



Object Oriented Programming

1. OO Application Development
2. Assertions
3. Java Errors and Exceptions



Five-Part Development Process

- Gather requirements
- Use CRC cards to find classes, responsibilities, and collaborators
- Use UML diagrams to record class relationships
- Use **javadoc** to document method behavior
- Implement your program



Analysis class rules of thumb

- About three to five responsibilities per class
- No class stands alone
- Beware of many very small classes
- Beware of few but very large classes
- Beware of “functoids” – a functoid is a really a normal procedural function disguised as a class.
- Beware of omnipotent classes
 - Look for classes with “system” or “controller” in their name!
- Avoid deep inheritance trees



Example: Simplified Invoice

I N V O I C E

Sam's Small Appliances
100 Main Street
Anytown, CA 98765

Description	Price	Qty	Total
Toaster	29.95	3	89.85
Hair dryer	24.95	1	24.95
Car vacuum	19.99	2	39.98

Amount Due: \$154.78



Example: Simplified Invoice

- Classes that come to mind: `Invoice`, `LineItem`, and `Customer`
- Good idea to keep a list of candidate classes
- Brainstorm, simply put all ideas for classes onto the list
- You can cross not useful ones later

Computer Science



Finding Classes

- Keep the following points in mind:
 - Class represents set of objects with the same behavior
 - Entities with multiple occurrences in problem description are good candidates for objects
 - Find out what they have in common
 - Design classes to capture commonalities
 - Represent some entities as objects, others as primitive types
 - Should we make a class Address or use a String?
 - Not all classes can be discovered in analysis phase
 - Some classes may already exist



Printing an Invoice – Requirements

- Task: print out an invoice
- Invoice: describes the charges for a set of products in certain quantities
- Omit complexities
 - Dates, taxes, and invoice and customer numbers
- Print invoice
 - Billing address, all line items, amount due
- Line item
 - Description, unit price, quantity ordered, total price
- For simplicity, do not provide a user interface
- Test program: adds line items to the invoice and then prints it



Printing an Invoice – CRC Cards

- Discover classes
- Nouns are possible classes

Invoice
Address
LineItem
Product
Description
Price
Quantity
Total
Amount Due



Printing an Invoice – CRC Cards

- Analyze classes

```
Invoice
Address
LineItem    // Records the product and the quantity
Product
Description  // Field of the Product class
Price        // Field of the Product class
Quantity     // Not an attribute of a Product
Total        // Computed-not stored anywhere
Amount Due   // Computed-not stored anywhere
```

- Classes after a process of elimination

```
Invoice
Address
LineItem
Product
```



Very GOOD Examples

- Address Book
 - <http://www.math-cs.gordon.edu/courses/cs211/AddressBookExample/>
- Automatic Teller Machine
 - <http://www.math-cs.gordon.edu/courses/cs211/ATMExample/>



Reasons for rejecting a candidate class

TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Sign	Reason for suspicion
<i>Class with verbal name (infinitive or imperative)</i>	May be a simple subroutine, not a class
<i>Fully effective class with only one method</i>	May be a simple subroutine, not a class
<i>Class described as "performing" something</i>	May not be a proper data abstraction
<i>Class with no methods</i>	May be an opaque piece of information, not an ADT. Or may be an ADT, the routines having just been missed
<i>Class introducing no or very few features (but inherits features from parents)</i>	May be a case of "taxomania"
<i>Class covering several abstractions</i>	Should be split into several classes, one per abstraction



CRC Cards for Printing Invoice

- Both **Invoice** and **Address** must be able to format themselves – responsibilities:
 - **Invoice** *format the invoice* and
 - **Address** *format the address*
- Add collaborators to invoice card: **Address** and **LineItem**
- For **Product** card – responsibilities: *get description, get unit price*
- For **LineItem** CRC card – responsibilities: *format the item, get the total price*



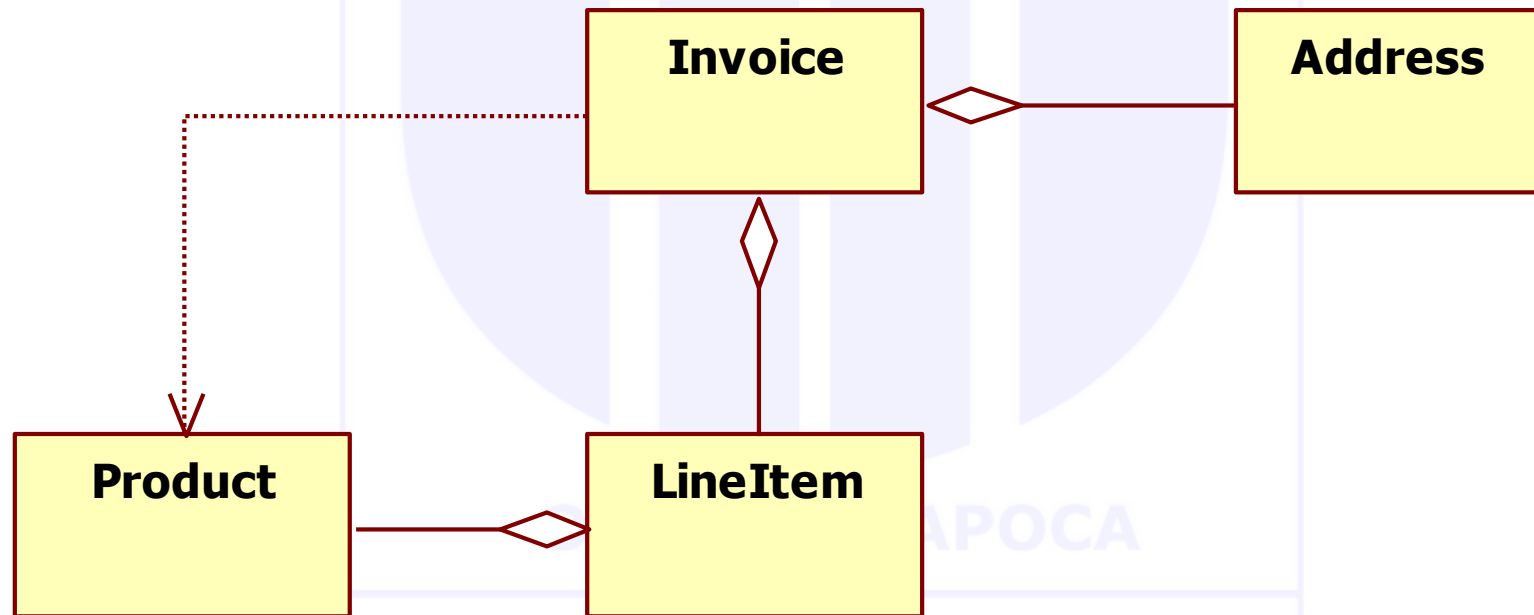
CRC Cards for Printing Invoice

- **Invoice** must be populated with products and quantities:

