

An Introduction to Go

Why and how to write **good** Go code

@francesc

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Previously:

- Developer Advocate at Google
 - Go team
 - Google Cloud Platform

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```
// HTMLEscape appends to dst the JSON-encoded src with <, >, &, U+2028 &
// characters inside string literals changed to \u003c, \u003e, \u0026,
// so that the JSON will be safe to embed inside HTML <script> tags.
// For historical reasons, web browsers don't honor standard HTML
// escaping within <script> tags, so an alternative JSON encoding must
// be used.
```

```
func HTMLEscape(dst *bytes.Buffer, src []byte) {
    // The characters can only appear in string literals,
    // so just scan the string one byte at a time.
    start := 0
    for i, c := range src {
        if c == '<' || c == '>' || c == '&' {
            if start < i {
                dst.Write(src[start:i])
            }
            dst.WriteString(`\u00`)
            dst.WriteByte(hex[c>>4])
            dst.WriteByte(hex[c&0xF])
            start = i + 1
        }
        // Convert U+2028 and U+2029 (E2 80 A8 a
        if c == 0xE2 && i+2 < len(src) && src[i+
            if start < i {
                dst.Write(src[start:i])
            }
            dst.WriteString(`\u202`)
            dst.WriteByte(hex[src[i+2]&0xF])
            start = i + 3
        }
    }
    if start < len(src) {
        dst.Write(src[start:])
    }
}
```

```
func (e *MarshalerError) Error() string {
    return "json: error calling MarshalJSON for type " + e.Type.String() + ": " + e.Err
}

var hex = "0123456789abcdef"

// An encodeState encodes JSON into a bytes.Buffer.
type encodeState struct {
    bytes.Buffer // accumulated output
    scratch      [4]byte

    encodeState *ol // Pod
}

func newEncodeState(encodeState *encodeState) {
    v := encodeState.Get() != nil {
        (*encodeState)
    }
    e := t()
}
```

just for



JustForFunc: Programming in Go

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The Go Programming Language ✓

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Videos about working with the Go Programming Language.

Agenda

Day 1

- Go basics
- Type System

Day 2

- Concurrency

Day 3

- Performance Analysis
- Tooling
- Advanced Topics
- Q&A

Day 1

Agenda

- Go basics
- Go's Type System
- Go's Standard Library Overview
- Q&A

What is Go?

An open source (BSD licensed) project:

- Language specification,
- Small runtime (garbage collector, scheduler, etc),
- Two compilers (gc and gccgo),
- A standard library,
- Tools (build, fetch, test, document, profile, format),
- Documentation.

Language specs and std library are **backwards compatible** in Go 1.x.

Go 1.x

Released in March 2012

A specification of the language and libraries supported for years.

The guarantee: code written for Go 1.0 will **build and run** with Go 1.x.

Best thing we ever did.

What is Go about?

Go is about composition.

Composition of:

- Types:
 - The **type system** allows bottom-up design.
- Processes:
 - The **concurrency** principles of Go make process composition straight-forward.
- Large scale systems:
 - The packaging and access control system and **Go tooling** all help on this.

Hello, CERN!

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    fmt.Println("Hello, CERN")
}
```

Hello, CERN!

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    fmt.Println("Hello, CERN")
}
```

Packages

All Go code lives in packages.

Packages contain **type, function, variable, and constant** declarations.

Packages can be very small (package errors has just one declaration) or very large (package net/http has >100 declarations).

Case determines visibility:

Foo is exported, foo is not.

Hello, CERN!

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    fmt.Println("Hello, CERN")
}
```

Hello, CERN!

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    fmt.Println("Hello, CERN")
}
```

```
prog.go:4:5: cannot refer to unexported name fmt.Println
prog.go:4:5: undefined: fmt.Println
```

More packages

Some packages are part of the **standard library**:

- “fmt”: formatting and printing
- “encoding/json”: JSON encoding and decoding

golang.org/pkg for the whole list

Convention: package names match the last element of the import path.

```
import "fmt"           → fmt.Println  
import "math/rand"    → rand.Intn
```

More packages

All packages are identified by their import path

- “github.com/golang/example/stringutil”
- “golang.org/x/net”

You can use godoc.org to find them and see their documentation.

```
$ go get github.com/golang/example/hello
$ ls $GOPATH/src/github.com/golang/example/hello
hello.go
$ $GOPATH/bin/hello
Hello, Go examples!
```


Understanding GOPATH

A Go workspace resides under a single directory: GOPATH.

```
$ go env GOPATH
```

- defaults to \$HOME/go
- will maybe disappear soon (Go modules)

Three subdirectories:

- src: Go source code, your project but also all its dependencies.
- bin: Binaries resulting from compilation.
- pkg: A cache for compiled packages

Hello, CERN!

```
package main

import (
    "fmt"
    "github.com/golang/example/stringutil"
)

func main() {
    msg := stringutil.Reverse("Hello, CERN")
    fmt.Println(msg)
}
```

Further workspace topics

Dependency management:

- vendor directories
- dep / Go **modules**

Workspace management:

- internal directories
- The `go list` tool

More info: github.com/campoy/go-tooling-workshop

Type System

Go Type System

Go is **statically typed**:

```
var s string = "hello"  
s = 2.0
```

cannot use 2 (type float64) as type string in assignment

But it doesn't feel like it:

```
s := "hello"
```

More types with less typing.

Variable declaration

Declaration with name and type

```
var number int
```

```
var one, two int
```

Declaration with name, type, and value

```
var number int = 1
```

```
var one, two int = 1, 2
```

Variable declaration

Short variable declaration with name and value

```
number := 1
```

```
one, two := 1, 2
```

Default values:

integer literals:	42	int
float literals:	3.14	float64
string literal:	"hi"	string
bool literal:	true	bool

abstract types

concrete types

abstract types

concrete types

concrete types in Go

- they describe a memory layout



- behavior attached to data through methods

The predefined types

Numerical:

int, int8, int16, **int32 (rune)**, int64
uint, **uint8 (byte)**, uint16, uint32, uint64
complex64, complex128
uintptr

Others

bool, string, **error**

Creating new types

Arrays:

```
type arrayOfThreeInts [3]int
```

Slices:

```
type sliceOfInts []int
```

Maps:

```
type mapOfStringsToInts map[string]int
```

Creating new types

Functions:

```
type funcIntToInt func(int) int
```

```
type funcStringToIntAndError func(string) (int, error)
```

Channels:

```
type channelOfInts chan int
```

```
type readOnlyChanOfInts chan <-int
```

```
type writeOnlyChanOfInts chan int<-
```

Creating new types

Structs:

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

Pointers:

```
type pointerToPerson *Person
```

Slices and arrays

Slices are of dynamic size, arrays are not.

You probably want to use slices.

