



Another Go at Language Design

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<http://goLang.org>



Google™

Who

Russ Cox
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plus David Symonds, Nigel Tao, Andrew
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plus many contributions from the open
source community.



Outline

1. History
2. A niche
3. Tour of Go
4. Status



Part 1

1. History

2. A niche

3. Tour of Go

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History

I'm always delighted by the light touch and stillness of early programming languages. Not much text; a lot gets done. Old programs read like quiet conversations between a well-spoken research worker and a well-studied mechanical colleague, not as a debate with a compiler. Who'd have guessed sophistication bought such noise?

-Dick Gabriel



Sophistication

If more than one function is selected, any function template specializations in the set are eliminated if the set also contains a non-template function, and any given function template specialization F1 is eliminated if the set contains a second function template specialization whose function template is more specialized than the function template of F1 according to the partial ordering rules of 14.5.6.2. After such eliminations, if any, there shall remain exactly one selected function.

(C++0x, §13.4 [4])



Sophistication

Which Boost templated pointer type should I use?

- `linked_ptr`
- `scoped_ptr`
- `shared_ptr`
- `smart_ptr`
- `weak_ptr`
- `intrusive_ptr`
- `exception_ptr`



Noise

```
public static <I, O> ListenableFuture<O>  
chain(ListenableFuture<I> input, Function<? super  
I, ? extends ListenableFuture<? extends O>>  
function) dear god make it stop
```

- a recently observed chat status

```
foo::Foo *myFoo = new foo::Foo(foo::FOO_INIT)
```

- but in the original `Foo` was a longer word



How did we get here?

A personal analysis:

- 1) C and Unix became dominant in research.
- 2) The desire for a higher-level language led to C++, which grafted the Simula style of object-oriented programming onto C. It was a poor fit but since it compiled to C it brought high-level programming to Unix.
- 3) C++ became the language of choice in parts of industry and in many research universities.
- 4) Java arose as a clearer, stripped-down C++.
- 5) By the late 1990s, a teaching language was needed that seemed relevant, and Java was chosen.



Programming became too hard

These languages are hard to use.

They are subtle, intricate, and verbose.

Their standard model is oversold, and we respond with add-on models such as "patterns".

(Norvig: patterns are a demonstration of weakness in a language.)

Yet these languages are successful and vital.



A reaction

The inherent clumsiness of the main languages has caused a reaction.

A number of successful simpler languages (Python, Ruby, Lua, JavaScript, Erlang, ...) have become popular, in part as a rejection of the standard languages.

Some beautiful and rigorous languages designed by domain experts (Scala, Haskell, ...) have also arisen, although they are not as widely adopted.

So despite the standard model, other approaches are popular and there are signs of a growth in "outsider" languages, a renaissance of language invention.



A confusion

The standard languages (Java, C++) are statically typed.

Most outsider languages (Ruby, Python, JavaScript) are interpreted and dynamically typed.

Perhaps as a result, non-expert programmers have confused "ease of use" with interpretation and dynamic typing.

This confusion arose because of how we got here: grafting an orthodoxy onto a language that couldn't support it cleanly.



Part 2

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The good

The standard languages are very strong: type-safe, effective, efficient.

In the hands of experts, they are great.

Huge systems and huge companies are built on them.

In practice they work well for large scale programming: big programs, many programmers.



The bad

The standard languages are hard to use.

Compilers are slow and fussy. Binaries are huge.

Effective work needs language-aware tools, distributed compilation farms, ...

Many programmers prefer to avoid them.

The languages are at least 10 years old and poorly adapted to the current computing environment: clouds of networked multicore CPUs.



Flight to the suburbs

This is partly why Python et al. have become so popular:
They don't have much of the "bad".

- dynamically typed (fewer noisy keystrokes)
- interpreted (no compiler to wait for)
- good tools (interpreters make things easier)

But they also don't have the "good":

- slow
- not type-safe (static errors occur at runtime)
- very poor at scale

And they're also not very modern.



A niche

There is a niche to be filled: a language that has the good, avoids the bad, and is suitable to modern computing infrastructure:

- comprehensible
- statically typed
- light on the page
- fast to work in
- scales well
- doesn't require tools, but supports them well
- good at networking and multiprocessing



Part 3

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The target

Go aims to combine the safety and performance of a statically typed compiled language with the expressiveness and convenience of a dynamically typed interpreted language.

It also aims to be suitable for modern systems programming.



