Metrics of Parallel Complexity of Operational Business Processes

Andrea Chiorrini, Claudia Diamantini, Alex Mircoli and Domenico Potena

Department of Information Engineering, Polytechnic University of Marche, Ancona, Italy

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Abstract: This paper addresses the problem of quantifying the parallelism in a business process. Having a synthetic metric to quantify the parallelism of a process may provide an assessment of the complexity of the process and guide certain design choice. In the present paper we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of two metrics presented in the literature, as well of two novel metrics that leverage on the notion of Instance Graph. Analysis is performed by means of use cases that are representative of operational business processes. The proposed metrics show to provide a sensible way to evaluate the overall parallel complexity of a process model.

1 INTRODUCTION

A business process is a flow of related activities executed by people and/or machines to achieve a specific goal for a client. Activities can be executed sequentially, or in parallel, and cycles may exist as well. Business process modelling is a fundamental task in business management since it allows to design, analyse and improve process efficiency. Several metrics have been devised to measure relevant aspects of business processes (Radu Mateescu, 2014; Mao, 2010). Among them, one of particular interest is how much parallel a process is. It is acknowledged that increasing the number of activities performed in parallel is a way to improve the performance of a business process (Davenport, 1993), although this improvement comes at the cost of a more complex process design, development, and maintenance. Having a synthetic metric to quantify the parallelism of a process may thus provide an assessment of the process and guide certain design choices. In the literature, a widely adopted metric is the Degree of Parallelism (DoP), defined as the maximum number of parallel activities that can be executed in that process (Radu Mateescu, 2014; Sun and Su., 2011). In particular, (Sun and Su., 2011) proposes different algorithms to compute the DoP for three classes of BPMN processes. In (Radu Mateescu, 2014) it is observed that the DoP, theoretically, can be computed by determining the bound of a Petri net, which is the maximum number of tokens in a marking of the net. The computation of such bound requires the construction of the reachability graph, whose derivation is known to be an NP-complete problem or ever harder for some classes of Petri nets (Esparza, 1998; Mayr., 1984). A more efficient general procedure is then proposed for a wide class of BPMN processes, which exploits the notion of Labeled Transition System and model checking. An extension (Durán et al., 2018) considers timed business processes modeled in BPMN, where execution times are associated to BPMN constructs such as activities and flows. The DoP metric is concerned with the “worst” case scenario. Other metrics aimed at assessing the overall complexity of a business process are discussed in (Mao, 2010). In particular, it is argued that complexity of the parallelism of a process can be measured by the Average Degree of Transitions (ADT) which is the average number of incoming and outgoing arcs of transitions in a Petri net. In the present paper we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of these two metrics and we propose two novel metrics to measure the overall parallel complexity of a process by leveraging on the notion of Instance Graph (IG). We show that these two novel metrics manage to capture the advantages of both DoP and ADT and we discuss their pros and cons by means of use cases that are representative of operational business processes modelled by a class of Petri Nets called Workflow Nets (Aalst, 1997).

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: in Section 2 we briefly recall the notions of Petri Nets and IGs. Section 3 describes the set of processes considered as use cases for assessment purpose. Then, Section 4 is devoted to the definition and comparison of the reachability graph, whose derivation is known to be an NP-complete problem or ever harder for some classes of Petri nets (Esparza, 1998; Mayr., 1984). A more efficient general procedure is then proposed for a wide class of BPMN processes, which exploits the notion of Labeled Transition System and model checking. An extension (Durán et al., 2018) considers timed business processes modeled in BPMN, where execution times are associated to BPMN constructs such as activities and flows. The DoP metric is concerned with the “worst” case scenario. Other metrics aimed at assessing the overall complexity of a business process are discussed in (Mao, 2010). In particular, it is argued that complexity of the parallelism of a process can be measured by the Average Degree of Transitions (ADT) which is the average number of incoming and outgoing arcs of transitions in a Petri net. In the present paper we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of these two metrics and we propose two novel metrics to measure the overall parallel complexity of a process by leveraging on the notion of Instance Graph (IG). We show that these two novel metrics manage to capture the advantages of both DoP and ADT and we discuss their pros and cons by means of use cases that are representative of operational business processes modelled by a class of Petri Nets called Workflow Nets (Aalst, 1997).

