Foundations: Syntax, Semantics, and Graphs

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Foundations

Syntax

- Syntax and BNF Grammar
- Abstract Syntax Trees (AST)

Semantics

- Natural Operational Semantics (a.k.a. big step)
- Structural Operational Semantics (a.k.a. small step)
- Judgements and derivations

Graphs

- Graph, cyclic, acyclic
- Nodes, edges, paths
- Trees, sub-graphs, sub-paths, ...
- Control Flow Graph (CFG)







WHILE: A Simple Imperative Language

We will use a simple imperative language called WHILE

• the language is also sometimes called IMP

```
An example WHILE program:
{ p := 0; x := 1; n := 2 };
while x ≤ n do {
    x := x + 1;
    p := p + m
};
print_state
```



WHILE: Syntactic Entities

$n \in Z$ true,false $\in B$ $x,y \in L$	 integers Booleans locations (program variables) 	Terminal
$e \in Aexp$ $b \in Bexp$ $c \in Stmt$	 arithmetic expressions Boolean expressions statements 	Non- terminal

Terminals are atomic entities that are completely defined by their tokens

• integers, Booleans, and locations are terminals

Non-Terminals are composed of of one or more terminals

- determined by rules of the grammar
- Aexp, Bexp, and Stmt are non-terminals



WHILE: Syntax of Arithmetic Expressions

Arithmetic expressions (Aexp)
$$e ::=$$
nfor $n \in Z$ $|-n$ for $n \in Z$ $|x$ for $x \in L$ $|e_1 aop e_2$ $|'(e ')'$

Notes:

- Variables are not declared before use
- All variables have integer type
- Expressions have no side-effects

BNF: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Backus%E2%80%93Naur_form



WHILE: Syntax of Boolean Expressions

```
Boolean expressions (Bexp)

b ::= 'true'

| 'false'

| 'not' b

| e_1 rop e_2 for e_1, e_2 \in Aexp

| e_1 bop b_2 for e_1, e_2 \in Bexp

| '(' b ')'
```

```
rop ::= '<' | '<=' | '=' | '>=' | '>'
bop ::= 'and' | 'or'
```



Syntax of Statements

```
Statements

s ::= skip

| x := e

| if b then s [ else s ]

| while b do s

| '{' slist '}'

| print_state

| assert b | assume b | havoc v1, ..., vN

slist ::= s ( ';' s )*

prog ::= slist
```

Notes:

- Semi-colon ';' is a statement composition, not statement terminator!!!
- Statements contain all the side-effects in the language
- Many usual features of a PL are missing: references, function calls, ...
 - the language is very very simple yet hard to analyze



Abstract Syntax Tree (AST)

AST is an abstract tree representation of the source code

- each node represents a syntactic construct occurring in the code
 - statement, variable, operator, statement list
- called "abstract" because some details of concrete syntax are omitted
 - AST normalizes (provides common representation) of irrelevant differences in syntax (e.g., white space, comments, order of operations)
- example AST: (x + 3) * (y 5)





Language Parsing in a Nutshell



Parser generator

• input: BNF grammar; output: parser (program)

Parser

• input: program source code; output: AST or error



WHILE AST in Python

One class per syntactic entity

One field per child

Class hierarchy corresponds to the semantic one

```
Emacs-x86_64-10_9 Prelude - /tmp/ast.py
class Ast(object):
Class Ast(object):
    """Base class of AST hierarchy"""
    pass
class Stmt (Ast):
    """A single statement"""
    pass
class AsgnStmt (Stmt):
    """An assignment statement"""
    def init (self, lhs, rhs):
        self.lhs = lhs
        self.rhs = rhs
class IfStmt (Stmt):
    """If-then-else statement"""
    def init (self, cond, then_stmt, else_stmt=None):
        self.cond = cond
        self.then stmt = then stmt
        self.else stmt = else stmt
```



Behavior Pattern: Visitor

Applicability

- Object hierarchy with many classes
- Operations depend on classes
- Set of classes is stable
- Want to define new operations

Consequences

- Simplifies adding new operations
- Groups related behavior in one class
- Extending class hierarchy is difficult
- Visitor can maintain state
- Element must expose interface

In Python

- Method name is used instead of polymorphism, e.g., visit_Stmt()
- Visitor's visit() method dispatches calls based on reflection. No need for accept()



accept(Visitor : Object)

