

# Object-Oriented Programming

## Week 12

# Exceptions

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# Run-time Error

- The basic philosophy of C++ is that “badly formed code will not be run.”
- There’s always something happens in run-time.
- It is very important to deal with all possible situation in the future running.

# read a file

open the file;

determine its size;

allocate that much memory;

read the file into memory;

close the file;

```
errorCodeType readFile {
    initialize errorCode = 0;
    open the file;
    if ( theFilesOpen ) {
        determine its size;
        if ( gotTheFileLength ) {
            allocate that much memory;
            if ( gotEnoughMemory ) {
                read the file into memory;
                if ( readFailed ) {
                    errorCode = -1;
                }
            } else {
                errorCode = -2;
            }
        } else {
            errorCode = -3;
        }
        close the file;
        if ( theFILEDidntClose && errorCode == 0 ) {
            errorCode = -4;
        } else {
            errorCode = errorCode and -4;
        }
    } else {
        errorCode = -5;
    }
    return errorCode;
}
```

# Working w/ exception

```
try {  
    open the file;  
    determine its size;  
    allocate that much memory;  
    read the file into memory;  
    close the file;  
} catch ( fileOpenFailed ) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch ( sizeDeterminationFailed ) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch ( memoryAllocationFailed ) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch ( readFailed ) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch ( fileCloseFailed ) {  
    doSomething;  
}
```

# exception

- I take exception to that
- At the point where the problem occurs, you might not know what to do with it, but you do know that you can't just continue on merrily; you must stop, and somebody, somewhere, must figure out what to do.

# Why exception?

- The significant benefit of exceptions is that they clean up error handling code.
- It separates the code that describes what you want to do from the code that is executed.

# Example: Vector

```
template <class T> class Vector {  
    private:  
        T*    m_elements;  
        int m_size;  
    public:  
        Vector (int size = 0) :  
m_size(size) ...  
        ~Vector () { delete [] m_elements; }  
        void length(int);  
        int length() { return m_size; }  
        T& operator[] (int) ;  
};
```



# Problem

```
template <class T>  
T& Vector<T>::operator[] (int indx) {
```

*What should the [] operator do if the index is not valid?*

1.) Return random memory object

```
return m_elements[indx];
```

# More choices

## 2.) Return a special error value

```
if (indx < 0 || indx >= m_size) {  
    T* error_marker =  
        new T("some magic value");  
    return *error_marker;  
}  
return m_elements[indx];
```

**But this throws the baby out with the bath!**

```
x = v[2] + v[4]; // not safe code!
```

# More choices ...

## 3.) Just die!

```
if (indx < 0 || indx >= m_size) {  
    exit(22);  
}  
return m_elements[indx];
```

## 4.) Die *gracefully* (with *autopsy*!)

```
assert(indx >= 0 && indx < m_size);  
return m_elements[indx];
```

# When to use exceptions

- Many times, you don't know what should be done
- If you do *anything* you'll be wrong
- Solution: turf the problem

*Make your caller (or its caller ...) responsible*

# How to raise an exception

```
template <class T>
T& Vector<T>::operator[] (int indx) {
    if (indx < 0 || indx >= m_size) {
        // throw is a keyword
        // exception is raised at this point
        throw <<something>>;
    }
    return m_elements[indx];
}
```

# What do you throw?

**// What do you have? Data!**

**// Define a class to represent the error**

```
class VectorIndexError {  
public:  
    VectorIndexError(int v) : m_badValue(v) { }  
    ~VectorIndexError() { }  
    void diagnostic() {  
        cerr << "index " << m_badValue  
            << "out of range!"; }  
private:  
    int m_badValue;  
};
```

# How to raise an exception

```
template <class T>
T& Vector<T>::operator[] (int indx) {
    if (indx < 0 || indx >= m_size) {
        // VectorIndexError e(indx);
        // throw e;
        throw VectorIndexError(indx);
    }
    return m_elements[indx];
}
```

# What about your caller?

## Case 1) Doesn't care

–Code never even suspects a problem

```
int func() {  
    Vector<int> v(12);  
    v[3] = 5;  
    int i = v[42]; // out of range  
    // control never gets here!  
    return i * 5;  
}
```



