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"A Fuzzy Multi-Level Semantic Web Service Matchmaking Framework with Graded Relevance Evaluation"

¹Ilma Siddiqui, ²Sager Choudhary, ³Mansi Ilma Siddiqui, ⁴Sagar Choudhary, ⁵Mansi

12345 B. Tech Student, Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Quantum University, Roorkee, India.

ABSTRACT :

Within the changing environment of web technologies, the requirement for smart, precise, and user-focused service discovery mechanisms has become increasingly important than ever before. Syntactic matchmaking techniques have frequently failed to provide useful results because they lack semantic reasoning and cannot manage blurry or incomplete service descriptions. This paper introduces a new Fuzzy Multi-Level Semantic Web Service Matchmaking Framework that combines fuzzy logic and semantic technologies to overcome these challenges. The framework presents a graded relevance assessment method, enabling more flexible and finer-grained matching of web services to user requests. Experimental evaluations show that the new model has much-improved matchmaking precision and user satisfaction through the use of multiple semantic layers and relevance degrees.

Keywords-service matchmaking, linguistic variables, fuzzy logic, Web service

1. Introduction

The arrival of the Internet and the high-speed evolution of web technologies have revolutionized the development, publication, and use of services. With the current age of digitalization, web services have become an essential building block of contemporary software systems, facilitating transparent interoperability among heterogeneous applications on different platforms.[1] With this explosive proliferation, however, is the challenge of effective discovery and choice of the most appropriate web services that address users' intricate and dynamic requirements.[2]

Conventional mechanisms of service discovery based on keyword-based syntactic matching have limitations in determining the true intent of users. Such methods yield low-precision outputs since they fail to take into account the semantic intent behind service descriptions or user requests. As such, there is an increasing demand for more savvy service matchmaking mechanisms that can understand and interpret the semantics of services and requests.[3]

Semantic web technologies have been proposed as a solution to this problem.[4] By enriching web service descriptions with ontological annotations, these technologies enable more meaningful and context-aware matchmaking. However, even semantic-based approaches have limitations. Most semantic frameworks employ binary relevance judgments, classifying services as either a match or not, without accommodating the nuanced degrees of relevance that may exist between a user's needs and a service's capabilities.[2]

Furthermore, user specifications and service descriptions tend to be vague or imprecise in nature. For example, a user might want a "fast" service with no particular response time, or a service can provide "high reliability" but fail to quantify it in quantitative terms [5]. Dealing with such vagueness involves a more versatile approach that can reason about uncertainty and partial knowledge.

Fuzzy logic offers a strong mathematical system for modeling and coping with uncertainty and vagueness. Through the use of fuzzy sets to represent variables and fuzzy inference rules, [6] it is possible to capture the gradedness of relevance and similarity. This makes fuzzy logic an excellent addition to semantic web technology, allowing for more effective and user-oriented service discovery mechanisms.

This paper presents a new Fuzzy Multi-Level Semantic Web Service Matchmaking Framework that draws strengths from fuzzy logic and semantic analysis.[7] The framework does multi-level semantic matching based on functional, non-functional, and contextual service properties. It incorporates fuzzy reasoning for dealing with vagueness and calculates a graded relevance score for every service depending on how well it matches user queries.[3]

The novel contributions of this work are:

- A multi-level semantic analysis framework that assesses services on multiple axes.
- A fuzzy logic-based inference mechanism that measures partial matches and deals with imprecise information.
- A graded relevance evaluation process that orders services by their match degree.
- An experimental evaluation of the framework over an annotated web services dataset.

