

Master Thesis

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Semantic Preserving Transformations from ATLAS Testcase Descriptions to Teststand Sequences

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Contents

Acronyms

- **AEEC** Airlines Electronic Engeneering Committe
- **API** Application Programming Interface
- **ARINC** Aeronautical Radio Inc
- **ATE** Automatic Test Enviroments
- **ATLAS** Abbreviated Test Language for All Systems
- **CMM** Component Maintenance Manual
- **GUI** Graphical User Interface
- **IEEE** Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers
- **LHT** Lufthansa Technik AG
- **NI** National Instruments
- **OEM** Original Equipment Manufacturer
- **TSN** Test Step Number
- **TUA** Test Unit Adapter
- **TXL** Turin eXtender Language
- **UUT** Unit Under Test

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1 Introduction

This work transforms ATLAS test cases to TestStand sequences using TXL. In consideration of preserving the semantics the test software is migrated into TestStand using robust parsing techniques and the method is evaluated by means of a case study.

1.1 Motivation

All modern aircraft types consist of many electronic flight computers, a Fly-By-Wire system. The aircraft manufacturer like Airbus and Boeing are subcontracting the development and production of these components, so an airline has to deal with lots of companies for the maintenance. In this market segment Maintenance, Repair and Overhaul (MRO) companies like Lufthansa Technik AG (LHT) provide a complete maintenance solution for all aircraft components for airlines.

To repair and certify a flight component a test according to the manufacturer specification is mandatory. Historically the test specification is often provided as Abbreviated Test Language for All Systems (ATLAS). The development of the test language ATLAS started in 1967. The purpose of the original version (ARINC Specification 416) was an application and documentation language for manual and automatic testing of airline avionics. It was designed to describe both, the test procedure and the needed hardware resources in a way that engineers could simply understand the instructions with no room for misunderstanding.

Nowadays it became more and more an ineffective way to host this old language to modern measurement instruments. Due to the slow execution speed and the fact, that ATLAS does not support digital bus systems, changes the way testing of digital flight computers is implemented. But a manually programmed test program is very cost intensive.

1.2 General Approach

To make it possible to use the ATLAS test specifications we need to develop a method to convert the ATLAS source code into TestStand, an up to date programming language. The general approach in this work is source to source transformation. The requirements on such a transformation are very high. Especially in avionic systems preserving semantics is very important to approve safety and governmental restrictions, among others. This means we need a robust and reliable transformation system. Figure 1.1 illustrates the basic concept of the transformation approach. The process can be divided into 4 different phases:

Figure 1.1: Basic source transformation concept

Parsing

The parsing phase is very similar to parsing done in a compiler[1]. A formal structure in form of a grammar is introduced to describe the ATLAS language and parse it into a tree structure for later transformation. It is important to build the grammar as precise as possible to avoid ambiguity and prevent syntax failures. Thereby the balance between a precise grammar and effective transformation rules already need to be considered. The larger a grammar grows, the more complicated it is to develop transformation rules later on. The solution to this task are robust parsing techniques and island grammars.

Transformation

In the next phase transformation rules are applied to the parse tree. A direct transformation to the target language is not possible because TestStand sequence files are stored in a proprietary binary format. So the parse tree is migrated into a structure describing macros for TestStand sequence building. Therefore, a grammar that describes the TestStand macros is necessary. Because of the lack of formal semantic definitions of ATLAS and TestStand, there is no formal method of proofing the semantics of the transformed source code correct, so we need to look at each transformation rule individually.

Unparse and Assemble

In the unparse phase the parse tree is assembled to an intermediate code that consist of simple commands for construction of the final sequence files. We call this code TestStand macros. In the assemble phase these macros are then read by a program, the TestStand macro assembler, that is capable of constructing the TestStand sequence file.

1.3 Goals

The goal of the thesis is to develop a robust transformation system that is capable of migrating ATLAS source code into running TestStand sequences. The transformations as correct as possible by observing each transformation rule individually and by comparing the output a transformed program produces with the output of the source

program.

This leads to the following contributions:

- Semantics
	- **–** Identify relevant means to describe and compare semantics.
	- **–** Develop a robust grammar to specify Original Equipment Manufacturer (OEM) Software syntax.
	- **–** Introduce rules to transform one high level language into the other.
- Tool
	- **–** Construct an assembler program to produce the binary sequence file of the new system.
	- **–** Design a grammar/pseudo language that can be read by the assembler program.
- Evaluation
	- **–** Test the transformation system on different inputs and compare the results.
	- **–** Evaluate the output of one case study by comparing the results of both programs.

2 Transforming Languages

In this chapter, the techniques of source transformation are introduced. The typical application for source transformation is a compiler. In section 2.1 the basics of compiler construction are explained and the techniques and tools that are useful for this work are introduced.

2.1 Compiler Construction

Simply stated, a compiler is a program that can read a program in one language - the source language - and translate it into an equivalent program in another language - the target language[1]

Usually the target language for compilers is a low level language like Assembler or even machine language. In this work, the source and the target language are high level development languages, but the basic principles are the same so the techniques of compiler construction can be adopted.

2.1.1 Main Compilation Phases

In general the work flow of a compiler can be divided into multiple phases. In the following the major parts are illustrated:

- Lexical analysis: A **Lexer** reads the high level source code and chops its characters into meaningful tokens.
- Syntax analysis: A **Parser** reads this string of tokens and groups them into a parse tree.
- Semantic analysis: A **code generator** converts the parse tree into a list of machine instructions

Theses steps can also be found in source to source transformation. The key components are a well defined parser grammar and a code generator that does not violate the semantics of the source program. Many compilers also have the ability to identify and correct syntax failures or optimize the code. This is out of the scope of this work but might be a possibility for future work.

Syntax analysis

There are two ways to describe a programming language. The first way is to describe its semantics. What each program does when its being executed. The second way

is to describe the proper form of a programming language, the syntax. Contex-free grammars or Backus-Naur-Form (BNF) are widely used to specify the syntax of a programming language.

2.1.2 Context-free Grammars

A context-free grammar basically consists of four components:

- 1. A set of fundamental symbols of the language defined by the grammar. These symbols are called terminal symbols, or tokens.
- 2. A set of non-terminals, that each represent a set of strings of terminals.
- 3. One of the non-terminals assigned to be a start symbol.
- 4. A set of productions that each consist of a head (a non-terminal) and the body of the production (a sequence of terminals and/or non-terminals). Productions specify the manner in which the terminals and non-terminals can be combined to form strings.

The pictorial representation of how the start symbol of a grammar derives a string in the language, is a parse tree. If a non-terminal *X* has a production ABC, the parse tree would have an interior node named *X* and three children from left to right named A , B , and C .

Formally a parse tree according to a context-free grammar is a tree with the following properties, given that ϵ is an empty string:

- 1. The root is designated by the start symbol.
- 2. Each leaf is designated by a terminal or by ϵ .
- 3. Each interior node is designated by a non-terminal.
- 4. If the non-terminal *X* is designated by some interior node and $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are the labels of the children of that node from left to right, then there must be a production $X \to X_1 X_2 ... X_n$. $X_1 X_2 ... X_n$ can either be a terminal or a non-terminal. If $X \to \epsilon$ is a production, than a node designated by X may have a single child designated by ϵ .

If a grammar has more than one parse tree generating a given string of terminals, it is said to be ambiguous. This is shown by finding a terminal sting that is the yield of more than one parse tree.

So an unambiguous grammars for compiling applications need to be designed, or an ambiguous grammars with additional rules to resolve the ambiguities to be used, since a string with more then one parse tree usually has more than one meaning. From the parse tree view point, there are two major parsing techniques to consider. It is convenient to describe parsing as the process of building parse trees, although a front end may in fact carry out a translation directly without building an explicit tree.

Top-down parsing

Top-down parsing constructs the parse tree for the input string starting from the root and developing the nodes depth-first. Alternatively, top-down parsing can also be seen as finding a leftmost derivation for an input string. The key problem for each step of a top-down parse is that of determining the production to be applied for a non-terminal. For example using the general *recursive-descent parsing* approach. If a production for non-terminal *X* is chosen, the rest of the parsing process consists of matching the terminal symbols in the production body with the input string. If the input string doesn't match, backtracking might be required.

Predictive parsing is a special case of recursive-descent parsing. The correct Xproduction is chosen, by looking ahead at the input a fixed number of symbols. This class of grammars is sometimes called LL(k) class, where *k* is the number of symbols the parser in looking ahead.

Bottom-up parsing

Bottom-up parsing is approaching the problem, as the name may reveal, from the other way around. The construction begins at the leaves and is working up towards the root. This process man also be seen as reducing a string *β* to the start symbol of the grammar. This means at each reduction step, a non-terminal at the head of the production replaces a specific substring matching the body.

One form of bottom-up parsing is *shift-reduced parsing*. A stack holds the grammar symbols and an input buffer holds the rest of the string. The parser, than does a left-to-right scan, where it shifts zero or more input symbols onto the stack, until it is ready to reduce a string *β* of grammar symbols on top of the stack. *β* is then reduced to the head of the appropriate production. This cycle is repeated until the stack contains the start symbol and the input is empty, or until the parser has detected an error.

This leads to four possible actions a shift-reduce parser can make:

- 1. *Shift*: The next input symbol is shifted onto the top of the stack.
- 2. *Reduce*: Reduce the right end of the string that must be at the top of the stack. Decide with what non-terminal to replace the string that is located on the left end of the string within the stack.
- 3. *Accept*: Parsing has been completed successfully.
- 4. *Error*: A syntax error has been discovered. Call an error recovery routine.

The largest class of grammars for which shift-reduce parsers can be built, are called *LR grammars*.

2.2 Source Transformation tools

2.2.1 The Turing eXtender Language

The original purpose of the Turin eXtender Language (TXL) in the early 1980's was to stretch the Turing programming language to include new language features. The developers focused on true rapid prototyping with no generation or build steps. This led to the decision to choose the functional programming language Lisp [11] as the model for the underlying semantics of TXL because of the following reasons:

- One simple data structure nested first-rest lists.
- Fast interpretive full backtracking implementation, well suited for rapid prototyping.
- Implementation is heavily optimised for list processing.

