

Garbage Collection for a calculus with indices

Luis Francisco Ziliani

Departamento de Computación
Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales
Universidad de Buenos Aires

Licenciatura's Thesis, 2009

Outline

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Different approaches for implementing λ -calculus
 - A short introduction on λ -calculus .
 - Making the substitution explicit
 - Avoiding the α -congruence: indexing variables
 - Indices and explicit substitution
- 3 Adding garbage collection to $\lambda\sigma$

Why study λ -calculus related theories

Invented by A. Church in the '30. Why study it?

- λ -calculus is the base of functional programming and theorem provers.
- Simple and yet powerful.
- But its naïve implementation is not useful in all cases, and there might be no obvious extension for what is needed.
- For the Automath theorem prover, de Bruijn created a way to unique identify variables by the use of *indices*.
- Also, the need for performance lead to *explicit substitutions*.

Why study λ -calculus related theories

Invented by A. Church in the '30. Why study it?

- λ -calculus is the base of functional programming and theorem provers.
- Simple and yet powerful.
- But its naïve implementation is not useful in all cases, and there might be no obvious extension for what is needed.
- For the Automath theorem prover, de Bruijn created a way to unique identify variables by the use of *indices*.
- Also, the need for performance lead to *explicit substitutions*.

Why study λ -calculus related theories

Invented by A. Church in the '30. Why study it?

- λ -calculus is the base of functional programming and theorem provers.
- Simple and yet powerful.
- But its naïve implementation is not useful in all cases, and there might be no obvious extension for what is needed.
- For the Automath theorem prover, de Bruijn created a way to unique identify variables by the use of *indices*.
- Also, the need for performance lead to *explicit substitutions*.

Why study λ -calculus related theories

Invented by A. Church in the '30. Why study it?

- λ -calculus is the base of functional programming and theorem provers.
- Simple and yet powerful.
- But its naïve implementation is not useful in all cases, and there might be no obvious extension for what is needed.
- For the Automath theorem prover, de Bruijn created a way to unique identify variables by the use of *indices*.
- Also, the need for performance lead to *explicit substitutions*.

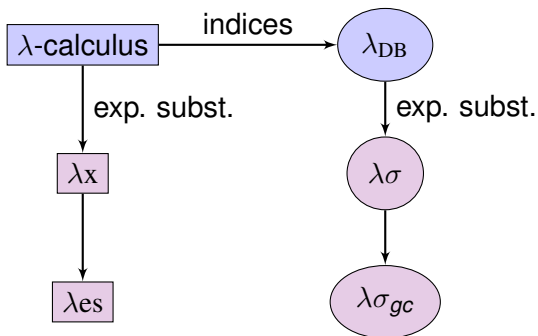
Why study λ -calculus related theories

Invented by A. Church in the '30. Why study it?

- λ -calculus is the base of functional programming and theorem provers.
- Simple and yet powerful.
- But its naïve implementation is not useful in all cases, and there might be no obvious extension for what is needed.
- For the Automath theorem prover, de Bruijn created a way to unique identify variables by the use of *indices*.
- Also, the need for performance lead to *explicit substitutions*.

Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see



Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see

λ -calculus

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations *if* · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example, $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations *if* · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example, $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations
 $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations
if · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example,
 $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations
 $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations
if · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example,
 $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations
 $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations
if · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example,
 $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations
 $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations
if · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example,
 $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

- The terms of F are constructed by
 - Naturals $(0, 1, \dots)$ with built-in operations
 $+, \times, \dots, >, <, =, \dots$
 - Booleans (*true*, *false*) with built-in operations
if · *then* · *else* · \wedge, \vee, \dots
 - Variables x, y, \dots
 - Functions (for instance, $f(x) = x + 1$). In this case x is the *abstracted* variable of f and $x + 1$ is the body.
 - Application of terms to terms (for instance, $f\ 3$). Here, 3 is the *argument* of f . Application is left-associative: $f\ 2\ 1$ is $(f\ 2)\ 1$.
- *One computation step* (\rightarrow) is defined to an application $f\ T$ as the act to replace each occurrence of the abstracted variable in the body with the argument. For example,
 $f\ 3 \rightarrow 3 + 1 = 4$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow oo \rightarrow oo \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow oo \rightarrow oo \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