Invoice	
<i>format the invoice</i>	Address
<i>add a product and quantity</i>	LineItem
	Product



Printing an Invoice – UML Diagram





Tools for UML Diagraming

- ArgoUML:
 - <http://argouml.tigris.org>
 - Runs on any Java platform
- StarUML
 - <http://staruml.sourceforge.net/en/>
 - open source project
- List of UML Tools
 - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Unified_Modeling_Language_tools



Types of Specifications

- Class Diagrams
- Object Diagrams
- Activity Diagrams (control flow diagrams)
- Assertions (preconditions, postconditions, invariants)
 - Others
- Note that first three are incomplete specifications



Class Specification

- A software specification indicates the task (or some aspect of the task) that is supposed to be performed when software executes
- A class specification defines the semantics (behavior) of a class by way of:
 - a class invariant to describe what is always true of the class's objects.
 - specifications for each of the classes methods.
- Each *method specification* consists of
 - a precondition (optional),
 - a modifies clause (optional), and
 - a postcondition.



Method Specification

- A *precondition* states the conditions that are necessary for the method to properly execute
- A *modifies* clause is a list of objects that might be altered by executing the method.
- A *postcondition* states what is true when the method completes execution



Assertion

- An *assertion* is a statement of fact that is presumed true relative to a code location(s). Example

```
// assert: str is a String and str.length > 2
char firstChar, secondChar, bigChar;
firstChar = str.charAt(0);
secondChar = str.charAt(1);
if (firstChar > secondChar) {
    bigChar = firstChar;
} else {
    bigChar = secondChar;
}
/* assert:
    str.length > 2
    and (str.charAt(0) > str.charAt(1)
        implies bigChar == str.charAt(0))
    and (str.charAt(0) ≤ str.charAt(1)
        implies bigChar == str.charAt(1)) */
```



Assertion Notation

- Assertions are based on logic and certain program notations (i.e., variable references and possibly non-void method calls).
- Assertions should NOT contain action verbs
- Logical Operators
 - not SubAssertion1*** - The subassertion must be false.
 - SubAssertion1 and SubAssertion2*** - Both subassertions must be true.
 - SubAssertion1 or SubAssertion2*** - One or both subassertion is true.
 - SubAssertion1 implies SubAssertion2*** - When the first subassertion is true, the second must also be true



Assertion Notation

- Another logical notation, known as quantification, permits expressing assertions about data structures.
- Universal quantification

- ***forAll*** (*type var : boundaryCondition | SubAssertion*)

- Example:

forAll (Integer j : $0 \leq j \leq 2$ | $\text{arr1}[j] > 0$)

meaning: $\text{arr1}[0] > 0$ **and** $\text{arr1}[1] > 0$ **and** $\text{arr1}[2] > 0$



Assertion Notation

- Existential quantification
 - ***exists*** (*type var : boundaryCondition | SubAssertion*)
 - Example:
exists (Integer j : $0 \leq j \leq 2$ | arr1[j] == 5)

meaning: arr1[0] == 5 **or** arr1[1] == 5 **or** arr1[2] == 5



Quantification Examples

- Assume two arrays of double: **a1** and **a2** and
a1.length == a2.length == 4
forAll (Integer $r : 0 \leq r < 3 \mid a1[r] < a1[r+1]$)
forAll (Integer $w : 0 \leq w \leq 3 \mid a1[w] == a2[w]$)
exists (Integer $k : 0 \leq k \leq 3$
 $\mid a1[k] == 22$ **and** $a2[k] == 22$)
exists (Integer $k : 0 \leq k \leq 3$
 $\mid (a1[k] < 0$
and forAll (Integer $j : k < j \leq 3 \mid a2[k] == a1[j]$)))
forAll ($j,k : 0 \leq j,k \leq 3$ **and** $j \neq k \mid a1[j] \neq a2[k]$)



Where to Place Assertions

- Possible places
 - Class invariant
 - Method postcondition
 - Method precondition
 - Loop invariant



Assertions Example

```
/** class invariant
    distanceInMiles > 0 and timeInSeconds > 0 */
public class LapTime {
    private double distanceInMiles, timeInSeconds;

    /** pre: d > 0 and t > 0
        post: distanceInMiles == d and timeInSeconds == t */
    public LapTime(double d, double t) {
        distanceInMiles = d;
        timeInSeconds = t;
    }

    /** post: distanceInMiles == 60
        and timeInSeconds == 3600 */
    public void setTo60MPH() {
        distanceInMiles = 60;
        timeInSeconds = 3600;
    }
}
```



Special Postcondition Notations

- Return value (result)

```
// Within LapTime class
/** post: result == distanceInMiles / (timeInSeconds*3600)
 */
public double milesPerHour()    {
    double velocity;
    velocity = distanceInMiles/(timeInSeconds*60*60);
    return velocity
}
```

- Previous value (@pre)

```
// Within LapTime class
/** post:  distanceInMiles == distanceInMiles@pre * 2 */
public void doubleTheMileage()    {
    distanceInMiles = distanceInMiles * 2;
}
```



Design by Contract

- Method caller guarantees...
 - precondition & class invariant (at time of method call)
- Method is required to ensure...
 - postcondition & class invariant (at time of method return)
- Addendum: A modifies clause can stipulate what alterations are permitted



Problems During Execution

- A program often encounters problems as it executes.
 - It may have trouble reading data,
 - there might be illegal characters in the data, or
 - an array index might go out of bounds.
- Java Errors and Exceptions enable the programmer deal with such problems.
 - You can write a program that recovers from errors and keeps on running.
 - *A program should not crash when the user makes an error!*
- Input and output is especially error prone.
- Exception handling is essential for I/O programming



Exception Example

■ The program:

```
import java.util.Scanner;
public class InputMismatchExceptionDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner keyboard = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter one integer:");
        int inputNumber = keyboard.nextInt();
        System.out.println("The square of " + inputNumber + " is "
+ inputNumber * inputNumber);
    }
}
```

■ With input: Enter one integer:h1

■ Results in:

```
java.util.InputMismatchException
    at java.util.Scanner.throwFor(Scanner.java:819)
    at java.util.Scanner.next(Scanner.java:1431)
    at java.util.Scanner.nextInt(Scanner.java:2040)
    at java.util.Scanner.nextInt(Scanner.java:2000)
    at
InputMismatchExceptionDemo.main(InputMismatchExceptionDemo.java:11
)
```



