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# Exception Handling

Advanced Programming

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## Introduction

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- Good programmer's assumption:

“Any code of significant length has bugs”

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# Techniques to code with quality

- **Design code** that can:
    - **Detect errors** when they happen, without crashing the program or, worse, the system (**fault awareness**)
    - **Recover from an error**, giving the user a choice to continue using the program and to save the greatest possible amount of work already done (**fault recovery**)
    - **Keep on running** consistently notwithstanding an error, still performing activities that are not affected by the error (**fault tolerance**)
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# Error handling

- All these techniques, from a programmer's perspective, are collectively known as **error handling**

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- The best would be to have any portion of a program to be **fault tolerant**, but
  - usually we have to be happy if only the **critical parts of the code are fault tolerant** (or, at least, able to recover from an error), while the others are only fault aware

## Classic error handling

- Pre-OO era languages, as C or Pascal:
  - **Return an error code to the caller of a function,**
    - either using the return value of the function itself or an additional output parameter
- Extremely **error-prone technique**, the user of a method (“the caller”) must test the error code to see if the function had performed flawlessly
- Programmers often forgot, or neglected, to test error codes

# Classic error handling

- Excess of locality
  - sometimes the caller **doesn't have enough information** to recover from an error issued from a function
- Therefore the solution usually were:
  - passing the error code further up the calling tree
  - calling global error handling routines through **goto-like instructions**
  - using **global variables**

# Classic error handling

- Such programs were highly coupled and intermixed
  - rather obscure, i.e. extremely difficult to read, unless very well documented
- The concept of exception

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# The concept of exception

# The concept of exception

- In a very general sense, an exception is **any event that does not belong to the normal flow of control** of a program
- An exception could be an error...
  - e.g. running out of memory, a wrong argument value, etc.

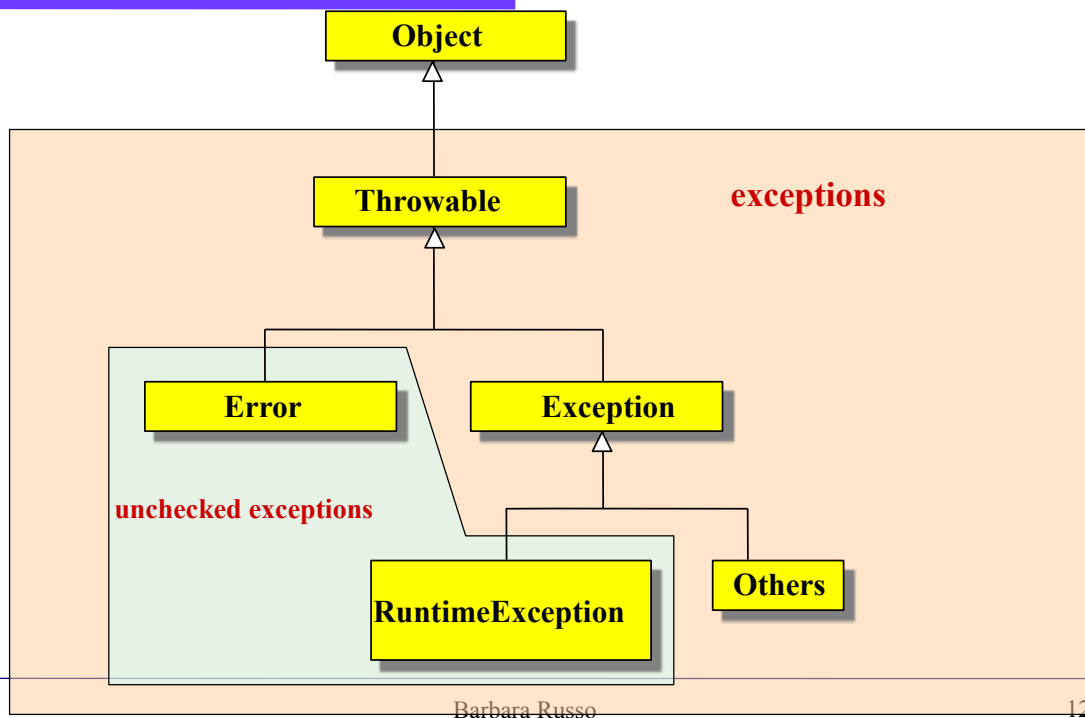
# The concept of exception

- ... But this is not always the case, an exception could also be:
  - an **unusual** result from a math computation routine
  - an **unexpected** (but not wrong) request to an operating system
  - the **detection** of an input from the “**external world**” (say an interrupt request, a login request, a power shortage, etc.)

