Functional programming languages





Functional programming languages

FP program – set of "pure" functions composed from expressions

- Principle of referential transparency
 - Expression/function has always the same value for the same value of its arguments, independent on context in which expression/function is evaluated
- Function expression is assigned to the name of function for some input parameters
- Function gets a value when it is invoked by some concrete values of parameters, no side-effects
- Expression is application of a function or operator on some arguments
 - Arguments can be expressions → make function compositions, recursive functions



Functional programing languages

Abstraction of flow of execution

o No commands and variables

- Immutable function parameters
- Immutable local variables
- Built-in mechanisms of expression evaluation, no need to know how it functions
- Conditional expression expression value depends on value of some other sub-expression
- Recursion instead of loops
- Evaluation of FP program starts with a function application on concrete values of arguments



Characteristics of Functional PL

• FP abstracts the flow of program execution

- Shorter and more concise programs comparing to imperative programming
- o Higher degree of abstraction → smaller number of details → smaller possibility to make errors

Referential transparency of functions

- Smaller possibility to make errors
 - No side effects
- o Better formal analysis and validation of programs
- Greater possibility for program parallelization
 - Subexpressions which are arguments of some other expression can be evaluated in parallel.



Higher-Order Functions

Higher-order functions can have functions as arguments, or their results are functions or both

• Example: derivation, integral

• Example.

function inc(x) = x + 1 function twice(f, x) = f(f(x)) twice(inc, 5) \rightarrow 7

Three typical higher-order functions

o map f I – apply function f on each element of its argument which is list I

- o filter f I filter list I based on logical function f
- o fold f I n reduces list I according to operator (binary function) f, n is neutral element of operator f
- Functions as elements of a data structure



Strict and ne-strict semantics

Strict semantics

- Expression (function) can be evaluated in some value only if all its subexpressions (arguments) can be evaluated in some values
- Strict/eager evaluation, call by value: expression value (function) can be evaluated after all its subexpressions (arguments) are evaluated
- Imperative programming languages are based on strict semantics, excluding logical expressions

Non-strict semantics

- Expression (function) can be evaluated even if some its subexpressions can not be evaluated
- Non-strict (lazy) evaluation, call by need: Expression (function) is evaluated only if its value is needed
- Lazy FP languages: FP languages that support non-strict semantics (Miranda, Haskell)



Strict and non-strict semantics

• Examples.

- (x = 0) or (1 / x = 5)
 - for x = 0 expression has no value in strict semantics
 - In non-strict semantics it has value true
- length [2, 2 + 4, 6 / 0, 2 + 3 * 4]
 - in strict semantics function can not be evaluated as third expression can not be evaluated
 - In non-strict semantics elements of list are not evaluated, as function returns length of the list
- function sqr(x) = x * x, evaluate sqr(2 + 3)
 - Eager evaluation. $sqr(2 + 3) \rightarrow sqr(5) \rightarrow 5 * 5 \rightarrow 25$
 - O Lazy evaluation. sqr(2 + 3) → (2 + 3) * (2 + 3) → 5 * 5 → 25



Infinite Data Structures

- Non-strict semantics offer possibility to work with infinite data structures
- **Example**. An infinite list of 1s can be defined as an infinitely recursive function without arguments

function Ones = 1 : Ones

- Operator : (cons) x : y form the list with head x, and tail y
- Ones \rightarrow 1 : Ones \rightarrow 1 : 1 : Ones \rightarrow ...

function Head(h : t) = h

Eager evaluation

```
Head(Ones) → Head(1 : Ones) → Head(1 : 1 : Ones)
→ Head(1 : 1 : 1 : Ones) → Head (1 : 1 : 1 : 1 : Ones) → ...
```

Lazy evaluation

```
\mathsf{Head}(\mathsf{Ones}) \rightarrow \mathsf{Head}(1:\mathsf{Ones}) \rightarrow 1
```



Lambda calculus

- Theory of functions proposed by *Alonzo Church* 30es of 20 century
- Lambda calculation is transformation of lambda expression using rules of lambda calculus
 - o lambda expression is an identifier
 - If x is identifier, e and n lambda expressions then following are also lambda expressions
 - λx.e
 lambda abstraction
 - e n application (apply e on argument n)
- Lambda abstraction is concept of anonymized function in FL
 - **Ο** λx.x + 1
 - (λx.x + 1) 4 → 5
 - **ο** λx y.2x + y
 - (λx y.2x + y) 3 4 → 10