Therefore Lisp structures provide the foundation for many design decisions of TXL early on. This leads to a parsing model with a top-down functional interpretation of the grammar. The start symbol is the non-terminal *[program]*. The grammar is directly interpreted as a recursive functional program that is consuming the input as a list of terminal symbols. The structure of each TXL grammar consists of two kinds of lists:

- 1. A choice list for alternation.
- 2. An order list for sequencing.

The interpretation of alternate form in choice lists is the order they are presented in the grammar. The first matching alternative is taken as a success. The representation in lists highly favours backtracking while parsing. If a choice alternative or sequence element is failing, the algorithm simply backtracks one element of the list to try the next alternate form. At the end, the result is a parse tree, that is represented in the same nested list representation, like every TXL structure (grammar, parse tree, rules, patterns and replacements). TXL also addresses the difficulties with left recursion in top-down parses, by switching to a bottom-up interpretation of these productions on the fly.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the the compiler and run time system for the TXL language. The TXL processor directly interprets the TXL programs that are consisting of the grammar and the transformation rules and functions.

Figure 2.1: TXL Processor

The grammar

The Source language to be transformed is described using an unrestricted ambiguous context-free grammar in extended Backus-Naur-Form (BNF), from which a structure parser is automatically derived. The basic notation is as follows:

- **X**: terminal symbols represent themselves
- **[X]**: non-terminal types appear in brackets
- \vert : the bar separates alternative syntactic forms

Listing 2.1 shows an example TXL grammar. The key unit is the define statement. Each define statement represents an ordered set of alternative forms for one non-terminal. This set can be compared with a set of productions for a single nonterminal in a BNF grammar. Each alternative form is specified as a sequence of terminal symbols and non-terminals. In case of the example grammar the terminals shown are: $+,-$ ^{*},/,(,). The non-terminal *[number]* in line 18 is a special predefined non-terminal representing any *"unsigned integer or real number beginning with a digit and continuing with any number of digits, an optional decimal point followed by at least one more digit, and an optional exponent beginning with the letter E or e and followed by an optional sign and at least one digit."*[7, 4]

Listing 2.1: Simple Example Grammar from TXL Cookbook [6]

```
1 define program
2 [ expression ]
3 end def ine
4
5 define expression
6 [ term ]
```

```
7 | [ expression ] + [ term ]
8 | [ expression ] – [term]
9 end define
10
11 define term
12 [ primary ]
13 | [ term ] * [ primary ]
14 | [term] / [primary]
15 end define
16
17 define primary
18 [ number ]
19 | ( \lceil expression \rceil )
20 end define
```
Rules and functions

After parsing the source language into a parse tree according to the explained grammar, the rules and functions that are responsible for transforming the input parse tree into the output parse tree are applied. The difference between a rule and a function is, that a rule searches the scope of the tree it is applied to for matches to its pattern and replaces every match, where a function just replaces the first match.

Listing 2.2: Simple Example Rule from TXL Cookbook [6]

```
1 ru le addOnePlusOne % name
2 replace [expression] % target type to search for
3 1+1 		 % pattern to match
4 by
5 2 \% replacement to make
6 end ru le
```
The Listing 2.2 illustrates a simple example rule. Every rule/function consists of a name (line 1), a type (line 2), a pattern (line 3) and a replacement(line 5). The name serves as identifier and the type is the non-terminal that the rule/function transforms. If the argument tree of the rule/function matches the pattern, the replacement is the result of the rule/function (In this case "2"). If the argument tree doesn't match, the result is the same tree again $(1+2)$ ["] for example).

Every TXL function is *homomorphic* and *total*, because they always return a tree of the same type as their argument to guarantee, that the transformation of an input always results in a well-formed output according to the defined grammar. They also always return the original tree if it does not match the pattern, so they produce a result for any argument of the appropriate type.

2.2.2 Additional parsing techniques

When using TXL as a source to source transformation tool, some parsing techniques might be useful to implement. In section 3.2.1 the need for a specialisation on certain recurring parts of the ATLAS source language is discussed. This means a parser is needed, that accepts unknown statements and transforms them properly. The techniques to achieve that functionality are presented in this section. The implementation of these techniques are shown in chapter 4.

Robust Parsing

The general strategy of robust parsing was originally proposed by David Barnard [2] and is based on the observation that the syntax of programming languages are basically all structured into *statements*. These statements often have an explicit end marker like the semicolon in Java or C and the period in Cobol. This observation leads to a very effective way of syntax error handling and repair strategy.

This strategy can be described in a few steps:

- 1. A special *recovery state* is entered, every time a syntax error is detected.
- 2. Parsing is then continued in recovery state and the input is treated as if every token matches but actually is not accepted. This leads to a valid parse of a program that is slightly different from the original input.
- 3. Continue until the expected input token is a statement end marker. The actual input is then flushed to this marker, the recovery state can be exited and normal parsing continues. The flushed input can later be caught by a syntax error routine, that prompts a warning for instance.

This technique can be used to accept every ATLAS input program while just transforming the parts that are actually implemented.

Island Grammars

Island grammars implement the basic idea of robust parsing. In software analysis island grammars are used for example in source model extraction [12] or when building documentation generators[8]. An island grammar simply consists of the following parts:

- 1. Detailed productions for the parts of the language that are of interest.
- 2. Liberal productions that are catching the remaining parts.
- 3. An elementary set of definitions that cover the overall program structure.

General speaking an island grammar consist of constructs of interest (the islands) and parts that are not interesting for the developer (the water).

Union Grammars

Unlike the language extension tasks for which TXL was designed, source to source transformation requires transformations to deal with two language grammars - the source language (ATLAS) and the target language (TestStand). Hence TXL rules are constrained to be homomorphic, it could be problematic to solve this kind of multi-grammar task.

The solution is union grammars. The basic paradigm for union grammars involves the following steps:

- 1. Create working grammars for both the target and the source language.
- 2. Uniquely rename the non-terminals of the two grammars.
- 3. Identify a minimal set of corresponding non-terminals to be used as transformation targets.
- 4. Restructure and integrate the source and target grammars to form an integrated translation grammar.
- 5. Build a set of independent translation rules for each corresponding non-terminal

2.2.3 More Transformation Tools

Source transformation is a great field of research. Although there are a lot of source transformation tools, most of them are not designed to migrate two languages, but they are still good to meet this task. In the following few of them are presented. Many other source transformation tools and languages can be found on the program transformation wiki, http://www.program-transformation.org.

Stratego

Stratego^[13] is a modern language aimed at the specification of program transformation systems based on the paradigm of rewriting strategies. Stratego adapted an idea from Elan[3] deduction meta system and uses pure rewriting rules with the separate specification of generic rewriting. This separation allows careful control over the application of these rules and allows transformations rules to be reusable in multiple different transformations. It also lead to a more compact and modular transformation specification compared to TXL.

ASF + SDF

ASF+SDF [4] is a toolset for implementing many programming language manipulation tools like parsers and transformers, that is very different from TXL in its methods and implementation. It uses a GLR parsing algorithm providing grammar-based modularity and supports the specification of patterns in concrete syntax

3 Test Language Transformation

3.1 Test Software for Automatic Testing

This section introduces the source and target language and presents the environment they are usually used in.

3.1.1 ATLAS: The Language for all Systems

The ATLAS test language was developed by the Aeronautical Radio Inc (ARINC) to satify the desire for an application and documentation language for manual and automatic testing in airline avionics. The Development started in 1967 by the Automatic Test Equipment Subcommitee of the Airlines Electronic Engeneering Committee (AEEC). In June 1969 ARINC published the first version of ARINC Specification 416 titled *Abbreviated Test Language for Avionics Systems (ATLAS)*.

Because of the increasing interest on ATLAS for potential applications in industrial and military testing, the amount of applications in other areas was growing so fast, so that AEEC authorised the transfer of ATLAS to IEEE. IEEE Std. 416-1976 titled *IEEE/ARINC Standard ATLAS Test Language* was published in November 1976.

The further development of the avionics system for new aircraft lead to several new versions and revisions until in March 1987 the ARINC Specification 626, titled *Standard ATLAS Language for Modular Test*, was published. **ARINC Specification 626-3**[5], that was published in January 1995, is the most recent release and the version that is used in this work.

The main features of ATLAS are the Unit Under Test (UUT) orientation, the unambiguous communication and the test equipment independence. The language is suited to define the requirements of the UUT without creating dependencies to specific test equipment. To ensure an unambiguous description of the requirements of a test procedure for the UUT designers, developers, users and maintenance technicians, the description of test requirements and formal structures are defined precisely. Furthermore the description of the test requirements is designed to transport the test specification from implementation on one set of test equipment to another.

The ATLAS program structure basically consists of variables and statement syntax. A standard ATLAS statement consists of a flag field(F), statement number field (STATNO), verb field (VERB), field separator(,), statement remainder (REMAIN-DER) and statement terminator(\$) arranged in Figure 3.1

Figure 3.2 illustrates the standard ATLAS program structure. Every ATLAS program starts with a *begin atlas* statement and ends with a *terminate atlas* statement.

REMAINDER \$ F STATNO **VERB**

Figure 3.1: Standard ATLAS Statement Structure

The *commence main procedure* statement separates the two main elements: **program preamble structure** and **main procedural structure**.

Figure 3.2: ATLAS Program Structure

The program preamble structure consists of statements that do not cause any tests to be executed, but the information contained in the structure is used by the statements in the main procedural part. Figure 3.3 on page 15 illustrates all ATLAS preamble statements defined in the ARINC Specification 626-3 [5]. In the following these statements are briefly described.

Include statements reference to ATLAS modules that may be used in multiple test programs. These modules contain non ATLAS code, that may be loaded into a UUT, or often used preamble statements. They don't contain any procedural statements with the exception of procedures and functions.

Extend statements provide means to add supplementary definitions for signal and for bus parameters, protocol parameters, bus modes and test equipment roles to the ATLAS language.

Require statements describe and label the requirements on different hardware resources. These test resources are termed "virtual resources" and represent a link between the test software and the "real resources". The checking and assignment of "virtual resources" to "real resources" is a complex implementation problem which is outside the scope of this work.

Declare statements establish, label and identify data types, constants and variables. **Establish** statements specify a bus protocol for later use with *do exchange* statements.

