Exceptions

exception: a program error that occurs during execution, or

a “signal” generated (“thrown”) when a program execution error is detected

Exceptions may be thrown by hardware or software; we consider only the latter.

If a software exception is thrown, and an exception-handler code segment is in effect for that exception, then flow of control is transferred to the handler.

If there is no handler for the exception, the program will be terminated.
Exceptions

Dodging an Error

Frequently code will be designed to detect and avoid anticipated errors:

```cpp
void Rational::SetDenominator(int Denom) {
    if (Denom != 0) {
        DenominatorValue = Denom;
    } else {
        cerr << "Illegal denominator: " << Denom << ", using 1" << endl;
        DenominatorValue = 1;
    }
}
```

Here we see a simple test and response, all handled locally.
Handling an Error with an Exception

Here’s the same situation, handled now by throwing an exception:

```cpp
void Rational::SetDenominator(int Denom) {
    try {
        if (Denom != 0) {
            DenominatorValue = Denom;
        }
    } else {
        throw (Denom);
    }
    catch (int d) {
        cerr << "Illegal denominator: " << d
             << ", using 1" << endl;
        DenominatorValue = 1;
    }
}
```
A **try block** is simply a compound statement preceded by the keyword `try`.

One, or more, of the statements in a try block can be a **throw statement**, or a call to a function that contains a throw statement.

A throw statement resembles a function invocation, with information regarding the detected error wrapped within parentheses.

A copy of the information in the throw statement may be passed via the throw statement to an exception handler that is keyed to the **type** thrown.

The value thrown may be of a simple type (as on the previous slide), or a more complex structured type, including an object.

That makes it possible to throw diagnostic information about the error.
An exception may be thrown in one function and caught in another:

```cpp
void Rational::SetDenominator(int Denom) {
    if (Denom != 0) {
        DenominatorValue = Denom;
    } else {
        throw (Denom);
    }
}
```

On error: `throw` a value.

The thrown value, if any, must be caught elsewhere.

Where? Resolved via the runtime stack’s record of the call sequence.
The exception may be caught in the function that called the one performing the throw:

```cpp
void Rational::Rational(int Numer, int Denom) {
    SetNumerator(Numer);
    try {
        SetDenominator(Denom);
    }
    catch (int d) {
        cerr << "Illegal denominator: " << d << ", using 1" << endl;
        SetDenominator(1);
    }
}
```

Alternatively, the exception may be caught further back up the call sequence.

Call may result in a `thrown` value, so we wrap it in a `try` block.
Stack Unwinding

If a function throws an exception, and does not catch it, then control is transferred to the calling function, which is now given an opportunity to catch the exception.

When the exception is caught, the catch block is executed and then the catching function may resume execution.

This process continues until either a function catches the exception or all calls have been unwound. In the latter case, the program is terminated.
void createList(int* Array, int Size);
int getUserInput();

void main() {
    int* Array;
    int Dimension;

    try {
        createList(Array, Dimension);
    } catch (int e) {
        cerr << "Cannot allocate: " << e << endl;
        return;
    } catch (bad_alloc b) {
        cerr << "Allocation failed" << endl;
        return;
    }
}
void createList(int* Array, int Size) {

    Size = getUserInput();

    try {
        Array = new int[Size];
    }
    catch (bad_alloc b) { // you can catch an exception
        throw (b); // and re-throw it
    }

    int getUserInput() {

        int Response;
        cout << "Please enter the desired dimension" << endl;
        cin >> Response;
        if (Response <= 0) {
            throw (Response); // caught in main()
        }
        return Response;
    }
}
The potential for a function to throw an exception may be explicitly shown:

```cpp
int getUserInput( ) throw(int) {
    int Response;
    cout << "Please enter the desired dimension" << endl;
    cin >> Response;
    if (Response <= 0) {
        throw (Response); // caught in main()
    }
    return Response;
}
```