# Exceptions in OO languages

- In OO languages, **exceptions are objects**, i.e. instances of some class
- They are used to pass information about unusual events to and from the different parts of the program that are design to work with them

## Hierarchy of exception classes in Java



## Throwing Exceptions in Java

- Every time a piece of code detects an unusual event it can throw an exception to signal this event to its caller(s), or — more generally — to the **outer dynamic scopes** (more on this later on)

# Ways to throw exceptions

- There are two possible ways to throw an exception
  - Directly for a malfunctioning piece of code enclosed in a **try block**
  - Through a so-called **throw statement**, i.e. the keyword **throw** followed by an **object** of a class derived (directly or indirectly) from class `java.lang.Throwable`

# throws in the method signature

- As throwing and catching exceptions affect the way a function relates to other functions, a `throws` statement followed by the **type of the exception** can be included in the **method declaration**



## throws in the method signature

- For each **checked exception**,
- if you do not include in a method/constructor signature a “throws” clause for that **exception type (or a superclass of that exception type)**
- a **compile-time error** occurs

## Example

```
void move(Train train) throws T1, T2;
```

- The throws clause allows the compiler to ensure that code for handling such error conditions has been included

## Example

NegativeArgument is a trivial class (is empty!), only used to instantiate exceptions

```
public class NegativeArgument extends Throwable { }

public class A {

    public void compute(int x) throws NegativeArgument {
        if ( x < 0 ) throw new NegativeArgument();
    }
}
```

Exceptions specification in the method declaration is mandatory for **checked** exceptions in Java

Here a new object is instantiated; then it is thrown as exception, to indicate that the argument supplied to the method has a wrong value

## Exception handlers

- Thrown exception follow an alternative path of execution, until they are **caught** somewhere by special constructs, called **exception handlers**
- Exception handlers are sort of functions, having one and only one argument, whose **type must (substantially) match** that of the exception being caught
- Exception handlers are specified in **catch statement**

## Try-catch statements

- Any time we want to provide handlers for some kinds of exceptions, we must **enclose** the **code** that may throw the exceptions in a **try-block**
- Right after the try-block we can specify the handlers, using the keyword **catch** followed by an argument list (as if it were a function)
- Error handlers must have just one argument, and it must be of the same type of the exception being caught

## finally clause in Java (1/2)

- In Java the try-catch statement can be provided with a **finally clause** after all the handlers
- A finally clause is made of the keyword **finally** followed by a block
- The code inside that block is **always executed**, no matter if the code in the previous try-block throws an exception or not

# finally clause in Java

- If it **does not throw** an exception, then the finally-block is executed just **after the try-block** has ended
- If it **does**, then ...
  - If the exception is handled by a previous catch-clause, the finally-block is executed **just after the exception has been handled**
  - If there is no handler matching the exception, the finally-block is **executed just before stack unwinding (see later) resumes and looks for an handler in an outer dynamic scope**

# Question

- Is the following code legal?

```
try {  
  } finally {  
  }
```

Solution: yes finally will be always executed

## Question

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- Is there anything wrong with this exception handler as written? Will this code compile?

```
try {  
  } catch (Exception e) {  
  } catch (ArithmeticException a) {  
  }
```

Solution: the first catch catches all the types of exception the second will be never reached

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## Question

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1. `int[] A;`

`A[0] = 0`

2. A program is reading a stream and reaches the end of stream marker

3. Before closing the stream and after reaching the end of stream marker, a program tries to read the stream again

Match each case in the list on the left with an item below:

\_\_checked exception

\_\_compile error

\_\_no exception

Answers:

1 (compile error). The array is not initialised

2 (no exception)

3 (checked exception)

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```
public void writeList() {
    PrintWriter out = null;
    try {
        System.out.println("Entering" + " try statement");
        out = new PrintWriter(new FileWriter("OutFile.txt"));
        for (int i = 0; i < SIZE; i++) {
            out.println("Value at: " + i + " = " + list.get(i));
        }
    } catch (IndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
        System.err.println("Caught IndexOutOfBoundsException: " + e.getMessage());
    } catch (IOException e) {
        System.err.println("Caught IOException: " + e.getMessage());
    } finally {
        if (out != null) {
            System.out.println("Closing PrintWriter");
            out.close();
        }
        else {
            System.out.println("PrintWriter not open");
        }
    }
}
```

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## Stack unwinding mechanism

# Semantics of Throwing Exceptions

- When a **throw statement** is executed,
- the normal flow of control is interrupted, and
- a special mechanism, known as **stack unwinding**, takes place

# Semantics of Throwing Exceptions

- Stack unwinding is used to determine **where to resume execution**
- To understand where the exception handling mechanism resumes execution after a throw, we must examine the concept of dynamically enclosing scope

# Dynamically enclosing scopes

- A simple definition of dynamically enclosing scope (**DES**) :
  - A dynamically enclosing scope is any **scope whose activation record lies on the stack** at the moment when that statement is executed or equivalently
  - Any executable code block which has called the function where the statement is placed, directly or indirectly

## Example of dynamically enclosing scopes

pseudo-code

