

# C++ Fundamentals

ECE 495/595 Lecture Slides

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# Summary and Quick Links

These slides quickly introduce the following C++ concepts:

- ▷ Comments (Slide 3)
- ▷ Variables (Slide 4)
- ▷ Data types (Slide 5)
- ▷ Pointers (Slide 6)
- ▷ Structures (Slide 8)
- ▷ Functions (Slide 10)
- ▷ Vectors (Slide 15)
- ▷ Program structure (Slide 18)
- ▷ Preprocessor directives (Slide 21)
- ▷ Header files (Slide 25)
- ▷ Namespaces (Slide 27)
- ▷ Classes (Slide 32)

It is encouraged to go through a good C++ tutorial at <http://www.cplusplus.com/doc/tutorial/>

# Comments

- ▷ There are two ways to make comments in C++.
- ▷ Double slash // marks the rest of the line as a comment.
- ▷ Slash-asterisk /\* starts a multi-line comment and is ended by asterisk-slash \*/

```
// This is a comment
```

```
/* This is a  
multi-line comment */
```

# Variables

- ▷ A C++ variable is declared by indicating a type, followed by the name of the variable, and then an optional initialization value:

```
// variable_type variable_name = initial_value;  
int my_variable = 4;
```

- ▷ Simple variables can be manipulated like in many other programming languages:

```
int a;  
int b;  
  
a = 5;  
b = a + 10;
```

# Data Types

- ▷ Integer data types (each have signed and unsigned versions):
  - > char – 8 bits
  - > short – 16 bits
  - > int – 32 bits
- ▷ Floating point data types:
  - > single – 32-bit floating point number encoded in the IEEE 754 standard.
  - > double – 64-bit floating point number encoded in the IEEE 754 standard.
- ▷ C++ has a special std::string class type to save the user from awkwardly having to use pointers to char data to manage strings.

# Pointers

- ▷ Pointers don't actually contain data; rather they contain the *address* of where the actual data can be found.
- ▷ Pointer types match the type they are pointing to, with the \* symbol added on.
- ▷ The address of a variable is accessed with the & operator:

```
double var; // Actual variable
double* var_pointer; // Pointer to a double value

var_pointer = &var; // Assign address to pointer
```

- ▷ To access the data that is being pointed to, a \* is placed before the pointer variable:

```
double x = *var_pointer; // Dereference pointer
```

# Pointers



<http://xkcd.com/138/>

# Structures

- ▷ Data types can be defined in structures:

```
typedef struct{  
    double val1;  
    int val2;  
    std::string str;  
} StructTypeName;
```

- ▷ Individual structure member data are accessed using the `.` operator:

```
StructTypeName struct_variable;  
  
struct_variable.val1 = 5.0;  
struct_variable.val2 = 1;  
struct_variable.str = "hello_world";
```



# Structures

- ▷ If using a *pointer* to a structure variable, the data are accessed with the -> operator:

```
StructTypeName struct_variable; // Actual structure
StructTypeName* struct_pointer; // Pointer to structure

struct_pointer = &struct_variable; // Assign pointer

// Access values with '->' operator
struct_pointer->val1 = 5.0;
struct_pointer->val2 = 1;
struct_pointer->str = "hello_world";
```

# Functions

- ▷ Functions are defined using the following generic syntax:

```
return_type function_name(<list of arguments>)  
{  
}
```

- ▷ return\_type is the data type that is returned from the function.
- ▷ Any number of arguments can be passed to a function, where each is separated by a comma. For example:

```
double add(double a, double b)  
{  
    return (a + b);  
}
```

# Functions

- ▷ Functions without arguments just have empty parentheses:

```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
              // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```

<http://xkcd.com/221/>

# Functions

- ▷ Functions can also be defined with a void return data type:

```
void func()
{
    /* This function does nothing
       and returns nothing. */
}
```

- ▷ Void functions have no return value at all.

# Functions

- ▷ Variables declared within a function are local variables and cannot be accessed from any other function.
- ▷ Any variables declared within an if block or loop can only be accessed within that block or loop.
- ▷ Where a variable is able to be accessed is called its scope.

# Functions

- ▷ An example illustrating the scope of local variables

