



Objective-C for Absolute Beginners

iPhone, iPad and Mac Programming
Made Easy

—

Third Edition

—

Gary Bennett
Brad Lees
Mitchell Fisher

Apress®

www.allitebooks.com

Objective-C for Absolute Beginners

iPhone, iPad and Mac Programming
Made Easy

Third Edition



Gary Bennett

Brad Lees

Mitchell Fisher

Apress®

Objective-C for Absolute Beginners: iPhone, iPad and Mac Programming Made Easy

Gary Bennett
Scottsdale, Arizona, USA

Brad Lees
Phoenix, Arizona, USA

Mitchell Fisher
Boston, Massachusetts, USA

ISBN-13 (pbk): 978-1-4842-1903-4
DOI 10.1007/978-1-4842-1904-1

ISBN-13 (electronic): 978-1-4842-1904-1

Library of Congress Control Number: 2016960200

Copyright © 2016 by Gary Bennett, Brad Lees and Mitchell Fisher

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed.

Trademarked names, logos, and images may appear in this book. Rather than use a trademark symbol with every occurrence of a trademarked name, logo, or image we use the names, logos, and images only in an editorial fashion and to the benefit of the trademark owner, with no intention of infringement of the trademark.

The use in this publication of trade names, trademarks, service marks, and similar terms, even if they are not identified as such, is not to be taken as an expression of opinion as to whether or not they are subject to proprietary rights.

While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

Managing Director: Welmoed Spahr

Lead Editor: Aaron Black

Technical Reviewer: Stefan Kaczmarek

Editorial Board: Steve Anglin, Pramila Balan, Laura Berendson, Aaron Black, Louise Corrigan,

Jonathan Gennick, Robert Hutchinson, Celestin Suresh John, Nikhil Karkal, James Markham,

Susan McDermott, Matthew Moodie, Natalie Pao, Gwenan Spearing

Coordinating Editor: Jessica Vakili

Copy Editor: Kim Wimpsett

Compositor: SPi Global

Indexer: SPi Global

Artist: SPi Global

Distributed to the book trade worldwide by Springer Science+Business Media New York, 233 Spring Street, 6th Floor, New York, NY 10013. Phone 1-800-SPRINGER, fax (201) 348-4505, e-mail orders-ny@springer-sbm.com, or visit www.springeronline.com. Apress Media, LLC is a California LLC and the sole member (owner) is Springer Science + Business Media Finance Inc (SSBM Finance Inc). SSBM Finance Inc is a Delaware corporation.

For information on translations, please e-mail rights@apress.com, or visit www.apress.com.

Apress and friends of ED books may be purchased in bulk for academic, corporate, or promotional use. eBook versions and licenses are also available for most titles. For more information, reference our Special Bulk Sales-eBook Licensing web page at www.apress.com/bulk-sales.

Any source code or other supplementary materials referenced by the author in this text are available to readers at www.apress.com. For detailed information about how to locate your book's source code, go to www.apress.com/source-code/. Readers can also access source code at SpringerLink in the Supplementary Material section for each chapter.

Printed on acid-free paper

*Gary would like to dedicate this book to his wife, Stefanie, and children,
Michael, Danielle, Michelle, and Emily, for always supporting him.*

*Mitch would like to dedicate this book to his family that supported him
through all the long nights, especially his wife Heather,
and his children, Jade, Eric, and Matthew*

Contents at a Glance

About the Authors.....	xv
About the Technical Reviewer	xvii
Introduction	xix
■ Chapter 1: Becoming a Great iOS or Mac Programmer	1
■ Chapter 2: Programming Basics.....	11
■ Chapter 3: It's All About the Data	35
■ Chapter 4: Making Decisions About...and Planning Program Flow	59
■ Chapter 5: Object-Oriented Programming with Objective-C.....	83
■ Chapter 6: Learning Objective-C and Xcode	101
■ Chapter 7: Objective-C Classes, Objects, and Methods	127
■ Chapter 8: Programming Basics in Objective-C	153
■ Chapter 9: Comparing Data	207
■ Chapter 10: Creating User Interfaces	223
■ Chapter 11: Storing Information.....	243
■ Chapter 12: Protocols and Delegates	273
■ Chapter 13: Introducing the Xcode Debugger	277
Index.....	291

Contents

About the Authors	xv
About the Technical Reviewer	xvii
Introduction	xix
■ Chapter 1: Becoming a Great iOS or Mac Programmer	1
Thinking like a Developer	1
Completing the Development Cycle	4
Introducing Object-Oriented Programming	5
Working with the Alice Interface	8
Summary	10
Exercises	10
■ Chapter 2: Programming Basics	11
Taking a Tour with Alice.....	11
Navigation Menu.....	12
Editing a Scene.....	13
Classes, Objects, and Instances in Alice.....	15
Object Tree.....	16
Editor Area	17
Details Area	17
Events Area.....	17
Creating an Alice App—To the Moon, Alice	17
Your First Objective-C Program	26
Launching and Using Xcode	26

Summary	33
Exercises	33
■ Chapter 3: It's All About the Data	35
Numbering Systems Used in Programming	35
Bits	35
Bytes.....	37
Hexadecimal	39
Unicode.....	40
Data Types	40
Using Variable and Data Types with Alice.....	41
Data Types and Objective-C.....	50
Identifying Problems	55
Summary	57
Exercises	57
■ Chapter 4: Making Decisions About...and Planning Program Flow	59
Boolean Logic.....	59
Truth Tables	60
Comparison Operators.....	62
Designing Apps.....	63
Pseudo-code.....	63
Design Requirements	65
Flowcharting.....	68
Designing and Flowcharting an Example App	69
The App's Design	70
Using Loops to Repeat Program Statements.....	72
Coding the Example App in Alice	74
Coding the Example App in Objective-C	75
Nested if Statements and else-if Statements.....	79
Removing Extra Characters	79

Improving the Code Through Refactoring	80
Running the App	80
Moving Forward Without Alice.....	81
Summary.....	81
Exercises.....	82
■ Chapter 5: Object-Oriented Programming with Objective-C.....	83
The Object	83
What Is a Class?	84
Planning Classes	85
Planning Properties	85
Planning Methods.....	87
Implementing the Classes	89
Inheritance	96
Why Use OOP?.....	97
It Is Everywhere	97
Eliminate Redundant Code	97
Ease of Debugging.....	97
Ease of Replacement.....	98
Advanced Topics.....	98
Interface	98
Polymorphism.....	98
Summary.....	98
Exercises.....	99
■ Chapter 6: Learning Objective-C and Xcode	101
A Brief History of Objective-C.....	101
Understanding the Language Symbols and Basic Syntax	102
Create a Variable	102
Begin and End a Section of Code	102
Signify the End of a Line of Code.....	103

Write a Comment.....	103
Define a Class.....	104
Define a Method	104
Define an Objective-C Variable	105
Call a Method.....	105
Putting the “Objective” into Objective-C	105
Writing Another Program in Xcode	108
Creating the Project.....	109
Summary.....	125
Exercises	126
■ Chapter 7: Objective-C Classes, Objects, and Methods	127
Creating an Objective-C Class.....	127
Declaring Interfaces and Properties (Instance Variables).....	128
Calling Methods.....	129
Working with the Implementation File.....	131
Coding Your Methods.....	132
Using Your New Class.....	133
Updating MyFirstApp	133
Adding Objects	135
Writing the Implementation File	139
Updating the User Interface.....	140
Hooking Up the Code	143
Accessing the Xcode Documentation.....	150
Summary.....	151
Exercises	152
■ Chapter 8: Programming Basics in Objective-C	153
Collections.....	153
Using NSSet.....	154
Using NSArray.....	155
NSDictionary.....	156

Using the Mutable Container Classes.....	157
NSMutableSet.....	157
NSMutableArray.....	158
NSMutableDictionary.....	159
Creating the BookStore Application.....	160
Introducing Instance Variables	166
Accessing Properties.....	167
Custom Getter and Setter	168
Finishing the MyBookstore Program	169
Creating the Initial View.....	175
The Bookstore Object	180
Using the Bookstore Object	183
Preparing the Table View	184
The Book Detail View.....	185
Setting Up the Outlets.....	199
Plugging in the Book Details.....	202
Summary.....	204
Exercises.....	205
■ Chapter 9: Comparing Data	207
Revisiting Boolean Logic	207
Using Relational Operators.....	208
Comparing Numbers.....	208
Creating an Example Xcode App.....	209
Using Boolean Expressions	214
Comparing Strings.....	215
Comparing Dates	217
Combining Comparisons.....	219
Using the switch Statement.....	220
Summary.....	221
Exercises.....	221

■ Chapter 10: Creating User Interfaces	223
Understanding Interface Builder	224
The Model-View-Controller	224
Human Interface Guidelines	226
Creating an Example iPhone App with Interface Builder	227
Using Interface Builder	232
The Document Outline	233
The Object Library	234
Creating the View	235
Using Outlets	237
Connecting Actions and Objects	239
Implementation File	239
Summary	240
Exercises	241
■ Chapter 11: Storing Information	243
Storage Considerations	243
Preferences	243
Writing Preferences	244
Reading Preferences	245
Databases	245
Storing Information in a Database	245
Getting Started with Core Data	246
The Model	248
Managed Object Context	258
Setting Up the Interface	258
Summary	270
Exercises	271

■ Chapter 12: Protocols and Delegates	273
Multiple Inheritance	273
Understanding Protocols	274
Protocol Syntax.....	275
Understanding Delegates	275
Next Steps	276
Summary	276
■ Chapter 13: Introducing the Xcode Debugger	277
Getting Started with Debugging	277
Setting Breakpoints	278
Using the Breakpoint Navigator	280
Debugging Basics	282
Working with the Debugger Controls.....	283
Using the Step Controls	284
Looking at the Thread Window and Call Stack	286
Debugging Variables	286
Dealing with Code Errors and Warnings.....	288
Warnings.....	288
Summary	290
Exercises	290
Index	291

About the Authors



Gary Bennett is president of xcelMe.com. xcelMe teaches iPhone/iPad programming courses online. Gary has taught hundreds of students how to develop iPhone/iPad apps and has several popular apps on the iTunes Apps Store. Gary's students have some of the best-selling apps on the iTunes App Store. Gary also worked for 25 years in the technology and defense industries. He served 10 years in the U.S. Navy as a nuclear engineer aboard two nuclear submarines. After leaving the Navy, Gary worked for several companies as a software developer, CIO, and president. As CIO, he helped take VistaCare public in 2002. Gary also co-authored *Swift 3 for Absolute Beginners* for Apress. Gary lives in Scottsdale, Arizona, with his wife, Stefanie, and their four children.



Brad Lees has more than 12 years of experience in application development and server management. He has specialized in creating and initiating software programs in real-estate development systems and financial institutions. His career has been highlighted by his positions as information systems manager at the Lyle Anderson Company; product development manager for Smarsh; vice president of application development for iNation; and IT manager at the Orcutt/Winslow Partnership, the largest architectural firm in Arizona. A graduate of Arizona State University, Brad and his wife, Natalie, reside in Phoenix with their five children.

■ ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Mitchell Fisher is a software developer in the Boston, Massachusetts area. He was introduced to PCs in the 1980s when 64 KB was a lot of memory and 1 MHz was considered a fast computer. Over the last 25 years, Mitch has worked for several large and medium-sized companies in the roles of software developer and software architect and has led several teams of developers on multimillion-dollar projects. Mitch now divides his time between writing iOS applications and server-side UNIX technologies.

About the Technical Reviewer



Stefan Kaczmarek has more than 15 years of software development experience specializing in mobile applications, large-scale software systems, project management, network protocols, encryption algorithms, and audio/video codecs. As chief software architect and cofounder of SKJM, LLC, Stefan has developed a number of successful mobile applications including iCam (which has been featured on CNN, *Good Morning America*, and *The Today Show*, and which was chosen by Apple to be featured in the “Dog Lover” iPhone 3GS television commercial) and iSpy Cameras (which held the #1 Paid iPhone App ranking in a number of countries around the world including the United Kingdom, Ireland, Italy, Sweden, and South Korea). Stefan resides in Phoenix, Arizona, with his wife, Veronica, and their two children.

Introduction

Over the past seven years, we've heard this countless times: "I've never programmed before, but I have a great idea for an iPhone/iPad app. Can I really learn to program the iPhone or iPad?" We always answer, "Yes, but you have to believe you can." Only you are going to tell yourself you can't do it.

For the Newbie

This book assumes you may have never programmed before. It was also written for people who may have never programmed before using object-oriented programming (OOP) languages. There are lots of Objective-C books, but all of these books assume you have programmed before and know OOP. We wanted to write a book that takes readers from knowing nothing about programming to being able to program in Objective-C.

Over the last seven years we have taught thousands of students at xcelMe.com to be iPhone/iPad developers. We have incorporated what we have learned in our first two courses, "Introduction to Object-Oriented Programming and Logic" and "Objective-C for iPhone/iPad Developers," into this book.

For the More Experienced

There are lots of developers who programmed years ago or programmed in a non-OOP language and need the background in OOP and logic before they dive into Objective-C. This book is for you. We gently walk you through OOP and how it is used in iPhone/iPad development.

Why Alice: An Innovative 3D Programming Environment

Over the years, universities have struggled with several issues with their computer science departments:

- High male-to-female ratios
- High drop-out rates
- Longer than average time to graduation

One of the biggest challenges to learning OOP languages like Java, C++, or Objective-C is the steep learning curve from the beginning. In the past, students had to learn the following topics all at once:

- Object-oriented principles
- A complex integrated development environment (IDE)
- The syntax of the programming language
- Programming logic and principles

Carnegie Mellon University received a grant from the U.S. government and developed Alice. Alice is an innovative 3D programming environment that makes it easy to create rich graphical applications for new developers. Alice is a teaching tool for students learning to program in an OOP environment. It uses 3D graphics and a drag-and-drop interface to facilitate a more engaging, less frustrating first programming experience.

Alice enables you to focus on learning the principles of OOP without having to focus on learning a complex IDE and Objective-C principles all at once. You get to focus on each topic individually. This helps readers feel a real sense of accomplishment as they progress.

Alice removes all the complexity of learning an IDE and programming language syntax. It is drag-and-drop programming. You'll see it is actually fun to do, and you can develop really cool and sophisticated apps in Alice.

After the OOP topic has been introduced and you feel comfortable with the material, we then move into Xcode, where you will get to use your new OOP knowledge in writing Objective-C applications. This enables you to focus on the Objective-C syntax and language without having to learn OOP at the same time.

How This Book Is Organized

You'll notice that we are all about successes in this book. We introduce the OOP and logic concepts in Alice and then move those concepts into Xcode and Objective-C. Most students are visual and learn by doing. We use both of these techniques. We'll walk you through topics and concepts with visual examples and then take you step-by-step examples reinforcing these.

Often we will repeat previous topics to reinforce what you have learned and apply these skills in new ways. This enables new programmers to re-apply development skills and feel a sense of accomplishment as they progress.

The Formula for Success

Learning to program is an interactive process between you and your program. Just like learning to play an instrument, you have to practice. You must work through the examples and exercises in this book. Just because you understand the concept doesn't mean you will know how to apply it and use it.

You will learn a lot from this book. You will learn a lot from working through the exercises in this book. *But you will really learn when you debug your programs.* Spending time walking through your code and trying to find out why it is not working the way you want is a learning process that is unparalleled. The downside of debugging is it can be especially frustrating to the new developer. If you have never wanted to throw your computer out the window, you will. You will question why you are doing this and whether you are smart enough to solve the problem. Programming is humbling, even for the most experienced developer.

Like a musician, the more you practice the better you get. You can do some amazing things as a programmer. The world is your oyster. One of the most satisfying accomplishments you can have is seeing your app on the iTunes App Store. However, there is a price, and that price is time spent coding.

Here is our formula for success:

- Believe you can do it. You'll be the only one who says you can't do this. Don't tell yourself that.
- Work through all the examples and exercises in this book.
- Code, code, and keeping coding. The more you code, the better you'll get.
- Be patient with yourself. If you were fortunate enough to have been a 4.0 student who can memorize material just by reading it, this will not happen with Objective-C coding. You are going to have to spend time coding.
- Don't give up!

The Development Technology Stack

We will walk you through the process of understanding the development process for your iPhone/iPad apps and what technology is needed. However, it is helpful to briefly look at all the pieces together, in other words, a sample iPhone app, in a Table View. See Figure I-1.

Required Software, Materials, and Equipment

One of the great things about Alice is it is available on the three main operating systems used today.

- Windows
- Mac
- Linux

The other great thing about Alice is it is free! You can download Alice at www.Alice.org.

Operating System and IDE

Although you can use Alice on many platforms, the IDE that developers use to develop iPhone/iPad apps is Xcode. The IDE is free and is available in the Mac App Store.

Dual Monitors

It is highly recommended that developers have a second monitor connected to their computer. It is great to step through your code and watch your output window and iPad simulator at the same time on dual, independent monitors. Apple hardware makes this easy. Note it is not required to have dual monitors; you will just have to organize your open windows to fit on your screen if you don't.

To access the dual-monitor set up feature, go to Apple System Preferences and select Displays (see Figure I-1).

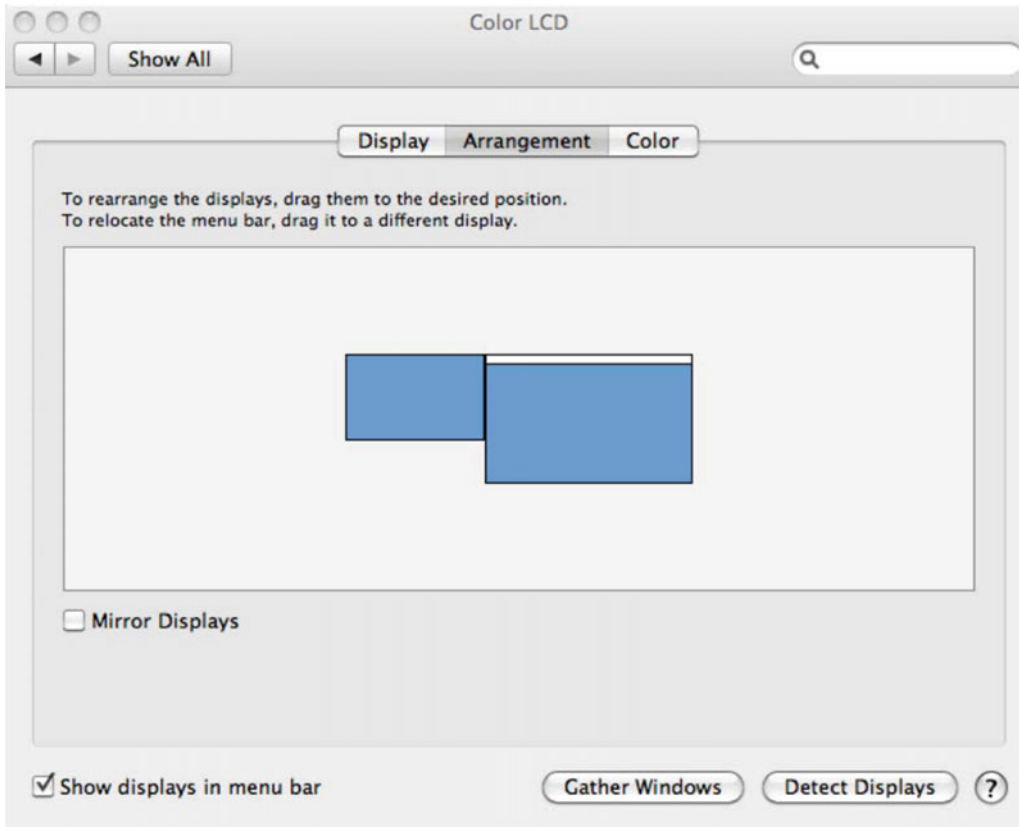


Figure I-1. Dual monitors

Book Forum

We have developed an online forum for this book at <http://forum.xcelme.com>, where you can ask us questions while you are learning Objective-C. See Figure I-2.


xcelMe.com
xcelMe Training Center And Interactive Developer Forum.

 [Board index](#)

FORUM

	<p>How Access Your Course Webinars And How To Use The Forum New students need to download the attached pdf and follow instructions to register for your webinars after you purchase the class. Additionally, there are directions and updates on how to access your course and forum, post questions, navigate the message board, watch training videos, etc. Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Book -> Objective-C for Absolute Beginners: iPhone and Mac Programming Made Easy Coming Summer 2010!! This forum contains all the assignments and questions readers may have for each chapter. Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Free Live Webinars for iPhone Developers This forum lists the schedule for upcoming live webinars for iPhone developers. Webinars are live and have limited seats. Current and former students get first notifications. Seats for all others is first-come-first serve. The sessions are recorded and will be made available to current and former students on this forum. Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Current Student & Alumni Recorded Webinars and More This Forum is for current and former students Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Interesting Technical News News related to iPhone Development Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Student/Instructor AppStore Applications Applications that xcelme instructors and students have successfully posted on iTunes AppStore. Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Marketing your app (Students Only) Ideas on how to market your iPhone applications. Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Intro to OOP and Logic (Students Only) Introduction to Object Oriented Programming and Logic Moderator: gary.bennett</p>
	<p>Objective-C 2.0 for iPhone Developers (Students Only) Objective-C 2.0 course for iPhone Developers. The 2nd Course in the series. Moderator: gary.bennett</p>

Figure I-2. Reader forum for accessing answers to exercise and posting questions for authors

CHAPTER 1



Becoming a Great iOS or Mac Programmer

Now that you're ready to become a software developer and have read the introduction of this book, you need to become familiar with several key concepts. Your computer program will do exactly what you tell it to do—no more and no less. It will follow the programming rules that were defined by the operating system and programming language. Your program doesn't care if you are having a bad day or how many times you ask it to perform something. Often, what you think you've told your program to do and what it actually does are two different things.

■ **Key to Success** If you haven't already, take a few minutes to read the introduction of this book. The introduction shows you where to go to access the free webinars, forums, and YouTube videos that go with each chapter. Also, you'll better understand why we are using the Alice programming environment and how to be successful in developing your iOS and Mac apps.

Depending on your background, working with something absolutely black and white may be frustrating. Many times, programming students have lamented, "That's not what I wanted it to do!" As you begin to gain experience and confidence programming, you'll begin to think like a programmer. You will understand software design and logic, and you will experience having your programs perform exactly as you want and the satisfaction associated with this.

Thinking like a Developer

Software development involves writing a computer program and then having a computer execute that program. A **computer program** is the set of instructions that you want the computer to perform. Before beginning to write a computer program, it is helpful to list the steps that you want your program to perform, in the order you want them accomplished. This step-by-step process is called an **algorithm**.

If you wanted to write a computer program to toast a piece of bread, you would first write an algorithm. This algorithm might look something like this:

1. Take the bread out of the bag.
2. Place the bread in the toaster.

3. Press the toast button.
4. Wait for the toast to pop up.
5. Remove the toast from the toaster.

At first glance, this algorithm seems to solve our problem. However, the algorithm leaves out many details and makes many assumptions. Here are some examples:

- What kind of toast does the user want? Does the user want white bread, wheat, or some other kind of bread?
- How does the user want the bread toasted? Light or dark?
- What does the user want on the bread after it is toasted: butter, margarine, honey, or strawberry jam?
- Does this algorithm work for all users in their cultures and languages? Some cultures may have another word for toast or not know what toast is.

Now, you might be thinking we are getting too detailed for just making a simple toast program. Over the years, software development has gained a reputation of taking too long, costing too much, and not being what the user wants. This reputation came to be because computer programmers often start writing their programs before they have really thought through their algorithms.

The key ingredients to making successful applications are **design requirements**. Design requirements can be formal and detailed or as simple as a list on a piece of paper. Design requirements are important because they help the developer flesh out what the application should do and not do when complete. Design requirements should not be completed in a programmer's vacuum but should be produced as the result of collaboration between developers, users, and customers.

■ **Note** If you take anything away from this chapter, take away the importance of considering design requirements and user interface design before starting software development. This is the most effective (and least expensive) use of time in the software development cycle. Using a pencil and eraser is a lot easier and faster than making changes to code because you didn't have others look at the designs before starting to program.

Another key ingredient to your successful app is the user interface (UI) design. Apple recommends you spend more than 50 percent of the entire development process focusing on the UI design. The design can be done using simple pencil and paper or using Xcode's storyboard feature to lay out your screen elements. Many software developers start with the UI design, and after laying out all the screen elements and having many users look at paper mock-ups, they then write the design requirements from their screen layouts.

After you have done your best to flesh out all the design requirements, laid out all the user interface screens, and had the client(s) or potential customers look at your design and give you feedback, coding can begin. Once coding begins, design requirements and user interface screens can change, but the changes are typically minor and easily accommodated by the development process. See Figures 1-1 and 1-2.

Figure 1-1 shows a mock-up of a mobile banking app screen prior to development using OmniGraffle. Developing mock-up screens along with design requirements forces developers to think through many of the applications usability issues before coding begins. This enables the application development time to be shortened and makes for a better user experience and better reviews on the App Store. Figure 1-2 shows how the view for the mobile banking app actually appears when completed.



Figure 1-1. This is a UI mock-up of the account balance screen for an iPhone mobile banking app before development begins on the original iPhone in 2010. This UI design mock-up was completed using OmniGraffle

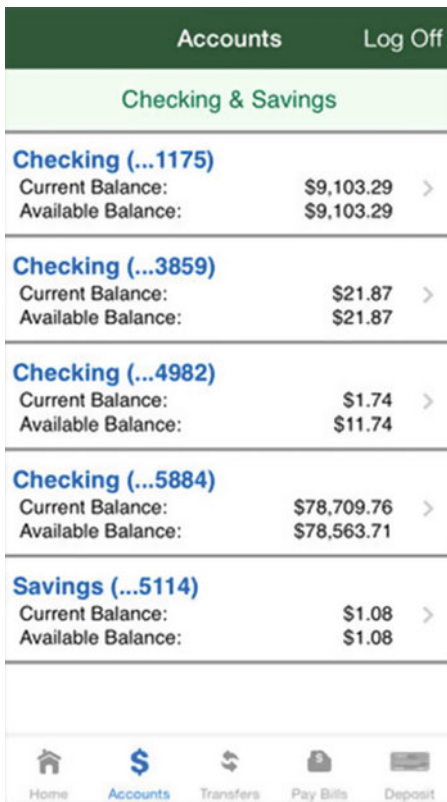


Figure 1-2. This is a completed iPhone mobile banking application as it appeared on the App Store after several revisions in 2015. This app is called Woodforest Mobile Banking

Completing the Development Cycle

Now that you have your design requirements and user interface designs and have written your program, what's next? After programming, you need to make sure your program matches the design requirements and user interface design and ensure that there are no errors. In programming vernacular, errors are called **bugs**. Bugs are undesired results of our programming and must be fixed before the app is released to the App Store. The process of finding bugs in programs and making sure the program meets the design requirements is called **testing**. Typically, someone who is experienced in software testing methodology and who didn't write the app performs this testing. Software testing is commonly referred to as **Quality Assurance (QA)**.

■ **Note** When an application is ready to be submitted to the App Store, Xcode gives the file an `.app` or `.ipa` extension, for example, `appName.app`. That is why iPhone, iPad, and Mac applications are called **apps**. This book uses **program**, **application**, and **app** to mean the same thing.

During the testing phase, the developer will need to work with QA staff to determine why the application is not working as designed. The process is called **debugging**. It requires the developer to step through the program to find out why the application is not working as designed. Figure 1-3 shows the complete software development cycle.

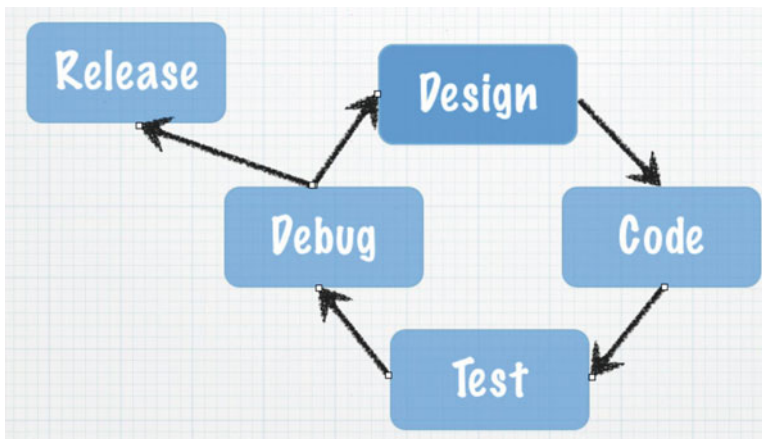


Figure 1-3. The typical software development cycle

Frequently during testing and debugging, changes to the requirements (design) must occur to make the application more usable for the customer. After the design requirements and user interface changes are made, the process begins over again.

At some point, the application that everyone has been working so hard on must be shipped to the App Store. Many considerations are taken into account when this happens.

- Cost of development
- Budget
- Stability of the application
- Return on investment

There is always the give-and-take between developers and management. Developers want the app perfect and management wants to start realizing revenue from the investment as soon as possible. If the release date were left up to the developers, the app would likely never ship to the App Store. Developers would continue to tweak the app forever, making it faster, more efficient, and more usable. At some point, however, the code needs to be pried from the developers' hands and uploaded to the App Store so it can do what it was meant to do.

Introducing Object-Oriented Programming

As discussed in detail in the introduction, Alice enables you to focus on **object-oriented programming (OOP)** without having to cover all the Objective-C programming syntax and complex Xcode development environment in one big step. Instead, you can focus on learning the basic principles of OOP and using those principles quickly to write your first programs.

For decades, developers have been trying to figure out a better way to develop code that is reusable, manageable, and easily maintained over the life of a project. OOP was designed to help achieve code reuse and maintainability while reducing the cost of software development.

OOP can be viewed as a collection of objects in a program. Actions are performed on these objects to accomplish the design requirements.

An **object** is anything that can be acted on. For example, an airplane, person, or screen/view on the iPad can all be objects. You may want to act on the plane by making the plane bank. You may want the person to walk or to change the color of the screen of an app on the iPad. Actions are all being applied to these objects; see Figure 1-4.



Figure 1-4. There are three objects in this Alice application: UFO, Rover, and Alien. The UFO object can have actions applied—takeoff and landing, turn right and turn left

Alice will run a program, such as the one shown in Figure 1-4, for you if you click the play button. When you run your Alice applications, the user can apply actions to the objects in your application. Similarly, Xcode is an **integrated development environment (IDE)** that enables you to run your application from within your programming environment. You can test your applications on your computers first before running them on your iOS devices by running the apps in Xcode’s iPhone simulator, as shown in Figure 1-5.



Figure 1-5. This sample iPhone app contains a table object to organize a list of courses. Actions such as “rotate left” or “user did select row 3” can be applied to this view object

Actions that are performed on objects are called **methods**. Methods manipulate objects to accomplish what you want your app to do. For example, for a jet object, you might have the following methods:

```
goUp
goDown
bankLeft
turnOnAfterburners
lowerLandingGear
```

The table object in Figure 1-5 is actually called `UITableView` when you use it in a program, and it could have the following methods:

```
numberOfRowsInSection
cellForRowAtIndexPath
canEditRowAtIndexPath
commitEditingStyle
didSelectRowAtIndexPath
```

Most objects have data that describes those objects. This data is defined as properties. Each property describes the associated object in a specific way. For example, the jet object's properties might be as follows:

```
altitude = 10,000 feet
heading = North
speed = 500 knots
pitch = 10 degrees
yaw = 20 degrees
latitude = 33.575776
longitude = -111.875766
```

For the UITableView object in Figure 1-5, the following might be the properties:

```
backgroundColor = Red
selectedRow = 3
animateView = No
```

An object's properties can be changed at any time when your program is running, when the user interacts with the app, or when the programmer designs the app to accomplish the design requirements. The values stored in the properties of an object at a specific time are collectively called the **state** of an object.

Working with the Alice Interface

Alice offers a great approach in using the concepts that we have just discussed without all the complexity of learning Xcode and the Objective-C language at the same time. It takes only a few minutes to familiarize yourself with the Alice interface and begin writing a program.

The introduction of this book describes how to download Alice. After it's downloaded and installed, you need to open Alice. It will look like Figure 1-6.

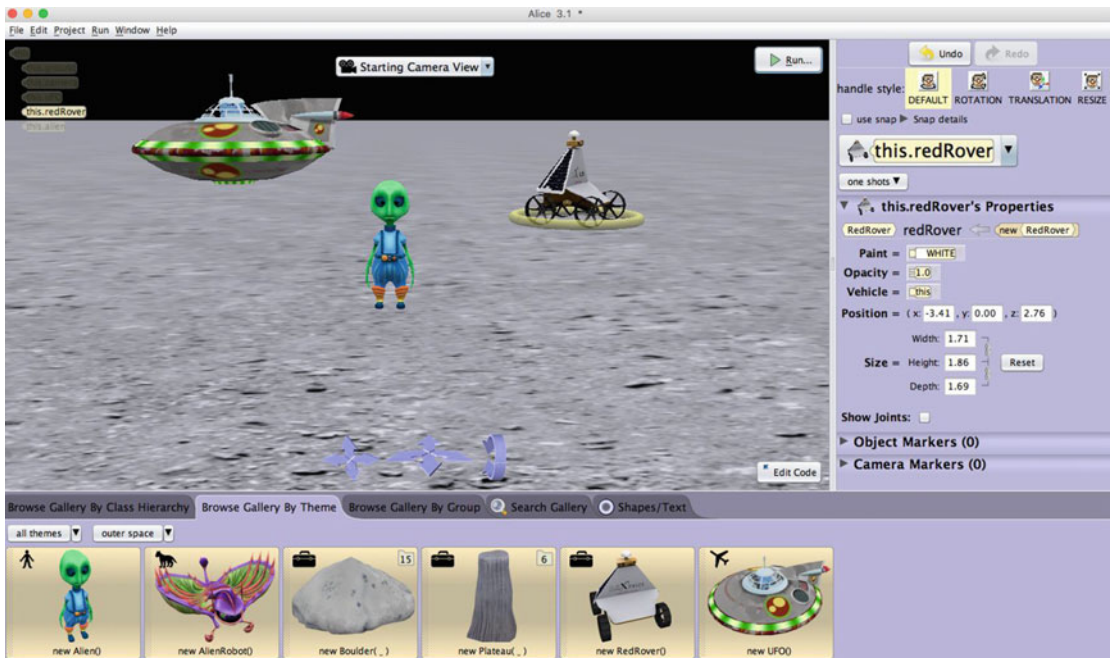


Figure 1-6. Alice IDE running

Technically speaking, Alice is not a true IDE like Xcode, but it is pretty close and much easier to learn than Xcode. A true IDE combines code development, user interface layout, debugging tools, documentation, and simulator/console launching for a single application; see Figure 1-7. However, Alice offers a similar look, feel, and features to Xcode. This will serve you well later when you start writing Objective-C code.

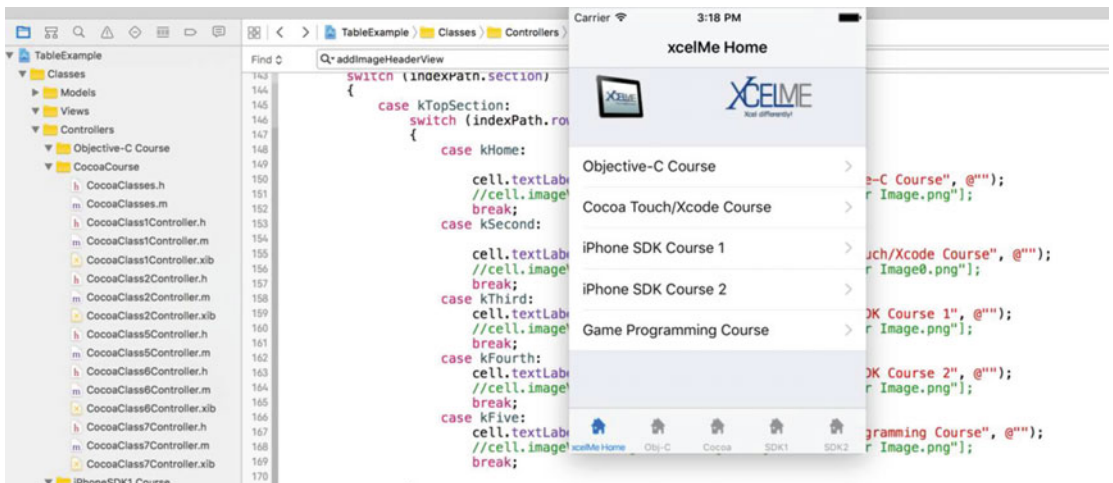


Figure 1-7. The Xcode IDE with the iPhone simulator

In the next chapter, you will go through the Alice interface and write your first program.

Summary

Congratulations, you have finished the first chapter of this book. It is important that you have an understanding of the following terms because they will be reinforced throughout this book:

- Computer program
- Algorithm
- Design requirements
- User interface
- Bug
- Quality assurance (QA)
- Debugging
- Object-oriented programming (OOP)
- Object
- Property
- Method
- State of an object
- Integrated development environment (IDE)

Exercises

- Answer the following questions:
 - Why is it so important to spend time on your user requirements?
 - What is the difference between design requirements and an algorithm?
 - What is the difference between a method and a property?
 - What is a bug?
 - What is state?
- Write an algorithm for how a soda machine works from the time a coin is inserted until a soda is dispensed. Assume the price of a soda is 80 cents.
- Write the design requirements for an app that will run the soda machine.

CHAPTER 2



Programming Basics

This chapter will focus on the building blocks that are necessary to become a great Objective-C programmer. This chapter will go over how to use the Alice user interface, how to write your first Alice program, and how to write your first Objective-C program; it will also explore some new OOP terms.

Note We want to introduce new concepts in Alice and later, in this chapter, enable you to use these concepts in Objective-C. We have used this approach for the last eight years and know, from personal experience, that this approach helps you learn the concepts quickly, without discouragement, and gives you a great foundation to build upon.

Taking a Tour with Alice

Alice's 3D programming environment makes it easy to write your first program, as it applies some of the principles that you learned in Chapter 1. First, you need to learn a little more about Alice's user interface. When you first launch Alice, you are presented with a screen that looks like Figure 2-1.

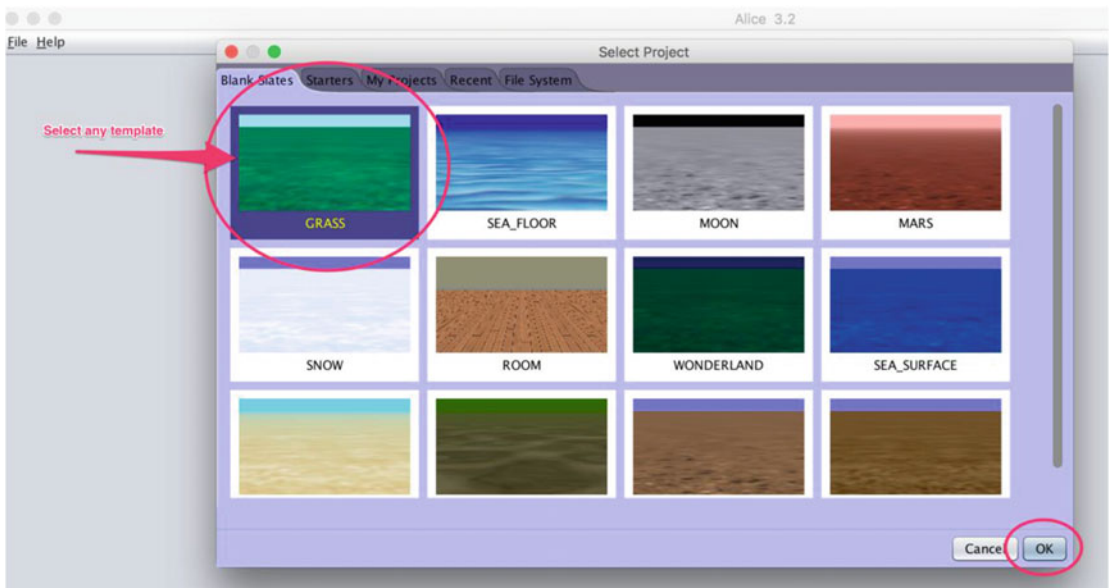


Figure 2-1. Opening screen in Alice

You can start with the blue sky and green grass template or pick another template with a different background. Feel free to explore and have fun. This is where you will spend most of your time and write your first Alice application.

The Alice user interface is set up to help you efficiently write your applications. The user interface is similar in form and function to the Xcode IDE. You will now explore the major sections of Alice.

Navigation Menu

The Navigation menu, shown in Figure 2-2, enables you to open and close files, set your application preferences, and view world statistics. You can also access example worlds and Alice Help from the Navigation menu.

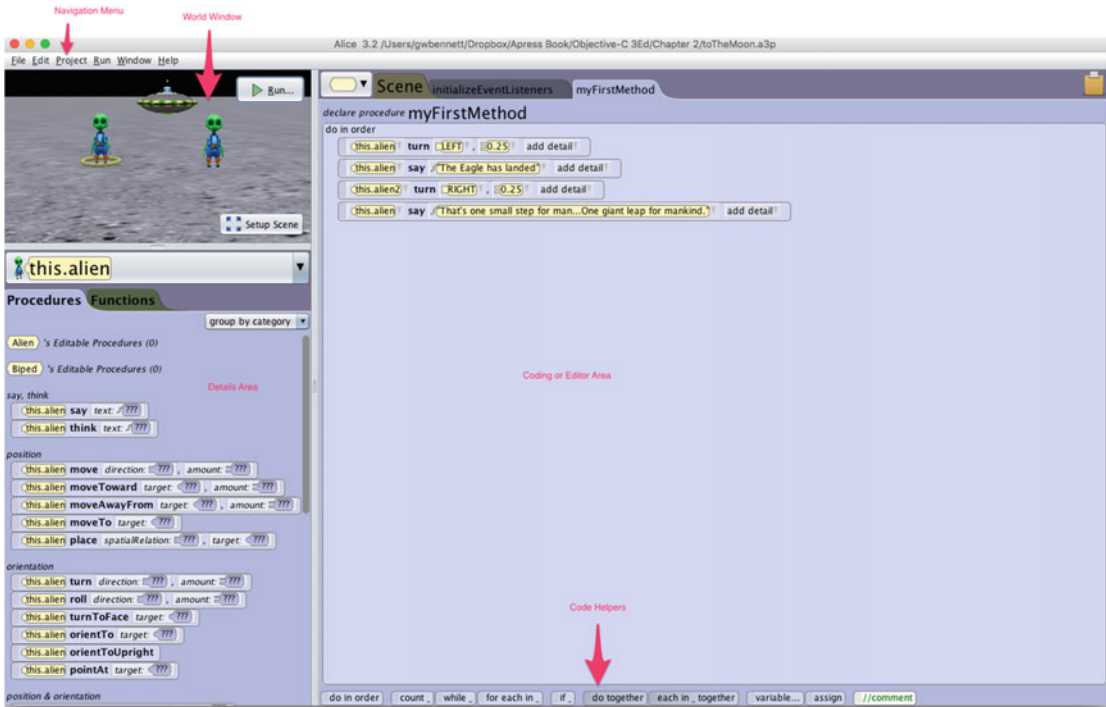


Figure 2-2. This shows the main sections of the Alice user interface. Take some time to explore the user interface. You will see in this chapter how it compares with Xcode and how it will help you learn Objective-C

■ **Note** It is important that you save your program frequently when using Alice. If Alice crashes and you haven't saved your work, you will lose all your code or changes since you last saved. Additionally, we recommend that you close Alice completely and reopen it when you want to open a new Alice program.

Editing a Scene

One of the most important Alice controls is the **Setup Scene** control. See Figure 2-3. When you click the Edit Scene button, you launch Alice's **Scene Editor**.

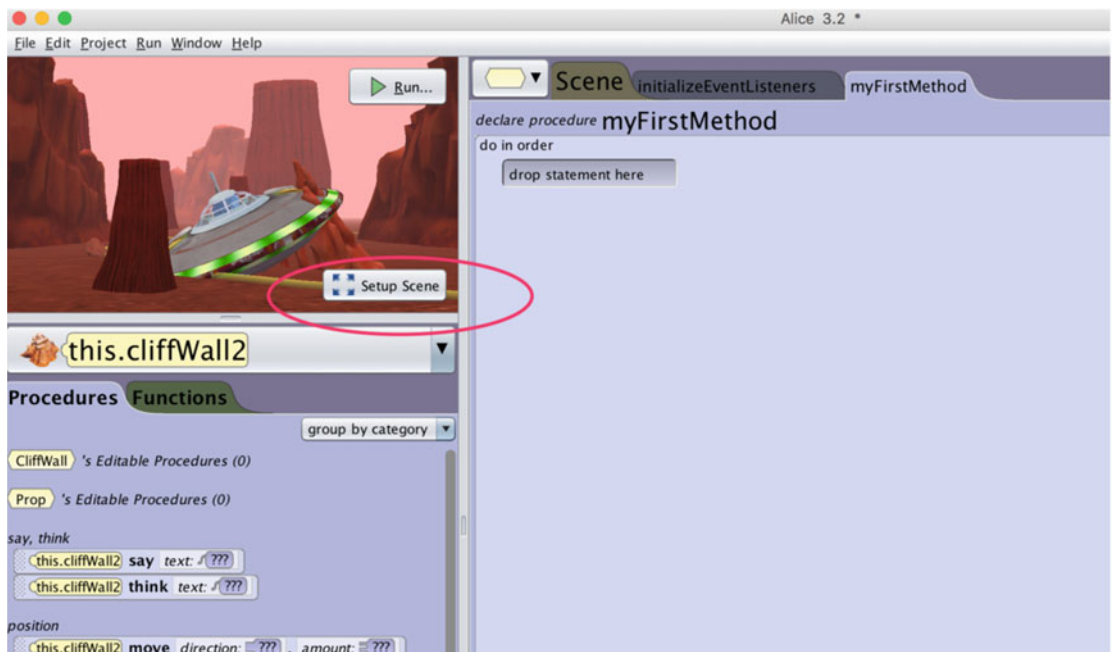


Figure 2-3. The Setup Scene button. This button will launch Alice's Scene Editor and enable you to add objects to your Alice world

It is important to learn how to move the camera around your world in order to get the view you want the users to see.

By moving the camera around, you can provide the perspective you want with your app. See Figure 2-4.

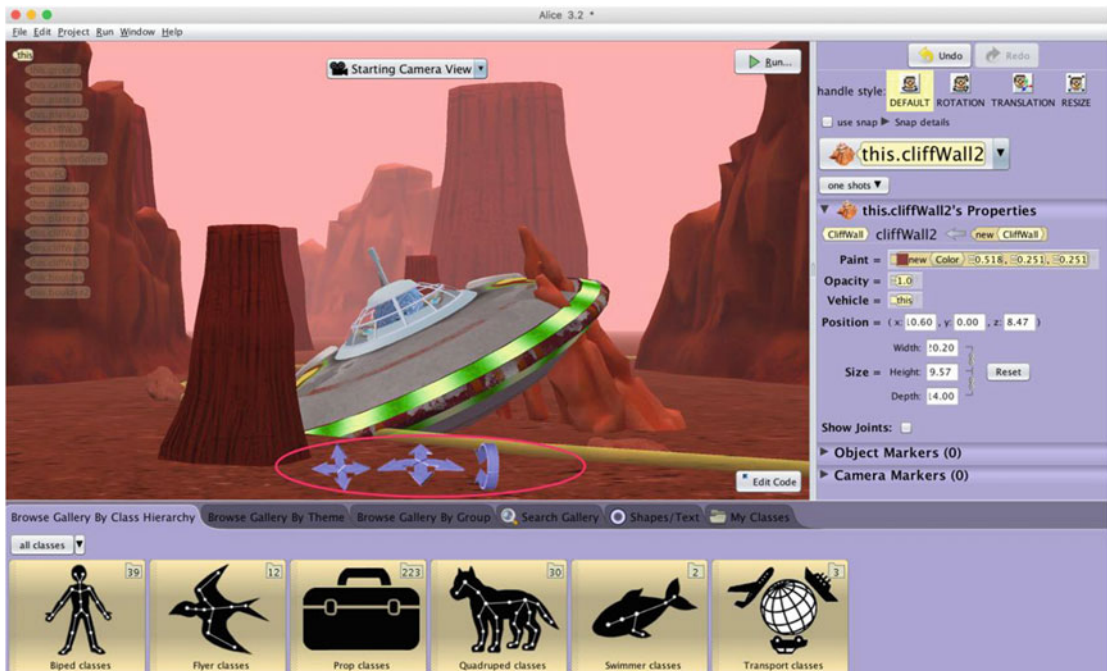


Figure 2-4. These are camera manipulation arrows to control the camera in the Edit Scene window

Take a minute to familiarize yourself with the Scene Editor shown in Figure 2-5. The Scene Editor enables you to do the following:

- Add objects to your world from the gallery
- Add objects to your world from the Internet
- Position the objects in your world
- Adjust the camera for viewing your world

You will spend a lot of time adding objects and setting the camera in your worlds by using the Scene Editor.

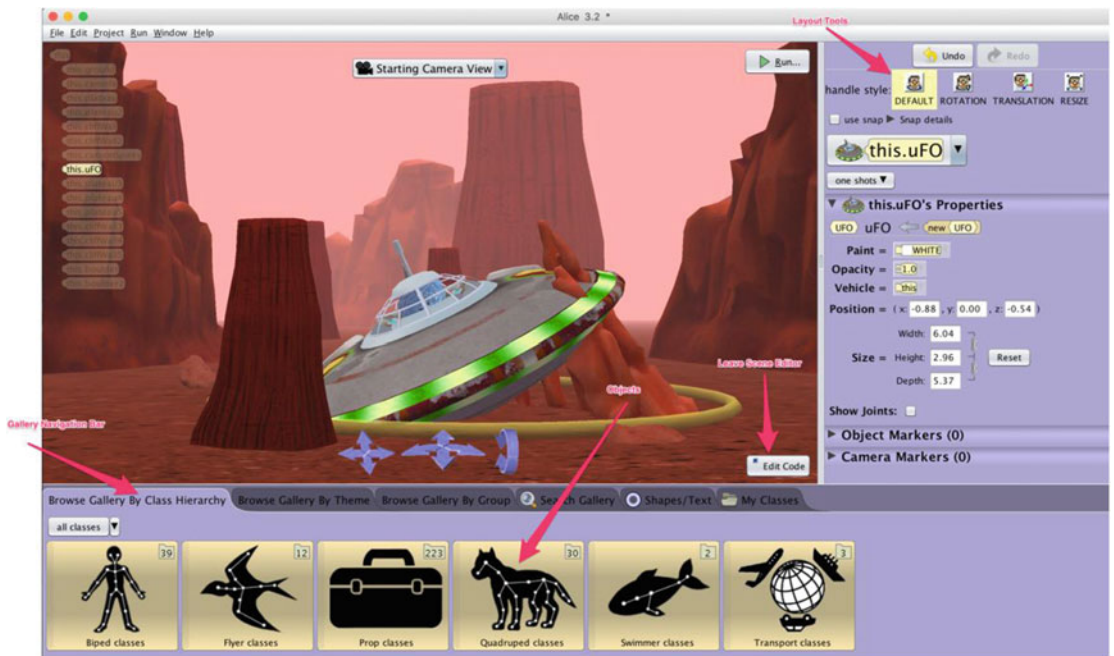


Figure 2-5. Alice's Scene Editor

Classes, Objects, and Instances in Alice

A group of objects with the same properties and same methods (actions) are called a **class**. For example, you could have a class called `Airplane`. In this class, you could have five objects.

```
boeing747
lockheedSR71
boeing737
citation10
f18Fighter
```

These objects are nearly identical. They are from the same `Airplane` class. They all have the same following methods:

```
land()
takeOff()
lowerLandingGear()
raisLandingGear()
bankRight()
bankLeft()
```

The only thing that differentiates the objects is the values of their properties. Some of the properties of the values might be as follows:

```
wingLength = 20ft  
maxThrust = 200,000lbs  
numberOfEngines = 2
```

In your world, you may have two objects that are exactly the same. You may want two Boeing 737s in your view. Each copy of a class is called an **instance**. Adding an instance of a class to your program is called **instantiation**.

Object Tree

The **Object Tree** (see Figure 2-6) enables you to view all the objects in your Alice world. Additionally, if the object has subparts, you can view these subparts by clicking the plus sign, and you can collapse the subparts by clicking the minus sign.

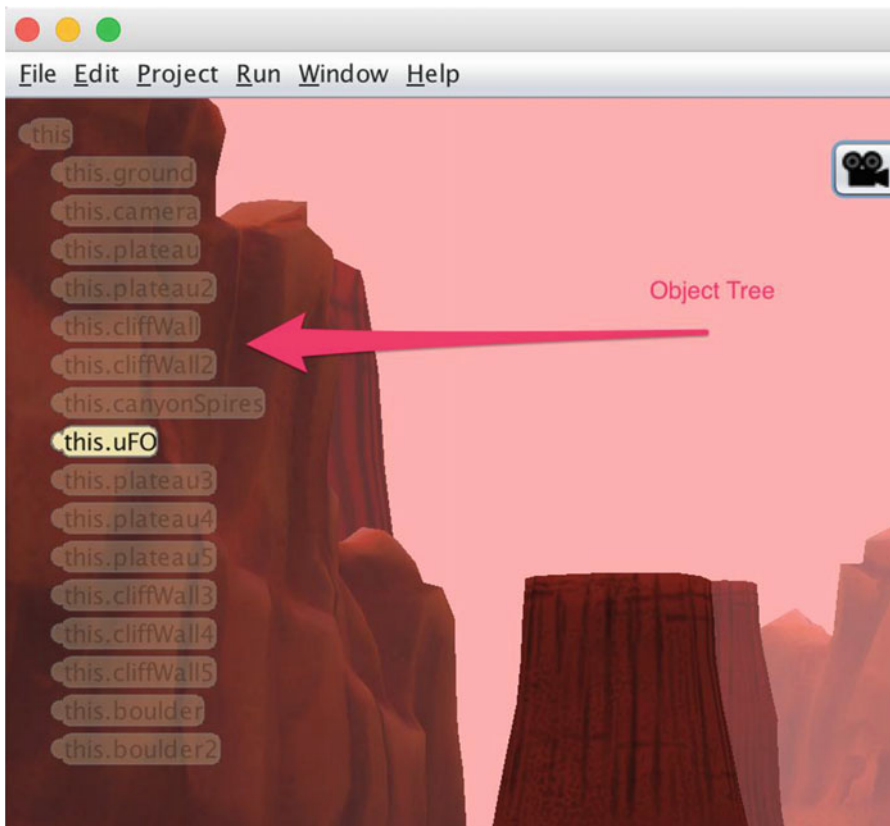


Figure 2-6. The Object Tree

Many of the Alice worlds come with several built-in objects that you will need for your apps. The world in Figure 2-5 comes with the Camera and ground objects.

Editor Area

The **Editor Area**, the largest area of the Alice interface, is where you write your code. With Alice, you don't have to actually type code; you can drag and drop your code to manipulate your objects and properties. See Figure 2-2.

■ **Note** Don't forget the bottom of the Editor Area. The bottom contains a row of control and logic tiles for looping, branching, and other logical structures that you can use to control the behavior of your objects.

Details Area

The **Details Area** of the Alice interface contains the tabs for properties, procedures, and functions that make up the object that is selected in the Object Tree. See Figure 2-2.

- Properties contain the specific information of your selected object (e.g., weight, length, and height).
- Procedures (methods and functions) perform actions upon the object (e.g., takeoff and land).
- Functions and methods are similar. In Alice, the difference between the two is that a method does not return a value. A function will return a value.

Events Area

The **Events Area** of the Alice interface contains a listing of all the existing events used by your app and provides you with the opportunity to create new events. **Events** are conditions that trigger your methods. Methods (or procedures) that react to these events are called **event handlers**. When a specific event occurs, it **triggers** a signal that the event handler receives and handles.

Creating an Alice App—To the Moon, Alice

We have covered some new terms and concepts, and now it is time to do what programmers do—write code. It is customary for new developers to write a **HelloWorld** app as their first program. You will do something similar, but Alice makes it more interesting. You will then follow up your first Alice app with your first Objective-C app.

This Alice app will have three objects on the screen, the UFO object and two Aliens. One Alien will say, "The Eagle has landed." The other Alien will say, "That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind."

Alice really makes apps like this easy and fun to do. Make sure you follow these steps:

1. Click **File** and then **New**.
2. Click the **Blank Slates** tab.
3. Choose the **Moon** project, and click the OK button. See Figure 2-7.

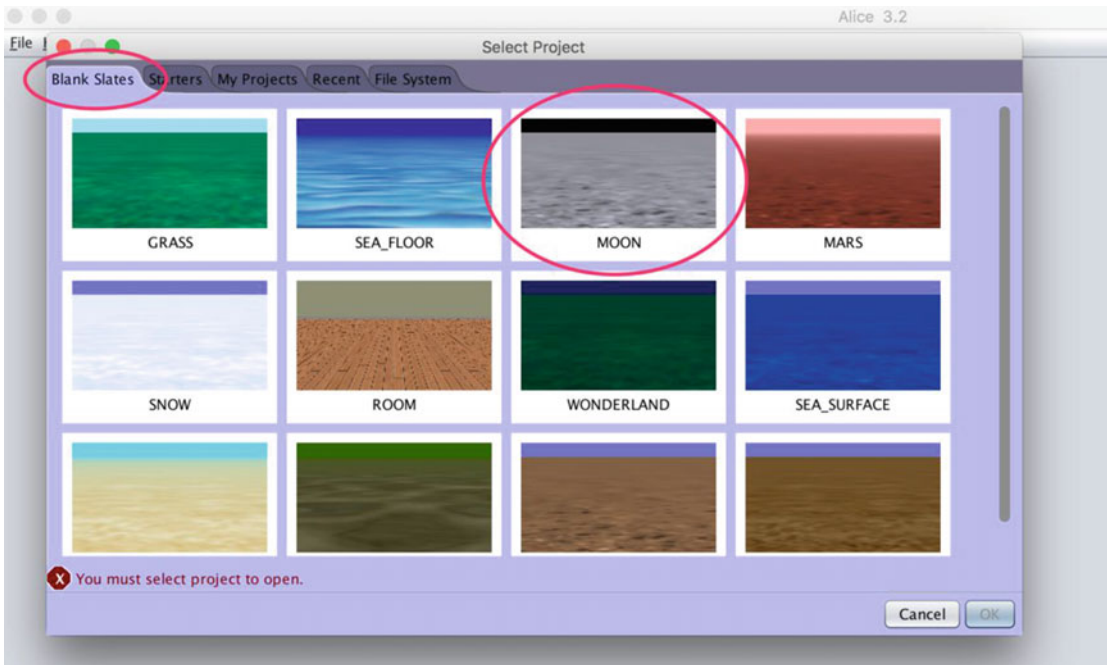


Figure 2-7. Select the Moon project

4. Now, you need to add your objects. Click **Setup Scene**. It was the important button in the World window shown in Figure 2-3.
5. In the Object Gallery, select the **UFO Class** from **Tansport > Aircraft classes**.
6. Left-click **UFO** to view some of the information about the object. See Figure 2-8. You can click **OK** to add your objects to your world, or you can drag and drop them from the gallery to the world.

■ **Note** You can see in this example why an instance is a copy of an object. You are making a copy of the object and putting it in your world. *Instantiation* is a big word for the process of making a copy of and initializing your object.

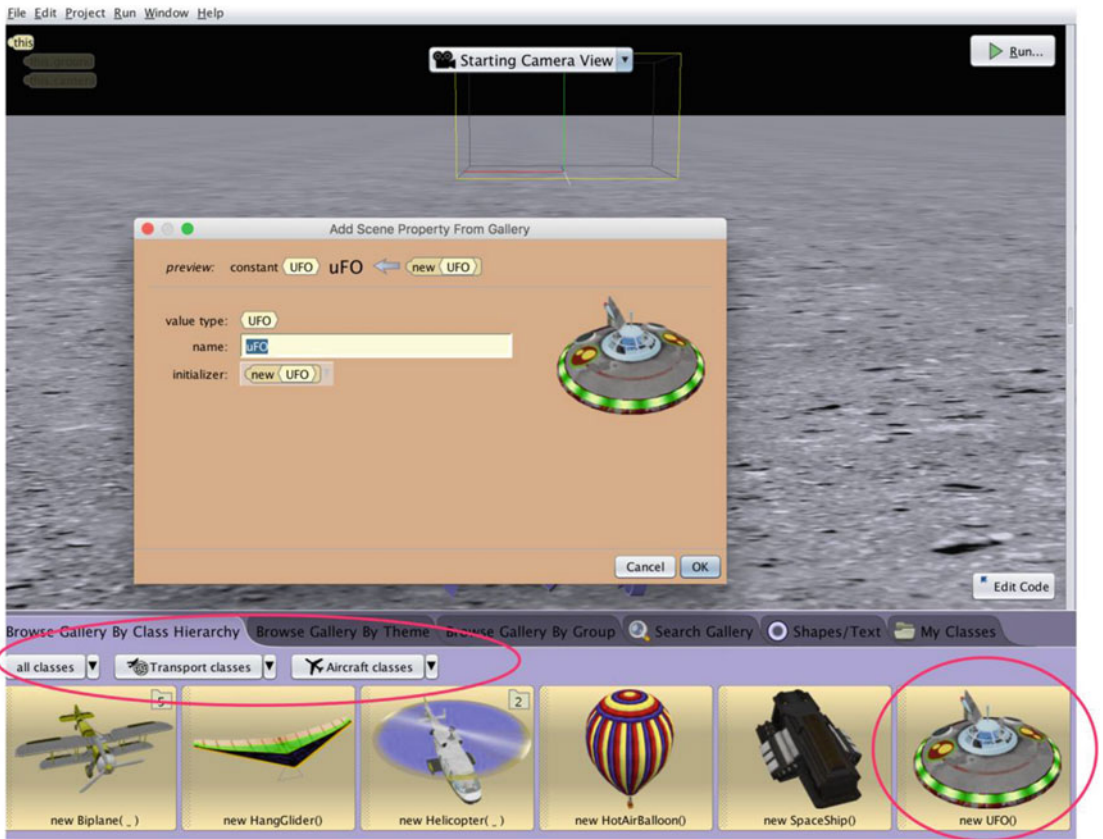


Figure 2-8. Viewing and adding objects to your world from step 6

7. Add two Aliens from the Biped classes to your world. See Figure 2-9.

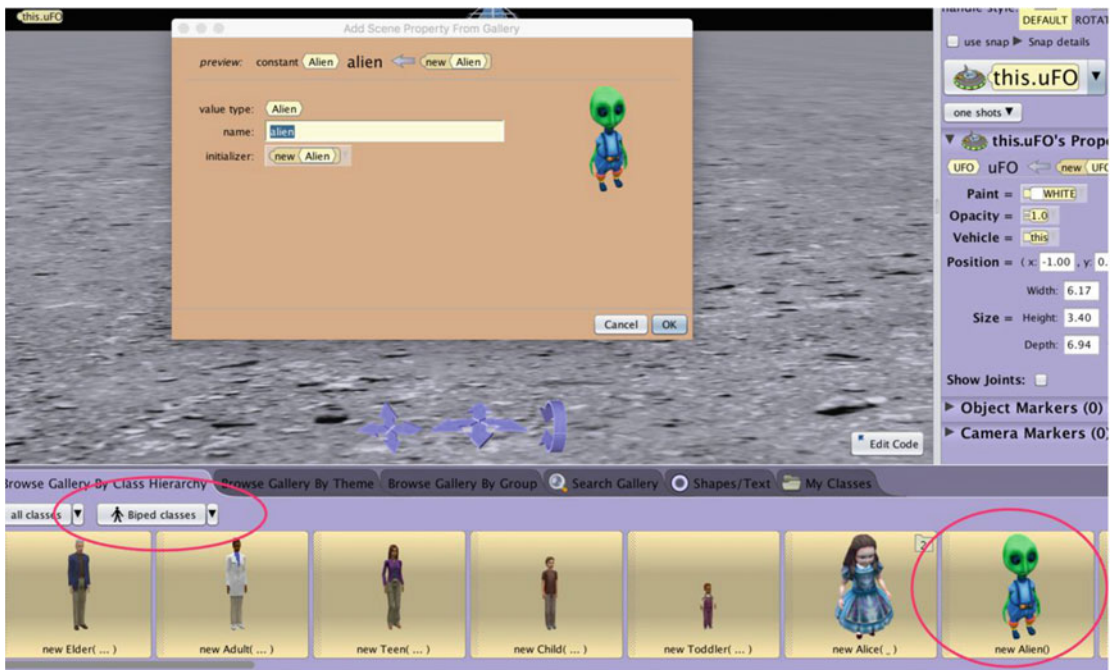


Figure 2-9. Adding two Aliens to your world

8. Use the Camera Adjustment and **Objects Adjustment** tools, outlined in boxes in Figure 2-10, to achieve the look and perspective you desire.

■ **Tip** Sometimes when you add two objects, Alice places one object over the other. Drag the top Alien to the side of the other Alien if this occurs. Your world should look like Figure 2-10.

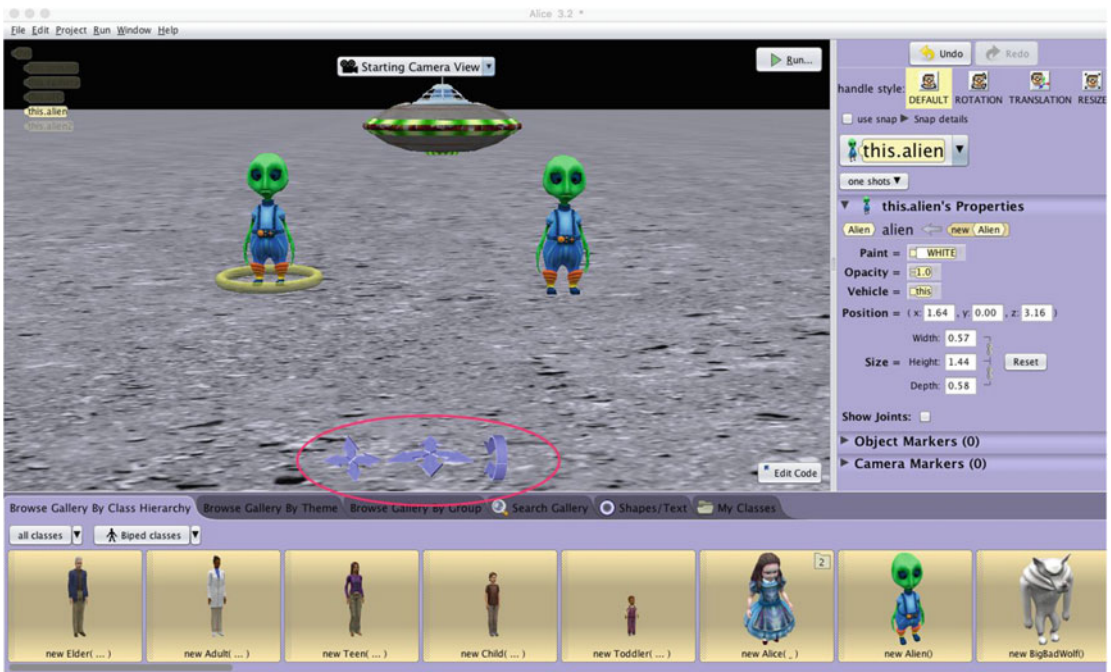


Figure 2-10. Use the Camera Adjust tool to control the user perspective of the world. Use the Object Adjustment tools to shape and orientate your objects in your world

9. At the top-right corner are the **Handle Style** tools. Hover the mouse over each tile to discover what each tile tool will do to the object.
10. Notice the Object Tree in Figure 2-10. The ground, UF0, camera, alien, and alien2 objects are in the Object Tree.
11. Click the **Edit Code** button at the bottom right of the screen. This will return you to the editor view.
12. Click the left alien in the World window. Make sure the **Procedures** tab is selected in the Details Area. See Figure 2-11.



Figure 2-11. Select the left Alien and Procedures tab

13. You are now going to make your Aliens say something. Remember, to apply actions on an object, you need to use methods or procedures. From the Procedures tab, drag the **Alien|turn** tile from the Details Area to your Editor area. Select **turn left, 0.25 rotation** from the parameter list. See Figure 2-12. When you run your app, the left Alien will turn to the left one-quarter of a rotation and face the other Alien.



Figure 2-12. Making the left Alien's methods and parameters

14. Let's do the same thing for the other Alien. Click the right Alien. Drag the **Alien|turn** tile from the Details Area to your Editor. **Select turn right, 0.25 rotation** from the parameter list. See Figure 2-13.



Figure 2-13. Making the right Alien's methods and parameters

15. A **parameter** is the information a method needs to act upon the object. A method may need one or more parameters for a method.
16. Click the left Alien, drag the **Alien|say** tile to the Editor area, select **Custom TextString**, and then type **The Eagle has landed**. Place the tile between the other two tiles.
17. Click the right Alien, drag the **Alien|say** tile to the Editor area, **select Custom TextString**, and then type **That's one small step for man... One giant leap for mankind**. Your app should look like Figure 2-14.



Figure 2-14. Your Editor area should have these methods within the listed parameters

18. Let's run your first program by clicking the **Run** button. If you have completed everything correctly, your app should look like Figure 2-15 when it runs. If not, you have some debugging to do.



Figure 2-15. From the top portion of the World Running window, you can rerun your program, pause, stop, and take a picture of your app. You can also speed up or slow down your app, depending on how slow or fast your application is running

- 19. Save the app as toTheMoonAlice.a3p. You will be using this app later. Click File ► Save or File ► Save As.

Your First Objective-C Program

Now that you have learned a little about OOP and you have your first Alice program completed, it's time to write your first Objective-C program and begin to understand the Objective-C language, Xcode, and syntax. First, you have to install Xcode. Xcode is the IDE that you use when developing Objective-C apps. It is equivalent to Alice's interface.

Launching and Using Xcode

Xcode is available for download from the Mac App Store for free. See Figure 2-16.

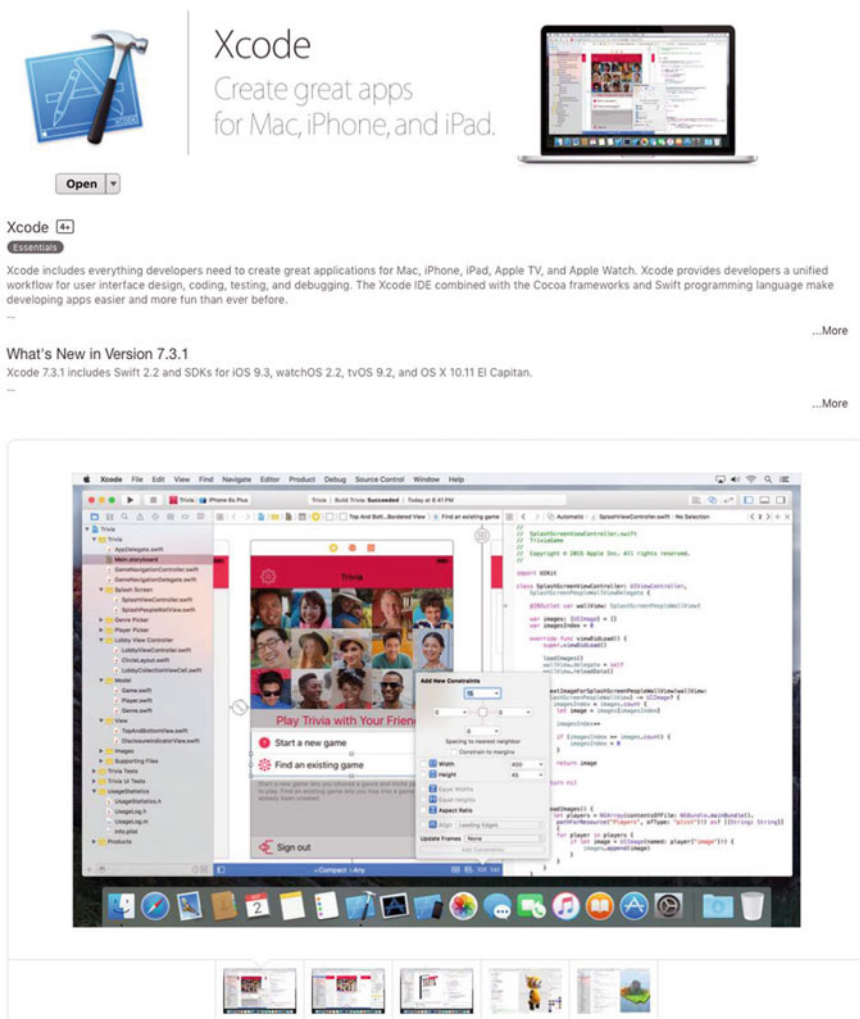


Figure 2-16. Xcode is available for download from the Mac App Store for free

■ **Note** This package has everything you need to write Objective-C iOS, tvOS, watchOS, and macOS apps. To run your apps on your iOS device, submit apps to the App Store, and have access to beta apps, you will need to apply for the Apple Developer Program and pay \$99 per year. See Figure 2-17.

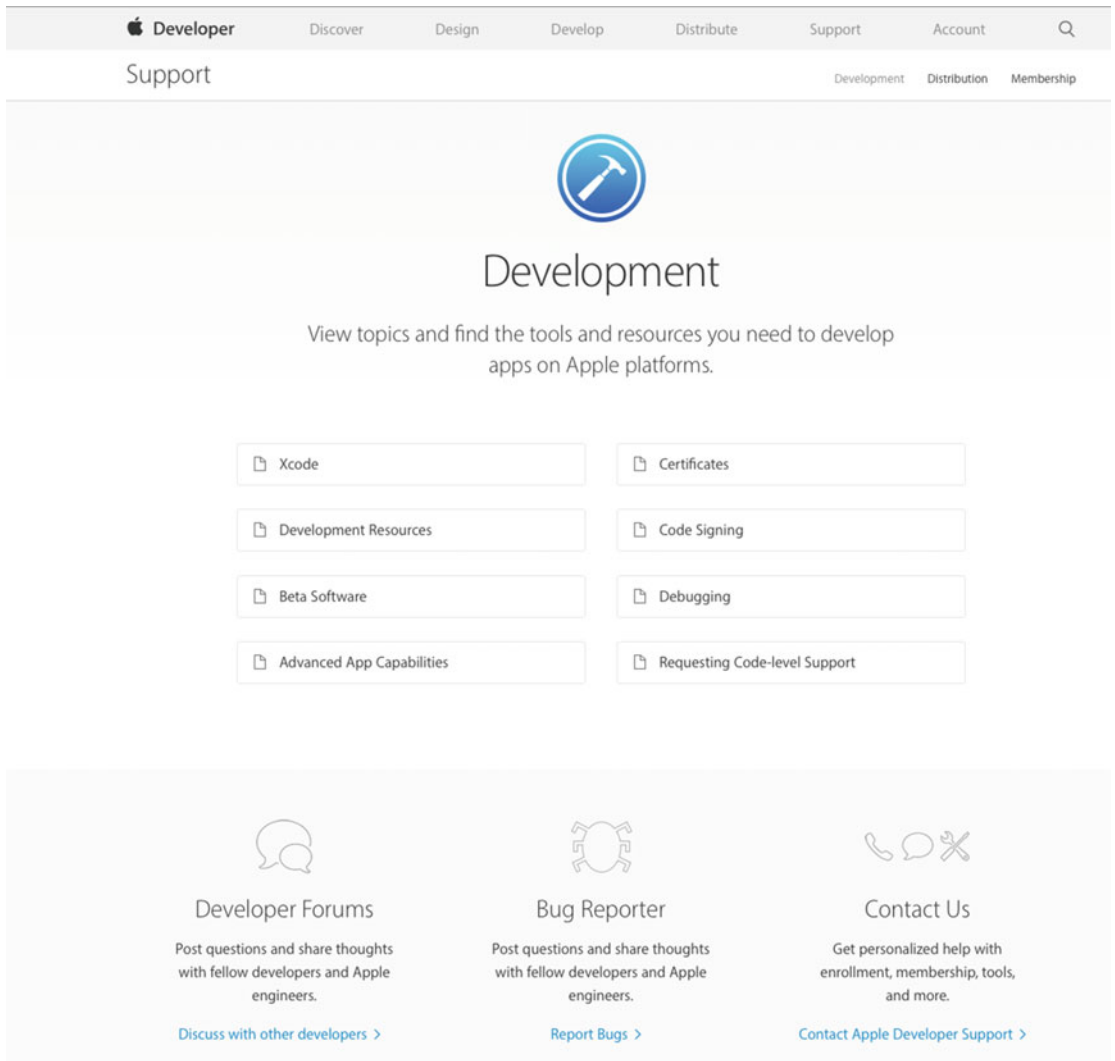


Figure 2-17. If you paid \$99 and joined the Apple Developer Program, beta versions of Xcode and the iOS SDK are available to download. You also have the ability to submit apps to the App Store

Now that you have installed Xcode, you need to begin writing Objective-C applications, so let's get started. After launching Xcode, follow these steps:

1. Click **Create a new Xcode Project**. See Figure 2-18.

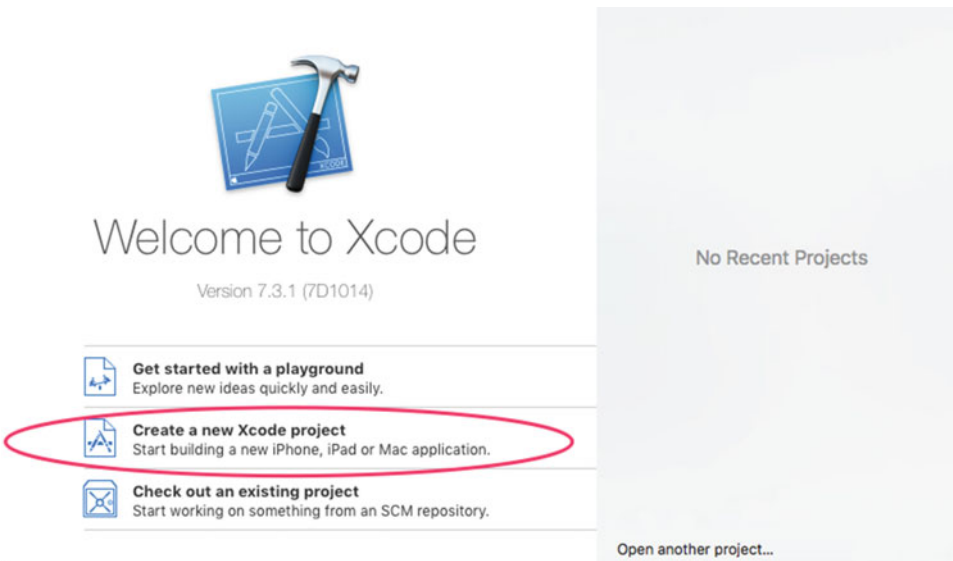


Figure 2-18. Creating your first Objective-C project

2. Select **OS X** ► **Application** in the left-side pane, select the **Command Line Tool** template, and then click **Next**. See Figure 2-19.

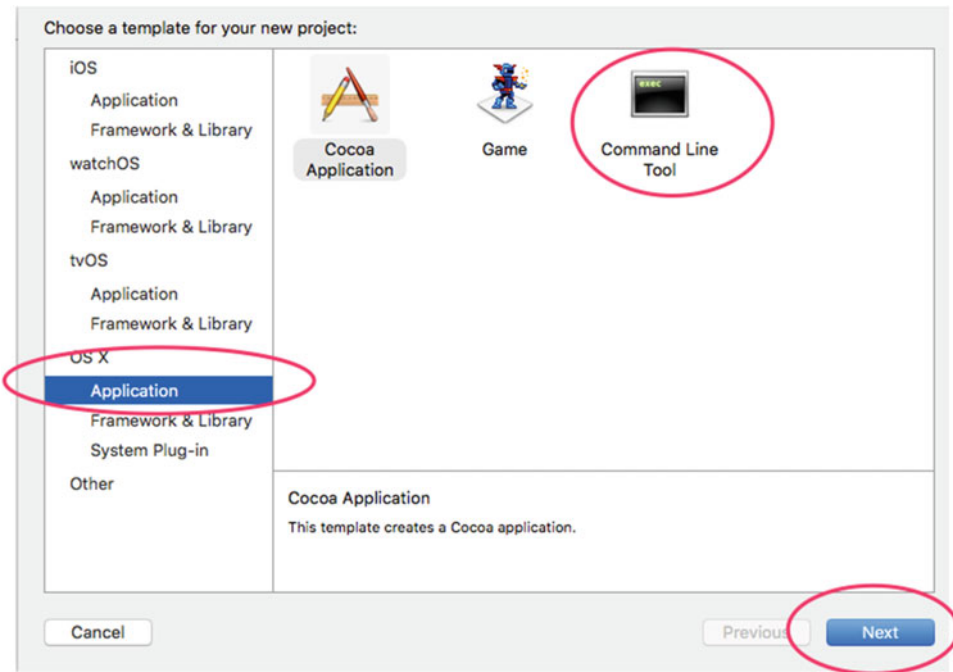


Figure 2-19. Select Command Line Tool. You may have to navigate to an equivalent screen with other versions of Xcode. The bottom line is to navigate to the command-line tool

- Let's name the app **HelloWorld** and select **Objective-C** as the language, as shown in Figure 2-20. Then click **Next** and save your app in the directory of your choice.

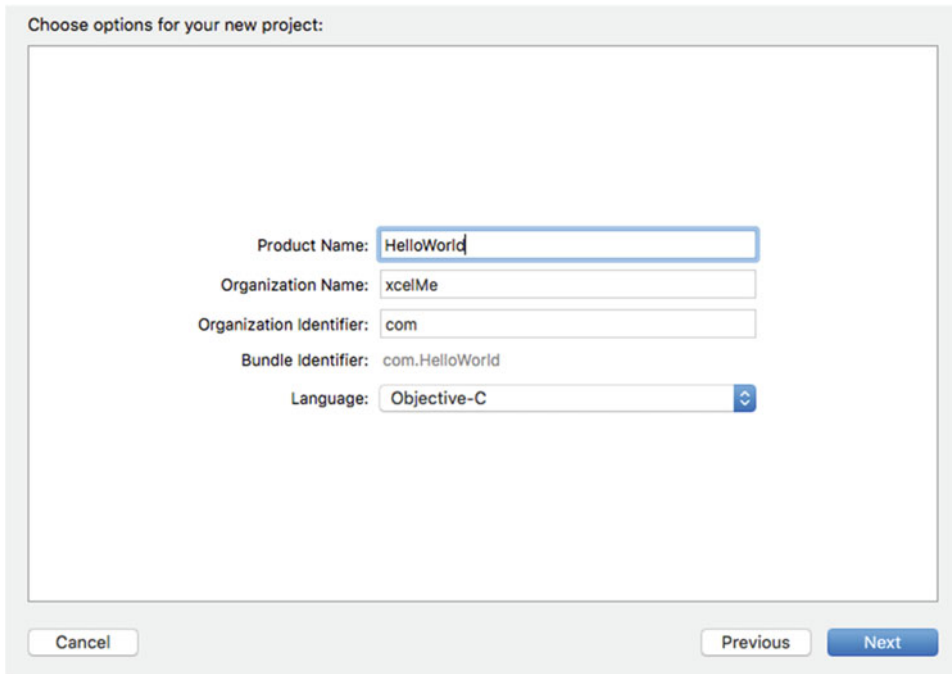


Figure 2-20. Name your app *HelloWorld*, and select *Objective-C* as the language

- In the **Project Navigator**, click the `main.m` file. See Figure 2-21.

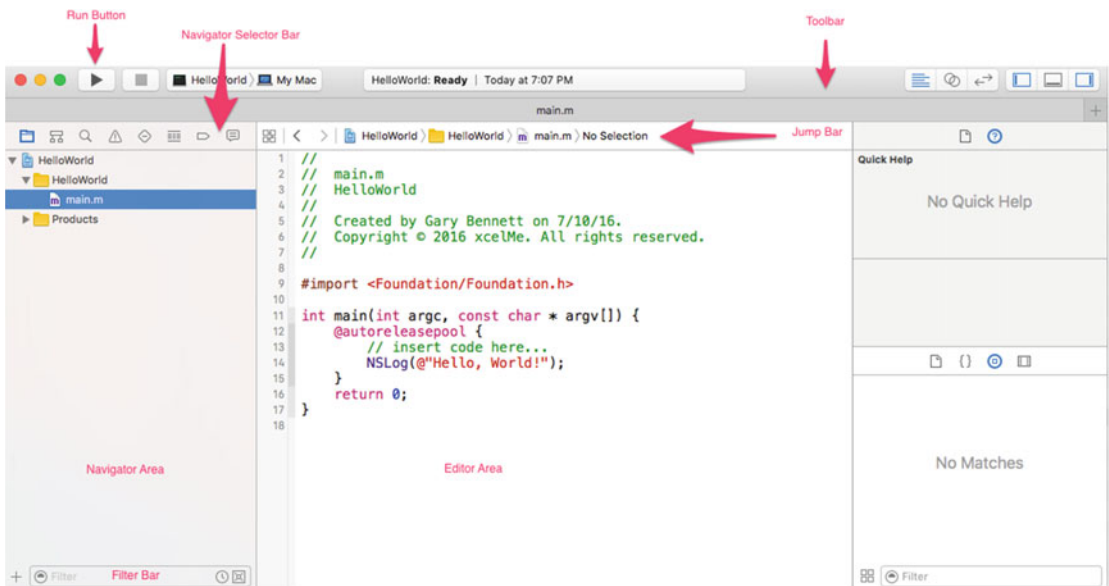


Figure 2-21. You can run the app right after creating the project by clicking the Run button and seeing “Hello, World!” printed out in the console

Xcode does a lot of work for you and creates a directory with files and code ready for you to use. That is what Xcode templates do—they save you a lot of time.

You need to become familiar with the Xcode IDE. Let's look at two of the most often used features (see Figure 2-21):

- The Navigator area
- The Editor area

These sections should look similar to what you used in Alice. The **Navigator** area contains files needed to build your apps. It will contain your classes, methods, and resources.

The **Editor** area is the business end of the Xcode IDE—where our dreams are turned into reality. The Editor area is where you write your code. You will notice that as you write your code it will change color. Sometimes, Xcode will even try to auto-complete words for you. The colors have meanings that will become apparent as you use the IDE. The Editor area will also be the place where you debug your apps.

■ **Note** Even if we've mentioned it already, it is worth saying again: you will learn Objective-C programming by reading this book, but you will *really* learn Objective-C by debugging your apps. Debugging is where developers learn and become great developers.

The **Run** button turns your code from plain text to an `.app` that your Macs, iPhones, or iPads know how to execute. With the Alice interface, you used the Run button to run your Alice app.

To run your first program, simply click the **Run** button. Xcode checks your code syntax, compiles your app, and if no errors are found, makes an `.app` file and runs it. This application runs in a console (also known as a **terminal**).

When the app runs, it prints out `Hello, World!` in the console. Also, in the Debugger Console window, you can see whether the application terminated and why it terminated. In this case, it terminated normally. You can see this with the message `Program ended with exit code: 0`, which means your app didn't crash. See Figure 2-22.

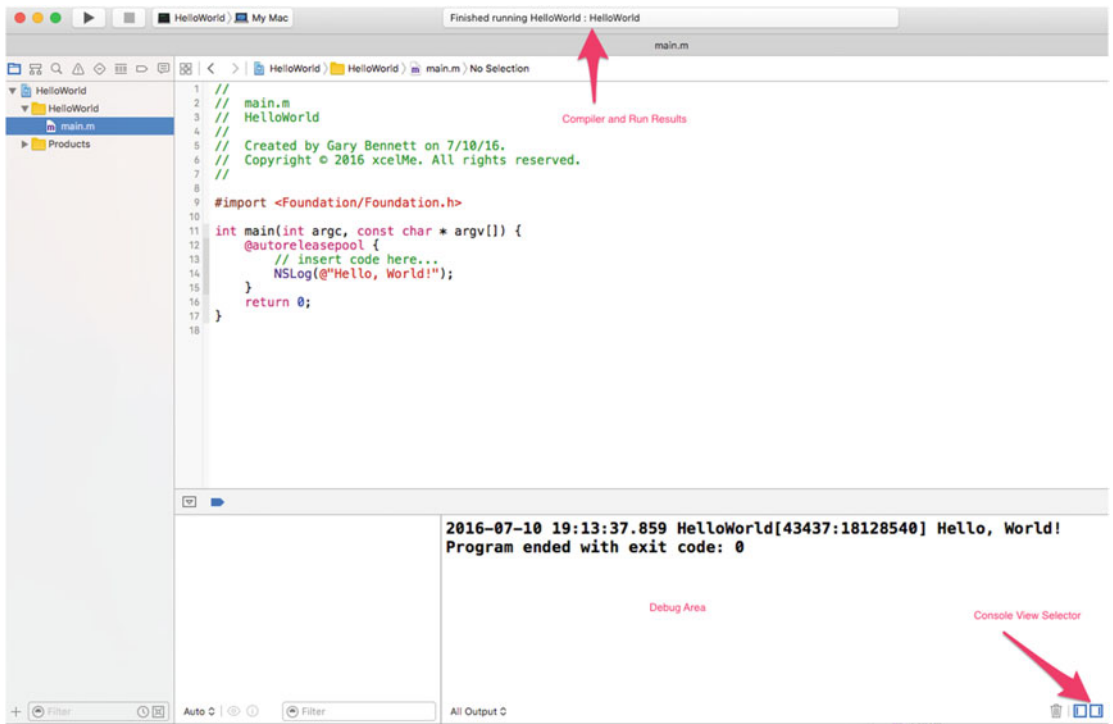


Figure 2-22. The app executing in the Debugger Console

Let's modify the application to do what we did with the Aliens:

1. Navigate to the `main.m` file.
2. Change lines 14 and 15 to look like Figure 2-23.

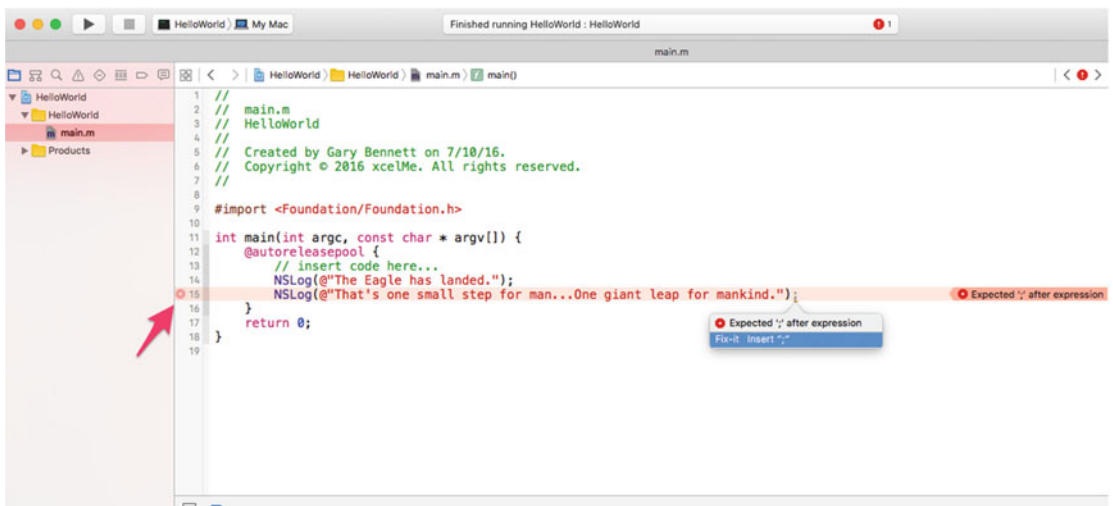


Figure 2-23. The app with a syntax error caught by the Objective-C compiler

3. You are going to intentionally misplace a semicolon at the end of line 8. This will cause a compiler error.
4. Click the Run button.

