

# Julia 101

Welcome to the first laboratory session for the *Logic and Machine Learning* course!

The goal of this notebook is to get familiar with the **Julia programming language** and its core functionalities.

Specifically, you will learn about:

- how to use `Pkg.jl` to manage your project's working environment
- variables and types in Julia
- Julia's built-in data structures, like arrays, tuples, dictionaries and sets
- functions in Julia (and how to use `BenchmarkTools.jl` to track performance)
- how to define your own data structures in Julia

If you missed the setup instructions, please refer to the `README.md` file in the root folder.

## Pkg.jl

`Pkg.jl` is Julia's built-in package manager, that we can leverage to easily manage the project we are working in.

Instead of manually writing esoteric configuration files, we can do everything by simply executing `Pkg.mycommand(...)` !

For example, if we want to add a new dependency `foo.jl` to our project, we need to execute `Pkg.add("foo")`, and all the necessary data will be downloaded from [Julia's general package registry](#). Then, the changes will be tracked in a `Project.toml` file.

You can guess what `Pkg.remove("foo")` does.

To load an already existing `Project.toml`, or to create a new one, you can use `Pkg.activate("filepath")` specifying a relative or absolute filepath.

`Pkg.instantiate()` reads the loaded configuration and resolves it, that is, it tries to precompile all the specified packages, taking care of versioning and populating a `Manifest.toml` file with metadata that we never want to manually change.

`Pkg.update()` forces `Pkg.jl` to visit the general registry and install the newest updates that respect all the versioning constraints of the project.

Finally, `Pkg.status()` consists of a summary of all the dependencies we are dealing with. They will be useful throughout all the lessons.

The next few lines will install all the packages we will need in the following lectures!

```
In [1]: using Pkg          # import the Pkg.jl package
Pkg.activate("..")  # the Project.toml file is in the parent directory!
Pkg.instantiate()
Pkg.update()
Pkg.status()

Activating project at `~/logic-and-machine-learning`
  Updating registry at `~/julia/registries/General.toml`
  Updating git-repo `https://github.com/aclai-lab/ManyExpertDecisionTree
s.jl`
  Updating git-repo `https://github.com/aclai-lab/SoleReasoners.jl#embed
ding`
    No Changes to `~/logic-and-machine-learning/Project.toml`
    No Changes to `~/logic-and-machine-learning/Manifest.toml`
Status `~/logic-and-machine-learning/Project.toml`
^ [da404889] ARFFFiles v1.5.0
[6e4b80f9] BenchmarkTools v1.6.3
[336ed68f] CSV v0.10.15
[159f3aea] Cairo v1.1.1
[861a8166] Combinatorics v1.1.0
[a93c6f00] DataFrames v1.8.1
^K [864edb3b] DataStructures v0.18.22
[7806a523] DecisionTree v0.12.4
[186bb1d3] Fontconfig v0.4.1
[271df9f8] FuzzyLogic v0.1.3
[a2cc645c] GraphPlot v0.6.2
^ [86223c79] Graphs v1.13.1
[6a3955dd] ImageFiltering v0.7.12
[f7bf1975] Impute v0.6.13
[23992714] MAT v0.11.4
^K [add582a8] MLJ v0.20.9
^ [a7f614a8] MLJBase v1.9.2
^ [c6f25543] MLJDecisionTreeInterface v0.4.2
[fb59e7f69] ManyExpertDecisionTrees v1.0.0 `https://github.com/aclai-lab/
ManyExpertDecisionTrees.jl#`
[24e37439] MatrixProfile v1.1.1
[fb95e5f7] ModalAssociationRules v0.2.1
[e54bda2e] ModalDecisionTrees v0.5.2
[8cc5100c] MultiData v0.1.4
[91a5bcdd] Plots v1.41.4
[ce6b1742] RDatasets v0.8.1
[4475fa32] SoleBase v0.13.4
[123f1ae1] SoleData v0.16.7
[b002da8f] SoleLogics v0.13.7
[4249d9c7] SoleModels v0.10.6
[eb5c4719] SoleReasoners v0.1.0 `https://github.com/aclai-lab/SoleReason
ers.jl#embedding#main`
[2913bbd2] StatsBase v0.34.10
[9a3f8284] Random v1.11.0
[9e88b42a] Serialization v1.11.0
Info Packages marked with ^ and^K have new versions available. Those with
^ may be upgradable, but those with^K are restricted by compatibility cons
traints from upgrading. To see why use `status --outdated`
```

## A Julia Cheatsheet

The cells below contain everything you need to start programming in Julia.