# What about your caller?

## Case 2) Cares deeply

```
void outer() {  
    try {  
        func(); func2();  
    } catch (VectorIndexError& e) {  
        e.diagnostic();  
        // This exception does not propagate  
    }  
    cout << "Control is here after  
exception";  
}
```

# What about your caller?

## Case 3) Mildly interested

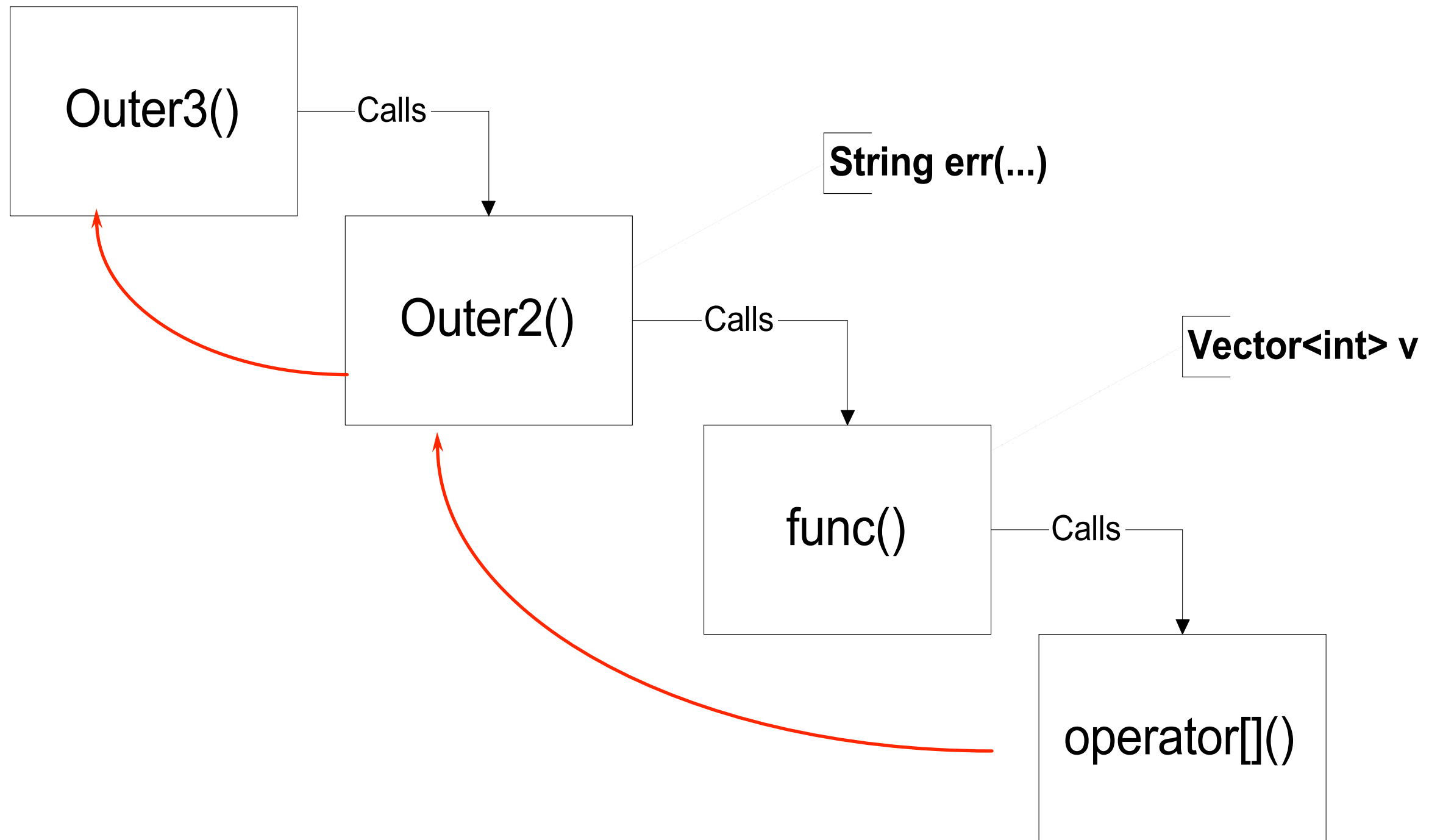
```
void outer2() {  
    String err("exception caught");  
    try {  
        func();  
    } catch (VectorIndexError) {  
        cout << err;  
        throw; // propagate the exception  
    }  
}
```

