup \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_m\}).$$

Like in grammars a choice of rules  $u \rightarrow v$  and  $u \rightarrow w$  is abbreviated by  $u \rightarrow v | w$ . Furthermore a choice of rules  $u \rightarrow w$  and  $v \rightarrow w$  is denoted by  $u | v \rightarrow w$ . If the left hand side or the right hand side of the production rule is empty, i.e.,  $I = \emptyset$  or  $O \setminus I = \emptyset$  ( $I = O$ ), we write  $\emptyset \rightarrow o_1 \dots o_m$  and  $i_1 \dots i_n \rightarrow \emptyset$  respectively.

**Running Example** Booking a flight is a very simple example of a Web Method. A customer needs (at least) the date of arrival, the airport of departure, the destination and his credit card number. By using the abbreviations **a**, **dep**, **des**, **cc** for the above information and **etix** for an electronic ticket which is issued during the execution of the Web Method, we get

$$\text{flight}_{cc} =_{df} \text{a dep des cc} \rightarrow \text{etix}.$$

By definition, this is the same as  $(\{\text{a, dep, des, cc}\}, \{\text{a, dep, des, cc, etix}\})$ .  $\square$

A Web Method is the simplest form of a Web Service; but it contains neither choice nor does it offer a straightforward composition operation. To eliminate the former deficiency, we define a *simple Web Service*.

<sup>3</sup> The symbol  $\emptyset$  denotes the empty set w.r.t. the knowledge set  $\mathcal{K}$ , whereas we will use  $\emptyset$  to denote empty sets w.r.t. other sets.

**Definition 3.2** A *simple Web Service* is a collection of Web Methods.

**Running Example** For our example we now assume that the customer who wants to book a flight has the choice of using his credit card number or his frequent flier card instead (**ff** for short). To characterise the choice we model two different Web Methods  $\text{flight}_{cc}$  and  $\text{flight}_{ff}$ , where  $\text{flight}_{cc}$  is defined as above and  $\text{flight}_{ff} =_{df} \text{a dep des ff} \rightarrow \text{etix}$ . The simple Web Service for booking a flight is then defined as

$$\text{flight} =_{df} \{\text{flight}_{ff}, \text{flight}_{cc}\}.$$

By this, we have the choice between different Web Methods.  $\square$

Since we assumed that the input  $I$  as well as the output  $O$  are subsets of  $\mathcal{K}$ , a simple Web Method becomes a homogeneous relation on  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{K})$ . Hence the algebraic structure of binary relations under union and sequential composition is also interesting. In Section 4 we will give its exact definition.

With the embedding of Web Services into the framework of relations we can now take advantage of all the mathematical background. For example there are two operations on relations, choice and sequential composition. The former one is just the set-theoretic union and describes the choice between Web Methods or simple Web Services, respectively. The sequential composition of two ordered pairs  $(r, s)$  and  $(t, u)$  is defined by

$$(r, s) ; (t, u) =_{df} \begin{cases} (r, u) & \text{if } s = t \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This composition can be lifted pointwise to a composition of relations. The composition of two relations  $R$  and  $S$  is defined as

$$R ; S =_{df} \{r ; s \mid r \in R, s \in S, r ; s \text{ defined}\}.$$

Note, that by definition  $r ; s$  is defined only if the output set of  $r$  has the same size as the input set of  $s$ . Unfortunately, this definition yields a strange behaviour in the setting of Web Services, which is illustrated by the following example. Afterwards we will present a possible solution for this deficit.

**Running Example** Assuming that the customer does not only want to book a flight but also a hotel room. Therefore, we introduce a Web Service

$$\text{hotel} =_{df} \{\text{a d cat} \rightarrow \text{res}\},$$

where **a** and **d** denotes the date of arrival and departure (we assume that **a** is exactly the same as the day of the flight), **cat** describes the room's category and **res** stands for a reservation number which is given by the hotel after a successful booking.

Intuitively, the result of booking both, a flight and a hotel room *should* be

$$\{\text{S cc} \mid \text{S ff} \mid \text{S cc ff} \rightarrow \text{etix res}\},$$

where  $\text{S} = \text{a d dep des cat}$  is the common set of all input data. Informally this means that if the customer has enough input data he is able to book both a flight

and a hotel. In particular, he needs his credit card, his frequent flier card, or both. But the ordering of booking a flight and booking a hotel should not matter.

Relational composition of `flight` and `hotel` yields an empty set, since the output of `flight` does not match the input of `hotel` and vice versa.  $\square$

The problem is, that executing the second Web Method needs more information than the first one provides. Vice versa the second Web Method cannot be executed if the first one provides too many information, like `etix` in the above example. To bridge this gap, we define a Web Service as a collection of Web Methods which is based on a simple Web Service with additional information, which remains untouched during execution of the Web Service and is just added to the output data.

**Definition 3.3** Consider a knowledge set  $\mathcal{K}$ . The (*extended*) *Web Service* of a simple Web Service  $W$  is the relation  $\{(I \cup E, O \cup E) : (I, O) \in W, E \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O\}$  and denoted by  $\ll W \gg$ <sup>4</sup>.

In this definition  $E$  is the context and the extension of the simple Web Service  $W$ , which just takes any information that is not needed as input for execution and adds this information unchanged to the output. Obviously, each element of a Web Service is again a Web Method. Moreover, the definition implies the following result if  $\ll \cdot \gg$  is seen as a function:

**Lemma 3.4**  $\ll \cdot \gg$  is additive and idempotent, i.e.,  $\ll V \cup W \gg = \ll V \gg \cup \ll W \gg$  and  $\ll \ll V \gg \gg = \ll V \gg$  for Web Services  $V$  and  $W$ .

**Proof.** Additivity follows by straightforward set-theoretic calculations:

$$\begin{aligned} & \ll V \cup W \gg \\ &= \{(I \cup E, O \cup E) : (I, O) \in V \cup W, E \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O\} \\ &= \{(I \cup E, O \cup E) : (I, O) \in V \vee (I, O) \in W, E \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O\} \\ &= \{(I \cup E, O \cup E) : (I, O) \in V, E \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O\} \cup \\ & \quad \{(I \cup E, O \cup E) : (I, O) \in W, E \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O\} \\ &= \ll V \gg \cup \ll W \gg \end{aligned}$$

The proof for idempotence is split into two parts.