Anonymized functions

- Often used as parameters of higher-order functions
- Higher-order functions that return function as their value always return anonymized function

• Without anonymized function

function inc(x) = x + 1function twice(f, x) = f(f(x)) twice(inc, 5) \rightarrow 7

With anonymized function

function twice (f, x) = f(f(x))

twice $(\lambda x.x + 1, 5) \rightarrow 7$

• Example of function which returns function as its value: function incrementBy(x) = λy.y + x



Curry Functions

• Currying: definition of function with *n* arguments as *n* nested functions with one argument (Haskell Curry)

orginal function Curry function

 $\lambda x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n \ e$ $\lambda x_1 \ (\lambda x_2 \ (\lambda x_3 \ \dots \ (\lambda x_n \ e))) \ \dots)$

• Examples of Currying.

function add(x, y) = x + yfunction addCurry(x) = $\lambda y \cdot x + y$

addCurry(5) $\rightarrow \lambda y.5 + y$ addCurry(5)(10) $\rightarrow (\lambda y.5 + y)$ 10 \rightarrow 15



Partial function application

- Let *f* is function with *k* argumenats
- Partial application of function f is application of function f with less than k argumens

• Example.

function add(x, y, z) = x + y + z add(1, 2, 3) \rightarrow 6 add(1, 2) $\rightarrow \lambda z.3 + z$ add(1) $\rightarrow \lambda y z.1 + y + z$

Partial application ≡ currying, evaluation, de-Currying



 \equiv application f

LISP (List Processing)

- First FP language has been developed in 60es, John McCarthy
- Only one type for everything all data are s-expressions (symbolic expressions)
 - S constants and numbers are s-expressions
 - o If A and B are s-expressions then (A . B) is s-expressions pair
 - If x₁ x₂ ... x_n s-expressions then (x₁ x₂ ... x_n) is s-expressions list. () je empty list
 - List is sequence of nested pairs
 - $(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4) \equiv (1 \ . \ (2 \ . \ (3 \ . \ (4 \ . \ ()))))$
- The same notation for data and functions/programs function definition and application are also s-expressions
 - o (define (functionName arg1 arg2 ... argn) expression) ≡ definition f
 - o (functionName arg1 arg2 ... argn)



LISP (List Processing) Everything is s-expression

- Built-in functions for checking types of s-expressions: if sexpression is constant or number or pair or list or empty list,...
- Quote (') function
 - '(+ 1 2) it is s-expressions i.e. list with 3 elements
 - (+ 1 2) s-expressions evaluated in 3 (application of function +)

Conditional expression

- o (if c e1 e2) -- if c is true then value of whole expression is the same as value of e1, if c is false then value of whole expression is the same as value of e2
- If expression represents value, contrary to if command (+ 5 (if (> 4 5) 1 2)) → (+ 5 (if false 1 2)) → (+ 5 2) → 7

```
(define (fibonacci n)
 (if (< n 2) n
    (+ (fibonacci (- n 1))
        (fibonacci (- n 2)))))
```



Successors of LISP

ISWIM (if you see what I mean), Landin, ~1960

- Infix notation instead of prefix notation for arithmetic-logic expressions
- o Constructions let and where local variables binding
- SECD machine
- FP, Backus, ~1970
 - Functional programming as a composition of higher-order functions
- ML, Milner, ~1970
 - Parametric polymorphism, type inference
- SASL, KRC & Miranda, Turner
 - Lazy evaluation, ZF expressions for lists forming, Function definition as separate cases (sequence of equations) and *pattern matching*, *guard* expressions

• Haskell, 1987, international committee

• "Grand unification of functional languages", type classes, monads

Haskell - basic elements of language -





Haskell

- "Pure" functional programming language
- Haskell B. Curry (1900 1982), mathematician
- Basic language characteristics
 - Lazy evaluation of expressions, non-strict semantics and infinite data structures
 - Static type checking, *type inference* mechanism
 - User defined types and parametric polymorphism (generic types)
 - Function definition as cases and pattern matching
 - **ZF expressions** and list forming
 - type classes and type-safe ad-hock polymorphism (operator overloading)



