

Let's **Go!**

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- Open-source
- Garbage Collected, compiled, CSP-style concurrent programming

Go is an attempt to combine the safety and performance of statically typed languages with the convenience and fun of dynamically typed interpretative languages. [Rob Pike]

Some companies using Go

- Google
- CoreOS
- Dropbox
- Netflix
- MongoDB
- SoundMusic
- Uber
- Twitter
- Dell
- Docker
- Github
- Intel
- Lyft
- ...

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Hello World

```
package main

import (
    "fmt"
    "os"
)

func main() {
    fmt.Println("Hello_ ", os.Args[1])
}
```

- Compile and run with:
go run hello.go yournamehere

Hello World

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package main

import (
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    fmt.Println("Hello_□", os.Args[1])
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- Compile and run with:
go run hello.go yournamehere
- Documentation:
godoc -http=":6060"
http://localhost:6060/pkg/

Packages

- Every Go program is made up of packages.
- Programs start running in package main

```
package main

import  "fmt"
import  "math/rand"

func main() {
    fmt.Println("My favorite number is",
               rand.Intn(10))
}
```

Exported Names

- Every name that begins with a capital letter is exported
- "unexported" names are not accessible from outside the package

```
package main

import "fmt"
import "math"

func main() {
    fmt.Println(math.Pi)
}
```

Declaring variables

- Types come **after** the name
- Variables are introduced via **var**
- A var declaration can include initializers =
- Implicit type declaration can be done using :=

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    var i = 51
    j := 42
    var k int = 51
    l, m := 12, 18
    var n, o int = 12, 18
    fmt.Println(i, j, k, l, m, n, o)
}
```

Functions

- A function can take zero or more arguments
- The return type comes after the declaration, and before the body
- Shared types can be omitted from all but the last parameter
- A function can return any number of results

```
func add1(x int, y int) int {  
    return x + y  
}  
  
func add2(x, y int) int {  
    return x + y  
}  
  
func swap(x, y string) (string, string) {  
    return y, x  
}
```

Named return values

- return values may be named
- names should be used to document the meaning of the return value
- A return statement without arguments returns the named return values. This is called **naked** returns.
- **Naked return statements should be used only in short functions.**

```
package main
import "fmt"
func split(input int) (x, y int) {
    x = input * 4 / 9
    y = input - x
    return
}
func main() {
    fmt.Println(split(42))
}
```

Types

bool	string	int	int8	int16	int32	int64
uint	uint8	uint16	uint32	uint64	uintptr	byte
rune	float32	float64	complex64	complex128		

- Variables declared without an explicit initial value are given their **zero value** (for string "", for bool **false**, ...)
- The expression T(v) converts the value v to the type T

```
func main() {  
    var i int = 42  
    var f float64 = float64(i)  
    var b bool  
    var s string  
    fmt.Printf("%v %v %v %q\n", i, f, b, s)  
}
```

Constants

- Numeric constants are high-precision values.
- An untyped constant takes the type needed by its context.
- Constants, like imports, can be grouped.

```
package main

import "fmt"

const (
    Big = 1 << 100
    Small = Big >> 99
)

func main() {
    fmt.Println(Small)
    fmt.Println(Small*2.01)
}
```

For init;condition; loop { body }

- No parentheses surrounding the three components of the for statement
- The braces are always required.
- The loop will stop iterating once the boolean condition evaluates to false.
- The init and post statement are optional (while loop)
- Omit the loop condition to get a forever loop

```
package main
import "fmt"
func main() {
    sum := 6
    for i := 0; i < 9; i++ {
        sum += i
    }
    fmt.Println(sum)
}
```

Conditional testing

- Variables declared by the statement are only in scope until the end of the if
- No parentheses surrounding the declaration plus the condition