```
class A {  
  void f() {  
    for ( /*...*/ ) {  
      statement;  
    }  
  }  
}
```

These are always DES for “statement”: anytime “statement” is executed, their ARs are on the stack

```
void g(A anA) {  
  anA.f()  
}
```

This is a DES for “statement” only when “statement” is executed because g was called

```
void h() {  
  {  
    A anotherA;  
    g(anotherA);  
  }  
}
```

This is a DES for “statement” only when “statement” is executed because h was called



## Stack unwinding mechanism

- Throwing an exception causes the normal flow of control to **stop** and execution is **diverted** on an alternative path
- Execution resumes in an exception handler whose argument type **matches** that of the exception thrown
- If there is no such handler, the exception is passed to the system, which usually issues a **run-time error**

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## Stack unwinding mechanism

- To find the right handler to call, if any, the stack unwinding mechanism must find the **nearest try-block dynamically enclosing the throw statement**
  - If this try-block has a handler whose argument matches the thrown exception, then its body is executed, after passing the exception as an argument
  - if there is no such handler, the stack unwinding resumes, and it searches outwards the next **dynamically enclosing try-block for a matching handler** (and so on, recursively, until the exception is handled or the system issues an error)

## Stack unwinding mechanism

- After the execution has entered the body of the handler, the exception itself is considered handled, i.e. the stack unwinding mechanism stops
- This process of reaching out for outer dynamically enclosing scopes is also known as **exception propagation**
  - An exception propagates out to the outer dynamic scopes until it is properly handled or it reaches the system

## Exception Propagation

- If an exception is never caught anywhere in the hierarchy, the Java interpreter will print an error message, the stack trace and exit
- To do this, it invokes the default handler

# Default handler

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- Any exception that is not caught by your program will ultimately be processed by the **default handler**
  - It is provided by the JRE
- The default handler displays a string describing the exception, prints a **stack trace** and terminates the program, e.g.:

```
Java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero
    at Dates.main(Dates.java:4)
```

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# Stack Trace

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- Stack trace from the default exception handler shows the entire call stack
- The call stack is quite useful for **debugging**, because it pinpoints the precise sequence of steps that led to the error

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# Throwable.printStackTrace()

- Analysing the flow of program logic, step by step is called **tracing**
- `Throwable.printStackTrace()` tells you where you are in the code, and how you got there
- It lets you put the name of the current method in error messages, or the name of the caller of the current method, or its caller etc.
- see LECT7 code

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```
Throwable t = new Throwable();
StackTraceElement[] es = t.printStackTrace();
for ( int i=0; i<es.length; i++ ){
    StackTraceElement e = es[i];
    System.out.println( " in class:" + e.getClassName()
        + " in source file:" + e.getFileName()
        + " in method:" + e.getMethodName()
        + " at line:" + e.getLineNumber()
        + " " + ( e.isNativeMethod() ? "native" : "" ) );
}
```

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# Notes

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- When you use multiple **catch** statements, the exception subclasses must come before any of their superclasses
  - This is because a **catch** statement that uses a superclass will catch exceptions of that type plus any of its subclasses.
  - Thus, a subclass would never be reached if it came after its superclass.
  - Unreachable code is an error (compile-time).
  - To fix the problem reverse the order of catches

# Notes

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- If we attempt to throw an exception from a method without declaring throws or handling it with try/catch, it will not compile:

```
public void compute(){  
    throw new Exception();  
}
```

```
public static void compute() throws Exception{  
    throw new Exception();  
}
```

```
public void compute(){  
    try {  
        throw new Exception();  
    } catch (Exception e) {  
        e.printStackTrace();  
    }  
}
```

# The statement assert

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- The statement **assert** throws an exception of type `AssertionError`
  - We do not need the statement `throw` or `catch` exc.

```
public class AssertionExample {
    static void removeNode(Object x) {

        /*Try and Catch blocks are not required because
        the exception is already handled with the statement assert */

        ArrayList myVector = new ArrayList();

        assert(myVector.size() != 0);
        myVector.remove(x);

    }
    public static void main(String[] args){
        Object myObject = new Object();
        AssertionExample.removeNode(myObject);
    }
}
```

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# Notes

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- Like all uncaught exceptions, assertion failures are generally labeled in the stack trace with the file and line number from which they were thrown
- Assertion raise `AssertionError` exceptions (child of `Error`)

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# Notes

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- In some cases **assert** may be expensive to evaluate.  
For instance,
  - A method to find the minimum element in an unsorted list and an assertion verifies that the selected element is indeed the minimum
- Use **assert** when the computation is at least as expensive as the work done by the method itself

# Disabling assertions

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- Assertions can be enabled or disabled when the program is started, and are disabled by default
- Once disabled, they are essentially equivalent to empty statements in semantics and performance
- Thus, do not disable them or use assertions in cases that can

## When using assertions

- Internal Invariants (with switch statements)
- Control-Flow Invariants (if conditions)
- Preconditions and Postconditions

## When using assertions

- As a rule of thumb, use assertions when **the expressions contained in them are free of side effects:**
  - evaluating the expression should not affect any state that is visible after the evaluation is complete.



