Abstracting Imperative Workflow to Declarative Business Rules

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Abstract: Large business administrations rely on workflow systems to coordinate their business processes. In practice, workflow models are the blob-and-arc diagrams that outline required activities for dealing with an incoming event. In general however, user understanding is served better by the business rules approach. The Business Rules Manifesto advocates to express in declarative business rules what should be complied with, but to abstract from how to accomplish that by way of procedures. In this paper, we transform the main procedural components of imperative workflows to declarative business rules. The transformation results in two rules that still reflect the procedural nature of workflow, but more abstract than the corresponding workflow model. Once a workflow is transformed to declarative rules, these rules can be merged with other, content-aware business rules or pruned for unnecessary restrictions. The declarative rules and relations may capture business requirements about work processing better than blob-and-arc diagrams of imperative workflows.

1 INTRODUCTION

Have you ever done a Sudoku puzzle? Its rules are surprisingly simple, yet the challenge of Sudoku is that there is no simple workflow how to solve the puzzle. The same applies to workflow models in business: the rules governing the day-to-day work are rather simple, yet the implemented workflows and procedures that prescribe how business workers and applications should execute the work, are much more complicated.

Our point is that work should be done to comply to the rules set by the business, but an operational workflow may impose additional restrictions for implementational reasons having little business relevance. In keeping with the Business Rules Manifesto (2003), we believe that business rules should be expressed as explicit constraints on behavior, independent of how the rules may currently be implemented in process descriptions or workflow diagrams. In practice, users regard workflow models often just as blob-and-arc diagrams that depict how an incoming event should be dealt with. Such diagrams tell the users what to do and when, but not why. Transforming the imperative workflow model into the format of declarative business rules opens the road to identify the rules based on legitimate business requirements, and to eliminate the ones that were added for implementational reasons.

Using the Relation Algebra approach for rules coined by (Joosten, 2007), restrictions of the workflow are captured in a single declarative rule (section 5) which builds upon binary relations corresponding to the various structural components of common workflow models. Next, we express the business goal of the workflow by a second rule (section 6). Thus, the imperative constraints and the goal reached by the workflow are exposed at the same level of abstraction, and in a format compatible to other business rules. The workflow rules, previously encapsulated in descriptions or diagrams, become amenable for practicable validation by the user community, and for conflict analysis and optimization by rule designers.

The paper outline is as follows. Section 2 sets the stage for basic workflow models. Section 3 outlines declarative business rules and notions used in the paper. Sections 4 and 5 explain how the basic constructs of workflow models are transformed to assertions of Relation Algebra. Section 6 outlines how the workflow process is driven by way of the Control Principle. Section 7 discusses elaborations. Section 8 concludes the paper and indicates some directions for further research.
2 BASIC WORKFLOW MODELS

We outline features of conventional workflows, and explain the core notion of imperative workflow.

2.1 Basic Workflow Models

The Workflow Management Coalition (1999) defines a workflow process as a formalised view of a business process. It is presented as a coordinated set of process activities aimed to achieve a common business goal. Figure 1 depicts a typical workflow model as a blob-and-arc diagram. The example, adapted from the WMC'99 technical report, contains the four components of typical workflows: sequence, parallel flow, selective flow, and iterative loop (Aalst, Hofstede, et al., 2003). Sections 4 and 5 discuss how to transform each to relations and declarative rules.

A workflow model may be read in several ways.

The more usual interpretation is of the flow as a kind of roadmap. Once an activity is completed, the roadmap is consulted to answer the 'now what, where to go next' type of question. The answer is what may be called a 'statement of advice' (Witt, 2012). Upon completion of activities, it indicates which activities in the processing chain may be executed next. Typical wordings of this kind are 'you may now start activity A', or 'activity B is now enabled'. This interpretation of workflow is forward-looking in time: what may come next, and we will refer to it as the indicative view of workflow.

We prefer a more rigorous interpretation: the flow specifies compulsory precedence. Prior to completing an activity, all of the preceding activities should also have completed, out of necessity. The question here is 'what must have come before', and the answer takes the form of a business rule. The rule has 'immediate' enforcement, i.e. the preceding activities must have completed, and this may never be violated. This interpretation looks backward in time: what must have come before. We will refer to this as the imperative view of workflow.

In this paper, we are only interested whether an activity has completed or not. The timestamp of its completion or duration of the activity are not recorded. We abstract from details such as activity life cycle (Russell, Aalst et al., 2006) comprising steps like enabling, allocation to resource, work initiation, data transacting or recording the data outputs. We also abstract from issues such as resource responsible for enactment, execution cost, etc.

2.2 Case Management

A workflow models how an incoming case is processed. Therefore, it always features some trigger (sometimes even more than one) where a new case may enter the business process. Successive activities are then executed for the case (in parallel and/or in series) until all work is done and, by assumption, the intended business goal is achieved. Spontaneous generation of new cases somewhere along the line is prohibited in the imperative view of workflow. Interestingly, the indicative view of workflow allows new cases to suddenly emerge, but it is a tacit assumption that cases should start only at a trigger.