```
package main
import "fmt"
func main() {
    if v := 42; v < 51 {
        fmt.Println(v)
    }
    else {
        fmt.Println("Ohoh")
    }
}
```

Switch

- A case body breaks automatically, unless it ends with a fallthrough statement
- Switch cases evaluate cases from top to bottom, stopping when a case succeeds.
- Switch without a condition is the same as switch true

```
package main; import ( "fmt"; "runtime" )
func test() string {return "myOS"}
func main() {
    fmt.Print("Go▯runs▯on▯")
    switch os := runtime.GOOS; os {
        case "darwin": fmt.Println("MacOS.")
        case test():    fmt.Println("My▯OS")
        case "linux":  fmt.Println("GNU/Linux.")
        default:       fmt.Printf("%s.", os)
    }
}
```

Pointers

- * allows dereferences
- & generates a pointer to its operand
- No pointer arithmetic

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    var i int = 21
    var p* int = &i
    fmt.Println(*p)
    *p = *p + 2
    fmt.Println(i)
}
```

Structures

- Struct fields are accessed using a dot
- Struct fields can be accessed through a struct pointer (*p).X or p.X

```
package main
import "fmt"
type FooBar struct {
    X int
    Y int
}
func main() {
    v := FooBar{1, 2}
    v.X = 4
    fmt.Println(v.X)
    p := &v
    p.X = 18
    fmt.Println(v.X)
}
```

Anonymous Structures

- Structs can be anonymous
- Structs can be 'raw' compared

```
package main
import "fmt"
func main() {
    a := struct {
        i int
        b bool
    }{51, false}
    b := struct {
        i int
        b bool
    }{51, false}
    fmt.Println(a == b)
}
```

Arrays

- An array has a fixed size
- A slice, on the other hand, is a dynamically-sized, flexible view into the elements of an array
- Slices are like references to arrays
- Lower and/or upper bounds can be omitted for slices
- Slices can be increased/decrease. Use len or cap to know length or capacity of a slice.

```
package main
import "fmt"
func main() {
    primes := [/*size*/]int{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13}
    var s []int = primes[1:4]
    fmt.Println(s)
    var s2 []int = primes[:4]
    fmt.Println(s2)
}
```

Dynamic Arrays

- Dynamic arrays are built over slices
- May use the built-in `make` function to specify length and capacity
- Use `append` to add new elements

```
package main
import "fmt"
func main() {
    d := make([]int, 0/*length*/, 0 /*capacity*/)
    // Previous equivalent to d := []int {}
    d = append(d, 42, 51)
    fmt.Printf("%s len=%d cap=%d v\n",
               "d", len(d), cap(d), d)
}
```

Range

- Iteration over arrays can be done using Range
- Range provides two values at each iteration:
 - ▶ the index
 - ▶ a reference toward the element at that index.
- Skip the index or value by assigning it to `_`

```
package main

import "fmt"

var array = []int{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128}

func main() {
    for i, v := range array {
        fmt.Printf("%d_=%d\n", i, v)
    }
}
```

Map

- make function returns a map of the given type, initialized and ready for use.
- The zero value of a map is nil
- A nil map has no keys, nor can keys be added
- Test that a key is present with a two-value assignment

```
package main; import "fmt"
var m map[string] int
func main() {
    m = make(map[string]int)
    m["EPITA"] = 42
    fmt.Print(m["EPITA"])
    delete(m, "EPITA")
    elem, ok := m["EPITA"]
    fmt.Print(elem, ok)
}
// 42 0 false
```

Package Debug

Package debug contains facilities for programs to debug themselves while they are running.

- `func FreeOSMemory()`: force Garbage Collection
- `func PrintStack()`: print stack
- `func ReadGCStats(stats *GCStats)`: grab stats on Garbage collection
- `func SetMaxStack(bytes int) int`: set maximum stack size
- `func SetMaxThreads(threads int) int`: fix maximum number of threads
- ...