Example Visitor in Python

```
class AstVisitor(object):
class AstVisitor(object):
"""Base class for AST visitor"""
def __init__(self):
    pass
def visit (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
    """Visit a node."""
    method = 'visit_' + node.__class_.__name__
    visitor = getattr (self, method)
    return visitor (node, *args, **kwargs)
def visit_BoolConst (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
    visitor = getattr (self, 'visit_' + Const.__name__)
    return visitor (node, *args, **kwargs)
```

```
class PrintVisitor (AstVisitor):
    """A printing visitor"""
    def visit IntVar (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        self. write (node.name)
    def visit Const (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        self. write (node.val)
    def visit Exp (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        if node.is unary ():
            self._write (node.op)
            self.visit (node.arg (0))
        else:
            self. open brkt (**kwargs)
            self.visit (node.arg (0))
            for a in node.args [1:]:
                self. write (' ')
                self. write (node.op)
                self. write (' ')
                self.visit (a)
            self. close brkt (**kwargs)
```



Exercise: Implement a state counting visitor

Write a visitor that counts the number of statements in a program

- (a) Implementation 1:
 - the visitor should be stateless and return the number of statements
- (b) Implementation 2:
 - uses an internal state (field) to keep track of the number of statements



Stateless Visitor

```
class StmtCounterStateless (wlang.ast.AstVisitor):
    def init (self):
        super (StmtCounterStateless, self). init ()
    def visit StmtList (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        if node.stmts is None:
           return 0
       res = 0
       for s in node.stmts:
           res = res + self.visit (s)
        return res
    def visit IfStmt (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        res = 1 + self.visit (node.then stmt)
        if node.has else ():
            res = res + self.visit (node.else stmt)
        return res
    def visit WhileStmt (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        return 1 + self.visit (node.body)
    def visit Stmt (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        return 1
```



Statefull Visitor

```
class StmtCounterStatefull (wlang.ast.AstVisitor):
    def init (self):
        super (StmtCounterStatefull, self). init_ ()
        self. count = 0
    def get num stmts (self):
        return self. count
    def count (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        self. count = 0
        self.visit (node, *args, **kwargs)
    def visit StmtList (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        if node.stmts is None:
            return
        for s in node.stmts:
            self.visit (s)
    def visit Stmt (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        self. count = self. count + 1
    def visit IfStmt (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        self.visit Stmt (node)
        self.visit (node.then stmt)
        if node.has else ():
            self.visit (node.else stmt)
    def visit WhileStmt (self, node, *args, **kwargs):
        self.visit Stmt (node)
        self.visit (node.body)
```



Tutorial Friday @ 5:30pm in E7 5353

Friday at 5:30pm in E7 5353

- Topics
 - Docker
 - Python
 - •AST
 - Visitors



Non-determinism vs. Randomness

A *deterministic* function always returns the same result on the same input

• e.g., F(5) = 10

A *non-deterministic* function may return different values on the same input

• e.g., G(5) in [0, 10] "G(5) returns a non-deterministic value between 0 and 10"

A *random* function may choose a different value with a probability distribution

• e.g., H(5) = (3 with prob. 0.3, 4 with prob. 0.2, and 5 with prob. 0.5)

Non-deterministic choice cannot be implemented!

used to model the worst possible adversary/environment



SEMANTICS



Reference for Semantics

Nielson². Semantics with Applications: An Appetizer

Available FREE at SpringerLink

https://link.springer.com/book/10.1007/978-1-84628-692-6

Chapter 1 and Chapter 2

Link on course web page





Syntax and Semantics



Syntax

- MW: the way in which linguistic elements (such as words) are put together to form constituents (such as phrases or clauses)
- Determines and restricts how things are written

Semantics

- MW: the study of meanings
- Determines how syntax is interpreted to give meaning



Meaning of WHILE Programs

Questions to answer:

- What is the "meaning" of a given WHILE expression/statement?
- How would we evaluate WHILE expressions and statements?
- How are the evaluator and the meaning related?
- How can we reason about the effect of a command?



