



# Programming in Go

## Lesson 2: Packages & Functions

---

Matt Holiday  
23 April 2019  
Cardinal Peak



## Lesson #2

What we'll cover today:

- Homework #1
- Slice gotchas
- IDEs
- Packages
- Functions, parms, & returns
- Scope of variables
- Gotchas with `:=`
- Closures
- Defer

## Homework #1: First program

```
package main
```

```
import (  
    "fmt"  
    "io/ioutil"  
    "os"  
    "strings"  
)
```

```
func main() {  
    var n int
```

```
// don't use range here, you don't want the first arg!
```

```
for i := 1; i < len(os.Args); i++ {  
    fn := os.Args[i]  
    text, err := ioutil.ReadFile(fn)
```

## Homework #1: First program

```
// handle the case of a bad file name

if err != nil {
    fmt.Fprintf(os.Stderr, "can't read %s: %s\n",
                fn, err)
    continue
}

// magic happens here
// we must convert the []byte from ReadFile

words := strings.Fields(string(text))
n += len(words)
}

fmt.Println(n, "total words")
}
```

## Homework #1: Second program

```
func main() {  
    m := make(map[string]int) // can't just use var  
  
    for i := 1; i < len(os.Args); i++ {  
        fn := os.Args[i]  
        text, err := ioutil.ReadFile(fn)  
  
        if err != nil { /* error handling here */ }  
  
        words := strings.Fields(string(text))  
  
        for _, w := range words { // ignore keys  
            m[w] += 1 // m[w] returns 0 on first access  
        }  
    }  
  
    fmt.Println(len(m), "unique words")  
}
```

# Homework #1: Results

## file rich2.txt is taken from Shakespeare, Richard II act 2 scene 1

```
$ go run counter1.go rich2.txt
```

```
2558 total words
```

```
$ wc rich2.txt
```

```
372      2558    14102 rich2.txt
```

```
$ go run counter2.go rich2.txt
```

```
1197 unique words
```

```
$ awk '{for (i=1; i<=NF; i++) {print $i}}' rich2.txt|sort|uniq|wc
```

```
1197      1197      7993
```

```
$ awk '{for (i=1; i<=NF; i++) {print $i}}' rich2.txt|sort|uniq|head -5
```

```
&
```

```
'Gainst
```

```
'Tis
```

```
'gainst
```

```
'mongst
```

# “Understanding nil”

♥ Dimitri Fontaine liked



**Programming Wisdom** @CodeWisdom · 13h



“A language that doesn’t affect the way you think about programming is not worth knowing.” - Alan J. Perlis



7



167



627



## Slice Gotchas

---



# Slice follow-up



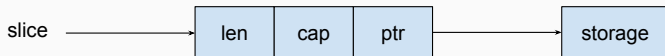
The screenshot shows a web browser window at `play.golang.org`. The page title is "The Go Playground". Below the title bar are buttons for "Run", "Format", "Imports", "Share", and "About". The main area contains a Go program with line numbers 1 through 14. The program defines a `main` package and a `main` function. Inside the function, it declares two slices: `s` of type `[]int` and `t` of type `[]int{}`. It then prints the length, capacity, and value of both slices. The output shows that `s` has a length of 0, capacity of 0, and value `[]int(nil)`, while `t` has a length of 0, capacity of 0, and value `[]int{}`. The program exits successfully.

```
1 package main
2
3 import (
4     "fmt"
5 )
6
7 func main() {
8     var s []int
9     var t = []int{}
10
11     fmt.Printf("%d, %d, %#v %t\n", len(s), cap(s), s, s == nil)
12     fmt.Printf("%d, %d, %#v %t\n", len(t), cap(t), t, t == nil)
13 }
14
```

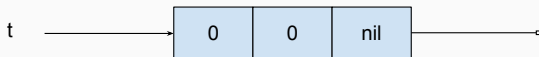
0, 0, []int(nil) true  
0, 0, []int{} false

Program exited.

