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# Models of Computation

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Lecture notes integrated with the book TODO

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# Information and Contacts

Personal notes and summaries collected as part of the *Models of Computation* course offered by the degree in Computer Science of the University of Rome "La Sapienza".

Further information and notes can be found at the following link:

<https://github.com/aflaag-notes>. Anyone can feel free to report inaccuracies, improvements or requests through the Issue system provided by GitHub itself or by contacting the author privately:

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The notes are constantly being updated, so please check if the changes have already been made in the most recent version.

## Suggested prerequisites:

- Linguaggi di Programmazione
- Tecniche di Programmazione Funzionale ed Imperativa

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# 1

## TODO

### 1.1 TODO

#### 1.1.1 TODO

In this first section, examples will be omitted from this notes, refer to the notes of the “[Linguaggi di Programmazione](#)” course for further details.

#### Definition 1.1: Lambda calculus

Let  $\text{Var}$  be the set of all possible variables; thus, the **set  $\Lambda$  of all possible  $\lambda$ -terms** is defined by the following rules:

$$[var] \frac{x \in \text{Var}}{x \in \Lambda}$$

$$[appl] \frac{M \in \Lambda \quad N \in \Lambda}{MN \in \Lambda}$$

$$[abs] \frac{x \in \text{Var} \quad M \in \Lambda}{\lambda x.M \in \Lambda}$$

The terms of the form  $\lambda x.M$  are called  **$\lambda$ -abstractions**, and  $MN$  is the function application of  $M$  to  $N$ . Note that function application *associates to the left*, therefore

$$MNL = (MN)L \neq M(NL)$$

Lambda calculus can be alternatively defined with the **Backus Normal Form** (BNF), as follows:

$$M, N ::= x \mid \lambda x.M \mid MN$$

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Although *all functions in lambda calculus are unary*, the following definition can expand this concept.

### Definition 1.2: Currying

**Currying** (named after [Haskell Curry](#)) is defined as follows:

$$\lambda x_1.(\dots(\lambda x_n.y)) \equiv \lambda x_1 \dots x_n.y$$

### Definition 1.3: Boundness

A variable is said to be **bound** if it is declared in a  $\lambda$ -abstraction, otherwise it is said to be **free**.

A term that has no free variables is said to be **closed** or **combinator**.

**Example 1.1** (Boundness). Consider the following term:

$$\lambda x.xy$$

In this example,  $x$  is *bound*, and  $y$  is *free*.

### Definition 1.4: Notable combinators

The following are some of the **notable combinators**:

$$\begin{aligned} I &\equiv \lambda x.x \\ K &\equiv T \equiv \lambda xy.x \\ O &\equiv F \equiv \lambda xy.y \\ S &\equiv \lambda xyz.xz(yz) \\ B &\equiv \lambda fgx.f(gx) \\ C &\equiv \lambda abc.acb \\ W &\equiv \lambda xy.xyy \end{aligned}$$

### Definition 1.5: Free variables

Given a  $\lambda$ -term, the function

$$\text{free} : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Var})$$

returns the **set of free variables in**  $M$ , and it is defined recursively as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \text{free}(x) := \{x\} \\ \text{free}(MN) := \text{free}(M) \cup \text{free}(N) \\ \text{free}(\lambda x.M) := \text{free}(M) - \{x\} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 1.6: Substitution**

The **substitution** operation is recursively defined by the following rules:

$$x[N/x] = N$$

$$y[N/x] = y$$

$$(PQ)[N/x] = P[N/x] Q[N/x]$$

$$(\lambda t.P)[N/x] = \lambda t.(P[N/x])$$

where  $M[N/x]$  means that *each instance of  $x$  in  $M$  is replaced with  $N$* . Note that **only free variables may be substituted**.

**Definition 1.7: Inference rules**

The following are the **inference rules** for the lambda calculus:

$$(\alpha) \lambda x.M \equiv (\lambda y.M)[y/x]$$

$$(\beta) (\lambda x.M)N \xrightarrow{\beta} M[N/x]$$

$$(\mu) \frac{M \xrightarrow{\beta} M'}{NM \xrightarrow{\beta} NM'}$$

$$(\nu) \frac{M \xrightarrow{\beta} M'}{MN \xrightarrow{\beta} M'N}$$

$$(\xi) \frac{M \xrightarrow{\beta} M'}{\lambda x.M \xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda x.M'}$$

Note that the  $\beta$ -rule is effectively *one step of the computation* described by the  $\lambda$ -term.

