

CALCULATING SOFTWARE METRICS FOR LADDER LOGIC

Matthew Waters, Ken Young

International Manufacturing Centre, University of Warwick, Coventry, England, CV47AL, U.K.

Waters.matthew@gmail.com, young_k@wmgmail.wmg.warwick.ac.uk

Ira D. Baxter

Semantic Designs, Austin, Texas, U.S.A.

idbaxter@semanticdesigns.com

Keywords: Metrics, ladder logic, lexical analysis, parsing, attribute evaluation.

Abstract: Ladder logic is a graphical language widely used to program Programmable Logic Controllers (PLCs). PLCs are found at the heart of most industrial control systems used in automation because they are robust, they are relatively easy to program and because they are a proven technology. However there is currently no means to measure the intrinsic properties and qualities of the code produced. This paper details a method for creating tools to calculate software metrics for ladder logic, specifically Rockwell Automation's implementation of ladder logic for its ControlLogix family of PLCs, Import-Export language version 2.6. Results obtained from these tools are briefly discussed also.

1 INTRODUCTION

Ladder logic was originally designed as a method for programming PLCs. It was intended to resemble electrical relay schematic diagrams so that the engineers familiar with the existing hard-wired, relay based electrical control systems could easily adapt to the new technology. It was so successful in this regard that PLC programmers have typically been recruited on the strength of their engineering or technicians background, as opposed to their strength in computer science.

Although the basics of ladder logic have not changed much since that time, the language has evolved to help it meet the increasingly sophisticated needs of automation. Additional functionality has been added to the original relay specification language including: arithmetic operations, timers and counters, data comparison operations, data transfer commands, program control operations, ASCII operations, process control instructions and motion control instructions. Modern ladder logic now has much in common with more conventional programming languages (e.g. C and Java) in both functionality and in the way that the control strategies and algorithms can be implemented. Yet the shortage of software engineers in the field has meant that practices and techniques commonly used

in computer science have been neglected in PLC programming languages.

2 SOFTWARE METRICS

The IEEE Standard Glossary of Software Engineering Terminology (IEEE Standard 610.12) defines software engineering as:

“The application of a systematic, disciplined, quantifiable approach to development, operation, and maintenance of software; that is, the application of engineering to software.”

The fact that the IEEE considers that engineering software systems requires quantification of system properties is highly relevant. This means that the inherent properties of a given piece of code must be measured in order to be able to ‘engineer’ it and improve it.

The IEEE also defines a metric as “a quantitative measure of the degree to which a system, component or process possess a given attribute”. Software metrics should therefore be an implicit part of the engineering process.

Various software metrics have existed since the 1970s, and they have even been used to assess the complexity of manufacturing control architectures based on software and information flow (Phukan

2005), but very few have been used to evaluate PLC code. There is a desire to see practical tools to achieve this (Frey 2002) and recently a Java program has been built that analyzes the metrics of an Instruction List PLC program (Younis 2007).

Metrics provide a way of analysing the code so the programmer can garner some information about its inherent properties. They are normally computed by static analysis techniques, which means that the program is analysed in an offline mode, as opposed to a dynamic analysis technique that analyses the program as it is running.

Although metrics have not been used to meaningfully analyse PLC code, they have been used extensively on other languages. This means that there is a lot known about the strengths of these tools and the advantages they can offer. These include:

- Wide acceptance of basic value of certain metrics. For example the cyclomatic complexity software metric (McCabe, 1976) is computed using a graph that describes the control flow of the program. The nodes of the graph correspond to the commands of a program. A directed edge connects two nodes if the second command might be executed immediately after the first command. This metric has been used extensively for the last thirty years and it is accepted that the higher the value of complexity, the harder the routine is to understand, test and maintain. Cyclomatic complexity is discussed further in section 3.3.1.2.
- Unbiased assessment of source code quality. Peer review can be used as a method of evaluating software code, but this is a biased assessment that could be affected by how the reviewer feels on the day. A computer program that analyses code will be unbiased.
- Repeatability of measurements. The difficulty in reliance on peer review is consistency in measurement. A programmer reviewing the same code two weeks apart is unlikely to give an identical response. Is not the case with deterministic static analysis.
- Ease of measurement. A metric measurement takes only a short time to collect and can be initiated by the programmer at their convenience; peer review takes far longer and involves more people.
- Ability to judge progress in enhancing quality by comparing before and after assessments.

