

Towards Hilbert's 24th Problem: Combinatorial Proof Invariants

(Preliminary version)

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Abstract

Proofs Without Syntax [37] introduced polynomial-time checkable *combinatorial proofs* for classical propositional logic. This sequel approaches Hilbert's 24th *Problem* with combinatorial proofs as abstract invariants for sequent calculus proofs, analogous to homotopy groups as abstract invariants for topological spaces.

The paper lifts a simple, strongly normalising cut elimination from combinatorial proofs to sequent calculus, factorising away the mechanical commutations of structural rules which litter traditional syntactic cut elimination.

Sequent calculus fails to be surjective onto combinatorial proofs: the paper extracts a semantically motivated *closure* of sequent calculus from which there is a surjection, pointing towards an abstract combinatorial refinement of Herbrand's theorem.

1 Introduction

Suppose I take the Wiles-Taylor proof of Fermat's Last Theorem [59,54], transpose the order of two adjacent but independent lemmas, then submit the result to *Annals of Mathematics* as "A New Proof of Fermat's Last Theorem." Would I get away with it?

Equality of proofs is not merely a peer review issue, but also a concrete technical issue stressed by Hilbert in his 24th *Problem* [55] (emphasis mine):

The 24th problem in my Paris lecture was to be: Criteria of simplicity, or proof of the greatest simplicity of certain proofs. Develop a theory of the method of proof in mathematics in general. Under a given set of conditions there can be but one simplest proof. Quite generally, *if there are two proofs for a theorem, you must keep going until you have derived each from the other*, or until it becomes quite evident what variant conditions (and aids) have been used in the two proofs. *Given two routes, it is not right to take either of these two or to look for a third; it is necessary to investigate the area lying between the two routes.*

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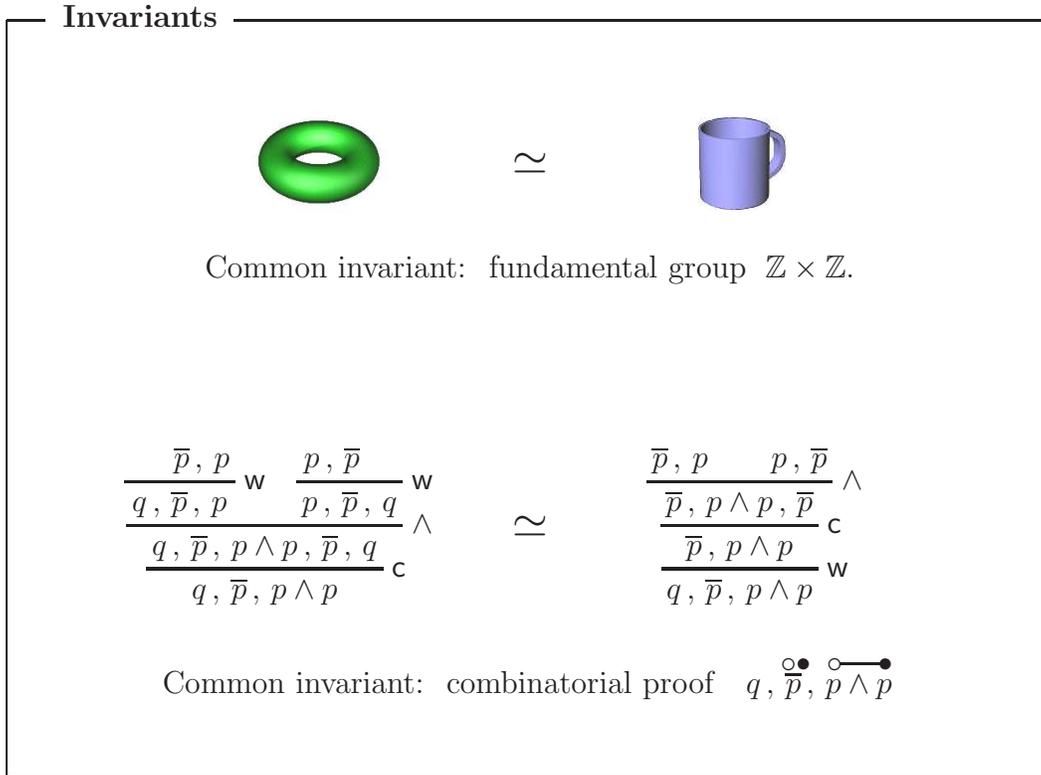


Fig. 1. From topological invariants to proof invariants. The upper half of the figure shows two homotopy-equivalent 2-manifolds, a torus and the surface of a cup. The cup surface is smoothly deformable into the torus, without ‘tearing’. The surfaces have the same invariant, the fundamental group $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. The lower half of the figure is analogous. It shows two classical sequent calculus proofs which are equivalent by a “smooth deformation”: a sequence of local commutations of rules (between weakening-conjunction-contraction on the left and conjunction-contraction-weakening on the right). The proofs have the same invariant, the combinatorial proof shown (four vertices, two colours, and one edge).

Hilbert’s *area lying between the two routes* is suggestive of homotopy in algebraic topology, a field with a mature view of when two objects should be considered equal. Poincaré established the general pattern a century ago [48]: formalise some notion \simeq of *smooth deformation* equivalence between geometric objects, associate some kind of mathematical *invariant* $I(x)$ with each object x , then endeavour to prove that invariants precisely capture equivalence: $x \simeq y$ iff $I(x) = I(y)$.

A classic example (see Figure 1) is to consider ‘rubber-sheet’ surfaces without boundary (formally *closed, connected 2-manifolds*), such as a sphere (the surface of a ball) or a torus (the surface of a donut), with \simeq as continuous deformation without ‘tearing’ (formally *homotopy equivalence*) and $I(x)$ the ‘number of holes’ in x (formally *fundamental group*, or first homotopy group). Then

$$\text{sphere} \not\simeq \text{torus} \simeq \text{cup}$$

where **cup** denotes the surface of a standard cup (with one handle), and correspondingly,

$$I(\text{sphere}) \neq I(\text{torus}) = I(\text{cup})$$

since $I(\text{sphere}) = 0$ (no ‘hole’ about which a loop can tangle) while $I(\text{torus}) = I(\text{cup}) = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ (two ‘holes’).¹ This paper adopts Poincaré’s template for Hilbert’s 24th problem:

	<i>Classification of surfaces</i>	<i>This paper</i>
<i>Geometric object x</i>	Closed, connected 2-manifold	Syntactic proof
<i>Smooth deformation \simeq</i>	Homotopy equivalence	Local rule commutations
<i>Invariant $I(x)$</i>	Fundamental group	Combinatorial proof

Syntactic proof means a proof in (a variant of) Gentzen’s classical sequent calculus [22]. *Local rule commutation* means an inconsequential transformation on a proof, in the spirit of the transposition of lemmas in my would-be Fermat scam; the idea behind the topology analogy is that such a commutation is purely local, without copying/deleting (‘tearing’) entire subproofs. *Combinatorial proofs*, introduced in [37], will be discussed below.

1.1 Intrinsic representations of proofs

Aside from the Hilbert-Poincaré motivation, Girard [26] emphasises a concrete technical need for an abstract representation of sequent calculus proofs modulo local commutations of rules:²

Traditional proof-theory deals with cut-elimination; these results are usually obtained by means of sequent calculi, with the consequence that 75% of a cut-elimination proof is devoted to endless commutations of rules. It is hard to be happy with this, mainly because:

- the structure of the proof is blurred by all these cases;
- whole forests have been destroyed in order to print the same routine lemmas;
- this is not extremely elegant.

The changes of representation during cut elimination can be thought of as akin to changes of basis in geometry. Just as in geometry, where one seeks intrinsic representations which are coordinate-free, together with basis-independent operations, we seek intrinsic representations of proofs which are syntax-free, together with commutation-independent cut-elimination.

¹ Beyond this archetypal 2-manifold example, it has been hard to obtain results in algebraic topology in which $I(x) = I(y)$ implies $x \simeq y$, hence the ongoing pursuit of various alternative notions of *space*, \simeq and I .

² Note: readers more interested in conventional syntactic proof theory than in geometric proof theory and intrinsic representations can skip (without major loss of continuity) to section 1.3, which summarises purely syntactic results on cut elimination.

It is often prudent to deal with a fragment of a problem before trying to tackle the full problem, so long as the fragment remains rich enough to inform one’s approach to the full problem. “You can’t run before you can walk.” Accordingly, we shall first focus on the problem of intrinsic representation for *propositional* classical sequent calculus proofs.

Since propositional logic is decidable, unlike first-order logic, one has to be very discerning about what exactly deserves to be called a (propositional) *proof system*, and what does not. Thorough analysis in the 1970’s found that complexity provides the answer: Cook and Reckhow [11] require every proof π in a **proof system** to be checkable in polynomial time in the size of π .³ For example, both propositional sequent calculus and truth tables constitute proof systems (each with linear-time checkable proofs).⁴ Cook and Reckhow utilise a notion of *morphism* $f : S \rightarrow T$ between proof systems: a polynomial-time computable function f which, for every tautology A , maps proofs of A in S to proofs of A in T .⁵ This yields our first important definition:

— Propositional Proof Semantics —

A *semantics* of a proof system S is a morphism $f : S \rightarrow T$ to another proof system T . For each proof π in S , we call $f(\pi)$ the *abstract representation* of π .

