

# Comparison Object Oriented Programming in Objective-C with GO

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## Abstract

ToDo

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# Table of Contents

Abstract .....	1
List of Abbreviations .....	3
1. Introduction .....	4
2. History of OOP .....	4
3. Object Oriented Programming .....	4
3.1 Classification .....	5
3.2 Encapsulation .....	5
3.3 Inheritance .....	5
3.4 Polymorphism .....	6
3.5 Persistence .....	6
4. Object Oriented Programming in Objective-C .....	6
4.1 Classification with Objective-C .....	7
4.2 Encapsualtion with Objective-C .....	8
4.3 Inheritance with Objective-C .....	9
4.4 Polymorphism with Objective-C .....	9
4.5 Persistence with Objective-C .....	9
5. Object Oriented Programming in Go .....	10
5.1 Classification with Go .....	10
5.2 Encapsulation with Go .....	11
5.3 Inheritance with Go .....	11
5.4 Polymorphism with Go .....	12
5.5 Persistence with Go .....	13
6. Differences between Go and Objective-C regarding OOP .....	14
6. Summary .....	14
References .....	15
List of Figures .....	16

# List of Abbreviations

<b>Go</b>	Programming Language Go
<b>IDE</b>	Integrated development environment
<b>OOP</b>	Object Oriented Programming
<b>OS</b>	Operating System

# 1. Introduction

## 2. History of OOP

The first approach for Object Oriented Programming (OOP) was more than 40 years ago with the programming language Simula 67. However the first language to be really successful with this new approach in programming was Smalltalk. These languages fulfilled the basics needed for OOP. With a slow and steady development OOP became a more and more used concept in new developed programming languages [\[KOP09\]](#).

Since the teaching of programming languages like Java took place in a wide range of university classes, OOP became more and more relevant to companies. This lies in the fact that graduates from all over the world tend to know how to use at least one OOP language. The fact that more and more companies made use of OOP languages in their software solutions pushed their popularity even further.

Nowadays OOP is the most spread concept between all programming languages. Besides their teaching all over the globe their popularity can be derived from the fact that problems from the real world can easily be transferred into the programming world. It is simple to imagine a button in a graphical interface to be an object with certain properties. Even non OOP languages nowadays tend to use object similar approaches as you can see with the programming language Go in [Chapter 5. Object Oriented Programming in Go](#) [\[KOP09\]](#). Sometimes this works out well, but the OOP approach turns out to be the better way in most of this cases.

## 3. Object Oriented Programming

As we learned in chapter [2. History of OOP](#), OOP is a widely spread concept in modern programming languages. It takes proceedings from the real world into a programming context. This is because of the fact that you can declare every instance from the real world as an object. These objects on the other hand can be put in context and interact with each other. These traits of OOP are called classification and inheritance. With that in mind every object needs his own class with its own methods to interact with each other [\[KOP09\]](#). In the following chapter we will learn how a class in OOP is structured and what base concepts OOP uses to set classes in context with each other and how they are visible outside of the object. The extend to which a programming language uses these concepts defines how much of an OOP language it is.

## 3.1 Classification

Classification is a technique used to classify objects due to their skills. During the process objects are structured (chapter [3.3 Inheritance](#)) and the skills are assigned to the objects class.

A class describes and implements a new type of object. Objects in OOP are derived from that class. Every class consists of several attributes and methods. An object kann be created using the class as kind of a datatype with parameters. The added parameters are assigned to the attributes in the constructor of the class. The created object interacts independently from other objects with the environment using the methods provided by the base class.

The methods of a class are declared in an interface. This can be used by other classes to interact with the classes objects using these methods [\[KOP09\]](#).

## 3.2 Encapsulation

Encapsulation is used for hiding the objects information from the environent. It is uesd to protect the attributes values of the object from manipulation. This is done by declaring the attributes visibility. If an attribute is declared as not visible from outside the object it can only be accessed by using methods declared in the inteface of the objects class. Methods can also be declared in different visibility states depending on the programming language.

An encapsulated object can only be interacted with via the methods declared in the interface. Every attribute or method not mentioned in the interface is neither accessible nor visible from outside [\[KOP09\]](#).

## 3.3 Inheritance

As in chapter [3.1 Classification](#) mentioned, Objects in OOP are structured by their skills and abilities. In OOP every Object is derived from a parent object. The resulting child object is able to use the functionality of the parent and its own. This property is called inheritance.