The use of metrics allows organisation to set thresholds. If these thresholds are exceeded, action is recommended to inspect the code for problems, to reduce the measured values, either through modularisation or some alternate method. The initial coding effort might take longer, but it would in theory make it easier to program by fixing unnecessary complexity. It will also make it easier for a third party to understand the code. This would be a boon to any company, particularly for a modern factory where the demands of flexible automation and agile manufacturing mean that PLC code is changed more frequently than it ever was before.

Another benefit of metrics is that they can help an organisation to identify the software in its portfolio that is of the lowest quality. By being able to tell the difference between what is good code and bad code, steps can be taken to improve the software that is most likely to cause problems in the future.

An advantage of performing software metrics on PLC code is that code designed for similar functions (for example, interfaces for robots) from different manufacturers can be compared to help determine which equipment and software is the easiest to understand and work with. For example if the control interface for one robot manufacturer was found to have significantly less complexity than another company's robot interface, then a purchaser of these robots might be influenced by this information.

3 TOOL BUILDING INFRASTRUCTURE: DMS

Although some metrics are quite simple in theory, extracting them in practice is complex. A lexical analysis approach to industrial control logic analysis has been suggested in the past (Danielsson 2003) but dismissed as being too difficult to implement.

The tool chosen for this task was the "Design Maintenance System" (DMS®) by Semantic Designs.

The DMS Software Reengineering Toolkit is a set of tools for automating customized source program analysis, modification or translation or generation of software systems containing arbitrary mixtures of languages (Baxter 2004). The term "software" for DMS is very broad and covers any formal notation, including programming languages, markup languages, hardware description languages, design notations and data descriptions. It was for this

versatility that DMS was chosen to analyze Rockwell Automation's PLC code.

A very simple model of DMS is that of an extremely generalised compiler, having a parser generator capabilities for arbitrary parseable languages, a semantic analysis framework and a general program transformation engine. It is particularly important that the analyzer output can be used to choose the desired transforms. Unlike a conventional compiler, in which each component is specific to its task of translating one source language to one target machine language, each DMS component is highly parameterized, enabling a wide variety of effects. This means one can choose the input language, the analysis, the transforms, and the output form in arbitrary ways.

The computation of software metrics is based on the structure of the source code. This means metrics can be extracted from a parse of the program text. DMS® has the ability to parse large scale software systems based on the language definition modules used to drive DMS® for software reengineering tasks.

The language definition for PLC control programs is Rockwell Automation's Logix5000 Controllers Import/Export Format Version 2.6. This version was introduced when RSLogix5000 (Rockwell's development environment program) Version 15 was introduced. The language definition module is intended to be backwards compatible. Although many earlier examples of code have been parsed by the module, it has not been extensively tested for every prior version of the import/export language (which will from here-on be referred to as 'L5K', the file-type used by the import/export language).

Some other things to note about this language module are that

- The Motion Instruction set is included owing to the extensive use of these instructions in industry. Consequently, much of the example code used to test the parser made use of these instructions.
- Of the five IEC 61131 languages (ladder logic, sequential function charts, function block diagram, structured text and instruction list), the only one that the parser is presently designed process is ladder logic. Further expansion to extend the functionality to the remaining languages is possible and would be a logical continuation of this work.
- RSLogix5000 version 16 has subsequently been released along with version 2.7 of the import/export format language.

3.1 Lexical Analysis

The job of the lexer is to read in a source l5k program and to 'tokenize' it; that is to convert it from a stream of characters that make up the program body, to a sequence of lexemes. A lexeme is a single atomic unit of the language, for example a keyword. This sequence can then be input to the parser, which in turn will attach structure to the sequence and produce an abstract syntax tree.

3.1.1 Lexical Definition Macros

Macros are definitions of characters, character sets and other useful blocks of text that are made up from regular expressions. Macros may be defined to abstract lexical notions like blank or newline whitespace, case insensitive letters, digits, hexadecimal digits and floating point numbers.

3.1.2 Lexical Modes

DMS® supports the use of lexical modes to lex different source file sections that contain passages of distinct lexical vocabularies. Lexical modes used to lex L5K programs include:

- ModuleDeclarations. Lexes module declarations after module attributes have been collected.
- DataDeclarations. This lexes DATATYPE and TAG block contents.
- RLL. This lexes the PROGRAM section containing the body of ladder logic code.
- ParameterValue. Includes various types of structured values and unstructured strings. This is the lexical mode to collect attribute values including names, numbers etc.