## Slice follow-up



`s` ————  $\square$  `(nil)`



## Ugly #1: Slice length vs capacity

```
// let's make an array of 3 items  
a := [3]int{1, 2, 3}  
  
b := a[0:1]           // b is a slice of a's first item  
  
fmt.Println(b)        // prints [1]  
  
c := b[0:2]           // WTF? but the array has 3 entries  
  
fmt.Println(c)        // prints [1 2]  
  
fmt.Println(len(b))   // prints 1  
fmt.Println(cap(b))   // prints 3  
  
b := a[0:1:1]         // this is what you probably meant
```

## Ugly #2: Slice mutating underlying array

```
a := [3]int{1, 2, 3}
b := a[0:1]; c := b[0:2]

b = append(b, 4)      // grows b, mutates a
fmt.Println("a=",a)   // a= [1 4 3]
fmt.Println("b=",b)   // b= [1 4]

c = append(c, 5)      // grows c, mutates a
fmt.Println("a=",a)   // a= [1 4 5]
fmt.Println("c=",c)   // c= [1 4 5]

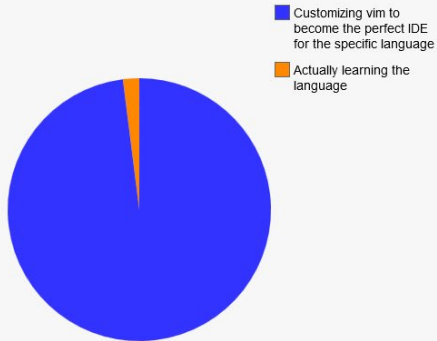
c = append(c, 6)      // forces allocation!
fmt.Println("a=",a)   // a= [1 4 5]
fmt.Println("c=",c)   // c= [1 4 5 6]

c[0] = 9              // mutates a different array!
fmt.Println("a=",a)   // a= [1 4 5]
fmt.Println("c=",c)   // c= [9 4 5 6]
```

# Development Environments

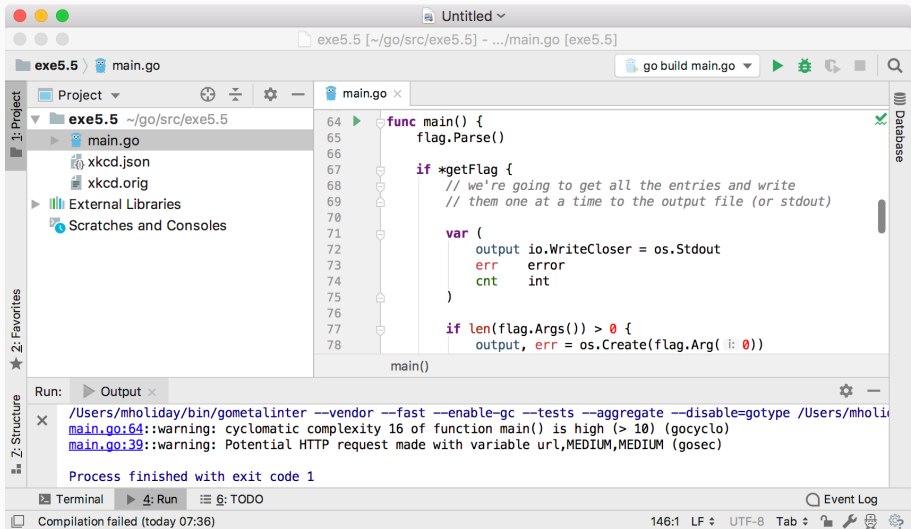
---

## Time spent when learning a new programming language



Vim setup example

# Jetbrains GoLand IDE



## Packages

---



# Everything lives in a package

Every standalone program has a main package

```
package main

import "fmt"

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

Nothing is “global”; it’s either in your package or in another

It’s either at **package** scope or **function** scope

# Packages control visibility

Every name that's **capitalized** is exported

```
package secrets

import . . .

type internal struct {
    . . .
}

func GetAll(space, name string) (map[string]string, error) {
    . . .
}
```

That means another package in the program can import it

Within a package, *everything* is visible even across files

# Package-level declarations

You can declare anything at *package* scope

```
package secrets

const DefaultUUID = "00000000-0000-0000-0000-000000000000"

type k8secret struct {
    . . .
}

var secretKey string

func Do(it string) error {
    . . .
}
```

But you can't use the short declaration operator `:=`

# Imports

Each *source file* in your package must import what it needs

```
package secrets

import (
    "encoding/base64"
    "encoding/json"
    "fmt"
    "os"
    "strings"
)

. . .
```

It may only import what it needs; unused imports are an error

Generally, files of the same package live together in a directory

# What makes a good package?

A package should embed deep functionality behind a simple API

```
package os
```

```
func Create(name string) (*File, error)
```

```
func Open(name string) (*File, error)
```

```
func (f *File) Read(b []byte) (n int, err error)
```

```
func (f *File) Write(b []byte) (n int, err error)
```

```
func (f *File) Close() error
```

The Unix file API is perhaps the best example of this model

Roughly five functions hide a lot of complexity from the user

# No cycles

A package “A” cannot import a package that imports A

```
package A
```

```
import "B"
```

```
//-----
```

```
package B
```

```
import "A"    // WRONG
```

Move common dependencies to a third package

Or eliminate them

# Initialization

Items within a package get initialized before main

```
const A = 1

var B int = C
var C int = A

func Do() error {
    . . .
}

func init() {
    . . .
}
```

Only the runtime can call `init`, also before main

# Functions

---



# Functions in Go

Functions are “first class” objects; you can:

- Define them — even inside another function
- Create anonymous *function literals*
- Pass them as function parameters / return values
- Store them in variables
- Store them in slices and maps (but not as keys)
- Store them as fields of a structure type
- Send and receive them in channels
- Write methods against a function type
- Compare a function var against `nil`

# Function scope

Almost anything can be defined inside a function

```
func Do() error {  
    const a = 21  
  
    type b struct {  
        . . .  
    }  
  
    var c int  
  
    func reallyDoIt() {  
        . . .  
    }  
}
```

*Methods* cannot be defined in a function (only at package scope)

# What is scope?

*Scope* is a term used to denote a region of the program

It's the region of *visibility* of a name

Scopes can be nested:

- Function within package
- Function within function
- Code block within function

# Scope

```
package xyz

var a int

func doIt() {
    var b int
    a = 2

    if b < 10 {
        a := 10
        . . .
    }
}
```

Package-level `a` can be seen inside `doIt`, but `b` is *local* to `doIt`

There's another `a` inside the `if` block — it *shadows* `xyz.a`

# Scope vs lifetime

Scope is static, based on the code at compile time

Lifetime depends on program execution

```
package xyz

func doIt() *int {
    var b int
    . . .

    return &b
}
```

`b` can only be seen inside `doIt`, but it will live past the return

It will live so long as part of the program keeps a pointer to it

## Shadowing short declarations

Short declarations with `:=` have some gotchas

```
func main() {  
    n, err := fmt.Println("Hello, playground")  
  
    if _, err := fmt.Println(n); err != nil {  
        fmt.Println(err)  
    }  
}
```

**Compile error:** the first `err` is unused

This follows from the scoping rules, because `:=` is a declaration and the second `err` is in the scope of the `if` statement

# Shadowing short declarations

Short declarations with `:=` have some gotchas

```
func BadRead(f *os.File, buf []byte) error {  
    var err error  
  
    for {  
        n, err := f.Read(buf) // shadows 'err' above  
  
        if err != nil {  
            break // causes return of wrong value  
        }  
  
        foo(buf)  
    }  
  
    return err // will always be nil  
}
```

## Function signatures

The *signature* of a function is the order & type of its parameters and return values

It does not depend on the names of those parameters or returns

```
var try func(int, int) int
```

```
func Do(a, b int) int {  
    . . .  
}
```

```
func NotDo(x int, y int) a int {}  
    . . .  
}
```

These functions have the same *structural* type



# Structural typing

It's the same type if it has the same structure or behavior

```
type x func(int) int

func main() {
    var a x          // x is a named type

    b := func(y int) int {
        return y+2
    }

    a = b             // b is an anon func, but compatible
    fmt.Println(a(12))
}
```

Go does use *structural* typing in most cases

# Structural typing

It's the same type if it has the same structure or behavior:

- arrays of the same size and base type
- slices with the same base type
- maps of the same key and value types
- structs with the same sequence of field names/types
- functions with the same parameter & return types

# Named typing

It's the only the same type if it has the same defined name

```
type x int

func main() {
    var a x      // x is a defined type; base int

    b := 12      // b defaults to int

    a = b        // TYPE MISMATCH

    a = 12       // OK, untyped literal
}
```

Go does use *named* typing for non-function *defined* types

# Parameter passing

Parameters may be passed *by value* or *by reference*

```
func do(b []int) int {  
    b[0] = 0  
    b = []int{5, 6, 7}  
    return b[2]  
}
```

```
func main() {  
    a := []int{1, 2, 3}  
    v := do(a)  
  
    fmt.Println(a, v)    // [0,2,3] 7  
}
```

“By value” — the parameter is copied into the function

“By reference” — the function can change the actual parameter

# Parameter passing

By value:

- numbers
- bool
- arrays
- structs

By reference:

- pointers to things, including structs
- strings (but they're immutable)
- slices (actually, a reference to the backing array)
- maps
- channels

# Return values

Functions can have multiple return values