Define statements establish and label parts of the test software which are not executed until the label is mentioned direct or indirect in a subsequent *procedural statement*. The *procedure* and *function* structure contain ATLAS procedural statements, that are often used in the program flow.

Identify statements label and describe events that allow the establishment and implementation of signal and test action timing relationships.

The main procedural structure is where the execution of the test procedure takes place. It is possible to divide this structure into smaller blocks to separate test steps or test chapters from each other. In the following the main procedural statements illustrated in Figure 3.4 on page 17 are briefly described.

Data processing statements provide the capability to save test values for further use in the test procedure, perform calculations on these values and compare test values with specified limits.

Input/Output statements provide the means of manually or automatically insertion or extraction of data or information during the testing process.

Flow control statements provide the capability to control the order of statement execution.

Hardware control statements describe source, sensor and load functions of signals relative to the UUT.

Timing statements provide timing and synchronisation capabilities.

Databus statements provide capabilities which support the testing of UUTs that utilize buses.

Figure 3.4: ATLAS Procedural Structure Figure 3.4: ATLAS Procedural Structure

3.1.2 TestStand: The Industry-Standard Test Management Software

TestStand is a test management software environment developed by National Instruments (NI) for execution and development of automated test sequences. The software is build to handle operations like sequencing of multiple test steps, calling test step code modules, limit checking, user management, report generation or result collection.

TestStand highly utilises modules that are written in separate development languages for measurement code or individual test actions. With a set of adapters allowing to call code modules written in a variety of languages it is even possible to mix different programming languages in one test sequence. The current build-in adapters link with *Labview, LabWindows/CVI, C++/C, .NET, ActiveX/COM* and *HTBasic*.

Figure 3.5: TestStand System Architecture from TestStand User Manual[9, 1-4] Figure 3.5 illustrates the TestStand system architecture. Major software compo-

nents of TestStand include the TestStand engine, Sequence editor, Operator interface, and module adapters. The essential part of the TestStand system architecture is the engine. The TestStand engine runs sequences that contain different steps. Steps can call external code modules utilising the standard adapter interface. This interface is also used by sequences for calling subsequences.

The **TestStand Sequence Editor** represents the development environment. It gives access to all TestStand features. Sequences can be created, edited, executed and debugged. The built-in debugging tool is capable of setting breakpoints, Stepping into, out of and over steps, tracing through program executioins, monitoring variables and expressions during execution and performing an analysis of the sequence file to locate errors.

The **TestStand Operator Interface** provide the possibility to create a custom Graphical User Interface (GUI) for executing, debugging or editing, developed in any programming language that can host ActiveX control or control ActiveX Automation servers.

The **TestStand Engine** is a set of DLLs that provide access to the ActiveX Automation Application Programming Interface (API) that can be used to create, execute, edit and debug sequences. This API is used by the sequence editor and Operator Interface and can be called by any programming environment that supports ActiveX Automation Servers.

Module Adapters are used to invoke code modules that are called by sequences. A code module contains various functions that perform actions or specific tests. The following adapters are included:

- LabView: Calls Labview VIs
- LabWindows/CVI: Calls C functions in a DLL
- $C/C++$ DLL: Calls $C/C++$ functions and static $C++$ class methods in a DLL
- .NET: Calls .NET assemblies
- ActiveX/COM: Calls methods and accesses properties of ActiveX/COM objects
- HTBasic: Calls HTBasic subroutines
- Sequence: passes parameters when calling subsequences.

The Graphical User Interface of TestStand provides the developer with various building blocks. In the following an overview of the different TestStand blocks and features are given.

In TestStand the places that store data values are called **variables** and **properties**. Variables can be created in certain contexts. They can be global to a sequence file, local to a certain sequence or station global to the computer the program is running on. Properties are containers of values. They can contain just a single value, an array of values or various subproperties. Steps in sequences can store values in properties. The properties of steps are determined by the type of the step.

Any TestStand sequence contains multiple steps. They can perform a variety of tasks through several types of mechanisms. A step is capable to execute an expression, call a subsequence or an external code module. The step properties are used to store parameters to pass to the code module, or serve as a place for the code module to store the results. These properties are called custom properties and are different for each step type. TestStand steps also have a number of built-in properties. The *Precondition* property for example allows the specification of conditions that must be true to execute the step. The *Pre-/Postexpression* property allows the specification of an expression to evaluate before/after the execution of the step. The number of custom properties a step has is determined by the step type. Every step of the same type has the same custom properties in addition to the built-in properties. The predefined TestStand step types are as follows:

- Action
- Numeric Limit Test
- String Value Test
- Pass/Fail Test
- Label
- Goto
- Statement
- Limit Loader
- Message Popup
- Call Executable
- Sequence Call

In addition the test environment at *Lufthansa Technik AG* extend this set of types by a number of custom steps:

- VTSA Numeric Limit Test
- VTSA Hexadecimal Limit Test
- ChapterCall
- VTSA Post Text to Report

Any TestStand sequence consists of local variables, parameters, steps and built-in properties. Sequence parameters are variables that store values passed by a sequence call step. It is possible to pass parameters by value or by reference to any step in the sequence. Local variables store values that are relevant for the execution of the sequence. They apply only to the sequence they are created in. It is possible to run multiple instances of the same sequence for example by calling this sequence recursively. In this case each instance of the sequence has its own parameters and local variables.

3.1.3 Automatic test environments

Automatic test environments (ATE) are used to perform tests on a Unit Under Test (UUT) using automation for measurements and evaluation of test results. Tests can be performed by a single computer controlled digital multimeter up to a complex system utilising multiple test instruments as well as AC and DC sources.

A desktop computer runs the test software and controls the test instruments via different connections like PCI/PCIe, Ethernet, PXI/PXIe, USB, GPIB and several more. Fast switching of instruments are realized by relays. A Test Unit Adapter (TUA) is then used to connect the sensors and sources necessary for the test with the UUT. This makes it possible to test multiple different UUTs using the same test system but different test software and adapters.

Automatic test environments are widely used by electronics manufacturers for testing of components after fabrication, or by avionics and automotive companies for maintenance and repair. Especially units that require regular testing of all parameters, like components that are critically important for human live, offer and area of application for automatic testing.

ATLAS and TestStand are both programming languages for development of test software for automatic test environments. The difference is, that the ATLAS test software includes a hardware description of the TUA components. This information need to be extracted before transformation, because hardware descriptions can not be mapped to the TestStand software.

3.2 Requirements on the Translator

Like in any other language the two key components of ATLAS and TestStand are syntax and semantics. That means the structure of the language, how symbols are

ordered and what symbols to expect and the actual meaning of each symbol or set of symbols. In this section the requirements on the grammar according to the syntax are discussed as well as the demands on preserving the semantics.

3.2.1 Parsing ATLAS Syntax

The first task to accomplish is: How to design the grammar for parsing the source language ATLAS? Section 3.1.1 shows ATLAS has grown to a very wide test language used in a great number of automatic testing environments. This means, that not every aspect of the test language is necessary for testing avionic devices. So parts of the syntax might never be used. Because there are only two major companies building aircraft's, the number of companies developing test programs for avionic equipment is also fairly manageable. So there are not a lot developers writing new ATLAS code. It is quite possible that developers rather reuse already existing code than write new test programs from scratch.

This leads to the assumption that most parts of the test software does not differ very much in terms of the structures that are used. Given that developing a grammar that successfully parses every aspect of the ATLAS language is a very time consuming task, building a grammar that does not picture the whole ATLAS syntax, but the most common parts used in avionic test programs, suggests itself.

The problem with this approach is, that an incomplete grammar will lead to syntax errors while parsing. Therefore the robust parsing technique described in section 2.2.2 is needed. The implementation of such a technique is supported by two factors:

- 1. ATLAS programs exclusively consists of code lines that follow the standard statement structure given in section 3.1.1 on page 13.
- 2. TXL grammars allow ambiguity. The parsing algorithm takes the first matching alternative in the list as a success. This means providing a statement that matches every input that has the standard ATLAS structure at the end of the list, will catch all ATLAS statements that aren't defined.

To implement robust parsing to TXL the non-terminal **[A_unknown_statement]** is introduced. Listing 3.1 shows the unknown statement definition. The general structure represents the standard ATLAS statement structure. A Statement number followed by a ATLAS verb followed by a comma is accepted by the parser. The nonterminal **A_remainder** than accepts every input except the statement terminator (\$).

Listing 3.1: Unknown Statement Definition

1 define A unknown statement

```
2 % GENERAL ATLAS STATEMENT STRUCTURE
3 [ A_ fstatno ] [ A_verb ] [ A_ fi el d_ s e p a r a t o r ] [ repeat
         A remainder | '$
4 end def ine
5
6 define A remainder
7 %Bounded by t e rm i n al symbol $
8 [ not ' $ ] [ token_or_key ]
9 end define
10
11 define token or key
12 %TXL idiom for "any input"
13 [ token ] | [ key ]
14 end define
```
Every unknown statement can than be transformed to a special TestStand step, that displays the unknown code line in the TestStand program. A developer might transform these steps later by hand or the transformation system can be extended to transform that statement properly.

3.2.2 Preserving Semantics in Avionic Environments

Preserving the semantics of the test software is an important part of the transformation system. The problem in this work is, that the semantics of nether ATLAS nor TestStand are formally described. But proving semantically correctness is nearly impossible with no formal descriptions of the source and target language. Developing these formal descriptions is also not an option. Besides the immense amount of time this would cost, the semantics described in the ARINC specification[5] are not precise enough to deviate formal structures.

We will therefore take a practical approach: If the source program A and the transformed source program T get the same input, they have to produce the same output. First, we will define, the input and output of A and T.

In automatic test environments, the possible input consists of all signals that come from measurement equipment and the tested UUT, and also possible user input. With the huge amount of data in different combinations it seems impossible to control the semantics of the transformation process for all possible inputs. As stated in Section 3.2.1, there is a no need to transform the whole source language, but to focus on the important aspects. To specify: only the semantics of those parts (that ought to be transformed) must prevail. This way, the problem can be separated in different parts and individual solutions for specific transformations should be considered. But what are the really important parts of the program?