 Warns user that a value may be thrown and also restricts what type may be thrown.
In the simplest case, we may declare a trivial class simply to throw instances of it:

```c++
class BadDimension { };

int getUserInput();

void main() {
    int Value;
    try {
        Value = getUserInput();
    }
    catch (BadDimension e) {
        cerr << "User is an idiot." << endl;
        return;
    }
}
```

Thrown value is an object of a trivial class – this IS legal.
class StackException {
private:
    string Msg;
public:
    StackException(string M = "unspecified");
    string getMessage() const;
};

class Stack {
private:
    int Capacity;       // stack array size
    int Top;            // first available index
    string* Stk;        // stack array
public:
    Stack(int InitSize = 0) throw (StackException);
    bool Push(string toInsert) throw (StackException);
    string Pop() throw (StackException);
    bool isEmpty() const;
    bool isFull() const;
    ~Stack();
};
Using Exceptions

Exceptions are particularly useful in library code, such as generic data structures and algorithms.

The library will throw an exception and allow the client code to catch it and deal with it in a problem-specific context.

A thrown exception will only be caught if there is a catch block whose function is on the runtime stack and which is looking for an exception of the type that has been thrown.

```java
catch(...) will catch an exception of ANY type.
```

Caught exceptions can be re-thrown if desired.

Control does NOT return to the point where the exception was thrown.
In the Stack constructor implementation, we can throw an object holding an appropriate message, if the initial allocation fails:

```cpp
Stack::Stack(int InitSize) throw (StackException) {
    if (InitSize <= 0) {
        Capacity = Top = 0;
        Stk = NULL;
        return;
    }
    Capacity = InitSize;
    Top = 0;
    Stk = new(nothrow) string[InitSize];
    if (Stk == NULL) {
        throw (StackException("stack allocation failed"));
    }
}
```
Stack with Exceptions

In the `Stack::Pop()` implementation, we can throw an object holding an appropriate message, if the stack is empty:

```cpp
string Stack::Pop() throw (StackException) {
    if ( (Top > 0) && (Top < Capacity) ) {
        Top--;  // Decrement the top pointer
        return Stk[Top];
    }
    throw StackException("stack underflow");  // Throw an exception message
    return string("");  // Return empty string
}
```
Here, we could just allow `new` to throw a `bad_alloc` exception, but the use of a custom message simplifies the interface and the catch logic…

```cpp
bool Stack::Push(string toInsert) throw (StackException) {
    if (Top == Capacity) {
        string* tmpStk = new(nothrow) string[2*Capacity];
        if (tmpStk == NULL) {
            throw StackException("stack overflow");
        }
        for (int Idx = 0; Idx < Capacity; Idx++) {
            tmpStk[Idx] = Stk[Idx];
        }
        delete [] Stk;
        Stk = tmpStk;
        Capacity = 2*Capacity;
    }
    Stk[Top] = toInsert;
    Top++;
    return true;
}
```
```cpp
int main() {  
    const int Size = 10;
    Stack s1(Size);

    s1.Push("First");
    s1.Push("Second");
    s1.Push("Third");
    s1.Push("Fourth");

    for (int Idx = 0; Idx < Size; Idx++) {
        try {
            s1.Pop();
        } catch (StackTraceException e) {
            cout << "Error: " << e.getMessage() << endl;
            cout << " occurred calling s1.Pop() in main()"  
                 << " with index " << Idx << endl;
            return 1;
        }
    }
    return 0;
}"
```
Conclusions

Do not view exceptions as simply another control mechanism — the cost of a throw/catch action is too high and the alteration of flow control is too difficult to understand. (It's almost as bad as a goto.)

Design your exceptions to provide useful information; every thrown exception needs to be chased back to a generating error, so it's useful to know exactly where the exception was thrown, triggering values of local variables and/or parameters, etc.

It is very common to design a hierarchy of exception classes, using inheritance. We will examine that later…