With the use of inheritance it is possible to reuse the previous defined structures or to make use of an abstract object which can be specified in the child object. This helps the programmer to reduce the complexitiy and effort of the programm.

Especially the use of an abstract class can be very useful. This is the case when a program makes use of different objects that contain several equal attributes. In this case the abstract class defines the base attributes and the child objects inherit them and implement their functionality for them [\[KOP09\]](#).

## 3.4 Polymorphism

A synonym for polymorphism is diversity. Taking this into the context of programming languages, polymorphism is the approach to accept and return values of more than one datatype.

OOP uses this functionality with its inheritance (chapter [3.3 Inheritance](#)). This allows the use of different objects as parameters and/or return values.

## 3.5 Persistence

Persistence stands for the lifetime an object exists in the program after it is created. There are some different approaches depending on the used programming language. While in C++ the user is responsible for deleting the created objects after their use expired, languages like Java use a so called "garbage collector".

Having this in mind, languages with a garbage collector are for no use in safety related software, because a fast reaction to a problem can not be guaranteed if the garbage collector interrupts the program at the exact moment of a emergency. An automatic memory management on the other hand is much less bug prone due to the lower complexity [\[KOP09\]](#).

# 4. Object Oriented Programming in Objective-C

The programming language Objective-C was developed to extend the functionalities of the popular C programming language with OOP. This took place in the early 80s after the rising popularity of the UNIX Operating System (OS), which was almost completely developed in C. The developer of Objective-C Brad J. Cox wanted to create a whole new programming language by using C and combining it with the Smalltalk-80 language. After the Apple company acquired the rights to Objective-C in 1996 it introduced possibilities for development on their Mac OS X.

In 2007 the Apple company introduced the first iPhone. In the same year Apple reworked the Objective-C programming language and released Objective-C 2.0. The popularity of this programming language come from the fact that applications for the iPhone are developed with Objective-C [\[OC209\]](#).

Today Objective-C is the primary programming language for OS X and iOS applications. Due to the combination of the C syntax, types and flow control statements with the possibility to define classes and methods, it suits optimal to develop these applications because of the fact that they use OOP mostly all of the time.

To develop these applications apple provides his own integrated development environment (IDE) with the name Xcode. It is also necessary to use a Mac computer to use this application, because it is

only available in the Mac App Store [\[POC20\]](#). As for the fact that Objective-C is a pure OOP language it provides all the features discussed in chapter [3. Object Oriented Programming](#). The following chapters explain how they work and what may be special about them.

## 4.1 Classification with Objective-C

The usage of classes in Objective-C is a very common task. This is because of the fact, that it is used to develop applications and every part of an application either is an object or communicates with one. Apple provides a large library of predefined classes with the names Cocoa (Mac OS X) and Cocoa Touch (IOs). These classes can either be used directly or personalised for the applications purpose.

Since everything in Objective-C can be achieved with classes they are structured very similar to Java or C++ classes. As can be read in chapter [4.3 Inheritance with Objective-C](#) all classes are inheritad from the root class NSObject. Every Objective-C class has an @interface and @implementation section. While the @interface usually is located in the header file .h the @implementation is implemented in the source file with the file ending .m.

The @interface section of the class defines its name, parent class (e.g. NSObject), attributes and methods. It is used to define the contents of the class and for other class instances to see what methods can be called on the objects of the class. The following example shows how this can be implemented.

*Example implementation of an interface in Objective-C*

```
1 # The head of interface MyClass with parent Class NSObject
2 @interface MyClass: NSObject
3 {
4     # The attributes of MyClass
5     int attribute1;
6     char attribute2;
7 }
8 # Methods of MyClass
9 - (void) setAttributes: (int) i over: (char) c;
10 @end
```

The implementation of the defined methods can be done as follows.

*Example implementation of the defined methods in Objective-C*

```
1 @implementation MyClass
2 # Implementation of the setAttributes Method defined in @interface
3 - (void) setAttributes: (int) i: (char) c
4 {
5     attribute1 = i;
6     attribute2 = c;
7 }
8 @end
```

To create an instance of a class in Objective-C you have to allocate memory and initialize it first. Afterwards you can interact with the object. If your class does not provide an own init function the init function calls the NSObject init function as default. The alloc function is implemented in NSObject as well [\[OC209\]](#).

*Example implementation of the initialisation and usage of an object in Objective-C*

```
1 # Allocate memory and initialize the object myInstance as an instance from MyClass
2 # If no attributes are needed you can also write [MyClass new]
3 MyClass *myInstance = [[MyClass alloc] init];
4 # Call the method setAttributes on the created object
5 [myInstance setAttributes: 3: 'c'];
```



As for the fact that an Objective-C compiler is able to compile C and C++ code it is possible to combine C, C++ and Objective-C Code in one file and compile it.