The F programming language

Examples

$$fc(x) = \text{if } (x > 1) \text{ then } x \times fc(x - 1) \text{ else } 1$$

$$fc\ 3 \rightarrow \text{if } (3 > 1) \text{ then } 3 \times fc(3 - 1) \text{ else } 1 = 3 \times fc\ 2 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$f(x) = x + 1$$

$$h(y) = y\ 4$$

$$g(x) = x \times 2$$

$$o(x) = x\ x$$

$$hf \rightarrow f\ 4 \rightarrow 4 + 1 = 5$$

$$hg \rightarrow g\ 4 \rightarrow 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$hh \rightarrow h\ 4 \rightarrow 4\ 4 = ???$$

$$oo \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow o\ o \rightarrow \dots$$

From F to λ -calculus

Pure λ -calculus is similar to F , but

- It does not have constants (i.e. naturals and booleans).
How do we do arithmetic?
- Functions are represented as “inline” anonymous functions.
 - In F the definition and the application of a function are different things:
Definition: $f(x) = T$. Application: $f U$.
 - In λ -calculus both concepts are joined.
 $f U$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) U$.
 $f (f U)$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) ((\lambda x. T) U)$.
How can we do a recursive call?

From F to λ -calculus

Pure λ -calculus is similar to F , but

- It does not have constants (i.e. naturals and booleans).

How do we do arithmetic?

- Functions are represented as “inline” anonymous functions.

- In F the definition and the application of a function are different things:

Definition: $f(x) = T$. Application: $f U$.

- In λ -calculus both concepts are joined.

$f U$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) U$.

$f (f U)$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) ((\lambda x. T) U)$.

How can we do a recursive call?

From F to λ -calculus

Pure λ -calculus is similar to F , but

- It does not have constants (i.e. naturals and booleans).
How do we do arithmetic?
- Functions are represented as “inline” anonymous functions.
 - In F the definition and the application of a function are different things:
Definition: $f(x) = T$. Application: $f U$.
 - In λ -calculus both concepts are joined.
 $f U$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) U$.
 $f (f U)$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) ((\lambda x. T) U)$.
How can we do a recursive call?

From F to λ -calculus

Pure λ -calculus is similar to F , but

- It does not have constants (i.e. naturals and booleans).
How do we do arithmetic?
- Functions are represented as “inline” anonymous functions.
 - In F the definition and the application of a function are different things:
Definition: $f(x) = T$. Application: $f U$.
 - In λ -calculus both concepts are joined.
 $f U$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) U$.
 $f (f U)$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) ((\lambda x. T) U)$.
How can we do a recursive call?

From F to λ -calculus

Pure λ -calculus is similar to F , but

- It does not have constants (i.e. naturals and booleans).
How do we do arithmetic?
- Functions are represented as “inline” anonymous functions.
 - In F the definition and the application of a function are different things:
Definition: $f(x) = T$. Application: $f U$.
 - In λ -calculus both concepts are joined.
 $f U$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) U$.
 $f (f U)$ is written as $(\lambda x. T) ((\lambda x. T) U)$.
How can we do a recursive call?

Formalization

The computation step, called β -reduction, is defined as

$$(\lambda x.T) U \rightarrow_{\beta} T[x/U]$$

And the substitution is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} x[x/T] &= T \\ y[x/T] &= y && (x \neq y) \\ (T_1 T_2)[x/U] &= T_1[x/U] T_2[x/U] \\ (\lambda y.T)[x/U] &= \lambda y.(T[x/U]) \end{aligned}$$

We will use the convention that every abstracted variable is different.

An introduction on λ -calculus .

Example.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x)) T \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. x)[x/T] = (\lambda y. T)$$

Variables can be

- *bound* to a λ , like x in $(\lambda x. x y)$.
- or *free*, like y in the same example.

An introduction on λ -calculus .

Example.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x)) T \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. x)[x/T] = (\lambda y. T)$$

Variables can be

- *bound* to a λ , like x in $(\lambda x. x y)$.
- or *free*, like y in the same example.

An introduction on λ -calculus .

Example.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x)) T \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. x)[x/T] = (\lambda y. T)$$

Variables can be

- *bound* to a λ , like x in $(\lambda x. x y)$.
- or *free*, like y in the same example.

An introduction on λ -calculus .