## When not to use assertions

- Do not use assertions to do any work that your application requires for regular operation!
- Because assertions may be disabled, programs must not assume that the boolean expression contained in an assertion will be evaluated

## Example

- Remove all of the null elements from a list names, and knew that the list contained one or more nulls. It would be **wrong** to do this:

```
assert names.remove(null);
```

- It works fine when asserts are enabled, but would fail when they were disabled, as it would no longer remove the null elements from the list

## Example

- The **correct** code is to perform the removal before the assertion and then assert that the removal succeeded:

```
boolean nullsRemoved = names.remove(null);  
assert nullsRemoved;
```

## Enabling and disabling assertion

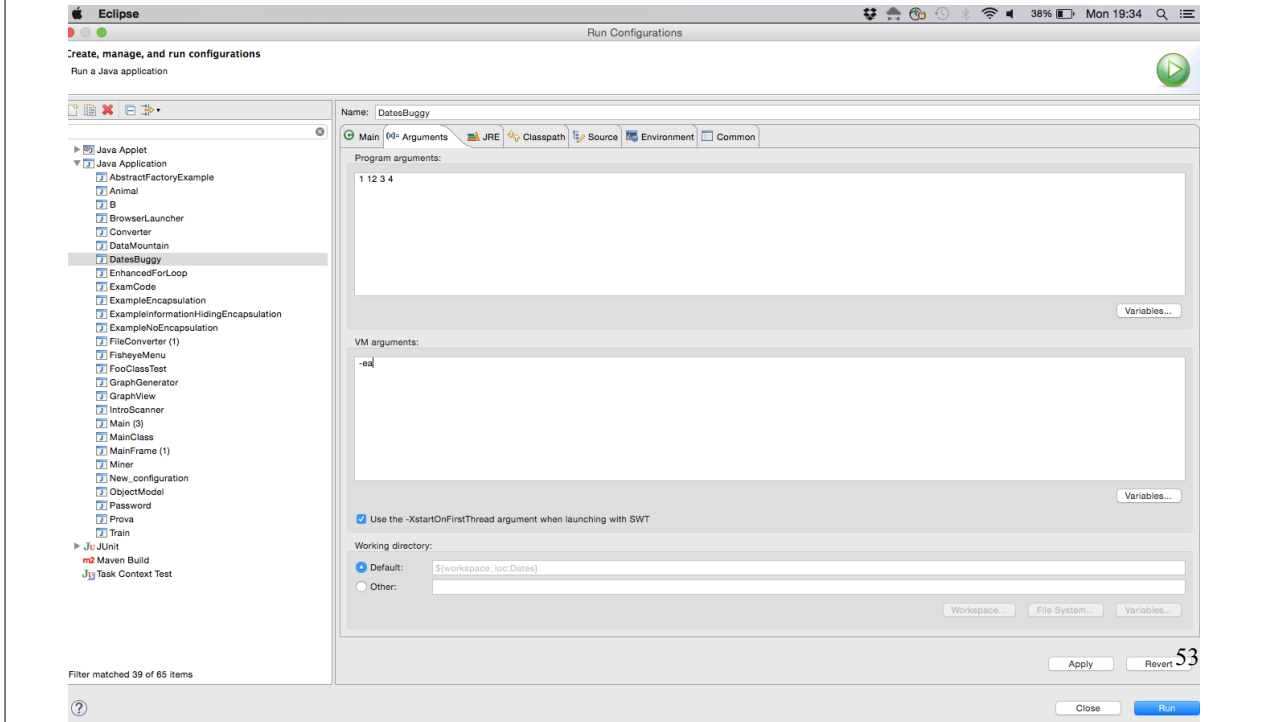
- Enable in package `it.unibz.inf`

```
java -ea:it.unibz.inf... Dates
```

- Disabling in class `it.unibz.inf.Calendar`

```
java -da:it.unibz.inf.Calendar Dates
```