The output of a test program is a report which summarizes the test results.This report helps a technician to decide if a tested UUT is operational or not. If one includes the user, the output can be defined as the reaction of the technician on the report.Therefore it is important, that the technician can come to the same conclusion, not that both reports look exactly the same. Some informations are particularly important for the equivalence of the output in the report. So how does a report like this look like?

The key components of a test report are the informations that are available for every single step.

- The distinct Test Step Number (TSN) for the precise identification of the test steps.
- A short description of the test steps or the key components of the test steps, like relevant pins.
- The measurement or the value for the comparison.
- The limits, in which the measurement was compared to create the test result.
- A conclusive result of the test: GO or NOGO.

It is very important that these informations are being ensured during the transformation pocess and can be found in the TestStand program. An important part of the program is therefore the report generation. In ATLAS, the relevant statements are the data processing statements *CALCULATE* and *COMPARE* as well as *INPUT* and *OUTPUT*. Another significant part of a developing language is the program flow. Executing the statements in the same order is essential for the program semantics. In ATLAS, these statements are If-then-else-structures, procedures and functions. Anothert important aspect in automatic test languages is the hardware triggering, the requirements to the hardware components as well as the commands to control them. The rules of transformation of these components will be illustrated in chapter 4.

4 The Translator

The transformation system is capable of parsing any ARINC 626-3 Spec ATLAS source code and converting it into TestStand sequences. Thanks to the robust grammar, not implemented ATLAS statements can be transferred to the TestStand sequences without causing syntax errors. Figure 4.1 illustrates the schematic structure of the transformation system.

Figure 4.1: Transformation Concept

Initially a small program merges all ATLAS source files into one input file. This step mainly includes integrated modules and removes comments. To ease the parsing process, dimensions are moved away from numerical values ($5V \rightarrow 5 V$) and decimal numbers less than 1 are corrected $(.1 \rightarrow 0.1)$.

The generated input file is then parsed with TXL into a tree structure. Listing 4.1 shows the basic grammar structure. The non-terminal *define program* marks the start symbol. *A_preamble_statement* and *A_procedural_statement* are the non-terminals that include a choice list of all essential statement definitions. At the end of each list the *unknown statements* are intercepted.

```
define program
  [A_begin_atlas_statement] [ repeat preamble statement ]
     [A_commence_statement] [repeat procedural_statement]
     [repeat block_structure] [A_terminate_atlas_statement]
end def ine
def ine A_preamble_statement
     [A_extend_statement]
     [A_require_statement]
     [A_declare_statement]
     [A_establish_statement]
     [A define statement]
     [A_identify_statement]
     [A_unknown_preamble_statement]
end define
def ine A_procedural_statement
     [ A_declare_statement ]
     [A_calculate_statement]
     [A compare statement]
     [A_output_statement]
     | [ A_input_statement ]
     [A_flow_control_statement]
     [A_remove_statement]
     [A_signal_statement]
     [A_do_exchange_statement]
     | [ A_subchapter_begin ]
     [A_subchapter_end]
     [A_unknown_procedural_statement]
end def ine
```
After converting the input file to a parse tree structure, the TXL transformation rules are applied. A precise definition of the transformation rules are provided in section 4.1. At the end, the generated TestStand macros are imported by the TestStand Assembler program and a runnable sequence file is created. The TestStand Assembler and the macro commands are presented in section 4.2.

4.1 Transformations

In this section, the different ATLAS structures are explained in detail. The semantics are presented and the equivalent representations in TestStand as well as the rules that transform the statements are explained. Because there are no formal descriptions of the semantics, every transformation rule is best practice.

4.1.1 Preamble

Preamble statements describe the structure, environment and variables of the test program.

Hardware Resources

These statements primary describe the requirements on the different hardware resources. In ATLAS these statements are also called *virtual resources*. They define the type of hardware that need to be used as well as ranges and limits that are required.

Listing 4.2: ATLAS Require Source Example Statement

```
REQUIRE, 'DC−SUPPLY ' , SOURCE, DC SIGNAL,
 CONTROL,
    VOLTAGE RANGE 0 V TO 120 V BY 0.01V ERRLMT +-0.01 V,
  CAPABILITY,
    CURRENT MAX 1. 2 A,
  LIMIT ,
    CURRENT−LMT MAX 1 A,
 CNX HI LO $
```
Listing 4.2 shows a typical ATLAS require statement. The resource requirements are always divided into control, capability, limit and cnx (connection) parameters. The virtual resource *DC-SUPPLY* represents a DC voltage Source with a range from 0V to 120V adjustable in 0.01 V steps with an accuracy of +-0.01V and the capability of a current of 1.2 A maximum. It also needs the ability of limiting the current to maximum 1 A. The proper example of use is shown in Listing 4.3. The virtual resource *DC-SUPPLY* is used with the instructions illustrated in Table 4.1.

Line	Instruction	Value
1	Control action	APPLY
2	Voltage	18.7 V
3	Current max	0.5A
4	Connection HI	$J1A-30$
5	Connection LO	$J1A-03$

Table 4.1: Example APPLY Statement Instructions

The Transformation of hardware resources is reduced to just creating the Teststand sequence stub. Filling these stubs with actual hardware control instructions is outside the scope of this work, since an engineer needs to select the hardware that is available at the test facility. However, the instructions need to be transferred to the hardware sequence when calling it later on. Therefore the sequence needs to feature the parameters established in the requirement definition.

Listing 4.4: Transform Require Rule

```
1 rule transformRequire
2 replace [preamble_statement]
3 Require [A_require_statement]
4 deconstruct∗ [list charlit] Require
5 Names [list charlit]
6 deconstruct∗ [ A_require_type ] Requi re
7 Type [ A_require_type ]
8 construct T_Require [repeat TeststandStatement]
9 %empty
10 where not
11 Type [ is Event Monitor ]
12 by
13 T_Require [ convertRequire Require each Names ]
14 end rule
```
Listing 4.4 illustrates the main transformation rule for hardware requirements. The resource *EventMonitor* is not needed to hold events and doesn't need to be translated to a sequence stub. In Teststand events are stored in a global container variable. Therefore the constrained *not isEventMonitor* is included in lines 10 and 11. Because it is possible to define multiple resources with different names, but the same ranges and limits the function *convertRequire* is called in line 13 for each virtual resource name.

Listing 4.5: Convert Require Function

```
1 function convertRequire Require [A_require_statement]
      Name \lceil charlit \rceil
```

```
2 replace [repeat TeststandStatement]
```

```
3 T_Require [ repeat Tests t and Statement ]
4
5 deconstruct Require
6 F [A_fstatno] 'REQUIRE ', _[list charlit] ', Type
7 [A_require_type]', Noun [A_noun] Control
8 [ A require control ] Capability [ A require capability ]
9 [A_ \text{require limit}] Cnx [A_ \text{require} \text{cnx} ] '$
10
11 construct ConCap [list A_require_body]
12 [getBodyControl Control ] [getBodyCapability Capability ]
13
14 construct T_variables [repeat T_variables]
15 'variable 'f' 'Action' 'f 'String 'f 'Inputparameter 'f;
16 'variable '\epsilon ''Return' '\epsilon 'Number '\epsilon 'Outputparameter '\epsilon;
17
18 construct newRequire [TeststandStatement]
19 'sequence '\in 'BuildSequence '\in Name '\in 'Hardware;
20 'sequence '\in 'SetSequence '\in Name;
21 T variables [ get R e qui re V a riables each ConCap ]
22 [getRequireCnx Cnx] [getExtraVariables Noun]
23 \cdot sequence \cdot \in \cdot ResetSequence;
24
25 by
26 T_Require [. new Require ]
27
```

```
28 end function
```
The function **convertRequire** shown in Listing 4.5 constructs the macros needed to build a new hardware sequence. To get the remaining instruction parameters that are needed for later sequence calls, the require statement is deconstructed in lines 5-9. The control, capability and connection information are stored in the variables *Control Capability* and *Cnx*. The functions *getRequireVariables* and *getRequireCnx* in lines 21 and 22 are extracting the instruction parameter names from the variables and construct the corresponding variable macros. The function *getExtraVariables* covers the fact, that a time interval also needs the parameters from, to and max-time. The macro commands *SetSequence* and *ResetSequence* in lines 20 and 23 make sure the assembler puts the variables into the right sequence.

Procedures and Functions

These structures contain ATLAS code, that is often used in the program flow. Input and output parameters provide the possibility to transfer values from and to the procedure or function during calls. Procedures can be called by a *perform* statement and functions are used in an expressions similar to variables. The equivalent representation in Teststand is a sequence with the cutback, that sequences can't be called in a expression. However the solution to this restriction was outside of the scope of this work, therefore the case study doesn't contain functions. This section focusses on the definition of procedures.

Figure 4.2: ATLAS Procedures

Figure 4.2 illustrates the schematic representation of ATLAS procedures. Inputparameters, Outputparamets and local variable definitions are optional. The *DEFINE* and *END* statements act as delimiter at the start and end of the procedure, where the Procedurename acts as a unique identifier. To compare the names the best way is to transform the hole structure altogether.


```
18 'sequence '\in 'SetSequence '\in Name ';
19 'variable 'f'' Variables' 'f' 'Container' f' 'Locals' f';
20 Input [. Output]
21 SubScope [procedural Transformations]
22 Sequence '€ 'ResetSequence ';
23 end rule
```
The procedure transformation rule is shown in Listing 4.6. In line 7 the name condition is checked. The input- and outputparameters are converted in lines 13 and 15 and the resulting macro commands are concatenated with the TXL built-in function "." in line 20. Statements and local variables of the procedure are stored in the *Sub-Scope* variable. To transform the content, the *procedureTransformations* function is called. The macro commands *SetSequence* and *ResetSequence* in lines 18 and 22 make sure the variables and statements are put into the right sequence by the assembler.

Variable Types

Table 4.2 illustrates the different variable types available in ATLAS, what they are transformed to and if they are implemented yet. Due to the limitations on TestStand variable types, it is not possible to find equivalent variable types. However this is not required to achieve a semantically equivalent result in an avionic test environment. Below the different ATLAS variable types and their TestStand counterparts are discussed:

1. *Enumeration*

Enumerations are not implemented to Teststand. However it is possible to utilize the *Container* structure that is comparable with a *struct* in *C* to accomplish a similar result. Pre-declared ATLAS enumeration types are *Boolean*, *Char-Class* and *Dig-Class*. While *Boolean* has an equivalent counterpart in TestStand, *Char-Class* and *Dig-Class* can be translated like any other enumeration.