You can execute them one after the other by simply selecting the first cell and then pressing Shift + Enter .

Note that only the last line of each cell will be printed automatically!

Let us start with the very fundamentals.

```
In [2]: print("Hello, world!")
```

```
Hello, world!
```

```
Time for some basic math!
```

```
In [3]: 1 + 4  
(1 - 5) + (9 * 2)  
6 / 5;
```

```
In [4]: 35 % 8          # modulo  
div(9, 7)        # integer division  
9 ^ 3;          # exponentiation
```

```
In [5]: big(2) ^ 38461 # arbitrary precision arithmetic to prevent overflows
```

Out[5]: 821605300457270717901267492297310694474211570707136439489464755988617125  
124813828754207520439797950325413302987683645219382296906296433355649926  
394821876423356716933883691439145395940518012011947828367789770651542020  
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881886102350760504251159886056887539227181981230344275601997119297450582  
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907219242218641444460430523564932277503520958721371195413421467539254145  
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674173040683992767625495616299345979922434914172314031467002923208517627  
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279979580716278447658135406169262704167503129669795881225185505133817681  
655395724688972844794512960673519011190512115922572202820690305776662336  
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```
901795870945161219714376370843550050497763714206981567412316070390618171
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273875328607778984616061372596383915439056570130777396418439037567059632
945343907840460177701568800634665678777843884309847354558874299097146664
7594992190062752764411910289420384113851819079430100221952
```

Big, isn't it?

Now time for some logic!

```
In [6]: true
false

true && false    # logical and
true || false    # or
!true            # not
true ^ true;    # xor
```

```
In [7]: 1 & 0;
```

```
In [8]: 6 & 2;
```

```
In [9]: 6 | 1;
```

```
In [10]: xor(6, 2);
```

And now, let's do some numeric comparisons...

```
In [11]: 26 < 43
38 > 32
79 <= 50    # less or equal than
28 >= 84
19 == 71     # equal to
69 != 39     # not equal to
```

```
Out[11]: true
```

What about strings?

```
In [12]: "lexicographical" > "comparison"
```

```
Out[12]: true
```

```
In [13]: foo = "string" # this is a variable
print("This is a ${foo} interpolation!")
```

This is a string interpolation!

## Variables and Types

Variable names start with a letter or an underscore, and they can't be declared without a value.

We can play with all the variables appearing in the previously executed cells.

Every variable is associated with a *type*, and types are organized in hierarchical structures of *abstract types*.

The very bottom of this hierarchical structure includes the *concrete types*, and variables are particular instantiations of such types.

We can investigate the types of a variable using `typeof` , `supertype` and `subtypes` .

```
In [14]: println(typeof(foo))
println(supertype(typeof(foo)))
println(supertype(supertype(typeof(foo))))
```

String  
AbstractString  
Any

```
In [15]: bar = 93
bar |> typeof |> println # a more readable rewriting of println(typeof(bar))
bar |> typeof |> supertype |> println
bar |> typeof |> supertype |> supertype |> println
bar |> typeof |> supertype |> supertype |> supertype |> println
```

```
Int64  
Signed  
Integer  
Real
```

```
In [16]: subtypes(Real)
```

```
Out[16]: 4-element Vector{Any}:  
AbstractFloat  
AbstractIrrational  
Integer  
Rational
```

```
In [17]: baz = 75.10  
current_type = typeof(baz)
```

```
while current_type != Any  
    println(current_type)  
    current_type = supertype(current_type)  
end
```