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of DoP, ADT and the two novel metrics. Finally, Section 5 provides some final remarks and sketches future work.

2 PRELIMINARIES

A business process is a flow of related activities executed by people and/or machines to achieve a specific output for a client. Activities can be executed sequentially, in parallel and loops can exist. In the present paper we will focus on loop-free processes. A process model is a general description of the flow of activities. Several notations exist to describe a process model, like Petri nets (van der Aalst and van Hee, 1996), or BPMN (van der Aalst, 2018). In the following we will discuss the properties of the different metrics on a set of paradigmatic processes described in Petri nets notation.

Figure 1(a) shows a simple Petri net. Squares represent transitions, that is well-defined activities that have to be performed within the process. Circles represent places, that can be informally interpreted as resources or pre-conditions enabling transitions. The availability of a set of resources is denoted by a marking (the black dot in the figure). Arcs connecting places to transitions describe the set of resources that must be available in order to perform the activity, while arcs connecting transitions to places describe the set of resources enabled by the effect of activity execution. Hence, from the marking shown, only one between the activity \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) can be performed at each process execution (we say that \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \) are alternative choices). If \( t_1 \) is performed then \( t_3 \) and \( t_4 \) are both enabled, this represents an interleaving behaviour that allow to perform in parallel the two activities. Finally, their execution enables \( t_5 \) which ends the process. Note that we focus on operational business processes, that are represented by a sub-class of Petri nets called Workflow nets (WF-net). A WF-net has one start place, one end place, and all transitions and all places are on a path from start to end.

A specific execution of the process generates a so-called process instance, which is the partially ordered set of activities that are performed to achieve the completion of a single execution of a process. A process instance can be modelled by an IG. In an IG each node represents an activity, and an edge between activity A and activity B denotes the existence of a causal relation between A and B, namely the fact that B cannot be executed until A is terminated; in other words, the execution of B depends on the execution of A. For a more formal definition of IGs and causal relations see (van Dongen and van der Aalst, 2004). The IG corresponding to the upper part of the Petri net in Figure 1(a) (marked by a square) is shown in 1(b), while the IG for the lower part is simply a node labelled \( t_2 \). In an IG, all control-flow structures are represented except for choices. This is obvious, since in each single execution choices have already been made. Activities that can be done in parallel within one instance can be executed in any order. As a consequence, an IG is representative of one or more variants that differ exactly in the interleaving of parallel activities. The variants for the IG in Figure 1(b) are reported in Figure 1(c).

The relation between an IG and its underlying variants is the basic property underpinning the development of the metrics proposed in this work.

3 USE CASES DESCRIPTION

In this section we introduce 7 use cases, in the form of Petri nets. Although simple, these processes have been designed to capture some paradigmatic situations allowing to enlighten the properties of the different metrics, and can be easily scaled. Table 1 describes the characteristics of the processes. The processes are shown in Figures 2-8. In particular, we designed use case 1 (Fig. 2), as a simple starting base case to compare the added structural complexity of the other models with it. Use case 2, (Fig. 3) only adds to use case 1 a sequence of transitions after the parallelism. Hence, for this model, it is desirable that a metric lowers its score. Concerning use case 3 (Fig. 4), we designed it to highlight the opposite behaviour: it is basically a sequence of two use case 1, so it would be reasonable to see an increase in the metric score. Use case 4 (Fig. 5), has been designed so to compare it with both use cases 2 and 3. We expect to see an increased score w.r.t. the former, while it is more difficult to compare the quantity of parallelism with the latter. Indeed, use case 4 has a greater number of ac-
4 Metrics for Process Parallelism Evaluation

4.1 Metrics based on Model Perspective

In this subsection we introduce two popular metrics, whose values are calculated directly from the structure of the process.