```
var s []int
fmt.Println(len(s)) // 0
s = append(s, 1)    // [1]
```

```
s := make([]int, 2)
fmt.Println(len(s)) // 2
fmt.Println(s)      // {0,0}
```

Sub-slicing

You can obtain a section of a slice with the `[:]` operator.

```
s := []int{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5} // [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
t := s[1:3]                 // [1, 2]
t := u[:3]                  // [0, 1, 2]
t := s[1:]                  // [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
t[0] = 42
fmt.Println(s)              // [0, 42, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```


Maps

Their default value is not usable other than for reading

```
m := make(map[int]string)
```

```
m[1] = "one"
```

```
delete(m, 1)
```

```
m := map[int]string{1: "one"}
```

```
fmt.Println(len(m) // 1
```

```
fmt.Println(m[1]) // "one"
```

Functions

They can return multiple values.

```
func double(x int) int { return 2 * x }  
  
func div(x, y int) (int, error) { ... }  
  
func splitHostIP(s string) (host, ip string) { ... }  
  
var even func(x int) bool  
  
even := func(x int) bool { return x%2 == 0 }
```

More functions

Functions can be used as any other value.

```
func fib() func() int {
    a, b := 0, 1
    return func() int {
        a, b = b, a+b
        return a
    }
}

f := fib()
for i := 0; i < 10; i++ { fmt.Print(f()) }
```

Closures

Lexical scope is great!

```
func fib() func() int {  
    a, b := 0, 1  
    return func() int {  
        a, b = b, a+b  
        return a  
    }  
}
```

```
f := fib()  
for i := 0; i < 10; i++ { fmt.Print(f()) }
```

Closures

Lexical scope is great!

```
var a, b int = 0, 1

func fib() func() int {
    return func() int {
        a, b = b, a+b
        return a
    }
}
```

Structs

Structs are simply lists of fields with a name and a type.

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

```
me := Person{35, "Francesc"}
```

```
me := Person{Age: 35}
```

```
fmt.Println(me.Name) // Francesc
```

Methods declaration

Given the previous Person struct type:

```
func (p Person) Major() bool { return p.AgeYears >= 18 }
```

The (p Person) above is referred to as the **receiver**.

When a method needs to **modify its receiver**, it should receive a pointer.

```
func (p *Person) Birthday() { p.AgeYears++ }
```

Go is “pass-by-value”

In Go, all parameters are passed by value:

- The function receives a copy of the original parameter.

But, some types are “reference types”:

- Pointers
- Maps
- Channels

Note: Slices are not reference types per-se, but share backing arrays.

[]bool

*gzip.Writer

*strings.Reader

int

*os.File

Defining Methods

Methods can be declared on any named type

Methods can be also declared on **non-struct types**.

```
type Number int
func (n Number) Positive() bool { return n >= 0 }
```

But also:

```
type mathFunc func(float64) float64
func (f mathFunc) Map(xs []float64) []float64 { ... }
```

Methods can be defined **only** on **named types defined in this package**.

Go does **not** support **inheritance**

Go does not support inheritance

There's good reasons for this.

Weak encapsulation due to inheritance is a great example of this.

A Runner class

```
class Runner {  
    private String name;  
  
    public Runner(String name) { this.name = name; }  
  
    public String getName() { return this.name; }  
  
    public void run(Task task) { task.run(); }  
  
    public void runAll(Task[] tasks) {  
        for (Task task : tasks) { run(task); }  
    }  
}
```

A RunCounter class

```
class RunCounter extends Runner {
    private int count;

    public RunCounter(String message) { super(message); this.count = 0; }

    @override public void run(Task task) { count++; super.run(task); }

    @override public void runAll(Task[] tasks) {
        count += tasks.length;
        super.runAll(tasks);
    }

    public int getCount() { return count; }
}
```

Let's run and count

What will this code print?

```
RunCounter runner = new RunCounter("my runner");  
  
Task[] tasks = { new Task("one"), new Task("two"), new Task("three")};  
  
runner.runAll(tasks);  
  
System.out.printf("%s ran %d tasks\n",  
    runner.getName(), runner.getCount());
```

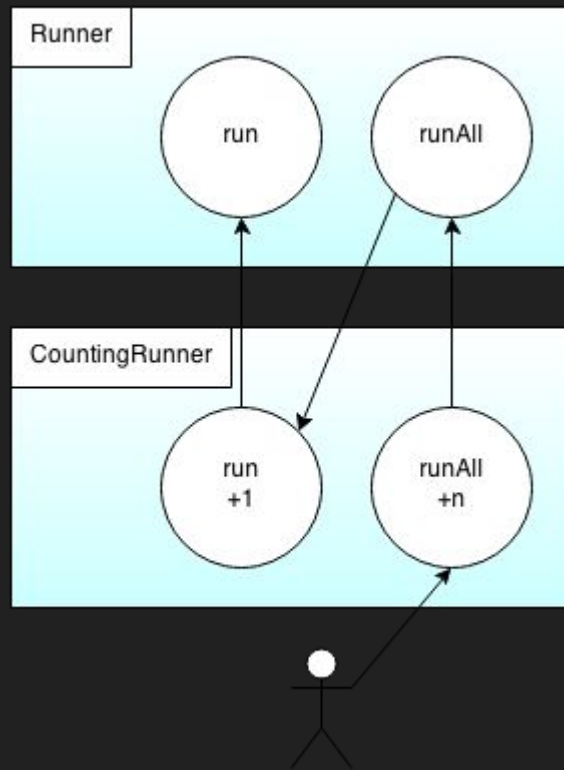

Of course, this prints

```
running one  
running two  
running three  
my runner ran 6 tasks
```

Wait ... what?

Inheritance causes:

- weak encapsulation,
- tight coupling,
- surprising bugs.



A correct RunCounter class

```
class RunCounter {
    private Runner runner;
    private int count;

    public RunCounter(String message) {
        this.runner = new Runner(message);
        this.count = 0;
    }

    public void run(Task task) { count++; runner.run(task); }

    public void runAll(Task[] tasks) {
        count += tasks.length;
        runner.runAll(tasks);
    }
}
```

...

A correct RunCounter class (cont.)

...

```
public int getCount() {  
    return count;  
}
```

```
public String getName() {  
    return runner.getName();  
}
```

```
}
```

Solution: use **composition**

Pros:

- The bug is gone!
- Runner is completely independent of RunCounter.
- The creation of the Runner can be delayed until (and if) needed.