GHC (Glasgow Haskell Compiler) and Haskell platform

- GHC leading (open source) language implementation, part of Haskell platform
- https://www.haskell.org/platform/

Haskell Platform

Haskell with batteries included

A multi-OS distribution

designed to get you up and running quickly, making it easy to focus on using Haskell. You get:

- the Glasgow Haskell Compiler
- the Cabal build system
- the Stack tool for developing projects
- support for profiling and code coverage analysis
- 35 core & widely-used packages

• GHC has compiler and interpreter for Haskell



Types

- Each well defined expression in Haskell has a type
- e :: t means that expression e can be evaluated in a value of type t
- Types are determined automatically during compilation time
- :t (:type) command determines expression type without its evaluation

> 2 < 5

True

- > :t 2 > 5
- 2 > 5 :: Bool
- > "Ana" ++ " voli" ++ " Milovana"
- "Ana voli Milovana"
- > :t "Ana" ++ " voli" ++ " Milovana"
- "Ana" ++ " voli" ++ " Milovana" :: [Char]



Basic types in Haskell

Bool

• Logical value True i False

• Char

• Characters: 'a', 'b', 'c',...

String ([Char])

• Strings realized as a list of characters ("a", "Mika", "Pera", "Zika", ...)

Int

• Integers of fixed precision (30 bits, interval [-2²⁹.. 2²⁹-1])

Integer

• Integers of arbitrary precision (represented as a list of digits)

Float, Double

• Real numbers



Tuples

- *N*-tuple is sequence of *N* values that **can be of different types**
- (t₁, t₂, ..., t_N) je tip *N*-tuple, types of components are t₁ to t_N
 o (False, True) :: (Bool, Bool)
 o (False, 1, 'x', True) :: (Bool, Int, Char, Bool)
- Number of components is determined by length of *N*-tuple
 - o (Bool, Int) is 2-tuple (pair)
 - o (Char, Int, Bool) is 3- tuple (triplet)
- Example
 - o (1, (1, 'x'), True, 5) :: (Bool, (Int, Char), Bool, Int)



Built-in functions on pairs

- fst returns the first component of pair
 - fst (1, 2) → 1
- snd returns the second component of pair
 - snd (1, 2) → 2

-- extractions of triplet components fst3 (x, _, _) = x snd3 (_, x, _) = x thr3 (_, _, x) = x



Lists

- List is a sequence of values that **must be of the same type**
- List can have arbitrary number of elements
- [t] is type of the list which elements are of type t
 - o [False, True, False, False] :: [Bool]
 - **o** [1, 2, 9, 10] :: [Int]
 - **o** [[1, 2], [1, 2, 4], [3, 4, 6, 1, 4]] :: [[Int]]
 - o [(1, False, 3), (2, True, 6), (4, False, 4)] :: [(Int, Bool, Int)]
- [] is empty list



Built-in functions on lists

head – returns the first element

- o head [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] → 1
- o head [1] → 1
- o head [] → exception

tail – returns the tail of the list

- o tail [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] → [2, 3, 4, 5]
- o tail [1] → []
- o Tail [] → exception

• !! – selects *k*-th element of list (indexing starts from 0)

- o [10, 20, 30, 40] !! 0 → 10
- o [10, 20, 30, 40] !! 2 → 30



Built-in functions on lists

take – selects the first k elements

o take 3 [10, 20, 30, 40, 50] → [10, 20, 30]

drop – "removes" the first k elements

o drop 3 [10, 20, 30, 40, 50] → [40, 50]

• length – returns the length of list

o length [10, 20, 30, 40, 50] → 5; length [] → 0

• null – check is list empty

o null [10, 20, 30, 40, 50] → False; null [] → True

• : (cons operator) – adds new element at the beginning of list

• 10 : [20, 30, 40] → [10, 20, 30, 40]

++ (append operator) – appends 2 lists

• [10, 20] ++ [30, 40, 50] → [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]