This formulation, though simple, is powerful: it rules out contrived ‘semantics’ of proofs of propositional sequent calculus S which identify all proofs of a given tautology. For if f maps a sequent calculus proof π of the tautology A to:

- the truth table of A , then f fails to be polynomial-time computable (due to the exponential size of the truth table of A , in the size of A);
- A itself, or to a constant (the symbol “1”, or the empty set, say), then the target of f fails to be a proof system (due to exponential-time verification of A , in the size of A).

³ Cook and Reckhow prove that $\text{NP} = \text{coNP}$ iff there exists a *polynomially efficient* propositional proof system, that is, one with a polynomial $p(n)$ such that every tautology of length n has a proof in the system of size at most $p(n)$. Super-polynomial size lower bounds for progressively stronger proof systems may lead towards $\text{NP} \neq \text{coNP}$ (hence $\text{P} \neq \text{NP}$, since $\text{P} = \text{coP}$). Remarkably, even a super-*linear* lower bound has yet to be found for propositional sequent calculus, let alone a super-polynomial one. See [57] for a readable introduction to proof complexity.

⁴ With conventional syntax in mind, some proof theorists may be tempted to admit only linear-time checkable proofs in the definition of a (propositional) proof system. However, given any polynomial-time checkable system, the computation traces of proof verifications provide linear-time checkable certificates. In other words, every polynomial-time proof system implicitly yields a linear-time one, via time-to-space tradeoff. Note that this tradeoff respects polynomial efficiency (see footnote 3).

⁵ Thus a morphism respects polynomial efficiency (see footnote 3). For technical convenience, we shall always assume that the alphabet/language of tautologies is the same for S and T (*e.g.*, formulas are generated from literals by binary \wedge and \vee).

The essence of the definition is that a semantics should be some kind of structure-preserving map, and (aside from the obvious soundness and completeness) the key property of a propositional proof system which must be preserved is polynomial-time checkability.⁶ After all, without polynomial-time checkability, the ‘proofs’ in a system become irrelevant or redundant, since a ‘proved’ tautology itself can be checked in exponential time. What good is a ‘proof’ as a certificate of validity of a formula, if the formula itself can be checked as readily as the ‘proof’?

Our invariant map I outlined earlier, taking a proof π of propositional sequent calculus \mathbf{S} to its combinatorial proof invariant $I(\pi)$, is a propositional proof semantics, that is, a morphism

$$I : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$$

of proof systems, where \mathbf{C} denotes the system of (lax) combinatorial proofs. Moreover, I provides proof invariants, in the following sense:⁷

— **Invariants of Sequent Calculus Proofs** —

A semantics $I : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}$ of propositional sequent calculus \mathbf{S} provides ***invariants*** if its kernel \simeq_I is generated by local commutations of rules.

Finally, with reference to the passage by Girard quoted on page 3, we formalise a notion of intrinsic representations of propositional sequent calculus proofs:

— **Intrinsic Representations of Sequent Calculus Proofs** —

A semantics $I : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}$ of propositional sequent calculus \mathbf{S} provides ***intrinsic representations*** if its kernel \simeq_I includes all local rule commutations involved in Gentzen’s cut elimination procedure [22].

The combinatorial proof invariant map $I : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ provides intrinsic representations, in this formal sense.

1.2 Overview of combinatorial proofs and the invariant map I

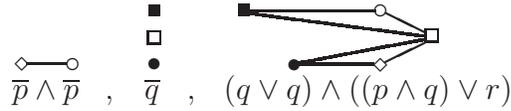
A combinatorial proof [37] over a formula or sequent A is a coloured graph whose tokens (vertices) are aligned over the leaves (literal occurrences) of A . For example, a combinatorial proof of Peirce’s law is shown below-left, with two white tokens, two black tokens, and one edge:

$$\left(\overset{\circ}{(p \rightarrow q)} \rightarrow \overset{\bullet}{p} \right) \rightarrow \overset{\circ}{p} \qquad \left(\overset{\circ}{(p \vee q)} \wedge \overset{\bullet}{p}, \overset{\circ}{p} \right)$$

⁶ Recall also that polynomial efficiency is preserved (see footnote 3).

⁷ Recall that the kernel \simeq_f of a function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is the equivalence relation $a \simeq_f a'$ iff $f(a) = f(a')$. Also recall that by a *local* rule commutation we mean one that does not involve copying/deleting of entire subproof branches.

Throughout the paper we shall interpret implication $A \rightarrow B$ as an abbreviation for $(\neg A) \vee B$, and identify outermost \vee with the comma of a right-sided sequent (with redundant turnstile \vdash omitted): the same combinatorial proof is shown above-right, without abbreviation. Here is another example of a combinatorial proof, more interesting in that it has seven edges and five colour classes.



Each colour class has two tokens, and is called a *couple*.⁸ A combinatorial proof must satisfy a simple polynomial-time criterion: (1) the graph cannot be reduced to $\bullet\text{---}\bullet\text{---}\bullet$ by deleting tokens, nor reduced to a (non-empty) union of edges $\bullet\updownarrow\bullet\text{---}\bullet\updownarrow\bullet$ by deleting couples, (2) every pair of tokens forming a couple (resp. edge) sits over complementary (resp. conjunctively related⁹) leaves, and (3) a *skew lifting* property holds, inspired by (and a relaxation of) the lifting property defining a graph fibration (simultaneously a special case of a topological- [58] and of a categorical fibration [28,27]). The main theorem of [37] was soundness and completeness.

Combinatorial proof invariants. Pick a cut-free proof in your favourite formulation¹⁰ of classical propositional sequent calculus [22]. For didactic purposes, assume each axiom is a complementary pair of propositional variables. Place like-coloured tokens on the variables in each axiom, trace them down through the proof onto the variables of the concluding sequent, and on the way, join two tokens with an edge whenever they arrive in the principle formula of a binary rule from opposite premises.¹¹ The result is a (cut-free) *lax combinatorial proof*, introduced in this paper as a mild generalisation of the original notion in [37] (convenient for translation and a simple, strongly normalising cut elimination). Examples are shown below, for the two proofs x and y of Figure 1 (page 2):

⁸ In treating the boolean constants 0 and 1 in [37], we also used singleton colour classes. To model resolution proofs directly (not via atomic cuts), one can use colour classes of arbitrary large size. For didactic purposes, we omit constants (and resolution) from the presentation in this paper.

⁹ Assume formulas are negation normal, *i.e.*, generated from literals by \wedge and \vee . Two leaves are *conjunctively related* if the smallest subformula containing them both is a conjunction.

¹⁰ One/two-sided, explicit/defined \neg , context-sharing/splitting binary rules, *etc.* [56].

¹¹ The insertion of edges is crucial. The idea of merely linking dual occurrences is widespread in the study of various forms of syntax, going back many decades in many disciplines, from category theory [19,30] to automated theorem proving [16,5,3]. There is no novelty whatsoever here in simply tracing complementary tokens from propositional variables down to the concluding sequent.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{\circ}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}}{q, \overline{p}, \overline{p}} \text{w}}{\frac{\overline{\circ}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge \overline{p}, \overline{p}, q} \wedge} \text{c}}{\frac{\overline{\circ} \quad \overline{\circ} \quad \overline{\circ}}{q, \overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge \overline{p}} \text{c}} \\
 \frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{\bullet}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}}{p, \overline{p}, q} \text{w}}{\frac{\overline{\bullet}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge p, \overline{p}, q} \wedge} \text{c}}{\frac{\overline{\bullet} \quad \overline{\bullet} \quad \overline{\bullet}}{q, \overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge p} \text{c}} \\
 \simeq \\
 \frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{\circ}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}} \quad \frac{\overline{\bullet}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge p, \overline{p}} \wedge} \text{c}}{\frac{\overline{\circ} \quad \overline{\bullet}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge p} \text{w}} \text{w} \\
 \frac{\overline{\circ} \quad \overline{\bullet}}{q, \overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge p} \text{w}
 \end{array}$$

One can read each rule as an operation on combinatorial proofs. The translated combinatorial proofs $I(x)$ and $I(y)$ are identical (*c.f.* Fig. 1):

$$\frac{\overline{\circ} \quad \overline{\bullet}}{q, \overline{p}, \overline{p} \wedge p}$$

The two proofs x and y differ only by local rule commutations: $I(x) = I(y)$ and $x \simeq y$, as desired. Another example of translation $z \mapsto I(z)$ is shown in Figure 2. The resulting combinatorial proof invariant $I(z)$ is similar to the ten-token combinatorial proof drawn above, on page 6.

1.3 Smooth, strongly normalising syntactic cut elimination

Consider the following proofs x and y , respectively, which differ only in the order of the cut and conjunction rules, *i.e.*, $x \simeq y$:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}} \text{w}}{\frac{\overline{r}, \overline{r}}{r, \overline{r}, \overline{t}} \text{w}} \wedge \frac{\frac{\overline{u}, \overline{u}}{t, u, \overline{u}} \text{w}}{r, \overline{r}, \overline{t} \wedge t, u, \overline{u}} \wedge} \text{cut}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t} \wedge t, u, \overline{u}} \text{cut}} \simeq \frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}} \text{w}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t}} \text{cut} \frac{\frac{\overline{r}, \overline{r}}{r, \overline{r}, \overline{t}} \text{w}}{t, u, \overline{u}} \text{w}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t} \wedge t, u, \overline{u}} \wedge} \text{cut}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t} \wedge t, u, \overline{u}} \wedge}$$

Applying standard cut elimination (towards the right in each case) yields the following cut-free proofs x' and y' , respectively:

$$\frac{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t} \wedge t, u, \overline{u}} \text{w}^4 \quad \not\approx \quad \frac{\frac{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t}} \text{w}^2 \quad \frac{\overline{u}, \overline{u}}{t, u, \overline{u}} \text{w}}{p, \overline{p}, \overline{r}, \overline{t} \wedge t, u, \overline{u}} \wedge}$$

where w^n abbreviates n consecutive weakenings. The $\not\approx$ highlights the fact that, after eliminating the same cut the same way (rightwards), the proofs are *no longer* equivalent modulo local rule commutations \simeq . In other words, standard cut elimination fails to be *smooth* (drawing our terminology from our earlier analogy with smooth topological deformation).