2. *Connection*

Connections are used to identify hardware pins of the UUT in ATLAS. Because hardware control is not in the scope of this work, it is sufficient to save the connection name in a string variable and hand them over to the hardware sequence, which will handle the connections of instruments to the corresponding pin.

3. *Decimal, Integer and Bit*

Numeric variables are entirely translated to the TestStand Number type. The default representation is a double precision 64-bit floating point variable and it is possible to change the representation to a signed or unsigned 64-bit Integer but it is not possible to change the precision any further. So the intentional usage of a wrap around need to be considered but is not expected in avionic testing.

4. *Char*

A char represents a single character. TestStand doesn't contain variable types, that represent a single character, this is why a char is transformed to a string.

5. *Array*

An array is a data structure consisting of a collection of elements, that can be identified by an index. This structure also exists in TestStand. Therefore it can be translated directly. However, arrays are not very common in ATLAS test programs and are not used by the case study. This is why arrays are not implemented yet.

- 6. *String of Type* A string of type basically is the same as a TestStand string with the exception, that the characters of the string are more precisely defined. Because the ATLAS source code is considered to be faultless, it is not expected that wrong characters are stored in this variable. This is why the TestStand string type is considered to be equivalent.
- 7. *Record and File* These data types have no equivalent counterparts in TestStand, but are seldom used. It is recommended to find a work around with a NI LabView VI, or a $C++$ dll.

ATLAS type	Teststand type	Implemented
Enumeration	Number-Container	
Connection	String	
Decimal	Number	
Integer	Number	
Char	String	
Bit	Number	
Boolean	Boolean	
Char-Class	Number-Container	
Dig-Class	Number-Container	
Array	Array	
String () of Type	String	
Record		
File		

Table 4.2: ATLAS and Teststand Variable Type Comparison

4.1.2 Flow control

Flow control statements provide the capability to control the order of statement execution. The ARINC specification 626-3 combines them in the chapter *Procedural statements control*[5]. Because short circuit semantics are not mentioned in the specification it is assumed that they are not implemented, whereas TestStand does implement short circuit evaluation. This difference could be compensated by manipulating the underlying $C++$ code of the relevant flow control steps but this is outside the scope of this work. Given that the example source code doesn't use conditions that would be violated by short circuit evaluation, this difference is irrelevant for the evaluation. Nevertheless it needs to be considered for other source code transformations in the future.

If then else/else if Structures

These structures control the execution of statements provided that certain condition expressions evaluate to true or false. The functional flow of these structures is shown in the ARINC specification 626-3 [5] on page 151. The semantics are very similar to each other, so the transformation to Teststand is very straight forward. Listing 4.7 illustrates the different transformation rules needed. The statements *IF*, *ELSE IF*, *ELSE*, *LEAVE* and *END* have a equivalent representation in teststand.

Listing 4.7: If then else/else if Tranformation Rules

```
1 rule transform If
2 replace [procedural statement]
3 F [A_fstatno] 'IF , Expr [ repeat A_expression ] , 'THEN ' $
4 by
5 'step '\in 'NI Flow If '\in F ' If '\inExpr [transform Expressions ] '\in F 'IF , Expr , 'THEN
           ^{\prime}\$ ;
6 end ru le
7
8 rule transform_Else_If
9 replace [procedural statement]
10 F [ A_ fstatno ] 'ELSE ' IF , Expr [ repeat A_expression ] ,
           'THEN ' $
11 by
12 'step '\in 'NI_Flow_ElseIf '\in F 'ElseIf '\inExpr [transformExpressions] '\in F 'ELSE 'IF , Expr
           'THEN \cdot $;
13 end rule
14
15 rule transform Else
16 replace [procedural statement]
17 F [A_ fstatno] 'ELSE '$
18 by
19 'step '\in 'NI_Flow_Else '\in F 'Else '\in F 'ELSE '$ ;
```

```
20 end rule
21
22 rule transform Leave
23 replace [procedural statement]
24 Leave [A_leave_statement]
25 deconstruct ∗ [ A_ fstatno ] Leave
26 F [A_ fstatno]
27 by
28 'step '\in 'Leave '\in F 'Leave '\in Leave ;
29 end rule
30
31 ru le transform_End
32 replace [procedural_statement]
33 End [A end statement]
34 deconstruct ∗ [ A_ fstatno ] End
35 F [A_ fstatno]
36 by
37 'step '\in 'End '\in F 'End '\in End ;
38 end ru le
```
While

This structure provides the possibility to repetitively execute statements as long as a certain condition evaluates to true. Listing 4.8 illustrates the while transformation rule. The *NI_Flow_While* step is the equivalent representation of the *WHILE* statement.

Listing 4.8: While Tranformation Rules

```
1 rule transform While
2 replace [procedural statement]
3 F [ A_ fstatno ] 'WHILE , Expr [ repeat A_expression ] ,
          'THEN ' $
4 by
5 'step '\in 'NI_Flow_While '\in F 'While '\inExpr [transform Expressions ] '\in F 'WHILE , Expr
          'THEN '$ ;
6 end ru le
```
For

This structure provides the possibility to repetitively execute statements for a defined amount of iterations. Because the Teststand *NI_Flow_For* step is equivalent to the

ATLAS *FOR* statement, the counter variable, initial value, increment value and maximum value are just handed over to the macro assembler. Listing 4.9 illustrates the for transformation rule. If the increment value is not defined, it is set to 1 by default in ATLAS. Therefore the *convert_Default_For* rule manipulates the ATLAS code to match the replacement condition of the *transform_For* rule.

Listing 4.9: For Tranformation Rules

```
1 rule transform For
2 replace [procedural_statement]
3 \t F [A_ffstatno | 'FOR', Counter [charlit] '= Initial
          [ number ] 'THRU End [ number ] 'BY Increment [ number ] ,
           'THEN ' $
4 by
5 'step '\in 'NI Flow For '\in F ' For '\in Counter '\in Initial
          '\in End '\in Increment '\in F 'FOR , Counter '= Initial
          'THRU End 'BY Increment, 'THEN '$;
6 end ru le
7
8 rule convert Default For
9 replace [procedural statement]
10 F [A_{\text{1}}$ FOR , Counter [\text{charlit}] '= Initial
          [number] 'THRU End [number], 'THEN '$
11 by
12 F 'FOR , Counter '= Initial 'THRU End 'BY 1 , 'THEN '$
13 end rule
```
Perform

This statement directs the program flow to a procedure. The procedure is identified by a unique name. It is possible to assign input values or variables and return variables. After executing the procedure statements, the program flow continues from this statement. Because procedures are transformed to sequences, the equivalent Teststand step is a SequenceCall. Listing 4.10 illustrates the perform transformation rule.

Listing 4.10: Perform tranformation Rules

	1 rule transform Perform
	2 replace [procedural_statement]
	3 F [A_fstatno] 'PERFORM, Name [charlit] Input
	[A_perform_parameters] '\$
4	construct T Input [list A expression]
	5 [getPerformInput Input]
	6 construct T_Output [list A_expression]

7 __ [getPerformOutput Input] 8 **by** 9 'step ' \in 'SequenceCall ' \in F 'Perform ' \in Name ' \in T_Input \lceil , T_Output \rceil [transform Expressions \rceil ' \in F $'PERFORM$, Name Input '\$;

```
10 end rule
```
Finish

This statement ends the program execution immediately. Because there is no direct equivalent Teststand step, a number of steps are required to induce an equivalent behaviour. This is explained in section 4.2.2. As listing 4.11 shows the transformation rule for the macro command is fairly simple.

Listing 4.11: Finish Transformation Rules

```
1 rule transform Finish
2 replace [procedural statement]
3 F [A_fstatno] 'FINISH '$
4 by
5 'step '\in 'Finish '\in F 'Finish '\in F 'FINISH '$;
6 end ru le
```
Wait

This statement suspends the program execution until a condition is satisfied. It is possible to wait for a certain time, a specific timer to reach a specified time quantity, a particular event to occur or a human manual intervention. In the scope of this work, just the first condition is transformed, therefore the other options aren't used very often. Listing 4.12 illustrates the transformation rule. The equivalent Teststand step to a *wait for time* statement is a wait step. Because the ATLAS statement considers the time dimension and the Teststand step always uses milliseconds, the *convertTimeDim* function in line 7 converts the time dimensions accordingly.

```
Listing 4.12: Wait Transformation Rules
1 rule transform Wait
2 replace [procedural statement]
3 F [A_ fstatno] 'WAIT 'FOR', 'TIME Time [A_time_quantity]
          ' $
4 construct T_time [ number ]
5 0
6 by
```

```
7 'step '\in 'NI_Wait '\in F 'Wait '\in T_time [ converTimeDim
          Time \forall \in F 'WAIT 'FOR , 'TIME Time '$ ;
```
8 **end ru le**

4.1.3 Data Processing

Data processing statements provide the capability to save test values for further use in the test procedure, perform calculations on these value and compare test values with specified limits.

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Calculate

The calculate statement evaluates an expression on the right side of an equals sign and assigns the value to the variable on the left side of the equals sign. It is possible to make more evaluations by separating each assignment by a comma.

This functionality can be provided by a *statement* step in TestStand. Every evaluation-assignment pair can be written in the post-expression property and is conveniently also separated by a comma.

Listing 4.13: Transform Calculate Rule

```
rule transform Calculate
  replace [procedural statement]
    F [A_fstatno] 'CALCUALTE ', Expr [ repeat A_expression ] ' $
  by
    'step '\in 'Statement '\in F 'Calcualte '\in Expr
        [\text{transformExpressions}] '\in F 'CALCUALTE', Expr '$;
end ru le
```
Listing 4.13 shows the transformation rule for calculate statements. The replacement rule is straight forward so only one subrule to transform the expressions is needed. This means the main challenge is to translate these expressions properly. For further information about expression transformation see section 4.1.5 on page 40. In the scope of this work, the expression transformation is just focused on the expressions we encountered in the example code. So in future work the complete transformation of the expressions is recommended.

