Exceptions and the Call Stack



Exception Handling

- Errors are reported as exceptions
- Unhandled exceptions terminate the program

```
>>> value = int('invalid')
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10:
'invalid'
```

- The exception has a type, a message, and a traceback telling you where in the code it occurred
- If the exception happens deep in a program the traceback will show you the whole call stack leading to the error - vital for debugging

The try...except Construct

- Some errors we know how to deal with and can handle
- For this we use the "try-except" statement

```
for line in f:
    fields = line.split()
    try:
        shares = int(fields[1])
    except ValueError:
        print("Couldn't parse", line)
```

- The exception type must match (exact type or subclass) for it to be handled
- If a matching error occurs inside the try block the code in the except block runs

Raising Exceptions

 Sometimes we need to signal an error, for this we use the raise statement

```
raise ValueError("All your data is bad")
```

 If the exception is unhandled the program terminates with message and traceback

```
$ python explode.py
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "explode.py", line 21, in baz
      bam()
   File "explode.py", line 27, in bam
      raise ValueError("All your data is bad")
ValueError: All your data is bad
```

The Exception Variable

- As well as a message the exception object may have important information
- The except statement can assign the exception object to a variable, using the as syntax

```
try:
    value = int(line[1])
except ValueError as e:
    print("The exception message is:", e)
```

Note: The exception variable ("e" by convention) is cleared after the except finishes. This is to avoid leaking memory, but it's unusual in Python.

Handling Multiple Error Types

Handling multiple exception types the same way

```
try:
    ...
except (ValueError, TypeError, RuntimeError) as e:
```

Handling multiple exception types differently

```
try:
    ...
except ValueError as e:
    except TypeError as e:
    except RuntimeError as e:
```

On error the except blocks are checked in order

The else Section

- If there is code you only want to run if there isn't an exception you can put it in an else block
- This can help minimise the code inside the try block

```
try:
    value = int(line[1])
except (ValueError, IndexError) as e:
    logger.error('Error parsing "%s" because %s', line, e)
else:
    data.append(value) # only runs if there is no error
```

- To avoid overbroad exception handling follow two important rules
 - Minimise code protected in the try block
 - Be as specific as possible about the error types

The finally Statement

- The finally block runs whether or not there is an error
- Typically used for resource management, like releasing locks and closing connections
- Largely, but not entirely, made obsolete by the with statement

```
lock = Lock()
lock.acquire()
try:
...
finally:
    lock = Lock()
with lock:
...
finally:
    lock.release()
```

What Exceptions to Handle?

- Exception handling is for when you are able to deal with the error
- Only handle exceptions you can recover from
- This error here is the *right* exception to signal the problem – leave the caller to handle it if they can

```
>>> read_data('missing.xml')
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
   File "data.py", line 7, in read_data
      h = open(filename)
FileNotFoundError: [Errno 2] No such file or directory:
'missing.xml'
```

Re-raising Exceptions

 Sometimes you need to catch an exception, do some processing (close connections or free resources) and then re-raise the exception to let it propagate

```
allocate_resources()
try:
    # Complex operations
    ...
except LookupError as e:
    logger.error("Operation failed: %s", e)
    free_resources()
    raise
```

 A bare raise inside an except re-raises the current exception

Exceptions and the Stack

- Exceptions propagate up the stack
- They can be handled at any level
- Execution continues from the except
- Or Python terminates with a non-zero error code and a traceback
- Running code with "python -i script.py" drops you into an interpreter even on error
- "import pdb;pdb.pm()" launches the debugger into the stack frame where the error occurred

Demo with "explode.py"

The Debugger

- pdb is the Python debugger
- pdb.pm() for "postmortem" investigation of errors
- breakpoint() in code or test drops you into the debugger - equivalent of pdb.set_trace()
- Investigate local variables, execute code, step through code or set new breakpoints and continue

pdb commands

help	Get help	c(ontinue)	Continue execution
w(here)	Print stack trace	s(tep)	Execute a single line
d(own)	Move down a stack level	n(ext)	Execute a single line (**)
u(p)	Up a stack level	l(ist)	List the source code
b(reak) loc	Set breakpoint at loc (*)	!statement	Execute statement

(*) e.g. "b 45" set a breakpoint at line 45. "b file.py 45" line 45 in *file.py* (**) Step through code in the *current function*, don't step into functions calls.