```
func doIt(a int, b []int) int {  
    . . .  
    return 1  
}
```

```
func doItAgain(a string) (int, error) {  
    . . .  
    return 1, nil  
}
```

Every return statement must have all the values specified

# Recursion

A function may call itself; the trick is knowing when to stop

```
func walk(node *tree.T) int {  
    if node == nil {  
        return 0  
    }  
  
    return node.value + walk(node.left) + walk(node.right)  
}
```

This works because each function call adds context to the stack and unwinds it when done

If you don't have good stopping criteria, the program will crash

# Closures

---



# What is a closure?

A *closure* is when a function inside another function “closes over” one or more local variables of the outer function

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

The inner function gets a **reference** to the outer function's vars

Those variables may end up with a much longer *lifetime* than expected — as long as there's a reference to the inner function

# Closures: scope vs lifetime

The inner variables continue to live on

```
func fib() func() int {  
    a, b := 0, 1  
  
    // return a closure over a & b  
}  
  
func main() {  
    f := fib()  
  
    // f keeps ahold of a and b and updates them  
  
    fmt.Println(f(), f(), f(), f(), f(), f())  
}
```

The inner function continues to mutate the variables it references

# Closure gotcha

Avoid closing over a variable that is mutating (a loop index)

```
func main() {  
    s := make([]func(), 4)  
  
    for i := 0; i < 4; i++ {  
        s[i] = func() {  
            // they all point to the same "i"  
            fmt.Printf("%d %p\n", i, &i)  
        }  
    }  
  
    for i := 0; i < 4; i++ {  
        s[i]()  
    }  
}
```

The program prints 4 each time; addresses all the same

# Closure gotcha

Avoid closing over a variable that is mutating (a loop index)

```
func main() {  
    s := make([]func(), 4)  
  
    for i := 0; i < 4; i++ {  
        j := i // capture it before the closure  
        s[i] = func() {  
            fmt.Printf("%d %p\n", j, &j)  
        }  
    }  
  
    for i := 0; i < 4; i++ {  
        s[i]()  
    }  
}
```

The program prints 1, 2, 3, 4 as expected; addresses different

# Closure gotcha

Avoid closing over a variable that is mutating (a loop index)

```
func main() {  
    s := make([]func(), 4)  
  
    for i := 0; i < 4; i++ {  
        i := i // capture it before the closure  
        s[i] = func() {  
            fmt.Printf("%d %p\n", i, &i)  
        }  
    }  
  
    for i := 0; i < 4; i++ {  
        s[i]()  
    }  
}
```

This does the same thing; one `i` shadows the other

## Defer

---

## Deferred execution

How do we make sure something gets done?

- close a file we opened
- close a socket / HTTP request we made
- unlock a mutex we locked
- make sure something gets saved before we're done
- ...

The `defer` statement captures a function *call* to run later

# Defer

We need to ensure the file closes no matter what

```
func main() {  
    f, err := os.Open("my_file.txt")  
  
    if err != nil {  
        . . .  
    }  
  
    defer f.Close()  
  
    // and do something with the file  
}
```

The call to `Close` is guaranteed to run at function exit

Don't defer closing the file until we know it really opened



## Defer gotcha #1

The scope of a defer statement is the *function*

```
func main() {  
    for i := 1; i < len(os.Args); i++ {  
        f, err := os.Open(os.Arg(i))  
  
        . . .  
  
        defer f.Close()  
  
        . . .  
    }  
}
```

The deferred calls to `Close` must wait until function exit

We might run out of file descriptors before that!

## Defer gotcha #2

Unlike a closure, defer copies arguments to the deferred call

```
func main() {  
    a := 10  
  
    defer fmt.Println(a)  
  
    a = 11  
  
    fmt.Println(a)  
}  
  
// prints 11, 10
```

The parameter a gets copied at the defer statement

The defer statement doesn't get a reference

## Defer gotcha #2

A defer statement runs before the return is done

```
func doIt() (a int) {  
    defer func() {  
        a = 2  
    }()  
  
    a = 1  
    return  
}  
  
// returns 2
```

We have a named return value and a “naked” return

The deferred anonymous function can update that variable

# Homework

---

## Homework #2

Exercise 5.5 from *GOPL*: implement `countWordsAndImages`

Actually, given some HTML as raw text, parse it into a document and then call your counting routine to detect and count words and images (you can follow the book's example).

Don't worry about getting HTML from an HTTP query; we're not there yet.

See Homework #1 for counting words.

What happens if the HTML document is empty?