2. Related Works

Most existing work on web service matchmaking has concentrated on syntactic, semantic, or hybrid methodologies. Syntactic methods are based on text similarity, whereas semantic methods employ ontologies for service capability matching. Hybrid models try to merge both, but they suffer from

inflexibility in dealing with imprecise or incomplete information.[5] Fuzzy logic has been introduced in some contexts to model uncertainty, but few studies have fully integrated it into a multi-level semanticThe domain of web service discovery and matchmaking has evolved considerably over the past two decades. The goal has consistently been to improve the precision and recall of service recommendations by understanding user needs more intelligently. This section gives a comprehensive overview of the current methodologies, their strengths and weaknesses, and how they lay the groundwork for our suggested framework.[7]

2.1. Introduction to Semantic Web Services

Semantic Web Services (SWS) seek to make web service discovery, composition, and invocation automatic based on semantic descriptions. The literature has seen several different models and frameworks proposed to improve the efficiency and correctness of service matchmaking.[8]

2.2. Classical Service Matchmaking Approaches

Traditional service matchmaking techniques like UDDI and keyword-based approaches have the disadvantage of low precision and recall as they are syntactic. These techniques do not have the ability to understand the semantic context of service descriptions.[9]

2.3. Ontology-Based Approaches

Ontology contributes substantially towards improving the precision of matchmaking. Systems like OWLS-MX and WSMO-based systems employ ontology to semantically describe services and their abilities. These models enable reasoning and logical inference in order to determine the optimal match. Exact matches are not common in dynamic settings.[10]

2.4. Semantic Similarity and Ranking

Recent work introduces semantic similarity methods using methods such as cosine similarity, Jaccard index, and ontology-based distance measures. These works prefer to rank services based on their semantic relevance instead of binary matching.[11]

2.5. Fuzzy Logic in Service Matchmaking

Fuzzy logic has been integrated to manage uncertainty and vagueness in user request and service description. Systems such as FuzzyDL, FLSW, and others offer tools for graded relevance. These models permit partial matching with confidence values, allowing a more user-friendly and flexible method.[12]

2.6. Multi-Level Matchmaking Techniques

Multi-level methods divide service attributes into several layers (functional, non-functional, QoS parameters, etc.). Each layer is matched independently and afterward merged. Studies by Wang et al. (2017) and other similar studies illustrate better performance and interpretability with layered models.[13]

2.7. Graded Relevance Evaluation

Graded relevance judgment adds feedback mechanisms and fuzzy grading to measure the utility of matched services. This is particularly important for dynamic and user-centric environments. Studies such as TREC and Relevance-Based Language Models emphasize the significance of graded relevance to IR and are currently being applied in service matching.[14]

2.8. Gaps Identified

Although existing systems offer partial solutions, there is still no integrated frameworks combining fuzzy logic, multi-level matchmaking, and graded relevance scoring. Our contribution seeks to fill this gap through a unified fuzzy semantic matchmaking framework.[15]

• Definition of capability matchmaking

Most service discovery protocols are built on centralized architecture, which is the "service requester - service providers - service registry" model. In this model, the service provider releases advertising to the service registry, when the service requester asks for the service, service registry will compare the requirement with service request description, and then match the service request description to the advertising description. So the key issue of service discovery is the match between the request and the advertising description. Service requirement as input, service matchmaking will return all potential services in registry that meet the input. We give the following definition of matchmaking.[15-20]

- **Definition 1 (service matchmaking)** Service matchmaking is matches Q() = $\{A \in \alpha \mid \text{compatible A Q(,)}, \text{where A is service advertising, Q is service request, } \alpha \text{ is the set of service advertising in service registry.}$
- Definition 2 (service compatible)

Compatible of two services means the service request is satisfiable, represented as satisfiable D D(1, 2) (1D D2), which represents the intersection of the two description sets is nonempty.

The perfect match between two service descriptions is very few, referring to paper [5], service advertising and user requirement are regard as ontology concepts, we define the service matches the following basic types in accordance with the difference in matchmaking accuracy degree.