Depending on where they are defined, macros are global (meaning they can be referred to from every lexical mode) or local (meaning that only the lexical mode in which the macro was defined can use that particular macro).

Lexical modes are stored in a stack. The mode that is at the top of the stack is the mode used to process the next token.

Operations performed on the mode stack are nearly always prompted by the occurrence of a specific token in a given lexical mode. Certain tokens encountered in one mode can trigger a change to another mode, reflected in a mode stack modification.

If there is no token found in the current lexical mode then the lexer can perform a last ditch error recovery. This is usually either a switch to another lexical mode, or popping the current lexical mode

from the stack. If the token is then found in a new lexical mode then the lexer carries on from there.

3.2 Parsing

The output from the lexer is a stream of terminal tokens stored within a metafile. This metafile is then used as the input to the parser.

The job of the parser is to attach a hierarchy of significance to list of tokens input to it from the lexer, constructing an abstract syntax representing the source program. The means through which this happens is by applying a set of context-free grammar rules to the token stream.

3.2.1 Context-Free Grammars

Context-free grammar rules are written in a Backus-Naur Form (BNF), which is an established method of describing a formal language. The form for declaring a context-free grammar rule is as follows:

$$NT \rightarrow T$$

where NT is a single non-terminal symbol and T is a sequence that can contain terminals i.e. tokens that have come from the lexer including literals, or non-terminals (which are formed from other grammar rule productions, i.e. are internal to the grammar). T can also be empty. The order of the components in T is critical to the formation of the rule. It is not enough that the appropriate terminals and non-terminals are present - if they are not in the correct order then the grammar rule has not been satisfied.

By substituting one grammar rule into another, each non-terminal can be expressed in terms of a sequence of terminal tokens. In other words, a non-terminal rule is a set of strings that make up part of a legal L5K program.

Multiple rules can be used to associate the same non-terminal symbol for different syntaxes, i.e. one NT may have many different flavours of T . For example, the grammar rule for the production called 'Conditions' is as follows:

```
Conditions = ;
Conditions = Conditions PrimitiveTest ;
```

What this means is that Conditions can be empty, or it can contain an arbitrary number of PrimitiveTests.



Figure 1: A simple ladder logic rung.

The Goal Non-Terminal. The topmost grammar rule is called the goal non-terminal. This is the first rule specified in the list of grammar rules that make up the formal language. It is unique because every other non-terminal will be used as a component part of another grammar rule, but the goal non-terminal has no 'parent' rule. The set of strings that the goal non-terminal can contain will be every possible legal L5K program, including the stream of tokens generated by lexing a legal program.

3.2.2 Abstract Syntax Trees

The data structure created by the parser that contains all the information about which grammar rules were used to parse a program can be represented diagrammatically by an abstract syntax tree (AST). In an AST, the nodes between branches represent non-terminal rules and the 'leaves' of the tree are terminal tokens. The goal non-terminal is the root node, and the branches show which non-terminal rules can be substituted in to each other.

Figure (2) below shows a small part of an AST, a sub-tree for the simple rung shown in figure (1).

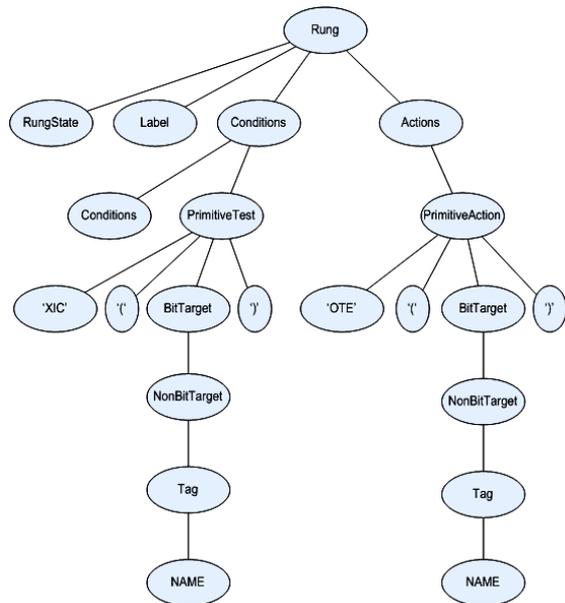


Figure 2: Sub-tree of a simple rung.