# What about your caller?

## Case 4) Doesn't care about the particulars

```
void outer3 () {  
    try {  
        outer2 ();  
    } catch (...) {  
        // ... catches ALL exceptions!  
        cout << "The exception stops here!";  
    }  
}
```

# What happened?



# Review

- Throw statement **raises** the exception
  - Control propagates back to first handler for that exception
  - Propagation follows the ***call*** chain
  - Objects on ***stack*** are properly destroyed
- `throw exp;`
  - throws value for matching
- `throw;`
  - **reraises** the exception being handled
  - valid only within a handler

# Try blocks

- Try block

```
try { ... }  
    catch ...  
    catch ...
```

- Establishes any number of handlers
- Not needed if you don't use *any* handlers
- Shows where you expect to handle exceptions
- Costs cycles

# Exception handlers

- Select exception by type
- Can re-raise exceptions
- Two forms

```
catch (SomeType v) { // handler code  
}
```

```
catch (...) { // handler code  
}
```

- Take a single argument (like a formal parameter)

# Selecting a handler

- Can have any number of handlers
- Handlers are checked in order of appearance
  1. Check for exact match
  2. Apply base class conversions
    - Reference and pointer types, only
  3. Ellipses (...) match all

*Inheritance can be used to structure exceptions*



# Example: using inheritance

- Hierarchy of exception types

```
class MathErr {  
    ...  
    virtual void diagnostic();  
};  
  
class OverflowErr : public MathErr { ... }  
  
class UnderflowErr : public MathErr { ... }  
  
class ZeroDivideErr : public MathErr { ... }
```

# Using handlers

```
try {  
    // code to exercise math options  
    throw UnderFlowErr();  
} catch (ZeroDivideErr& e) {  
    // handle zero divide case  
} catch (MathErr& e) {  
    // handle other math errors  
} catch (...) {  
    // any other exceptions  
}
```

