

Program Correctness and Efficiency

Following Koffmann and
Wolfgang Chapter 2

Outline

- Categories of program errors
- Why you should catch exceptions
- The **Exception** hierarchy
 - Checked and unchecked exceptions
- The **try-catch-finally** sequence
- Throwing an exception:
 - What it means
 - How to do it

Outline (continued)

- A variety of testing strategies
- How to write testing methods
- Debugging techniques and debugger programs
- Program verification: assertions and loop invariants
- Big-O notation
 - What it is
 - How to use it to analyze an algorithm's efficiency

Program Defects and “Bugs”

- An efficient program is *worthless* if it breaks or produces a wrong answer
- Defects often appear in software after it is delivered
- Testing cannot prove the absence of defects
- It can be difficult to test a software product completely in the environment in which it is used
- *Debugging*: removing defects

Major Categories of Defects

- Syntax and other in-advance errors
- Run-time errors and exceptions
- Logic Errors

Syntax Errors

- *Syntax errors*: grammatical mistakes in a program
- The *compiler detects* syntax errors
 - You *must* correct them to compile successfully
- Some common syntax errors include:
 - Omitting or misplacing braces, parentheses, etc.
 - Misplaced end-of-comment
 - Typographical errors (in names, etc.)
 - Misplaced keywords

Semantic Errors

- Semantic errors: may obey grammar, but violate other rules of the language
- The *compiler detects* semantic errors
 - You *must* correct them to compile successfully
- Some common semantic errors include:
 - Performing an incorrect operation on a primitive type value
 - Invoking an instance method not defined
 - Not declaring a variable before using it
 - Providing multiple declarations of a variable
 - Failure to provide an exception handler
 - Failure to **import** a library routine

Run-time Errors or Exceptions

- Run-time errors
 - Occur during program execution (run-time!)
 - Occur when the JVM detects an operation that it knows to be incorrect
 - Cause the JVM to throw an exception
- Examples of run-time errors include
 - Division by zero
 - Array index out of bounds
 - Number format error
 - Null pointer exceptions

Run-time Errors or Exceptions (continued)

TABLE 2.1

Subclasses of `java.lang.RuntimeException`

Run-time Exception	Cause/Consequence
<code>ArithmeticException</code>	Integer division by zero.
<code>ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException</code>	An attempt to access an element in an array with an index value (subscript) less than zero or greater than or equal to the array's length.
<code>IllegalArgumentException</code>	An attempt to call a method with an argument of incorrect type or inappropriate format.
<code>NumberFormatException</code>	An attempt to convert a string that is not numeric to a number (real or integer).
<code>NullPointerException</code>	An attempt to use a <code>null</code> reference value to access an object.
<code>NoSuchElementException</code>	An attempt to get a next token after all tokens were extracted from the string that was tokenized.

Logic Errors

- A *logic error* is programmer mistake in
 - the design of a class or method, or
 - the implementation of an algorithm
- Most logic errors
 - Are not syntax or semantic errors: get by the compiler
 - Do not cause run-time errors
 - Thus they are difficult to find
- Sometimes found through testing
- Sometimes found by users

Avoiding Logic Errors

- Work from a *precise* specification
- Strive for clarity and simplicity
- Consider “corner” / extreme cases
- Have reviews / walk-throughs: *other eyes*
- Use library/published algorithms where possible
- Think through pre/post conditions, invariants
- Be organized and careful in general

The Exception Class Hierarchy

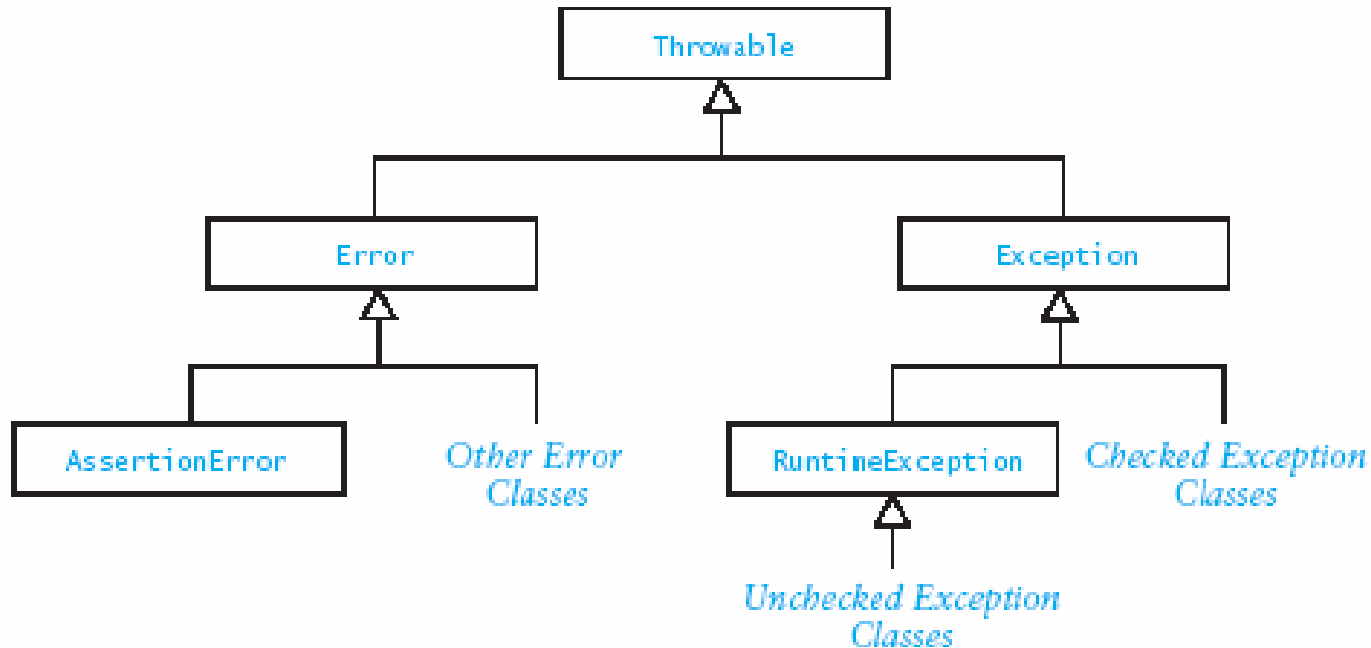
- When an exception occurs, the *first* thing that happens is a **new** of a Java exception object
- Different exception classes have different rules
- **Throwable** is the *root superclass* of the exception class hierarchy
 - **Error** is a subclass of **Throwable**
 - **Exception** is a subclass of **Throwable**
 - **RuntimeException** is a subclass of **Exception**