In this subtree, the lexed output are the literal instructions 'XIC' and 'OTE', the parentheses '(' and ')' and the terminal token for both instances of NAME, which in this case would be A and Z. Every other node is a non-terminal, and the way in which

these non-terminals are structures represents the form of the grammar rules.

3.3 Attribute Evaluation

Attribute evaluation entails attaching rules to grammar productions and terminals that compute certain interesting values over syntax trees. Computation of these values involves composing the attribute computations for the constituents of the tree with intermediate values passed up or down the tree depending on what is being calculated. Ultimately, calculated values are stored in hash trees associating attributes with specific AST nodes. Passing down from a parent to child node is known as ‘inheriting’ a value, and from a child to parent is called ‘synthesis’ of a value. The value passed is often then used in another rule associated with that particular production.

If a parent node needs a value passed up from its child to complete a calculation then it is imperative that the child rule is evaluated before the parent rule. The ordering can be further complicated by directives included by the user which force one rule to be executed before or after another. The partial order for the collection of these values and how they are calculated over a structure as large as an abstract syntax tree is critical.

3.3.1 Calculating Metrics

Attribute evaluation can be used to measure the inherent properties of a piece of code.

The following examples will show how to measure some basic metrics:

- The number of rungs of ladder logic in a program.
- The cyclomatic complexity of a ladder logic program.

Number of Rungs

Every time an AST node reflecting the grammar rule

```
RungList = RungList CommentedRung ;
```

is encountered, the following associated attribute evaluation rule is executed.

```
RungList[0].CommentedRungCount =
RungList[1].CommentedRungCount + 1 ;
```

The CommentRungCount value can then be passed up the AST to a higher level grammar rule by synthesis. The grammar production

```
RoutineDefinition = 'ROUTINE' NAME
RoutineAttributes RungList
'END_ROUTINE' ;
```

Has the associated rule

```
RoutineDefinition[0].CommentedRungCount
= RungList[1].CommentedRungCount ;
```

This hands the value of CommentedRungCount from the child node (RungList) to the parent (RoutineDefinition). Once the value has been passed higher up the tree, the value can be summed over the number of routines, and then over the number of programs to get the final value for the number of rungs in a file.

Cyclomatic Complexity

Calculating the cyclomatic complexity is more difficult. Knowing that

$$\text{Cyclomatic Complexity} = \text{Number of Closed Loops} + 1$$

(Watson, McCabe 1996) and the number of closed loops is essentially the number of ‘IF’ statements makes this possible. But what constitutes an ‘IF’ statement in ladder logic where no such construct is built in to the language?

The assertion made here is that if a non-trivial condition precedes an action in a rung then that is a closed loop. This simplest example of this is shown in figure (1) above. This can be thought of as an IF statement in a conventional language; IF A is true THEN execute Z.

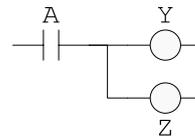


Figure 3.

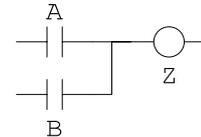


Figure 4.

Figure(3) and figure(4), like the example above still contain just one IF statement. In figure(3) IF A is true THEN execute Y AND Z; in figure(4) IF A OR B is true THEN execute Z.

Of course it is possible to have multiple IF statements contained within the same rung.

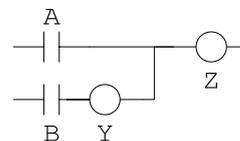


Figure 5.

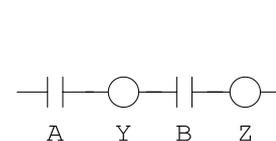


Figure 6.

Both figure(5) and figure(6) contain two IF statements. In figure(5), IF B true THEN execute Y AND IF A OR B true THEN execute Z; in figure(6) IF A true THEN execute Y AND IF A AND B are both true THEN execute Z.

Determining what is a non-trivial condition or action is achieved by passing around Boolean flags up and down the AST for each rung. These flags assess whether a condition or action is trivial or not. The attribute `NonTrivialCondition` is defined to be

- A non-empty Condition
- An Action that starts with a non-null condition

```
Conditions = ;
Conditions[0].NonTrivialCondition =
false ;

Conditions = Conditions
PrimitiveTest;Conditions[0].NonTrivialC
ondition = true ;
```

An additional flag is required for Actions (which can contain Conditions in them). `NonTrivialTrailingCondition` is true if an Action ends with a non-null Condition.