We define a simple, strongly normalising cut elimination procedure on (lax) combinatorial proofs which, when lifted back to the syntax, yields a smooth, strongly normalising syntactic cut elimination. We achieve this by extending sequent calculus to reflect the richer structure of (lax) combinatorial proofs.

We define the *shading* of a proof as the result of marking all weak (sub)formulas: shade any formula introduced by weakening, together with the result

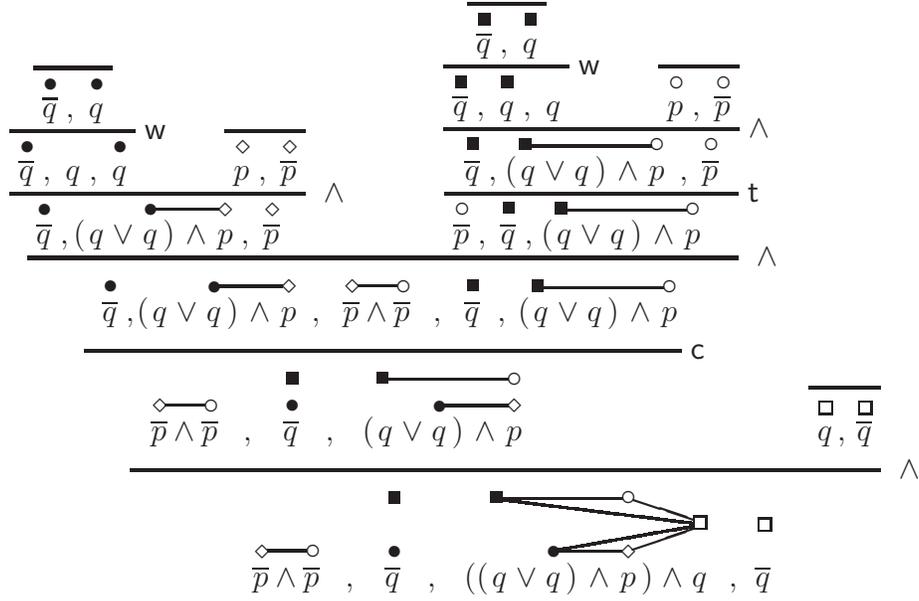
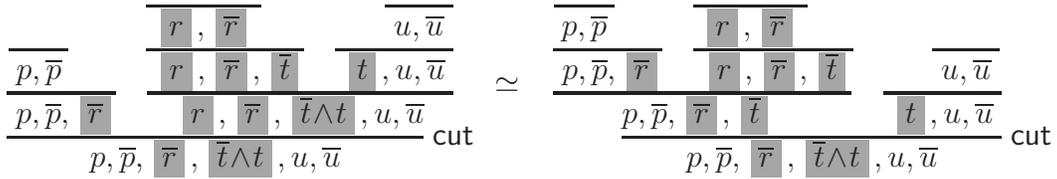


Fig. 2. Translating a sequent proof z into its combinatorial proof invariant $I(z)$. Labels c, w, t mark contraction, weakening and twist (exchange/permute).

of propagating this weakness in the obvious way (e.g. through axioms, conjunctions and cuts). For example, here are the results of shading all the weak formulas in the proofs x and y above:



Now — roughly speaking — when we eliminate the cut in x (the left proof) we no longer delete the entire right branch above the cut (as standard cut elimination did, to form x' earlier), but only the shaded portion above the cut rule. This leaves the axiom u, \bar{u} intact. Thus the eventual results of elimination for x and y are now equivalent modulo local rule commutation \simeq : the strongly normalising cut elimination is *smooth*.

Successful proof searches. The above sketch of cut elimination is overly simplistic, but serves to get the idea across: shading allows us to avoid deleting (‘tearing’) entire subproofs when weakening abuts a cut. Technically, we extend propositional sequent calculus to a proof system of *successful proof searches*, which may contain open hypotheses, for example

$$\frac{\frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t}} \text{ w} \quad \frac{u, \bar{u}}{t, u, \bar{u}} \text{ w}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t} \wedge t, u, \bar{u}} \wedge$$

1.4 Homomorphism calculus \mathbf{H}

Syntax and semantics are symbiotic; each can inform the other. The ten-token combinatorial proof depicted on page 6 is not the invariant of any sequent calculus proof. We pull the skew lifting condition from combinatorial proofs back to the syntax, completing sequent calculus to a proof system \mathbf{H} , called *Homomorphism Calculus*, from which the combinatorial proof invariant map I is surjective. Surjectivity is sometimes called *sequentialisation* [23,15] or *full completeness* [1]. The key to surjectivity is the *Contraction-Weakening Theorem* in Section 3.

1.5 Other representations

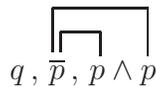
We remark upon two other abstractions of syntactic proofs, *proof nets* and *linkings*. In contrast to combinatorial proofs, these fail to provide intrinsic representations of proofs.

Girard [25] introduced a notion of classical *proof net* as an abstract representation of a propositional sequent calculus proof. His remarks in the paper indicate that he did not consider the notion very satisfactory, and so he did not pursue it further. Proof nets fail to provide intrinsic representations of sequent calculus proofs because they do not in general permit commutation of weakening and conjunction. For example, in contrast to combinatorial proofs, proof nets fail to identify the two proofs in Figure 1 (page 2), since each translates to a distinct proof net:



Properties of classical proof nets are detailed in [51], and used in [21].¹²

Classical proof nets can be further abstracted by simply retaining the linked pairs of complementary literals, constituting a *linking* on a sequent. For example, the two proof nets above (hence the two proofs in Figure 1 (page 2)) translate to the following linking:



The idea of pairing dual variable occurrences has arisen in the study of various forms of syntax, such as closed categories [30] (see also [19]), contraction-free

¹²For a natural deduction variant, see [47].

predicate calculus [43] and linear logic [23,38,39]. Such links form the basis of the matrix/connection method [16,5,3], successfully turned into a category by Lamarche and Straßburger [44] with underlying composition in **GoI**(Rel) (the *geometry of interaction* or *feedback* construction [24,42,2] applied to the category of sets and relations; see also [20]). Linkings fail to provide intrinsic representations of sequent calculus proofs because they are so degenerate that they do not even constitute a proof system.¹³ A linking on a formula is completely redundant, since verifying the formula directly as a tautology is just as fast.¹⁴

Categorical propositional logic. The naive approach to categorical propositional logic is to take a star-autonomous category (modelling the fragment without contraction and weakening [52]) and demand that tensor be product, for contraction and weakening as codiagonal $A + A \rightarrow A$ and injection $A \rightarrow A + B$. However¹⁵, this leads to degeneracy, therefore one then has to decide which conditions (coherence laws, naturality, functoriality, ...) to relax. Different authors prefer different conditions: [40,41,18,45,6,21,46]. The underlying formula rewrite systems (the canonical maps, stripped of all conditions), are sometimes referred to as deep inference systems [10,36].¹⁶

1.6 Caveats

We address only the ‘Poincaré aspect’ of Hilbert’s problem for classical proofs: equivalence. We do not consider Hilbert’s question of there being but one simplest proof.

We postpone the technical treatment of quantifiers from this paper: the propositional case is already very rich. Section 9 outlines a clear path towards quantifiers, which suggests a refinement of Herbrand’s theorem [31].

2 System C_0 (Combinatorial Proofs)

We recall the definition of a combinatorial proof [37].

A set is **coloured** if it comes equipped with an equivalence relation \sim . An **edge** on a set V is a two-element subset of V . A **graph** (V, E) is a finite set V of vertices or **tokens**, and a set E of edges on V . A **coloured graph** is a graph whose vertex set is coloured.¹⁷

¹³ Correctness is not polynomial-time checkable (or remarkably, $\text{NP} = \text{coNP}$ [11]).

¹⁴ The connection/matrix method is trivial in the purely propositional case, when it becomes merely an exhaustive application of distributivity $A \vee (B \wedge C) \rightarrow (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$, otherwise known as the conjunction rule $\frac{\vdash A, B \quad \vdash A, C}{\vdash A, B \wedge C}$ of sequent calculus (read bottom-up).

¹⁵ Apparently first noted by Joyal.

¹⁶ Deep inference with linear distributivity has been found to be technically useful in proving full completeness [1,17].

¹⁷ A graph theorist would further require that no edge is in the \sim relation.

