

# GO Programming Language

\*All files are run from main folder. Since Go requires all variables to be used, we will print the variables so that they are used

## Introduction

### 1/ Phase 1: Hello World - How to run Hello World:

```
package main

import "fmt"

func main() {
    fmt.Println(a... "Hello World, Hello Go")
}

// Compiled in Windows. Compiled command: go HelloWorld.go. File must be in a main folder.
```

Or you can do “go run main.go”

Source: Getting started with GO -

<https://medium.com/rungo/working-in-go-workspace-3b0576e0534a>

### 2/ Go paradigm: Multi-paradigm, imperative language

Go is multi-paradigm, imperative, has Object Oriented but in its own simple way, is strong in concurrency, borrows some functional language

(sources: <https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/2/text.html>)

### 1/ Background:

Go is a programming language designed by Google developers, specifically Robert Griesemer, Rob Pike, and Ken Thompson. It was developed in 2007 and was first introduced as an open-source project in 2009. Go is a compiled language. Go was created for Google to start “replacing Python” with a faster language, comparable to C++ while still remains user friendly for Python programmers. Go is also specialized in projects with concurrency for Google’s database servers for example [1]. Go is a rising trend these recent years, where more companies are switching from another language to Go [1,2].

Sources:

[1] Introduction - GO for Python Programmers

<https://golang-for-python-programmers.readthedocs.io/en/latest/intro.html#what-is-go>

[2] Should I Go? The Pros and Cons of Using Go Programming Language

<https://hackernoon.com/should-i-go-the-pros-and-cons-of-using-go-programming-language-8c1daf711e46>

## 2/ Primitive Types:

Folder: primitiveTypes

- **Bool:**

Code (file boolean.go)

```
func main() {  
    var a,b bool  
    a = true  
    b = false  
    fmt.Print(a,b, unsafe.Sizeof(a)) // Print a b and size of a,  
    // Sizeof returns size in bytes, in this case 1 byte  
}
```

[1]

Compile and run: go run primitiveTypes/boolean.go

Output: true false 1

- **String:**

Code (file string.go)

```
func main() {  
    var a,b,c,d string  
    a = "Hello" // normal string  
    b = "" // empty string  
    c = "Hello!\nWow!" // escape character  
    d = `Hello!\nWow!` // not having escape character  
    fmt.Printf("#{a}\n#{b}\n#{c}\n#{d}")  
}
```

[1]

Compile and run: go run primitiveTypes/string.go

Hello

Hello!

Wow!

Output: Hello!\nWow!

String is the set of all strings of 8-bit bytes, conventionally but not necessarily representing UTF-8-encoded text. A string may be empty, but not nil. Values of string type are immutable. [1]

- **Numeric type:**

Code (file numeric.go)

```

func main() {
    // Signed integer
    var i int // signed integer default to be 8 bytes
    // there are also
    // int8 8-bit integers (-128 to 127)
    // int16 (-32768 to 32767)
    // int32 (-2147483648 to 2147483647)
    // int64 (-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807)
    fmt.Printf("Signed default val: #{i}, Size: #{unsafe.Sizeof(i)}\n")

    // Unsigned integer
    var u uint // unsigned integer default to be 8 bytes, default value 0
    // there are also
    // uint8
    // uint16
    // uint32
    // uint64
    fmt.Printf("Unsigned default val: #{u}, Size: #{unsafe.Sizeof(u)}\n")

    // Float
    var fl32 float32 // IEEE-754 32-bit floating-point numbers
    // there is also float64 IEEE-754 64-bit floating-point numbers
    fmt.Printf("Unsigned default val: #{fl32}, Size: #{unsafe.Sizeof(fl32)}\n")

    // Complex numeric
    var c1 complex64 // 64 bits, complex numbers with float32 real and imaginary parts
    var c2 complex128 // 128 bits, complex numbers with float64 real and imaginary parts
    c2 = 1.0 - 10i
    fmt.Printf("Complex default val: #{c1}, Size: #{unsafe.Sizeof(c1)}\n")
    fmt.Printf("format: \"%g, Size: %d\n\", c2, unsafe.Sizeof(c2))
}

```

[1]

Compile and run: go run primitiveTypes/numeric.go

Output:

```

Signed default val: 0, Size: 8
Unsigned default val: 0, Size: 8
Unsigned default val: 0.000000, Size: 4
Complex default val: (0+0i), Size: 8
(1-10i), Size: 16