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A word on fonctionnal programming

Functional programming (FP) has two related characteristics:

- First-class functions. Functions/methods are first-class citizens, i.e. they can be:

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 - ① named by a variable
 - ② passed to a function as an argument
 - ③ returned from a function as a result
 - ④ stored in any kind of data structure.
- Closure. Function/method definitions are associated to some/all of the environment when they are defined.

Go Functions are 1st Class

- Functions can be declared at any levels
- Functions can be passed as arguments/return of functions

```
package main; import "fmt"

func compute(fn func(int) int, value int) int {
    return 42*fn(value)
}

func main() {
    myfun := func(x int) int{
        myfun2 := func(y int) int{ return y*y }
        return myfun2(x)
    }
    fmt.Print(myfun(5))
    fmt.Print(" ", compute(myfun, 5))
} // 25 1050
```

Functions closure

- A closure is a function value that references variables from outside its body.
- The function is "bound" to the variables.

```
package main; import "fmt"
func adder() func(int) int {
    sum := 0
    return func(x int) int {
        sum += x
        return sum
    }
}
func main() {
    cumul := adder()
    for i := 0; i < 10; i++ {
        fmt.Println(cumul(i))
    }
}
```

Closures are Weak in Go

Go closures are not as strong as required by pure Fonctionnal Programming

```
package main; import "fmt"
func main () {
    counter := 0;
    f1 := func (x int) int {
        counter += x; return counter
    }
    f2 := func (y int) int{
        counter += y; return counter
    }
    fmt.Printf("□%d□\n", f1(1))
    fmt.Printf("□%d□\n", f2(1))
    fmt.Printf("□%d□\n", f1(1))
}
```

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Functions associated to a type 1/3

- No classes, but you can define functions on types
- A function with a special receiver argument

```
package main; import ("fmt"; "math")
type MyType struct {
    X, Y float64
}
func (v MyType) Abs() float64 {
    return math.Sqrt(v.X*v.X + v.Y*v.Y)
}
func main() {
    v := MyType{3, 4}
    fmt.Println(v.Abs())
}
```

Functions associated to a type 2/3

The receiver is passed by copy unless a pointer is passed as receiver

You do not need to dereference the receiver in this case

```
package main; import ("fmt")
type MyType struct {
    X, Y float64
}
func (v* MyType) SetX(x float64) {
    v.X = x
}
func main() {
    v := MyType{3, 4}
    v.SetX(18)
    fmt.Println(v)
}
```

Functions associated to a type 3/3

- We can declare a function on non-struct types
- Possible, only for function with a receiver whose type is defined in the same package as the function

```
package main
import ("fmt"; "math")
type MyFloat float64
func (f MyFloat) Abs() float64 {
    if f < 0 {
        return float64(-f)
    }
    return float64(f)
}
func main() {
    f := MyFloat(-math.Sqrt2)
    fmt.Println(f.Abs())
}
```

Interface

- An interface type is defined as a set of method signature
- A value of interface type can hold any value that implements those methods

```
package main; import "fmt"
type Runner interface {
    Run() int
}
type MyType struct {
    X int
}
func (v MyType) Run() int {
    return 42
}
func main() {
    var a Runner; v := MyType{3}
    a = v;  fmt.Println(a.Run())
}
```

Stringer Interface

- Useful to print types

```
type Person struct {
    Name string
    Age  int
}

func (p Person) String() string {
    return fmt.Sprintf("%v (%v years)",
        p.Name, p.Age)
}

// ...
fmt.Println(Person{"John_Doe", 42})
```

Runtime Polymorphism

```
package main; import "fmt"

type Runner interface { Run() int }
type MyType1 struct { X int }
type MyType2 struct { X,Y int }

func (v MyType1) Run() int {return 42 }
func (v MyType2) Run() int {return v.X + v.Y }
func run(v Runner) int { return v.Run()}

func main() {
    v1 := MyType1{3}
    v2 := MyType2{3, 4}
    fmt.Println(v1.Run(), v2.Run())
    fmt.Println(run(v1),run(v2))
}
```