Cons:

- We need to explicitly define the Runner methods on RunCounter:

```
public String getName() { return runner.getName(); }
```

- This can cause lots of repetition, and eventually bugs.

The Go way: type Runner

```
type Runner struct{ name string }

func (r *Runner) Name() string { return r.name }

func (r *Runner) Run(t Task) {
    t.Run()
}

func (r *Runner) RunAll(ts []Task) {
    for _, t := range ts {
        r.Run(t)
    }
}
```

The Go way: type RunCounter

```
type RunCounter struct { runner Runner; count int}

func New(name string) *RunCounter { return &RunCounter{Runner{name}, 0} }

func (r *RunCounter) Run(t Task) { r.count++; r.runner.Run(t) }

func (r *RunCounter) RunAll(ts []Task) {
    r.count += len(ts);
    r.runner.RunAll(ts)
}

func (r *RunCounter) Count() int { return r.count }

func (r *RunCounter) Name() string { return r.runner.Name() }
```

Struct embedding

Expressed in Go as unnamed fields in a struct.

It is still composition.

The fields and methods of the embedded type are exposed on the embedding type.

Similar to inheritance, but the **embedded type doesn't know** it's embedded, i.e. no *super*.

The Go way: type RunCounter

```
type RunCounter struct {
    Runner
    count int
}

func New(name string) *RunCounter2 { return &RunCounter{Runner{name}, 0} }

func (r *RunCounter) Run(t Task) { r.count++; r.Runner.Run(t) }

func (r *RunCounter) RunAll(ts []Task) {
    r.count += len(ts)
    r.Runner.RunAll(ts)
}

func (r *RunCounter) Count() int { return r.count }
```


Is struct **embedding** like **inheritance**?

No, it is better! It is composition.

- You can't reach into another type and change the way it works.
- Method dispatching is explicit.

It is more general.

- Struct embedding of interfaces.

The `error` type

This is the only predeclared type that is not a concrete.

```
type error interface {  
    Error() string  
}
```

Error handling is done with error values, not exceptions.

```
if err := doSomething(); err != nil {  
    return fmt.Errorf("couldn't do the thing: %v", err)  
}
```

abstract types

concrete types

abstract types in Go

- they describe behavior

io.Reader

io.Writer

fmt.Stringer

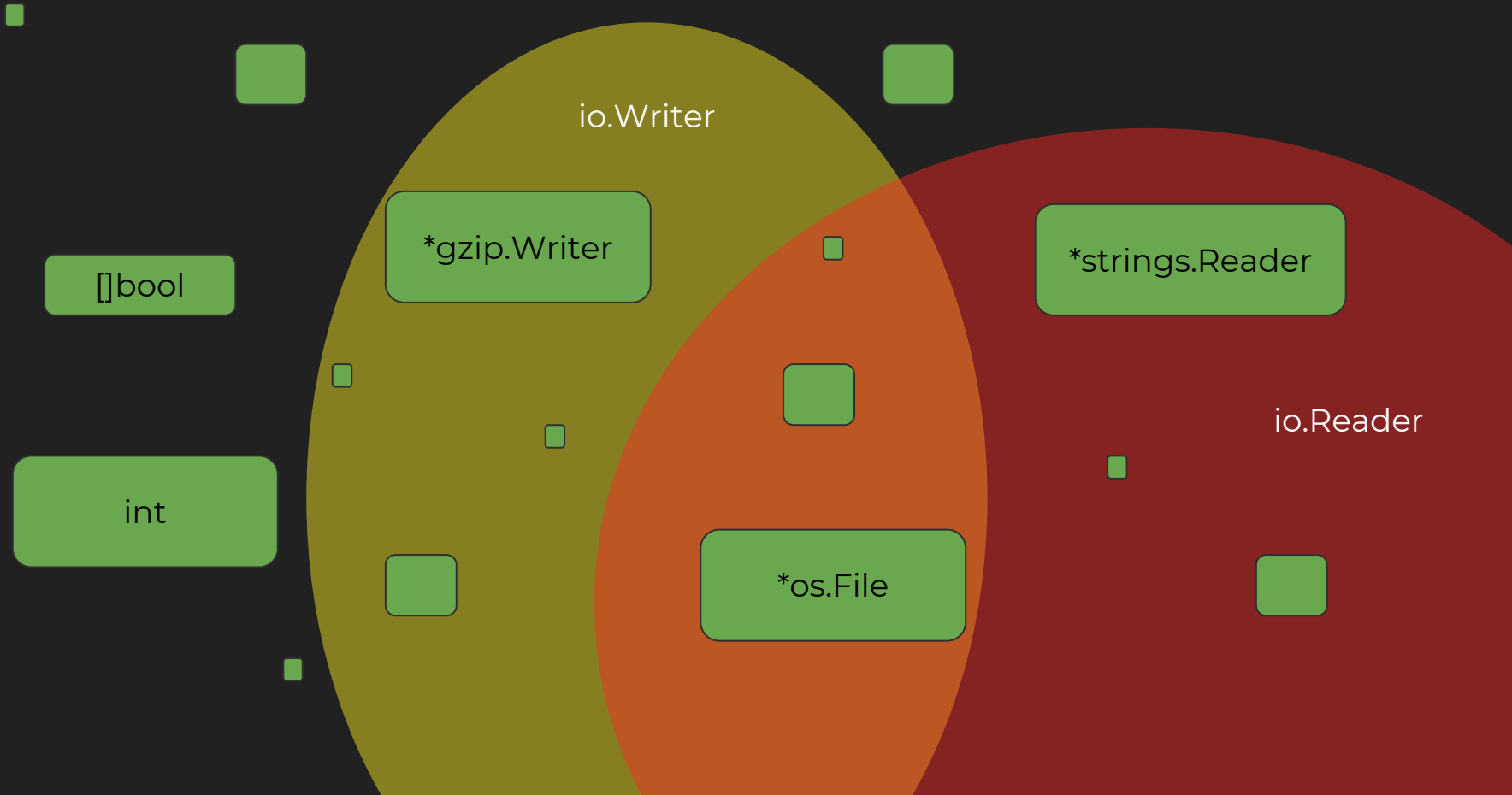
- they define a set of methods, without specifying the receiver

```
type Positiver interface {  
    Positive() bool  
}
```

two interfaces

```
type Reader interface {  
    Read(b []byte) (int, error)  
}
```

```
type Writer interface {  
    Write(b []byte) (int, error)  
}
```