Basic types of Expressions

- Arithmetical expression composed form arithmetic operators, evaluated in some of numerical types
 - **o** +, -, *, /, `div`, `mod`
 - **o** 2 + 3 * 4, (2 + 3) * 4
 - o 1 / 4 (result is real number), 1 `div` 4 (integer division)
- Logical expressions composed from logical operators, evaluated in some of logical values
 - && (conjunction), || (disjunction), not
- Relational expressions composed form relational operators, evaluated in some of of logical values
 - **o** <, >, <=, >=, == (equal), /= (non-equal)
 - (2 < 5 && "Ana" /= "Mina") || not (3 == 4)



Conditional Expression

- Conditional expression: if e then p else q
 - o "else branch" in conditional expression in Haskell is obligatory
 - If value of e is true Then value of whole expression is equal to value of expression p, otherwise it has value of q
 - Expressions p and q must be evaluated in the same type

• Examples:

- if n > 0 then n else -n
- if a > b then a else b
- \circ 5 + if a > b then a else b
- (if a > b then a else b) + 5

• if mod x 2 == 0 then 2 * x else x



Nested Conditional Expressions

Conditional expression: if e then p else q
 o p and/or q also can be conditional expressions

```
• if a > b
```

```
then if a > c then a else c
else if b > c then b else c
```

```
• if c >= 'a' && c <= 'z'
```

then "Small letter"

```
else if c >= 'A' && c <= 'Z'
```

then "Capital letter"

else "Not eng. alphabet letter "



Application of function on arguments

- Let *f* is function with *k* argumenats
- $f a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_k$ application of function f on arguments a_1 to a_k
- Examples of built-in numerical functions.

0	truncate 12.78	evaluates	in	12
0	round 12.78	evaluates	in	13
0	gcd 75 100	evaluates	in	25

- Application of function on argumenta has higher priority than infix operators
 - O f a + b is (f a) + b, and not f(a + b)

O f a b + c d is (f a b) + (c d)

x `f` y is "syntactical sugar" for f x y



Application of function on arguments

Mathematics	<u>Haskell</u>
f(x)	f x
f(x,y)	f x y
f(g(x))	f (g x)
f(x,g(y))	f x (g y)
f(x)g(y)	fx*gy



Function Definition

- Function is defined by specifying one or more declarations ("equations") of the form fname args = expr
- Names of function and arguments begins with a small letter
- For functions defined by different cases (multiple declarations): during execution system tries to find the first declaration that can be unified (matched) with arguments in function call (*pattern matching*)
- To define new functions programmer can use built-in functions or previously user-defined functions
- Examples.

• double x = 2 * x

• doubleEven x = if mod x 2 == 0 then 2 * x else x

• maks2 a b = if a > b then a else b

 \circ maks3 a b c = maks2 (maks2 a b) c



Examples of recursive functions - different cases

```
-- factorial numbers
fact 0 = 1
fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
```

```
-- function to evaluate k-th Fibonacci
number
fib 1 = 1
fib 2 = 1
fib n = fib (n - 1) + fib (n - 2)
```

```
-- function to evaluate a^k za k \ge 0
step _ 0 = 1
step a 1 = a
step a k = a * step a (k - 1)
```

 k - an argument in function definition is a pattern which can be matched with anything, k is binding to the argument from function call

is pattern which can be matched with anything without binding

o pattern for function parameters that we do not use efectively



Tail-recursion

- Function is tail-recursive if its evaluation is finished by recursive call (except of trivial cases)
- Recursive functions with accumulated parameters are tailrecursive

```
-- non-tail-recursive function
fact 0 = 1
fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
```

```
-- function factAcc is tail-recursive
fact' n = factAcc n 1
factAcc 0 acc = acc
factAcc n acc = factAcc (n - 1) (n * acc)
```



Accumulation Parameter Technique

- Accumulating parameter technique offers possibility to write more efficient functions than just following its definitions
- Example. Fibonacci numbers

```
-- Fibonacci numbers by accumulating parameters technique
fib' 1 = 1
fib' 2 = 1
fib' n = fibAkum 1 1 2 n
{ -
   function fibAkum is tail-recursive and of linear
complexity
- }
fibAkum f1 f2 cnt n =
    if n == cnt
        then f2
        else fibAkum f2 (f1 + f2) (cnt + 1) n
```



Function Type

- By function type we specify types of arguments and return values of the function
- Function type **need not be explicitly specified** as we define a function, it will be determined by Haskell built-in mechanism.
- f:: x -> y it is the function type of one argument, it maps elements of type x in elements of type y
- Names of types always begins with a capital letter

```
-- function type
fib :: Int -> Int
-- function definition
fib 1 = 1
fib 2 = 1
fib n = fib (n - 1) + fib (n - 2)
```



