Getting Started with Julia: Notes

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The Rationale for Julia

The scope of Julia

- born out of frustration with existing tools for technical computing
- prototyping needs a easy-to-use language, flexible, high-level language so the focus may be on the problem
- actual computation needs maximum performance hence for production things tend to be re-written in C or Fortran
- this lead to prototyping in slow but easy languages and then re-writes in difficult but fast languages
- Julia was designed to bridge this gap using LLVM JIT (Just in Time) makes near-C speeds possible while keeping high-level usability

This resulted in:

- open source and liberal license (MIT)
- easy to use and learn, elegant, clear, dynamic, familiar, almost like pseudocode:

$x \rightarrow 7x^3 + 30x^2 + 5x + 42$

- Julia provides the needed speed without the need to switch languages
- metaprogramming to increase capability
- useable for normal computing tasks, not just pure computing
- easy-to-use multicore and parallel capabilities

Julia's place among the other programming languages

- Julia brings together the two worlds of typed and untyped languages
- Julia does not have a static compilation step but uses a type-inference engine to nonetheless deliver similar speeds
- types can still be used to make compilation easier and to document the code
- dynamic multiple dispatch is the approach to pick the best fitting function out of a pool of functions depending on the data type, it's basically polymorphism with type inference
- Julia does not have static type checking however, runtime errors can occur if data types do not match
- Julia also makes it easy to design pure functions and apply functional programming
- Julia is also suited for general purpose programming similar to Python

A comparison with other languages for the data scientist

- Julia's speed approaches C and leaves all other normal alternatives behind
- one of Julia's goals is that one never has to step down to C
- Julia is especially good at running MATLAB and R style programs

MATLAB

- the syntax should be very familiar for MATLAB users, but Julia is more general purpose
- most function names are similar to MATLAB and not R
- Julia is much faster than MATLAB, but it can also interface with it

\mathbf{R}

- until now R has dominated statistics
- Julia has the same level of usability, but is 10 to 1000 times faster
- Julia also has an interface to R

Python

• Julia is again much faster than Python, reads similar to it, and can interface with it

Useful Links

- main website: http://julialang.org
- documentation: http://docs.julialang.org
- packages: http://pkg.julialang.org

Installing the Julia Platform

• if parallelization (n concurrent processes) is to be used, compile the julia code with

make -j n

Working with Julia's shell

- use quit() or CTRL + D to quit the REPL
- after an expression is evaluated, the result will be stored in the variable ans, but only in REPL
- assign values like so:

a = 3

- type annotations are not needed, they are inferred
- strings are defined by " (double quotes)
- to clear the screen but keep the data or variables, type CTRL + L
- to clear the workspace and variables, use workspace()
- all previous commands are stored in a .julia_history file at /home/\$USER/
- typing? will give access to the docs, specific help is available through help(<item>)
- to find all the places a function is defined or used, type apropos("<name>")
- mulitple commands on one line are separated by;
- multi-line expressions also work and the shell will wait until the expression is complete

- use tab for automatic completion, double tab to show the available functions
- starting a line with; makes the rest of the line a shell command
- to exit shell mode, type backspace
- the REPL can also execute written programs with

julia> include("<name>.jl")

- the content of the file will then be executed
- for keybindings see here

Startup option and Julia scripts

• commands can be evaluated from the command line without starting the repl

```
julia -e 'a = 6 * 7; println(a)'
```

• a script taking arguments can be run like this

```
julia script.jl arg1 arg2 arg3
```

- the arguments are then available in the global constant ARGS
- files can also execute other files by calling include("file.jl") in them

Packages

- official Julia packages can be found at METADATA.jl at https://github.com/JuliaLang/METADATA.jl
- a searchable list can be found at http://pkg.julialang.org/
- Julia has a built-in package manager called Pkg for installing packages
- to find out which packages are installed, use Pkg.status()
- one of the better packages is IJulia, a jupyter mod

```
using PyPlot
x = linspace(0, 5)
y = cos(2x + 5)
plot(x, y, linewidth=2.0, linestyle="--")
title("a nice cosine")
xlabel("x axis")
ylabel("y axis")
```

How Julia works

- Julia uses LLVM JIT to generate machine code just-in-time
- the process works like this:
 - 1. when a function is run the types are inferred
 - 2. the JIT compiler turns the function into native machine code
 - 3. the next time a function is called the already compiled code is run (this is the reason that functions are faster the second time around important for benchmarking)
- the code is dynamic because it is not dependent on the type of the variable
- these functions are by default *generic*, but JIT bytecode for specific types can be inspected like this

```
julia> f(x) = 2x + 5
    f(generic function with 1 method)
julia> code_llvm(f, (Int64,))
```

- the same can be done to inspect the assembly code using the function code_native(f, (Int64,))
- Julia automatically allocates and frees memory, it has a GC that runs at the same time as the program and is somewhat unpredictable