Definition 2.1 (Coupling graph) A *coupling graph* is a coloured graph G in which every colour class is a pair¹⁸ called a *couple*, such that:

- (C1) *Path*.¹⁹ By deleting zero or more tokens (and incident edges), and forgetting colours, we cannot reduce G to a four-token path $\bullet\text{---}\bullet\text{---}\bullet\text{---}\bullet$.
- (C2) *Matching*.²⁰ By deleting zero or more couples (and incident edges), and forgetting colours, we cannot reduce G to a disjoint union



of one or more edges. ■

Fix a countable set \mathcal{L} of *literals* equipped with a *negation* $(\bar{}) : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ such that $\bar{\bar{p}} = p$ and $\bar{p} \neq p$. Literals p and \bar{p} are *dual*. A *formula* is any expression generated from literals by binary \wedge and \vee . A *leaf* is an occurrence of a literal. Leaves x, y in a formula are *conjunctively related*, denoted $x \wedge y$, if the smallest subformula containing them both is a conjunction, and *dual*, denoted $x \perp y$, if their literals are dual. For example, if x_i is the i^{th} leaf of $p \wedge (q \vee \bar{p})$ then $x_2 \wedge x_1 \wedge x_3$, $x_2 \not\wedge x_3$, $x_1 \perp x_3$ and $x_1 \not\perp x_2 \not\perp x_3$. Tokens x, y of a coupling graph are *conjunctively related*, denoted $x \wedge y$, if they form an edge, and *dual*, denoted $x \perp y$, if they form a couple.

Definition 2.2 (Coupling) A *coupling* $f : G \rightarrow A$ over a formula A is a function f from the tokens of a coupling graph G to the leaves of A , such that:

- (C3) *Wedge*: $x \wedge y$ implies $f(x) \wedge f(y)$.

- (C4) *Dual*: $x \perp y$ implies $f(x) \perp f(y)$.²¹ ■

Definition 2.3 (Combinatorial proof) A *combinatorial proof* is a non-empty coupling f which satisfies

- (C5) *Skew Lifting*: if $f(x) \wedge y$ there exists z with $x \wedge z$ and $f(z) \not\wedge y$.²² ■

¹⁸ Arbitrarily sized colour classes are possible: see footnote 8.

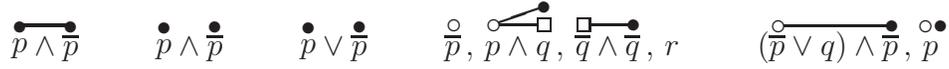
¹⁹ This condition is *cograph recognition*, which is polynomial-time [9].

²⁰ This condition is polynomial time by a simple breadth-first search on the cotree (modular decomposition tree [9]) produced during cograph recognition (see footnote 19). Viewing the cotree as a formula of multiplicative linear logic [23], with a linking given by the couples, condition (C2) (given (C1)) is equivalent to checking a mixed proof net (every switching is acyclic), which is cubic [13]. [If we strengthen this condition to require a mix-free net, *i.e.*, every switching is also connected, then the condition can be checked in linear time [29]. This strengthening preserves completeness, yielding a sub proof system of more efficiently checkable combinatorial proofs.] The author formulated the *Matching* condition after observing the labelled cograph (contractible coherence space) presentations of linear logic formulas in [33,34,32]. *Matching* turned out not to be the first restatement of mix net correctness on the underlying formula cograph: see Retoré’s *alternating chordal R&B-graphs* (directly rephrasing switching acyclicity) [49,50].

²¹ If we define a *bigraph* (V, \wedge, \perp) as a simple graph with vertex set V and two edge sets \wedge and \perp , rather than the usual one, then conditions (C3) and (C4) simply state that a coupling must be a bigraph homomorphism (edge-preserving function on vertices) from the bigraph of the coupling graph to the bigraph of the formula.

²² This condition is inspired by, and is a relaxation of, the lifting property defining a graph

The first example below fails to be a combinatorial proof since its coloured graph fails (C2) *Matching*,



the second example fails (C5) *Skew Lifting*, and the third is a combinatorial proof. Write A_1, \dots, A_n as an abbreviation for $A_1 \vee \dots \vee A_n$ with brackets implicitly associated to the right. The last two examples above are combinatorial proofs.²³ Other examples are in the Introduction. Extend negation to formulas by $\overline{A \wedge B} = \overline{B} \vee \overline{A}$ and $\overline{A \vee B} = \overline{B} \wedge \overline{A}$ (c.f. [53]). Any formula of the form $B \wedge \overline{B}$ is a **contradiction**. A **combinatorial proof of A** is a combinatorial proof over A, C_1, \dots, C_n for contradictions C_i ($n \geq 0$), each referred to as a **cut**. The main result of [37] is below.

Theorem 2.4 (Soundness and Completeness)

The following are equivalent for a formula B :

- (a) B is true.
- (b) B has a cut-free combinatorial proof.
- (c) B has a combinatorial proof.²⁴

Proposition 2.5 The correctness of a combinatorial proof $f : G \rightarrow A$ can be checked in polynomial time in the sizes of G and A .²⁵

Thus combinatorial proofs constitute a formal *propositional proof system* in the sense of Cook and Reckhow [11]. We denote this proof system by C_0 .

2.1 *Semi-combinatorial presentation*

The *Path* condition (C1) on a graph G is equivalent to G being the \wedge -graph of a formula. Thus every coupling graph can be encoded as a formula (modulo associativity and commutativity), for example



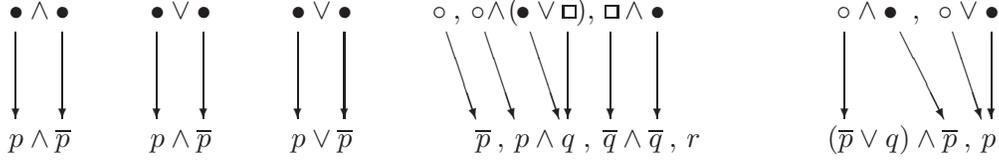
Therefore we can equivalently present the row of five couplings above (the last three of which are combinatorial proofs) as follows:

fibration (simultaneously a special case of a topological- [58] and of a categorical fibration [28,27]). On graphs, the standard lifting property of a fibration is: if $f(x) \wedge y$ there exists a unique z with $x \wedge z$ and $f(z) = y$. (C5) drops uniqueness of z and relaxes equality $f(z) = y$ to ‘skewness’ $f(z) \not\wedge y$.

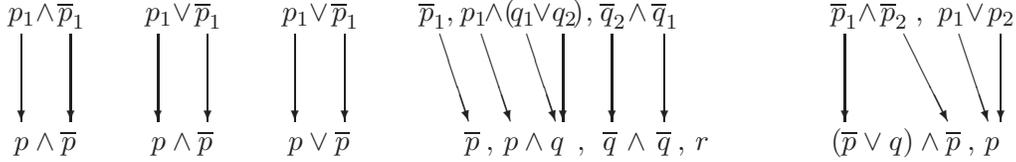
²³ The last is a combinatorial proof of Peirce’s law $((p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$.

²⁴ For brevity, [37] left (c) implicit. Its equivalence is trivial since B is true iff $B, A \wedge \overline{A}$ is. A minor generality in [37] was that the theorem was stated with boolean constants 0/1.

²⁵ Only (C2) *Matching* is not obviously polynomial. See footnote 20.



(where once again comma abbreviates outermost \vee). Substituting every colour class above p, \bar{p} (similarly q, \bar{q} , etc.) with a distinct pair p_i, \bar{p}_i (thinking of i as tags for marking occurrences), we obtain:



We refer to a combinatorial proof so encoded as a *semi-combinatorial proof*. Linear logicians may be interested in the following formalisation. (Other readers may skip this without loss of continuity.)

Definition 2.6 (Semi-combinatorial proof)

A *semi-combinatorial proof* of a formula A is a function f from the leaves of a binary MLL+mix theorem to the leaves of A which preserves:

- ($\tilde{C}3$) duality,
- ($\tilde{C}4$) conjunctive relationships, and
- ($\tilde{C}5$) maximal cliques. ■

In other words f maps dual (resp. conjunctively related) leaves to dual (resp. conjunctively related) leaves, and the image of every maximal clique is a maximal clique, where a **clique** in a formula is a set of leaves every two of which is conjunctively related. Recall that a *binary MLL+mix theorem* is a provable formula of (unit-free) multiplicative linear logic [23] with the mix rule $\frac{\Gamma \Delta}{\Gamma, \Delta}$, each of whose literals is distinct. In the row of five examples above, the last three are semi-combinatorial proofs.

The binary MLL+mix theorem captures properties (C1) and (C2), and ($\tilde{C}3$) and ($\tilde{C}4$) correspond obviously to (C3) and (C4). Via the *Contraction-Weakening Theorem* in the next section, we shall see that ($\tilde{C}5$) corresponds to (C5) *Skew Lifting* (and so in particular ($\tilde{C}5$) is polynomial-time checkable, despite first appearances). Modulo associativity, commutativity and renaming of literals in the binary MLL+mix theorem, semi-combinatorial proofs correspond to combinatorial proofs. Section 9 further explores relationships with multiplicative linear logic.

2.2 Combinatorial truth

Truth of formulas can be rephrased directly in terms of the graph of the conjunctive relation \wedge on leaves. A **clique**²⁶ (resp. **stable set**) in a formula is a set K of leaves such that $x \wedge y$ (resp. $x \not\wedge y$) for all distinct $x, y \in K$. A **clause** is a maximal stable set.