```
Float64  
AbstractFloat  
Real  
Number
```

```
In [18]: subtypes(Integer)
```

```
Out[18]: 3-element Vector{Any}:  
Bool  
Signed  
Unsigned
```

```
In [19]: # "<:" is the subtype operator  
Integer <: Number
```

```
Out[19]: true
```

```
In [20]: Int <: Integer <: Number
```

```
Out[20]: true
```

## Special Variables and Special Types

Variables can hold special values to gracefully handle errors, such as the Float64 NaN value.

Similarly, particular semantics are conveyed by unique types, such as Nothing , Symbol and Union .

The former type can only be instantiated with the value nothing .

Symbols are used to encode uninterpreted names instead of values, and helps when dealing with metaprogramming.

Unions are special types, used to represent more than one type at once.

```
In [21]: println(0/0)  
println(isnan(0/0))
```

```
NaN  
true
```

```
In [22]: # this is a special variable representing the absence of any value  
placeholder = nothing  
isnothing	placeholder
```

```
Out[22]: true
```

```
In [23]: print_return_value = println("Println does not return anything")  
println(print_return_value)
```

```
Println does not return anything  
nothing
```

```
In [24]: # symbols are special values intended to represent names rather than values  
plussymbol = Symbol("+")  
xsymbol = Symbol("x")  
twosymbol = Symbol("2")
```

```
Out[24]: Symbol("2")
```

```
In [25]: x = 10  
expr = :(x + 2)  
dump(expr)
```

```
Expr  
  head: Symbol call  
  args: Array{Any}((3,))  
    1: Symbol +  
    2: Symbol x  
    3: Int64 2
```

```
In [26]: const MyCustomType = Union{Float64, String}
```

```
Out[26]: Union{Float64, String}
```

```
In [27]: # this is a synonym of: typeof("papadimitriou") <: MyCustomType  
"papadimitriou" isa MyCustomType
```

```
Out[27]: true
```

```
In [28]: :papadimitriou isa MyCustomType
```

```
Out[28]: false
```

## Control Flow Structures

Let's see how to implement branching decisions and repeating blocks of code.

```
In [29]: n = 3  
if n % 2 == 0  
      println("$n is even")
```

```
else
    println("$n is odd")
end
```

3 is odd

```
In [30]: threshold1 = 1.0
threshold2 = 2.0
signal = 1.5

if signal < threshold1
    println("The signal is low.")
elseif signal > threshold2
    println("The signal is high.")
else
    println("The signal is neither too low nor too high.")
end
```

The signal is neither too low nor too high.

```
In [31]: for i in 0:10
    if i % 2 == 0
        println(i)
    end
end
```

0  
2  
4  
6  
8  
10

```
In [32]: for i in 0:2:10
    println(i)
end
```

0  
2  
4  
6  
8  
10

```
In [33]: for i in 10:-1:0
    println(i)
end
```

10  
9  
8  
7  
6  
5  
4  
3  
2  
1  
0

```
In [34]: for c in "logic\nis\nfun"
    print(c)
```

```
end
```

```
logic  
is  
fun
```

```
In [35]: (c for c in "logicisfun")
```

```
Out[35]: Base.Generator{String, typeof(identity)}(identity, "logicisfun")
```

```
In [36]: # Looks good, right?
```

```
#=  
i = -23  
while true  
    if i < 0  
        continue  
    elseif i % 2 == 0  
        println(i)  
    elseif i > 30  
        break  
    end  
  
    i += 2  
end  
#=
```

## Data Structures

### Arrays

Array{T,N} are dynamic ordered collections of dimensionality N , embodying elements of type T .

For instance, the type Array{Float64,1} encodes *vectors* of floats, while Array{Float64,2} encodes *matrices* of floats.

Note that the dimension number is not a type by itself, as it is an integer, but it is treated like a type in this context for optimization purposes.