The notion of 'case' or 'workflow instance' constitutes an essential difference between workflow models and business rules in general. A declarative business rules model specifies rules that should be complied with, but it does not require the notion of any particular 'case' being managed. If any rule is violated, there is work to do, regardless how or what caused the violation.

Hence, in order to transform the imperative workflow model into declarative rules, we need to include the concept of 'case' or 'working instance' into our models. Surprisingly, we find that just this concept, together with the concept of 'activity type', provide a basic structure (figure 2) that is sufficient to transform an imperative workflow model into its equivalent declarative rule model.

3 DECLARATIVE RULES

This section outlines features of declarative business rules, and the structural components of the approach for business rules that we will be using in the paper.

3.1 Relation Algebra

We use binary Relation Algebra (Maddux, 2005) to specify and formulate our declarative rules. For readers familiar with relational database modeling, a few major differences may be mentioned. The notion of concept as we use it, is comparable to entities, but our concept is just a single column which is key, and has no attributes. Binary relations as we use them, are not foreign-key pointers, but are defined as
subsets of the Cartesian Product. They have many-to-many cardinality, unless specified otherwise. Time is not a native notion of binary Relation Algebras. Indeed, none of the formulas and rules that we discuss in this paper will refer to timestamps or intervals. For this reason, some authors call rules formulated in binary Relation Algebra 'invariant'.

3.2 Related Approaches

Our terms declarative and imperative are interpreted differently in (Mendling et al., 2009). Their understanding of 'declarative' is simply that the given behavior satisfies all requirements. The basic workflow models that we consider will satisfy all requirements, perhaps not instantly but eventually, still we do not consider them to be declarative.

Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) is an excellent approach to study workflows in great detail (Maggi et al., 2011). LTL extends first-order logic with a linear, discrete model of time. A workflow suite, called Declare, uses LTL to model and execute business processes. A main difference with our approach is again the notion of time, which is a prominent feature in LTL, but absent from ours. For example, precedence is sometimes interpreted to mean that an activity should not be started prior to the completion of the preceding one. This would imply that activities have a certain duration, but as noted before, time is irrelevant to our approach and we do not follow this interpretation.

Protocol modelling (McNelle and Simons, 2006) also does away with temporal aspects and the notion of cases. Aspect oriented models enable state transitions while taking multiple crosscutting concerns and business constraints into account. This approach takes the indicative view of workflow when it labels state transitions as 'desired' (Wedemeijer, 2012).

3.3 Structure of the declarative model

To transform imperative flows to declarative rules of Relation Algebra, we must first specify a suitable structure to capture the terms, facts and rules of imperative workflows. The basic structure of our declarative model (figure 2) is attractively simple, containing just two concepts as defined below. We will expand this basic structure with other features as needed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>concept</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[identifier]</td>
<td>is: (a pool of) available case identifiers, each associated to a particular workflow case, e.g. a case 'customer request 123'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[activity type]</td>
<td>is: (the set of) activity types. Each activity type may be executed (instantiated) any number of times, in order to achieve the goal of the business process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The declarative model for workflows specifies a number of binary relations on these concepts. The most important one, called completed, records workflow progress. A tuple (i,A) in this relation completed, sometimes called a transition, records that this particular case identifier, i, has successfully been processed by the particular activity type, A. For ease of reading, we write relation names in italics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>relation</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[identifier]</td>
<td>completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[activity type]</td>
<td>is: (the recording that) all work of the activity type has been successfully completed for (the case associated with) identifier i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The completed relation represents the audit trail of the work done on a particular case. In accordance with compliance regulations and good records-keeping (McKennish et al., 2006), tuples may be added into this relation, but they may never be altered or deleted thereafter: an activity cannot be un-completed. And to safeguard referential integrity, we cannot delete an identifier or activity type once it is recorded in the completed relation.

Notice that we abstract from a lot of attributes commonly included in audit trails, such as deadlines being set, the exact times of start and completion, business resource that executed the work, or the actor taking responsibility for the work done.

We assume the completed relation to be total, i.e. a case identifier is recorded only if it completed at least one activity. This is because we are interested only in identifiers associated with actual work done, not in possible future work. The reverse is not required: an activity type may exist even if no case has ever completed that activity.

Instead of completed, an started relation might have been modeled. Again, we are interested only in actual work done, not in ongoing execution of activities. A similar argument is used in Petrinet theories, the formal foundation of most workflow models.
4 TRANSFORMING FORWARD FLOW

Many business processes can be represented in simple workflow models where activities are executed in sequence, or perhaps in parallel. This section outlines how common components are transformed: sequence, synchronize (AND-join), and selective OR-splits (disable, exclusive split), as in figure 3.

Figure 3: Common components in workflow.

4.1 Sequence / Precedence

4.1.1 Sequencing in Workflows

This is the most common pattern in workflows. Most workflow diagrams depict sequencing by an arc from one blob, representing some activity type \( A_0 \), to some next blob labelled type \( A_1 \).