Function Type

- All Haskell functions are Curry functions i.e. with one argument, they are Currying implicitly, can be partial applied
 - Function type with two arguments a -> (b -> c)
 - Function type with three arguments a -> (b -> (c -> d))

Separator -> is right associative so parentheses can be deleted

- Function type with two arguments: a -> b -> c
- Function type with three arguments: a -> b -> c -> d
- **o** ...
- Function type with k arguments: $x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow x_3 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_k \rightarrow y$
- Application of function on arguments:

 $f a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_k \equiv (\dots ((f a_1) a_2) a_3) \dots a_k)$



-- function that multiplies three numbers mul :: Int -> Int -> Int -> Int mul x y z = x * y * z

-- function of one argument realised -- by partial application of function mul mul_3_5 :: Int -> Int mul_3_5 = mul 3 5

> mul_3_5 10 150



Guarded Expressions (guards)

Function can be defined using guarded expressions i.e. guards fname args | g₁ = expr₁
 | g₂ = expr₂
 ...
 | g_k = expr_k
 | otherwise = expr_o

desc c

```
char1 n
| n < 0 = "negative"
| n == 0 = "zero"
| otherwise = "positive"</pre>
```



- Let expression allows evaluation of an expression in extended local environments
- let <bindings> in expr

```
• let
```

```
v<sub>1</sub> [args] = expr<sub>1</sub> -- [] optional
...
```

```
v_k [args] = expr_k
in expr
```

- Identifiers $v_1, v_2, ..., v_k$ are variables or functions
- In expression expr identifiers v₁, v₂, ..., v_k can appear, their values are obtained by evaluation of corresponding expressions
- Identifiers v₁, v₂, ..., v_k are local, not visible outside the let block
- Values of let expression is the same as value of expression expr



let
\mathbf{v}_1 [args] = \mathbf{expr}_1
\mathbf{v}_2 [args] = \mathbf{expr}_2
•••
v_k [args] = $expr_k$ in expr
In this case $v_1, v_2,, v_k$ must be identically indented
Or explicitly grouped
<pre>let {</pre>

```
v<sub>1</sub> [args] = expr<sub>1</sub>; -- now indentation is not important
v<sub>2</sub> [args] = expr<sub>2</sub>;
```

```
v<sub>k</sub> [args] = expr<sub>k</sub>;
} in expr
```

...



```
foo a b c d =
  let
    y = a * b
    f x = (x + y) / y
    fact x = if x == 0 then 1 else x * fact (x - 1)
    z = a * k
    k = b
    in f c + fact d + z
```

• Notice:

- In the definition of identifier f, identifier y is used, it is defined in let block previously
- o fact is recursive function
- In the definition of identifier z identifier, k is used, it will be later definide in let block
- For definition some identifiers in let block we can use all identifiers from let block + recursive definitions are allowed



cylinderSurface r h =
 let
 base = r * r * 3.14
 wrapper= 2 * r * 3.14 * h
 in 2 * base + wrapper

-- Function that returns pair of two numbers

quadraticEquation a b c =

let

$$t = b * b - 4 * a * c$$

s = sqrt t
f1 = (-b + s) / (2 * a)
f2 = (-b - s) / (2 * a)
in (f1, f2)







Where block

 Where block also allows evaluation of an expression in environment extended by different definitions (identifiers, functions)

Differences between where and let block

- new identifiers and assigned expressions are given after the "main" expression/function
- o where is not expression but syntactical construction (has no value)

```
o where can be introduced after guarded expressions
bar a b c d =
    f c + fact d + z
where
    y = a * b
    f x = (x + y) / y
    fact x = if x == 0 then 1 else x * fact (x - 1)
    z = a * k
    k = b
```



Where block

- Example of where block introduced after guarded expression
 - -- weight in kg, hight in m
 - -- operator ^
 - -- take care of identation!
 - bodyMassIndex weight height
 - | bmi <= skinny = "low"
 - | bmi <= normal = "normal"
 - | bmi <= fat = "high"
 - | otherwise = "very high"
 - where bmi = weight / height ^ 2
 skinny = 18.5
 normal = 25.0
 fat = 30.0