`io.Writer`

`*gzip.Writer`

`[]bool`

`int`

`*os.File`

`*strings.Reader`

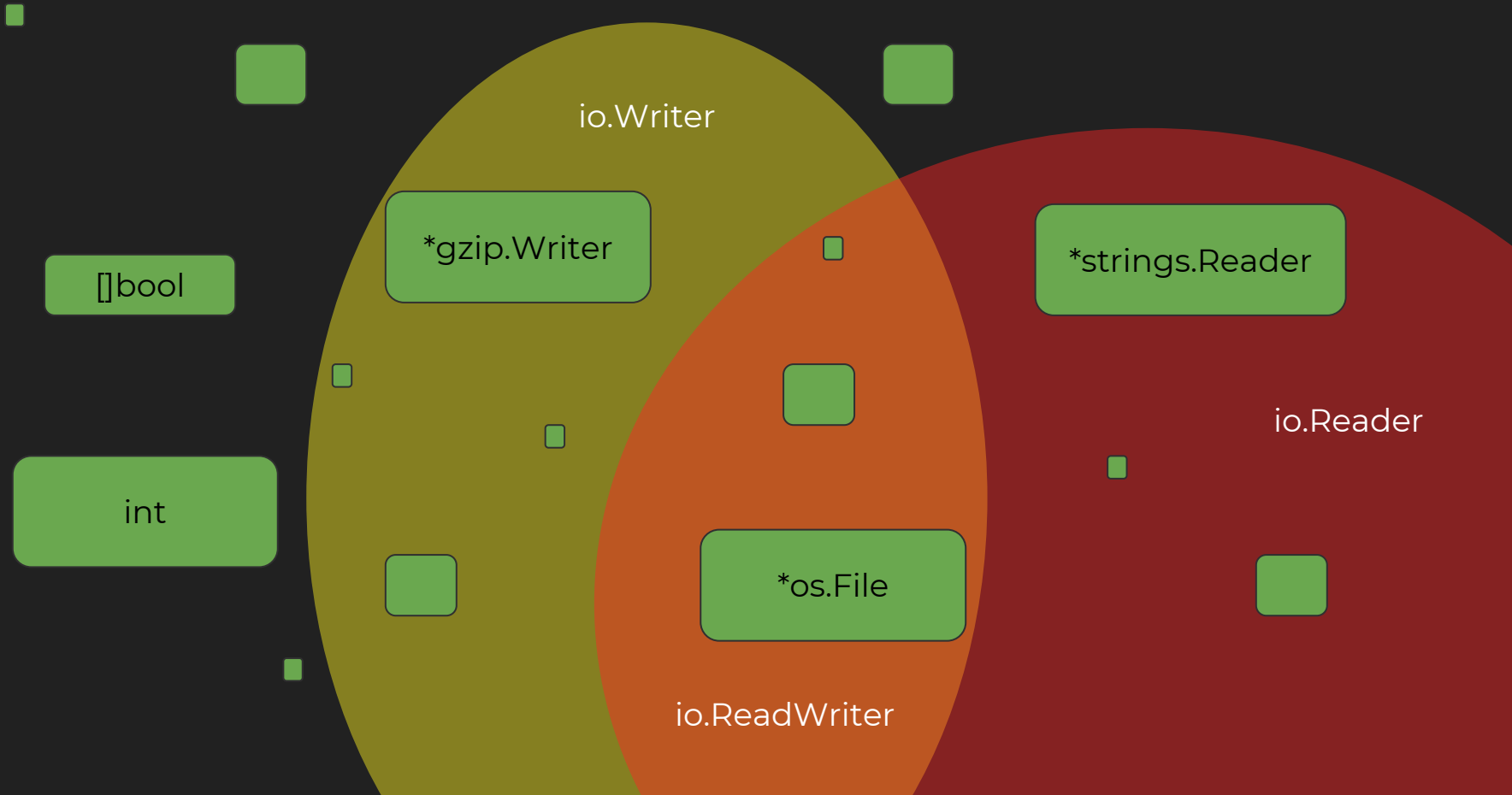
`io.Reader`

union of interfaces

```
type ReadWrite interface {  
    Read(b []byte) (int, error)  
    Write(b []byte) (int, error)  
}
```

union of interfaces

```
type ReadWriter interface {  
    Reader  
    Writer  
}
```

?



io.Writer

[]bool

*gzip.Writer

*strings.Reader

int

io.ReadWriter

*os.File

io.Reader



interface{}

“interface{} says **nothing**”

- Rob Pike in his Go Proverbs



why do we use interfaces?

why do we use **interfaces**?

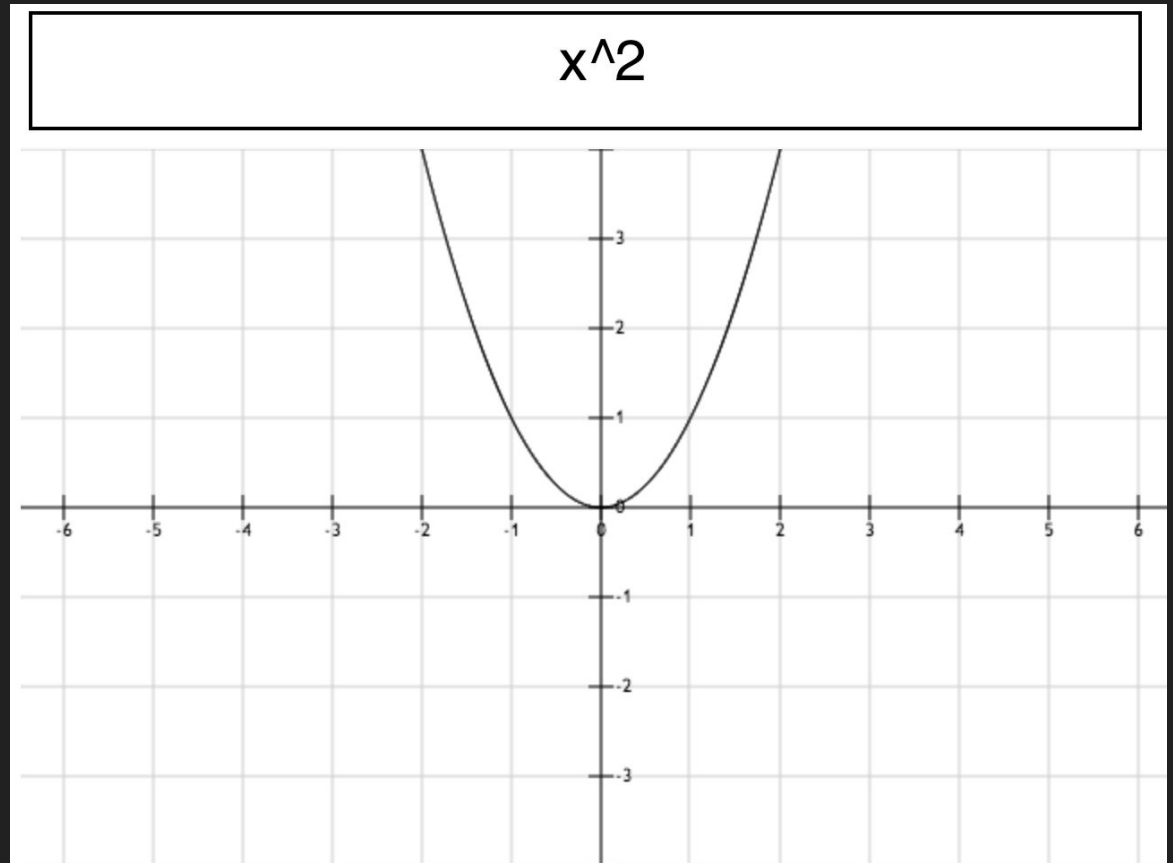
- writing **generic** algorithms
- hiding implementation details
- providing interception points