# Enabling assertion in Eclipse



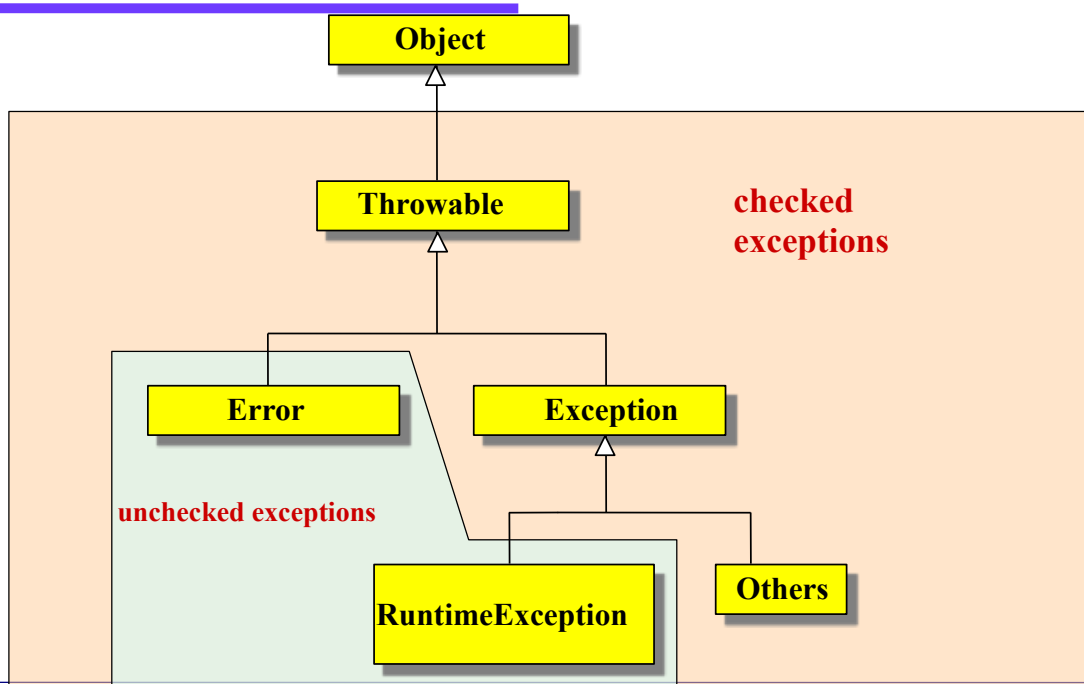
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## Java checked and unchecked exceptions

# Checked and unchecked exceptions

- As we said, every exception class must be derived from **java.lang.Throwable**
- Any exception derived directly from Throwable or its derived class **Exception** is known as **checked exception**
- Any exception derived from the following other two subclasses of Throwable is called **unchecked**:
  - **java.lang.RuntimeException** (derived from **java.lang.Exception**)
  - **java.lang.Error** (derived directly from Throwable)

## Hierarchy of exception classes in Java



# Defining Exceptions

- A programmer can define her/his own exceptions, both
  - Runtime Exception
  - Error (not advisable) and
  - Checked Exception

# Declaring Exceptions in methods

- Any method that causes an exception to occur must
  - either **catches** the exception (with try, throw or assert followed by catches)
  - or specifies the type of the exception (or a superclass of it) with a **throws** clause in the method declaration (checked exception)

# Unchecked exceptions

- **Unchecked exceptions** are not required to be caught by a method or do not require to declare “throws” in the method signature e.g.,:
  - `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException`
  - `NullPointerException`

# When to use them

- If a client can reasonably be expected to recover from an exception, make it a checked exception.
- If a client cannot do anything to recover from the exception, make it an unchecked exception.

# Java unchecked exceptions

- Unchecked exceptions impose no extra constraint in writing the code and are thrown by the JRE
- You can define your own unchecked exception classes by subclassing `Error` or `RuntimeException`

# Error

- `Error` is a base class for all the exceptions thrown by the system (operating system, virtual machine, etc.) so it is not advisable to use it as a superclass for user-defined exceptions

# RuntimeException

- RuntimeException is a base class for exceptions that impose an unbearable burden on the programmer, if they were implemented as checked exceptions

# Runtime exceptions

- Runtime exceptions can occur anywhere in a program, and in a typical one they can be very numerous
- Having to add runtime exceptions in every method declaration would reduce a program's clarity
- Thus, the compiler does not require that you catch or specify runtime exceptions (although you can).



# Java checked exceptions

- As we said, any attempt to violate the contract provided by the exceptions' specification will cause a compile-time error
- A programmer can define her/his own checked exception classes by subclassing Throwable (not advisable) or (better) Exception

# Examples

- **Checked exception:** `java.io.IOException`
- Example. Suppose an application prompts a user for an input file name, then opens the file by passing the name to the constructor of `java.io.FileReader`
- Normally, the user provides the name of an existing, readable file, so the construction of the `FileReader` object succeeds, and the execution of the application proceeds normally
- But sometimes the user supplies the name of a nonexistent file, and the constructor throws `java.io.FileNotFoundException`
- A well-written program will catch this exception and notify the user of the mistake, possibly prompting for a corrected file name

# Examples

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- **Unchecked: java.lang.Error**
- These are exceptional conditions that are external to the application, and that the application usually cannot anticipate or recover from.
- Example. Suppose that an application successfully opens a file for input, but is unable to read the file because of a hardware or system malfunction
- The unsuccessful read will throw `java.io.IOException`
- An application might choose to catch this exception, in order to notify the user of the problem — but it also might make sense to print a stack trace and exit

