

# Type Unions

Terminology: *types* are prescriptive. Some examples:

```
unit := ()  
bool := false | true  
order := LESS | EQUAL | GREATER  
nat := zero | succ(nat)
```

*Product types* (Cartesian product, tuples):  $\tau_1 \times \tau_2$ .

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What about “combining” two types? One idea: `Union`{ $\tau_1, \tau_2$ }. However:

```
const MightFail{T} = Union{T,String}  
const IntMightFail = MightFail{Int}           Union{Int,String}  
const StringMightFail = MightFail{String}      String (!)
```

Alternative: *sum types* (“tagged disjoint unions”):  $\tau_1 + \tau_2$ .

```
const MightFail{T} = Ok{T} | Error{String}
```

Benefits:

- ▶ More modular – cases are necessarily disjoint.
- ▶ Easier to develop efficient data structures, since sums are “concrete”.
- ▶ Guaranteed *case exhaustivity* checking! Easy to refactor code.

# Dynamic Typing and Dynamic Dispatch

In PL theory, types are checked without executing code (i.e. at “compile-time”). Therefore, “types” in Julia aren’t types, formally. Instead, Julia has one type – **Any**, an *extensible sum*<sup>1</sup> – where each “type” is a case, tagging a value.

**Any** := Int(int) | Float(float) | String(string) | ...

- ▶ All Julia values (of type **Any**) are “tagged”. Therefore, calling a function requires a case analysis (“method table lookup”), incurring a runtime performance penalty. (!) This explains why dynamic dispatch is avoided in critical-path code!
- ▶ Similarly, since each Julia “function” is a mutable registry covering domain **Any**, type piracy is inherently possible.

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## Conclusions:

- ▶ This is *less expressive* than having multiple types! There’s no way to guarantee a given input has a given shape; instead, programmers must rely on knowledge of how the compiler optimizes in order to write performant code.
- ▶ However, **Any** can coexist with other types! For example, ML<sup>2</sup>-style languages support generative types alongside **exn**, an extensible sum type, like Julia’s **Any**.
- ▶ Otherwise, gradual types<sup>3,4</sup> could be the answer?

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<sup>1</sup>Practical Foundations for Programming Languages, Second Edition (Harper): Chapter 33

<sup>2</sup>The Definition of Standard ML (Milner, Tofte, Harper, MacQueen)

<sup>3</sup>What is Gradual Typing (Siek)

<sup>4</sup>Gradual Type Theory (New, Licata, Ahmed)

# Abstract Types

What does it mean for  $x :: T$ , with  $T$  abstract?

- ▶  $x :: U$ , for some concrete  $U$  with  $U <: T$

What properties should  $U$  have if  $U <: T$ ? Often, there is an (implicit) collection of functions which should be implemented for  $U$ . For example:

- ▶ If  $U <: \text{Number}$ , then  $\text{Base}.\text{+} (::U, ::U) :: U$ ,  $\text{Base}.\text{*} (::U, ::U) :: U$ , etc. should be defined.
- ▶ If  $U <: \text{AbstractArray}\{\text{Elt}\}$ , then  $\text{Base}.\text{length} (::U) :: \text{Int}$ ,  $\text{Base}.\text{getindex} (::U, ::\text{Int}) :: \text{Elt}$ , etc. should be defined.

Therefore,  $U <: T$  means that  $U$  implements an interface specified by  $T$ . In other languages, this feature is often called *typeclasses* or *traits*.<sup>5</sup>

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Benefits:

- ▶ Traits can still form a hierarchy. For example, `trait Ordered{T} <: Eq{T}`.
- ▶ Instances can be automatically derived. For example, `implement Eq{Vector{T}} where Eq{T}`.
- ▶ Traits can *also* form more complex lattices (“multiple inheritance”)!
- ▶ Similar to dynamic dispatch, traits simulate “overloading,” allowing a given function to be implemented differently for various types. However, traits are a zero-cost abstraction<sup>6</sup>, allowing the compiler to generate specialized code *before* runtime, leading to faster execution.
- ▶ No more runtime ambiguity errors!

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<sup>5</sup> `radical-julia` (Grodin)

<sup>6</sup> Abstraction without overhead: traits in Rust (Turon)