$\ll V \gg \subseteq \ll \ll V \gg \gg$  follows immediately from the definition of extended Web Services (choose  $E = \emptyset$ ). The converse direction can be proved as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \ll \ll V \gg \gg \\ &= \{ \{ \text{definition of } \ll \cdot \gg \} \\ & \quad \{(I_1 \cup E_1, O_1 \cup E_1) : (I_1, O_1) \in \ll V \gg, E_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_1\} \\ &= \{ \{ \text{definition of } \ll \cdot \gg \} \\ & \quad \{(I_1 \cup E_1, O_1 \cup E_1) : \\ & \quad \quad (I_1, O_1) \in \{(I_2 \cup E_2, O_2 \cup E_2) : (I_2, O_2) \in V, E_2 \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_2\}, E_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_1\} \\ &= \{ \{ \text{replace } I_1 \text{ and } O_1 \} \\ & \quad \{(I_2 \cup E_2 \cup E_1, O_2 \cup E_2 \cup E_1) : \\ & \quad \quad (I_2, O_2) \in V, E_2 \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_2, E_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus (O_2 \cup E_2)\} \\ &\subseteq \{ \{ \text{set theory} \} \\ & \quad \{(I_2 \cup E_2 \cup E_1, O_2 \cup E_2 \cup E_1) : (I_2, O_2) \in V, E_2 \cup E_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_2\} \end{aligned}$$

<sup>4</sup> When possible, we will skip the set-brackets of  $W$  for readability.

$$= \frac{\{\text{definition of } \ll . \gg\}}{\ll V \gg}$$

□

In particular,  $\ll . \gg$  is also strict, i.e.,  $\ll \emptyset \gg = \emptyset$ .

**Running Example** Let  $\mathcal{K} = \{a, d, \text{cat}, \text{res}, \text{dep}, \text{des}\}$ . The Web Service based on `hotel` is

$$\ll \text{hotel} \gg = \{S \mid S \text{ dep} \mid S \text{ des} \mid S \text{ dep des} \rightarrow \text{res}\},$$

where  $S = a \ d \ \text{cat}$ . The second Web Method hands over information about departure (`dep`), the third information about destination (`des`) and the last one `dep` and `des`. □

Now, we can use the standard sequential composition of relations to formalise the desired behaviour and to define *Web Service composition* in a formal way.

**Definition 3.5** Consider a knowledge set  $\mathcal{K}$  and two (simple) Web Services  $V$  and  $W$  over  $\mathcal{K}$ . The *Web Service composition* of  $V$  and  $W$ , is defined as

$$V \circ W =_{df} \ll V \gg ; \ll W \gg .$$

**Running Example** Determining the Web Service composition of the simple Web Services `flight` and `hotel` over  $\{a, d, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cat}, \text{cc}, \text{ff}, \text{etix}, \text{res}\}$  yields

$$\text{flight} \circ \text{hotel} = \ll \text{flight} \gg ; \ll \text{hotel} \gg = \{S \ \text{cc} \mid S \ \text{ff} \mid S \ \text{cc ff} \rightarrow \text{etix res}\},$$

where  $S = a \ d \ \text{dep} \ \text{des} \ \text{cat}$  is again the set of common knowledge of all involved Web Methods. Furthermore we get  $\text{flight} \circ \text{hotel} = \text{hotel} \circ \text{flight}$ . This is exactly the desired behaviour (see above). □

Before discussing some basic properties of Web Service composition in Section 5, we will set up the theoretical background.

As we will see in the next section, the use of algebra offers abstraction from relations and set theory. One advantage is that it masks all the set-theoretic notation (like brackets) and concentrates on the interesting aspects.

## 4 Algebraic Structure

As already shown, Web Services can be interpreted as relations. The corresponding abstract algebraic structures of relations are idempotent semirings, which we will discuss in this section.

**Definition 4.1** A *semiring* is a quintuple  $(S, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$  such that  $(S, +, 0)$  is a commutative monoid and  $(S, \cdot, 1)$  is a monoid such that  $\cdot$  distributes over  $+$  and  $0$  is an annihilator. Concretely, we have the following axioms for semirings.



- additive monoid:  $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$  and  $a + 0 = a = 0 + a$ ,
- commutativity:  $a + b = b + a$ ,
- multiplicative monoid:  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$  and  $a \cdot 1 = a = 1 \cdot a$ ,
- distributivity:  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$  and  $(a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$ ,
- annihilation:  $a \cdot 0 = 0 = 0 \cdot a$ .

On an *idempotent* semiring (or *i-semiring*) addition is idempotent, i.e.,  $a + a = a$ . In the setting of i-semirings the relation  $a \leq b \Leftrightarrow_{df} a + b = b$  is a partial order, i.e., a reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive relation, called the *natural order* on  $S$ . It has 0 as its least element. Moreover,  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are isotone with respect to  $\leq$ . As usual multiplication binds stronger than addition.

It is straightforward that the algebra of binary relations over a set  $\mathcal{K}$

$$\text{REL}(\mathcal{K}) =_{df} (\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{K}), \cup, \emptyset, ;, \Delta),$$

where  $\Delta = \{(x, x) : x \in \mathcal{K}\}$  is the identity relation, forms an i-semiring. More details about (idempotent) semirings and examples of their relevance to computer science can e.g. be found in [3].

This structure allows us to express Web Service composition and the choice between Web Services in an abstract way. There are some special elements which have to be discussed:  $\Delta$  is the Web Service which does nothing than to hand over all input data. From a semantic point of view it can be seen as `skip`.  $\emptyset$  is an “improper” Web Service, due to the annihilation laws it stops every calculation and can therefore be seen as `abort`. The last special element is `magic` =  $\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{K}$ , the Web Service that can do anything.

It is also straightforward to show that  $\text{REL}(\mathcal{K})$  forms a *relation algebra* (e.g. [25]) and therefore can be equipped by additional operations. e.g., for calculating the converse. But in the setting of Web Services converse means to undo an already executed Web Services. Since we do not want such a behaviour, we calculate in the more abstract setting of i-semirings.

## 5 Web Service Composition

We have already defined Web Service composition in the context of binary relations (cf. Definition 3.5). The composition for two Web Services  $V$  and  $W$  was to extend each element and then use relational composition, i.e.,

$$V \circ W = \ll V \gg ; \ll W \gg .$$

Using the algebraic structure of the previous section we can now derive basic properties of Web Service composition.