Hello, world 2.0

Serving `http://localhost:8080/world:`

```
package main
import (
    "fmt"
    "http"
)

func handler(c *http.Conn, r *http.Request) {
    fmt.Fprintf(c, "Hello, %s.", r.URL.Path[1:])
}

func main() {
    http.ListenAndServe(":8080",
        http.HandlerFunc(handler))
}
```



How does Go fill the niche?

Fast compilation

Expressive type system

Concurrency

Garbage collection

Systems programming capabilities

Clarity and orthogonality



Compilation demo



Why so fast?

New clean compiler worth ~5X compared to gcc.

We want a millionX for large programs, so we need to fix the dependency problem.

In Go, programs compile into **packages** and each compiled package file imports transitive dependency info.

If **A.go** depends on **B.go** depends on **C.go**:

- compile **C.go**, **B.go**, then **A.go**.
- to compile **A.go**, compiler reads **B.o** but not **C.o**.

At scale, this can be a huge speedup.



Trim the tree

Large C++ programs (Firefox, OpenOffice, Chromium) have huge build times. On a Mac (OS X 10.5.7, gcc 4.0.1):

- C: `#include <stdio.h>`
reads 360 lines from 9 files
 - C++: `#include <iostream>`
reads 25,326 lines from 131 files
 - Objective-C: `#include <Cocoa/Cocoa.h>`
reads 112,047 lines from 689 files
- But we haven't done any real work yet!

In Go, `import "fmt"` reads **one** file:
195 lines summarizing 6 dependent packages.

As we scale, the improvement becomes exponential.



Expressive type system

Go is an object-oriented language, but unusually so.

There is no such thing as a class.

There is no subclassing.

Any types, even basic types such as integers and strings, can have methods.

Objects implicitly satisfy interfaces, which are just sets of methods.



Any named type can have methods

```
type Day int  
  
var dayName = []string{"Sunday", "Monday"} // and so on  
  
func (d Day) String() string {  
    if 0 <= d && int(d) < len(dayName) { return dayName[d] }  
    return "NoSuchDay"  
}  
  
type Fahrenheit float  
  
func (t Fahrenheit) String() string {  
    return fmt.Sprintf("%.1f°F", t)  
}
```

Note that these methods do not take a pointer (although they could).

This is not the same notion as Java's `Integer` type: it's really an `int` (`float`). There is no box.



Interfaces

```
type Stringer interface {  
    String() string  
}  
  
func print(args ...Stringer) {  
    for i, s := range args {  
        if i > 0 { os.Stdout.WriteString(" ") }  
        os.Stdout.WriteString(s.String())  
    }  
}
```

```
print(Day(1), Fahrenheit(72.29))  
=> Monday 72.3°F
```

Again, these methods do not take a pointer, although another type might define a `String()` method that does, and it too would satisfy `Stringer`.



Empty Interface

The empty interface (`interface {}`) has no methods. Every type satisfies the empty interface.

```
func print(args ...interface{}) {
    for i, arg := range args {
        if i > 0 { os.Stdout.WriteString(" ") }
        switch a := arg.(type) { // "type switch"
            case Stringer: os.Stdout.WriteString(a.String())
            case int:      os.Stdout.WriteString(itoa(a))
            case string:   os.Stdout.WriteString(a)
            // more types can be used
            default:       os.Stdout.WriteString("????")
        }
    }
}
```

```
print(Day(1), "was", Fahrenheit(72.29))
=> Monday was 72.3°F
```



Small and implicit

`Fahrenheit` and `Day` satisfied `Stringer` implicitly; other types might too. A type satisfies an interface simply by implementing its methods. There is no "implements" declaration; interfaces are satisfied implicitly.

It's a form of duck typing, but (usually) checkable at compile time.

An object can (and usually does) satisfy many interfaces simultaneously. For instance, `Fahrenheit` and `Day` satisfy `Stringer` and also the empty interface.

In Go, interfaces are usually small: one or two or even zero methods.



Reader

```
type Reader interface {  
    Read(p []byte) (n int, err os.Error)  
}  
// And similarly for Writer
```

Anything with a **Read** method implements **Reader**.

- Sources: files, buffers, network connections, pipes
- Filters: buffers, checksums, decompressors, decrypters

JPEG decoder takes a **Reader**, so it can decode from disk, network, gzipped HTTP,

Buffering just wraps a **Reader**:

```
var bufferedInput Reader = bufio.NewReader(os.Stdin)
```

Fprintf uses a **Writer**:

```
func Fprintf(w Writer, fmt string, a ...interface{})
```



Interfaces can be retrofitted

Had an existing RPC implementation that used custom wire format. Changed to an interface:

```
type Encoding interface {  
    ReadRequestHeader(*Request) os.Error  
    ReadRequestBody(interface{}) os.Error  
    WriteResponse(*Response, interface{}) os.Error  
    Close() os.Error  
}
```

Two functions (send, recv) changed signature. Before:

```
func sendResponse(sending *sync.Mutex, req *Request,  
    reply interface{}, enc *gob.Encoder, errmsg string)
```

After (and similarly for receiving):

```
func sendResponse(sending *sync.Mutex, req *Request,  
    reply interface{}, enc Encoding, errmsg string)
```

That is almost the whole change to the RPC implementation.