```
In [37]: baz = [74, 94]  
typeof(baz)
```

```
Out[37]: Vector{Int64} (alias for Array{Int64, 1})
```

```
In [38]: push!(baz, 4)  
println(baz)
```

```
[74, 94, 4]
```

```
In [39]: try
    push!(baz, 5.9)
catch
    println("You can't push a Float64 into a $(typeof(baz))")
end
```

```
You can't push a Float64 into a Vector{Int64}
```

```
In [40]: baz = convert(Vector{Float64}, baz)
```

```
Out[40]: 3-element Vector{Float64}:
74.0
94.0
4.0
```

```
In [41]: baz = [23, 0.7, 81] # the automatic conversion to Vector{Float64} is due
promote_rule(Float64, Int)
```

```
Out[41]: Float64
```

```
In [42]: println("The content of baz is: $(baz)")
println("The length of baz is: $(length(baz))")
println("The size of baz is: $(size(baz))")
println("The first element of baz is: $(baz[1])")
println("The first two elements of baz are: $(baz[1:2])")
println("The last element is: $(baz[end])")
```

```
The content of baz is: [23.0, 0.7, 81.0]
The length of baz is: 3
The size of baz is: (3,)
The first element of baz is: 23.0
The first two elements of baz are: [23.0, 0.7]
The last element is: 81.0
```

```
In [43]: println("The minimum of baz is: $(minimum(baz))")
println("The maximum of baz is: $(maximum(baz))")
println("The sum of baz is: $(sum(baz))")
```

```
The minimum of baz is: 0.7
The maximum of baz is: 81.0
The sum of baz is: 104.7
```

```
In [44]: mysum = 0

for n in baz
    mysum += n
end

println("The 'manually computed' sum of baz is: $(mysum)")
```

```
The 'manually computed' sum of baz is: 104.7
```

```
In [45]: for (i,n) in enumerate(baz)
    println("The element $(i) of baz is: $(baz[i])")
end
```

```
The element 1 of baz is: 23.0
The element 2 of baz is: 0.7
The element 3 of baz is: 81.0
```

```
In [46]: for (n, next_n) in zip(baz, baz[2:end])
```

```
    println("$(n)\t$(next_n)") # \t is the tabulation character
end
```

```
23.0      0.7
0.7      81.0
```

```
In [47]: # an Int vector is not a subtype of a vector containing elements of arbitrary
# Real types (even floats!)
Vector{Int} <: Vector{Real}
```

```
Out[47]: false
```

```
In [48]: # same reasoning if we consider the whole family of Int8, Int32, Int64...
Vector{Integer} <: Vector{Real}
```

```
Out[48]: false
```

```
In [49]: # this is fine
Vector{Int} <: Vector{ $\langle:\rangle$ Real}
```

```
Out[49]: true
```

### Exercise

Implement your binary search.

Try to search the index of the number 1427 in the following array.

Solution (Base64):

```
bGVmdCA9IDEKcmInaHQgPSBsZW5ndGgoYXJyKQp0YXJnZXQgPSAxNDI3Cgp3aGlsZSBs
```

```
In [50]: using Random
Random.seed!(1605)
arr = sort(rand(1:3200, 500));
```

```
In [51]: # implement your binary search here
```

## Tuples

Tuples are *immutable* fixed-length ordered collections: we can think about them as an immutable version of Arrays.

Hence, if we want to modify a tuple, we have to recreate it completely.

We can explicitly state the type that each element within a tuple must have by enclosing such types ordered in curly brackets, or we can let Julia infer them.

```
In [52]: qux = (58, 20.9)    # same as Tuple{Int64, Float64}((58, 20.9))
```

```
Out[52]: (58, 20.9)
```

```
In [53]: typeof(qux)
```

```
Out[53]: Tuple{Int64, Float64}
```

```
In [54]: try
    qux[1] = qux[1] + 2
catch
    println("Remember that tuples are are immutable!")
end
```

```
Remember that tuples are are immutable!
```

## Dictionaries

Dictionaries are hash tables `Dict{K,V}` with keys of type `K` and values of type `V`.

Under the hood, keys are hashed using the `hash` function of the Julia standard library.