Example.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x)) T \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. x)[x/T] = (\lambda y. T)$$

Variables can be

- *bound* to a λ , like x in $(\lambda x. x y)$.
- or *free*, like y in the same example.

α -congruence

Are these two terms different?

$$(\lambda x.x)$$
$$(\lambda y.y)$$

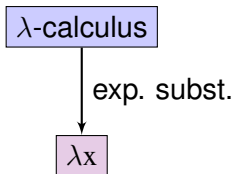
Syntactically, yes, but they behave the same way.

We will not make that distinction, by use of the

α -congruence: Two terms are α -congruent if they only differ in the *bounded variables*.

Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see



Explicit substitutions

- In traditional λ -calculus the substitution is made all at once.

$$(\lambda x.(\lambda y.x) x)T \rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda y.x) x)[x/T] = ((\lambda y.T) T)$$

- This can lead to a size explosion when having multiple copies of a variable.
- In practice, we need more control over what's going on during the substitution.

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.(\lambda y.x) x)T &\rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda y.x) x)[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} (x[y/x])[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow x[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow T \end{aligned}$$

Explicit substitutions

- In traditional λ -calculus the substitution is made all at once.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x) x) T \rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda y. x) x)[x/T] = ((\lambda y. T) T)$$

- This can lead to a size explosion when having multiple copies of a variable.
- In practice, we need more control over what's going on during the substitution.

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x. (\lambda y. x) x) T &\rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda y. x) x)[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} (x[y/x])[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow x[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow T \end{aligned}$$

Explicit substitutions

- In traditional λ -calculus the substitution is made all at once.

$$(\lambda x.(\lambda y.x) x)T \rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda y.x) x)[x/T] = ((\lambda y.T) T)$$

- This can lead to a size explosion when having multiple copies of a variable.
- In practice, we need more control over what's going on during the substitution.

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.(\lambda y.x) x)T &\rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda y.x) x)[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} (x[y/x])[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow x[x/T] \\ &\rightarrow T \end{aligned}$$

Presenting λ_x

Presented by K. Rose in 1993, λ_x is the shortest, simpler calculus with explicit substitutions:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \text{(B)} & (\lambda x. T) U & \longrightarrow & T[x/U] \\ & x[x/U] & \longrightarrow & U \\ & y[x/U] & \longrightarrow & y & (x \neq y) \\ & (T U)[x/V] & \longrightarrow & T[x/V] U[x/V] \\ & (\lambda y. T)[x/V] & \longrightarrow & \lambda y. T[x/V] \end{array}$$

Note: The substitution is now part of the terms. We can construct the term $x[y/w]$ and start the computation from there.

Presenting λ_x

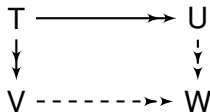
Presented by K. Rose in 1993, λ_x is the shortest, simpler calculus with explicit substitutions:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \text{(B)} & (\lambda x. T) U & \longrightarrow & T[x/U] \\ & x[x/U] & \longrightarrow & U \\ & y[x/U] & \longrightarrow & y & (x \neq y) \\ & (T U)[x/V] & \longrightarrow & T[x/V] U[x/V] \\ & (\lambda y. T)[x/V] & \longrightarrow & \lambda y. T[x/V] \end{array}$$

Note: The substitution is now part of the terms. We can construct the term $x[y/w]$ and start the computation from there.

Properties of λ_x

- λ_x is *confluent*:



- A term is **strongly normalizing** if there is no infinite computation from it.

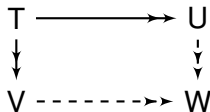
λ_x *preserves strong normalization*:

All the terms that are *strongly normalizing* in λ -calculus are also strongly normalizing in λ_x .

- λ_x is **not metaconfluent**: If we add *metavariables* (X, Y, \dots) to the calculus, then confluence is lost.

Properties of λ_X

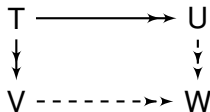
- λ_X is *confluent*:



- A term is **strongly normalizing** if there is no infinite computation from it.
 λ_X *preserves strong normalization*:
 All the terms that are *strongly normalizing* in λ -calculus are also strongly normalizing in λ_X .
- λ_X is **not metaconfluent**: If we add *metavariables* (X, Y, \dots) to the calculus, then confluence is lost.