You can see that something will go wrong when you try to compile and run your app. You have a compiler error, a red pointer, and the notices in the Xcode IDE denote this. See Figure 2-23.

When you write Objective-C code, everything is important—even semicolons, capitalization, and parentheses. The collection of rules that enable your compiler to compile your code to an executable app is called **syntax**.

NSLog is a function that will print out the contents of its parameters in the console.

Now, let's fix the app by adding the semicolon at the end of line 15. Building and running the app will enable you to see the output to the debug console. See Figure 2-24.

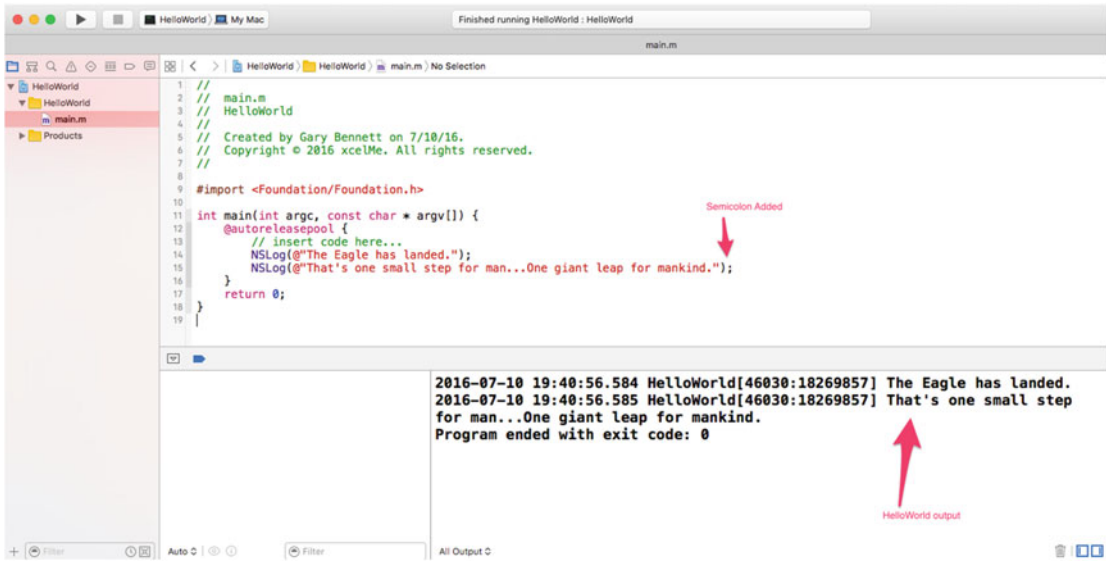


Figure 2-24. The app compiled with no compiler errors, and completion executed successfully with the output you wanted

Feel free to play around and change the text that is printed out. Have fun!

Summary

In this chapter, you built your first Alice app. You also installed Xcode and compiled, debugged, and ran your first Objective-C app. We also covered new OOP terms that are key to your understanding of Objective-C.

The terms that you should understand are as follows:

- Classes
- Objects
- Methods
- Parameters
- Instances
- Instantiation

Exercises

- Extend your `toTheMoon.a3p` Alice app. Place another object of your choosing in the world and have the object say something to the two Aliens, when they have finished speaking.
- Extend your Objective-C `HelloWorld.app` by adding a third line of code that prints any text of your choosing to the console.

CHAPTER 3



It's All About the Data

As you probably know, data is stored as zeros and ones in your computer's memory. However, zeros and ones are not very useful to developers or app users, so you need to know how your program uses data and how data is stored on your computer.

In this chapter, you will look at how data is stored on computers and how you can manipulate that data. Then you'll write a fun Alice app illustrating data storage and afterward write the same Alice app in Objective-C. So let's get started!

Numbering Systems Used in Programming

Computers work with information differently than do humans. This section covers the various ways information is stored, tallied, and manipulated by devices such as your Mac, iPhone, and iPad.

Bits

A **bit** is defined as the basic unit of information used by computers to store and manipulate data. A bit has a value of either **0** or **1**. When computers were first introduced, transistors and microprocessors didn't exist. Data was manipulated and stored by vacuum tubes being turned on or off. If the vacuum tube was on, the value of the bit was 1, and if the vacuum tube was off, the value was 0. The amount of data a computer was able to store and manipulate was directly related to how many vacuum tubes the computer had.

The first recognized computer was called the Electronic Numerical Integrator And Computer (ENIAC). It took up more than 136 square meters and had 18,000 vacuum tubes. It was about as powerful as your handheld calculator.

Today, computers use transistors to store and manipulate data. The power of a computer processor depends on how many transistors are placed on its chip or CPU. Like the vacuum tube, transistors have an off or on state. When the transistor is off, its value is 0. If the transistor is on, its value is 1. At the time of this writing, the A9 processor powers the iPhone 6s, 6s Plus, and SE, and it has a dual-core ARM processor with approximately 4 billion transistors, up from 149 million transistors on the A4 processor that was in iPhone 4 and the first iPad. See Figure 3-1.

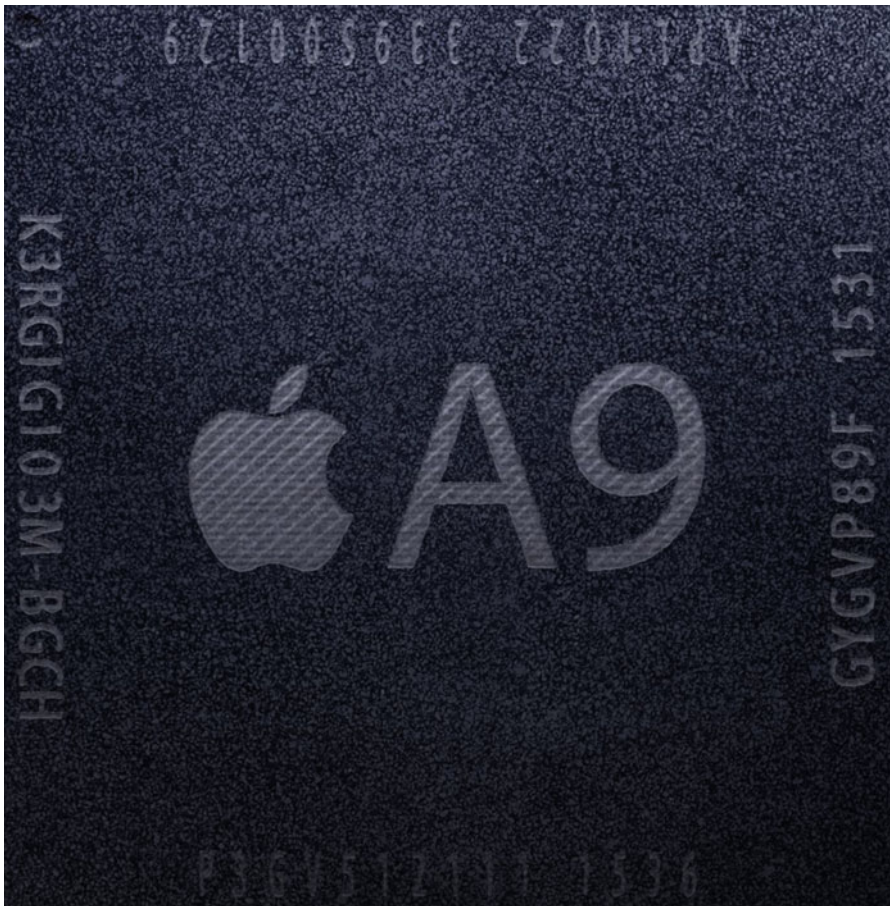


Figure 3-1. Apple's proprietary A9 processor (source: Wikipedia)

Moore's Law

The number of transistors on your iPhone's or iPad's processor is directly related to your device's processing speed, memory capacity, and sensors (accelerometer, gyroscope, compass) available in the device. The more transistors, the more powerful your device is.

In 1965, the cofounder of Intel, Gordon E. Moore, described the trend of transistors in a processor. He observed that the number of transistors in a processor doubled every 18 months from 1958 to 1965 and would likely continue "for at least 18 months." The observation became famously known as Moore's law and has proven accurate for more than 55 years. See Figure 3-2.

Microprocessor Transistor Counts 1971-2011 & Moore's Law

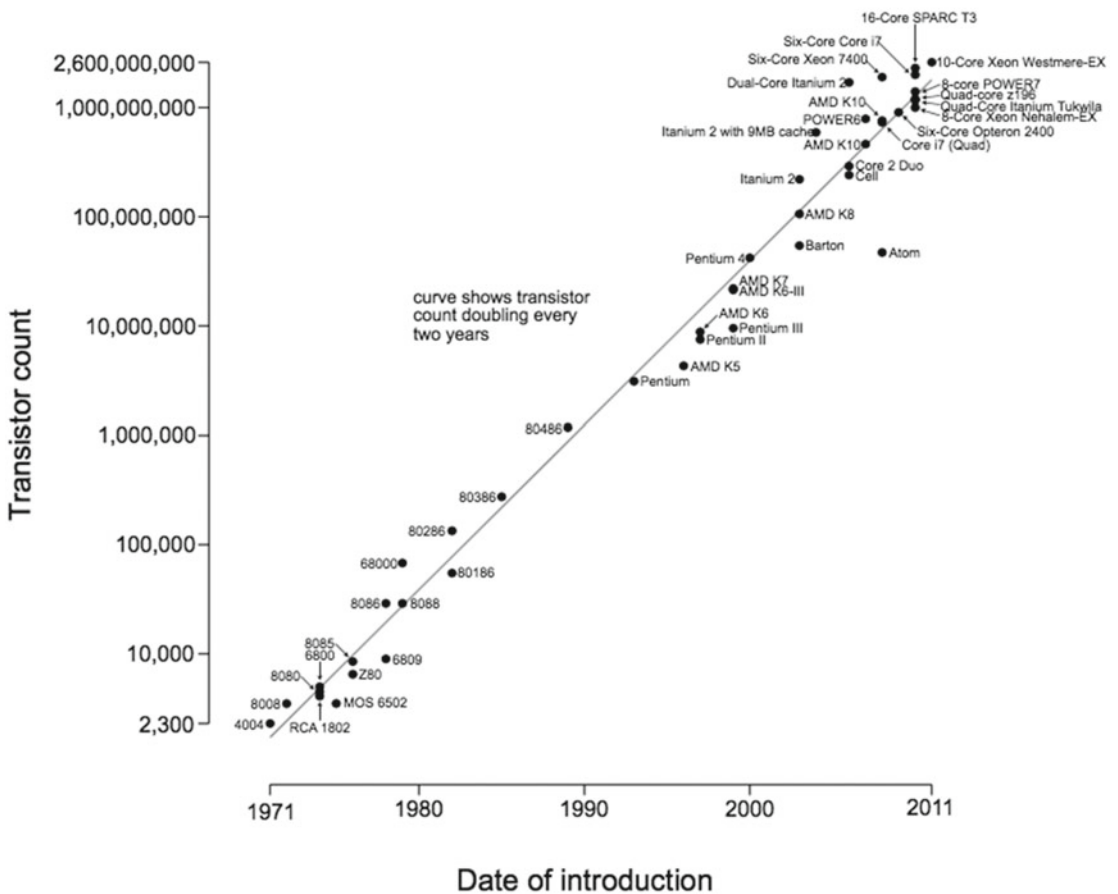


Figure 3-2. Moore's law (source: Wikipedia)

■ **Note** There is a downside to Moore's law, and you have probably felt it in your pocketbook. The problem with rapidly increasing processing capability is that it renders technology obsolete quickly. So when your iPhone's two-year cell phone contract is up, the new iPhones on the market will be twice as powerful as the iPhone you had when you signed up. How convenient for everyone!

Bytes

A byte is another unit used to describe information storage on computers. A **byte** is composed of 8 bits and is a convenient power of 2. Whereas a bit can represent up to two different values, a byte can represent up to 2^8 or 256 different values. A byte can contain values from 0-255.

■ **Note** In Chapter 13, we discuss the base-2, base-10, and base-16 number systems in more detail. However, it is necessary to have an introduction to these systems in this chapter in order to understand data types.

The **binary** number system represents the numerical symbols 0 and 1. To illustrate how the number **71** would be represented in binary, we will use a simple table of 8 bits (1 byte), with each bit represented as a power of 2. To convert the byte value **01000111** to decimal, simply add the on bits. See Table 3-1.

Table 3-1. *The Number 71 Represented as a Byte*

Power to 2	2^7	2^6	2^5	2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
Value for “on” bit	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Actual bit	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1

To represent the number **22** in binary, turn on the bits that add up to 22, or **00010110**. See Table 3-2.

Table 3-2. *The Number 22 Represented as a Byte*

Power to 2	2^7	2^6	2^5	2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
Value for “on” bit	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Actual bit	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0

To represent the number **255** in binary, turn on the bits that add up to 255, or **11111111**. See Table 3-3.

Table 3-3. *The Number 255 Represented as a Byte*

Power to 2	2^7	2^6	2^5	2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
Value for “on” bit	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Actual bit	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

To represent the number **0** in binary, turn on the bits that add up to 0, or **00000000**. See Table 3-4.

Table 3-4. *The Number 0 Represented as a Byte*

Power to 2	2^7	2^6	2^5	2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
Value for “on” bit	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Actual bit	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Hexadecimal

Often, it will be necessary to represent characters in another format that is recognized by computers, namely, a hexadecimal format. Hexadecimal is just an easier (more compact) way for humans to parse binary data. You will encounter hexadecimal numbers when you are debugging your apps. The **hexadecimal** system is a base-16 number system. It uses 16 distinct symbols, 0-9, to represent values 0 to 9 and A, B, C, D, E, and F to represent values 10 to 15. For example, the hexadecimal number 2AF3 is equal in decimal to $(2 \times 16^3) + (10 \times 16^2) + (15 \times 16^1) + (3 \times 16^0)$, or 10,995. Figure 3-3 shows the ASCII table of characters. Because 1 byte can represent 256 characters, this works well for Western characters. For example, hexadecimal 20 represents a space. Hexadecimal 7D represents a }.

Dec	Hx	Oct	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr
0	0	000	NUL (null)	32	20	040	 	Space	64	40	100	@	@	96	60	140	`	`
1	1	001	SOH (start of heading)	33	21	041	!	!	65	41	101	A	A	97	61	141	a	a
2	2	002	STX (start of text)	34	22	042	"	"	66	42	102	B	B	98	62	142	b	b
3	3	003	ETX (end of text)	35	23	043	#	#	67	43	103	C	C	99	63	143	c	c
4	4	004	EOT (end of transmission)	36	24	044	$	\$	68	44	104	D	D	100	64	144	d	d
5	5	005	ENQ (enquiry)	37	25	045	%	%	69	45	105	E	E	101	65	145	e	e
6	6	006	ACK (acknowledge)	38	26	046	&	&	70	46	106	F	F	102	66	146	f	f
7	7	007	BEL (bell)	39	27	047	'	'	71	47	107	G	G	103	67	147	g	g
8	8	010	BS (backspace)	40	28	050	((72	48	110	H	H	104	68	150	h	h
9	9	011	TAB (horizontal tab)	41	29	051))	73	49	111	I	I	105	69	151	i	i
10	A	012	LF (NL line feed, new line)	42	2A	052	*	*	74	4A	112	J	J	106	6A	152	j	j
11	B	013	VT (vertical tab)	43	2B	053	+	+	75	4B	113	K	K	107	6B	153	k	k
12	C	014	FF (NP form feed, new page)	44	2C	054	,	,	76	4C	114	L	L	108	6C	154	l	l
13	D	015	CR (carriage return)	45	2D	055	-	-	77	4D	115	M	M	109	6D	155	m	m
14	E	016	SO (shift out)	46	2E	056	.	.	78	4E	116	N	N	110	6E	156	n	n
15	F	017	SI (shift in)	47	2F	057	/	/	79	4F	117	O	O	111	6F	157	o	o
16	10	020	DLE (data link escape)	48	30	060	0	0	80	50	120	P	P	112	70	160	p	p
17	11	021	DC1 (device control 1)	49	31	061	1	1	81	51	121	Q	Q	113	71	161	q	q
18	12	022	DC2 (device control 2)	50	32	062	2	2	82	52	122	R	R	114	72	162	r	r
19	13	023	DC3 (device control 3)	51	33	063	3	3	83	53	123	S	S	115	73	163	s	s
20	14	024	DC4 (device control 4)	52	34	064	4	4	84	54	124	T	T	116	74	164	t	t
21	15	025	NAK (negative acknowledge)	53	35	065	5	5	85	55	125	U	U	117	75	165	u	u
22	16	026	SYN (synchronous idle)	54	36	066	6	6	86	56	126	V	V	118	76	166	v	v
23	17	027	ETB (end of trans. block)	55	37	067	7	7	87	57	127	W	W	119	77	167	w	w
24	18	030	CAN (cancel)	56	38	070	8	8	88	58	130	X	X	120	78	170	x	x
25	19	031	EM (end of medium)	57	39	071	9	9	89	59	131	Y	Y	121	79	171	y	y
26	1A	032	SUB (substitute)	58	3A	072	:	:	90	5A	132	Z	Z	122	7A	172	z	z
27	1B	033	ESC (escape)	59	3B	073	;	;	91	5B	133	[[123	7B	173	{	{
28	1C	034	FS (file separator)	60	3C	074	<	<	92	5C	134	\	\	124	7C	174	|	
29	1D	035	GS (group separator)	61	3D	075	=	=	93	5D	135]]	125	7D	175	}	}
30	1E	036	RS (record separator)	62	3E	076	>	>	94	5E	136	^	^	126	7E	176	~	~
31	1F	037	US (unit separator)	63	3F	077	?	?	95	5F	137	_	_	127	7F	177		DEL

Source: www.LookupTables.com

128	Ç	144	É	161	í	177	█	193	⊥	209	⏏	225	β	241	±
129	ü	145	æ	162	ó	178	█	194	⌞	210	⏐	226	Γ	242	≥
130	é	146	Æ	163	ú	179		195	⌟	211	⏑	227	π	243	≤
131	â	147	ø	164	ñ	180	⌠	196	—	212	⏒	228	Σ	244	∫
132	ä	148	ö	165	Ñ	181	⌡	197	⊕	213	⏓	229	σ	245	∫
133	à	149	ò	166	ª	182	⌢	198	⊖	214	⏔	230	μ	246	+
134	â	150	û	167	º	183	⌣	199	⊗	215	⏕	231	τ	247	≈
135	ç	151	ù	168	¸	184	⌤	200	⊘	216	⏖	232	Φ	248	°
136	ê	152	—	169	—	185	⌥	201	⊙	217	⏗	233	⊖	249	.
137	ë	153	Ö	170	⌦	186	⌧	202	⊚	218	⏘	234	Ω	250	.
138	è	154	Û	171	½	187	⌨	203	⊛	219	█	235	δ	251	√
139	ï	156	£	172	¼	188	〈	204	⊜	220	■	236	∞	252	—
140	î	157	¥	173	⅓	189	〉	205	=	221	▬	237	φ	253	²
141	ï	158	—	174	«	190	⌫	206	⊝	222	▬	238	e	254	■
142	Ä	159	f	175	»	191	⌬	207	⊞	223	■	239	∩	255	
143	Å	160	á	176	█	192	⌭	208	⊟	224	α	240	≡		

Source: www.LookupTables.com

Figure 3-3. ASCII characters (source: www.LookupTables.com)

Unicode

Representing characters with a byte worked well for computers until about the 1990s, when the personal computer became widely adopted in non-Western countries where languages have more than 256 characters. Instead of a 1-byte character set, Unicode can have up to a 4-byte character set.

To facilitate faster adoption, the first 256 code points are identical to the ASCII character table. Unicode can have different character encodings. The most common encoding used for Western text is called UTF-8. As an iPhone developer, you will probably use this character encoding the most.

Data Types

Now that we've discussed how computers manipulate data, we need to cover an important concept called **data types**. Humans can generally just look at data and the context in which it is being used to determine what type of data it is and how it will be used. Computers need to be told how to do this. The programmer needs to tell the computer the type of data it is being given. For example, a computer needs to know you want to add these two numbers together:

`2 + 2 = 4.`

In this example, they are integers. You might first believe that adding these numbers is obvious to even the most casual observer, let alone a sophisticated computer. However, it is common for users of iPhone apps to store data as a series of characters, not a calculation. For example, a text message might read

"Everyone knows that `2 + 2 = 4`".

In this case, we are using our previous example in a series of characters called a **string**. A **data type** is simply the declaration to your program that defines the data you want to store. A **variable** is used to store your data and is declared with an associated data type. All data is stored in a variable, and the variable needs to have a variable type. For example, in Objective-C, the following are variable declarations with their associated data types:

```
int x = 10;
int y = 2;
int z = 0;
char prefix = 'c';
NSString *submarineName = @"USS Nevada SSBN-733";
```

Data types cannot be mixed with one another. You cannot do the following:

```
z = x + submarineName;
```

Mixing data types will cause either compiler warnings or compiler errors and your app will not run.

Most data you will use in your programs can be classified into three different types—Booleans, numbers, and objects. We will discuss how to work with numbers and object data types in the remainder of this chapter. In Chapter 4, we will talk more about Boolean data types when you learn how to write apps with decision-making.

■ **Note** Localizing your app is the process of writing your app so users can buy and use it in their native language. This process is too advanced for this book, but it is a simple one to complete when you plan from the beginning. Localizing your app greatly expands the total number of potential customers and revenue for your app without your having to rewrite it for each language. Be sure to localize your app. It is not hard to do and can easily double or triple the number of people who buy it.

Using Variable and Data Types with Alice

Now that you have learned about data types, let's write an Alice app that adds two numbers and displays the sum using an object and methods.

1. Open Alice and select File ► New.
2. Select the Grass template and click OK. See Figure 3-4.

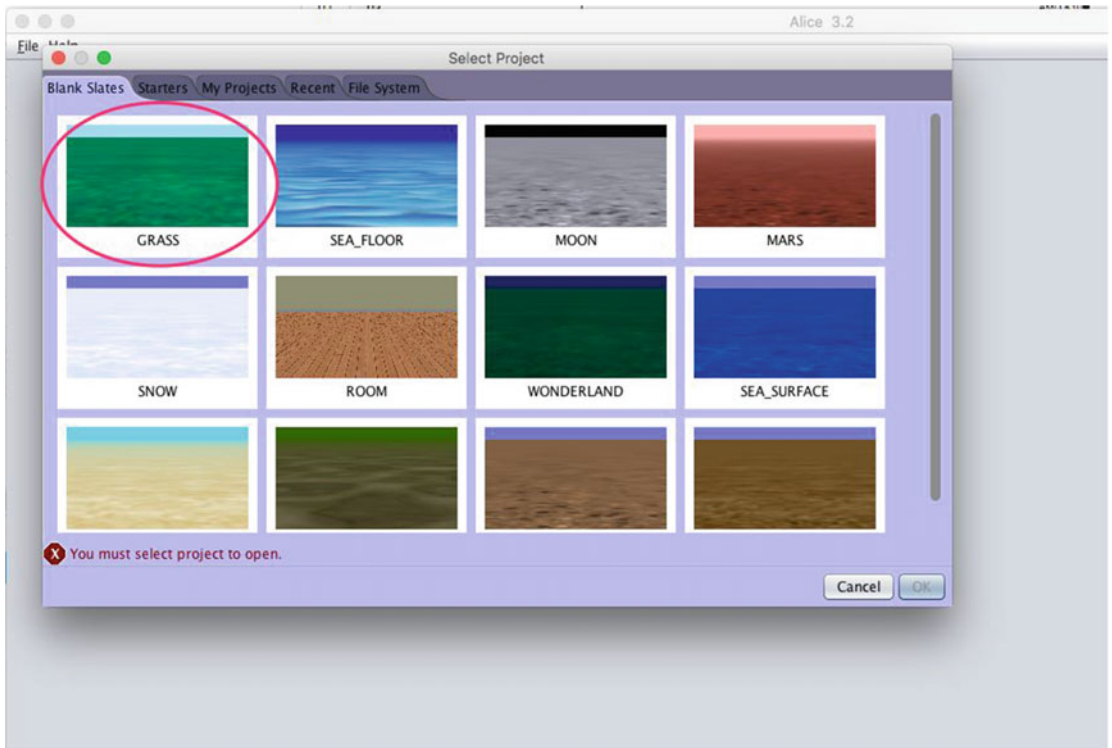


Figure 3-4. Choosing the Grass template

Next, you need to make your variables and select the data types.

1. **Click and drag the variable tile** on the bottom of your editor to the Editor area, as shown Figure 3-5.
2. Name your first variable **firstNumber** and define the variable as shown Figure 3-5.

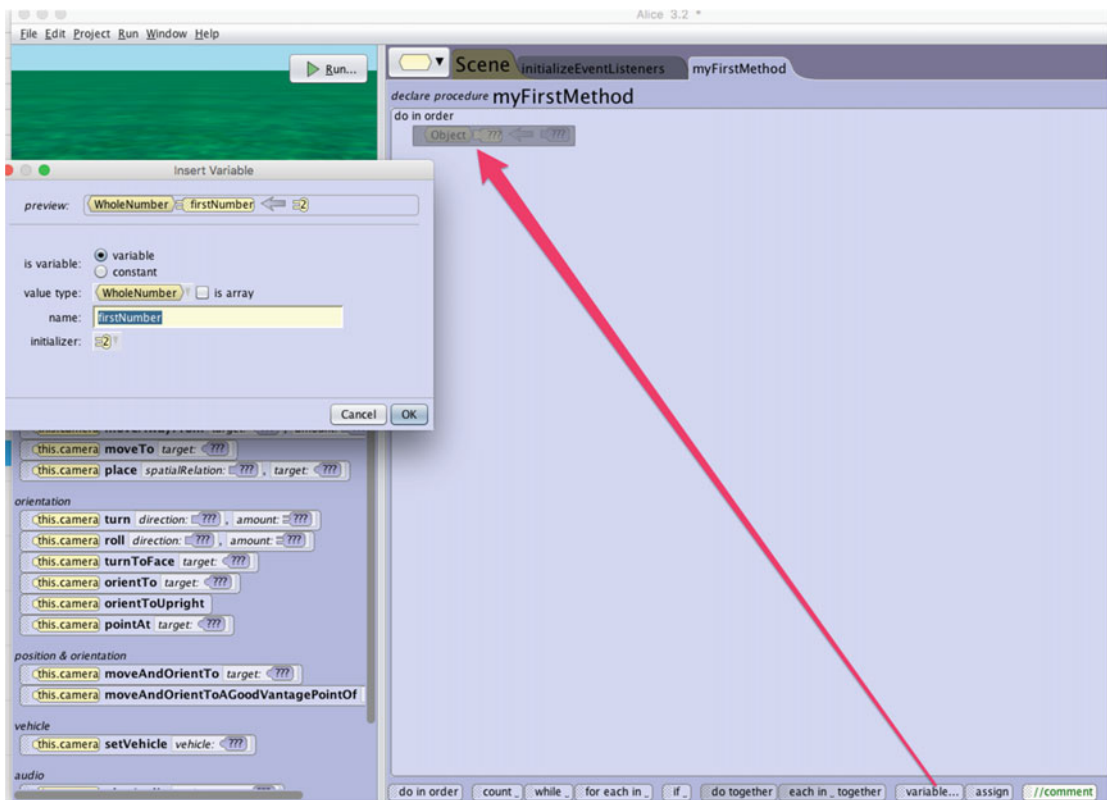


Figure 3-5. Creating a new local variable

3. The variable's value type is Whole Number. It is initialized with the value of 2.
It is always good programming practice to initialize your variables when they are declared.
4. Create another variable called **secondNumber**, as shown in Figure 3-6 and as done in step 5. The variable's value type is Whole Number and is initialized with the value of 3.

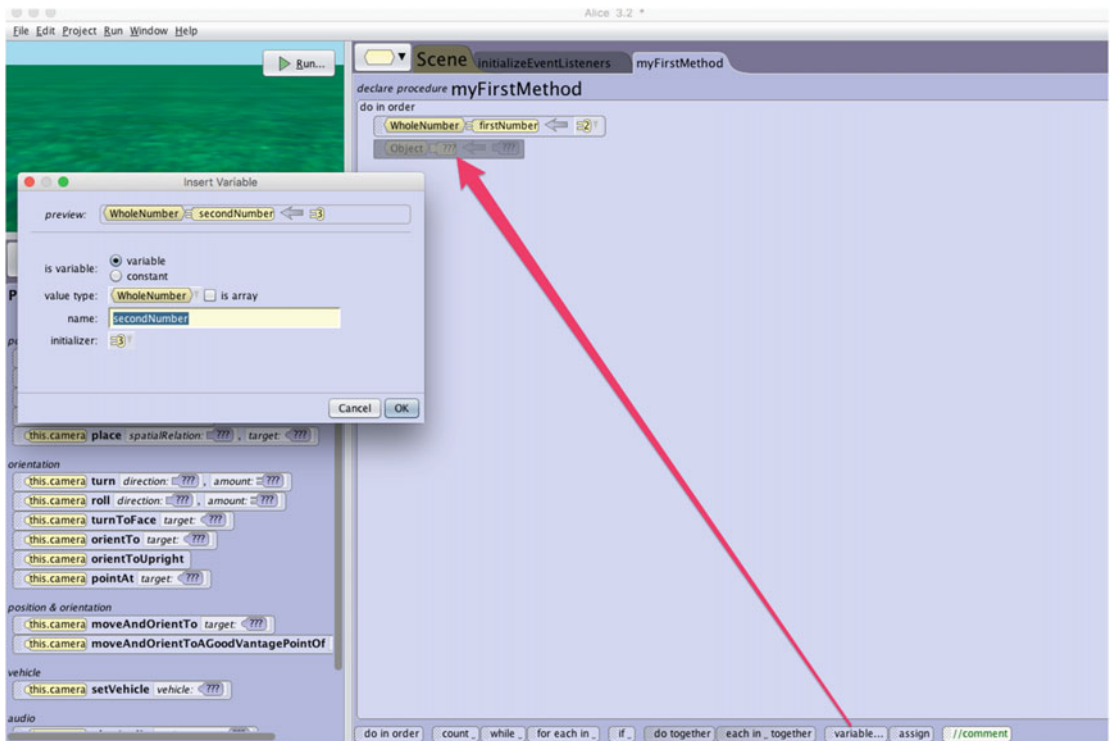


Figure 3-6. Creating a second local variable

5. Create another variable called **totalSum**, as shown in Figure 3-7 and as done in step 5. The variable's value type is Whole Number and is initialized with the value of 0. This variable will eventually hold the sum of `firstNumber` and `secondNumber`.

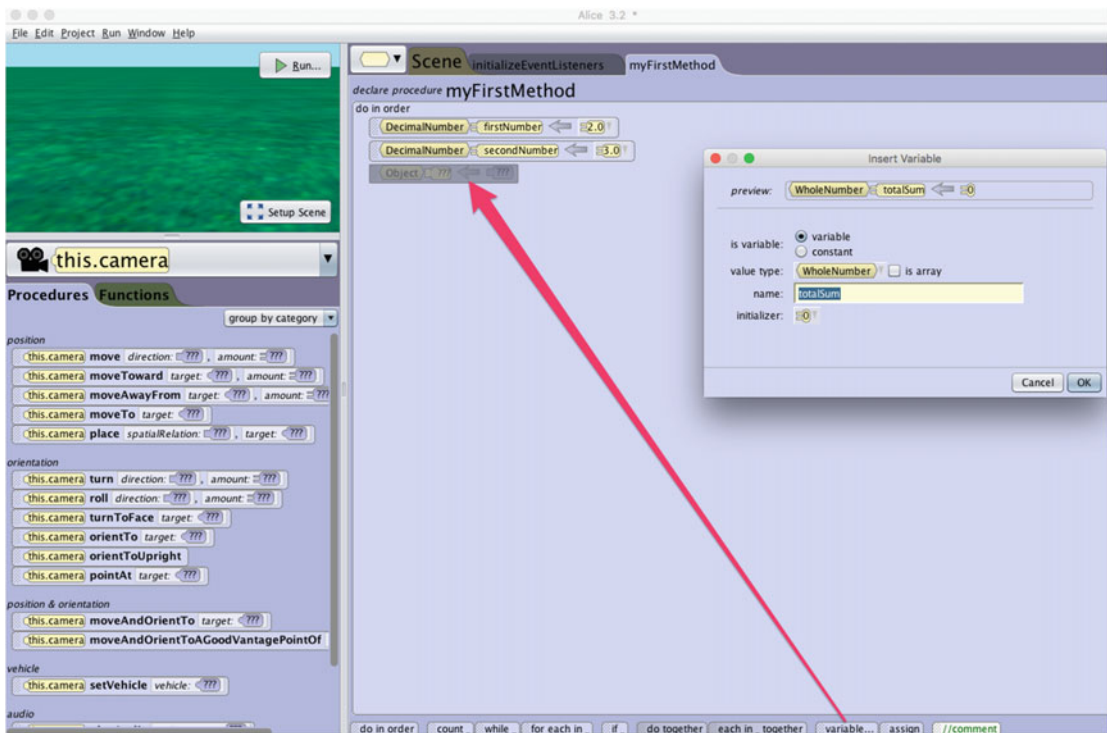


Figure 3-7. Creating the variable totalSum

6. Add your two variables together. Drag the totalSum tile to the last row. Right now, 0 is assigned to the local variable totalSum. **Click the 0** and assign firstNumber to totalSum. See Figure 3-8.

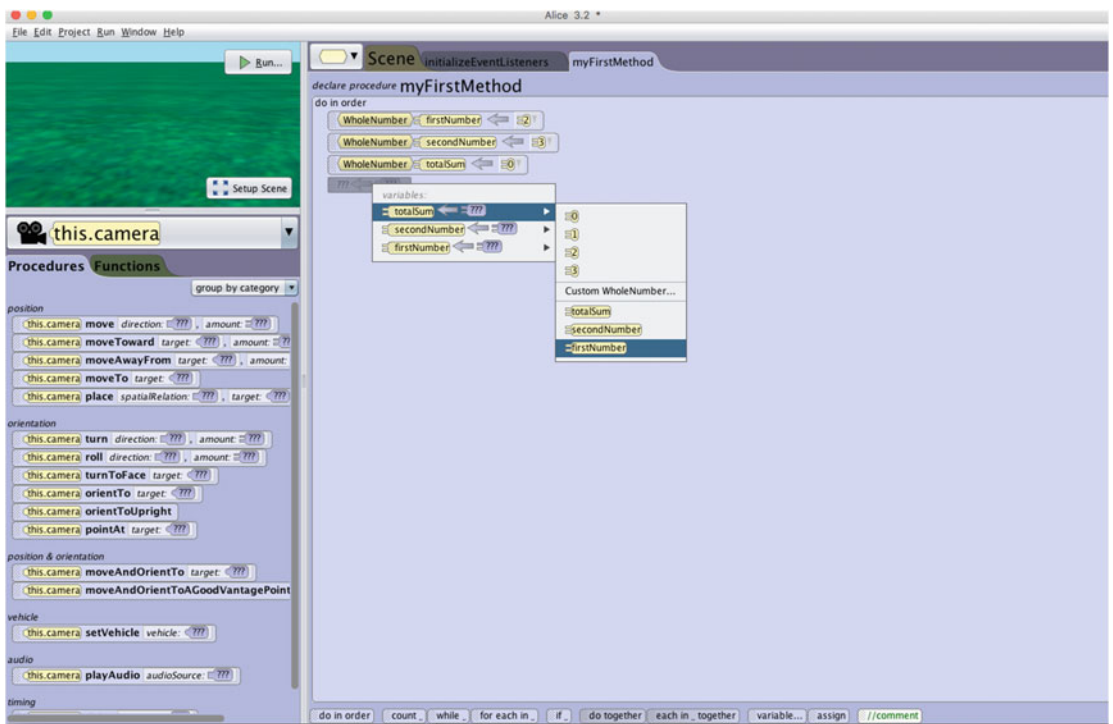


Figure 3-8. Creating the variable `totalSum`

7. Now that `firstNumber` is assigned to `totalSum`, click the `firstNumber` tile.
8. Select `secondNumber` to add to `firstNumber`. See Figure 3-9.

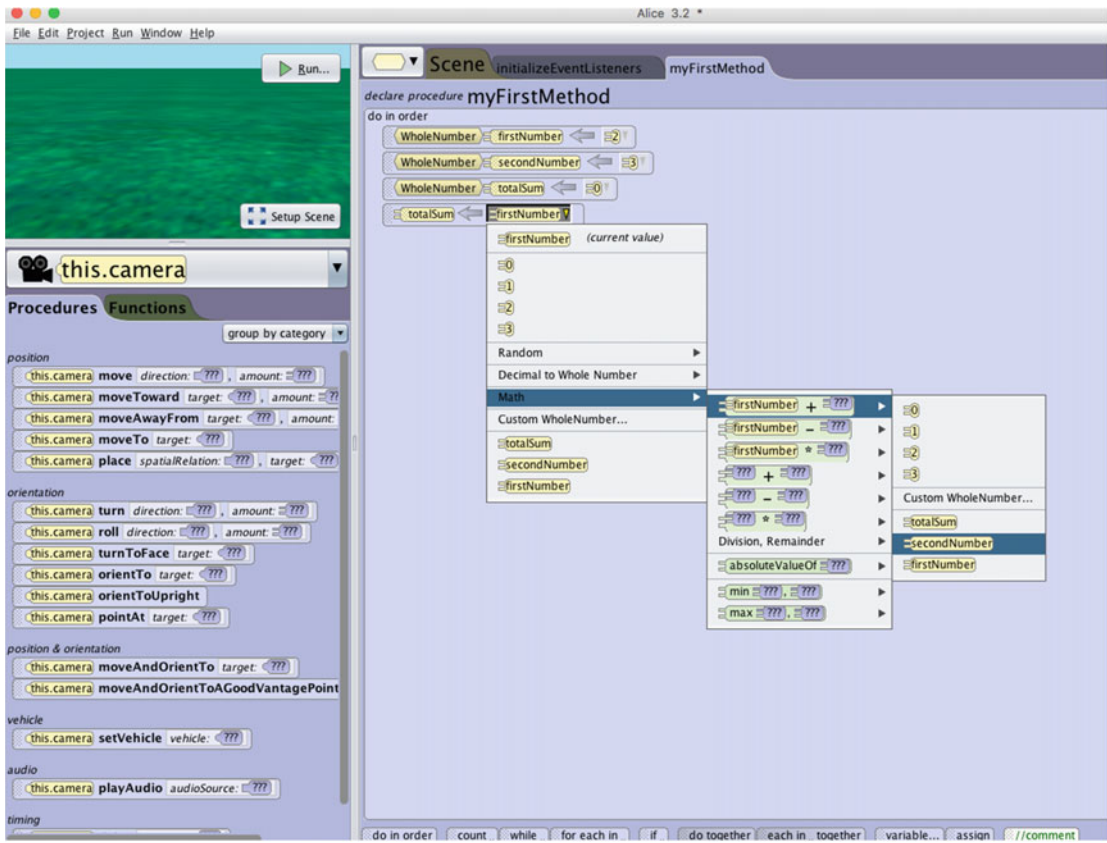


Figure 3-9. Setting the value to math expressions

9. totalNumber is now assigned to the total of firstNumber and secondNumber. See Figure 3-10.

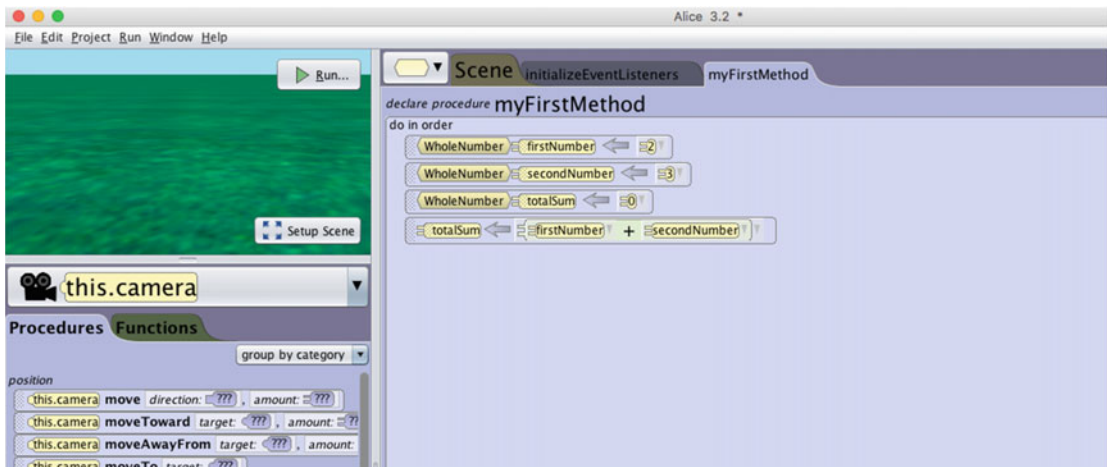


Figure 3-10. Selecting totalSum

Now you need to add a character to your world to display your total.

10. Click Setup Scene and then add any object of your choosing from the Gallery at the bottom of the screen. We have selected an Alien. See Figure 3-11.

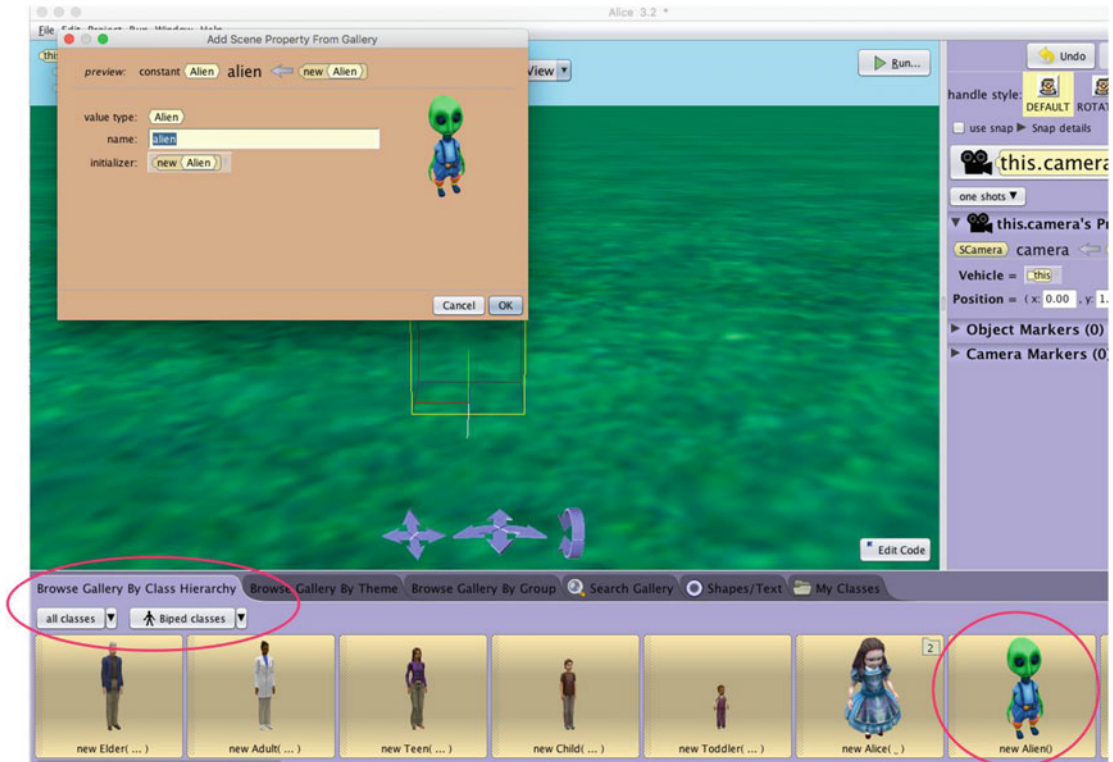


Figure 3-11. Adding a bunny to your world

You need to declare a variable of type **String**. The variable will hold the “The sum of 2 + 3 is:5” string.

11. Click Edit Code in the bottom right of the scene to go back to your Editor area.
12. Select the Alien instance. From the Procedures tab, drag the `this.alien say text:???` procedure tile to the editor. See Figure 3-12.

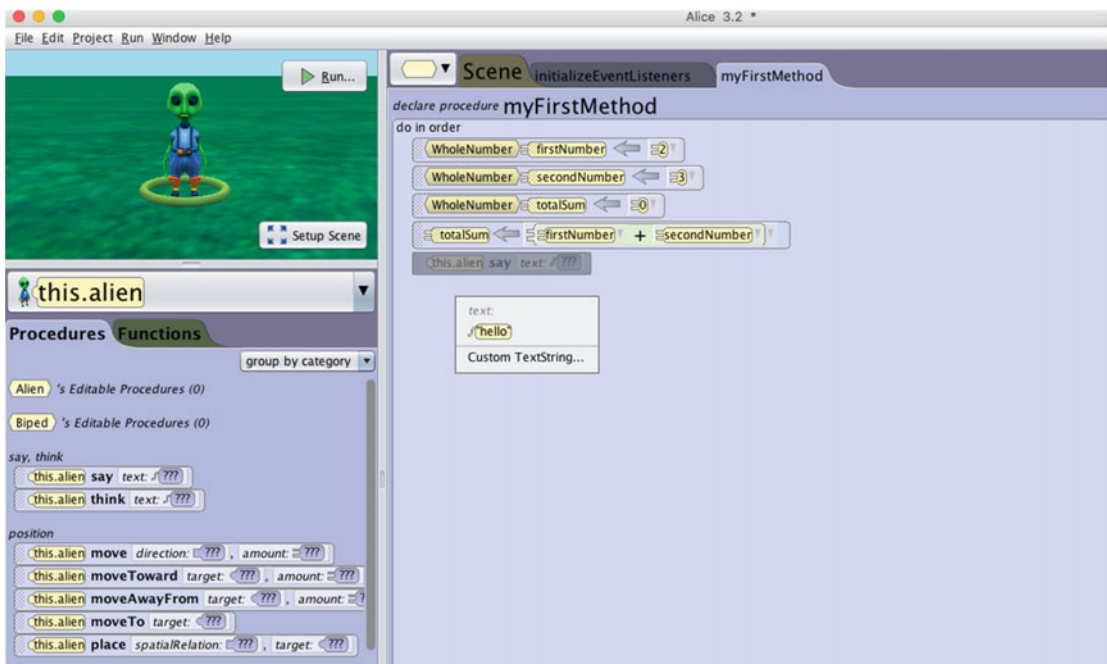


Figure 3-12. Adding the procedure (method) say to the editor

13. Click Custom TextString and enter the string **The sum of 2 + 3 is:** as the parameter value. See Figure 3-13.

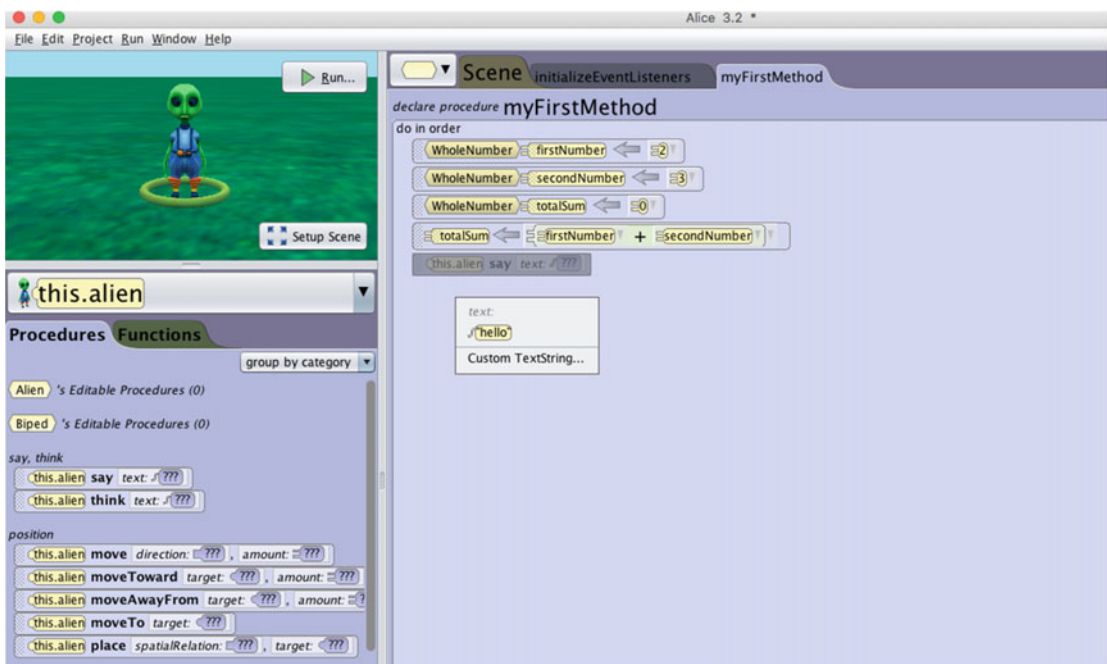


Figure 3-13. Entering the string parameter

- Click OK and then click the first parameter for the say procedure. Append `totalSum` to your first parameter String. See Figure 3-14.

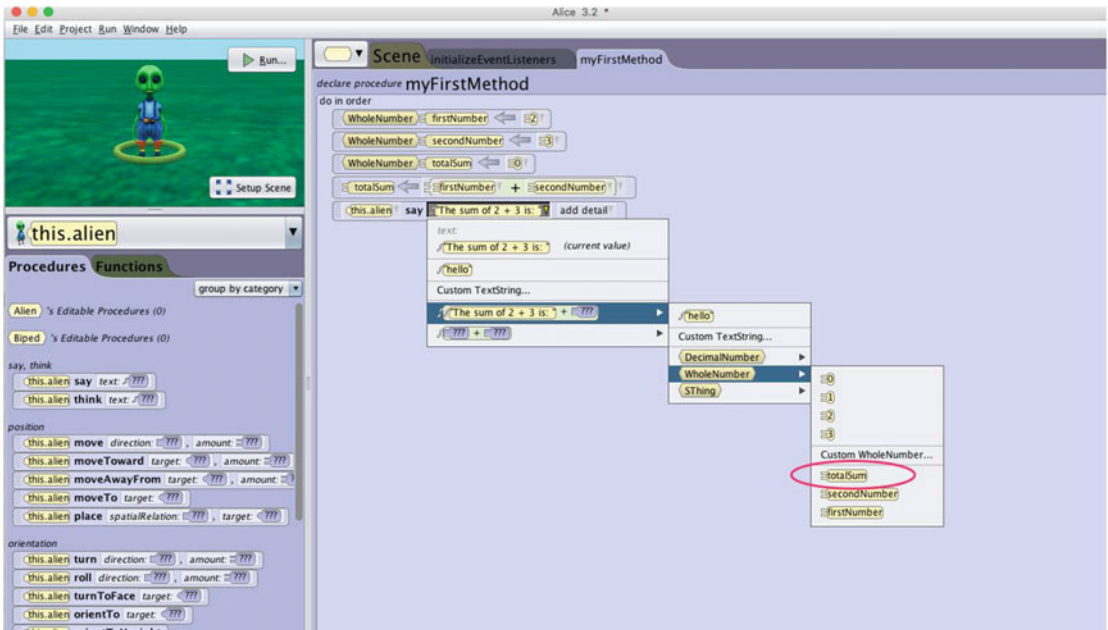


Figure 3-14. Adding the `totalNumber` to your customized string to display to the user

Alice did something very nice for you in the last step. It automatically converted the data type `totalSum` from an integer to a string when it appended its value to the “The sum of 2 + 3 is:” string. You will learn how to do this using Objective-C.

You can run the program now and will notice the customized string doesn’t display for very long.

To increase the display time of your customized string, click the `add detail` second parameter of the `say` procedure and change the duration to 2 seconds or any other value you like. See Figure 3-15.



Figure 3-15. The Editor area

- 15. Click the play button, and if you've done everything correctly, your app should look like Figure 3-16 when it runs.



Figure 3-16. *The app has run successfully!*

Data Types and Objective-C

Now that we have covered the principles of data types and have written an Alice app to help show how these principles apply, let's write an Objective-C app that accomplishes what you just did in Alice.

In Objective-C, you have similar data types as you did in Alice. Some of the most frequently used data types for storing numbers are integers, doubles, floats, and longs. Table 3-5 lists many of the basic data types. Many of these will be covered in later chapters.

Table 3-5. Objective-C Basic Data Types

Type	Examples	Specifiers
char	'a', '0', '\n'	%c
int	42, -42, 550 0xCCE0	%i, %d
unsigned int	20u, 101U, 0xFEu	%u, %x, %o
long int	13, -2010, 0xfefel	%ld,
unsigned long int	12UL, 100uL, 0xffeeUL	%lu, %lx, %lo
long long int	0xe5e5e5LL, 5011l	%lld
unsigned long long int	11uLL, 0xffeeULL	%llu, %llx, %llo
float	12.30f, 3.2e-5f, 0x2.2p09	%f, %e, %g, %a
double	3.1415	%f, %e, %g, %a
long double	3.1e-5l	%Lf, %Le, %Lg, %La
id	nil	%@

The Objective-C app will add two integers and display their sum to the console. The app will also display the text “The program has successfully terminated.” This will be fun and easy, so let’s get started.

1. As iOS developers, Xcode is where you make your living, so open up Xcode and create a new project. To do this, select File ► New ► Project and select the options shown in Figure 3-17. Click Next.

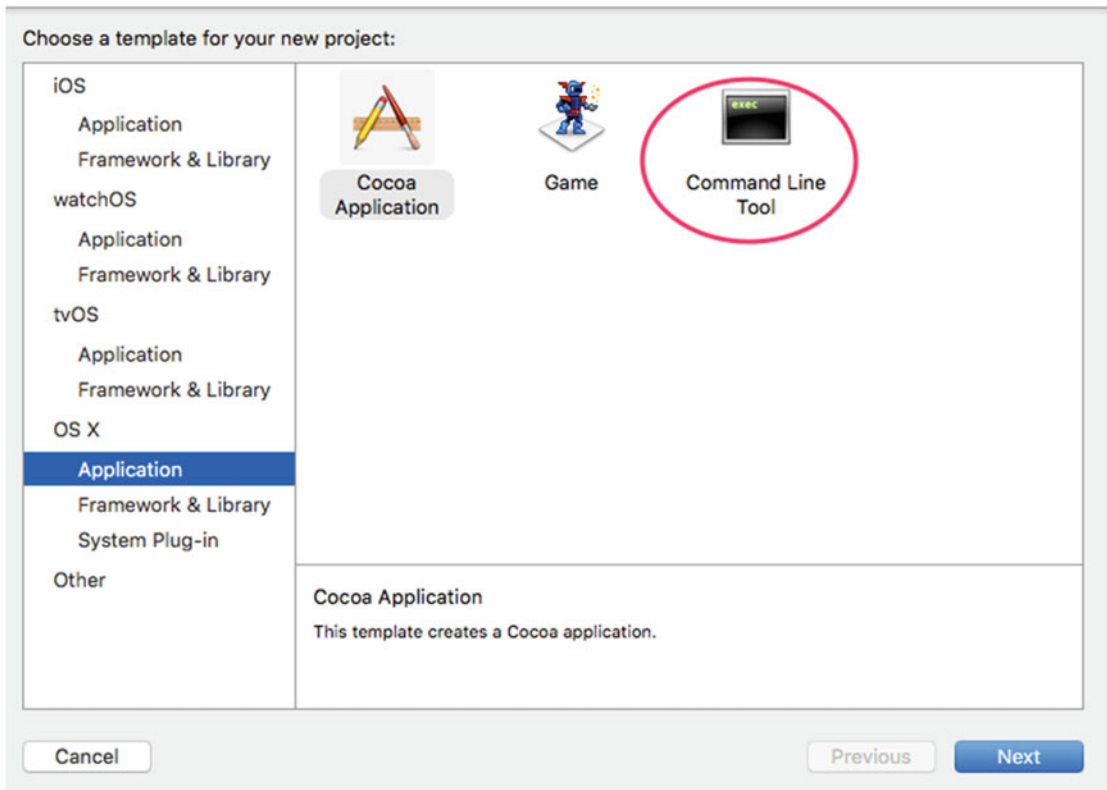


Figure 3-17. Opening a new project

2. Save the product name as Chapter 3 (see Figure 3-18). Then select the directory to save your project and click Next.

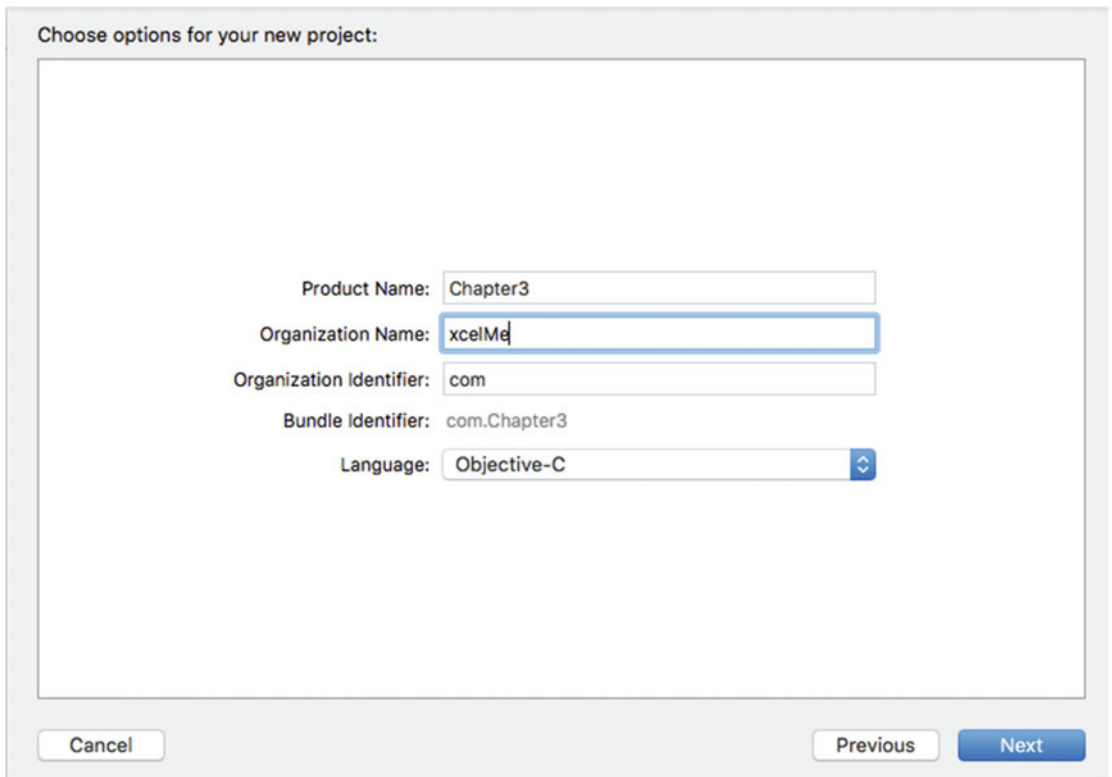


Figure 3-18. Project settings

3. After you create the project, you need to open your source code file in your editor. Open the `main.m` source file (see Figure 3-19).

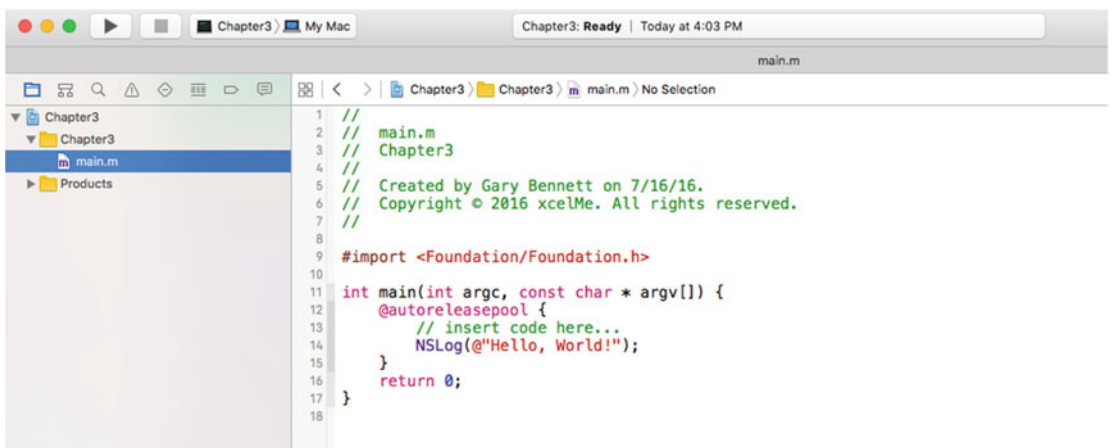


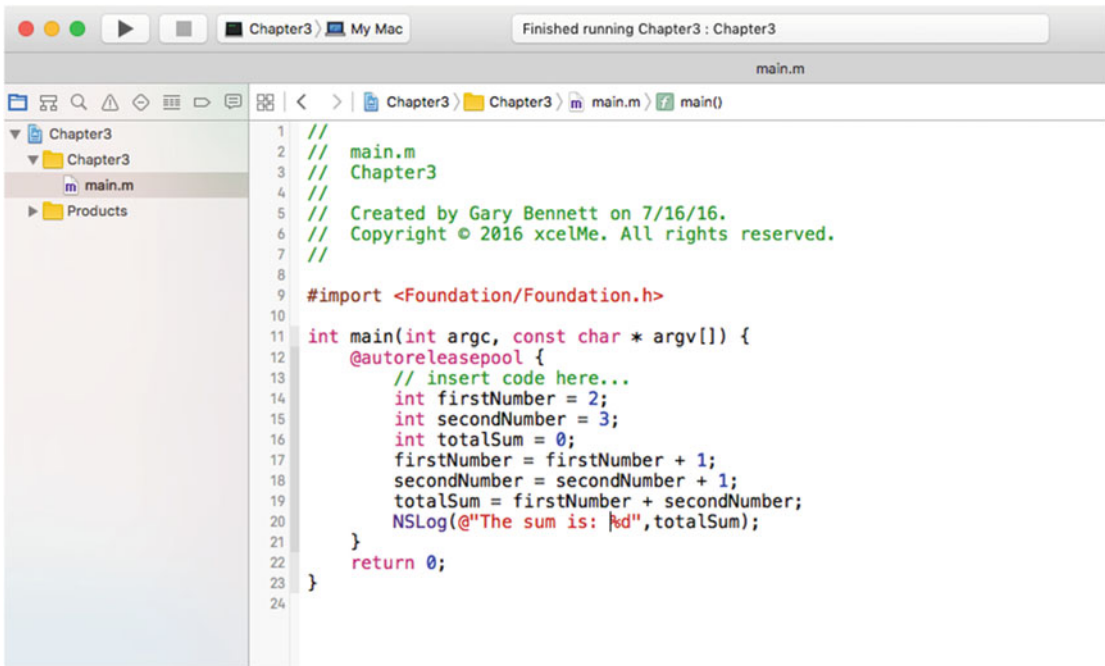
Figure 3-19. After you create your project and select the `main.m` file, your Xcode project should look this

If you haven't seen `//` used in computer programming before, it enables the programmer to comment about the code. Comments are not compiled by your applications and are used as notes for the programmer or, more importantly, for programmers who follow the original developer. Comments help both the original developer and follow-up developers understand how the app was developed.

Sometimes it is necessary for comments to span several lines or just part of a line. This can be accomplished with `/*` and `*/`. All the text between `/*` and `*/` is treated as a comment and is not compiled.

In this example, you first need to declare and initialize your variables `firstNumber` and `secondNumber`. It is good practice to always initialize variables when they are declared or soon afterward.

You'll increment the variables `firstNumber` and `secondNumber` by 1. You'll print the sum of `firstNumber` and `secondNumber`. See Figure 3-20.



```

1 //
2 //  main.m
3 //  Chapter3
4 //
5 //  Created by Gary Bennett on 7/16/16.
6 //  Copyright © 2016 xcelMe. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
10
11 int main(int argc, const char * argv[]) {
12     @autoreleasepool {
13         // insert code here...
14         int firstNumber = 2;
15         int secondNumber = 3;
16         int totalSum = 0;
17         firstNumber = firstNumber + 1;
18         secondNumber = secondNumber + 1;
19         totalSum = firstNumber + secondNumber;
20         NSLog(@"The sum is: %d", totalSum);
21     }
22     return 0;
23 }
24

```

Figure 3-20. Code for printing to the console

`NSLog` is a function that can take one or more parameters. The first parameter is generally the string that is to be printed to the console. The `@` symbol in front of the string tells the compiler this is an Objective-C type string and not a C string. The `@` symbol is typically used in front of all your strings for iPhone apps. If you don't use the `@` symbol, you will probably get a compiler error. `NSLog` is a helpful function used by developers to test the execution of their code.

`%d` tells the compiler an integer will be printed and to substitute the value of the integer for the `%d`. See Table 3-5 for other `NSLog` formatting specifiers. Finally, your second parameter is the integer to be printed.

Figure 3-21 shows the completed executed output of your application.

```

1 //
2 //  main.m
3 //  Chapter3
4 //
5 //  Created by Gary Bennett on 7/16/16.
6 //  Copyright © 2016 xcelMe. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
10
11 int main(int argc, const char * argv[]) {
12     @autoreleasepool {
13         // insert code here...
14         int firstNumber = 2;
15         int secondNumber = 3;
16         int totalSum = 0;
17         firstNumber = firstNumber + 1;
18         secondNumber = secondNumber + 1;
19         totalSum = firstNumber + secondNumber;
20         NSLog(@"The sum is: %d",totalSum);
21     }
22     return 0;
23 }
24

```

```

2016-07-16 16:16:58.281
Chapter3[29334:26388290] The sum is: 7
Program ended with exit code: 0

```

Figure 3-21. Console log displaying the results of your Objective-C app

To compile and run your application, click the Run button on your toolbar. You can see that you printed out the NSLog string.

■ **Note** If your editor doesn't have the same menus or gutter (the left column that contains the line numbers of the program) you saw in the previous screenshots, you can turn these settings on in the Xcode preferences. You can open the Xcode preferences by clicking the Xcode menu in the menu bar and then selecting Preferences.

Identifying Problems

Believe it or not, your program may not run the way you thought you told it to. The process of hunting down problems with your app is called **debugging**. To track down bugs in your apps, you can set breakpoints and inspect your variables to see the contents. To do this, simply click in the gutter where you want to set a breakpoint (see Figure 3-22). A breakpoint will stop your application from executing at that line and enable you to inspect your variables.

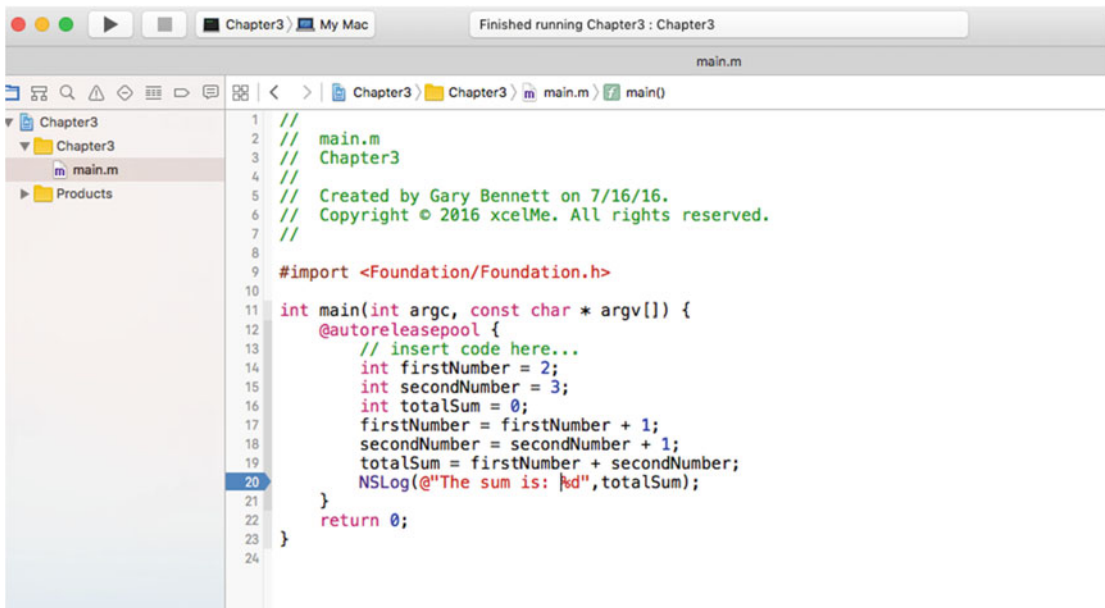


Figure 3-22. Setting debugging breakpoints

A blue pointer in the gutter of your editor denotes a breakpoint. When you run your application and your app hits a line of code that contains a breakpoint, your app will halt and display a green line across the line of code with a breakpoint (see Figure 3-23). Additionally, you can inspect each variable by hovering over it with your mouse.

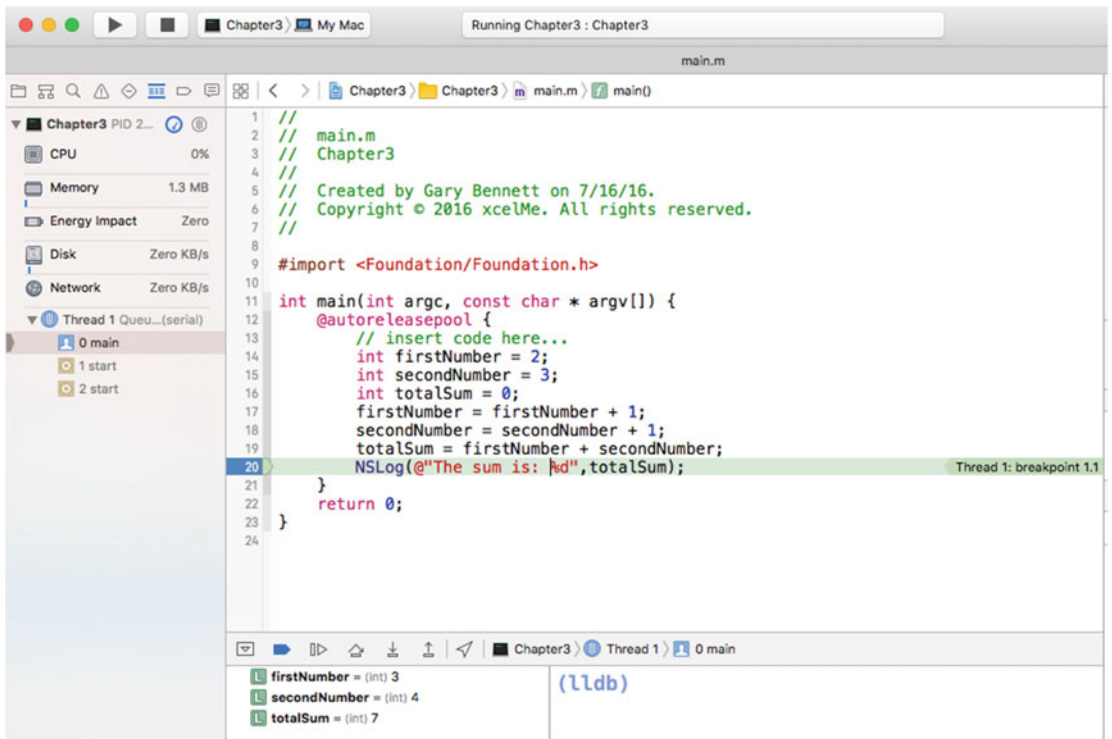


Figure 3-23. Breakpoint hit

We will talk more about debugging your apps in Chapter 14.

Summary

In this chapter, you learned about how data is used by your apps. You saw how to initialize variables and how to assign data to them. We explained that when variables are declared, they have a data type associated with them and that only data of the same type can be assigned to variables.

Finally, we showed you how to use variables in your first Alice app and finished by using variables with an Objective-C app.

Exercises

- Write an Objective-C console app (command-line tool) that multiplies two integers together and displays the result to the console.
- Write an Objective-C console app that squares a float. Display the resulting float in the console.
- Write an Objective-C console app that subtracts two floats, with the result being stored as an integer. Note that rounding does not occur.

CHAPTER 4



Making Decisions About...and Planning Program Flow

One of the cool things about being an iPhone/iPad/Mac developer is you get to tell your devices exactly what you want them to do and it will be done—your devices will do tasks over and over again without getting tired. That’s because iPhones/iPads/Macs don’t care how hard they worked yesterday, and they don’t let feelings get in the way. These devices don’t need hugs.

There is a downside to being a developer: you have to think of all possible outcomes when it comes to your apps. Many students love having this kind of control. They enjoy focusing on the many details of their apps; however, it can be frustrating having to handle so many details. As we mentioned in the introduction to this book, there is a price to pay for developing apps...and that price is time. The more time you spend developing and debugging, the better you will get with all the details, and the better your apps will run. You have to pay this price to become a successful developer.

Computers are black and white; there are no shades of gray. Your devices produce results, many of which are based on true and false conditions.

In this chapter, you will learn about computer logic and controlling the flow of your apps. Processing information and arriving at results is at the heart of all apps. Your apps need to process data based on values and conditions. To do this, you need to understand how computers perform logical operations and execute code based on the information your apps have acquired.

Boolean Logic

Boolean logic is a system for logical operations. Boolean logic uses binary operators like AND, OR, and the unary operator NOT to determine whether your conditions have been met. Binary operators take two operands. Unary operators take one operand; AND and OR are binary operators, and NOT is a unary operator.

We just introduced a couple of new terms that can sound confusing; however, you probably use Boolean logic every day. Let’s look at a couple of examples of Boolean logic with the binary operators AND and OR in a conversation parents sometimes have with their teenage children.

“You can go to the movies tonight if your room is clean AND the dishes are put away.”

“You can go to the movies tonight if your room is clean OR the dishes are put away.”

Boolean operators’ results are either TRUE or FALSE. In Chapter 3, we briefly introduced the Boolean data type. A variable that is defined as Boolean can only contain the values TRUE and FALSE.

```
BOOL seeMovies = YES;
```

In the preceding example, the AND operator takes two operands: one to the left and one to the right of AND. Each operand can be evaluated independently with a TRUE or FALSE.

For an AND operation to yield a TRUE result, both sides of the AND have to be TRUE. In our first example, the teenager has to clean his or her room AND have the dishes done. If either one of the conditions is FALSE, the result is FALSE—no movies for the teenager.

For an OR operation to yield a TRUE result, only one operand has to be TRUE, or both conditions can be TRUE to yield a TRUE result. In our second example, just a clean bedroom would result in the ability to go to the movies.

■ **Note** Behind the scenes, your iPhone/iPad/Mac defines a FALSE as a 0 and a TRUE as a 1. To be technically correct, a TRUE is defined as any nonzero value; so, values of 0.1, 1, and 2 would be evaluated as a TRUE when evaluated in a Boolean expression.

A NOT statement is a unary operator. It takes just one operand to yield a Boolean result. Here's an example: "You can NOT go to the movies."

This example takes one operand. The NOT operator turns a TRUE operand to a FALSE and a FALSE operand to a TRUE. Here, the result is a FALSE.

■ **Note** Performing a NOT operation is commonly referred to as *flipping-the-bit*, or *negating*. A TRUE is defined as a 1, a FALSE is defined as a 0, and zeros and ones are referred to as *bits*. A NOT operation turns a TRUE to a FALSE and a FALSE to a TRUE, hence *flipping-the-bit* or *negating* the result.

AND, OR, and NOT are three common Boolean operators. Occasionally, you need to use more complex operators. XOR, NAND, and NOR are common operations for iPhone/iPad/Mac developers.

The Boolean operator XOR means *exclusive-or*. An easy way to remember how the XOR operator works is the XOR operator will return a TRUE result if only one argument is TRUE, not both.

Objective-C does not have these operators built in, but consider that NAND and NOR mean "NOT AND" and "NOT OR." After evaluating the AND or the OR arguments and results, simply negate the results.

Truth Tables

Let's use a tool to help you evaluate all the Boolean operators. A **truth table** is a mathematical table used in logic to evaluate Boolean operators. They are helpful when trying to determine all the possibilities of a Boolean operator. Let's look at some common truth tables for AND, OR, NOT, XOR, NAND, and NOR.

In an AND truth table, there are four possible combinations of TRUE and FALSE.

- TRUE AND TRUE = TRUE
- TRUE AND FALSE = FALSE
- FALSE AND TRUE = FALSE
- FALSE AND FALSE = FALSE

Placing these combinations in a truth table results in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. An AND Truth Table

A	B	A AND B
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

An AND truth table only produces a TRUE result if both of its operands are TRUE. Table 4-2 illustrates an OR truth table and all possible operands.

Table 4-2. An OR Truth Table

A	B	A OR B
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

An OR truth table produces a TRUE result if one or both of its operands are TRUE. Table 4-3 illustrates a NOT truth table and all possible operands.

Table 4-3. A NOT Truth Table

NOT	RESULT
TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE

A NOT *flips-the-bit* or negates the original operand's Boolean value. Table 4-4 illustrates an XOR (or exclusive-or) truth table and all possible operands.

Table 4-4. An XOR Truth Table

A	B	A XOR B
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

The operator XOR yields a TRUE result if only one of the operands is TRUE. Table 4-5 illustrates a NAND truth table and all possible operands.

Table 4-5. A NAND Truth Table

A	B	A NAND B
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	TRUE

Table 4-6 illustrates a NOR truth table and all possible operands.

Table 4-6. A NOR Truth Table

A	B	A NOR B
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	FALSE	TRUE

The easiest way to look at the NAND and NOR operators is to simply negate the results from the AND and OR truth tables, respectively.

Comparison Operators

In software development, the comparison of different data items is accomplished with **comparison operators**. These operators produce a logical TRUE or FALSE result. Table 4-7 shows the list of comparison operators.

Table 4-7. Comparison Operators

>	Greater than
<	Less than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<=	Less than or equal to
==	Equal to
!=	Not equal to

■ **Note** If you're constantly forgetting which way the greater-than and less-than signs go, use a crutch I learned in grade school: if the greater-than and less-than signs represent the mouth of an alligator, the alligator always eats the bigger value. It may sound silly, but it works.

Designing Apps

Now that we've introduced Boolean logic and comparison operators, you can start designing your apps. Sometimes it's important to express all or parts of your apps to others without having to write the actual code.

Writing out code helps a developer think out loud and brainstorm with other developers regarding sections of code that are of concern—this helps to analyze problems and possible solutions before coding begins.

Pseudo-code

Pseudo-code refers to writing out code that is a high-level description of an algorithm you are trying to solve. Pseudo-code does not contain the necessary programming syntax for coding; however, it does express the algorithm that is necessary to solve the problem at hand.

Pseudo-code can be written by hand on paper (or a whiteboard) or typed on a computer.

Using pseudo-code, you can apply what you know about Boolean data types, truth tables, and comparison operators. Refer to Listing 4-1 for pseudo-code examples.

Listing 4-1. Pseudo-code Examples Using Conditional Operators in If-Then-Else Code

```
x = 5;
y = 6;
isComplete = TRUE;
if ( x < y)
{
    // in this example, x is less than y
    do stuff;
}
else
{
    do other stuff;
}

if (isComplete == TRUE)
{
    // in this example, isComplete is equal to TRUE
    do stuff;
}
else
{
    do other stuff;
}
// another way to check isComplete == TRUE
if (isComplete)
{
    // in this example, isComplete is TRUE
    do stuff;
}
// two ways to check if a value is false
if (isComplete == FALSE)
{
    do stuff;
}
```

```

else
{
    // in this example, isComplete is TRUE so the else block will be executed
}
// another way to check isComplete == FALSE
if (!isComplete)
{
    do stuff;
}
else
{
    // in this example, isComplete is TRUE so the else block will be executed
}

```

■ **Note** Pseudo-code is a programming notation resembling a simplified programming language, used in program design. *Pseudo-code will not compile and run.* It is for illustrative purposes only.

Note that the **!** switches the value of the Boolean it's applied to; so, using **!** makes a TRUE value into a FALSE and makes a FALSE value into a TRUE.

Often, it is necessary to combine your comparison tests. A compound relationship test is one or more simple relationship tests joined by either the **&&** or the **||** (two pipe characters).

&& and **||** are verbalized as logical-and and logical-or, respectively. Pseudo-code in Listing 4-1 illustrates logical-and and logical-or operators.

Listing 4-2. Using **&&** and **||** Logical Operators Using Pseudo-code

```

x = 5;
y = 6;
isComplete = TRUE;
// using the logical and
if (x < y && isComplete == TRUE)
{
    // in this example, x is less than y and isComplete == TRUE
    do stuff;
}
if (x < y || isComplete == FALSE)
{
    // in this example, x is less than y.
    // Only one operand has to be TRUE for an OR to result in a TRUE.
    // See Table 4-2 A OR Truth Table
    do stuff;
}
// another way to test for TRUE
if (x < y && isComplete)
{
    // in this example, x is less than y and isComplete == TRUE
    do stuff;
}
// another way to test for FALSE
if (x < y && !isComplete)

```

```

{
    do stuff;
}
else
{
    // isComplete == TRUE
    do stuff;
}

```

Design Requirements

As discussed in Chapter 1, the most expensive process in the software development life cycle is writing code. The least expensive process in the software development life cycle is gathering the requirements for your application; yet, this latter process is the most overlooked and least used in software development.

Design requirements usually begin by asking clients, customers, and stakeholders how the application should work and what problems it should solve.

With respect to apps, requirements can include long or short narrative descriptions, screen mock-ups, and formulas. It is far easier to open your word processor and change the requirements and screen mock-ups before coding begins than it is to modify an iPhone/iPad/Mac app. The following is the design requirement for one view of an iPhone mobile banking app:

- *View:* Accounts view.
- *Description:* Displays the list of accounts the user has. The list of accounts will be in the following sections: Business Accounts, Personal Accounts and Car Loans, IRA, and Home Equity Loans.
- *Cells:* Each cell will contain the account name, the last four digits of the account, the available balance, and the current balance.

A picture is worth a thousand words. Screen mock-ups are helpful to developers and users because they can visualize how the views will look when they are completed. There are many tools that can quickly design mock-ups; one of these tools is OmniGraffle. Another popular tool is InVision. See Figure 4-1 for an example of a screen mock-up used for the design requirements generated by OmniGraffle.

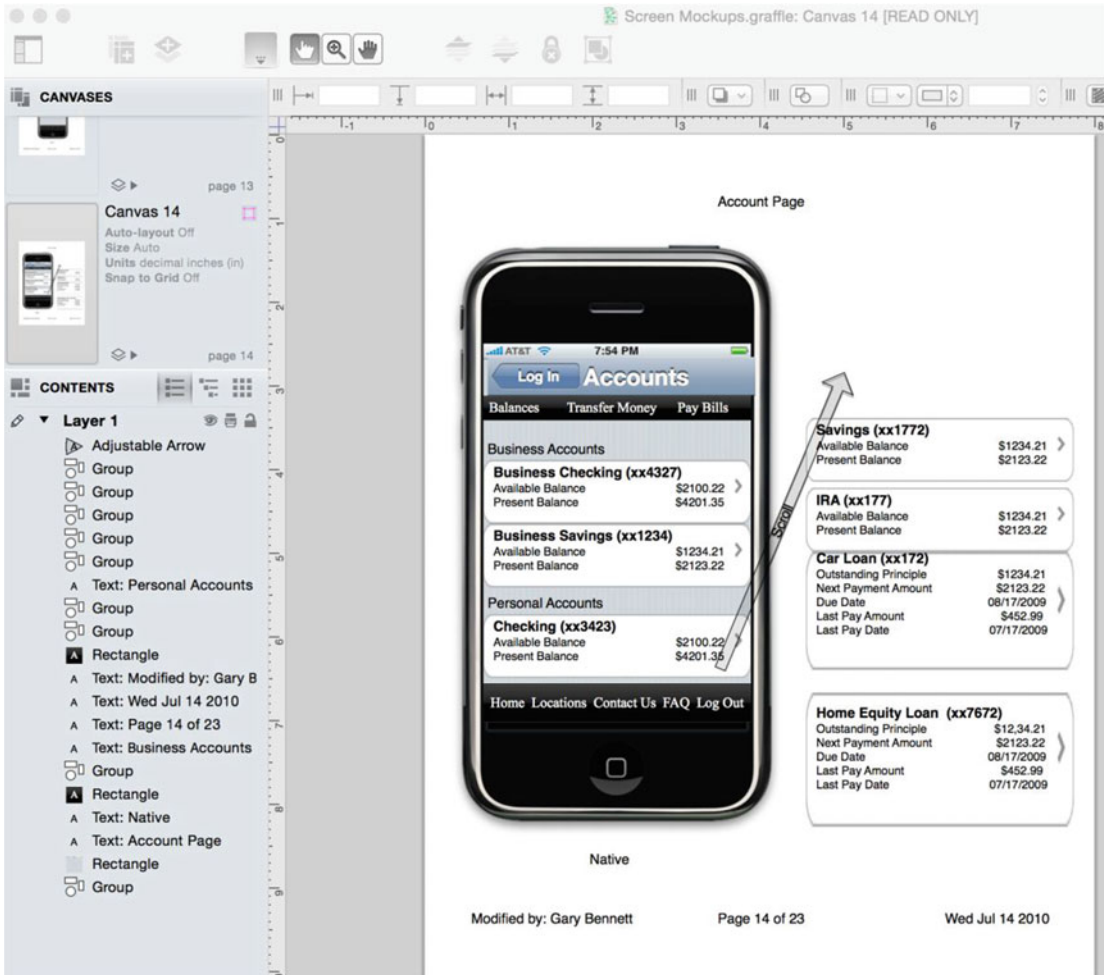


Figure 4-1. Original screen mock-up for a mobile banking app using OmniGraffle

Many developers believe that design requirements take too long and are unnecessary. There is a lot of information presented on the Accounts screen in Figure 4-1. Many business rules can determine how information is displayed to the user, along with all of the error handling when things go bad. When designing your app, working with all the business stakeholders at the beginning of the development process is critical to getting it right the first time.

Figure 4-2 is an example of all stakeholders being involved in your app's development. Having all stakeholders involved in every view from the beginning will eliminate multiple rewrites and application bugs.

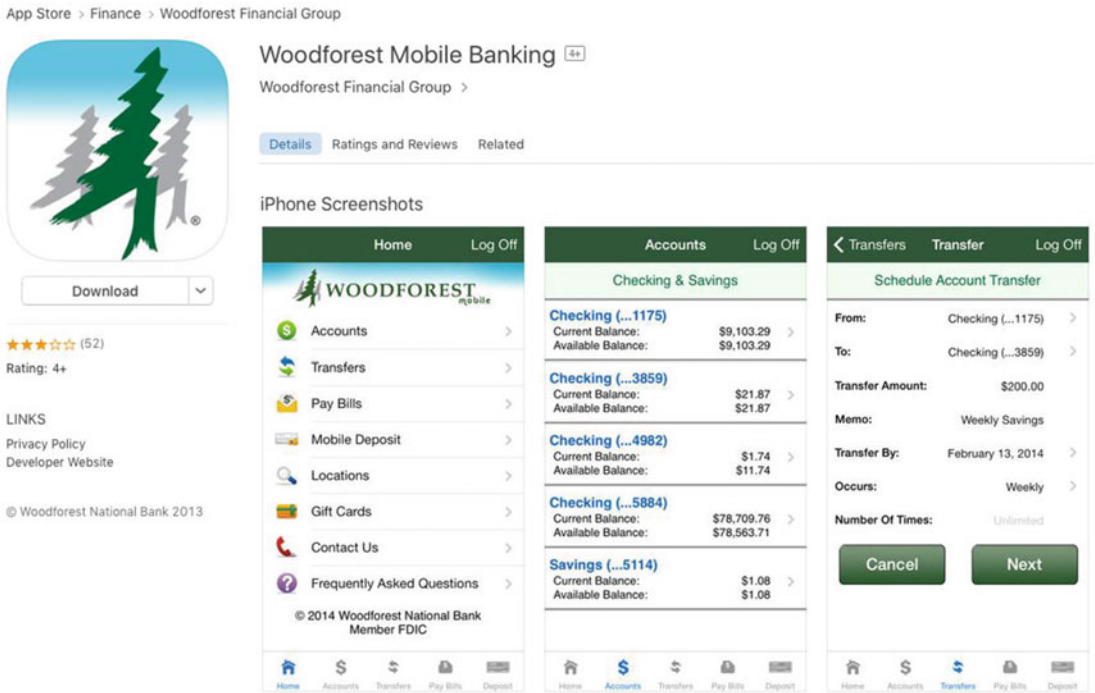


Figure 4-2. The Woodforest Mobile Banking app as it appears on the iTunes Connect app store. Compare this with the app requirements Accounts screen in Figure 4-1.