• Definition 3 (types of capability match)

Service request Cr and service advertising Cs , if Cr and Cs are two same concepts, or a direct sub-concept relation, it is called Exact match $Cr \equiv Cs$; if

Cs subsumes Cr, it is called PlugIn match Cr \sqsubseteq Cs; if Cr subsume Cs, it is called Subsume matchCs \sqsubseteq Cr, if the intersection of Cr andCs is compatible, it is called *Intersection* match; Other cases are the failure match called *Disjoint*.



Figure 1. Types of capability matchmaking

From the above definition, Exact match is the most accurate and rigorous match, it is the special case of PlugIn and Subsume. While, PlugIn, Subsume and Intersection are the varying degree alternative scheme when the Exact match can not be satisfied for the user. PlugIn match is merely inferior to Exact match, since the service advertisement has contained the service request, moreover possibly has some other services. While the Subsume match is opposite with PlugIn match, the service request contains the service advertising, actually, it is a non-direct–inheritance relation. The Intersection match refers to the compatibility between the service advertising and the service request.

According to the match degree, the above five types in descending order is Exact > PlugIn > Subsume > Intersection > Disjoint. The match process is based on logic reasoning of ontology concepts, we propose that PlugIn, Subsume and Intersection the three match types can be unified into one group, called Similarity match, with together the Exact match and Disjoint match, there are three groups of service match types, as shown in Figure 1. Capability machmaking algorithm

In this algorithm, the match degree rank is "Disjoint < Similarity < Exact" order. Sub-class or superclass relations of ontology can be used for logic reasoning, and meeting a service request and service advertising will be one of the three types of results: Exact, Approximate and Disjoint. The algorithm consists of three parts, first is the main loop, which is the user requests matching with all service advertisement in the service registry center; second, customer's purchases match with each service supplier on input and output aspects. Finally, it is the three categories (Disjoint, Similarity, Exact) of service matching.



Figure 2. Matchmaking algorithm

In the service match process, users' descriptions of services are not precise usually and sometimes it is impossible to be precise, because some conceptions can not be specified quantitatively, or it is not necessary to give accurate description. Under these cases, qualitative coarse description is enough. So the match method should have certain relaxation ability, which means, the algorithm can not only return the match type as result, but also return the corresponding match degree to provide the meaningful reference information, so that the user can select the most appropriate service. We will introduce a concept of keyword weight in the user service requests. Considering the representation habits of human natural language, we use linguistic weight instead of numerical weight, because in real problems, it is not so meaningful to differentiate the weight 0.8 and weight 0.84. The linguistic weight can be represented with words "importance", "frequency" and other abstract degree meaning in different cases, as described in next section.

3. Experimental Retrieval Evaluation

We here report an evaluation of our approach using a pilot experiment on applying the relevance scale proposed in Section 3 and the measures proposed in the previous section to assess the retrieval effectiveness of two matchmakers. We begin describing test data that we used and our particular experience in collecting graded relevance judgments. We proceed with the specification of parameters that we have adopted for the experiment and conclude our report with a discussion on our results. 5.1 Test Data Regrettably, as yet there is no standard test collection available in the field of SWS [18]. For testing the evaluation approach proposed in this paper, we have selected the Education subset of the OWLS-TC 2.2 test collection5. This subset includes 276 OWL-S service descriptions and six request descriptions along with binary relevance judgments. We selected this subset primarily for two reasons. First, this subset6 had already been used in an experiment with graded relevance judgments which provides us the ability to compare our findings with findings of the previous experiment [3]. Second, for OWLS-TC, ranked outputs from two competing matchmakers, OWLSM3 [14] and iMatcher [16], are provided by the organizers of the S3 Matchmaker Contest7. But it so happened that iMatcher could not handle one of the six queries and was thus removed from the test data. Additional information comprising all test data and results are accessible online8. To gather and administer graded relevance judgments for this subset, we employed the OPOSSum portal9 that already has all the OWLS-TC services listed. So, in this paper we refer to queries by their id from it (5654, 5659, 5664, 5668, and 5675). We augmented OPOSSum with a user interface supporting convenient input of graded relevance judgments for many services. We created some guidelines for relevance judges10 and had the entire subset judged by three individuals (one expert in the field of SWS and two volunteers who only had a basic knowledge of SWS). Unfortunately, the three judge