```
void example_function()
{
    int val1 = 10; /* This variable is accessible anywhere in this
                    function, but not from any other function */

    if (val1 > 3){
        int val2; /* This variable is only accessible
                  in this 'if' block */
    }else{
        int val3; // Same with this variable
    }

    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++){
        int val3 = 0; /* This variable can only be used
                      in this for loop */
    }
}
```

# Vectors

- ▷ Vectors are dynamically sized arrays, declared as a *std::vector*.
- ▷ The type of the individual elements must be specified within `<>` when the vector is declared:

```
std::vector<int> int_vect;  
std::vector<double> float_vect;  
std::vector<SomeStructure> vector_of_structs;
```

- ▷ Individual data elements are accessed like normal arrays with the `[]` operator.

```
int one_element = int_vect[3];
```

# Vectors

- ▷ Vectors are initially empty by default. Their size can be set when it is declared though:

```
std::vector<int> vect(5); // Initialize vector with 5 elements  
std::vector<int> vect(5, 0); // Initialize vector with zeros
```

- ▷ A vector's size can also be set directly with the resize() method:

```
vect.resize(6); // Set number of elements to 6  
vect.resize(6, 0); // ... and also set their values to zero
```

- ▷ Single values can be added on using the push\_back() method:

```
vect.push_back(2); // Adds a new value of 2 to the end
```



# Vectors

- ▷ The *size()* method returns the current number of elements in the array.
- ▷ There are many more ways of manipulating the data within a vector. For full details, see the [documentation](#).
- ▷ Be careful! If you try to access an element of a vector that doesn't exist, your program will crash with a *segmentation fault*.

```
std::vector<int> vect; // Empty vector
int one_element = vect[1]; // This will crash!
```

# Program Structure

- ▷ All C++ programs have a function called main that is run when the program starts.

```
int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    /*
     * 'argc' is the number of arguments passed to the function
     * 'argv' is an array of strings; one for each argument
     */

    // <Program code goes here>

    return 0; // The program ends here
}
```

# Program Structure

- ▷ In addition to the main function, other functions can be defined along with it in the same file:

```
int getRandomNumber()
{
    return 4;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    int x = getRandomNumber();

    return 0;
}
```

- ▷ Functions must be defined *before* the functions they are called from.

# Program Structure

- ▷ Global variables are declared outside any functions, typically at the top of the file:

```
double global_var;

void setTo42()
{
    global_var = 42.0;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    global_var = 9001.0; // This sets the global variable
    setTo42(); // This function will also set the global variable

    return 0;
}
```

# Pre-processor Directives

- ▷ Pre-processor directives are commands that affect how the program is compiled, as opposed to being actual program code.
- ▷ All preprocessor directive commands begin with a # symbol.

# Pre-processor Directives

- ▷ *#define* – Defines a macro. Replaces all instances of the macro with its substitution text. This can be used to make code more readable:

```
#define X a_long_variable_name.signals[0].val[0]

// This macro is useful in this case:
int y = X * (X + 5) - 2 * X;
```

- ▷ or to perform a simple function:

```
#define ADD(a,b) (a+b)

double x = 5;
double y = 9;
double sum = ADD(x,y);
```

# Pre-processor Directives

- ▷ #if, #else and #endif – Used to compile pieces of code if certain conditions are met:

```
#define CONDITION 1

#if CONDITION
    // <Code here will be compiled>
#else
    // <Code here will NOT be compiled>
#endif
```

- ▷ Any non-zero value will satisfy the #if condition.

# Preprocessor Directives

- ▷ *#ifdef* – Instead of evaluating an expression, this will only compile code if a specific macro has been defined with *#define*.
- ▷ *#ifndef* – The opposite... Code is compiled if the macro has *not* already been defined.



# Header Files

- ▷ Header files are used to interface C++ functions from different source files.
- ▷ Header files typically don't contain any code; instead they contain the definitions of functions, types, etc. that are actually implemented in a source file.
- ▷ Header files are included into a source file to provide these definitions to the functions implemented there.

# Including Header Files

- ▷ Header files are included at the top of C++ source files.