The Class Throwable

- **Throwable** is the superclass of all exceptions
- All exception classes inherit its methods

FIGURE 2.1

Summary of Exception Class Hierarchy



The Class Throwable (continued)

TABLE 2.2

Summary of Commonly Used Methods from the `java.lang.Throwable` Class

Method	Behavior
<code>String getMessage()</code>	Return the detail message.
<code>void printStackTrace()</code>	Print the stack trace to <code>System.err</code> .
<code>String toString()</code>	Return the name of the exception followed by the detail message.

The Exception Class Hierarchy (2)

Throwable is the superclass of all exception classes

- **Error** is for things a program should not catch
 - Example: **OutOfMemoryError**
- **Exception** is for things a program might catch
 - **RuntimeException** is for things the VM might throw
 - It can happen anywhere: e.g., any object access can throw `NullPointerException`
 - So *not required* to catch it
 - *All others* must be either:
 - Explicitly caught or
 - Explicitly mentioned as thrown by the method

Exception Hierarchy Summary

- **Error:** don't catch, unchecked
- **Exception:**
 - **RuntimeException:**
 - (Usually) don't catch, unchecked
 - *All others:* checked, so must
 - Catch, or
 - Mention they may be thrown

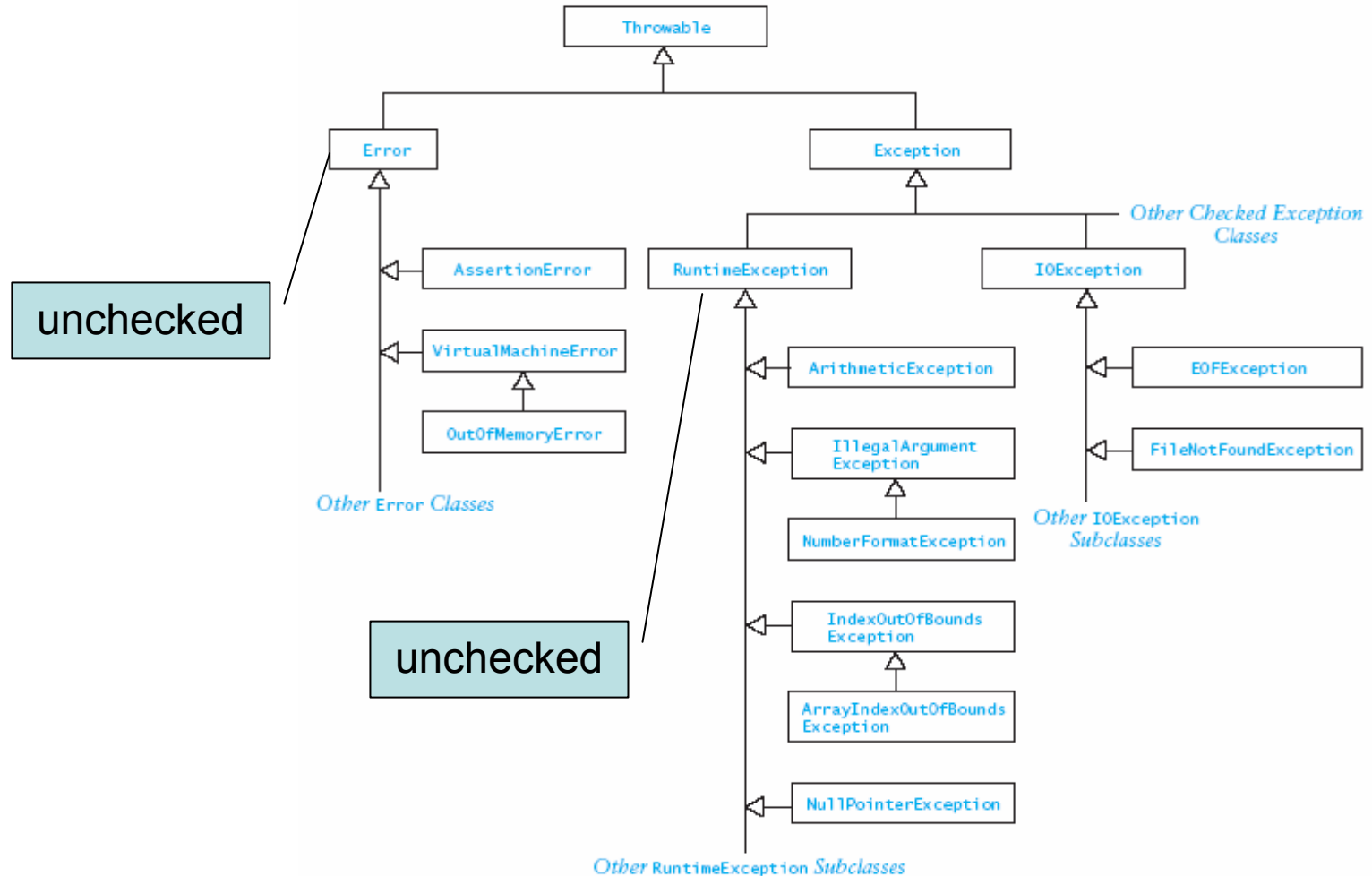
Checked and Unchecked Exceptions

- Checked exceptions
 - Normally not due to programmer error
 - Generally beyond the control of the programmer
 - Examples: `IOException`, `FileNotFoundException`
- Unchecked exception may result from
 - Programmer error
 - Serious external condition that is unrecoverable

Checked and Unchecked Exceptions (2)

FIGURE 2.2

Exception Hierarchy Showing Selected Checked and Unchecked Exceptions



Some Common Unchecked Exceptions

- **ArithmeticException**
 - Division by zero, etc.
- **ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException**
- **NumberFormatException**
 - Converting a “bad” string to a number
- **NullPointerException**
- **NoSuchElementException**
 - No more tokens available

Catching and Handling Exceptions

- When an exception is thrown, the normal sequence of execution is interrupted
- Default behavior, i.e., no handler
 - Program stops
 - JVM displays an error message
- The programmer may provide a *handler*
 - Enclose statements in a `try` block
 - Process the exception in a `catch` block

Example Handler

```
InputStream in = null;
try {
    in = new FileInputStream(args[0]);
    ...
} catch (FileNotFoundException e) {
    System.out.printf(
        "File not found: %s%n", name);
} catch (Throwable e) {
    System.err.println("Exception!");
    e.printStackTrace(System.err);
} finally {
    if (in != null) in.close();
}
```

Uncaught Exceptions

- Uncaught exception exits VM with a *stack trace*
- The stack trace shows