Example Discussion

- Nothing is wrong with the program.
 - The problem is that `nextInt` cannot convert "h1" into an `int`.
 - When `nextInt` found the problem it **threw** a `InputMismatchException`.
 - The Java run-time system caught the exception, halted the program, and printed the error messages



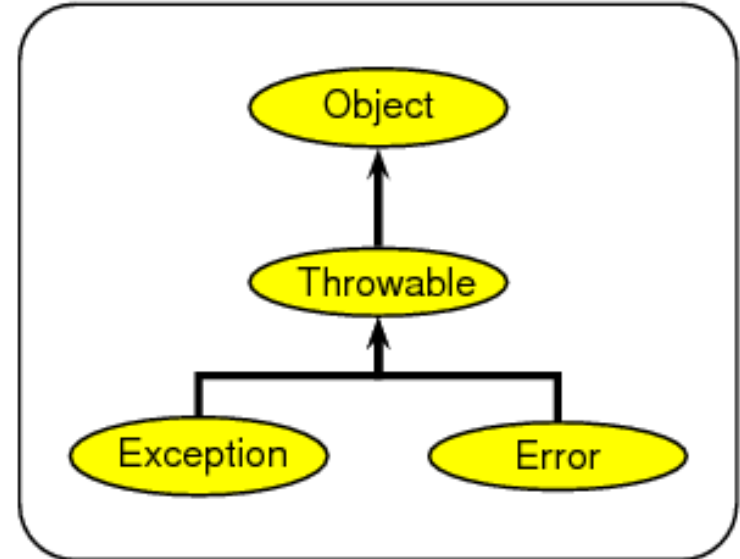
Exceptions and Errors

- An **exception**: a problem that occurs when a program is running.
 - When an exception occurs, the JVM creates an object of class **Exception** which holds information about the problem.
 - A Java program itself may **catch** an exception. It can then use the Exception object to recover from the problem.
- An **error**, also, is a problem that occurs when a program is running.
- An error is represented by an object of class **Error**.
 - But an error is too severe for a program to handle. The program must *stop running*.



Throwable Hierarchy

- Class **Exception** and class **Error** both descend from **Throwable**.
 - A Java method can "throw" an object of class **Throwable**.
 - E.g. `Integer.parseInt("zzz")` throws an exception when it tries to convert "zzz" into an integer.
- Exceptions \neq Errors: programs can be written to recover from Exceptions, but programs can't be written to recover from Errors





Introduction to Exception Handling

- Java library software (or programmer-defined code) provides a mechanism that signals when *something unusual* happens
 - This is called *throwing an exception*
- In another place in the program, the programmer must provide code that *deals with* the exceptional case
 - This is called *handling the exception*



try-throw-catch Mechanism

- The basic way of handling exceptions in Java consists of the *try-throw-catch* trio
- The **try** block contains the code for the basic algorithm
 - It tells what to do when everything goes smoothly
 - It is called a **try** block because it "tries" to execute the case where all goes as planned
 - It can also contain code that throws an exception if something unusual happens

```
try {  
    CodeThatMayThrowAnException  
}
```



try-throw-catch Mechanism

throw new

ExceptionClassName (PossiblySomeArguments) ;

- When an exception is thrown, the execution of the surrounding **try** block is stopped
 - Normally, the flow of control is transferred to another portion of code known as the **catch** block
- The value thrown is the argument to the **throw** operator, and is always an object of some exception class
 - The execution of a **throw** statement is called *throwing an exception*



try-throw-catch Mechanism

- A **throw** statement is similar to a method call:
`throw new ExceptionClassName(SomeString) ;`
 - In the above example, the object of class ***ExceptionClassName*** is created using a string as its argument
 - This object, which is an argument to the **throw** operator, is the exception object thrown
- Instead of calling a method, a **throw** statement calls a **catch** block



try-throw-catch Mechanism

- When an exception is thrown, the **catch** block begins execution
 - The **catch** block has *one parameter*
 - The exception object thrown is plugged in for the **catch** block parameter
- The execution of the **catch** block is called *catching the exception*, or *handling the exception*
 - Whenever an exception is thrown, it should ultimately be handled (or caught) by some **catch** block



try-throw-catch Mechanism

```
catch(Exception e) {  
    ExceptionHandlingCode  
}
```

- A **catch** block looks like a method definition that has a parameter of type *Exception* class
 - It is not really a method definition, however
- A **catch** block is a separate piece of code that is executed when a program encounters and executes a **throw** statement in the preceding **try** block
 - A **catch** block is often referred to as an *exception handler*
 - It can have at most one parameter



try-throw-catch Mechanism

```
catch(Exception e) { . . . }
```

- The identifier **e** in the above **catch** block heading is called the **catch** block parameter
- The **catch** block parameter does two things:
 1. It specifies the type of thrown exception object that the **catch** block can catch (e.g., an **Exception** class object above)
 2. It provides a name (for the thrown object that is caught) on which it can operate in the **catch** block
 - Note: The identifier **e** is often used by convention, but any *non-keyword* identifier can be used



try-throw-catch Mechanism

- When a **try** block is executed, two things can happen:
 1. No exception is thrown in the **try** block
 - The code in the **try** block is executed to the end of the block
 - The **catch** block is skipped
 - The execution continues with the code placed after the **catch** block