Compare

This statement compares a variable with the limits defined in an evaluation field. This comparison and the results are then printed to the report. The equivalent Teststand step is the *VTSA Numeric Limit Test*. Important information are the *variable name*, the *dimension* of the value it represents, the *evaluation format* and the *limits*. For the report, we also need the *test step number*(TSN) and a *test description*. Listing 4.14 shows the transformation rule in TXL.


```
1 rule transformCompare
2 replace [procedural statement]
3 F [ A_ fstatno ] 'COMPARE ' , Var [ c h a r l i t ] ' , Comp [ repeat
         A_comparison_value ] ' $
4 construct Dim [A dim]
5 'NODIM
6 construct Body [ repeat T_compare_body ]
7 _ [ getCompareValues each Comp]
8 by
9 'step '\in 'VTSA NumericTest '\in F 'Compare '\in Var '\in '\inDim [getAtlasDimension Comp] Body '\in F 'COMPARE', Var
          ', Comp ' $;
```
10 end rule

The function *getAtlasDimension* in line 9 does aestetic transformations to the appearance of the dimension description in the report. Table 4.3 shows the conversions we needed for the case study.

The function *getCompareValues* in line 7 transforms the evaluation field (Comp [**repeat** A_comparison_value]) that is expressed in line 3.

ATLAS	Teststand
dimension	dimension
USEC	11S
MSEC	ms
SEC	

Table 4.3: Dimension Conversions

To get the possible evaluation formats for the *evaluation field*, we need to take a look at table 4.4. Each row lists a field format and the result different variable values will establish.

4.1.4 Hardware Control Statements

Signal statements primarily control the hardware components. The ARINC specification 626-3 combines them in the chapter *Procedural statements signal* [5, 189].

Evaluation	Value of	Conditions	Teststand
Field Format	Variable v	Established	equivalent
UL y LL z	v > y	Hi & NOGO	GELE y z
	$y \geq v \geq z$	GO	
	z > v	LO & NOGO	
GT x	v > x	GO	GT x
	$v \leq x$	LO & NOGO	
LT x	v < x	GO	LT x
	$v \geq x$	LO & NOGO	
EQ x	$v = x$	GO	EQ x
	$v \ll >x$	LO & NOGO	
NE X	$v \ll >x$	GO	NE X
	$v = x$	LO & NOGO	
GE x	$v \geq x$	GO	GE x
	v < x	LO & NOGO	
LE x	$v \leq x$	GO	LE x
	v > x	LO & NOGO	

Table 4.4: Evaluation Field Relationships from Table 14-1 [5, 274]

Therefore hardware control is not in the scope of this work, the control actions, as well as the values and limits are passed to the according hardware sequence. So most of these statements can be transformed with one rule.

Statements that can be transformed by the rule *transformSignal* in listing 4.15:

- APPLY
- REMOVE
- CHANGE
- SETUP
- CONNECT
- DISCONNECT
- ARM
- FETCH
- RESET
- VERIFY

• READ

```
Listing 4.15: Signal Statement Transformation Rule
```

```
1 rule transformSignal
2 replace [procedural statement]
3 \qquad \quad \  \  \text{F[ A\_fstatno ] Verb [ A\_signal\_verb ] }' \, , \, \  \, \text{Mes} [ A\_measured\_char ]Noun [ A_noun_field ] ' , Body [ l i s t A_require_body ] _[ opt
            A_field_separator | Cnx [A_conn_signal] '$
4 deconstruct∗ [charlit] Noun
5 Requirename [charlit]
6 deconstruct Cnx
7 'CNX Pin s [ repeat A_Pins ]
8 construct Verbid [id]
9 [unparse Verb]
10 construct Return [A_body_remainder]
11
12 construct Parameters [ repeat T_signal_body ]
13 '€ 'Action ', Verbid
14 \qquad \qquad \text{'$\epsilon$} \qquad \text{'Return} \qquad \text{; Return} \text{ [getReturnValue Mes]}15 by
16 'step '\epsilon 'SignalCall '\epsilon F Verbid '\epsilon Requirename
            Parameters [getSignalParameterBody each Body]
            [getSignalParameterCnx each Pins] '€ F Verb ', Mes
            Noun', Body', Cnx'$;
17 end ru le
```
4.1.5 Expressions

An expression consists of one or more expression items, that are links via a mathematical, boolean and/or logic operator. Table 4.5 shows the different possible operators and their equivalent counterpart in TestStand.

Most of these operators are expressed in the same way in ATLAS and TestStand. That means that a lot of the parts of an expression don't need to be transformed at all. An expression item may be one of these for items:

- predefined or in preamble defined function
- another expression in parenthesis
- A variable
- a constant

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ATLAS	Description	Teststand
Operation		equivalent
EQ	Equality	$==$ or EQ
NΕ	Inequality	$!=$ or NE
GT	Greater than	$>$ or GT
LT	Less than	$<$ or LT
GE	GT or EQ	$\gt =$ or GE
LE	LT or EQ	$\mathrel{<=}$ or LE
XOR	Exclusive OR	XOR
OR	Logical OR	ОR
AND	Logical AND	AND
NOT	Logical NOT	NOT
$^{+}$	Addition	$\hspace{.011cm} +$
	Substraction	
$**$	Exponentiate	Exp()
\ast	Multiply	\ast
	Division	
DIV	Division	
MOD	Modulo	MOD
&	Concatenation	&

Table 4.5: Mathematical and Logical Conjunctions in ATLAS and TestStand

Variables in TestStand are stored in different places. That is why the TestStand assembler needs to evaluate the path of every variable. Therefore a transformation in TXL is is not necessary.

A list of all predefined functions is included to the ARINC Spec 626-3 [5, 134]. The functions that are transformed so far are $\text{COPY}(A, B, C)$ to $\text{Mid}(A, B+1, C)$ and BITS($\text{ASCII7}, \text{A}$) to $\text{Asc}(A)$. It is not possible to call sequences from expressions in TestStand, therefore custom functions can't be implemented to TestStand without a big effort. At this place a work around in the future needs to be considered. In most cases ATLAS custom functions implement functionalities, that are already existing in TestStand pre defined functions. Because the case study doesn't use custom functions, they have not been implemented.

4.2 Teststand Assembler

The TestStand assembler is developed in TestStand to provide the possibility to create binary sequence files. This is possible, because die TestStand API provides the possibility to manipulate existing persisted TestStand objects and to create new object on runtime. Nevertheless TestStand primarily is a management software for automated test environments. Most of the transformations should be done by the TXL rules. Therefore the TestStnad assembler is designed to execute basic marco commands to create TestStand steps, sequences and variables. These commands are explained in the following.

4.2.1 Concept

The macro command list is being executed from top to bottom. Every macro command has a similar structure:

Category € *Type* € *Name* € *Additional information* € *ATLAS code*;

There are four different *Categories*:

- 1. Steps : to create new TestStand steps
- 2. Sequences: To create new sequences and control in which sequence steps are stored
- 3. Variables: To Declare and initialize new variables
- 4. edit: To Manipulates existing structures

In the following each macro command of the different categories is introduced. Terminal symbols are **bold** variable symbols *italic*.

Step

This category includes every macro that is related to the creation of new TestStand steps.

step $€$ **Label** $€$ *Label name* $€$ *ATLAS code* ;

A Label has no effect on the actual program. It is used to display comments for instance.

step € **Unknown** € **Unknown Codeleine** € *§ ATLAS code §* ;

An unknown statement is a special form of a lable. It always has the name Unknown Codeline and different display icon. To make a TestStand sequence runnable, at first all Unknown statements need to be translated by hand.

step \in nop \in *§ ATLAS code §* ;

Another special form of a label step. This step represents ATLAS statements that are not necessary for the correct execution of the test program.

step \in **NI Flow If** \in *Statement number* **If** \in *Condition* \in *ATLAS code* ; **step** \in **NI** Flow ElseIf \in *Statement number* If \in *Condition* \in *AT*-*LAS code* ; **step** € **NI_Flow_While** € *Statement number* **While** € *Condition* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates an *If/Elseif/While ste*p. At the *Condition* variable the condition expression is assigned.

step $∈$ **NI Flow For** $∈$ *Statement number* **For** $∈$ *Loop variable* $∈$ *Start number* € *Number* of loops € *Increment value* € *ATLAS* code ;

Creates a *For step*. The *Loop variable* represents the variable where the Index of the for loop is stored. The *Start number* variable indicates, with what number the *Loop variable* is initiated. The *Number of loops* is the upper limit and the *Increment value* variable indicates the incrementation number.

step € **End** € *Statement number* **End** € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates an *End step* which marks the end of an if/for/while structure.

step € **Leave** € *Statement number* **Leave** € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *Break step*, that allows to jump out of if/for/while structures.

step € **Report** € *Statement number* **Message** € *Text output* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *VTSA_PostText step* to print text into the report. The variable *Text output* contains the actual text, but can also contain additional variables, that have to be mapped by the Assembler.

step € **MessagePopup** € *Statement number* **Message** € *Input type* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a M*essage Popup step*, that displays a popup message on run time. The *Input type* variable indicates if the input is a text or a button input.

step € **NI_Wait** € *Statement number* **Wait** € *Number* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *wait step*. The *Number* indicates the waiting time in seconds.

step € **Statement** € *Statement number Name* € *Expression* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *Statement step*. The *Expression* variable contains the expression that has to be performed. The translation of the variables in the Expression is handled by the assembler.

step € **Finish** € *Statement number* **Finish** € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a specific *statement step* that terminates the test run.

step € **VTSA_NumericTest** € *Statement number* **Compare** € *Compare Variable* € *Compare pins* €€ *Dimension* € *Compare limits ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *VTSA_Numeric_Limit Test step*, that compares values with one another and writes the results into the report. *Compare Variable* contains the variable that ought to be compared. The *compare pins* variable contains the information at what pins data is measured, so that they can be displayed in the report. The *Dimension* variable explains the dimension of the compared values (zB. Ω oder V). The *Compare limits* variable contains the information about the kind of comparison and the values for the comparison.

step € **SequenceCall** € *Statement number* **Perform** € *Sequence name* € *Parameters* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *Sequence Call Step* that invokes another sequence. The *Sequence name* variable states the Name of the invoked sequence. In the *Parameters*, a comma separated list contains the transfer parameters.

step € **SignalCall** € *Statement number Action* € *Sequence name* € *Parameters* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *Sequence Call step* that activates one of the Sequences which contain the hardware triggering. *Action* represents the kind of call (APPLY etc). The *Sequence name* variable indicates the Name of the Hardware-Sequence to be invoked. In the *Parameters*, a comma separated list contains the transfer parameters.

step € **EventCall** € *Statement number Action* € *Event name* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates a *Sequence Call step*, that calls a sequence that is connected with an event. At launch, a global variable is retrieved which contains all events and their parameters. There is no need to transfer parameters at this point. The name of the event is deposited in *Event name*.

step € **ExchangeCall** € *Statement number Action* € *Exchange name* € *Parameters* € *ATLAS code* ;

Creates *Sequence Call step* that calls one of the sequences which are connected with a bus protocol. At launch, a global variable is retrieved which contains some of the parameters. The name of the exchange protocol is filed in *Exchange name*. Further parameters are exchanged via *Parameters*.