Post facto abstraction

We saw an opportunity: RPC needed only `Encode` and `Decode` methods. Put those in an interface and you've abstracted the codec.

Total time: 20 minutes, including writing and testing the JSON implementation of the interface.

(We also wrote a trivial wrapper to adapt the existing codec for the new `rpc.Encoding` interface.)

In Java, `RPC` would be refactored into a half-abstract class, subclassed to create `JsonRPC` and `StandardRPC`.

In Go, there is no need to manage a type hierarchy: just pass in an encoding interface stub (and nothing else).



Concurrency

Systems software must often manage connections and clients.

Go provides independently executing **goroutines** that communicate and synchronize using **channels**.

Analogy with Unix: processes connected by pipes. But in Go things are fully typed and lighter weight.



Goroutines

Start a new flow of control with the `go` keyword.
Parallel computation is easy:

```
func main() {  
    go expensiveComputation(x, y, z)  
    anotherExpensiveComputation(a, b, c)  
}
```

Roughly speaking, a goroutine is like a thread, but lighter weight:

- stacks are small, segmented, sized on demand
- goroutines are muxed by demand onto true threads
- requires support from language, compiler, runtime
- can't just be a C++ library



Thread per connection

Doesn't scale in practice, so in most languages we use event-driven callbacks and continuations.

But in Go, a goroutine per connection model scales well.

```
for {  
    rw := socket.Accept()  
    conn := newConn(rw, handler)  
    go conn.serve()  
}
```



Channels

Our trivial parallel program again:

```
func main() {  
    go expensiveComputation(x, y, z)  
    anotherExpensiveComputation(a, b, c)  
}
```

Need to know when the computations are done.
Need to know the result.

A Go **channel** provides the capability: a typed synchronous communications mechanism.



Channels

Goroutines communicate using channels.

```
func computeAndSend(x, y, z int) chan int {
    ch := make(chan int)
    go func() {
        ch <- expensiveComputation(x, y, z)
    }()
    return ch
}

func main() {
    ch := computeAndSend(x, y, z)
    v2 := anotherExpensiveComputation(a, b, c)
    v1 := <-ch
    fmt.Println(v1, v2)
}
```



A worker pool

Traditional approach (C++, etc.) is to communicate by sharing memory:

- shared data structures protected by mutexes

Server would use shared memory to apportion work:

```
type Work struct {  
    x, y, z int  
    assigned, done bool  
}
```

```
type WorkSet struct {  
    mu sync.Mutex  
    work []*Work  
}
```

But not in Go.



Share memory by communicating

In Go, you reverse the equation.

- channels use the `<-` operator to synchronize and communicate

Typically don't need or want mutexes.

```
type Work struct { x, y, z int }
func worker(in <-chan *Work, out chan <- *Work) {
    for w := range in {
        w.z = w.x * w.y
        out <- w
    }
}
func main() {
    in, out := make(chan *Work), make(chan *Work)
    for i := 0; i < 10; i++ { go worker(in, out) }
    go sendLotsOfWork(in)
    receiveLotsOfResults(out)
}
```



Garbage collection

Automatic memory management simplifies life.

GC is critical for concurrent programming; otherwise it's too fussy and error-prone to track ownership as data moves around.

GC also clarifies design. A large part of the design of C and C++ libraries is about deciding who owns memory, who destroys resources.

But garbage collection isn't enough.



Memory safety

Memory in Go is intrinsically safer:

- pointers but no pointer arithmetic
- no dangling pointers (locals move to heap as needed)
- no pointer-to-integer conversions*
- all variables are zero-initialized
- all indexing is bounds-checked

Should have far fewer buffer overflow exploits.

* Package `unsafe` allows this but labels the code as dangerous; used mainly in some low-level libraries.



Systems language

By systems language, we mean suitable for writing systems software.

- web servers
- web browsers
- web crawlers
- search indexers
- databases
- compilers
- programming tools (debuggers, analyzers, ...)
- IDEs
- operating systems (maybe)
- ...



Systems programming

From <http://loadcode.blogspot.com/2009/12/go-vs-java.html>

"[Git] is known to be very fast. It is written in C. A Java version JGit was made. It was considerably slower. Handling of memory and lack of unsigned types [were] some of the important reasons."