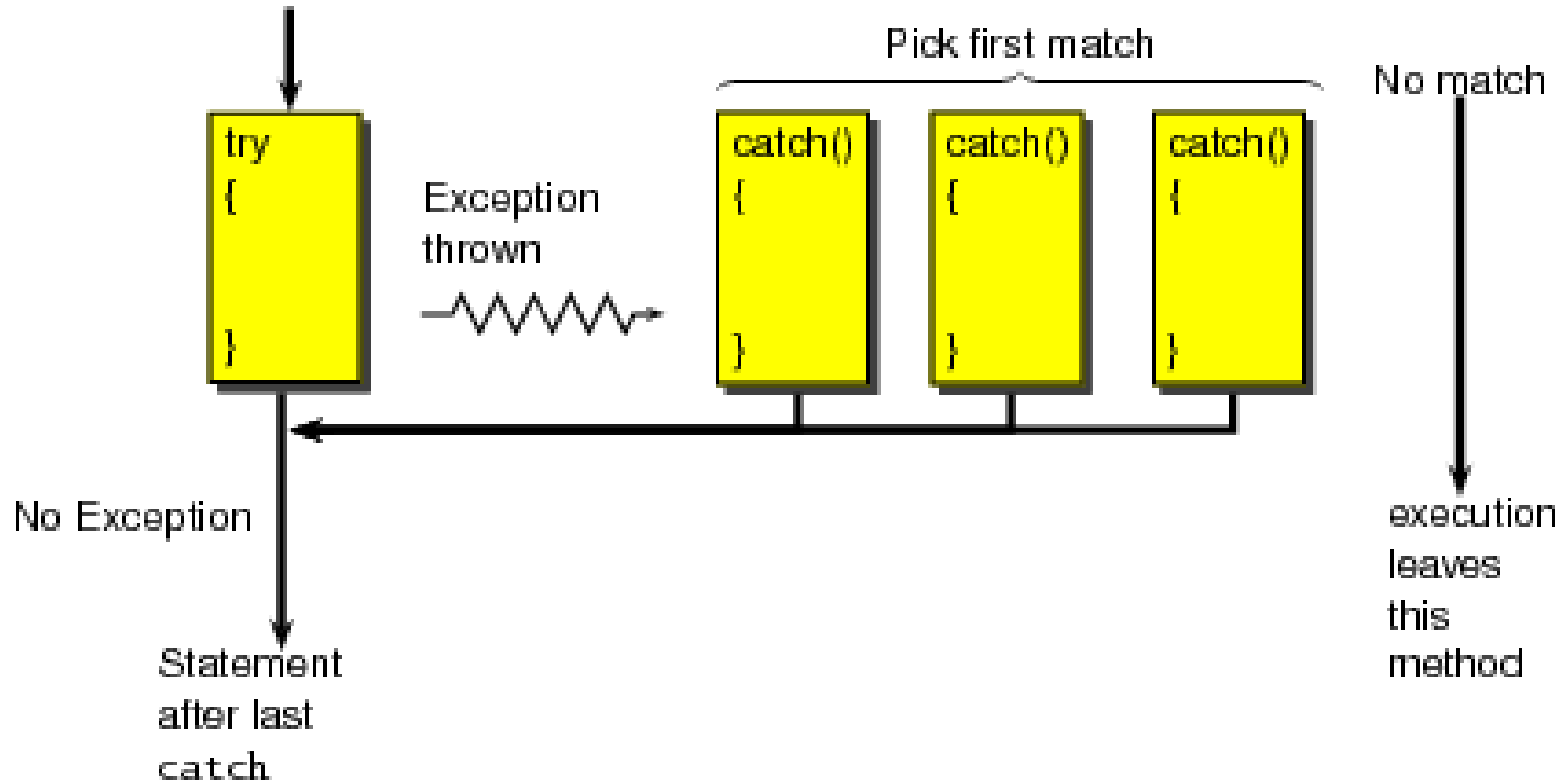


try-throw-catch Mechanism

2. An exception is thrown in the **try** block and caught in the **catch** block
 - The rest of the code in the **try** block is skipped
 - Control is transferred to a following **catch** block (in simple cases)
 - The thrown object is plugged in for the **catch** block parameter
 - The code in the **catch** block is executed
 - The code that follows that **catch** block is executed (if any)



try-throw-catch Mechanism





An Example with Two Exceptions

```
public class DoubleMistake {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        int num = 5, denom = 0, result;  
        int[] arr = {7, 21, 31};  
        try  
        {  
            result = num / denom;  
            result = arr[num];  
        }  
        catch (ArithmeticException ex) {  
            System.out.println("Arithmetic error");  
        }  
        catch (IndexOutOfBoundsException ex) {  
            System.out.println("Index error");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Note. The second exception will never get thrown. Why?



try-throw-catch Mechanism

- When an exception is thrown by a statement in the `try{}` block, the `catch{}` blocks are examined one-by-one starting with the first.
- Only one `catch{}` block is picked.
- If no `catch{}` block matches the exception, none is picked, and execution leaves this method (just as if there were no `catch{}` block.)
- The first `catch{}` block to match the type of the exception gets control.
- The most specific exception types should appear first in the structure, followed by the more general exception types.
- The statements in the chosen `catch{}` block execute sequentially. After the last statement executes, control goes to the first statement that follows the `try/catch` structure.
- Control does not return to the `try` block.



User Friendly Example

```
import java.lang.* ;
import java.io.* ;

public class SquareUser
{
    public static void main ( String[] a ) throws
        IOException
    {
        BufferedReader stdin =
            new BufferedReader ( new
                InputStreamReader( System.in ) );
        String inData = null;
        int num = 0;
        boolean inputOK = false;
        while ( !inputOK )
        {
            System.out.print("Enter an integer:");
            inData = stdin.readLine();

            try
            {
                num = Integer.parseInt( inData
            );
                inputOK = true;
            }
            catch (NumberFormatException ex )
            {
                System.out.println("You entered
                invalid data." );
                System.out.println("Please try
                again.\n" );
            }
        }
        System.out.println("The square of " +
            inData + " is " + num*num );
    }
}
```



The **finally** clause

- Exception terminates current method
- Danger: Can skip over essential code
- Example:

```
reader = new FileReader(filename);
Scanner in = new Scanner(reader);
readData(in);
reader.close();
// May never get here
```
- Must execute **reader.close()** even if exception happens
- Use **finally** clause for code that must be executed "no matter what"



The `finally` clause

- **BlueJ example** (`ExceptFinallyEx`)



The `finally` clause

- Executed when `try` block is exited in any of three ways:
 - After last statement of `try` block
 - After last statement of `catch` clause, if this `try` block caught an exception
 - When an exception was thrown in `try` block and not caught
- Cay Horstmann recommendation: don't mix `catch` and `finally` clauses in same `try` block



Multiple catch clauses and finally

- If you have any **catch** clauses associated with the **try** block, you must put the **finally** clause after all the **catch** clauses. Example:

```
try {  
    // Block of code with multiple exit points  
}  
catch (OneException e) {  
    System.out.println("Caught one!");  
}  
catch (OtherException e) {  
    System.out.println("Caught other!");  
}  
catch (AnotherException e) {  
    System.out.println("Caught another!");  
}  
finally {  
    // Block of code that is always executed when the try block is exited,  
    // no matter how the try block is exited.  
    System.out.println("Finally is always executed");  
}
```



Exception Classes

- There are more exception classes than just the single class **Exception**
 - There are more exception classes in the standard Java libraries
 - New exception classes can be defined like any other class
- All predefined exception classes have the following properties:
 - There is a constructor that takes a single argument of type **String**
 - The class has an accessor method **getMessage** that can recover the string given as an argument to the constructor when the exception object was created
- All programmer-defined classes should have the same properties



Exception Classes from Standard Packages

- Numerous predefined exception classes are included in the standard packages that come with Java
 - For example:
 - `IOException`
 - `NoSuchMethodException`
 - `FileNotFoundException`
 - Many exception classes must be imported in order to use them
 - `import java.io.IOException;`
- The predefined exception class **Exception** is the root class for all exceptions
 - Every exception class is a descendent class of the class **Exception**
 - Can be used directly, or ,most often, to define a derived class
 - It is in the `java.lang` package, requires no `import` statement



Using the `getMessage` Method

```
. . . // method code
try {
    . . .
    throw new
    Exception(StringArgument) ;
    . . .
}
catch (Exception e) {
    String message =
    e.getMessage() ;

    System.out.println(message
    ) ;
    System.exit(0) ;
} . . .
```

- Every exception has a **`String`** instance variable that contains some message
 - This string typically identifies the reason for the exception
- **`StringArgument`** is the string used for the value of the string instance variable of exception **`e`**
 - Therefore, the method call **`e.getMessage()`** returns this string



Defining Exception Classes

- A **throw** statement can throw an exception object of any exception class
- Exception classes can also be *programmer-defined*
 - These can be tailored to carry the precise kinds of information needed in the **catch** block
 - A different type of exception can be defined to identify each different exceptional situation



Defining Exception Classes

- Every exception class to be defined must be a derived class of some already defined exception class
 - It can be a derived class of any exception class in the standard Java libraries, or of any programmer defined exception class
- Constructors are the most important members to define in an exception class
 - They must behave appropriately with respect to the variables and methods inherited from the base class
 - Often, there are no other members, except those inherited from the base class
- The following exception class performs these basic tasks only



A Programmer-Defined Exception Class

```
public class DivisionByZeroException extends Exception
```

```
{
```

```
    public DivisionByZeroException()
```

```
    {
```

```
        super("Division by zero.");
```

```
    }
```

```
    public DivisionByZeroException(String message)
```

```
    {
```

```
        super(message);
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

**More can be done in a
exception constructor,
but this form is common**

***super* is an invocation of
the constructor for the
base class Exception**



Exception Object Characteristics

- The two most important things about an exception object are its type (i.e., exception class) and the message it carries
 - The message is sent along with the exception object as an instance variable
 - This message can be recovered with the accessor method `getMessage`, so that the `catch` block can use the message



Programmer-Defined Exception Class Guidelines

- Exception classes may be programmer-defined, but every such class must be a derived class of an already existing exception class
- The class **Exception** can be used as the base class, unless another exception class would be more suitable
- At least two constructors should be defined, sometimes more
- The exception class should allow for the fact that the method **getMessage** is inherited



Preserve getMessage

- For all predefined exception classes, **getMessage** returns the string that is passed to its constructor as an argument
 - Or it will return a default string if no argument is used with the constructor
- This behavior must be preserved in all programmer-defined exception class
 - A *constructor* must be included having *a string parameter* whose body begins with a call to **super**. The call to **super** must use the parameter as its argument
 - A *no-argument constructor* must also be included whose body begins with a call to **super**. This call to **super** must use *a default string* as its argument



Multiple catch Blocks

- Each **catch** block can only catch values of the exception class type given in the **catch** block heading
- Different types of exceptions can be caught by placing more than one **catch** block after a **try** block
 - Any number of **catch** blocks can be included, but they must be placed in the correct order
- A **try** block can potentially throw any number of exception values, and they can be of differing types
 - In any one execution of a **try** block, at most one exception can be thrown (since a **throw** statement ends the execution of the **try** block)
 - However, different types of exception values can be thrown on different executions of the **try** block



Pitfall: Catch the More Specific Exception First

- When catching multiple exceptions, the order of the `catch` blocks is important
 - **When an exception is thrown in a `try` block, the `catch` blocks are examined in order**
 - **The first one that matches the type of the exception thrown is the one that is executed**
- ```
catch (Exception e)
{ . . . }
catch (NumberFormatException e)
{ . . . }
```
- Because a `NumberFormatException` is a type of `Exception`, all `NumberFormatExceptions` will be caught by the first `catch` block before ever reaching the second block
    - **The `catch` block for `NumberFormatException` will never be used!**
  - For the correct ordering, simply reverse the two blocks



# Throwing an Exception in a Method

- Sometimes it makes sense to throw an exception in a method, but not catch it in the same method
  - Some programs that use a method should just end if an exception is thrown, and other programs should do something else
  - In such cases, the program using the method should enclose the method invocation in a **try** block, and catch the exception in a **catch** block that follows
- In this case, the method itself would not include **try** and **catch** blocks
  - However, it would have to include a **throws** clause



# Declaring Exceptions in a **throws** Clause

- If a method can throw an exception but does not catch it, it must provide a warning
  - This warning is called a **throws clause**
  - The process of including an exception class in a throws clause is called *declaring the exception*  
`throws AnException //throws clause`
  - The following states that an invocation of **aMethod** could throw **AnException**  
`public void aMethod() throws AnException`
- Note that **main( )** is also a method that may have an exception specification:

```
public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception
```



## Declaring Exceptions in a **throws** Clause

- If a method can throw more than one type of exception, then separate the exception types by commas

```
public void aMethod() throws
 AnException, AnotherException
```

- If a method throws an exception and does not catch it, then the method invocation ends immediately



# The Catch or Declare Rule

- Most ordinary exceptions that might be thrown within a method must be accounted for in one of two ways:
  1. The code that can throw an exception is placed within a **try** block, and the possible exception is caught in a **catch** block within the same method
  2. The possible exception can be declared at the start of the method definition by placing the exception class name in a **throws** clause





# The Catch or Declare Rule

- The first technique handles an exception in a **catch** block
- The second technique is a way to shift the exception handling responsibility to the method that invoked the exception throwing method
- The invoking method must handle the exception, unless it too uses the same technique to "pass the buck"
- Ultimately, every exception that is thrown should eventually be caught by a **catch** block in some method that does not just declare the exception class in a **throws** clause



# The Catch or Declare Rule

- In any one method, both techniques can be mixed
  - Some exceptions may be caught, and others may be declared in a **throws** clause
- However, these techniques must be used consistently with a given exception
  - If an exception is not declared, then it must be handled within the method
  - If an exception is declared, then the responsibility for handling it is shifted to some other calling method
  - Note that if a method definition encloses an invocation of a second method, and the second method can throw an exception and does not catch it, then the first method must catch or declare it