so ... what's new?

implicit interface satisfaction

no “implements”

funcdraw



Two packages: parse and draw

```
package parse
```

```
func Parse(s string) *Func
```

```
type Func struct { ... }
```

```
func (f *Func) Eval(x float64) float64
```

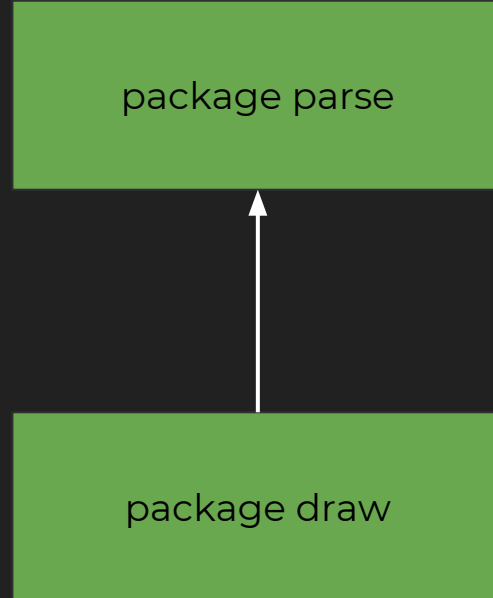
Two packages: parse and draw

```
package draw

import ".../parse"

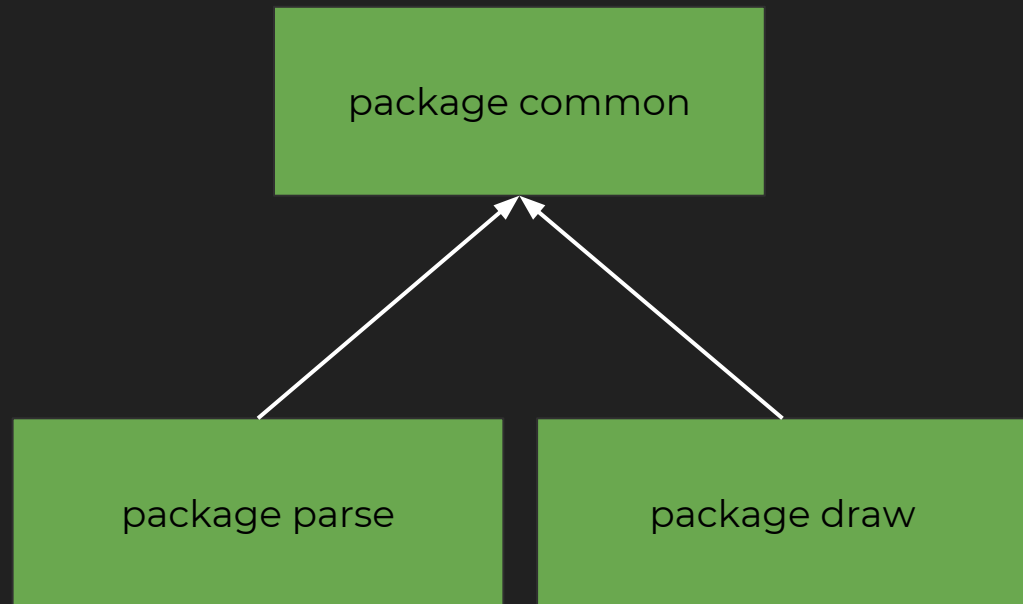
func Draw(f *parse.Func) image.Image {
    for x := minX; x < maxX; x += incX {
        paint(x, f.Eval(y))
    }
    ...
}
```

funcdraw



funcdraw

with explicit satisfaction



funcdraw

with implicit satisfaction

package parse

package draw

Two packages: parse and draw

```
package draw

import ".../parse"

func Draw(f *parse.Func) image.Image {
    for x := minX; x < maxX; x += incX {
        paint(x, f.Eval(y))
    }
    ...
}
```


Two packages: parse and draw

```
package draw

type Evaluator interface { Eval(float64) float64 }

func Draw(e Evaluator) image.Image {
    for x := minX; x < maxX; x += incX {
        paint(x, e.Eval(y))
    }
    ...
}
```

interfaces can **break** dependencies

define interfaces where you use them

the super power of Go interfaces

type assertions

type assertions from interface to concrete type

```
func do(v interface{}) {  
    i := v.(int)           // will panic if v is not int  
    i, ok := v.(int)      // will return false  
}
```

type assertions from interface to concrete type

```
func do(v interface{}) {  
    switch v.(type) {  
  
    case int:  
        fmt.Println("got int %d", v)  
  
    default:  
  
    }  
}
```

type assertions from interface to concrete type

```
func do(v interface{}) {  
    switch t := v.(type) {  
        case int:    // t is of type int  
            fmt.Println("got int %d", t)  
        default:    // t is of type interface{}  
            fmt.Println("not sure what type")  
    }  
}
```


type assertions from interface to interface

```
func do(v interface{}) {  
    s := v.(fmt.Stringer) // might panic  
    s, ok := v.(fmt.Stringer) // might return false  
}
```

type assertions from interface to **interface**

```
func do(v interface{}) {  
    switch v.(type) {  
        case fmt.Stringer:  
            fmt.Println("got Stringer %v", v)  
        default:  
            }  
    }  
}
```

type assertions from interface to **interface**

```
func do(v interface{}) {  
    select s := v.(type) {  
        case fmt.Stringer:    // s is of type fmt.Stringer  
            fmt.Println(s.String())  
        default:              // s is of type interface{}  
            fmt.Println("not sure what type")  
    }  
}
```

type assertions as extension mechanism

Many packages check whether a type satisfies an interface:

- `fmt.Stringer` : *implement* `String()` `string`
- `json.Marshaler` : *implement* `MarshalJSON()` (`[]byte`, `error`)
- `json.Unmarshaler` : *implement* `UnmarshalJSON()` (`[]byte`) `error`
- ...

and adapt their behavior accordingly.