Sequence

This category contains all macros that are necessary to create a sequence and to control in which sequences variables and steps shall be saved.

sequence € **BuildSequence** € *Sequence name* € *Sequence type* ;

Creates a new *sequence* with the name *Sequence Name*. The *Sequence type* variable solely creates a sequence description for aesthetic purposes that has no effect on the procedure.

sequence € **BuildChapter** € *Chapter name* ;

Creates a new chapter. A chapter is a specific sequence that is called from the start sequence automatically (*MainSequence*). A chapter holds a complete testchapter. Chapter are independent from one another and create entry points of the test program. Before every test run one can decide which test chapter should be launched.

sequence € **SetSequence** € *Sequence name* ;

Sets the global variable *FileGlobals.ActualSequence* (which contains the reference of the current sequence) to the sequence with the name *Sequence Name*. All subsequent steps and variables are therefore automatically written into this sequence.

sequence € **RestSequence** ;

Sets the global variable *FileGlobals.ActualSequence* back to the *MainSequence*.

Variable

This category contains all makros for the creation of variables.

variable € *Names* € *Type* € *Location* € *Initials* ;

Declares and initializes variables. *Names* is a comma seperated list with variable names and *Initials* is a comma seperated list with their initial values. Types states the kind of variable and *Location* states the storage location. So far, these types are implemented:

- *number*
- *string*
- *container*

Also, variables for custom types can be forwarded. storage locations can be:

- *Locals*
- *Inputparameter*
- *Outputparameter*
- *FileGlobals*
- *Exchange*

Edit

With this category, one can manipulate existing structures or save typedefs.

```
edit € Begin € Program name ;
edit € Terminate € Program name ;
```
Mark the beginning and the end of the ATLAS program and therefore don't have any impact on the program. Only the *Program name* is analysed and compared.

edit € **Variable** € *Name* € *Initial* ;

Variable values can be changed further in the process.

edit € **Type** $∈$ *Name* $∈$ *Type*;

Adds a custom type to the global variable *fileGlobals.Types* with the name *Name* and the predefined type *Type*.

4.2.2 Construction Examples

This section illustrates the implementation of some of the macros with the help of exemplary code from the TestStand Assembler. The specific commands are processed top-down.

Finish

Because Teststand does not have a dedicated step to end a test run, a statement step is induced to accomplish this.

This particular example shows the general use of the TestStand API. Listing 4.16 illustrates the API commands that are executed in the *Create New Finish Statement* step depicted above. The effect of each code line is explained in the following:

- 1. Creates a new *Statement* step and forwards the object reference to the *NewStep* variable.
- 2. Creates a command in the subproperty *PostExpression*, so that the step can set his own status to *Passed* on run time.
- 3. Manipulates the subproperty **PassAction** and sets the value to *Terminate*.
- 4. Sets the step name.
- 5. Forwards the corresponding ATLAS code as a comment.
- 6. The variable *FileGlobals.ActualSequence* holds a reference object to the sequence to write to. The API command *InsertStep* inserts the step into the sequence.

Listing 4.16: Using TestStand API to build a new Step

- 1 Locals . NewStep = $RunState$. Engine . NewStep $("", "Statement")$,
- 2 Locals. NewStep. AsStep. PostExpression $=$ " RunState . Step . Result . Status= \P Passed \T ",
- 3 Locals. NewStep. AsStep. PassAction = "Terminate",
- 4 Locals . NewStep . AsStep . Name $=$ Trim (Locals . Steparray $[2]$, "'"),
- 5 Locals. NewStep. $AsPropertyObject$. Comment = $Str(Locals. Steparray [3])$,
- 6 File Globals. Actual Sequence. As Sequence. Insert Step (Locals. NewStep, File Globals. Actual Sequence. AsSequence . GetNumSteps (StepGroup Main) , StepGroup Main) ,

PassAction is implemented in every step and controls what ought to happen after the step, when the status of the step is *Passed*. Usually, the next step in line is activated, but in this case, the program is shut down. Because the statement can manipulate its own status on runtime with the help of the TestStand API, the termination of the test program is ensured.This steps looks like shown below. The row *999998 FINISH \$* shows the comment field and the associated ATLAS code.

For

Another example is the creation of a *For Step*. As mentioned in Section 4.2.1, this step contains a *Loop variable*. Because it is unclear (at that moment) where this variable is stored, it has to be searched for inside the program. Because of this, the sequence *locate Variable*, as shown below, is accessed and the name of the variable forwarded.

Listing 4.17 illustrates the API calls of the step *Create New For Statement*. The subproperties *InitializationExpr*, *ConditionExpr*, *IncrementExpr* and *CustomLoop* are no standard subproperties, which every step has, therefore they have to be manipulated via *SetValString* respectively *SetValBoolean*.

- 1 Locals . NewStep = $RunState$. Engine . NewStep ("", "NI_Flow_For"),
- 2 File Globals. Actual Sequence. As Sequence. Insert Step (Locals. NewStep, File Globals. Actual Sequence. As Sequence. GetNumSteps (StepGroup_Main) , StepGroup_Main) ,
- 3 Locals . NewStep . AsPropertyObject . SetValString (" Initialization Expr", 0, Locals. Steparray $[3] + \equiv$ " + $Locals. Steparray [4])$,
- 4 Locals. NewStep. AsPropertyObject. SetValString (" ConditionExpr", 0, Locals. Steparray $[3]$ + " \leq =" + Locals. Steparray $[5]$),
- 5 Locals. NewStep. AsPropertyObject. SetValString (" Increment Expr", 0 , Locals . Steparray $[3]+$ " $+$ =" $+$ Locals. Steparray [6]),
- 6 Locals. NewStep. AsPropertyObject. SetValBoolean (" CustomLoop " , 0 , True) ,
- 7 Locals. NewStep. AsStep. Name $=$ Trim (Locals. Steparray $[2]$, "'"),
- 8 Locals . NewStep $.$ AsPropertyObject . Comment $=$ $Str (Locals. Steparray [7])$

A step, generated like this, could look like this:

FOR, T = 1 THRU 40 BY 1, THEN \$

 Q_2 For

Parameters.Variables.I = 1; Parameters.Variables.I <= 40; Parameters.Variables.I += 1

5 Evaluation

This chapter presents the tests that were excuted to evaluate our test system and the results are discussed afterwards. The goal of this chapter is to verify the robustness of the grammar and the properness of the transformation.

5.1 Applicability

To test the robustness of the parsing, grammar and transformation rules, the test system was used to transform a number of different ARINC 626-3 ATLAS test programs. The results are discussed in this section. The test also verifies the assumption that most parts of avionic test programs are similar to a certain point.

Table 5.1 illustrates various test programs that are used for testing of different parts of an air plane. The table shows the total amount of code lines and the number of unknown code lines for each tested program. As described in section 4.1 on page 26 every ATLAS code line, that is not explicitly defined in the ATLAS grammar, is identified as an unknown code line.

ATLAS test	Number of	Number of unknown	Number of unknown
program name	code lines	code lines absolute	code lines relative
EAU	3849	$\left(\right)$	0%
HYDIM	1774	197	11\%
ECSMC	1978	241	12\%
PDCU	1776	205	12\%
OEU	983	158	16%
SZUM	2233	355	16%
SDM	1039	194	19%
WEU	4753	910	19%
\csc	2292	464	20%
\rm{ASG}	1979	445	23\%
LMC	3482	988	28%

Table 5.1: Unknown Code lines in different transformed Programs

First of all, the testing reveals that the test system is robust enough to translate every *ATLAS ARINC 626-3 Spec* code line without the occurrence of parsing errors. In addition it appears that the statement definitions of the ATLAS grammar were precise enough to avoid pushing the limits of hardware while parsing. An ambiguous grammar can easily exceed the capacity of computer memory while parsing even if the program is small.

The results show that 70 to 90 percent of the ATLAS statements were successfully transformed to an equivalent Teststand step. This could save a lot of time when translating test programs, even if they could not be converted to 100 percent. Furthermore this result supports the assumption that avionic test programs are similar in most parts or at least use the same ATLAS statements.

There are some situations to consider, were Teststand steps are transformed correctly but do not work immediately:

- Unknown expressions do not lead to unknown code lines because they are always copied to the *post expression* part of the Teststand step. This means unknown expressions are automatically caught by the Teststand built-in syntax check.
- Unknown variable or resource declarations lead to variables and resources that can not be assigned during an assemble phase.

These cases result in Teststand steps, that are not considered in the table even if they are not running properly. This implies that the percentage of not-running code is probably higher. Nonetheless can the results be predictive of the transformed code, because the expressions only represent a small fraction of the errors. Furthermore, adding the not-declared variables and resources automatically corrects the allocationerrors in other steps. The test system is therefore robust and can be used in this setup to save time.

5.2 Case Study

The following case study validates the transformation system regarding the proper semantic. As mentioned in section 3.2.2, the semantical correctness is ensured if the test report of the transformed test programs equals the test report of the original test program. Saying that, both reports have to make the same predictions about the UUT.