Additionally, Apple recommends that developers spend at least 50 percent of their development time on the user interface's design and development.

InVision is a great tool for laying out your iOS app's look and feel and seeing the prototypes on your iPhone. See Figure 4-3.

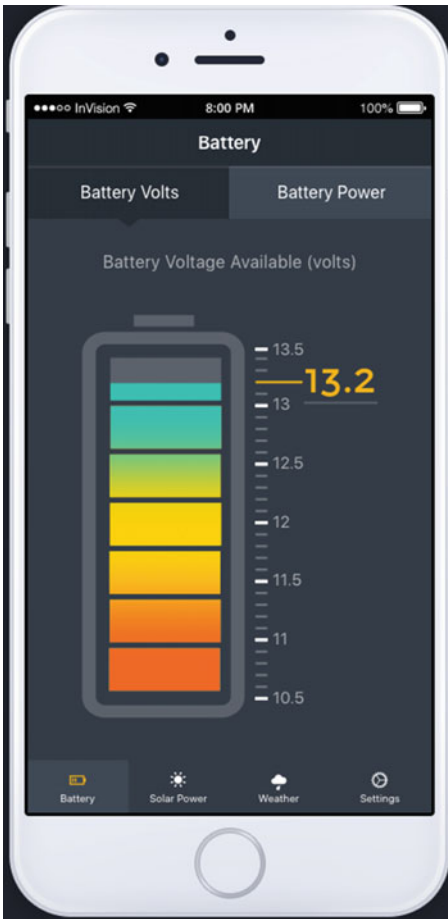


Figure 4-3. A prototype view using InVision

Flowcharting

After design requirements are finalized, you can pseudo-code sections of your app to solve complex development issues. **Flowcharting** is a common method of diagramming an algorithm. An algorithm is represented as different types of boxes connected by lines and arrows. Developers often use flowcharting to express code visually. See Figure 4-4.

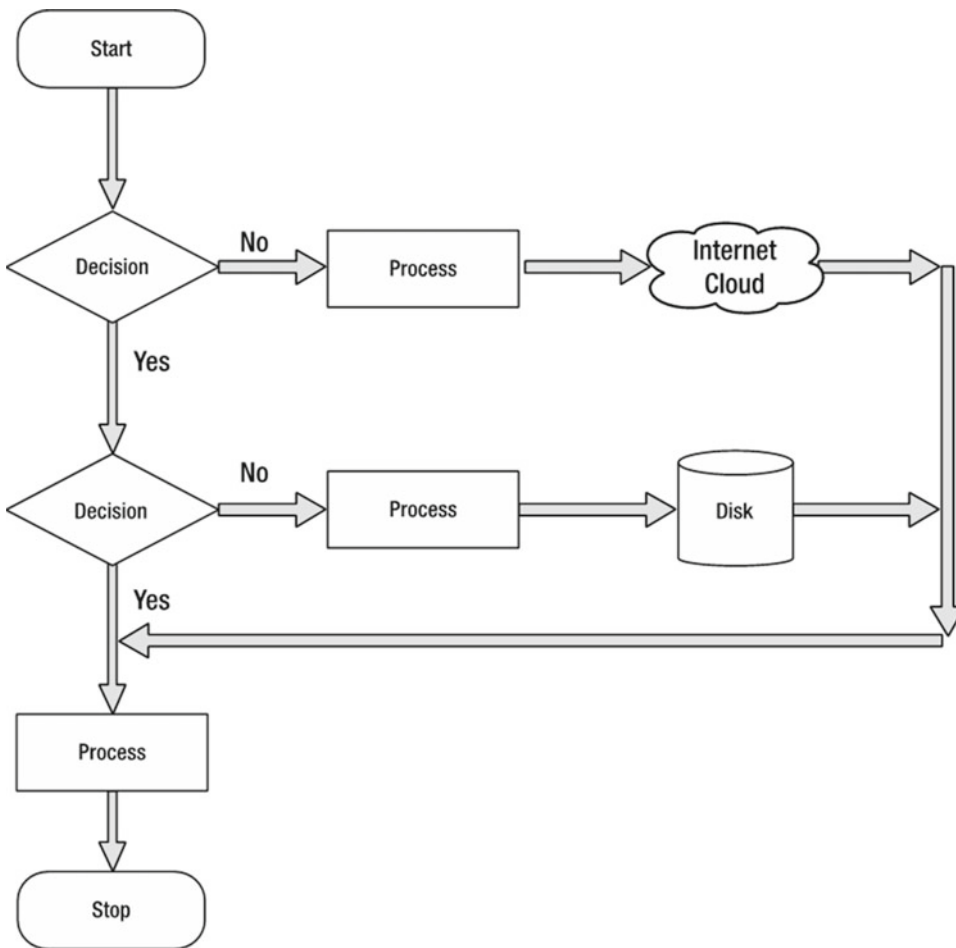


Figure 4-4. Sample flowchart showing common figures and their associated names

Flowcharts should always have a start and a stop. Branches should never come to an end without a stop. This helps developers make sure all of the branches in their code are accounted for and that they cleanly stop execution.

Designing and Flowcharting an Example App

We have covered a lot of information about decision-making and program flow. It's time to do what programmers do best: write apps!

The app you have been assigned to write generates a random number between 0 and 100 inclusive and asks users to guess the number. Users have to do this until the number is guessed. You can use any object from the Alice gallery to ask users for their guess, and you can also choose any world for your object to be in. The object will provide a visual queue for each high, low, and correct guess. When users guess the correct answer, they will be asked if they want to play again. See Figure 4-5.



Figure 4-5. An Alien object asking the user to guess a number between 0 and 100

The App's Design

Using your design requirements, you can make a flowchart for your app. See Figure 4-6.

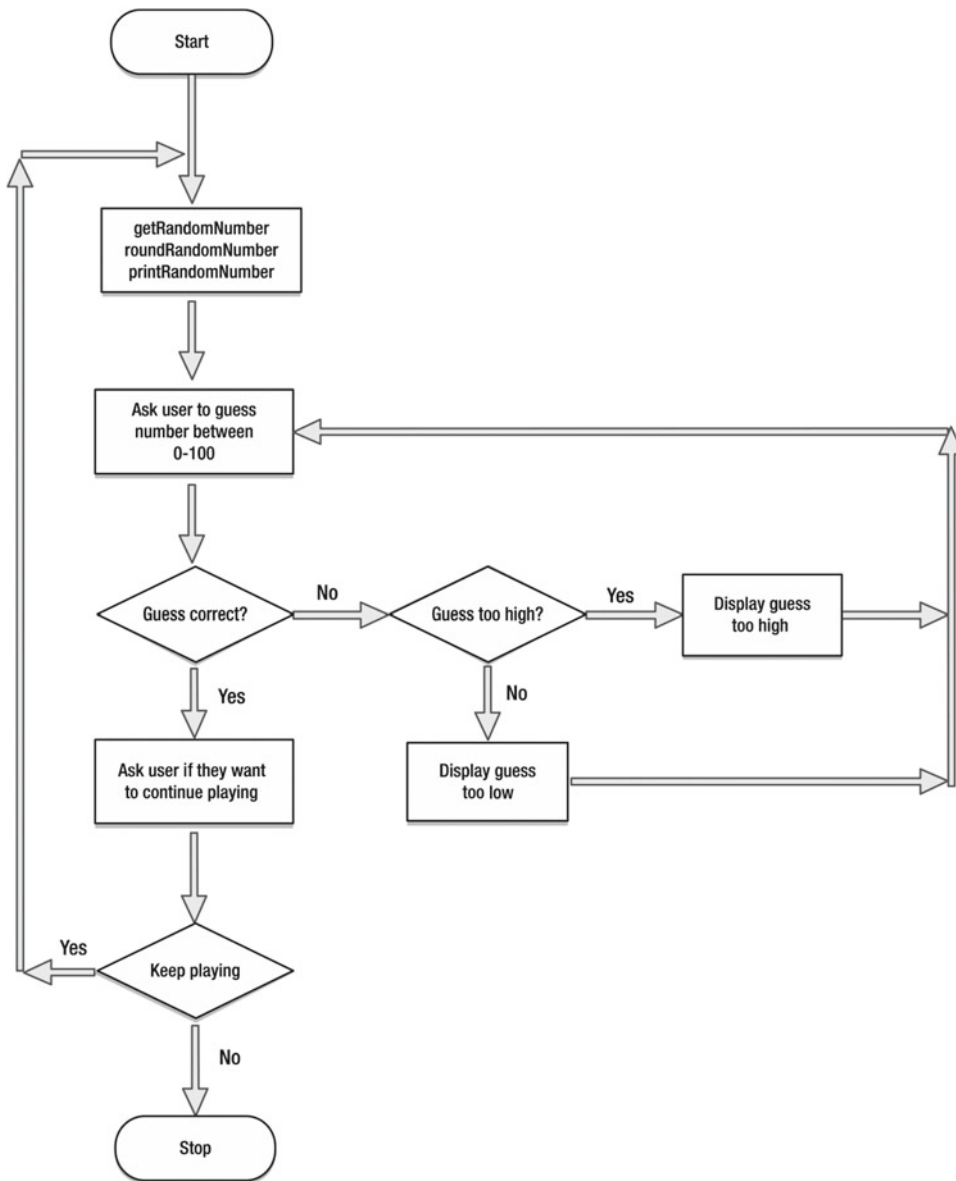


Figure 4-6. Flowchart for guessing a random number app

Reviewing Figure 4-6, you'll notice that as you approach the end of a block of logic in your flowchart, there are arrows that go back to a previous section and repeat that section until some condition is met. This is called **looping**. It enables you to repeat sections of programming logic—without having to rewrite those sections of code over—until a condition is met.

Using Loops to Repeat Program Statements

A **loop** is a sequence of program statements that is specified once but can be repeated several times in succession. A loop can repeat a specified number of times (count-controlled) or until some condition (condition-controlled) occurs.

In this section, you'll learn about count-controlled loops and condition-controlled loops. You will also learn how to control your loops with Boolean logic.

Count-Controlled Loops

A count-controlled loop is a loop that repeats a specified number of times. In Objective-C and Alice, this is a **for loop**. A for loop has a counter variable. This variable enables the developer to specify the number of times the loop will be executed. See Listing 4-3.

Listing 4-3. A Count-Controlled Loop

```
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
{
    // repeat all code in braces 10 times
}
....continue
```

The loop in Listing 4-3 will loop ten times. The variable `i` starts at zero and increments at the end of the `}` by one. The incrementing is done by the `i++` in the for statement; `i++`, which is equivalent to `i = i + 1`. `i` is then checked to see whether it is less than ten. This for loop will exit when `i = 9` and the `}` is reached.

■ **Note** It is common for developers to confuse the number of times they think their loops will repeat. If the loop started at 1 in Listing 4-3, the loop would repeat nine times instead of ten.

In Objective-C, for loops can have their counter variables declared in the for loop declaration itself. See Listing 4-4.

Listing 4-4. Counter Variable Is Initialized in for Loop Declaration

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
{
    // repeat all code in braces 10 times
}
....continue
```

Occasionally, you will need to repeat just one line of code in a for loop. This can be accomplished by not using any `{}`. The first line of code encountered after the for loop declaration is repeated, as specified in the for loop declaration. See Listing 4-5.

Listing 4-5. Counter Variable Is Initialized in the for Loop Declaration

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    do this line of code 10 times;
....continue
```

Condition-Controlled Loops

Objective-C and Alice have the ability to repeat a loop until some condition changes. You may want to repeat a section of your code until a false condition is reached with one of your variables. This type of loop is called a **while loop**. A while loop is a control flow statement that repeats based on a given Boolean condition. A while loop can be thought of as a repeating if statement. See Listing 4-6.

Listing 4-6. An Objective-C while Loop Repeating

```
BOOL isTrue = TRUE;
while (isTrue)
{
    // do something;
    isTrue = FALSE; // a condition occurs that sometimes sets isTrue to FALSE
}
....continue
```

The while loop in Listing 4-6 first checks whether the variable `isTrue` is `TRUE`—which it is—so the {loop body} is entered where the code is executed. Eventually, some condition is reached that causes `isTrue` to become `FALSE`. After completing all the code in the loop body, the condition (`isTrue`) is checked once more, and the loop is repeated again. This process is repeated until the variable `isTrue` is set to `FALSE`.

Infinite Loops

An infinite loop repeats endlessly, either because of the loop not having a condition that causes termination or because of the loop having a terminating condition that can never be met.

Generally, infinite loops can cause apps to become unresponsive. They are the result of a side effect of a bug in either the code or the logic.

Listing 4-7. An Example of an Infinite Loop

```
x = 0;
while (x != 5)
{
    do something;
    x = x + 2;
}
....continue
```

Listing 4-7 is an example of an infinite loop caused by a terminating condition that can never be met. The variable `x` will be checked with each iteration through the while loop but will never be equal to 5. The variable `x` will always be an even number because it was initialized to zero and incremented by 2 in the loop. This will cause the loop to repeat endlessly. See Listing 4-8.

Listing 4-8. An Example of an Infinite Loop Caused by a Terminating Condition That Can Never Be Met

```
while (TRUE)
{
    do something;
}
....continue
```

Coding the Example App in Alice

Now that you have your design requirements and flowchart completed and you understand looping, you’re ready to write your Alice application. See Figure 4-7.

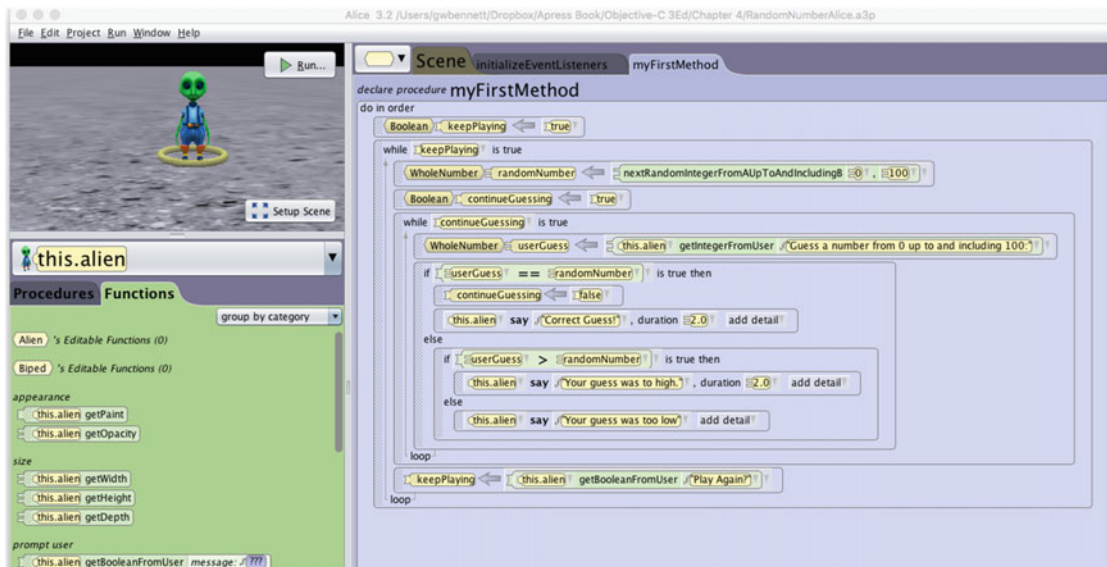


Figure 4-7. Random number generator app

It is not possible to list the source code for this Alice program in one screenshot. However, if you print out the source code, you can view all the code. See Figure 4-8.

```

declare procedure myFirstMethod
do in order
  Boolean keepPlaying ← true
  while keepPlaying is true
    WholeNumber randomNumber ← nextRandomIntegerFromAUpToAndIncludingB 0, 100
    Boolean continueGuessing ← true
    while continueGuessing is true
      WholeNumber userGuess ← this.alien.getIntegerFromUser "Guess a number from 0 up to and including 100:"
      if userGuess == randomNumber is true then
        continueGuessing ← false
        this.alien.say "Correct Guess!", duration 2.0 add detail
      else
        if userGuess > randomNumber is true then
          this.alien.say "Your guess was too high.", duration 2.0 add detail
        else
          this.alien.say "Your guess was too low" add detail
    loop
  keepPlaying ← this.alien.getBooleanFromUser "Play Again?"
loop

```

Figure 4-8. Random number generator; complete program listing

Figure 4-8 shows the entire program listing for your random number generator code.

■ **Note** You can download the complete random number generator app at <http://forum.xcelme.com>. The code will be under the Chapter 4 topic.

Coding the Example App in Objective-C

Using your requirements and what you learned with your Alice app, try writing your random number generator in Objective-C.

Your Objective-C app will run from the command line, as it asks the user to guess a random number.

1. Open Xcode and start a new project. Choose Command Line Tool. See Figure 4-9.

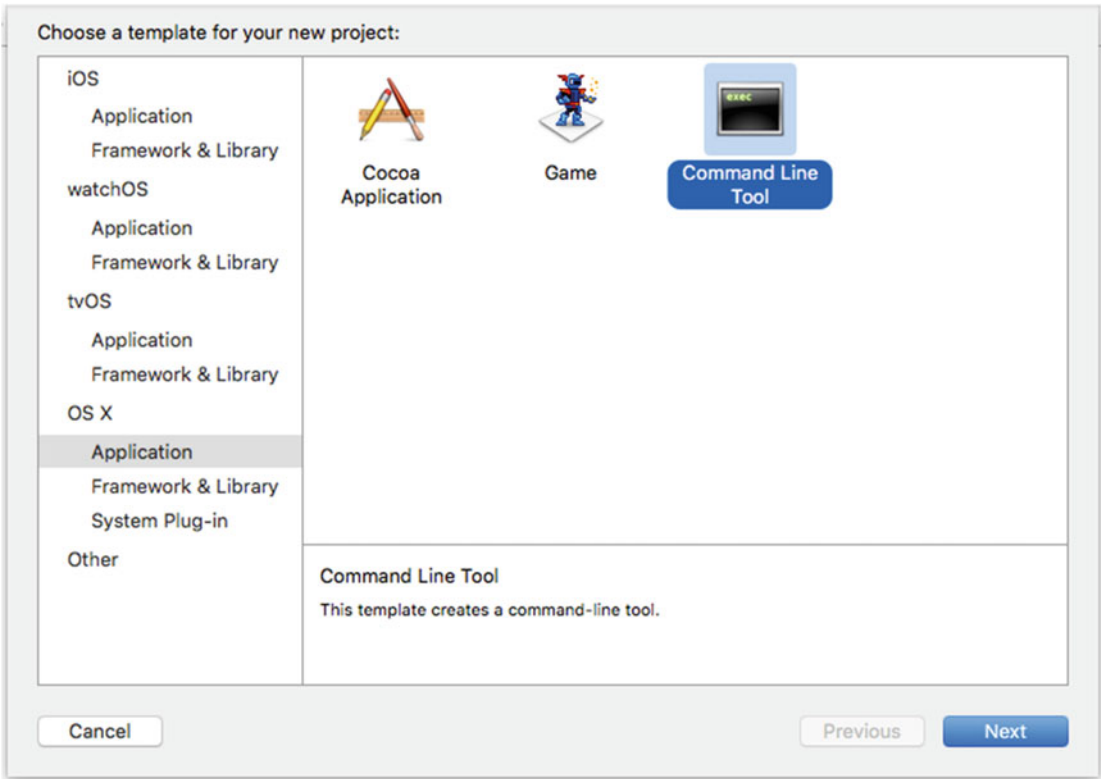


Figure 4-9. Start a new Command Line Tool project

2. Call your project **RandomNumber** (see Figure 4-10). Save the project anywhere you prefer on your hard drive.

Choose options for your new project:

Product Name:

Organization Name:

Organization Identifier:

Bundle Identifier:

Language:

Cancel Previous Next

Figure 4-10. Project options for `RandomNumber`

Now, you need to open the implementation file in the Source group. This is where you will write your Objective-C code.

3. Open the `main.m` file. Delete the following line of code:

```
NSLog(@"Hello, World!");
```

4. You are ready to write your app. Start writing the code under this:

```
// insert code here...
```

See Figure 4-11.

```

1  //
2  // main.m
3  // RandomNumber
4  //
5  // Created by Gary Bennett on 7/16/16.
6  // Copyright © 2016 xcelMe. All rights reserved.
7  //
8
9  #import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
10
11 int main(int argc, const char * argv[]) {
12     @autoreleasepool {
13         // insert code here...
14         NSLog(@"Hello, World!");
15     }
16     return 0;
17 }
18

```

Figure 4-11. The editor

Following your Alice code, you will write your random number generator app. You will notice that most of the code is similar to your Alice app. See Listing 4-9.

Listing 4-9. Source Code for Your Random Number Generator App

```

11 int main(int argc, const char * argv[]) {
12     @autoreleasepool {
13         // insert code here...
14         int randomNumber = 1;
15         int userGuess = 1;
16         BOOL continueGuessing = YES;
17         BOOL keepPlaying = YES;
18         char yesNo = ' ';
19
20         while (keepPlaying) {
21             randomNumber = (arc4random() % 101);
22             NSLog(@"The random number to guess is: %d",randomNumber);
23             while (continueGuessing) {
24                 NSLog (@"Pick a number between 0 and 100. ");
25                 scanf ("%d", &userGuess);
26                 fgetc(stdin);          // remove CR/LF i.e extra character
27                 if (userGuess == randomNumber) {
28                     continueGuessing = NO;
29                     NSLog(@"Correct number!");
30                 }
31                 // nested if statement
32                 else if (userGuess > randomNumber){
33                     // user guessed too high
34                     NSLog(@"Your guess is too high");
35                 }
36                 else {

```



```

37         // no reason to check if userGuess < randomNumber. It has to be.
38         NSLog(@"Your guess is too low");
39     }
40     // refactored from our Alice app. This way we only have to code once.
41     NSLog(@"The user guessed %d",userGuess);
42     }
43     NSLog(@"Play Again? Y or N");
44     yesNo = fgetc(stdin);
45     if (yesNo == 'N' || yesNo == 'n') {
46         keepPlaying = FALSE;
47     }
48     continueGuessing = TRUE;
49 }
50 }
51
52 return 0;
53 }

```

In Listing 4-9, there is new code that we haven't discussed before. The first new line of code (line 21) is

```
randomNumber = (arc4random() % 101);
```

This line will produce a random number between 0 and 100; `arc4random()` is a function that returns a random number. Although this will not generate a truly random number, it will work for this example.

The `%` is called the modulus operator. This operator returns the remainder of its two operands; in this case, it's the remainder of `arc4random()` divided by 101. This is what will return a number between 0 and 100.

The next line of new code is

```
scanf ("%d", &userGuess);
```

The function `scanf` reads a value from the keyboard and stores it in `userGuess`.

■ **Note** The source code for this Objective-C project is available for download at <http://forum.xcelme.com>.

Nested if Statements and else-if Statements

Sometimes, it is necessary to **nest if statements**. This means that you need to have `if` statements nested inside an existing `if` statement. Additionally, it is sometimes necessary to have a comparison as the first step in the `else` section of the `if` statement. This is called an **else-if statement** (recall line 32 in Listing 4-9).

```
else if (userGuess > randomNumber)
```

Removing Extra Characters

Line 26 is another new line of code.

```
fgetc(stdin); // remove CR/LF i.e extra character
```

The function `scanf` can be difficult to work with. In this case, `scanf` leaves a remnant in your input buffer that needs to be flushed, so you can read a Y or N from the keyboard to determine whether the user wants to play again.

Improving the Code Through Refactoring

Often, after you get your code to work, you examine the code and find more efficient ways to write it. The process of rewriting your code to make it more efficient, maintainable, and readable is called **code refactoring**.

As you were reviewing your code in Objective-C, you noticed that you could eliminate some unnecessary code. Your code had the following line repeated in the `if-else` statement:

```
// refactored from our Alice app. This way we only have to code once.
NSLog(@"The user guessed %d",userGuess);
```

■ **Note** As developers, we have found that the best line of code you can write is the line that you don't write—less code means less to debug and maintain.

Running the App

Click the Play button in your Objective-C project and run your app. See Figure 4-12.

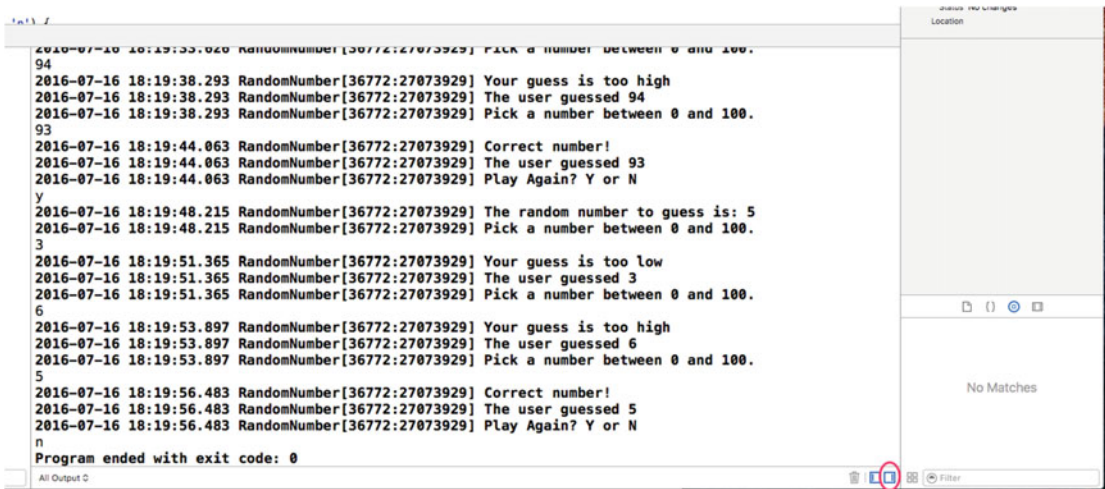


Figure 4-12. The console output of the Objective-C random number generator app

■ **Note** If you're not seeing the output console when you run your app, make sure you have selected (blue) the same options at the top-right and bottom-right corners of the editor (see Figure 4-12).

Moving Forward Without Alice

You've used Alice to learn object-oriented programming. It has enabled you to focus on OOP concepts without having to deal with syntax and a compiler; however, it is necessary to become more familiar with the specifics of the Objective-C language. Alice has served you well, and you can now focus on using Objective-C and Xcode for the remainder of the book.

Summary

In this chapter, we've covered a lot of important information on how to control your applications; program flow and decision-making are essential to every iPhone/iPad/Mac App. Make sure you have completed the Objective-C example in this chapter. You might review these examples and think you understand everything without having to write this app. This will be a fatal mistake that will prevent you from becoming a successful iPhone/iPad/Mac developer. You must spend time coding this example.

The terms in this chapter are important. You should be able to describe the following:

- AND
- OR
- XOR
- NAND
- NOR
- NOT
- Truth tables
- Negation
- All comparison operators
- Application requirement
- Logical AND (&&)
- Logical OR (||)
- Flowchart
- Loop
- Count-controlled loops
- for loop
- Condition-controlled loops
- Infinite loops
- while loops
- Nested if statements
- Code refactoring

Exercises

- Extend the random number generator app to print to the console how many times the user guessed before he or she guessed the correct random number. Do this in both Alice and Objective-C.
- Extend the random number generator app to print to the console how many times the user played the app. Print this value when the user quits the app. Do this in both Alice and Objective-C.

CHAPTER 5



Object-Oriented Programming with Objective-C

Over the past 20 years, the programming world has been focusing on the development paradigm of object-oriented programming (OOP). Most modern development environments and languages implement OOP. Put simply, OOP forms the basis of everything you develop today.

You may be asking yourself why we waited until Chapter 5 to present OOP using Objective-C if it is the primary development style of today. The simple answer is that it is not an easy concept for new developers. We will spend this chapter going into detail about the different aspects of OOP and how this will affect your development.

Implementing OOP into your applications correctly will take some front-end planning, but you will save yourself a lot of time throughout the life of your projects. OOP has changed the way development is done. In this chapter, we will look at what OOP is. OOP was initially discussed in the first chapter of this book, but we will go into more detail here. We will revisit what objects are and how they relate to physical objects we find in our world. We will also look into what classes are and how they relate to objects. We will also discuss steps you will need to take when planning your classes and some visual tools you can use to accomplish this. When you have read this chapter and have worked through the exercises, you will have a better understanding of what OOP is and why it is necessary for you as a developer.

At first, objects and object-oriented programming may seem difficult to understand, but the hope is that as we progress through this chapter, it will begin to make sense.

The Object

As discussed in Chapter 1, OOP is based on objects. Some of our discussion about objects will be a review, but we will also go into more depth. An object is anything that can be acted upon. To better explain what a programming object is, we will first look at some items in the physical world around us. A physical object can be anything around you that you can touch or feel. Take, for example, a television. Some characteristics of a television include type (plasma, LCD, or CRT), size (40 inches), brand (Sony, Vizio), weight, and cost. Televisions also have functions. They can be turned on or off. You can change the channel, adjust the volume, and change the brightness.

Some of these characteristics and functions are unique to televisions, and some are not. For example, a couch in your house would probably not have the same characteristics as a television. You would want different information about a couch, such as material type, seating capability, and color. A couch might have only a few functions, such as converting to a bed.

Now let's talk specifically about objects as they relate to programming. An **object** is a specific item. It can describe something physical like a book, or it could be something such as a window for your application. Objects have properties and methods. **Properties** describe certain things about an object such as location,

color, or name. Conversely, methods describe actions the object can perform such as close or recalculate. In our example, a TV object would have type, size, and brand properties, while a Couch object would have properties such as color, material, and comfort level. In programming terms, a property is a variable that is part of an object. For example, a TV would use a string variable to store the brand and an integer to store the height.

Objects also have commands the programmer can use to control them. The commands are called **methods**. Methods are the way that other objects interact with a certain object. For example, with the television, a method would be any of the buttons on the remote control. Each of those buttons represents a way you can interact with your television. Methods can and often are used to change the values of properties, but methods do not store any values themselves.

As we described in Chapter 1, objects have a **state**, which is basically a snapshot of an object at any given point in time. A state would be the values of all the properties at a specific time.

In previous chapters, we used the example of a bookstore. A bookstore contains many different objects. It contains book objects that have properties such as title, author, page count, and publisher. It also contains magazines with properties such as title, issue, genre, and publisher. A bookstore also has some nontangible objects such as a sale. A sale object would contain information about the books purchased, the customer, the amount paid, and the payment type. A sale object might also have some methods that calculate tax, print the receipt, or void the sale. A sale object does not represent a tangible object, but it is still an object and is necessary for creating an effective bookstore.

Because the object is the basis of OOP, it is important to understand objects and how to interact with them. We will spend the rest of the chapter describing objects and some of their characteristics.

What Is a Class?

We cannot discuss OOP without discussing what a class is. A **class** defines which properties and methods an object will have. A class is basically a cookie cutter that can be used to create objects that have similar characteristics. All objects of a certain class will have the same properties and the same methods. The values of those properties will change from object to object.

A class is similar to a species in the animal world. A species is not an individual animal, but it does describe many similar characteristics of the animal. To understand classes more, let's look at an example of classes in nature. The Dog class has many properties that all dogs have in common. For example, a dog may have a name, an age, an owner, and a favorite activity. An object that is of a certain class is called an **instance** of that class. If you look at Figure 5-1, you can see the difference between the class and the actual objects that are instances of the class. For example, Lassie is an instance of the dog class. In Figure 5-1, you can see we have a Dog class that has four properties (Breed, Age, Owner, Favorite Activity). In real life, a dog will have many more properties, but we decided to use four for this demonstration.

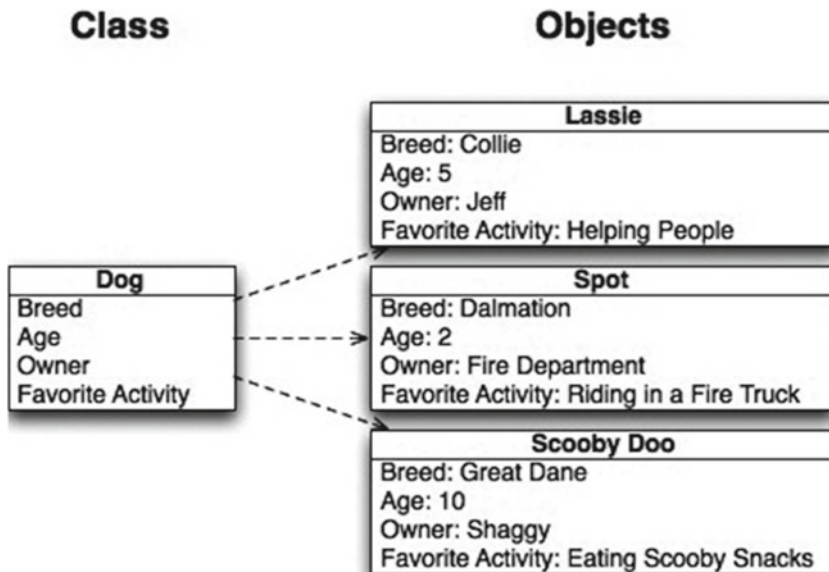


Figure 5-1. An example of a class and individual objects

Planning Classes

Planning your classes is one of the most important steps in your development process. While it is possible to go back and add properties and methods after the fact (and you will definitely need to do this), it is important that you know which classes are going to be used in your application and which basic properties and methods they will have. Spending time planning your different classes is important at the beginning of the process.

Planning Properties

Let's look at the bookstore example and some of the classes you would need to create. First, it is important to create a Bookstore class. A Bookstore class contains the blueprint of the information each Bookstore object stores, such as the bookstore name, address, phone number, and logo (see Figure 5-2). Placing this information in a class rather than hard-coding it in your application will allow you to easily make changes to this information in the future. We will discuss the reasons for using OOP methodologies later in this chapter. Also, if your bookstore becomes a huge success and you decide to open another one, you will be prepared because you can create another object of class Bookstore.

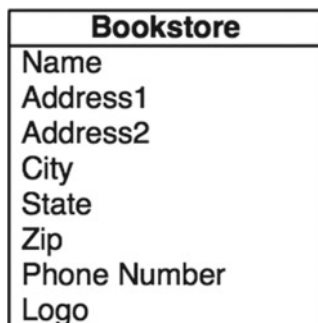


Figure 5-2. The Bookstore class

Let's also plan a `Customer` class (see Figure 5-3). Notice how the name has been broken into `First Name` and `Last Name`. This is important to do. There will be times in your project when you may want to use only the first name of a customer, and it would be hard to separate the first name from the last if you didn't plan ahead. Let's say you want to send a letter to a customer letting them know about an upcoming sale. You do not want your greeting to say, "Dear John Doe." It would look much more personal to say, "Dear John."

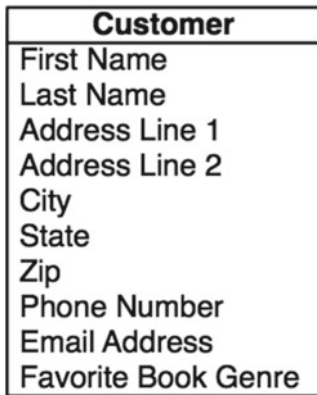


Figure 5-3. *The Customer class*

You will also notice how we have broken out the address into its different parts instead of grouping it all together. We separated the `Address Line 1`, `Address Line 2`, `City`, `State`, and `Zip`. This is important and will be used in your application. Let's go back to the letter you want to send informing your customers of a sale in your store. You might not want to send it to all the customers who live in different states. By separating the address, you can easily filter out those customers you do not want to include in your mailings.

We have also added the attribute of `Favorite Book Genre` to the `Customer` class. We added this to show you how you can keep many different types of information in each class. This field may come in handy if you have a new mystery title coming out and you want to send an e-mail alerting customers who are especially interested in mysteries. By storing this type of information, you will be able to specifically target different portions of your customer base.

A `Book` class is also necessary to create your bookstore (see Figure 5-4). You will store information about the book such as author, publisher, genre, page count, and edition number (in case there are multiple editions). The `Book` class will also have the price for the book.

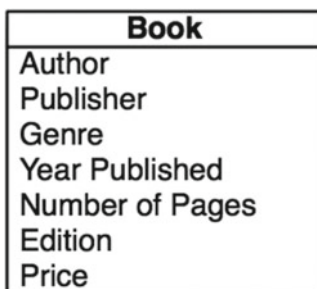


Figure 5-4. *The Book class*

We also added another class called the Sale class (see Figure 5-5). This class is more abstract than the other classes we have discussed because it does not describe a tangible object. You will notice how we have added a reference to a customer and a book to the Sale class. Because the Sale class will track sales of books, you will need to know which book was sold and to which customer.

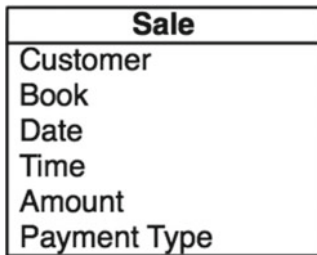


Figure 5-5. The Sale class

Now that you have planned out the properties of the classes, you will need to look at some methods that each of the classes will have.

Planning Methods

You will not add all of the methods now, but the more planning you can do at the beginning, the easier it will be for you down the line. Not all of your classes will have many methods. Some may not have any methods at all.

■ **Note** When planning your methods, remember to have them focus on a specific task. The more specific the method, the more likely it is that it can be reused.

For the time being, you will not add any methods to the Book class or the Bookstore class. You will focus on our other two classes.

For the Customer class, you will add methods to list the purchase history of that client. There may be other methods that you will need to add in the future, but you will add just that one for now. Your completed Customer class diagram should look like Figure 5-6. You will notice the line near the bottom separates the properties from the methods.

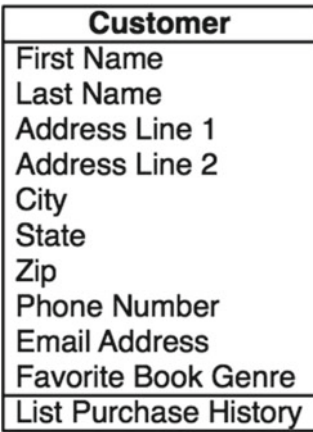


Figure 5-6. *The completed Customer class*

For the Sales class, we have added three methods: Charge Credit Card, Print Invoice, and Checkout (see Figure 5-7). For the time being, you do not need to know how to implement these methods, but you need to know that you are planning on adding them to your class.

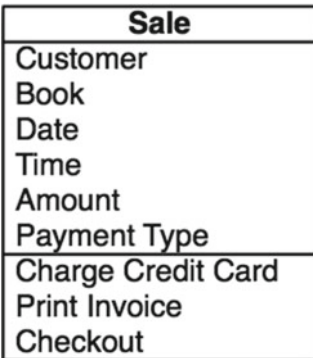


Figure 5-7. *The completed Sale class*

Now that you have finished mapping out the classes and the methods you are going to add to them, you have the beginnings of a Unified Modeling Language (UML) diagram. Basically, this is a diagram used by developers to plan out their classes, properties, and methods. Starting your development process by creating such a diagram will help you significantly in the long run. An in-depth discussion of UML diagrams is beyond the scope of this book. If you would like more information about this subject, smartdraw.com has a great in-depth overview of them here:

www.smartdraw.com/resources/tutorials/uml-diagrams/

Figure 5-8 shows the complete diagram.

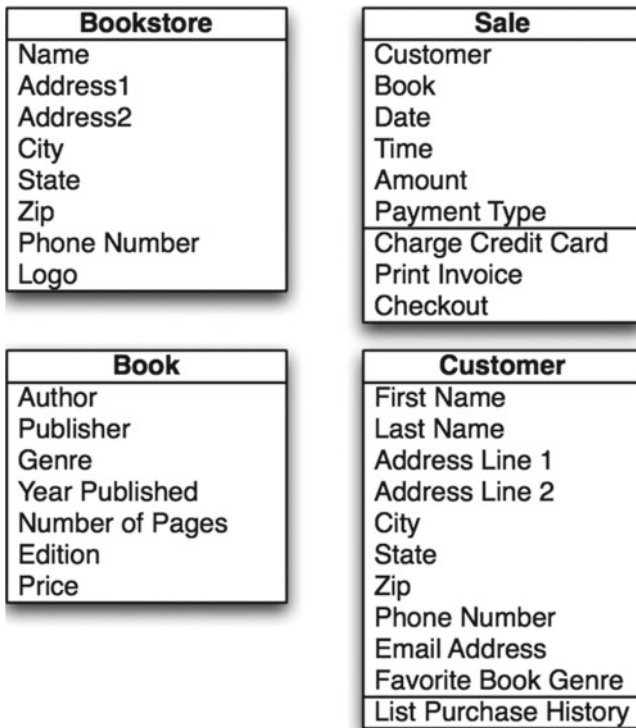


Figure 5-8. The completed UML diagram for the bookstore

Implementing the Classes

Now that you understand the objects you are going to be creating, you need to create your first object. To do so, you will start with a new project.

1. Please launch Xcode. Click File ► New ► Project...
2. Select Application under the heading iOS on the left side. On the right side, select **Master-Detail Application**. For what you are doing in this chapter, you could have selected any of the application types (see Figure 5-9). Click Next.

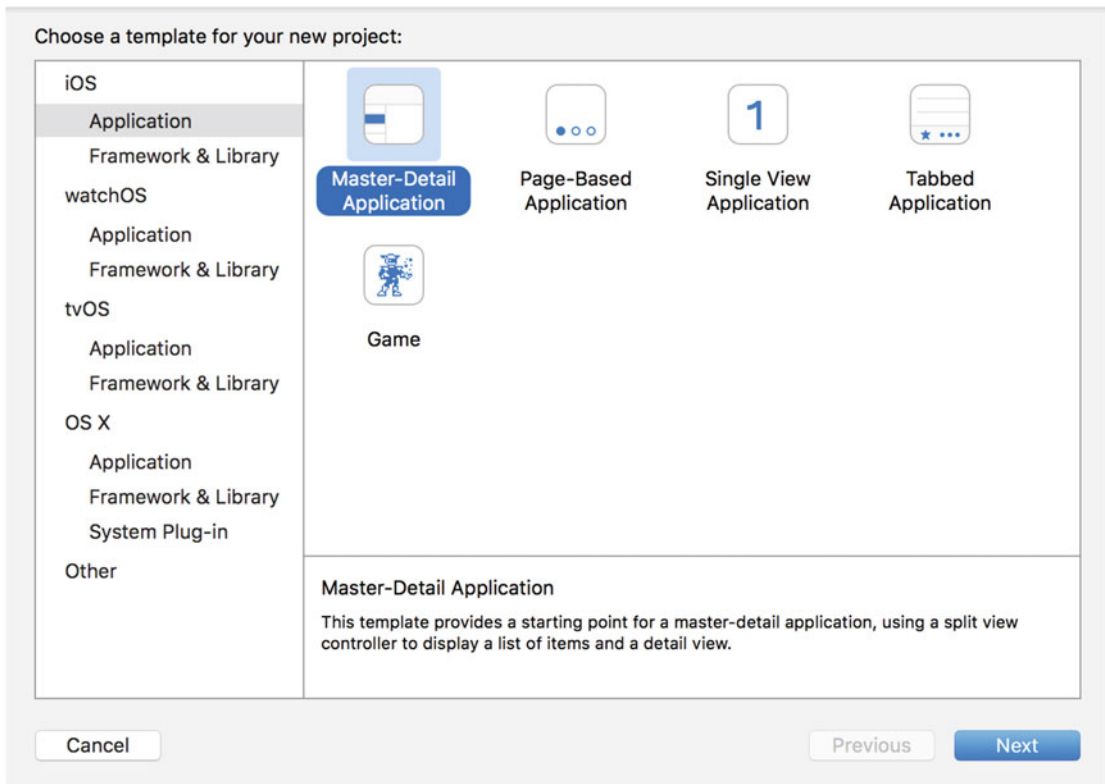


Figure 5-9. *Creating a new project*

3. Enter a product name. For this example, we will use **BookStore**. By default, Xcode will fill in the Organization Name and Organization Identifier fields. Make sure Language is set to Objective-C. Leave the check boxes on this screen as they appear by default. You will not be worrying about these items right now. Click **Next** and select a location to save your project and then save your project.
4. Select the **BookStore** folder on the left side of the screen (see Figure 5-10). This is where the majority of your code will reside.

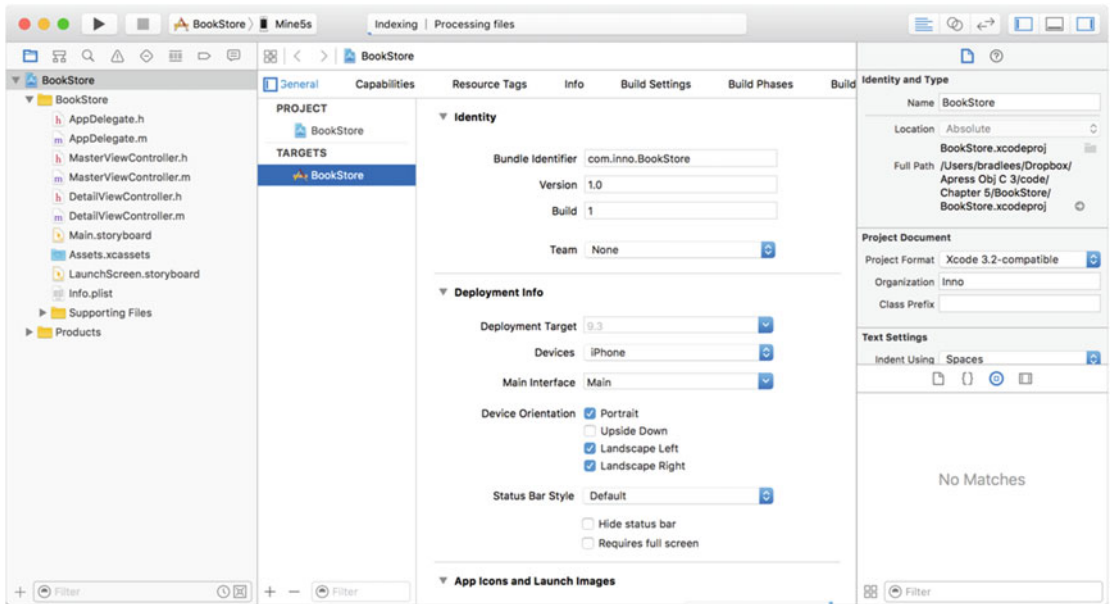


Figure 5-10. Selecting the BookStore folder

5. Select **File** ► **New** ► **File...**
6. From the pop-up window, select **Source** under the iOS header and then click **Cocoa Touch Class** on the right side (see Figure 5-11). Then click **Next**.

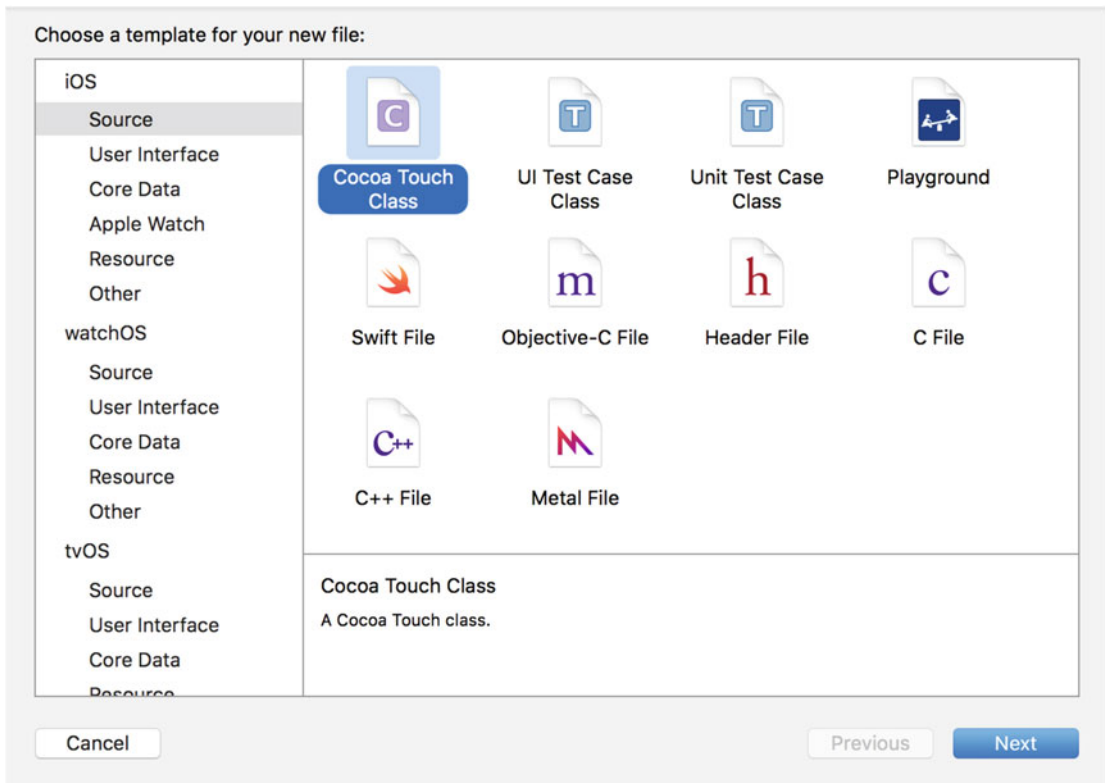


Figure 5-11. Creating a new Objective-C class

7. On the next screen, you will need to select the superclass for your object. This is what determines what properties and methods your object will have by default. You will select NSObject for now (see Figure 5-12).

■ **Note** NSObject is the base class in Objective-C. It contains properties and methods required for most objects used.

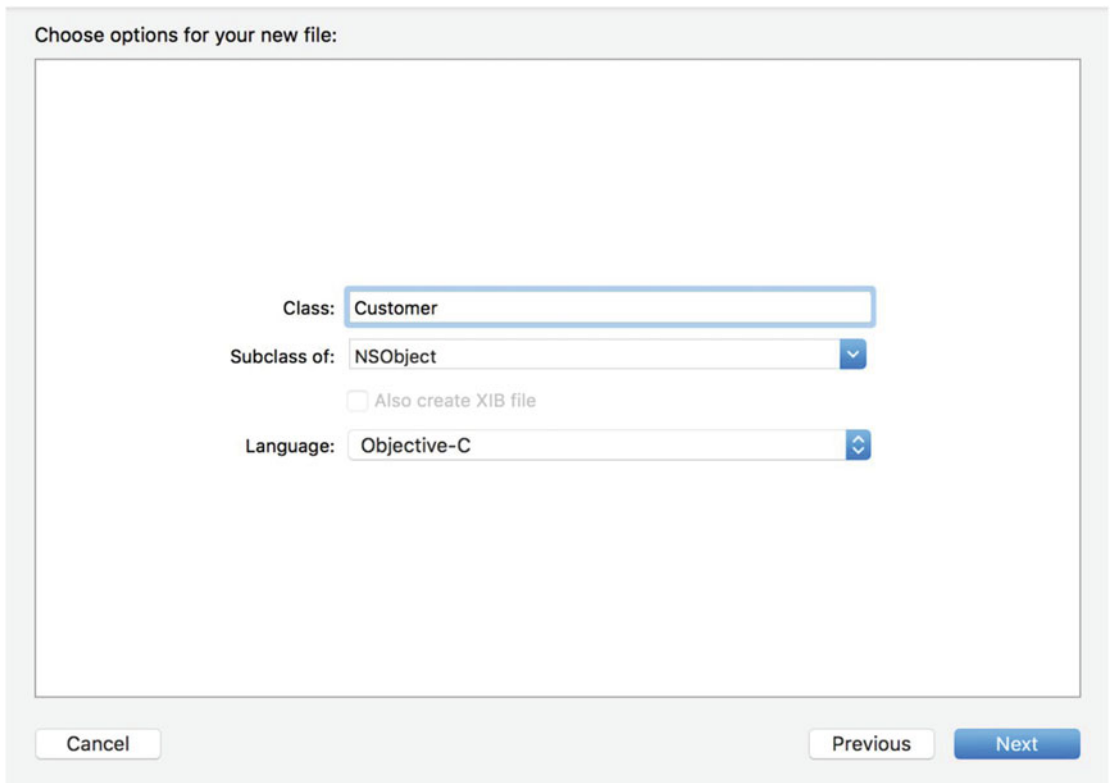


Figure 5-12. *Selecting the superclass*

8. You will now be given the opportunity to name your class. For this exercise, we will create the `Customer` class. For now, name the class `Customer`. Now click **Next** and then **Create**.

■ **Note** For ease of use and for understanding your code, remember that class names should always be capitalized in Objective-C. Object names should always start lowercase. For example, `Book` would be an appropriate name for a class, and `book` would be a great name for an object based on the `Book` class. For a two-word object, such as the book author, an appropriate name would be `bookAuthor`. This type of capitalization is called **lower camelcase**.

9. Now look in your main project folder; you should have two new files. One is called `Customer.h`, and the other is called `Customer.m`. The `.h` file is the header or interface file that will contain information about your class. The header file will list all of the properties and methods in your class, but it will not actually contain the code related to them. The `.m` file is the implementation file, which is where you write the code for your methods.

- Click the `Customer.h` file and you will see the window shown in Figure 5-13. You will notice it does not contain a lot of information currently. The first part, with the double slashes (`//`), is all comments and is not considered part of the code. Comments allow you to tell those who might read your code what each portion of code is meant to accomplish. We will not go into more detail now about the other portions of the header file, except to say that all of the instance variables of a class need to be inside the braces (`{}`) of the `@interface` portion.

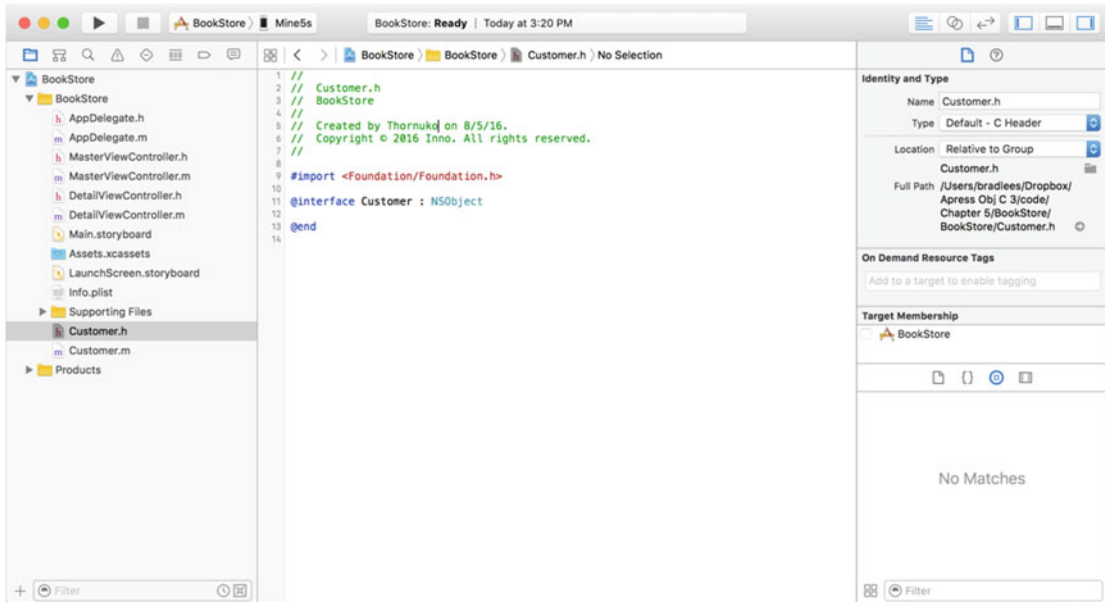


Figure 5-13. Your empty customer class

Now let's transfer the properties from our UML diagram to our actual class.

■ **Tip** Properties should always start with a lowercase letter. There can be no spaces in a property name.

For the first property, First Name, you will add this line to your file:

```
NSString* firstName;
```

This creates a string object in your class called `firstName`. Because all of the properties for the `Customer` class are strings also, you will just need to repeat the same procedure for the other ones. When that is complete, your `@interface` portion should look like Figure 5-13.

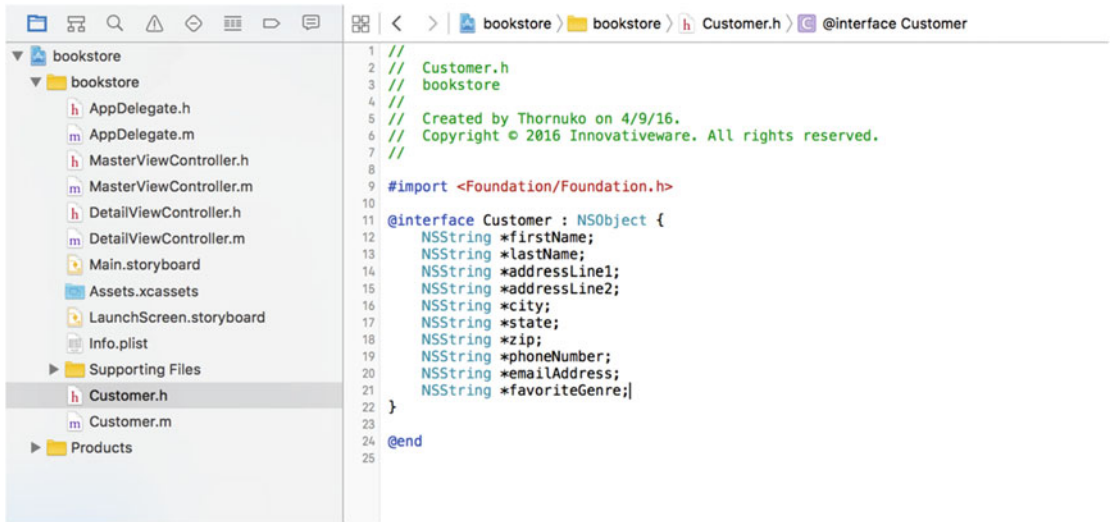


Figure 5-14. The customer class interface with instance variables

Now that the @interface portion is complete, you will need to add your method. Methods need to go outside of the parenthesis portion but still inside of the @interface portion of the header file. You will add a new method that returns an NSArray. This code will look as follows:

```
- (NSArray *)listPurchaseHistory;
```

■ **Note** NSString is a class that holds and performs actions on a string. A string is a set of characters. NSString can hold letters, numbers, and punctuation.

That is all that needs to be done in the header file to create your class. Figure 5-15 shows the final header file. In the next chapter, we will go into more detail about the implementation file.

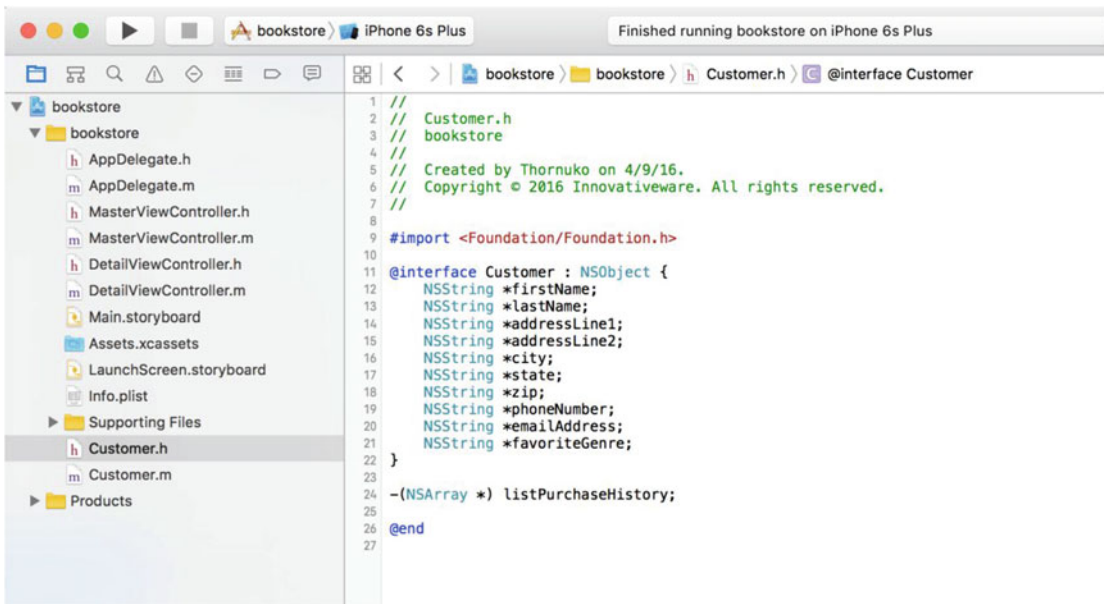


Figure 5-15. The finished customer class header file

Inheritance

Another major quality of OOP is **inheritance**. Inheritance in programming is similar to genetic inheritance. You might have inherited your eye color from your mother or hair color from your father, or vice versa. Classes can, in a similar way, inherit properties and methods from their parent classes. In OOP, a parent class is called a **superclass**, and a child class is called a **subclass**.

In Objective-C, all classes created by a programmer have a superclass that is similar in properties and methods to itself. The class will inherit characteristics from that parent class. So, just as in all other OOP languages, the class is called a subclass of the parent class. In this chapter, all of our classes are subclasses of the NSObject. In Objective-C, many classes will be subclasses of NSObject. In the previous example, the Customer class was a subclass of NSObject.

You could, for example, create a class of printed materials and use subclasses for books, magazines, and newspapers. Printed materials can have many things in common, so you could assign properties to the superclass of printed materials and not have to redundantly assign them to each individual class. By doing this, you further reduce the amount of redundant code that is necessary for you to write and debug.

In Figure 5-16, you will see a layout for the properties of a Printed Material superclass and how that will affect the subclasses of Book, Magazine, and Newspaper. The properties of the Printed Material class will be inherited by the subclasses, so there is no need to define them explicitly in the class. You will notice that the Book class now has significantly fewer properties. By using a superclass, you will significantly reduce the amount of redundant code in your programs.

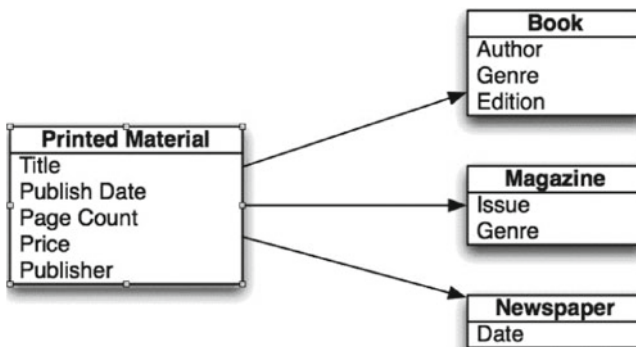


Figure 5-16. Properties of the super- and subclasses

Why Use OOP?

Throughout this chapter, we have discussed what OOP is and we have even discussed how to create classes and objects. However, I think it is important to discuss why you want to use OOP principles in your development.

If you take a look at the popular programming languages of the day, all of them use the OOP principles to a certain extent. Objective-C, Swift, C++, Visual Basic, C#, and Java all require the programmer to understand classes and objects to successfully develop in those languages. To become a developer in today's world, you will need to understand OOP. But why use it?

It Is Everywhere

Just about any development you choose to do today will require you to understand object-oriented principles. On Mac OS X and in iOS, almost everything you interact with will be an object. For example, simple windows, buttons, and text boxes are all objects and have properties and methods. If you want to be successful as a programmer, you will need to understand OOP.

Eliminate Redundant Code

By using objects, you can reduce the amount of code you have to retype. If you write code to print a receipt when a customer checks out, you will want that same code available when you need to reprint a receipt. If you placed your code to print the receipt in the Sales class, you will not have to rewrite this code. This not only saves you time but often helps you eliminate mistakes. If you do not use OOP and there is a change to the invoice (even something as simple as a graphic change), you have to make sure you make the change in your desktop application and the mobile application. If you miss one of them, you run the risk of having the two interfaces behave differently.

Ease of Debugging

By having all the code relating to a book in one class, you know where to look when there is a problem with the book. This may not sound like such a big deal for a little application, but when your application gets to hundreds of thousands or even millions of lines of code, it will save you a lot of time.

Ease of Replacement

If you place all of your code in a class, then as things change in your application, you can change out classes and give your new class completely different functionality. However, it can interact with the rest of the application in the same way as your current class. This is similar to car parts. If you want to replace a muffler on a car, you do not need to get a new car. If you have code related to your invoice scattered all over the place, it makes it much more difficult to change items about a class.

Advanced Topics

We have discussed the basics of OOP throughout this chapter, but there are some other topics that are important to your understanding.

Interface

As we have discussed in this chapter, the way the other objects interact through each other is with methods. We discussed the header files created when you create a class. This is often called the **interface** because it tells other objects how they can interact with your objects. Implementing a standard interface throughout your application will allow your code to interact with different objects in similar ways. This will significantly reduce the amount of object specific code you need to write.

Polymorphism

Polymorphism is the ability of an object of one class to appear and be used as an object of another class. This is usually done by creating methods and properties that are similar to those of another class. A great example of polymorphism that we have been using is the bookstore. In the bookstore, you have three similar classes: Book, Magazine, and Newspaper. If you wanted to have a big sale for your entire inventory, you could go through all of the books and mark them down. Then you could go through all of the magazines and mark them down and then go through all of the newspapers and mark them down. That would be more work than you would need to do. It would be better to make sure all of the classes have a markdown method. Then you could call that on all of the objects without needing to know which class they were as long as they were subclasses of a class that contained the methods needed. This would save a bunch of time and coding.

As you are planning your classes, look for similarities and methods that might apply to more than one type of class. This will save you time and speed up your application in the long run.

Summary

You've finally reached the end of the chapter! Here is a summary of the things that were covered:

- Object-oriented programming (OOP)
 - We discussed the importance of OOP and the reasons why all modern code should use this methodology.
- Object
 - You learned about objects and how they correspond to real-world objects. You learned that many programming objects relate directly to real-world objects. You also learned about abstract objects that do not correspond to real-world objects.

- Class
 - You learned that a class determines the types of data (properties) and the methods that each object will have. Every object needs to have a class. It is the blueprint for the object.
- Creating a class
 - You learned how to map out the properties and methods of our classes.
 - You used Xcode to create a class file.
 - You edited the class header file to add your properties and methods.

Exercises

- Try creating the class files for the rest of the classes you mapped out.
- Map out an `Author` class. Choose the kind of information you would need to store about an author.

For the daring and advanced:

- Try creating a superclass called `PrintedMaterials`. Map out the properties that a class might have.
- Create classes for the other types of printed materials a store might carry.

CHAPTER 6



Learning Objective-C and Xcode

For the most part, all computer languages perform the typical tasks any computer needs to do—store information, compare information, make decisions about that information, and perform some action based on those decisions. Objective-C is a language that makes these tasks easier to understand and accomplish. The real trick with Objective-C (actually, the trick with any C language) is to understand the symbols and keywords used to accomplish these tasks. This chapter continues our examination of Objective-C and Xcode so you can become even more familiar with them.

A Brief History of Objective-C

Objective-C is really a combination of two languages, the C language and a lesser-known language called Smalltalk. In the 1970s, several bright engineers from Bell Labs created a language named **C** that made it easy to port their pet project, the Unix operating system, from one machine to another. Prior to C, people had to write programs in assembly languages. The problem with assembly languages is that each is specific to its machine, so moving software from one machine to another was nearly impossible. The C language, created by Brian Kernighan and Dennis Ritchie, solved this problem by providing a language that wrote out the assembly language for whatever machine it supported, a kind of Rosetta Stone for early computer languages. Because of its portability, C quickly became the *de facto* language for many types of computers, especially early PCs.

Fast-forward to the early 1980s and the C language is on its way to becoming one of the most popular languages of the decade. Around this time, an engineer from a company called Stepstone was mixing the C language with another up-and-coming language called Smalltalk. The C language is typically referred to as a *procedural language*, that is, a language that uses procedures to divide up processing steps. Smalltalk, on the other hand, was something entirely different. It was an *object-oriented programming language*. Instead of processing things procedurally, it used programming objects to get its work done. This new superset of the C language became known as “C with Objects” or, more commonly, **Objective-C**.

In 1985, Brad Cox sold the Objective-C language and trademark to NeXT Computer, Inc. NeXT was the brainchild of Steve Jobs, who had been fired from his own company, Apple Computer, that same year. NeXT used the Objective-C language to build the NeXTSTEP operating system and its suite of development tools. In fact, the Objective-C language gave NeXT a competitive advantage with all of its software. Programmers using NeXTSTEP and Objective-C could write programs faster than those writing in the traditional C language. While the hardware part of NeXT computers never really took off, the operating system and tools did. Quite interestingly, NeXT was purchased by Apple Computer in late 1996 with the intention of replacing its aging operating system, which had been in existence since the first Macintosh was developed in 1984. Four years after the acquisition, what had been NeXTSTEP reemerged as Mac OS X—with Objective-C still at the heart of the system. In 2014 Apple introduced Swift as its new language for iOS/Mac development. However, Objective-C is still the most common language used in the majority of iOS and Macintosh apps and will continue to be so in the near future.

Understanding the Language Symbols and Basic Syntax

Even though Objective-C integrates a great deal of object-oriented language, at the heart of Objective-C is C. Here are some of the symbols and language constructs used in Objective-C, some of which are part of the C language and most of which you've already encountered in previous chapters. It's not important to know which are pure C and which are not; just know that the old and newer symbols/constructs together make the Objective-C language.

Pretty much every language shares at least the following concepts:

- Create a variable and assign it a value.
- Begin and end a section of code.
- Signify the end of a line of code.
- Write a comment.

Objective-C has these syntactical differences from other object-oriented languages:

- Define a class.
- Define a method.
- Define an Objective-C variable.
- Call a method.

Create a Variable

A **variable** is something that stores a value that can change (i.e., vary). Creating a variable requires at least two parts.

```
int count;
```

In the previous code, a variable is declared. The first word, `int`, indicates that the variable is an integer. An integer is a whole number that can range from negative to positive values (there are other variable types that will be described when Objective-C properties are described in Chapter 7).

The second word is the actual variable name, `count`. It's always proper form to name the variable with what it is intended to store. From the looks of the name, it's going to store the count of something.

■ **Note** As a standard, an integer in most operating systems, including iOS, can range from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647.

Begin and End a Section of Code

Every language needs some way to indicate where the code begins and ends. Objective-C has a few different ways to designate this. The first is the most common in Objective-C (and standard C as well).

- `{ and }`: The begin and end brace. This specifies the beginning and ending of a section of code. A good example is the conditional, or `if` statement, shown here:

```

1  if (a == b) {
2      *** do something cool if a is equal to b ***
3  }

```

First, there is a conditional: `if (a == b)`. This simply tests to see whether the value of `a` is equal to the value of `b`. The block of code for the conditional is surrounded by the braces (`{` and `}`) and is executed if the conditional is true (conditionals are described in more detail in Chapter 9).

Signify the End of a Line of Code

C and therefore Objective-C are free-form languages. This means that the code can be formatted however the programmer likes. This gives the programmer a lot of flexibility as far as how the code looks. Because of this, Xcode needs to know when there is an end of a line of code.

- `;` is used to represent the end of a line of code.

```

1  cost = 100.0; // Assign a value to something
2  NSLog(@"Hello!"); // Call a function/method (described later)

```

■ **Note** Because Objective-C is free format, it is possible to write Objective-C as one really looooooong single line. Yes, it will work and, yes, your co-workers and everyone on the planet will hate your code.

There is an exception to this general rule, and that is code that requires a block to define it. Using our example from earlier again, look at this code:

```

1  if (a == b) {
2      *** do something cool if a is equal to b ***
3  }

```

In this code, there is no semicolon after `if (a == b)` or after any of the braces. There are other statements that you will see in upcoming chapters that are similar to this one. The takeaway is that if the code you're writing requires braces, don't add a semicolon at the end of the line.

Write a Comment

Comments in any language are useful to document or explain a piece of code. Actually, you've already seen a comment in some sample code:

```

1  cost = 100.0; // Assign a value to something
2  NSLog(@"Hello!"); // Call a function/method (described later)

```

The `//` characters indicate that the text that follows is a comment and should not be treated as code. The thing with the `//` comment is that it only is good until the end of that line. What if you have a lot to write and want the comment to span multiple lines? In this case, there are more special characters: `/*` is used to begin the comment, and `*/` is used to end the comment. This is referred to as a **block comment**.

```

1  /* This is a block comment
2     and can span multiple lines.
3     This is useful if I have a lot to say!
4  */

```


Notice that `/*` or `*/` can appear on lines all by themselves or be combined with text. It doesn't really matter how it's formatted, even like this: `/* This is a block comment too */`. A block comment doesn't mean that the comment *has* to span multiple lines.

■ **Note** It is a good habit to write and maintain comments within your code. Comments are not so much about writing *what* the code does but *why* it's doing it. This code may seem obvious: `cost = 100.0`. It's a variable assignment. What's important here is not that there is a variable assignment but *why* the variable is being assigned 100.0.

Define a Class

In all object-oriented languages there is the concept of a **class**. The definition of that class is also generally different from language to language, and Objective-C is no exception.

Objective-C divides the definition of a class within two distinct sections. The first section is what is called the **interface**. The interface simply defines the methods and properties that make up the class. It also indicates the superclass to your object. (You'll learn more about this in Chapter 7.)

```
1 @interface MyObject : NSObject
2   *** Stuff explained in Chapter 7 here
3 @end
```

The interface to an object is defined by `@interface...@end`. This object has the unique and creative name of `MyObject`. The `: NSObject` part denotes the superclass, meaning `MyObject` acts just like `NSObject` but builds upon it with the methods and properties defined in `MyObject`. You call `NSObject` your **superclass**; conversely, `MyObject` is a **subclass** of `NSObject`.

```
1 @implementation MyObject
2   *** Stuff explained in Chapter 7 here
3 @end
```

The implementation as denoted by `@implementation...@end` is the part of the class that actually has the code that does all the stuff `MyObject` is supposed to do. This is where all the coding of a class really takes place.

It's common to see the `@interface...@end` part in a separate file from the `@implementation...@end` part, but they don't have to be separate. Also important to note is that since the `@interface` and `@implementation` sections are just like code blocks, they don't require a `;` at the end of the line (see "Signify the End of a Line of Code" earlier). That said, it is a best practice to put the `@interface` in an `.h` file and the `@implementation` in an `.m` file.

Define a Method

A **method** is defined in two ways. The first is the definition of the method in the `@interface` part of the class.

```
1 @interface MyObject : NSObject
2   - (int)howMany;
3 @end
```

Here is the interface to the `MyObject` class, and what you see on line 2 is the method **definition**. It's called a definition because all it does is *define* the method's name (`howMany`) and what value it returns—in this case an `int` (as in integer, like used when defining a variable). And, of course, you need to end the definition of the method with a semicolon. A **return** value is like asking an object a question. So, if you

ask the object the question `howMany`, it responds with a number (`int`). Methods that don't need to return anything would have a (`void`) in place of the (`int`).

Chapter 7 will detail the actual code of the `howMany` method that is found in the `@implementation` part of the code.

Define an Objective-C Variable

Objective-C variables aren't too different from other variables (like you saw earlier in "Create a Variable") with the exception of a special character.

```
MyObject *myObjectInstance;
```

While this may look a little odd, it's not too different than this:

```
int count;
```

In line 1, you see the Objective-C class name of `MyObject` being used, but it has an asterisk (*) character after it. We won't go into technical details on what * actually does; just know that when a variable is defined and that variable is an Objective-C class, you *always* put an asterisk after it (sometimes * is referred to as a *splat* or *star*). If you don't do this, Xcode will point it out as an error and you will have to fix it.

Call a Method

Once a class has a method defined, there needs to be a way to actually call it. So, when you have an instance (or object) of the `MyObject` class, the `count` object can be called and used as such:

```
1 int value;
2 value = [myObjectInstance howMany];
```

Line 1 defines a variable that is an integer called `value`.

Line 2 calls the `howMany` method from the object named `myObjectInstance`. Now, how you define `myObjectInstance` is shown in the next chapter, but what's more important here is the odd-looking `[and]` characters. These characters are used to surround Objective-C code that deals with objects calling methods.

■ **Note** Technically in Objective-C you don't call a method but instead send a **message** to an object. In the previous example, the `howMany` message is being sent to the `myObjectInstance` object. There are technical details in how Objective-C has been built as to why there is this difference in semantics. However, for simplicity's sake, the term **method** is used in order to maintain similar terms as other object-oriented languages.

Putting the "Objective" into Objective-C

The majority of what makes Objective-C, well, objective, is its basis in Smalltalk. Smalltalk is a 100 percent object-oriented language, and Objective-C borrows heavily from Smalltalk concepts and syntax. Here are a few of the high-level concepts borrowed from Smalltalk. Don't worry if some of these terms seem unfamiliar; they will be discussed in later chapters (Chapters 7 and 8 cover the basics).

- A class defines an object. That definition is made up of methods and properties.
- Objects can contain instance variables.

- Instance variables (and variables in general) have a defined scope.
- Classes hide details of an implementation.

■ **Note** As you saw in Chapter 5, the term **class** is used to represent, generically, the definition or type of something. An object is what is created from the class. For example, a recipe is like a class as it defines how to create a certain dish. The result of following a recipe is the completed meal. You can't eat a recipe, but you can eat what that recipe creates, just like you can't use a class, but you can use what it creates, and that is an object.¹

Let's look at a simple example of the complete definition of an Objective-C class called HelloWorld. The following is the interface file (HelloWorld.h):

```

1  @import Foundation;
2
3  @interface HelloWorld : NSObject
4
5  - (void)printGreeting;
6
7  @end

```

And this is the implementation file (HelloWorld.m):

```

8  #import "HelloWorld.h"
9
10 @implementation HelloWorld
11
12 - (void)printGreeting
13 {
14     NSLog(@"Hello World!");
15 }
16
17 @end

```

In the preceding example, a class, HelloWorld, is being defined. This class has only one method defined—printGreeting. What do all these strange symbols mean? Using the line numbers as a reference, you can review this code line by line.

Line 1 contains the compiler directive `@import Foundation;`. For the program to know about certain other objects (for example, the NSObject on line 3), importing Foundation defines the objects and interfaces to the **Foundation framework**. This framework contains the definition of most non-user-interface base classes of the iOS and Mac OS X systems. The actual start of the object is on line 3, as follows:

```
@interface HelloWorld : NSObject
```

HelloWorld is the object, but what does `: NSObject` mean? Well, the colon (`:`) after the class's name indicates you plan to derive additional functionality from another class. In this case, NSObject is that class. HelloWorld is now a subclass of NSObject.

¹There are some general exceptions to this. We mean exceptions to the class/object example. No, you still can't eat a recipe.

■ **Fun Fact** Why the name `NSObject` and not just `Object`? Well, do you recall that Mac OS X actually started out as a port from the NeXTSTEP system? NS is an abbreviation for NeXTSTEP and is used in many of the base objects in Mac OS X and iOS—`NSObject`, `NSString`, `NSDictionary`, and so on.

Line 5 contains a message definition for this class, as follows:

```
- (void)printGreeting;
```

When you're defining a method, the definition line must start with either a `-` or `+` character. In the case of the `HelloWorld` object, we are using `-` to indicate this message can be used *after* the object is created. The `+` character is used for messages that can be used *before* the object is created (more on this in Chapter 7).

On line 7, `@end` indicates the definition of the object's interface is complete.

That's the complete description of the interface of the `HelloWorld` object; there's not a whole lot here. More complicated objects simply just have more methods and properties.

For the implementation, the source code is stored in a different file, `HelloWorld.m`. For starters, line 8 starts with the statement `#import "HelloWorld.h"`. This simply allows the object to know its own interface. While the separation of the interface and implementation files might seem a little odd at first, this convention is consistent in Objective-C programming. Whenever an object is to be used, simply include its interface.

Line 10 is the start of the implementation of the object, as follows:

```
@implementation HelloWorld
```

Line 12 is the definition of the object's method, `printGreeting`. It looks identical to the method definition in the interface file. The only difference here is that code is being defined that implements the `printGreeting` method.

Lines 13–15 form the block of code that implements the method `printGreeting`. For this simple method, the function `NSLog` is called. This base-level function simply takes in a formatted `NSString` object and outputs the result to the console. The `NSString` class is an Objective-C class that implements the behavior of a string of characters. Why have a class for this? For one thing, it gives the framework a consistent class for representing a string. Plus, there is a lot of functionality in `NSString` that can be used to manipulate, compare, and convert the actual string.

The `NSString` object is specified here in a shorthand method. The `@"Hello World!"` part is a way of quickly declaring an `NSString` object. The at sign (`@`) is the symbol used to indicate the text in quotes is an `NSString` object.

Line 17 indicates to the compiler the definition of the implementation section is finished.

But wait, there is more. Now that you have a new Objective-C class defined, how is it used? The following is another piece of code that uses the newly created class, the main program (`main.m`):

```
1  #import "HelloWorld.h"
2
3  void main(void)
4  {
5      HelloWorld *myObject = [HelloWorld new];
6      [myObject printGreeting];
7  }
```

In this new file, the program first starts by including the `HelloWorld.h` file, which allows this piece of the application access to the `HelloWorld` object.

In line 3 is the `main` function. Remember, every Objective-C program must have a `main` function.

Line 5 is a complicated one. It defines and creates, or **instantiates**, a new object of the HelloWorld class. You first see the text `HelloWorld* myObject`. This defines a variable named `myObject` of the type `HelloWorld`, which is the new class.

The next part of the line is `[HelloWorld new]`. This creates a new `HelloWorld` object. Wait a second; you never defined the message `new`, so how is this going to work? Well, when the `HelloWorld` class was defined, it was defined as a subclass of `NSObject`. When you call the `new` method of the `HelloWorld` object, the system knows that `HelloWorld` doesn't know that particular message, so it automatically checks the superclass; in this case, this is the `NSObject` class.

Now that you've created a new object, you can use it. Line 6, `[myObject printGreeting]`, puts the object to use. In this piece of code, you use the newly instantiated object by calling the `printGreeting` method. The program will output the text `Hello World!`.

Line 7 ends the code block that defines `main` and the end of the program.

■ **Note** Methods can also accept multiple arguments. Consider, for example, `[myCarObject switchRadioBandTo:FM andTuneToFrequency:104.7]`; The message here would be `switchRadioBandTo:andTuneToFrequency:`. After each colon, the argument values are placed when a message is actually sent. You might also notice these messages are named in such a way as to make interpreting what they actually do easy to understand. Using helpful message names is an ideal convention to follow when developing classes because it makes using the classes much more intuitive. Being consistent in naming messages is also critical.

Writing Another Program in Xcode

When you first open Xcode, you'll see the screen shown in Figure 6-1.



Figure 6-1. Xcode opening screen

Figure 6-1 shows a great screen to always keep visible at the launch of Xcode. Until you are more comfortable with Xcode, keep the **Show this window when Xcode launches** check box selected. This window allows you to select the most recently created projects or start a new project.

Creating the Project

You are going to start a new project, so click the **Create a new Xcode project** icon. Whenever you want to start a new iOS or Mac OS X application, library, or anything else, use this icon. Once a project has been started and saved, the project will appear in the Recents list on the right side of the display.

For this Xcode project, you're going to choose something simple. Make sure iOS Application is chosen. Then select **Single View Application**, as shown in Figure 6-2. Then simply click the **Next** button.

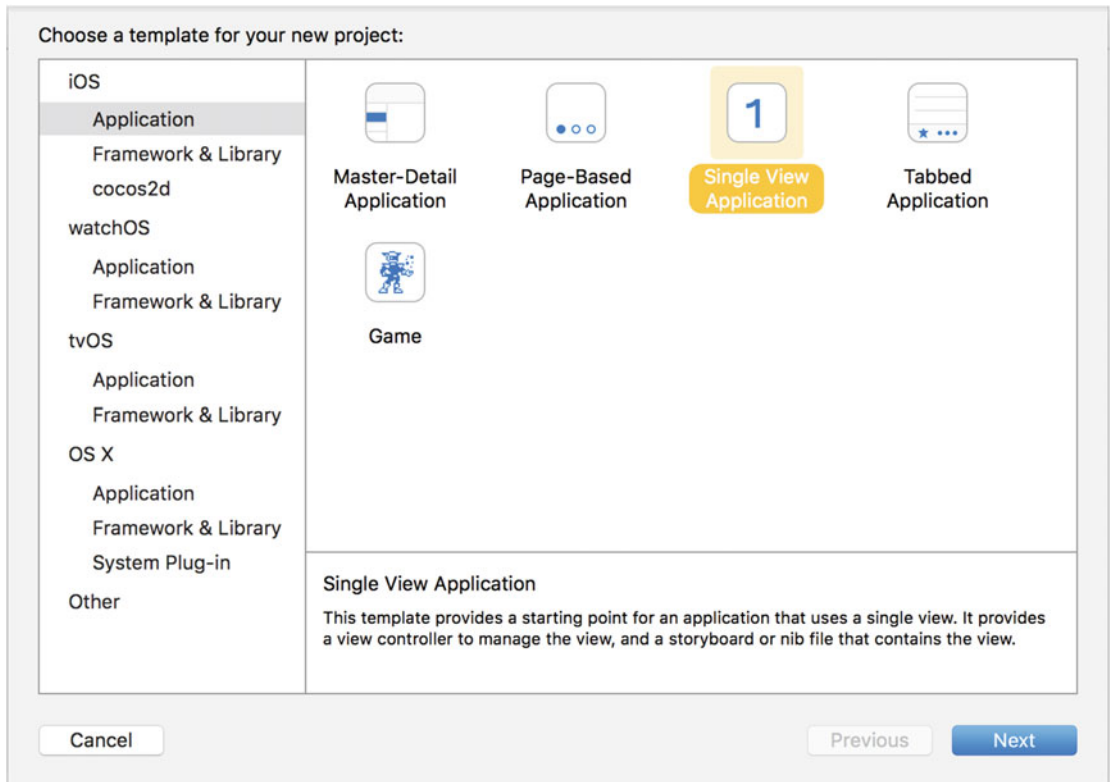


Figure 6-2. Choosing a new project from a list of templates

There are several different types of templates. These templates make it easier to start a project from scratch in that they provide a starting point by automatically creating simple source files.

Once the template has been chosen and the **Next** button clicked, Xcode presents you with a dialog box asking for the project's name and some other information, as shown in Figure 6-3. Type a product name of **MyFirstApp**. The Company Identifier field needs to have some value, so just enter **MyCompany**. Also make sure the Device Family selection is set to **iPhone** and Language is set to **Objective-C**.

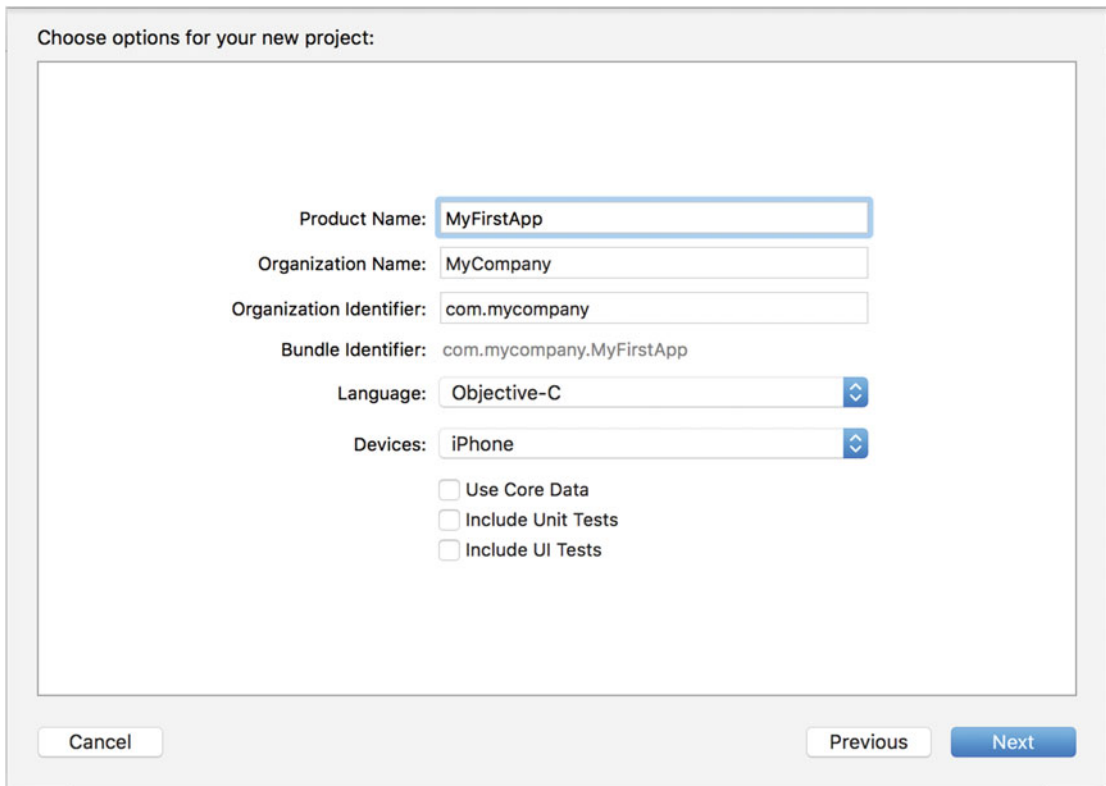


Figure 6-3. *Setting up the product name, company, and type*

The Use Core Data, Include Unit Tests, and Include UI Tests check boxes can be left as the default (unchecked). In our example, we don't have any checked, but it doesn't matter if they are checked or not. Once all the information has been supplied, click the **Next** button. Xcode will ask you where to save the project. You can save it any place, but the desktop is a good choice because it's always easy to find.

