2IPC0 Programming Methods

From Small to Large Programs

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2IPC0: Lecture 3

Overview

- Robustness (as a way of dealing with defects)
- Exceptions*

*Reused and adapted some slide material from Alexandre Denault

Warning

- This course focuses on techniques to develop *larger* programs that must be (re)usable and maintainable by others.
- Examples and exercises illustrate it by *small* program fragments.
- Therefore, the techniques may seem to be overkill.

Design By Contract (DBC), Test-Driven Development (TDD)



1. First, design the **contract**.

For instance, for a module in the context of Divide & Conquer.

- 2. Next, design and implement **test cases**, serving as critical client. These also serve as operational documentation of requirements.
- 3. Finally, design and implement a service/solution provider.

Contract-Driven Development; Contract-First Design (uncommon names)

Example Code with a (Formal) Contract: gcd

```
1 /** Returns the greatest common divisor of a and b.
3
  * @pre 0 < a && 0 < b
4 * @return \old(\max c; c divides a && c divides b; c)
5 */
6 public static long gcd (long a, long b) {
7
     while (a != b) {
8
9
          if (a > b) {
          a = a - b;
10
         } else { // b > a
11
12
           b = b - a;
13
14
15
16
      return a;
17 }
```

Observations about gcd

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Observations about gcd

- Precondition is not just true: client code has an obligation
 (A precondition true could be omitted)
- It modifies no external variables
 (Implied by missing @modifies)
- Returned value is a function of the initial (\old) parameter values
- Method body (implementation) modifies the parameters
 (Otherwise, it would be good to declare them final; see FAQ)
- Method body consists of non-trivial while loop (Why correct?)

Intermezzo: Why is implementation of gcd correct?

Defininitions:

$$divisors(a) = \{d \mid (\exists k :: a = kd)\}$$

 $cd(a,b) = divisors(a) \cap divisors(b)$ (common divisors)
 $gcd(a,b) = \uparrow cd(a,b)$ (greatest common divisor)

Properties:

$$cd(a,b) = cd(b,a)$$

$$\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b,a)$$

$$cd(a,b) = \gcd(b,a)$$

$$cd(a,b) = divisors(a) \text{ if } a = b$$

$$\uparrow divisors(a) = a$$

$$\gcd(a,b) = a \text{ if } a = b$$

$$cd(a,b) = cd(a-b,b) \text{ if } a > b$$

$$\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(a-b,b) \text{ if } a > b$$

Intermezzo: Why is implementation of gcd correct?

```
1 /** Returns the greatest common divisor of a and b.
2 * @pre 0 < a && 0 < b
3 * @return \old(\max c; c divides a && c divides b; c)
4 */
5 public static long gcd (long a, long b) {
6
      // inv I0: 0 < a <= \old(a) && 0 < b <= \old(b)
      // inv I1: gcd(a, b) == gcd(\old(a), \old(b))
7
      // bound: a + b (for termination)
8
      while (a != b) {
9
          if (a > b) { // \gcd(a, b) == \gcd(a - b, b)
10
11
             a = a - b;
          } else { // b > a: gcd(a, b) == gcd(a, b - a)
12
            b = b - a;
13
14
15
      // a == b, hence gcd(\old(a), \old(b)) == gcd(a, b) == a
16
17
      return a;
18 }
```

Intermezzo: Efficiency of gcd Implementation

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Intermezzo: Efficiency of gcd Implementation

- This implementation of gcd is not so efficient: O(a+b)
- Can be improved (why?) by using

```
while (a != 0 && b != 0) {
1
               if (a > b) {
2
                   a = a % b;
3
               } else { // b > a
4
                   b = b % a;
5
6
7
           // a == 0 || b == 0
8
9
           return a + b;
10
```

How to Deal with Violated Precondition?

- What if gcd is called, when its precondition is violated?
- What happens if the client does call gcd with a=0 or b=0? And what if a<0 or b<0?

'Solution' #1 (to violated precondition): Do Nothing Special

- Partial function: "It is up to the client to call gcd correctly."
- Partial functions can lead to programs that are not robust.
 - Anything could happen when a function is invoked outside its precondition.
- A robust program continues to behave reasonably in the presence of defects:
 - At best: provide an approximation of defect-free behavior.
 Also known as graceful degradation.
 - At worst: halt with a meaningful error message without causing damage.

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Solution #2: Return Special Result

- Return 0: 0 cannot be the result of a correctly called gcd; so, it can be used as a special result.
- What happens if you return 0 as the result of gcd?
 - Now the caller must check for the special result.
 This is inconvenient.
- Sometimes the whole range of return values is legal, so there is no *special* result to return.
- For example, the get method in a List returns the value of the list's *i*-th element (either **null** or an Object).
 - There are no values to convey that the index is out of bounds.

Solution #3: Use an Exception

- An Exception signals that something unusual occurred.
- Exceptions bypass the normal control flow:
 - A() calls B() calls C() calls D()
 - − D 'throws' an exception
 - A catches the exception
 - All the remaining code in D, C, and B is skipped
- Exceptions cannot be ignored;
 the program terminates if an exception is not caught anywhere.
- The use of exceptions is supported by Java Exception types.

Robustness

- **Robustness** of methods (functions, procedures) concerns their behavior when precondition is not satisfied
 - A method is called **robust** when its behavior under a violated precondition is well-specified in its contract
- Method gcd is not robust, because it misbehaves when the precondition is not satisfied
- Method gcd can be made robust by having it check the precondition, and signaling a violation

Advantages of Robustness

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Advantages of Robustness

In the end, it is about where to put the blame . . .

Without an explicit signal that a precondition was violated,

it may appear that the problem is located **inside** the method that seemingly misbehaves

With an explicit signal that a precondition was violated,

it is clear that the problem is located **outside** the method (it does not misbehave)

Disdvantages of Robustness

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Disdvantages of Robustness

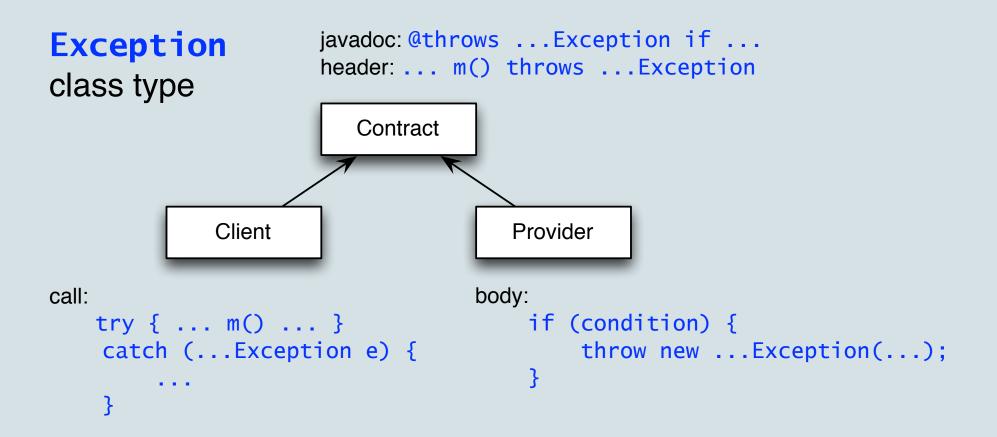
There is a trade-off.

- Overhead in writing the precondition checks, and in testing them.
- More code to read and understand, during maintenance/evolution.
- Runtime overhead in checking the precondition, even if satisfied.
- Runtime overhead in throwing, propagating, catching exceptions.

Exceptions in Java and Other Languages

- The exception mechanism in Java has some peculiarities.
- Other programming languages may have an exception mechanism, but it probably differs from Java in the details.
- We present an approach that can also be used in other languages, but we cannot avoid some Java details.

Exceptions in Java: Roadmap



Client: (JUnit) test cases; production code

How to Put Exceptions in Contracts

Syntactic part of specificying exceptions The method header lists exceptions that are part of specified behavior in a throws clause:

public static long gcd (long a, long b) throws IllegalArgumentException

More than one exception can be thrown:

public static int find (int x, int [] a)

Semantic part of specifying exceptions The javadoc Othrows tag states the conditions for exceptions; the postcondition specifies the resulting state when no exception was thrown:

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throws NullPointerException, NotFoundException

Contracts That Involve Exceptions

Termination of a method by throwing an exception is ok, but it must be in the contract (and be aware of a performance penalty).

A method that always throws an exception when its precondition is violated is said to be robust.

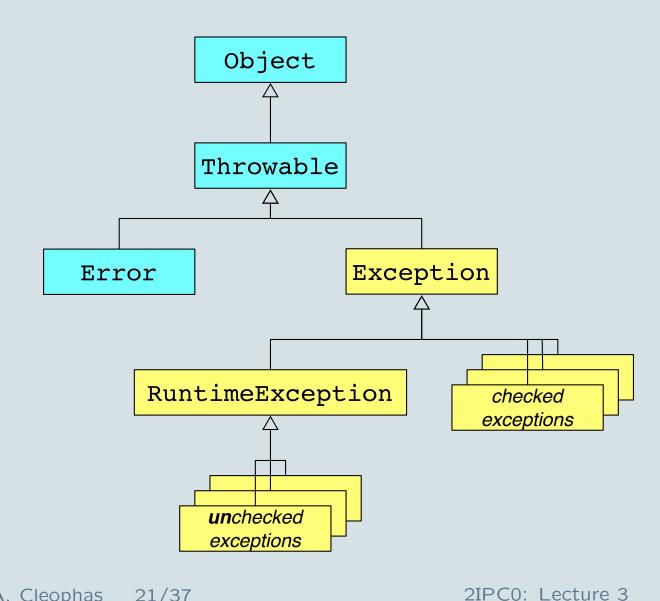
When a method has side effects, its contract should clarify how side effects interact with exceptions.

The <code>@modifies</code> clause only lists inputs that *can* be modified, but it does not say under what conditions.

The postcondition should explicitly specify under what circumstances modifications occur and when not.

Exception Type Hierarchy in Package java.lang

In Java,
Exceptions
are objects,
existing in the
object hierarchy:



Constructing Exception Objects

A simple exception; only its type conveys information (avoid this):

```
Exception e1 = new MyException();
```

An exception with some extra info in a string (recommended):

```
Exception e2 = new MyException(
    "where and why this exception occurred");
```

• Or even passing an object (not needed in 2IPC0):

```
Exception e3 = new MyException(
    "where and why this exception occurred",
    someObjectWhichCausedTheException);
```

Checking Preconditions and Throwing Exceptions

```
public static long gcd (long a, long b) throws IllegalArgumentException {
   if (a <= 0) {
      throw new IllegalArgumentException(
        "Num.gcd.pre violated: a == " + a + " <= 0");
   }
   if (b <= 0) {
      throw new IllegalArgumentException(
        "Num.gcd.pre violated: b == " + b + " <= 0");
   }
}</pre>
```

- What to put in the message string?
- Convey information about what went wrong where:
 minimally the class and method that threw the Exception.
- Note that many methods may throw the same exception.

Handling Exceptions

- If an exception is thrown, and no code explicitly handles it, then the program terminates with a stack trace (crash)
- Exceptions can be handled in various ways
 (See below and next week)

Catching Exceptions

```
try {
    c = gcd(a, b); // a and b are unvalidated user input
} catch (IllegalArgumentException e) {
    // in here, use e
    System.out.println(e); // provide feedback to the user
}
```

- This code handles the exception explicitly.
 - N.B. If an exception is caught nowhere, execution terminates.
- If an IllegalArgumentException is thrown anywhere in the try block, then execution proceeds at the start of the catch block, where the thrown exception is assigned to e.

Variations on Catching

 Multiple catch blocks can be used to handle different types of exceptions:

```
try { x.foobar() }
catch (OneException e) { ... }
catch (AnotherException e) { ... }
catch (YetAnotherException e) { ... }
```

- You can also use nested try statements.
- Here, the inner try statement can throw AnotherException. It is handled by the outer catch block.

```
try {
    ...
    try { ... throw new AnotherException(); ...
    } catch (SomeException e) { ... throw new AnotherException(); ...}
    ...
} catch (AnotherException e) { ... }
```

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Exceptions & Subtypes

```
try {...
    throw new OneException();
    ...
    throw new AnotherException();
    ...
} catch (RuntimeException e) { ... }
} catch (Exception e) { ... }
```

- Here, all exceptions occurring within the try block will be caught.
- The **catch** block can list a *supertype* of the exception, so that multiple exceptions that are subclasses can be caught (handled) by the same catch block.
- A compile error will occur, if a **catch** block for a superclass exception appears *before* a **catch** block for a subclass exception.

Catching Exceptions: complete version of try statement

```
try {
    statements_in_try_block
} catch (Type_1_Exception identifier_1) {
    statements_handling_type_1_exception
} catch (Type_n_Exception identifier_n) {
    statements_handling_type_n_exception
} finally {
    statements_to_wrap_up
}
```

- 1. The statements within the try block are executed.
- 2. If an exception occurs, execution of the **try** block stops, and the first **catch** block *matching the exception* is executed.
- 3. Statements in the **finally** block are *always* executed, *even if* the exception is not caught, or the catch block contains **return**.

Exception Handling: A word of warning

- Control flow in **try** statements is implicit and invisible, depending on the occurrence of exceptions.
- Pretty weird control flows are possible when handling exceptions, especially when using the finally block.
- Do not abuse exceptions for 'fancy' control flow:

catch blocks are usually implemented inefficiently because they are *exceptional*; that is, there is a (heavy) performance penalty when exceptions occur.

Exceptions are Exceptional

- Exceptions should not be thrown as a result of normal use of a program.
 - Catching exceptions is not efficient.
 - When reading code, you should be able to understand 'normal' behavior, by ignoring exceptions.
 - Other ways to discontinue execution in non-exceptional cases:
 - * break: terminates switch, for, while, do
 - * continue: skips to end of loop body
 - * return: terminates method

Exceptions and Javadoc

In javadoc comment: @throws Exception-class-name Condition

```
1 /**
   * Returns the greatest common divisor of a and b.
3
  * @param a positive integer
4
   * @param b positive integer
5
6 * @return {@code \old(\max c; c divides a && c divides b; c)}
7 * @throws IllegalArgumentException if {@code a <= 0 | | b <= 0}
8
  * @pre { @code 0 < a && 0 < b}
  */
10 public static long gcd (long a, long b) throws IllegalArgumentException {
11
      if (a <= 0) {
          throw new IllegalArgumentException (
12
                  "Num.gcd.pre violated: a == " + a + " <= 0");
13
14 } // 0 < a
15
      . . .
16 }
```

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Exceptions and Unit Testing: Principles

When the contract of a method involves exceptions, it is necessary to test for their proper occurrence in unit tests:

- Create situations that are intended to trigger an exception.
- When the appropriate exception is thrown, the test passes.
- When no exception is thrown, the test fails.
- When the wrong exception is thrown, the test also fails.

Advise: Also test that the exception message is present.

Exceptions and Unit Testing: Simple Scheme for JUnit 4.x

```
/** Tests {@link xxx} for proper exceptions. */
Test (expected = YyyException.class)

public void testXxxExceptions() {
    xxx(Expr1, ...);
}
```

This test case passes

• if xxx throws an exception that is equal to or a subtype of YyyException

This test case fails

- if xxx does not throw an exception
- if xxx throws an exception that is not equal to or a subtype of YyyException

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Exceptions and Unit Testing: General Scheme

```
/** Tests {@link xxx} for proper exceptions. */
1
2
       @Test
      public void testXxxExceptions() {
           Class expected = YyyException.class;
4
           try {
 5
               xxx(Expr1, ...);
6
               fail ("should have thrown " + expected);
7
           } catch (Exception e) {
8
               assertTrue("type; " + e.getClass().getName()
                       + " should be instance of " + expected,
10
                       expected.isInstance(e));
11
               assertNotNull("message should not be empty", e.getMessage());
12
13
14
```

Also tests that exception message is not null.

Exceptions and Unit Testing: Example

```
/** Test of {@link WordLibrary#getWord}. */
 1
      @Test public void testGetWordForException() {
          checkIndex(-1, ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.class);
          checkIndex(WordLibrary.getSize(), ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.class)
4
 5
6
      /** Checks whether index i throws expected exception
        * @param i the index to check */
7
8
      private void checkIndex(int i, Class expected) {
9
          try {
10
               WordLibrary.getWord(i);
11
               fail ("index " + i + " should have thrown " + expected);
           } catch (Exception e) {
12
               assertTrue("type; " + e.getClass().getName()
13
14
                       + " should be instance of " + expected,
                       expected.isInstance(e));
15
               assertNotNull("message should not be empty", e.getMessage());
16
17
18
```

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Assignments Series 2

- Refresher: consult book by Eck: 3.7, 8.3, 8.4.1
- Apply Test-Driven Development, including Exceptions, to

CountDigitsWithRadix and Powerize

Summary

- The contract of a robust method specifies behavior in *all* cases. When precondition is violated, an Exception is thrown.
- Exceptions provide a mechanism to bypass normal control flow, in case of *failures* or *special situations*, to *inform* and *avoid harm*.
- Java exceptions involve:
 - objects that are instances of Exception or its subclasses
 - throws clauses in method headers
 - contracts that specify 'which exceptions are thrown when', by @throws tags in javadoc comments

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- throw statements
- try ... catch ... finally statements