## 4.2 Encapsulation with Objective-C

In Objective-C one can implement attributes in the following three states of protection:

- **private** (Accessible only from within the class)
- **protected** (Accessible only from within the class and its subclasses)
- **public** (Accessible in the whole program)

Therefore Objective-C supports encapsulation. The way it is achieved however is more laborious than in similar programming languages like Java.

Attributes which are declared in the interface are visible per default. To change the accessibility one has to define getter and setter methods. This can be done by declaring properties. Objective-C defines the getters and setters automatically when there is a @property tag in front of the attribute. This property tag can be supplied with attributes (e.g. readonly) as well. The following code snippet shows how the protected and public accessibilities can be achieved. To declare a private attribute it has to be implemented only in the @implementation section outside of the methods [\[POC20\]](#).

*Encapsulation private, protected and public in Objective-C*

```
1 @interface MyClass: NSObject
2
3 # Protected is achieved with the nonatomic property attribute
4 @property (nonatomic) int attribute;
5
6 # Public is achieved by declaring public accessible getters and setters
7 - (void) setAttribute;
8 @end
```





The problem with the nonatomic attribute of the @property tag is the fact, that it can not be guaranteed that it is accessible at this exact moment due to other threads accessing it [\[POC20\]](#).



To call a method of the class inside of another method of the same class you can use the keyword self. This refers to the class and the compiler is able to assign the correct method. An example call should be [self mySecondMethod] [\[OC209\]](#).

## 4.3 Inheritance with Objective-C

## 4.4 Polymorphism with Objective-C

## 4.5 Persistence with Objective-C

As it is common in OOP languages Objective-C has a garbage collector. Its purpose is to delete unused objects like it is stated in chapter [3.5 Persistence](#). Regardless of this fact it is proper style to delete instances of classes after they are not needed anymore. This has two main reasons.

First of all the Objective-C garbage collector is not available on all apple platforms like e.g. the iPhone. Additionally Objective-C is a derivative of C. As it is common knowledge C and C++ are languages where it is essential to maintain the device storage by yourself. If it is not done properly it results in unnecessary high storage workload and can even lead to a crash of the OS. Therefore the maintenance of the programs instances should be taken care of very carefully in Objective-C.

To release the memory used by an instance you just need to add a command like seen in the following code snippet after the instance is not needed anymore.

*Example release of an instance in Objective-C*

```
1 # This releases the instance and frees the memory
2 [ myInstance release ]
```

The release function like alloc and init does not need to be implemented by the class. This function is also inherited of NSObject [\[OC209\]](#).

## 5. Object Oriented Programming in Go

The programming language Go was introduced by Google in 2009. It has been developed since by a team at Google and a lot of other contributors from the open source community. The BSD style license it was released with allowed the community the further development to this day .

Its initial cause was to create a language that is more accessible and save than C/C++ in terms of syntax, compile time and functionality. The focus was to develop an easier solution for scalable network services and cloud computing. Whilst Go differs in many ways from the C programming language, its roots with this language are preserved in the fact, that it still uses C like pointers. But they do not support pointer arithmetic which is because of the fact, that Go puts his focus on fast compiling [GOL20].

Go does a balancing act between velocity and accessibility. Its purpose is to deliver a solution which is faster than competing languages like python [WSP20] and more accessible than the really fast languages C and C++. Sadly Go does not fit well with GUI development or the development of embedded systems [COP20].

In terms of OOP even Google is not sure whether or not Go is an OOP language. The total absence of some features, which are discussed later in this chapter, could lead to the conclusion that Go simply is no OOP language. But at least it can be argued, that Go allows an OOP like style of programming [IGO18]. The degree to which Go differs from classic programming languages like C++ or Java will be discussed in the following chapters.

### 5.1 Classification with Go

Go does not provide a classic syntax for creating a class. Go does not even provide classes in general. To achieve a classification Go uses structs similar to structs in the C programming language. The following code snippet shows how a class is implemented in Go.

*Example for a class in Go*

```
1 # This is the type containing the attributes of the class ClassA
2 type ClassA struct {
3     color color.Color
4     name  string
5 }
6
7 # This is a method of class ClassA
8 func (c ClassA) SayName() {
9     fmt.Println(name);
10 }
```

This states out that a struct is a user defined type that can hold a list of attributes. In combination with functions using the struct as base, as shown in the snippet, Go is able to offer similar functionality than other languages by using classes [COP20].