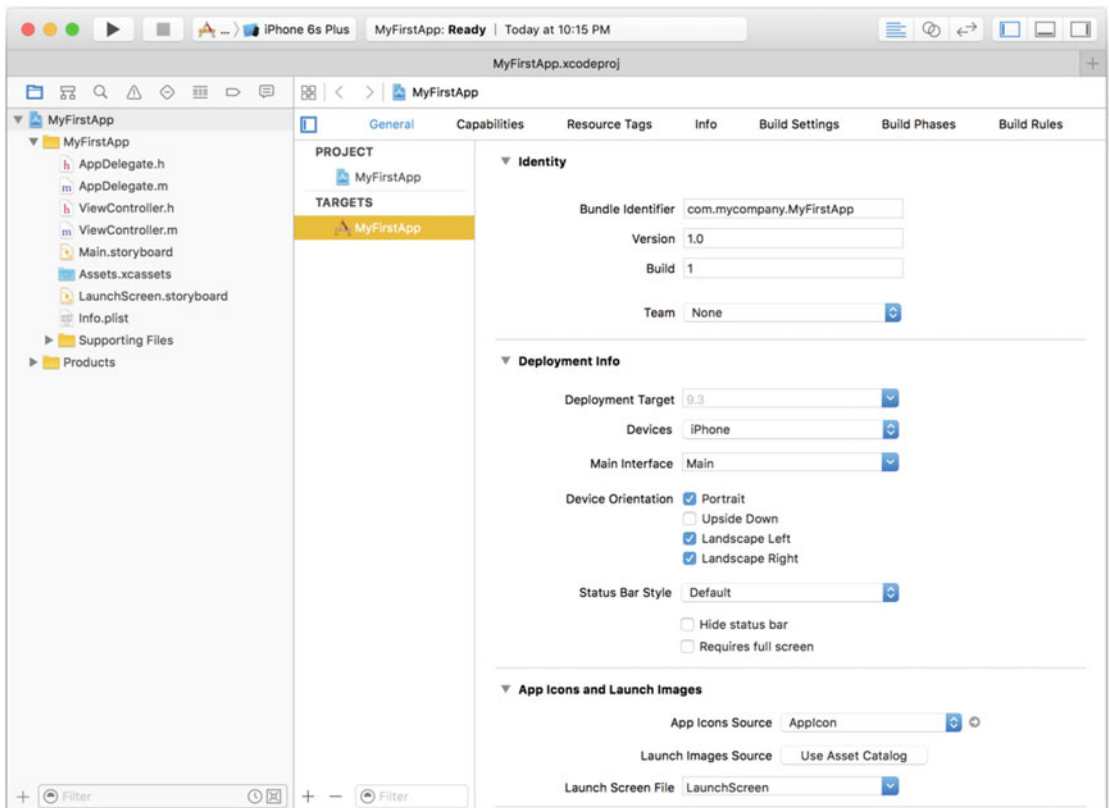


Figure 6-4. The Xcode 7.3 main screen

When the project is initially created, Xcode will display details about your project. Everything can be left as is except for Device. Change the device from Universal to **iPhone**. A universal device means that it will run on an iPad, an iPhone, or anything new Apple thinks up. For simplicity's sake, we're just going to stick to the iPhone.

In the leftmost pane is the list of source files. The main area of the screen is dedicated to the context-sensitive editor. Click a source file, like an `.h` or `.m`, and the editor will show the source code. Clicking a `.storyboard` file will show the user interface editor.

Your first app is going to be simple. This iPhone app will simply contain a pushbutton and a label. When the button is pushed, your name will appear on the screen. So, let's start by first looking more closely at some of the stub source code that Xcode built for you. The nice thing with Xcode is that it will create a stub application that will execute without any modification. Before you start adding some code, let's look at the main toolbar of Xcode, as shown in Figure 6-5.



Figure 6-5. The Xcode 7.3 toolbar

At first glance, there are three distinct areas of the toolbar. The left area is used to run/debug the application. The middle window displays the status as a summary of compiler errors and/or warnings. The far-right area contains a series of buttons that customize the editing view.

As shown in Figure 6-6, the left portion of the toolbar contains a Play button (similar to iTunes) that will compile and run the application. If the application is running, the Stop button will not be grayed out. Since it's grayed out, you know the application is not running. The last part of the toolbar is the build status. This is where you can see what application (or target) is being built, in this case MyFirstApp. The "Build Succeeded" indicates that, well, the build worked!

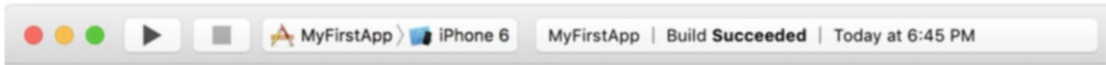


Figure 6-6. Close-up of the left portion of the Xcode toolbar

The right side of the Xcode toolbar contains buttons that change the editor. The three buttons represent the Standard Editor (selected), the Assistant Editor, and the Version Editor. For now, just choose the Standard Editor, as shown in Figure 6-7.

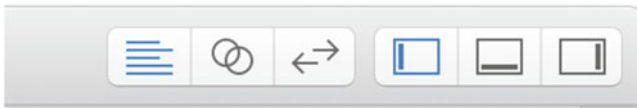


Figure 6-7. Close-up of the right portion of the Xcode toolbar

Next to the editor choices are a set of View buttons. These buttons represent which panes of the Xcode workplace are visible—left, bottom, and right. Blue indicates that a pane is active, and gray indicates that it is inactive. These buttons can be toggled on and off. Figure 6-8 shows all three panes. Figure 6-9 shows Xcode when no panes are used.

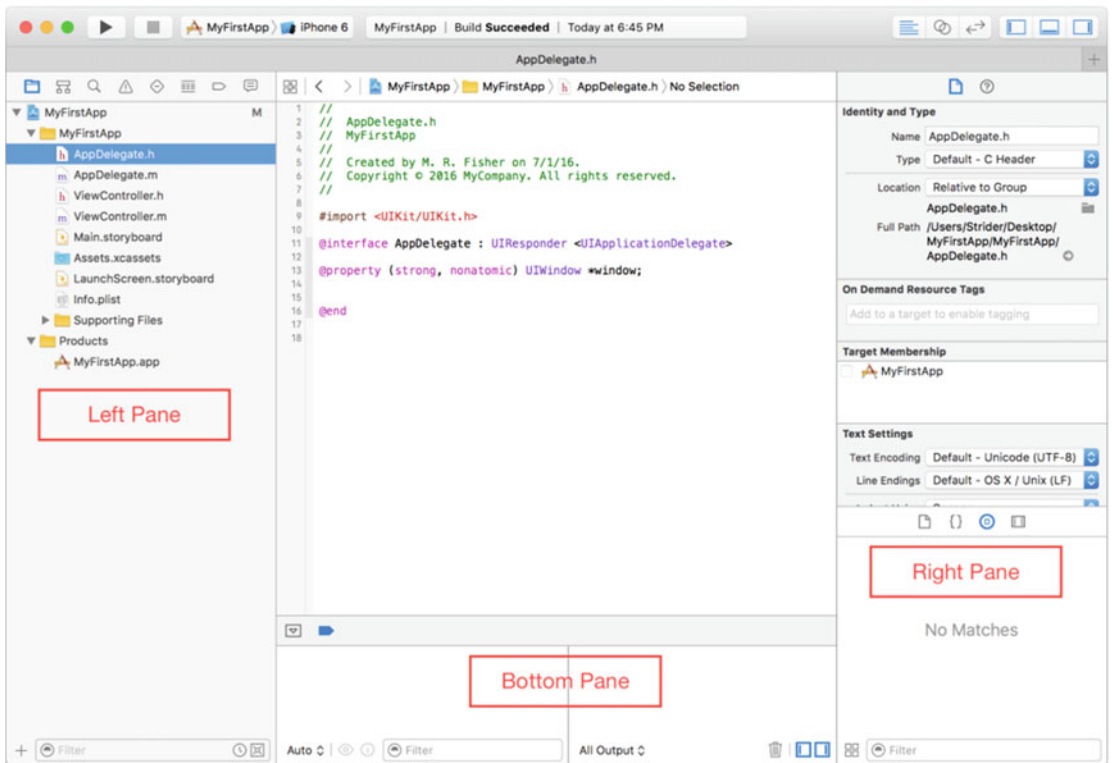


Figure 6-8. The three panes of Xcode

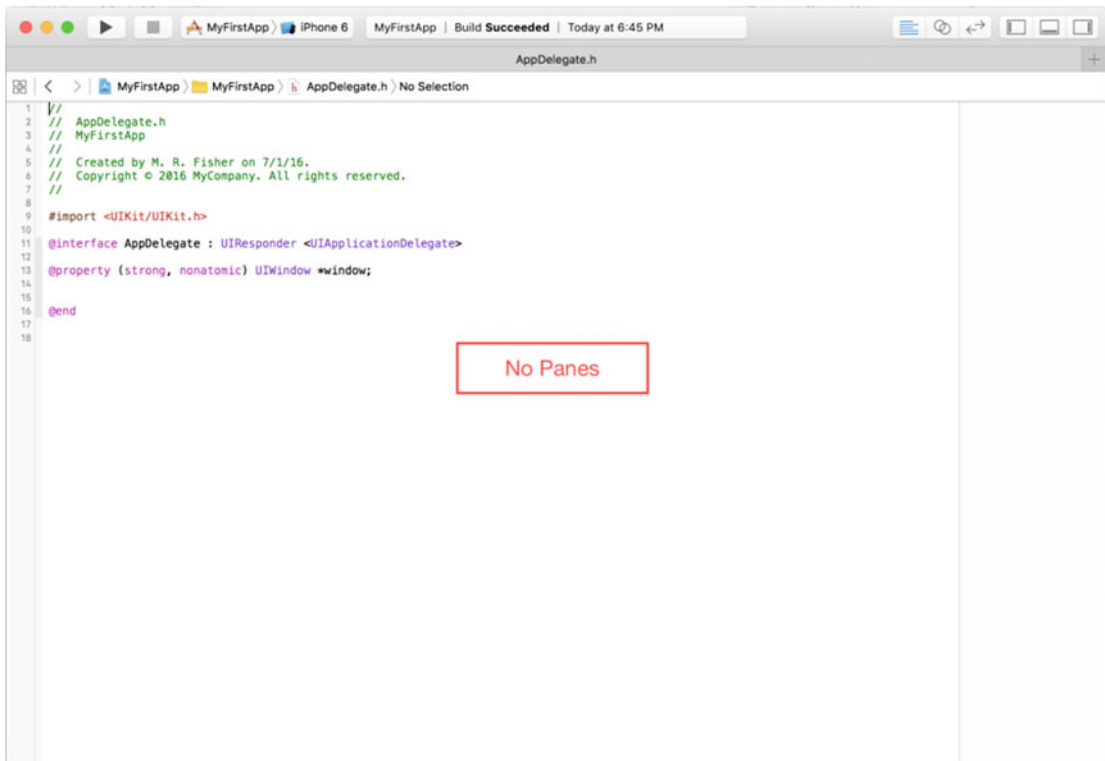


Figure 6-9. No panes selected. Just one big editor!

Generally, when Xcode starts up with a new project, the left and right panes are selected. So what are these different panes?

- The left pane is called the **Navigator**. This is because the pane contains different “tabs” that allow you to navigate the source (among other things).
- The right pane is the **Utilities** pane. It has all the tools that are used to configure the app and build the interface, which is what the user sees.
- The bottom pane is the **Debug area**. It appears when Xcode is debugging the app. Debugging is discussed in Chapter 14.

Let’s now get into your iOS app.

Click the `ViewController.h` file once, as shown in Figure 6-10. The editor shows some Objective-C code in what is called an Interface file. You can tell it’s an interface file because of the `@interface` Objective-C directive on line 11. We’ll discuss the importance of the `.h` and `.m` files in the next chapter.

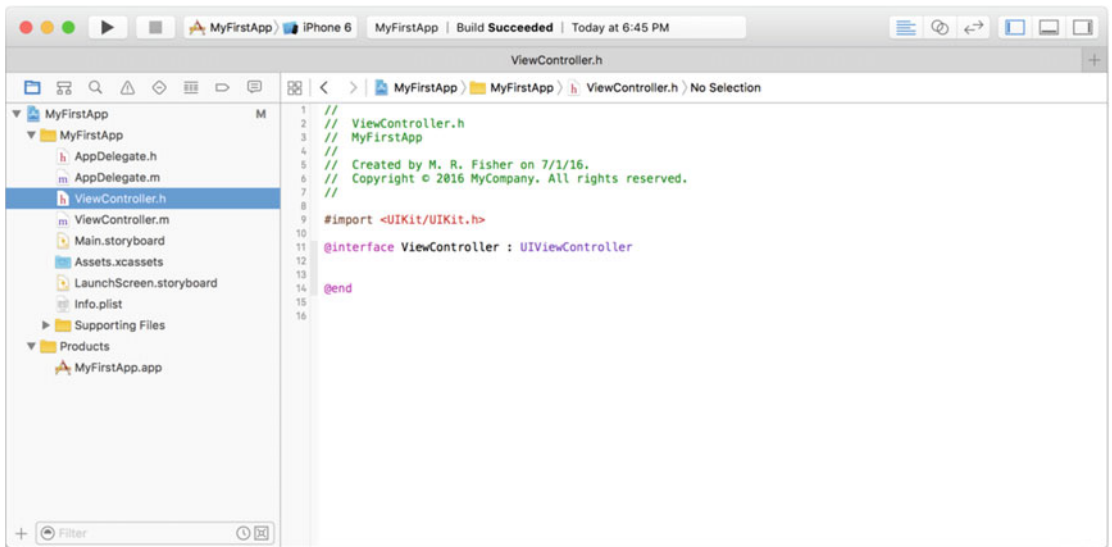


Figure 6-10. Looking at the source code in the Xcode editor

■ **Note** For now, we’re simply going to add a few lines of code and see what they do. It’s not expected that you understand what this code means right now. What’s important is simply going through the motions to become more familiar with Xcode. Chapter 7 goes into more depth about what makes up an Objective-C program, and Chapter 10 goes into more depth about building an iPhone interface.

Next, you’re going to add two lines of code into this file, as shown in Figure 6-11. Line 12 defines an iPhone label on the screen where you can put some text. Line 15 tells the compiler this object has a method named `showName:`. You’ll be calling this method to populate the iPhone label. A label is nothing more than an area on the screen where you can put some text information.

■ **Caution** Type the code *exactly* as shown in the example. For instance, `UILabel` can’t be `UILabel` or `UILabel`. Objective-C is a case-sensitive language, so `UILabel` is completely different from `UILabel`.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.h
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import <UIKit/UIKit.h>
10
11 @interface ViewController : UIViewController
12
13 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *nameLabel;
14
15 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender;
16
17 @end
18
19

```

Figure 6-11. Code added to the *ViewController.h* interface file

Next, you’re going to add the code to make the message `showName:` do something. First, click the *ViewController.m* file on the left once. This file is an *implementation* file. You can tell it’s an implementation file because of the `@implementation` Objective-C directive on line 11, as shown in Figure 6-12.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.m
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import "ViewController.h"
10
11 @interface ViewController ()
12
13 @end
14
15 @implementation ViewController
16
17 - (void)viewDidLoad {
18     [super viewDidLoad];
19     // Do any additional setup after loading the view, typically from a nib.
20 }
21
22 - (void)didReceiveMemoryWarning {
23     [super didReceiveMemoryWarning];
24     // Dispose of any resources that can be recreated.
25 }
26
27 @end
28

```

Figure 6-12. The *ViewController.m* implementation file

Notice there is a warning symbol on line 15. Clicking the warning will show the warning “Method definition for ‘showName:’ not found.” This basically means you’ve added a new method in the interface file, but it’s not to be added to the implementation file.

What may appear wrong are lines 11–13. This is what is called a **class extension** and is meant to be only in the .m file. This is meant to contain properties that are strictly kept private to the ViewController class.

Figure 6-13 is the updated implementation file. Now, the warning disappears since the `showName:` method is now in the implementation file. Xcode is nice that way. If a method is defined in the interface file, it will generate a warning if it's not in the implementation file. Xcode does make things easier, but it's still up to the programmer (you) to make any necessary corrections.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.m
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import "ViewController.h"
10
11 @interface ViewController ()
12
13 @end
14
15 @implementation ViewController
16
17 - (void)viewDidLoad {
18     [super viewDidLoad];
19     // Do any additional setup after loading the view, typically from a nib.
20 }
21
22 - (void)didReceiveMemoryWarning {
23     [super didReceiveMemoryWarning];
24     // Dispose of any resources that can be recreated.
25 }
26
27 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender {
28     |
29 }
30
31 @end
32

```

Figure 6-13. Code added to the `ViewController.m` implementation file

Once lines 27–29, as shown in Figure 6-13, have been added, the warning message will disappear. The nice thing with Xcode is that it will report any warnings or errors with the code typed in without first having to try to compile and run the program. This immediate feedback can sometimes be a pain, but it does save time. You now have the necessary code in place, but you don't yet have a user interface on the iPhone. Next, you're going to create the user interface to your app.

To edit the iPhone's interface, you need to click the `Main.storyboard` file once. You will use Xcode's interface editor to *connect* a user interface object, such as a label, to the code you just created. Connecting is as easy as click, drag, and drop.

One thing that may stand out is that big square in the center of the screen doesn't look like any iPhone currently made by Apple—and it isn't. No, this isn't some new secret device that Apple has yet to sell but is something done deliberately. As you get into more complicated interfaces, it's a good practice to *not* design for an iPhone or an iPad but *any* device screen size. So, to get developers thinking in that mind-set, Xcode puts up a square interface: neither an iPhone nor an iPad. For our first app, we're going to keep things simple.

Note that the right pane is visible, as shown in Figure 6-14. This opens up the Utilities pane for the interface. Among other things, this utilities pane shows you the various interface objects you can use in your app. You're going to be concerned with only two: Button and Label.

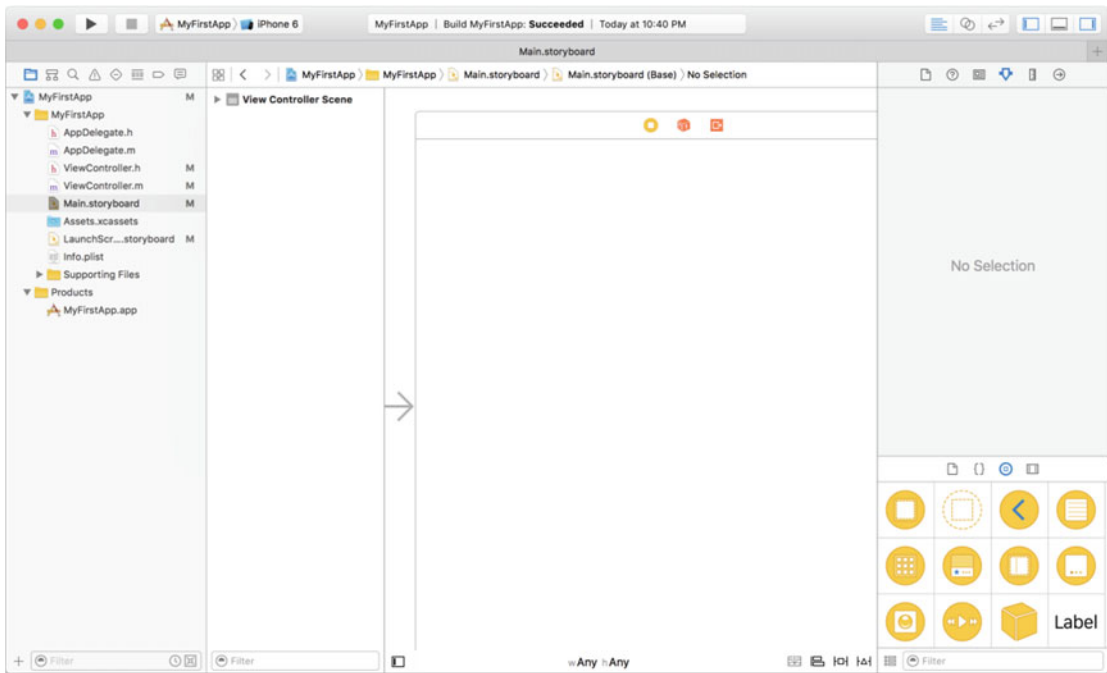


Figure 6-14. The iPhone interface that you’re going to modify

The first step is to click the **Button** control once from the Utilities pane; you may have to scroll the list of controls to find the Button control. Next, drag the object to the iPhone view, as shown in Figure 6-15. Don’t worry; dragging the object doesn’t remove it from the list of objects in the Utilities pane. Dragging it out will create a new copy of that object on your iPhone interface.

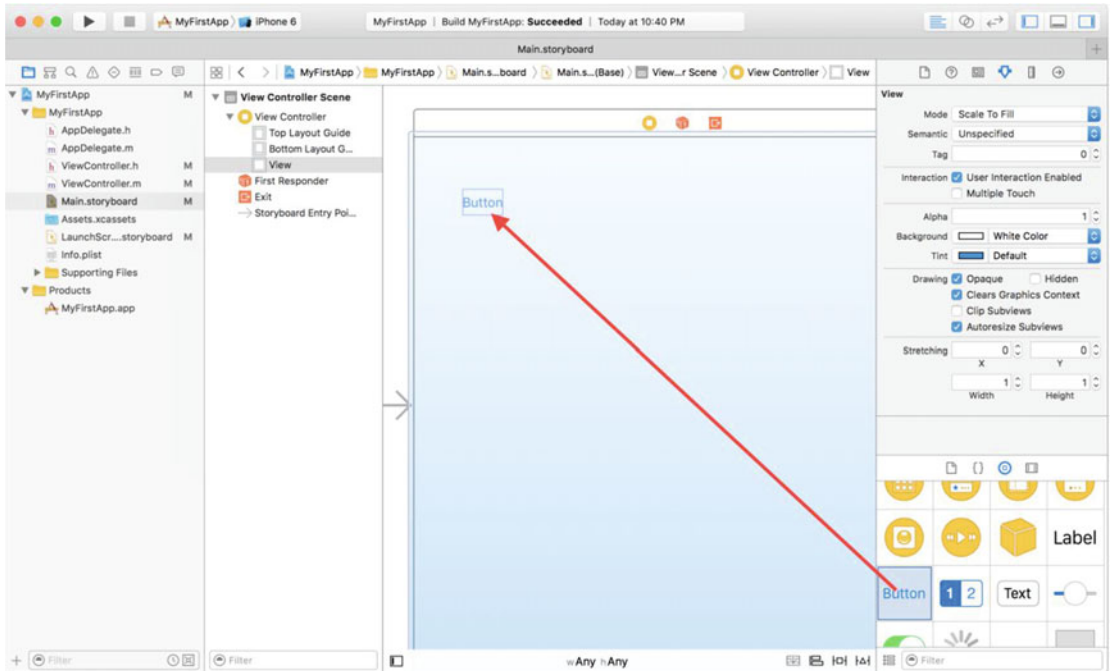


Figure 6-15. Moving a Button object onto the iPhone view

Next, double-click the **Button** that was just added to the iPhone interface. This allows the title of the button to be changed. So, change the title from **Button** to **Name**, as shown in Figure 6-16. Many different interface objects work just like this. Simply double-click and the title or text of the object can be changed. Changing the text of a button can also be done in the actual code, but it's much simpler doing as much as possible in the interface editor.

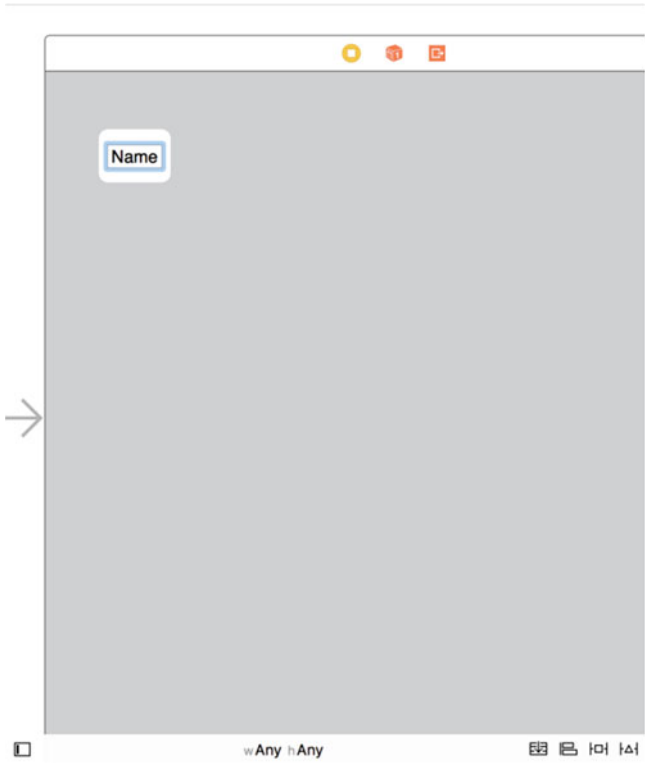


Figure 6-16. *Modifying the button's title*

Once the title has been changed, drag and drop a Label object and place it right below the button, as shown in Figure 6-17.

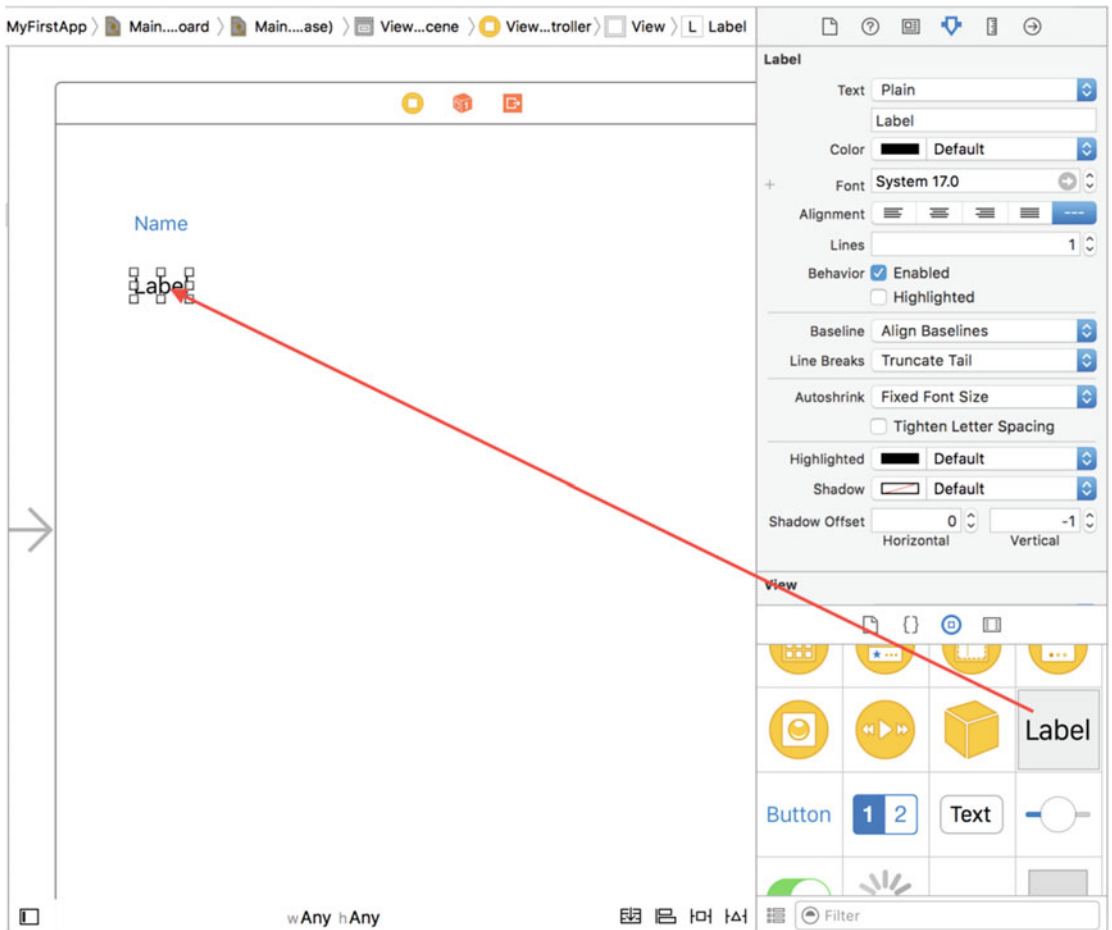


Figure 6-17. Adding a Label object to the iPhone interface

For now, you can leave the label's title as Label as you're going to make it change within the program. You also want to leave something in the title so you can actually see it on the screen. If you clear the label's text, the object will still be there, but there is nothing visible to click in order to select. Expand the size of the label by dragging the center handle ball to the right, as shown in Figure 6-18.



Figure 6-18. Expanding the label's size

Now that you have both the button and the label, you can connect these visual objects to your program. You start by Control-clicking (or right-clicking) the button control and *dragging* the blue line to the yellow view controller icon at the top of the screen, as shown in Figure 6-19.

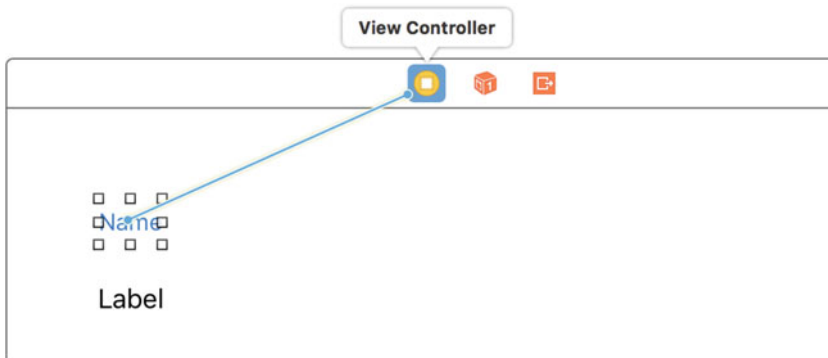


Figure 6-19. Start the connection from the button to the view controller

At this point, just stop dragging and release the mouse. You will see a list of things related to the button. In this case, you care only about selecting the `showName:` event, as shown in Figure 6-20. It's called an *event* because something happens when, in this case, the button is touched.

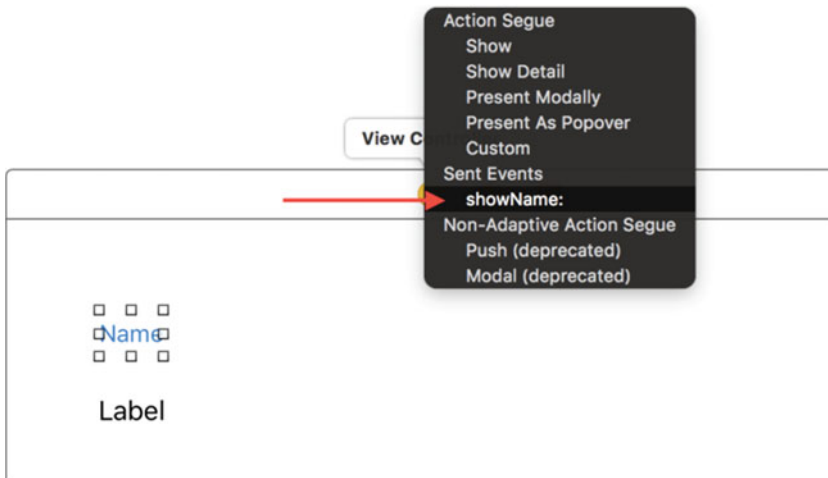


Figure 6-20. Select the `showName:` event

What just happens once the `showName:` is selected is that it *connects* the touch-up inside button event to the `showName:` method inside the implementation. The event is called **touch-up inside** since the event is sent only when the button is released (touch-up) and only when the touch-up occurs *inside* the button (versus if you drag your finger *outside* the button and then release).

Next, you need to create a connection for the Label object. In this case, you don't care about the label events; instead, you want to connect the ViewController's nameLabel outlet to the object on the iPhone interface. This *connects* the label shown on the iPhone interface to the property in the program.

Start by Control-clicking or right-clicking the Label object on the iPhone interface. This brings up the connection menu for the label, as shown in Figure 6-21. There are not as many options for a Label object as there were for the Button object.

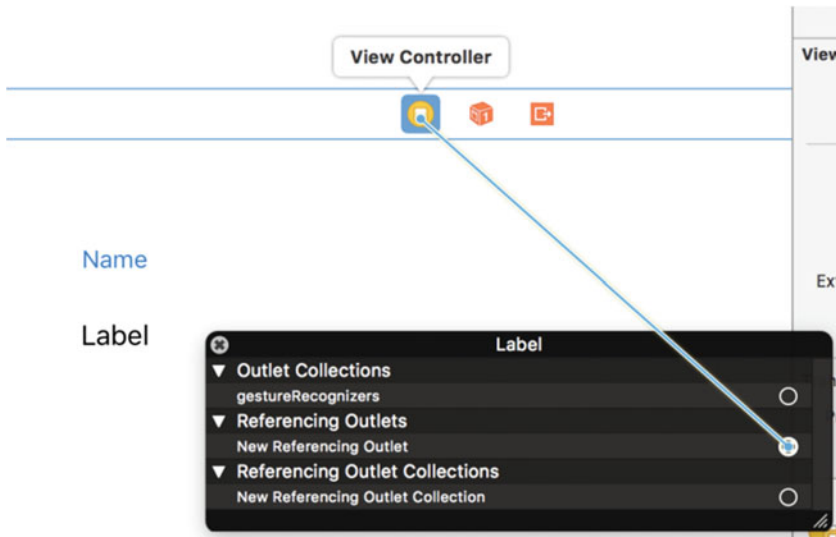


Figure 6-21. Connection menu for the Label object

As mentioned, you are not here to connect an event. Instead, you connect what's referred to as a **Referencing Outlet**. The Outlet is the property in your program. Just like the button, drag and drop the connection to the view controller icon, as shown in Figure 6-21.

Once the connection is dropped on the view controller icon, a list of possible outlets in your ViewController object will be displayed, as shown in Figure 6-22. Of the two choices, you want to choose nameLabel. This is the name of the variable in the ViewController object you are using.

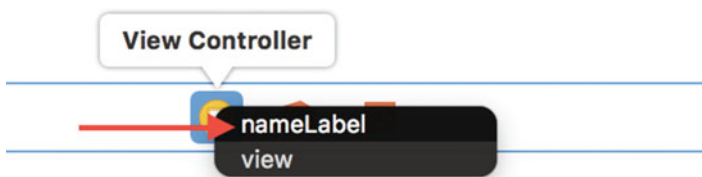


Figure 6-22. Connecting the Referencing Outlet to the object

Lastly, you need to add the code that will put something into your new label. In Figure 6-23, line 28 sets the text to the nameLabel property. Notice that you're adding code to the showName: method. If you recall, this is the method that is called during the touch-up inside event. Don't worry too much about understanding everything, but some things should look familiar based upon what you've learned in this chapter.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.m
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import "ViewController.h"
10
11 @interface ViewController ()
12
13 @end
14
15 @implementation ViewController
16
17 - (void)viewDidLoad {
18     [super viewDidLoad];
19     // Do any additional setup after loading the view, typically from a nib.
20 }
21
22 - (void)didReceiveMemoryWarning {
23     [super didReceiveMemoryWarning];
24     // Dispose of any resources that can be recreated.
25 }
26
27 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender {
28     [self.nameLabel setText:@"My Name is Awesome!"];
29 }
30
31 @end
32

```

Figure 6-23. *Setting the text to the new label*

Now you're ready to run the program. Click the **Run** button (it looks like a play button) at the top-left corner of the Xcode window (see Figure 6-6). This will automatically save your changes and run the application in the iPhone emulator, as shown in Figure 6-24.

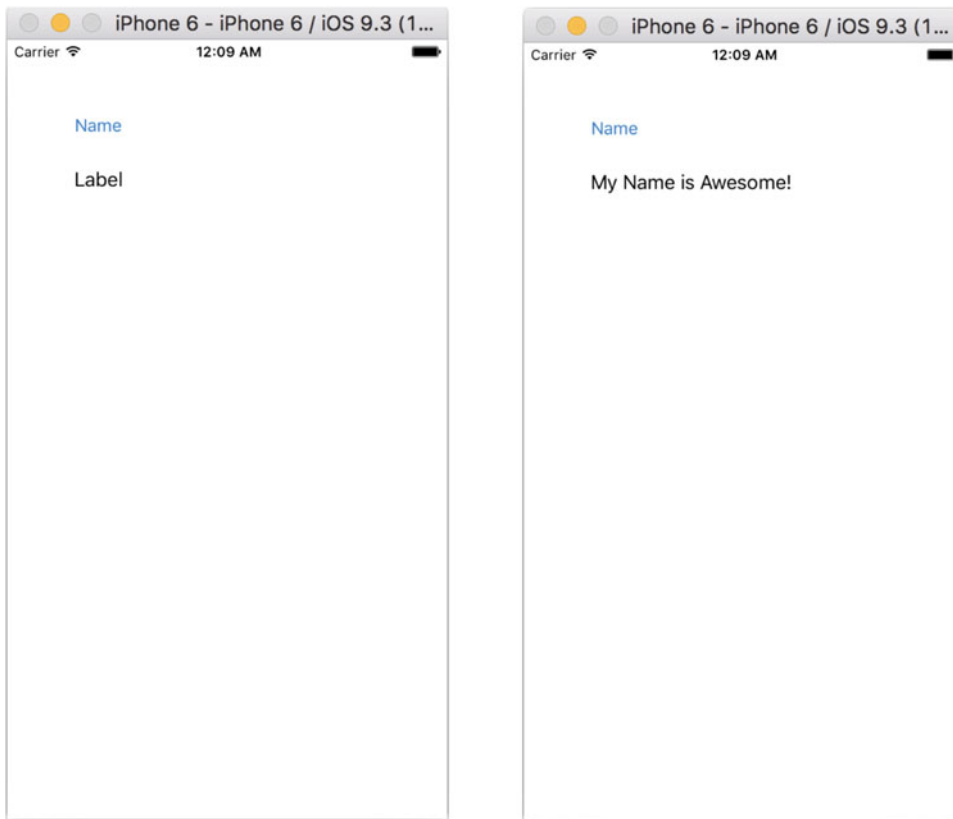


Figure 6-24. Your app running, before and after the button is pressed

Clicking the **Name** button, the label’s text will change from its default value of “Label” to “My Name is Awesome!” or whatever text you put in. If you want to, go back into the interface and clear the default label text. Changing the default of “Label” to something more appropriate will give the user interface a more polished look.

Summary

The examples in this chapter were simple, but we hope they’ve whetted your appetite for more complex applications using Objective-C and Xcode. In later chapters, you can expect to learn more about object-oriented programming and more about what Objective-C can do. Pat yourself on the back because you’ve learned a lot already. Here is a summary of the topics discussed in this chapter:

- The origins and brief history of the Objective-C language
- Some common language symbols used in Objective-C
- An Objective-C class example
- The `@interface` and `@implementation` sections of a program

- Using Xcode a bit more, including entering and compiling the `MyFirstApp.m` source file
- Connecting visual interface objects with methods and properties in the application object

Exercises

- Change the size of the Label object on the interface to be smaller in width. How does that affect the text message?
- Delete the Referencing Outlet connection of the label and rerun the project. What happens?
- If you feel you have the hang of this, add a new button and label both to the `ViewController` object and to the interface. Change it from displaying your name to displaying something else.

CHAPTER 7



Objective-C Classes, Objects, and Methods

If you haven't already read Chapter 6, please do so before reading this chapter because it provides a great introduction to some of the basics of Objective-C. This chapter builds on that foundation. By the end of this chapter, you can expect to have a greater understanding of the Objective-C language and how to use the basics to write simple programs. For Mitch personally, the best way to learn is to take small programs and write (or rewrite) them in Objective-C just to see how the language works.

This chapter will cover what composes an Objective-C class and how to interact with Objective-C objects via methods. We will use a `SimpleLabelData` class as an example of how an Objective-C class is written. This will impart an understanding of how an Objective-C class can be used. This chapter will teach you how to formulate a design for objects that are needed to solve a problem. We'll touch on how to create custom objects, as well as how to use existing objects provided in the Foundation classes.

If you're coming from a C-like language, you'll find that Objective-C shares several similarities. As described in Chapter 6, Objective-C's roots are firmly planted in the C language. This chapter will expand on Chapter 6's topics and incorporate some of the concepts described in Chapter 8.

Creating an Objective-C Class

Chapter 6 introduced some of the common elements of the Objective-C language, so let's quickly review them.

- An Objective-C class is divided into two parts: a class interface and a class implementation.
- The `@interface` keyword is used to define an interface to a new Objective-C class. This is written in an `.h`, or header, file.
- Methods are the blocks of code defined in the `@interface` section of a class and implemented in the `@implementation` section in an `.m` file.
- The `@implementation` keyword is used to define the actual code that implements the methods defined in the interface. This is written in an `.m`, or Objective-C class, file.

As explained in Chapter 6, an Objective-C class consists of an interface and a corresponding implementation. For now, let's concentrate on the interface. At the most basic level, the interface of a class tells you the name of the class, what class it's derived from, and what methods the class understands.

■ **Note** It was mentioned in Chapter 6 that technically an Objective-C object sends and receives methods. However, for simplicity sake, we're going to stick to the more common term **method** instead.

Here is a sample of the first line from a class's interface:

```
@interface SimpleLabelData : NSObject
```

Here, the class name is `SimpleLabelData`. The colon (`:`) after the class name indicates that the class is derived from another class; that is, the `SimpleLabelData` object **inherits** functionality from the `UILabel` class. Put another way, in the example shown in Listing 7-1, the `SimpleLabelData` class is derived from the `NSObject` class, which is the base class for all classes.

■ **Tip** If your object is not inheriting from any other Foundation or UIKit class (like `UILabel`), *always* inherit from `NSObject`; without it, your class will be worthless. `NSObject` provides the base functions that make new objects behave correctly. `NSObject` is the base class for all foundation classes. So, inheriting from any foundation or UIKit class is also fine.

Once the class name is defined, the rest of the interface file contains the main components of the class (see Figure 7-1).

```

1 //
2 // SimpleLabelData.h
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 8/17/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
10
11 @interface SimpleLabelData : NSObject
12
13 @property (nonatomic) NSString *title;
14 @property (nonatomic) NSString *value;
15
16
17 + (instancetype)simpleLabelDataWithTitle:(NSString *)title
18 andValue:(NSString *)value;
19
20
21 - (NSString *)combinedString;
22
23
24 @end

```

Figure 7-1. An interface file: `SimpleLabelData.h`

Declaring Interfaces and Properties (Instance Variables)

An Objective-C class is defined by its **interface**. Since objects, for the most part, are communicated with using methods, the interface of an object defines what methods the object will respond to. Line 9 imports the Foundation class definitions (more on that in a bit). Line 11 is the start the definition of the class's interface by defining its name (`SimpleLabelData`) (sometimes called the type) and the superclass (`NSObject`). Next, there are two `@property` lines. These are properties of the class and are sometimes called instance variables.

Whenever the `SimpleLabelData` class is instantiated, the resulting `SimpleLabelData` object has access to these properties. If there are ten `SimpleLabelData` objects, each object has its own properties independent of the other objects. This is also referred to as **scope**, in that the object's properties are specific to that object only. Other objects manage their own properties and so on.

Calling Methods

Every object has methods. In Objective-C, the common concept to interact with an object is to call methods.

```
[aSimpleLabelData combinedString];
```

The preceding line will call a method of an instance of the `SimpleLabelData` class from a variable named `aSimpleLabelData`. The method (`combinedString`) is the name of the method to call.

If a class does not have that method defined, the parent object checks for it, and its parent object checks for it, and so on, until the method is either found or not. This behavior is called **dynamic binding**, which means the method is found at runtime instead of compile time. Dynamic binding allows an Objective-C program to react to changes while the program is running—this is one of the huge advantages Objective-C has over other languages.

Methods can also have parameters passed along with them. Parameters are used to control behavior or are simply passed to the object to store for later use. So, the following method accepts some parameters:

```
someLabelData = [SimpleLabelData simpleLabelDataWithTitle:@"Name"
andTitleText:@"What's in a name?"];
```

It's important to understand the method and how it's structured, especially once you actually implement the code. In your code, you'll need to make sure you implement the `simpleLabelDataWithTitle:andTitleText:` method; otherwise, the program won't work. Please note that this is the name that the example uses. A method name can be pretty much any combination of words.

In the preceding example, the method consists of two parameters: the title and a title value. What's interesting about Objective-C relative to other languages is that the methods are essentially named parameters. It's easy to understand `simpleLabelDataWithTitle:andTitleText:` in that it's obvious what the method is looking for as input. Here are a few other examples:

```
[NSDictionary dictionaryWithContentsOfFile:filename];
[myString characterAtIndex:1];
[myViewController addChildViewController:otherViewController];
```

Using Class Methods

A class doesn't have to be instantiated to be used. In some cases, classes have methods that can actually perform some simple operations and return values. These methods are called **class methods**. In Listing 7-1, the method names that start with a plus sign (+) are class methods—all class methods must start with a + sign.

Class methods have limitations. One of their biggest limitations is that none of the instance variables can be used. Well, technically, Xcode allows instance variables to be coded in a class method. The code will compile with a warning, but accessing or using the instance variable does nothing—just don't do it. Being unable to use instance variables makes sense since we haven't instantiated anything. A class method can have its own local variables within the method itself but can't use any of the variables defined as instance variables.

A call to a class method would look like this:

```
[SimpleLabelData new];
```

Notice that the call is similar to how a method is passed to an instantiated object. The big difference is that instead of a class instance, the class name itself is used. Class methods are used quite extensively in the Mac OS X and iOS frameworks. They are used mostly for returning some fixed or well-known types or

values or for returning a new instance of an object. These types of class methods are sometimes referred to as **factory methods** since, like factories, they create something new (in this case, a new instance of a class). Here's a factory method example:

```
1. [NSDate timeIntervalSinceReferenceDate]; // Returns a number
2. [NSString stringWithFormat:@"%d", 1000]; // Returns a new NSString object
3. [NSDictionary new]; // Returns a new NSDictionary object.
```

All of the preceding methods are class methods being called.

Line 1 simply returns a value that represents the number of seconds since January 1, 2001, which is the reference date.

Line 2 returns a new NSString object that has been formatted and has a value of 1000.

Line 3 is a form that is commonly used because it actually allocates a new object. Typically, the line is not used by itself but in a line, like this:

```
myDict = [NSDictionary new];
```

So when would you use a class method? As a general rule, a class method is used in two ways.

- To create a new instance of the class
- When the method being called does not require an instance of the class

In our sample class, the second way doesn't apply but an example would be as follows:

```
[NSDate date];
```

This class method returns the current date/time and doesn't require an instance of NSDate.

There are also a few things that are important to note.

- Every class needs a class method to create itself.
- In *most* cases you don't have to create one since it's handled by NSObject for you.

It would be entirely possible to write the SimpleLabelData class without a class method, but we're adding one for instructive purposes.

Using Instance Methods

Instance methods (line 22 in Listing 7-1) are methods that are available only once a class has been instantiated. Here's an example:

```
1. SimpleLabelData *myLabel;
2. myLabel = [SimpleLabelData simpleLabelDataWithTitle:@"My Title"
              andValue:@"A Value"];
3. [myLabel combinedString];
4. NSString *title = myLabel.title;
```

Line 1 declares the variable to hold the instance of the class.

Line 2 calls the class method to create the object, set its properties, and return it as an instance to be stored in the myLabel variable.

Line 3 calls an instance method to combine the title/value into a combined string.

Line 4 gets the title property from the instance and stores it into a new variable called title.

Another thing of note is that the code in the `Class` method cannot access the properties, which are the instance variables, until *after* the class is instantiated. You will see this when we go over the implementation file.

All instance methods must start with a hyphen (-); this easily distinguishes them from class methods, which use a plus (+) sign.

Working with the Implementation File

Now that you've seen what an interface file looks like, let's take a look at the **implementation file**. First, the interface file had an `.h` extension, as in `SimpleLabelData.h`. The implementation file has an `.m` extension, as in `SimpleLabelData.m`, as shown in Listing 7-2.

Another important thing to note is that the interface and implementation files have the same name (excluding the extension). This convention is used universally: while there is nothing preventing an interface and an implementation file from having different file names, having different names can cause much confusion, and tools like Xcode won't work as well. For example, the Xcode key sequence `Control+Command+up-arrow key (^ + ⌘ + ↑)` moves between implementation and interface files, and it will not work if the two file names are not the same.

When Xcode creates a class, it creates a rudimentary stub of an implementation file. Figure 7-2 starts with the `#import` statement to your interface file. The `#import` statement reads in your interface file for the class. As the compiler goes through your implementation (`.m`) file, it needs to know what class it's implementing, and the interface file provides all the information that it needs.

```

1  //
2  // SimpleLabelData.m
3  // MyFirstApp
4  //
5  // Created by M. R. Fisher on 8/17/16.
6  // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7  //
8
9  #import "SimpleLabelData.h"
10
11 @implementation SimpleLabelData
12
13 + (instancetype)simpleLabelDataWithTitle:(NSString *)initialTitle
14   andValue:(NSString *)initialValue
15 {
16     SimpleLabelData *newLabel = [self new];
17     newLabel.title = initialTitle;
18     newLabel.value = initialValue;
19
20     return newLabel;
21 }
22
23
24 - (NSString *)combinedString
25 {
26     NSMutableString *newString = [NSMutableString new];
27     [newString appendString:self.title];
28     [newString appendString:@" "];
29     [newString appendString:self.value];
30
31     return [NSString stringWithString:newString];
32 }
33
34 @end

```

Figure 7-2. Your implementation file

An `#import` statement tells the compiler to read in the specified file because the compiler needs to know about certain predefined things. For example, in your interface file, the `SimpleLabelData` class is a subclass of `NSObject`. The `NSObject` class needs to be defined for the program to compile successfully. All of these objects are part of the iOS Foundation framework and are included via line 9 in the interface file from Listing 7-1.

```
#import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
```

■ **Note** Look at the `#import` statements: one uses angle brackets (`< >`), and the other uses plain double quotation marks (`" "`). The difference is that a file in the angle brackets indicates a system-level file, which is located using a predefined path that Xcode automatically sets up for your project. Any file that has double quotation marks is searched for in the current project. In this example, the `SimpleLabelData.h` interface file is part of our project, so we use double quotation marks, whereas the `Foundation.h` file is a system file and uses the angle brackets.

Coding Your Methods

Figure 7-2 is a simple example, but it demonstrates what many methods look like in a class. First, if you look at the implementation and interface files for one of the class methods, you can see the similarities. The following line is from the interface file:

```
+ (instancetype)simpleLabelDataWithTitle:(NSString *)initialTitle
    andValue:(NSString *)initialValue;
```

As you can see, it's a class method because it starts with a `+`. The next item, `(NSString*)`, is a parameter called `initialTitle`, and the second item is `initialValue`, another `NSString*`. These will be used by the instance to set its own title and value.

Listing 7-2 is from the implementation file.

Listing 7-2. The Implementation of a Class Method

```
1. + (instancetype)simpleLabelDataWithTitle:(NSString *)initialTitle
    andValue:(NSString *)initialValue
2. {
3.     SimpleLabelData *newLabel = [SimpleLabelData new];
4.     newLabel.title = initialTitle;
5.     newLabel.value = initialValue;
6.     return newLabel;
7. }
```

This line represents an implementation of the method defined in the interface. The word `implementation` indicates that the method is coded here. It looks almost identical to the interface file but now contains a block with some code, rather than simply ending with a semicolon.

Generally, a class has a definition of a method in an interface file and the actual code of the method in an implementation file.

So what does this class method do?

Line 1 is the class method declaration and is the implementation of the class method defined in the interface file.

Line 2 and line 7 begin and end the method.

Line 3 looks a little odd. It creates a new instance of the object by calling `[SimpleLabelData new]`. The new class method is defined in `NSObject` and creates a new instance of a class.

Remember, class methods cannot use the instance variables defined in the class but in the case of lines 4 and 5, you're using the `newLabel` variable, which is now the instance of the new class.

Line 6 returns the instance of the class to the caller.

Now, you will look at the implementation of an instance method (see Listing 7-3). There are some significant differences between an instance and a class method; for one, instance methods have the option to use the instance variables defined in the interface file, in this case two properties that represent the title and value. Also, instance methods are available only once the class has been instantiated.

Listing 7-3. The Implementation of an Instance Method

```

1. - (NSString *)combinedString
2. {
3.     NSMutableString *newString = [NSMutableString new];
4.     [newString appendString:self.title];
5.     [newString appendString:@": "];
6.     [newString appendString:self.value];

7.     return [newString copy];
8. }
```

Listing 7-3 illustrates the implementation of one of the instance methods of your `SimpleLabelData` class. In this case, the instance method combines the title and value properties with a `:` between them.

Line 1 is the start of the implementation of the method defined in the interface file.

Line 3 declares a new variable called `newString`. In this case, it's a variable that is an `NSMutableString`. This is a string that you can modify, as you will see next.

Line 4 appends the instance's property title to the `newString`, which is blank up to now. `appendString:` simply adds the string in the argument to the `newString` variable.

Lines 5 and 6 do the same as line 4 but use different string values.

Line 7 returns a copy of the new string. A copy is returned since you don't want to return the modifiable temporary string to the caller since the caller could modify it and that would be bad.

What's important to mention is the use of the name `self` in lines 4 and 6. When working in an instance method, the "instance" of the class is referred to as `self`.

Using Your New Class

You've created a simple `SimpleLabelData` class, but by itself, it doesn't accomplish a whole lot. In this section, you will create the `Radio` class and have it maintain a list of `SimpleLabelData` classes.

Updating MyFirstApp

Let's start up Xcode and load the project from Chapter 6, `MyFirstApp`.



Figure 7-3. Open Xcode so you can load an existing project

1. You may have to click **Open another project...** if the file isn't listed. Once you've loaded the file, you should see the project screen. If not, just click **MyFirstApp** with the blue icon at the top of the project navigator window.

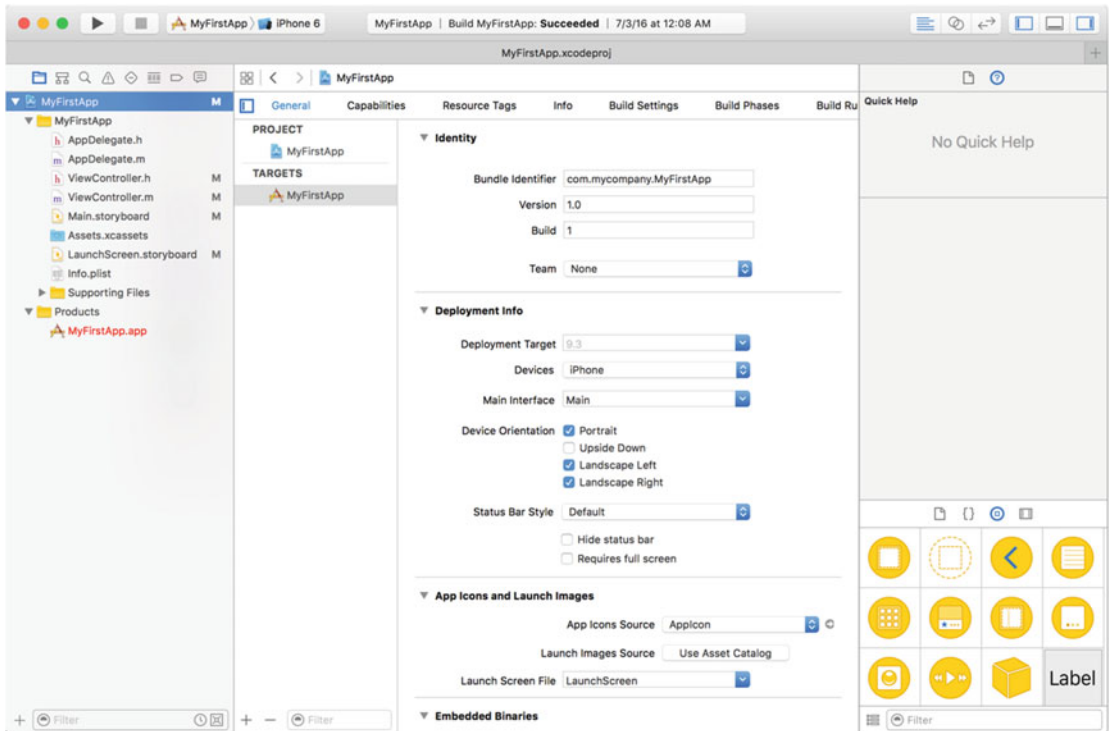


Figure 7-4. The workspace window in Xcode

Adding Objects

Now, you can add your new objects.

1. First, create your SimpleLabelData object. Click the **MyFirstApp** group folder and click the + button at the bottom. Next, choose **File...** (as shown in Figure 7-5).

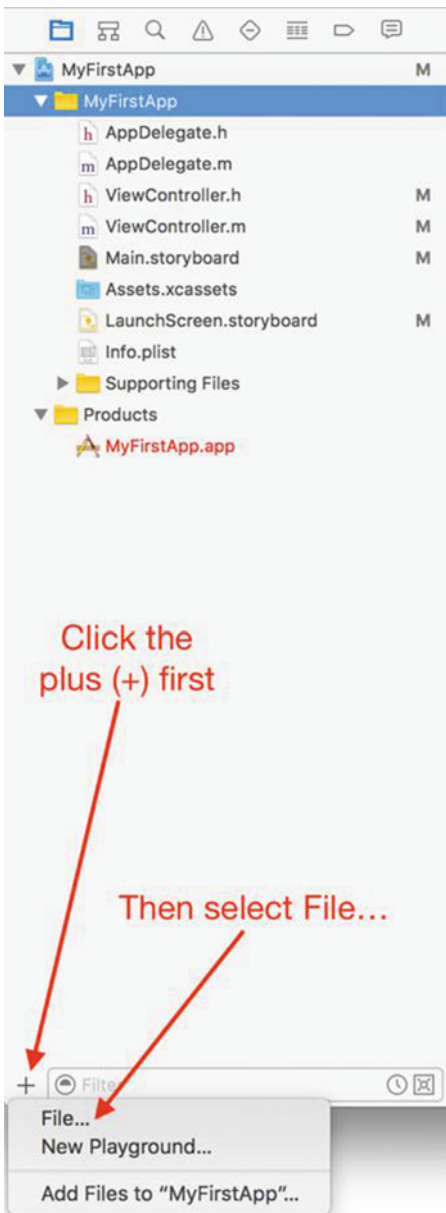


Figure 7-5. Adding a new file

■ **Note** There are a few other ways to add a new file instead of just clicking the + sign. Alternatively, you can right-click in the MyFirstApp folder or even on top of one of the files and the new file (or files) will be inserted right below the right-click.

The method shown here is an easy and consistent way to add items to the Xcode project. There are + signs in other areas where right-clicks don't work as expected.

2. The next screen, shown in Figure 7-6, asks for the new file type. Simply choose **Cocoa Touch Class** from the list of templates and then click **Next**.

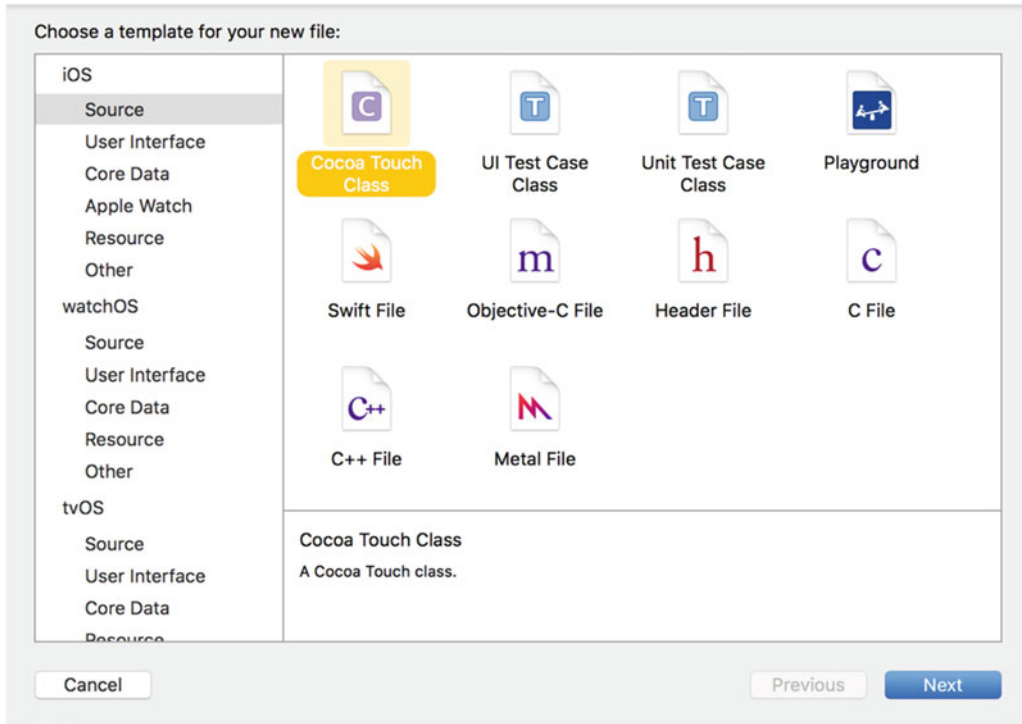


Figure 7-6. Selecting the new file type

3. On the next screen, enter **SimpleLabelData** as the class and select **NSObject** (you can just start typing **NSO** and Xcode will find it) for “Subclass of.” This means your new class will be a subclass of **NSObject**, as shown in Figure 7-7.

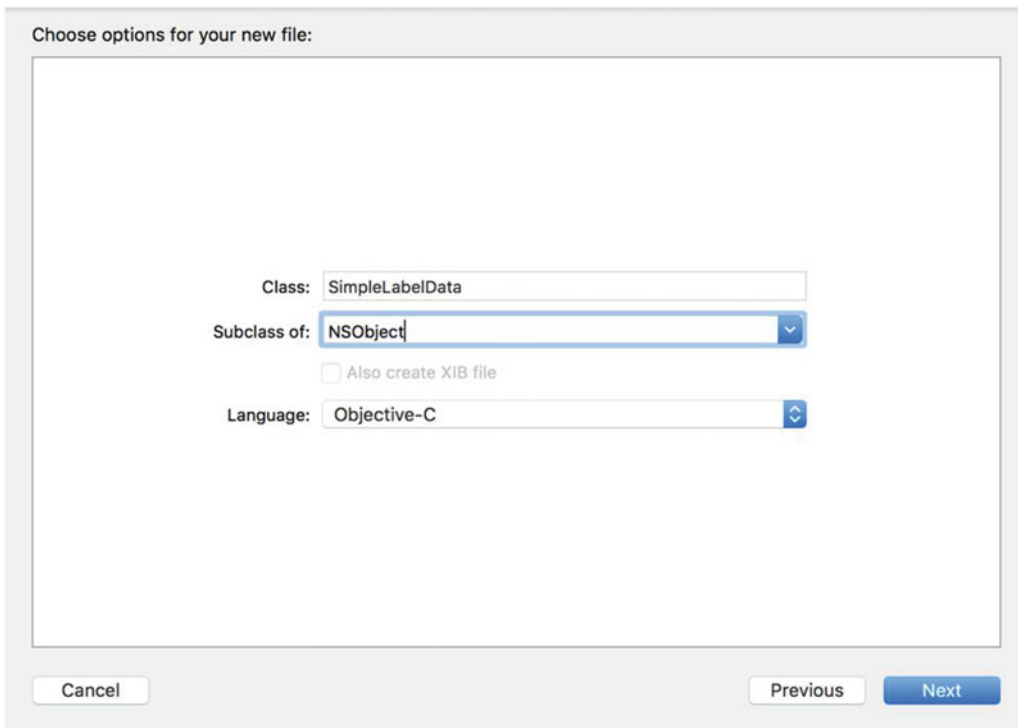


Figure 7-7. Choosing your new object's subclass

4. The next screen asks you where to put the files. Simply click the **Create** button since the location in which Xcode chooses to save the files is within the current project.
5. Your project window should now look like Figure 7-8. Click the `SimpleLabelData.h` file. Notice that the stub of your new `SimpleLabelData` class is already present. Now, fill in the empty class so it looks like Figure 7-1, which is the filled-out `SimpleLabelData` interface file.

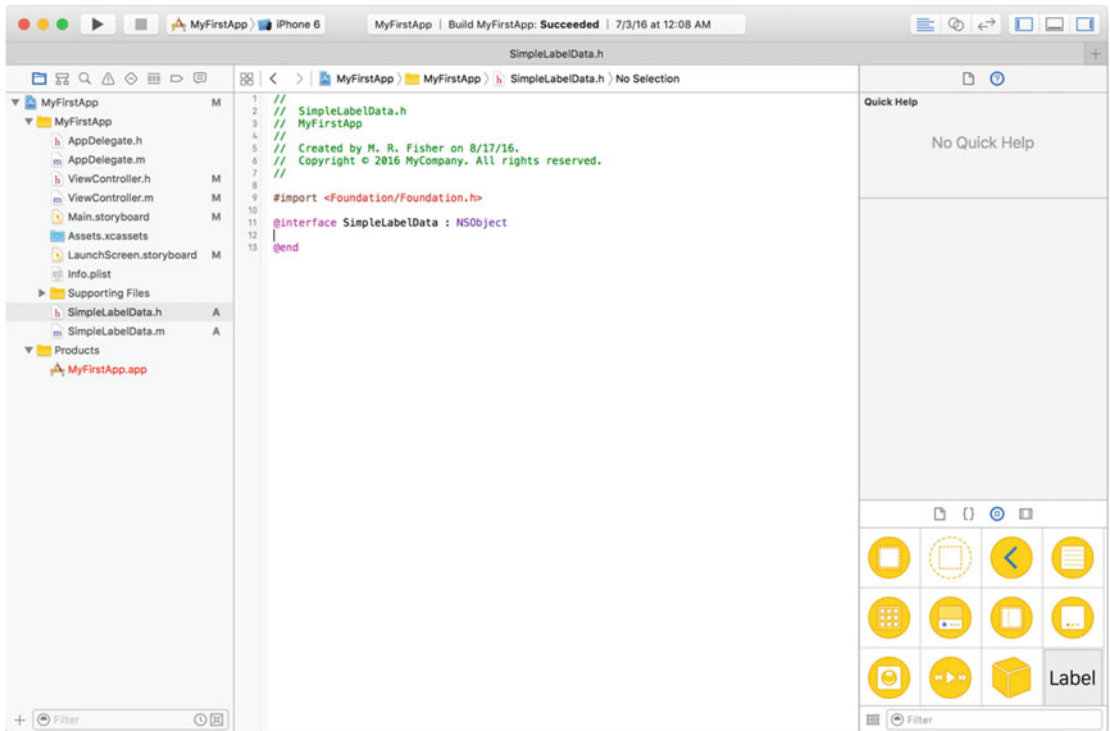


Figure 7-8. Your newly created file in the workspace window

Writing the Implementation File

The `SimpleLabelData.h` file now defines the properties, class methods, and instance methods of your new class. Let's move on to the implementation file, `SimpleLabelData.m`, which looks quite empty, as in Figure 7-9. Fill out the implementation file just like Figure 7-2.

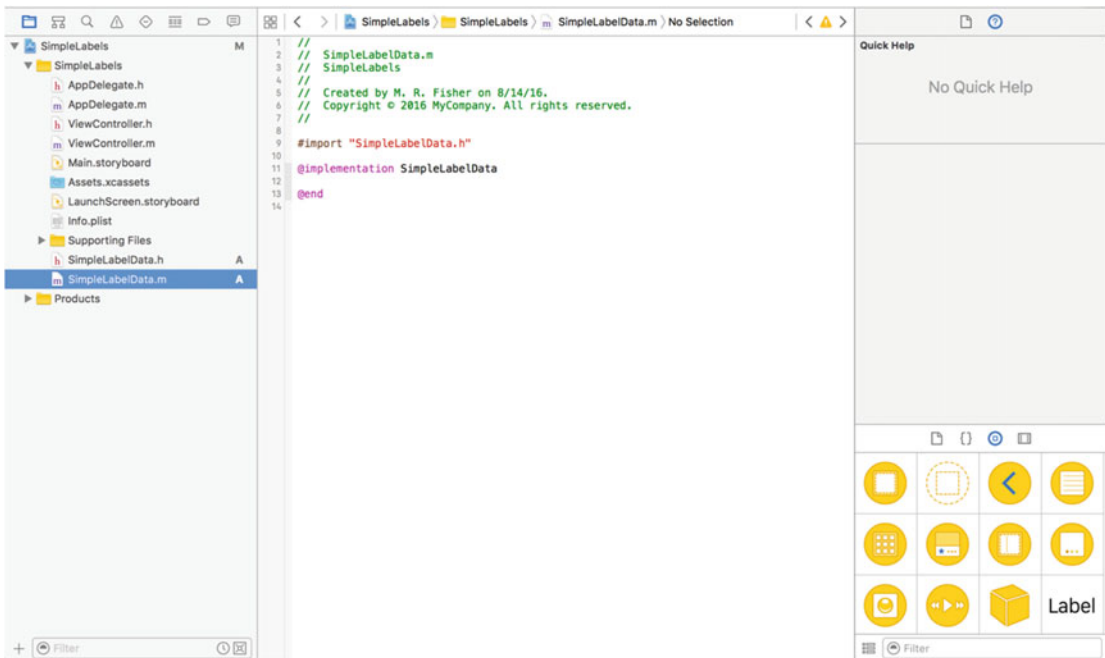


Figure 7-9. The SimpleLabelData implementation file template

■ **Note** Xcode is intelligent enough to highlight issues in the interface or implementation file as you type (or soon after you stop typing). Issues can be warnings or errors and are represented by a yellow or red highlight, respectively. After filling out the interface and implementation files, there should not be any errors or warnings. If they are, carefully look at Figures 7-1 and 7-2.

Next, you need to update the storyboard so you can move SimpleLabelData to some new labels. You're going to be adding two new labels and then hook them up to your new class.

Updating the User Interface

To start off, click the Main.storyboard file; the screen should now look like Figure 7-10. This file is the main iPhone screen.

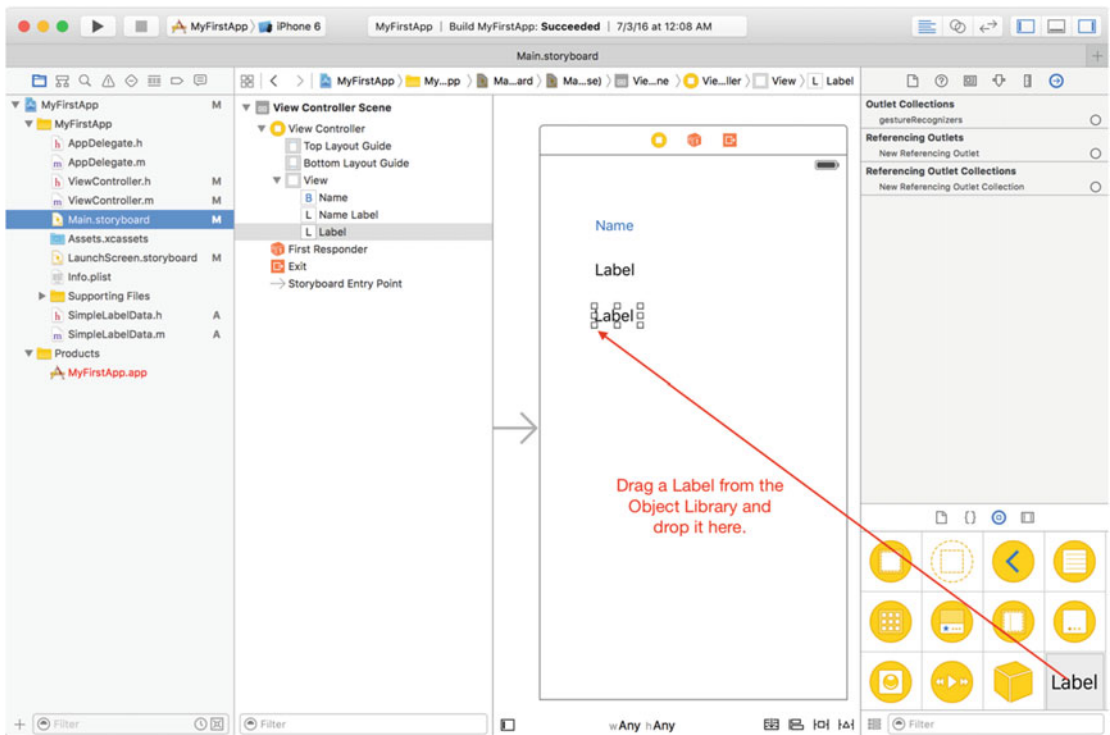


Figure 7-10. The main storyboard

1. Drag a new **Label** view from the left list of objects (called the Object Library), as shown in Figure 7-10.
2. Next, you need to resize the label to be the width of the view, as shown in Figure 7-11. You want to resize the labels to be long enough to hold some of the text you add. Any text added to the label will by default truncate with an ellipsis (...) at the end of the text. Something also to note is that as you drag and get close to the edge of the view, a blue line will be displayed. This is the default margin. The label can go further (to the very edge of the display if you want), but leaving the margin is a little more aesthetically pleasing than text that would end right at the edge of the phone's display.

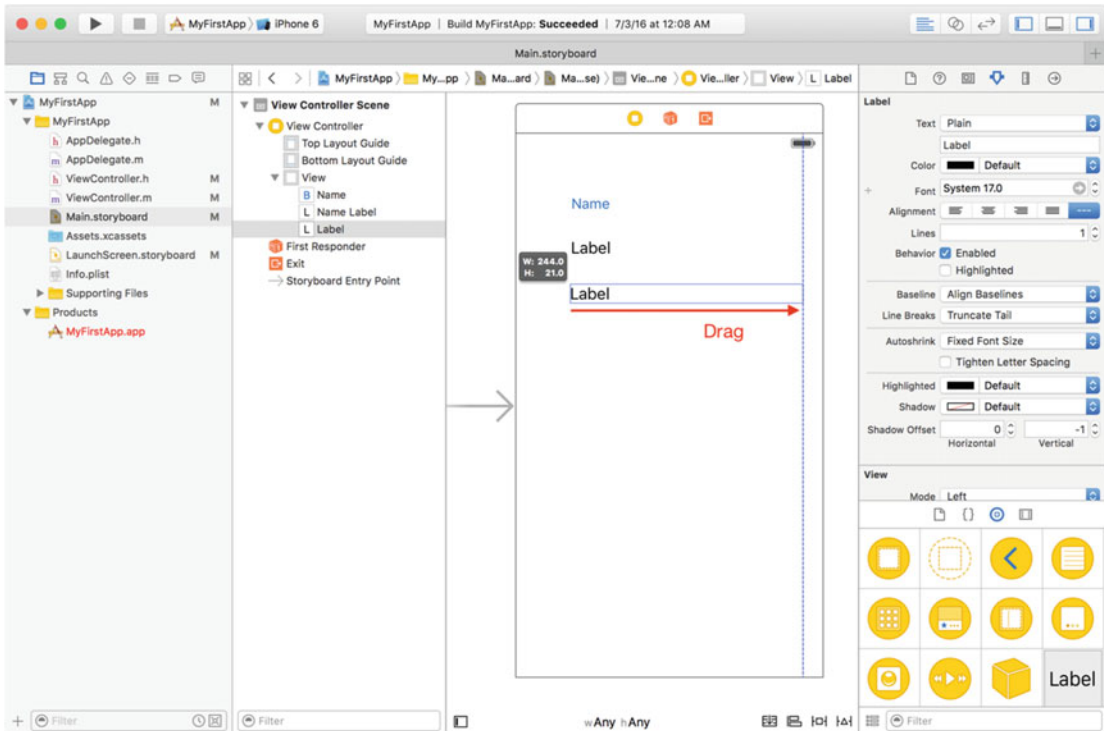


Figure 7-11. Resizing the second label

3. Lastly, add the third label to the view, as shown in Figure 7-12, and resize it just like the previous label. All three labels should now be the same width (less the side margins). The spacing between the labels isn't critical, and what is done in the figures is just one way of spacing out the labels. They could even be stacked on top of each other, which would make for one messy view! (Don't do that.)

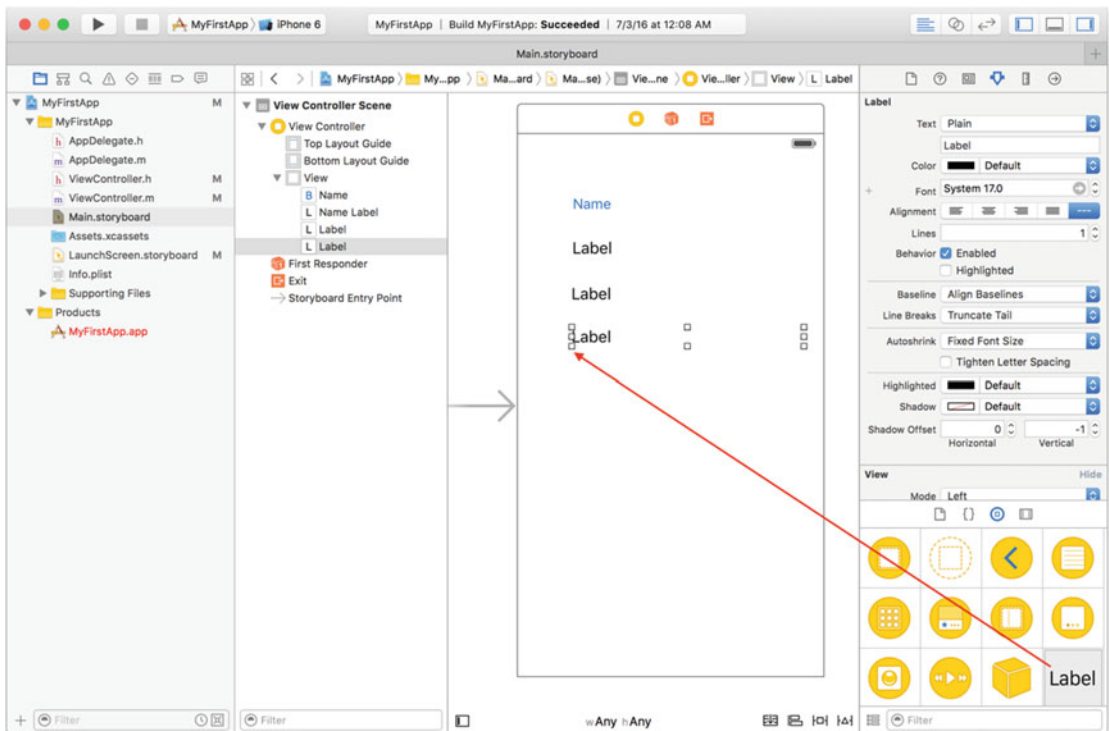


Figure 7-12. Adding a third and final label

4. Repeat adding and sizing a Label object next to the existing Frequency and Band labels. It's OK to leave the default text of the labels set to "Label" for now.

Hooking Up the Code

Now that all the user interface objects are in place, you can begin to hook up these interface elements to the variables in your program. As you saw in Chapter 6, you do this by *connecting* the user interface objects with the objects in your program.

1. Let's start by adding two more variables that represent the two new labels added. The original MyFirstApp already had a `nameLabel` variable that represented the first label. You're going to change its name to `firstLabel`. But before you do that, you need to *unhook* the Name Label item on the storyboard with the `nameLabel` variable in the code. To do this, select the Name Label item on the storyboard and then choose the Connections Inspector tab on the right, as shown in Figure 7-13.

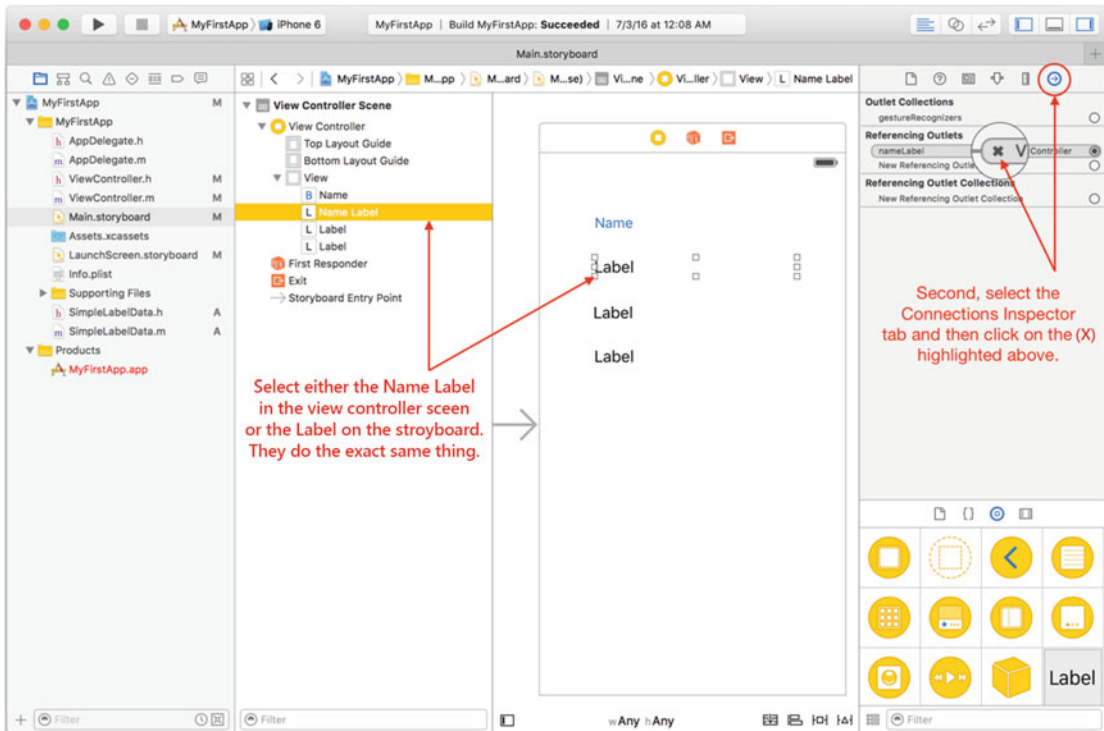


Figure 7-13. Viewing the connection of the nameLabel variable

2. Clicking the X in Figure 7-13 will delete the connection between the storyboard and the variable. Even though you are just renaming the variable, the storyboard knows it as nameLabel and not the new name you are going to use.
3. Next, go into the ViewController.h file and change the variable nameLabel to firstName, as shown in Figure 7-14.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.h
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import <UIKit/UIKit.h>
10
11 @interface ViewController : UIViewController
12
13 @property (nonatomic) IBOutlet UILabel *firstName;
14 @property (nonatomic) IBOutlet UILabel *secondLabel;
15 @property (nonatomic) IBOutlet UILabel *thirdLabel;
16
17 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender;
18
19 @end
    
```

Figure 7-14. Viewing the connection of the nameLabel variable

- Now it's time to connect the variables that you've just defined in the `ViewController.h` file to the three labels in the storyboard. Start by going back to the `Main.storyboard` to select the first label, as shown in Figure 7-15. Also make sure that the Connections Inspector is selected.

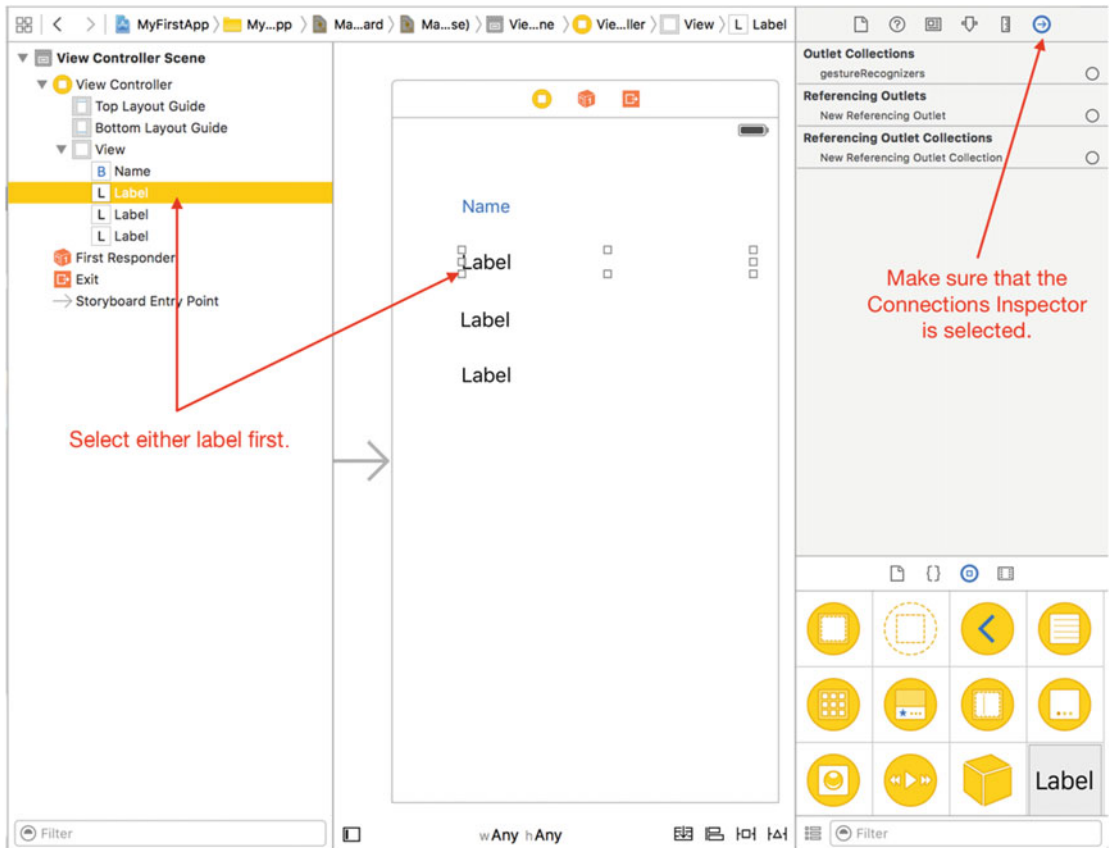


Figure 7-15. *Preparing the connection*

- Once the first label is selected, drag a line from the New Referencing Outlet in the Referencing Outlets section and then drop it on the View Controller object (represented by the small yellow square at the top of the view), as shown in Figure 7-16. Once you drop it, a small menu will display asking what variable to connect the label to. For this example, you're going to select `firstLabel`, as shown in Figure 7-17.

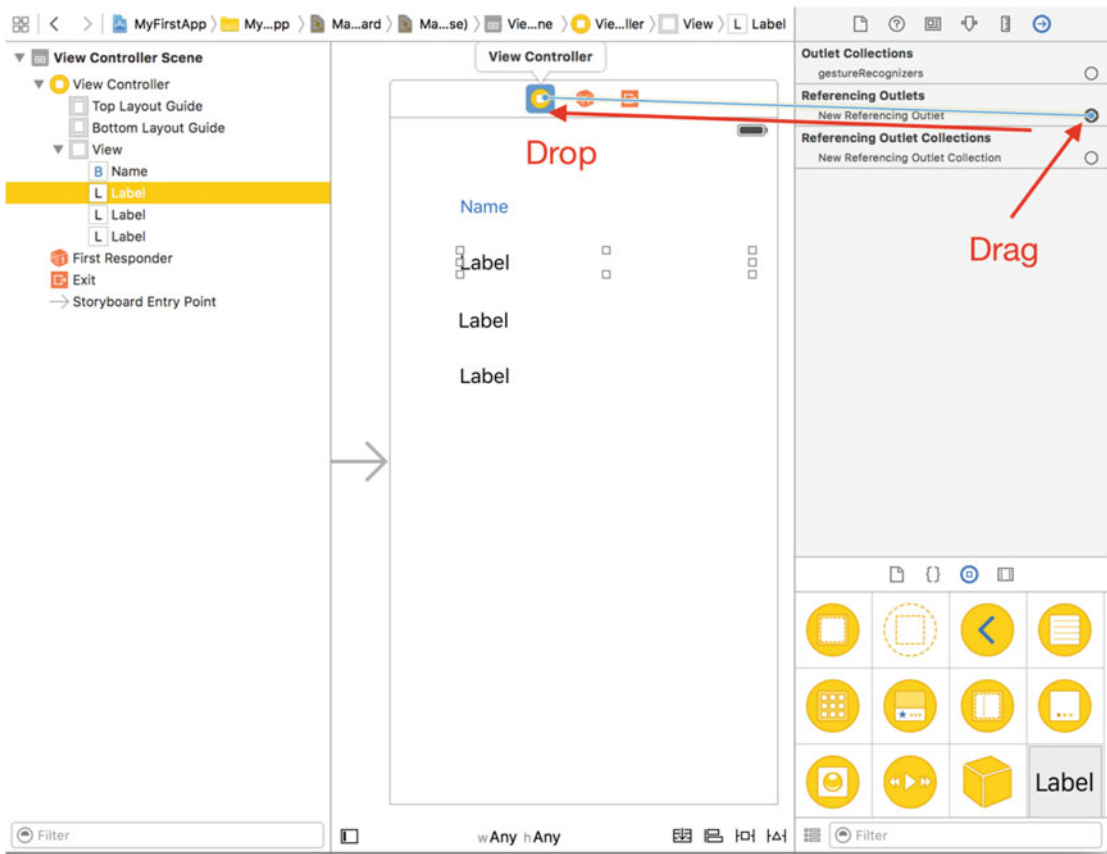


Figure 7-16. Creating a connection

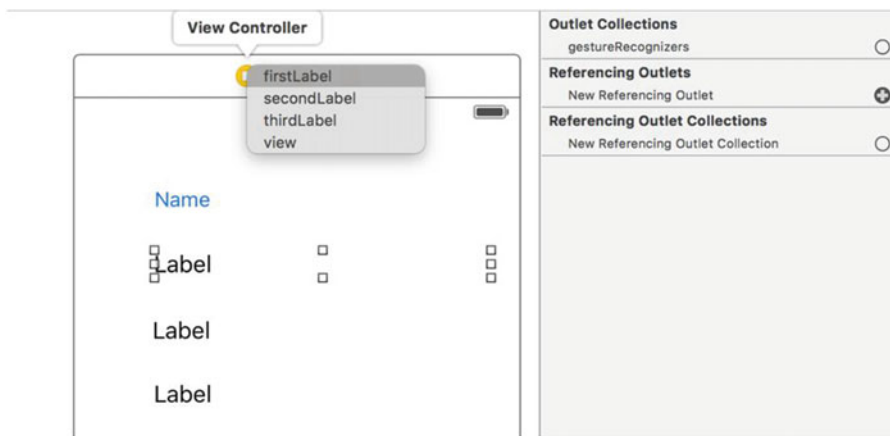


Figure 7-17. Showing which possible variables you can connect to

6. Repeat steps 4 and 5 for the second and third labels. Of course, the second label will connect to the variable `secondLabel` and so on.
7. Next, you're going to add some new code that will create three `SimpleLabelData` objects and then place that data into the labels. Start by selecting `ViewController.m`, deleting some old code, and adding some new. Start by deleting line 28 in the `ViewController.m` file. When you open the file, you'll notice an error on line 28. This error is basically letting you know that the `nameLabel` is not a valid variable name as you changed `nameLabel` to `firstLabel`. At this point, it doesn't matter; delete line 28 since you're going to rewrite this method.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.m
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import "ViewController.h"
10
11 @interface ViewController ()
12
13 @end
14
15 @implementation ViewController
16
17 - (void)viewDidLoad {
18     [super viewDidLoad];
19     // Do any additional setup after loading the view, typically from a nib.
20 }
21
22 - (void)didReceiveMemoryWarning {
23     [super didReceiveMemoryWarning];
24     // Dispose of any resources that can be recreated.
25 }
26
27 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender {
28     [self.nameLabel setText:@"My Name is Awesome!"];
29 }
30 @end
  
```

Figure 7-18. Cleaning up the old code

8. You can add the new code now; refer to Figure 7-19. The first thing you need to do is add an `import` of the `SimpleLabelData` class so that the `ViewController` class knows about it. This is done on line 10.

```

1 //
2 // ViewController.m
3 // MyFirstApp
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 7/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import "ViewController.h"
10 #import "SimpleLabelData.h"
11
12 @interface ViewController ()
13
14 @end
15
16 @implementation ViewController
17
18 - (void)viewDidLoad {
19     [super viewDidLoad];
20     // Do any additional setup after loading the view, typically from a nib.
21 }
22
23 - (void)didReceiveMemoryWarning {
24     [super didReceiveMemoryWarning];
25     // Dispose of any resources that can be recreated.
26 }
27
28 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender {
29     SimpleLabelData *one = [SimpleLabelData simpleLabelDataWithTitle:@"First Name"
30                             andValue:@"John"];
31     self.firstLabel.text = [one combinedString];
32 }
33 @end
34

```

Figure 7-19. Using the *SimpleLabelData* class


9. Now that the *ViewController* knows about the *SimpleLabelData* class, you can use it in the `showName:` method. Lines 29 and 30 define a *SimpleLabelData* variable called `one`. Also, the class method you defined in Figure 7-2 (line 13) is called to create a new instance of the *SimpleLabelData* class. The object (or instance) is then stored in the `one` variable.
10. Line 31 calls the `combinedString` instance method, which combines the title and value and returns it as a new *NSString*. That new string is stored directly into the `self.firstLabel.text` property. This property sets the text of the label so you can then see it in the view.
11. Repeat steps 9 and 10 for the remaining two labels. You can put your own values in or use what is in the example. Figure 7-20 shows the completed *ViewController.m* implementation that sets all three labels.

```

27
28 - (IBAction)showName:(id)sender {
29     SimpleLabelData *one = [SimpleLabelData simpleLabelDataWithTitle:@"First Name"
30                             andValue:@"John"];
31     self.firstLabel.text = [one combinedString];
32
33     SimpleLabelData *two = [SimpleLabelData simpleLabelDataWithTitle:@"Last Name"
34                             andValue:@"Snow"];
35     self.secondLabel.text = [two combinedString];
36
37     SimpleLabelData *three = [SimpleLabelData simpleLabelDataWithTitle:@"Age"
38                                andValue:@"Unknown"];
39     self.thirdLabel.text = [three combinedString];
40 }
41 @end
42
43
44

```

Figure 7-20. The filled-out method

- Now, you can run our app and see what happens! Click the Build and Run icon () at the top left of the Xcode window, and you should see something like Figure 7-21.