Maximum Polymorphism and Reflection

- maximum polymorphism through the empty interface: "interface {}"
- For example, the printing functions in fmt use it
- Need for some reflection mechanisms, i.e. ways to check at runtime that instances satisfy types, or are associated to functions.
- For instance, to check that `x0` satisfies the interface `I`

```
x1, ok := x0.(I);
```

(`ok` is a boolean, and if true, `x1` is `x0` with type `I`)

Type Dispatch

- Dynamic Dispatch can easily be done

```
func dispatch(i interface{}) {  
    switch v := i.(type) {  
        case int:  
            //...  
        case string:  
            //...  
        default:  
            //...  
    }  
}
```

Duck Typing

- Go functional polymorphism is a type-safe realization of duck typing.
- Implicit Rule: If something can do this, then it can be used here.
 - ▶ Opportunistic behavior of the type instances.
 - ▶ Dynamic OO languages like CLOS or Groovy include duck typing in a natural way

In static languages: duck typing is realized as a structural typing mechanism (instead of nominal in which all type compatibilities should be made explicit – see e.g., implements, extends in Java).

Duck typing uses mechanisms similar to the one we have with C++
Generic Programming.

Go Interfaces and Structuration Levels

- Go interfaces: A type-safe overloading mechanism where sets of overloaded functions make type instances compatible or not to the available types (interfaces).

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Go Interfaces and Structuration Levels

- Go interfaces: A type-safe overloading mechanism where sets of overloaded functions make type instances compatible or not to the available types (interfaces).
- The effect of an expression like: $x.F(..)$ depends on all the available definitions of F , on the type of x , and on the set of available interfaces where F occurs
- About the grain of structuration dilemma between the functional and modular levels: Go votes for the functional level, but less than CLOS, a little more than Haskell, and definitely more than Java/C# (where almost every type is implemented as an encapsulating class)...

Summary about polymorphism & interface

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- Go structural-oriented type system is not new, neither very powerful...
- OCaml offers type and interface inference with constrained genericity, and inheritance

Summary about polymorphism & interface

- **In Go, no explicit inheritance mechanism.** The closest mechanism: some implicit behavior inheritance through interface unions (called embedding):

```
type Foo interface {
    F1() int;
}
type Bar interface {
    F2() int;
}
type FooBar interface {
    Foo // inclusion
    Bar // inclusion
}
```

Rule

If type T is compatible with FooBar, it is compatible with Foo and Bar too

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Concurrency

The idea

Impose a sharing model where processes do not share anything implicitly (see Hoares Communicating Sequential Processes 1978)

Motto

Do not communicate by sharing memory; instead, share memory by communicating.

Objectives

Reduce the synchronization problems (sometimes at the expense of performance)

Three basic constructs

- Goroutines are similar to threads, coroutines, processes, (Googlers claimed they are sufficiently different to give them a new name)

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 - ▶ A goroutine does not return anything (side-effects are needed)
- Channels: a typed FIFO-based mechanism to make goroutines communicate and synchronize
- Segmented stacks make co-routines usable

Go Routine

- A goroutine is a lightweight thread managed by the Go runtime
- starts a new goroutine running **go**
- Goroutines run in the same address space
- access to shared memory must be synchronized (see sync package)

```
package main; import ("fmt"; "time")
func say(s string) {
    for i := 0; i < 5; i++ {
        time.Sleep(100 * time.Millisecond)
        fmt.Println(s)
    }
}
func main() {
    go say("world")
    say("hello")
}
```

Channels 1/3

- Channels are a typed conduits
- Send to channel using $ch <- v$
- Receive from channel using $v := <- ch$
- Channels can be buffered: blocking when the buffer is full or empty

```
package main; import "fmt"
func main() {
    ch := make(chan int, 2)
    ch <- 1
    ch <- 2
    fmt.Println(<-ch)
    fmt.Println(<-ch)
}
```