# Examples

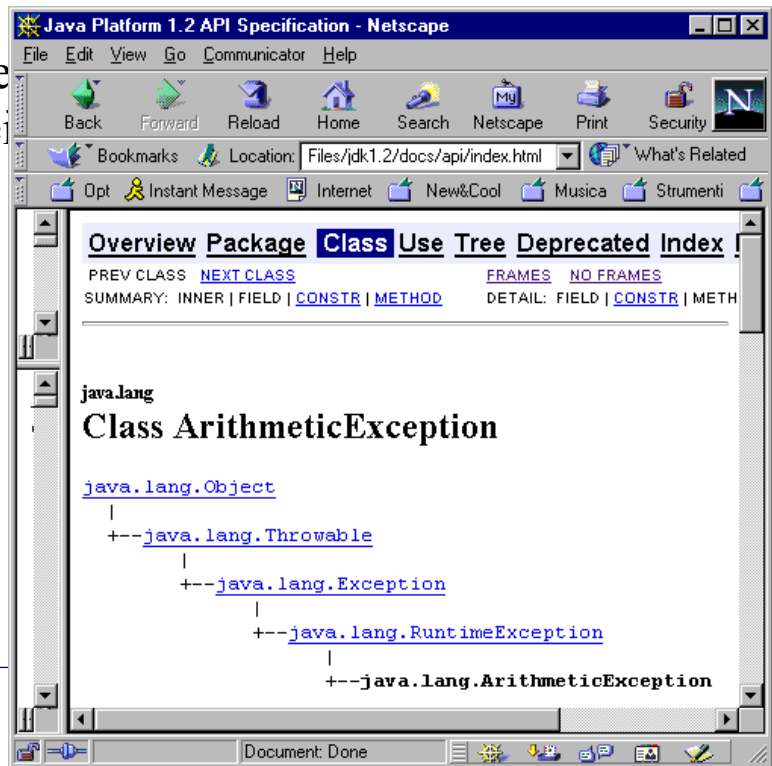
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- **Unchecked: java.lang.RuntimeException**
- These are exceptional conditions that are internal to the application, and that the application usually cannot anticipate or recover from
- These usually indicate programming bugs, such as logic errors or improper use of an API.
- For example, consider the application described previously that passes a file name to the constructor for `FileReader`
- If a logic error causes a null to be passed to the constructor, the constructor will throw `NullPointerException`
- The application can catch this exception, but it probably makes more sense to eliminate the bug that caused the exception to occur

# Built-In Exceptions

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- You can check whether an exception is from the



## Since SDK 7

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- Three exception features:
  - try-with-resources
  - multi-catch, and
  - precise re-throw

## try-with-resources

- To close a file that we do not need anymore we call `close( )`
  - Forgetting to close a file can result, for example, in memory leaks (i.e. a failure in a program to release discarded memory, causing impaired performance or failure.)
- The **try-with-resources** statement automatically closes a file when it is no longer needed.
  - In this approach, no explicit call to `close( )` is executed

## try-with-resources statement

- It is a try statement that declares one or more resources.
  - A resource is an object that must be closed after the program is finished with it
- It ensures that each resource is closed at the end of the statement.
  - Any object that implements `java.lang.AutoCloseable`, which includes all objects which implement `java.io.Closeable`, can be used as a resource

# Example from Java Tutorial

```
static String readFirstLineFromFile(String path) throws IOException {  
    try (BufferedReader br =new BufferedReader(new FileReader(path))) {  
        return br.readLine();  
    }  
}
```

## With traditional try

- We use a finally block to ensure that a resource is closed regardless of whether the try statement completes normally or abruptly or use

# Prior SDK 7

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```
static String readFirstLineFromFile(String path) throws IOException {
    BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(new FileReader(path));
    try {
        return br.readLine();//it throws an IOException
    } finally {
        try{
            if (br != null) br.close(); //it throws another IOException
        }catch(IOException e){System.out.println("Error for closing file")}
    }
}
```

**close()** can still throw an **IOException** **suppressing the exception** that eventually is thrown by `readFirstLineFromFile()` method; with traditional try and catch (as here) the method exception is lost.

With the try-with-resource (as previous slide) the exception of the method is suppressed and one can get it back by calling `getSuppressed()`

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# multi-catch

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- Multi-catch feature allows two or more exceptions to be caught by the same catch clause
  - separate each exception type in the catch clause with the OR operator
  - Each multi-catch parameter is implicitly final (not need to use final)

# Example

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```
// Demonstrate the multi-catch feature.
class MultiCatch {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        int a=10, b=0;
        int vals[] = { 1, 2, 3 };

        try {
            int result = a / b; // generate an ArithmeticException

            //      vals[10] = 19; // generate an ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException

            // This catch clause catches both exceptions.
        } catch (ArithmeticException | ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
            System.out.println("Exception caught: " + e);
        }

        System.out.println("After multi-catch.");
    }
}
```