Since Web Service composition is defined in terms of sequential composition of relations and therefore in terms of multiplication of i-semirings in general, we get

**Corollary 5.1** *Web Service composition is associative and distributes over choice.*

**Proof.** Associativity follows by associativity of relations and  $\ll V \circ W \gg = V \circ W$ . Using Lemma 3.4 and the distributivity laws of relation algebra, we get for arbitrary Web Services  $U, V, W$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & U \circ (V \cup W) \\
 = & \ll U \gg ; \ll (V \cup W) \gg \\
 = & \ll U \gg ; (\ll V \gg \cup \ll W \gg) \\
 = & \ll U \gg ; \ll V \gg \cup \ll U \gg ; \ll W \gg \\
 = & U \circ V \cup U \circ W
 \end{aligned}$$

The second distributivity law can be proved in a similar way. □

These properties are of course necessary for Web Service composition; but in contrast to other approaches there is no need to add these as axioms, since they can be derived in our setting.

**Lemma 5.2** *For arbitrary Web Services  $V$  and  $W$ , the composed Web Service  $V \circ W$  is again an extended Web Service, i.e. there is a simple Web Service  $X$  with  $\ll X \gg = V \circ W$ .*

The proof is by straight-forward calculations similar to the proof of Lemma 3.4. It can be found in Appendix A. In particular,  $V \circ W$  is again a Web Service and therefore we get

**Corollary 5.3** *The set of (extended) Web Services form an  $i$ -semiring under set union and Web Service composition.*

Note that if  $V \circ W = W \circ V$ , then the two Web Services can be executed in parallel (when neglecting possible dependencies on some shared resources).

**Running Example** Let us expand the above example by a “planning the trip” Web Service. Therefore we assume that there is a simple Web Service which collects all necessary information, but needs no input data at all.

$$\text{plan} =_{df} \{ \emptyset \rightarrow \text{S cc} \mid \text{S ff} \mid \text{S cc ff} \},$$

where  $\text{S} = \text{a d dep des cat}$ . In fact there are three different outputs depending on the information on the credit and the frequent flier card. (The customer has to specify at least one.) Furthermore let  $\mathcal{K} =_{df} \{ \text{a, d, dep, des, cc, ff, cat, etix, res} \}$  be the knowledge set. In the remainder we denote the Web Services  $\ll \text{flight} \gg$ ,  $\ll \text{hotel} \gg$  and  $\ll \text{plan} \gg$  by  $\text{f}$ ,  $\text{h}$  and  $\text{p}$ , resp. Composing these Web Services yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{p} ; \text{h} ; \text{f} &= \text{p} ; \text{f} ; \text{h} = \{ \emptyset \rightarrow \text{S P cc ff} \mid \text{S P cc} \mid \text{S P ff}, \text{cc} \mid \text{ff} \rightarrow \text{S P cc ff} \}, \\
 \text{f} ; \text{p} ; \text{h} &= \text{f} ; \text{h} ; \text{p} = \text{h} ; \text{p} ; \text{f} = \text{h} ; \text{f} ; \text{p} = \emptyset,
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{S} = \text{cat a d dep des}$  is the set of data which has to be collected by the Web Service under all circumstances and  $\text{P} = \text{etix res}$  is the set of data produced by the Web Services after successful execution. The composed Web Services in the last line coincide with the empty service, since  $\text{p}$  “produces” knowledge which is

already needed by  $\mathbf{f}$  or  $\mathbf{h}$  before and therefore yields a conflict. For example, after the execution of  $\mathbf{f}$  the date of departure ( $\mathbf{dep}$ ) is known, since this is in the output set. But then it is not possible that the Web Service for planning ( $\mathbf{p}$ ) specifies this date. This conflict yields an abortion and an empty result set. Such a behaviour seems quite natural for us, since otherwise the customer would for example be able to change the date for travelling after booking the hotel and before booking the flight. Note if we add more elements to the knowledge set  $\mathcal{K}$  then  $\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{h}; \mathbf{f}$  contains even more elements.  $\square$

## 6 Web Service Restriction

Our aim is not only to characterise Web Service composition but also algebraic notions to express the needed input data to perform a certain action or to use assertions to guarantee a certain knowledge.

Therefore, we introduce the concept of tests and will show later on how to use them in modal operators in order to search for Web Services that achieve a specified goal and detect the data that is needed to invoke these Web Services.

**Running Example** We assume the Web Service  $\mathbf{flight} \cup \mathbf{hotel}$  which either books a hotel room or a flight. To test a successful booking (if a customer has an e-ticket at the end of execution) we use the term  $\llbracket \mathbf{flight} \cup \mathbf{hotel} \rrbracket; \llbracket \mathbf{etix} \rightarrow \emptyset \rrbracket$ .  $\square$

In REL a test can be modelled as a subrelation of the identity relation; meet and join of such partial identities coincide with their composition and union. Generalising this, one defines a *test* in an i-semiring [17] to be an element  $p \leq 1$  that has a complement  $q$  relative to 1, i.e.,  $p + q = 1$  and  $p \cdot q = 0 = q \cdot p$ . The set of all tests of an i-semiring  $S$  is denoted by  $\mathbf{test}(S)$ . It is not hard to show that  $\mathbf{test}(S)$  is closed under  $+$  and  $\cdot$  and has 0 and 1 as its least and greatest elements. Moreover, the complement  $\neg p$  of a test  $p$  is uniquely determined by the definition. Hence  $\mathbf{test}(S)$  forms a Boolean algebra. In the remainder we will consistently write  $a, b, \dots$  for arbitrary semiring elements and  $p, q, \dots$  for tests. Furthermore, we freely use the Boolean laws for tests; e.g. an important property is

$$p \cdot a \cdot q \leq 0 \Leftrightarrow a \cdot q \leq \neg p \cdot a. \quad (1)$$

With the above definition of tests we deviate slightly from [17], in that we do not allow an arbitrary Boolean algebra of subidentities as  $\mathbf{test}(S)$  but only the maximal complemented one. The reason is that the axiomatisation of modal operators, presented below, forces this maximality anyway (see [5]).