The number of If statements is then summed over all rungs within a routine, and to calculate the cyclomatic complexity one is added to that total.

An example of a grammar rule, the associated attributes and complexity calculation is shown below.

```
PrimitiveAction = '['
ParallelConditions ParallelActions ']';

PrimitiveAction[0].NonTrivialCondition
=
ParallelConditions[1].NonTrivialCondi
on /\
ParallelActions[1].NonTrivialCondition
;

PrimitiveAction[0].NonTrivialTrailingCo
ndition =
ParallelActions[1].NonTrivialTrailingCo
ndition ;

IF
ParallelConditions[1].NonTrivialCondi
on /\
~ParallelActions[1].NonTrivialCondition
THEN PrimitiveAction[0].IfCount =
ParallelActions[1].IfCount + 1 ;
ELSE PrimitiveAction[0].IfCount =
ParallelActions[1].IfCount ;
ENDIF;
```

3.3.2 Reporting Metrics

A family of metrics is calculated using this method. These include:

- Lines code without blank lines and comments

- Number of files *
- Number of Programs *
- Number of Routines *
- Number of Rungs *
- Number of Rungs with comments *
- Cyclomatic complexity
- Cyclomatic complexity of the largest rung *
- Mean Cyclomatic complexity per rung *
- PrimitiveTest Count *
- Maximum number of PrimitiveTests on a rung *
- Mean number PrimitiveTests per rung *
- Decision density
- Ladder instruction occurrence *
- Motion instruction occurrence *
- Halstead unique operators
- Halstead unique operands
- Halstead operator occurrence
- Halstead operand occurrence
- Halstead program length
- Halstead program vocabulary
- Halstead program volume
- Halstead program difficulty
- Halstead program effort
- Halstead bug prediction

These are standard software engineering metrics except the starred metrics which are ladder logic analogues. As well as these metrics, the location in the source code of the rung with the biggest cyclomatic complexity and also the largest number of PrimitiveTests is also reported.

The metrics reporting engine collects the required base information at different points in the hierarchy: routine, program (a collection of routines), controller (a collection of programs) and system level (a collection of files/controllers). The necessary calculations are then performed and the metrics are collated in to multiple reports of different formats (.txt and .xml files).

4 RESULTS

The metrics tool has been used to analyze production code from automotive OEMs. Just under 200000 lines of source code were analyzed – the tool took about 30 seconds to run. The results that it has produced have been very interesting. Some of the most notable are:

- Mean cyclomatic complexity per rung is in the range 1.1 – 1.6. This seems reasonable, averaging just slightly over 1 decision per rung.
- The maximum cyclomatic complexity found for any rung was 31. This level of complexity found on one rung means the program is harder to conceptualize than it needs to be and that to

enhance the readability of the routine for other programmers and users, this complicated rung should be split in to several smaller, simpler rungs.

- The mean number of PrimitiveTests per rung is in the range 2 – 4.
- The maximum number of PrimitiveTests found on a rung is 89. This is a very large value and makes navigating a program difficult as that amount of information cannot easily be fitted on to a standard monitor sized screen even when zoomed out. Action should certainly be taken to address this problem.
- For a set of 729 routines, the mean cyclomatic complexity was 31.37 but the median was 16, indicating that the majority of the routines are relatively small, but some of the bigger ones get quite large. The programmer should re-examine the more complex routines to see if a) there is a better way to implement the logic so that the functionality is equivalent but the routines less complex, b) that the complex routines can be split in to multiple simpler routines

A sample of some metrics report output can be found in the appendix.

5 CONCLUSIONS

There is a need to evaluate the quality of code produced for industrial control systems. Using the DMS® Software Engineering Toolkit, tools have been developed that use attribute evaluation over an abstract syntax tree to compute metrics that have been in common use in more conventional programming languages for nearly thirty years.

It is hoped that appropriate use of these tools will help programmers produce clear and concise code, will allow project managers to make better decisions concerning their code based upon the numerical evidence gleaned from the tool. Industrial partners willing to trial these tools within are being actively sought after.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My most sincere thanks to Dr. Ira Baxter for his guidance and patient tuition on how to use the DMS® toolkit.

Both the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council and Rockwell Automation for funding this research.

Dr. Vivek Hajarnavis and Larry Akers for their valuable encouragement and feedback.