The indicative interpretation of such sequencing is: after \( A_0 \) is completed, then \( A_1 \) should be executed next. Not having completed activity \( A_1 \) after \( A_0 \) means that the rule for sequencing is temporarily violated. There is work to do while the violation lasts.

In the imperative interpretation of workflow, the arc from \( A_0 \) to \( A_1 \) represents strict precedence: if the second activity \( A_1 \) is completed for some case instance, then \( A_0 \) must have already been completed for that case instance. Or: if completion of \( A_0 \) is not on record, then the rule says that completion of \( A_1 \) is impossible. Not having completed \( A_0 \) prior to \( A_1 \) means that the imperative workflow rule is violated, and this violation is never permitted.

4.1.2 Rule for Precedence

To capture precedence as a declarative rule, the \( \text{precedes} \) relation on activity types is used (see table).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>relation</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[activity type]</td>
<td>( \text{precedes} ) is the precedence relation among activity types. A tuple ((A_0,A_1)) in this relation means that only if an activity of type ( A_0 ) has completed, may a corresponding activity of type ( A_1 ) also be completed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The precedence rule can be formulated in first-order logic by way of the \( \text{precedes} \) relation:

\[
\text{for any } i \in \{\text{identifier}\}, \text{ and } A_0, A_1 \in \{\text{activity type}\}, \text{ we have: if } i \text{ completed } A_0 \text{ then there must exist some activity type } A_0 \text{ such that } i \text{ completed } A_0 \text{ and } A_0 \text{ precedes } A_1.
\]

which in Relation Algebra reads:

\[
\text{completed} \subset \text{completed} \circ \text{precedes}
\]

4.1.3 Precedence for Triggers

A problem with the sequencing rule is that not every activity type is preceded by another. Such activity types are customarily called triggers, or initial activities, and they are important because they set the workflow in motion.

At first glance, triggers invalidate assertion (1), as completion of an identifier cannot be recorded for an initial activity type because a proper tuple in the \( \text{precedes} \) relation is absent. We solve this by adjusting the definition of relation \( \text{precedes} \): initial activity types are recorded by way of self-referring tuples \((A_0,A_0)\). By recording such tuples in \( \text{precedes} \), assertion (1) also covers initial activities.

4.1.4 About the \( \text{precedes} \) Relation

Basic properties of the binary \( \text{precedes} \) relation correspond nicely to important features of imperative workflows. As we are merely concerned with transforming the workflow to declarative rules, we refrain from a deeper analysis of this and other relations to be defined. We take quality issues for granted, such as the workflow being well-designed with respect to liveness, deadlock etc.

The \( \text{precedes} \) relation is not univalent, and an activity type may well precede several others, corresponding to a so-called split in the workflow. It establishes what may be called a multiple-instance pattern (Aalst et al., 2003). The subsequent activities may be executed and completed in parallel along separate branches of the flow.

It is not total. An activity type may be a last one, a terminating activity in the workflow. Nor is \( \text{precedes} \) an injective relation, as more than one activity type may precede an activity type \( A_X \). Assertion (1) will ensure that at least one precedent is completed prior to the completion of \( A_X \). This is the common OR-join of workflow models.

We explained above that self-referring tuples are recorded to capture triggering (initial) activities. As a result, the binary \( \text{precedes} \) relation is surjective.

Abstracting Imperative Workflow to Declarative Business Rules
4.2 Synchronizing AND-Joins

4.2.1 Synchronization in Workflows

Sometimes an activity may only be completed after completion of more than one activity. Known as AND-join or more formally as synchronization point in workflow models, it is not captured by rule (1).

4.2.2 Rule for Multiple Precedence

To capture AND-joins in a declarative rule, we introduce a relation \( \text{multi-precedes} \) for activity types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>relation</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[activity type]</td>
<td>multi-precedes [activity type] is: activity type precedes the next activity type and executions must be synchronized. A tuple ((AM,AN)) means that only if the activity of type AM and certain others too have completed, may a corresponding activity of type AN also be completed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The synchronization rule is that no compulsory precedent has not completed. In first-order logic:

\[
\text{for any } i \in [\text{identifier}] \text{ and } A_X, A_Y \in [\text{activity type}], \text{ we have: if } i \text{ completed } A_Y \text{ then it is never true that } i \text{ completed } A_X \text{ and } A_X \text{ disables } A_Y. \]

In Relation Algebra, such a double negation is known as left demonic composition operator (Backhouse, van der Woude, 1993). We can denote it as:

\[
\text{completed} \subseteq \neg (\neg \text{completed} \circ \text{disables}) \quad (2)
\]

4.2.3 About the Multi-precedes Relation

This relation looks a lot like the regular \( \text{precedes} \) relation. In fact, the only difference is at the join-points in a workflow. Whereas the \( \text{precedes} \) relation captures OR-join behavior, \( \text{multi-precedes} \) models AND-join behavior. As workflows can display both types of behavior, both relations are needed.

The \( \text{multi-precedes} \) relation constitutes a partitioning of activity types. Most partitions are uninteresting, consisting of just a single activity type. Just a few partitions, that correspond to the AND-joins, contain more than one activity type, meaning that those must synchronize: the workflow may only continue once all of them have completed.