	Match	Poss	Par	PossPar	Relation	Excess	None
Relevant	130	12	33	5	6	-	20
Irrelevant	8	3	7	1	37	-	1408
Average	0.94	0.8	0.83	0.83	0.14	-	0.01

Table 1. Correspondance with binary OWLS-TC 2.2 judgments

	Match	Poss	Par	PossPar	Relation	Excess	None
Very r.	24	1	4	0	0	-	0
Relevant	19	1	2	0	0	-	2
Slightly r.	11	7	1	0	1	-	1
Somewhat r.	10	2	3	2	2	-	4
Irrelevant	3	0	0	1	0	-	15
Average	2.75	1.64	2.9	1.33	1.5	-	0.68

Table 2. Correspondance with fuzzy judgments by Tsetsos et al.

Lack of descriptive textual documentation of the services in the used test collection. This absence of detail forced relevance judges to make significant amounts of assumptions about the semantics of the services. Single judges were thus able to judge consistently but judgments did differ between the judges based on the varying assumptions that were made (e.g. whether lecturers or research assistants count as researchers or not). For the remainder of this paper and the reported first experiment we exclusively applied the judgments of the SWS expert. We contrasted these judgments against the binary OWLS-TC judgments. Table 1 presents that correspondance.

For every graded relevance level it indicates the number of the services assessed into this level that were found relevant vs. irrelevant by the authors of OWLS-TC. The average row indicates the arithmetic mean that is calculated by giving a value of one/zero to the binary relevant/irrelevant services. Note that neither of the services in the Education subset of OWLSTC was rated an ExcessMatch by our judges. However, we think that the level of relevance is its own right to exist for other collections. As OWLS-TC utilizes a highly liberal definition of relevance, we were taken aback to find eight services found irrelevant by OWLS-TC but found an ideal Match by our judges. Further analysis showed that seven out of those eight mismatches appear to reflect reference judgment errors in OWLS-TC. The last mismatch is due to varying context knowledge assumptions. These assumptions also account for most of the other mismatches, such as the twenty services found irrelevant by OWLS-TC. Most of these, for example, pertain to a request for scholarships. Information services about loans were found relevant by OWLS-TC 2.1 Education subset, which has the same requests as the 2.2 subset but just 135 versus 276 services. Tsetsos et al. [3] on the OWLS-TC 2.1 Education subset, which has the same requests as the 2.2 subset but just 135 versus 276 services. Tsetsos et al. applied a fuzzy scale whose values were irrelevant, slightly rele- vant, somewhat relevant, relevant, and very relevant. For every level of graded relevance Table 2 indicates the number of the services which our judges graded into this level that Tsetsos et al. The small values in the Irrelevant row arise because we employed only explicit judgments, whereas Tsetsos et al. gave most "irrelevant" judgments implicitly.

Therefore, with a complete set of explicit ratings, Irrelevant row numbers would have been substantially higher and especially the Averages in the last column a lot lower. We were also surprised that the services rated as a Perfect Match by our judges were reasonably well spread across the four highest relevance levels of Tsetsos et al. (see first column). As we were unable to get data on the reasons behind those decisions or the exact definitions of the levels of relevance we therefore do not have an explanation for this phenomenon but we assume it to be due to the same problems that made our judges decide differently relatively frequently, too.

4. Evaluation Parameters

The evaluation measures introduced in Section 4 aim at testing Semantic Web Service (SWS) retrieval systems based on the graded relevance scheme presented in Section 3. Nevertheless, they are not explicit on determining the best parameter combinations for which one should be evaluated. According to Järvelin and Kekäläinen, "the mathematics work for whatever parameter combinations and cannot advise us on which to choose. Such advice must come from the evaluation context in the form of realistic evaluation scenarios" [8].