Properties of λ_X

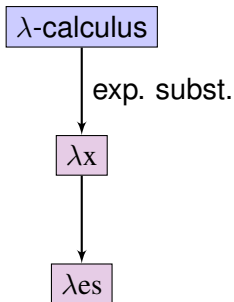
- λ_X is *confluent*:



- A term is **strongly normalizing** if there is no infinite computation from it.
 λ_X *preserves strong normalization*:
 All the terms that are *strongly normalizing* in λ -calculus are also strongly normalizing in λ_X .
- λ_X is **not metaconfluent**: If we add *metavariables* (X, Y, \dots) to the calculus, then confluence is lost.

Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see



λ_{es} essentials

The calculus λ_{es} was created in 2007 by Delia Kesner. It gets preservation of strong normalization and metaconfluence by mixing two ideas:

- Composition of substitutions:
When having two substitutions together, put the second in the first one:

$$T[x/U][y/V] \rightarrow T[y/V][x/U[y/V]]$$

Needed to get metaconfluence. If no restriction is specified, the preservation of strong normalization is lost.

λ_{es} essentials

The calculus λ_{es} was created in 2007 by Delia Kesner. It gets preservation of strong normalization and metaconfluence by mixing two ideas:

- Composition of substitutions:
When having two substitutions together, put the second in the first one:

$$T[x/U][y/V] \rightarrow T[y/V][x/U[y/V]]$$

Needed to get metaconfluence. If no restriction is specified, the preservation of strong normalization is lost.

λ es essentials

- Garbage collection:

A substitution $[x/U]$ is *garbage* for the term T if x is not free in T .

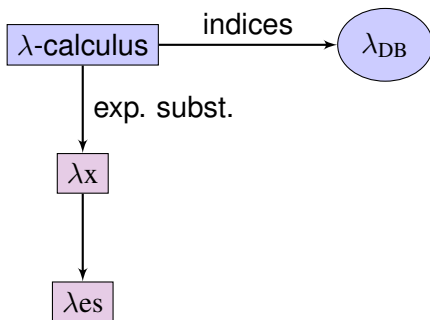
The idea is that T will remain unchanged after performing the substitution, *i. e.*

$$T[x/U] \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow T$$

Needed to control the composition, avoiding composition of garbage.

Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see



Presenting λ_{DB}

Created by N. G. de Bruijn in 1972 for his Automath theorem prover.

- Motivation: knowing whether two terms are “the same” without making variable replacements. Remember the notion of α -congruence:

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x y)) \equiv_{\alpha} (\lambda w. (\lambda z. w z))$$

- Idea: for each variable, count how many λ 's there are in between, and replace the variable by this number.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x y v)) \text{ is translated to } (\lambda(\lambda 2 1 3))$$

$$(\lambda w. (\lambda z. w z v)) \text{ is translated to } (\lambda(\lambda 2 1 3))$$

Presenting λ_{DB}

Created by N. G. de Bruijn in 1972 for his Automath theorem prover.

- Motivation: knowing whether two terms are “the same” without making variable replacements. Remember the notion of α -congruence:

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x y)) \equiv_{\alpha} (\lambda w. (\lambda z. w z))$$

- Idea: for each variable, count how many λ 's there are in between, and replace the variable by this number.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x y v)) \text{ is translated to } (\lambda (\lambda^2 1 3))$$

$$(\lambda w. (\lambda z. w z v)) \text{ is translated to } (\lambda (\lambda^2 1 3))$$

Presenting λ_{DB}

Advantages:

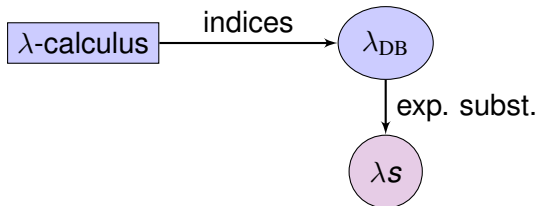
All the terms of the same class are encoded to the same λ_{DB} -term.

Disadvantages:

Indices need to be updated:

- Each time we perform a β -reduction.
- Each time we perform a substitution under a λ .