```

- **Error type:**

Code (file error.go)

```

func main() {
    var a error // Error type, default value to be <nil>, 16 bytes
    fmt.Print(a, unsafe.Sizeof(a))
}

```

[1]

Compile and run: go run primitiveTypes/error.go

Output: <nil> 16

Sources:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/3/text.html>

### 3/ Composite and Constructed Types:

Folder: compTypes

#### 1. Array

An array is a numbered sequence of elements of a single type, called the element type. The number of elements is called the length and is never negative. All the indexes should be non-negative integers and all the entries should be the same type. Array is a mapping in Go with integer as indexes [1]

Code: (file array.go)

```
func main(){  
    var a [10]int // array  
    fmt.Println( a... "array: ", a)  
  
    a = [10]int{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13}  
    fmt.Println(a)  
}
```

[1,2]

Compile and run: go run compTypes/array.go

```
array:  [0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0]
```

Output: [2 3 5 7 11 13 0 0 0 0]

=> Default values in int array are set to be 0

Source:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/4/text.html>

[2] A Tour of Go <https://tour.golang.org/moretypes/6>

#### 2. Struct

A struct is a sequence of named elements, called fields, each of which has a name and a type. Field names may be specified explicitly (IdentifierList) or implicitly (AnonymousField). Within a struct, non-blank field names must be unique. The struct is the cartesian product type in Go. Each element should have a name and a type. Similar to C, struct doesn't have methods inside the declaration. In other words, methods are defined on structs, not within structs. [1]

Code: (file struct.go)

```

type student struct{
    gpa float32
    sleep bool
}

func main(){
    me := student{gpa : 3.8, sleep: false}
    fmt.Println( a... "My gpa is ", me.gpa)
    fmt.Println( a... "I sleep 8 hours per night ", me.sleep)
}

```

Compile and run: go run compTypes/struct.go

Output: `My gpa is 3.8`  
`I sleep 8 hours per night false`

Sources:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/4/text.html>

### 3. Map

A map is an unordered group of elements of one type, called the element type, indexed by a set of unique keys of another type, called the key type. The value of an uninitialized map is nil. Maps are the dictionary in other languages. [1]

Code: (file map.go)

```

func main() {
    me := make(map[string]bool)
    me["stress"] = true
    me["sleep"] = false
    fmt.Println( a... "I am stressed", me["stress"])
    fmt.Println( a... "I have enough sleep", me["sleep"])
}

```

Compile and run: go run compTypes/map.go

Output: `I am stressed true`  
`I have enough sleep false`

Sources:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/4/text.html>

### 4. Pointer/Reference

A pointer type denotes the set of all pointers to variables of a given type, called the base type of the pointer. The value of an uninitialized pointer is nil. [1]

Code: (file pointer.go)

```
func main() {
    i := 42
    var p *int
    fmt.Println("Initial value of pointer: ", p)
    p = &i
    fmt.Println("Before change i =", i)
    *p = 21
    fmt.Println("After change pointer: i =", i, "Pointer value:", p)
}
```

Compile and run: go run compTypes/pointer.go

```
Initial value of pointer: <nil>
Before change i = 42
After change pointer: i = 21 Pointer value: 0xc0000160c0
```

Output:

Sources:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/4/text.html>

#### 4/ Static and Dynamic Typing:

Code (file typing.go)

```
func main() {
    var x int
    x = 12
    x = "hello"
    fmt.Println(x)
}
```

Compile and run: go run typing.go

Output: `./typing.go:8:4: cannot use "hello" (type untyped string) as type int in assignment`

Hence, since x does not adapt to new type, this language is statically typed. The default values are explained in primitive types question. There is no way to change it to dynamically typed. The check is done in compilation time.

From the terminal after error: `Compilation finished with exit code 2`

#### 5/ Implicitly or explicitly typed:

Code (file imexType.go)



```
func main() {
    var x int
    x = 36
    y := "Hello darkness my old friend."
    fmt.Println(x, y)
}
```

Compile and run: go run imexType.go

Output: 36 Hello darkness my old friend.