- calling gc() will call the GC, gc_disable() to disable it

Variables, Types, and Operations

- Julia is an optionally typed language users can choose to specify the types
- typing in Julia is important for speed, documentation, tooling

Variables, naming conventions, and comments

- Julia differentiates between strings and characters, strings are denoted by double quotes, while characters are denoted by single quotes
- to see what type a variable or reference is one can use the typeof(<var>) function
- variables don't have to be typed, but they have to be initialized
- variables can change type, they can be over-written
- everything is a expression in Julia
- Julia is strongly typed
- variable names have to begin with a letter, then it can be letter, number, underscore, exclamation point, including unicode characters
- comments begin with # and are thus ignored
- multi line comments can be created with #= and terminated with =#
- colored output can be created with print_with_color(:red, "I love Julia!")
- objects are often interacted with in Julia actions on objects are written functionally, like action(object) and not object.action()
- to display objects from code while outside of REPL, use display(object)

Types

- the type system is pretty unique, variables can be bound again to the same name
- if a variable is given a type, it will only accept variables of the same type
- type annotations are generally done as var::TypeName type annotations make error checking and optimization easier

calculate_position(time::Float64)

• type assertions work in exactly the same way – an error is raised if the tpes differ

(expression)::TypeName

- to achieve top performance, types of variables have to remain stable
- Julia has a type hierarchy, with Any being the top any undeclared variable is of this type
- the type None is one no object can have, but it is a subtype of all other types
- custom types can be defined their named in CamelCase

- typeof(x) gives the type of variables, isa(x, T) checks if x is of type T
- data types are all of type DataType
- if data types can be converted by using the lower case type name

int64(3.14)

Integers and Booleans

- available integers are Int8, Int16, Int32, Int64, Int128
- unsigned integers are defined using U in front of the type name, like UInt32
- depending on machine architecture, the standard is either 32 or 64 bit
- this is given by the variable WORD_SIZE
- typemin(var) and typemax(var) give the min and max sizes of types
- if typemax is exceeded, overflow occurs
- explicit checking for overflow needs to occur
- other ways of writing integers are: 0b (binary), 0o (octal), 0x (hexadecimal)
- in case arbitrary sizes are needed, BigInt can be used

BigInt("1234")

- they support the same operations as normal integers, but conversions are not automatic
- divisions of BigInt always give floating point results
- div gives integer division, rem gives the remainder, ^ gives powers
- true and false are actually 8bit integers, where 0 is false and anything else is true, bool(32) returns true
- other logical operations are !, ==, !=, <, >
- logical expressions can be chained 0 < x < 3

Floating point numbers

- follow IEEE 754
- come in Float16, Float32, Float64
- single precision floating point numbers: $2.5f2 == 2.5 * 10^2$
- double precision floating point numbers: $2.5e2 == 2.5 * 10^2$
- BigFloat is used for arbitrary precision floats
- Inf is infinity, NaN is not a number
- floating point numbers do cause errors because of the bad precision

Elementary mathematical functions and operations

- the bit representation of any number can be seen using the bits(num) operation
- round() rounds to float
- iround() rounds to int
- other functions: sqrt(), cbrt(), exp(), log(), sin(), cos(), tan(), erf() (error function), rand()
- () enforce precedence
- chained assignments are allowed a = b = c = d = 1
- assignments can be combined a, b = c, d means a = c and b = d

- bool operations have $|\cdot|$ and &&, $|\cdot|$ and & are used for non-short-circuit operations, those that check all the options even if the result is already found
- bitwise operations are supported http://docs.julialang.org/en/latest/manual/mathematical-operations/

Rational and complex numbers

- *i* is represented as im, 3.2 + 7.1im has the type Complex{Float64}
- all normal maths functions are also implemented for this type
- abs() returns the absolute value
- complex(a, b) turns a and b into a complex number
- rational numbers are good for exact ratios
- 3//4 is a rational for $\frac{3}{4}$ and has the type Rational{Int64}
- float() converts to a floating point number, num() and denum() give the numerator and the denominator

Characters

- 'a' is a char with type Char a 32-bit integer with a unicode code point inside of it
- int('A') returns 65, char(65) returns A
- unicode can be entered using single quotes around '\uxxxx' or '\Uxxxxxxxx'
- is_valid_char() checks if the entered number is a valid character
- normal escape sequences also exist, \n, \t,...