A word about $\lambda\sigma$

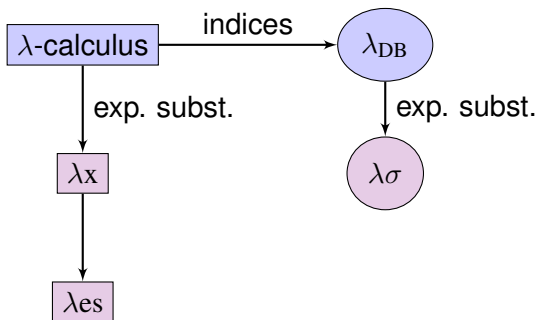


In 1995, F. Kamareddine and A. Ríos proposed a version of λ_{DB} with explicit substitutions, $\lambda\sigma$.

- As λ_x , is a direct translation of the rules into exp. sust.
- Holds the same properties as λ_x .
- Because of the indices updating mechanism, it is hard to extend it with composition of substitutions.

Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see



Indices and composition of substitutions: $\lambda\sigma$

$\lambda\sigma$ was introduced by Abadi, Cardelli, Curien, and Levy in 1991.
The main features are:

- Multiple substitutions:
Substitutions are a list $(1/a_1, 2/a_2, \dots, n/a_n)$
- Born with composition of substitutions in mind.
- Indices updating is made in an atomic way.

But:

- It does not preserve strong normalization.
- It is not metaconfluent (but there are extensions that are, or are semi-metaconfluent).

Indices and composition of substitutions: $\lambda\sigma$

$\lambda\sigma$ was introduced by Abadi, Cardelli, Curien, and Levy in 1991.
The main features are:

- Multiple substitutions:
Substitutions are a list $(1/a_1, 2/a_2, \dots, n/a_n)$
- Born with composition of substitutions in mind.
- Indices updating is made in an atomic way.

But:

- It does not preserve strong normalization.
- It is not metaconfluent (but there are extensions that are, or are semi-metaconfluent).

Indices and composition of substitutions: $\lambda\sigma$

$\lambda\sigma$ was introduced by Abadi, Cardelli, Curien, and Levy in 1991.
The main features are:

- Multiple substitutions:
Substitutions are a list $(1/a_1, 2/a_2, \dots, n/a_n)$
- Born with composition of substitutions in mind.
- Indices updating is made in an atomic way.

But:

- It does not preserve strong normalization.
- It is not metaconfluent (but there are extensions that are, or are semi-metaconfluent).

Indices and composition of substitutions: $\lambda\sigma$

$\lambda\sigma$ was introduced by Abadi, Cardelli, Curien, and Levy in 1991.
The main features are:

- Multiple substitutions:
Substitutions are a list $(1/a_1, 2/a_2, \dots, n/a_n)$
- Born with composition of substitutions in mind.
- Indices updating is made in an atomic way.

But:

- It does not preserve strong normalization.
- It is not metaconfluent (but there are extensions that are, or are semi-metaconfluent).

Indices and composition of substitutions: $\lambda\sigma$

$\lambda\sigma$ was introduced by Abadi, Cardelli, Curien, and Levy in 1991.
The main features are:

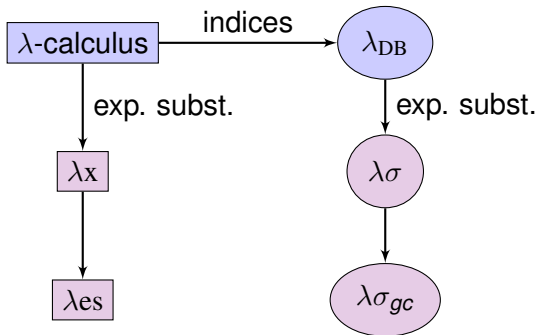
- Multiple substitutions:
Substitutions are a list $(1/a_1, 2/a_2, \dots, n/a_n)$
- Born with composition of substitutions in mind.
- Indices updating is made in an atomic way.

But:

- It does not preserve strong normalization.
- It is not metaconfluent (but there are extensions that are, or are semi-metaconfluent).

Part of the λ -calculus hierarchy

What we are going to see



In the search for PSN: $\lambda\sigma_{gc}$

Remember the definition of garbage in $\lambda\sigma$:

“The substitution is garbage if the variable to substitute does not appear free in the term”

This is difficult to specify in $\lambda\sigma$ for two reasons:

- Indices updating (applicable to all calculus with indices):
The substitution is in charge of the substitution itself **and** the process of index updating, so it is not easy to remove.
- Multiple substitutions:
All variables must be taken into account.