Lemma 2.7 (Truth) *The following are equivalent for a formula B :*

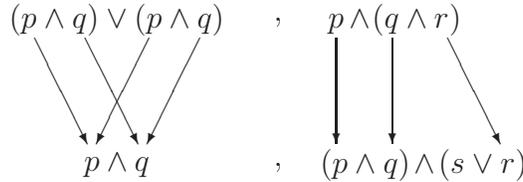
- (a) B is true (in the standard syntactic sense, a tautology).
- (b) Every clause of B contains a dual pair of leaves.
- (c) For every assignment ϕ of literals to $\{0, 1\}$ such that $\phi(\bar{p}) = \overline{\phi(p)}$, B contains a maximal clique whose leaves are all assigned to 1 by ϕ .

Both (a) \Leftrightarrow (b) and (a) \Leftrightarrow (c) are routine inductions. The former is Lemma 1 of [37] and the latter can be found as an appendix in the original submitted version [35]. Note that the former is essentially well-known, since it merely paraphrases propositional matrix/connection correctness [16,5,3] (see footnote 14).

3 The Contraction-Weakening Theorem

This section lends intuition to condition (C5) *Skew Lifting*, and simultaneously lays groundwork for our semantically-motivated closure of sequent calculus to system \mathbf{H} (*Homomorphism Calculus*) in Section 4.

A **map** $f : A \rightarrow B$ between formulas is a function from the leaves of A to the leaves of B which preserves labels and \wedge : if x is labelled p then $f(x)$ is labelled p , and $x \wedge y$ implies $f(x) \wedge f(y)$. An example is shown below. (Recall that we use comma to abbreviate outermost \vee .)



An **isomorphism** is a map whose inverse is a map. (Thus two formulas are isomorphic iff they are equal modulo associativity/commutativity of \wedge/\vee .)

Definition 3.1 (Formula Homomorphism)

A map f between formulas is a **homomorphism** if it satisfies

- (C5) **Skew Lifting**: if $f(x) \wedge y$ there exists z with $x \wedge z$ and $f(z) \not\wedge y$. ■

This is exactly condition (C5) in the definition of combinatorial proof. The example above is a homomorphism. We distinguish two canonical formula

²⁶ We repeat the definition for readers who may have skipped the formal definition of semi-combinatorial proof above.

homomorphisms:²⁷

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{pure contraction} \quad c : A \vee A &\longrightarrow A \\ \textit{pure weakening} \quad w : A &\longrightarrow A \vee B \end{aligned}$$

The underlying leaf function in each case is the evident one.²⁸ A **contraction-weakening** or **cw-map** is any map generated from pure contraction, pure weakening and isomorphisms by composition, \wedge and \vee , where given $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $f' : A' \rightarrow B'$ and $\diamond \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$ we define $f \diamond f' : A \diamond A' \rightarrow B \diamond B'$ as the (disjoint) union of f and f' . Define **contraction/c-map** (resp. **weakening/w-map**) analogously (generated from pure contraction (resp. weakening) and isomorphisms).

Theorem 3.2 (Contraction-Weakening)

The following are equivalent for a map f between formulas.

- (1) f is a contraction-weakening.
- (2) f is a homomorphism.
- (3) f preserves maximal cliques.

Recall that a **clique** in a formula is a set K of leaves such that $x \wedge y$ for all distinct $x, y \in K$, and f **preserves** a maximal clique if its image is a maximal clique.

Proof sketch. (1) \Rightarrow (3). It is routine to verify that pure contraction c and pure weakening w preserve maximal cliques. Preservation of maximal cliques is respected by composition (basic graph theory).

(3) \Rightarrow (2). A graph-theory exercise.

(2) \Rightarrow (1). This is the delicate part of the theorem. The argument builds on part of the proof of the Combinatorial Soundness Theorem [37, §5], which iteratively decomposes a skew fibration (a graph homomorphism satisfying *Skew Lifting*) using *shallowness* (the property that the inverse of every connected component is connected) and surjectivity, via Lemmas 5 and 6 of [37]. The reverse of the conversion to shallowness can be construed as a post-composition by a contraction. The reverse of the conversion to a surjection corresponds to post-composition with a full injective homomorphism (where f is **full** if $f(x) \wedge f(y)$ implies $x \wedge y$), a weakening by the Weakening Lemma below. \square

One way to interpret the theorem is that checking a formula map preserves maximal cliques, seemingly exponentially hard, is in fact polynomial.²⁹

²⁷ Formulas and maps form a category with binary sum/coproduct \vee and symmetric associative bifunctor \wedge . Pure contraction and weakening are familiar canonical maps, the counit and (a component of) the unit of the coproduct adjunction, respectively.

²⁸ If A has n literals and i denotes the i^{th} leaf of a formula, $c(i) = i \pmod n$ and $w(i) = i$.

²⁹ Aside for graph theorists. The theorem implies that a graph homomorphism between cographs preserves maximal cliques *iff* it satisfies *Skew Lifting*. This does not hold for graphs in general. Let C_5^+ denote the 5-cycle C_5 with an extra edge. Inclusion $C_4 \rightarrow C_5^+$

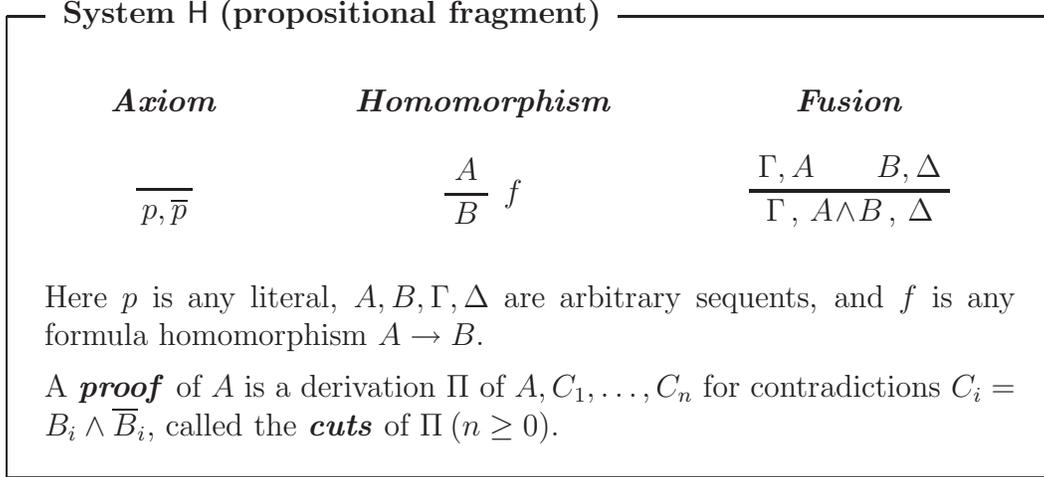


Fig. 3. *Homomorphism Calculus* (propositional fragment).

Lemma 3.3 (Weakening)

A map is a weakening iff it is a full injective homomorphism.

Proof sketch. Induction, using Lemma 2 of [37] in the inductive step. □

Corollary 3.4 (Homomorphism Soundness)

If A is true and $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a formula homomorphism, then B is true.

Corollary 3.5 (Homomorphism Compositionality)

*The composite of two formula homomorphisms is a formula homomorphism.*³⁰

4 System H (Homomorphism Calculus)

The Introduction defined a translation from a sequent calculus proof to a coupling (*e.g.* Figure 2). The first combinatorial proof depicted in the Introduction is not the translation of any sequent calculus proof. This motivates the following *closure* of sequent calculus, to a system H, from which there is a surjection onto combinatorial proofs. Based on the previous section, H replaces the standard structural rules of sequent calculus with homomorphisms.

Henceforth identify formulas modulo associativity (*i.e.*, $A \diamond (B \diamond C) = A \diamond B \diamond C = (A \diamond B) \diamond C$ for $\diamond \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$).³¹ A **sequent** is any formula or the empty string, denoted \sqcup . Define $A \diamond \sqcup = A = \sqcup \diamond A$ for $\diamond \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$ and any sequent A .

We continue to write outermost \vee as comma, for example $p, q \wedge r, \bar{r}$ rather than $p \vee (q \wedge r) \vee \bar{r}$. Derivations in system H are generated from the rules in Figure 3. An instance $\frac{\Gamma, A \quad B, \Delta}{\Gamma, A \wedge B, \Delta}$ of fusion is a **conjunction** if A and B are non-

satisfies *Skew Lifting* but fails to preserve maximal cliques.

³⁰ Formulas and homomorphisms form a subcategory of the category in footnote 27.

³¹ Formula homomorphisms are well-defined modulo associativity: the leaves of $A \diamond (B \diamond C)$ correspond left-to-right with those of $(A \diamond B) \diamond C$, preserving \wedge .

empty, otherwise a *mix*³². A *contradiction* is any formula of the form $B \wedge \overline{B}$. A *proof* of a sequent A is a derivation Π of A, C_1, \dots, C_n for contradictions C_i , called the *cuts* of Π . Henceforth we shall distinguish a designated cut $B \wedge \overline{B}$ from an arbitrary conjunction by marking the conjunction symbol thus: $B \mathbf{\wedge} \overline{B}$. System \mathbf{H} is sound by Corollary 3.4 and complete since every structural rule of standard sequent calculus is a homomorphism.