```
In [55]: mydict = Dict{Int, Float64}(74 => 9.4, 45 => 9.2)
```

```
Out[55]: Dict{Int64, Float64} with 2 entries:
  45 => 9.2
  74 => 9.4
```

```
In [56]: mydict[74]
```

```
Out[56]: 9.4
```

```
In [57]: 9.2 in values(mydict) # check if 9.2 is in the values of mydict
```

```
Out[57]: true
```

```
In [58]: try
    mydict[30]
catch
    println("The dictionary does not contain a key with value 30.")
end
```

```
The dictionary does not contain a key with value 30.
```

```
In [59]: # alternatively, we can provide a default value for non-existing entries
get(mydict, 30, -1)
```

```
Out[59]: -1
```

```
In [60]: metadict = Dict{String, Dict{Int, Float64}}(
    "logic" => mydict,
    "machine learning" => mydict
)

metadict["logic"] == mydict
```

```
Out[60]: true
```

**Watch out!** The two dictionaries within `metadict` are not copied by value, but by reference.

```
In [61]: println("The values associated with key 74 in the two dictionaries are:")
for (key, innerdict) in metadict
```

```

        println(innerdict[74])
end

println()

for (key, innerdict) in metadict
    println("Adding one in the $(key == "logic" ? "1st" : "2nd") dictionary")
    innerdict[74] += 1
end

println("\nThe values associated with key 74 in the two dictionaries are:")
for (key, innerdict) in metadict
    println(innerdict[74])
end

```

The values associated with key 74 in the two dictionaries are:

9.4  
9.4

Adding one in the 1st dictionary  
Adding one in the 2nd dictionary

The values associated with key 74 in the two dictionaries are:

11.4  
11.4

```
In [62]: o1, o2 = objectid(metadict["logic"]), objectid(metadict["machine learning"])

println(objectid(metadict["logic"]))
println(objectid(metadict["machine learning"]))

# === is the "identical" operator: it queries the id associated with each
# variable under the hood, rather than just their values
println(o1 === o2)
```

13868113764429803215  
13868113764429803215  
true

```
In [63]: mydict[78] = 16.40 # adding a new key => value pair to the dictionary
mydict
```

```
Out[63]: Dict{Int64, Float64} with 3 entries:
  78 => 16.4
  45 => 9.2
  74 => 11.4
```

```
In [64]: # when a function ends with a bang (!), it usually modifies its first arg
delete!(mydict, 78) # use pop! if you also want to retrieve the deleted p
```

```
Out[64]: Dict{Int64, Float64} with 2 entries:
  45 => 9.2
  74 => 11.4
```

## Sets

Sets are unordered collections of unique elements.

They allow for efficient union, intersection and difference set operations.

We can leverage the `in` operator or `issubset` for checking the membership to a set.

```
In [65]: myset1 = Set{String}(["this", "is", "my", "beautiful", "set"]);  
myset2 = Set{String}(["look", "at", "this", "beautiful", "set"]);
```

```
In [66]: union(myset1, myset2)
```

Out[66]: Set{String} with 7 elements:

```
"this"  
"is"  
"set"  
"beautiful"  
"at"  
"my"  
"look"
```

```
In [67]: intersect(myset1, myset2)
```

Out[67]: Set{String} with 3 elements:

```
"this"  
"set"  
"beautiful"
```

```
In [68]: setdiff(myset1, myset2)
```

Out[68]: Set{String} with 2 elements:

```
"is"  
"my"
```

```
In [69]: setdiff(myset2, myset1)
```

Out[69]: Set{String} with 2 elements:

```
"at"  
"look"
```

```
In [70]: if "my" in myset1  
         println("The string 'my' ∈ myset1.")  
     end  
  
     myset3 = Set(["this", "is", "set"])  
     if issubset(myset3, myset1)  
         println("Also, 'this', 'is', and 'set' strings all belong to myset1")  
     end
```

The string 'my' ∈ myset1.

Also, 'this', 'is', and 'set' strings all belong to myset1

## Functions

Functions are mappings between a tuple of arguments and a return value.

Julia functions are first-class citizens, meaning that they can be passed as arguments to other functions, they can be returned from functions and can be stored in data structures.

Functions in Julia can have multiple implementations, each specialized to a specific

combination of arguments.

This idea of *multiple dispatching* is at the core of the design of Julia, and is the key to its performance.