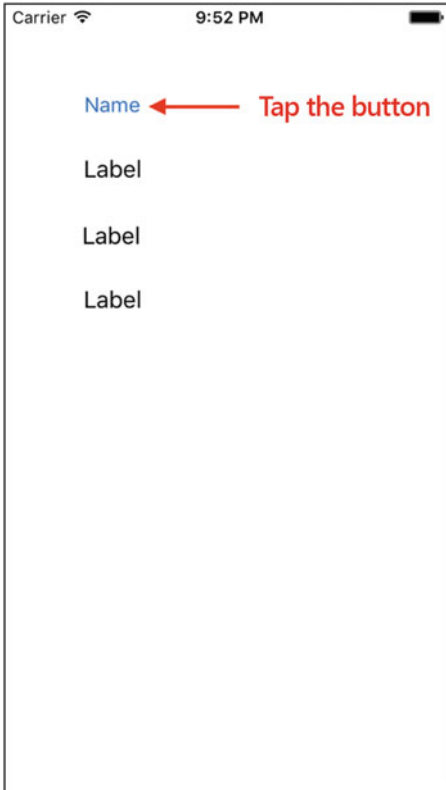


Figure 7-21. Running the newly updated app

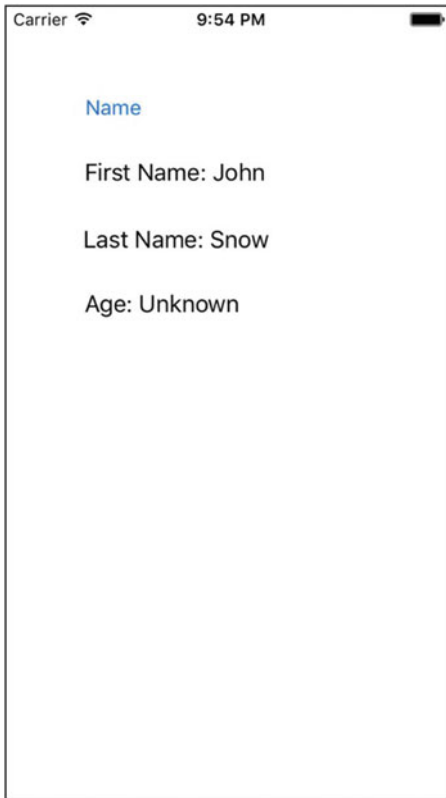


Figure 7-22. *Click the button!*

Now you have a running app that uses a new class (`SimpleLabelData`) and stores that data into a label on the screen. While it doesn't seem like much, this is how a lot of applications start: very simple and then improved upon. Don't be afraid to make changes!

Accessing the Xcode Documentation

We cannot emphasize enough the wealth of information provided in the Xcode Developer Documentation dialog. When a new project is created or an existing project opened, Xcode will have a Help menu, as shown in [Figure 7-23](#).

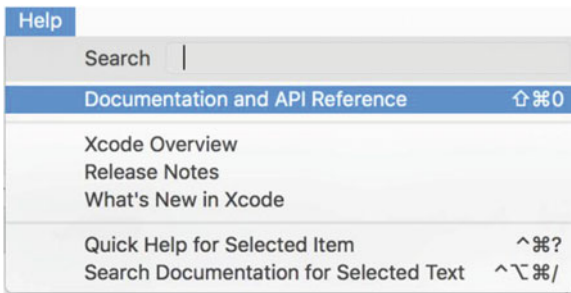


Figure 7-23. The Xcode Help menu

Once you open the Help documentation, you can use the search window to look up any of the classes you've used in this chapter, including the `NSString` class documentation, as shown in Figure 7-24.

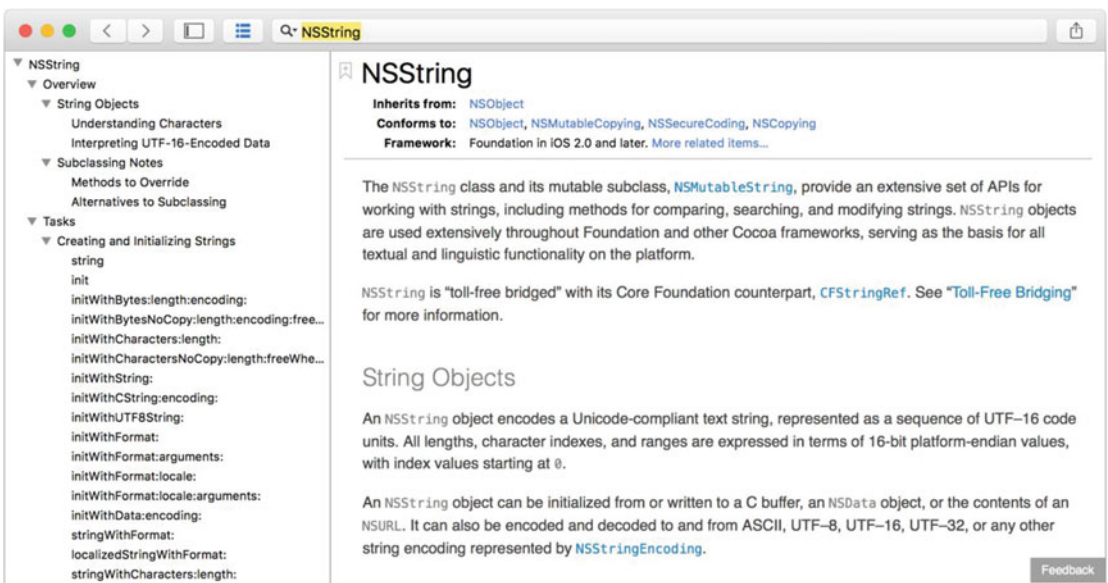


Figure 7-24. The developer documentation window

There are several different things to discover about the `NSString` class shown in Figure 7-24. Go through the documentation and the various companion guides that Apple provides. This will give you a more thorough understanding of the various classes and the various methods supported by them.

Summary

Here we are at the end of another chapter. Once again, congratulate yourself for being able to single-handedly stuff your brain with a lot of information! Here is a summary of what was covered in this chapter:

- Objective-C classes review
- Interface files

- Instance variables
- Class methods
- Instance methods
- Implementation files
 - Defining the method's interface in the interface file and putting code to that interface in the implementation file
 - Limitations of using class methods versus instance methods
 - Initializing the class and making use of the instance variables
- Making use of your new `SimpleLabelData` object
 - Building an iPhone app that uses your new object
 - Connecting interface classes to instance variables
 - Connecting user interface events to methods in your class

Exercises

- Change the code that creates your `SimpleLabelData` class and make the title and/or value much longer than what can appear on the screen. What happens?
- Modify the `SimpleLabelData` class to have a new method, similar to `combinedString`, that will do something different with the two strings instead of combining the two strings with a `:`.
- Change the `combinedString` method to take an `NSString*` parameter that will be the separator between the two strings (instead of a hard-coded colon).
- Change the text color or font of a label using the Attributes Inspector.
- Clean up the interface a little by making sure that the user doesn't see the text "Label" when the iPhone application first starts.
 - You can either change this in the storyboard (note, you can't completely clear the label or it may be difficult to find on the screen) or write some new code that will set the `.text` property of the label to `@""`.

CHAPTER 8



Programming Basics in Objective-C

Objective-C is an elegant language. It mixes the efficiency of the C language with the object-oriented goodness of Smalltalk. This combination was introduced in the mid-1980s and is still powering the fantastic applications behind the iPhone, iPad, and Mac OS X. How does a language that is more than 20 years old stay relevant and useful after all that time? Well, some of its success is because the two languages that make up Objective-C are well-tested and well-designed. Another reason is less obvious; the various frameworks available for iOS and Mac OS X make developing full-featured applications much easier. These frameworks benefit from the fact that they have been around a long time, which equates to stability and high functionality. Lastly, Objective-C is highly dynamic. While we won't be focusing on that particular feature in this chapter, the dynamic nature of Objective-C provides a flexibility not found in many compiled languages. With all of these great features, Objective-C and the corresponding frameworks provide an excellent palette from which to create a masterpiece!

This chapter will introduce some of the more common concepts of Objective-C, such as properties and collection classes. This chapter will also show how properties and instance variables are used from within Xcode when dealing with user interface elements. This sounds like a lot to accomplish, but Objective-C, the Foundation framework, and the Xcode tool provide a wealth of objects and methods and a way to build applications with ease.

Collections

Understanding collections is a fundamental part of learning Objective-C. In fact, collection objects are fundamental constructs of nearly every modern object-oriented language library—sometimes they are referred to as **containers**. Simply put, a collection is a type of class that can hold and manage other objects. The whole purpose of a collection is that it provides a common way to store and retrieve a collection of objects efficiently.

There are several different types of collections. While they all fulfill the same purpose of being able to hold other objects, they differ mostly in the way objects are retrieved. Here are the most common collections used in Objective-C:

- `NSSet`
- `NSArray`
- `NSDictionary`
- `NSMutableSet`
- `NSMutableArray`
- `NSMutableDictionary`

Notice that, among the three collection classes listed, there is one that contains the word `Mutable`. A `mutable` (versus `nonmutable`) class allows the collection object to change the order and add or remove items. Collection class names without the word `Mutable` are `nonmutable`, meaning that the contents of the collection cannot change. This means that items cannot be added or removed at all. Because of this restriction, a `nonmutable` collection, like `NSArray`, for example, must be initialized with all of its values at once or initialized to point to an existing array.

Another thing to stress is that the collections store only objects and not simple values. So, it's not possible to store the integer value of 10, but it's possible to store a number object that represents 10. The notation for this is `@(10)`; this creates an `NSNumber` object that represents the number 10.

Using NSSet

The `NSSet` class is used to store an unordered list of objects. *Unordered* means exactly that—the objects are stored in the set without regard to order. The advantage of the `NSSet` class is performance; it's the fastest collection class available. Use `NSSet` when it is necessary to store a collection of objects and the order in which they are stored or retrieved is not crucial.

Here is a typical `NSSet` initialization method:

```
NSSet *mySet = [NSSet setWithObjects:@"String 1", @"String 2", @"Whatever", nil];
```

As you can see, the set is initialized with a list of objects, in this case a list of strings. The last object must be `nil` to indicate the end of the list of objects. Also, the example uses strings, but an `NSSet` can be comprised of any object or even different types of objects, including other collections!

■ **Tip** All collection classes have the ability to store and manage any type of object at once. However, in typical cases, most programmers tend to store a single type of object in any one particular collection class to make the code less complicated.

To go after data in the `NSSet`, a few typical methods of accessing the elements within an `NSSet` are used. One method, as shown in Listing 8-1, is to use what is referred to as a *fast enumerator* and retrieve each object one by one. Note that the fast enumeration (in lines 3–5) works on all collection classes.

Listing 8-1. Iterating Through an `NSSet` via an Enumerator

```
1  NSSet *mySet = [NSSet setWithObjects:@"One", @"Two", @"Three", nil];
2
3  for (id value in mySet) {
4      NSLog(@"%@", value);
5  }
```

■ **Note** On line 3, the class of the value is `id`. Recall that an `id` is a generic type that represents any Objective-C class. The reason that `id` is used is that the value that you store in the `NSSet` can be of any type. For example, if the `NSSet` were to contain a class called `Animal` and another class called `Zoo`, the code would fail because you don't have a class that is both a `Zoo` and an `Animal` type. On the other hand, if the `NSSet` always had the same class, you could substitute that class for the `id` on line 3.

Another common method of accessing an `NSSet`, especially when programming for an iOS device capturing touches, is to use the code in Listing 8-2.

Listing 8-2. Selecting Any of the Objects in the `NSSet` Collection

```
1  NSSet *mySet = [NSSet setWithObjects:@"One", @"Two", @"Three", nil];
2
3  NSString *value = [mySet anyObject];
```

Line 3 calls the method `anyObject`. This does exactly as it says; it returns any object from the set. The object returned is determined at the set's convenience, so there can be no guarantee that the first item will be returned. Of course, using the `anyObject` method assumes that any object will do. As previously mentioned, when dealing with touches on an iOS device, sometimes all that's necessary is to know that at least one finger has touched the screen. Each touch to the screen is stored as an entry in the `NSSet`, one for each finger. Using `anyObject` will return any one of the touches.

There are many other ways to actually get objects from an `NSSet`—far too many to cover in this chapter.¹ However, there is one particular method that involves the next collection: the `NSArray` class.

Using `NSArray`

The `NSArray` class is like any other collection, in that it allows the programmer to manage a group of objects. The `NSArray` differs from the `NSSet` in that the `NSArray` allows an object to be retrieved by its *index* into the array. An index is the numeric position that an object would occupy in the `NSArray`. For example, if there are three elements in the `NSArray`, the objects can be referenced by an index from 0 to 2. As with most things in the C and Objective-C languages, an index starts at 0.

With the `NSArray` (and `NSDictionary` covered next), there is a nice feature called a **collection literal**. A collection literal allows a collection to be represented by simple syntax. For an `NSArray`, this syntax is simply `@[... , ...]`. While it's still possible to initialize the `NSArray` class the older, original way, it's best to use the new collection literal instead.

Listing 8-3. Creating an `NSArray` Object

```
1  // Old out-of-fashion way of doing things.
2  NSArray *oldStyle = [NSArray arrayWithObjects: @"Zero", @"One", @"Two", nil];
3  // New way is much better:
4  NSArray *newStyle = @[@"Zero", @"One", @"Two"];
5
6  // Old way of accessing an element of an NSArray
7  NSLog([newStyle objectAtIndex:0]);
8  NSLog([newStyle objectAtIndex:1]);
9  NSLog([newStyle objectAtIndex:2]);
10
11 // New way of accessing an element of an NSArray
12 NSLog(newStyle[0]);
13 NSLog(newStyle[1]);
14 NSLog(newStyle[2]);
```

¹http://developer.apple.com/library/mac/#documentation/Cocoa/Reference/Foundation/Classes/NSSet_Class/Reference/Reference.html

As you can see, objects within the NSArray can be retrieved via the index. The index starts at 0 and can't exceed the size of the array—1. You can find the size of the array by accessing the count property of the NSArray object.

```
int entries = myArray.count;
```

Another thing that is important to know about an array is that it stores the objects added to the array in the order they were added. This is what's called an **ordered collection**. So, using the example in Listing 8-3, the NSArray object at the index of 1 (that is, `newStyle[1]`) will always be the value of @"One". Collection classes that don't specifically mention that they are an ordered collection are unordered collections. The NSDictionary in the next section is an example.

Before you look at the NSDictionary, it's important to take a quick look at how you can use the NSArray collection literal to initialize an NSSet. While this method isn't necessary, it makes the code a little cleaner.

Listing 8-4. Using an NSArray to Create an NSSet

```
1 // Not using an NSArray Collection Literal
2 NSMutableSet *mySet = [NSMutableSet setWithObjects:@"One", @"Two", @"Three", nil];
3
4 // Using an NSArray Collection Literal
5 NSMutableSet *anotherSet = [NSMutableSet setWithArray:@[@"One", @"Two", @"Three"]];
```

NSDictionary

...and how the NSDictionary is different than the NSArray

The NSDictionary class is also a useful type of collection class. It allows the storage of objects, just like the NSMutableSet and NSArray, but the NSDictionary is different in that it allows a *key* to be associated with any value. For example, an NSDictionary could be created that stores a list of Animal objects. A list of animals could be stored in an NSArray, but it's accessed by index. Somehow you would, for example, have to know that the Monkey object is stored in index 2.

With an NSDictionary, you are able to store the monkey with some key that is more descriptive. Because of this, an entry in an NSDictionary consists of a key and a value. You can “look up” the value by simply providing a key. While this *seems* like just a different way of simply using an index into an array, it's actually something completely different as the *key* used can be any object that makes sense, like a string. So, you could store your Monkey object in a dictionary with the key of Monkey instead of an index into an array. If the monkey were in the array, the program would have to go through each element of the array searching for the monkey, and the problem becomes even more complicated if there are tens of thousands of animals.

An NSDictionary Example

Just as with the NSArray, there is a way to define (and access) an NSDictionary using a collection literal. Remember that a dictionary entry consists of a key and a value and is represented as shown in Listing 8-5.

Listing 8-5. Defining an NSDictionary

```
@{"Key": @"Value",
 @"Key2": @"Value2"};
```

It's a little different from the NSArray literal. It uses curly braces, { }, instead of square brackets. Also, the key is separated from the value by a colon, :. Again, this is much simpler and cleaner than previous older ways. Because of this, we're only going to show how to use a dictionary with a literal.

NSDictionary Access, Order, and Uniqueness

An NSDictionary object is an unordered collection object, which means that the order in which the elements are stored are not guaranteed to be in the order represented in code. This is generally not a problem since the program will look something up by the key's name, like Monkey. It doesn't matter what *order* Monkey appears in the dictionary, just that it can be found or not.

How is an entry looked for in an NSDictionary? It's resembles how elements are accessed in an NSArray. This similarity makes it easy to remember.

Listing 8-6. Accessing an Element of a Dictionary

```

1 // Create a simple dictionary:
2 NSDictionary *animalCountInZoo = @{@"Monkeys": @(10),
3                                     @"Birds": @(1199),
4                                     @"Fish": @(356)};
5
6 // Retrieving a value in the dictionary
7 NSLog(@"%@", animalCountInZoo[@"Birds"]);
8
9 // Prints the value of 1199

```

Using the Mutable Container Classes

Up to this point, we've only discussed collection objects that are initialized once and can never change. While there are definitely places this is useful, what's even more useful is a collection class that can be modified. Each of the collection classes has a **mutable** version—we've talked only about the **nonmutable** classes. The classes are fundamentally the same except that elements can be added and removed from the mutable versions.

NSMutableSet

This can be initialized the same as the NSMutableSet or can be initialized without any values and then values added. Consider the code in Listing 8-7.

Listing 8-7. Adding Objects to an NSMutableSet

```

1 NSMutableSet *mySet = [NSMutableSet new];
2
3 [mySet addObject:@"One"];
4 [mySet addObject:@"Two"];
5 [mySet addObject:@"Three"];
6
7 for (id val in mySet) {
8     NSLog(@"%@", val);
9 }

```

The nice thing about any of the mutable classes is that elements can be added and removed programmatically instead of having to declare the class with all the values at once. All objects in a set can be removed with the following line:

```
[mySet removeAllObjects];
```

A specific object can also be removed as long as you have a reference to that object, as shown in Listing 8-8.

Listing 8-8. Removing a Specific Object in an NSMutableSet

```
10 NSString *testString = @"Zero";
11
12 [mySet addObject: testString];
13 [mySet addObject: testString]; // Just a test
14
15 for (id val in mySet) {
16     NSLog(@"%@", val);
17 }
18
19 [mySet removeObject:testString];
20
21 for (id val in mySet) {
22     NSLog(@"%@", val);
23 }
```

In Listing 8-8, line 19 will remove the string "Zero". You can do this only because you have a reference to the object already in the `testString` variable. This brings up another good point: the `NSSet` and `NSMutableSet` will store only *unique* objects. Two objects that are the same (that is, identical) cannot be added more than once. For example, line 13 effectively replaces the first `testString` added on line 12.

■ **Hint** Adding the same object means that the pointer to that object is the same. There is no comparison to see whether the value of the object being added is identical to what's already in the set—it's the pointers that are checked. Pointers are discussed in depth in Chapter 11.

NSMutableArray

As with the `NSMutableSet`, the `NSMutableArray` is similar to its parent, the `NSArray`. In fact, an object can be added to the `NSMutableArray` object exactly as it's done in the `NSMutableSet`, which is by using the `addObject:` method. However, unlike the `NSMutableSet`, the `NSMutableArray` can also insert elements into the array—the `NSMutableSet` can add only objects to the set. Take a look at Listing 8-9.

Listing 8-9. Adding and Inserting Values into an NSMutableArray

```
1 NSMutableArray *myArray = [NSMutableArray new];
2
3 [myArray addObject:@"One"];
4 [myArray addObject:@"Two"];
5 [myArray addObject:@"Three"];
6
```

```

7  for (id val in myArray) {
8      NSLog(@"%@", val);
9  }
10
11 [myArray insertObject:@"One and a Half" atIndex:1];
12
13 for (id val in myArray) {
14     NSLog(@"%@", val);
15 }

```

In Listing 8-9 a new array is created similarly to the `NSMutableSet`. However, on line 11 a new element is being inserted into the array at position 1. Remember, position 0 is the first element of the array. The contents of the array after the insert would look like this:

Index	Value
0	One
1	One and a Half
2	Two
3	Three

Line 11 inserted a new element—the remaining elements were moved up in the array to make room. This is critical to know, especially if there is a code assumption that a particular index into an array will have a specific value.

With the `NSMutableArray`, there are several ways to remove an object. The following are a few of the more commonly used methods:

- `removeAllObjects`: This method does exactly as advertised. It removes all objects from a given `NSMutableArray`.
- `removeLastObject`: This method removes the last object at the end of the array. The array size is reduced by one.
- `removeObjectAtIndex:(NSUInteger)index`: This method removes an object at a given index. The value is from 0 to the length of the array—1.

NSMutableDictionary

By this point, it must be pretty obvious to you how the mutable versions of the collection classes work, and the `NSMutableDictionary` is no different. The `NSMutableDictionary` provides all the capabilities of `NSDictionary`, but, of course, elements can be added and removed, as shown in Listing 8-10.

Listing 8-10. Adding Objects to an `NSMutableDictionary`

```

1  NSMutableDictionary *myDict = [NSMutableDictionary new];
2
3  myDict[@"1"] = @"Number One";
4  myDict[@"2"] = @"Number Two";
5  myDict[@"3"] = @"Number Three";
6
7  for (id val in myDict) {

```



```

8     NSLog(@"%@", val);
9 }
10
11 myDict[@"1.5"] = @"One and a Half";
12
13 for (id val in myDict) {
14     NSLog(@"%@", val);
15 }

```

In the previous example, the object @"One and a Half" is being added to the dictionary. It's different from an array since an object can't be inserted into the dictionary at a specific position, as can be done with an NSMutableArray.

Creating the BookStore Application

Let's start by creating the base application project. You start by opening Xcode and creating a new project starting with the Single-View template. In this project, you will create a few simple objects for what is to become a bookstore application: a Book object and the Bookstore object itself. You'll visit instance variables again and see how to get and set the value of one during this project. Lastly, you'll put your bookstore objects to use, and you'll learn how to make use of objects once you've created them.

Fire up Xcode, and start by creating a new project, as shown in Figure 8-1.

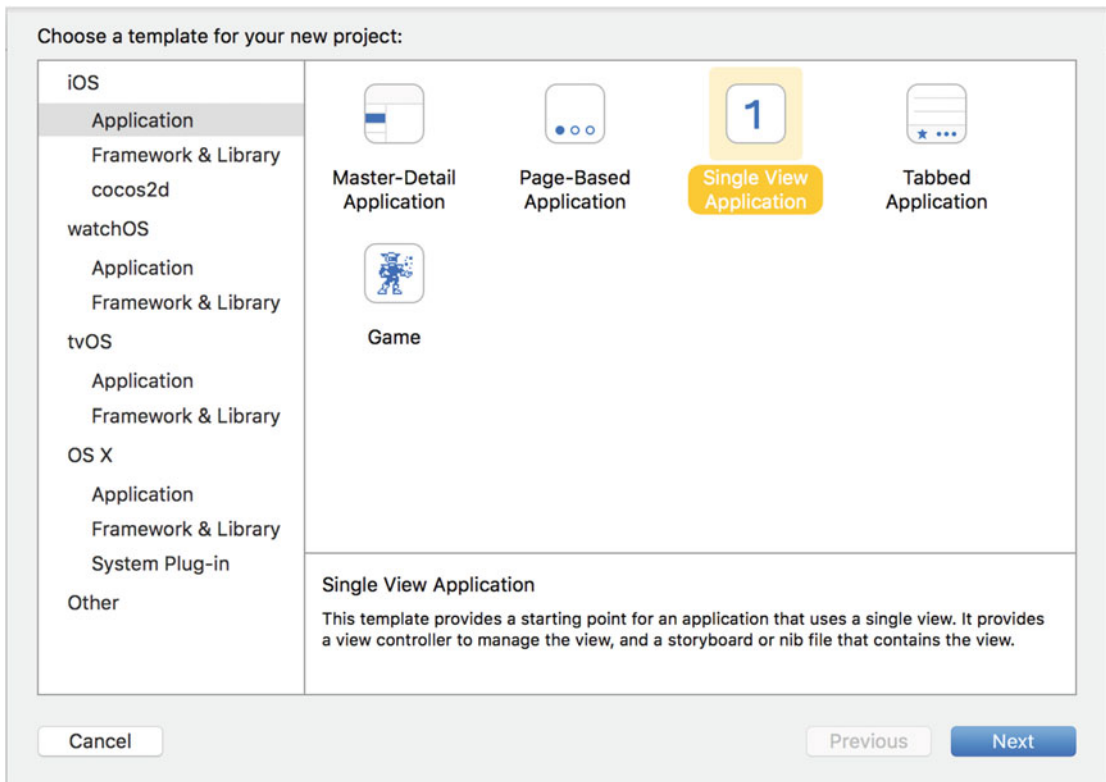


Figure 8-1. Creating the initial project

1. Click the **Next** button, and name the project MyBookstore, as shown in Figure 8-2. The company name is required—any company name, real or otherwise, can be used. The example uses com.mycompany, which is perfectly fine. Make sure the device family is iPhone and that the option Use Automatic Reference Counting is checked.

Choose options for your new project:

Product Name: MyBookstore

Organization Name: MyCompany

Organization Identifier: com.mycompany

Bundle Identifier: com.mycompany.MyBookstore

Language: Objective-C

Devices: iPhone

Use Core Data

Include Unit Tests

Include UI Tests

Cancel Previous Next

Figure 8-2. Selecting the product (application) name and options

2. Once everything is filled out, click the **Next** button. Xcode will prompt you to specify a place to save the project. Anywhere you can remember is fine—the desktop is a good place too.
3. Once you decide on a location, click the **Create** button to create the new project. This will create the boilerplate bookstore project, as shown in Figure 8-3.

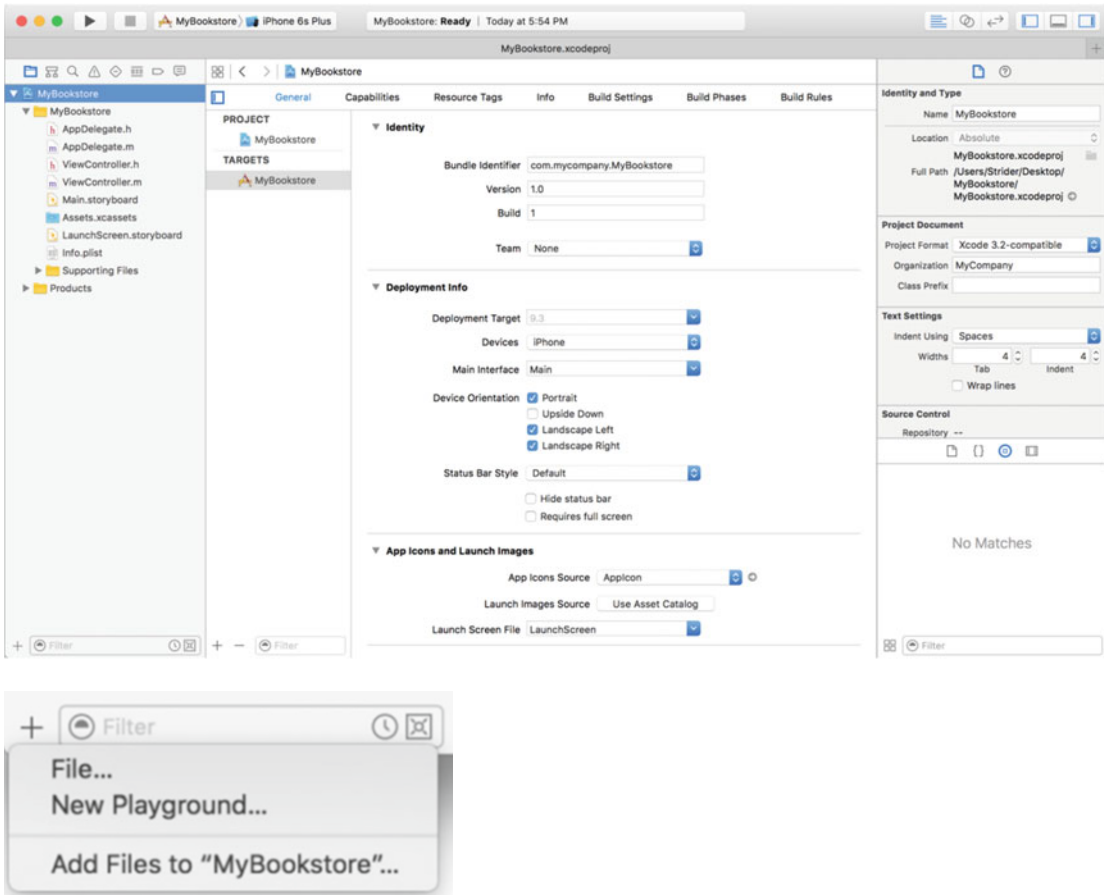


Figure 8-3. The source listing of the boilerplate project

4. Click the plus (+) sign in the lower left of the screen in the Navigation pane to add a new object to the project. Choose **File** and then **Cocoa Touch** under the iOS section on the left and then choose **Objective-C Class** on the right, as shown in Figure 8-4. It’s also possible to right-click in the Navigation area and then select the New File menu option. There is no difference between this approach and clicking the plus sign—do whatever feels more natural.

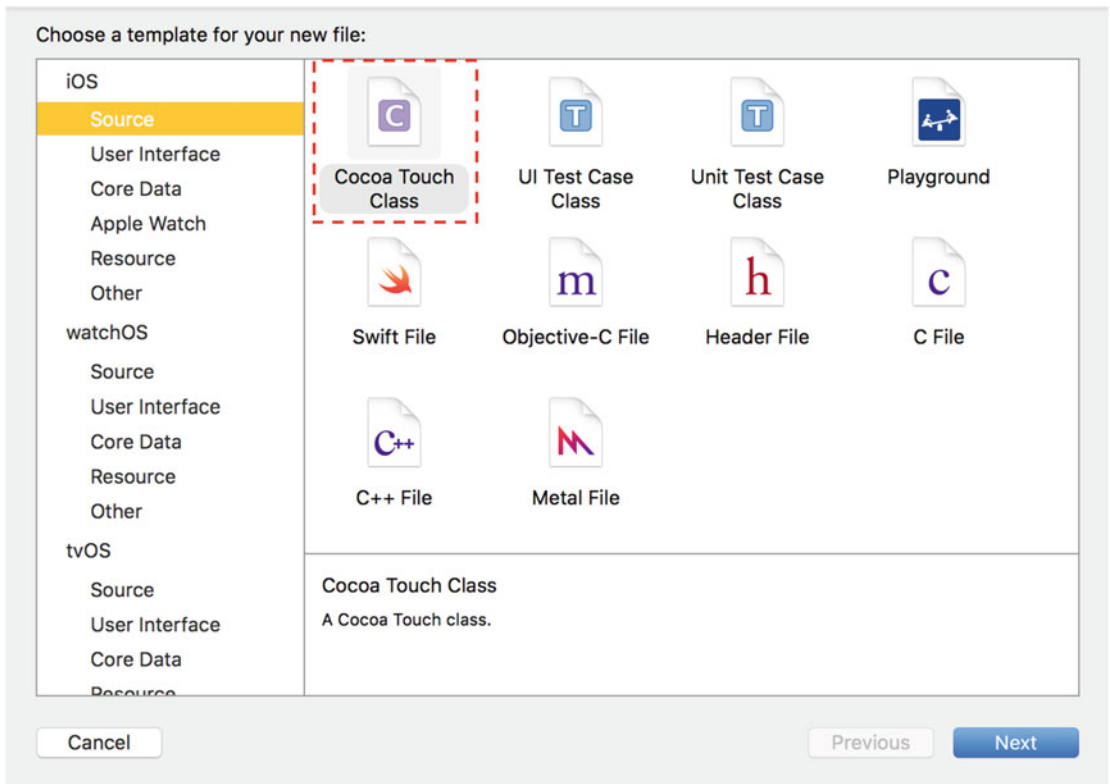


Figure 8-4. Creating a new Cocoa Touch class

5. Here you're choosing a plain Cocoa Touch class, which will create a new empty Objective-C object that you're going to use for your Book class. After selecting this, click the **Next** button.
6. Xcode will now prompt for the object name and which main object it's going to be a subclass of. Choose the name Book and make Book a subclass of NSObject, as shown in Figure 8-5, and then click the **Next** button.

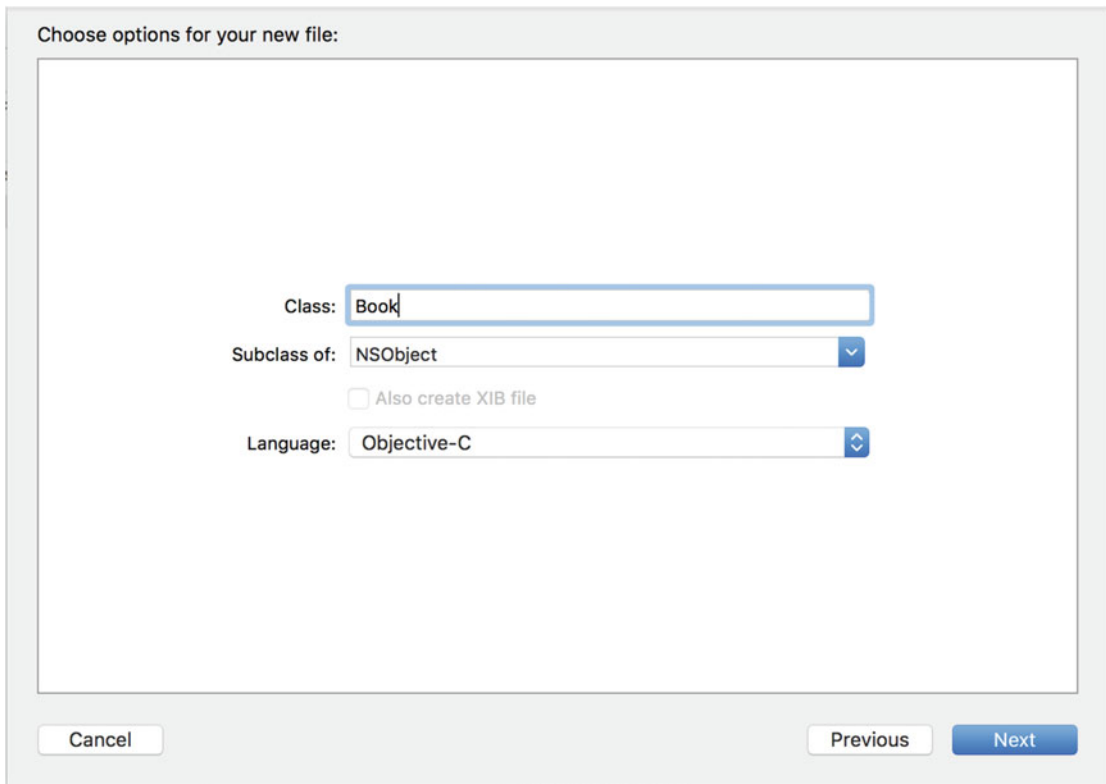


Figure 8-5. Giving your new class a name and parent class

7. Finally, Xcode will ask to which folder it should save the new class files. To keep things simple, just add the file to the MyBookstore subfolder, as shown in Figure 8-6. This is where all the other class files for the project are stored.

■ **Note** The Book and Bookstore classes are what are referred to as **data model** classes. Data model classes are just used to store information and have nothing to do with the interface of the app.

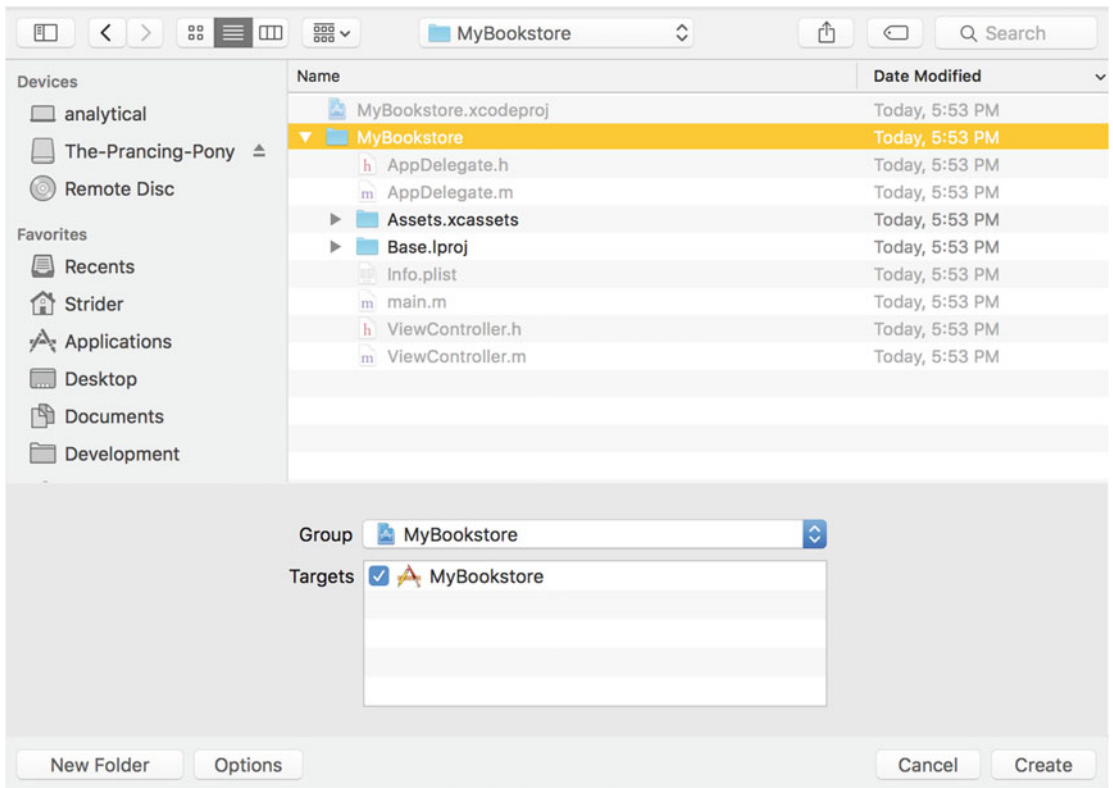


Figure 8-6. Choosing the place to save your new class files

8. Double-click the MyBookstore folder and then click the **Create** button. You'll see the main edit window for Xcode and your new class files, `Book.m` and `Book.h`, in the Navigation pane, as shown in Figure 8-7.

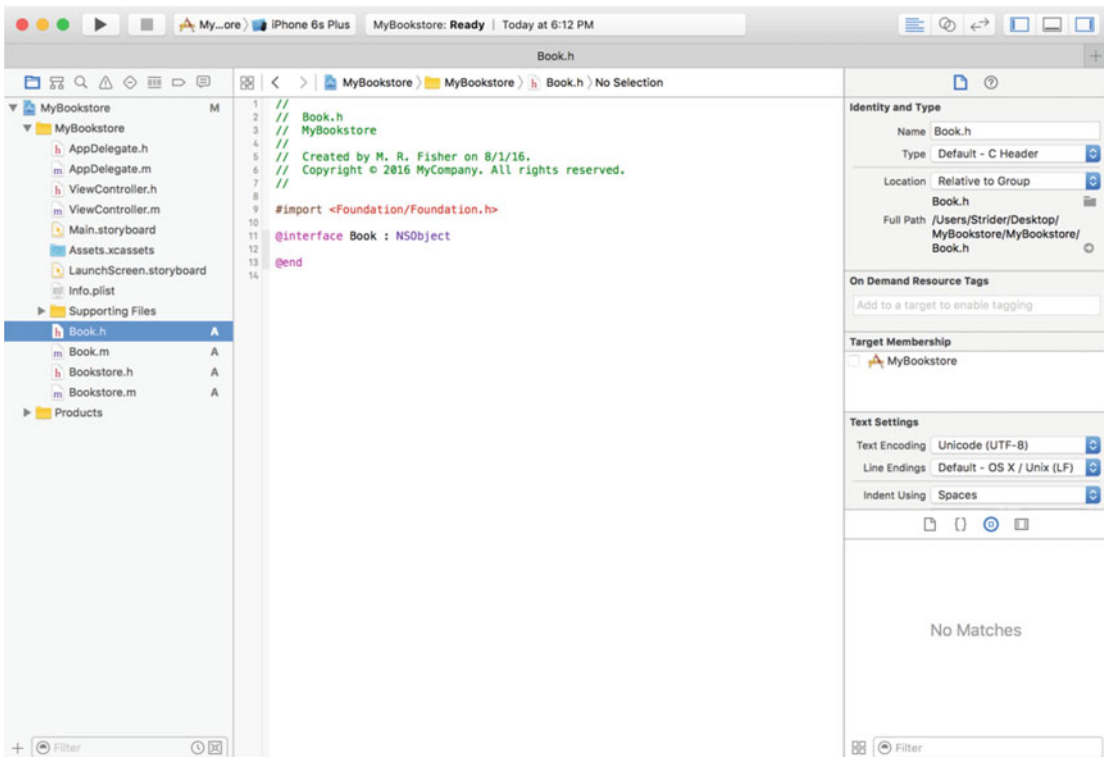


Figure 8-7. Viewing your new class

9. Repeat these steps and create a second class called `Bookstore`. This will create a `Bookstore.m` file and a `Bookstore.h` file. You'll be using this class later in this chapter. For now, you'll concentrate on the `Book` class.
10. Click the `Book.h` file and let's start defining your new class!

Introducing Instance Variables

The class is simply called `Book` and is a subclass of `NSObject`. True, you have a class, but it doesn't *store* anything at this point. For this class to be useful, it needs to be able to hold some information, which is done with instance variables. When an object is used, it has to be instantiated. Once the object is instantiated, it has access to its instance variables. These variables are available to the object as long as the object stays in scope. As you know from Chapter 7, scope defines the context in which an object exists. In some cases, an object's scope may be the life of the program. In other cases, the scope might be just a function or method. It all depends on where the object is declared and how it's used. Scope will be discussed more later. For now, let's add some instance variables to your `Book` class to make it more useful.

Listing 8-11. Adding Properties to the `Book.h` File

```

1 //
2 // Book.h
3 // MyBookstore
4 //

```

```

5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 8/1/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8 #import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
9 @interface Book : NSObject
10 @property (nonatomic, strong) NSString *title;
11 @property (nonatomic, strong) NSString *author;
12 @property (nonatomic, strong) NSString *bookDescription;
13 @end

```

This is the same `Book` object from before, but now, there are three new instance variables placed inside the brackets, lines 10–12. These are all `NSString` objects, which means that they can hold text information for the `Book` object. So, the `Book` object now has a place to store the title, the author, and the book’s description information.

Lines 10–12 may not look familiar. These **properties** are constructs in Objective-C used to store data, in this case `NSString`s. Properties are available to the class only once it’s *instantiated* as an object. Instantiating an object is the same as creating an object: `Book *myBook = [Book new];`

Accessing Properties

Now that you have some properties, how can you use them? How are they accessed? As you learned in previous chapters, Objective-C objects respond to messages. There are two ways to access these properties.

- One way is, of course, within the `Book` object.
- The second way is from outside of the object—that is, another part of the program that uses the `Book` object.

If you are writing the code for a method within your `Book` object, accessing a property is quite simple. For example, you could simply write the following:

```
self.title = @"Test Title";
```

The preceding line is written within the `Book` class. The variable `self` represents the instance of the class (aka object). When accessed outside of the class instead of `self`, you use the variable that holds the object.

```

1 Book *theBook = [Book new];
2 theBook.title = @"Test Title";

```

This code pattern should look a little familiar. Line 1 creates a new `Book` object and stores it in the variable `theBook`. Line 2 then uses the variable `theBook` to access the `title` property.

■ **Note** You may have noticed that the variables or properties take on a naming convention called **camel case** (or **CamelCase**) that uses an uppercase letter to distinguish different words in a method, variable, or class name. The text is suggestive of a camel, since the uppercase letters tend to form humps. It makes the label easier to read. For example, `stringWithContentsOfURL` is much easier to read than `stringwithcontentsofurl`.

Once a property has been specified in both the interface and implementation files, using the properties is straightforward and simple.

```
myBookObject.title = newTitle; // Setting the property to a value. In this case the newTitle variable.
```


Something important to note is that the object access is not within brackets ([...]). Accessing a property does not require them. On the surface, the property seems just like a variable attached to the object. Internally, it's a little different. In fact, the compiler automatically creates two internal methods to manage the property. One method is called the *setter*, and the other is the *getter*. Under most circumstances, it's not necessary to even have to deal with the getter or setter. But, sometimes it may be necessary to perform something like validation on what the property is being set to.

Custom Getter and Setter

As mentioned, a property consists of two methods that are normally hidden. But, it's possible to override the default behavior of the getter or setter. If you haven't guessed by now, a getter returns (or gets) a value from the property. A setter stores (or sets) a value in the property. Here is an example of a setter and why it may be necessary. As an example, in the custom setter, you are cutting off the title of a book if it's more than 20 letters long.

Listing 8-12. A Custom Setter

```

1 - (void)setTitle:(NSString *)newTitle
2 {
3     if (newTitle.length > 20) {
4         _title = [newTitle substringToIndex:20];
5     } else {
6         _title = newTitle;
7     }
8 }
```

In Listing 8-12, you create a setter method that overrides the default one. A setter always starts with the word `set` and then is followed by the property name with the first character capitalized. So, the method `setTitle:` means that you are overriding the setter for the property `title`. Another thing to note is the variable `title`. This is important to understand. The “real” property is internally stored in a variable named the same as the property but with an underscore (`_`). You might be wondering why you simply don't just write `self.title = newTitle` on lines 4 and 6. If you remember, the setter is the internal method used to set the property. Calling `self.title` will then call the custom setter. So, calling `self.title` will continue to call the setter until the app crashes. Using `_title` avoids this problem.

```

1  Book *theBook = [Book new];
2  theBook.title = @"This is a really long book title.";

```

The previous code will call your own custom setter instead of the standard one. The same would be true had you written your own getter method. So, given that new setter, when you set the `theBook` title to something that long, the actual book title is shortened (line 4) to be only 20 characters long. So, the following:

```
"This is a really long book title."
```

becomes this:

```
"This is a really lon"
```

Without using a custom setter, your app may end up with a book title that is longer than you want.

Finishing the MyBookstore Program

With the understanding of instance variables and properties, you are going to now venture forth to create the actual bookstore program. The idea is simple enough—create a class called `Bookstore` that will be stocked with a few `Book` objects.

When you first created the initial application, it was a plain single-view application. Choosing that template creates just enough of what you want. The only problem is that you're going to redo the single-view part. So, you're going to delete a few things from the `MyBookstore` project and then create the initial storyboard. A storyboard is just a collection of views that your app will use. The storyboard allows for all the views to be displayed in one big canvas.

You first need to clean up the template so you can build your app.

1. You first start the cleanup by deleting the `ViewController.h` and `.m` files. This is done by highlighting them in the Project Navigator, as shown in Figure 8-8, and then pressing the **Delete** key.

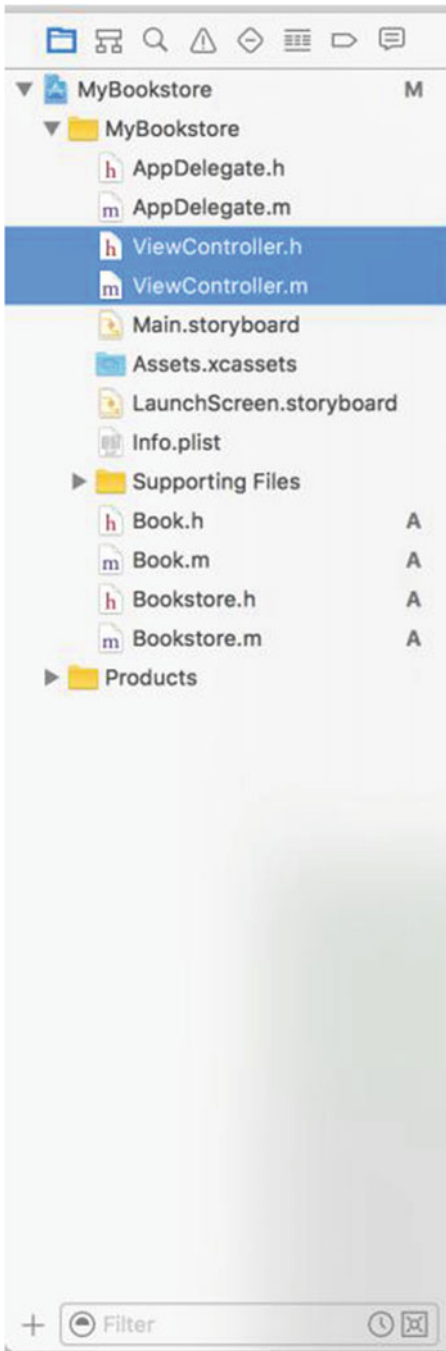


Figure 8-8. Deleting the old ViewController files

2. Once the Delete key is pressed, Xcode will put up a message that asks if the files should be moved to the trash or if you just want to remove their references. In this case, it's OK to click the Move to Trash button since you really don't want these files anymore, as shown in Figure 8-9.

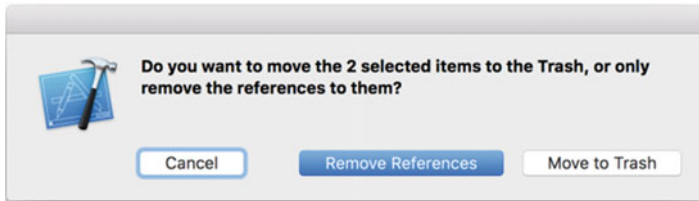


Figure 8-9. Prompt to move to trash

3. Next, you want to change the `Main.storyboard` file. A storyboard is basically a collection of views that your app consists of. In this case, you're going to delete the single view that was created by the Single View template used when the project was first created. So, select the `Main.storyboard` file in the Project Navigator, as shown in Figure 8-10. Once you've selected this, you will see the blank View Controller.

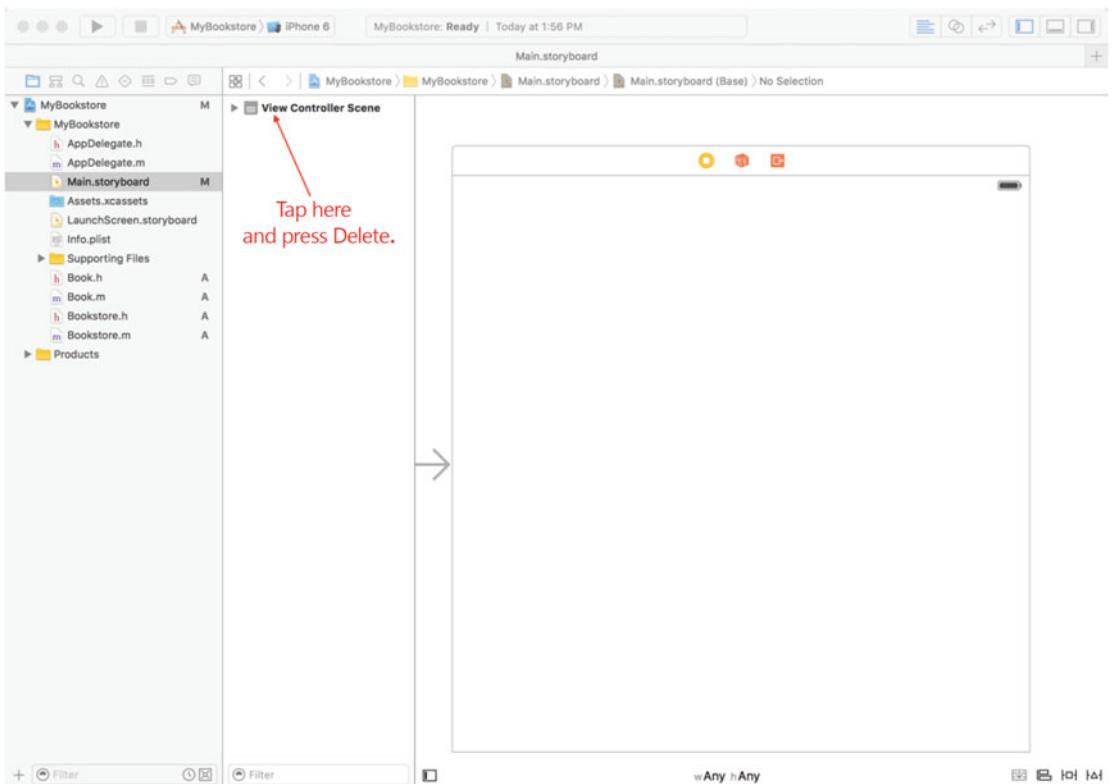


Figure 8-10. The selected `Main.storyboard` file

4. From here, tap **View Controller Scene** and press the **Delete** key, as shown in Figure 8-10. Now you'll have a blank `Main.storyboard` from which you can begin your app. Click the **Show/Hide Utilities Pane** button so you can add a new view control, as shown in Figure 8-11.

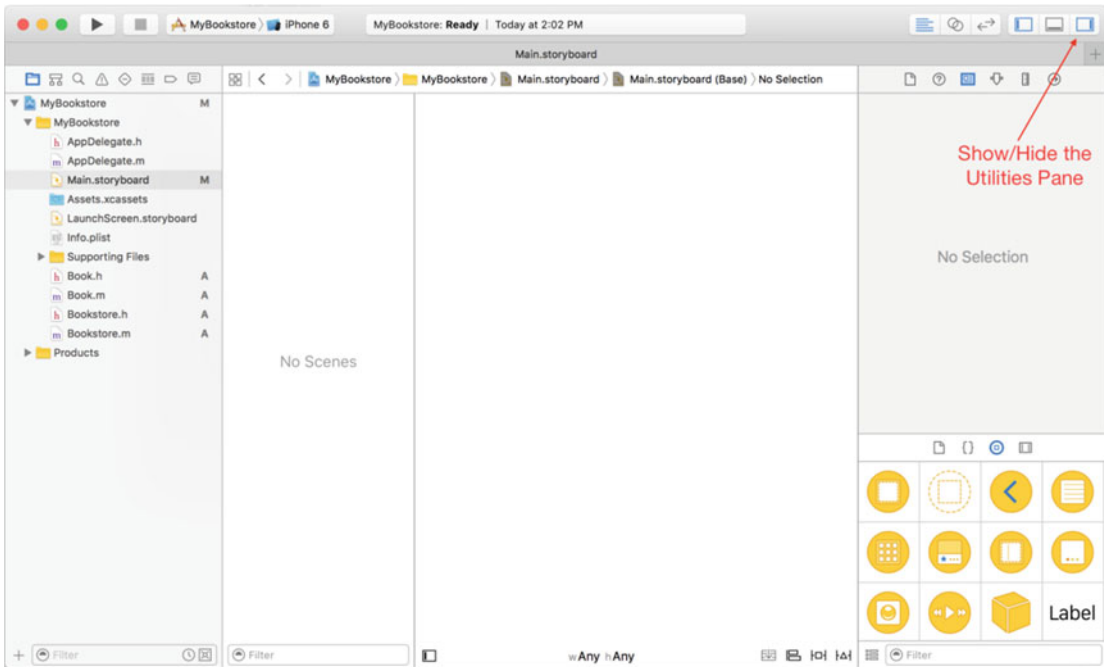


Figure 8-11. A clean slate and the Utilities pane displayed

5. Next, you're going to add a new controller scene with what is called a **Navigation Controller**. A Navigation Controller allows the user to navigate from one view to another. Just click and drag the Navigation Controller view object from the Utilities pane to the empty storyboard canvas, as shown in Figure 8-12. While you drag and drop, the little icon with an arrow will expand to two views; one is the base Navigation Controller, and the second one is an empty View Controller. It can be placed anywhere on the storyboard window (which is the one with the words *Any Any* at the bottom).

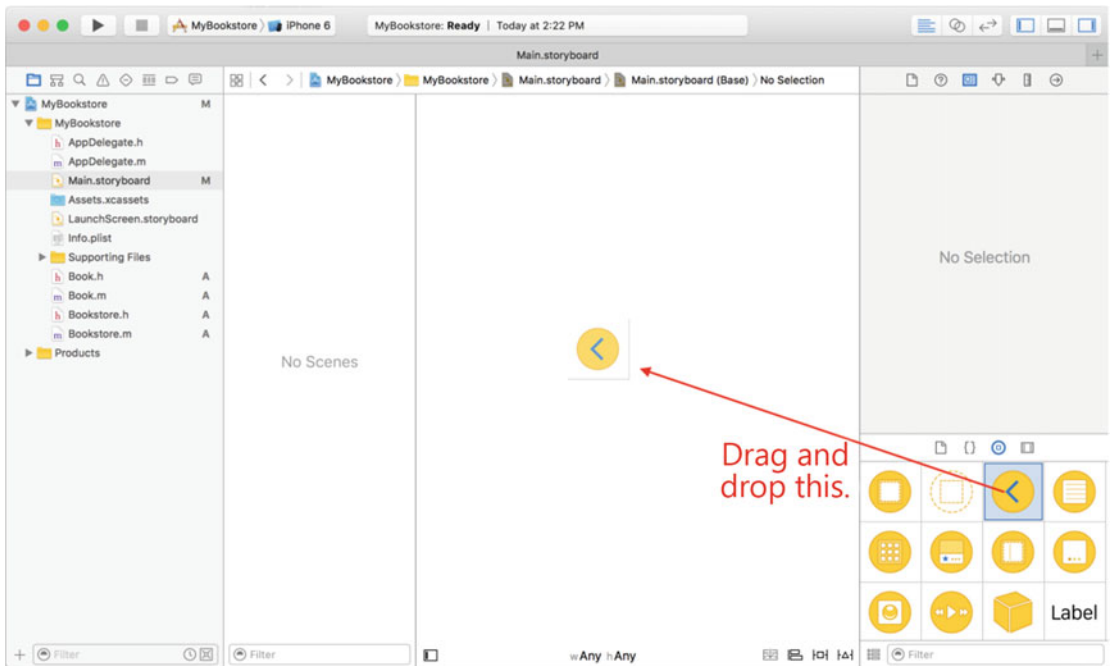


Figure 8-12. A clean slate and the Utilities pane displayed

6. This step isn't necessary, but it simplifies things because it makes the views in your storyboard fit on the screen. To do this, simply highlight the Navigation Controller scene and then the other items in the Utilities pane, as shown in Figure 8-13. Again, the purpose of this is just to shrink the views so that they appear on the screen completely (and in the figures). If you have a display where the larger views can be viewed completely, then you can ignore this step.

Important: Make sure that the Is Initial View Controller check box is selected.

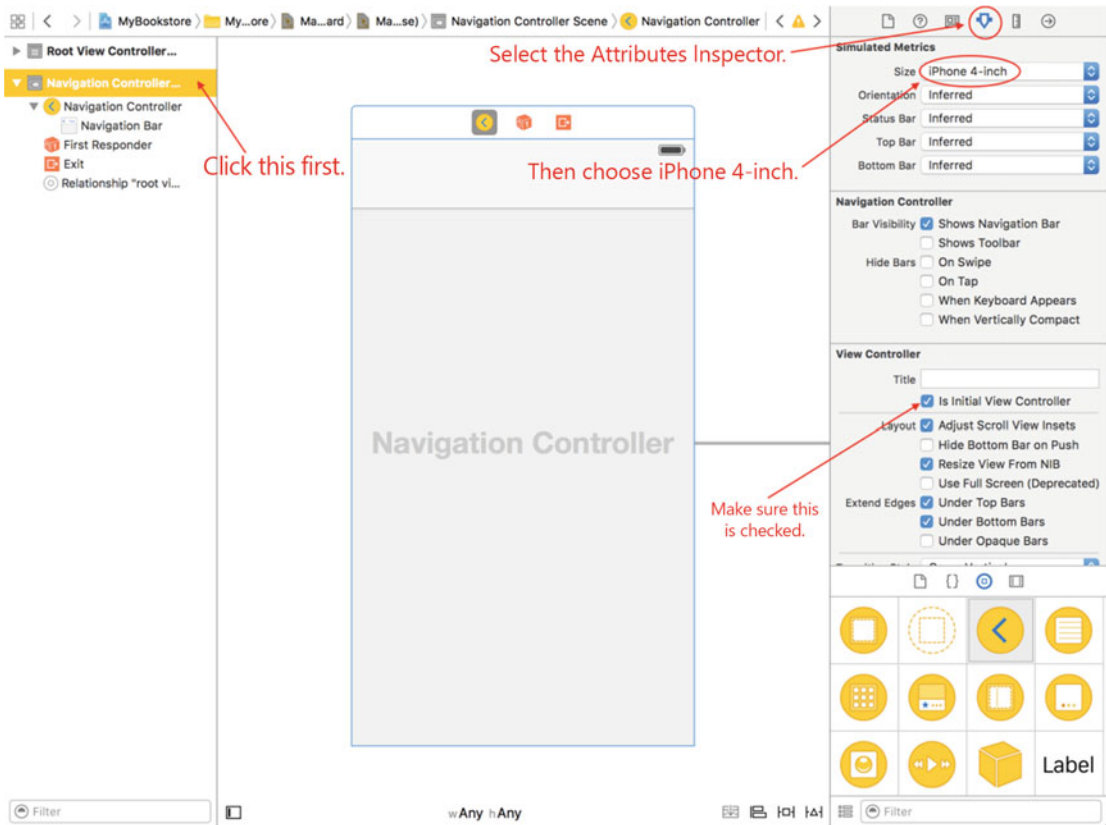


Figure 8-13. (Optional) Shrinking the views

7. Next, click the Root View Controller scene, which will then switch over to that view, as shown in Figure 8-14. This is the view where you will be starting all your work. You now have something called a Root View Controller, which is the first screen that will show up in your app. Initially, this View Controller is completely set up as the default, meaning that it's not to any of your code. In the next section you will create a new View Controller class and associate it with this new view.

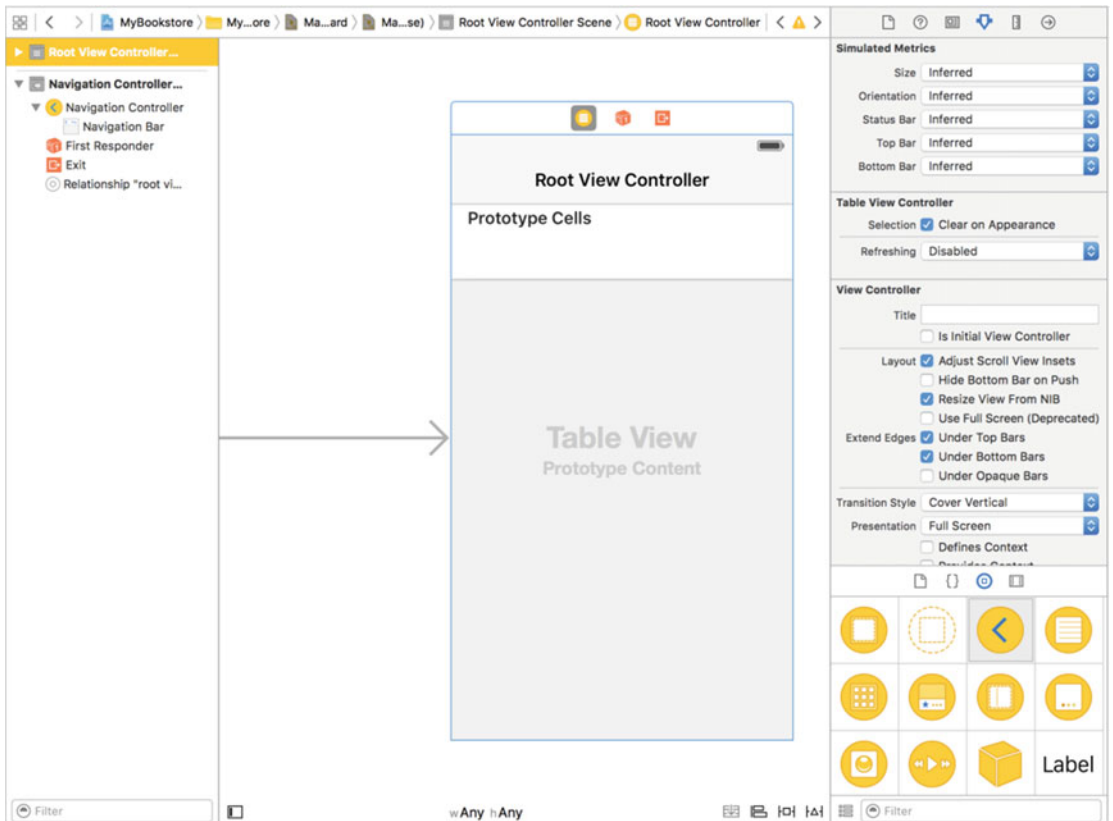


Figure 8-14. (Optional) Shrinking the views

Creating the Initial View

The first view you will be creating is the view that will contain your list of books. This is a view called a Table View, and it displays rows of information in a single column. You have your view in the storyboard, but you now need to create your controller class. The controller class is responsible for taking information, in this case the list of books, and placing it into the Table View.

First, you need to create the `BookstoreTableViewController` class. Do this by highlighting the `MyBookstore` group in the Project Navigator and then clicking the + button to add a new file, as shown in Figure 8-15. Then, select **Cocoa Touch Class**, as shown in Figure 8-16, and click **Next**.

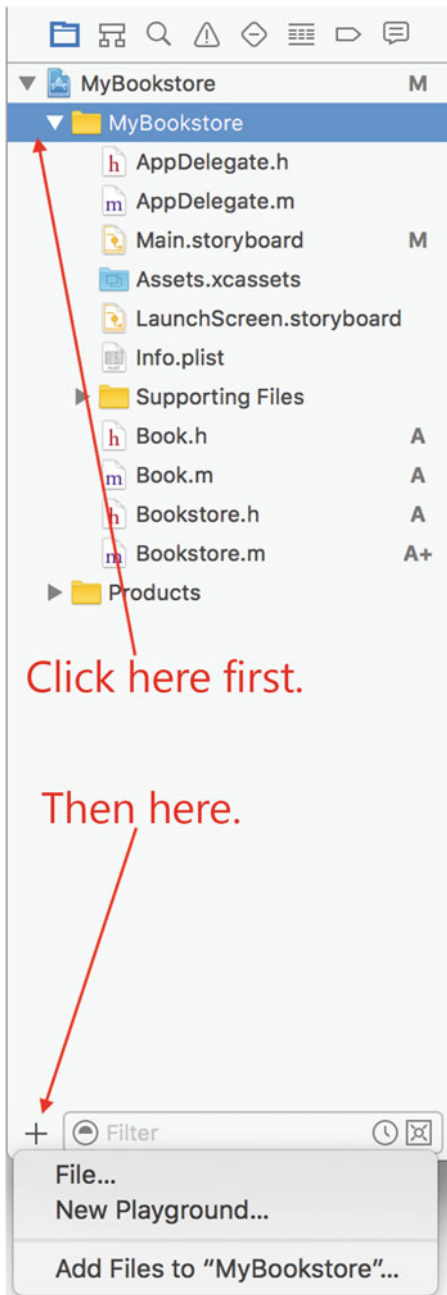


Figure 8-15. Adding a new file

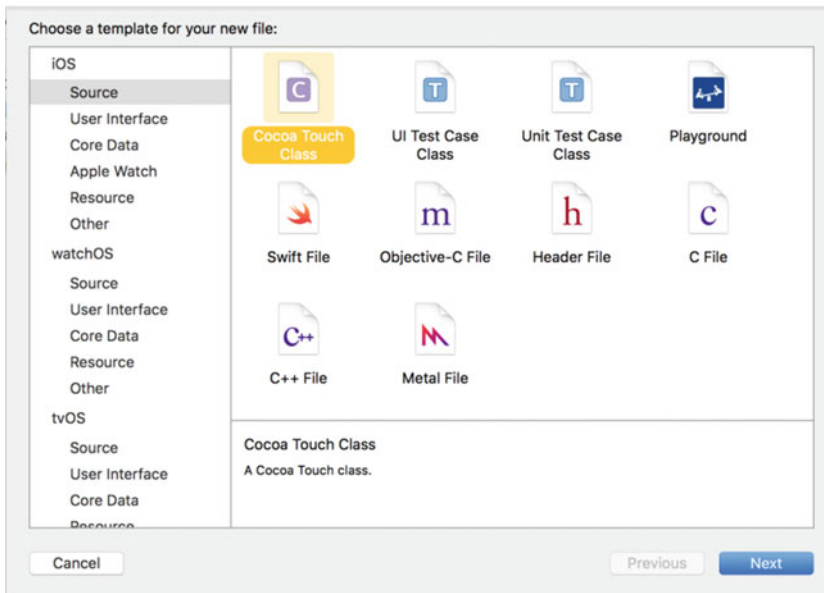


Figure 8-16. Selecting Cocoa Touch Class

Next, Xcode will prompt you for a file to create. Type **MainViewController** as the class name, with this being a subclass of `UITableViewController`, as shown in Figure 8-17. From here, click **Next**. Xcode will then ask you where to save the file. Just click **Create** from here.

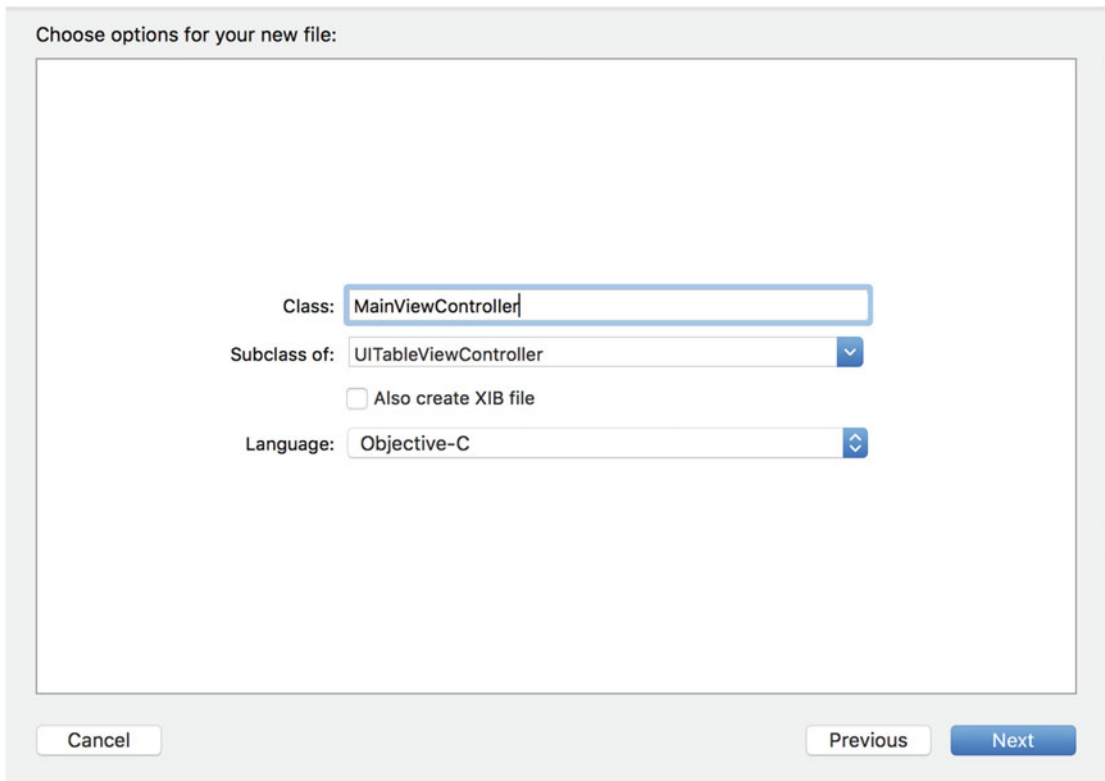


Figure 8-17. *Creating the MainViewController class*

Now that the new file has been created, the Xcode screen should look something like Figure 8-18. You can ignore the warnings. By default, Xcode adds these warnings because these methods need to be completed or things won't work.

■ **Note** View Controller classes are common and are used to control the flow of information from the data model to the actual view. It's also responsible for handling any view-specific actions, like a user selecting a row in your Table View. It's important to keep the data model separate from the View Controller only because it's a better way of partitioning programs.

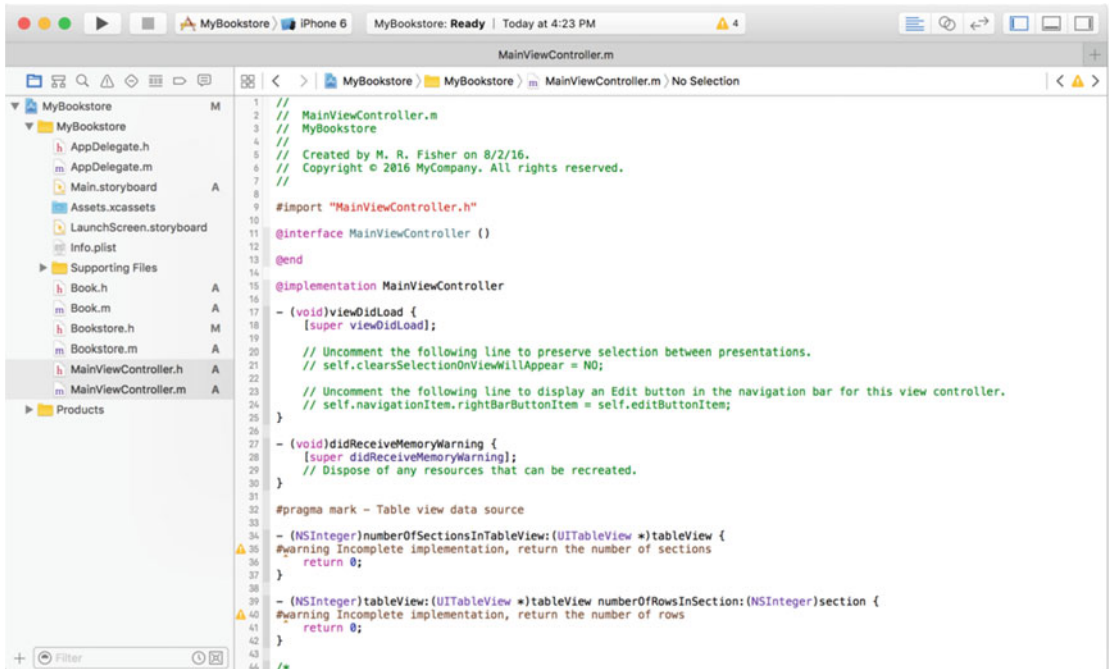


Figure 8-18. The Xcode screen for the `MainViewController` class

There is a *lot* of commented-out code in this class because it's a template. It will actually work but doesn't display anything. Before you continue, you need to first let your storyboard Root View Controller know about this new class. This is done back on the storyboard. So, select the `Main.storyboard` file and make sure that the Root View Controller scene is selected. You should see something like Figure 8-19.

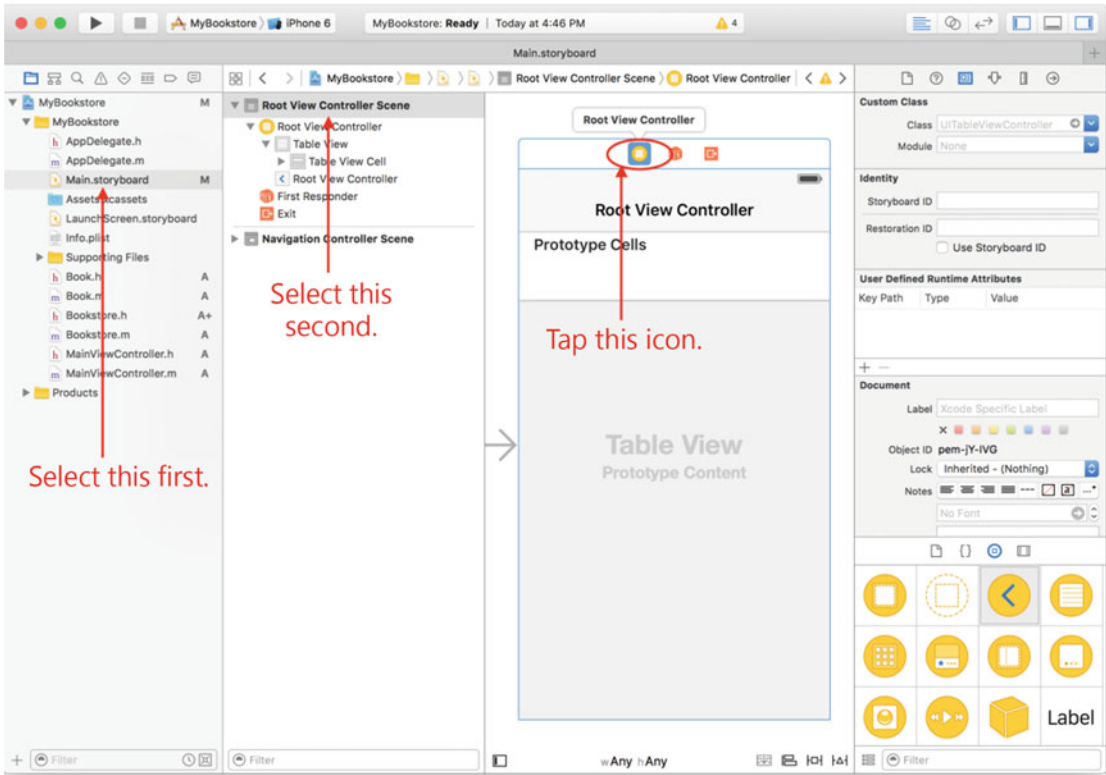


Figure 8-19. Selecting the Root View Controller

Next, you can change the custom class to be the `MainViewController` class, as shown in Figure 8-20.

Now, your new class, `MainViewController`, is the controller for the Root View Controller. In the next section, you can add the data model to your new View Controller and get it ready to display something.

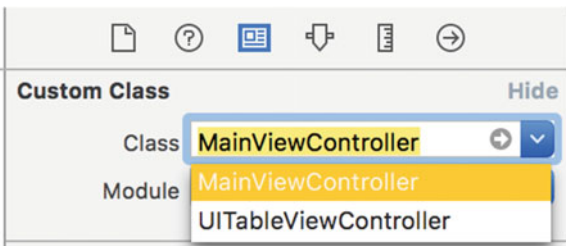


Figure 8-20. Setting your class as the custom class

The Bookstore Object

Before you can display anything on your new view, you will need to create the data model. In this case, this is the `Bookstore` object. You’ve already built the `Book` object; you can find that back in the section that introduced instance variables and properties.

The Bookstore object is a simple data model that is used to store a list of Book objects. Each Book object contains a title, the author (or the authors), and a brief description. So, let's take a look at the heart of the Bookstore object. Note that the line numbers represent the line number from the source file `Bookstore.m` in the source code provided with this book.

Listing 8-13. Setting Up the Bookstore Object

```

13 -(instancetype)init
14 {
15     self = [super init];
16     if (self) {
17         self.books = [NSMutableArray new];
18
19         //
20         // Add book requires an array of dictionaries. Each element of the
21         // array contains a dictionary that describes a book.
22         //
23         NSArray *arrayOfBooks = @[ // This starts the array
24
25             //
26             // This is the first book as a dictionary.
27             // It's the first element in the array
28             //
29             @{@"title": @"Objective-C for Absolute Beginners",
30              @"author": @"Bennett, Fisher and Lees",
31              @"description": @"iOS Programming made easy."},
32
33             //
34             // Now we're creating the second dictionary as
35             // the second element of the array.
36             //
37             @{@"title": @"A Farewell To Arms",
38              @"author": @"Ernest Hemingway",
39              @"description": @"The story of an affair between"
40                          " an English nurse and an"
41                          " American soldier on the Italian"
42                          " front during World War I."}
43
44         ]; // End of the array
45
46         [self addBooks:arrayOfBooks];
47     }
48
49     return self;
50 }

```

This method of the `Bookstore.m` file is called when the Bookstore object is created. In this method, you set up the data for the model; in this case, you are creating two books and storing them in an `NSArray`. Please refer to the section “Collections” if you need a refresh.

Line 23 begins by creating the `NSArray` and using the collection literal syntax for an `NSArray`, which is `[...]`; The `NSArray` contains two `NSDictionary` objects. These objects are created with the `NSDictionary` collection literal syntax, which is `@{ ... }`; Lines 29–31 represent the first book, and lines 37–42 are the second book. Remember that an `NSDictionary` is stored as a **key: value** pair.

Line 46 is the call to a method named `addBooks:` that accepts the newly created array. Let's look at that method now.

Listing 8-14. The `addBooks:` Method

```

57 - (void)addBooks:(NSArray *)bookArray
58 {
59     for (NSDictionary *bookInfo in bookArray) {
60         Book *newBook;
61
62         // Create a new book object.
63         newBook = [Book new];
64         newBook.title = bookInfo[@"title"];
65         newBook.author = bookInfo[@"author"];
66         newBook.info = bookInfo[@"description"];
67
68         [self.books addObject:newBook];
69     }
70 }
```

This method will go through the array that was created in the `init` method and create the number of `Book` objects that are in the array. While you know that there are only two in the `init` method, the `addBooks:` method is designed to take in as many as are in the array, making it flexible if more books are added in the `init` method.

Line 59 is what is called a **for-in** fast enumerator in that it goes through the array one element at a time. You know that the `NSArray` that is passed to this method is an array of dictionaries with each dictionary containing information for a book.

```
for (NSDictionary *bookInfo in bookArray)
```

The first argument here is an `NSDictionary` object. This object is assigned the `NSDictionary` that is in each element of the array. So, the first element in the array will be the dictionary containing the “Objective-C for Absolute Beginners” book information.

Now that you have the dictionary, lines 63–66 create the `Book` object and set the `Book` object's properties to the values from the dictionary.

Line 68 takes the newly created `Book` object and adds it to the `self.books` property, which is an `NSMutableArray`. Remember a mutable object is one that can be modified. In this case, you're adding new elements to what is now an empty array. Once the `for/in` enumerator has gone through all the elements in the array, the `addBooks:` method finishes and returns. In this case, it returns to line 46 in the `init` method of the `Bookstore` class.

The last part of this class is the method shown in Listing 8-15.

Listing 8-15. The `addBooks:` Method

```

52 - (NSInteger)numberOfBooks
53 {
54     return self.books.count;
55 }
```

This method simply returns the number of books stored in the `self.books` array.

Using the Bookstore Object

Now that you have a view set up, you can start adding in your data model. As mentioned earlier, the data model manages your data, which is the bookstore and the books in that bookstore. Here you are adding a property to hold the Bookstore object. The numbers to the side represent the line numbers that can be found in the `MainViewController.m` file provided in the source code for this book.

Listing 8-16. Setting Up the Bookstore Object

```

9  #import "MainViewController.h"
10 #import "Bookstore.h" // <-- This is our Bookstore object include file.
11
12 @interface MainViewController ()
13 @property (nonatomic, strong) Bookstore *theBookstore;
14 @end

```

This snippet of code is at the top of the `MainViewController.m` file. Line 10 imports the information for your Bookstore class. That allows `MainViewController` to use the Bookstore class. If it's not included, then Xcode will flag line 13 in error. Speaking of line 13, this line is where you are creating a property that will hold the Bookstore object.

Listing 8-17. Setting Up the Bookstore Object

```

18 - (void)viewDidLoad {
19     [super viewDidLoad];
20     self.theBookstore = [Bookstore new];
21     self.title = @"My Bookstore"; // This is the title of our main view.
22 }

```

Here is the `viewDidLoad` method. This method is called whenever the view is starting up and loaded by iOS. Line 20 creates a new Bookstore object and stores it in the property that you defined on line 13. After this method is done, you're all set.

Listing 8-18. Returning the Number of Rows to Display

```

39 - (NSInteger)tableView:(UITableView *)tableView numberOfRowsInSection:(NSInteger)section
40 {
41     //
42     // you want to return the number of books we have in the bookstore.
43     // you don't care about the section since there is only one!
44     //
45     return self.theBookstore.numberOfBooks;
46 }

```

Another method that's important to your Table View is to return the number of rows you have to display. The method `tableView:numberOfRowsInSection:` is called by the Table View to get this number. This number becomes more important in the following section.

Preparing the Table View

One thing that you need to do is to set up the Table View in the storyboard. In this case, you’re going to give a row in the Table View an identifier. In the storyboard, the Table View has just a single row shown. This is a template row that will be used for each row in the Table View. To help manage multiple rows, the Table View uses this identifier, as shown in Figure 8-21.