Shawn O. Pearce wrote on the git mailing list:

"JGit struggles with not having an efficient way to represent a SHA-1. C can just say "unsigned char[20]" and have it inline into the container's memory allocation. A byte[20] in Java will cost an *additional* 16 bytes of memory, and be slower to access because the bytes themselves are in a different area of memory from the container object."



Control of bits and memory

Like C, Go has

- full set of unsigned types
- bit-level operations
- programmer control of memory layout

```
type T struct {  
    x    int  
    buf [20]byte  
    ...  
}
```

- pointers to inner values

```
p := &t.buf
```



Simplicity and clarity

Go's design aims for being easy to use, which means it must be easy to understand, even if that sometimes contradicts superficial ease of use.

Some examples:

No implicit numeric conversions, although the way constants work ameliorates the inconvenience. (Next slide.)

No method overloading. For a given type, there is only one method with that name.

There is no "public" or "private" label. Instead, items with `UpperCaseNames` are visible to clients; `LowerCaseNames` are not.



Constants

Numeric constants are "ideal numbers": no size or signed/unsigned distinction, hence no L or U or UL endings.

```
077 // octal
```

```
0xFEEDBEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEF // hexadecimal
```

```
1 << 100
```

Syntax of literal determines default type:

```
1.234e5 // float
```

```
1e2 // float
```

```
100 // int
```

But they are just numbers that can be used at will and assigned to variables with no conversions necessary.

```
seconds := time.Nanoseconds()/1e9 // result has integer type
```



High precision constants

Arithmetic with constants is high precision. Only when assigned to a variable are they rounded or truncated to fit.

```
const MaxUint = 1<<32 - 1
const Ln2      = 0.6931471805599453094172321214581\  
                76568075500134360255254120680009
const Log2E    = 1/Ln2 // accurate reciprocal
var x float64 = Log2E // rounded to nearest float64 value
```

The value assigned to `x` will be as precise as possible in a 64-bit float.



And more

There are other aspects of Go that make it easy and expressive yet scalable and efficient:

- clear package structure
- initialization
 - clear rules about how a program begins execution
 - top-level initializing functions and values
- composite values

```
var freq = map[string]float{"C4":261.626, "A4":440} // etc.
```
- tagged values

```
var s = Point{x:27, y:-13.2}
```
- function literals and closures

```
go func() { for { c1 <- <-c2 } }()
```
- reflection
- and more....

Plus automatic document generation and formatting.



Go is different

Go is object-oriented not type-oriented

- inheritance is not primary
- methods on any type, but no classes or subclasses

Go is (mostly) implicit not explicit

- types are inferred not declared
- objects have interfaces but they are derived, not specified

Go is concurrent not parallel

- intended for program structure, not max performance
- but still can keep all the cores humming nicely
- ... and many programs are more nicely expressed with concurrent ideas even if not parallel at all



Part 4

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Implementation

The language is designed and usable. Two compiler suites:

Gc, written in C, generates OK code very quickly.

- unusual design based on the Plan 9 compiler suite

Gccgo, written in C++, generates good code more slowly

- uses GCC's code generator and tools

Libraries good and growing, but some pieces are still preliminary.

Garbage collector works fine (simple mark and sweep) but is being rewritten for more concurrency, less latency.

Available for Linux etc., Mac OS X. Windows port underway.

All available as open source; see <http://golang.org>.



Acceptance

Go was the 2009 TIOBE "Language of the year" two months after it was released.

Year	Winner
2009	Go
2008	C
2007	Python
2006	Ruby
2005	Java
2004	PHP
2003	C++



Testimonials

"I have reimplemented a networking project from Scala to Go. Scala code is 6000 lines. Go is about 3000.

Even though Go does not have the power of abbreviation, the flexible type system seems to out-run Scala when the programs start getting longer.

Hence, Go produces much shorter code asymptotically."

– Petar Maymoukov

"Go is unique because of the set of things it does well. It has areas for improvement, but for my needs it is the best match I've found when compared to: C, C++, Erlang, Python, Ruby, C#, D, Java, and Scala."

– Hans Stimer



Utility

For those on the team, it's the main day-to-day language now. It has rough spots but mostly in the libraries, which are improving fast.

Productivity seems much higher. (I get behind on mail much more often.) Most builds take a fraction of a second.

Starting to be used inside Google for some production work.

We haven't built truly large software in Go yet, but all indicators are positive.



Try it out

This is a true open source project.

Full source, documentation and much more at

<http://golang.org>





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