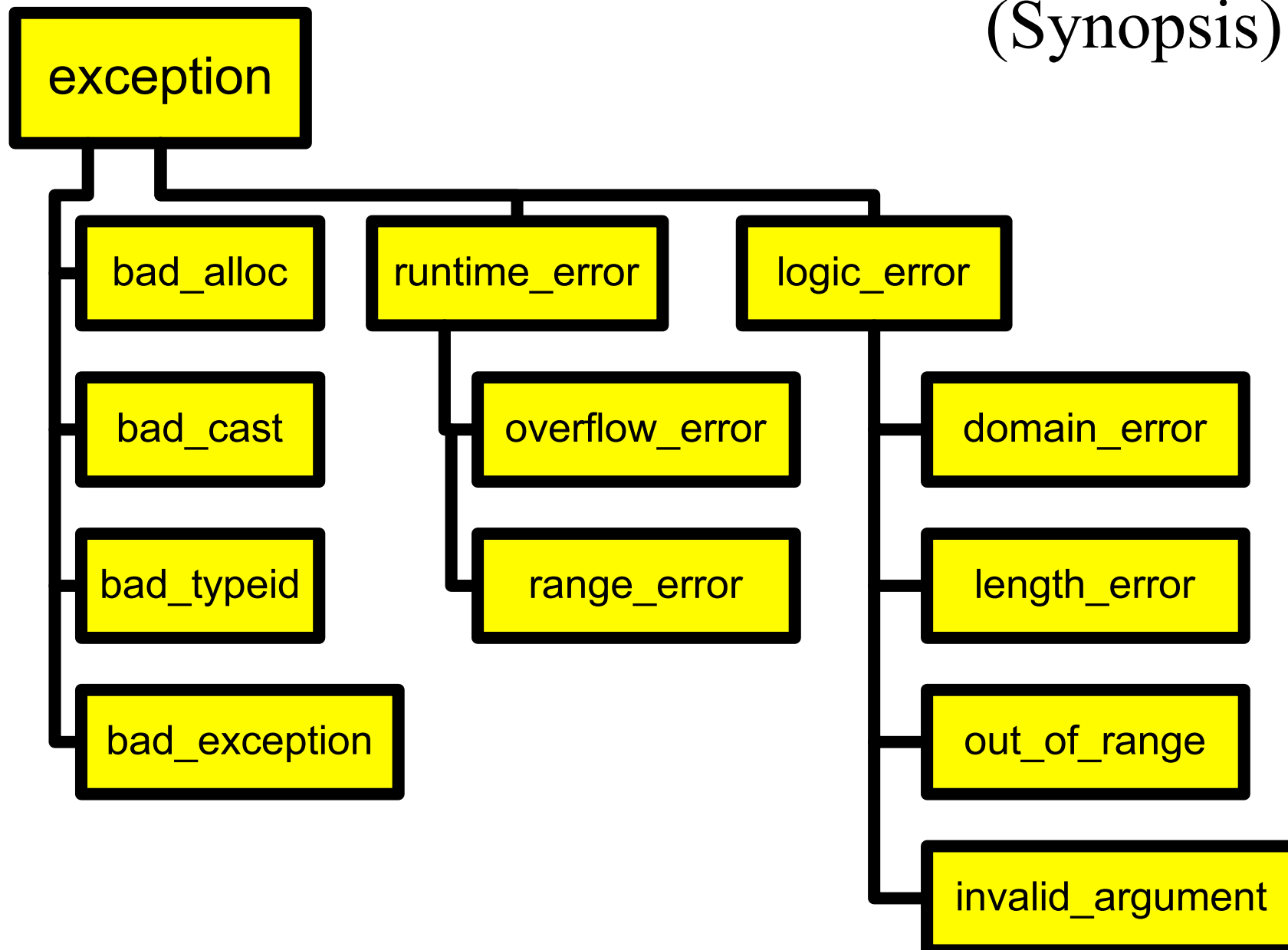
# Exceptions and new

- new does NOT returned 0 on failure
- new raises a bad\_alloc() exception

```
void func() {  
    try {  
        while(1) {  
            char *p = new char[10000];  
        }  
    } catch (bad_alloc& e) {  
    }  
}
```

# Standard library exceptions

(Synopsis)



# Exception specifications

- Declare which exceptions function *might* raise
- Part of function prototypes

```
void abc(int a) : throw(MathErr) {  
    ...  
}
```

- Not checked at compile time
- At run time,
  - if an exception not in the list propagates out,  
the unexpected exception is raised

# Examples

```
Printer::print(Document&) :  
    throw(PrinterOffline, BadDocument)  
{ ...
```

```
PrintManager::print(Document&) :  
    throw (BadDocument) { ...  
    // raises or doesn't handle BadDocument
```

```
void goodguy() : throw () {  
    // handles all exceptions
```

```
void average() { } // no spec, no checking,
```

# Design considerations

- Exceptions should indicate errors
- Here is an inappropriate use:

```
try {  
    for (;;) {  
        p = list.next()  
        ...  
    } catch (List::end_of_list) {  
        // handle end of list here  
    }
```

# Design considerations ...

- Don't use exceptions in place of good design

```
void func() {  
    File f;  
    if (f.open("somefile")) {  
        try {  
            // work with f  
        } catch (...) {  
            f.close()  
        }  
    }  
}
```

- This is a good place to use the destructor



```
void func() {  
    File f("some file");  
    // assume destructor closes f  
    // will still be closed if exception  
    is raised!  
    if (f.ok()) {  
        }  
}
```

# Summary

- Error recovery is a hard design problem
- All subsystems need help from their clients to handle exceptional cases
- Exceptions provide the mechanism
  - Propagated dynamically
  - Objects on stack destroyed properly
  - Act to terminate the problematic function
- Another big use:
  - Constructors that can't complete their work

# More exceptions

- Exceptions and constructors
- Exceptions and destructors
- Design and usage with exceptions
- Handlers

# Failure in constructors:

- No return value is possible
- Use an “uninitialized flag”
- Defer work to an Init() function

*Better:* Throw an exception

# Failure in constructors...

If you constructor can't complete, throw an exception.