**Running Example** Assume a user who has not executed a Web Service and who wants to plan a trip (see above). Therefore he has not specified any data before the execution of the Web Services. But,  $\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{h}; \mathbf{f}$  can also contain Web Methods which start with some data. To distinguish Web Services with no input, we insert a test  $t =_{df} \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}$  at the beginning of the calculation. Since the result is not empty for

$$t; \mathbf{p}; \mathbf{f}; \mathbf{h} \quad \text{and} \quad t; \mathbf{p}; \mathbf{h}; \mathbf{f}$$

the execution of the Web Services in this order yields a positive result (a hotel room and a flight is booked). Note that we use  $t$  and not the extended Web Service  $\ll t \gg$ , since we want to guarantee that an execution starts without any input. Usually, one has to use the extended one if a test occurs inside an execution (see above).  $\square$

Of course similar to a restriction at the beginning of a calculation, we can also use tests to enforce particular results (e.g.,  $a \cdot p$ ) or to enforce knowledge inside a computation or intermediate results (e.g.,  $a \cdot p \cdot b$ ). Since tests do not determine any new data, they contain only Web Methods of the form  $i_1 \dots i_n \rightarrow \emptyset$ .

By the above examples, we have seen that tests form sets of possible current information or sets of possible configurations.

In Section 7 we show another criterion to guarantee a positive result. For this we further need an additional property about extended Web Services.

**Lemma 6.1** *Any extended Web Service which is also a test in the  $i$ -semiring can be split into parts. That is, for any subsets  $X, Y, Z$  of a given knowledge set  $\mathcal{K}$  with  $X = Y \cup Z$  we have*

$$\ll(X, X)\gg = \{(Y, Y)\} \circ \{(Z, Z)\} = \ll(Y, Y)\gg ; \ll(Z, Z)\gg .$$

**Proof.** The proof is a special case of Lemma 5.2. It is by straightforward, set-theoretic calculations.

$$\begin{aligned} & \ll(Y, Y)\gg ; \ll(Z, Z)\gg \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of } \ll \cdot \gg \} \\ & \{(Y \cup E_Y, Y \cup E_Y) : E_Y \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus Y\} \cup \{(Z \cup E_Z, Z \cup E_Z) : E_Z \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus Z\} \\ = & \quad \{ \text{relational composition} \} \\ & \{(Y \cup E_Y, Z \cup E_Z) : E_Y \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus Y, E_Z \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus Z, Y \cup E_Y = Z \cup E_Z\} \\ = & \quad \{ \text{set } E \subseteq E_Y \cap E_Z, \text{ and } E_Y \subseteq E \cup Y \setminus Z \text{ and } E_Z \subseteq E \cup Z \setminus Y, \text{ resp.} \} \\ & \{(Y \cup Z \cup E, Y \cup Z \cup E) : E \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus (Y \cup Z)\} \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of } \ll \cdot \gg \} \\ & \ll(Y \cup Z, Y \cup Z)\gg \\ = & \quad \{ X = Y \cup Z \} \\ & \ll(X, X)\gg \end{aligned}$$

The third step uses, next to the definition some basic set-theoretic rules.  $\square$

Since on tests  $;$  coincides with meet, informally the lemma describes that the test “ $X$  holds” can be replaced by two tests, namely “ $Y$  holds” and “ $Z$  holds”.

**Running Example** Given the test  $\ll \text{etix res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg$ . By the above lemma this can be split into  $\ll \text{etix} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg ; \ll \text{res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg$ .  $\square$

## 7 Preconditions and Modal Operators

As we have seen, tests can be used to model assertions for Web Services. But they are also the basis for defining modal operators [4] which are used for modelling termination and an abstract version of the wlp-operator [22]. The resulting formalism is similar to propositional dynamic logic but also strongly related to temporal logics. In this section we discuss these operators with respect to Web Services. In particu-

lar we show how to determine necessary information which has to be specified by a customer when a certain goal is given, e.g. to receive an e-ticket in the end.

**Definition 7.1** An i-semiring  $S$  is called *modal* [4] if it can be endowed with a total (forward) box operation  $|a| : \text{test}(S) \rightarrow \text{test}(S)$ , for each  $a, b \in S$ , that satisfies

$$p \leq |a|q \Leftrightarrow p \cdot a \cdot \neg q \leq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad |a \cdot b|p = |a|(|b|p).$$

A (forward) diamond is defined as the de Morgan dual of the box;  $|a\rangle p =_{df} \neg|a|\neg p$ .

Informally, in the context of Web Services,  $|a\rangle p$  characterises the set of possible information with at least one successor in  $p$  when executing the Web Service  $a$ , i.e., the preimage of the set  $p$  under  $a$ .  $|a|p$  characterises the situation where there is no execution of  $a$ , that starts in  $p$  and terminates in  $\neg q$ . Using Equation (1) shows that whenever an execution of  $a$  terminates in  $\neg q$ , the execution has to start in  $\neg p$  and therefore  $|a|p$  models the possible information from which execution of  $a$  is guaranteed to terminate in an element of  $p$  or the execution is not possible. Formally, in REL and also in Web Services, one has  $(x, x) \in |R|q \Leftrightarrow (\forall y : xRy \Rightarrow (y, y) \in q)$ . Furthermore, in [22] it is shown that the box operator coincides with the wlp-operator, i.e.,  $\text{wlp}.(a, p).q = |a|q$ .

For a better understanding let us have a look at our running example.

**Running Example** A customer needs an electronic ticket and a reservation number for a successful booking. Therefore the aim after execution is to reach the set  $q =_{df} \ll \text{etix res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg$ . This example determines all elements which either yield no execution or, if an execution exists, it leads to a successful booking of a hotel and a flight. Determining  $|f ; h|q$  yields in total 512 elements.

Let us have a look in more detail. There are a lot of elements like  $\text{res} \rightarrow \emptyset$  for which an execution of  $f ; h$  yields an abortion and the result is the empty set. On the other hand there are elements like  $\text{a d cc des dep cat} \rightarrow \emptyset$  where the execution of the Web Services `flight` and `hotel` yields the desired result.  $\square$

In contrast to the box operator  $|a|q$  is characterised by  $(x, x) \in |R|q \Leftrightarrow \exists(y, y) \in q : xRy$  in REL and Web Services.