Tip: Always look for exported interfaces in the standard library.

use `type assertions` to extend
behaviors

Day 2

Concurrency FTW!

Agenda

- Live Coding
- ...
- Q&A

Live Coding Time!



Code

github.com/campoy/chat

- Includes Markov chain powered bot, which I skipped during live coding session.
- Feel free to send questions about it!

References:

Original talk by Andrew Gerrand: [slides](#)

Concurrency is not parallelism: [blog](#)

Go Concurrency Patterns: [slides](#)

Advanced Concurrency Patterns: [blog](#)

I came for the easy concurrency, I stayed for the easy composition: [talk](#)

Day 3

Agenda

- Debugging
- Testing and Benchmarks
- pprof & Flame Graphs
- Q&A

Debugging

- github.com/go-delve/delve
- Linux, macOS, Windows
- Written in Go, supports for goroutines
- Debugger backend and multiple frontends (CLI, VSCode, ...)



DELVE

A Debugger for the Go Programming Language



Debugging Live Demo!

[code](#)

Testing

Code sample:

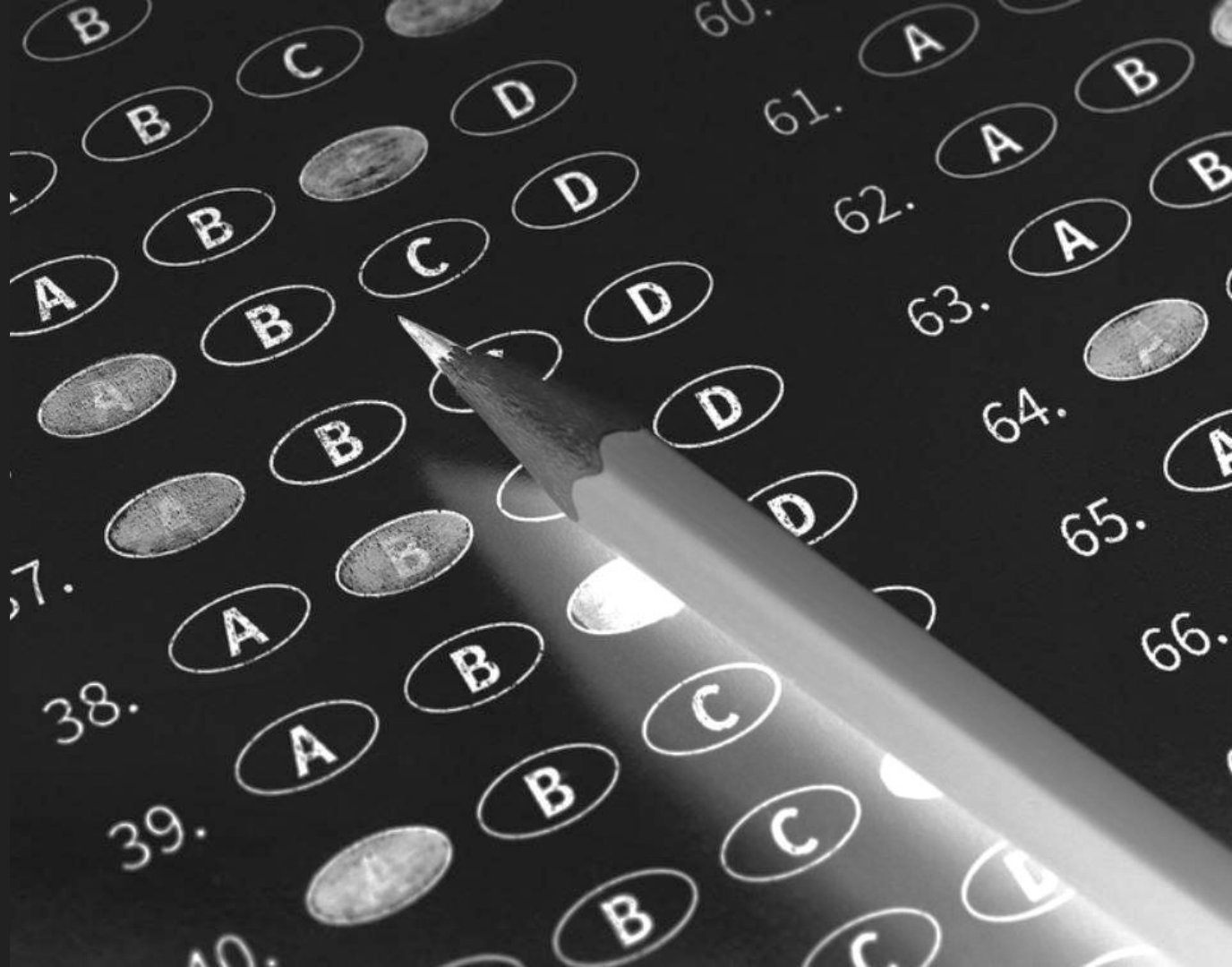
```
import "testing"  
  
func TestFoo(t *testing.T) { ... }
```

```
$ go test
```

Marking **failure**: t.Error, t.Errorf, t.Fatal, t.Fatalf

Table Driven Testing - Subtests: t.Run

Testing Live Demo!