The label f on an instance $\frac{A}{B}f$ of the homomorphism rule can be construed either as an actual marking across the rule with edges between leaves of A and B , as in the example depicted near the beginning of Section 3, or as an integer-list encoding output, *e.g.* 1212346 for the example just mentioned (the leaf positions of its targets, from left to right).³³ When displaying a proof, we omit homomorphism labels whenever the underlying leaf function is clear, for example, standard sequent calculus contraction, weakening and twist (exchange) rules:

$$\frac{\Gamma, A, A, \Delta}{\Gamma, A, \Delta} \mathbf{c} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, A, \Delta}{\Gamma, A, B, \Delta} \mathbf{w} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, A, B, \Delta}{\Gamma, B, A, \Delta} \mathbf{t}$$

We have added \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{w} or \mathbf{t} for clarity, and similarly, we add $\mathbf{\wedge}$ to a conjunction instance of a fusion rule. With these abbreviations, the underlying proof of Figure 2 is a proof in system \mathbf{H} .³⁴

Define *Homomorphism Sequent Calculus*, system \mathbf{H}_s , as the subsystem of \mathbf{H} in which the only homomorphism rules are the three above. The proof in Figure 2 is within \mathbf{H}_s .³⁴ Appending that proof with the evident formula homomorphism from $\overline{p} \wedge \overline{p}, \overline{q}, ((q \vee q) \wedge p) \wedge q, \overline{q}$ to $\overline{p} \wedge \overline{p}, \overline{q}, (q \vee q) \wedge ((p \wedge q) \vee r)$ yields a proof in \mathbf{H} translating to the ten-token combinatorial proof on page 6 of the Introduction, which is not the translation of any sequent calculus proof.

5 System C (Lax combinatorial proofs)

The translation of a sequent calculus proof to a coupling defined in the Introduction does not always yield a combinatorial proof. For example:

$$\frac{\frac{\overline{p}, \overline{p}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}, q} \mathbf{w} \quad \frac{\overline{r}, \overline{r}}{\overline{r}, \overline{r}} \mathbf{\wedge}}{\overline{p}, \overline{p}, q \wedge \overline{r}, \overline{r}} \mathbf{\wedge}$$

The *Skew Lifting* condition (C5) fails at the white token \overline{r} .

³² Following Gentzen's terminology [22] in the Hauptsatz proof.

³³ If one adheres to a strict definition of *syntax* as linear-time checkable, then system \mathbf{H} is not directly a syntax. However, if we add a transcript of a verification of the correctness of a homomorphism $f : A \rightarrow B$ to its rule label (a particular choice of skew lifting z for every leaf x in A and y in B with $f(x) \mathbf{\wedge} y$, *etc.*), we obtain linear time variant. A simple time/space tradeoff.

³⁴ The figure further abbreviates consecutive structural rules \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{w} or \mathbf{t} into a single rule.

Definition 5.1 (Hub / Garbage collection) The *hub* $|f|$ of a coupling f is the coupling which results from exhaustively applying the following *garbage collection* operation: delete any couple containing a token x at which condition (C5) *Skew Lifting* fails (for some leaf y , $x \wedge z$ implies $f(z) \wedge y$). ■

For example, $p \wedge q, \bar{q} \wedge r, \overset{\bullet}{s}, \overset{\bullet}{\bar{s}}$ is the hub of $p \wedge \overset{\circ}{q}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{q}} \wedge r, \overset{\bullet}{s}, \overset{\bullet}{\bar{s}}$.

Lemma 5.2 *The hub $|f|$ of a coupling f is a well-defined coupling.*

Proof. Garbage collection is locally confluent since deleting a couple can only break (C5) at other tokens, and is terminating since it deletes tokens. Thus $|f|$ is unique. It is a coupling since deleting a couple preserves (C1)–(C4). □

Note that (C5) *Skew Lifting* for f is equivalent to $f = |f|$. Thus, if non-empty, the hub $|f|$ of a coupling f is always a combinatorial proof.

Definition 5.3 (Lax combinatorial proof) A coupling is a *lax combinatorial proof* if its hub is non-empty (hence a combinatorial proof). ■

Each of $\overset{\bullet}{p}, \overset{\bullet}{\bar{p}}, q \wedge \overset{\circ}{r}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{r}}$ and $p \wedge \overset{\circ}{q}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{q}} \wedge r, \overset{\bullet}{s}, \overset{\bullet}{\bar{s}}$ is a lax combinatorial proof. Write C for the propositional proof system³⁵ of lax combinatorial proofs.

5.1 Prime factors and mix

This subsection contains material on a semantic analysis of the mix rule $\frac{\Gamma, \Delta}{\Gamma, \Delta}$ which can be omitted at first reading. The remainder of the paper does not depend on it.

A coupling f *contains* g , or g is a *subcoupling* of f , denoted $g \subseteq f$, if g results from deleting (zero or more) couples from f . If g is a combinatorial proof, it is a *factor* of f , and we write $g \triangleleft f$.

Lemma 5.4 *The hub $|f|$ of a coupling f is the union of its factors, i.e., of the combinatorial proofs it contains:*

$$|f| = \bigcup \{ g : g \triangleleft f \}$$

Proof. Union preserves (C5) *Skew Lifting*, so a union of combinatorial proofs contained in f is a combinatorial proof (i.e., $g \triangleleft f \triangleright g'$ implies $g \cup g' \triangleleft f$). The hub $|f| \triangleleft f$, if non-empty, is by construction the largest factor of f (since garbage collection is locally confluent). □

Write f^\triangleleft for the poset of factors of f (ordered under \triangleleft), its *factorisation poset*. For example, the lax combinatorial proof $f =$

$$\overset{\circ}{p}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{p}}, q \wedge \overset{\bullet}{r}, \overset{\bullet}{\bar{r}}, s \wedge t, \overset{\square}{u}, \overset{\square}{\bar{u}}$$

has the following factorisation poset f^\triangleleft , with three factors:

³⁵ Correctness is polynomial-time since garbage collection is (obviously) polynomial time.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \circ & \circ & \square \quad \square \\
 p, \bar{p}, q \wedge r, \bar{r}, s \wedge t, u, \bar{u} & & \\
 \triangle & & \triangle \\
 \circ & \circ & \square \quad \square \\
 p, \bar{p}, q \wedge r, \bar{r}, s \wedge t, u, \bar{u} & & p, \bar{p}, q \wedge r, \bar{r}, s \wedge t, u, \bar{u}
 \end{array}$$

A **prime factor** (or **prime**) of a coupling f is a \triangleleft -minimal factor (hence a \subseteq -minimal sub combinatorial proof of f). The example f above has two prime factors. Prime factors correspond syntactically to different results of eliminating mix from a proof. Write $\text{Primes}(f)$ for the set of primes of f . The following is immediate from the previous lemma.

Lemma 5.5 (Prime Factorisation) *The hub $|f|$ of a coupling f is the union of its primes:*

$$|f| = \bigcup \text{Primes}(f)$$

6 Strongly normalising cut elimination (combinatorial)

Reducing a non-literal cut. Let f be a coupling over $A, B \wedge C$. Define the **projection** f^1 over A, B as the result of deleting every couple which has a token over C . For example, $\overset{\bullet}{p}, \overset{\circ}{q}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{q}} \wedge \overset{\bullet}{\bar{p}}$ projects to $p, \overset{\circ}{q}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{q}}$.

Lemma 6.1 *A lax combinatorial proof projects to a lax combinatorial proof.*

Proof sketch. A structural induction on hubs, using the fusion decomposition in the Combinatorial Soundness proof in [37]. \square

The projection of a combinatorial proof may be lax, e.g. $\overset{\square}{p}, \overset{\square}{\bar{p}} \wedge \overset{\bullet}{q}, \overset{\circ}{r}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{r}} \wedge \overset{\bullet}{\bar{q}}$ projects to $\overset{\square}{p}, \overset{\square}{\bar{p}} \wedge q, \overset{\circ}{r}, \overset{\circ}{\bar{r}}$. For f over $A, B \wedge C$ define the projection f^2 over A, C analogously.

Suppose f is a lax combinatorial proof over $A, (\overline{B \vee C}) \wedge (C \wedge B)$. Define the **reduction** of the cut $(\overline{B \vee C}) \wedge (C \wedge B)$ as the lax combinatorial proof over $A, \overline{B} \wedge B, \overline{C} \wedge C$ obtained from the projections f^1, f^{21} and f^{22} by applying the evident (cut-)conjunction operations, i.e.,

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{f^1}{A, \overline{B}, \overline{C}} \quad \frac{f^{21}}{A, C}}{A, B, \overline{C} \wedge C} \wedge \quad \frac{f^{22}}{A, B}}{A, \overline{B} \wedge B, \overline{C} \wedge C} \wedge$$

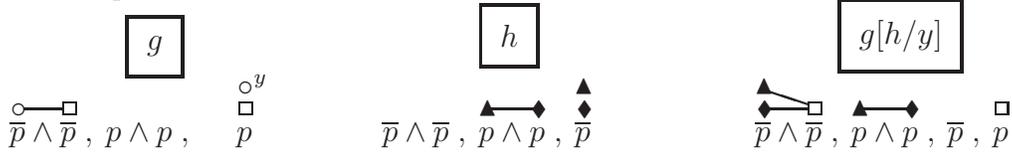
Define the reduction of an arbitrary cut (not necessarily the final formula, perhaps twisted as $(C \wedge B) \wedge (\overline{B \vee C})$) analogously.