- Dtors for objects whose ctor didn't complete *won't be called*.
- Clean up allocated resources before throwing.

# Two stages construction

- Do normal work in ctor
  - Initialize all member objects
  - Initialize all primitive members
  - Initialize all pointers to 0
  - NEVER request any resource
    - File
    - Network connection
    - Memory
- Do addition initialization work in Init()

# Exceptions and destructors

Destructors are called when:

- Normal call: object exits from scope
- During exceptions: stack unwinding invokes destructors on objects as scope is exited.

*What happens if an exception is thrown in a destructor?*

# Exceptions and destructors...

Throwing an exception in a destructor that is itself being called as the result of an exception will invoke `std::terminate()`.

- Allowing exceptions to escape from destructors should be avoided.



# Programming with exceptions

## Prefer catching exceptions by reference

- Throwing/catching by value involves slicing:

```
struct X {};  
struct Y : public X {};  
try {  
    throw Y();  
} catch(X x) {  
    // was it X or Y?  
}
```

# Programming with exceptions...

Throwing/catching by pointer introduces coupling between normal and handler code:

```
try {  
    throw new Y();  
} catch (Y* p) {  
    // whoops, forgot to delete..  
}
```

# Catch exceptions by reference:

```
struct B {  
    virtual void print() { /* ... */ }  
};  
struct D : public B { /* ... */ };  
  
try {  
    throw D("D error");  
}  
catch(B& b) {  
    b.print() // print D's error.  
}
```

# Exception Hierarchies

Use inheritance hierarchies for exceptions  
Problem:

```
try {  
    ... throw SomethingElse();  
}  
  
catch(This& t) { /* ... */ }  
catch(That& t) { /* ... */ }  
catch(Other& t) { /* ... */ }
```

# Exception Hierarchies

```
class B {};  
class D1 : public B {};  
class D2 : public B {};  
...  
try {  
    ... throw D1();  
}  
catch(D2& t) { /* catch specific class here */ }  
catch(B& t) { /* anything else here. */ }
```

# Unexpected exceptions

- *Exception specification* defines the exceptions a function will throw:

```
void f() throw(X, Y) { /* may throw X and Y */ }  
void g() throw() { /* throws no exceptions */ }  
void h() { /* may throw any exception */ }
```

*What if f() throws something else?*

*What if g() throws an exception?*

# Unexpected exceptions...

- Exceptions not in the exception specification are *unexpected*.
- Unexpected exceptions become a call to `std::unexpected()`.
- Offers a guarantee (and firewall) to callers.
- `unexpected()` behavior can be intercepted.

```
#include <exception>
void my_handler() {
    std::cout << "unexpected exception!\n";
    exit(1);
}
void f() throw(X, Y) {
    throw Z(); // whoops! Throwing Z
}
void main() {
    std::set_unexpected(my_handler);
    try {
        f();
    }
    catch (...) {
        std::cout << "caught it!" << endl;
    }
}
```



# Uncaught exceptions

- If an exception is thrown by not caught `std::terminate()` will be called.
- `terminate()` can also be intercepted.

```
void my_terminate() { /* ... */ }
```

```
...
```

```
set_terminate(my_terminate);
```

# Exceptions wrapup

- Develop an error-handling strategy early in design.
- Avoid over-use of try/catch blocks. Use objects to acquire/release resources.
- Don't use exceptions where local control structures will suffice
- Not every function can handle every error.

# Exceptions wrapup...

- Use exception-specifications for major interfaces.
- Library code should not decide to terminate a program. Throw exceptions and let caller decide.

# Uncaught exceptions

- If an exception is thrown by not caught `std::terminate()` will be called.
- `terminate()` can also be intercepted.

```
void my_terminate() { /* ... */ }
```

```
...
```

```
set_terminate(my_terminate);
```