# Cleaner code

---

```
catch (IOException) {
    logger.log(ex);
    throw ex;
}

catch (SQLException ex) {
    logger.log(ex);
    throw ex;
}
```

# Cleaner code

---

```
catch (IOException|SQLException ex) {  
    logger.log(ex);  
    throw ex;  
}
```

# Precise re-throw after Java SE 7

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- There are times when you want to re-throw an exception that you have handled



# Example wrapping

```
public class ExampleExceptionRethrowBeforeSE7{
    public static void demoRethrow() {
        try {
            throw new IOException("Error");
        }
        catch(IOException exception) {
            //Do some handling and then re-throw:
            throw new RuntimeException(exception);
        }
    }
    public static void main( String[] args ) {
        try {
            demoRethrow();
        }
        catch(RuntimeException exception) {
            System.err.println(exception.getCause().getMessage());
        }
    }
}
```

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# Issues

- The problem with the “Example wrapping” is that it is not really re-throwing the original exception
- It is wrapping it within another exception
- The developer needs to remember that an exception has been wrapped into another one: the code does not know it!
- For example we use “getCause()”

# Example two children

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```
static class FirstException extends Exception {
    public FirstException(String message) {
        super(message);
    }
}
static class SecondException extends Exception {
    public SecondException(String message) {
        super(message);
    }
}
public static void rethrowException(String exceptionName) throws Exception {
    try {
        if (exceptionName.equals("First")) {
            throw new FirstException();
        } else {
            throw new SecondException();
        }
    } catch (Exception e) {
        throw e;
    }
}
```

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# Issues

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- When the method is called the developer does not know which exception has been raised
- We cannot use `getCause()` as methods are static and we always get the message of the parent class

```
public static void main(String[] args ){
    try {
        rethrowWrapping();
    }
    catch(RuntimeException exception){
        System.err.println(exception.getMessage());
    }
}
```

---

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## Precise re-throw after Java SE 7

- When you declare one or more exception types in a catch clause, and re-throw the exception handled by this catch block, the **compiler** verifies that the type of the re-thrown exception meets the following conditions
  - the associated try block can throw it,
  - It is not handled by a preceding catch clauses, and
  - It is a subtype or supertype of the catch parameters

## After Java SE 7

- The **compiler** allows you to specify the exception types in the throws clause in the method declaration because you can re-throw an exception that is a supertype of any of the types declared in the throws

## Example: wrapping

```
public class ExampleExceptionRethrowSE7{
    public static demoRethrow() throws IOException {
        try {
            throw new IOException("Error");
        }
        catch(Exception exception) {
            // Do some handling and then re-throw:
            throw exception;
        }
    }

    public static void main( String[] args ){
        try {
            demoRethrow();
        }
        catch(IOException exception) {
            System.err.println(exception.getMessage());
        }
    }
}
```

- checked exceptions that the associated try block throws,
- are not handled by a preceding catch clause, and
- are a subtype or supertype of the parameter

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## Example: two children

```
public void rethrowException(String exceptionName)
    throws FirstException, SecondException {
    try {
        if (exceptionName.equals("First")) {
            throw new FirstException();
        } else {
            throw new SecondException();
        }
    }
    catch (Exception e) {
        throw e;
    }
}
```

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## Ex. on exception management in Java (1/2)

```
import java.io.BufferedReader;
import java.io.IOException;
import java.io.InputStreamReader;

class NegError extends RuntimeException {
}

public class SlideCodeTest {
    static int neg(int x) {
        if (x < 0)
            throw new NegError();
        return -x;
    }
}