Go could be implicitly or explicitly typed. Its type could be inferred using “:=”. There is no difference in any way of declaration. “:=” can only be used in functions. [1]

Sources:

[1] A Tour of Go <https://tour.golang.org/basics/10>

## 6/ Strongly typed or weakly typed:

Code: strongType.go

```
var x int
x = 12.3
fmt.Println(x)
```

Output: `.\strongType.go:7:4: constant 12.3 truncated to integer`

=> Can't do implicit cast from float to int

```
var y int
y = "12"
fmt.Println(y)
```

Output: `.\strongType.go:11:4: cannot use "12" (type untyped string) as type int in assignment`

=> Can't do implicit cast from string to int

```
var z string
z = 12
fmt.Println(z)
```

Output: `.\strongType.go:15:4: cannot use 12 (type untyped int) as type string in assignment`

=> Can't do implicit cast from int to string

```
var u int = 3
var s float32 = 4
s = u
fmt.Println(s)
```

Output: `.\strongType.go:20:4: cannot use u (type int) as type float32 in assignment`

=> Can't do implicit cast from int to float

```
.\strongType.go:23:9: invalid operation: a + b (mismatched types float32 and string)
```

```

var a float32
a = 12
fmt.Println(a)
b := "Hello"
z := a + b
fmt.Println(z)

```

`./strongType.go:27:9: invalid operation: a + b (mismatched types float32 and string)`

Output:

=> Can't do concatenate for string and float

Hence, Go is strongly typed. It doesn't allow implicit coercion.

## 7/ Nominal vs Structural typing:

Code: nominal.go

```

type Apple struct { seed int }
type Banana struct { seed int }

func main() {
    var a Apple
    a = Banana{ seed: 1}
    fmt.Println(a.seed)
}

```

Compile and run: go run nominal.go

Output:

`./nominal.go:10:4: cannot use Banana literal (type Banana) as type Apple in assignment`

=> Structural Typing instead of Nominal

## 8/ Memory hazard: Alias, dangling pointers, memory leak:

There exists alias hazard: Two pointers can point to the same memory address and change it

Code: file hazard.go

```

func main() {
    var a int
    var p, p1 * int
    p = &a
    p1 = &a
    *p = 4
    *p1 = 5
    fmt.Println(*p)
}

```

Compile and run: go run hazard.go

Output: 5



## 9/ Static vs Dynamic Scope

Code: file scope.go

```
func main() {  
    a := 12  
    b := 10  
    fmt.Println(b)  
    fmt.Print(foo(a))  
}
```

Compile and run: go run scope.go

Output: 10  
14 => Static scope as b in foo is not b in main but the global one

## 10/ Variadic function (instead of Default parameters)

If the **last parameter** of a function has type ...T it can be called with **any number** of trailing arguments of type T. [1]

Code: file variadic.go

```
func mul(nums ...int) int {  
    // This function will take in any number of int argument  
    result := 1  
    for _, num := range nums {  
        result *= num  
    }  
    return result  
}  
  
func main() {  
    fmt.Println(mul( nums...: 1,2,3))  
    fmt.Println(mul( nums...: 1))  
}
```

Compile and run: go run variadic.go

Output: 6  
1

Source: [1] Variadic function in Golang <https://yourbasic.org/golang/variadic-function/>

## 11/ Strict vs Non-strict evaluation

Code: file strict.go

```
func bar() int {
    fmt.Println(a...: "Strict! Cuz I am printed!")
    return 2
}
```

```
func boo(c int) int{
    return 2
}
```

```
func main() {
    fmt.Println(boo(bar()))
}
```

Compile and run: go run strict.go

Strict! Cuz I am printed!

Output: 2

Hence, GO uses strict evaluation

## 12/ Pass by value or reference?

Code: file pbv.go

```
func hello(a int) { a = a+1 }

func main() {
    var a = 1
    hello(a)
    fmt.Println(a)
}
```

Compile and run: go run pbv.go

Output: => <sup>1</sup> Since a does not change, Go passes parameters by value

## 13/ String type

String is a primitive type in Go as mentioned above. String in Go is immutable [1]. Go only offers string concatenation:

Code: file stringType.go - reference from [1]

```
func main() {
    var a string = "a"
    var b string = "b"
    var c string = a + b
    //var d string = 2 * a -> Give an error
    fmt.Println(c)
}
```

Compile and run: go run stringType.go

Output: ab

Sources:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/29/text.html>

## 14/ Math operations (bitwise)

Go offers different bitwise operation:

Code: bitOp.go

```
func main() {  
    fmt.Println(a... 001 & 110) // bitwise and  
    fmt.Println(a... 111 | 010) // bitwise or  
    fmt.Println(a... 110 ^ 100) // bitwise xor  
    fmt.Println(a... ^1010) // bitwise not  
    fmt.Println(a... 1000 << 2) // bitwise left shift  
    fmt.Println(a... 1000 >> 2) // bitwise right shift  
}
```