Exception Wrapping

- Sometimes we need to signal an error that comes from some underlying different exception
- Using exception wrapping we can raise an exception without losing the original error or traceback

```
try:
    execute_task(task)
except Exception as e:
    raise TaskError("Task failed") from e
```

The exception chain can be unwrapped by the caller

```
try:
    send_task(task)
except TaskError as e:
    original_error = e.__cause__
```

Custom Exception Types

- All exception types derive from Exception
- Common for libraries and applications to define custom exceptions (often in a hierarchy)
- Usually all that is required is inheriting from Exception

```
class NetworkError(Exception):
    pass

class HTTPError(NetworkError):
    pass

class FTPError(NetworkError):
    pass
```

ExceptionGroup

Raising multiple exceptions:

• ExceptionGroup is an exception:

```
>>> issubclass(ExceptionGroup, Exception)
True
```

Catching Multiple Exceptions

- Syntax new in Python 3.11
- Unpack/handle multiple exceptions
- More than one handler (except block) may run
- except*

```
try:
    some_function()
except* FileNotFoundError as e:
    print("Missing file")
except* ValueError as e:
    print("Something went wrong!")
except* ZeroDivisionError as e:
    print("A different thing went wrong!")
```

The Four Most Confusing Error Messages in Python

- UnboundLocalError
- TypeError: multiple bases have instance lay-out conflict
- TypeError: Cannot create a consistent method resolution order (MRO) for bases
- TypeError: metaclass conflict

Default Arguments

Sometimes you want an optional argument

```
def read_prices(filename, debug=False):
...
```

 If a default value is assigned, the argument is optional in function calls

```
d = read_prices('prices.csv')
e = read_prices('prices.dat', True)
```

 Note: arguments with defaults must appear at the end of the argument list (all required arguments go first)

Calling a Function

Consider a simple function

```
def read_prices(filename, debug):
    ...
```

Calling with "positional" args

```
prices = read_prices('prices.csv', True)
```

Calling with "keyword" arguments

Calling with mixed arguments

```
prices = read prices('prices.csv', debug=True)
```

Optional/Keyword Arguments

 Arguments with default values are useful for functions that have optional features/flags

```
def parse_data(data, debug=False, ignore_errors=False):
...
```

Compare and contrast calling styles:

```
parse_data(data, False, True) # ?????

parse_data(data, ignore_errors=True)
parse_data(data, debug=True)
parse_data(data, debug=True, ignore_errors=True)
```

- Keyword arguments improve code clarity
- Optional arguments can be added to functions without breaking existing uses (backwards compatibility)

Design Tip

- Always give short meaningful names to function arguments
- The argument names are part of the API of the function, a design consideration
- Someone using a function may want to use the keyword calling style

```
d = read_prices('prices.csv', debug=True)
```

 Python development tools will show the names in help features and documentation

```
data, debug: bool = False, ignore_errors: bool = False

parse_data()
```

Return Values

<u>return</u> returns a value

```
def square(x):
    return x*x
```

return without a value returns None

```
def bar(x):
    statements
    return

a = bar(4) # a = None
```

A function without an explicit return, returns None

```
def foo(x):
    statements
    statements

a = foo(9) # a = None
```

Multiple Return Values

 A function may return multiple values by returning a tuple

```
def divide(a,b):
    q = a // b  # Quotient
    r = a % b  # Remainder
    return q, r  # Return a tuple
```

Usage examples:

```
x, y = divide(37, 5) # x = 7, y = 2

x = divide(37, 5) # x = (7, 2)
```

 Unpacking the returned tuple in the call looks like multiple return values

Positional and Keyword Only Arguments

- Python function signatures are now very rich
- We can now express positional and keyword only arguments
- Positional only arguments (mostly for compatibility with C functions) added in Python 3.8
- Keyword only arguments were new in Python 3.0

```
>>> def foo(data, /, *, debug=False):
...    pass
...
>>> foo(1, debug=True)
>>> foo(data=2)
Traceback (most recent call last):
    File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: foo() got some positional-only arguments passed as keyword arguments: 'data'
>>> foo(3, False)
Traceback (most recent call last):
    File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: foo() takes 1 positional argument but 2 were given
```