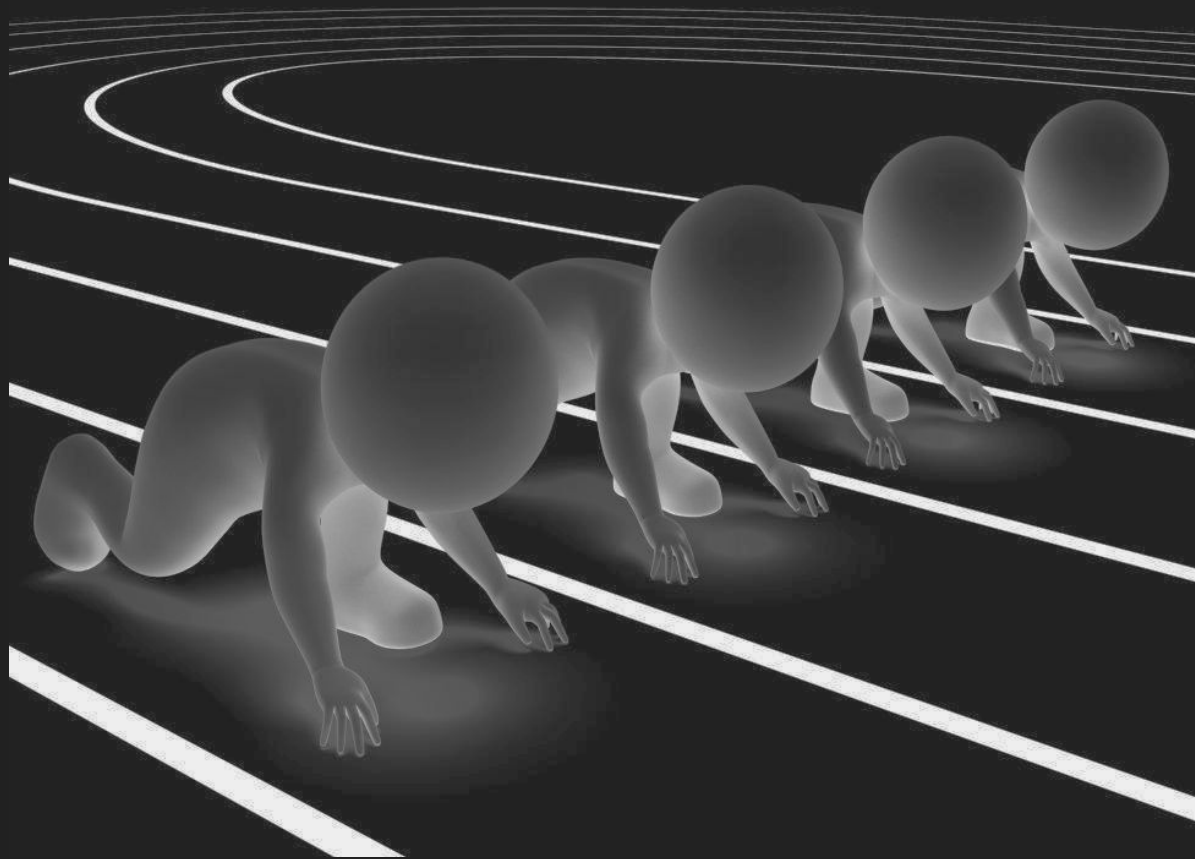
Benchmarks

Code sample:

```
import "testing"

func BenchmarkFoo(b *testing.B) {
    for i := 0; i < b.N; i++ {
        // do some stuff
    }
}
```

```
$ go test -bench=.
```



Benchmarking Live Demo!

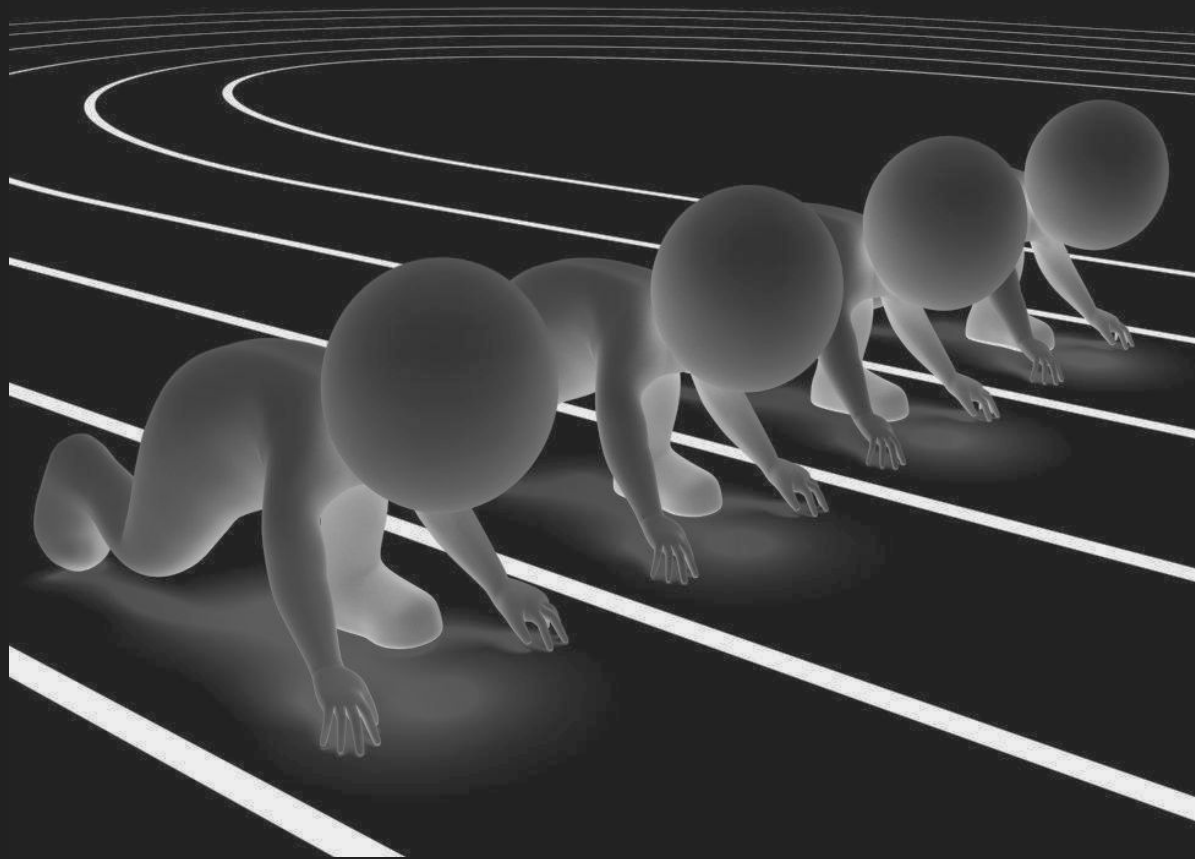
pprof

- go get github.com/google/pprof

```
$ go test -bench=. -cpuprofile=cpu.pb.gz  
                -memprofile=mem.pb.gz
```

```
$ pprof -http=$PORT profile.pb.gz
```

Checks what the program is up *very* regularly, then provides statistics.



Benchmarking Live Demo!

pprof for web servers

```
import _ net/http/pprof
```

Web servers ... and anything else!

```
$ pprof -seconds 5 http://localhost:8080/debug/pprof/profile
```

Notes:

- Requires traffic (github.com/tsliwowicz/go-wrk)
- No overhead when off, **small overhead** when profiling.

Benchmarking Live Demo!