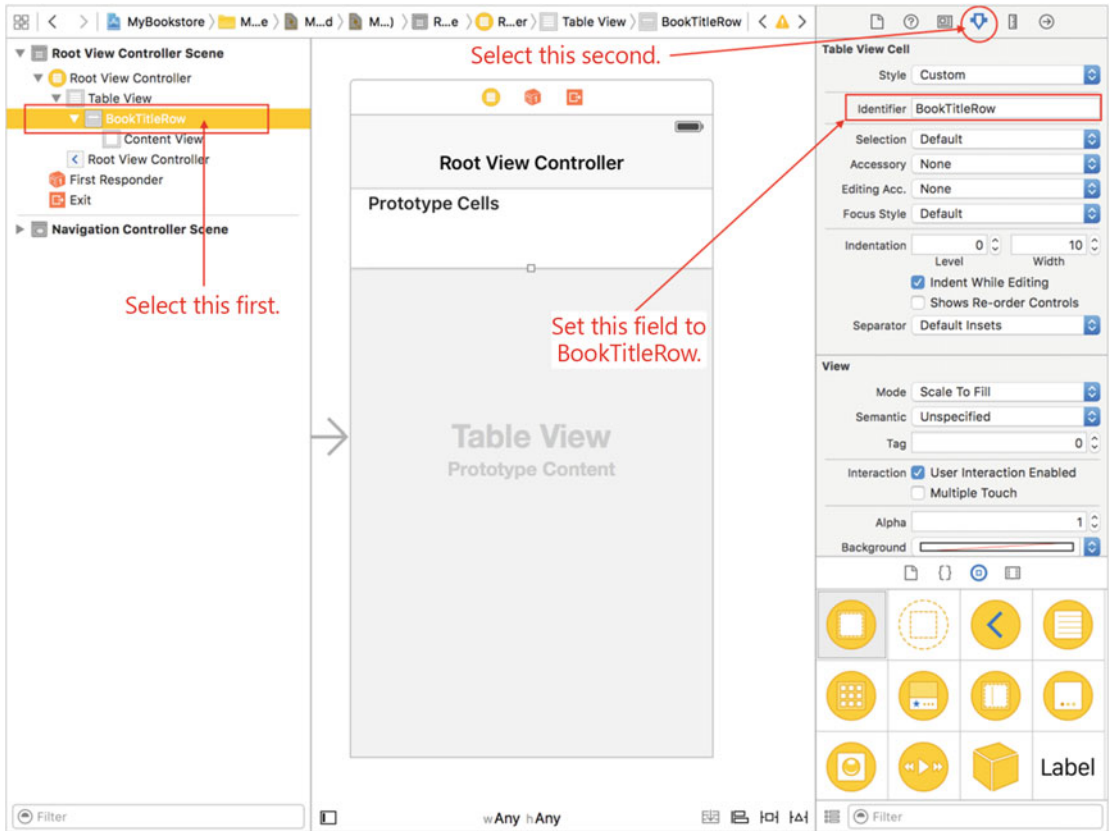


Figure 8-21. Setting up the Table View Row

This identifier, `BookTitleRow`, now needs to be added in the `MainViewController` class so that the Table View knows what identifier to look for.

Listing 8-19. Reusing the Row and Getting a Book Title

```

48 - (UITableViewCell *)tableView:(UITableView *)tableView
49     cellForRowAtIndex:(NSIndexPath *)indexPath
50 {
51     //
52     // A UITableViewCell is a row in the UITableView. We want to display
53     // a book title in each row. This method is called for every book
54     // in the bookstore (see tableView:numberOfRowsInSection:). That method
    
```

```

55 // returns the number of rows that the UITableView should show - this
56 // is the number of books in the Bookstore object.
57 //
58 // We start by getting the cell from our Main.storyboard file. This is
59 // the UITableViewCell "Identifier" found in the Storyboard.
60 UITableViewCell *cell =
61     [tableView dequeueReusableCellWithIdentifier:@"BookTitleRow"];
62
63 //
64 // Get the book in the Bookstore. The indexPath.row is set to the row
65 // we are going to display.
66 Book *book = self.theBookstore.books[indexPath.row];
67
68 //
69 // Once we have the book, we want to show its title in the UITableViewCell.
70 // There is a titleLabel already built in to the UITableViewCell so we use
71 // that. The titleLabel has a text attribute we can set to an NSString.
72 cell.titleLabel.text = book.title;
73
74 //
75 // Return the cell that has been setup for this row.
76 return cell;
77 }

```

Lines 60–61 *dequeue* the cell. This is the way that the Table View manages and reuses rows. The important part of this line is the `BookTitleRow` identifier being used. It's important that the name that is used here is the same as the one added to the Table View Row in the storyboard, as shown in Figure 8-21.

Line 66 gets a `Book` object from the `Bookstore` object stored in the `self.theBookstore` property. The `Bookstore` object has a property named `books` that represents the `NSArray` of `Book` objects that were created when you loaded your Table View. If you look back at Listing 8-15, you can see that the Table View knows the number of rows to display based upon the number of books in your `Bookstore` object. This count applies directly here. In the method from Listing 8-16, the `NSIndexPath` object will contain a row number. This row number will be from 0 to `self.theBookstore.numberOfBooks - 1` (refer to Listing 8-15). This makes `indexPath.row` a direct correlation between a row in the Table View and a row in the `Bookstore` object.

Line 72 sets the title of the cell (which is a row in a Table View) to the title of the book.

The Book Detail View

Now that you have the list of books in the Table View complete, it's time to go to the next step and create the Detail View. This is a view that displays more information about the book when the user taps it.

The first step is to add a new view into the storyboard.

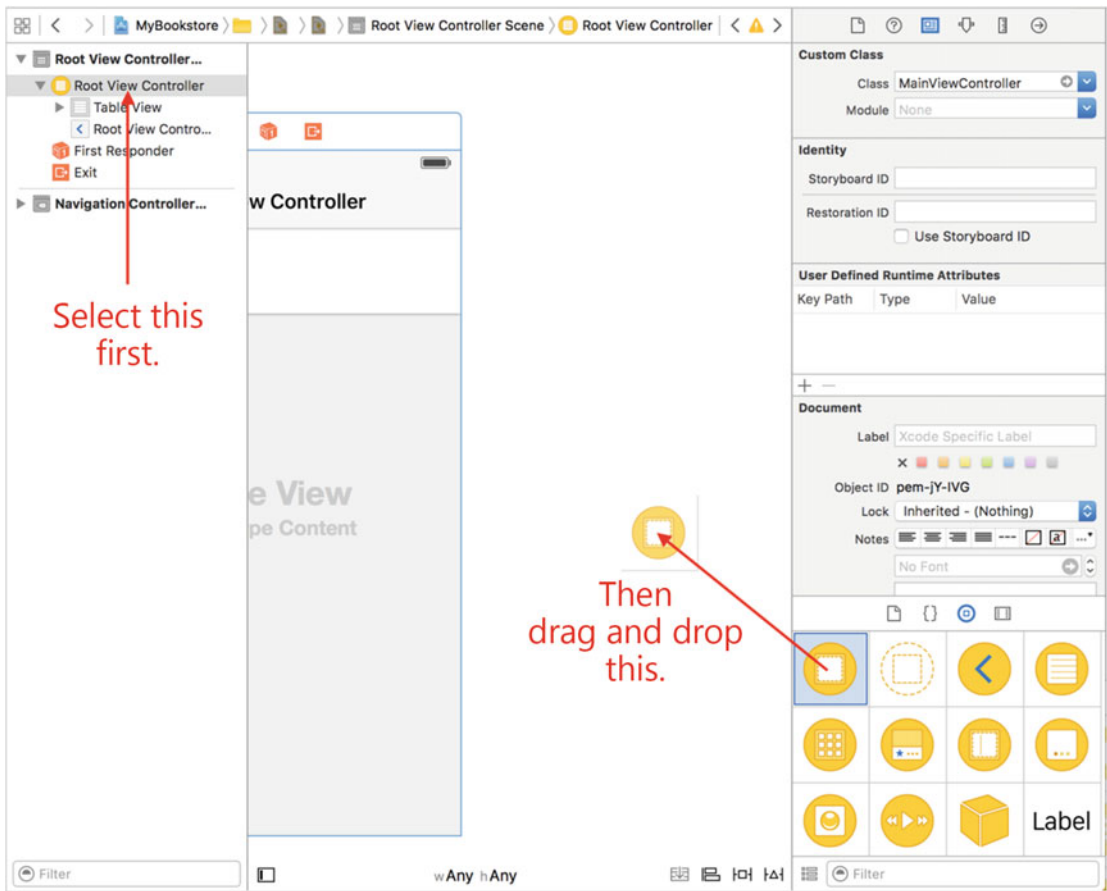


Figure 8-22. Adding in the details view

Once the View Controller is dropped onto the storyboard canvas, it will expand to a large square, and that's OK. Just drag the new View Controller around the canvas until things look like Figure 8-23.

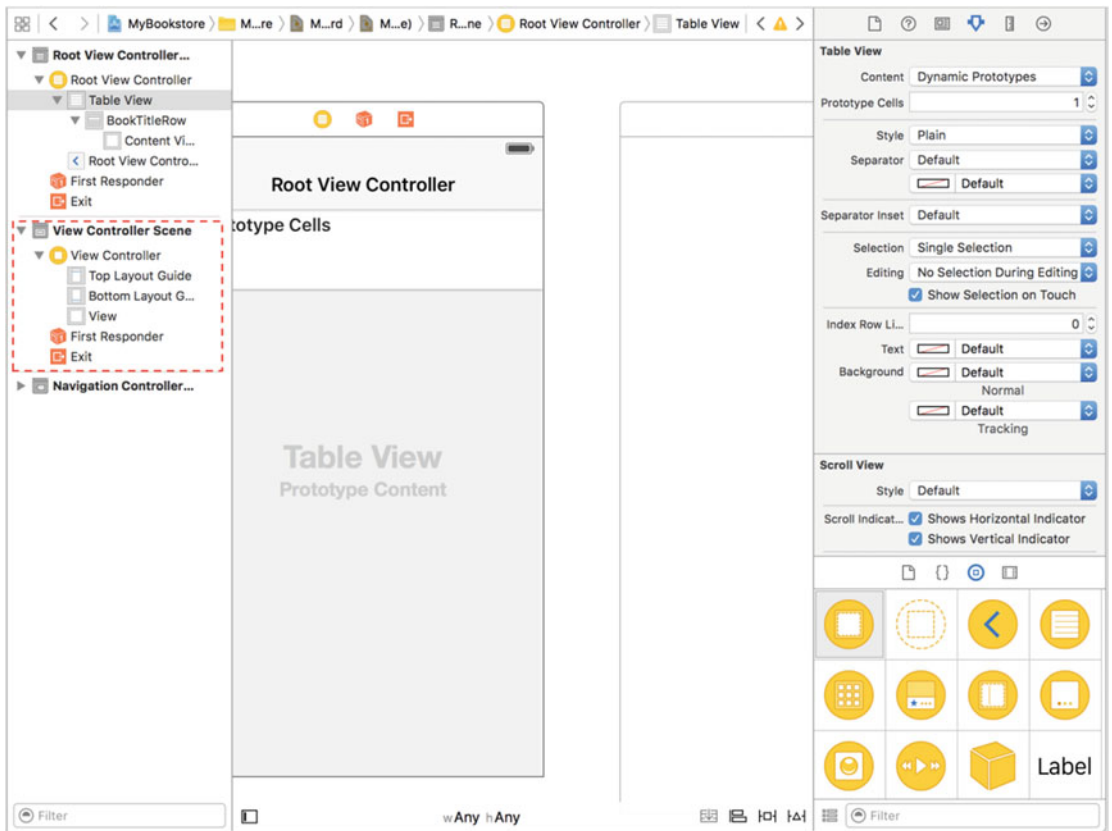


Figure 8-23. The newly added View Controller

You will notice that there is a new scene in the storyboard; it's just called the View Controller scene, and it represents the view you just added to the storyboard. The next step for you to do is to link this new View Controller to be displayed whenever you click the Table View Row. You do this by Control-dragging from the `BookTitleRow` to the blank area of the new View Controller, as shown in Figure 8-24. This means you press and hold the Control key on the keyboard and click and drag the mouse from the `BookTitleRow` to anywhere on the empty area of the new View Controller.

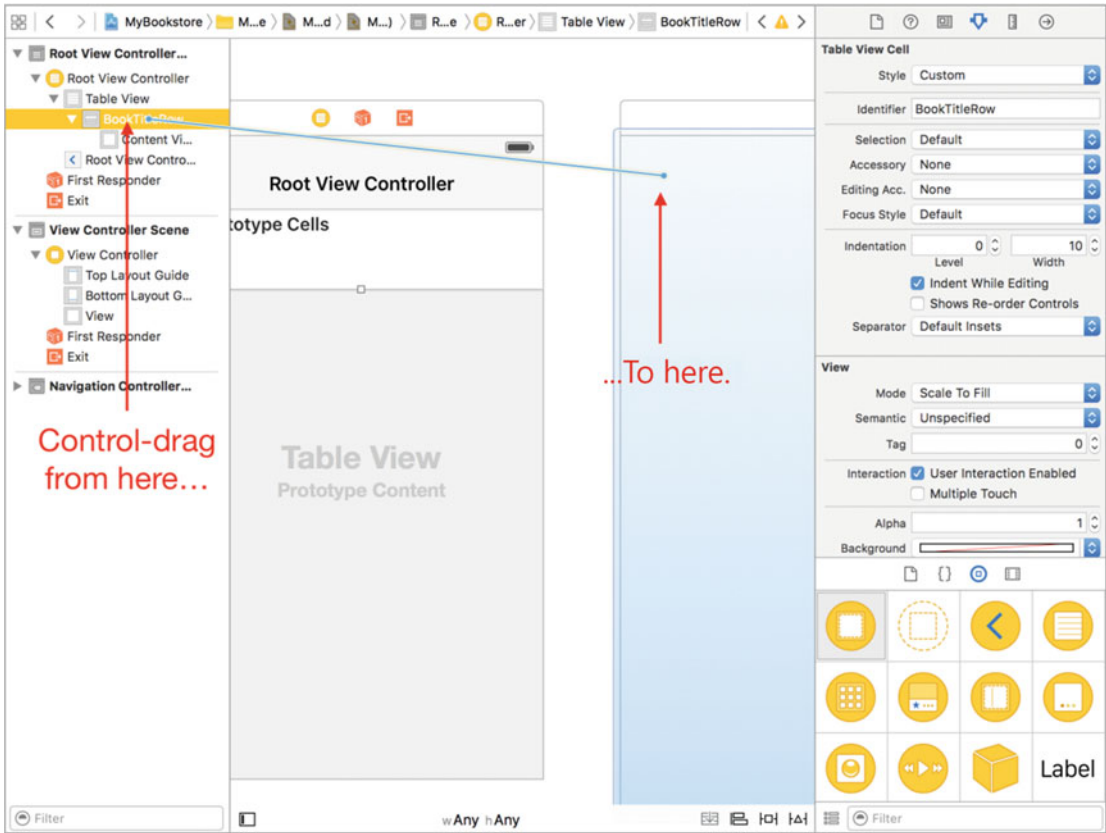


Figure 8-24. Connecting the Table View to the Detail View

Once the mouse reaches the new area, release it. What you’re doing here is creating a link between the Table View Row to the new View Controller, which will become your Book Details View. This link will make it so that when the user taps one of the books from the main view, the details view will be shown.

Once the drop on the view occurs, a menu will be displayed. This menu contains, among other things, items for what is called the **selection segue**, as shown in Figure 8-25. First, a **segue** is basically a transition from one thing to another. In this case, it’s a transition from the main Root View Controller Scene to the View Controller Scene.

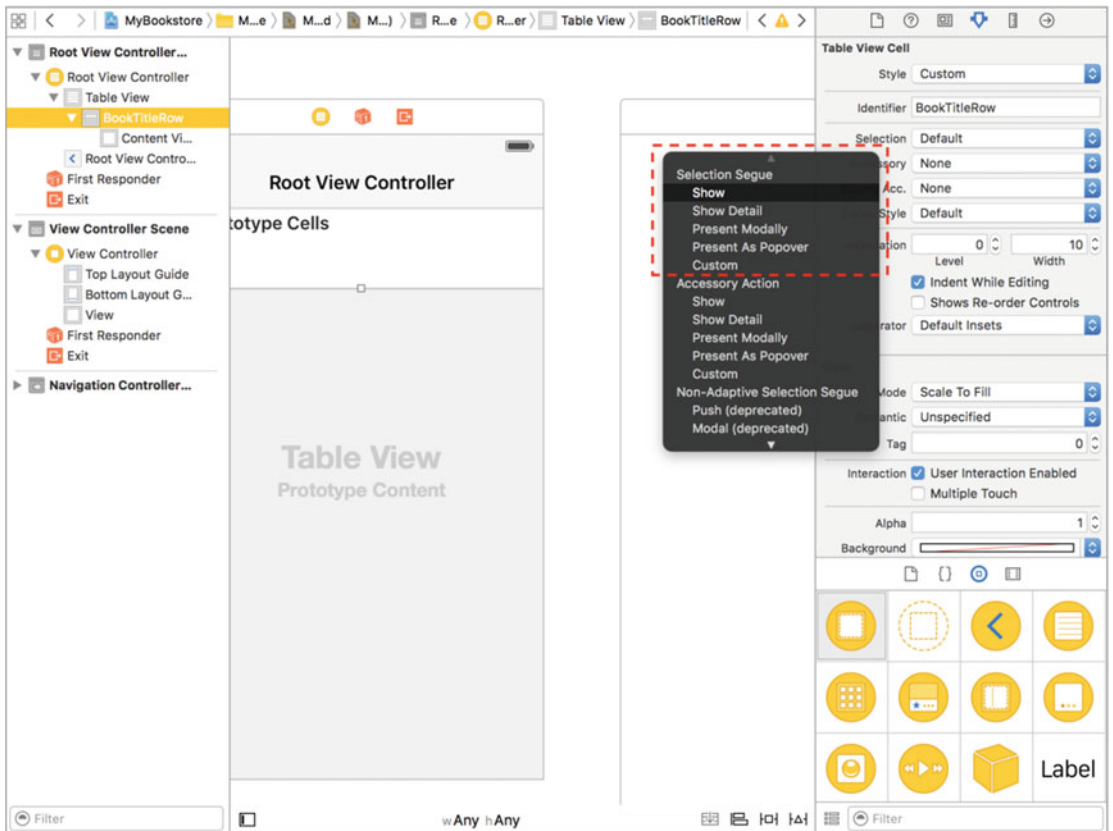


Figure 8-25. *The Selection Segue menu*

The Selection Segue menu is the only thing you are concerned with here. It deals with transitioning between two scenes because of a selection. In this case, it's the user selecting a row in the Table View. Click the **Show** option in the Selection Segue menu, and you will see something like Figure 8-26. You can move the View Controller around so that it matches Figure 8-26 just to keep the lines straight, but this is completely optional.

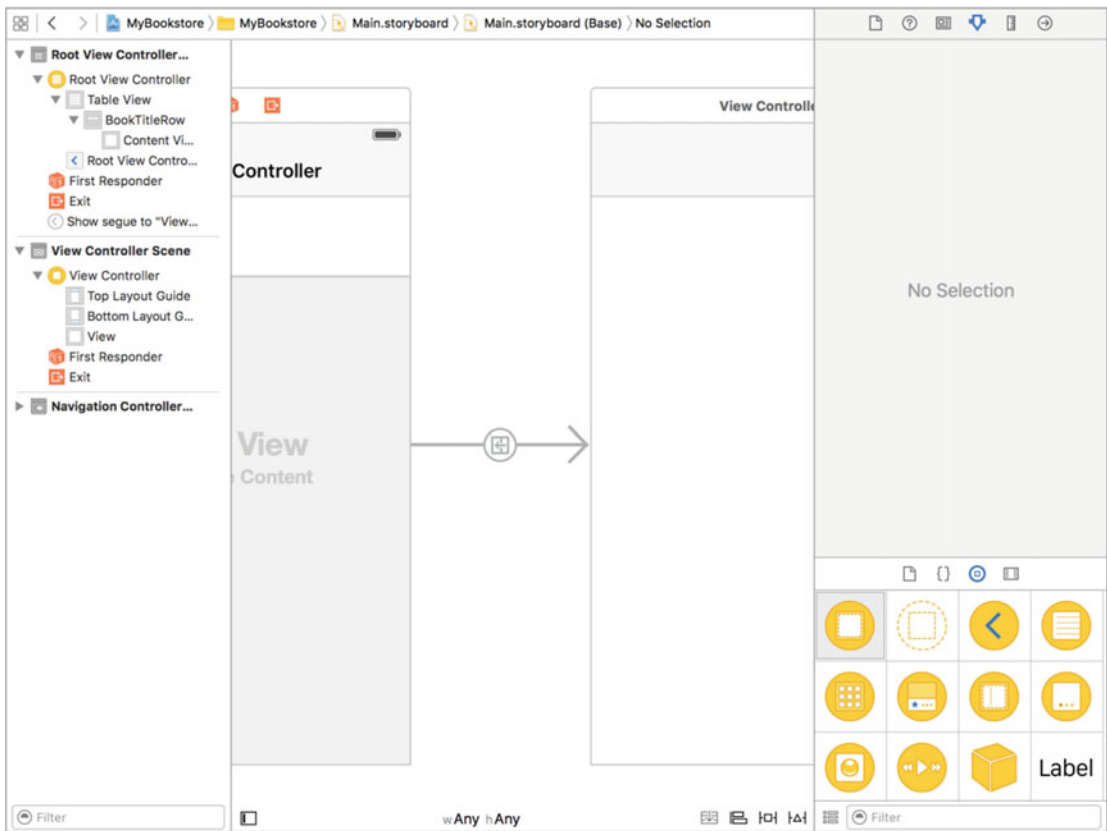


Figure 8-26. The segue is now connecting the two views

At this point, you can run the application to see how things are shaping up. Just click the **Run** button (or press Command-R) to build and run the application. It should look something like Figure 8-27. And by tapping one of the titles, the view should transition from the main view to what is now a blank view.

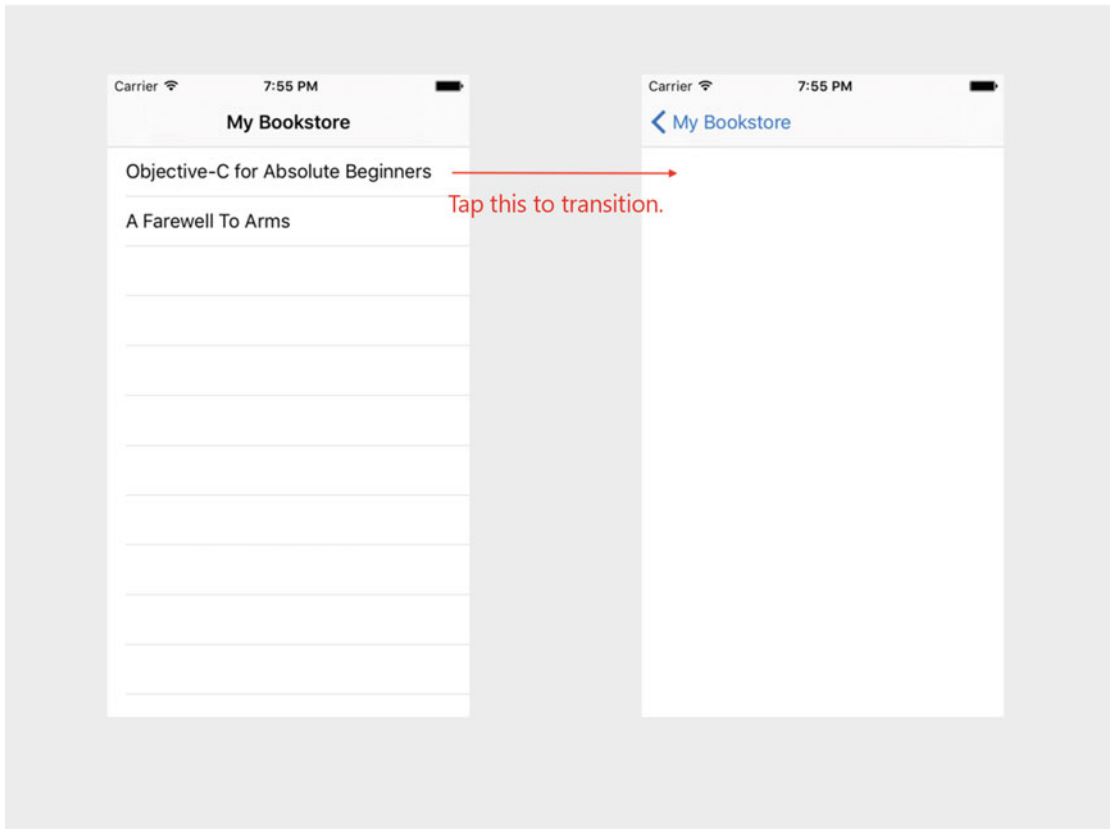


Figure 8-27. *A first look at your app*

So, the next step is to make the details view actually do a little more work. First, you need to give the segue you created earlier an identifier. Before you do this, make sure the application that is running is stopped. To do this, just press the **Stop** icon in the Xcode window. Next, click the segue so the identifier can be added.

Name the segue identifier **BookDetailsSegue**, as shown in Figure 8-28. The identifier can be anything, but it's best to make the segue identifier meaningful. While you have just one segue in this example, you can create an app that has many segues. Naming is very important.

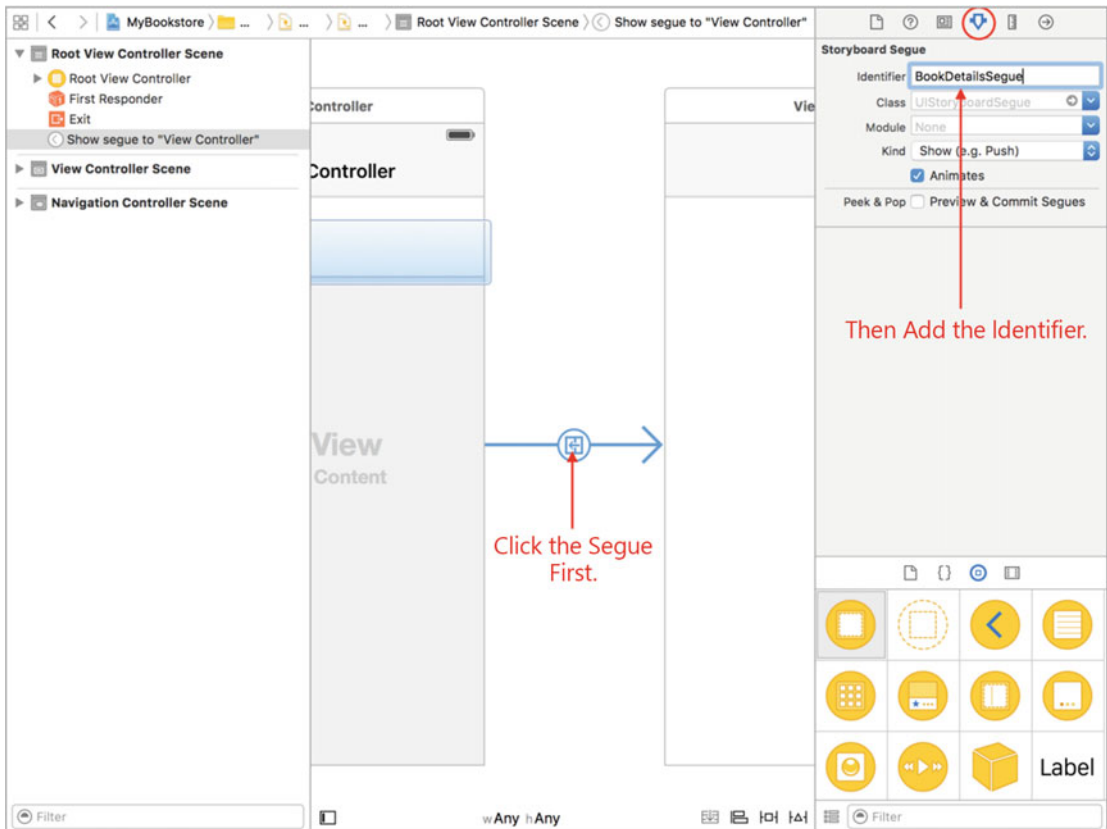


Figure 8-28. Setting the segue identifier

Next, you need to create a new `ViewController` class that will be used for the details view, which is the blank View Controller. To do this, click the + in the Project Navigator and add a new class to the project named `BookDetailViewController`, as shown in Figure 8-29.

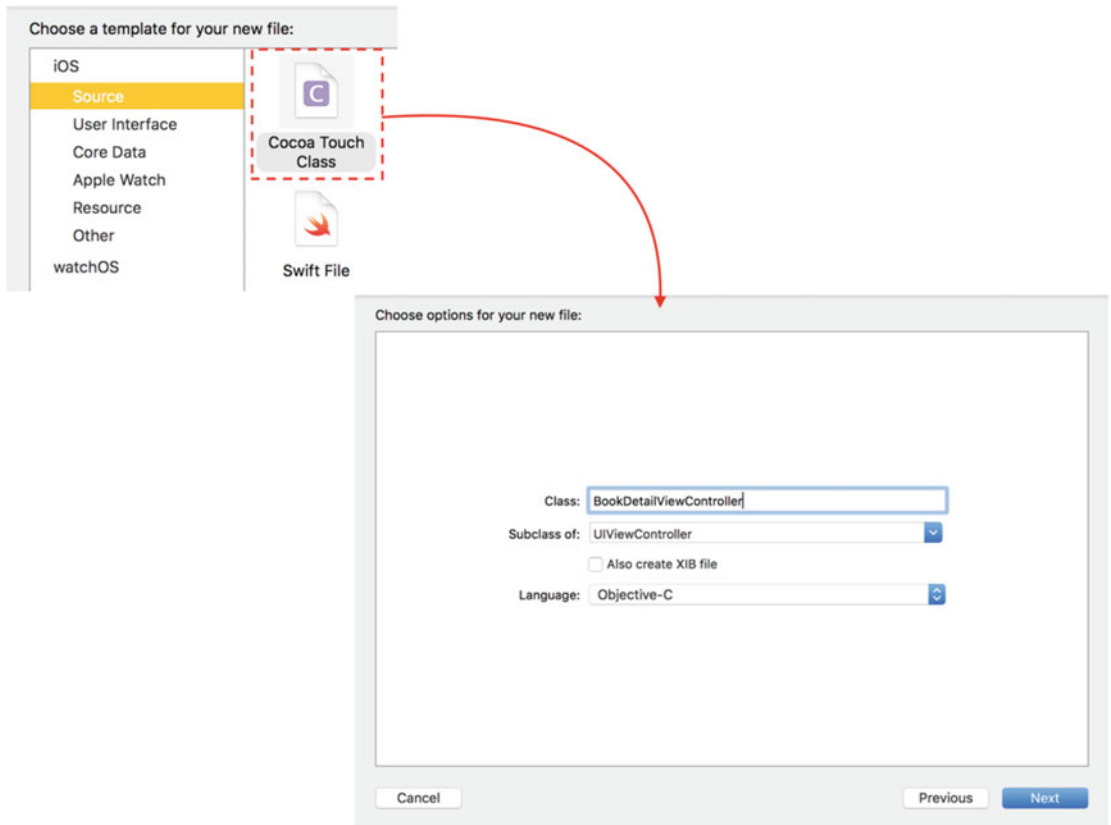


Figure 8-29. Adding the `BookDetailViewController` class

Make sure that the new file is a subclass of `UIViewController`.

Next, you are going to add some `Label` views to your detail view so you can see more of the information of the book. But, before you can do this, the detail View Controller needs to be set to use the new `BookDetailViewController` class, as shown in Figure 8-30. Make sure that the `Main.storyboard` file is selected in the Project Navigator.

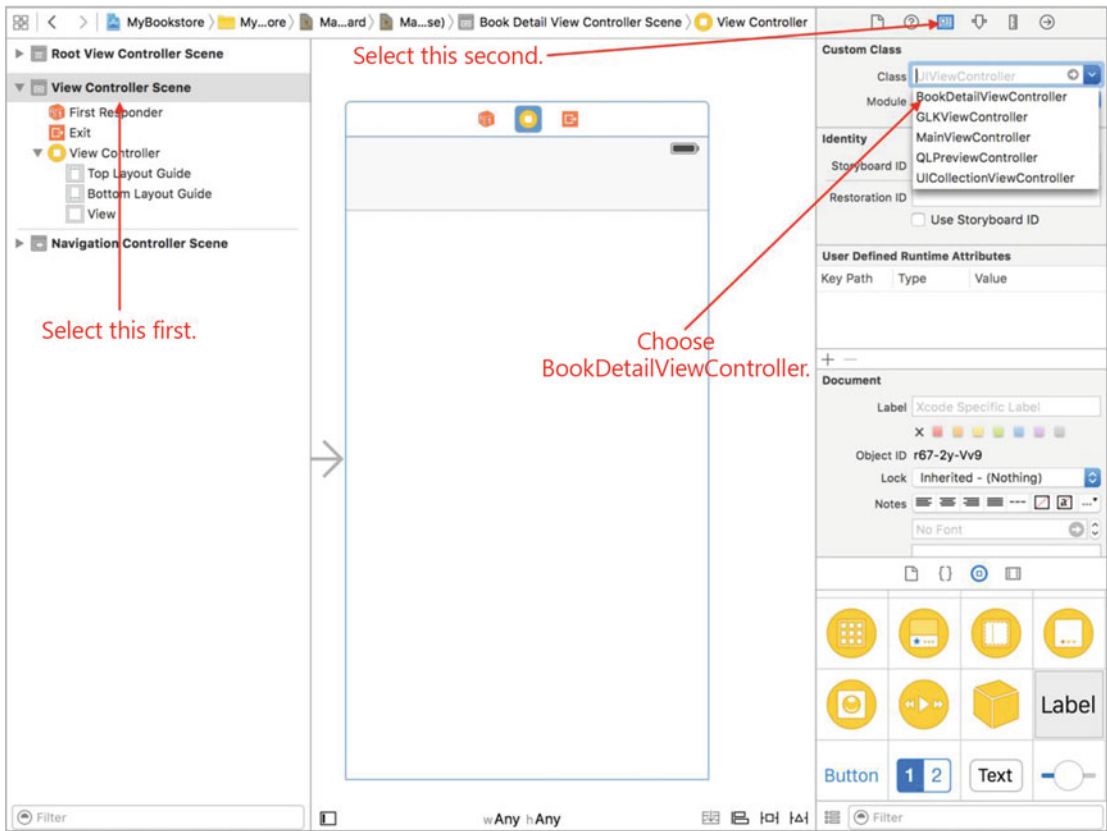


Figure 8-30. Setting the *BookDetailViewController*

Now that you have the class assigned, you need to add some labels so that you can display the title, authors, and description of the book.

To start this, drag and drop some Label views from the palette of controls to the Book Details View Controller, as shown in Figure 8-31.

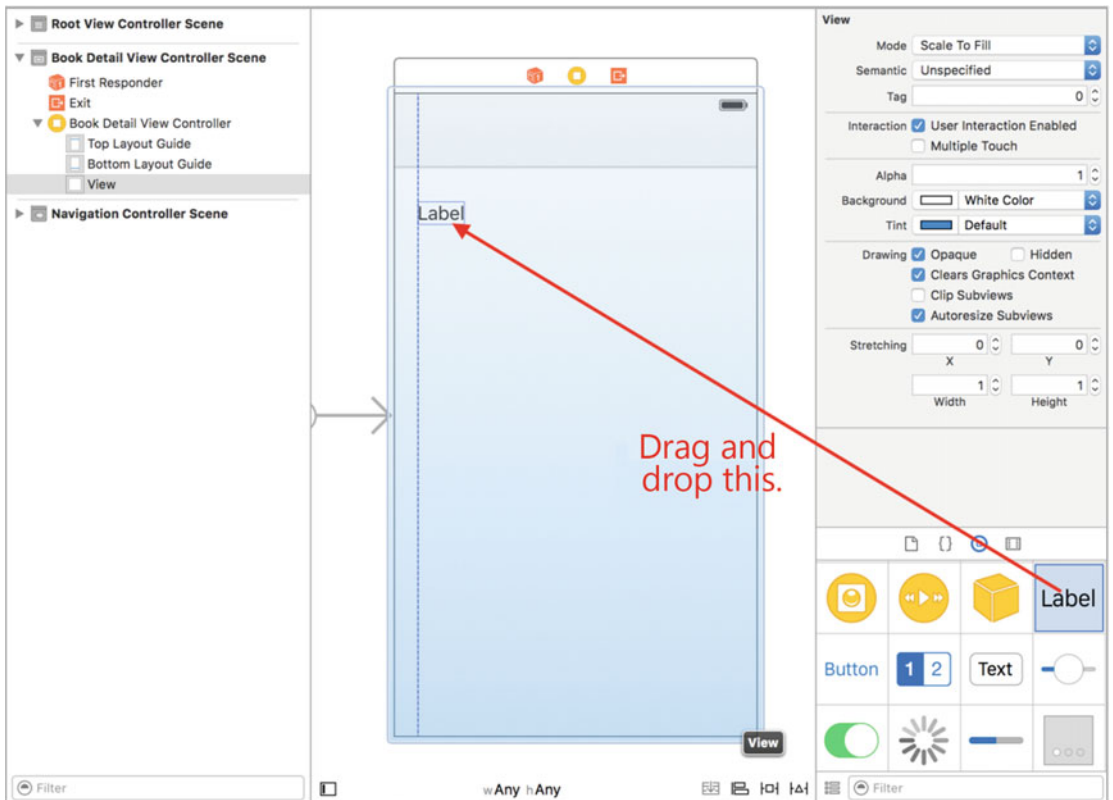


Figure 8-31. Adding your first label

Expand the label's size by dragging the "handles" so that it is roughly half the width of the view, as shown in Figure 8-32.



Figure 8-32. Expanding the label

This will provide enough room for the titles of the fields. Repeat this process until your view looks like Figure 8-33.

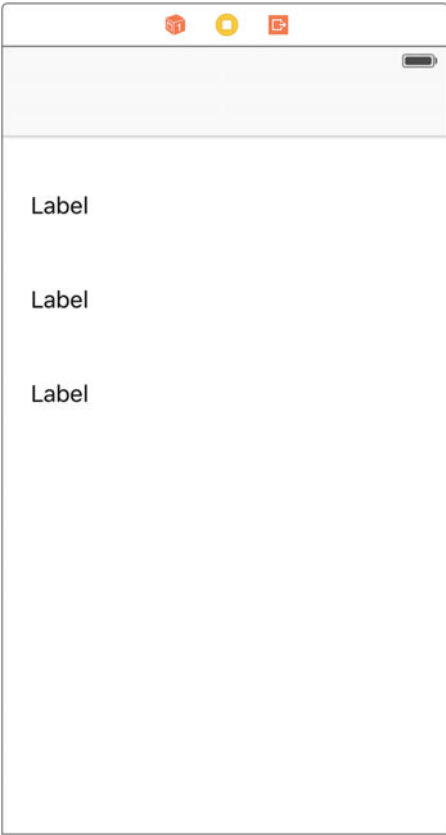


Figure 8-33. *Three labels*

Next, change the titles of these labels to be **Title**, **Author(s)**, and **Description**. To do this, click a label and change the text, as shown in Figure 8-34.

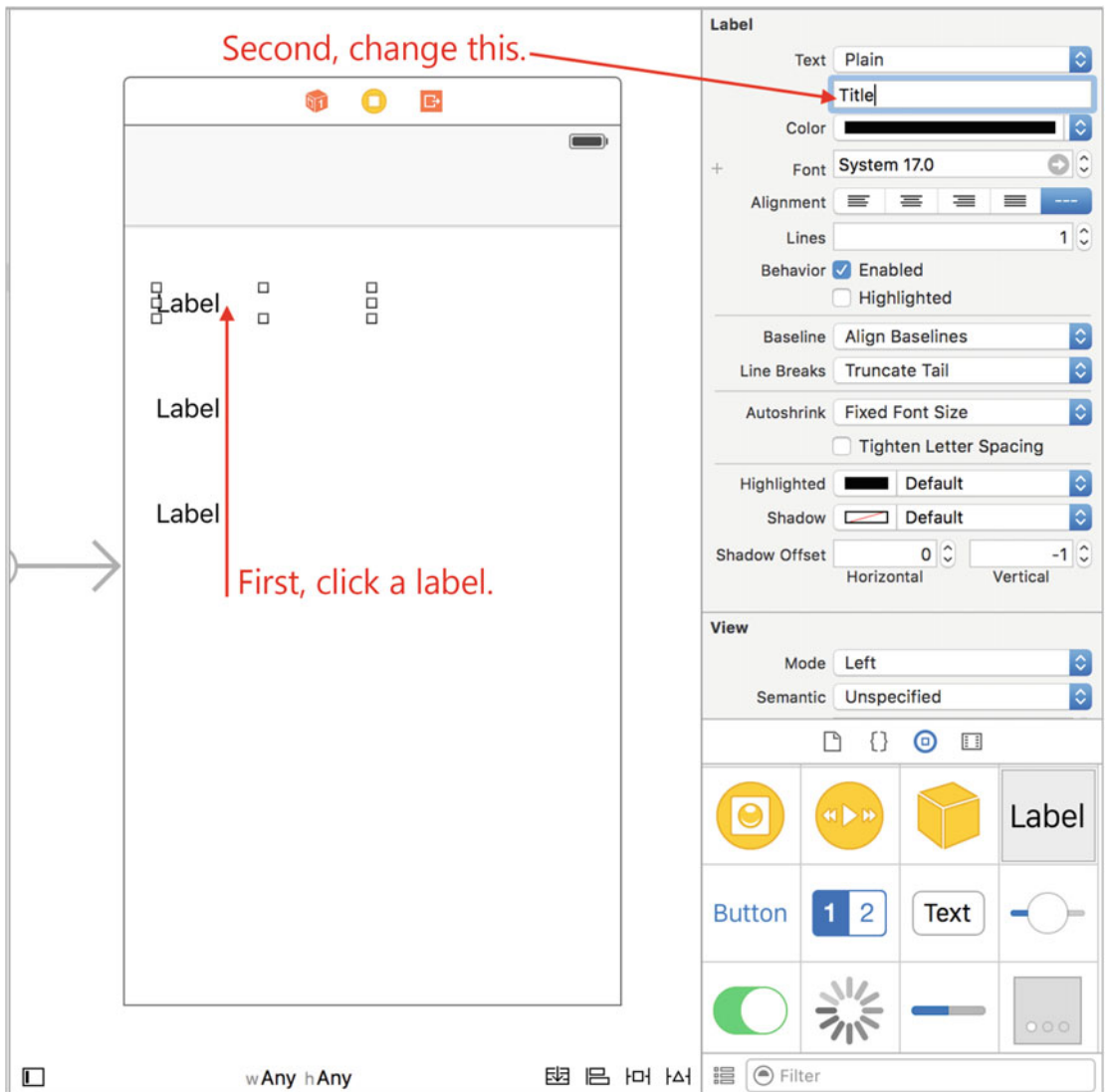


Figure 8-34. Changing the label text

After changing all the labels, they should now contain all of the titles (Title, Author(s), and Description), as shown in Figure 8-35.

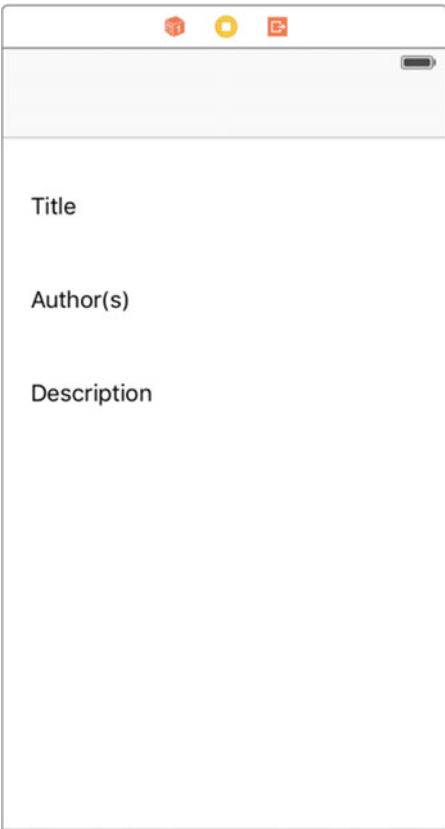


Figure 8-35. *Changing the label text*

Repeat the steps of creating and sizing labels and add them to the view so there are three more labels that are sized as shown in Figure 8-36. You also want to expand the bottom label to be slightly larger, as shown in Figure 8-37.



Figure 8-36. Adding the remaining labels

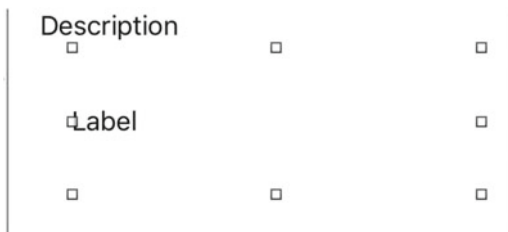


Figure 8-37. Making the description label larger

Setting Up the Outlets

Now that the view is all set up, it needs to have real book data. It just has a bunch of placeholder labels. To do this, you need to dive back into the code. Go into the Project Navigator and select the `BookDetailViewController.h` file. You are going to add three properties that will hold the book details but also show this detail information.

Listing 8-20. Adding in Outlets to Show the Information

```

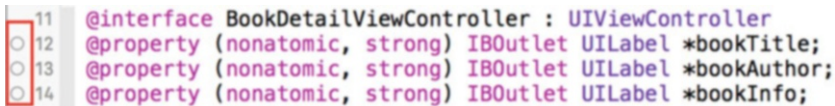
1 //
2 // BookDetailViewController.h
3 // MyBookstore
4 //
5 // Created by M. R. Fisher on 8/3/16.
6 // Copyright © 2016 MyCompany. All rights reserved.
7 //
8
9 #import <UIKit/UIKit.h>
10
11 @interface BookDetailViewController : UIViewController
12 @property (nonatomic, weak) IBOutlet UILabel *bookTitle;
13 @property (nonatomic, weak) IBOutlet UILabel *bookAuthor;
14 @property (nonatomic, weak) IBOutlet UILabel *bookInfo;
15 @end

```

BookDetailViewController doesn't contain much at this point, but you need to add something that will link the actual book data with the labels that are shown on the screen. To do this, you are adding three new properties, as shown in Listing 8-17's lines 12–14.

These properties look *almost* like other properties that you have created except for two items: IBOutlet and UILabel. Put simply, the IBOutlet lets Xcode know that this property is an *outlet* for an element on the view. The UILabel is the class that represents a Label object; you're really only concerned with three labels that you added to the Book Details View Controller.

Also, when looking at Xcode, there are three empty circles to the left of the property declarations, as shown in Figure 8-38. These circles represent that these are items that can be hooked up to something on the storyboard. Since they're empty, it means they haven't been connected to anything. Let's do that next.



```

11 @interface BookDetailViewController : UIViewController
12 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *bookTitle;
13 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *bookAuthor;
14 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *bookInfo;

```

Figure 8-38. Empty outlet circles

From the Book Detail View Controller, Control-drag from the center icon (which represents the BookDetailViewController class) to the first label, as shown in Figure 8-39. When dropped, the outlet menu is displayed as shown in Figure 8-40. For the label under “Title,” choose the bookTitle outlet. Repeat this same process for the other labels, choosing bookAuthor for the second label and bookInfo for the third label.



Figure 8-39. Connecting up the first label

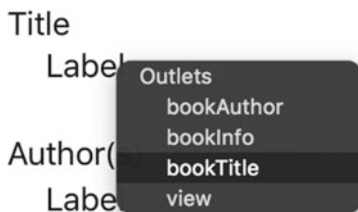


Figure 8-40. Available outlets

Going back to the `BookDetailViewController.h` file, the connection circles should now be filled as shown in Figure 8-41.

```

11 @interface BookDetailViewController : UIViewController
12 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *bookTitle;
13 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *bookAuthor;
14 @property (nonatomic, strong) IBOutlet UILabel *bookInfo;
15 @end

```

Figure 8-41. The outlets are now connected

Plugging in the Book Details

Now that the outlets are all connected, you can add the necessary code that will put the book information into the labels you added in the previous steps. To start, go to the Project Navigator and select the `MainViewController.m` file.

You need to add the code that will determine which book the user selected and then store that into the details view. To accomplish this, you add a method called `prepareForSegue:.` This method is called whenever a segue is chosen.

Listing 8-21. Plugging in the Book Details

```

80 - (void)prepareForSegue:(UIStoryboardSegue *)segue sender:(id)sender
81 {
82     if ([segue.identifier isEqualToString:@"BookDetailsSegue"]) {
83         BookDetailViewController *detailViewController = segue.destinationViewController;
84         [detailViewController view];
85         NSIndexPath *selectedRow = [self.tableView indexPathForSelectedRow];
86
87         Book *selectedBook = self.theBookstore.books[selectedRow.row];
88
89         detailViewController.bookTitle.text = selectedBook.title;
90         detailViewController.bookAuthor.text = selectedBook.author;
91         detailViewController.bookInfo.text = selectedBook.info;
92
93         detailViewController.bookInfo.numberOfLines = 0;
94     }
95 }

```

The lines of importance are really lines 89–91. These lines put the fields from the `Book` object to the labels on the details view via the outlets you created earlier. When you see the code of `detailViewController.bookTitle.text`, the `.text` represents the property of the `UILabel` that you need to set in order to see the value in the actual label on the view. You assign the label's text property to `selectedBook.title`, `author`, or `info`.

Line 93 is used to let the `UILabel` know that it can span multiple lines. This is necessary so that you can see the information of a book that is long. Otherwise, the label will simply keep it to one line and not display the remainder of the information.

So now, when the app is run, you should see [Figure 8-42](#).

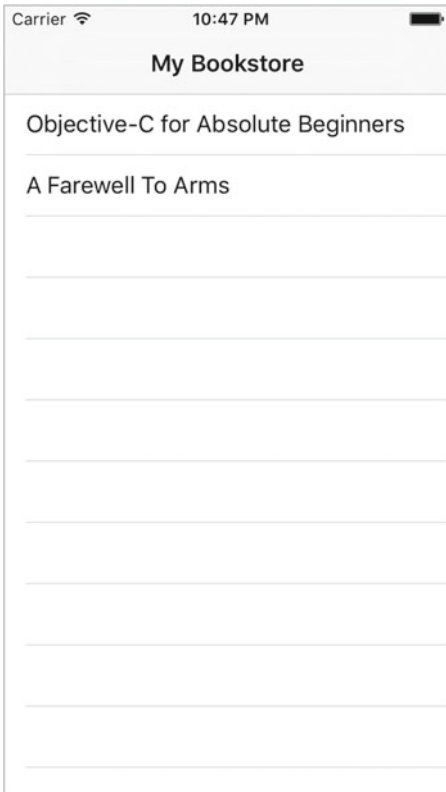


Figure 8-42. *The main view*

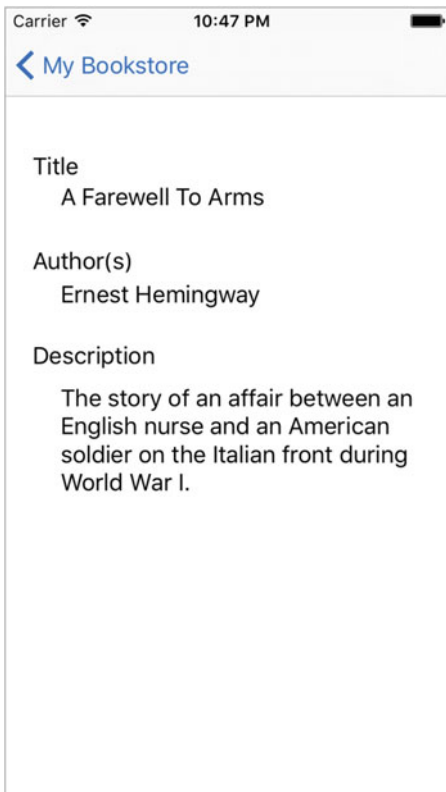


Figure 8-43. *A Farewell to Arms detail*

Summary

You've finally reached the end of this chapter! Here is a summary of the things we covered:

- *Understanding collection classes*: Collection classes are a powerful set of classes that come with the Foundation and allow you to store and retrieve information efficiently.
- *Using instance variables*: Instance variables are variables that are defined in the interface file of the class and are accessible once the class has been instantiated.
- *Working with properties*: Properties are short ways of creating getters and/or setters. Getters and setters get or set the values of an instance variable.
- *Looping with for...in*: This feature offers a new way to iterate through an enumerated list of items.

- *Using a storyboard to build an interface:* The storyboard is nothing more than a collection of views that makes it easy to create an app.
- *A simple data model:* Using the `Collection` classes you learned about, you used an `NSMutableArray` to construct a `Bookstore` object and used it as a data source in your bookstore program.
- *Connect data to the view:* You connected your `Book` object's data to the interface fields using Xcode.

Exercises

- Add more books to the bookstore using the original program as a guide.
- Enhance the `Book` class so it can store another attribute—a price or ISBN number, for example.
- Modify `BookDetailViewController` so that the new fields are displayed. Remember to connect an interface control to an outlet.
- Change the `Bookstore` object so that a separate method is called to initialize the list of `Book` objects (instead of putting them all in the `init` method).
- There is another attribute of a `UITableViewCell` called the `detailTextLabel`. Try to make use of this by setting its `text` property to something.
- Using Xcode to modify the interface, play with changing the background color of the `DetailViewController.xib` file.

For a tougher challenge:

- Sort the books in the `Bookstore` object so they appear in ascending order on the `MasterDetailView`.

CHAPTER 9



Comparing Data

In this chapter, we will discuss one of the most basic and frequent operations you will perform as you program: comparing data. In our bookstore example, you may need to compare book titles if your clients are looking for a specific book. You may also need to compare authors if your clients are interested in purchasing books by a specific author. Comparing data is a common task performed by developers. Many of the loops you learned about in the previous chapter will require you to compare data so that you know when your code should stop looping.

Comparing data in programming is like using a scale. You have one value on one side and another value on the other side. In the middle, you have an operator. The operator determines what kind of comparison is being done. Examples of operators are “greater than,” “less than,” and “equal to.”

The values on either side of the scale are usually variables. You learned about the different types of variables in Chapter 3. In general, the comparison functions for different variables will be slightly different. It is imperative that you become familiar with the functions and syntax to compare data, as this will form a basis for your development.

For the purpose of this chapter, we will use an example of a bookstore application. This application will allow users to log in to the application, search for books, and purchase them. We will try to relate the different ways of comparing data to show how they would be used in this type of application.

Revisiting Boolean Logic

In a previous chapter in this book, we introduced Boolean logic. Because of its prevalence in programming, we will revisit this subject in this chapter and go into more detail.

The most common comparison that you will program your application to perform is Boolean logic. Boolean logic usually comes in the form of `if` then statements. Boolean logic can have only one of two answers: yes or no. The following are some good examples of Boolean questions that you will use in your applications:

- Is 5 larger than 3?
- Does “now” have more than five letters?
- Is 6/1/2010 later than today?

Notice that there are only two possible correct answers to these questions: yes and no. If you are asking a question that could have more than two answers, that question will need to be worded differently for programming.

Each of these questions will be represented by an `if` then statement (for example, if 5 is greater than 3, then print a message to the user). Each `if` statement is required to have some sort of relational operator. A relational operator can be something like “is greater than” or “is equal to.”

To start using these types of questions in your programs, you will first need to become familiar with the different relational operators available to you in the C and Objective-C languages. We will cover those first. After that, we will look into how different variables can behave with these operators.

Using Relational Operators

Objective-C uses six standard relational operators. These are the standard algebraic operators with only one real change: in the Objective-C language, as in most other programming languages, the “equal to” operator is made by two equal signs (`==`). In Chapter 4, Table 4-7, we described the different operators available to you as a developer.

■ **Note** A single equal sign (`=`) is used to assign a value to a variable. Two equal signs (`==`) are needed to compare two values. For example, `if(x=9)` will assign the value of 9 to the variable `x` and return “yes” if 9 is successfully assigned to `x`, which will be in most, if not all, of the cases. `if(x==9)` will actually do a comparison to see if `x` equals 9.

Comparing Numbers

One of the difficulties developers have had in the past was dealing with different data types in comparisons. Earlier in this book, we discussed the different types of variables. You may remember that 1 is an integer. If you wanted to compare an integer with a float such as 1.2, this could cause some issues. Thankfully, Objective-C helps with this. In Objective-C, you can compare any two numeric data types without having to typecast (typecasting is still sometimes needed when dealing with other data types, and we cover this later in the chapter). This allows you to write code without worrying about the numeric data types that need to be compared.

■ **Note** **Typecasting** is the conversion of a variable from one type to another.

In the bookstore application, you will need to compare numbers in many ways. For example, let’s say that the bookstore offers a discount for people who spend more than \$30 in a single transaction. You will need to add the total amount the person is spending and then compare this to \$30. If the amount spent is larger than \$30, you will need to calculate the discount. See the following example:

```
float totalSpent;
int discountThreshold;
int discountPercent;

discountThreshold = 30;
discountPercent = 0;
totalSpent = calculateTotalSpent();

if (totalSpent > discountThreshold) {
    discountPercent = 10;
}
```


Let's walk through the code. First, you declare the variables (`totalSpent`, `discountThreshold`, and `discountPercent`). As we discussed in Chapter 3, if the number can contain decimals, you should declare it as a float rather than as an int. You know that `discountThreshold` and the `discountPercent` will not contain decimals, so you can declare these as ints. In this example, let's assume that you have a function called `calculateTotalSpent`, which will calculate the total spent in this current order. You then simply check to see whether the total spent is larger than the discount threshold; if it is, you set the discount percent. Also notice that it was not necessary to tell the code to convert the data when comparing the different numeric data types. As mentioned earlier, this is all handled by Objective-C.

Another action that requires the comparison of numbers is looping. As discussed in Chapter 4, looping is a core action in development, and many loop types require some sort of comparison to determine when to stop. Let's take a look at a for loop.

```
int numberOfBooks;
numberOfBooks = 50;

for (int y = 1; y <= numberOfBooks; y++) {
    doSomething();
}
```

In this example, you iterate, or loop, through the total number of books that you have in the bookstore. The `for` statement is where the interesting stuff starts to happen. Let's break it down.

```
int y = 1;
```

This portion of the code is declaring `y` as an int and then assigning it a starting value of 1.

```
y <= numberOfBooks;
```

This portion is telling the computer to check to see whether the counting variable `y` is less than or equal to the total number of books you have in the store. If `y` becomes larger than the number of books, the loop will no longer run.

```
y++
```

This portion of code increases `y` by 1 every time the loop is run.

Creating an Example Xcode App

Now let's create an Xcode application so that you can start comparing numeric data.

1. Launch Xcode. From Finder, go to the Applications folder. Drag Xcode to the Dock, as you will be using it throughout the rest of this book. See Figure 9-1.



Figure 9-1. Launching Xcode

2. Click **Create a New Xcode project** to open a new window. On the left side of that window, under iOS, select **Application**. Then select **Single View Application** on the right side. Click **Next**.

■ **Note** The Single View Application template is the most generic and basic of the iOS application types.

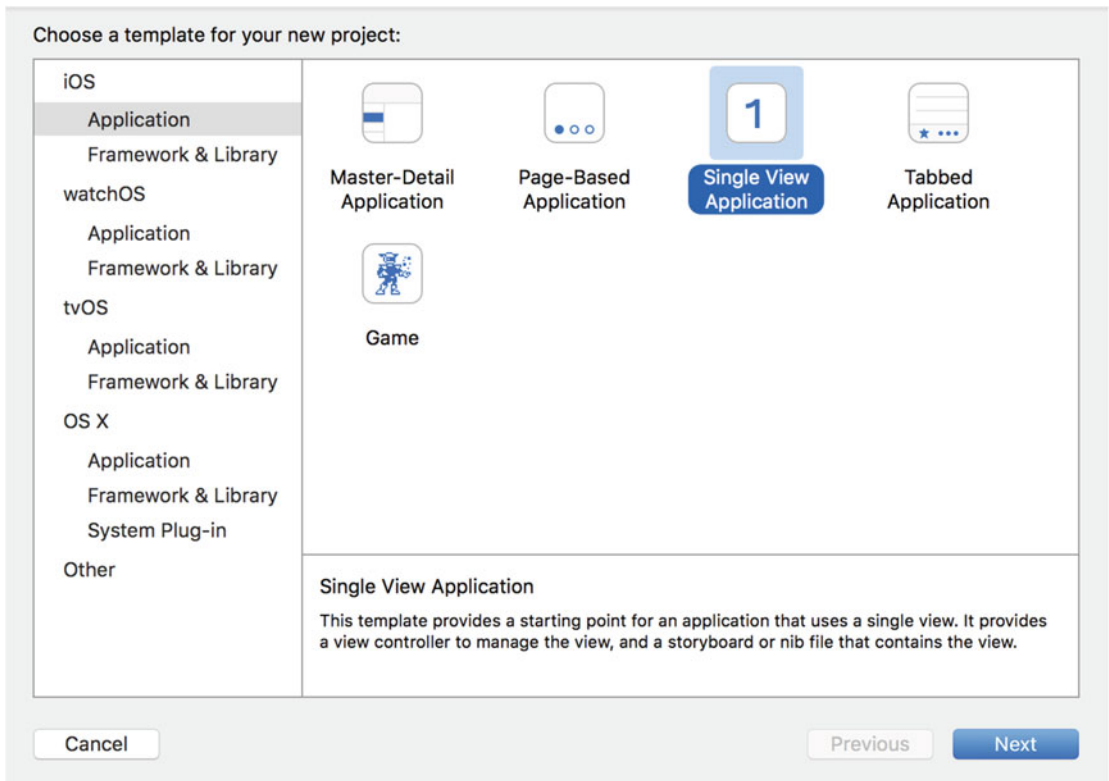


Figure 9-2. *Creating a new project*

3. On the next page, enter the name of your application. We used Comparison as the name, but you can choose any name you like. This is also the window where you will select which device you would like to target. Leave it as Universal for the time being. See Figure 9-3.

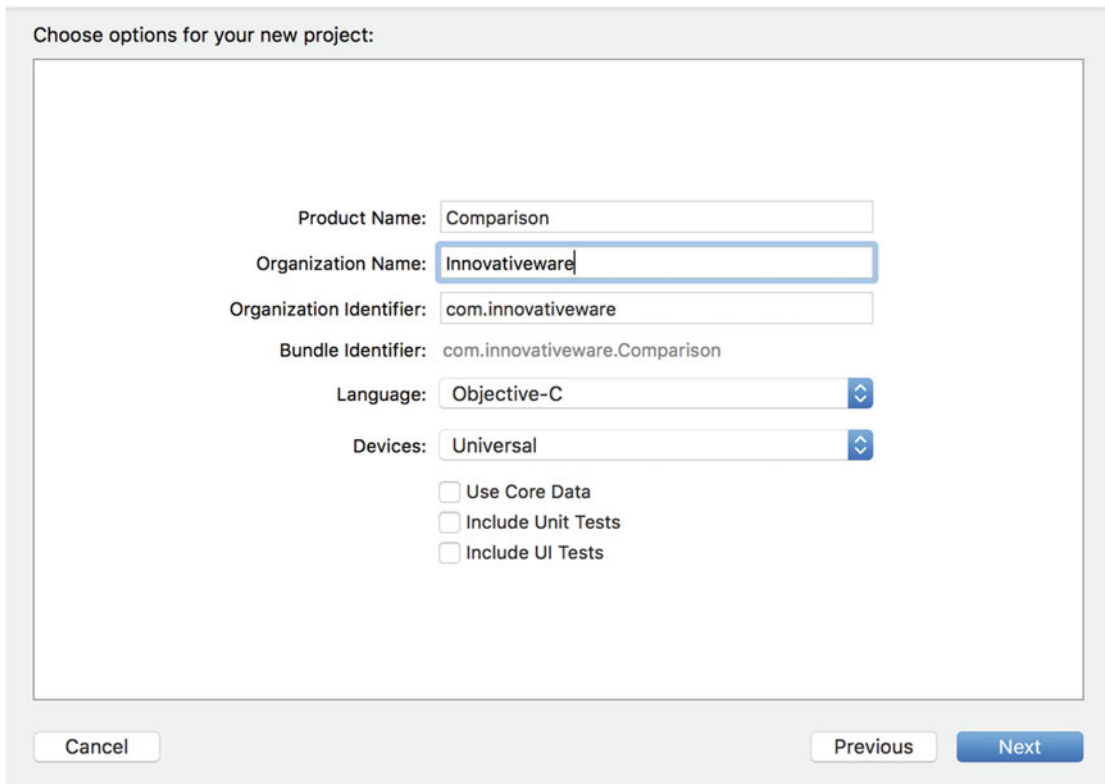


Figure 9-3. Selecting the project type and name

■ **Note** Xcode projects, by default, are saved in the Documents Folder in your user home.

4. Click **Next** and choose a location to save your project. Once the new project is created, you will see the standard Xcode window. Select the expand arrow next to the Comparison folder to expand it. You will see several files including AppDelegate.m and AppDelegate.h. The .h file is a header file, and you will not be changing anything in that file at this moment. For the purpose of these examples, you are going to be focusing on the AppDelegate.m file.
5. Click the AppDelegate.m file and you will see the following code:

```
#import "AppDelegate.h"
@interface AppDelegate ()
@end
@implementation AppDelegate
- (BOOL)application:(UIApplication *)application didFinishLaunchingWithOptions:(NSDictionary *)launchOptions {
    // Override point for customization after application launch.
    return YES;
}
```

- At this point, the application will just launch and display a window. You are going to add a little “Hello World” to our application. After the line `// Override point for customization after application launch.`, you need to add the following code:

```
NSLog(@"Hello World");
```

This line creates a new `NSString` with the contents “Hello World” and passes it to the `NSLog` function that is used for debugging.

Let’s run the application to see how it works.

- Click the **Run** button in the default toolbar.
- The iOS simulator will launch. This will just display a window. Back in Xcode, a debug window will appear at the bottom of the screen, as shown in Figure 9-4. You can always toggle this window by selecting **View** ► **Debug Area** ► **Activate Console**.

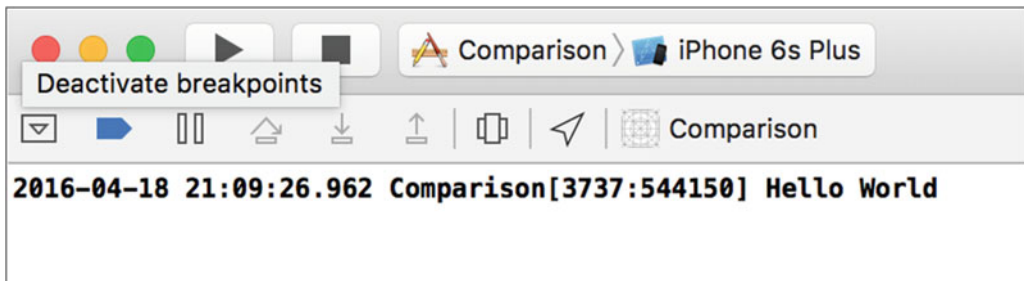


Figure 9-4. Debugger window

Most of the information in this window will mean very little to you. The most important line is the bold section that shows the output of your application. The first part of the line shows the date, time, and name of the application. The “Hello World” part was generated by the `NSLog` line that you added before.

- Go back and open the `AppDelegate.m` file.
- Go to the beginning of the line that begins with `NSLog`. This is the line that is responsible for printing the “Hello World” section. You are going to comment out this line by placing two forward slashes (`//`) in front of the line of code. Commenting out code tells Xcode to ignore it when it builds and runs the application. Code that is commented out will not run.
- Once you comment out the line of code, you will no longer see the line in bold if you run the program because the application is no longer outputting that text.
- For the application to output the results of the comparisons, you will have to add one line.

```
NSLog(@"The result is %@", (6 > 5 ? @"True" : @"False"));
```

■ **Note** The previous code `(6 > 5 ? @"True" : @"False");` is called a **ternary** operation. It is essentially just a simplified way of writing an `if` then statement.

- Place this line into your code. This line is telling your application to print out “The result is.” Then it will print “True” if 6 is greater than 5, or “False” if 5 is greater than 6.

Because 6 is greater than 5, it will print out “True.”

You can change this line to test any of the examples you have put together thus far in this chapter, or any of the examples you will see later.

Let’s try another example.

```
int i = 5;
int y = 6;
NSLog(@"The result is %@", (y>i ? @"True" : @"False"));
```

In this example, we created an integer and assigned its value to 5. We then created another variable and assigned the value to 6. We then changed the NSLog example to compare the variables `i` and `y` instead of using actual numbers. When you run this example, you will get the result shown in Figure 9-5.

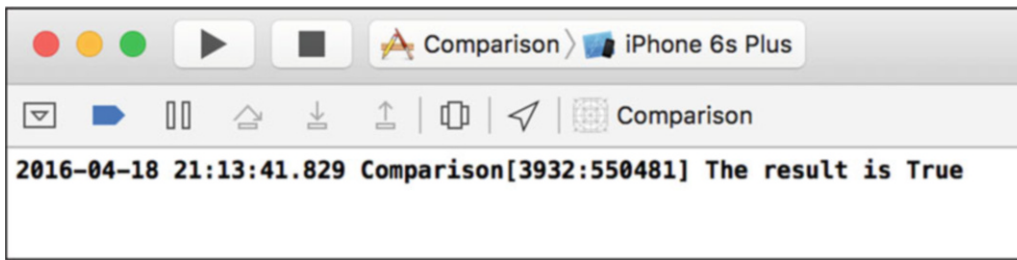


Figure 9-5. NSLog output

You will now explore other kinds of comparisons, and then you will come back to the application and test some of them.

Using Boolean Expressions

A Boolean expression is the easiest of all comparisons. Boolean expressions are used to determine whether a value is true or false. False is defined as 0 and true as non-zero. Here’s an example:

```
int j = 5;
if (j) {
    some_code();
}
```

The `if` statement will always evaluate to `true` because the variable `j` is not equal to zero. Because of that, the program will run the `some_code()` method.

```
int j = 0;
if (j) {
    some_code();
}
```

If you change the value of `j`, the statement will evaluate to `false`, because `j` is now 0. This can be used with `BOOL` and number variables.

```
int j = 0;
if (!j) {
    some_code();
}
```

Placing an exclamation point in front of a Boolean expression will change it to the opposite value (a `false` becomes a `true` and a `true` becomes a `false`). This line now asks “if not `j`,” which, in this case, is `true` because `j` is equal to 0. This is an example of using an integer to act as a Boolean variable. As we discussed earlier, Objective-C also has variables called `BOOL` that have only two possible values: `YES` or `NO`.

■ **Note** Many programming languages use the terms `TRUE` and `FALSE` instead of `YES` and `NO` used by Objective-C. When Objective-C was developed, the C language did not have true Boolean variables.

Let’s look at an example related to the bookstore. Say you have a frequent buyers club that entitles all members to a 15 percent discount on all books they purchase. This is easy to check. You simply set the variable `clubMember` to `YES` if they are a member and `NO` if they are not. The following code will apply the discount only to club members:

```
int discountPercent;
BOOL clubMember;

clubMember = FALSE;
discountPercent = 0;
if (clubMember) {
    discountPercent = 15;
}
```

Comparing Strings

Strings are a difficult data type for most C languages. In ANSI C (or standard C), a string is just an array of characters. Objective-C has taken the development of the string even further and made it an object called the `NSString`. Many more properties and methods are available when working with an object. Fortunately, `NSString` has many methods for comparing data, which makes your job much easier.

While developing for the Mac, iPad, Apple TV, and iPhone, you will be able to use both `NSString`s and standard C strings. For the purposes of this book, you will be focusing on comparing the `NSString` objects. If you have C type strings in your application, they will need to be converted to `NSString`s in order to use the code included in this book. Fortunately, this conversion is simple.

```
char *myCString;
NSString *myNSString;

myCString = "testing a string";
myNSString = [NSString stringWithUTF8String: myCString];
```

The first two lines are code you have seen before. They are your variable declarations. You are declaring a standard C string called `myCString` and an `NSString` called `myNSString`. The third line is just a simple initialization of your standard C string. You are assigning a value to it.

The last line is where everything happens. You are assigning your `NSString` object to be equal to creating a new `NSString` object, with the value coming from a `UTF8String` and passing it to the standard C string you created. Once you have converted all of your standard C strings to `NSStrings`, you can take advantage of the powerful comparison features provided by the class.

Let's look at another example. This is a much easier and cleaner way to create an `NSString`. Here, you will compare passwords to see whether you should allow a user to log in.

```
NSString *enteredPassword, *myPassword;

myPassword = @"duck";
enteredPassword = @"Duck";
BOOL continueLogin = NO;

if ([enteredPassword isEqualToString:myPassword]) {
    continueLogin = YES;
}
```

The first line just declares two `NSStrings`. The next two lines initialize the strings. Remember, before you use any objects, they need to be initialized. In your actual code, you will need to get the `enteredPassword` string from the user. These lines use a shortcut. Notice the `@` symbol before the C style string. The `@` symbol creates a new `NSString` from the C-style string that follows it.

The next line is the part of the code that actually does the work. You are sending a message to the `enteredPassword` object asking it if it is equal to the `myPassword` string. The method always needs to have an `NSString` passed to it. The example code will always be `false`, because of the capital *D* on the `enteredPassword` versus the lowercase *d* on the `myPassword`.

■ **Note** If you need to compare two `NSStrings`, regardless of case, you would simply use the `caseInsensitiveCompare` method instead of the `isEqualToString`.

There are many other different comparisons you might have to perform on strings. For example, you may want to check the length of a certain string. This is easily done.

```
NSString *enteredPassword;
NSString *myPassword;
myPassword = @"duck";
enteredPassword = @"Duck";
BOOL continueLogin = NO;

if ([enteredPassword length] > 5) {
    continueLogin = YES;
}
```

This code checks to see whether the entered password is longer than five characters.

There will be other times when you will have to search within a string for some data. Fortunately, Objective-C makes this easy to do. `NSString` provides a function called `rangeOfString`, which allows you to search within a string for another string. The function `rangeOfString` takes only one argument, which is the string for which you are searching.

```
NSString *searchTitle, *bookTitle;
searchTitle = @"Sea";
```



```
bookTitle = @"2000 Leagues Under the Sea";

if ([bookTitle rangeOfString:searchTitle].location != NSNotFound) {
    // Calling a method to add it to results
    addToResults();
}
```

This code is similar to other examples you have examined. This example takes a search term and checks to see whether the book title has that same search term in it. If it does, it adds the book to the results. This can be adapted to allow users to search for specific terms in book titles, authors, or even descriptions.

■ **Note** All string searches are case sensitive by default. If you want to search inside of a string, regardless of the case, you can change the preceding call from this:

```
[bookTitle rangeOfString:searchTitle]
```

to the following:

```
[bookTitle rangeOfString:searchTitle options:NSCaseInsensitiveSearch]
```

For a complete listing of the methods supported by NSString, see the Apple documentation at http://developer.apple.com/mac/library/documentation/cocoa/reference/Foundation/Classes/NSString_Class/Reference/NSString.html.

Comparing Dates

Dates are a fairly complicated variable type in any language; unfortunately, depending on the type of application you are writing, they are common. Objective-C previously used the NSDate class, but it has been replaced with a more up-to-date NSDate. The NSDate has a lot of nice methods that make comparing dates easy. We will focus on the compare function. The compare function returns an NSComparisonResult, which has three possible values: NSOrderedSame, NSOrderedDescending, or NSOrderedAscending.

```
NSDate *today = [NSDate date];

// Sale Date as of 10/15/2016
NSString *saleDateString = @"2016-10-15";
NSDateFormatter *dateFormatter = [[NSDateFormatter alloc] init];
[dateFormatter setDateFormat:@"yyyy-MM-dd"];
NSDate *saleDate = [dateFormatter dateFromString:saleDateString];

NSComparisonResult result;
BOOL saleStarted;

result = [today compare:saleDate];

if (result == NSOrderedAscending) {
    // Sale Date is in the future
    saleStarted = NO;
} else if (result == NSOrderedDescending) {
    // Sale Date is in the past
```

```

    saleStarted = YES;
} else {
    // Sale Date and Today are the same
    saleStarted = YES;
}

```

This may seem like a lot of work just to compare some dates. Let's walk through the code and see whether you can make sense of it.

```

NSDate *today = [NSDate date];
NSString *saleDateString = @"2016-10-15";
NSDateFormatter *dateFormatter = [[NSDateFormatter alloc] init];
[dateFormatter setDateFormat:@"%yyyy-MM-dd"];
NSDate *saleDate = [dateFormatter dateFromString:saleDateString];

```

Here, you declare two different `NSDate` objects. The first one, named `today`, is initialized with the system date or your computer or iPad date. The second one, named `saleDate`, is created from an `NSDateFormatter` with a date sometime in the future. You will use this date to see whether this sale has begun. We will not go into detail about the initialization of `NSDates`, but they can be initialized using the `NSDateFormatter` class similar to what you saw previously.

■ **Note** In most programming languages, dates are dealt with in a specific pattern. They usually start out with the four-digit year followed by a hyphen, then a two-digit month followed by a hyphen, then a two-digit day. If you are using a data format with a time, this data is usually presented in a similar manner. Times are usually presented with the hour, minute, and second, each separated by a colon. Objective-C also has time zone support. The `-0700` tells Objective-C that the time is seven hours less than Greenwich Mean Time or Mountain Standard Time.

```

NSComparisonResult result;

```

The results of using the `compare` function of an `NSDate` object is an `NSComparisonResult`. You have to declare an `NSComparisonResult` to capture the output from the `compare` function.

```

result = [today compare:saleDate];

```

This simple line runs the comparison of the two dates. It places the resulting `NSComparisonResult` into the variable called `result`.

```

if(result == NSOrderedAscending) {
    // Sale Date is in the future
    saleStarted = NO;
} else if (result == NSOrderedDescending) {
    // Sale Date is in the past
    saleStarted = YES;
} else {
    // Sale Date and Today are the same
    saleStarted= YES;
}

```

Now you need to find out what value is in the variable `result`. To accomplish this, you perform an `if` statement that compares the result to the three different options for the `NSComparisonResult`. The first line finds out if the sale date is greater than today's date. This means that the sale date is in the future, and thus the sale has not started. You then set the variable `saleStarted` to `NO`. The next line finds out whether the sale date is less than today. If it is, then the sale has started and you set the `saleStarted` variable to `YES`. The next line just says `else`. This captures all other options. You know, though, that the only other option is `NSOrderedSame`. This means that the two dates are the same, and thus the sale is just beginning.

There are other methods that you can use to compare `NSDate` objects. Each of these methods will be more efficient at certain tasks. We have chosen the `compare` method because it will handle most of your basic date comparison needs.

■ **Note** Remember that an `NSDate` holds both a date and a time. This can affect your comparisons with dates as it not only compares the date but the time.

Combining Comparisons

As we discussed in Chapter 4, sometimes something more complex than a single comparison is needed. This is where logical operators come in. Logical operators enable you to check for more than one different requirement. For example, if you have a special discount for people who are members of your book club and who spend more than \$30, you can write one statement to check this.

```
float totalSpent;
int discountThreshold;
int discountPercent;
BOOL clubMember = YES;

discountThreshold = 30;
discountPercent = 0;
totalSpent = calculateTotalSpent();

if (totalSpent > discountThreshold && clubMember) {
    discountPercent = 15;
}
```

We have combined two of the examples from earlier. The new comparison line reads as follows: if `totalSpent` is greater than `discountThreshold` AND `clubMember` is true, then you set the `discountPercent` to 15. For this `if` statement to return `YES`, both items need to be true. `||` can be used instead of `&&` to signify "or." You can change the earlier line to this:

```
if (totalSpent > discountThreshold || clubMember) {
    discountPercent=15;
}
```

Now this reads as follows: if `totalSpent` is greater than `discountThreshold` OR `clubMember` is true, then set the discount percent. This will return `YES` if either of the options is true.

You can continue to use the logical operations to string as many comparisons together as you need. In some cases, you may need to group comparisons together using parentheses. This can be more complicated and is beyond the scope of this book.

Using the switch Statement

Up to this point, we've had several examples of comparing data by simply using the `if` statement or the `if/else` statements.

```
if (some_value == SOME_CONSTANT) {
    ...
} else if (some_value == SOME_OTHER_CONSTANT) {
    ...
} else if (some_value == YET_SOME_OTHER_CONSTANT) {
    ...
}
```

If you need to compare a specific ordinal type to several constant values, you can use a different method that can simplify the comparison code: the `switch` statement.

■ **Note** An ordinal type is a built-in C data type that can be ordered. Examples are `int`, `long`, `char`, and `BOOL`.

The `switch` statement allows the comparison of one or more constant values against the ordinal data type. This is important to understand. The `switch` statement does not allow the comparison of the ordinal type to a variable. Here is an example of a proper `switch` statement:

```
char value;
value = 'd';

switch (value)
{
    // The switch statement followed by a begin brace
    case 'a': // Equivalent to if (value == 'a')
        ... // Call functions and put any other statements here after the case.
        ...
        break; // This indicates that this is the end of the "case 'a':"
    case 'b':
        ...
        ...
        break;
    case 'c': // If there is a case without a break, the program continues.
    case 'd': // If value is a 'c' or a 'd', this code will be executed.
        ...
        ...
        break;
    default: // Default is optional and is only used if there is no case statement
        ... // for 'value'. So, if value was equal to 'x', the default part of the switch
        ... // statement will be executed since there is no "case 'x':" present.
        break;
} // End of the switch statement.
```

The `switch` statement is powerful, and it simplifies and streamlines comparisons of an ordinal type to several possible constants. That said, this is also the limiting factor of the `switch` statement. It is not possible, for example, to use the `switch` statement to compare an `NSString` variable to a series of string constants. This is because an `NSString` value is not an ordinal type. The `switch` statement also must compare an ordinal type to a constant. Therefore, it is not possible to write this:

```
switch (value) {
    case variable: // case must be a constant, not a variable.
        ...
        break;
```

While it does seem that these are severe limitations to the `switch` statement, the `switch` statement is still a powerful statement that can be used to simplify certain `if/else` statements.

Summary

You've reached the end of the chapter! Here is a summary of the things that were covered:

- Comparisons
 - Comparing data is an integral part of any application.
- Relational operators
 - You learned about the six standard relational operators and how each is used.
- Integers
 - Integers are the easiest pieces of information to compare. You learned how comparison of integers will be used in your programs and how to implement it.
- Example
 - You created a sample application where you could test your comparisons and make sure that you are correct in your logic.
 - You learned how to change the application to add different types of comparisons.
- Boolean
 - You learned how to check Boolean values.
- Strings
 - You learned how strings behave differently from other pieces of information you have tested. You learned some of the pitfalls of comparing strings.
- Objects
 - You learned how difficult it can be to compare objects and that care must be taken to make sure you are getting the response you desire.

Exercises

- Modify the example application to compare some string information. This can be in the form of either a variable or a literal.
- Create a loop in your application to display a number using the methods you learned in the Boolean portion of the chapter.
- Write an Objective-C app that determines whether the following years are leap years: 1800, 1801, 1899, 1900, 2000, 2001, 2003, and 2010. Output should be written to the console in the following format: "The year 2000 is a leap year." or "The year 2001 is not a leap year."

CHAPTER 10

Creating User Interfaces

Interface Builder is an application that enables iOS and macOS developers to easily create their user interfaces using a powerful graphical user interface. It provides the ability to build user interfaces by simply dragging objects from Interface Builder’s library to your app’s user interface.

Interface Builder stores your user interface design in one or more resource files, called **storyboards** and **XIBs**. These resource files are related to interface objects and their relationships.

To build a user interface, simply drag objects from Interface Builder’s Library pane onto your view. Actions and outlets are two key components of Interface Builder that help you streamline the development processes.

Actions that your objects trigger in your views are connected to your methods in the app’s code. **Outlets** (pointers) declared in your object’s interface file are connected to specific instance variables. See Figure 10-1.

Note Interface Builder was once a stand-alone application that developers used to design their user interfaces. Starting with Xcode 4.0, Apple integrated Interface Builder within Xcode.

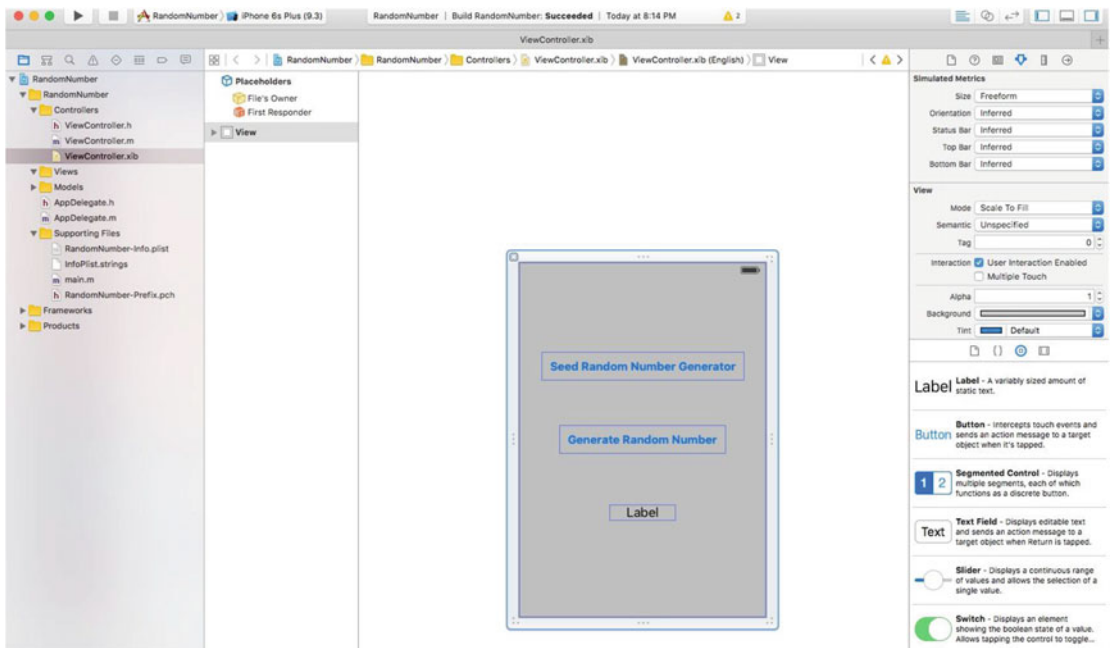


Figure 10-1. Interface Builder

Understanding Interface Builder

The operating system is responsible for the memory management of the objects it creates for iPhone and iPad apps. This relieves the developer of having to allocate memory if the developer used Interface Builder to create the object.

Interface Builder saves the user interface file as a bundle that contains the interface objects and relationships used in the application. These bundles have the file extension `.storyboard` and `.XIB`. With version 3.0 of Xcode, a new XML file format was used, and the file extension changed from `.NIB` to `.XIB`. However, developers still call these files “nib” files when saying or referring to the file name.

Unlike most other graphical user interface applications, storyboards and XIBs are often referred to as freeze-dried because they contain the archived objects themselves and are ready to run.

The XML file format is used to facilitate storage with source control systems like Subversion and Git.

In the next section, we’ll discuss an app design pattern called Model-View-Controller. This design pattern enables developers to more easily maintain code and reuse objects over the life of an app.

The Model-View-Controller

Model-View-Controller (MVC) is the most prevalent design pattern used in iPhone, iPad, and macOS development, and learning about it will make your life as a developer much easier. MVC is used in software development and is considered an **architectural pattern**.

Architectural patterns describe solutions to software design problems that developers can use in their code. The MVC pattern is not unique to Apple OOP developers; it is being adopted by many makers of IDEs, including those running on Windows and Linux platforms.

Software development is considered an expensive and risky venture for businesses. Frequently, apps take longer than expected to write, come in over budget, and don’t work as promised. OOP produced a lot of hype and gave the impression that companies would realize savings if they adopted its methodology, primarily because of the reusability of objects and easier maintainability of the code. Initially, this didn’t happen.

As engineers looked at why OOP wasn’t living up to these expectations, they discovered a key shortcoming with how developers were designing their objects: developers were frequently mixing objects together in such a way that the code became difficult to maintain as the application matured, as the application moved to different platforms, or as hardware displays changed.

Objects were often designed so that, if any of the following changed, it was difficult to isolate the objects that were impacted:

- Business rules
- User interface
- Client-server versus Internet-based

Objects can be broken down into three task-related categories. It is the responsibility of the developer to ensure that each of these categories keeps their objects from drifting across other categories.

- *Models*: Business objects
- *Views*: User interface objects
- *Controllers*: Objects that communicate with both the models and the views

As objects are categorized in these groups, apps can be developed and maintained more easily over time. The following are examples of objects and their associated MVC category for an iPhone banking application:

Model

- Account balances
- User encryption
- Account transfers
- Account login

View

- Account balances table cell
- Account login spinner control

Controller

- Account balance view controller
- Account transfer view controller
- Logon view controller

The easiest way to remember and classify your objects in the MVC paradigm is the following:

Model: Unique business or application rules or data that represent the real world

View: Unique user interface code

Controller: Anything that controls or communicates with the model or view objects

Figure 10-2 represents the MVC paradigm.

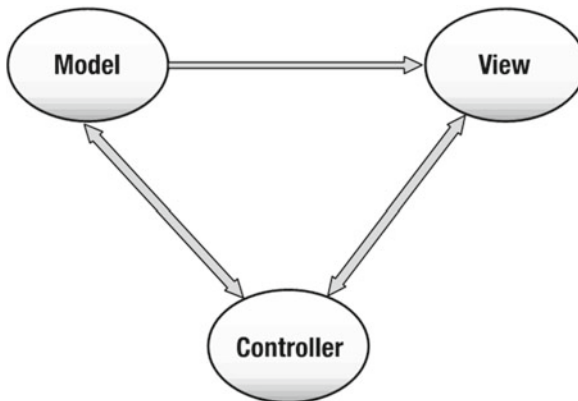


Figure 10-2. MVC paradigm

Neither Xcode nor Interface Builder force developers to use the MVC design pattern. It is up to the developer to organize their objects in such a way to use this design pattern.

It is worth mentioning that Apple *strongly* embraces the MVC design pattern and all of the frameworks are designed to work in an MVC world. This means that if you also embrace the MVC design pattern, working with Apple's classes will be much easier. If you don't, you'll be swimming upstream.

Human Interface Guidelines

Before you get too excited and begin designing dynamic user interfaces for your app, you need to learn some of the ground rules. Apple has developed one of the most advanced operating systems in the world with the iOS operating system. Additionally, Apple’s products are known for being intuitive and user-friendly. Apple wants users to have the same experience from one app to the next.

To ensure a consistent user experience, Apple provides developers guidelines on how their apps should look and feel. These guidelines, called the Human Interface Guidelines (HIGs), are available for macOS, watchOS, tvOS, iPhone, and iPad. You can download these docs at <http://developer.apple.com>. See Figure 10-3.