REFERENCES

- IEEE Standard 610.12, 1990, *IEEE Standard Glossary of Software Engineering Terminology*
- A. Phukan, M. Kalava and V. Prabhu, 2005. *Complexity metrics for manufacturing control architectures based on software and information flow*. Computers & Industrial Engineering 49 1-20
- G. Frey, 2002, *Software Quality in Logic Controller Programming*, Proceedings of the IEEE SMC
- M. B. Younis and G. Frey, 2007. *Software Quality Measures to Determine the Diagnosability of PLC Applications*. Proceedings of the IEEE ETFA.
- Thomas McCabe, 1976, *A Complexity Measure*, IEEE Transactions on Software Engineering, Volume 2, No 4, pp 308-320
- F. Danielsson, P. Moore, P Eriksson, 2003, *Validation, off-line programming and optimization of industrial control logic*, Mechatronics 13 571-585
- I. D. Baxter, C. Pidgeon, M. Mehlich, 2004, *DMS®: Program Transformations For Practical Scalable Software Evolution*, Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Software Engineering
- A. Watson, T McCabe, 1996, *Structured Testing: A Testing Methodology Using the Cyclomatic Complexity Metric*, NIST Special Publication 500-235

APPENDIX

```

FILE
C:/RSLogix5000/15k_files/z24_PLCL1.L5K
55134 lines of source.
54783 lines of 15k code without blank
lines and comments.
20 programs.
232 routines.
7407 rungs.
Aggregate cyclomatic complexity: 7653
Mean cyclomatic complexity: 32.99
Median cyclomatic complexity: 21.00
Cyclomatic complexity of the largest
rung: 31
Position of rung with maximum
cyclomatic complexity, occurs @ line:
54494
Mean Cyclomatic complexity per rung:
1.03
PrimitiveTest Count: 19025
Maximum number of PrimitiveTests of any
rung in the Controller: 30
Decision density: 5.01
Halstead unique operators: 53
Halstead unique operands: 1865

```

Halstead operator occurrence: 37222
Halstead operand occurrence: 108478
Halstead program length: 145700
Halstead program vocabulary: 1918
Halstead program volume: 1588914.89
Halstead program difficulty: 1541.38
Halstead program effort: 2449115919.79
Halstead bug prediction: 529.64

PROGRAM MainProgram @ line 59508
7027 lines of 15k code without blank lines and comments.
139 routines.
Number of Rungs: 2713
Aggregate cyclomatic complexity: 4535
Mean cyclomatic complexity: 32.63
Median cyclomatic complexity: 4.00
Mean Cyclomatic complexity per rung: 1.67
Cyclomatic complexity of the largest rung: 26
Position of rung with maximum cyclomatic complexity, occurs @ line: 63750
PrimitiveTest Count: 10989
Mean number PrimitiveTests per rung: 4.05
Maximum number of PrimitiveTests on a rung: 81
Position of rung with maximum number of PrimitiveTests, occurs @ line: 59702
Decision density: 0.65
Halstead unique operators: 67
Halstead unique operands: 955
Halstead operator occurrence: 18365
Halstead operand occurrence: 56269
Halstead program length: 74634
Halstead program vocabulary: 1022
Halstead program volume: 746129.49
Halstead program difficulty: 1973.83
Halstead program effort: 1472735785.88
Halstead bug prediction: 248.71

ROUTINE S_Dcu @ line 20278
410 lines of 15k code without blank lines and comments.
Number of Rungs: 102
Number of Rungs with comments: 102
Cyclomatic complexity: 114
Cyclomatic complexity of the largest rung: 9
Position of rung with maximum cyclomatic complexity, occurs @ line: 20675
Mean Cyclomatic complexity per rung: 1.12
PrimitiveTest Count: 167
Maximum number of PrimitiveTests on a rung: 11

Position of rung with maximum number of PrimitiveTests, occurs @ line: 20675
Mean number PrimitiveTests per rung: 1.64
Decision density: 0.28
Ladder instruction occurrence: 380
Motion instruction occurrence: 10
Halstead unique operators: 31
Halstead unique operands: 183
Halstead operator occurrence: 442
Halstead operand occurrence: 1251
Halstead program length: 1693
Halstead program vocabulary: 214
Halstead program volume: 13106.30
Halstead program difficulty: 105.96
Halstead program effort: 1388731.04
Halstead bug prediction: 4.37