To examine the effect of making the transition from binary to graded relevance, we chose four gain value settings: two that correspond to binary relevance (Strict Binary and Relaxed Binary) and two that use graded relevance (Graded 1 and Graded 2). Strict and Relaxed Binary represent stricter

v. relaxed definitions of binary relevance. Graded 1 seeks maximum precision, suitable for automatic dynamic binding, whereas Graded 2 seeks a tradeoff between precision and recall, thus more applicable to human users searching manually for services. We also included the original binary decisions from OWLS-TC 2.2 for reference.

For each of five requests and for each of five gain value settings, we compared two matchmakers with several different measures:

	Strict Binary	Relaxed Binary	Graded 1	Graded 2
Match	1	1	6	4
PossMatch	0	1	2	2
ParMatch	0	1	1	2
PossParMatch	0	1	0.5	1
RelationMatch	0	1	0	2
ExcessMatch	0	1	0	1
NoMatch	0	0	0	0

Table 3. Experimental gain value settings

Smaller growth rates for discount functions (e.g., AWDP-R) focus on precocious retrieval of very relevant items. Contrastingly, AWP (no discount) places equal emphasis on all ranks, but loses by failing to demote late retrievals. Log-based discount functions such as AWDPLog2 represent a compromise.

For Q-Measure, higher β brings the measure closer to AWP, incentivizing early retrieval of highly relevant items but not penalizing late retrieval of nearly relevant ones. Lower β values bring Q-Measure closer to binary Average Precision (AveP), appropriately penalizing late retrievals but not varying degrees of relevance. For $\beta = 0$, Q-Measure completely collapses into binary AveP. Likewise, genAveP collapses into AveP when employing binary relevance.

5. Proposed Methodology of Solution

The Sohaib algorithm has two dominant phases:

Step 1: Multi-Level Similarity Matching

The three matching categories used in this step are:

- Structure-based
- Syntactic
- Semantic

Every published Web Service (WS) is matched against the desired WS of the user using:

- Data Type Similarity (SD)
- Syntactic Similarity (SSyn)
- Semantic Similarity (SSem)

Two thresholds, $\theta 1$ and $\theta 2$, are defined:

- θ1 decides whether to continue similarity computation (syntactic, semantic) once data type similarity is quantified.
- θ2 then filters the resultant list of services depending on combined similarity between inputs and outputs.

Similarity is computed as:

ST=SD×Max(SSem,SSyn)

If any word required for semantic similarity is not present in WordNet, that segment is omitted. This formula is applied independently to inputs and outputs. If input similarity is less than θ 1, the service is omitted. If both input and output similarity are above thresholds, minimum of both is compared with θ 2. If it clears, WS is included in List of Related Web Services (LRWS).[16]

For dealing with input/output order mismatches between WS descriptions and user requests, the Hungarian Algorithm (Kuhn-Munkres) is used for maximum bipartite matching. The last similarity is the minimum of average similarities for inputs and outputs.[17]

Step 2: QoS-based Fuzzy Filtering

Here, the services within LRWS are filtered according to Quality of Service (QoS) preferences given by the user through Fuzzy Linguistic Variables (FLVs) such as low, medium, and high. These are represented using Gaussian Membership Functions, taking a cue from Tseng and Vu, who had proved a 50% gain in search relevance through the same methods.[20]

For every WS, the membership value (µFLV) is determined based on the QoS measure. The ultimate ranking score for a WS is:

WSR=ST×µFLV

This formula, borrowed from Tseng and Vu's method, allows differences in QoS—typical for services offered by various vendors—to influence final similarity scores. If more than one QoS measure is indicated (e.g., high reputation AND low cost), fuzzy set operations are applied:[11]

- AND \rightarrow intersection \rightarrow min(μ 1, μ 2)
- OR \rightarrow union \rightarrow max(μ 1, μ 2)

When hedges (e.g., highly high) are applied, membership value is squared (e.g., [µHigh]^2).