Semantics of Programming Languages

Denotational Semantics

- Meaning of a program is defined as the mathematical object it computes (e.g., partial functions).
- example: Abstract Interpretation

Axiomatic Semantics

- Meaning of a program is defined in terms of its effect on the truth of logical assertions.
- example: Hoare Logic

Operational Semantics

- Meaning of a program is defined by formalizing the individual computation steps of the program.
- example: Natural (Big-Step) Semantics, Structural (Small-Step) Semantics



Semantics of WHILE

The meaning of WHILE expressions depends on the values of variables, i.e. the current state.

A state s is a function from L to Z

- assigns a value for every location/variable
- **notation**: *s*(*x*) is the value of variable *x* in state *s*

The set of all states is $Q = L \rightarrow Z$

We use q to range over Q



Judgement: Natural Semantics



Expression e in state q has a value n



Natural Semantics in the Book

The book uses a slightly different notation

$\langle e, q \rangle \Rightarrow n$

Versus notation in the slides

<e, q> ↓ n





Judgments

We write <e, q> \Downarrow n to mean that expression *e* evaluates to *n* in state *q*.

- The formula <e, q> ↓ n is called a judgment

 (a judgement is a relation between an expression e, a state q and a number n)
- We can view \Downarrow as a function of two arguments *e* and *q*

This formulation is called natural operational semantics

- also known as *big-step* operational semantics
- the judgment relates the expression and its "meaning"

How to define $\langle e1 + e2, q \rangle \Downarrow \dots ?$



Notation: Inference Rule





Notation: Axiom

G

An axiom states that the conclusion G is true independently of any premises or side-conditions



Inference Rules

We express the evaluation rules as inference rules for our judgments.

The rules are also called evaluation rules.





Inference Rules for Aexp

In general, we have one rule per language construct:

$$\frac{\langle e_1, q \rangle \Downarrow n}{\langle e_1, q \rangle \Downarrow n_1} \quad \langle e_2, q \rangle \Downarrow n_2}{\langle e_1 + e_2, q \rangle \Downarrow (n_1 + n_2)} \quad \frac{\langle e_1, q \rangle \Downarrow n_1}{\langle e_1 - e_2, q \rangle \Downarrow (n_1 - n_2)} \\
\frac{\langle e_1, q \rangle \Downarrow n_1}{\langle e_1 \wedge e_2, q \rangle \Downarrow (n_1 - n_2)}$$

This is called structural operational semantics of expressions.

• rules are defined based on the structure of the expressions.



Inference Rules for Bexp

<true, *q*> \Downarrow true

<false, $q > \Downarrow$ false

$$\Downarrow n_1 < e_2, q > \Downarrow n_2$$

 $\Downarrow (n_1 = n_2)$

 $\begin{array}{ll} <\!\!e_1,\,q\!\!>\Downarrow\,n_1 & <\!\!e_2,\,q\!\!>\Downarrow\,n_2 \\ <\!\!e_1\leq e_2,\,q\!\!>\downarrow\,(n_1\leq n_2) \end{array} \end{array}$



Derivation

A well-formed application of inference rules is called a *derivation* Derivation infers new facts from existing ones





Semantics of Statements



Statement s executed in state q results in state q'



Notation: state and state change

A *state* s is an assignment of values to *memory* locations (often called variables)

Notation:

- empty state
- state [x := 10, y:=15, z:=5]
- substitution s[x:=10]
 - a state like s, BUT, the value of x is 10

[]



Aside: Notation for Substitution

We need a concise notation for "Find-Replace"

Replace every occurrence of variable (string, value, ...) X with variable (string, value, ...) Y in a formula (string, object, state) F, and return the new formula (string, object, state) without changing F in place.

In Python, this looks like

- string.replace(old, new [, count])
- F.replace(X, Y)

In books, logic, slides, this course

- F[X := Y] --- implies that F is a state, X a state variable, Y a value
- F[X / Y] "F with X replaced by Y"
- F[X / Y] --- "F with X replacing Y"
- $F[X \rightarrow Y] "F$ with X replacing Y"
- F[X ← Y] "F with X replaced by Y"
- s/X/Y/g sed syntax


Evaluation of Statements

Evaluation of a statement produces a side-effect

• The result of evaluation of a statement is a new state

We write <s, q> \Downarrow q' to mean that evaluation of statement *s* in state *q* results in a new state *q*'