Reducing a literal cut. Suppose that g is a coupling over A, p with y a token over p , and that h is a coupling over A, \bar{p} . The **insertion** $g[h/y]$ is the coupling over A, \bar{p}, p given by:

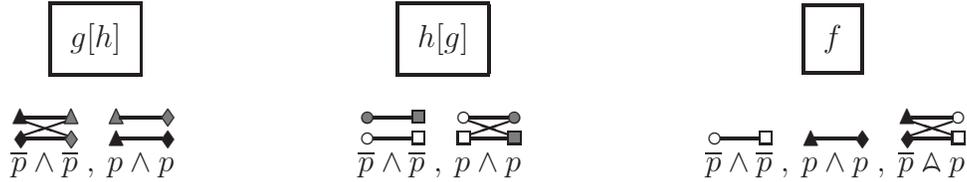
- (1) forming the union $g \cup h$ over A, p, \bar{p} ;

- (2) deleting the couple containing y , say $\{y, \bar{y}\}$;
- (3) resetting every token x over \bar{p} to be indistinguishable from \bar{y} (prior to its deletion): set $g[h/y](x) = g(\bar{y})$ and set $x \lambda z$ in $g[h/y]$ iff $\bar{y} \lambda z$ in g .

For example:



Given couplings g on A, p and h on A, \bar{p} define $g[h]$ as $g[h/y_1][h/y_2] \cdots [h/y_n]$ for $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ the set of all tokens of g over p , followed by deleting p and \bar{p} . For example, with g and h as above:



Given a lax combinatorial proof f over $A, \bar{p} \Delta p$, define the reduction of the literal cut $\bar{p} \Delta p$ as either $f^1[f^2]$ or $f^2[f^1]$. For example, if f is as shown above-right, then $f^1 = h$ and $f^2 = g$ as (previously) above, so $f^1[f^2] = h[g]$ as above-centre and $f^2[f^1] = g[h]$ as above-left. Define the reduction of a general literal cut (*i.e.*, not necessarily at the end of a sequent) analogously.

Lemma 6.2 *Either result of reducing a literal cut in a lax combinatorial proof is a lax combinatorial proof.*

Proof sketch. Each insertion step (see definition of $g[h/y]$ above) yields a lax combinatorial proof: every token x over \bar{p} is set to be indistinguishable from y , *i.e.*, has the same λ -neighbourhood, so there can be at most one such x in a any failure of (C2) *Matching* (a disjoint union of edges). \square

Theorem 6.3 (Lax Strong Normalisation)

Cut elimination on lax combinatorial proofs is strongly normalising.

Proof. Reduction decreases the number of \wedge and non-outermost \vee symbols. \square

Strong normalisation applies to combinatorial proofs via garbage collection. Garbage collection steps (deleting a couple at which *Skew Lifting* fails) can be interleaved arbitrarily with cut reduction steps, or the hub $f \mapsto |f|$ can be taken at the end.

Theorem 6.4 (Strong Normalisation)

Cut elimination on combinatorial proofs is strongly normalising.

7 Strongly normalising cut elimination (syntactic)

Naive lifting. The strongly normalising cut elimination above lifts in the obvious way back to both the sequent calculus H_s and the full system H . Given a proof Π of $A, B \wedge C$ we have the obvious projection proofs Π^1 of A, B and Π^2 of A, C analogous to projection of lax combinatorial proofs, a standard Inversion Lemma by a simple induction (see *e.g.* [56, Prop. 3.4.4(iv)]). Hence one obtains an analogous reduction of a non-literal cut. (Similar projection is used in [4].)

Likewise, there is the obvious analogue of insertion $g[h/y]$, as the insertion of one proof into an axiom of another: given a proof Π of A, \bar{p} , with y some occurrence of \bar{p} in an axiom $\overline{p, \bar{p}}$ of Π which traces down to the concluding \bar{p} , and given a proof Θ of A, p , define the insertion $\Pi[\Theta/y]$ by substituting Θ for the axiom $\overline{p, \bar{p}}$, yielding a proof of A, \bar{p}, p by propagating the inserted copy of A down to conclude A, A, \bar{p}, p , then contracting for A, \bar{p}, p . Iterating this across all axiom-occurrences y_1, \dots, y_n of \bar{p} which descend to the concluding \bar{p} , one defines $\Pi[\Theta]$ exactly analogous to the definition of $g[h]$ by iterating across the tokens y_1, \dots, y_n . Thus, for any proof Π of $A, \bar{p} \wedge p$ one has two reductions $\Pi^1[\Pi^2]$ and $\Pi^2[\Pi^1]$ of the cut to a proof of A . (Similar iterated insertion is standard in linear logic [23]. For classical translations of same, see [14,7].)

This yields a simple, strongly normalising cut elimination for the sequent calculus H_s , and for H . In contrast, standard syntactic projection by the Inversion Lemma is extremely crude, as the next example will show.

The two proofs below differ only in the order of the two cut-conjunctions.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{p, \bar{p}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \text{ w}}{\overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}}} \text{ w} \quad \frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{r, \bar{r}}}{r, \bar{r}, \bar{t}} \text{ w} \quad \frac{\overline{u, \bar{u}}}{t, u, \bar{u}} \text{ w}}{\overline{r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \wedge t, u, \bar{u}}} \text{ w}}{\overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \wedge t, u, \bar{u}}} \text{ w} \quad \wedge}{\overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \wedge t, u, \bar{u}}} \text{ w} \quad \wedge} \quad \simeq \quad \frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{p, \bar{p}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \text{ w}}{\overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}}} \text{ w} \quad \frac{\frac{\overline{r, \bar{r}}}{r, \bar{r}, \bar{t}} \text{ w}}{\overline{r, \bar{r}, \bar{t}}} \text{ w}}{\overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t}}} \text{ w} \quad \wedge \quad \frac{\overline{u, \bar{u}}}{t, u, \bar{u}} \text{ w}}{\overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \wedge t, u, \bar{u}}} \text{ w} \quad \wedge} \quad \wedge$$

If we project the cut $\bar{r} \wedge r$ to \bar{r} in the left proof in the standard syntactic manner, we delete the entire right branch of the proof, including the axiom $\overline{u, \bar{u}}$; when we project to \bar{r} in the right proof, we retain $\overline{u, \bar{u}}$. Thus the naive cut elimination procedure described above (and a host of other standard procedures, for that matter) is not invariant under this very natural rule commutation, permuting cut rules over one another. To faithfully lift the strongly normalising cut elimination from lax combinatorial proofs, where this problem does not occur, we shall lift a syntactic counterpart of garbage collection which is less crude than deleting the entire branch when we project to \bar{r} .

7.1 Syntactic garbage collection

A **shading** of a sequent is a subset of its leaves, whose elements are said to be **weak**. A subformula is weak iff every one of its leaves is weak. A shading is **closed** if:

(\Leftarrow) for every subformula $A \wedge B$, the subformula A is weak iff B is weak.

For example, here are the four closed shadings of $p \wedge (q \vee (r \wedge s))$:

$$p \wedge (q \vee (r \wedge s)) \quad p \wedge (q \vee \overline{(r \wedge s)}) \quad p \wedge (\overline{q} \vee (r \wedge s)) \quad \overline{p \wedge (q \vee (r \wedge s))}$$

For ease of comprehension, we show not only the shading on leaves, but the implied shading on subformulas.

A **shading** of a proof is a shading of each of its sequents. The **successor** of a leaf in the premise of a rule is the corresponding leaf in the conclusion of the rule; the converse relation is **predecessor**. A shading is **closed** if it is closed on each sequent and:

(\leftrightarrow) A leaf in an axiom is weak iff the adjacent dual leaf is weak.

(\Downarrow) Any other leaf is weak iff every one of its predecessors is weak.

Closed shadings are shown below on the two proofs discussed above:

$$\begin{array}{c} \overline{p, \bar{p}} \quad \overline{r, \bar{r}} \quad \overline{u, \bar{u}} \\ \overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \quad \overline{r, \bar{r}, \bar{t}} \quad \overline{t, u, \bar{u}} \\ \hline p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u} \end{array} \simeq \begin{array}{c} \overline{p, \bar{p}} \quad \overline{r, \bar{r}} \quad \overline{u, \bar{u}} \\ \overline{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \quad \overline{r, \bar{r}, \bar{t}} \quad \overline{t, u, \bar{u}} \\ \hline p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u} \end{array}$$

The **closure** of a shading is the least closed shading which contains it, *i.e.*, the result of propagating weakness by (\Leftarrow) , (\leftrightarrow) and (\Downarrow) .³⁶

Every proof has a canonical closed shading, its **umbra**: the closure of the empty shading. Thus we can speak of a **weak** leaf in a proof, namely, one which is in the umbra. The examples above are umbrae. To **delete** a leaf is to substitute the empty sequent for it.³⁷

Definition 7.1 (Syntactic hub) The **raw hub** of a proof is the result of deleting every weak leaf.³⁸ The **hub** is the raw hub followed (if necessary) by final weakening to maintain the original conclusion. ■

For example, the proofs above have the same raw hub (below-left) and hub (below-right):

$$\begin{array}{c} \overline{p, \bar{p}} \quad \overline{u, \bar{u}} \\ \hline p, \bar{p}, u, \bar{u} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \overline{p, \bar{p}} \quad \overline{u, \bar{u}} \\ \hline p, \bar{p}, u, \bar{u} \\ \hline p, \bar{p}, \bar{r} \wedge r, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u} \text{ }^w \end{array}$$

³⁶ Thus we are interpreting (\Leftarrow) , (\leftrightarrow) and (\Downarrow) as rewrites. As with its progenitor, garbage collection on couplings, this rewrite system is clearly terminating and locally confluent, so closure is well-defined and constructible in polynomial time.

