

## Lecture 16

### Exceptions II (and Interfaces)

#### Exceptions and Inheritance

- Last lecture, we found out that when an exception is thrown there is no attempt to implicitly coerce the type of data thrown to a catch statement which "could" receive it.
- For example, if I throw the value 1.4 it will be caught by a catch statement looking for a double, not a float.
- This is different from the more general practice of C++ always doing whatever type conversions it can (such as when an integer value is assigned to a float variable).
- When it comes to inheritance, however, the behavior is more consistent.
- The normal "rules" of inheritance apply.
- Consider the following base class used for your own exceptions:

#### Exceptions and Inheritance

```
class BaseException
{
public:
    BaseException(string msg,int err=0):message(msg),
        errorCode(err) {}
    virtual string getMessage()
        { return "BASE EXCEPTION: " + message; }
    int getErrorCode() { return errorCode; }
protected:
    string message;
    int errorCode;
};
```

- Here we have a simple exception class which can be used to store simple information about exceptional events. It can be thrown with:

- `throw BaseException("Divide By Zero",-3);`

#### Exceptions and Inheritance

- Now, it can be caught with any of the following:

```
catch (BaseException e) // Puts a copy of BaseException in e
catch (BaseException &e) // Puts a reference in e
catch (BaseException) // BaseException not accessible
catch (...) // BaseException not accessible

int main()
{
    try {
        cout << "4/0 is " << divide(4,0) << endl;
    }
    catch(BaseException e) {
        cout << e.getMessage() << ", error code: "
            << e.getErrorCode() << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

#### Exceptions and Inheritance

- Now, having BaseException by itself is useful.
- You can store messages and error codes in a convenient class and throw it!
- However you can also derive from it as well...
- Consider a class specifically designed for array index problems...

```
class ArrayIndexException : public BaseException
{
public:
    ArrayIndexException(string msg,int err,int index):
        BaseException(msg,err),badIndex(index) {}
    string getMessage()
        { return "ARRAY INDEX EXCEPTION: " + msg; }
    int getBadIndex() { return badIndex; }
private:
    int badIndex;
};
```

#### Exceptions and Inheritance

- Now, ArrayIndexException can be caught with :

```
catch (ArrayIndexException e) // copy of ArrayIndexException
catch (ArrayIndexException &e) // reference to ArrayIndex...
catch (ArrayIndexException) // ArrayIndex... not accessible
catch (BaseException e) // copy of BaseException in e
catch (BaseException &e) // BaseException reference in e
catch (BaseException) // BaseException not accessible
catch (...) // BaseException not accessible

void main()
{
    MyIntArray<5> anIntArray;
    for (int i=0; i<5; i++) anIntArray[i] = i;
    try { cout << "anIntArray[6] = " << anIntArray[6] << endl; }
    catch(ArrayIndexException e) {
        cout << e.getMessage() << endl;
    }
}
```

### Exceptions and Inheritance

- If, in general, you would like to catch `ArrayIndexExceptions` and `BaseExceptions` separately, you can catch instances of the derived exception first, followed by instances of the base exception.
- This might look like this:

```
try {
    someArbitraryFunction(someIntArray[someIndex]);
}
catch (ArrayIndexException e)
{
    // take appropriate action for an ArrayIndexException
    ...
}
catch (BaseException e)
{
    // take appropriate action for a more general exception
    ...
}
```

### Exceptions and Inheritance

- However, if your base exception class makes use of virtual member functions, you might only need to catch a *reference* to the base class.
- If you don't catch a reference, you get a *copy* of the originally thrown object which short circuits any virtual functions...

```
try {
    someArbitraryFunction(someIntArray[someIndex]);
}
catch (BaseException &e)
{
    // Print out an exception-specific message
    cout << e.getMessage() << endl;
}
```

## Demonstration #1

### Exceptions and Inheritance

### A Little OOP Concept

- While using inheritance to neatly organize different exceptions has its advantages, there is at least one disadvantage.
- If we catch references to the base class all the time, how do we know exactly what *type* of exception was thrown?
- We could have many classes derived from `BaseException`:
  - `ArrayIndexException`
  - `MathException`
  - `FileException`
  - etc...
- These, in turn, might have more specific exception classes derived from them.
- When I catch `BaseException`, what do I have?
- You could implement another member function which returns an exception type code, something like this:

### A Little OOP Concept

```
class BaseException
{
public:
    BaseException(string msg,int err=0):message(msg),
        errorCode(err){}
    virtual string getMessage()
        { return "BASE EXCEPTION: " + message; }
    virtual int getExceptionType() { return BASE_TYPE; }
    int getErrorCode() { return errorCode; }
protected:
enum { BASE_TYPE, ARRAYINDEX_TYPE, MATH_TYPE, FILE_TYPE };
    string message;
    int errorCode;
};
```

- Naturally, we'd change `ArrayIndexException` as well...

### A Little OOP Concept

```
class ArrayIndexException : public BaseException
{
public:
    ArrayIndexException(string msg,int err,int index):
        BaseException(msg,err),badIndex(index){}
    string getMessage()
        { return "ARRAY INDEX EXCEPTION: " + message; }
    int getExceptionType() { return ARRAYINDEX_TYPE; }
    string getBadIndex() { return badIndex; }
private:
    int badIndex;
}
```

- Now, we could have code take explicit action based on the exception type...

### A Little OOP Concept

```
try {
    divide(someIntArray[34343],someIntArray[2222]);
}
catch(BaseException &e)
{
    cout << e.getMessage() << endl;
    switch( e.getExceptionType() )
    {
        case ARRAYINDEX_TYPE: // some specific code here
            break;

        case MATH_TYPE: // some specific code here
            break;

        default: // default code here
            break;
    }
}
```

- Hmmmmmm....

### A Little OOP Concept

- Doesn't having a constant which represents the type of exception defeat the purpose of inheritance?
- Yes and No.
- The practice of placing a constant identifier within a class is a technique used when dealing with a concept called *composition*.
- It's usually pitted against inheritance as an either/or proposition:
  - Either you use inheritance and virtual functions to illicit different behavior from a "base class"
  - Or you use an identifier and have conditional code which performs different behavior depending on the value of the identifier (without using inheritance)
- There are many people who argue that inheritance is overused and that, most of the time, composition is all we need...
- I have found that mixing the two can be appropriate as well, depending on the task.
- Bottom line is "think carefully" before you go one way or the other.

### Generic Exceptions

- C++ defines a standard exception class called `exception`.
- It's most interesting member function is a simple call to return an error message associated with the exception.
- That member function's name is `what()`.
- In Lecture 4 we talked about pointers for the first time, and how to allocate them.
- I mentioned then that there is a much better way to check for allocation failure than comparing the pointer to `NULL`.
- When `new` fails to allocate memory requested, it throws an exception class named `bad_alloc` which is derived from `exception`.
- Now that we know this, we actually *must* wrap calls to `new` in a `try` block to keep from having an unhandled exception halt our program!
- Consider the following mods to `MyString::growStorage()`

### Generic Exceptions

```
bool MyString::growStorage(int spaceNeeded)
{
    if (spaceNeeded < allocatedSpace)
        return true;

    int padding = spaceNeeded % 32;
    spaceNeeded += (32 - padding);
    char *newStoragePtr = NULL;
    try {
        newStoragePtr = new char[spaceNeeded];
    }
    catch(exception e)
    {
        return false;
    }
    // rest of code here...
}
```

### Generic Exceptions

- We can be reasonably sure that any exception thrown in that `try` block will be a `bad_alloc` exception.
- But suppose our size parameter were actually an array element?
- We might have an invalid array index exception.
- Just to be sure, we should catch `bad_alloc`...