```
#include "some_header_file.h"

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    // <Program code goes here>
}
```

- ▷ Including a header file is exactly like copying the text of the header file and pasting it where you type *#include*.

# Namespaces

- ▷ Variable types, functions, classes and other things can be defined within namespaces.
- ▷ A benefit of namespaces is to modularize code, and to avoid potential name ambiguity if a function or class of the same name is defined.
- ▷ Functions and classes written for use in ROS are typically defined within a namespace with the same name as the ROS package they are a part of.

# Namespaces

- ▷ Code and header file content are defined in a namespace by placing it within a namespace block:

```
namespace my_namespace{  
  
    /* Anything declared here is in the namespace 'my_namespace' */  
  
}
```

# Namespaces

- ▷ For example, we can define a structure type and a function within this namespace:

```
namespace my_namespace{  
  
    typedef struct{  
        double a;  
        int b;  
    } StructureType;  
  
    void function_name(double var);  
  
}
```

# Namespaces

- ▷ Elsewhere in code, we can then refer to these using their names, preceded by the namespace name and the `::` operator:

```
// Declare a structure variable
my_namespace::StructureType structure_var;
structure_var.a = 4.5;
structuer_var.b = 1;

// Call a function within the namespace
my_namespace::function_name(4);
```

# Namespaces

- ▷ The using keyword helps avoid having to include the namespace name and `::` operator whenever something from that namespace is used.

```
using namespace my_namespace;  
  
my_namespace::StructureType structure_var; // This still works  
StructureType structure_var; // This is equivalent
```

# Classes

- ▷ In ROS and C++ in general, classes are used extensively to create modular code that can be easily used in many different programs.
- ▷ In ROS, classes are conventionally defined in a namespace matching the name of the package they are a part of.
- ▷ Classes are usually defined using both a header file (.h) and a source file (.cpp).
- ▷ The header file provides the class property and method definitions, and the source file actually implements the methods.



# Classes

- ▷ In general, every class must have a constructor method and a destructor method.
- ▷ These functions carry the same name as the class itself, with the destructor having a tilde ( $\sim$ ) in front of its name.
- ▷ Variables defined within the class are called properties. Functions defined within the class are called methods.
- ▷ Properties and methods that can be called from the code that instantiated the class are declared as public.
- ▷ Properties and methods that can only be called from the class methods are declared as private.

# Classes (Example Header File)

```
namespace ros_package_name{

class ClassName{
public:
    ClassName(); // This is the constructor
    ~ClassName(); // This is the destructor.

    void method1(int arg); /* This function can be called
                           by the instantiating code */

    double property1; /* This property can be accessed
                     by the instantiating code */
private:
    double method2(); /* This function can only be called by
                     other class methods */
    int property2; /* This property can only be accessed by
                  class methods */
};
}
```

# Classes

- ▷ Classes can be instantiated within C++ programs:

```
#include "ClassName.h"

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    /* Instantiate the class 'ClassName' from the
       namespace 'ros_package_name' */
    ros_package_name::ClassName instance;

    instance.method1(3); // Call the public method 'method1'
    double var1 = instance.property1; /* Read the public property
                                       'property1' */

    double var2 = instance.method2(); /* This will not compile,
                                       since we are trying to call
                                       a private method */
}
```

# Classes

- ▷ Class pointers can be declared globally, then initialized using the new operator:

```
#include "ClassName.h"

ros_package_name::ClassName* class_pointer;

int main(int argc, char** argv){
    // Instantiate the class using the 'new' operator
    class_pointer = new ros_package_name::ClassName();

    class_pointer->method1(3); // Call the public method 'method1'
    double val1 = class_pointer->property1; /* Read the public
                                            property 'property1' */
}
```

- ▷ Keep in mind that like structures, when dealing with class pointers, the methods and properties are accessed with the -> operator instead of the .

# Classes

- ▷ Here is an example of a class whose constructor has arguments:

```
class ClassName{
public:
    ClassName(int a, int b){ // Constructor with arguments.
        // Set private class properties with arguments
        a_ = a;
        b_ = b;
    }

    int sum(){ return a_ + b_; }

private:
    // ROS convention is to put underscores
    // after property names
    int a_;
    int b_;
};
```

# Classes

- ▷ To instantiate this class with constructor arguments:

```
ClassName class_instance(5, 6); // Instantiate class and  
                                // pass arguments to constructor  
  
int sum_val = class_instance.sum(); // Returns the sum of the  
                                    // two class properties
```

- ▷ The *sum\_val* variable would contain a value of 11 in this example.