In the search for PSN: $\lambda\sigma_{gc}$

Remember the definition of garbage in $\lambda\sigma$:

“The substitution is garbage if the variable to substitute does not appear free in the term”

This is difficult to specify in $\lambda\sigma$ for two reasons:

- Indices updating (applicable to all calculus with indices):
The substitution is in charge of the substitution itself **and** the process of index updating, so it is not easy to remove.
- Multiple substitutions:
All variables must be taken into account.

In the search for PSN: $\lambda\sigma_{gc}$

Remember the definition of garbage in $\lambda\sigma$:

“The substitution is garbage if the variable to substitute does not appear free in the term”

This is difficult to specify in $\lambda\sigma$ for two reasons:

- Indices updating (applicable to all calculus with indices):
The substitution is in charge of the substitution itself **and** the process of index updating, so it is not easy to remove.
- Multiple substitutions:
All variables must be taken into account.

$\lambda\sigma_{gc}$: Results and open problems

What we do and what we know:

- First definition of garbage for $\lambda\sigma$.
- At least, the same good properties as $\lambda\sigma$.
- A known term that is a counterexample for no preservation of strong normalization in $\lambda\sigma$ is strongly normalizing in $\lambda\sigma_{gc}$.
- Is not metaconfluent.
- The definition of garbage is too restrictive.

What we don't know:

- Does it preserve strong normalization?
- Is there a trivial extension to obtain metaconfluence?
- Is there a better definition of garbage collection?

$\lambda\sigma_{gc}$: Results and open problems

What we do and what we know:

- First definition of garbage for $\lambda\sigma$.
- At least, the same good properties as $\lambda\sigma$.
- A known term that is a counterexample for no preservation of strong normalization in $\lambda\sigma$ is strongly normalizing in $\lambda\sigma_{gc}$.
- Is not metaconfluent.
- The definition of garbage is too restrictive.

What we don't know:

- Does it preserve strong normalization?
- Is there a trivial extension to obtain metaconfluence?
- Is there a better definition of garbage collection?

Summary

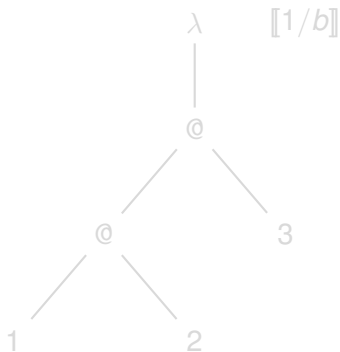
- There are a lot of calculi related to λ -calculus . Some of them use indices, others explicit substitutions. Some of them use both concepts.
- It is not easy to get preservation of strong normalization and metaconfluence.
- Garbage collection is needed, but for $\lambda\sigma$ it is hard to add .

The end

Questions?

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

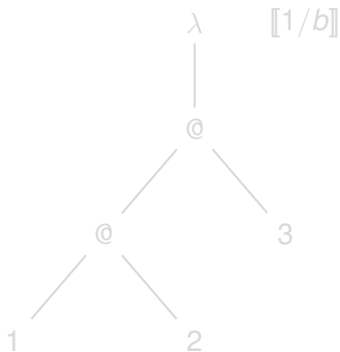
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda 1 2 3)[1/b]$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[1/b]$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

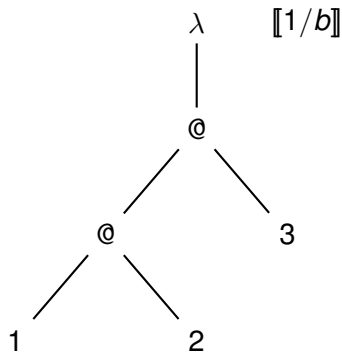
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda 1 2 3)[1/b]$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[1/b]$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

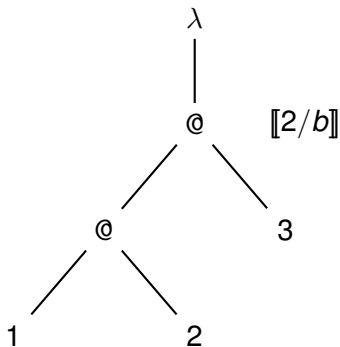
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda 1 2 3)[1/b]$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[1/b]$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

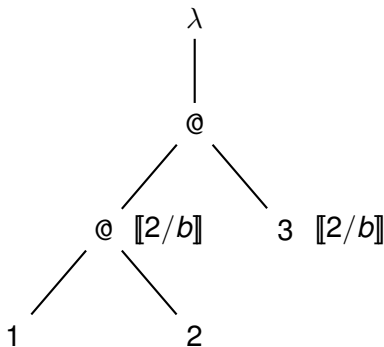
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda(1 2 3)[[2/b]]$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[[1/b]]$
- $(\lambda a)[[i/b]] = \lambda a[[i + 1/b]]$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

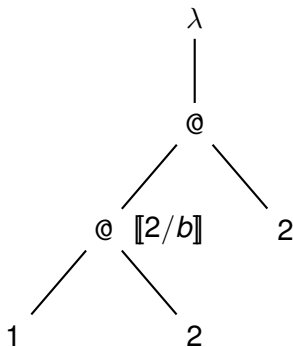
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda((1 2)[2/b] 3[2/b])$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[1/b]$
- $(\lambda a)[i/b] = \lambda a[i + 1/b]$
- $(a_1 a_2)[i/b] = a_1[i/b] a_2[i/b]$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

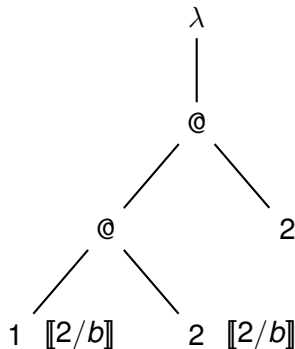
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1\ 2\ 3))\ b \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda((1\ 2)[[2/b]\ 2])$$



- $(\lambda a)\ b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[1/b]$
- $(\lambda a)[[i/b]] = \lambda a[[i + 1/b]]$
- $(a_1\ a_2)[[i/b]] = a_1[[i/b]]\ a_2[[i/b]]$
- $j[[i/b]] = j - i\ (j > i)$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

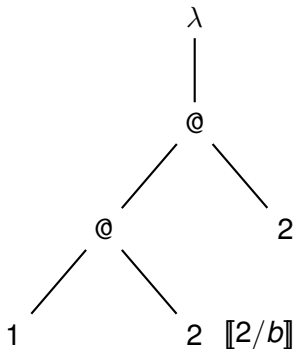
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda(1 \llbracket 2/b \rrbracket 2 \llbracket 2/b \rrbracket 2)$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a \llbracket 1/b \rrbracket$
- $(\lambda a) \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = \lambda a \llbracket i + 1/b \rrbracket$
- $(a_1 a_2) \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = a_1 \llbracket i/b \rrbracket a_2 \llbracket i/b \rrbracket$
- $j \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = j - i \quad (j > i)$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

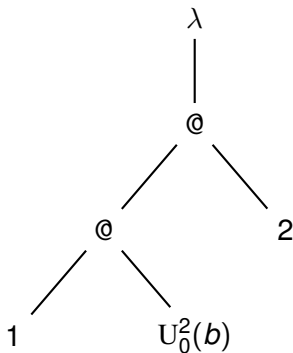
$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda(1 2 \llbracket 2/b \rrbracket 2)$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a \llbracket 1/b \rrbracket$
- $(\lambda a) \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = \lambda a \llbracket i + 1/b \rrbracket$
- $(a_1 a_2) \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = a_1 \llbracket i/b \rrbracket a_2 \llbracket i/b \rrbracket$
- $j \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = j - i \quad (j > i)$
- $j \llbracket i/b \rrbracket = j \quad (j < i)$

Understanding λ_{DB} by example

$$(\lambda(\lambda 1 2 3)) b \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda(1 U_0^2(b) 2)$$



- $(\lambda a) b \rightarrow_{\beta} a[1/b]$
- $(\lambda a)[i/b] = \lambda a[i + 1/b]$
- $(a_1 a_2)[i/b] = a_1[i/b] a_2[i/b]$
- $j[i/b] = j - i \quad (j > i)$
- $j[i/b] = j \quad (j < i)$
- $j[i/b] = U_0^i(b) \quad (j = i)$

Understanding λ_{DB}

The update operator

The idea of the update operator $U_k^i(b)$ is:

- Leave all bounded variables of b untouched.
- Update the free variables by adding $i - 1$, the number of λ 's crossed.

So

- The parameter i never changes.
- The parameter k is increased each time we cross a λ .