<skip, <math="">q > \Downarrow q <print_state, <math="">q > \Downarrow q</print_state,></skip,>	
$\langle s_1, q \rangle \Downarrow q'' \langle s_2, q'' \rangle \Downarrow q'$	$ \Downarrow true < s_1, q > \Downarrow q'$
<s₁ ;="" q="" s₂,=""> ↓ q'</s₁>	<if <math="" b="" then="">s_1 else s_2, $q > \Downarrow q'$</if>
<e, q=""> ↓ n</e,>	$<$ b, q> \Downarrow false $<$ s ₂ , q> \Downarrow q'
<x :="e," <i="">q> ∜ q[x:=n]</x>	<if <math="" b="" then="">s_1 else s_2, $q > \Downarrow q'$</if>



Derivation and Execution

Derivation of statement facts corresponds to execution / interpretation For example

• Show that <p:=0; x:=1; n:=2, []> ↓ [p:=0,x:=1,n:=2]

<0, []> ↓ 0	<1, [p:=0]> ↓ 1
<p:=0, []=""> ↓ [p:=0]</p:=0,>	<x:=1, [p:="0]"> ↓ [p:=0,x:=1]</x:=1,>

<p:=0,x:=1, []> U [p:=0,x:=1]

<p:=0; x:=1; n:=2, []> \U00c0 [p:=0,x:=1,n:=2]



Semantics of Loops

 $<b, q > \Downarrow$ false $<b, q > \Downarrow$ true<s; while b do s, $q > \Downarrow q'$ <while b do s, $q > \Downarrow q$ <while b do s, $q > \Downarrow q'$

What about infinite execution?

- Can introduce a special state T, called *top*, that represents divergence
- Infinite loop enters divergent state

<while true do s, $q > \downarrow \top$

• Any statement in divergent state is treated like 'skip'

<s, T > ↓ T

Need structural (or small step) semantics to deal with reactive execution

• execution that does not terminate, but produces useful result



Properties of Semantics

A semantics is *deterministic* if every program statement has exactly one possible derivation in any state

• If $\langle s, q \rangle \Downarrow q_1$ and $\langle s, q \rangle \Downarrow q_2$ then $q_1 = q_2$

Two statements are semantically equivalent if for every input state they derive the same output state

- s_1 and s_2 are sem. equiv. if $\langle s_1, q \rangle \Downarrow q_1$ and $\langle s_2, q \rangle \Downarrow q_2$ imply $q_1 = q_2$
- e.g., (while b do s) and if b then (s ; while b do s) else skip are sem. equiv.

Structural induction: To prove a property P on a derivation tree

- Base case: prove P for all of the axioms
- Inductive Hypothesis: assume P holds before every rule
- Induction: prove that P holds at the end of every rule

Use structural induction to prove that our semantics are deterministic



Structural Operational Semantics (Small-Step)

The meaning of executing ONE statement of a program



For the final statement, the output is only a state

 $\langle s, q \rangle \Rightarrow q'$



Small-step semantics for WHILE

<skip, q=""> ⇒</skip,>	> q
$\langle s_1, q \rangle \Rightarrow q'$	$< s_1, q > \Rightarrow < s_3, q' >$
$\langle s_1; s_2, q \rangle \Rightarrow \langle s_2, q' \rangle$	$\langle s_1 ; s_2, q \rangle \Rightarrow \langle s_3 ; s_2, q' \rangle$
<b, q=""> ↓ <i>true</i></b,>	<b, q=""></b,>
$\langle \text{if b then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2, q \rangle \Rightarrow \langle s_1, q \rangle$	<if <math="" b="" then="">s_1 else s_2, <math>q > \Rightarrow <s_2< math="">, $q >$</s_2<></math></if>

<while b do s, $q > \Rightarrow$ <if b then (s ; while b do s) else skip, q>



Properties of Small Step Semantics

Small step semantics can be viewed as a transition system TS=(S, R)

- S is a set of states; Each configuration <s, q> is a state.
- R is a transition relation on pair of states
 - -(x, y) in R iff $(x \Rightarrow y)$ is a true judgement in small-step semantics

A path $x_1, x_2, x_3, ...$ in this TS is called a *derivation sequence*

A derivation sequence in TS corresponds to a program execution

Properties of small-step semantics are established by induction on the length of the derivation

Small step semantics is deterministic if there is only one derivation for every configuration