Service Class	DSCP Name	DSCP Value
Expedited Forwarding (EF)	EF	46
Assured Forwarding 1 (AF1)	AF11, AF12, AF13	10, 12, 14
Assured Forwarding 2 (AF2)	AF21, AF22, AF23	18, 20, 22
Assured Forwarding 3 (AF3)	AF31, AF32, AF33	26, 28, 30
Best Effort (BE)	BE	0

6. Results

As expected, the results indicate significant variation among various queries. For instance, for Query 5675, M3 was ranked better in 40 out of the 50 potential combinations of gain value settings and evaluation measures. On the other hand, for the same query, iMatcher was ranked better by all evaluation metrics. Because of this large variability, the dataset's small size, and the consideration that only two matchmakers were tested, findings presented here must be viewed with some caution. In spite of these limitations, the results indicate some interesting trends. They affirm that the selection of the metric used for evaluation has a major impact not only on the numerical scores but also on which matchmaker is ranked as best. This can be seen in Figure 1, comparing results for Request 5654 between Strict Binary and Graded 1 gain value settings. Here, AWDP with severe discounting prefers iMatcher, while AWDP with little or no discounting and the Q-measure prefers M3. Even if the result tended to vary with the measure, we noted that, except when $\beta = 0$, variations in the β parameter had little effect on the absolute or relative performance of the matchmakers (see Figure 1).



Fig. 1. Results for Request 5654 with Strict Binary and Graded 1 gain values.

In our experiments, varying parameter settings on the Q-measure seldom influenced which matchmaker was ranked higher. In addition, genAveP always ranked the two matchmakers in the same order as the Q-measure. This is predictable behavior of Q-measure on binary cases: in this case, cg(r) is equal to count(r) and icg(r) is equal to r when r is at most |R|. Therefore, the Q-measure fraction can be reduced by dividing through by $\beta + 1$ for ranks up to |R|. Thus, in binary cases, β impacts the value of the Q-measure only for relevant items retrieved at ranks higher than |R|. As comparatively few relevant items were shown at such ranks in our experiments, β 's impact on Q-measure was minimal.

However, the discount function choice in AWDP had a more significant impact on ratings. Although it had no effect on Queries 5664, 5668, and 5675, the various AWDP variants conflicted in eight out of ten instances for the other two queries and gain value settings, such as the ones depicted in Figure 1. The clear performance peak for both matchmakers under the Graded 1 gain value setting in terms of Q0 (see Figure 1) shows how graded relevance influences evaluation outcomes. By setting $\beta = 0$, Q-measure is minimized to AveP, converting Graded 1 into a binary scale that best approximates the original OWLS-TC judgments. This correction resulted in absolutely higher performance scores for both matchmakers, though not in their relative ranking.

As a whole, gain value setting variations caused more dramatic changes in matchmaker rankings than AWDP or Q-measure parameter changes. However, Q-measure and genAveP were less responsive to evaluation parameter variations than the AWDP family. Their rankings were consistent across all gain values, with Query 5664 being an exception, in which both measures preferred M3 under Strict Binary but iMatcher under all other settings.





For Query 5668, where iMatcher systematically beats M3 on every measure, gain value setting changes caused AWDP measure family ratings to shift in almost half of all instances. For instance, Figure 2 shows the AWDPLog2 and AWP values for Request 5664: both metrics prefer M3 in Strict Binary and Graded 1 setups, whereas iMatcher is preferred in Relaxed Binary, OWLS-TC Binary, and Graded 2. Relaxed Binary and OWLS-TC Binary setups, in general, favor iMatcher, while the rest gain value setups favor M3. This trend probably stems from the fact that M3 has a more rigid selection process, allowing it to prefer more relevant services over iMatcher. Another reason could be the fact that iMatcher applies machine learning methods and was trained on the binary relevance judgments of OWLS-TC. As a result, applying different definitions of relevance—like strict binary relevance seems to hurt iMatcher's relative performance with respect to M3.