4.3 Selective OR-Splits and Disabling

4.3.1 Selections in Workflow

Selective flow, also known as conditional branching, means that one activity precedes two (or more) activities that are placed in parallel but not all of these succeeding activities are allowed to complete.

Select in a workflow diagram is depicted by a so-called XOR-split: two (or more) arcs go out from a single point. Also, a business condition that determines which arc should be enacted (or not) is often indicated, but as we are concerned only with transforming the imperative flow into declarative rules, we abstract from such business knowledge.

![XOR-split](image)

Figure 4: Mutual exclusion of activity types.

4.3.2 Rule for Selective / Disabling Activities

Consider the XOR-split after activity type \( A_3 \) which is the precedent for both \( A_{41} \) and \( A_{42} \), but only one of them is allowed to complete (figure 4). The first consideration is normal sequencing, as has been dealt with before. We cover the new restriction of mutual exclusion by way of a new relation \( \text{disables} \) on activity types:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>relation</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[activity type]</td>
<td>disables [activity type] is: the disabling relation among activity types. A tuple ((AX,AY)) in this relation means that never if an activity of type AX has completed, may an activity of type AY be completed by the same identifier.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rule for selective flow can now be formulated in first-order logic:

\[
\text{for any } i \in [\text{identifier}] \text{ and } A_X, A_Y \in [\text{activity type}], \text{ we have: if } i \text{ completed } A_Y \text{ then it is never true that } i \text{ completed } A_X \text{ and } A_X \text{ disables } A_Y. \]

Denoted as a Relation Algebra assertion it reads:

\[
\text{completed} \subseteq \neg (\neg \text{completed} \circ \text{disables}) \quad (3)
\]

4.3.3 About the Disables Relation

Most activities are not involved in disablings, and therefore the \( \text{disables} \) relation is neither total nor surjective. One activity type may disable, or be disabled by several others, hence the relation is neither univalent nor injective. Evidently, the homogeneous \( \text{disables} \) relation is irreflexive, while nothing can be said about its being transitive or not.

The important point however is that, in our
context, the disables relation is symmetric by nature. A tuple \((A_X, A_Y)\) in the disables relation means that never if an activity of type \(A_X\) has completed, may a corresponding activity of type \(A_Y\) also be completed. The reverse is then automatic: if an activity of type \(A_Y\) is recorded as completed, then no corresponding activity of type \(A_X\) may be completed.

Imperative workflows also know a disabling feature, which however is not symmetric by nature. A workflow may model that activity type \(A_3\) is disabling for activity type \(A_2\), meaning that completion of \(A_3\) is allowed prior to, but not after \(A_2\). This allows a sequence of activities \(a_1-a_2-a_3\), but not a sequence like \(a_1-a_3-a_2\). The exact sequencing is determined by the actual timestamps of completion, an attribute that we have explicitly omitted from our declarative rules.

4.4 Forward-flow Rule

The three basic patterns of workflow analyzed so far all ensure a forward flow, in contrast to the flow that we will be analyzing in the next section. The three Relation Algebra assertions (1), (2) and (3) acquired so far, easily combine into a single assertion:

\[
\text{rule forward flow as completed must imply } \left( \left( \text{completed } \circ \text{precedes} \right) \cup \left( \neg \left( \text{completed } \circ \text{multi_precedes} \right) \right) \right) \left( \text{completed } \circ \text{disables} \right)
\]

For later reference, we will refer to the righthand side of this assertion as the forward-flow relation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>relation</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[identifier]</td>
<td>is: the relation with a tuple ((i, A)) indicating that at least one (regular) precedent or all of its multi-precedents are completed, and none of its disabling activities has completed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forward-flow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[activity type]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using this relation, a forward flow rule may be stated: 'if identifier \(i\) completed activity type \(A\), then tuple \((i, A)\) must be in relation forward-flow'.

The rule has immediate enforcement: completion is always prohibited if the tuple is absent from the forward-flow relation. But, as the naming suggests, the rule holds for forward flows only, and does not apply for loops or 'backward' flows.

5 TRANSFORMING ITERATIVE FLOW

The previous section transformed forward flows. this section, we deal with the transformation of iterative loops, which slightly more complicated.

5.1 Iterative Looping in Workflows

Handling a workflow case may sometimes involve the repeated execution of a series of activity types until some condition is met. But the forward-flow rule described above cannot deal with a flow that loops back onto itself, so we must adjust the rule. A peculiarity is that binary relations may record a tuple once, but not several times over. Hence, completed, as a binary relation, cannot record iterations as required. Our solution is to employ a new identifier for each iteration of the loop. By expanding the definition of the identifier concept in this way, our forward-flow condition remains valid.

5.1.1 Relations for Modeling Iterations

We capture iterations by imagining the execution of the workflow-case to pause at the looping activity where it may fire zero, one or more iterations, as depicted in figure 5. Execution of the looping activity by the the workflow-case can be thought of as being suspended, and only when all iteration(s) have been dealt with, can it complete the looping activity, and proceed in the normal way.