From Programming to Modeling

Extend a programming language with 3 modeling features

Assertions

• assert e - aborts an execution when e is false, no-op otherwise

void assert (bool b) { if (!b) error(); }

Non-determinism

• havoc x – assigns variable x a non-deterministic value

void havoc(int &x) { int y; x = y; }

Assumptions

• assume e - blocks execution if e is false, noop otherwise

void assume (bool e) { while (!e) ; }



Safety Specifications as Assertions

A program is correct if all executions that satisfy all assumptions also satisfy all assertions

A program is incorrect if there exists an execution that satisfies all of the assumptions AND violates at least one an assertion

Assumptions express pre-conditions on which the program behavior relies

Assertions express desired properties that the program must maintain



Writing Specifications with Assert and Assume

```
int x, y;
void main (void)
{
  havoc (x);
  assume (x > 10);
  assume (x <= 100);
  y = x + 1;
  assert (y > x);
  assert (y < 200);
}
```



Order of Assumptions is IMPORTANT!!!

```
int x, y;
void main (void)
{
  havoc (x);
  y = x + 1;
  assume (x > 10);
  assume (x <= 100);
  assert (y > x);
  assert (y < 200);
}
```

int x, y; void main (void) { havoc (x); y = x + 1;assert (y > x);assert (y < 200);assume (x > 10);assume (x <= 100); }



GRAPHS



Graphs

A graph, G = (N, E), is an ordered pair consisting of

- a node set, N, and
- an edge set, E = {(n_i, n_j)}

If the pairs in E are ordered, then G is called a directed graph and is depicted with arrowheads on its edges

If not, the graph is called an undirected graph

Graphs are suggestive devices that help in the visualization of relations

• The set of edges in the graph are visual representations of the ordered pairs that compose relations

Graphs provide a mathematical basis for reasoning about programs



Paths

a path, P, through a directed graph G = (N, E) is a sequence of edges, ($(u_1, v_1), (u_2, v_2), \dots (u_t, v_t)$ such that

- $v_{k-1} = u_k$ for all $1 \le k \le t$
- u_1 is called the start node and v_t is called the end node

The length of a path is the number of edges (or nodes-1 ⁽ⁱ⁾) in the path

Paths are also frequently represented by a sequence of nodes

• $(u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_t)$



Cycles

A cycle in a graph G is a path whose start node and end node are the same

A simple cycle in a graph G is a cycle such that all of its nodes are different (except for the start and end nodes)

If a graph G has no path through it that is a cycle, then the graph is called acyclic



Example of Cycles





Trees

An acyclic, undirected graph is called a tree

If the undirected version of a directed graph is acyclic, then the graph is called a directed tree

If the undirected version of a directed graph has cycles, but the directed graph itself has no cycles, then the graph is called a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)

Every tree is isomorphic to a prefix-closed subset of N* for some natural number N







GRAPHS AS MODELS OF COMPUTATION



Computation tree

A tree model of all the possible executions of a system

At each node represents a state of the system

• valuation of all variables

Can have infinite number of paths

Can have infinite paths



Example Computation Tree



Is this tree infinite?



Disadvantages of Computation Trees

Represent the space that we want to reason about

For anything interesting, they are too large to create or reason about

Other models of executable behavior are providing abstractions of the computation tree model

- Abstract values
- Abstract flow of control
- Specialize abstraction depending on focus of analysis



Control Flow Graph (CFG)

Represents the flow of execution in the program

G = (N, E, S, T) where

- the nodes N represent executable instructions (statement, statement fragments, or basic blocks);
- the edges E represent the potential transfer of control;
- S is a designated start node;
- T is a designated final node
- E = { (n_i, n_j) | syntactically, the execution of n_j follows the execution of n_i }

Nodes may correspond to single statements, parts of statements, or several statements (i.e., basic blocks)

Execution of a node means that the instructions associated with a node are executed in order from the first instruction to the last



Example of a Control Flow Graph

```
total := 0;
count := 1;
max := input();
while (count <= max)
  do {
   val := input();
   total := total+val;
   count := count+1};
print (total)
```





Deriving a Control Flow Graph







Control Flow Graph

- 1: total:=0; count := 1; max = input(); goto 2
- 2: if count <= max
 then goto 3 else goto 4</pre>
- 3: val := read();
 total := total + val;
 count := count + 1; goto 2
- 4: print(total)