# Checked and Unchecked Exceptions

- Exceptions that are subject to the catch or declare rule are called *checked* exceptions
  - The compiler checks to see if they are accounted for with either a **catch** block or a **throws** clause
  - The classes **Throwable**, **Exception**, and all descendants of the class **Exception** are checked exceptions
- All other exceptions are *unchecked* exceptions
- The class **Error** and all its descendant classes are called *error classes*
  - Error classes are *not* subject to the Catch or Declare Rule



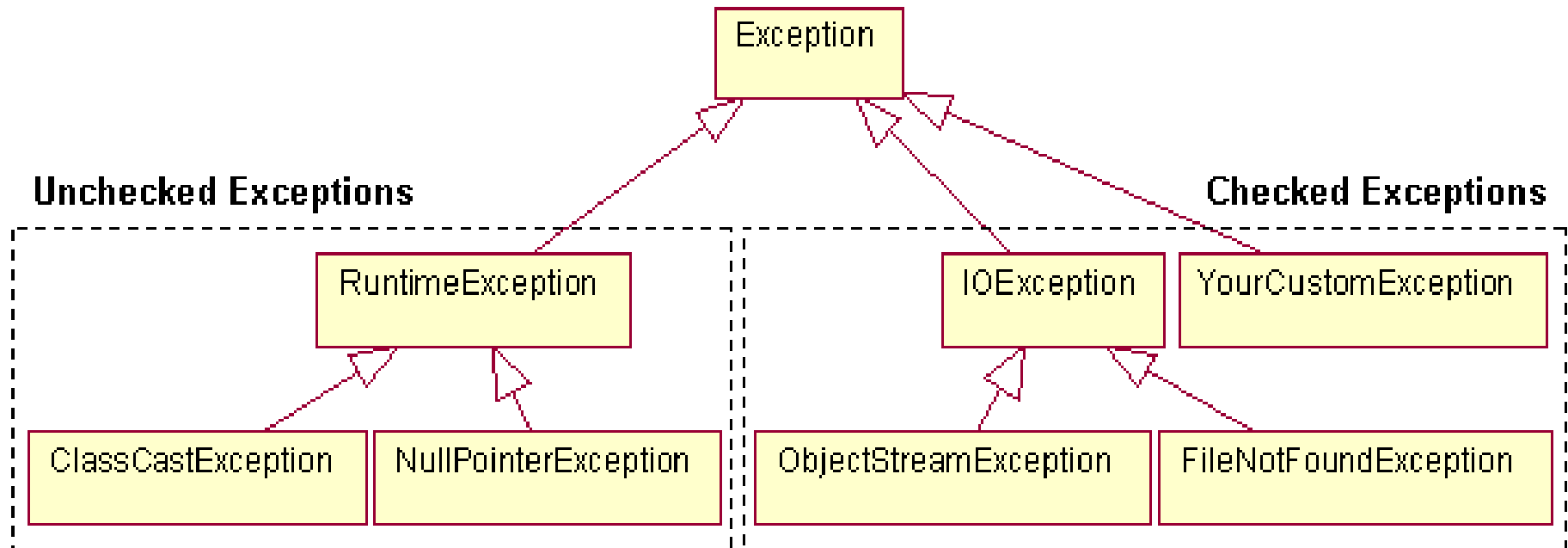
## Exceptions to the Catch or Declare Rule

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- Checked exceptions must follow the Catch or Declare Rule
  - Programs in which these exceptions can be thrown will not compile until they are handled properly
- Unchecked exceptions are exempt from the Catch or Declare Rule
  - Programs in which these exceptions are thrown simply need to be corrected, as they result from some sort of error