```
In [71]: function add(x, y)
    return x + y      # return keyword is omitted: the last operation is re
end

add(1, 2)
```

Out[71]: 3

```
In [72]: subtract(x, y) = x - y

subtract(1, 2)
```

Out[72]: -1

```
In [73]: # the next line returns an anonymous (i.e., nameless) function
add_five = x -> x + 5

add_five(1)
```

Out[73]: 6

```
In [74]: # a function can even return a function
divide_by(y) = return x -> x / y

divide_by(5)(10)
```

Out[74]: 2.0

```
In [75]: # functions can return multiple values
function powers(x)
    return x, x^2, x^3
end

a, b, c = powers(3)
```

Out[75]: (3, 9, 27)

```
In [76]: typeofpowers = typeof(powers)

println(typeofpowers)
println(supertype(typeofpowers))
```

```
typeof(powers)
Function
```

```
In [77]: # function names may contain UTF characters and a variable number of arguments
function Σ(args...)
    c = 0

    for arg in args
        c += arg
    end
```

```
    return c
end

Σ(5, 6, 3, 4, 12)
```

Out[77]: 30

```
In [78]: # functions may provide default values for their arguments
function power(x, y=2)
    return x ^ y
end

power(5)
```

Out[78]: 25

```
In [79]: # the broadcast (.) operator applies the function to each member of a col
power.(collect(0:10)) # 0:10, synonym of 0:1:10, goes from 0 to 10 with
```

```
Out[79]: 11-element Vector{Int64}:
0
1
4
9
16
25
36
49
64
81
100
```

```
In [80]: function myprint(x::Int64)
    println("This is an awesome print for the number $(x)")
end

function myprint(x::Float64)
    println("This is a beautiful print for the number $(x)")
end

myprint(1)
myprint(1.0)
```

This is an awesome print for the number 1  
This is a beautiful print for the number 1.0

```
In [81]: # note the difference between positional and keyword arguments;
# the formers are identified by their position in the function signature,
# while the latters are recognized by their name when providing a value.
function myprint(x::String; mode=:plain)

    if mode == :plain
        punctuation = ["", ""]
    elseif mode == :punctuation
        punctuation=[",", "."]
    else
        throw(ArgumentError("The specified mode $(mode) is not available.
    end

    println(
```

```

        "This is an awesome print$(punctuation[1]) \" *
        "wrapping the string '$(x) '$(punctuation[2])"
    )
end

myprint("Hello, World!")
myprint("Hello, World!"; mode=:punctuation)

```

This is an awesome print wrapping the string 'Hello, World!'  
This is an awesome print, wrapping the string 'Hello, World!'.

It is important to track the performance of the functions we write.

Below, we leverage the [BenchmarkTools.jl](#) package for comparing the execution time of a naive implementation of the sum function, `naive_sum`, with a smarter one, `efficient_sum`.

The generic type `T` we associate with the given collection, `xs`, is a placeholder possibly indicating any subtype of `Real`. When `efficient_sum` is called with an argument of type `Vector{Int64}`, it has the chance to compile *specialized code*: this is exactly the purpose of multiple dispatch!

Note how we use `@inbounds` and `@simd` macros to speedup the code (remove them if you don't believe us, and run the benchmark again!):

- `@inbounds` disables the default bounds checking that must be performed everytime `xs` is accessed
- `@simd` indicates that the loop can be evaluated out-of-order

In [82]: `using BenchmarkTools`

In [83]: `function naive_sum(xs)`  
 `result = 0`  
 `for x in xs`  
 `result += x`  
 `end`  
 `return result`  
`end`

Out[83]: `naive_sum` (generic function with 1 method)

In [84]: `# this is nearly the Julia's implementation of the sum function!`  
`function efficient_sum(xs::Vector{T}) where {T<:Real}`  
 `# beware of type stability:`  
 `# this cannot be an Int8(0), or a Float64(0): it has to match T!`  
 `result = zero(T)`  
 `@inbounds @simd for x in xs`  
 `result += x`  
 `end`  
 `return result`  
`end`