4.1.1 Average Degree of Transition

The Average Degree of Transition (ADT) has been introduced in the context of Petri net-based business process as a mean to measure control flow parallel complexity (Mao, 2010). It is defined as:

\[
ADT = \frac{\sum_{t \in T} \text{deg}(t)}{|T|}
\]

(1)

where \( T \) is the set of all transitions in the Petri net, and \( \text{deg}: T \rightarrow N \) is the function that associates to a transition the number of its incoming and outgoing arcs. It is relevant to notice that such metric assumes values in \([2; +\infty)\), a value of 2 represents a purely sequential process whereas bigger values indicate the presence of more parallelism. As examples, considering use case 1 we can compute the ADT as \(10/4 = 2.5\) whereas for the use case 2 it is \(16/7 = 2.29\).

4.1.2 Degree of Parallelism

The most commonly used metric to quantify the parallelism of a process is the maximum number of activities that can be executed in parallel, called Degree of Parallelism (DoP). It is computed by evaluating the number of activities enabled by a marking of the Petri net. For examples, for the use case 1 the value of DoP is 2 due to the marking \(\langle p_1, p_3\rangle\) which enables both transitions \(t_2\) and \(t_4\); for the process in Figure 5 the DoP is 3 since the marking \(\langle p_1, p_6, p_8\rangle\) enables the maximum number of transitions, namely \(t_2, t_7\) and \(t_8\). Techniques to calculate the DoP have been proposed in (Radu Mateescu, 2014; Sun and Su., 2011).

4.1.3 Comparison between DoP and ADT

First of all we notice that as the DoP calculate a maximum parallelism, it is hence suited to assess peak behaviours, whereas ADT shows a more comprehensive average complexity of the process. In order to highlight this fact, let us consider use cases 2 and 3. The value of the DoP metric is 2 for both processes, but the latter clearly shows a more complex behaviour due to the presence of a second parallelism. This is captured by ADT whose value is increased from 2.29 to 2.5. Clearly DoP is able to capture the difference between processes in Figures 3 and 5 passing from 2 to 3. ADT also detect the increased complexity, although with a slightly minor relative increment passing from 2.29 to 2.5. We remark that the ADT metric returns the same value for use cases 3 and 4, demonstrating that ADT is unable to capture the increased complexity inherent to a parallelism with a higher number of parallel activities. The values of DoP and ADT metrics for all the use cases are shown in the last two columns of Table 2. The limits discussed for the two metrics motivated us to focus on a different aspect of a process model to define a metric. Specifically, in the following subsection we describe two metrics which take into account the number of variants represented by an IG.

4.2 Metrics based on Instance Graphs

We can say that each IG represents a specific set of parallel branches that exist in the process and that the parallel complexity of such set is as high as the number of variants represented by the IG. On this basis we introduce a metric called Parallel Complexity, and a scaled variant, designed to overcome the limits of both ADT and DoP being more sensitive to both overall and maximum parallelism.

4.2.1 Parallel Complexity (PC)

This metric is defined as:

\[
PC = \frac{|V|}{|IG|} - 1
\]

(2)

where \(|V|\) is the number of distinct variants allowed by the process model and \(|IG|\) is the number of distinct IGs that represents those variants. The minus 1...
Table 1: Use case descriptions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use case 1</td>
<td>a process with 2 parallel activities (simple parallelism)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use case 2</td>
<td>a process with 2 parallel activities followed by a sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use case 3</td>
<td>a process with a sequence of 2 simple parallelisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use case 4</td>
<td>a process with 3 parallel activities followed by a sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use case 5</td>
<td>a process with two parallel sequences followed by a further sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use case 6</td>
<td>use case 5 with a synchronisation between activities $t_7$ and $t_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use case 7</td>
<td>a process with an alternative choice between use case 1 and use case 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