**Running Example**  $|f ; h|q$  determines all possible starting configurations that have at least one successful execution path, i.e, there is at least one possibility of execution where the involved Web Services yield an e-ticket and a reservation number.  $\square$

The combination of both operators guarantees that at least one result of the Web Service  $a$  exists and all resulting information is in  $p$ . This is expressed by

$$|a\rangle p \cdot |a|p.$$

**Running Example** Determining  $|f ; h|q ; |f ; h|q$  with  $q =_{df} \ll \text{etix res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg$  yields indeed the desired result; namely exactly the information which is needed to use both Web Services:

$$|f ; h|q ; |f ; h|q = \{S \text{ cc} \mid S \text{ ff} \mid S \text{ cc ff} \rightarrow \emptyset\},$$

where  $S = \text{cat a d dep des}$  is again the set of data which has to be specified by the user under all circumstances. Interpreting that result we now know that the customer has to give next to  $S$  either his credit card number ( $cc$ ), the number of his frequent flier card ( $ff$ ) or both.  $\square$

Of course this result is not a surprise since we constructed the Web Services in exactly that way, but since the modal operators can be applied to any Web Services they can be used to determine the necessary data. For this purpose it is useful to provide some basic laws for boxes and diamonds. The proofs as well as many more properties can be found in [5].

**Lemma 7.2** *For elements  $a \in S$  and  $p, q \in \text{test}(S)$*

$$\begin{aligned} |a|(p \cdot q) &= |a|p \cdot |a|q, & \langle a \rangle(p + q) &= \langle a \rangle p + \langle a \rangle q, \\ |a + b|p &= |a|p \cdot |b|p, & \langle a + b \rangle p &= \langle a \rangle p + \langle b \rangle p, \\ |p|q &= \neg p + q, & \langle p \rangle q &= p \cdot q, \\ |a \cdot b|p &= |a| |b| p \end{aligned}$$

The first line explains how to decompose a Web Service if the goal ( $p \cdot q$  or  $p + q$ ) can be split. The second line splits the Web Service itself, the third row calculates the test if the execution step is a test itself. The last row shows that the diamond satisfies the same law for composition as the box operator.

**Running Example** We want to determine the necessary information to receive an e-ticket and a reservation number after the execution of a Web Service  $W = \text{flight} \circ \text{hotel}$  (provided execution is possible). Therefore we have to determine

$$|W] \ll \text{etix res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg .$$

By Lemma 6.1 and the first equation of Lemma 7.2 this expression is equivalent to  $|W] \ll \text{etix} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg ; |W] \ll \text{res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg$ . By simple calculations this is the same as  $|\ll \text{flight} \gg] \ll \text{etix} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg ; |\ll \text{hotel} \gg] \ll \text{res} \rightarrow \emptyset \gg$ . This shows that the calculation can be splitted into a part for booking the flight and one for booking the hotel.  $\square$

Obviously, the splitting rules of Lemma 6.1 and 7.2 cannot be applied in each situation. In particular if a single Web Service produces two dependent results, the splitting is not useful.

Note, that backwards boxes  $|a|p$  and diamonds  $\langle a \rangle p$ , which describes all possible ending states of an element, is easily defined as a domain operator in the opposite semiring (i.e., the one that swaps the order of composition).

In particular, the backward box is defined by  $p \leq |a|q \Leftrightarrow \neg q \cdot a \cdot p \leq 0$  and  $|a \cdot b|p = |b|(|a|p)$ . The backward diamond is again defined as the de Morgan dual  $\langle a \rangle p =_{df} \neg |a| \neg p$ .

Using backwards modal operators one can now characterise goals for Web Services instead of preliminaries.

**Running Example** Usually, a system starts with no information. Therefore consider the test  $t =_{df} \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}$ . Then  $[p ; h ; f|t ; \langle p ; h ; f|t$  yields the set of possible knowledge after successful execution of all three Web Services.  $\square$

## 8 Web Service Iteration

To round off the discussion about the algebraic structure of Web Services, we briefly discuss a possibility how to formalise the iteration of Web Services in the algebra setting without giving too many details. Obviously it seems useful to characterise an arbitrary, but finite number of iterations in the setting of Web Services.

To iterate a Web Services  $V$  twice, we can use the expression  $V^2$ . But how can we formalise an arbitrary iteration? We have to determine the reflexive and transitive closure of a Web Service which is expressed and denoted by the Kleene star  $*$ . Therefore the expression

$$V^* = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} V^i$$

determines the desired behaviour.

**Running Example** Instead of giving the concrete order of the Web Services  $\mathbf{p}$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$ , one might say that the user is allowed to execute each Web Service which he wants in any ordering. Hence,  $(\mathbf{p} \cup \mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h})^*$  would give all iterations where either the flight, the hotel or the overall planning would be executed first and then the others. The result of this iteration is `skip` (the element  $\Delta$ ) or  $\mathbf{p}$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$ ,  $\mathbf{h}$ ,  $\mathbf{pf}$ ,  $\mathbf{ph}$ ,  $\mathbf{fp}$ ,  $\mathbf{fh}$ ,  $\mathbf{hp}$ ,  $\mathbf{hf}$ ,  $\mathbf{pfh}$ ,  $\mathbf{phf}$ ,  $\mathbf{fph}$ ,  $\mathbf{fhp}$ ,  $\mathbf{hpf}$ ,  $\mathbf{hfp}$ , ...<sup>5</sup> or any other combination of these services. It would also yield to the result with multiple occurrences of one single Web Service like  $\mathbf{pfp}$  (or any similar), but this cannot be executed, i.e.,  $\mathbf{pfp} = \emptyset$ . Moreover we have

$$(\mathbf{p} \cup \mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h})^* ; q = \mathbf{p} ; \mathbf{f} ; \mathbf{h} ; q \cup \mathbf{p} ; \mathbf{h} ; \mathbf{f} ; q = \mathbf{p} ; (\mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h}) ; q.$$

The last step is by distributivity. Therefore we now have the possible sequences that yield the desired result. Moreover, since

$$\mathbf{p} ; \mathbf{f} ; \mathbf{h} ; q = \mathbf{p} ; \mathbf{h} ; \mathbf{f} ; q = \mathbf{p} ; (\mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h}) ; q \quad (2)$$

we also know that  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$  can be executed in parallel.  $\square$

We do not want to discuss this operation and structure (which is known as Kleene algebra) and its connection to Web Services. Instead we will present some longer examples in the next section. More details concerning the reflexive, transitive closure within relations can be found e.g. in [25], about Kleene algebra in [2,16].

## 9 Simple Case Study

We have implemented relations, Web Service composition, tests and modal operators in Haskell. With this implementation we have build up a small case study to show that using the presented theory is useful for determine information about Web Services.<sup>6</sup>

When planning a business trip, it is essential to know which data are necessary in order to book a flight, a hotel, etc. Since the used Web Services are mostly not

<sup>5</sup> Due to readability we leave `;` implicit.

<sup>6</sup> The Haskell code, the encodings of our examples and the result sets can be found at <http://www.informatik.uni-augsburg.de/dbis/pr/ws/algebra.html>.

known in advance, it would be nice if this could be computed. Imagine the following Web Service that needs the departure, the destination, the date of a flight and either a credit card number or a frequent flyer number to book a flight. The return value is an electronic ticket number for the booked flight. We want to book two flights: one to the destination `des` and additionally a return flight (getting `etix` and `etix2`):

$$\begin{aligned} \ll\text{flight}\gg =_{df} \{ & \text{a dep des cc} \mid \text{a dep des ff} \rightarrow \text{etix}, \\ & \text{d dep des cc} \mid \text{d dep des ff des} \rightarrow \text{etix2}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the expression

$$\neg(\text{etix} \cup \text{etix2}) ; |\text{flight}^*|(\text{etix} ; \text{etix2}) ; |\text{flight}^*|(\text{etix} ; \text{etix2})$$

would compute all input parameters that are possible on the knowledge set  $\mathcal{K} = \{\text{a}, \text{d}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cc}, \text{ff}, \text{etix}, \text{etix2}, \text{smt}\}$ , where `smt` describes something additional. The test  $\neg(\text{etix} \cup \text{etix2})$  guarantees that the customer has not bought any ticket before the execution of the Web Service. The query yields six results: All include `a`, `d`, `dep` and `des` and (not surprisingly) all recombinations of `cc`, `ff` and `smt`. Since we know that two iterations of `flight` yield two tickets, the star in the above expression could be replaced by `flight`<sup>2</sup>. Nevertheless, since normal users do not have such knowledge we modelled the desired behaviour with an arbitrary finite iteration.

But much more interesting are the input parameters that are necessary for different Web Services: what is needed in order to book two flights, a hotel and a car, getting the result of a reservation number of the hotel (`res`), of the car (`resnrc`) and of the two e-tickets? In addition to that we also want our car to be insured against accidents. On the extended knowledge set  $\mathcal{K} \cup \{\text{cat}, \text{kind}, \text{resnrc}, \text{insurenr}, \text{res}\}$  with the additional Web Services for renting a car  $\ll\text{car}\gg =_{df} \{\text{a d des cc} \rightarrow \text{resnrc}\}$  and for insuring the car  $\ll\text{insure}\gg =_{df} \{\text{resnrc cc} \rightarrow \text{insurenr}\}$  the query

$$\neg(\text{etix} \cup \text{etix2} \cup \text{res} \cup \text{resnrc} \cup \text{insurenr}).$$

$$|(\text{flight} \cup \text{hotel} \cup \text{car} \cup \text{insure})^*|(\text{etix} \cdot \text{etix2} \cdot \text{res} \cdot \text{resnrc} \cdot \text{insurenr})$$

will return this information whereas we already prevent getting results when the goal parameters are existing in advance. The query returns the following four results:

$$\{\text{S} \mid \text{S ff} \mid \text{S ff smt} \mid \text{S smt} \rightarrow \emptyset\},$$

where  $\text{S} = \text{a}, \text{d}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cat}, \text{kind}, \text{cc}$ .

The results show that using the given inputs ( $\text{S}$ ) one can achieve the results using the Web Services `flight`, `hotel`, `car`, `insure`. More precisely, it can be shown that the Web Services can be executed in a given order (similar to Equation (2)). Collecting the inputs ( $\text{S}$ ) in a Web Service `plan` =  $\{\emptyset \rightarrow \text{S}\}$  the following process model would be the result of the computation (cf. Figure 1): At the beginning you need to plan the business trip, then you can book the hotel and the flight as well as the car and additionally an insurance for the car. The hotel booking, flight booking and car booking are independent from each other and therefore could be modelled in parallel, whereas the insurance depends on the car booking Web Service.



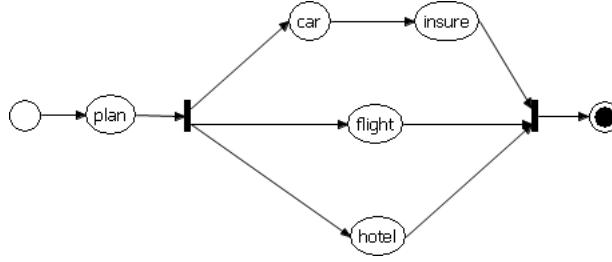


Fig. 1. Process model for the case study.

## 10 Remember the Web Services

Using a relational approach works fine for calculating inputs and/or outputs. But, until now, we are not able to determine any execution order for Web Services. For example, if we calculate  $(\mathbf{p} \cup \mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h})^* q$  we find that there is at least one execution that delivers an e-ticket and a reservation number at the end, since  $(\mathbf{p} \cup \mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h})^* q \neq \emptyset$ . But, we do not know which services need to be executed in which order. Nevertheless, since we have lifted Web Services to an abstract algebraic level, we can replace the relational model by any other model which is also based on i-semirings without recalculating properties again. This is another advantage of our approach. In this section we introduce the algebra of traces, another (well-known) i-semiring, which is useful for Web Service composition, too.

First, we want to set up the foundational structure. Like in formal languages a *word* over a set  $\Sigma$  is a mapping  $[0..n] \rightarrow \Sigma$ . The empty word is denoted by  $\epsilon$  and *concatenation* of words  $\sigma_0$  and  $\sigma_1$  by  $\sigma_0.\sigma_1$ . We write  $\text{first}(\sigma)$  for the first element of a word  $\sigma$  and  $\text{last}(\sigma)$  for its last element.

Informally, a trace is a special word where elements of two sets are alternated. In detail, a (finite) *trace* over arbitrary sets  $P$  and  $A$  is either  $\epsilon$  or a word  $\sigma$  such that  $\text{first}(\sigma), \text{last}(\sigma) \in P$  and in which elements from  $P$  and  $A$  alternate. The concatenation of two traces is defined as follows. The product of traces  $\tau_0$  and  $\tau_1$  is the trace

$$\tau_0 \cdot \tau_1 = \begin{cases} \sigma_0.s.\sigma_1 & \text{if } \tau_0 = \sigma_0.s \text{ and } \tau_1 = s.\sigma_1, \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Intuitively,  $\tau_0 \cdot \tau_1$  glues two traces together when the last state of  $\tau_0$  and the first state of  $\tau_1$  are equal. Sometimes this operation is also called trace fusion. It then follows that  $\text{first}(\tau_0 \cdot \tau_1) = \text{first}(\tau_0)$  and  $\text{last}(\tau_0 \cdot \tau_1) = \text{last}(\tau_1)$  whenever this product exists. Similar to sequential composition of relations, the trace product can be lifted to sets of traces by  $S \cdot T = \{\tau_0 \cdot \tau_1 : \tau_0 \in S, \tau_1 \in T \text{ and } \tau_0 \cdot \tau_1 \text{ defined}\}$ . Traces naturally arise in the context of labelled transition systems [1] and as an abstract interpretation for program schemes [15]. We will show that they are also useful and quite natural in the context of Web Services. But first we set up the theoretical background.

**Lemma 10.1** *The powerset over traces combined with set union as addition and the lifted trace product as multiplication forms an idempotent test semiring.*

The proof is straightforward by checking the axioms.

To derive an interpretation of the trace model for Web Services we redefine the

concept of a Web Method. Let  $\mathcal{K}$  be a set of possible *knowledge* as before (see Section 3) and  $\mathcal{N}$  some *namespace* (a set of names).

**Definition 10.2** A *Web Method* is a trace  $k_0 a_1 k_1 \dots a_n k_n$  over  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{K})$  and  $\mathcal{N}$ , where  $k_i \subseteq k_{i+1} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ . A Web Method is called *atomic* if it has length 1, i.e, if  $n = 1$ .

Instead of considering only input and outputs the Web Method contains also the names of the used (atomic) Web Methods. In more detail, traces collect all information used. The  $k_i$  represent all occurred input/output data. In particular, it also contains the temporary ones which occur between the execution of different Web Services; the  $a_i$  store the name of the executed Web Services.

**Running Example** The analogous Web Method for  $\text{flight}_{cc}$  of Section 3 is for example the trace

$$\{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cc}\} \text{flight}_{cc} \{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cc}, \text{etix}\},$$

where  $\{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cc}, \text{etix}\} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$  and  $\text{flight}_{cc}$  is an element of  $\mathcal{N}$ .  $\square$

All the notation and properties defined in the previous sections can directly be adapted to the trace model and therefore we will not recapitulate them. In particular, Web Service composition can be reused.<sup>7</sup>

To retrieve the relation-based model, which we discussed in the first part of the paper, from the trace-based one, one can apply the projection

$$\phi(\tau) = \begin{cases} (\text{first}(\tau), \text{last}(\tau)) & \text{if } \tau \neq \epsilon, \\ \text{undefined} & \text{if } \tau = \epsilon. \end{cases}$$

Obviously, the use of this projection yields a loss of information. The trace model does not only save all used information; in some sense it is even more intuitive. For example, tests in the relational approach are sets where all elements look like  $(X, X)$ . This duplication is quite unnatural. In the trace model tests contain words of the form  $k \subseteq \mathcal{K}$  (traces with length 1) and therefore have no duplication inside. Similar to Section 6, they test or restrict the execution paths.

**Running Example** Going back to the calculation  $(\mathbf{p} \cup \mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h})^* ; q$ . The Web Services are now defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p} &= \ll \emptyset \text{ plan } \{\mathbf{a}, \text{d}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cat}, \text{kind}, \text{cc}\} \gg \\ \mathbf{f} &= \ll \{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cc}\} \text{flight}_{cc} \{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{cc}, \text{etix}\}, \\ &\quad \{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{ff}\} \text{flight}_{ff} \{\mathbf{a}, \text{dep}, \text{des}, \text{ff}, \text{etix}\} \gg \\ \mathbf{h} &= \ll \{\mathbf{a}, \text{d}, \text{cat}\} \text{hotel } \{\mathbf{a}, \text{d}, \text{cat}, \text{res}\} \gg . \end{aligned}$$

Similar to Section 8 the composition of  $\mathbf{p}$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$  yields

$$(\mathbf{p} \cup \mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h})^* ; q = \mathbf{p} ; \mathbf{f} ; \mathbf{h} ; q + \mathbf{p} ; \mathbf{h} ; \mathbf{f} ; q = \mathbf{p} ; (\mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h}) ; q.$$

<sup>7</sup> Sequential composition has to be replaced by product of traces, e.g. in Web Service composition. That is why we overload symbols and use  $\cup$  and  $;$  also as operation on trace semirings.

The last step is by distributivity. Therefore we now have the possible sequences that yield the desired result: at first the planning Web Service must be executed and then the Web Services for booking a flight and hotel can be invoked. Moreover, since  $\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{f}; \mathbf{h}; q = \mathbf{p}; \mathbf{h}; \mathbf{f}; q = \mathbf{p}; (\mathbf{f} \cup \mathbf{h}); q$  we also know that  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$  can be executed in parallel.  $\square$

## 11 Conclusion and Outlook

In this report we presented a first step towards an algebra of Web Services and showed how to make advantage of the resulting algebraic structures. In particular, Web Services can be embedded into the well-known structure of relations which by adding operations for composition and choice form an i-semiring. Henceforth, we considered Web Services from a syntactical point of view and started to see them as tuples of input and output data.

This embedding leads to a definition of Web Service composition on an algebraic level. After that we were able to add restrictions to Web Services, e.g., to select those Web Services satisfying a specific condition. Furthermore, we used modal operators to determine necessary information which guarantee to reach certain goals. Throughout the report we tried to illustrate the developed theory by an on-going example, which was expanded to a simple case study. Additionally, the algebraic setting paved the way to replace the relational by a trace-based model. Using traces offered the possibility to determine the execution order of Web Services.

One of the great advantages of our approach is certainly the simplicity and the well-known theory. For example, using relations allows us to apply all the well-known and efficient algorithm for determining certain relations like the reflexive and transitive closure (e.g. [25]).

Overall, this report is only a first step towards a full algebraic characterisation. Nevertheless it shows the basics and provides the ground for on-going and further work. There are various open questions which can hopefully be solved.

First of all it might be interesting to see if the algebra leads to simplifications which can be used to optimise and reorganise Web Services. We already touched this question at the end of Section 7.

Secondly, a problem of our approach is that semantic mismatches may lead to an empty result set. We have not considered situations where the input does not match the output exactly. For example a Web Service might have the birthdate as output whereas the “next” Web Service only requires a date in general. To solve such situations one has to include some taxonomy or ontology (which says that every birthdate is also a general date). This ontology of course has to be combined with the Web Service composition. Re-using an idea of [13] where the composition of an i-semiring is enriched by an additional relation seems quite promising to solve this deficit.

Probably the most challenging open problem is a formal characterisation of *semantic Web Services*. But, we are quite optimistic that our approach can be re-used for semantic Web Services. We hope that tests can be used to model for example preconditions and effects.

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## A Omitted Proof

**Lemma 5.2** *For arbitrary Web Services  $V$  and  $W$ , the composed Web Service  $V \circ W$  is again an extended Web Service, i.e. there is a simple Web Service  $X$  with  $\llbracket X \rrbracket = V \circ W$ .*

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \llbracket V \rrbracket ; \llbracket W \rrbracket \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{definition of } \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket \} \\
 & \{(I_V \cup E_V, O_V \cup E_V) : E_V \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V\}; \\
 & \{(I_W \cup E_W, O_W \cup E_W) : E_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W\} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{definition of sequential composition} \} \\
 & \{(I_V \cup E_V, O_W \cup E_W) : \\
 & \quad E_V \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V, E_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W, O_V \cup E_V = I_W \cup E_W\} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{see below} \} \\
 & \{(I_V \cup I_W \setminus O_V \cup E_X, O_V \cup O_W \cup E_X) : \\
 & \quad E_X \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus (O_V \cup O_W), O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W\} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{definition} \} \\
 & \llbracket \{(I_V \cup I_W \setminus O_V, O_V \cup O_W) : O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W\} \rrbracket
 \end{aligned}$$

Then, setting  $X = \{(I_V \cup I_W \setminus O_V, O_V \cup O_W) : O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W\}$  completes the proof.

The condition  $O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$  states that the second Web Service  $W$  cannot produce something that was already created by  $V$ .

The third step uses next to the definition some basic set-theoretic rules. It is split into two inequalities. To show these inequalities, we name the condition for sequential composition:

$$O_V \cup E_V = I_W \cup E_W. \quad (*)$$

“ $\subseteq$ ” We have to show, that for all extensions  $E_V$  and  $E_W$  there is an extension  $E_X$  satisfying the properties of the fourth line. For arbitrary, but fixed  $E_V$  and  $E_W$ , we choose  $\tilde{E}_X = E_V \cap E_W$ . Let us now check the necessary equations for  $\tilde{E}_X$ .

– First, we show  $\tilde{E}_X \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus (O_V \cup O_W)$ . By definition, the assumptions  $E_V \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V$  and  $E_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$ , and set-theory, we get immediately

$$\tilde{E}_X = E_V \cap E_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V \cap \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W = \mathcal{K} \setminus (O_V \cup O_W).$$

– Next, we show that the inputs are equal, i.e.,  $I_V \cup E_V = I_V \cup I_W \setminus O_V \cup \tilde{E}_X$ . By isotony, it is sufficient to show that  $E_V = I_W \setminus O_V \cup \tilde{E}_X$ . Again, we split this equation into two inequations. For “ $\subseteq$ ” we use set-theory,  $(*)$ , distributivity, the assumption  $E_V \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V$  and definition of  $\tilde{E}_X$ , and set-theory again:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_V &= E_V \cap E_V \subseteq (I_W \cup E_W) \cap E_V = (I_W \cap E_V) \cup (E_W \cap E_V) \\
 &= (I_W \cap E_V) \setminus O_V \cup \tilde{E}_X \subseteq I_W \setminus O_V \cup \tilde{E}_X.
 \end{aligned}$$

For the converse direction we have to show that  $I_W \setminus O_V \cup (E_V \cap E_W) \subseteq E_V$ . By set-theory we have only to prove that  $I_W \setminus O_V \subseteq E_V$ , which immediately follows from  $(*)$ .

- Now, we show that the outputs are equal, i.e.,  $O_W \cup E_W = O_V \cup O_W \cup \tilde{E}_X$ . For the first direction, we only have to show that  $E_W \subseteq O_V \cup \tilde{E}_X$ . The claim then follows by isotony. By set-theory, (\*), set-theory again and definition of  $\tilde{E}_X$ , we get

$$E_W = E_W \cap E_W \subseteq (O_V \cup E_V) \cap E_W \subseteq O_V \cup (E_V \cap E_W) = O_V \cup \tilde{E}_X.$$

For the converse direction it is sufficient to show that  $O_V \subseteq O_W \cup E_W$ . The claim then follows by isotony and the fact that  $\tilde{E}_X \subseteq E_W$ . The remaining inequality follows immediately from (\*) and  $I_W \subseteq O_W$ .

- Last, we have to verify the condition  $O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$ . This follows by (\*), set-theory (twice) and the assumption  $E_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$ :

$$O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq (I_W \cup E_W) \setminus I_W \subseteq E_W \setminus I_W \subseteq E_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W.$$

“ $\supseteq$ ” Let us now prove the converse direction. For an arbitrary, but fixed  $E_X$  we set  $\tilde{E}_V = E_X \cup I_W \setminus O_V$  and  $\tilde{E}_W = E_X \cup O_V \setminus I_W$ . Again, we have to check that  $\tilde{E}_V$  and  $\tilde{E}_W$  satisfy all desired properties.

- First, we show  $\tilde{E}_V \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V$  and  $\tilde{E}_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$ . By straightforward calculations  $E_X \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V$  and  $E_X \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$  and definition of  $\tilde{E}_V$  and  $\tilde{E}_W$ , it is sufficient to show that  $I_W \setminus O_V \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_V$  and  $O_V \setminus I_W \subseteq \mathcal{K} \setminus O_W$ . The former claim follows directly from the definition of  $\mathcal{K}$ , the latter is an assumption.
- Next, we have to show that the inputs and outputs are equal. The equality of the inputs is immediately by definition.

$$I_V \cup \tilde{E}_V = I_V \cup E_X \cup I_W \setminus O_V.$$

The equation concerning the output follows by definition, the set-theoretic fact  $A \cup B \setminus A = A \cup B$  and  $I_W \subseteq O_W$ :

$$O_W \cup \tilde{E}_W = O_W \cup E_X \cup O_V \setminus I_W = O_W \cup E_X \cup O_V.$$

- Last, we have to show Equation (\*). Similar to the previous calculation, this follows by definition, set-theoretic and definition again:

$$O_V \cup \tilde{E}_V = O_V \cup E_X \cup I_W \setminus O_V = O_V \cup E_X \cup I_W = I_W \cup \tilde{E}_W.$$

□