Channels 2/3

- A sender can close a channel to indicate that no more values will be sent.
- Receivers can test whether a channel has been closed $v, ok := <- ch$
- Sending on a closed channel will cause a panic.
- Channels aren't like files; you don't usually need to close them

```
package main; import "fmt"
func compute(n int, c chan int) {
    for i := 0; i < n; i++ { c <- i }
    close(c)
}
func main() {
    c := make(chan int, 10)
    go compute(cap(c), c)
    for i := range c { fmt.Println(i) }
}
```

Channels 3/3

- Select lets a goroutine wait on multiple communication operations

```
func main() {
    c1 := make(chan string); c2 := make(chan string)
    go func() { time.Sleep(time.Second * 5)
                c1 <- "one"
            }()
    go func() { time.Sleep(time.Second * 5);
                c2 <- "two"
            }()
    for i := 0; i < 2; i++ {
        select {
            case msg1 := <-c1:
                fmt.Println("received", msg1)
            case msg2 := <-c2:
                fmt.Println("received", msg2)
        }
    }
}
```

PingPong Time

Demo.

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Reflection & Tags 1/2

Reflection is the ability of program to introspect, and modify its own structure and behavior at runtime

```
package main

import (
    "fmt"
    "reflect"
)

type Foo struct {
    FirstName string 'tag_name:"tag_1"'
    LastName  string  'tag_name:"tag_2"'
    Age       int     'tag_name:"tag_3"'
}
```

Reflection & Tags 2/2

```
func (f *Foo) reflect() {
    val := reflect.ValueOf(f).Elem()
    for i := 0; i < val.NumField(); i++ {
        valueField := val.Field(i)
        typeField := val.Type().Field(i)
        tag := typeField.Tag
        fmt.Printf("Field Name: %s, \t Field Value: %v, \n",
            typeField.Name,
            valueField.Interface(),
            tag.Get("tag_name"))
    }
}

func main() {
    f := &Foo{FirstName: "John", LastName: "Doe",
        Age: 30}
    f.reflect()
}
```

Defer

- Defers the execution of a function until the surrounding function returns
- The deferred call's arguments are evaluated immediately but the function call is not executed until the surrounding function returns.
- Defer is commonly used to simplify functions that perform various clean-up actions (closing file for instance)

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    defer fmt.Println("world")
    fmt.Println("hello")
}
```

Stacking Defer

- Deferred function calls are pushed onto a stack
- When a function returns, its deferred calls are executed in last-in-first-out order

```
package main

import "fmt"
func main() {
    fmt.Println("counting")
    for i := 0; i < 10; i++ {
        defer fmt.Println(i)
    }
    fmt.Println("done")
} // counting done 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0
```

Panic and Recover 1/2

- Panic is a built-in function that stops the ordinary flow of control and begins panicking.
- Recover is a built-in function that regains control of a panicking goroutine. **Recover is only useful inside deferred functions.**

```
package main
import "fmt"

func g(i int) {
    fmt.Println("Enter_g.")
    panic(i)
    fmt.Println("Exit_g.")
}
```

Panic and Recover 2/2

```
func f() {
    defer func() {
        if r := recover(); r != nil {
            fmt.Println("Recovered in f", r)
        }
    }()
    fmt.Println("Calling g.")
    g(42)
    fmt.Println("Returned normally from g.")
}

func main() {
    f()
    fmt.Println("Returned normally from f.")
}
```

Pros & Cons

- Simple and scalable multithreaded and concurrent programming
- All is type
- Tooling and API
- Performance is on the order of C
- Includes a lot of paradigms

- Weak type system
- GC (tricolor concurrent mark-and-sweep algorithm) causes runtime overhead
- Not thread-safe
- No generics
- No shared libraries: can't load Go code at runtime