Using this relation, a forward flow rule may be stated: 'if identifier \(i\) completed activity type \(A\), then tuple \((i, A)\) must be in relation forward-flow'.

The rule has immediate enforcement: completion is always prohibited if the tuple is absent from the forward-flow relation. But, as the naming suggests, the rule holds for forward flows only, and does not apply for loops or 'backward' flows.

Figure 5: Iterating by way of sub-identifiers.
simple, we will assume that this relation on activity types is univalent and injective. Moreover, the target activity type (where it loops to) is assumed to be a precedent for the source activity type. This is to ensure that a case looping back, will eventually return to the activity type that fired it.

As pointed out before, a binary relation such as \(\text{completed}\) cannot record that the same activity type is repeatedly completed by a single identifier. We solve this by assigning a new identifier for every loop iteration, in the same way as used in audit trailing tools, activity logging and process mining (van Dongen, van der Aalst, 2005). To track which iterative loops are running for what workflow cases, we coin two more relations, \(\text{fired\_from}\) and \(\text{iterates}\):

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{relation} & \text{semantics} \\
\hline
[\text{activity type}] \text{loops\_to} [\text{activity type}] & \text{is: the iterative-loop relation of activity types. A tuple (AN,AK) in this relation means that an activity of type AN, before its completion, may invoke no, one or more iterations of the loop starting from AK.} \\
\hline
[\text{identifier}] \text{fired\_from} [\text{activity type}] & \text{is: which subordinate case identifier has started from the activity type. A tuple (j,AM) in this relation means that identifier j is fired from the activity type AM.} \\
[\text{activity type}] \text{iterates} [\text{identifier}] & \text{is: the iteration of identifiers. A tuple (j,i) in this relation means that the identifier j is fired for the identifier i, which is deemed necessary as an activity executes for the workflow case associated with identifier i. The identifier that iterates another is referred to as subordinate or sub; the other identifier is called the main case.} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

The \(\text{iterates}\) relation actually is a function. Remark that a sub may again fire its own sub-subordinates, and a stack of arbitrary depth can be created. Moreover, the \(\text{iterates}\) relation allows to fire several subordinates at once, for instance if a complex scheduling problem is broken down into several smaller scheduling alternatives, to be analyzed in parallel. Still, an identifier cannot iterate itself, so the \(\text{iterates}\) relation and its transitive closure must be irreflexive.

The \(\text{fired\_from}\) relation, which is also a function, prevents possible confusion about which identifier originates where, in case a workflow contains more than one loop. For the sake of consistency, activity types recorded in the \(\text{fired\_from}\) relation must also be present in the \(\text{loops\_to}\) relation, but here again, we take this quality issue for granted.

Firing-from an activity type can occur when the case at hand has not completed the activity yet, and some business worker or condition determines that iteration is required. In this paper, we abstract from the specific conditions or business knowledge that controls invocation of the iterative loop.

### 5.1.2 Rules for Iteration

To model iterations in imperative workflow, three restrictions regarding (the identifier of) the iteration must be considered:

- allow the completion of its first activity,
- ensure completion of subsequent forward-flow activities, and
- constrain the sub-identifier to stop at precisely the activity type where it was fired-from, and no further activities are to be completed.

Regarding the main case, we must ensure that:

- the main case identifier must wait for all of its iterations to complete, prior to continuing.

First, remark that the activity type where an iteration begins, is rarely marked as a trigger. Hence, the forward-flow condition would normally prohibit that the activity type is \(\text{completed}\) by this sub, as it lacks its proper precedent, and spontaneous generation of new cases is explicitly forbidden in the imperative view. The solution of course is that another identifier acts as a substitute for predecessor, viz. the main case that is firing this iteration. The proper condition for the starting activity of the subordinate case is captured in first-order logic as:

\[
\text{completed } \subseteq \text{iterates } \circ \text{forward\_flow } \circ \text{loops\_to}
\]

Rephrased in Relation Algebra, it reads:

\[
\text{completed } \subseteq \text{iterates } \circ \text{forward\_flow } \circ \text{loops\_to}
\]

In rephrasing the first-order logic, we used that both relations, \(\text{iterates}\) and \(\text{loops\_to}\), are functions. Also remember that formula (4) applies only for the initial activity to be completed by the subordinate identifier.

Once an iteration has \(\text{completed}\) its initial activity, it has to go forward through the entire loop, up to the activity type where it was fired. This is already described by the forward-flow condition, and no additional rules are needed.

Third, we must ensure that the iteration termina
tes at its point of origin, where it is fired from. It may never go beyond that point and complete some activity further down the flow. In particular, the firing activity type never precedes an activity type that is being completed by a subordinate identifier. In first-order logic:

\[
\text{for any } j \in \text{[sub]} \text{ and } A_r \in \text{[activity type]}, \text{ we have: } \]
\[
\text{if } j \text{ completed } A_r, \text{ then it cannot be that } j \text{ is fired from some activity type } A_m \text{ preceding } A_r.
\]

Rephrased in Relation Algebra, it reads:

\[
\text{completed} \subseteq - (\text{fired_from} \circ \precedes ) \quad (5)
\]

Finally, we need to consider the main case. That main case must wait at exactly the activity type where it fired subordinate identifier(s). Which is to say that this main case might have completed this activity under normal circumstances, but if some iteration(s) are running then must wait for them to complete. Otherwise, a running iteration becomes orphaned, executing activities to no avail. Thus, at the looping activity may be completed by the main case only if all of the iterations that it fired from there, have all run their course to completion. This condition to wait for iterations can be formulated in first-order logic:

\[
\text{for any } i \in \text{[identifier]} \text{ and } A_m \in \text{[activity type]} \text{ we have: if } i \text{ completed } A_m, \text{ then it is never true that some sub exists that iterates this identifier } i, \text{ and that sub was actually fired_from } A_m \text{ (remind that a workflow may contain other loops), while it has not yet completed the activity type } A_m \text{ (which is to say: that sub is still running).}
\]

Using double negation again, we can write this as a Relation Algebra assertion:

\[
\text{completed} \subseteq - ((\text{iterates} \circ \precedes ; (\text{fired_from} \circ \text{completed})) \quad (6)
\]

The assertion is trivially satisfied if no iterations are fired (Backhouse and van der Woude 1993). The assertion is also satisfied if iterations for a case exist, but were fired from other activity types in the workflow than the one about to be completed by the case. Notice how assertion (6) applies recursively, i.e. nesting is allowed. If a subordinate identifier fires sub-subordinates of its own, it too will wait for its own sub-subordinates before completing.

5.2  Imperative Workflow Rule

5.2.1  Forward-Flow and Subordinates

Conditions (4) and (5) determine a scope for a subordinate identifier. They govern the inception and termination of each subordinate, i.e. the activity type where it starts, and where it terminates. Evidently, these two activity types coincide exactly with one corresponding tuple in the loops_to relation. Conditions (4) and (5) plus the forward-flow condition describe behavior of the subordinate, which is expressed in a Relation Algebra assertion as follows:

\[
\text{rule subordinate_workflow as}
\]
\[
\text{completed must imply}
\]
\[
(\text{forward_flow}
\cup \text{iterates} \circ \text{forward_flow} \circ \text{loops_to})
\cup (\text{fired_from} \circ \precedes)
\]

Notice how for main workflow cases this subordinate_workflow rule coincides with the regular forward-flow behavior, except at activity types where looping may occur. Hence, we only need to merge condition (6) that controls behavior at looping activities into the rule above. The declarative business rule for imperative workflow becomes:

\[
\text{rule imperative_workflow as}
\]
\[
\text{completed must imply}
\]
\[
- (\text{iterates} \circ ; (\text{fired_from} \circ \text{completed} ))
\cup (\text{forward_flow}
\cup \text{iterates} \circ \text{forward_flow} \circ \text{loops_to})
\cup (\text{fired_from} \circ \precedes)
\]

Remarkably, this rule, although we produced it in accordance to the imperative view of workflow, provides us with an indicative view. The righthand side of the rule assertion indicates for a case identifier i which activity types either have completed, or are allowed to complete, always in full compliance to the imperative workflow constraints. It is fairly easy to deduce from this rule an is_enabled relation that, for a given identifier, will determine exactly which activity types are allowed to complete, but have not completed yet.

6  CONTROL PRINCIPLE

The previous sections detailed how to capture the various aspects of imperative workflow. This section outlines how the workflow process is driven by way of the Control Principle.

6.1  Completing the Flow

A general assumption is that a workflow case, to fulfill the intended business goal, will always and automatically run from start to finish. A recorded
trigger will always progress to its final tasks, or terminal activities. Likewise, we assumed that any subordinate iteration fired from some looping activity type will always return to its point of origin.

The indicative view of workflow states what should come after by way of enabling activities. By assumption, every activity that is enabled, ought to complete in due course, unless its completion is no longer desired or disabled (McNeile, Roubtsova, 2008). By another assumption, the terminating activity of the workflow will be enabled and completed eventually, and so the process goal is achieved.

In the imperative view of workflow, the goal of the process is not achieved as a matter of course. If a process halts in mid-term, nothing goes wrong. No rule is violated, there is no signal that there is work to do, or that a deadline has expired. The imperative workflow rule dictates what must come before, but not what ought to come after. Nothing controls that a case shall be handled start to finish. To remedy this situation, a new rule called the Control Principle is formulated.

6.2 About the Progresses_to Relation

Whereas the imperative workflow rule has immediate enforcement (it may never be violated), the Control Principle does allow deferred enforcement: violations are allowed but only temporarily so. Every violation should be remedied sooner or later, and work should proceed until there are no more violations. The Control Principle reasons that every workflow trigger should always progress to all of its terminal activities:

\[ \text{for any } i \in [\text{identifier}], \text{ and } A_0, A_Z \in [\text{activity type}]: \]
\[ \text{if } i \text{ completed } A_0, \text{ with } A_0 \text{ trigger and } A_Z \text{ terminating activity type for the workflow, then } i \text{ must (eventually) also have completed all such } A_Z. \]

We coin a relation progresses_to from trigger to terminating activity types. In fact, this relation applies not just one, but to all workflows that an engineer may consider. We define it as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>relation</th>
<th>semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>progresses_to</td>
<td>is: the relation that describes the overall start-to-finish structure of workflows. A tuple ((A_0, A_Z)) in this relation means that (A_0) is a triggering activity type and (A_Z) is a corresponding terminating activity type in the workflow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Control Principle in Relation Algebra reads:

\[ \text{rule control_principle as} \]

\[ \text{completed} \circ \text{progresses_to} \text{ must imply completed} \]

Under this rule, work continues as long as any one of the final tasks has not yet been completed. All outcomes must always be produced eventually; the Control Principle does not allow to disregard or skip some of the final tasks.

Inspecting the derived relation is_enabled, it will be clear which activities may be completed in compliance to the imperative workflow rule. Thus, work-to-do can be allocated to available actors, human or machine. In due course, activities are recorded as completed, and the rules can once again be inspected to determine violations and appropriate actions.

6.3 Workflow Execution

The Control Principle and the imperative workflow rule act independently and in harmony to realize the behavior as described in WMC'99 report.

Separate, each rule is valuable as a means to understand and interpret workflow.

The imperative workflow rule dictates that work must always be done in compliance to the workflow, and specifies in exact detail how. Violation of this rule is never tolerated. Applying this rule in a business environment without the Control Principle means that the work will certainly be performed in the correct order, but there is no guarantee that the process goals will be realized.

The Control Principle dictates that every workflow trigger should always progress to its terminal activity or activities. Violation of this rule is permitted, and it means that there is work to do. Applying this rule in a business environment without the imperative workflow rule means that business workers know that there is work to do, but there is no guidance as to the correct order of their activities.

Figure 6: Elaborated structure of the declarative business rules model.

The real benefit of our approach emerges when the two rules are combined. Together, the rules ensure that the process activities execute in a well-co-ordinated fashion, exactly as pictured by the
workflow diagram. In the end, all violations are resolved, all terminating activities have completed, and the process goal is achieved.

Figure 6 is a diagram of the concepts and relations used to formulate our declarative business rules for imperative workflow. An important observation is that this declarative structure is not restricted to a single workflow only. Other workflow models are readily captured in the same declarative structure, merely by populating the various binary relations with the structural knowledge encapsulated in the workflow models.

More details about the model, scripted in the Ampersand toolset, will be available at the site http://wiki.tarski.nl/index.php/Research_hub. There, a realistic example will be available to show and explore the benefits and issues of our approach. It lists the binary relations, the exact formulas, and the violations of the declarative business rules of a workflow model fashioned like figure 1.

7 DISCUSSION

7.1 Advanced Flow Structures

This paper covered only the principal structures as seen in workflows. We are convinced that other, more advanced structures can also be transformed. How, requires further analysis.

For instance, an 'empty' activity type may show up in a workflow diagram. As we abstracted from the actual work executed by an activity, the empty activity type is treated like any other: it has precedents, it may be the precedent of other activity types, it turns up in the completed relation etc.

In practice other exceptions exist that operational workflows must deal with, such as lack of resources, user-initiated aborts, and crosscutting events (e.g. a client dies, or an order is cancelled). Likewise, quality problems may arise in workflows, such as deadlock, irregular termination, or loops that never terminate. Merely transforming to a declarative rules model cannot be expected to solve the quality problems. This area of research is beyond the scope of this paper.

7.2 Limitations of Our Approach

The sequencing of activities in a workflow is the outcome not only of business requirements, but also of design decisions and implementation choices. Another designer may propose a different sequence that also complies with the essential business rules.

Hence, precedence analysis is required to bring out what aspects of the flow is due to design choices, and which are based on actual business needs. To some extend, is a matter of opinion whether a workflow constitutes legitimate business rules, or whether it is just a way to implement underlying, more fundamental business rules (Hofstede, Aalst, et al., 2003). It can also be debated with users which flow features must have immediate enforcement, and which ones may be relaxed to allow temporary violations.

Moreover, flow rules such as precedence, disabling and the like, are just one of the many kinds of business rules. Business rules in general support not only the consecutive steps of process flows but also the rules to assess the business conditions and facts as activities are being executed. For instance, a workflow diagram often specifies the business rules that determine whether iteration is required, or which branch in an XOR-split to follow, but our relations cannot records such business conditions.

In our approach, iterative loops are dealt with in a slightly different way. The usual interpretation is that an iteration branches off immediately after completing a looping activity. Our interpretation is that iterations are recorded by way of subordinate identifiers, prior to completion of the looping activity by the main case identifier.