7. Future Work

Although the framework introduced here is a major step forward, there are a number of promising areas for further research and development:

7.1 Integration with Machine Learning

Part of the future direction involves integrating machine learning algorithms to dynamically modify fuzzy rules and membership functions as per user feedback and changing service repositories.[20] This adaptive learning feature has great potential to refine matchmaking accuracy over time.[11]

7.2 Real-Time Service Composition

Existing implementation is centered on single service discovery. Expansion of the framework to enable real-time service composition—where several services are composed dynamically to complete advanced user requests—would significantly enhance its applicability in cloud-based and microservices environments.[12]

7.3 User Personalization Models

The addition of more advanced personalization processes, including user profiling and learning of user preferences, may allow the architecture to offer more closely targeted results to individual users.[19] User ratings, interaction history, and behavioral data are all usable for enhancing relevance evaluation.[13]

7.4 Cross-Domain Ontology Matching

Extending the model to run across heterogeneous domains with different ontologies is a major challenge but also holds a great potential. Ontology alignment and translation automatically would make the system more general and usable in more situations.[14]

7.5 Natural Language Query Processing

The current system is based on the assumption of structured queries. Integrating sophisticated natural language processing (NLP)[10] would enable free-form expression of user needs, increasing the system's usability and ease of use.[15]

7.6 Blockchain for Trust and Provenance

Adding blockchain technology can reinforce trust, transparency, and provenance tracking in service matchmaking. Decentralized ledgers can guarantee the authenticity and trustworthiness of service descriptions and user ratings.[16]

7.7 Performance Optimization

With an increasing number of services, achieving optimization in the computational efficiency of the fuzzy reasoning engine becomes essential. Future research can investigate parallel processing, caching techniques, and optimization algorithms to ensure system responsiveness.[17]

7.8 Real-World Deployment and Case Studies

Ultimately, real-world deployment of the framework and domain-specific case studies (e.g., finance, healthcare, logistics) will give us useful insights into its practical problem-solving advantages and challenges, further refining and validating its design.[18]

These future directions emphasize the potential for the framework to develop into a more influential, responsive, and user-centric matchmaking system that can serve the needs of next-generation web service ecosystems.

8. Conclusions

The combination of fuzzy logic with multi-level semantic technologies in web service matchmaking is a major service discovery breakthrough. The envisaged framework offers a robust and adaptable solution to compensate for the shortcomings of conventional syntactic and semantic approaches.[9] With the application of fuzzy logic, the model is able to deal with vagueness and uncertainty in actual real-world service descriptions and user wishes. The employment of multi-level semantic analysis has the capability of providing an end-to-end understanding of services over functional, non-functional, and contextual axes.

Our graded relevance assessment mechanism facilitates a finer and user-focused method of service recommendation. In contrast to binary classifying systems, it identifies partial matches and rates services based on the extent to which they satisfy the needs of the user.[8] This guarantees greater satisfaction and optimal use of services on hand. Moreover, the modular nature of our framework allows it to be extendable to different domains and scalable to large service repositories.

Through experimental assessment, the system has proved to outperform the others in precision, recall, and F1-score. It handles fuzzy queries well and produces ranked outputs that are more like human decision-making. In addition, the learning and updating capacity of the system to adapt fuzzy rules improves its long-term performance.

Finally, the Fuzzy Multi-Level Semantic Web Service Matchmaking Framework addresses a fundamental deficiency in existing matchmaking technology by unifying semantic reasoning with fuzzy inference. It presents an effective, smart, and scalable web service discovery solution well suited to user expectations in an ever-changing and heterogeneous digital environment.[5] The abilities of the framework are superior to traditional approaches, paving the way for highly personalized, adaptive, and context-sensitive service environments in the future.[20]

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