References

Go Tooling in Action: [video](#)

Go Tooling Workshop: github.com/campoy/go-tooling-workshop

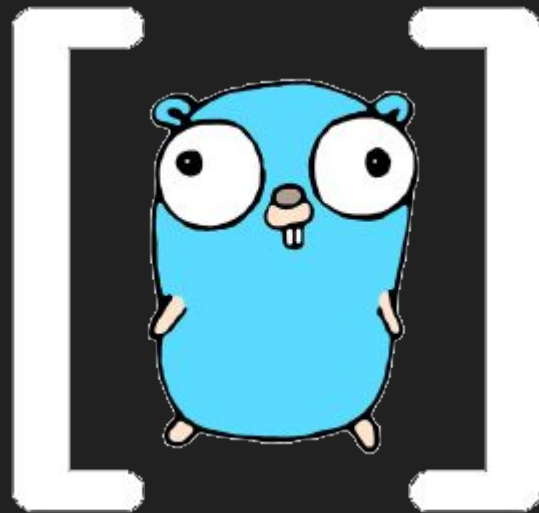
- Compilation, cgo, advanced build modes.
- Code coverage.
- Runtime Tracer.
- Much more!

justforfunc #22: Using the Go Execution Tracer: [video](#)

Questions and Answers

Go for scientific computation?

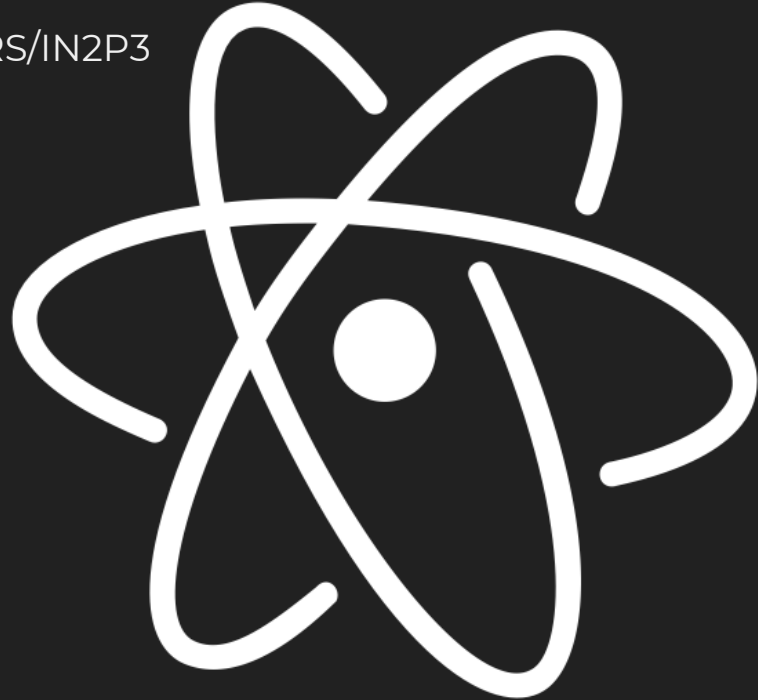
- gonum.org/v1/gonum
 - Similar to numpy
 - I love using it, really fast!
- [knire-n/gota](https://knire-n.github.io/gota)
 - Similar to Pandas
 - Never used it, but I heard good things



Go for scientific computation?

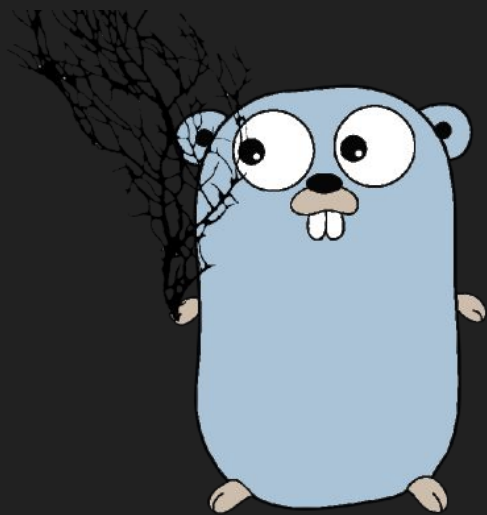
- go-hep.org/x/hep
 - High Energy Physics
 - By Sebastien Binet – Research engineer @CNRS/IN2P3

So ... Gophers @ CERN?



Go for Machine Learning?

- [github.com/tensorflow/tensorflow/tensorflow/go](https://github.com/tensorflow/tensorflow/tree/master/go)
 - Rumour says, if you say it out loud Jeff Dean will appear.
 - Bindings for Go, only for serving – training not supported yet.
- gorgonia.org/gorgonia
 - Similar to Theano or Tensorflow, but in Go
 - I love the package, but the docs need some love.



Configuring Go programs?

- github.com/kelseyhightower/envconfig
 - Straight forward but pretty powerful.
- github.com/spf13/viper
 - Very complete and many people use it.
- github.com/spf13/cobra
 - Great to define CLIs, works with viper
- Reading json, csv, xml, ...
 - `encoding/json`, `encoding/csv`, `encoding/xml`
 - Find more on godoc.org

Go vs Python

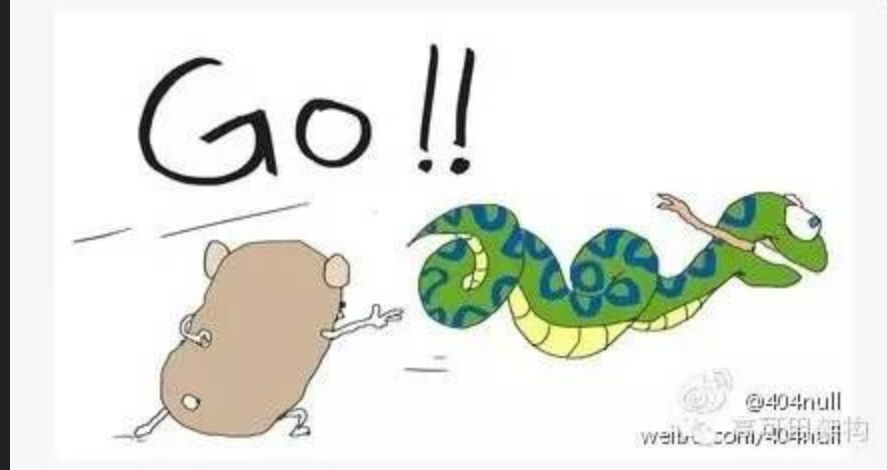
Go for Pythonistas: [talk](#)

Pros:

- Speed
- Statically typed
- Less *magic*

Cons:

- Less *magic*
- Rigidity of type system (Tensorflow)



Now it's *your* time!

Thanks!



Thanks, @francesc

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