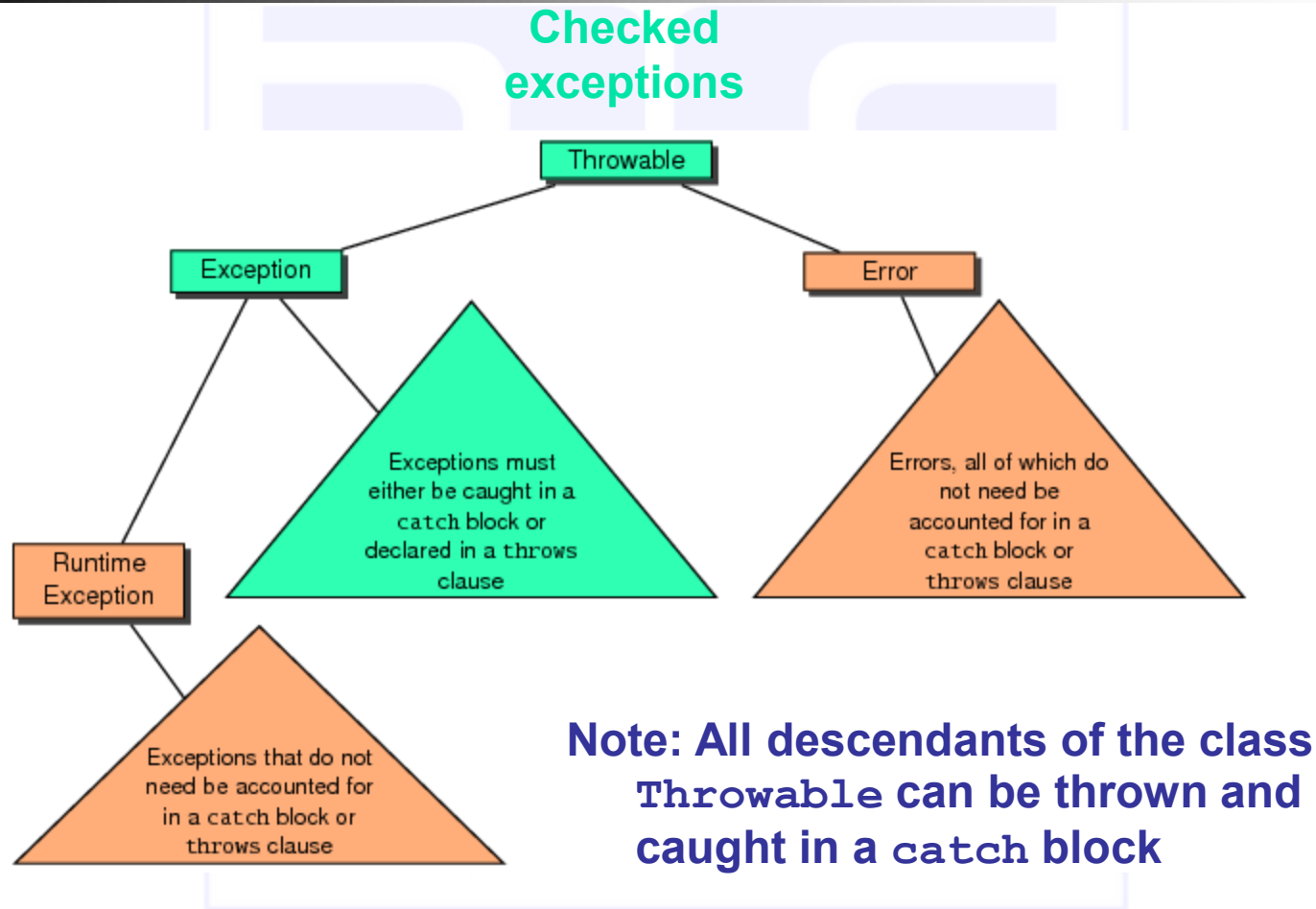
# Checked and Unchecked Exceptions



Note. This is a part of the hierarchy



# Hierarchy of Throwable Objects





## The **throws** Clause in Derived Classes

- When a method in a derived class is overridden, it should have the same exception classes listed in its **throws** clause that it had in the base class
  - Or it should have a subset of them
- A derived class *may not add* any exceptions to the **throws** clause
  - But it can delete some



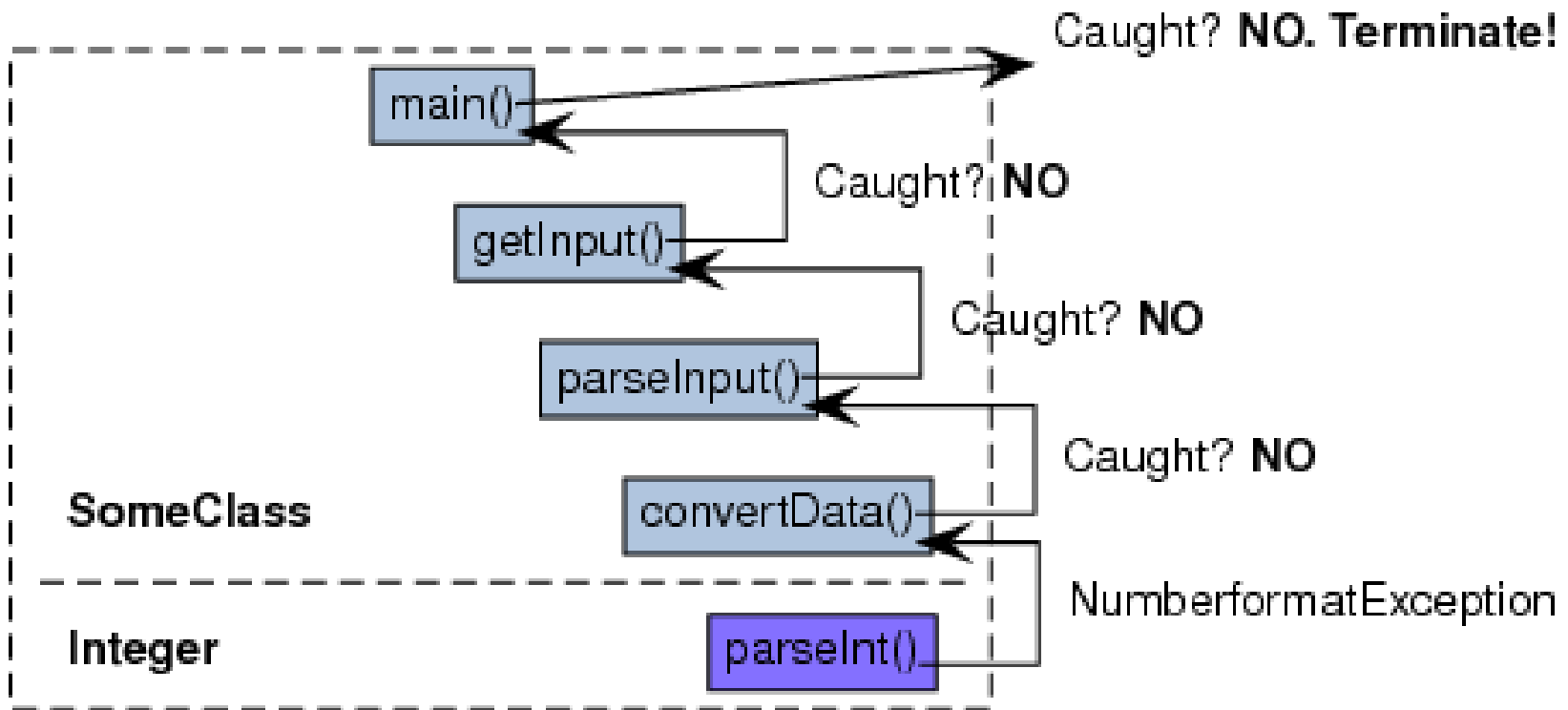
# What Happens If an Exception is Never Caught?

- If every method up to and including the main method simply includes a **throws** clause for an exception, that exception may be thrown but never caught
  - In a GUI program (i.e., a program with a windowing interface), nothing happens - but the user may be left in an unexplained situation, and the program may be no longer be reliable
  - In non-GUI programs, this causes the program to terminate with an error message giving the name of the exception class
- Every well-written program should eventually catch every exception by a **catch** block in some method