111
10
-1011
4000
250

Output:

Compile and run: go run bitOp.go

## 15/ Multi dimension array

Go offers multi-dimension arrays [1]

Code: file mulDem.go

```
func main() {  
    var arr [3][4] int  
    arr = [3][4] int {{1,2,2,1}, {1,2,2,1}, {1,2,2,1}}  
    var arr2 [1][2][3] int  
    fmt.Println(arr)  
    fmt.Println(arr2)  
}
```

Compile and run: go run mulDem.go

Output: [[1 2 2 1] [1 2 2 1] [1 2 2 1]]  
[[[0 0 0] [0 0 0]]]

It also offers jagged multidimension array:

```
var arr3 [][]int  
arr3 = [][]int {{1,2}, {1}, {0}}  
fmt.Println(arr3)
```

Code: 1

Output: [[1 2] [1] [0]]

Sources:

[1] Tutorialspoint - [https://www.tutorialspoint.com/go/go\\_multi\\_dimensional\\_arrays.htm](https://www.tutorialspoint.com/go/go_multi_dimensional_arrays.htm)

## 16/ Variables

There are global variable, local variable and constant

Code: file var.go

```
var globe int = 1

func main() {
    var loc int = 2
    const con = "HEY!"
    fmt.Println(globe, loc, con)
}
```

Compile and run: go run var.go

Output: 1 2 HEY!

## 17/ Dangling Else

There cannot be dangling else in Go because all if - else blocks have to be surrounded by bracket { }.

The statement after if does not always need parenthesis around. [1]

Code: danglingElse.go ( a = 1 and b = 1 in this code)

```
if (a == 1)
    if (b == 0)
        fmt.Println( a... "true!")
    else
        fmt.Println( a... "true true?")
```

Compile and run: go run danglingElse.go

Output:

```
..\danglingElse.go:9:3: syntax error: unexpected if, expecting expression
..\danglingElse.go:10:24: syntax error: unexpected newline, expecting { after if clause
```

Correct syntax:

```
if (a == 1) {
    if (b == 0) {
        fmt.Println( a... "true!")
    } else {
        fmt.Println( a... "true true?")
    }
}
```

Output: true true?

Sources:

[1] Go by example - <https://gobyexample.com/if-else>

## 18/ Coercion

Go does not support implicit casting [1]. Go supports explicit coercion

Code: coerce.go

Between integer and float

```
var a int = 12
var b float32 = float32(a)
fmt.Println(b)
b = 14.3
a = int(b)
fmt.Println(a)
```

Compile and run: go run coerce.go

Output: 12  
14

Go cannot convert string to float or integer or vice versa

```
var s string = "12"
b = float32(s)
fmt.Println(b)
var d string
d = string(b)
fmt.Println(d)

.\coerce.go:14:13: cannot convert s (type string) to type float32
.\coerce.go:17:12: cannot convert b (type float32) to type string
```

Output:

Sources:

[1] Golang type casting -

<https://appdividend.com/2020/02/01/golang-type-casting-type-conversion-in-go-example/>

## 19/ Garbage Collector

Go has a garbage collector. Programmers can call function runtime.FGC() to force garbage collection.

[1,2]

Sources:

[1] Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/11/text.html>

[2] Golang documentation [https://golang.org/doc/faq#garbage\\_collection](https://golang.org/doc/faq#garbage_collection)

## 20/ Short Circuit Eval

Go uses short circuit evaluation

Code: shortcircuit.go

```

func truth() bool{
    fmt.Println( a...: "TRUTH")
    return true
}

func lies() bool{
    fmt.Println( a...: "LIES")
    return false
}

func main() {
    if truth() || lies() {
        fmt.Println( a...: "HI")
    }
    if lies() && lies() {
        fmt.Println( a...: "HELLO")
    }
}

```

Compile and run: go run shortCircuit.go

```

    TRUTH
    HI
    LIES

```

Output: Since it does not print the first lies() and the third lies(), we can confirm it is short circuit.

## 21/ Portability:

Unfortunately, for the performance concern, Go will compile your source code into binary code targeted at your platform. In this sense Go is not portable. [1] However, it does allow cross-platform compilation for different architecture and operating systems using the same source code on the same machine. Go tooling provides tools to convert code from one platform to another. [2]

Source:

[1] The Go Programming Language Report

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/30/text.html>

[2] Why Golang Is Great for Portable Apps -

<https://codeburst.io/why-golang-is-great-for-portable-apps-94cf1236f481>

## 22/ BNF grammar:

For loop BNF for Go: Go uses Extended Backus-Naur form (EBNF)

ForStmt = “for” [ Condition | ForClause | RangeClause ] Block .