³⁷ Recall that $A \diamond \perp = A = \perp \diamond A$ for $\diamond \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$.

³⁸ Upon deletion, some conjunction rules may become mix rules. Without loss of generality, we may collapse any identity homomorphisms that result from deletion. The raw hub is well-defined by induction.

We refer to this process of deleting the weak leaves as *garbage collection*, and write $|\Pi|$ for the hub of a proof Π . The sense in which this is a genuine lifting of garbage collection on lax combinatorial proofs is formalised below. Write Π^\bullet for the translation of Π to a lax combinatorial proof.

Proposition 7.2 (Garbage commutation)

Garbage collection commutes with translation: $|\Pi^\bullet| = |\Pi|^\bullet$.

Proof sketch. Structural induction. □

7.2 Smooth projection

Define a *search* as any proof in the system extending \mathbf{H} with the rule

$$\textit{Assumption} \quad \frac{}{p}$$

for any literal p . Two examples are below, with one assumption each (an occurrence of \bar{r} in each case). By convention, when drawing a search, we omit the horizontal rules from assumptions.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{p, \bar{p}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \quad \frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t}} \quad \frac{\overline{u, \bar{u}}}{t, u, \bar{u}}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}} \quad \simeq \quad \frac{\frac{\overline{p, \bar{p}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \quad \frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t}} \quad \frac{\overline{u, \bar{u}}}{t, u, \bar{u}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}}$$

Generalise shadings to searches in the obvious way, and generalise closure (hence umbrae) by demanding that every assumption be weak. A search is *successful* if its conclusion is not weak (*i.e.*, at least one leaf in the conclusion is not shaded in the umbra). For example, here are the umbrae of the above searches, witnessing their success:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{p, \bar{p}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \quad \frac{\frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t}} \quad \frac{\overline{u, \bar{u}}}{t, u, \bar{u}}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}} \quad \simeq \quad \frac{\frac{\overline{p, \bar{p}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}} \quad \frac{\frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t}} \quad \frac{\overline{u, \bar{u}}}{t, u, \bar{u}}}{\bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}}}{p, \bar{p}, \bar{r}, \bar{r}, \bar{t} \Delta t, u, \bar{u}}$$

Write \mathbf{H}^+ for the proof system of successful searches, an extension of \mathbf{H} .

Suppose Π is a search with conclusion $A, B \wedge C$. Its *smooth projection* Π^1 is the search with conclusion A, B obtained by deleting every leaf of C , and every hereditary predecessor. Define analogously the projection Π^2 with conclusion A, C , and more generally, projection with respect to a conjunction anywhere in the conclusion. The two searches depicted above are projections of the first two proofs displayed in Section 7. Unlike standard syntactic projection, this projection preserves the axiom $\overline{u, \bar{u}}$ in both cases, respecting equivalence by local rule commutation \simeq . This new projection is very much in the spirit of smooth deformation, whereas standard projection is non-local, ‘tearing’

the proof by deleting entire subproofs at once. Smooth projection is a local propagation of weak leaves.

The following results are all proved by routine induction.

Lemma 7.3 *The projection of a successful search is successful.*

Write Π^\bullet for the coupling translated from a search Π .

Proposition 7.4

If a search Π is successful, its coupling Π^\bullet is a lax combinatorial proof.

Proposition 7.5 (Projection commutation)

Projection commutes with translation: $\Pi^{\bullet i} = \Pi^{i\bullet}$.

Define on H^+ strongly normalising cut elimination by projection, as before, but using smooth projection. By garbage collecting assumptions (deleting the least information at each step³⁹), each successful search in H^+ yields a (largest possible) H proof. Interleaving such garbage collection steps with cut reduction by smooth projection on H^+ , one obtains a simple, strongly normalising cut elimination on Homomorphism calculus H , and on the sequent calculus H_s . This elimination respects local rule commutations as much as possible, discarding the minimum information at every step (in particular, not deleting entire subproofs).

8 Surjectivity from system H

Recall that Π^\bullet denotes the lax combinatorial proof obtained from a system H proof Π . Its hub $|\Pi^\bullet|$ by garbage collection is a combinatorial proof.

Theorem 8.1 (H Surjectivity) *Every combinatorial proof is the translation $|\Pi^\bullet|$ of some proof Π of system H .*

Proof sketch. Let $f : G \rightarrow A$ be a coupling. Its graph G is a cograph, and therefore has a cotree T [12,9] whose leaves are the tokens of G . The cotree T becomes a formula upon labelling each leaf x of T with the literal of $f(x)$. Hence f is a formula homomorphism $f : T \rightarrow A$, and an instance of a homomorphism rule $\frac{T}{A}f$ in H . By Lemma 8 of [37], G is constructible from couples by fusion. This construction, followed by $\frac{T}{A}f$, is a proof Π which translates to f . \square

9 Remarks on linear logic

Classical logic = skew fibred MLL. The proof Π constructed in the Surjectivity Theorem is of the following form: first a proof in mixed multiplicative linear logic (the fragment of H_s with twist as the only structural rule) given by

³⁹Including keeping weakening rules whenever possible, unlike our earlier form of garbage collection for the raw hub.

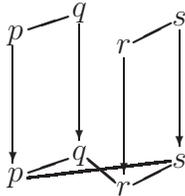
Lemma 8 of [37], then a homomorphism, *i.e.*, a contraction-weakening. This homomorphism, satisfying (C5) *Skew Lifting*, is a skew fibration. Thus we have the slogan *Classical logic = skew fibred MLL*, where MLL stands for multiplicative linear logic [23].

H proofs in normal form. Via the Surjectivity Theorem, combinatorial proofs indicate cut-free normal forms for system *H* proofs, with blocks of rules (interspersed with isomorphisms) ordered sequentially as in the table below-left.

MLL+mix proof net	{	couples	Axioms	Axioms	
		{	coupling graph		Multiplicative \wedge
	Mix				$\forall \exists$
	Weakening				Mix
	{	formula homomorphism	Contraction		Weakening
			Contraction		

Adding quantifier rules to *H* in the style of Herbrand’s thesis [31], and adding quantifiers to coupling graphs (using standard multiplicative quantifier jumps [26]), suggests one should be able to obtain the picture as above-right, a refinement Herbrand’s theorem at a syntactic level, and, with an extended notion of formula homomorphism, a combinatorial form of the same. Related comments and observations can be found in [46].

Injection, surjection, bijection. It seems enticing to try and characterise contraction and weakening homomorphisms in terms of surjectivity and injectivity, respectively. However, although every weakening is injective, the converse fails: the Weakening Lemma required fullness. Thus it is easy to find an injective homomorphism which is not a weakening: simply consider any clique-preserving graph-homomorphism which introduces an edge, for instance



Interpreting edges as \wedge , this is a formula homomorphism $(p \wedge q) \vee (r \wedge s) \rightarrow (p \vee r) \wedge (q \vee s)$, which we shall denote **b** (for **b**ijection). As one might expect, implications such as **b** arise commonly in the analysis of contraction-free logic (also known as direct logic [43] or affine multiplicative linear logic [23]), *e.g.* [8]. Just as injectivity fails to characterise weakening, surjectivity fails to characterise contraction: witness again **b**.⁴⁰

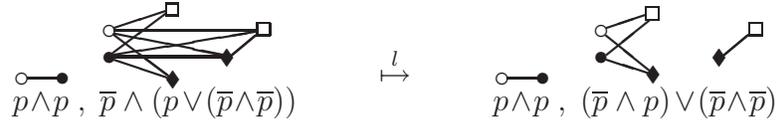
By considering various compositional subclasses of homomorphisms, one

⁴⁰ Demanding fullness fails, since even pure contraction is not full, *e.g.*, $(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$. Edge-surjectivity fails also: $(p \wedge q) \vee (r \wedge s) \vee (p \wedge s) \vee (q \wedge r) \rightarrow (p \vee r) \wedge (q \vee s)$.

obtains a lattice of propositional sublogics of system \mathbf{H} weaker than classical.

- \mathbf{Flnj} , full injections, corresponds to affine multiplicative linear logic.
- \mathbf{Iso} , isomorphisms (= full bijections), yields multiplicative linear logic.
- \mathbf{Bij} , bijections, extends multiplicative linear logic with the example above.
- Question: Are \mathbf{Surj} (surjections) or \mathbf{FSurj} (full surjections) meaningful?

Linear distributivity. It is sometimes technically convenient to replace the binary multiplicative conjunction rule with a linear distributivity rewrite $l : A \wedge (B \vee C) \rightarrow (A \wedge B) \vee C$ (e.g. [1,17]).⁴¹ Whereas the binary conjunction rule constitutes a simple operation on combinatorial proofs, it is not so obvious whether or not linear distributivity l is well-defined. Define l on a combinatorial proof over a formula A by applying l to A , and deleting any edges in the graph over the new \vee which results. For example:



It appears that some real work must be done to show that the deletion of such edges will not break condition (C2) Matching. Thus combinatorial proof invariants seem to suggest that the binary conjunction rule is superior to linear distributivity, from the semantic (intrinsic representation) point of view.

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⁴¹ Such a categorical-logic style approach, stripped of coherence laws *etc.*, is sometimes called *deep inference* [10,36].

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