# Exception propagation



Computer Science



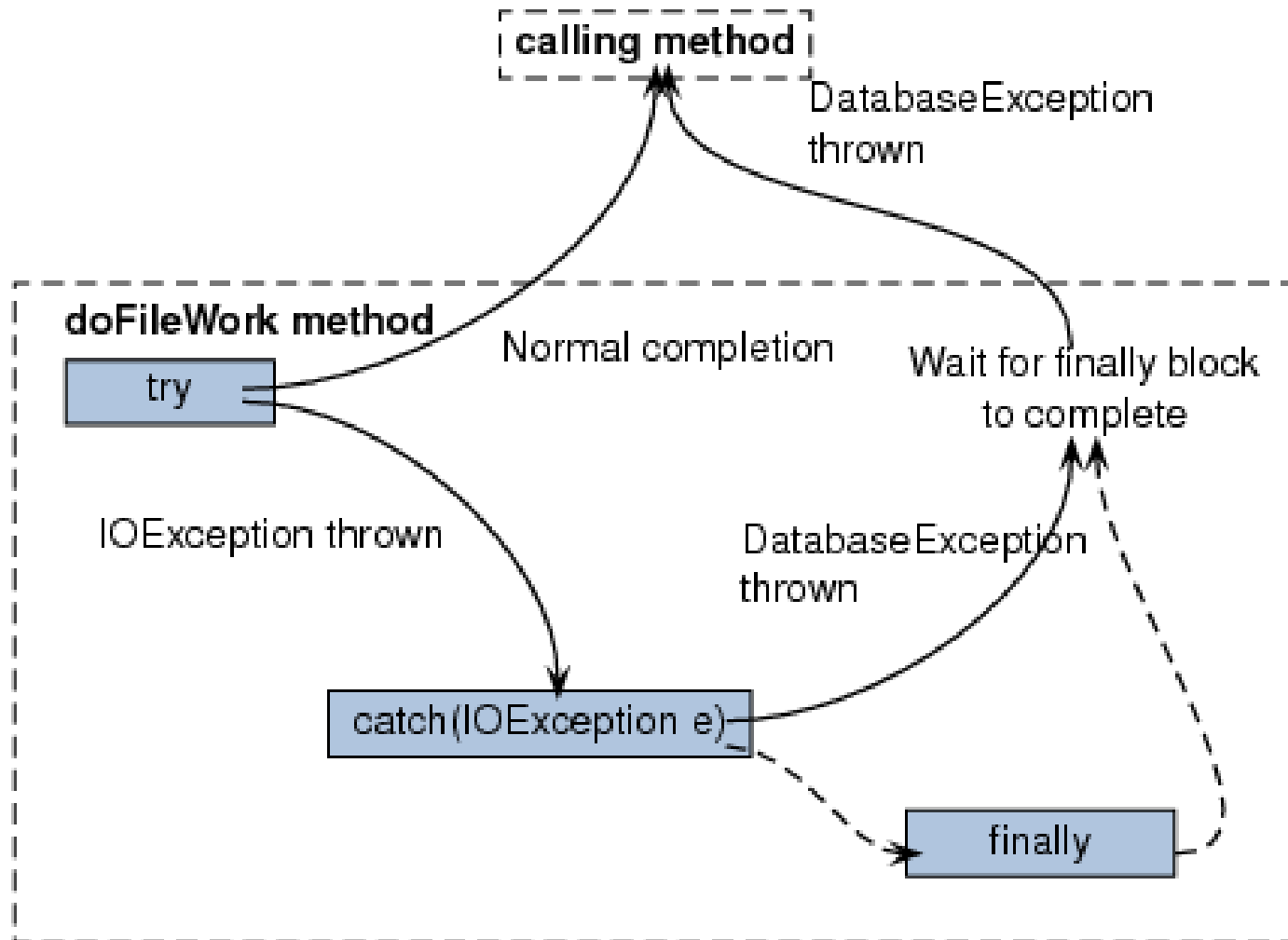
# Another Example

```
public void doFileWork(String filename)
 throws DatabaseException{
 FileOutputStream fos = null;
 ObjectOutputStream oos = null;
 try{
 fos = new
 FileOutputStream(filename);
 oos = new ObjectOutputStream(fos);
 oos.writeObject(obj);
 }
 catch(IOException e){
 throw new DatabaseException(
 "Problem while working with
 "+filename+": "
 +e.getMessage());
 }
}

finally{
 try{
 if(oos!=null){
 oos.close();
 }
 if(fos!=null){
 fos.close();
 }
 }
 catch(IOException e){
 throw new DatabaseException(
 "Problem while working with
 "+filename+": "
 +e.getMessage());
 }
}
```



# Example Discussion





# When to Use Exceptions

- Exceptions should be reserved for situations where a method encounters *an unusual or unexpected case that cannot be handled easily in some other way*
- When exception handling must be used, here are some basic guidelines:
  - Include **throw** statements and list the exception classes in a **throws** clause within a method definition
  - Place the **try** and **catch** blocks in a different method



# When to Use Exceptions

- Here is an example of a method from which the exception originates:

```
public void
 someMethod()

 throws

 SomeException
{
 . . .
 throw new

 SomeException (SomeArg
 ument) ;
 . . .
}
```

- When **someMethod** is used by an **otherMethod**, the **otherMethod** must then deal with the exception:

```
public void otherMethod()
{
 try {
 someMethod() ;
 . . .
 }
 catch (SomeException e)
 {
 CodeToHandleException
 }
 . . .
}
```



# Exception Guidelines

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- If your method encounters an abnormal condition that it can't handle, it should throw an exception.
- Avoid using exceptions to indicate conditions that can reasonably be expected as part of the normal functioning of the method.
- If your method discovers that the client has breached its contractual obligations (for example, by passing in bad input data), throw an unchecked exception.



# Exception Guidelines

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- If your method is unable to fulfill its contract, throw either a checked or unchecked exception.
- If you are throwing an exception for an abnormal condition that you feel client programmers should consciously decide how to handle, throw a checked exception.
- Define or choose an already existing exception class for each kind of abnormal condition that may cause your method to throw an exception.



# Rethrowing Exceptions

- After an exception is caught, it can be rethrown if is appropriate.
- When rethrowing an exception you can choose the location from where the stack trace says the object was thrown.
  - You can make the rethrown exception appear to have been thrown from the location of the original exception throw, or
  - from the location of the current rethrow.
- To rethrow an exception and have the stack trace indicate the original location, simply rethrow the exception:

```
try {
 cap(0) ;
} catch (ArithmeticException e) {
 throw e;
}
```





# Rethrowing Exceptions

- For the stack trace to show the actual location from which the exception is being rethrown: call the exception's `fillInStackTrace()` method.
  - This method sets the stack trace information in the exception based on the current execution context. Example:

```
try {
 cap(0) ;
}
catch (ArithmeticException e) {
 throw (ArithmeticException)e.fillInStackTrace() ;
}
```

- Call `fillInStackTrace()` on the same line as the throw statement – thus the line number specified in the stack trace matches the line on which the throw statement appears.
  - The `fillInStackTrace()` method returns a reference to the `Throwable` class, so you need to cast the reference to the actual type of the exception.



## ■ BlueJ example (`DataSetReader`)



# Reading

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- Eckel: chapter 13
- Barnes: chapters 6, 8, 9
- Deitel: chapters 11, 12, 13



# Summary

- OO Application development
  - Using CRC cards example
- Assertions
- Exceptions and Errors.
  - Checked vs. unchecked exceptions
  - try and catch statements
  - finally clause
  - Catch or declare rule
  - throws clause
  - throw statement