```
Out[84]: efficient_sum (generic function with 1 method)
```

```
In [85]: xs = rand(100000);
```

```
In [86]: @benchmark naive_sum(xs)
```

```
Out[86]: BenchmarkTools.Trial: 10000 samples with 1 evaluation per sample.  
Range (min ... max): 59.552 μs ... 595.685 μs | GC (min ... max): 0.00% ...  
0.00%  
Time (median): 59.613 μs | GC (median): 0.00%  
Time (mean ± σ): 60.517 μs ± 9.065 μs | GC (mean ± σ): 0.00% ±  
0.00%
```



Memory estimate: 16 bytes, allocs estimate: 1.

```
In [87]: @benchmark efficient_sum(xs)
```

```
Out[87]: BenchmarkTools.Trial: 10000 samples with 6 evaluations per sample.  
Range (min ... max): 5.611 μs ... 73.454 μs | GC (min ... max): 0.00% ... 0.0  
0%  
Time (median): 5.796 μs | GC (median): 0.00%  
Time (mean ± σ): 5.941 μs ± 1.712 μs | GC (mean ± σ): 0.00% ± 0.0  
0%
```



Memory estimate: 16 bytes, allocs estimate: 1.

## Structures

Julia's user defined **composite types** are called *structures*.

They are collections of named fields, and can be instantiated via specific functions called **constructors**.

Structures are *concrete types*, meaning that their instances are subtypes of some abstract type (the default is `Any`), and are immutable by default.

Below, we play with structures to model a little scenario involving animals.

```
In [88]: abstract type Animal end # Let's first define a new abstract type
```

```
In [89]: struct Dog <: Animal # Dog is a subtype of animal  
    name::String  
    age::Int  
  
    function Dog(name, age)  
        if age < 0  
            throw(ArgumentError("Age cannot be negative ($age) is provided"))  
    end
```

```

        new(name, age)
    end
end

name(d::Dog) = d.name
age(d::Dog) = d.age

speak(d::Dog) = println("Woof, I am $(name(d)) and I am $(age(d))... woof"

```

Out[89]: speak (generic function with 1 method)

In [90]: buddy = Dog("Marathon", 7)  
speak(buddy)

Woof, I am Marathon and I am 7... woof!

```

In [91]: struct Cat <: Animal
    name::String
    age::Int
    lives::Int

    function Cat(name, age; lives=7)
        if age < 0 || lives < 0
            throw(ArgumentError(
                "Age and lives cannot be negative *"
                "($age) and $(lives) are provided")
            )
        end
        new(name, age, lives)
    end
end

name(c::Cat) = c.name
age(c::Cat) = c.age
lives(c::Cat) = c.lives

function speak(c::Cat)
    println(
        "My name is $(name(c)), I am $(age(c)) and I have $(lives(c)) liv
        "Meaow."
    )
end

```

Out[91]: speak (generic function with 2 methods)

In [92]: pal = Cat("Booted Cat", 3)  
speak(pal)

My name is Booted Cat, I am 3 and I have 7 lives. Meaow.

```

In [93]: struct Axolotl <: Animal
end

try
    speak(Axolotl())
catch
    println("This triggers a method error!")
end

```

This triggers a method error!

```
In [94]: # we can gracefully handle non-existing dispatches thanks to general interface
function speak(a::Animal)
    throw(
        ErrorException(
            "Please provide an implementation of speak(a::$(typeof(a)))"
        )
    )
end
```

```
Out[94]: speak (generic function with 3 methods)
```

```
In [95]: ozzy = Axolotl()
speak(ozzy)
```

```
Please provide an implementation of speak(a::Axolotl)
```

Stacktrace:

```
[1] speak(a::Axolotl)
    @ Main ./In[94]:3
[2] top-level scope
    @ In[95]:2
```