Furthermore, our approach was found to be limited in dealing with a disable, when there is time-dependence involved. An example is a workflow model with a constraint that 'an activity of type C3 may complete, but not before an activity of type C2'. Such a non-coexistence rule would allow to record the sequence of activities c1-c2-c3-c4, but disallow the sequence c1-c3-c2-c4. Like all of the declarative rules, our disabling rule is time-independent, and therefore must be symmetric. It cannot distinguish between the allowed sequence, c1-c2-c3-c4, and the forbidden sequence, c1-c3-c2-c4. Hence, transforming this into declarative format is not possible. A work-around may be to adjust the original workflow model to capture the precedences in another way.

7.3 Lack of Temporal Features

Our approach is founded on Relation Algebra, which does not provide temporal capabilities. Therefore, a main limitation of our approach is the lack of time in all of our formulas. This is not a drawback, instead we regard it as a major advantage. Indeed, we demonstrated how main components of workflow can well be captured without referring to time.
Still, deadlines or deadline expiry are not handled in our approach. Having abstracted from time altogether, we do not record whether an activity has begun, nor the time when its execution started. Additional binary relation such as Identifier started Activity_Type might be added, but it will require extra constraints, such as: completed must imply started. Furthermore, Relation Algebra provides no clock mechanism that allows to inspect which activities have started but did not complete within the allotted time. In all, we think that this paper is not the place to investigate these aspects and how to deal with them within the context of Relation Algebra. Finally, it must be pointed out that time is also not a native feature of Petrinets, the formal foundation of most workflow models.

### 7.4 Transforming Rules to Workflow

We conducted one-way analysis: from implemented workflow structure to more abstract business rules. The workflow was transformed without information loss, and reverse transformation will not prove to be hard. However, this is not true in general. Once the users edit, improve and rephrase the abstracted business rules, there is no guarantee that reverse transformation is easy, or that it produces a compatible flow structure. Engineering a given set of abstract business rules into a corresponding workflow model involves implementation choices, and design skills.

### 8 CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

The research in this paper covers the main structural components of imperative workflows. We outlined how to transform a workflow into just two rules.

The first one, called imperative-workflow rule, captures the structure of the imperative workflow, and it allows no violations at any time (immediate enforcement). This comprehensive rule comprises two parts. The easy part is called the forward-flow rule, and it adequately captures normal and parallel sequence, multiple precedence, and exclusions (selection). The more complicated part captures the iterative loops.

The second rule is called the Control Principle, which drives the workflow through to its end. This rule does allow violations, but while violations exist, there is work to do resolving them (deferred enforcement). Case handling is finished when there are no more violations, and the goal of the business process is reached.

The 8 binary relations and 2 rules that we describe can be characterized as follows:

- they capture all the knowledge about the workflow (sequencing, precedence, etc.),
- they are declarative, not procedural in character, and involve only (persistent) states, not the volatile events or transitions,
- the notion of time is not needed, the rules and relations are time-invariant, and do not refer to ‘before’ or ‘after’
- the imperative-workflow rule and the Control Principle apply independently and simultaneously, there is no priority among the two.

We conclude that imperative workflows can be transformed into declarative business rules following the format of binary Relation Algebra. We demonstrated in detail how to do this for each of the four basic flow structures.

To accomplish the transformation of imperative workflows to declarative rules, two concepts suffice. One is the identifier concept, representing the workflow cases to be handled, and possibly the subordinates when cases trace iterative loops in the workflow. The other concept is activity type, representing the ‘blobs’ of workflows. The various types of ‘arc’ in workflow models are captured in a number of binary relations, the majority being homogeneous relations on the activity type concept.

We have shown how the procedures of workflow may be mapped into declarative business rules. This constitutes tangible evidence that the way of doing business may indeed be captured in a business rules model that meets all the demands of the Business Rules Manifesto. On the other hand, the business rules and relations that we describe are basically procedural in character, while the Business Rules Manifesto encourages to capture the business rules in a non-procedural format.

Future work is to augment our two declarative workflow rules with content-aware rules, such as the criteria for iterations and OR-splits, and also the implicit decision rules in activities encapsulated in automated services or applied by knowledge workers.

The Control Principle in its current formulation requires that all final tasks must eventually be completed. In practice, a workflow process may finish even if not all outcomes have been produced. For instance, when a customer order is rejected, then the workflow produces only a rejection message, and not the intended order delivery. The Control Principle should be adapted and improved to cover such practical circumstances. Furthermore, the
connections between the progresses_to relation of the Control Principle, and the various relations that capture the details of the imperative-workflow rule, need to be analyzed and clarified.

As a result, we envision a ruleset that is consistent and comprehensive, that reflects the processing needs of the business, but without the restrictions of workflow models. A next step is to check with business users how the workflow precedences and the like, now captured in binary tables and declarative rules, correspond to the requirements of the business.

We expect that declarative rules, developed along these ideas, will capture the business requirements about the processing of incoming work better than rigid rules of imperative workflows do. The ruleset will provide an essential basis for improved models to coordinate business processes. Indeed, the reverse exercise, to derive an imperative workflow compliant to even a small set of declarative rules, may not be as straightforward, as may be illustrated by your next Sudoku puzzle.

REFERENCES


Ampersand. At: http://wiki.tarski.nl