Condition = Expression .

Source:

[1] Go documentation - <https://golang.org/ref/spec#Notation>



[2] Go Programming Language Report -

<https://kuree.gitbooks.io/the-go-programming-language-report/content/18/text.html>

## 23/ Tokens [1]

There are four classes: *identifiers*, *keywords*, *operators* and *punctuation*, and *literals*.

Identifier = letter { letter | unicode\_digit } .

Keywords: identifier cannot use keywords

break	default	func	interface	select
case	defer	go	map	struct
chan	else	goto	package	switch
const	fallthrough	if	range	type
continue	for	import	return	var

Operators and punctuation:

+	&	+=	&=	&&	==	!=	(	)
-		-=	=		<	<=	[	]
*	^	*=	^=	<-	>	>=	{	}
/	<<	/=	<<=	++	=	:=	,	;
%	>>	%=	>>=	--	!	...	.	:
	&^		&^=					

Integer literals:

```
int_lit      = decimal_lit | binary_lit | octal_lit | hex_lit .
decimal_lit  = "0" | ( "1" ... "9" ) [ [ "_" ] decimal_digits ] .
binary_lit   = "0" ( "b" | "B" ) [ [ "_" ] binary_digits ] .
octal_lit    = "0" [ "o" | "O" ] [ [ "_" ] octal_digits ] .
hex_lit      = "0" ( "x" | "X" ) [ [ "_" ] hex_digits ] .

decimal_digits = decimal_digit { [ "_" ] decimal_digit } .
binary_digits  = binary_digit { [ "_" ] binary_digit } .
octal_digits   = octal_digit { [ "_" ] octal_digit } .
hex_digits     = hex_digit { [ "_" ] hex_digit } .
```

Floating-point literals:

```
float_lit      = decimal_float_lit | hex_float_lit .

decimal_float_lit = decimal_digits "." [ decimal_digits ] [ decimal_exponent ] |
                    decimal_digits decimal_exponent |
                    "." decimal_digits [ decimal_exponent ] .
decimal_exponent = ( "e" | "E" ) [ "+" | "-" ] decimal_digits .

hex_float_lit   = "0" ( "x" | "X" ) hex_mantissa hex_exponent .
hex_mantissa    = [ [ "_" ] hex_digits "." [ hex_digits ] |
                    [ [ "_" ] hex_digits ] |
                    "." hex_digits ] .
hex_exponent    = ( "p" | "P" ) [ "+" | "-" ] decimal_digits .
```

Imaginary literals:

```
imaginary_lit = (decimal_digits | int_lit | float_lit) "i" .
```

String literals:

```
string_lit      = raw_string_lit | interpreted_string_lit .  
raw_string_lit  = "\"" { unicode_char | newline } "\"" .  
interpreted_string_lit = "`" { unicode_value | byte_value } "`" .
```

Sources:

[1] Go documentation - <https://golang.org/ref/spec#Tokens>

## 24/ Imperative feature: Pointers/References:

Go offers pointers (look at primitive types to see how to declare pointers). Pointers can access and also change the values of the variable it points to. We cannot do C-like pointer math in Go.

Code: pointer2.go

```
var x int = 2  
var y int = 2  
p := &x  
var p1 = p + 1
```

Output: `./pointer2.go:9:13: invalid operation: p + 1 (mismatched types *int and int)`

However, we can compare to pointer, checking whether they point to the same memory address.

Code: file pointer2.go

```
func main() {  
    var x int = 2  
    var y int = 2  
    p := &x  
    //var p1 = p + 1  
    p1 := &x  
    p2 := &y  
    fmt.Println(p == p1)  
    fmt.Println(p == p2)  
}
```

```
    true  
    false
```

Output: Even when the memory addresses contain the same value, it still returns false for different mem address.

## 25/ Imperative feature: Stack/Heap

From a correctness standpoint, you don't need to know. Each variable in Go exists as long as there are references to it. The storage location chosen by the implementation is irrelevant to the semantics of the language.

The storage location does have an effect on writing efficient programs. When possible, the Go compilers will allocate variables that are local to a function in that function's stack frame. However, if the compiler cannot prove that the variable is not referenced after the function returns, then the compiler must allocate the variable on the garbage-collected heap to avoid dangling pointer errors. Also, if a local variable is very large, it might make more sense to store it on the heap rather than the stack.