 - The sequence of method calls
 - Starts with throwing method
 - Ends at `main`

FIGURE 2.3

Example of a Stack Trace for an Uncaught Exception



```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.NullPointerException
  at ExceptionDemo.doSomethingElse(ExceptionDemo.java:18)
  at ExceptionDemo.doSomething(ExceptionDemo.java:13)
  at ExceptionDemo.main(ExceptionDemo.java:7)
```

The `try-catch` Sequence

- Avoiding uncaught exceptions
 - Write a `try-catch` to handle the exception
 - Point: prevent ugly program termination!
 - Unpleasant for user
 - Worse, may leave things messed up / “broken”
- `catch` block is skipped if no exception thrown within the `try` block

Handling Exceptions to *Recover* from Errors

- Exceptions provide the opportunity to
 - Report errors
 - Recover from errors
- User errors common, and should be recoverable
- Most closely enclosing handler that matches is the one that executes
 - A handler matches if its class includes what's thrown
- Compiler displays an error message if it encounters an unreachable `catch` clause

The **finally** block

- On exception, a **try** is abandoned
- Sometimes more actions must be taken
 - Example: Close an output file
- Code in a **finally** block is always executed
 - After the **try** finishes normally, or
 - After a **catch** clause completes
- **finally** is *optional*

Example of `finally` block

```
try {  
    InputStream ins = ...;  
    ... ins.read(); ...  
  
} catch (EOFException e) {  
    System.err.println("Unexpected EOF");  
    e.printStackTrace();  
    System.exit(17);  
  
} finally {  
    if (ins != null) ins.close();  
  
}
```

Throwing Exceptions

- Lower-level method can pass exception through
 - Can be caught and handled by a higher-level method
 - Mark lower-level method
 - Say it may throw a checked exception
 - Mark by throws clause in the header
 - May throw the exception in the lower-level method
 - Use a throw statement
- Particularly useful if calling module already has a handler for this exception type

Throwing Exceptions (2)

- Use a **throw** statement when you detect an error
- Further execution stops immediately:
 - Goes to closest suitable handler
 - May be a number of level of calls earlier
 - Does execute any **finally** blocks in the middle

Example of Throwing an Exception

```
/** adds a new entry or changes an old one
 * @param name the name to create/update
 * @param number the (new) number
 * @return the previous number, a String
 * @throws IllegalArgumentException if the number
 * is not in phone number format
 */
public String addOrChangeEntry(
    String name, String number) {
    if (!isPhoneNumberFormat(number)) {
        throw new IllegalArgumentException(
            "Invalid phone number: " + number);
    }
    ...
}
```