// continued on next page...
```

Here the exception class is derived from **RuntimeException** (derived from **Throwable**), instead of being derived directly from **Throwable**. This to avoid checked exception.

There is no need to include throws in the declaration of the method as it is an **unchecked exception**

Here we use the reference returned by operator **new** as the operand of the **throw** clause.

## Ex. on exception management in Java (2/2)

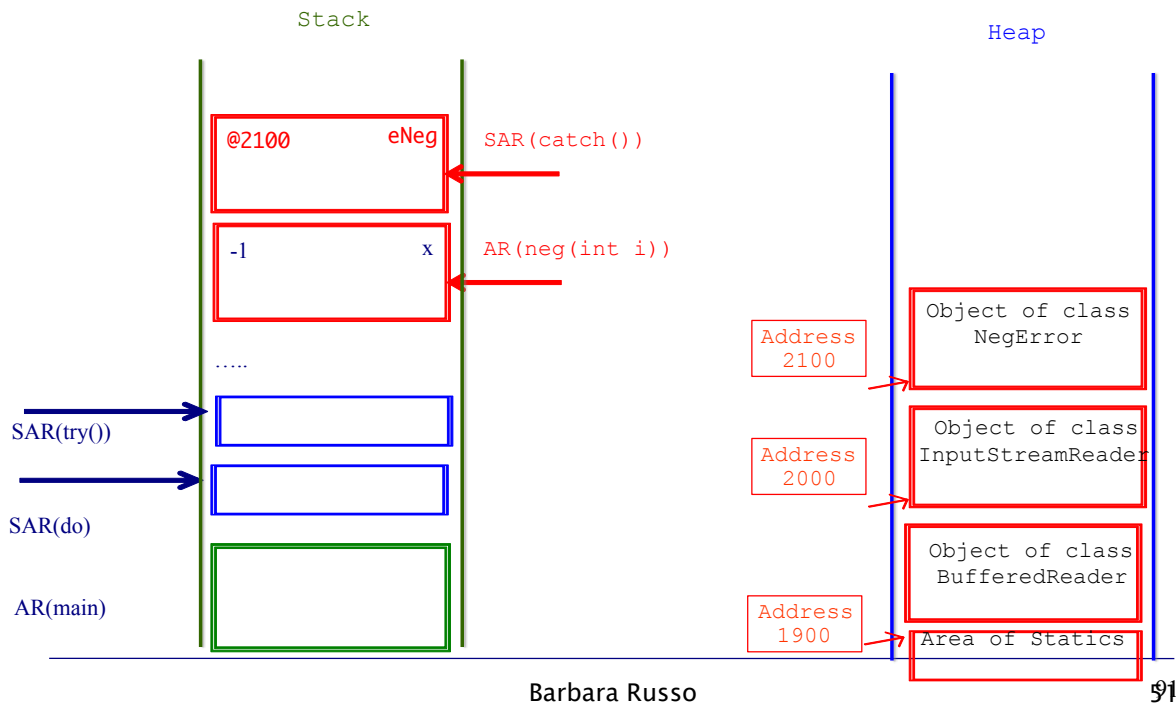
```
//continues
public static void main(String[] argv) {
    int i = 0;
    boolean repeat = false;
    BufferedReader in = new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(System.in));
    do {
        repeat = false;
        try {
            i = Integer.parseInt(in.readLine());
            i = neg(i);
        }
        catch (NegError eNeg) {
            System.out.println("\nYou entered a negative number! - Retry.\n");
            repeat = true;
        }
        catch (IOException e) { }
    }
    while (repeat);
    System.out.println("result = " + i);
}

// end of class
```

We had to put this statement inside the try block because **readLine** can issue a checked exception (see API of **BufferedReader readLine()**)

Since **readLine** can issue a checked exception (**IOException**), we had to provide a suitable handler, but it's empty for simplicity

# With no IOException and negative i



# Another example

```
class Natural {
    public int val;
    Natural() {
        val = 0;
    }
    Natural( int i ) throws ArithmeticException {
        if ( i < 0 ) {
            val = 0;
            throw new ArithmeticException( "A Natural cannot be negative!" );
        }
        val = i;
    }
    public String toString() { return Integer.toString(val); }
}
```

Here the exception class is derived from **RuntimeException** but we want the compiler to check the exception anyway

# Another example

```
public class SimpleExceptions {
    public static void main(String args[] ) {
        Natural a, b, c, d, f;
        a = new Natural(); b = new Natural(2);
        System.out.println("The value of a is " + a.val);
        System.out.println("The value of b is " + b.val);
        c = null;
        try {
            c = new Natural(1);
        }
        catch(ArithmeticException e) {
            System.out.println("Raised exception: " + e);
        }
        System.out.println("The value of c is:" + c.val);
        d = null;
        try {
            d = new Natural(-1);
        }
        catch(ArithmeticException e) {
            System.out.println("Raised exception: " + e);
        }
        System.out.println("The value of d is:" + d.val);
        f = new Natural(-3);
        System.out.println("The value of f is:" + f.val);
    }
}
```

## Output

```
The value of a is 0
The value of b is 2
The value of c is:1
Raised exception: java.lang.ArithmeticException
The value of d is:null
java.lang.ArithmeticException: A Natural cannot be
negative!
    at Natural.<init>(SlideCodeTest.java:11)
    at SlideCodeTest.main(SlideCodeTest.java:45)
Exception in thread "main"
```

**It is a run-time exception.  
Here is not caught so it  
propagates out of the DES**

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# Notes

- One can declare “throws” in the class method without declaring it in the interface implemented by the class
- For example, the class constructor “throws” an exception but an interface does not have a constructor so cannot declare any “throws” for a constructor

# Notes

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- If the parent class throws an exception in the constructor, then the subclass **must** have a constructor (an empty one is good enough) to evidence the propagation of the exception.

```
class A {  
    A() throws Exception { /* something */ }  
}  
class B extends A {  
    B() { /* do nothing */ }  
}
```

# Exercise

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- Complete the exercise on Natural Number by adding in the following methods:
  - [divide](#)
  - [subtract](#)
- Each method should throw appropriate exceptions to signal the occurrence of errors