Strings

- strings are always ASCII or UTF8, depending on the contained letters
- strings are immutable and contained in "string" or '''string'''
- arrays of chars starting at 1, so s[1] returns the first letter
- s[end] returns the end, endof(s) returns the last byte's index, length() the length
- iteration through a string is best done in an iteration and not an index

```
for c in string
    println(c)
end
```

- substrings can be obtained by string slices, s[3:5] or s[2:end]
- string interpolation

```
a = 3; b = 2;

s = "$a * $b = $(a * b)"

# s is "3 * 2 = 6"
```

• concatenate with

```
"abd" * "def" == string("abc", "def")
```

- Symbols are strings prefixed with a colon :green
- these more efficient strings are used as IDs or keys, they can't be concatenated
- methodswith(String) returns all the functions that use it

- search(string, char) returns the index of the first char in the string
- replace(string, str1, str2) replaces str1 in string with str2
- split(string, char or [chars]) splits string at char, returns an array of strings if there is no char given, split uses whitespace

Formatting numbers and strings

• formatted printing is done with the @printf macro, it takes one format string and one or more variables

```
name = "Paskal"
@printf("Hello, %s\n", name)
# prints "Hello, Paskal"
```

- to return the formatted string, use @sprintf
- $\bullet\,$ show() prints a text representation of an object that is often more specific than simple ${\tt @printf}$
 - integer %d

```
@printf("%d\n", 100)  #> 100

- float %.3f

@printf("%.2f\n", 2.346)  #> 2.34

# or
    str = @sprintf("%.2f\n", 2.346)
    show(str)  #> "2.34"

- scientific %0.3e
    @printf("%.2e", 123)  #> 1.23e+2

- character %c
    @printf("%c", 'd')  #> d

- string %s
    @printf("%s", "hi")  #> hi

- right justify %50s
    @printf("%8s", "hi")  #> hi
```

 $\bullet\,$ a specia type of string is the <code>VersionNumber</code>, preceded by a <code>v</code>, is used to run different code for different versions of Julia

Regular Expressions

- Julia uses Perl syntax for regex, see http://www.regular-expressions.info/referen ce.html
- regular expressions are denoted by a string precede by ${\sf r}$

• matching an email address

```
# '+' matches any non-empty group of characters
email_pattern = r".+@.+"
input = "john.doe@mit.edu"
println(ismatch(email_pattern, input)) #> true
```

- ismatch(pattern, string) returns a boolean whether or not the pattern is matched
- match(patters, string) returns nothing or RegexMatch if the pattern is found
- RegexMatch has the properties match (contains substring that matches), offset (position of match in string), offsets (start positions for each of the substrings), captures (captured substrings as tuple)
- capturing in regex can be done with parethesis (), line

```
email_pattern = r''(.+)@(.+)"
```

- this will capture the hostname and username of the email address
- replace also takes regex as inputs to replace by
- matchall returns all the matches in an array
- eachmatch returns an iterator of matches

Ranges and arrays

• ranges work as

- arrays are really vectors and they grow dynamically
- arrays can also be constructed abstractly

```
arr = \frac{Array}{(Int64, 5)}
show(arr)  #> [0,0,0,0,0]
```

• to add to an array, use push!

```
push!(arr, 1)
```

• arrays can also be created from slices

```
arr = [1:9]
```

• to allocate a certain amount of memory (so it does not need to be resized) to one array at once do

```
sizehint(arr, 10<sup>5</sup>)
```

- array indices start at 1 and can be used in brackets arr[1] and end is the final element
- eltype gives element type, length the number of elements, ndims the number of dimensions, size(arr, n) gives the elements per dimension
- to turn an array into a comma separated string, use join(arr, "sep")
- slices can retrieve sub-arrays and they can also be assigned to

```
arr[1:3]  #> [1, 2, 3]
arr[1:3] = 1
arr[1:3] = [2, 3, 4]
```

Other ways to create arrays

- zeros(n) returns an array with n 0s, ones does the same for 1s
- linspace(start, stop, n) returns an array of n with equally spaced numbers from start to stop
- fill!(arr, n) returns an array filled with only ns
- to get random values, use

```
arr = rand(T, n)
# returns n random numbers of type T
```

• arrays can also be converted using the normal conversion functions

Some common functions for arrays

- concatenate arrays with append!(arr1, arr2)
- any function ending in! modifies the first element it is given
- push! and pop! work like on the stack
- shift! pops the first element, unshift! pushes an element to arr[1]
- splice!(index) removes the element at index
- in(val, arr) checks if val is in arr
- sort and sort! sort the arrays, the latter changes it
- for loops can iterate over arrays
- element wise operations are done with a point

```
a1 = [1, 2, 3]
a1 = [2, 4, 6]
a1 .* a2
```

- the dot product is done with dot(a1, a2)
- the sum over an array is sum(a1, a2)
- arrays are passed as references they point to the same memory
- many functions are simply applied to each element in an array
- repeat repeats each element in an array a certain number of times
- copy makes a copy of the first level, deepcopy goes through everything recursively

Array of chars to string

• join(arr) turns a [char] into a string, utf32(arr) does the same

• to pass the contents of array as separate parameters, use the splice operator, like string(arr...)

Dates and times

- time() returns seconds since epoch
- strftime(time()) returns more useful formatted time
- $\bullet\,$ Date and DateTime functions return more useful and subtractable values

Scope and constants