Another Example of Throwing an Exception

```
public void accessLocalFile (String askingUser)
    throws CertificateException {
    ...
    if (user's secure socket certificate bad) {
        throw new CertificateException(reason);
    }
    ...
}
```

Programming Style

- You can always avoid handling exceptions:
 - *Declare* that they are thrown, or
 - *Throw* them and let them be handled farther back
- *But:* usually best to handle instead of passing
- *Guidelines:*
 1. If recoverable here, handle here
 2. If checked exception likely to be caught higher up
Declare that it can occur using a **throws** clause
 3. Don't use **throws** with *unchecked* exceptions
Use an **@throws** javadoc comment when helpful

Programming Style (2)

Don't do this!

```
try {...} catch (Throwable e) { }
```

- Omits arbitrary patches of code
 - Can leave things in “broken” state
- No warning to user
- Leads to hidden, difficult to detect, defects

Handling Exceptions in Phone Dir Example

In `loadData`:

`FileNotFoundException` from `FileReader`
constructor

`IOException` from `readLine`

In `PDConsoleUI`:

`InputMismatchException` from `nextInt`

In `addOrChangeEntry`:

`IllegalArgumentException` for empty `String`

Testing Programs

- A program with
 - No syntax/semantic errors, and
 - No run-time errors,
 - May still contain ***logic errors***
- “Best” case is logic error that ***always executes***
 - Otherwise, hard to find!
- Worst case is logic error in code ***rarely run***

Goal of testing: Test every part of the code, on “good” and “bad”/”hard” cases

Structured Walkthroughs

- Most logic errors:
 - Come from the design phase
 - Result from an incorrect algorithm
- Logic errors sometimes come from typos that do not cause syntax, semantic, or run-time errors
 - Famous FORTRAN: `DO 10 I = 1.100`
 - Common C: `if (i = 3) ...`
- One way to test: hand-trace algorithm
before implementing!
- Thus: **Structured Walkthroughs**

Structured Walkthroughs (2)

The Designer:

- Explains the algorithm to other team members
- Simulate its execution with them looking on

The Team:

- Verifies that it works
- Verifies that it handles all cases

Walkthroughs are helpful, but do not replace **testing!**

Testing Defined

- **Testing:**
 - Exercising a program under controlled conditions
 - Verifying the results
- Purpose: detect program defects after
 - All syntax/semantic errors removed
 - Program compiles
- No amount of testing can *guarantee* the absence of defects in sufficiently complex programs

Levels of Testing

- **Unit testing:** checking the smallest testable piece
 - A method or class
- **Integration testing:**
 - The interactions among units
- **System testing:** testing the program in context
- **Acceptance testing:** system testing intended to show that the program meets its functional requirements

Some Types of Testing

- **Black-box testing:**
 - Tests item based *only* on its interfaces and functional requirements
 - Assumes no knowledge of internals
- **White-box testing:**
 - Tests *with* knowledge of internal structure

Preparing to Test

- Develop **test plan** early, in the design phase
 - How to test the software
 - When to do the tests
 - Who will do the testing
 - What test data to use
- Early test plan allows testing **during** design & coding
- Good programmer practices **defensive programming**
 - Includes code to detect unexpected or invalid data

Testing Tips for Program Systems

- Program systems contain collections of classes, each with several methods
- A method specification should document
 - Input parameters
 - Expected results
- Carefully document (with javadoc, etc.):
 - Each method parameter
 - Each class attribute (instance and static variable)
 - *As you write the code!*

Testing Tips for Program Systems (2)

Trace execution by displaying method name as you enter a method:

```
public static final boolean TRACING = true;
...
public int computeWeight (...) {
    if (TRACING) {
        trace.printf("Entering computeWeight");
    }
    ...
}
```

Testing Tips for Program Systems (3)

Display values of all input parameters on entry:

```
public int computeWeight (float volume,  
                           float density) {  
    if (TRACING) {  
        trace.printf("Entering computeWeight");  
        trace.printf("volume = %f, ", volume);  
        trace.printf("density = %f\n", density);  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

Testing Tips for Program Systems (4)

- **Display values** of any class attributes (instance and static variables) accessed by the method
- **Display values** of all method outputs at point of return from a method
- **Plan for testing** as you write each module,
 - Not after the fact!

Developing Test Data

- **Specify test data** during analysis and design
 - For each level of testing: unit, integration, and system
- **Black-box** testing: unit inputs \Rightarrow outputs
 - Check all expected inputs
 - Check unanticipated data
- **White-box** testing: exercise all code paths
 - Different tests to make each if test (etc.) true and false
 - Called coverage

Developing Test Data (2)

- Helpful to do **both** black- and white-box testing
- **Black-box** tests can be developed early since they have to do with the unit specification
- **White-box** tests are developed with detailed design or implementation: need code structure

Testing Boundary Conditions

- Exercise *all paths* for
 - Hand-tracing in a structured walkthrough
 - Performing white-box testing
- Must check special cases:
boundary conditions
- Examples:
 - Loop executes 0 times, 1 time, all the way to the end
 - Item not found

Who does the testing?

- Normally testing is done by
 - The programmer
 - Team members who did not code the module
 - Final users of the product
- Programmers often blind to their own oversights
- Companies may have quality assurance groups
- **Extreme programming:** programmers paired
 - One writes the code
 - The other writes the tests

Stubs for Testing

- Hard to test a method or class that interacts with other methods or classes
- A ***stub*** stands in for a method not yet available
- The stub:
 - Has the same header as the method it replaces
 - Body only displays a message that it was called
- Sometimes you need to *synthesize* a reasonable facsimile of a result, for the caller to continue

Drivers

A driver program:

- Declares necessary instances and variables
 - Provides values for method inputs
 - Calls the method
 - Displays values of method outputs
-
- A `main` method in a class can serve as a driver to test the class's methods

Regression Testing

- Once code has passed all initial tests, it is important to continue to test regularly
- Environment and other changes \Rightarrow “software rot”
- A **regression test** is designed to:
 - Catch any “regression” or decay in the software
 - Insure old functionality works in face of enhancement
 - Alert earlier to any issues arising from other changes
- Regression testing eased by a testing framework

Using a Testing Framework

Testing framework: software that facilitates:

- Writing test cases
- Organizing the test cases into test suites
- Running the test suites
- Reporting the results

JUnit

- A Java testing framework
- Open-source product
- Can be used stand-alone or with an IDE
- Available from `JUnit.org`

JUnit Example