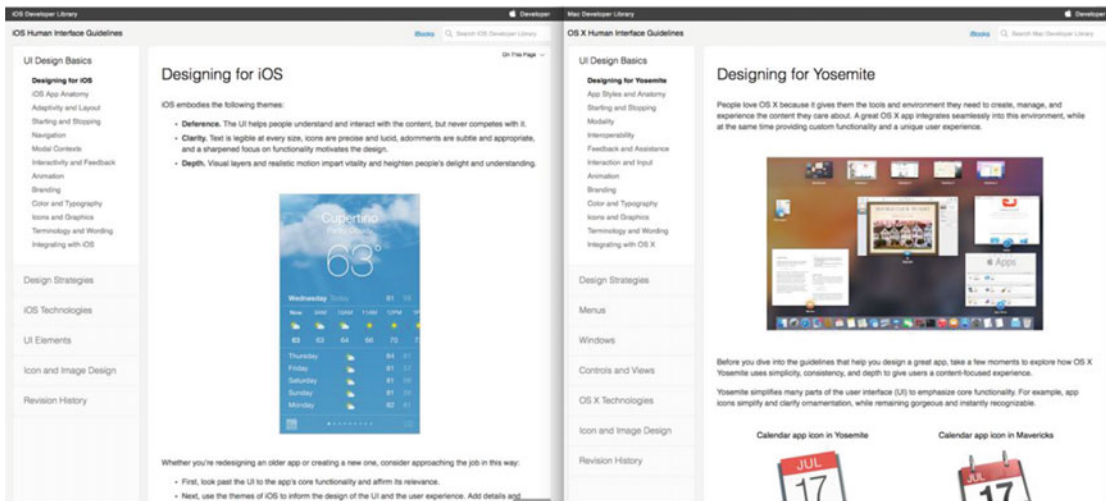


Figure 10-3. Apple’s HIGs for iOS devices and Macs

Note Apple’s HIGs are more than recommendations or suggestions. Apple takes them seriously. While the HIGs don’t describe how to implement your user interface designs in code, they are great for understanding the proper way to implement your views and controls.

The following are the top reasons apps are rejected in Apple’s iTunes App Store:

- The app crashes.
- *It violates the HIGs.*
- It uses Apple’s private APIs.
- It doesn’t function as advertised on iTunes App Store.

You can read, learn, and follow the HIGs before you develop your app, or you can read, learn, and follow the HIGs after your app gets rejected by Apple and you have to rewrite part or all of it. Either way, all iOS developers will end up becoming familiar with the HIGs.

Many new iOS developers find this out the hard way, but if you follow the HIGs from day one, your iOS development will be a far more pleasurable experience.

Creating an Example iPhone App with Interface Builder

Let's get started by building an iPhone app that generates and displays a random number. See Figure 10-4. This app will be similar to the app you created in Chapter 4, but you'll see how much more interesting the app becomes with an iOS user interface (UI).



Figure 10-4. Completed iOS random number generator app

1. Open Xcode and select **Create a new Xcode project**. Make sure you select a **Single View Application** for the iPhone. See Figure 10-5.

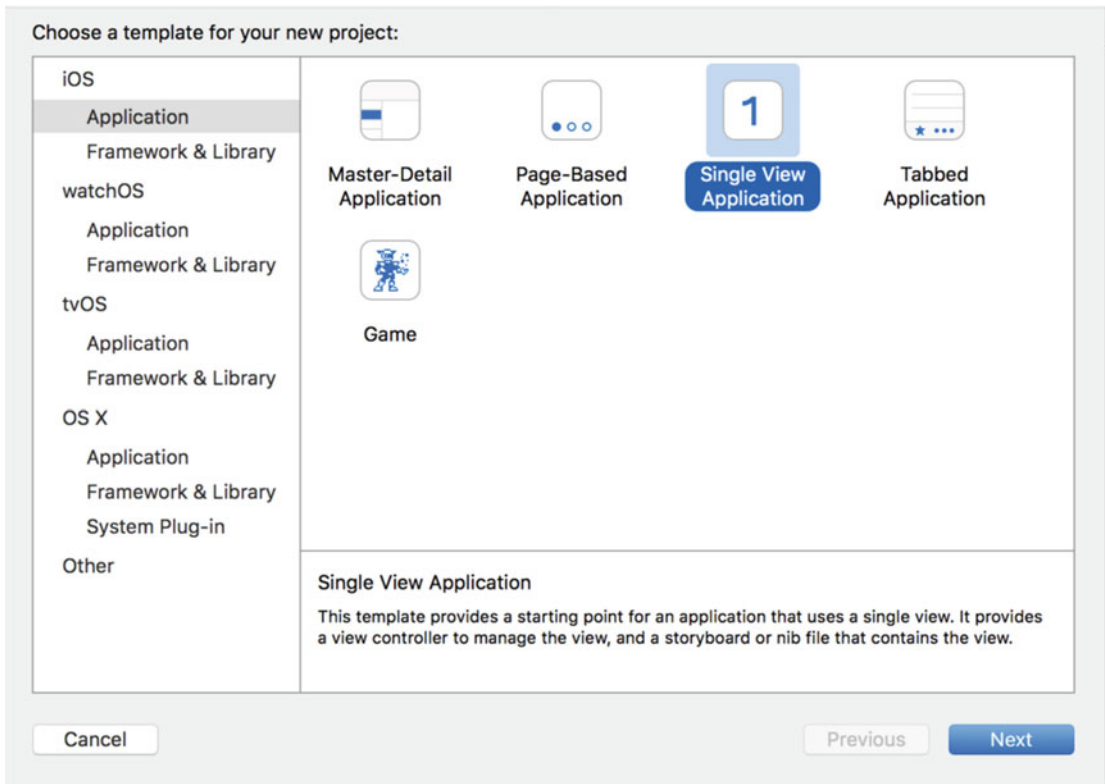


Figure 10-5. Selecting the iPhone Single View Application template

2. Name your project **RandomNumber**, select the language, Objective-C, and save the project. See Figure 10-6.

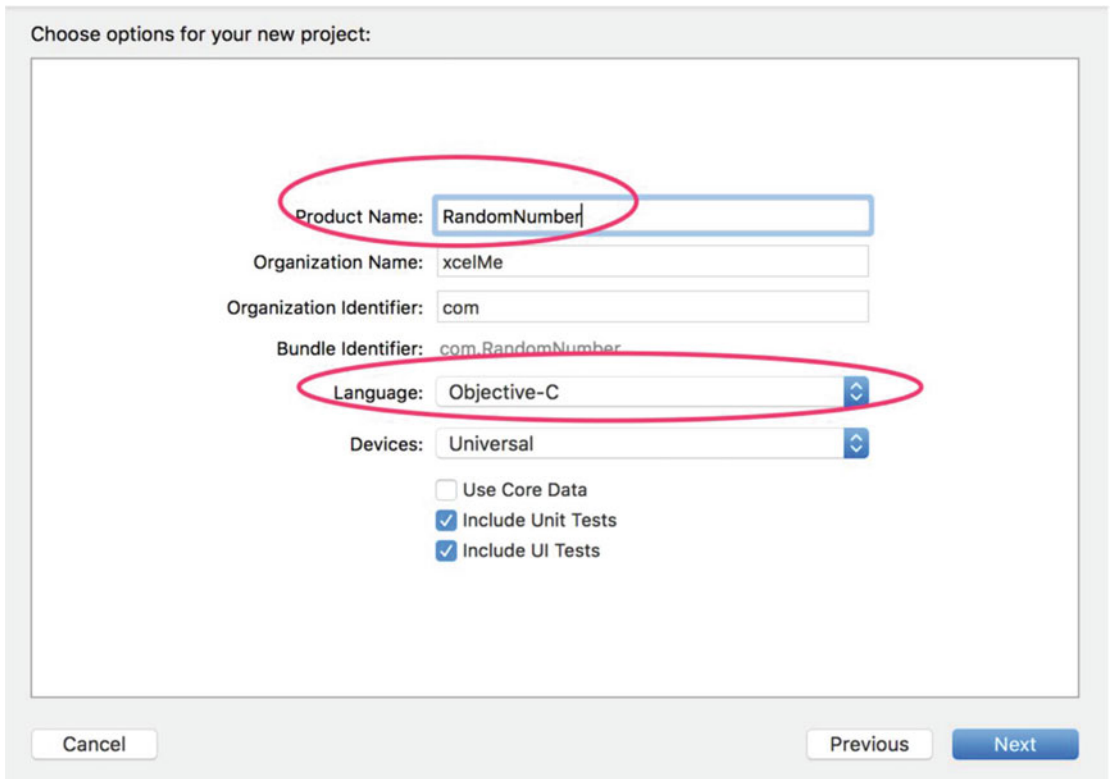


Figure 10-6. Naming your iPhone project

3. Your project files and settings are created and displayed. See Figure 10-7.

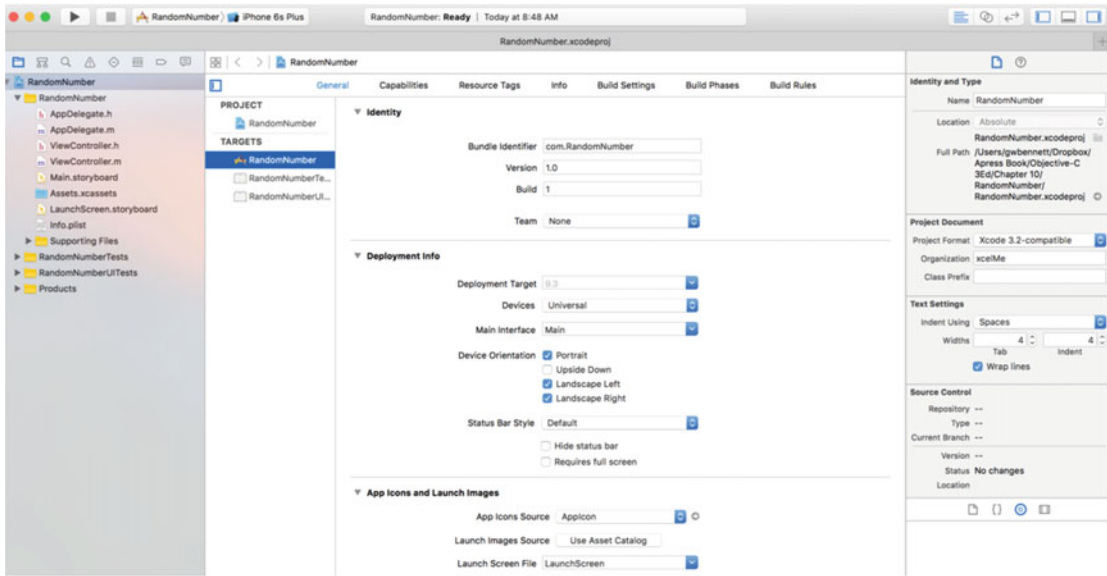


Figure 10-7. Source files

Although you have only one controller in this project, it's good programming practice to make your MVC groups at the beginning of your development. This helps remind developers to keep the MVC paradigm and not put all of their code unnecessarily in their controller.

4. Right-click the **RandomNumber** project and then select **New Group**. See Figure 10-8.

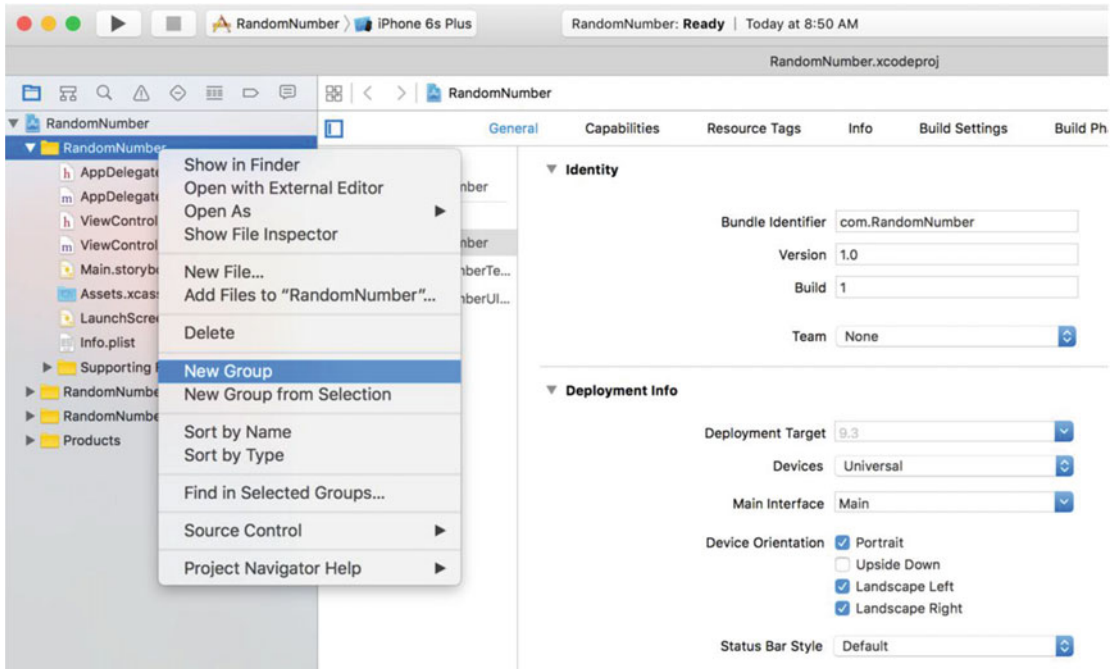


Figure 10-8. Creating new groups

5. Create a Models Group, Views Group, and Controllers Group.
6. Drag the ViewController.m and .h files into the Controllers Group. See Figure 10-9.

Developers have found it helpful to keep their storyboard and XIB files with their controllers as their projects grow. It is not uncommon to have dozens of controllers, storyboards, and XIB files in your project. Keeping them together helps keep everything organized.

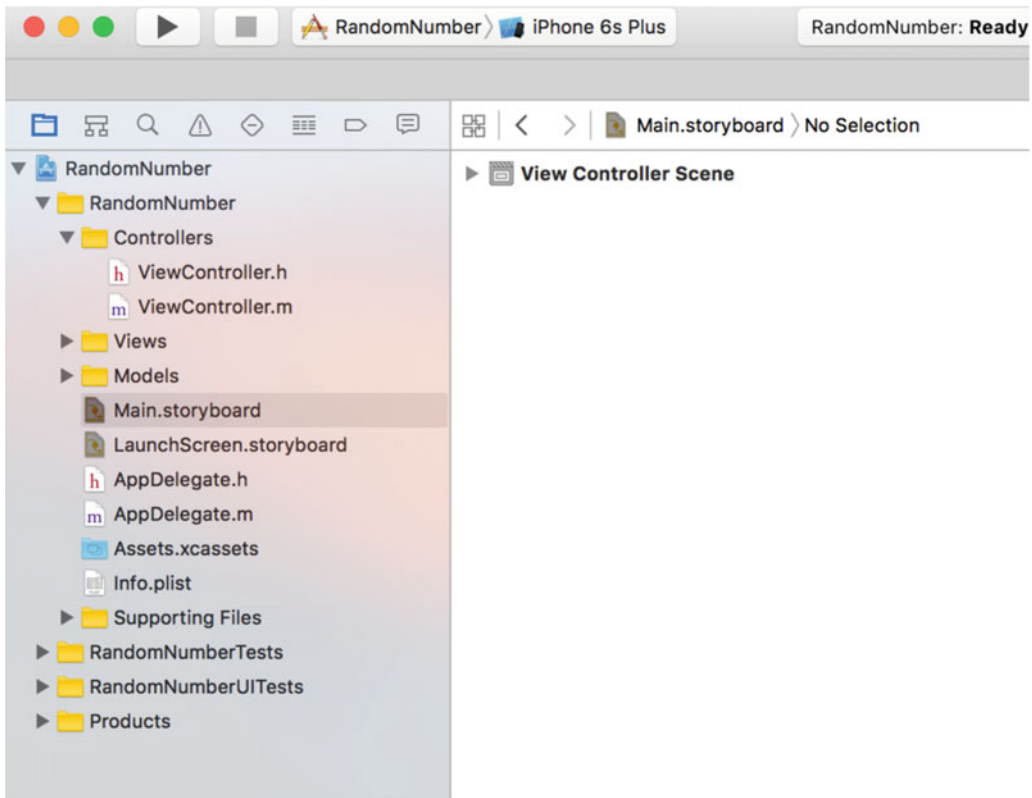


Figure 10-9. MVC groups with Controller and XIB files organized

7. Click the `Main.storyboard` file to open Interface Builder.

Using Interface Builder

The most common way to launch Interface Builder and begin working on your view is to click the storyboard or XIB file related to the view. See [Figure 10-10](#).

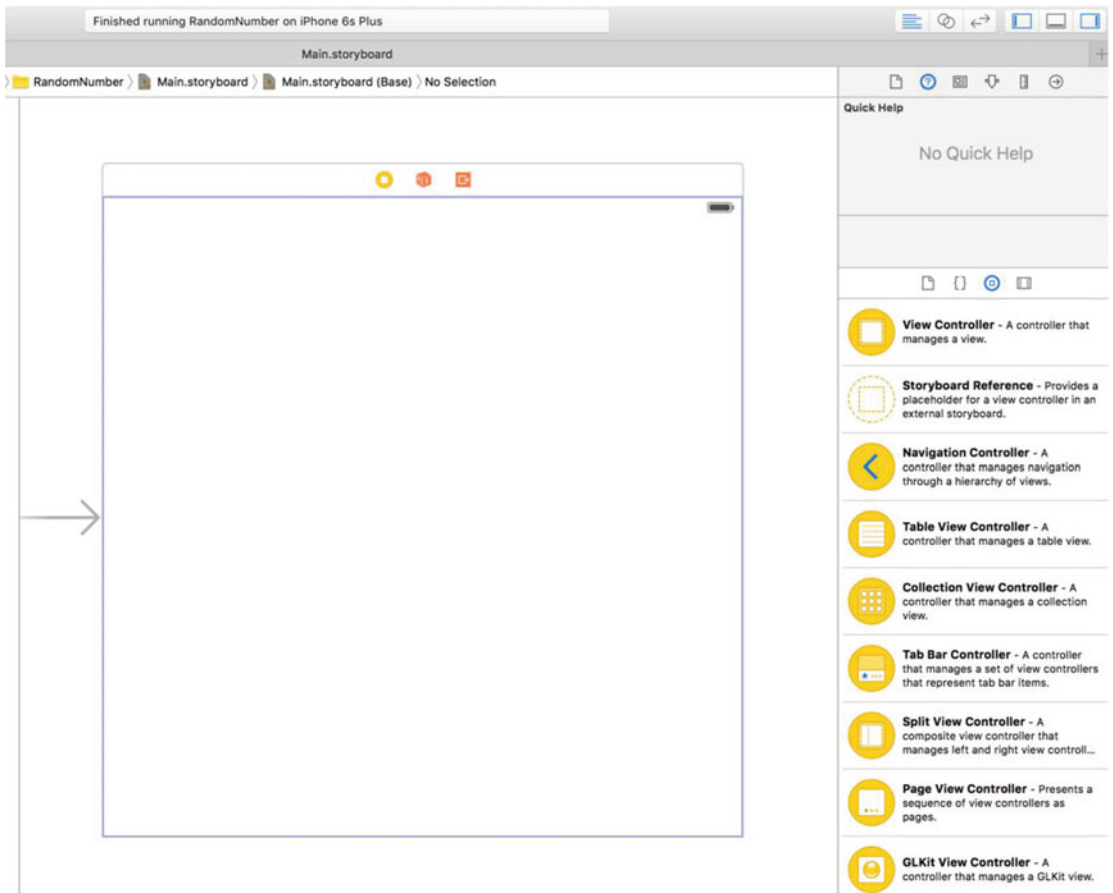


Figure 10-10. Interface Builder window

When Interface Builder opens, you can see your view displayed in the canvas. You are now able to design your user interface. First you need to understand some of the subwindows within Interface Builder.

The Document Outline

The Document window shows all the objects that your view contains. Here are some examples of these objects:

- Buttons
- Labels
- Text fields
- Web views
- Map views
- Picker views
- Table views

Note You can expand the width of the Document Outline to see a detailed list of all your objects. See Figure 10-11. To get more real estate for the canvas, you can shrink or remove your file list window.

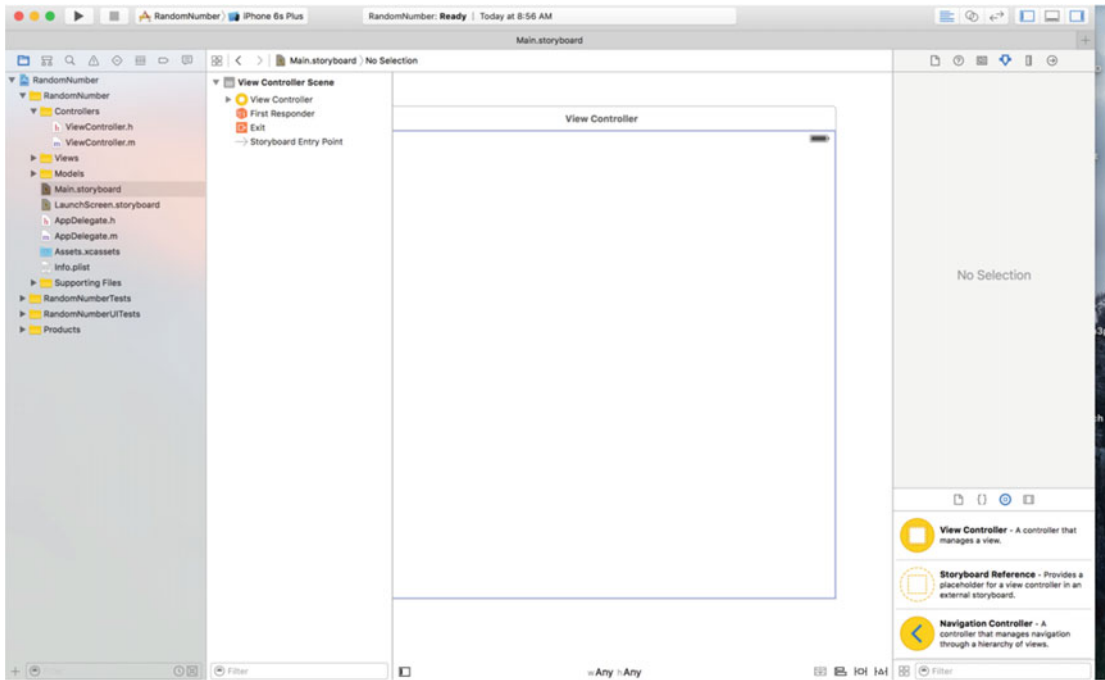


Figure 10-11. The Document window's width is expanded to show a detailed view of all the objects in your scene

The Object Library

The Object Library is where you can exploit your creativity. It's a smorgasbord of objects that you can drag and drop into the view window.

- The Object Library pane can grow and shrink by moving the window splitter. See Figure 10-12.

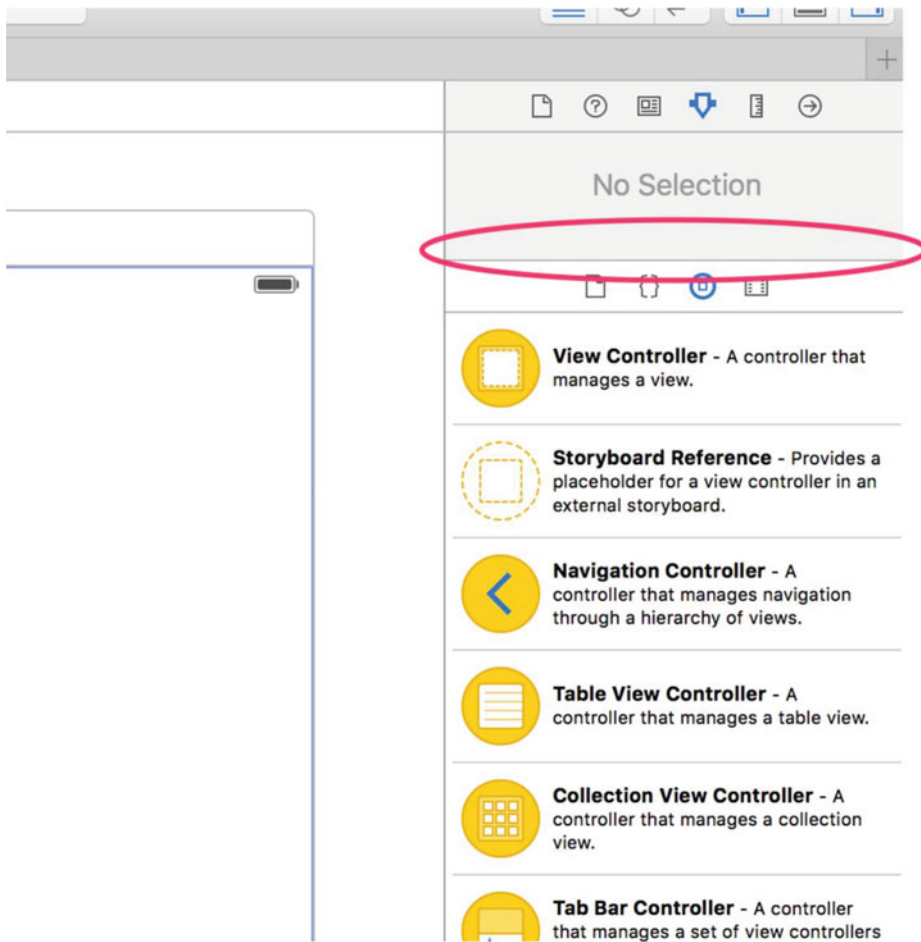


Figure 10-12. Expand the Object Library pane to see more controls. Slide the splitter with the mouse to resize the window

Creating the View

The random number generator will have two objects in the view: one Label object and one Button object. The button will generate the random number, and the label shows the random number generated by the app.

1. Drag a Label object from the Object Library pane to the View window.
2. Drag a Button object from the Object Library pane to the View window.
3. Double-click the button and change the name of it to **Generate Random Number**. See Figure 10-13.



Figure 10-13. *Placing objects in the view*

You now have the ability to quickly and easily connect your outlets and actions to your code. All you have to do is drag and drop.

4. Click the Assistant Editor icon at the top right of the screen. This will display the `.m` file for the scene you are working on. See Figure 10-14.

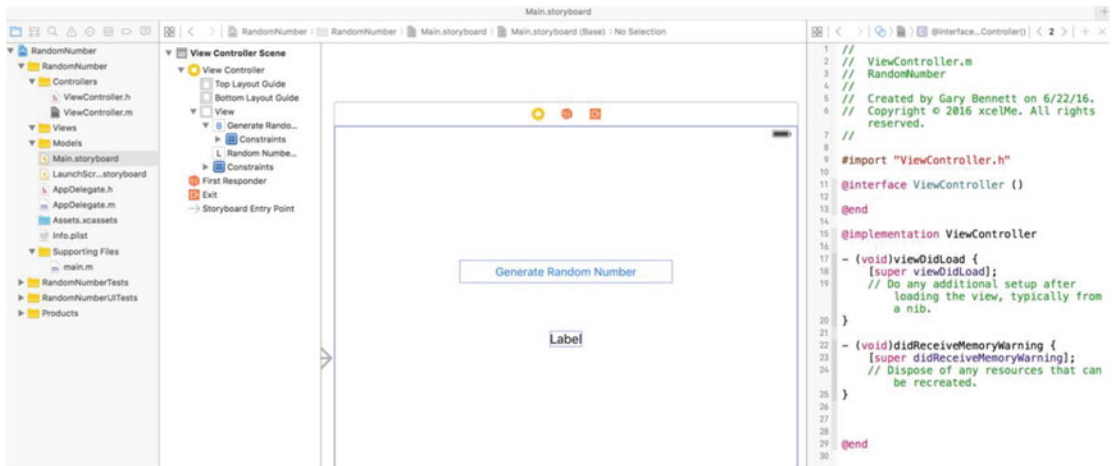


Figure 10-14. Using the Assistant Editor to display the .m file for the scene you are working with

Using Outlets

Now you can connect your label to your code by creating an outlet.

1. Control-drag from the label in the view to inside the `@interface`. See Figure 10-15.

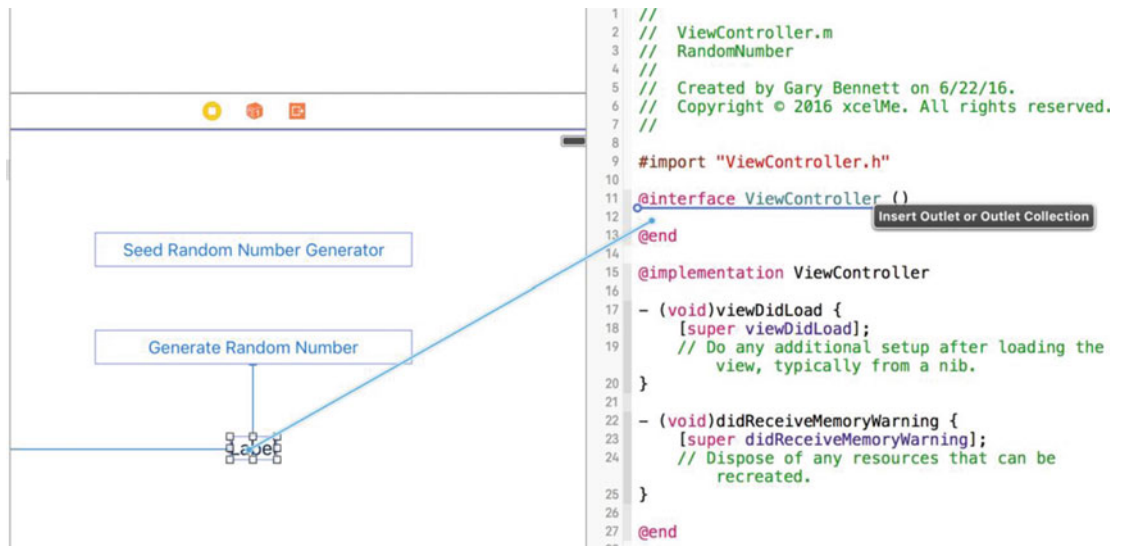


Figure 10-15. Control-drag and drop to create the code for `randomNumberLabel` outlet

A pop-up window will appear. This enables you to name and specify the type of outlet.

2. Complete the pop-up as in Figure 10-16 and click the **Connect** button.

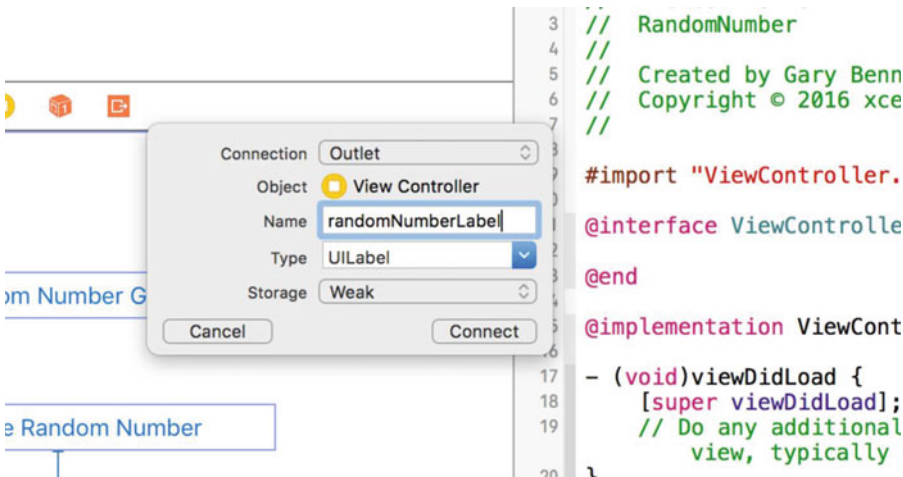


Figure 10-16. Pop-up for randomNumber outlet

This creates a private property, accessible from only the class.

The code is now created for the outlet, and the outlet is now connected to the Label object in the storyboard file. The shaded circle next to line number 12 indicates the outlet is connected to an object in the storyboard file. See Figure 10-17.

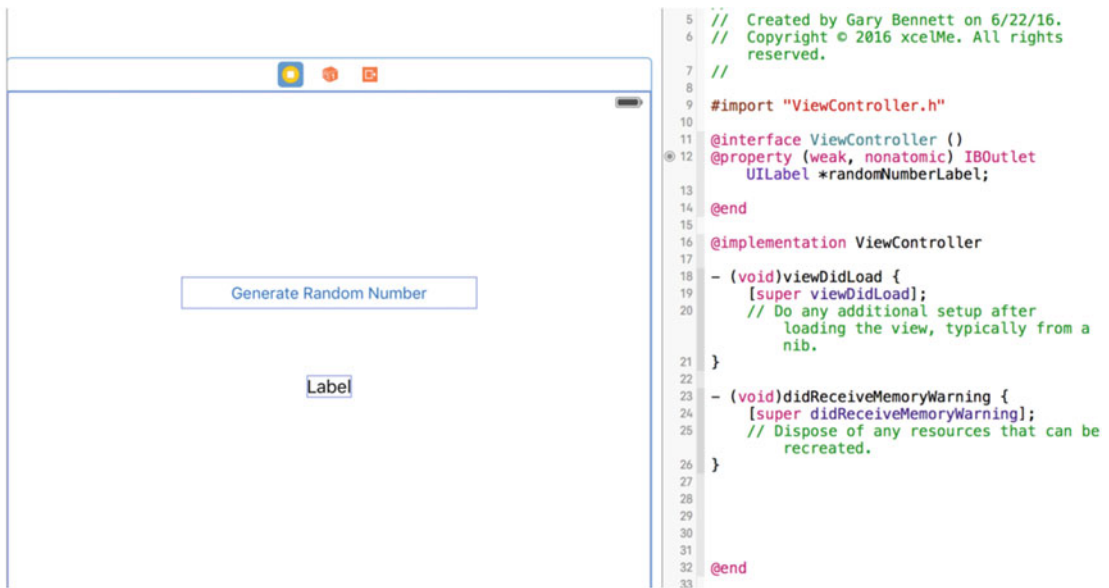


Figure 10-17. Outlet property code generated and connected to the Label object

There is also a declaration that may be new to you called an IBOutlet, commonly referred to as an outlet. **Outlets** signal your controller that this property is a pointer to another object that is set up in Interface Builder. IBOutlet will enable Interface Builder to see the outlet and enable you to connect the property to the object in Interface Builder.

Using the analogy of an electrical wall outlet, these outlets are connected to objects. Using Interface Builder, you can connect these properties to the appropriate object.

Connecting Actions and Objects

User interface object events, also known as **actions**, trigger methods.

Now you need to connect the object actions to the buttons.

1. Control-drag from the Generate Random Number button to above the @end and drop. Complete the pop-up as indicated in Figure 10-18 and click the **Connect** button.

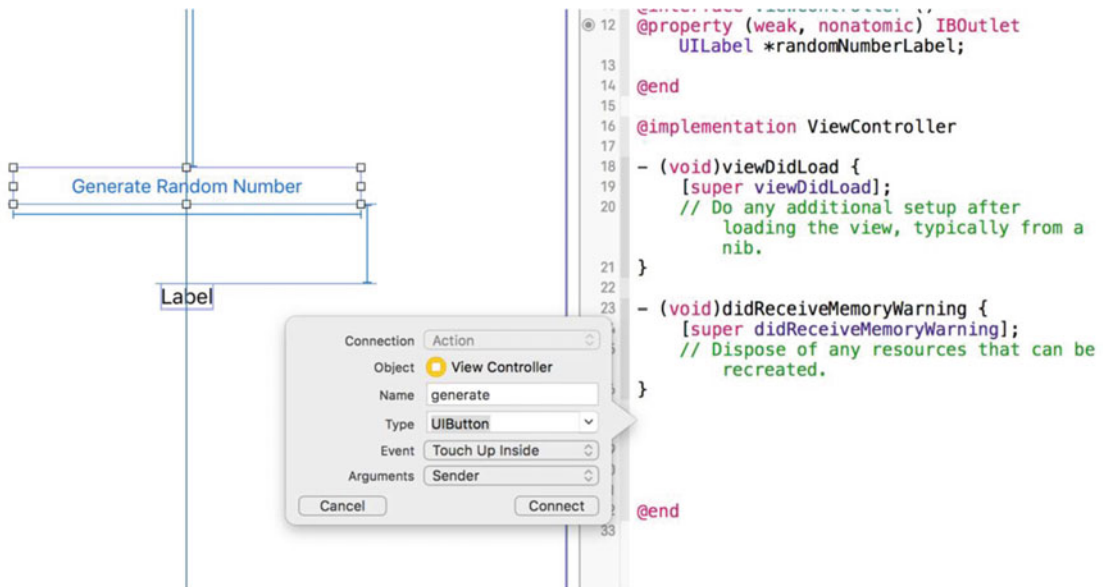


Figure 10-18. Complete the pop-up for the generate: method

Implementation File

All that is left is to complete the code for your outlet and actions in the implementation file for the controller.

Open the ViewController.m file and complete the generate: method. See Figure 10-19.

```

28 - (IBAction)generate:(UIButton *)sender {
29     int randomNumber;
30     randomNumber = (arc4random() % 101) + 1;
31     [_randomNumberLabel setText:[NSString stringWithFormat:@"%i",randomNumber]];
32 }
33
34

```

Figure 10-19. The generate: method is complete

The generate method generates a random number between 1 and 101 inclusive.

Line 30 generates a randomNumber from 1 to 101 inclusive.

The method setText: sets the UILabel text in your view. The connections you established in Interface Builder from your outlet to the Label object do all the work for you.

That's it!

To run your iPhone app, click the **Play** button, and your app should launch in the simulator. See Figure 10-20.

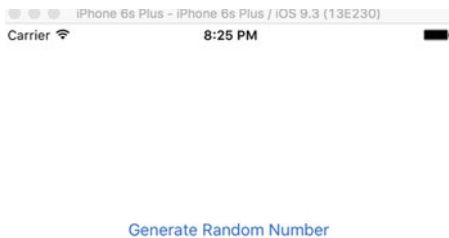


Figure 10-20. The completed random number generator app running in the iPhone simulator

To generate the random number, tap **Generate Random Number**.

Summary

Great job! Interface Builder saves you a lot of time when creating user interfaces. You have a powerful set of objects to use in your application and are responsible for a minimal amount of coding. Interface Builder handles many of the details you would normally have to deal with.

You should be familiar with the following terms:

- Storyboard files
- Model-View-Controller
- Architectural pattern
- Human Interface Guidelines
- Outlets
- Actions

Exercises

- Extend the random number generator app to show a date and time in a Label object when the app starts.
- After showing a date and time label, add a button to update the data and time label with the new time.

CHAPTER 11



Storing Information

As a developer, there will be many different situations in which you will need to store data. Users will expect your application (*app*) to remember preferences and other information each time they launch it. Previous chapters discussed the BookStore app. With this app, users will expect your application to remember all of the books in the bookstore. Your application will need a way to store this information, retrieve it, and possibly search and sort this data. Working with data can sometimes be difficult. Fortunately, Apple has provided methods and frameworks to make this process easier.

This chapter will discuss two different formats in which data will need to be stored. It will discuss how to save a preference file for an iOS device and then discuss how to use a SQLite database in your application to store and retrieve data.

Storage Considerations

There are some major storage differences between the Mac and the iPhone, and these differences will affect how you work with data. Let's start by discussing the Mac and how you will need to develop for it.

On the Mac, by default, applications are stored in the Applications folder. Each user has their own home folder where preferences and information related to that user are stored. Not all of the users will have access to write to the Applications folder or to the application bundle itself.

On the iPhone and iPad, developers do not need to deal with different users. Every person who uses the iPhone has the same permissions and the same folders. There are some other factors to consider with the iPhone, though. Every application on an iOS device is in its own *sandbox*. This means that files written by an application can be seen and used only by that individual application. This makes for a more secure environment for the iPhone, but it also presents some changes in the way you work with data storage.

Preferences

There are some things to consider when deciding where to store certain kinds of information. The easiest way to store information is within the preferences file, but this method has some downsides.

- All of the data is both read and written at the same time. If you are going to be writing often or writing and reading large amounts of data, this could take time and slow down your application. As a general rule, your preferences file should never be larger than 100KB. If your preferences file starts to become larger than 100KB, consider using Core Data as a way to store your information.
- The preferences file does not provide many options when it comes to searching and ordering information.

The preferences file is really nothing more than a standardized XML file with accompanying classes and methods to store application-specific information. A preference would be, for example, the sorting column and direction (ascending/descending) of a list. Anything that is generally customizable within an app should be stored in a preferences file.

■ **Note** Sensitive data should not be stored in the preference file or in a database without additional encryption. Luckily, Apple does provide a way to store sensitive information. It is called the **keychain**. Securing data in the keychain is beyond the scope of this book.

Writing Preferences

Apple has provided developers with the `NSUserDefaults` class; this class makes it easy to read and write preferences for iOS and Mac OS X. The great thing is that, in this case, you can use the same code for iOS and Mac OS X. The only difference between the two implementations is the location of the preferences file.

■ **Note** For Mac OS X, the preferences file is named `com.yourcompany.applicationname.plist` and is located in the `/Users/username/Library/Preferences` folder. On iOS, the preferences file is located in your application bundle in the `/Library/Preferences` folder.

All you need to do to write preferences is to create an `NSUserDefaults` object. This is done with the following line:

```
NSUserDefaults *prefs = [NSUserDefaults standardUserDefaults];
```

This instantiates the `prefs` object so you can use it to set preference values. Once you have instantiated the `prefs` object, you need to set the preference keys for the values that you want to save. The `BookStore` app example will be used to demonstrate specific instructions throughout this chapter. When running a bookstore, you might want to save a username in the preferences. You also might want to save things such as a default book category or recent searches. The preferences file is a great place to store this type of information because this is the kind of information that needs to be read only when the application is launched.

Also, on iOS, it is often necessary to save your current state. If a person is using your application and then gets a phone call, you want to be able to bring them back to the exact place they were in your application when they are done with their phone call. This is less necessary now with the implementation of multitasking, but your users will still appreciate it if your application remembers what they were doing the next time they launch it.

Once you have instantiated the object, you can just call `setObject:forKey:` to set an object. If you wanted to save the username of `sherlock.holmes`, you would call the following line of code:

```
[prefs setObject:@"sherlock.holmes" forKey:@"username"];
```

You can use `setInteger`, `setDouble`, `setBool`, `setFloat`, and `setURL` instead of `setObject`, depending on the type of information you are storing in the preferences file. Let's say you store the number of books a user wants to see in the list. Here is an example of using `setInteger` to store this preference:

```
[prefs setInteger:10 forKey:@"booksInList"];
```

After a certain period of time, your app will automatically write changes to the preferences file. You can force your app to save the preferences by calling the `synchronize` method, but this is not necessary in most cases. To call the `synchronize` method, you would write the following line:

```
[prefs synchronize];
```

With just three lines of code, you are able to create a preference object, set two preference values, and write the preferences file. It is an easy and clean process. Here is all of the code:

```
NSUserDefaults *prefs = [NSUserDefaults standardUserDefaults];
[prefs setObject:@"sherlock.holmes" forKey:@"username"];
[prefs setInteger:10 forKey:@"booksInList"];
```

Reading Preferences

Reading preferences is similar to writing preferences. Just like with writing, the first step is to obtain the `NSUserDefaults` object. This is done in the same way as it was done in the writing process:

```
NSUserDefaults *prefs = [NSUserDefaults standardUserDefaults];
```

Now that you have the object, you are able to access the preference values that are set. For writing, you use the `setObject` syntax; for reading, you use the `stringForKey` method. You use the `stringForKey` method because the value you put in the preference was an `NSString`. In the writing example, you set preferences for the username and for the number of books in the list to display. You can read those preferences by using the following simple lines of code:

```
NSString *username = [prefs objectForKey:@"username"];
NSInteger booksInList = [prefs integerForKey:@"booksInList"];
```

Pay close attention to what is happening in each of these lines. You start by declaring the variable `username`, which is an `NSString`. This variable will be used to store the preference value of the username you stored in the preferences. Then, you just assign it to the value of the preference `username`. You will notice that in the read example you do not use the `synchronize` function. This is because you have not changed the values of the preferences; therefore, you do not need to make sure they are written to a disk.

Databases

You have learned how to store some small pieces of information and retrieve them at a later point. What if you have more information that needs to be stored? What if you need to conduct a search within this information or put it in some sort of order? These kinds of situations call for a database.

A database is a tool for storing a significant amount of information in a way that it can be easily searched or retrieved. When using a database, usually small chunks of the data are retrieved at a time rather than the entire file. Many applications you use in your daily life are based on databases of some sort. Your online banking application retrieves your account activity from a database. Your supermarket uses a database to retrieve prices for different items. A simple example of a database is a spreadsheet. You may have many columns and many rows in your spreadsheet. The columns in your spreadsheet represent different types of information you want to store. In a database, these are considered *attributes*. The rows in your spreadsheet would be considered different *records* in your database.

Storing Information in a Database

Databases are usually an intimidating subject for a developer; most developers associate databases with enterprise database servers such as Microsoft SQL Server or Oracle. These applications can take time to set up and require constant management. For most developers, a database system like Oracle would be too much to handle. Luckily, Apple has included a small database engine called SQLite in iOS and OS X. This allows you to gain many of the features of complex database servers without the overhead.

SQLite will provide you with a lot of flexibility in storing information for your application. It stores the entire database in a single file. It is fast, reliable, and easy to implement in your application. The best thing about the SQLite database is that there is no need to install any software; Apple has taken care of that for you.

However, SQLite does have some limitations that, as a developer, you should be aware of.

- SQLite was designed to be used as a single-user database. You will not want to use SQLite in an environment where more than one person will be accessing the same database. This could lead to data loss or corruption.
- In the business world, databases can grow to become very large. It is not surprising for a database manager to handle databases as large as half a terabyte, and in some cases databases can become much larger than that. SQLite should be able to handle smaller databases without any issues, but you will begin to see performance issues if your database starts to get too large.
- SQLite lacks some of the backup and data restore features of the enterprise database solutions.

For the purposes of this chapter, you will focus on using SQLite as your database engine. If any of the mentioned limitations are present in the application you are developing, you may need to look into an enterprise database solution, which is beyond the scope of this book.

■ **Note** SQLite (pronounced “sequel-lite”) gets its name from Structured Query Language (SQL, pronounced “sequel”). SQL is the language used to enter, search, and retrieve data from a database.

Apple has worked hard to iron out a lot of the challenges of database development. As a developer, you will not need to become familiar with SQL because Apple has taken care of the direct database interaction for you through a framework called Core Data that makes interacting with the database much easier. Core Data has been adapted by Apple from a NeXT product called Enterprise Object Framework, and working with Core Data is a lot easier than interfacing directly with the SQLite database. Directly accessing a database via SQL is beyond the scope of this book.

Getting Started with Core Data

Let’s start by creating a new Core Data project.

1. Open Xcode and select **File ► New ► Project**. To create an iOS Core Data project, select **Application** from the menu on the left. It is located underneath the iOS header. Then select **Single View Application**, as shown in Figure 11-1.

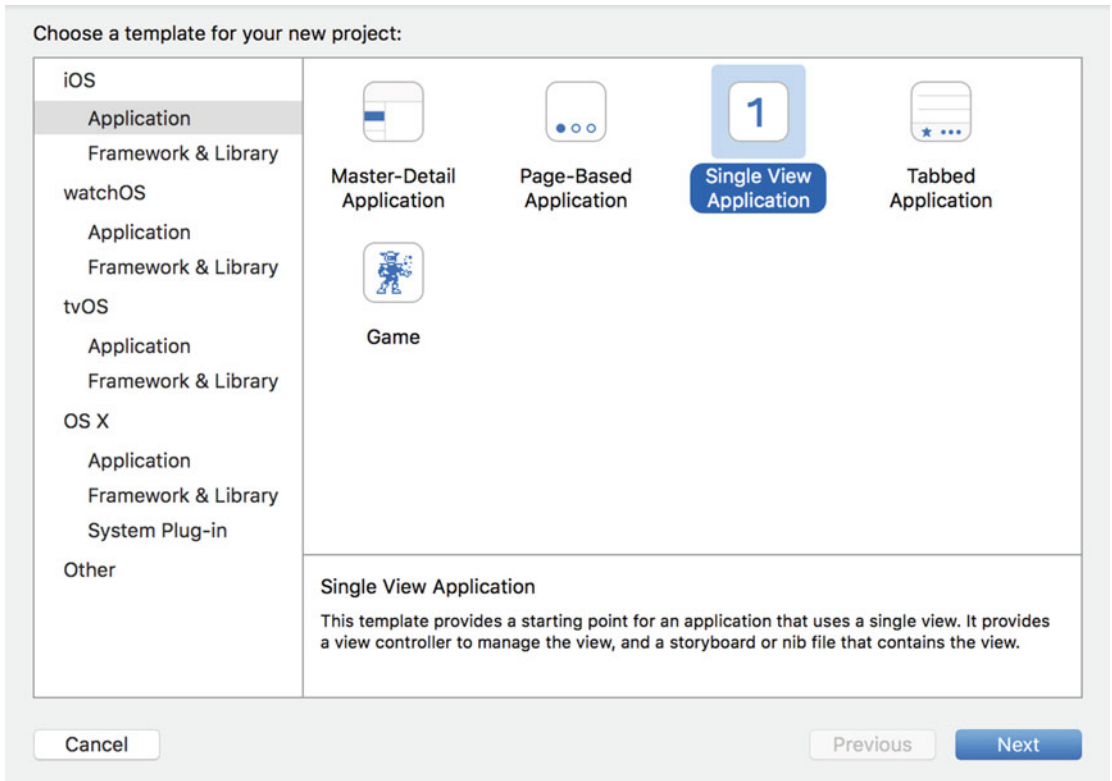


Figure 11-1. Creating a new project

2. Click the **Next** button when done. The next screen will allow you to enter the name you want to use. For the purposes of this chapter, you will use the name **BookStore**.
3. Make sure Language is set to Objective-C. Near the bottom, you will see the check box Use Core Data. Make sure this is checked and then click **Next**, as shown in Figure 11-2.

■ **Note** Core Data can be added to any project at any point. Checking that box when creating a project will add the Core Data frameworks and a default data model to your application.

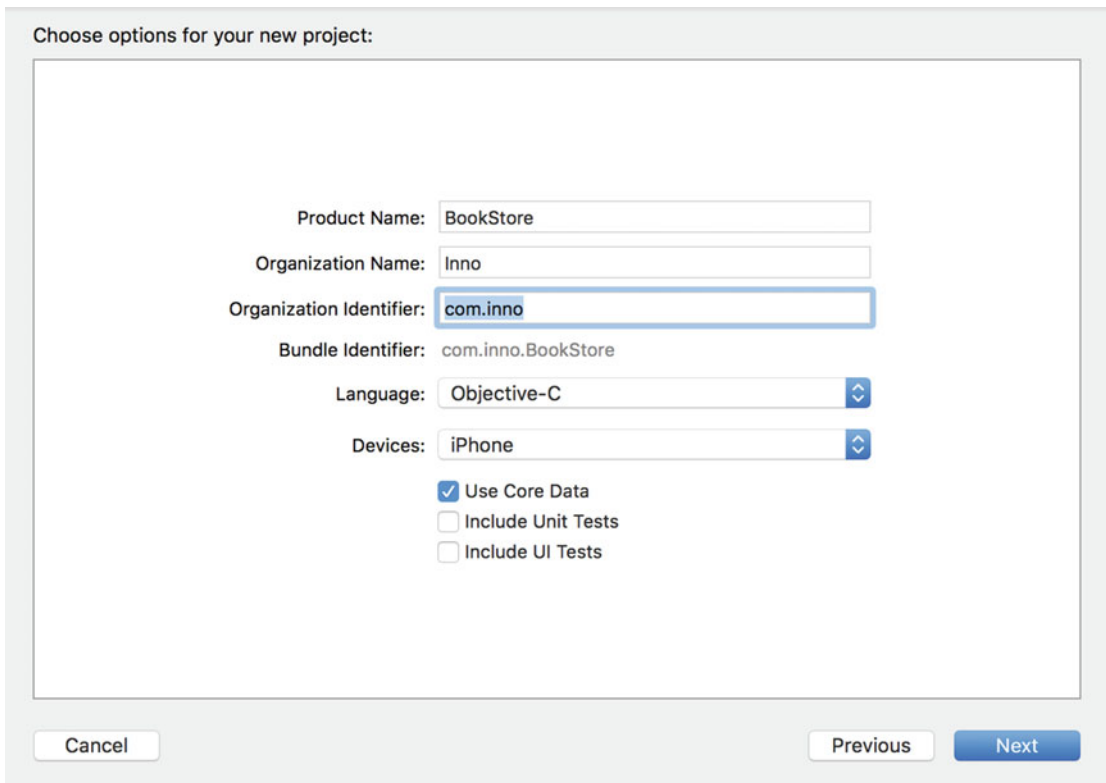


Figure 11-2. Using Core Data

4. Select a location to save the project and click **Create**.

Once you are done with that, your new project will open. It will look similar to a standard application, except now you will have a `BookStore.xcdatamodeld` file. This file is called a **data model** and will contain the information about the data that you will be storing in Core Data.

The Model

In your `BookStore` folder on the left, you will see a file called `BookStoreCoreData.xcdatamodeld`. This file will contain information about the data you want stored in the database. Click the model file to open it. You will see a window similar to the one shown in Figure 11-3.

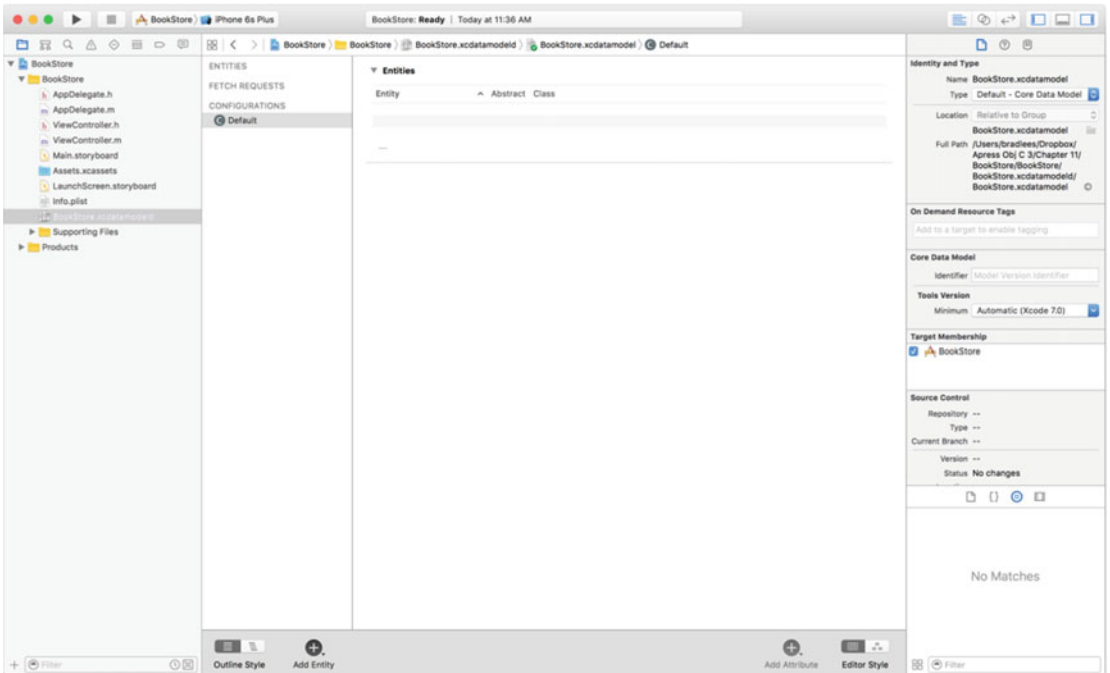


Figure 11-3. *The blank model*

The window is divided into four sections. On the left you have your entities. In more common terms, these are the objects or items that you want to store in the database.

The top-right window contains the attributes. Attributes are pieces of information about the entities. For example, a book would be an entity, and the title of the book would be an attribute of that entity.

■ **Note** In database terms, entities are your **tables**, and the attributes of the entities are called **columns**. The objects created from those entities are referred to as **rows**.

The middle window on the right will show you all the relationships of an entity. A relationship connects one entity to another. For example, you will create a Book entity and an Author entity. You will then relate them so that every book can have an author. The bottom-right portion of the screen deals with fetched properties. Fetched properties are beyond the scope of this book, but they allow you to create filters for your data.

Let's create an entity.

1. Click the plus sign in the bottom-left corner of the window, or select **Editor** ► **Add Entity** from the menu, as shown in Figure 11-4.

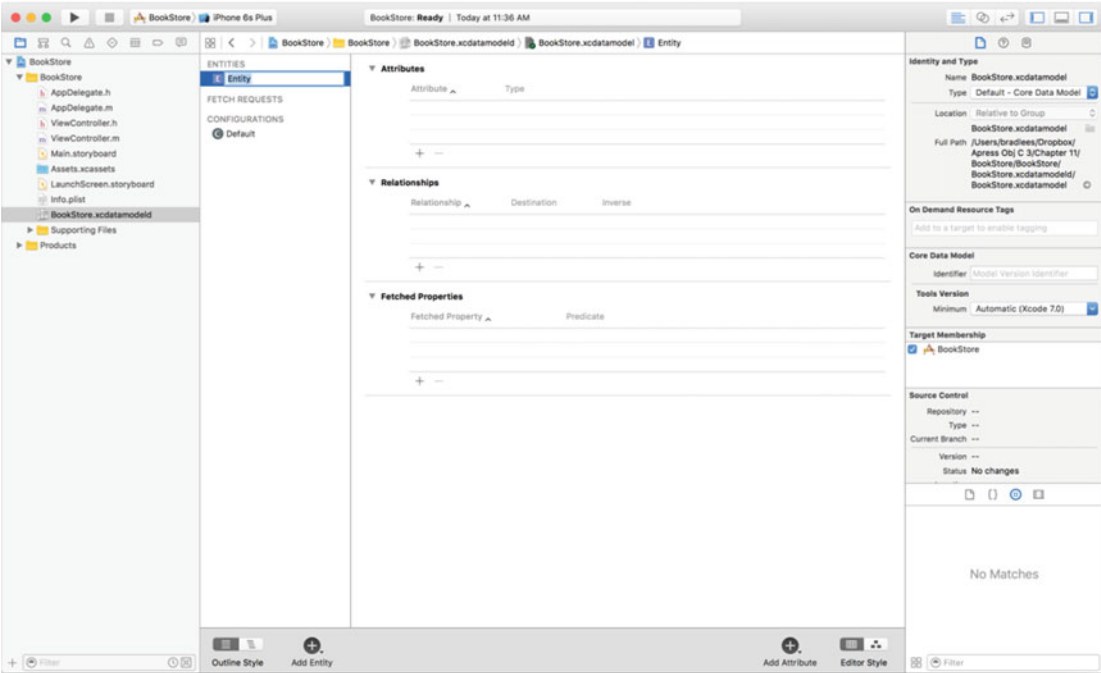


Figure 11-4. Adding a new entity

2. On the left side, name the entity Book.

■ **Note** It is required to capitalize your entities' names.

3. Now let's add some attributes. Attributes would be considered the details of a book, so you will store the title, author, price, and year the book was published. Obviously, in your own applications, you may want to store more information, such as the publisher, page count, and genre, but you want to start simple here. Click the plus sign at the bottom right of the window, or select **Editor** ► **Add Attribute**, and a new attribute will be created, as shown in Figure 11-5. If you do not see the option to add an attribute, make sure you have selected the Book entity on the left side.

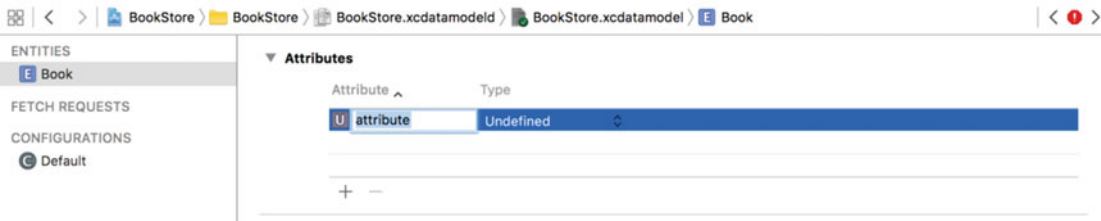


Figure 11-5. Adding a new attribute

4. You will be given only two options for your attribute, the name and the data type. Let's call this attribute `title`. Unlike entities, attribute names must start with a lowercase letter.
5. Now, you will need to select a data type. Selecting the correct data type is important. It will affect how your data is stored and retrieved from the database. The list has 12 items in it and can be daunting. We will discuss the most common options and, as you become more familiar with Core Data, you can experiment with the other options. The most common options are String, Integer 32, Decimal, and Date. For the title of the book, select **String**.

String: This is the type of attribute used to store text. This generally should be used to store any kind of information that is not a number or a date. In this example, the book title and author will be strings.

Integer 32: There are three different integer values possible for an attribute. Each of the integer types differs only in the minimum and maximum values possible. Integer 32 should cover most of your needs when storing an integer. An integer is a number without a decimal. If you try to save a decimal in an integer attribute, the decimal portion will be truncated. In this example, the year published will be an integer.

Decimal: A decimal is a type of attribute that can store numbers with decimals. A decimal is similar to a double attribute, but they differ in their minimum and maximum values and precision. A decimal should be able to handle any currency values. In this example, you will use a decimal to store the price of the book.

Date: A date attribute is exactly what it sounds like. It allows you to store a date and time and then performs searches and lookups based on these values. You will not use this type in this example.

6. Let's create the rest of the attributes for the book. Now, add `price`. It should be a Decimal. Add the year the book was published. For two-word attributes, it is standard to make the first word lowercase and the second word start with a capital letter. For example, an ideal name for the attribute for the year the book was published would be `yearPublished`. Select Integer 32 as the attribute type. Once you have added all of your attributes, your screen should look like Figure 11-6.

■ **Note** Attribute names cannot contain spaces.

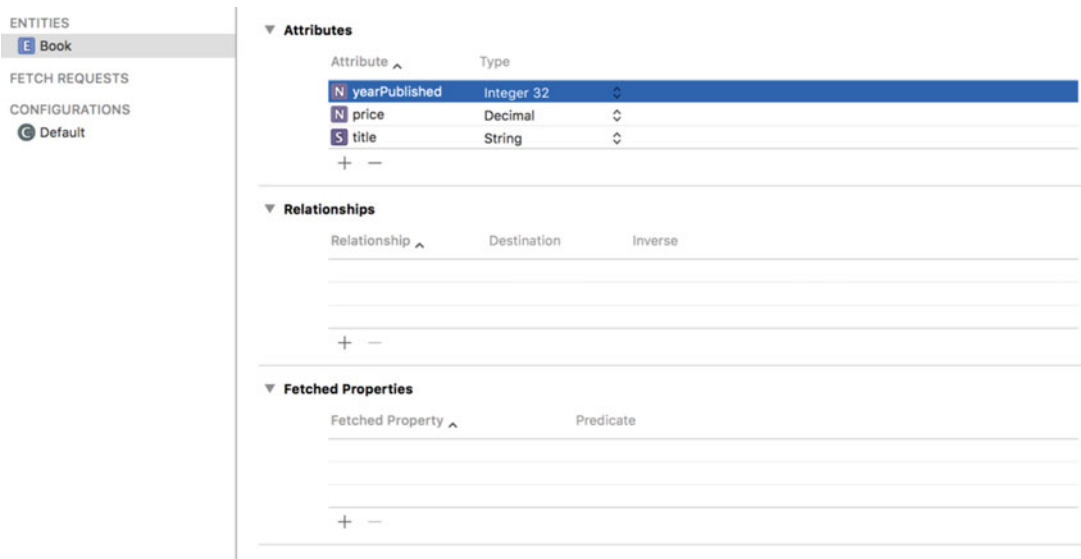


Figure 11-6. The finished Book entity

■ **Note** If you are used to working with databases, you will notice that you did not add a primary key. A primary key is a field (usually a number) that is used to uniquely identify each record in a database. In Core Data databases, there is no need to create primary keys. The framework will manage all of that for you.

Now that you have finished the Book entity, let’s add an Author entity.

1. Add a new entity and call it Author.
2. To this entity, add lastName and firstName as attributes, both of which are strings.

Once this is done, you should have two entities in your relationship window. Now you need to add the relationships.

1. Click the Book entity, and then click and hold on the plus sign that is located on the bottom right of the screen. Select Add Relationship, and a new relationship will be created as shown in Figure 11-7. (You can also click the plus under the Relationships section of the Core Data model.)

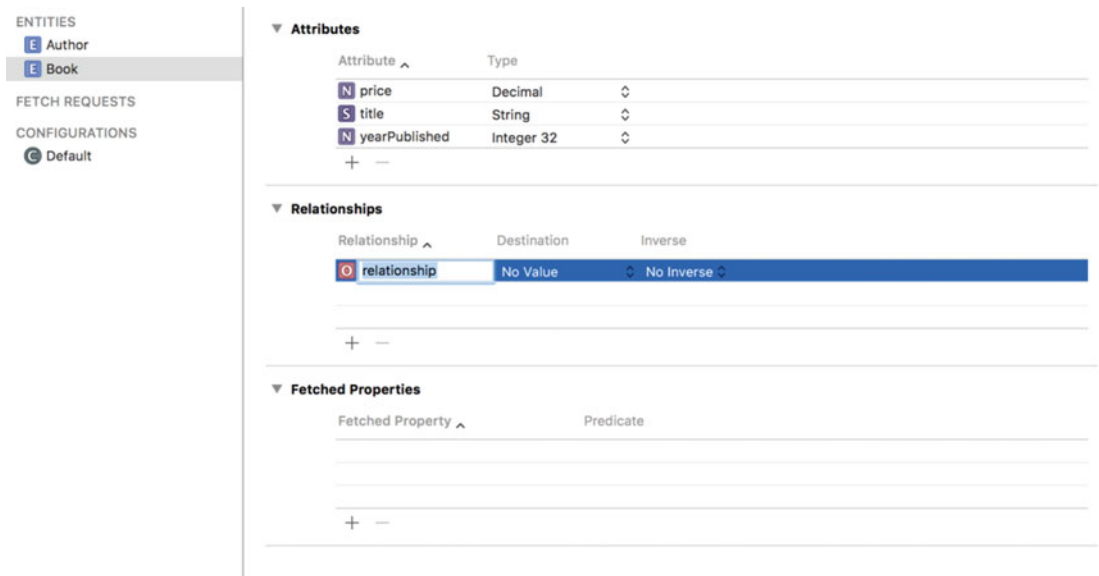


Figure 11-7. Adding a new relationship

2. You will be given the opportunity to name your relationship. You usually give a relationship the same name as the entity to which it derived from. Type in **author** as the name and select Author from the Destination drop-down menu.
3. You have created one half of your relationship. To create the other half, click the Author entity. Click the plus sign located at the bottom right of the screen and select Add Relationship. You will use the entity name that you are connecting to as the name of this relationship, so you will call it books. (You are adding an s to the relationship name because an author can have many books.) Under Destination, select **Book**, and under Inverse, select the relationship you made in the previous step. In the Utilities window on the right side of the screen, select **Data Model Inspector**. Select **To Many** for the type of the relationship. Your model should now look like Figure 11-8.

■ **Note** Sometimes in Xcode, when working with models, it is necessary to hit the Tab key for the names of entities, attributes, and relationships to update. This little quirk can be traced all the way back to WebObjects tools.

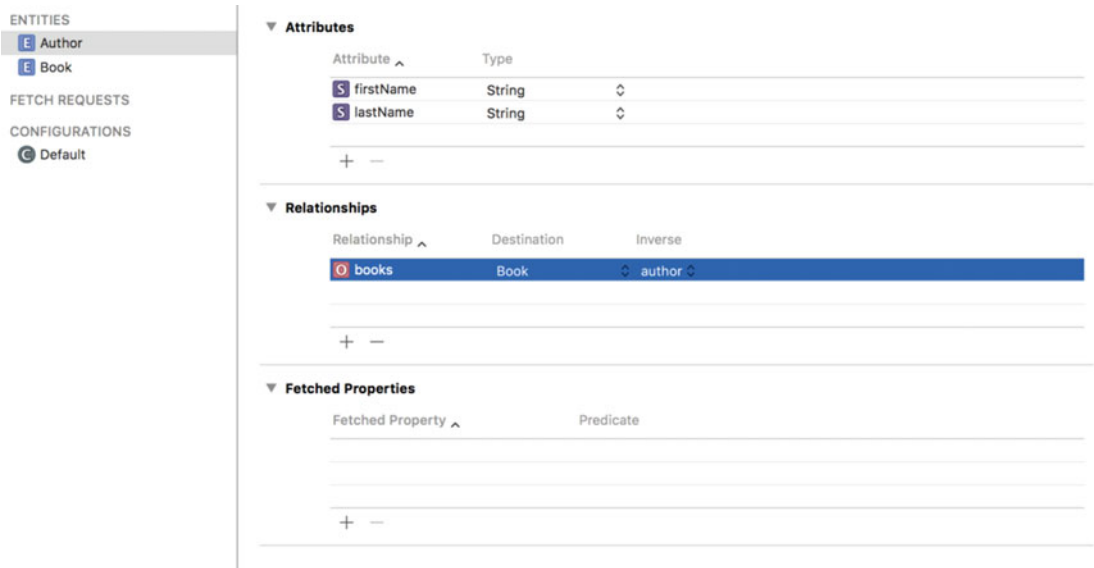


Figure 11-8. The final relationship

Now you need to tell your code about your new entity. To do this, hold down Shift and select the Book entity and the Author entity and then select **Editor > Create NSObject Subclass** from the Application menu. Your screen should look like Figure 11-9.

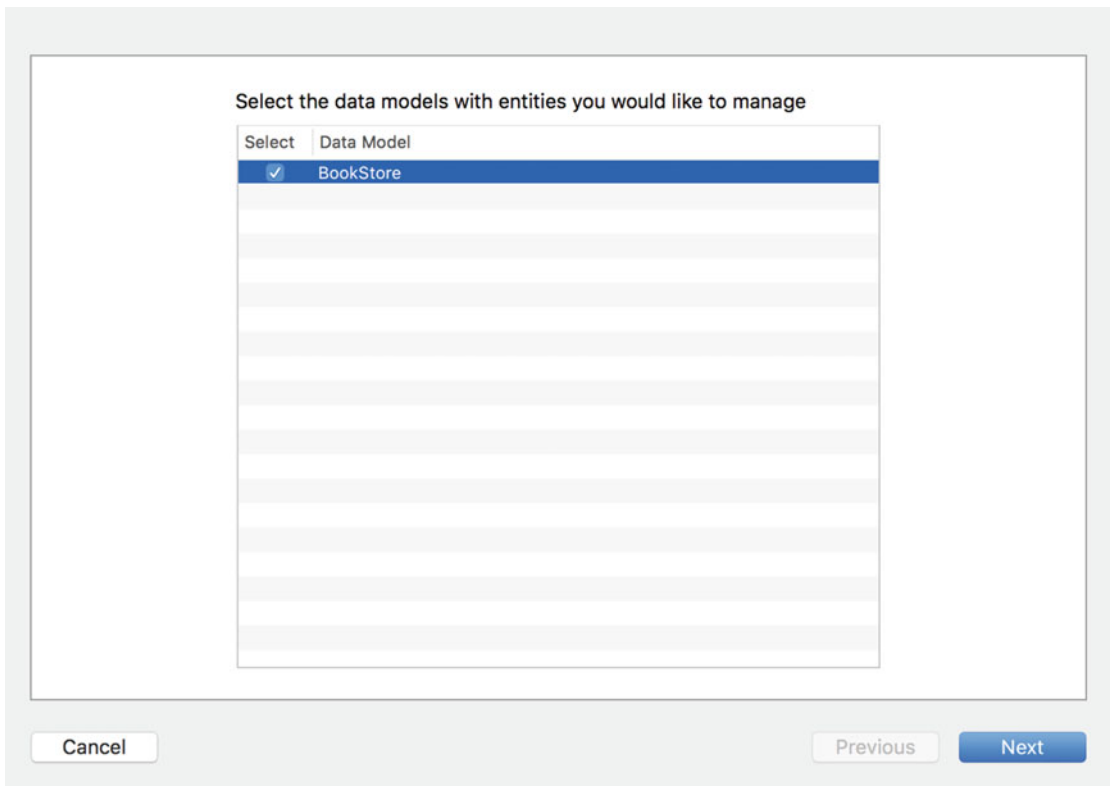


Figure 11-9. Adding the managed objects to your project

This screen allows you to select the data model you would like to create managed objects for. In this case, you have only a single data model. In some complicated applications, you may have more than one. Managed objects represent instances of an entity from your data model. Select the BookStore data model and hit **Next**.

You will now be presented with a screen to select the entities to create managed objects, as shown in Figure 11-10. Select both and click **Next**.

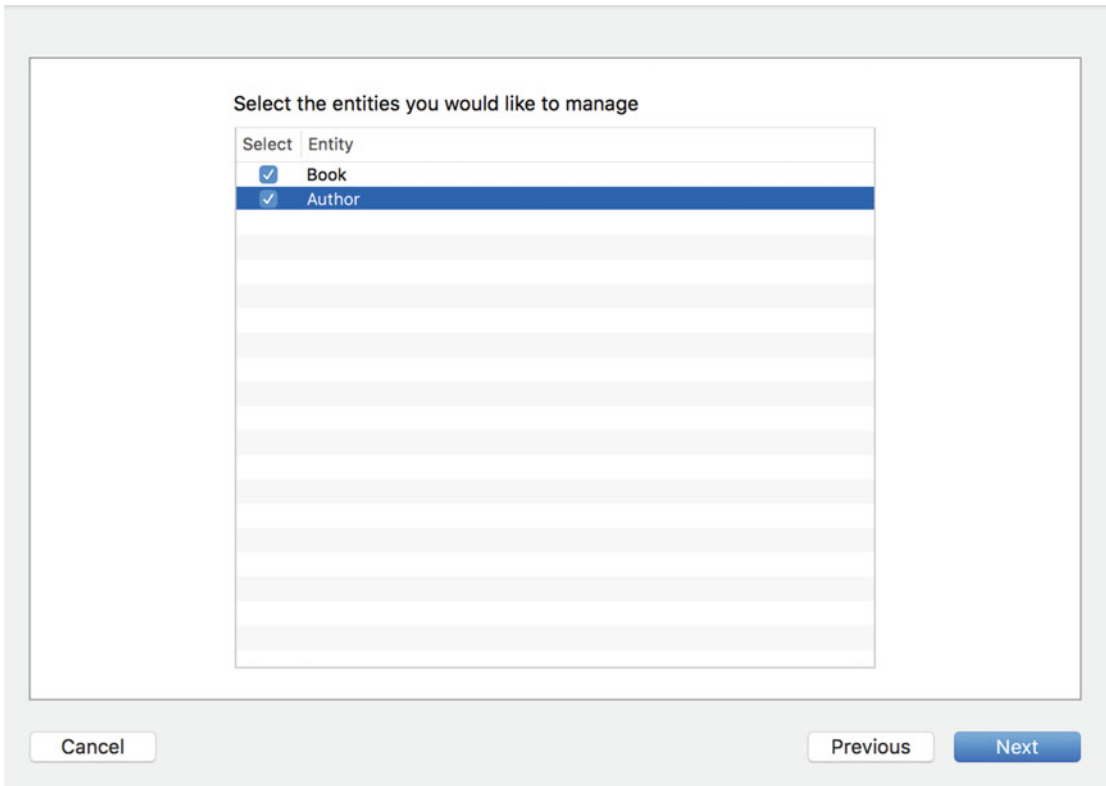


Figure 11-10. Select the entities to create managed objects

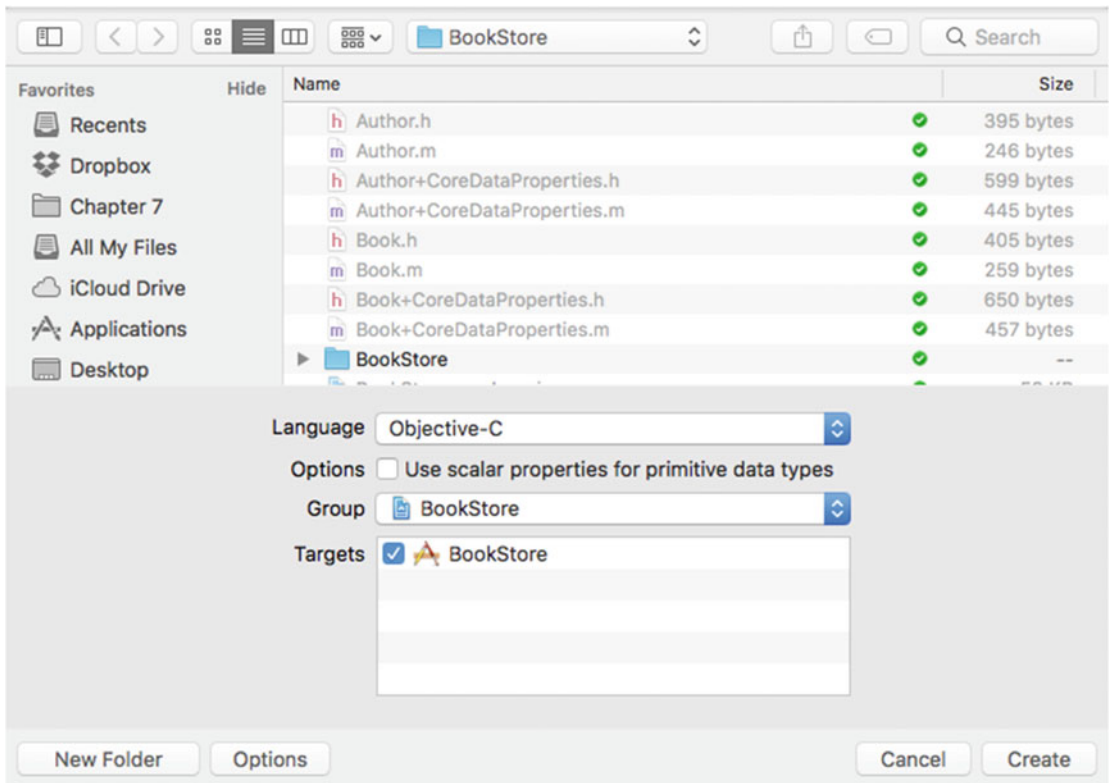


Figure 11-11. Select the save location for your new managed objects

Select the storage location and add it to your project. You will need to select the **Options** button on the bottom to show you more information. Make sure your language is set to Objective-C. By default, it is Swift. You should not need to change any other defaults on this page. Then click **Create**. You will notice that eight files have been added to your project. `Book+CoreDataProperties.h` and `Author+CoreDataProperties.h` and `.m` files contain the information about your books and authors entities you just created. `Book.h` and `Author.h` will be used for logic relating to your new entities. These files will need to be used to access the entities and the attributes you added to your data model. These files are fairly simple because Core Data will do most of the work with them. You should also notice that if you go back to your model and click **Book**, it will have a new class in the Data Model Inspector. Instead of an `NSManagedObject`, it will have a `Book` class.

Let's look at some of the contents of `Book+CoreDataProperties.h`:

```
#import "Book.h"

NS_ASSUME_NONNULL_BEGIN

@interface Book (CoreDataProperties)

@property (nullable, nonatomic, retain) NSString *title;
@property (nullable, nonatomic, retain) NSDecimalNumber *price;
@property (nullable, nonatomic, retain) NSNumber *yearPublished;
@property (nullable, nonatomic, retain) Author *author;
@end

NS_ASSUME_NONNULL_END
```

You will see that the file starts by including `Book.h`, which includes the Core Data framework. This allows Core Data to manage your information. This file contains an extension to the `Book` class. An extension allows you to add new properties and functionality to an existing class. By creating the `Book` class and the `Book+CoreDataProperties` extension files, Xcode allows the developer to separate the attributes from the basic logic. The superclass for the new `Book` object is `NSManagedObject`. `NSManagedObject` is an object that handles all of the Core Data database interaction. It provides the methods and properties you will be using in this example. Later in the file, you will see the three attributes and the one relationship you created.

Managed Object Context

You have created a managed object class called `Book`. The nice thing with Xcode is that it will generate the necessary code to manage these new data objects. In Core Data, every managed object should exist within a managed object context. The context is responsible for tracking changes to objects, carrying out undo operations, and writing the data to the database. This is helpful because you can now save a bunch of changes at once rather than saving each individual change. This speeds up the process of saving the records. As a developer, you do not need to track when an object has been changed. The managed object context will handle all of that for you.

Setting Up the Interface

The following steps will assist you in setting up your user interface:

1. In the `BookStore` folder in your project, you should have a `Main.storyboard` file. Click this file and Xcode will open it in the editing window, as shown in [Figure 11-12](#).

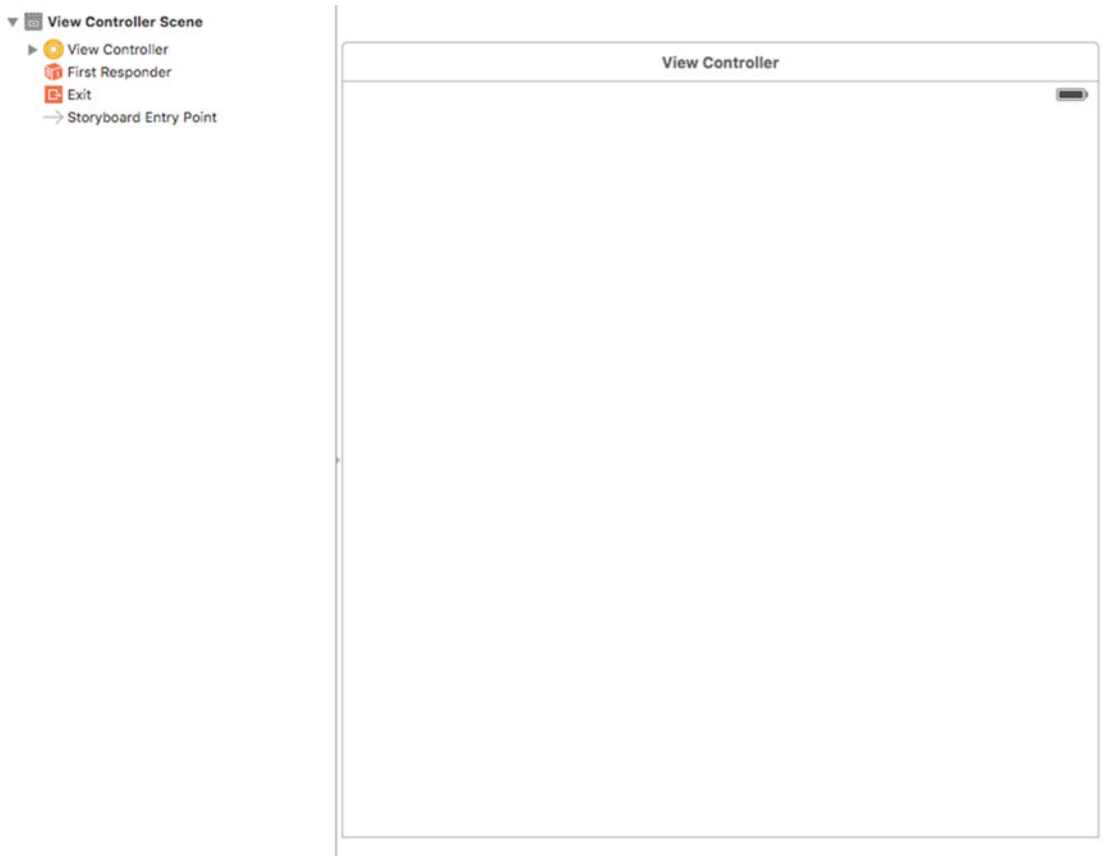


Figure 11-12. *Creating the interface*

2. There should be a blank window. To add some functionality to your window, you are going to need to add some objects from the Object Library. Type **table** into the search field on the bottom right of the screen. This should narrow the objects, and you should see Table View Controller and Table View. Drag the Table View to the view, as shown in Figure 11-13.

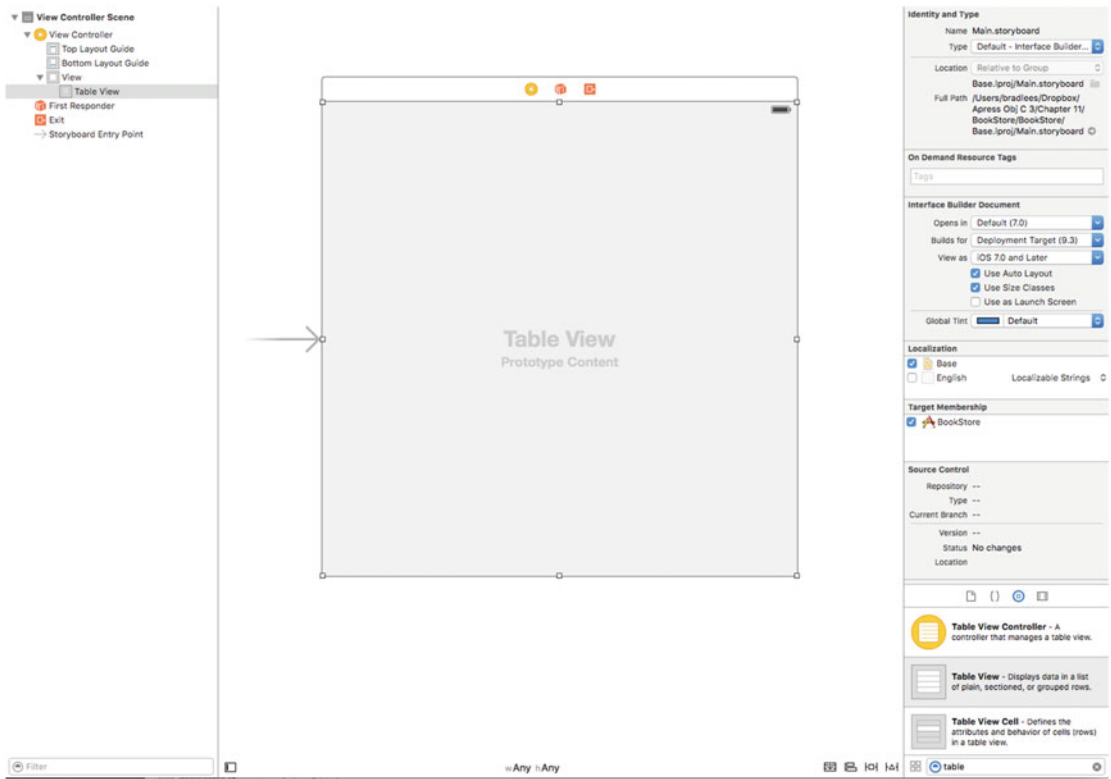


Figure 11-13. Adding the Table View

3. You now have a Table View. To create cells in your Table View, you need to add a `UITableViewCell`. Search for *cell* in your Object Library and drag a Table View Cell to your table. You now have a table and a cell on your view, as shown in Figure 11-14.

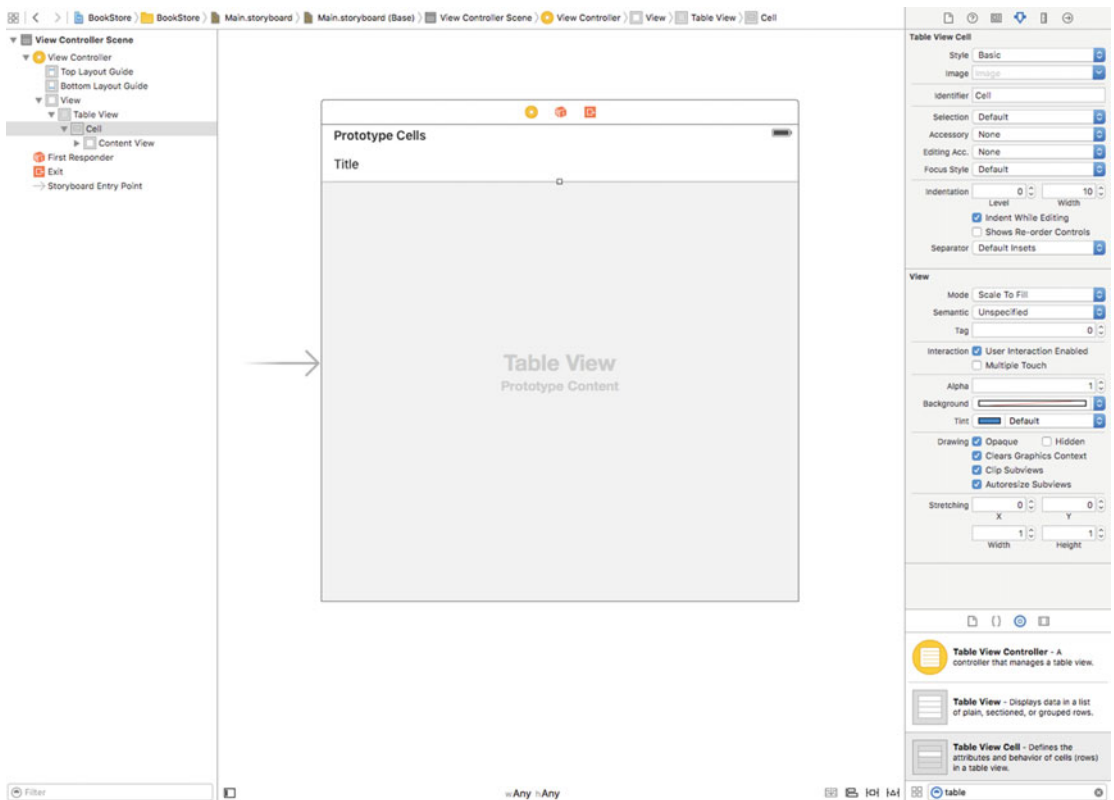


Figure 11-14. Adding the Table View Cell

4. Select the cell, and in the Attributes Inspector on the right side, set Style to **Basic**. Also, set the Identifier to **Cell**. The identifier is used for when your Table View contains multiple styles of cells. You will need to differentiate them with unique identifiers. For most of your projects, you can set this to Cell and not worry about it, as shown in Figure 11-15.