Case expression

Conditional expression based on pattern matching case expr of pattern₁ → expr₁ ... pattern_k → expr_k

 Value of expression is expr_p where pattern_p is the first pattern which can be matched with expr

```
-- take care of identation!

fib' k =

case k of

1 -> 1

2 -> 1

-> fib' (k - 1) + fib' (k - 2)
```



Operators

- Operators are binary functions that can be applied in infix and prefix forms
 - For operator \$ appropriate function is written as (\$)
 - o 2 + 3 (infix) is equivalent with (+) 2 3 (prefix)

```
-- definition of operator as function
(\+) :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
(\+) False b = b
(\+) True _ = True
```

```
-- pattern matching definition of operator
(\*) :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
True \* b = b
False \* _ = False
```

```
twoDigits x = ((x \ge 10) \land (x < 100)) \land ((x <= -10) \land (x \ge -100))
```



Anonymous functions

Anonymous functions in Haskell are defined as follows.
 \args -> expr

$$0 x \rightarrow x + 1$$

 $O(x \rightarrow x + 1)$ 5 is evaluated in 6

$$O \setminus x y \rightarrow x + y$$

 $O(x y \rightarrow x + y) 5 6$ is evaluated in 11

 $Omult3 = \langle x y z - \rangle x * y * z$

Omult3 1 2 3 is evaluated in 6



Partially applied operators

Operators are binary functions and can be partially applied

Partial application	Result
(+ 1)	$x \rightarrow x + 1$
(1 +)	$x \rightarrow 1 + x$
(== 5)	$x \rightarrow x = 5$
(5 ==)	\x -> 5 == x
(/= 5)	\x -> x /= 5
(> 5)	$x \rightarrow x > 5$
(5 >)	$x \rightarrow 5 > x$



Higher-order Functions

Higher-order functions can have functions as arguments, or their results are functions or both

```
-- higher-order function
apply2 f x = f (f x)
> apply2 succ 5
7
> apply2 (+3) 10
16
> apply2 reverse "Ana voli Milovana"
"Ana voli Milovana"
```

```
> apply2 (++ " kul") "Haskell"
```

```
"Haskell kul kul"
```

```
> apply2 (10:) [1, 2, 3, 4]
[10,10,1,2,3,4]
```



Map Function

- Return as result list applying function (given as first argument) on each element of list given as the second argument
 - > map (+1) [1, 2, 3, 4]
 [2,3,4,5]
 - > map (==1) [1, 2, 3, 4]
 [True,False,False,False]
 - > map length ["foo", "bar", "mika", "ab"]
 [3,3,4,2]
 - > map ($x \rightarrow x + 3$) [1, 2, 3, 4] [4,5,6,7]



Type classes

- Type class is collection of types which perform operations adequate for that Type class
- **Type can belong to one or more type classes**, in this case it can apply all operations adequate for these type classes
- Type classes allows **ad-hock polymorphism** (*operator overloading*)
- Examples of built-in Type classes
 - Eq: Types that realize operations (==) i (/=)
 - o Ord: Types that realize operations (<), (<=), (>) i (>=)
 - Num: All types that realize arithmetic operations
- Polymorph functions can have some restrictions depending on Type class
 - (+) :: Num a => a -> a -> a
 - **O** (^) :: (Num a, Integral b) => a -> b -> a



Type classes

```
-- function that gives the bigger of two comparable elemenets
maks :: (Ord t) => t -> t -> t
maks a b = if a > b then a else b
{ -
   maks "Ana" "Mika"
   maks 12 34
   maks 13.4 56
   maks False True
   maks 'a' 'b'
- }
-- function that adds 5 to the bigger of two comparable elemene
maksPlus5 :: (Num t, Ord t) => t -> t -> t
maksPlus5 a b = (if a > b then a else b) + 5
{ -
   maksPlus5 12 34
   maksPlus5 13.4 56
- }
```



User defined type classes

class Negation a where
 neg :: a -> a

instance Negation Integer where
 neg k = k * (-1)

```
instance Negation Bool where
  neg True = False
  neg False = True
```

```
> neg (1 > 2)
```

True

```
> neg (21 + 45)
```

-66