```
import junit.framework.*;
public class TestDirectoryEntry
    extends TestCase {
    private DirectoryEntry tom;
    private DirectoryEntry dick;
    private DirectoryEntry tom2;

    public void setUp () {
        tom = new DirectoryEntry("Tom" , "...");
        dick = new DirectoryEntry("Dick" , "...");
        tom2 = new DirectoryEntry("Tom" , "...");
    }
}
```

JUnit Example (2)

```
public void testTomCreate () {  
    assertEquals(tom.getName() , "Tom");  
    assertEquals(tom.getNumber() , "...");  
}
```

```
public void testTomEqualsDick () {  
    assertFalse(tom.equals(dick));  
    assertFalse(dick.equals(tom));  
}
```

JUnit Example (3)

```
public void testTomEqualsTom () {  
    assertTrue(tom.equals(tom));  
    assertTrue(tom.equals(tom2));  
    assertTrue(tom2.equals(tom));  
}
```

```
public void testSetNumber () {  
    dick.setNumber(tom.getNumber());  
    assertEquals(tom.getNumber(), dick.getNumber());  
}
```


Integration Testing

- Larger components: collection of classes
- Done with smaller collection, then larger ones
- Drive with **use cases**: scenarios with
 - Sample user inputs
 - Expected outputs
 - Can be challenging to automate

Debugging a Program

Debugging: the major activity during the testing phase

- *Testing* determines that there *is* an error
- *Debugging* determines the *cause*
- Debugging is like detective work: logical deduction
 - *Inspect all program output* carefully
 - *Insert additional output statements* to find out more
 - *Use breakpoints* to examine world ...
at *carefully* selected points

Using a Debugger

- **Debuggers** often are included with IDEs
- Debugger supports incremental program execution
- Single-step execution provides increments as small as one program statement (or even one instruction)
- Breakpoints traverse larger portions of code at once
- Details depend on the specific IDE

Key to debugging: Think first! Think a lot!

- Also: try to split possible error sources in half with each investigation

Reasoning about Programs: Assertions and Loop Invariants

- **Assertions:**
 - Logical statements about program state
 - Claimed to be true
 - At a particular point in the program
 - Written as a comment, OR use `assert` statement
- Preconditions and postconditions are assertions
- Loop invariants are also assertions

Reasoning about Programs: Loop Invariants

A loop invariant:

- Helps prove that a loop meets its specification
- Is true before loop begins
- Is true at the beginning of each iteration
- Is true just after loop exit

Example: Sorting an array of n elements

Sorted(i): Array elements j , for $0 \leq j < i$, are sorted

Beginning: Sorted(0) is (trivially) true

Middle: We insure initial portion sorted as we increase i

End: Sorted(n): All elements $0 \leq j < n$ are sorted

Efficiency of Algorithms

Question: How can we characterize the performance of an algorithm ...

- Without regard to a *specific computer*?
- Without regard to a *specific language*?
- Over a wide *range of inputs*?

Desire: Function that describes execution time in terms of input size

- Other measures might be memory needed, etc.

The “Order” of Performance: (Big) O

- Basic idea:
 1. Ignore constant factor: computer and language implementation details affect that: go for fundamental rate of increase with problem size.
 2. Consider fastest growing term: Eventually, for large problems, it will dominate.
- Value: Compares fundamental performance difference of algorithms