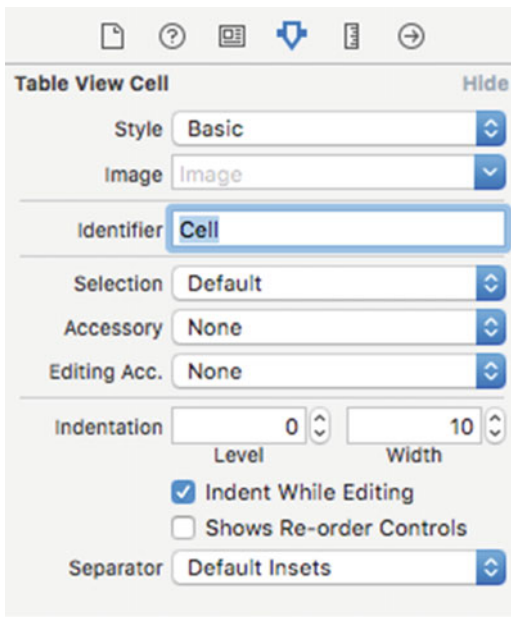


Figure 11-15. Changing the style of the cell

5. When using a Table View, it is usually a good idea to put it in a Navigation Controller. You will be using the Navigation Controller to give you space to put an Add button on your Table View. To add a Navigation Controller, select your View Controller in the Scene box, which is the window to the left of your storyboard that shows your View Controllers (your View Controller will have a yellow icon next to it). From the Application menu, select **Editor ► Embed In ► Navigation Controller**, as shown in Figure 11-16.

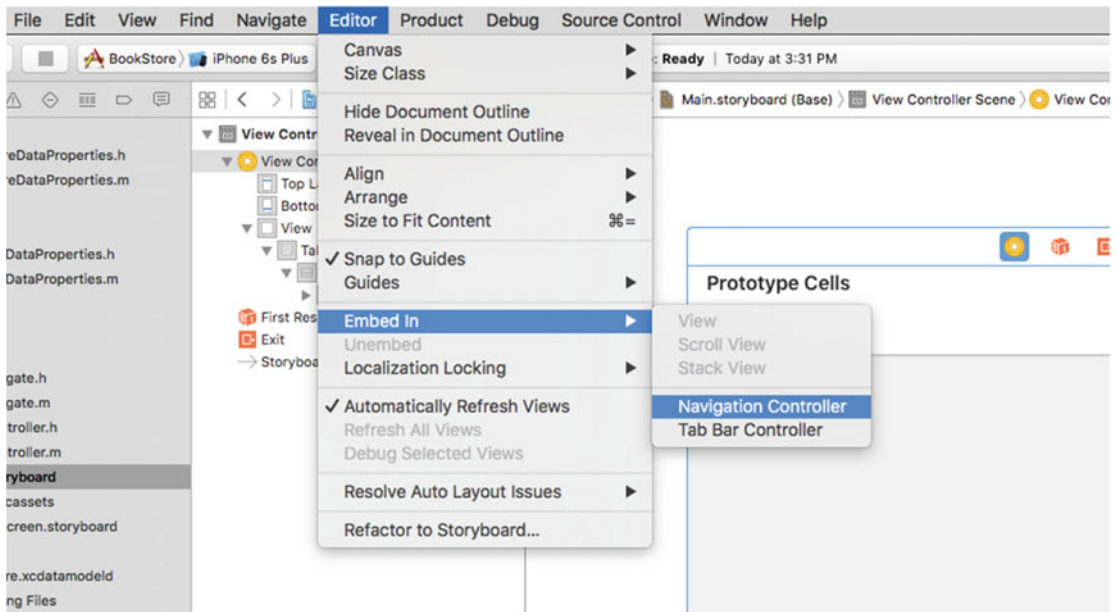


Figure 11-16. Embedding in a Navigation Controller

6. You will have a navigation bar at the top of your view. You will now add a button to the bar. This type of button is called a `UIBarButtonItem`. Search for *bar button* in your Object Library and drag a Bar Button Item to the top right of your view on the navigation bar, as shown in Figure 11-17.

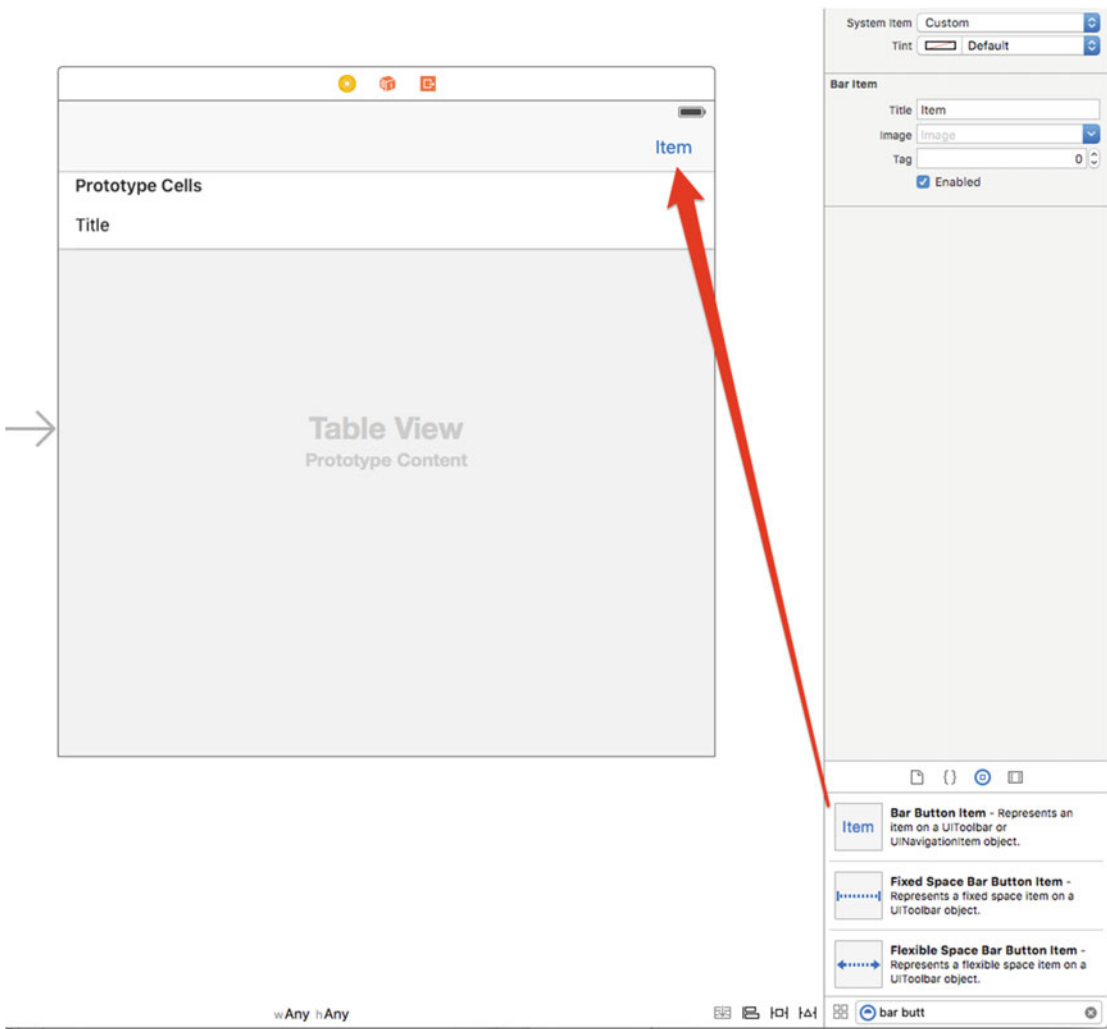


Figure 11-17. Adding a Bar Button Item to the navigation bar

7. Select the Bar Button Item and change System Item to **Add**. This will change the look of your Bar Button Item from the word *Item* to a plus icon, as shown in Figure 11-18.

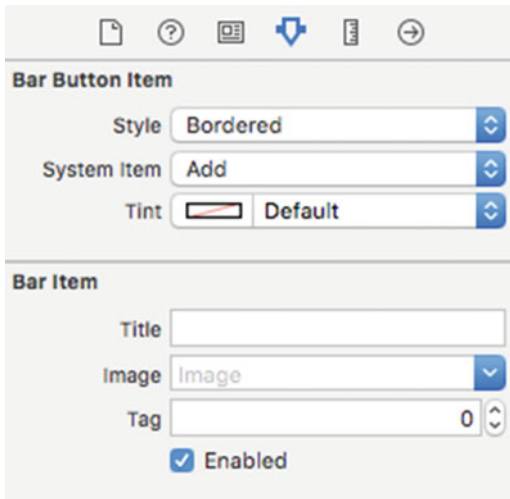


Figure 11-18. Changing the Bar Button Item

8. Now you have the interface created, you need to hook it up to your code. Hold down the Control key and drag your Table View to the View Controller in the Document Outline, as shown in Figure 11-19.

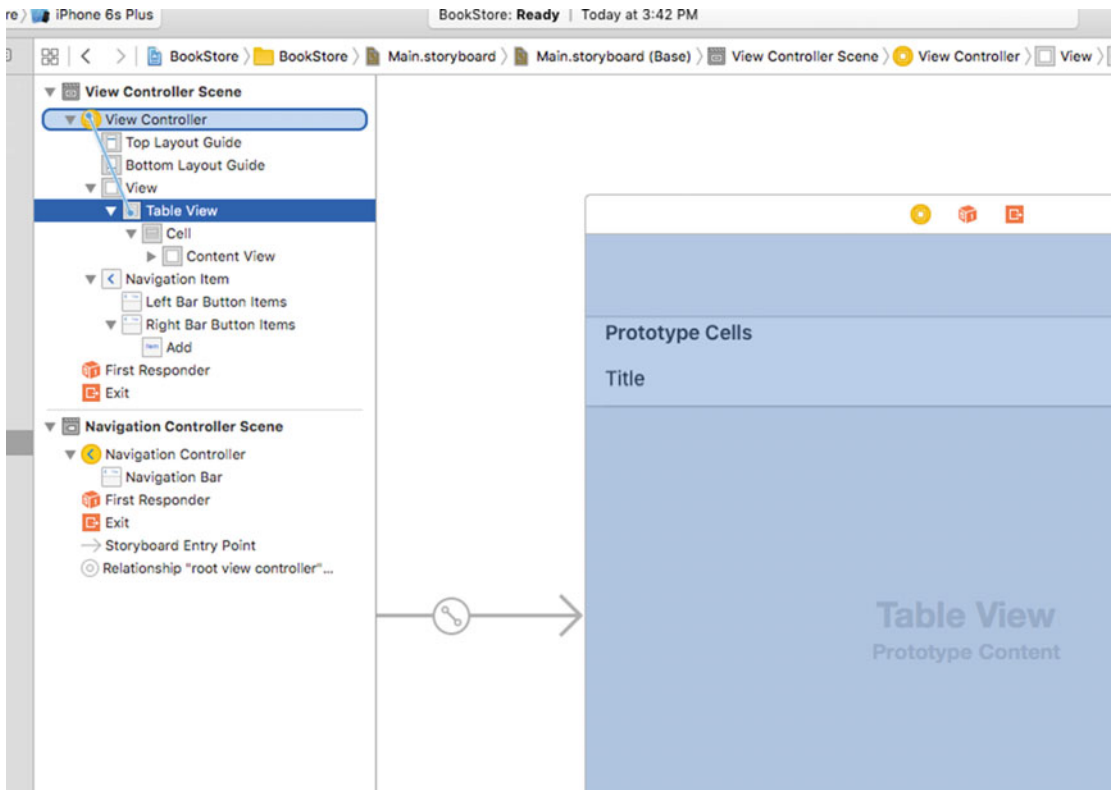


Figure 11-19. Connecting the Table View

9. A pop-up will appear allowing you to select either the dataSource or delegate outlet, as shown in Figure 11-20. You will need to assign both to the View Controller. The order in which you select the items does not matter, but you will have to Control-drag the Table View twice.

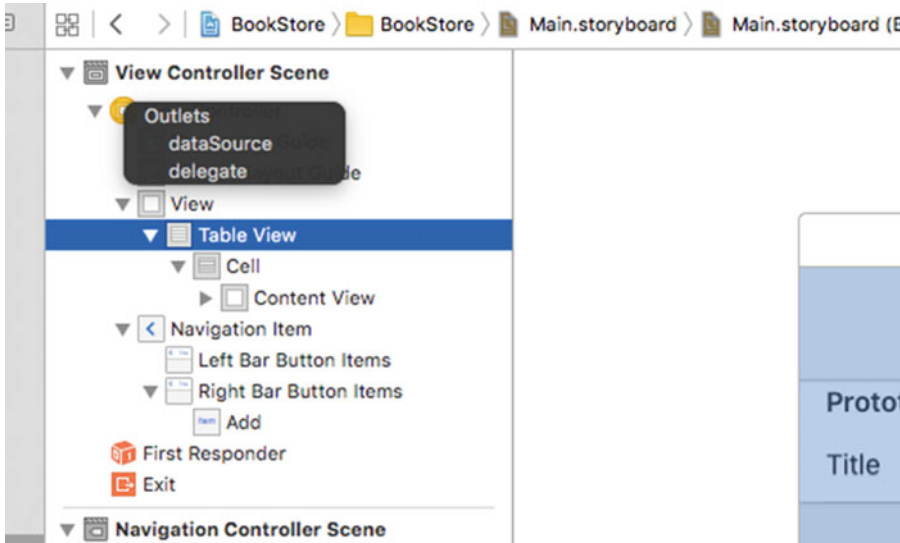


Figure 11-20. Hooking up the Table View

10. Now your Table View should be ready to go. You need to hook up your button to make it do something. In the top right of your Xcode window, click the **Assistant Editor** icon (it looks like two circles). This will open your code on the right side and your storyboard on the left side. Now Control-drag your Add button to the View Controller code on the right, as shown in Figure 11-21.

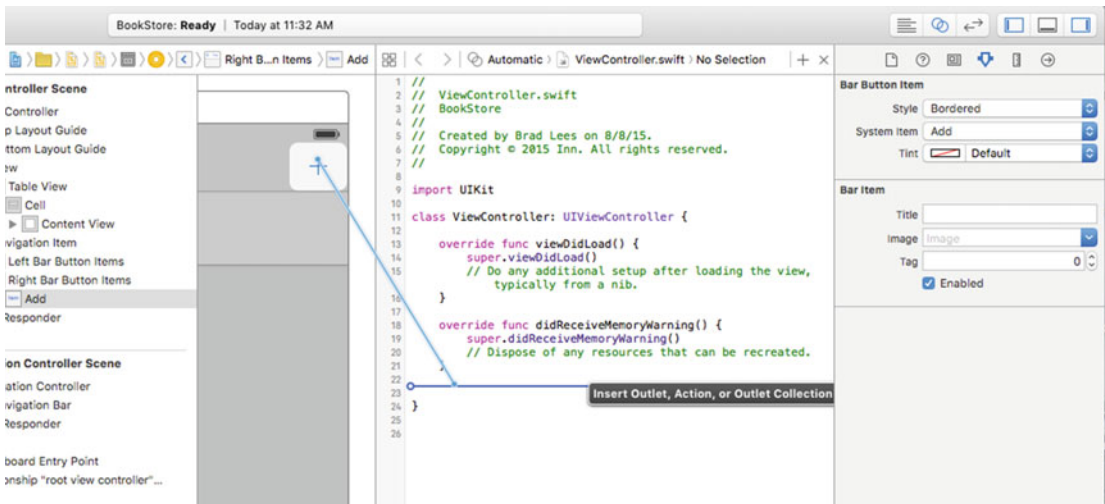


Figure 11-21. Adding an action for your Button object

- It does not matter where you place the Add button in your code as long as it is within your class definition and outside of any methods. It should be after your variables just for organization. You should also place it outside your other methods. When you let go, you will be prompted for the type of connection you are creating. Set Connection to **Action**. Then add a name for your new method, such as **addNew**, as shown in Figure 11-22.

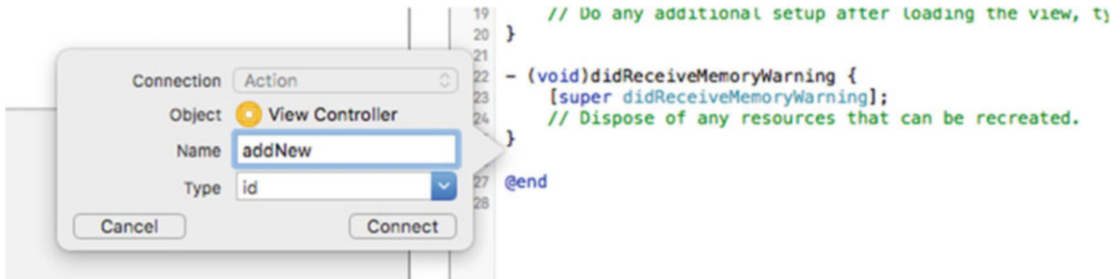


Figure 11-22. Changing the type and name of the connection

- The UITableView that was added previously will need to be accessible through code. To accomplish this, drag the UITableView from the left pane to the top of the code on the right and create an outlet named tableView.

The interface is complete now, but you still need to add the code to make the interface do something. Go back to the Standard editor (click the list icon to the left of the two circles icon in the top right of the Xcode toolbar) and select the ViewController.h file from the file list on the left side. Because you now have a Table View you have to worry about, you need to tell your class that it can handle a Table View. Change your class declaration at the top of your file to the following:

```
@interface ViewController : UIViewController <UITableViewDataSource, UITableViewDelegate>
```

You added UITableViewDelegate and UITableViewDataSource to your declaration. This tells your controller that it can act as a Table View Delegate and data source. These are called **protocols**. Protocols tell an object that they must implement certain methods to interact with other objects. For example, to conform to the UITableViewDataSource protocol, you need to implement the following method in the ViewController.m file:

```
-(NSInteger)tableView:(UITableView *)tableView numberOfRowsInSection:(NSInteger)section {
```

Without this method, the Table View will not know how many rows to draw.

Before continuing, you need to tell your ViewController.h file about Core Data. To do this, you add the following line to the top of the file just under the #import <UIKit/UIKit.h> statement:

```
#import <CoreData/CoreData.h>
```

You also need to add a managed object context to your ViewController class. Add the following line right after the class ViewController line:

```
@interface ViewController : UIViewController <UITableViewDataSource, UITableViewDelegate> {
    NSManagedObjectContext *managedObjectContext;
}
```

Notice, you also have to add the parentheses. Now that you have a variable to hold your `NSManagedObjectContext`, you need to instantiate it so you can add objects to it. To do this, you need to add the following lines to your `viewDidLoad` method in the `ViewController.m` file:

```
AppDelegate *appDelegate = (AppDelegate *)[[UIApplication sharedApplication] delegate];
managedObjectContext = appDelegate.managedObjectContext;
```

The first line creates a variable that points to your application delegate. The second line points your `managedObjectContext` variable to the application delegate's `managedObjectContext`. It is usually a good idea to use the same managed object context throughout your app. Also, at the top of `ViewController.m`, add the following line under the `#import "ViewController.h"` line:

```
#import "AppDelegate.h"
#import "Book.h"
```

The first new method you are going to add is one to query your database records. Call this method `loadBooks`.

```
32 - (NSArray *)loadBooks {
33     NSFetchRequest *fetchRequest = [[NSFetchRequest alloc] initWithEntityName:@"Book"];
34     NSArray *bookArray = [[managedObjectContext executeFetchRequest:fetchRequest
35                            error:nil] mutableCopy];
36     return bookArray;
37 }
38 }
```

This code is a little more complex than what you have seen before, so let's walk through it. Line 32 declares a new function called `loadBooks`, which returns an `NSArray`. This means you will receive an array that can contain any type of objects you want. In this case, the objects will be `Books`. You then return the array once you have it loaded.

You will now need to add the data source methods for your `Table View`. These methods tell your `Table View` how many sections there are, how many rows are in each section, and what each cell should look like. Add the following code to your `ViewController.m` file:

```
41 - (NSInteger)numberOfSectionsInTableView:(UITableView *)tableView {
42     return 1;
43 }
44
45 - (NSInteger)tableView:(UITableView *)tableView numberOfRowsInSectionSection:(NSInteger)section
46 {
47     return [[self loadBooks] count] ;
48 }
49
```

```

50 - (UITableViewCell *)tableView:(UITableView *)tableView cellForRowAtIndexPath:(NSIndexPath
    th *)indexPath {
51
52     UITableViewCell *cell = [tableView dequeueReusableCellWithIdentifier:@"Cell"];
53     if (cell == nil) {
54         cell = [[UITableViewCell alloc] initWithStyle:UITableViewCellStyleDefault
            reuseIdentifier:@"Cell"];
55     }
56
57     Book *myBook = [[self loadBooks] objectAtIndex:indexPath.row];
58
59     cell.textLabel.text = myBook.title;
60
61     return cell;
62 }

```

In line 42, you tell your Table View that it will contain only a single section. In line 47, you call a count on your array of Books for the number of rows in your Table View. In lines 51 to 61, you create your cell and return it. Line 52 creates a cell for you to use. This is standard code for creating a cell. The identifier allows you to have more than one type of cell in a Table View, but that is more complex. Line 57 grabs your Book object from your loadBooks() array. Line 59 assigns the book title to your textLabel in the cell. The textLabel is the default label in the cell. This is all you need to do to be able to display the results of your loadBooks method in the table view. You still have one problem. You do not have any books in your database yet.

To fix this issue, you will add code to the addNew method you created earlier. Add the following code inside the addNew method you created:

```

66 - (IBAction)addNew:(id)sender {
67     Book *myBook = [NSEntityDescription insertNewObjectForEntityForName:@"Book" inManaged
    ObjectContext:managedObjectContext];
68     myBook.title = [NSMutableString stringWithFormat:@"My Book%lu", (unsigned long)[self
    loadBooks].count];
69     [managedObjectContext save:nil];
70     [self.tableView reloadData];
71 }

```

Line 67 creates a new Book object for your book in the database from the entity name and inserts that object into the managedObjectContext you created before. Remember that once it is inserted into the managed object context, its changes are tracked, and it can be saved. Line 68 sets the book title to My Book and then sets the number of items in the array. Obviously, in real life, you would want to set this to a name either given by the user or from some other list. Line 69 saves the managed object context. Line 70 tells the UITableView to reload itself to display the newly added Book. Now build and run the application. Click the + button several times. You will add new Book objects to your object store as shown in Figure 11-23. If you quit the app and relaunch it, you will notice that the data is still there.

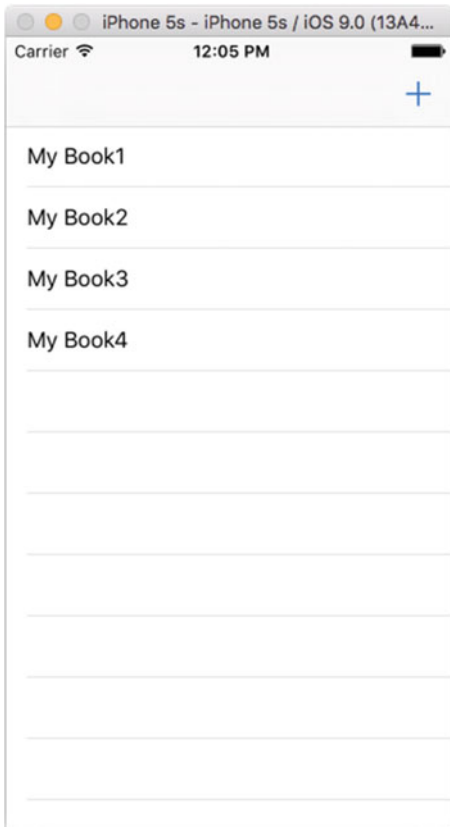


Figure 11-23. The final app

This was a cursory introduction to Core Data for iOS. Core Data is a powerful API, but it can also take a lot of time to master.

Summary

Here is a summary of the topics this chapter covered:

- Preferences
 - You learned to use `NSUserDefaults` to save and read preferences from a file, on both iOS and OS X.
- Databases
 - You learned what a database is and why using one can be preferable to saving information in a preferences file.
 - You learned about the database engine that Apple has integrated into OS X and iOS and the advantages and limitations of this database engine.

- Core Data
 - Apple provided a framework for interfacing with the SQLite database. This framework makes the interface much easier to use.
- Bookstore application
 - You created a simple Core Data application.
 - You used Xcode to create a data model for your bookstore. You learned how to create a relationship between two entities.
 - You used Xcode to create a simple interface for your Core Data model.

Exercises

- Add a new view to the app for allowing the user to enter the name of a book.
- Provide a way to remove a book from the list.
- Create an Author object and add it to a Book object.



Protocols and Delegates

Congratulations, you are acquiring the skills to become an iOS developer! However, there are two additional topics that iOS developers need to understand to be successful: protocols and delegates. It is not uncommon for new developers to get overwhelmed by these topics, so we thought it best to introduce the foundation topics of the Objective-C language first.

Multiple Inheritance

We discussed object inheritance in Chapter 1. In a nutshell, object inheritance means that a child can inherit all the characteristics of its parent. See Figure 12-1.

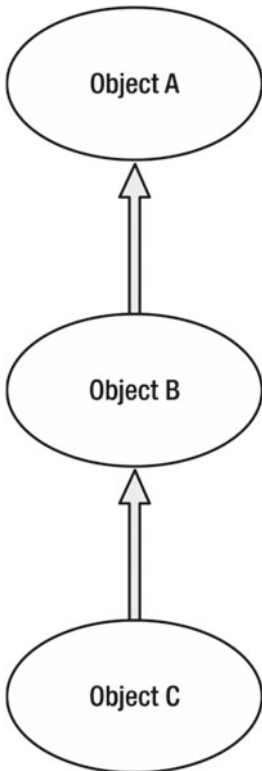


Figure 12-1. Typical Objective-C inheritance

C++, Perl, and Python each have a feature called multiple inheritance. **Multiple inheritance** enables a class to inherit behaviors and features from more than one parent. See Figure 12-2.

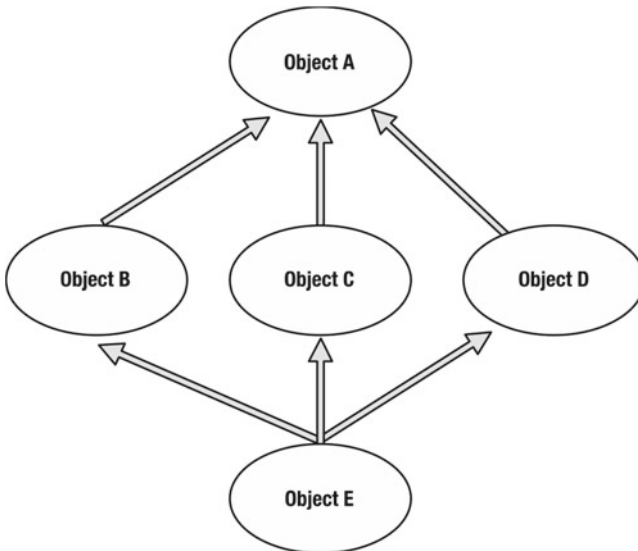


Figure 12-2. Multiple inheritance

However, problems can arise with multiple inheritance because it allows for ambiguities to occur. Because of this, Objective-C does not implement multiple inheritances. Instead, it implements something called a **protocol**.

Understanding Protocols

Apple defines a **protocol** simply as a list of method declarations, unattached to a class definition. A protocol is similar to a class interface with the exception that it is not defining a particular class. For example, the methods that report user actions for the mouse on your Mac could be placed into a protocol.

Any class that wants to respond to mouse events could adopt the protocol and implement its methods. Protocols are easy to use since they are not related to the class hierarchy and any class can implement them.

Throughout the book, we have used the example of a bookstore. Previously, we discussed the fact that our bookstore may sell different types of media and have discussed how inheritance would help in that situation. For the purpose of explaining protocols, let's say that our bookstore also sells gum and candy. We would want to create a class for those items. Call it `EdibleItem`. It would not make sense to have gum inherit the same methods as a book or magazine, but all of the items would need to be sold, and the inventory would need to be tracked. In this case, it would make sense to add the methods to a protocol that could be shared by each of the items.

■ **Note** A protocol is much different than inheritance. When a class inherits from another class, it not only receives the method declarations, but it also receives the methods themselves. When using a protocol, the declarations are brought over, but the methods themselves need to be written.

Protocol Syntax

The interface example for a protocol is

```
@protocol InventoryItem

- (void)removeFromInventory;
- (void)addToInventory;

@end
```

The interface file for this protocol example would be

```
@interface MyClass : SomeSuperClass <InventoryItem>
@end
```

Any object that wants to implement the `InventoryItem` protocol would include `<InventoryItem>` after the object definition.

For example, you could create the interface for the edible objects you sell.

```
@interface Edible : NSObject <InventoryItem>
@end
```

It is not uncommon for iOS developers to have multiple protocols for their objects. This adds real power to your objects when needed. Additional protocols are placed after the first one followed by a comma.

```
@interface EditbleItem : UITableViewController <InventoryItem, SaleItem>
@end
```

This example illustrates the power of protocols. Class `EditableItem` now has all of the method declarations from `InventoryItem` and `SaleItem`.

Methods that are defined for the object's delegate are called **delegate methods**.

Understanding Delegates

Delegates are helper objects. They enable you to control the behavior of your objects. The methods listed in the protocol become **helpers** to your `MyClass`.

■ **Note** The key to understanding delegates is to know that a delegate is a separate object consulted in order to augment the behavior of a host object. Thus, you can create an **application delegate** object that can affect the behavior of the iOS `UIApplication` object without subclassing or changing the `UIApplication` class. The object you create is the delegate object, and the messages that `UIApplication` will send your object are called **delegate methods**. These are typically defined in a protocol (`<UIApplicationDelegate>`) that your class must adopt. To work, a delegate object must be set as the delegate property of the host.

You can now use these methods in your object. For example, implementing the `<CLLocationManagerDelegate>` protocol in your `MyClass` interface definition enables your object to be notified by the iPhone's GPS of our new location. The following example shows the method that you will include and define inside your object's implementation file:


```
- (void)locationManager:(CLLocationManager *)manager didUpdateLocations:(nonnull
NSArray<CLLocation *> *)locations
{
    .....
}
```

The locationManager delegate method automatically gets called as your GPS location changes, allowing your code to process coordinates.

Next Steps

You will be well prepared to begin writing your own iOS apps. Don't take time off—keep moving forward! The faster you begin using what you have learned, the better you will get. Whatever you do, don't stop now!

Summary

In this chapter, we covered why multiple inheritance is not used in Objective-C and how protocols and delegates work. There is still a lot to learn and know on your journey. Keep it up and help others along their way.

CHAPTER 13



Introducing the Xcode Debugger

Xcode is fantastic! Not only is this tool provided free of charge on Apple’s developer site, but it is actually really good. Aside from being able to create the next great Mac OS X, iPhone, or iPad app, Xcode has a fantastic debugger built right into the tool.

So, what exactly is a debugger? First, let’s get something straight—programs do *exactly* what they are written to do. Sometimes what is written isn’t exactly what the program is really meant to do. Sometimes this means the program crashes or just doesn’t do something that is expected. Whatever the case, when a program doesn’t work as planned, the program is said to have **bugs**. The process of going through the code and fixing these problems is called **debugging**.

There is still some debate as to the real origin of the term “bug,” but one well-documented case from 1947 involved the late Rear Admiral Grace Hopper, a Naval reservist and programmer at the time. Hopper and her team were trying to solve a problem with the Harvard Mark II computer. One team member found a moth in the circuitry that was causing the problem with one of the relays. Hooper was later quoted as saying, “From then on, when anything went wrong with a computer, we said it had bugs in it.”¹

Regardless of the origin, the term stuck, and programmers all over the world use debuggers, such as Xcode, to help find bugs in programs. People are the real debuggers; debugging tools merely help programmers locate problems. No debugger, whatever the name might imply, fixes problems all on its own.

This chapter will highlight some of the more important features of the Xcode debugger and will explain how to use them. Once you have finished this chapter, you should have a good enough understanding of the Xcode debugger and of the debugging process in general to allow you to search for and fix the majority of programming issues.

Getting Started with Debugging

If you’ve ever watched a movie in slow motion just so you can catch a detail you can’t see when the movie is played at full speed, you’ve used a tool to do something a little like debugging. The idea that playing the movie frame by frame will reveal the detail you are looking for is the same sort of idea you apply when debugging a program. With a program, sometimes it becomes necessary to slow things down a bit to see what’s happening. The debugger allows you to do this using two main features: setting a breakpoint and stepping through the program line by line (more on these two features in a bit). Let’s first look at how to get to the debugger and what it looks like.

First, you need to load an existing program. This examples in this chapter use the MyBookstore project from Chapter 8, so open Xcode and load the MyBookstore project.

Second, a debug **device** needs to be selected. Xcode provides several device *simulators* for debugging purposes. So, it becomes possible to test the app on an iPad, iPhone 5s, iPhone 6 Plus, and so on—basically on whatever iOS device you want (Figure 13-1).

¹Michael Moritz, Alexander L. Taylor III, and Peter Stoler, “The Wizard Inside the Machine,” *Time*, Vol.123, no. 16: pp. 56–63

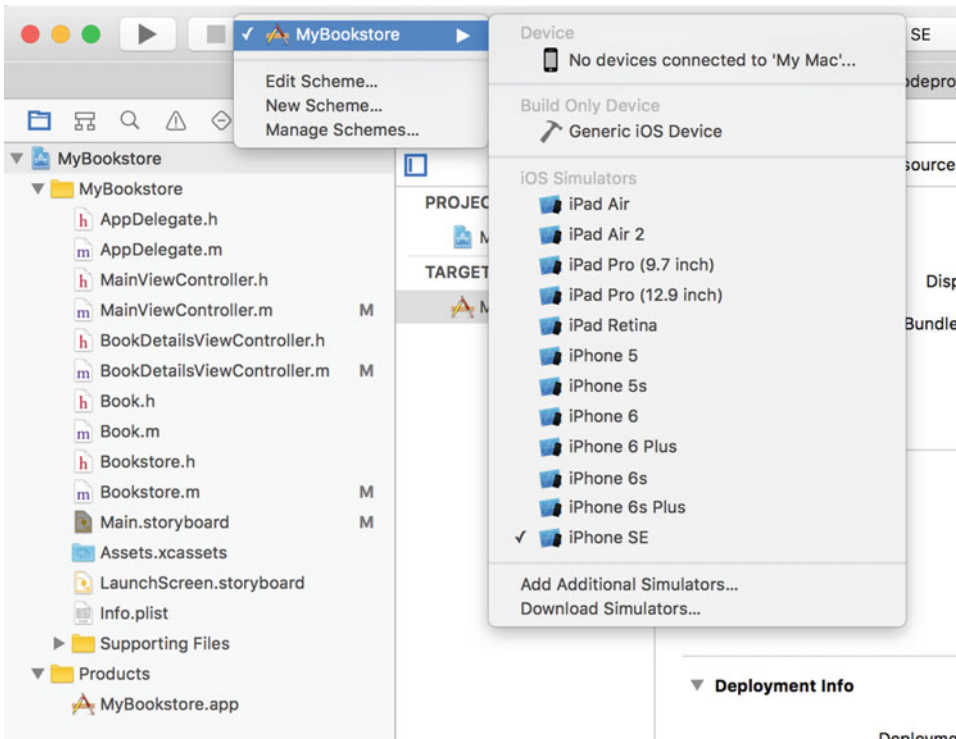


Figure 13-1. Selecting the iOS simulator

A simulator works just like the actual device and has the correct screen size based upon the chosen device. It’s even possible to rotate and simulate a touch! The examples use the iPhone 6, but any iOS simulator can be used.

Setting Breakpoints

To see what’s going on in a program, you need to make the program pause at certain points that you as a programmer are interested in. A **breakpoint** allows you to do this. In Figure 13-2, we’ve set a breakpoint on line 18 of the program. To do this, simply place the cursor over the line number (not the program text but the number 18 to the left of the program text) and click once.

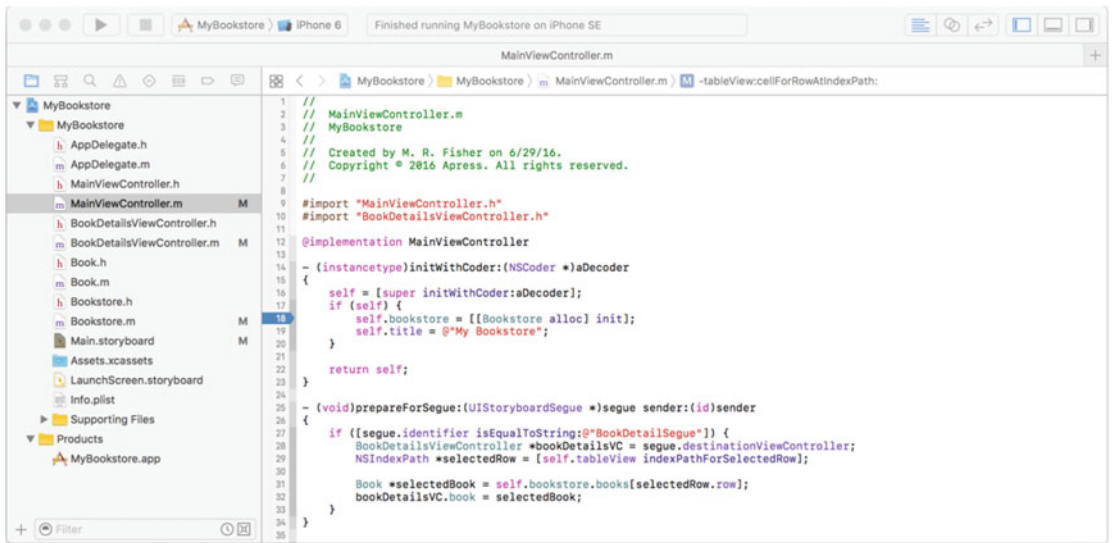


Figure 13-2. Your first breakpoint

If line numbers are not being displayed, simply choose **Xcode** ► **Preference** from the main menu, click the Text Editing tab, and check the Line Numbers check box.

You can also remove the breakpoint by simply dragging the breakpoint to the left or right of the line number column and then dropping it. In Figure 13-3, the breakpoint has been dragged to the left of the column. During the drag-and-drop process, the breakpoint will turn into a puff of smoke. Breakpoints can also be disabled by just clicking the breakpoint once. The breakpoint will turn from dark blue (enabled) to light, translucent blue (disabled). Clicking again will reenable the breakpoint.

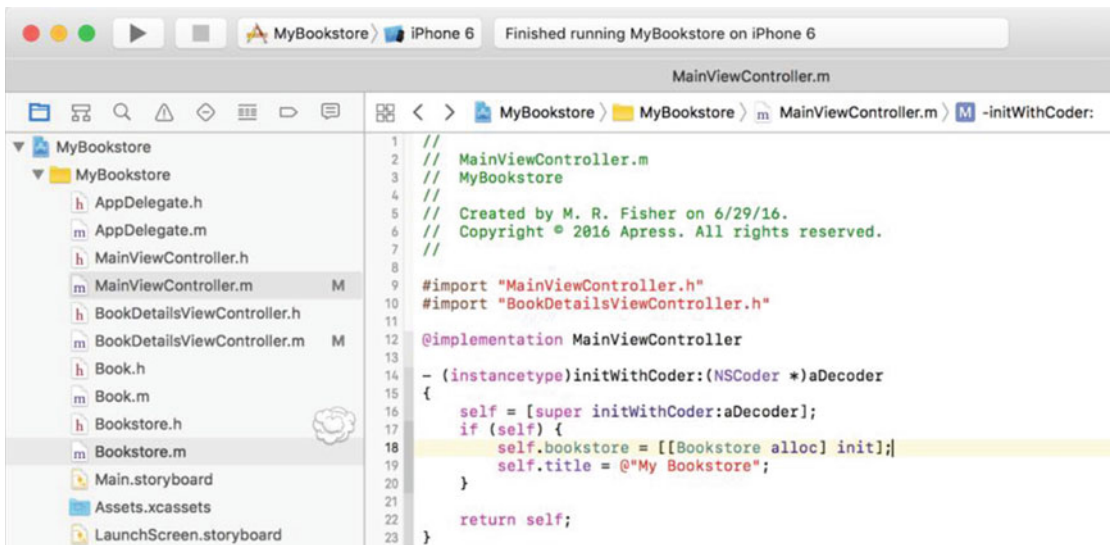


Figure 13-3. The breakpoint disappears in a puff of smoke

Setting and deleting breakpoints are pretty straightforward tasks. There are other ways to delete breakpoints, but this way is the most entertaining!

Using the Breakpoint Navigator

With small projects, knowing where all the breakpoints are isn't necessarily hard. However, once a project gets larger than, say, our small MyBookstore application, managing all the breakpoints could be a little more difficult. Fortunately, Xcode 7 provides a simple method to list all the breakpoints in an application called the Breakpoint Navigator. This can be found by clicking the Breakpoint Navigator icon in the navigation selection bar, as shown in Figure 13-4.

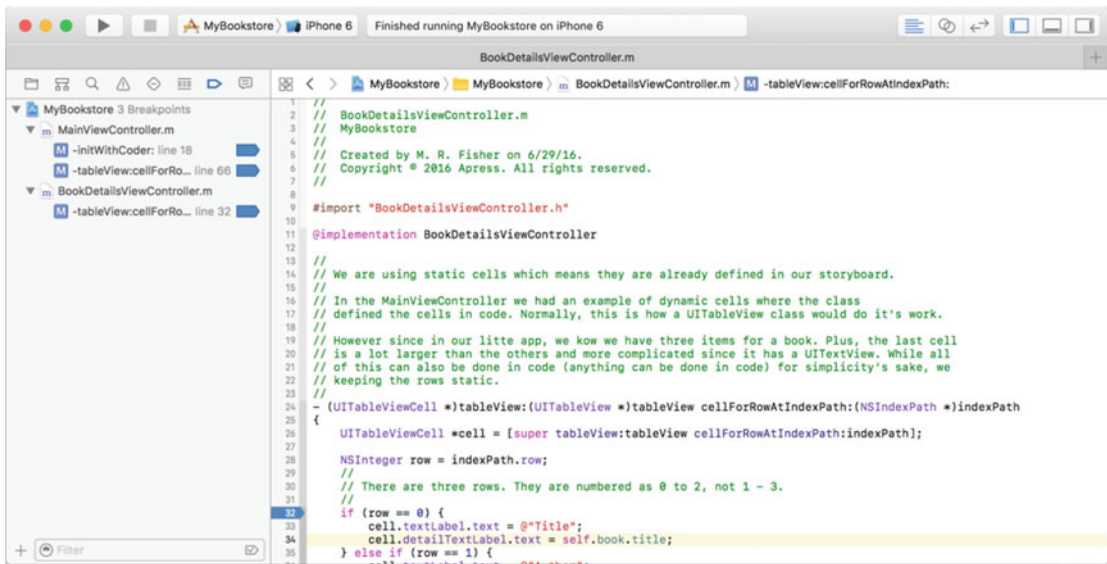


Figure 13-4. Accessing the Breakpoint Navigator in Xcode 7

Once clicked, it will list all the breakpoints currently defined in the application. From here, clicking a breakpoint will take you to the source file with the breakpoint. You can also easily delete and disable breakpoints from here.

To disable/enable a breakpoint, simply click the blue breakpoint icon in the list (or wherever it appears). Don't click the line; it has to be the little blue icon, as shown in Figure 13-5.

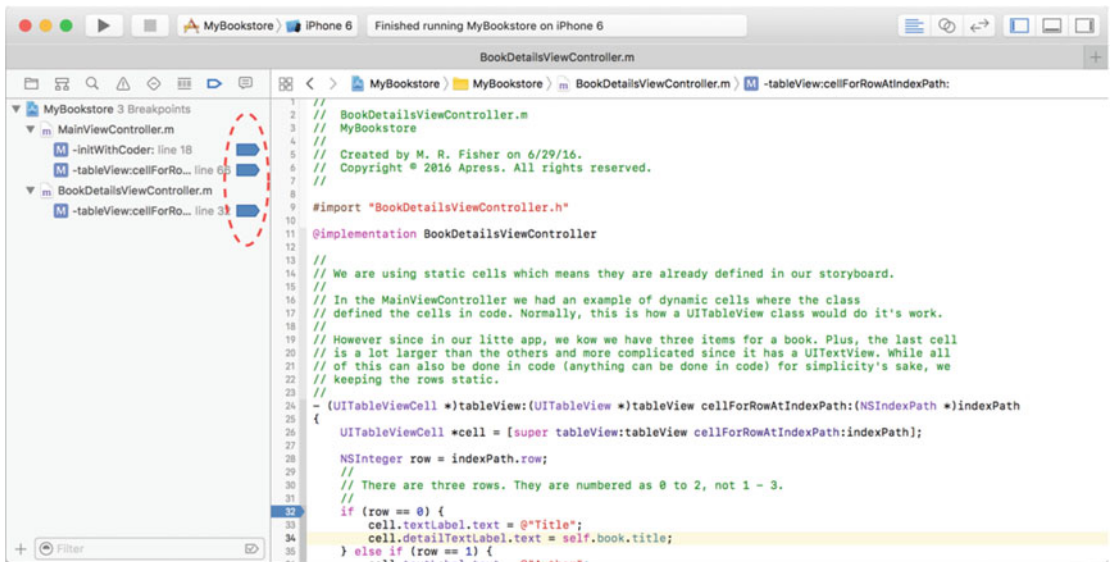


Figure 13-5. Using the Breakpoint Navigator to enable/disable a breakpoint

It is sometimes handy to disable a breakpoint instead of deleting it, especially if you plan to put the breakpoint back in the same place again. Disabling a breakpoint is actually quite simple. Just click the existing breakpoint and it will turn from a dark blue color to a faded blue. The debugger will not stop on these faded breakpoints, but they remain in place so they can be conveniently enabled and act as a marker to an important area in the code.

It's also possible to delete breakpoints from the Breakpoint Navigator. Simply select one or more breakpoints and press the **Delete** key. Make sure you select the correct breakpoints to delete since there is no undo feature.

It's also possible to select the file associated with the breakpoints. In this case, if you delete the file listed in the Breakpoint Navigator and press Delete, all breakpoints in that file will be deleted.

Please note that breakpoints are the lines with the small breakpoint icon, as shown in Figure 13-5. The file is outdented from the breakpoint; in Figure 13-5, the files are `BookDetailsViewController.m` and `MainViewController.m`. Figure 13-6 shows an example of what a file looks like with more than a single breakpoint.

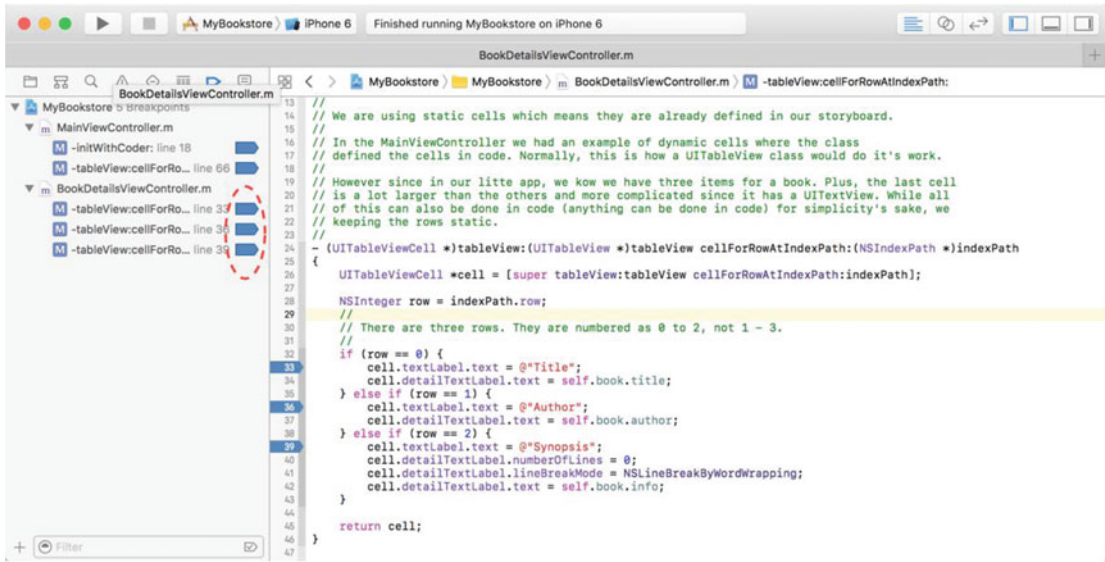


Figure 13-6. A file with several breakpoints

Debugging Basics

Set a breakpoint on the statement shown in Figure 13-2. Next, as shown in Figure 13-7, click the **Run** button to compile the project and start running it within the Xcode debugger.

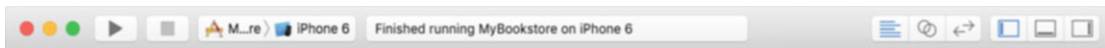


Figure 13-7. The Build and Debug button in the Xcode toolbar

Once the project builds, the debugger will start; the screen will show the debugging windows, and the program will stop execution on the line statement, as shown in Figure 13-8.

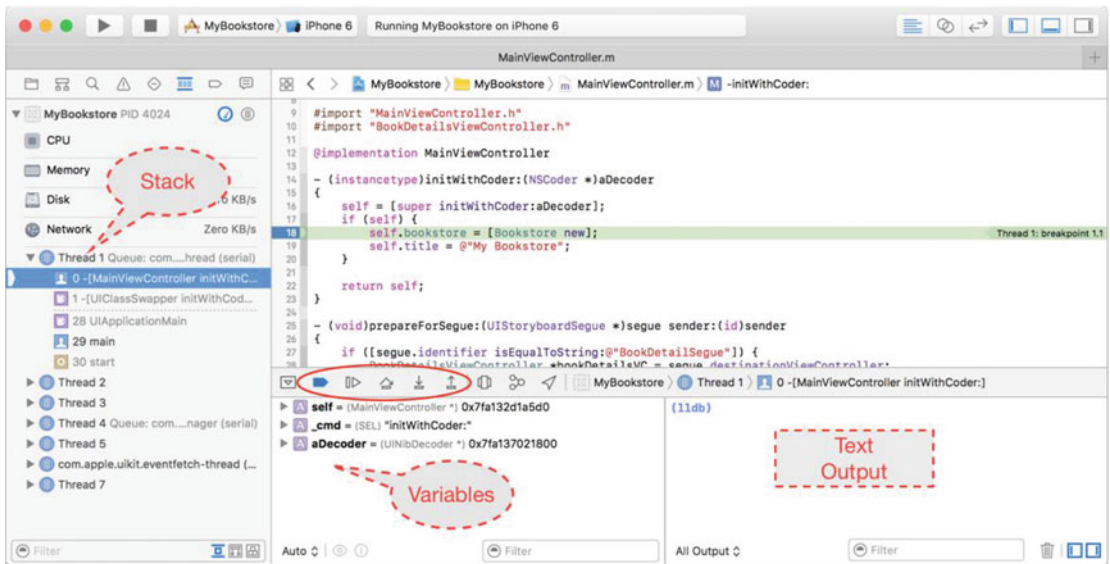


Figure 13-8. The debugger view with execution stopped on line 18






The debugger view adds some additional windows. Let's go over the different parts of the debugger shown in Figure 13-8:

- *Debugger controls (solid oval in red):* The debugging controls can pause, continue, step over, step into, and step out of statements in the program. The stepping controls are used most often. The first button on the left is used to show or hide the Debug area. In Figure 13-8, the Debug area is shown.
- *Variables:* The variables window displays the variables currently in scope. Clicking the little triangle just to the left of a variable name will expand it.
- *Output window:* The output window will show useful information in the event of a crash or exception. Also, any `NSLog` output goes here.
- *Stack trace:* The stack shows the object stack as well as all the threads currently active in the program. The stack is a hierarchical view of what methods are being called. For example, `main` calls `UIApplication`, and `UIApplication` calls the `AppDelegate` class. These method calls “stack” up until they finally return, which is where it gets its name.

Working with the Debugger Controls

As mentioned, once the debugger starts, the view changes. What appears are the debugging controls (item B in Figure 13-8). The controls are fairly straightforward and are explained in Table 13-1.

Table 13-1. Xcode Debugging Controls

Control	Description
	Clicking the Stop button will stop the execution of the program. If the iPhone or iPad emulator is running the application, it will also stop as if the user pressed the Home button on the device. Clicking the Run button starts debugging. If the application is currently in debug mode, clicking the Run button again will restart debugging the application from the beginning; it's like stopping and then starting again.
	Clicking the Pause or Continue button causes the program to pause or continue execution. The program will continue running until it ends, the Stop button is clicked, or the program runs into another breakpoint.
	When the debugger stops on a breakpoint, clicking the Step Over button will cause the debugger to execute the current line of code and stop at the next line of code. If the debugger encounters a breakpoint while stepping over code, the debugger will go to the breakpoint instead of skipping over it. In Figure 13-5, clicking this icon will cause the debugger to go to the next line.
	Clicking the Step Into button will cause the debugger to go into the specified function or method. If you clicked this control, the debugger would go into the <code>init</code> method shown in Figure 13-5. This is important if there is a need to follow code into specific methods or functions. Only methods for which the project has source code can be stepped into.
	The Step Out button will cause the current method to finish executing and the debugger will go back to the caller. Using Figure 13-5 as an example, if you were to step into line 25 and then immediately click Step Out, the <code>init</code> method would finish executing, and the debugger would then go back to line 25, effectively finishing the current method (<code>init</code>) and stepping back out.

Using the Step Controls

To practice using the step controls, let's step into a function. As the name implies, the Step Into button follows program execution into the method that is highlighted. Make sure there is a breakpoint set on the line statement shown in Figure 13-8 (line 18 of the example; yours may be different) of the `MainViewController.m` file and click the **Run** button. Your screen should look similar to Figure 13-9.

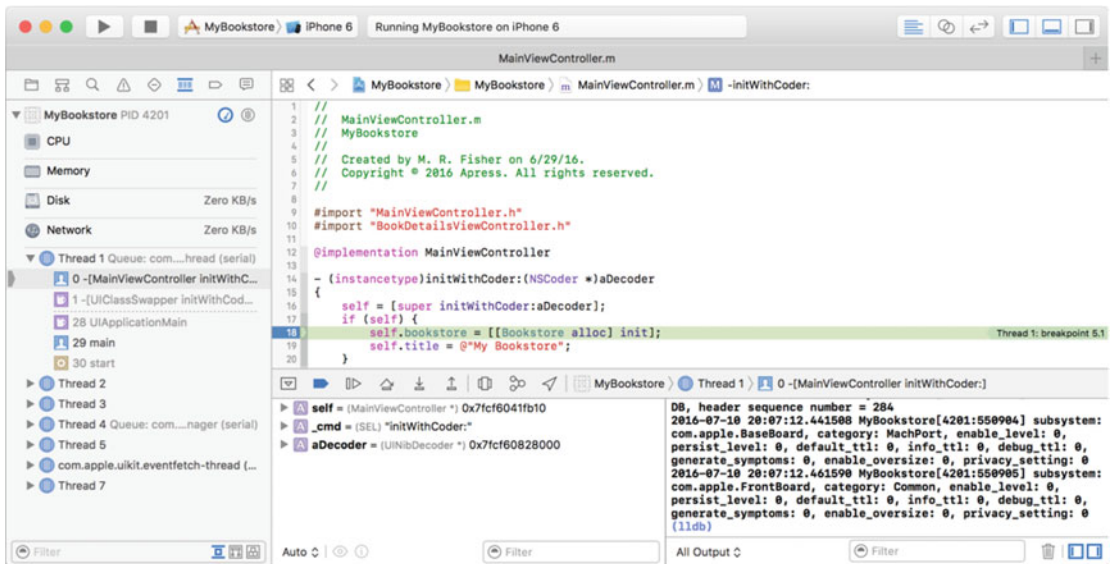



Figure 13-9. The debugger stopped on line 18

Click the **Step Into** button ; this will cause the debugger to go into the `initWithCoder:` method of the `Bookstore` object. The screen should look like Figure 13-10.

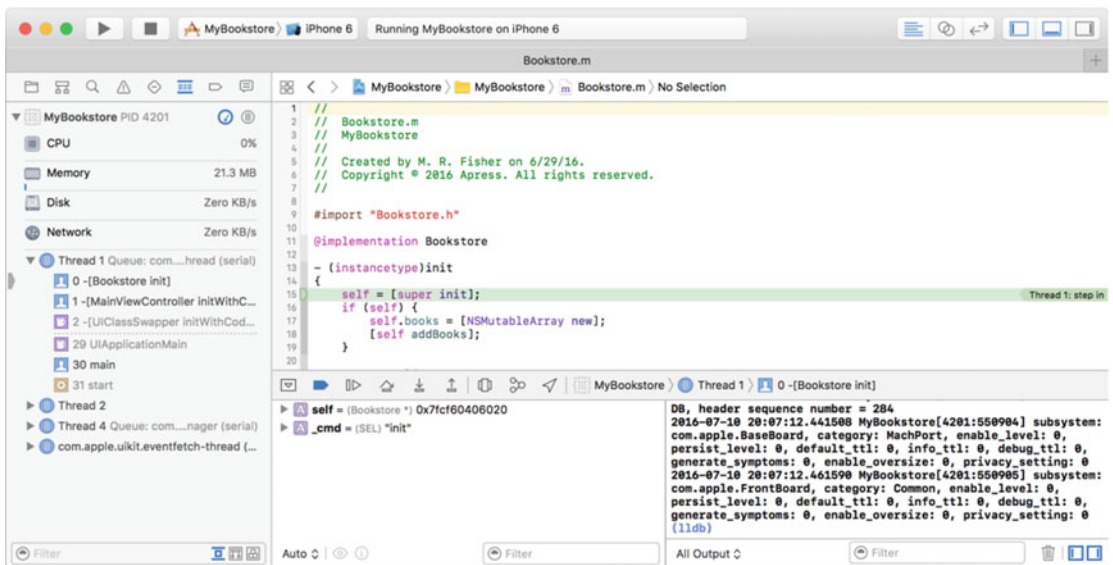




Figure 13-10. Stepping into the `initWithCoder:` method of the `Bookstore` object

It’s important to note that not only is the debugger in the Bookstore object, but the debugger has also moved to the Bookstore.m file (it used to be in the MainViewController.m file).

The Step Over control  continues execution of the program but doesn’t go into a method. It simply executes the method and continues to the next line. The Step Out control  is a little like the opposite of Step Into. If the Step Out button is clicked, the current method continues execution until it finishes. The debugger then returns to the line before Step Into was clicked. For example, if the Step Into button is clicked on the line shown in Figure 13-9 and then the Step Out button is clicked, the debugger will return to the MainViewController.m file on the statement shown in Figure 13-9 (line 25 in the example), the line where the Step Into was made.

Looking at the Thread Window and Call Stack

As mentioned earlier, the thread window displays the current thread (there is only one in the example program). However, it also displays the **call stack**. If you look at the difference between Figures 13-9 and 13-10 as far as the thread window goes, you can see that Figure 13-10 now has the [Bookstore init] method listed because [MainViewController initWithCoder:] calls the [Bookstore init] method.

Now, the call stack is not simply a list of functions that *have* been called; rather, it’s a list of functions that are currently *being* called. That’s an important distinction. Once the init method is finished and returns (line 21), [Bookstore init] will no longer appear in the call stack. You can think of a call stack almost like a breadcrumb trail. The trail shows you how to get back to where you started.

Debugging Variables

It is possible to view information about a variable by hovering over the variable as well as viewing them in the variables section. Let’s do this by starting from scratch. To do this, click the **Stop** icon to stop debugging the app and then clear all breakpoints by going to the Breakpoint Navigator (see Figure 13-11, highlighting the project, and then pressing the **Delete** button on the keyboard.

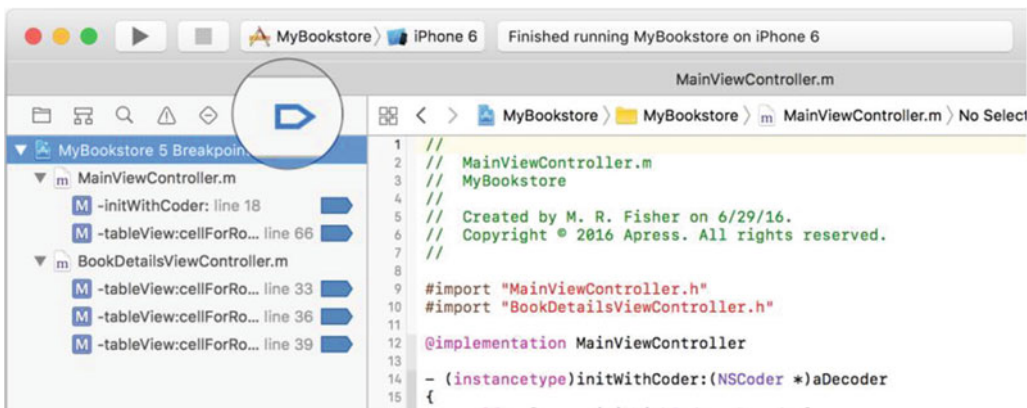


Figure 13-11. Deleting all breakpoints

So, now let's add a new breakpoint so you can see some variables. Change to the Project Navigator by clicking the **Folder** icon. Select the `Bookstore.m` file and set the breakpoint on line 35, as shown in Figure 13-12.

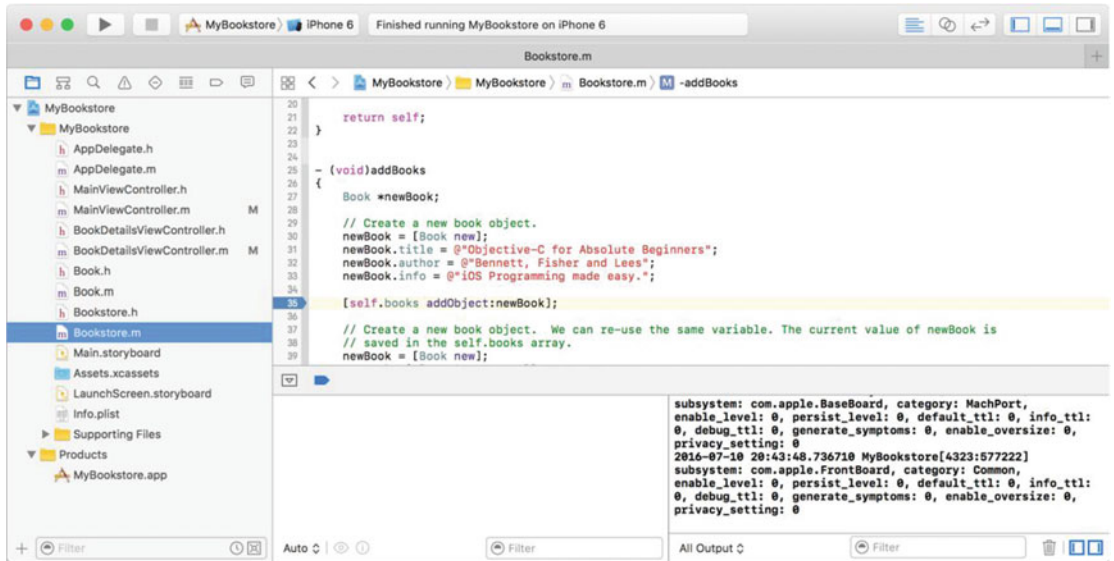


Figure 13-12. Setting the new breakpoint

Next, run the application. When the debugger stops on line 35, hover the mouse over `newBook.info` (any from lines 31–33). There will be a small pop-up, as shown in Figure 13-13.



Figure 13-13. Initial variable pop-up. You need to expand this!

Next, click the disclosure arrow (arrow in Figure 13-13). What will be displayed are the variables associated with the object `Book` stored in the variable named `newBook`, as shown in Figure 13-14.

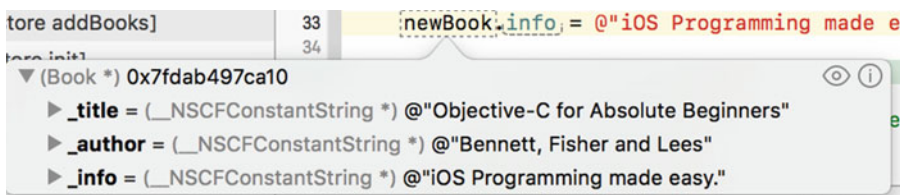


Figure 13-14. List of properties in the object `Book`

Dealing with Code Errors and Warnings

While coding errors and warnings aren't really part of the Xcode 7 debugger, fixing them is part of the entire debugging process. Before a program can be run (with or without the debugger), all errors must be fixed. Warnings won't stop a program from building, but they could cause issues during program execution. It's best not to have any warnings at all.

Let's take a look at a couple of different types of warnings/errors. To start, let's add an error to your code. On line 18 of the `MainViewController.m` file, change the following:

```
[[BookStore alloc] init]
```

to the following:

```
[[BookStore alloc] initialize].
```

Xcode will display a small red exclamation point (stop sign) indicating that there is an error on that line. Next click the exclamation point to see the error, as shown in Figure 13-15.

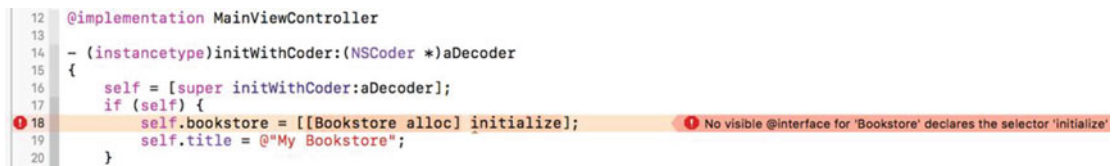


Figure 13-15. Viewing the error in Xcode

Generally, the error points to the real problem. In the previous case, the `BookStore` object doesn't know about a method called `initialize`.

■ **Tip** Encountering this error when building a project generally means the method name is misspelled or perhaps the proper header file hasn't been included to let the compiler know about this method. If you know the method exists, then check to see whether the header is included. Otherwise, it might just be a typo.

Let's fix the error by changing the word `initialize` to `init` on line 18. Xcode will remove the error, and it will look fine again.

Warnings

Warnings indicate potential problems with the program. As mentioned, warnings won't stop a program from building but may cause issues during program execution. It's outside the scope of this book to cover those warnings that may or may not cause problems during program execution; however, it's good practice to eliminate all warnings from a program.

Let's pick on line 18 again. This time, remove `[[Bookstore alloc] init]`; altogether and replace it with just a `@"`; as shown in Figure 13-16. This time, instead of red exclamation point, you now see a warning triangle. When clicked, the warning is displayed just like it did for the error.



Figure 13-16. Viewing an Xcode warning

It may not be convenient to always click an error or warning in this way. A more convenient way is to view all the errors and warnings across the entire app. To do this, you use the Issue Navigator. To get to the Issue Navigator, just choose the triangle from the Navigator panel. Figure 13-17 is an example of viewing all the errors and warnings.

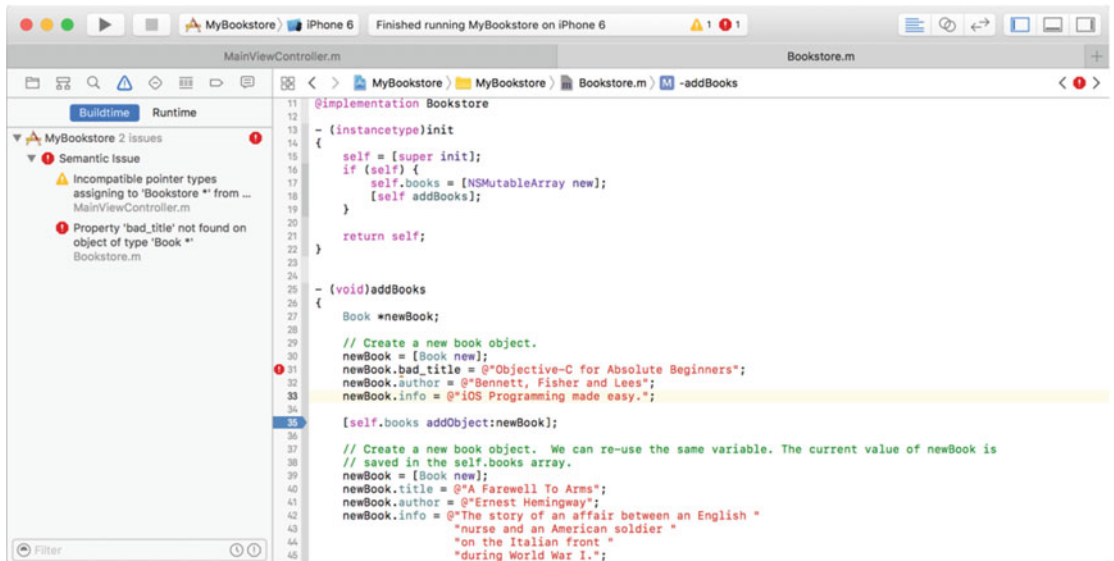


Figure 13-17. Errors and warnings in the Issue Navigator

■ **Note** Line 31 of `Bookstore.m` was modified to be an error. To do this, we changed the `newBook.title` to `newBook.bad_title`. It's an error because `bad_title` isn't a valid property in the `Book` object.

Clicking each line in the Issue Navigator will go to the file and location of the error or warning. This makes it a fast and easy way to find and navigate to all the errors in the build.

Now, just either undo all of these changes or go back and fix these issue so there are no longer any warnings or errors. Now, play around with running the app; setting breakpoints; and stepping over, into, out of code. Just have fun. Xcode definitely provides a lot of features to help debug a program and make finding warnings and errors easy to do.

Summary

In this chapter, we covered the high-level features of the free Apple Xcode debugger. Regardless of price, Xcode is an excellent debugger. Specifically, in this chapter, you learned the following:

- The origins of the term “bug” and what a debugger is
- The high-level features of the Xcode debugger
 - Breakpoints
 - Stepping through a program
- How to use the debugging controls
 - Tasks (stop sign)
 - Restart and continue (pause)
 - Step over
 - Step into
 - Step out
- Working with the various debugger views
 - Threads (call stack)
 - Variables
 - Text editor
 - Output
- Looking at program variables
- Dealing with errors and warnings

Exercises

- Change Device Type from iPhone 6 to something else. Just have fun playing around with the different simulator sizes.

Index

■ A

Actions
 connecting with objects, 239
addToResults(), 217
Airplane class, 15
Algorithm, 1, 10
Alice app
 To the Moon Alice app, 17
Alice applications, 6
Alice interface, 8
Alice user interface
 details area, 17
 3D programming, 11
 editor Area, 17
 events Area, 17
 navigation menu, 12
 Object Tree, 16
 Opening screen, 11
 Scene Editor, 13
 World window, 14
 Xcode IDE, 12
AND operator, 59–62, 81
AppDelegate class, 283
Apple Developer Program, 27
Apple's proprietary A9 processor, 36
Application delegate, 275
Architectural pattern, 224
ASCII characters, 39, 40
Attributes, 245
Author class, 99

■ B

bankLeft(), 15
bankRight(), 15
Binary number system, 38
Binary operators, 59
Block comment, 103
Boilerplate project, 162
Book class, 86–87, 93, 96, 163, 166–167, 205

Book Detail View
 BookDetailsSegue, 191
 BookDetailViewController class, 193–194
 identifier, 191
 label text, 197–198
 outlets setting, 199
 plugging, 202
 segue identifier, 192
 selection segue, 188–190
 Table View to Detail View, 188
 View Controller, 186–187
Book.h file, 166, 181–184, 202
Book object, 160, 166–167, 169, 205
BookStore application
 boilerplate project, 162
 Cocoa Touch class, 163
 creating, 160
 data model classes, 164
 name and parent class, 164
 product name and options, 161
 viewing new class, 166
BookStore folder, 90
Bookstore class, 85, 87
BookStoreCoreData.xcdatamodeld
 attributes, 249–250
 date, 251
 decimal, 251
 integer 32, 251
 string, 251
 blank model, 249
 Data Model Inspector, 253
 entity, 249
 fetched properties, 249
 managed objects, 254–256, 258
 NSManagedObject, 254, 257
 relationships, 249, 252–253
 user interface, 258
BookStore folder, 91
Bookstore.h file, 166
Bookstore init method, 286
Bookstore.m file, 286

Bookstore object, 85, 160, 180, 205, 285–286, 288
 BookstoreTableViewController class, 175
 Boolean data type, 40, 59, 63
 Boolean expressions, 214
 Boolean variable, 215
 combining comparisons, 219
 comparing dates, 217
 comparing strings, 215
 if statement, 214
 true/false values, 214
 Boolean logics
 AND operator, 59–60
 binary operators, 59
 comparing data, 207
 Comparison Operators, 62
 FALSE operator, 59–60
 logical operations, 59
 NAND, 60
 NOR, 60
 NOT statement, 60
 NOT OR, 60
 OR operator, 59, 60
 TRUE operator, 59–60
 Truth Tables, 60
 unary operator NOT, 59
 XOR operator, 60
 Boolean variables, 215
 Breakpoint Navigator method, 280
 Breakpoints, 278–280
 Bugs, 4, 277
 Bytes, 37

■ C

Calling methods
 class methods, 129
 definition, 129
 dynamic binding, 129
 instance methods, 130
 parameters, 129
 Call Stack, 286
 CamelCase, 167
 Camera Adjustment tool, 20, 21
 caseInsensitiveCompare method, 216
 Class
 Calling Methods, 129
 components, 128
 declaring interfaces and properties, 128
 elements, Objective-C language, 127
 implementation file, 131
 instance variables, 128
 interface, 128
 methods
 coding, 132

 objective-C
 definition, 104
 Radio class
 hooking up code, 143
 implementation file, 139
 MyFirstApp, 133, 135
 objects, 135
 SimpleLabelData classes, 133
 UI, 140
 Xcode documentation accessing, 150
 Classes, OOP
 definition, 84
 and individual objects, 85
 planning
 implementing, 89
 methods, 87
 properties, 85
 Class extension, 117
 Class methods, 129
 CLLocationManagerDelegate, 275
 clubMember variable, 215, 219
 Cocoa Touch Class, 137, 163, 175, 177
 Code errors
 and warnings, 288
 Code refactoring, 80
 Collection literal, 155–156, 181
 Collections
 containers, 153
 NSArray, 153, 155
 NSDictionary, 153, 156
 NSMutableArray, 153
 NSMutableDictionary, 153
 NSMutableSet, 153
 NSSet, 153–154
 types, 153
 Command Line Tool template, 28
 Comparing data
 Boolean expressions, 214
 Boolean logic, 207
 relational operators, 208
 scale, 207
 switch statement, 220
 Comparing dates, Boolean expressions, 217
 Comparing numbers
 relational operators, 208
 Comparing strings, Boolean expressions, 215
 Comparison operators, 62
 ComparisonsAppDelegate.m file, 212–213
 Computer program, 1
 Condition-Controlled Loops, 73
 Containers, 153
 Core Data, iOS, 246
 Couch object, 84
 Count-controlled loop, 72

Counter variable, 72–73
 Create a new Xcode Project option, 27–28
 Create button, 138
 Customer class, 86–88, 93–94, 96
 Customer.h file, 94
 Custom TextString, 48

■ D

Data

- debugging, 55
- numbering systems, 35
- storage, 35
- zeros and ones, 35

Databases, 245

- applications, 245
- enterprise database servers, 245
- spreadsheet, 245
- SQLite, 245

Data Model Inspector, 253

Data storage

- BookStoreCoreData.xcdatamodeld
 (see BookStoreCoreData.xcdatamodeld)
- databases, 245
- iPad, 243
- iPhone, 243
- Mac, 243
- preferences file, 243

Data types

- Booleans, 40
- compiler warnings/compiler errors, 40
- definition, 40
- numbers, 40
- objective-C, 50
- objects, 40
- strings, 40
- variables, 40–41

Dates

- comparing, 217

Debug area, 114

Debugger Console window, 30–31

Debugger Controls, 283

Debugging, 4–5, 9–10, 55, 277

- benefits of OOP, 97
- with Xcode debugger
 - Breakpoint Navigator method, 280
 - breakpoints, 278–280
 - Call Stack, 286
 - controls, 284
 - Debugger Controls, 283
 - output window, 283
 - Stack trace, 283
 - Thread Window, 286
 - variables window, 283, 286

Delegate methods, 275

Delete key, 281

Design requirements, 2, 4–5, 8, 10

Details Area, 17

DetailViewController.m, 281

DetailViewController.xib file, 205

Development cycle, 4

Document Outline

- Interface builder application, 233

Dog class, 84

doSomething(), 209

Dynamic binding, 129

■ E

EdibleItem, 274–275

Edit Code button, 21

Editor Area, 17, 30, 49

Edit Scene button, 13

Eliminate Redundant Code, 97

else-if Statements, 79

ENIAC, 35

enteredPassword, 216

Event handlers, 17

Events Area, 17

■ F

Factory methods, 130

FALSE operator, 59–64, 73

fast enumerator, 154

filled-out method, 148

firstNumber variable, 41, 43–46, 54

flips-the-bit, 61

Flowcharting, 68–69

for loop, 72

forum.xcelme.com, 75, 79

Foundation class, 127–128

Foundation framework, 106

■ G

Generate Random Number, 235, 240

Getter method, 169

Grass template, 41

■ H

Handle Style tools, 21

Hello World app, 17

HelloWorld class, 108

HelloWorld.h file, 107

HelloWorld object, 107–108

Helpers, 275

■ INDEX

Hexadecimal, 39
Hooking up code
 Radio class, 143
Human Interface Guidelines (HIGs), 226

■ I, J

if-else statement, 80
If statement, 214
if then statements, 207
If-Then-Else code, 63
If/Then statement, 213
Implementation files
 interface builder application, 239
 radio class, 139
Implementing, classes, 89
Infinite Loops, 73
Inheritance
 multiple, 273
 in OOP, 96
init method, 285
Instance methods, 130, 133
Instances
 in Alice user interface, 15
Instance variables, 128
 accessing properties, 167
 custom Getter and Setter, 168
Instance variablesBook object, 167
Instance variablesNSString object, 167
Integer 32, 251
IntegerForKey method, 245
Integrated development environment (IDE), 6, 10
Interface, 104
 OOP, 98
Interface builder application
 iPhone App
 connecting actions and objects, 239
 Document Outline, 233
 implementation file, 239
 MVC groups, 232
 Object Library, 234–235
 Outlets, 237
 RandomNumber, 228, 230
 random number generator app, 227
 Source files, 230
 view, 235
 XIB file, 232
 operating system, 224
 XIBs, 224
 XML file, 224
Interface file, 114
Interfaces
 and properties (instance variables), 128
InventoryItem protocol, 275
iPhone App

 connecting actions and objects, 239
 document outline, 233
 implementation file, 239
 Object Library, 234–235
 Outlets, 237
 view, 235
isEqualToString, 216

■ K

Keychain, 244

■ L

Label object, 120–121, 143, 238, 240
land(), 15
Local variable, 42
LocationManager method, 276
Logical operations, 59
Looping, 74
Loops
 Condition-Controlled Loops, 73
 count-controlled loop, 72
 Infinite Loops, 73
lowerLandingGear(), 15

■ M

Macintosh, 101
main.c file, 212
main.m file, 77
MainViewController class, 178–180
Master-Detail Application, 89
MasterViewController.m file, 284, 286, 288
Material class, 96
Methods manipulate objects, 7
Microsoft SQL Server, 245
Mobile banking app, 2, 4, 67
Model-View-Controller (MVC) pattern, 224
modulus operator, 79
MoonProject.a3p Template, 18
Moore's law, 36
Multiple inheritance, 273
Multitasking, 244
Mutable container classes
 NSMutableArray, 158
 NSMutableDictionary, 159
 NSMutableSet, 157
MyBookstore program
 Bookstore Object, 180
 clean slate and utilities pane displayed, 172–173
 delete key, 169–172
 Main.storyboard file, 171
 Navigation Controller, 172
 (Optional) Shrinking, 173–175

- Root View Controller, 174
- ViewController.h and .m files, 169
- View Controller Scene, 172
- MyClass interface, 275

■ N

- NAND operator, 60
- NAND truth table, 61
- Navigation Controller, 172–173
- Navigation menu, 12
- Navigator, 114
- Navigator area, 30
- Nested if Statements, 79
- New Xcode Project, 210
- NeXT Computer, 101
- Non-mutable classes, 157
- NOR operator, 60
- NOR truth table, 62
- NOT statement, 60
- NOT operator, 60
- NOT truth table, 61
- NSApplication class, 275
- NSApplication object, 275
- NSArray class, 155
- NSArray object, 156
- NSDate class, 217
- NSDateComparisonResult, 217–219
- NSDate object, 218–219
- NSDictionary, 153
 - Access, Order and Uniqueness, 157
 - Animal object, 156
 - definition, 156
 - key and value, 156
 - type of collection class, 156
- NSLog function, 54–55, 213–214
- NSManagedObject, 254
- NSMutableArray object, 153, 158
- NSMutableDictionary, 153, 159
- NSMutableSet, 153, 157
- NSObject class, 108, 128, 132
- NSOrderedAscending, 217–218
- NSOrderedDescending, 217–218
- NSOrderedSame, 217, 219
- NSSet class, 154
- NSString, 213, 215–217, 220
- NSString class, 107, 151
- NSString object, 107, 130, 167, 215–216
- NSUserDefaults object, 244
- Numbering systems
 - bits, 35
 - bytes, 37
 - Hexadecimal, 39
 - Moore’s Law, 36
 - Unicode, 40

- Numbers, 40
 - comparing, 208

■ O

- Objective-C
 - arc4random(), 79
 - Command Line Tool project, 75–76
 - and data types, 50
 - else-if Statements, 79
 - history of, 101
 - language symbols and syntax
 - begin and end section of code, 102
 - comments, 103
 - definition, class, 104
 - definition, method, 104
 - definition, variable, 105
 - end of a line of code, 103
 - variable, 102
 - modulus operator, 79
 - Nested if Statements, 79
 - and NeXTSTEP, 101
 - programming (*see* Programming)
 - random number, 76–77
 - Random Number Generator App, 78–79
 - refactoring, 80
 - removing extra characters, 79
 - Running App, 80
 - Smalltalk concepts, 105
- Objective-C class, 91–92, 107, 125, 127, 137, 151, 154, 163
- Objective-C object, 127, 163, 167
- Objective-C program
 - Xcode 4.2 toolset, 26
- Object Library, 141, 234–235
- Object-oriented programming
 - language, 101
- Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)
 - benefits
 - ease of replacement, 98
 - eliminate redundant code, 97
 - class (*see* Classes, OOP)
 - definition, 83
 - development environments and languages
 - implement, 83
 - inheritance, 96
 - interface, 98
 - Polymorphism, 98
- Objects, 40
 - in Alice user interface, 15
 - connecting actions and, 239
 - definition, 83
 - Radio class, 135
- Objects Adjustment tool, 20–21
- Object’s properties, 8

■ INDEX

- Object Tree, 21
- OmniGraffle, 2, 65–66
- Operating system, 1
- OR truth table, 61
- Oracle, 245
- OR operator, 60
- Outlets
 - interface builder application, 237
- Output window, 283

■ P

- Parameters, 24
- Pause or Continue button, 284
- Planning program flow and decision-making
 - App's design, 70
 - boolean logic, 59
 - designing and flowcharting, 69
 - design requirements, 65
 - Example App in Alice, 74–75
 - flowcharting, 68
 - Loops, 72
 - Pseudo-code, 63
- Plugging, 202
- Polymorphism
 - OOP, 98
- Preferences file, data storage
 - read and written, 243
 - reading, 245
 - standardized XML file, 244
 - writing, 244
- prepareForSegue, 202
- Procedural language, 101
- Procedures (methods and functions), 17
- Procedures tab, 21–22
- Programming
 - algorithm, 1
 - Alice user interface, 11
 - BookDetailView (*see* BookDetailView)
 - BookStore application, 160
 - collections, 153
 - design requirements, 2, 4–5, 8, 10
 - development cycle, 4
 - instance variables, 166
 - mutable container classes, 157
 - MyBookstore Program, 169
 - Objective-C program, 26
 - OOP, 5
 - process of, 1–2, 4
 - table view, 184
 - UI, 2–3
- Programming language, 1
- Properties, 17
 - classes, 85

- Protocols
 - definition, 274
 - delegates, 275
 - multiple inheritance, 273
 - syntax, 275
- Pseudo-code, 63

■ Q

- Quality assurance (QA), 4, 10

■ R

- raiseLandingGear(), 15
- RandomNumber, 76–77
- Random number generator, 75
- Random number generator app, 74, 240
- Random Number Generator App, 78–79
- rangeOfString function, 216–217
- Reading preferences, data storage, 245
- Redundant Code
 - eliminating, 97
- Referencing Outlet, 123
- Relational Operators
 - comparing numbers, 208
 - Xcode App, 209
- RemoveAllObjects method, 158–159
- RemoveLastObject method, 159
- RemoveObjectAtIndex method, 159
- Root View Controller, 174, 179–180
- Run button, 30, 284
- Running App, 80

■ S

- SaleItem, 275
- Sales class, 88, 97
- SaleStarted variable, 217–219
- Sandbox, 243
- Scanf function, 79–80
- Scene Editor, 13–14
- Second local variable, 43
- SecondNumber variable, 42
- Seed method, 239
- Selection Segue, 188–190
- Setter method, 169
- Setup Scene button, 13
- Setup Scene control, 13
- Single View Application, Xcode, 109
- Smalltalk concepts
 - objective-C, 105
- Software development cycle, 4–5
- Software testing, 4
- some_code() method, 214–215

Spreadsheet, 245
 SQLite, 245
 backup loss, 246
 Core Data, iOS, 246, 270
 BookStoreCoreData.xcdatamodeld
 (see BookStoreCoreData.xcdatamodeld)
 database manager, 246
 flexibility in storing information, 246
 single-user database, 246
 Stack trace, 283
 Step controls
 for debugging, 284
 Step Into button, 284–286
 Step Out button, 284
 Step Over button, 284
 Stepstone, 101
 Stop button, 284
 Storyboards, 223
 stringForKey method, 245
 String parameter, 48
 Strings, 40
 comparing, 215
 stringWithContentsofurl, 167
 stringWithContentsOfURL, 167
 Subclass, 96, 104, 106, 108
 Superclass, 92–93, 96, 99, 104, 108
 Switch statement
 Comparing data, 220
 Synchronize function, 245
 Synchronize method, 244
 Syntax, 31–32
 protocols, 275

■ T

takeOff(), 15
 Template tab, 18
 Ternary operation, 213
 testString variable, 158
 Thread Window, 286
 title variable, 167
 totalNumber variable, 46, 49
 totalSum variable, 43–46, 49
 To the Moon Alice app
 Camera Adjustment tool, 20–21
 Edit Code button, 21
 Editor area, 24–25
 Handle Style tools, 21
 HelloWorld app, 17
 methods and parameters, 22–24
 Objects Adjustment tools, 20, 21
 procedures tab, 21–22
 Template tab, 18
 UFO, 17, 18
 viewing and adding objects, 19

Touch-up inside, 122
 Triggers, 17
 TRUE operator, 59–65, 73–74
 Truth Tables, 60

■ U

UIApplication, 283
 UIBarButtonItem, 263–264
 UI object, 117
 UITableView, 7–8
 UI Tests check boxes, 110
 UML diagram, 89, 94
 Unary operator NOT, 59
 Unicode, 40
 Unified Modeling Language (UML) diagram, 88
 Unique objects, 158
 unit tests, 110
 Unix operating system, 101
 unordered, 154
 Use Core Data, Xcode, 110
 userGuess, 79–80
 User interface, data storage
 Attributes Inspector, 261
 Bar Button Item, 264–265
 code implementation, 267–270
 connection setup, 267
 creation, 259
 Document Outline, 265
 hook up, 266
 identifier, 261
 navigation bar, 263–264
 Navigation Controller, 262–263
 Table View, 260
 UIBarButtonItem, 263–264
 UITableViewCell, 261
 User interfaces
 HIGs, 226
 interface builder application, 224
 iOS, 223
 macOS, 223
 MVC pattern, 224
 UTF8string, 216
 Utilities pane, 114

■ V

Variable, 40, 102
 objective-C
 definition, 105
 Variables and data types, 41
 Variables window, 283
 ViewController.h file, 114
 ViewController.h interface, 116
 ViewController.m file, 116

■ INDEX

ViewController object, 123, 126
ViewController.xib file, 117, 140
View object, 225

■ W

Warnings

and code errors, 288
while loop, 73
Window-Based Application, 210
Woodforest Mobile Banking app, 4, 67
Writing preferences, data storage, 244

■ X, Y, Z

Xcode

accessing documentation, 150
launches, 109
new Xcode project, 109
opening screen, 108
project creation
 Button control, 118, 119
 button's title, 120
 class extension, 117
 connection menu for Label object, 123
 Debug area, 114
 editor, 115
 implementation file, 117
 interface file, 114
 iPhone emulator, 124–125
 iPhone interface, 117–118
 label object, 120–121
 label's size, 121
 navigator, 114
 panes, 112–114

Referencing Outlet, 123
showName, 122
Single View Application, 109
touch-up inside, 122
types of templates, 109
UI object, 117
Use Core Data, 110
utilities pane, 114
view buttons, 112
ViewController.h interface, 115–116
ViewController.m implementation
 file, 116–117

Xcode 7.3 toolbar, 111–112

types of templates, 110

Xcode 4.2 toolset, 26

Xcode applications

relational operators, 209

Xcode debugger

code errors, 288

warnings, 288

with debugging

 Breakpoint Navigator method, 280

 breakpoints, 278–280

 Call Stack, 286

 Debugger Controls, 283

 device, 277

 features, 277

 simulators, 277–287

 Thread Window, 286

 variables, 286

Xcode IDE, 9, 12

XIB file, 231–232, 236, 238, 241

XML file, 224

XOR operator, 60–61, 81