CFG: Sub-path and Complete Path

a sub-path through a CFG is a sequence of nodes $(n_i, n_{i+1}, ..., n_t)$, $i \ge 1$ where for each n_k , $i \le k < t$, (n_k, n_{k+1}) is an edge in the graph

• e.g., 2, 3, 2, 3, 2, 4

a complete path starts at the start node and ends at the final node

• e.g., 1, 2, 3, 2, 4





Infeasible Paths

Every executable sequence in the represented component corresponds to a path in G

Not all paths correspond to executable sequences

- requires additional semantic information
- "infeasible paths" are not an indication of a fault

CFG usually overestimates the executable behavior



Example with an infeasible path





Example Paths

```
Feasible path: 1, 2, 4, 5, 7
```

```
Infeasible path: 1, 3, 4, 5, 7
```

Determining if a path is feasible or not requires additional semantic information

- In general, undecidable
- In practice, intractable
 - -Some exceptions are studied in this course



Benefits of CFG

Probably the most commonly used representation

Numerous variants

Basis for inter-component analysis

Collections of CFGs

Basis for various transformations

- Compiler optimizations
- S/W analysis

Basis for automated analysis

• Graphical representations of interesting programs are too complex for direct human understanding



Paths





Paths can be identified by predicate outcomes





Paths can be identified by domains





CFG Abstraction Level?

Loop conditions? (yes) Individual statements? (no) Exception handling? (no)

What's best depends on type of analysis to be conducted


CFG Exercise (1)

Draw a control flow graph with 7 nodes.

int binary_search(int a[], int low, int high, int target) { /* binary search for target in the sorted a[low, high] */

```
1 while (low <= high) {
```

```
2 int middle = low + (high - low)/2;
```

```
3 if (target < a[middle])
```

```
4 high = middle - 1;
```

```
5 else if (target > a[middle])
```

```
low = middle + 1;
```

```
else
```

7 return middle;

```
}
```

```
8 return -1; /* return -1 if target is not
found in a[low, high] */
```

6

CFG Exercise (2)

Draw a control flow graph with 8 nodes.

int binary_search(int a[], int low, int high, int target) { /* binary search for target in the sorted a[low, high] */

```
1 while (low <= high) {
```

```
2 int middle = low + (high - low)/2;
```

```
3 if (target < a[middle])
```

```
4 high = middle - 1;
```

```
5 else if (target > a[middle])
```

```
low = middle + 1;
```

```
else
```

7 return middle;

```
}
```

```
8 return -1; /* return -1 if target is not
found in a[low, high] */
```

6

CFG Exercise (1) Solution

Draw a control flow graph with 7 nodes.

int binary_search(int a[], int low, int high, int target) { /* binary search for target in the sorted a[low, high] */

- 1 while (low <= high) {
- 2 int middle = low + (high low)/2;
- 3 if (target < a[middle])
- 4 high = middle 1;

```
5 else if (target > a[middle])
```

```
low = middle + 1;
```

else

6

7 return middle;

```
8 return -1; /* return -1 if target is not found in a[low, high] */
```



CFG Exercise (2) Solution

Draw a control flow graph with 8 nodes.

int binary_search(int a[], int low, int high, int target) { /* binary search for target in the sorted a[low, high] */

```
1 while (low <= high) {
```

```
2 int middle = low + (high - low)/2;
```

```
3 if (target < a[middle])
```

```
4 high = middle - 1;
```

```
5 else if (target > a[middle])
```

```
low = middle + 1;
```

else

6

```
7 return middle;
```

8 return -1; /* return -1 if target is not found in a[low, high] */



CFG Exercise (3)

/* Function: ReturnAverage Computes the average of all those numbers in the input array in the positive range [MIN, MAX]. The max size of the array is AS. But, the array size could be smaller than AS in which case the end of input is designated by -999. */

1	<pre>public static double ReturnAverage(int value[], int AS, int MIN, int MAX) {</pre>
2	int i, ti, tv, sum;
3	double av;
4	i = 0; ti = 0; tv = 0; sum = 0;
5	while (ti < AS && value[i] != -999) {
6	ti++;
7	if (value[i] >= MIN && value[i] <= MAX) {
8	tv++;
9	sum = sum + value[i];
10	}
11	i++;
12	}
13	if $(tv > 0)$ av = (double)sum/tv;
14	else $av = (double) -999;$
15	return (av);
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CFG of ReturnAverage