**Definition 1.8: Normal form**

If a term can be  $\beta$ -reduced, it is called  **$\beta$ -redex**, or simply **redex** (*reducible expression*), and the reduced term is called  **$\beta$ -reduct**, or simply **reduct**.

If a term has no redexes, it is said to be in **normal form**.

**Observation 1.1: Variable capture**

Consider the following  $\lambda$ -term:

$$(\lambda x t. t x)(\lambda t. y) \xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda t. t(\lambda t. y)$$

Note that the two  $t$ s are *different*. In fact, underlining the  $\lambda$ -abstractions to which they are bounded to can help clarifying their distinction:

$$(\lambda x \underline{t}. \underline{t} x)(\lambda t. y) \xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda \underline{t}. \underline{t}(\lambda t. y)$$

Now, consider the following  $\lambda$ -term, similar to the previous one:

$$(\lambda x y. y x)(\lambda t. y) \xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda y. y(\lambda t. y)$$

This  $\beta$ -reduction created a problem, because now the two  $y$ s *are the same*, even though they were not originally. In fact, the previous term can be relabeled as follows:

$$(\lambda x \underline{y}. \underline{y} x)(\lambda t. y) \xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda \underline{y}. \underline{y}(\lambda t. \underline{y})$$

This happened because

$$\text{free}(\lambda t. y) = \{y\} - \{t\} = \{y\}$$

therefore  $y$  was **captured** by the  $y$  that was already present in the leftmost  $\lambda$ -abstraction. This phenomena is called **variable capturing**, and constitutes a problem when reducing  $\beta$ -redexes. In particular, to reduce this second  $\lambda$ -abstraction, it is necessary to apply a substitution, by using the  $\alpha$  rule (refer to [Definition 1.7](#)):

$$\lambda x y. y x = \lambda x (\lambda y. y x) = \lambda x. ((\lambda y. y x)[u/y]) = \lambda x. (\lambda u. u x) = \lambda x u. u x$$

which means that the  $\beta$ -reduction can now be performed without any issue:

$$(\lambda x u. u x)(\lambda t. y) \xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda u. u(\lambda t. y)$$

where  $y$  is still free. Note that it would not have been *safe* to rename the other (free)  $y$ , because in general *renaming free variables can create capturing problems as well*. For example,  $y$  could have not been substituted with  $t$ , as it would otherwise be captured by the  $t$  in the  $\lambda$ -term  $\lambda t. y$ , as follows:

$$(\lambda t. y)[t/y] = \lambda t. t$$

Fortunately, variable capturing can be solved by employing the following *variable naming convention*.

**Definition 1.9: Variable naming convention**

To avoid variable capturing problems, it is sufficient to follow this **variable naming convention**: *bound and free variables must have different names between them.*

From now on, it will be assumed that any  $\beta$ -reduction is performed by renaming opportunely the **bound** variables, such that in each step of the computation the naming convention is followed.

**Definition 1.10: Tuples**

A **tuple** of the form

$$(M_1, \dots, M_k)$$

can be represented in  $\lambda$ -calculus as follows:

$$\lambda x.xM_1 \dots M_k$$

To access the elements of a tuple, *projectors* are used, which are defined below

**Definition 1.11: Projector**

A **projector** has the following form

$$\lambda x.x\pi_j^k$$

where

$$\pi_j^k \equiv \lambda x_1 \dots x_k.x_j$$

**Example 1.2** (Projectors). Given a tuple  $\lambda x.xM_1 \dots M_k$ , its  $j$ -th element can be accessed as follows:

$$\lambda x.x\pi_j^k(\lambda x.xM_1 \dots M_k) \xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda x.xM_1 \dots M_k)\pi_j^k \xrightarrow{\beta} \pi_j^k M_1 \dots M_k \xrightarrow{\beta} M_j$$

**Definition 1.12: Fixed point**

Given a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ , an element  $x \in X$  is said to be a **fixed point** of  $f$  if and only if  $f(x) = x$ .

**Example 1.3** (Fixed points). Given a function  $f(x) = x^2 - 3x + 4$ ,  $x = 2$  is a *fixed point* of  $f$ , because

$$f(x) = 2^2 - 3 \cdot 2 + 4 = 4 - 6 + 4 = 2 = x$$

and thus  $f(x) = x$ .

**Example 1.4** (Functions are fixed points). Consider the following function

$$F(g) \equiv h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = 0 \\ x \cdot g(x-1) & x > 0 \end{cases}$$



that takes a function as input, and returns a function  $h$ ; for instance, plugging in the following function

$$\text{succ} : x \rightarrow x + 1$$

we get that  $F$  returns the following function

$$F(\text{succ}) \equiv h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = 0 \\ x \cdot \text{succ}(x - 1) = x \cdot x = x^2 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

which is the function that returns 1 if  $x = 0$ , and  $x^2$  otherwise.

It's easy to check that the *fixed point* of  $F$  is the following function:

$$\text{fact}(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & x = 0 \\ x \cdot \text{fact}(x - 1) & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

which computes the factorial of  $x$ , because

$$F(\text{fact}) \equiv h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = 0 \\ x \cdot \text{fact}(x - 1) & x > 0 \end{cases} \equiv \text{fact}$$

### Definition 1.13: Kleene's combinator

The **fixed point operator**, **Y combinator** or **Kleene's combinator** (named after [Stephen Kleene](#)) is defined as follows:

$$Y \equiv \lambda f. (\lambda x. f(xx)) (\lambda x. f(xx))$$

The Y combinator can be alternatively defined as follows:

$$Y \equiv (\lambda xy. y(xxy)) (\lambda xy. y(xxy))$$

### Proposition 1.1: Fixed point operator

Given a function, Kleene's combinator returns its fixed point.

*Proof.* If the Kleene's combinator can return the fixed point of a given function  $h$ , it means that  $Yh$  is  $h$ 's fixed point. Therefore, the statement that has to be proved is that

$$h(Yh) \equiv Yh$$

This can be proved for both formulations of the Y combinator, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} Yh &\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda f. (\lambda x. f(xx)) (\lambda x. f(xx)))h \\ &\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda x. h(xx)) (\lambda x. h(xx)) \\ &\xrightarrow{\beta} h(\lambda x. h(xx) \lambda x. h(xx)) \\ &\xrightarrow{\beta} h(Yh) \end{aligned}$$

and for the alternative formulation

$$\begin{aligned}
 Yh &\xrightarrow{\beta} ((\lambda xy.y(xy))(\lambda xy'.y'(xy'))h) \\
 &\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda y.y((\lambda xy'.y'(xy'))(\lambda xy''.y''(xy''))y))h \\
 &\xrightarrow{\beta} h((\lambda xy'.y'(xy'))(\lambda xy''.y''(xy''))h) \\
 &\xrightarrow{\beta} h(Yh)
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Note that the Y combinator can be used to perform *recursion* inside  $\lambda$ -calculus, because of the following property:

$$\begin{aligned}
 h(Yh) &= Yh \\
 h(h(Yh)) &= h(Yh) = Yh \\
 &\vdots \\
 h(\dots(h(Yh))) &= Yh
 \end{aligned}$$

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## 1.2 Exercises

### Problem 1.1: Solve for $X$

Find  $X$  such that

$$Xx = \lambda t.t(Xx)$$

*Solution.* The term is

$$X \equiv (\lambda fbt.t(fb))X$$

because

$$\begin{aligned}
 Xx &\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda fbt.t(fb))Xx \\
 &\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda bt.t(Xb))x \\
 &\xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda t.t(Xx)
 \end{aligned}$$

### Problem 1.2: Solve for $H$

Find  $H$  such that

$$H(\lambda x_1x_2x_3.P) = \lambda x_3x_2x_1.P$$

*Solution.* The term is

$$H \equiv \lambda f x_3 x_2 x_1. f x_1 x_2 x_3$$

because

$$\begin{aligned} H(\lambda x_1 x_2 x_3. P) &\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda f x_3 x_2 x_1. f x_1 x_2 x_3)(\lambda x_1 x_2 x_3. P) \\ &\xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda x_3 x_2 x_1. (\lambda x_1 x_2 x_3. P) x_1 x_2 x_3 \\ &\xrightarrow{\beta} \lambda x_3 x_2 x_1. P \end{aligned}$$