## 5.2 Encapsulation with Go

Classic OOP languages use keywords like "protected", "private" and "public" to encapsulate attributes and methods of their classes. Go does offer a different approach.

Go encapsulates on package level by differentiating between lower or upper case on the first letter of the method, type or interface name.

*Encapsulating possibilities in Go*

```
1 # This is a public struct due to the capital letter
2 type ClassA struct {}
3
4 #This is a private struct due to the lower case letter
5 type classB struct { x, y float64 }
6
7 #This is a private method due ot the lower case letter
8 func (c *ClassA) string() string {
9     return fmt.Println("I can only be called inside my package")
10 }
11
12 # This is a public method due to the capital letter
13 func (c *ClassA) Draw() {
14     fmt.Println("I can be called from outside my package")
15 }
```

As is seen in the above code snippet one can make some methods of a struct private and others public. Even structs can be declared private. This allows the base concept of encapsulation even if it is not as convenient like in other OOP languages as mentioned before. Calling the encapsulating functions public or private is not completely correct, since it is more of a controll mechanism to allow the export of a function, type or interface [\[IGO18\]](#).



If you declare a method with a parameter in front of the method name you can conveniently call it like for example "myStruct.myFunction()". The Go compiler compiles it like a normal parameter after the function name anyway. So this is just syntactic sugar which gives you the illusion to write and call a real OOP method [\[IGO18\]](#).

## 5.3 Inheritance with Go

The Go programming language does not implement inheritance in any way. This beeing said Go has is own way to map relationships between types. Therefore it uses composition instead of inheritance.

Languages like Java and C++ require the programmer to know the relationships of his objects at first implementation. Additionally multiple inheritance can get very complex very fast. Therefore the developers of Go made the choice to implement a lightweight alternative, which allows the implementation of relationships between types [\[FAQ20\]](#).

*Inheritance alternative approach in Go*

```
1 # Class A
2 type ClassA struct { x, y float64 }
3
4 # Class B extends ClassA
5 type ClassB struct {
6     c    ClassA # ClassB embedding a classA instance extends ClassA with the
7     num  int    # attributes of ClassB
8 }
```

That being said we do not speak so much of ClassA inherits from ClassB as ClassA extends ClassB by embedding a ClassB instance in the struct of ClassA. Go also supports overriding functions. Overloading a function like in Java however is not possible with Go [\[COP20\]](#).

## 5.4 Polymorphism with Go

Since Go does not support inheritance but follows the principle of composition there is a different approach to polymorphism than usual. To achieve the treatment of different objects uniformly it implements interfaces implicitly [\[IGO18\]](#). This leads to a very intuitive approach as can be seen in the following code snippet.

```
1 # Interface for the polymorphism methods
2 type getAttributes interface {
3     getArea() float64
4 }
5
6 type square struct {
7     length float64
8 }
9
10 type rectangle struct {
11     width float64
12     height float64
13 }
14 # The implementation of getArea() for square
15 func (s square) getArea() float64 {
16     return s.length * 2
17 }
18 # The implementation of getArea() for rectangle
19 func (r rectangle) getArea() float64 {
20     return r.width * r.height
21 }
22 # The function to call to get the output for all objects with a getArea() method
23 func calcArea(a getAttributes) {
24     fmt.Println("The area of the attribute is:", a.getArea())
25 }
26
27 func main() {
28     s := square{length: 4}
29     r := rectangle{width: 2, height: 3}
30     calcArea(s) # The area of the attribute is: 8
31     calcArea(r) # The area of the attribute is: 6
32 }
```

In this example code there are two structs that implement the same function `getArea()`. Both have different approaches since rectangle and square areas are calculated differently. The interface `getAttributes` is basically a named collection for all method signatures defined by the interface. This interface allows the call of methods contained by it and therefore we can call the `calcArea` function on square and rectangle and the respective methods are called. This means that Go delivers a very intuitive way of polymorphism.

## 5.5 Persistence with Go

As mentioned in chapter [3.5 Persistence](#) OOP languages often use a garbage collector, which is responsible for deleting unused objects. Go also makes use of such a garbage collection. This results in the fact that the programmer does not need to care about deleting objects. On the other hand is

Go no fit for programming a system with high safety requirements [\[IGO18\]](#).

## **6. Differences between Go and Objective-C regarding OOP**

### **6. Summary**

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# List of Figures

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