To verify the semantical correctness of the transformation rules, the rule set and grammar was supplemented to convert 100% of the code lines of an example program. The OEM ATLAS Programm consists of 19 Testchapters. The UUT consists of two identically constructed components, who are both tested in the same way. Therefore, the test chapter 2.x and 3.x are always identical, but refer to different pins on the UUT. Every test chapter consists of different steps that can be identified with a distinct Test Step Number (TSN). This number can be found in every step of the Testreport. Therefore, the TSN can be used in our case study as an identification mark to compare the results. Every Teststep can therefore be identified and compared precisely:

- 2. Each test step with the same TSN has to run the same test.
- 3. Every test with the same TSN has to retrieve the same limits.
- 4. In a Test with the same UUT, Teststeps with the same TSN have to deliver the same result measured.

5.2.1 Limits

To compare the program structure and measurement limits, the translated exemplary program is executed without the hardware first. The program generates a report without measured values, but with every Teststep included. That report is than compared with a reference report from the ATLAS source program. This allows to control for missing teststeps and if the teststeps are in the right order, while testing, if the correct limits were prompted. Therefore, the structure of the translated testprogram can be validated.

Table 5.2 shows, for every chapter, the amount of teststeps that are mentioned in the reference report, the amount of teststeps that can be found in the report of the translated TestStand program and the amount of teststeps in the TestStand Report that show correct limits.

The comparison of the reports shows that all teststeps appear in the right order in TestStand. Nevertheless, two errors have been identified.

One teststep (in chapter 2.8 and 3.8) in the TestStand Report did not retrieve the same limits as the ATLAS reference report. This can be associated with an error in the ATLAS source code and does not imply a flawed translation. Figure 5.1 shows the deficient teststep from chapter 2.8. The comment line of the test step shows the translated ATLAS statement for comparison. Clearly, the limits for the upper and lower bound were interchanged.

281010 COMPARE, 'TIME-CHECK', UL 99.0 MSEC LL 146.0 MSEC \$ Ø 281010 Compare VTSA Numeric Limit Test, 146 <= x <= 99, ms

Figure 5.1: Interchanged Limits

In chapter 2.9 and 3.9, a teststep in the TestStand Report went missing. This problem could be attributed to a defective implementation of the value query. Figure 5.2 shows the associated TestStand code. An If statement retrieves the boolean variable *MAX-TIME*. According to this, another variable is set to *TRUE* or *FALSE*. To generate an entry in the report, a *COMPARE* Statement should check the variable *MAX-TIME* for *TRUE* in the correct implementation. This error can therefore not

Chapter	# ATLAS	$#$ TestStand	Number of
number	test steps	test steps	correct tests
1.0	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$
2.1	25	25	25
2.2	148	148	148
2.3	14	14	14
2.4	9	9	9
2.5	101	101	101
2.6	70	70	70
2.7	91	91	91
2.8	51	51	50
$2.9\,$	37	36	36
3.1	25	25	25
$\!3.2\!$	148	148	148
3.3	14	14	14
3.4	9	9	9
3.5	101	101	101
3.6	70	70	70
3.7	91	91	91
3.8	51	51	50
3.9	37	36	36

Table 5.2: Checking Limits and Test Step Order

be associated with a defective transformation.

The comparison of the limits leads to the conclusion, that the ATLAS source program that generated the reference report was not identical with the used exemplary program. We can assume, that errors from the ATLAS program code have been fixed in the program for the reference report.

5.2.2 Runtests

To review the semantics, the test program is used on a test rig to examine an UUT. UThe same UUT was used to compare the generated report with an existing ATLAS report. The measured values in the TestStand report have to coincide with the AT-LAS report.

An error occurred, due to the transformation, but was fixed immediately afterwards. The pre-defined function *COPY(A,B,C)* copies a substring of string *A* from character index *B* with length *C*. In TestStand the equivalent function is *Mid(A,B,C*. The only difference led to the failure. Character index *B* starts in ATLAS with 1 and

294010 IF, MAX-TIME, THEN \$	
?⊰ 294010 ff	FileGlobals.MAX TIME
$CALCULATE, GO = TRUE$	
$f(x)$ Calculate	FileGlobals.GO = TRUE
ELSE _{\$}	
> Else	
€ CALCULATE. GO = FALSE \$	
$f(x)$ Calculate	$FileGlobals.GO = FALSE$
END, IF \$	
End	

Figure 5.2: Incorrect Variable Monitoring

in TestStand with 0.

Table 5.3 shows the last results of the runtests. Because the chapters 2.x and 3.x are identical, we take a closer look at chapter 1.0 to 2.9. The amount of test steps and the amount of correctly measured values is stated for every chapter.

Chapter	$#$ Test	Correct
number	steps	measured values
1.0	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$
2.1	25	23
2.2	148	148
2.3	14	14
2.4	9	9
2.5	101	101
2.6	70	70
2.7	91	88
2.8	51	50
2.9	37	36

Table 5.3: Runtime Value Comparisons

Despite the above mentioned error, no other indifferences were ascertained that could lead to the assumption of incorrect transformation. Other causes for errors will be elaborated in the following section.

Problems

In the first runthrough of the test program, not a single generated chapter concurred with the reference report. These Errors had different reasons:

1. Programming error in the ATLAS Source program

This error occured unexpectedly often:

- Incorrect implementation of RS232 communication.
- Parallel allocation of DC Voltage Sources.
- Interchanged Limits
- Incorrect variable comparison
- 2. Error in the Test Unit Adapter

Mostly, a false values could be associated with an error in the TUA due to design issues and/or faulty wiring.

3. Programming- or timing error with the hardware triggering.

Programming errors occurred while activating the relays or triggering the hardware ressources. Another problem with the hardware triggering was the timing. This error can be explained as follows.

Figure 5.3 illustrates three steps from the example program. In the first step, a 5V DC Source is applied to a HI pin *J1A-22*. After a 2.5 second waiting period, the DC Source is disconnected. The idea is to have 5V on the pin $J1A-22$ for exactly 2.5 seconds. Unfortunately, the activation of the relays and the triggering of the DC source leads to a delay, therefore a 5V slope of 3 seconds can be measured. This can have an influence on the UUT and explain the false measures.

Figure 5.3: Hardware Timing Problem

6 Conclusion

This chapter concludes the thesis with a summary of the results and an outlook to future work. The goal was a semantic preservative transform from ATLAS test case descriptions to TestStand sequences. This goal was achieved in this work and was evaluated by means of a case study. The result is a working prove of concept. The method greatly simplifies the migration process of two test languages.

At first we developed a grammar to parse the ATLAS test case descriptions into a parse tree. The grammar is designed in a way, that all program statements are accepted by the parser and cause no syntax error, even if they are not defined in the grammar. Consequently it is possible to transform common or important parts of the test description automatically, while rare statement are preserved in the program for later transformation by hand.

TestStand is a test management software with a graphical development interface that saves the source code into binary sequence files. Therefore there is no TestStand compiler that accepts text files as input. That is why a TestStand Assembler program had to be developed, that is capable of an automated creation of TestStand sequence files with the use of macro commands that are specially developed for this purpose.

The parse tree is then converted to macro commands for the TestStand Assembler using transformation rules. These rules are carefully crafted to preserve the semantics of the test program. To evaluate the transformation system, the grammar and transformation rules were expanded to transform 100% of an example source program. Furthermore, multiple additional input test programs were translated with the transformation system, to check the robustness of the parser and to record the amount of statements the grammar can transform completely.

The evaluation shows promising results, namely that the transformation system is capable of handling the given task. All tested ATLAS source programs were successful transformed to TestStand sequences. 70% to 90% of the code lines of each individual translated program do not subsequently have to be revised by hand. This supports the assumption, that large parts of the ATLAS test case descriptions are developed with small amounts of the available features the ATLAS language provides. The face that after transformation at most 30% of the code lines of the source program need to be reviewed by hand, promises significant time savings in the migration process. This can certainly be improved by an extension of the grammar and the transformation rules.

During the run test we could also identify two weaknesses of the transformation systems. A major source of error are the descriptions of the ATLAS semantics in the *ARINC specification 626-3* [5]. These have proved to be not as precise as claimed by the authors. Especially the descriptions of pre-defined ATLAS functions are ambiguous and incomplete. For example, in the description of the ATLAS function $COPY(A, B, C)¹$ the information, that the index starts at one, is missing. That has caused the index in the transformed TastStand program to be off of one digit, because the index of the nearly equivalent TestStand function $Mid(A, B, C)^{1}$ starts at zero.

Another major source of error are the ATLAS test descriptions themselves. The transformation system is not capable of identifying semantic errors in the program code. The robustness of the grammar sometimes also causes the acceptance of incorrect syntax. Therefore, it was assumed for this work, that the source code is error-free. However, the run test has shown that the ATLAS test descriptions contained multiple errors. These errors were most likely fixed in the test software of the manufacturer, but not in the ATLAS test case descriptions of the CMM.

The source transformation tool TXL has proven to be extremely solid. The transformations have taken no longer than one minute, even when using source code with many code lines and unknown statements. Considering it takes the TestStand Assembler 20 to 30 minutes afterwards to construct the sequence files, the time the transformations take are even less significant. However, if the grammar is still significantly expanded and there are a lot of unknown statement, the backtracking could cause the main memory to overflow.

¹Copy from string A at index B a substring with length C

6.1 Future Work

During the work on the project, some promising ideas had to be discarded due to time restrictions and the evaluation process exposed some weaknesses in the transformation system. The following suggestions show great potential to improve the capabilities of the transformation system:

- The Teststand Macro Assembler could be extended to support the creation of a Report to ease the transformation process. Information about unused or undefined variables and unknown statements are a great help during the transformation of unknown code lines by hand or the identification of semantic failures.
- A big point that has led to the transformation of ATLAS test case descriptions into TestStand sequences at all is that some structures, such as digital bus systems in ATLAS can only be realized with complicated and slow workarounds. A process, that recognizes these cumbersome workarounds and improves them according to the possibilities that TestStand offers, could optimize the clarity and the performance of the test program significantly.
- The mapping of the virtual resources of the test case descriptions to real resources of the automatic test environment and the control of these hardware components in TestStand is still a manual task. A process that automates this approach could save a lot of time and reduce the likelihood of errors.

Listings

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