- Caveat: For smaller problems, big-O worse performer may actually do better

$$T(n) = O(f(n))$$

- $T(n)$ = time for algorithm on input size n
- $f(n)$ = a simpler function that grows at about the same rate

- Example: $T(n) = 3n^2 + 5n - 17 = O(n^2)$
 - $f(n)$ has faster growing term
 - no extra leading constant in $f(n)$

$T(n) = O(f(n))$ Defined

1. $\exists n_0$ and
2. $\exists c$ such that

If $n > n_0$ then $c \cdot f(n) \geq T(n)$

Example: $T(n) = 3n^2 + 5n - 17$

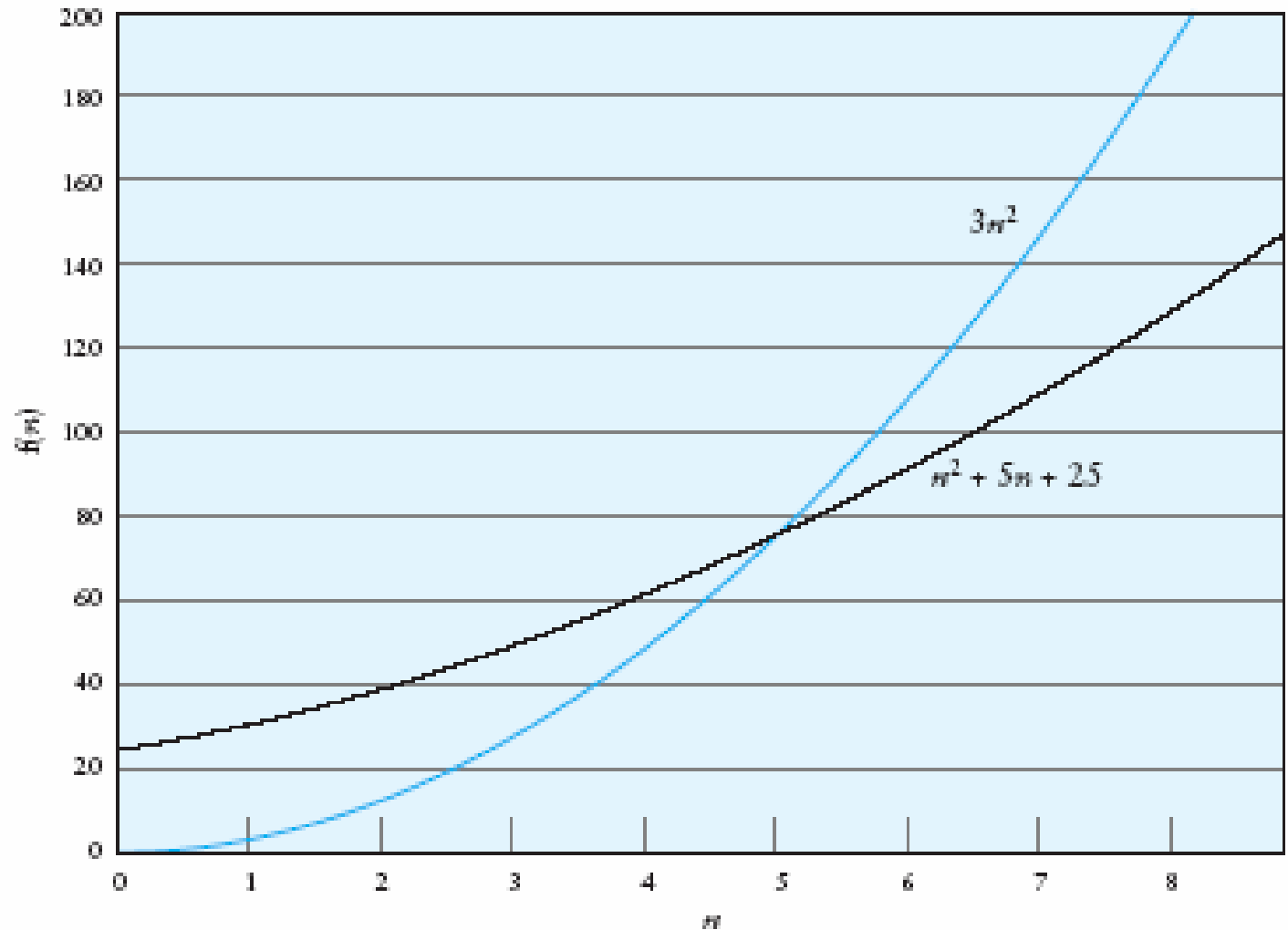
Pick $c = 4$, say; need $4n_0^2 > 3n_0^2 + 5n_0 - 17$

$n_0^2 > 5n_0 - 17$, for which $n_0 = 5$ will do.

Efficiency of Algorithms (continued)

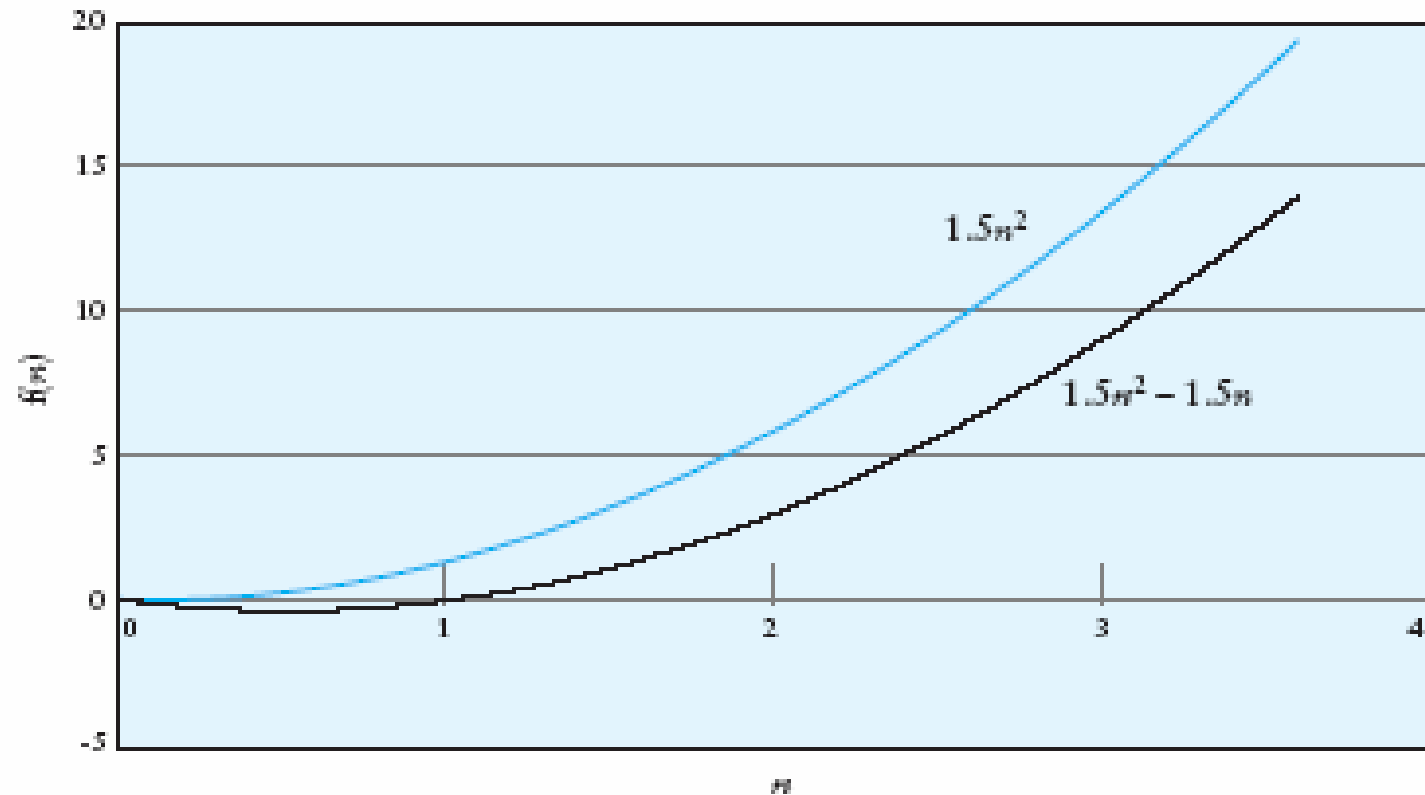
FIGURE 2.12

$3n^2$ vs. $n^2 + 5n + 25$



Efficiency of Algorithms (continued)

FIGURE 2.13
 $1.5n^2$ versus $1.5n^2 - 1.5n$



Efficiency of Algorithms (continued)

TABLE 2.5

Symbols Used in Quantifying Software Performance

$T(n)$	The time that a method or program takes as a function of the number of inputs, n . We may not be able to exactly measure or determine this.
$f(n)$	Any function of n . Generally $f(n)$ will represent a simpler function than $T(n)$, for example, n^2 rather than $1.5n^2 - 1.5n$.
$O(f(n))$	Order of magnitude. $O(f(n))$ is the set of functions that grow no faster than $f(n)$. We say that $T(n) = O(f(n))$ to indicate that the growth of $T(n)$ is bounded by the growth of $f(n)$.

Efficiency of Algorithms (continued)

TABLE 2.6

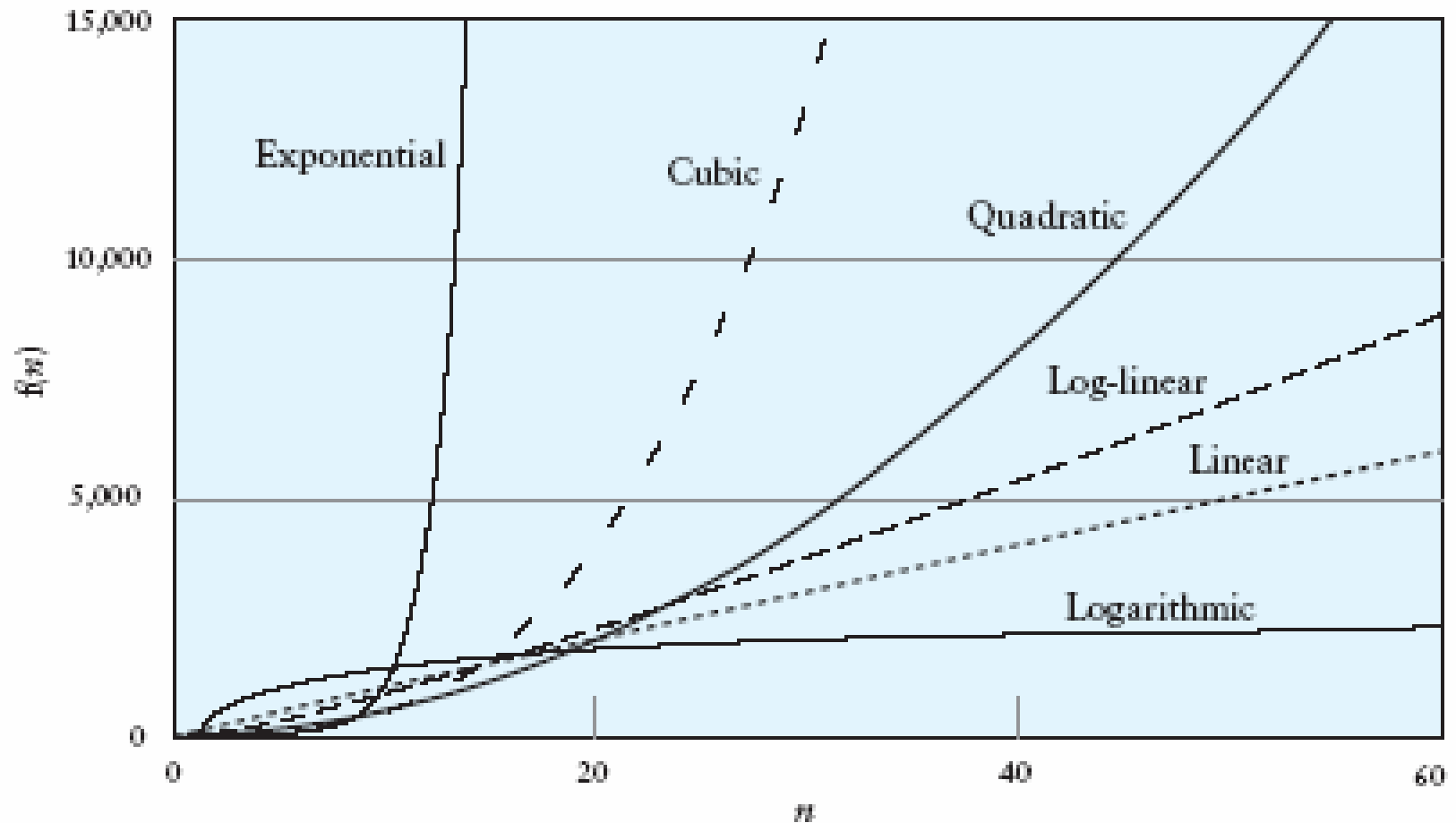
Common Growth Rates

Big-O	Name
$O(1)$	Constant
$O(\log n)$	Logarithmic
$O(n)$	Linear
$O(n \log n)$	Log-linear
$O(n^2)$	Quadratic
$O(n^3)$	Cubic
$O(2^n)$	Exponential
$O(n!)$	Factorial

Efficiency of Algorithms (continued)

FIGURE 2.14

Different Growth Rates



Efficiency Examples