In the current compilers, if a variable has its address taken, that variable is a candidate for allocation on the heap. However, a basic *escape analysis* recognizes some cases when such variables will not live past the return from the function and can reside on the stack. [1]

Sources: [1] Go documentation - [https://golang.org/doc/faq#stack\\_or\\_heap](https://golang.org/doc/faq#stack_or_heap)

## 26/ Imperative feature: Statement vs Expression vs Function vs Procedure

Go has statements and expressions, but not expressions-statements (hybrid). In Go, statements control execution (for example: if statement, for statement,...). An expression specifies the computation of a value by applying operators and functions to operands (for example: 3 + 4). Go has both functions and procedures (functions that return, and functions that don't return). Examples could be found throughout the other questions.

## 27/ Scripting feature: Regular Expression

There is a library for regular expression called "regexp". With that, we can use regular expression like matching (check whether it satisfies the pattern, or can find string submatch). More functions could be seen here: <https://golang.org/pkg/regexp/#Match>

Code: regexp.go

```
func main() {  
    var r, _ = regexp.Compile( expr: "[1-9]*[abc]+" )  
    var l = "2aaa"  
    var l1 = "123212abd"  
    fmt.Println(r.MatchString(l))  
    fmt.Println(r.FindString(l1))  
}
```

true

Output: 123212ab

## 28/ Borrowed idea from Functional: Higher-order functions:

Since function is count as a type, we can pass function like parameter. In the code below, we pass the "exclaim" function variable as a parameter for "scream"

Code: higherOrd.go

```

func Scream(f func(i int) string) {
    // Function that takes in a function: int -> int
    mood := f(3)
    fmt.Println("AAAAAAA!", mood)
}

func main() {
    exclaim := func(i int) string {
        if i < 8 {
            return "NEED SLEEP!"
        } else {
            return "REFRESHING!"
        }
    }
    Scream(exclaim)
}

```

Output: AAAAAAA!, NEED SLEEP!

## 29/ OOP: Classes (in Go it is struct)

Code: struct2.go

```

type Student struct {
    gpa float32
    fatigue int
    sleep func()
}

func main() {
    s := Student{
        gpa: 3.4,
        fatigue: 2,
        sleep: func() { fmt.Println("Sleeping!") },
    }
    s.sleep()
    fmt.Println(s.gpa)
}

```

Compile and run: go run struct2.go

Output: Sleeping!  
3.4

As we can see here, since function is considered a “type” in Go, we can have a function variable in Go to act as function of a class.

### 30/ OOP: Inheritance

Go does not do inheritance the way Java or C++ does but instead integrate the “inheritance” inside the struct itself. Here we can see how Truck inherits attributes from Car.

Code: inheritance.go

```
type Car struct{
    brand string
    wheels int
}

func (f Car) ride(){
    fmt.Printf("I'm riding on a #{f.wheels} wheel #{f.brand}\n")
}

type Truck struct{
    Car
}

func main(){
    var f = Car{ brand: "Toyota", wheels: 4}
    f.ride()
    var truck = Truck{ Car: Car{ brand: "UFO", wheels: 1}}
    truck.ride()
}
```

```
I'm riding on a 4 wheel Toyota
I'm riding on a 1 wheel UFO
```

Output:

### 31/ OOP: Interfaces

Go interface is quite simple. It allows some sort of “polymorphism”, in a way that if a struct has that method from the interface, we can use the interface to perform polymorphism function. In this example, we have “Cryable” interface which is what “Dog” and “Human” class are (they both have cry method). By using interface, we can implement a function that works for both Human and Dog.

Code: interface.go

```

type Cryable interface {
    cry()
}

func makeCry(c Cryable) {
    fmt.Println(c)
    c.cry()
}

type Dog struct {
    nickname string
}

func (d Dog) cry() {
    fmt.Println("Oh no,", d.nickname, "is sad! Doggo needs hooman")
}

type Human struct {
    name string
}

func (h Human) cry() {
    fmt.Println("Oh no,", h.name, "is sad! Human needs doggo!")
}

func main() {
    h := Human{ name: "Nancy"}
    d := Dog{ nickname: "Doge"}
    makeCry(h)
    makeCry(d)
}

```

{Nancy}  
 Oh no, Nancy is sad! Human needs doggo!  
 {Doge}  
 Oh no, Doge is sad! Doggo needs hooman

Output: