



HAL
open science

The Use of Interpretation for Data Acquisition and Control: Its Impact on Software Development and Project Management

Otto Vinter

► **To cite this version:**

Otto Vinter. The Use of Interpretation for Data Acquisition and Control: Its Impact on Software Development and Project Management. 3rd History of Nordic Computing (HiNC), Oct 2010, Stockholm, Sweden. pp.305-314, 10.1007/978-3-642-23315-9_34 . hal-01564648

HAL Id: hal-01564648

<https://inria.hal.science/hal-01564648v1>

Submitted on 19 Jul 2017

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

The Use of Interpretation for Data Acquisition and Control: Its Impact on Software Development and Project Management

Otto Vinter

Otto Vinter, Software Engineering Mentor, Sthensvej 2F
2630 Taastrup, Denmark
vinter@ottovinter.dk

Abstract. For over a decade, I and a number of other software engineers introduced, developed, improved, and expanded the principle of interpretation for data acquisition and control task descriptions; initially a simple description and execution tool to assist plant engineers, but in the end a software development framework for modeling, managing, and executing large, complex projects in this domain.

Keywords: Data acquisition, interpretation, modeling, project management, process control, software engineering

1 Introduction

For the first data acquisition and control system in 1969 for the Danish power plant Vestkraft Blok2 (Fig. 1, Appendix 1, [1, 2]), we simply wanted to create a tool (simple process language) that would make it easier and more flexible for plant engineers to define their measurements and calculations, and thus dispense with the limited and predetermined (“hard coded”) operations on process data based on flags in data tables.

In 1978, at the completion of the process control system for the Copenhagen Mail Sorting Center, the principle of using interpretation on a data-model of the system (Fig. 3, Appendix 2, [3, 4]) had evolved into a software engineering framework that not only influenced the system architecture, but all phases of software development from detailed requirements, design, coding, testing, and release staging, to project management, estimation, planning, scheduling, configuration management, quality procedures, and documentation.

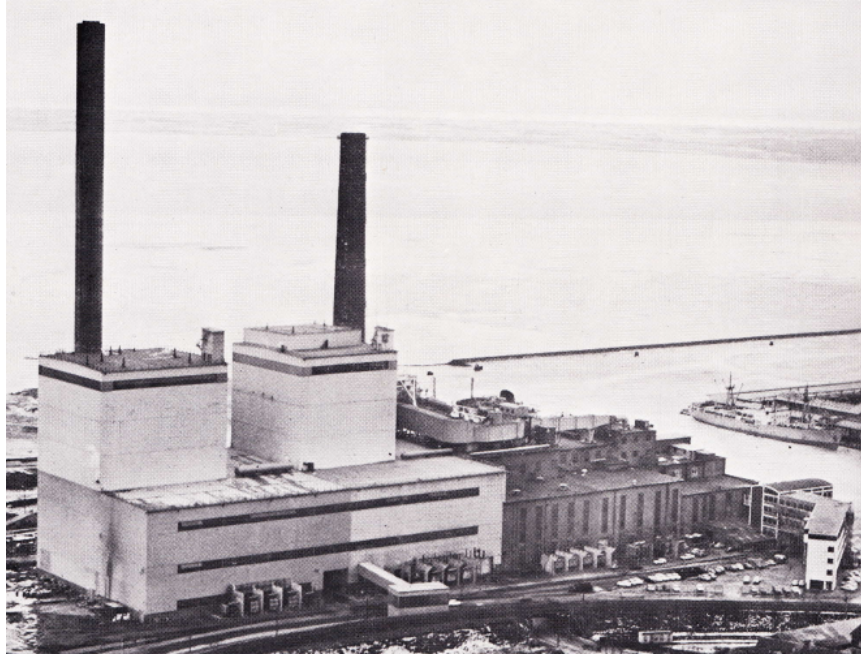


Fig. 1. The power plants at Vestkraft. Blok2 is the tower on the left. See Appendix 1 for details.

2 The Early Data Acquisition Systems

At the beginning of the 1960s, the use of computers started to spread from pure mathematical applications to the process control industry. However, both buyers and suppliers were very cautious about letting the computer take full control of the industrial processes. The acquisition of analog signals and their conversion to binary numbers was not very well known, and disturbances from the electrically noisy environment of high-power machinery could severely affect the low-level signals at maximum values of 24 mA and 10 V. Consequently, the first computer systems were only used for logging measurement data; performing simple conversions and calculations, and presenting the operators of the plant with alarms and reports.

These data loggers were programmed like the hard-wired electronic instruments they intended to supplement. The early programs were sequential monolithic structures that scanned the data acquisition channels and stored them in memory resident tables after conversion and simple alarm checks. Other programs would later read these tables, perform calculations, and generate reports. Around the mid-1960s, the first multiprogramming monitors appeared which allowed programs to execute in parallel, for example, data acquisition programs could execute in parallel with report printing programs. However, the structure of the programs did not change very much; they still retained their basic monolithic form. Now there were just more of them, executing in parallel.

3 The Original Idea of a Dedicated Process Control Language

In these early systems, in order to describe the processing that would take place on the data, a number of flags (bits) were kept for the variables of each measurement, along with its status and value. They defined what conversion routine to use, whether alarm limits should be checked, or what other calculations should be performed. When a data processing program scanned the data tables, it examined the flags individually (in a specific sequence) and called the relevant routine (basically a huge case structure).

Therefore, the plant engineer who designed the actual processing had the difficult task of defining the data tables and processing flags; and he had to do it in the computer's native machine code. Due to the limited number of predefined flags and the fixed sequence in which they were scanned, it was often difficult to describe the processing that was desired.

We wanted to improve this situation by developing a data acquisition and control language closer to the concepts of a plant engineer, to gain flexibility by replacing the flags and fixed processing sequence and allowing the engineer to select the processing from a range of language commands. The introduction of such a process language was not new. Other dedicated data acquisition and control languages were being developed for similar systems at that time. However, the trend was to compile such languages into (monolithic) executable programs.

4 The Introduction of the Interpretation Principle

We could not allow ourselves the luxury of compiler for the language, because our development system was the same as the executing system, and therefore had severe limitations regarding memory, backing store, and peripherals. Furthermore, at that time, compiled code was known to lack the necessary performance for real-time applications. We therefore decided to define the language in a macro-like format which could be easily translated into command data-structures.

The command data-structures were made self-contained, for example, the references to the software routines to execute the macro-command and the parameters were stored together. Since each routine was designed for the specific purpose of handling its parameters, the length of each command data-structure could also be calculated and stored in the structure.

As we did not have a file handling system either, we had to organize the layout of command data-structures and data variables on the backing store ourselves. At specific places, the translator would insert special commands to load the next segment of command data-structures from backing store to memory, and commands to swap segments of variables that had been updated with others which would be needed next.

At predefined intervals, a simple program (interpreter) executing in one of the multiprogramming processes scanned the model containing the command data-structures. It would sub-routine jump to the routine referenced in the first command data-structure. When that routine returned, the interpreter added the stored length of the command data-structure (parameters) to point to the beginning of the next command data-structure, call that routine, and so on, until an end-of-data-structure

command was encountered. In this way, data processing was no longer contained in a monolithic program; it had turned into an extremely flexible set of small dedicated routines in a data-model that was interpreted rather than executed.

Several routines (macro-language commands) would normally have to be called to accomplish one complete processing of a plant variable (Fig. 2), but the type of checks, conversions, calculations, and the order in which they were performed, was no longer limited or predefined by the real-time processing program.

```

; Create new value for TFd and add to sum in TFdS10
/802 ; TFd, steam temperature for HT
:IWR, K=802 ; Initialize working registers (variable 802)
:LSV, V802 ; Load state and value for TFd (variable 802)
:BCAV, RIT25 ; Evaluation control of analog value (range, terminal)
L1 ; skip conversion and checks if compensated by operator
L2 ; Skip conversion in case of a measurement failure
:CRE, K=150 ; Convert resistance element (parameter value)
:ILCMM, K=-200, Pih=6000 ; Instrument limit control (min, max)
2:TPC, V802 ; Test for failures and update status (TFd)
:TCCV, V219 ; If compensation use value for TOH (variable 219)
1:PCM, K=-50, Pah=5650 ; Plant status control (hysteresis, maximum)
:SSV, V802 ; Store new state and value (TFd)
:SUM, V3301 ; add to TFdS10 (variable 3301)

```

Fig. 2. Processing commands for a temperature variable at Vestkraft Blok2.

5 New Opportunities Because of the Interpretation Principle

Having one central data-model, which is interpreted rather than executed, opened up for a number of advantages in the development and customization of data acquisition and control systems. New language commands could be easily defined; a small dedicated component (routine and parameter description) designed, coded and added to the macro-translator. Nothing had to be changed in the on-line system's processes (programs); the data-model was simply replaced.

In addition, defects were easier to locate because they were confined to the new component (or the macro-translator), as there was no direct communication (e.g. calls) between routines, only through the data values and their status.

6 Testing in a Simulated Environment

The principle of interpretation allowed us to test new components in a simulated environment (e.g. off-line) using only those parts of the data-model that were needed for testing the component. Dedicated test drivers and stubs (simple test commands included in the macro-language) were inserted in the test data-model to check whether the new routine produced the correct (expected) results under different conditions of input data. For each call, the drivers and stubs stepped through a list of test inputs (test cases).

A logging facility was inserted (another test component in the data-model) that could print the data values and status used by the component (routine), along with the

result data and new status it generated (stored). From this, it was only a small step to include expected results in the test lists and let the logging facility mark any incorrect results in the print. Automated regression testing in a simulated environment had now been introduced as a natural thing.

Even late in the 1970s, software programmers were scarce and we usually had to teach them everything: assembler language, linkers, loaders, bootstrapping, running the system, and, of course, good practices of basic software engineering (it was not called that at the time). Using the principle of interpretation and simulated test environments made introducing rather primitively trained developers on a project much easier and safer. They were able to find and correct their errors early during unit tests in the coding phase, and quickly became seasoned developers on-the-job.

Testing in a simulated environment also meant that we were able to implement a defined process for promoting partially completed systems through several levels of environments (unit testing, system testing, and production) complete with automatic regression test data and test procedures.

7 Effects on the Software Architecture

The principle of interpretation of a data-model influenced all aspects of our software development. The most immediate effect was, of course, on the software architecture; based as it was on a comprehensive model of the industrial plant, and an easily adaptable and flexible set of software components.

All data values and their status were fetched, updated, and stored in the model. Furthermore, all connections and communication between the modeled physical components of the plant took place through their representations in the model. In addition, all other types of handling and control were also designed into the model and represented as “abstract” components, for example, conversions, averages, accumulations, calculations, progress timing, storage management, plant sub-systems (groups), as well as “physical” output devices and set-point controls.

Alarms, reports, logs, and other output data about the operation of the plant were generated from data in the model and communicated via a number of message buffer queues to dedicated reporting processes running in parallel to the acquisition and control process, so that processing and output tasks could perform independently of each other [5].

Input to and output from the message buffer queues were protected by semaphores, and buffer overruns were handled so they did not influence the operation of the acquisition and control process. The principle of interpretation was also used to describe the layout, contents, and generation of reports.

8 Effects on Project Management

Project planning, scheduling, and management were impacted by the data-model architecture. Due to the limited complexity of each component, it was easy to estimate how long it would take to implement it, and actual data from previously developed

components quickly created a solid basis for new estimates. Each component could be developed and tested almost independently of other components, so it was relatively easy to assign components to the available developers in the project plan and perform follow-up on development progress.

However, this did not eliminate the need for the overall design of the components system, which always involved senior developers. Sometimes it turned out to be a bottle-neck and generate overruns on its estimates.

We finally managed to deliver our projects almost on time and budget, and with very few defects in operation.

9 The Applications of the Interpretation Principle

The interpretation principle and data acquisition and control language commands from Vestkraft Blok2 were reused and improved for another power plant (Nordkraft Sektion4) and adapted for a sugar production plant (Saxkjøbing Sukkerfabrik).

However, the comprehensive software engineering framework, described above, was not realized until the Copenhagen Mail Sorting Center (Fig. 3). In this system, all physical components of the plant were modeled as components in the data-model.

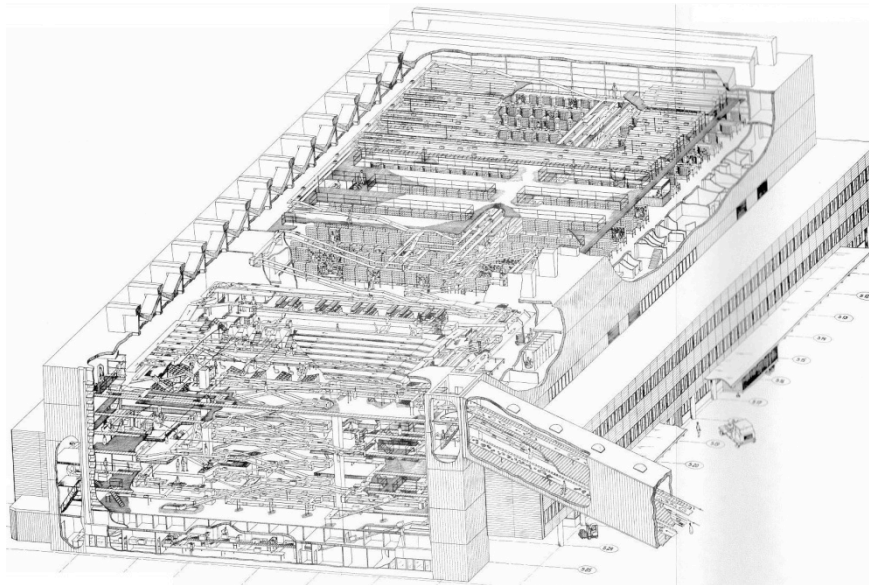


Fig. 3. The Copenhagen Mail Sorting Center. See Appendix 2 for details of the modeling.

10 Why the Principle Did Not Catch On

Firstly, the advent of new computer and software technology in the late 1970s and early 1980s meant a complete change in data acquisition and control systems from comprehensive centralized systems to a network of small dedicated minicomputers, microprocessors (PLCs), which required less complex software systems.

Secondly, the response time of a system interpreting a data-model is never faster than the time it takes to scan the data-model. This works for most industrial processes which only change slowly. However, direct control loops (PID) and other fast reactions to input must be handled by separate processes executing in parallel. As prices for computers went down, and hard-wired instrumentation went up, the trend was to use computers to engage faster and more directly with the control of the industrial plant.

11 A Final Twist in the Tale

In the late 1980s, I was product manager for a new line of automatic test equipment at Brüel & Kjær. Our goal was to develop a set of virtual (e.g. software-based) measuring instruments. In addition to those, we wanted to develop a comprehensive test and measurement environment, where engineers could develop their own test and measurement projects, combining the instruments of their choice with calculations, sequencing, loops, and controls. Numerical results and graphs were to be combined into reports that showed whether the product being tested has passed or failed.

We had many heated discussions on how to design this test and measurement environment. There was a clear divide between the experienced test and measurement engineers and the brilliant software engineers, some just out of the university. For my part, I was impressed with the advances in computer speed and compiler capabilities; it seemed that object-oriented development was becoming an important principle for the future. Therefore, we decided to base the test and measurement environment on the compilation of our measurement components rather than the interpretation.

We struggled for several years to make this design work, but did not succeed. In the end, the project was cancelled. A couple of years later, a U.S. company (National Instruments) launched a, since then, rather successful test and measurement environment based on the interpretation of simple measurement, calculation and control components, which could be combined graphically (2D) in an easy drag, drop, and connect fashion. These simple test and measurement components resemble the language commands we had used in the early days for the industrial plants, albeit in a more modern, colorful, and graphic way.

The lack of speed in interpretation, which we had feared so much, was not a problem for test and measurement engineers, partly due to the increased speed of computers and partly because many test and measurement processes change at a slow rate.

In hindsight, this example shows that the interpretation principle can still be the right way to solve a complex problem, given the right conditions. And, by the way,

Microsoft Excel is actually another example of the successful use of the interpretation principle.

Acknowledgments. I wish to thank Peter Kraft, who was project manager on the Vestkraft project, where the initial idea of using the interpretation principle for data acquisition and control systems was born. Furthermore, I wish to thank Bent Bagger and Ebbe Sommerlund, who were my primary supports on the Copenhagen Mail Sorting Center project, where the full impact of the principle was realized. Also, my gratitude goes to many people for their assistance in recovering our common past from our combined rusty memories and dusty archives.

References

1. Kraft, P., Vinter, O.: Rapport over proceskontrollsystemets opbygning hos I/S Vestkraft Esbjerg. Regnecentralen (1970)
2. Nedergaard, N.: Procesregnemaskinen på Vestkraft. Elektroteknikerens, 66. årgang nr. 4 (1970) (see also nr. 23 for a description of the whole plant)
3. Prag, P.: Datamatstyring af transport- og sorteringsanlæg i Centralpostbygningen i København, Rådgivning og projektering. In: NordDATA77 Proceedings (1977)
4. Vinter, O.: Datamatstyring af transport- og sorteringsanlæg i Centralpostbygningen i København, Transportdatamatstyringen. In: NordDATA77 Proceedings (1977)
5. Kraft, P., Mossin, E.: Datastrømme, elementer til kommunikation i et proceskontrollsystem. In: NordDATA72 Proceedings (1972)

Appendix 1: The Vestkraft Blok2 Power Plant

The power plant was built in 1969 (Fig. 1, Fig. 4). It had an electric capacity of 250 MW, plus a heating capacity of 160 Gcal/h that covered the needs of Esbjerg city. The turbo-group was from BBC and the boiler unit from Babcock & Wilcox. All of the plant controls were handled by conventional electronic equipment. For the complete supervision of the plant, a digital computer system from A/S Regnecentralen was installed [1, 2].

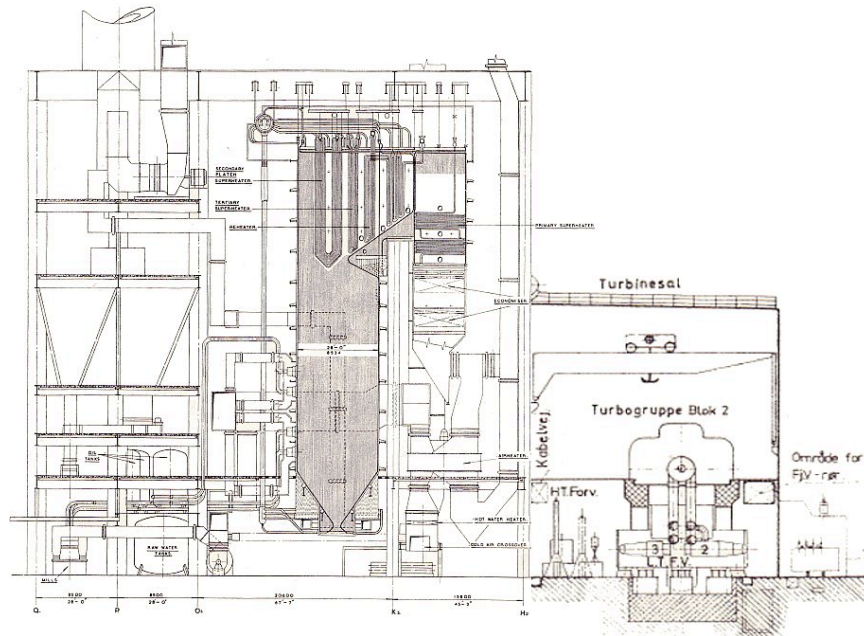


Fig. 4. A view into Vestkraft Blok2. A combination of two original drawings, matched to fit the correct proportions of the plant. The boiler section with its heating supply units to the left and the turbine section to the right.

Every ten seconds, all bearing and coil temperatures from major motors, pumps, and generators were measured and analyzed by the computer. A special supervision of boiler drum, oil burners and air pre-heaters was also carried out; approximately 250 analog measurements.

Every minute, another 250 analog values were measured and analyzed; among others, 170 super-heater pipe temperatures. The latter were particularly important because close supervision of these could increase maintenance intervals and prevent breakdowns. All relevant measurements were accumulated over time. Performance and load calculations were carried out and used to improve the management and performance of the plant.

The RC4000 computer configuration was: 32kB memory, 512kB drum storage, 512 analog inputs, 216 digital sense inputs, 48 digital interrupt inputs (for counting), and 48 digital outputs.

Appendix 2: Modeling of the Copenhagen Mail Sorting Center

The software system for the Copenhagen Mail Sorting Center (Fig. 3, [3, 4]) was developed from 1974–1978. The center was designed to handle the 130,000 parcels and 3 million letters that arrived and departed each day on trucks or trains following a strict schedule. The main contractor was Boy Transportmateriel A/S.

The center comprised approximately one thousand conveyor belts which, if started or stopped at the same time (especially when loaded with mail bags or parcels), would have a severe impact on the power lines supplying the building. Therefore, each conveyor belt was modeled as a component in the data-model of the software system, with two flags indicating its ability to receive and deliver mail respectively.

When mail is delivered at the receiving end of a belt, its predecessor component turns its able-to-deliver true, and the belt component then issues a start command (bit) to its belt's motor. While the motor is running, the component calculates when mail will reach the other end of the belt, at which point it raises its able-to-deliver flag. This is detected by the succeeding component, which then starts. If the succeeding component is not able to receive mail (its able-to-receive flag is false), the belt motor will be commanded to stop.

This also happens when mail is no longer delivered from the belt's predecessor (its able-to-deliver flag turns false). The component will allow the belt to continue to run until a calculation determines that the belt is empty. Then the belt motor is commanded to stop and the component's ability-to-deliver flag is set to false. The effect propagates down the line of conveyor belt components (Fig. 5).

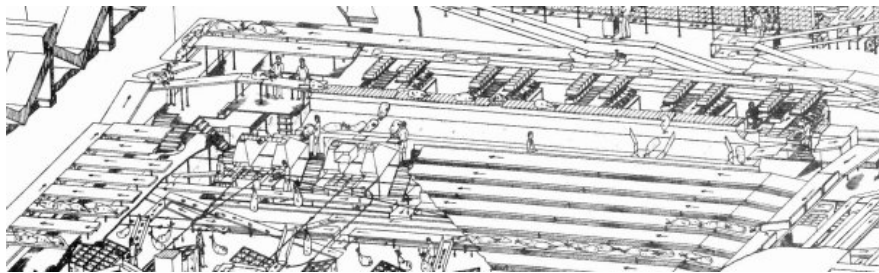


Fig. 5. Details of conveyor belt connections.

When a belt is intended for storage, the predecessor component is a photo cell component at the start of the belt, rather than another belt component. The photo cell, however, is modeled with similar flags, and the storage belt only moves as long as the photo cell component has its able-to-deliver flag true, for example, while mail is blocking the view of the photo cell. In this way, mail is compacted on the belt. When mail reaches the other end of the storage belt (usually controlled by a photo cell component at the end of the belt now signaling able-to-receive false), the storage belt will indicate able-to-receive false to its predecessor (the photo cell component at the start of the belt). This not-able-to-receive flag is reflected to its predecessor (the component delivering mail to the storage belt). A storage management component will then choose another parallel storage belt to receive further mail. When emptying a storage belt, the belt component will act as a normal transporting belt, but it will still keep the able-to-receive flag false, so that no new mail will be received until the belt is completely empty.

Thus, the use of these “able-to” flags can control the progress of mail throughout the mail center, irrespective of the type of equipment modeled, and only keep those conveyor belts running that are in use. The “able-to” flags are the only way in which

the modeled components communicate, and the flags are examined at each cycle through the data-model.

The center was controlled by five duplex hot stand-by computer systems for each section of the mail sorting process, a number of microprocessors, and a supervisory computer for the operators connected via asynchronous communication lines. The control computers were Control Data (CDC) Cyber 18-17 with 32-88kB memory, a memory-to-memory high-speed bus, and no backing stores.