```
public static int find (int[]x, int val) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < x.length; i++) {  
        if (x[i] == val)  
            return i;  
    }  
    return -1; // not found  
}
```

Letting n be `x.length`:

Average iterations if *found* = $(1+\dots+n)/n = (n+1)/2 = O(n)$

Iterations if *not found* = $n = O(n)$

Hence this is called *linear search*.

Efficiency Examples (2)

```
public static boolean allDifferent (  
    int[] x, int[] y) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < x.length; i++) {  
        if (find(y, x[i]) != -1)  
            return false;  
    }  
    return true; // no x element found in y  
}
```

Letting m be `x.length` and n be `y.length`:

Time if all different = $O(m \cdot n) = m \cdot \text{cost of search}(n)$

Efficiency Examples (3)

```
public static boolean unique (int[] x) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < x.length; i++) {  
        for (int j = 0; j < x.length; j++ {  
            if (i != j && x[i] == x[j])  
                return false;  
        }  
    }  
    return true; // no duplicates in x  
}
```

Letting n be `x.length`:

Time if unique = n^2 iterations = $O(n^2)$

Efficiency Examples (4)

```
public static boolean unique (int[] x) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < x.length; i++) {  
        for (int j = i+1; j < x.length; j++) {  
            if (i != j && x[i] == x[j])  
                return false;  
        }  
    }  
    return true; // no duplicates in x  
}
```

Letting n be `x.length`:

Time if unique = $(n-1)+(n-2)+\dots+2+1$ iterations =
 $n(n-1)/2$ iterations = $O(n^2)$ *still* ... only factor of 2 better

Efficiency Examples (5)

```
for (int i = 1; i < n; i *= 2) {  
    do something with x[i]  
}
```

Sequence is 1, 2, 4, 8, ..., $\sim n$.

Number of iterations = $\log_2 n = \log n$.

Computer scientists generally use base 2 for log, since that matches with number of *bits*, etc.

Also $O(\log_b n) = O(\log_2 n)$ since change of base just multiplies by a constant: $\log_2 n = \log_b n / \log_b 2$

Chessboard Puzzle

Payment scheme #1: \$1 on first square, \$2 on second, \$3 on third, ..., \$64 on 64th.

Payment scheme #2: 1¢ on first square, 2¢ on second, 4¢ on third, 8¢ on fourth, etc.

Which is best?

Chessboard Puzzle Analyzed

Payment scheme #1: Total = $\$1 + \$2 + \$3 + \dots + \$64 =$
 $\$64 \times 65 / 2 = \1755

Payment scheme #2: $1\text{¢} + 2\text{¢} + 4\text{¢} + \dots + 2^{63}\text{¢} = 2^{64} - 1\text{¢} =$
 $\$184.467440737 \text{ trillion}$

Many cryptographic schemes require $O(2^n)$ work to break a key of length n bits. A key of length $n=40$ is perhaps breakable, but one with $n=100$ is not.