```
char *aPtr;
try {
    aPtr = new char[someIntArray[1234]];
}
catch (bad_alloc &e)
{
    // Bad allocation exception caught
    cout << e.what() << endl;
}
catch (...) {}
```

## Demonstration #2

### Catching Bad Allocations

### Constructors and Destructors

- There's one small detail I've left out which is actually quite important.
- When an exception is thrown, the stack is "unwound" to the place at which the exception is caught.
- That means for every function call you "abort" due to the exception being thrown, the local variables of those functions are properly disposed of (that is, their destructors are called).
- The same cannot be said for dynamically allocated memory or other resources not associated with any object.
- LNG gives an example of this in the form of a MacOS programming technique.
- Since I'm a Mac person myself, I thought "What a great example".
- Let's have a look...

### Constructors and Destructors

- Consider the following code which performs a graphical operation in a MacOS environment.
- It needs to save the current GrafPtr, set the current GrafPtr to the window we want to draw in and then restore the original GrafPtr...

```
void drawInWindow(WindowPtr wPtr)
{
    GrafPtr savePort;
    GetPort(&savePort); // save the old GrafPtr
    SetPort(wPtr) // WindowPtr & GraPtr are the same

    Rect aRect = { 0,0,100,100 };
    PaintRect(wPtr,&aRect); // Draw a rectangle

    SetPort(savePort);
}
```

### Constructors and Destructors

- The problem here is what happens if an exception occurs when performing the graphics operation?
- The final call to SetPort (which restores the original GrafPtr) is never made.
- This is bad!
- A workaround is to use a local object to do the same task:

```
class PortSaver {
public:
    PortSaver() { GetPort(&savePort); }
    ~PortSaver() { SetPort(&savePort); }
private:
    GrafPtr savePort;
};
```

### Constructors and Destructors

- Now, we can implement the same operation safely!
- You see, since we're saving the current port in the constructor and restoring it in the destructor of SavePort, any exception that occurs will call SavePort::~SavePort() and restore the original GrafPtr!

```
void drawInWindow(WindowPtr wPtr)
{
    PortSaver saveMe;
    SetPort(wPtr) // WindowPtr & GraPtr are the same

    Rect aRect = { 0,0,100,100 };
    PaintRect(wPtr,&aRect); // Draw a rectangle
}
```

### Interfaces in C++

- For those with Java experience, you know that Java implements the concept of an *interface*.
- An interface is a class which cannot exist by itself, its sole purpose is to provide a set of methods which *must* be implemented by any class that derives from it.
- It also provides a way for other code to work with derived classes of the interface (both currently defined and "to be defined") without needing to know any of the details of the derived class. (Assign #4)
- In Java, an interface declaration looks like this:

```
// WARNING! WARNING! What follows is JAVA code!
public interface Comparable
{
    public int compareTo(Object b);
}
```

### Interfaces in C++

- Any Java class may *implement* the interface by the addition of one keyword and by providing definitions for each of the methods defined in the interface.

```
// WARNING! WARNING! What follows is JAVA code!
public Rectangle implements Comparable
{
    public int compareTo(Object b)
    { ... } // definition goes here
}
```

- So where did the Java engineers get the idea for the interface and implements keywords?
- By looking at C++, no doubt!

### Interfaces in C++

- In C++ there are no separate keywords corresponding to the `interface` and `implements` keywords in Java.
- This makes interfaces more of a concept than a language construct as far as C++ goes.
- The same concept of an "interface" is implemented in C++ by using abstract classes with pure virtual member functions.

```
class Comparable
{
    virtual int compareTo(Comparable &c)=0;
};
class Rectangle : public Comparable
{ // Incomplete definition...
    int compareTo(Comparable &c)
    { ... }
}
```

### Interfaces in C++

- Since there are no keywords which allow you to specify an interface in C++, the following are *suggestions* and not *requirements*...
- Interfaces are not used as standalone objects. This implies that there is at least one pure virtual member function.
- Interfaces are used to define (abstractly) a set of member functions. Other functions/objects will be utilizing the set of member functions defined in the interface. To implement the interface, all member functions must be defined in the derived class.
- What this buys us is the ability to create truly "pluggable" objects which will require minimal recompile time.
- An example of this is a simple message box object. You can have multiple objects (graphical dialog box, text messages, etc.) which all derive from one interface. They may then be used interchangeably...

## Demonstration #3

Interfaces in C++

## Lecture 16

*Final Thoughts*