is a scaling parameter used to reduce to 0 the Parallel Complexity in case of strictly sequential processes. Given a process model, the set of IGs can be easily obtained by a two-step procedure. First, the variants of a process are generated (play-out). Then, using causal relations of the model, an IG is generated for each variant. Computing such metric for the provided use cases, we can see that the metric shows an hybrid behaviour with respect to DoP and ADT, i.e., it is sensitive to both overall parallelism and maximum parallelism. On the one hand, as regards the use cases 2 and 3 we can notice that PC scores respectively 1 and 3 managing to reflect the increased overall parallelism as ADT does, but DoP does not. On the other hand, for use cases 3 and 4, PC takes the values 3 and 5 respectively, highlighting the difference between the two examples as DoP does but ADT does not. Agreeing behaviours are displayed considering use cases 2 and 4 as both ADT and DoP detect the increment. However, it should be noted that PC scores a bigger relative increase. Indeed, the percentage increment of ADT, DoP and PC are 9.2%, 50% and 400%, respectively. This is due to the fact that adding a branch to a parallelism does not increase linearly its complexity as the possible actual executions of such parallelism grow combinatorially. A relevant advantage of the PC metric is shown comparing use case 6 with use case 5. The former adds to the latter a synchronisation place $p_9$ which locks the execution of $t_3$ to $t_7$, therefore reducing the existing parallelism. In this situation, ADT, instead of a reduction, even scores an increment due to the arcs used to connect $p_9$. DoP ignore the change altogether. On the contrary we note that PC correctly reflects the change passing from 5 of Figure 6 to 4 of Figure 7. A similar situation is displayed by use cases 3 and 5, where ADT lowers its value instead of increasing it. Use case in Figure 8 shows that PC also works well if choices exist in the process model, giving rise to more than one IG. Since this use case is composed by a choice between 1 and 5, PC correctly returns a score of 3 which is the average of its values for these two use cases. A similar behaviour is displayed by ADT and DoP values. The main limit of PC is that it doesn’t scale well with respect to process length. To explain the point, let us consider use cases 1 and 2. The former shows a higher overall parallelism, since a larger portion of process 2 is strictly sequential. Instead, PC values for both processes is 1, whereas this difference is captured by ADT. This motivates the introduction of a scaled variant of the PC.

### 4.2.2 Scaled Parallel Complexity (SPC)

In order to overcome the described limit of the proposed metric, we devised a scaling mechanism that takes into account the number of activities.

$$SPC = \frac{PC}{(|T| - |S|)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $|T|$ is the total number of transitions in the model and $|S|$ is the number of transitions that have more than one outgoing or incoming arcs. They in fact represent the point where a parallel branch starts (AND split) and where a parallel branch synchronises (AND merge) respectively. From equation (2) we can also write $SPC$ as:

$$SPC = \frac{|V| - |IG|}{|IG|(|T| - |S|)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)
We can see from Table 2 that this new metric maintains all the good behaviours that PC has. It also displays the desired behaviour that PC does not have: when considering use cases 1 and 2, we can note that SPC decreases as required thanks to the scaling factor that takes into account the presence of the sequence in use case 2. We also notice that this scaling leads to smaller relative increment with respect to PC. In contrast to PC, when considering use case 7 we see that SPC fails to produce a coherent value. Indeed, use case 7 is a process with an alternative choice between use case 1 and use case 5. Nevertheless, SPC score drops to 0.375 which is not in the range of scores for use cases 1 and 5. This is due to how the scaling is implemented. Currently the mechanism considers all transitions in the process model even though the number of transitions in the derived IG could be far less. This is because an IG only displays the activities from one of the optional branches of the process. This over-reduces the score by over-estimating the denominator of SPC formula.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper addresses the problem of evaluating the level of parallelism in a business process. We discuss the limits of the two best known metrics in the literature and we introduce the Process Complexity metric, and its scaled variant, based on the notion of Instance Graph. The idea underlying the proposed metric is that the parallel complexity of a process linearly depends on the number of distinct variants allowed by each IG, representing the possible executions of the process. This metric provides a sensible way to evaluate the overall complexity of the process model due to the number and structural relations among parallel activities. None of the metrics, on the other hand, is fully satisfactory showing some incoherent behaviours with respect to the number of activities or the presence of alternative branches. One possible conclusion is that more than one metric should be taken into account when evaluating the parallelism of a process. The results are not conclusive as they have been obtained on a set of synthetic use cases. Future works will be devoted to confirm the result both theoretically and empirically on a larger set of process models. Another research direction is toward the introduction of different scaling mechanisms that takes the length of a sequence of activities into due consideration.
REFERENCES


