ISOMORPHISMS IN A CATEGORY OF PROOFS

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I aim to show how a category of propositional formulas and *classical* proofs can give rise to finely grained hyperintensional notions of sameness of content. One notion is *very* finely grained (distinguishing p and $p \land p$), others less so. I show that one notion amounts to equivalence in Richard Angell's logic of analytic containment [1].

1 THE CATEGORY OF CLASSICAL PROOFS

Four different derivations, and two proofs.

$$\frac{\frac{p \succ p}{p \land q \succ p} \land^{L}}{p \land q \succ p \lor q} \land^{R} \approx \frac{\frac{p \land q}{p}}{p \lor q} \approx \frac{\frac{p \succ p}{p \succ p \lor q} \lor^{R}}{\frac{p \succ p \lor q}{p \land q \succ p \lor q} \land^{L}}$$

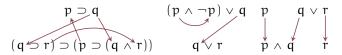
$$\frac{\frac{q \succ q}{p \land q \succ q} \land^{L}}{p \land q \succ p \lor q} \land^{R} \approx \frac{\frac{p \land q}{q}}{\frac{q}{p \lor q}} \approx \frac{\frac{q \succ q}{q \succ p \lor q} \lor^{R}}{\frac{q \succ p \lor q}{p \land q \succ p \lor q} \land^{L}}$$

MOTIVATING IDEA: Proof terms are an invariant for derivations under rule permutation. δ_1 and δ_2 have the same term iff some permutation sends δ_1 to δ_2 .

A proof term for $\Sigma \succ \Delta$ encodes the flow of information in a proof of $\Sigma \succ \Delta$. They can be represented as directed graphs on sequents [2, 10].

$$\begin{array}{c} & \stackrel{\wedge}{\times} \stackrel{\wedge}{\wedge} \stackrel{\vee}{y} \stackrel{\wedge}{\times} \stackrel{\wedge}{\times} \stackrel{\vee}{y} \stackrel{\vee}{\wedge} \stackrel{\wedge}{\times} \stackrel{\wedge}{\vee} \stackrel{\vee}{y} \stackrel{\wedge}{\times} \stackrel{\wedge}{\times} \stackrel{\vee}{\wedge} \stackrel{\vee}{y} \\ & \times : p \wedge (q \vee r) \succ y : (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & p \wedge (q \vee r) \\ & p \wedge (q \vee r) \\ & p \wedge (q \vee r) \Rightarrow p \wedge (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & p \wedge (q \vee r) \succ (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & p \wedge (q \vee r) \succ (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \succ (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge (q \vee r) \wedge (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \\ & \stackrel{\wedge}{p} \wedge ($$

More examples:



Links wholly internal to a premise or a conclusion are called cups () and caps ().

FACTS: Not every directed graph on occurrences of atoms in a sequent is a proof term. \P They typecheck. [An occurrence of p is linked only with an occurrence of p.] \P They respect polarities. [Positive occurrences of atoms in premises and negative occurrences of atoms in conclusions are inputs. Negative occurrences of atoms in premises and positive occurrences of atoms in conclusions are outputs.] \P They must satisfy an "enough connections" condition, amounting to a non-emptiness under every switching. [e.g. the obvious linking between premise p \vee q and conclusion p \wedge q is not connected enough to be a proof term.]

Cut is chaining of proof terms, composition of graphs.

$$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$

$$p \wedge (q \vee r)$$

$$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$

$$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$

Cut elimination is *confluent* and *terminating*. [So it can be understood as a kind of *evaluation*.] ¶ Cut elimination for proof terms is *local*. [So it is easily made parallel.]

 ${\mathfrak C}$ is the Category of Classical Proofs. OBJECTS: Formulas — A, B, etc. ARROWS: Cut-Free Proof Terms — $\pi:A \rightarrow B$. Composition: Composition of derivations with the elimination of Cut — If $\pi:A \rightarrow B$ and $\tau:B \rightarrow C$ then $\tau \circ \pi:A \rightarrow C$. IDENTITY: Canonical identity proofs — ${\rm Id}(A):A \rightarrow A$.

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The category $\mathfrak C$ is *symmetric monoidal* and *star autonomous*, but not *Cartesian*, with structural *monoids* and *comonoids*, and is enriched in *SLat* (the category of semilattices) [9]. Being enriched in *SLat* means that proofs terms come ordered by \subseteq , and compose under \cup , and these interact sensibly with composition.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \pi \subseteq \pi' & \Rightarrow & \pi \circ \tau \subseteq \pi' \circ \tau \\ \tau \subseteq \tau' & \Rightarrow & \pi \circ \tau \subseteq \pi \circ \tau' \\ \pi \circ (\tau \cup \tau') & = & (\pi \circ \tau) \cup (\pi \circ \tau') \\ (\pi \cup \pi') \circ \tau & = & (\pi \circ \tau) \cup (\pi' \circ \tau) \end{array}$$

& is just classical propositional logic, in a categorical setting. (The sequent calculus plays no essential role here. You can define proof terms on other proof systems, e.g. natural deduction, Hilbert proofs, tableaux, resolution.)

^{*}Thanks to Rohan French, Lloyd Humberstone, Dave Ripley, Shawn Standefer and an audience at the Logic Seminar at the University of Melbourne for helpful feedback on this material. ¶ This research is supported by the Australian Research Council, through Grant DP150103801. ¶ Resources available at http://consequently.org/presentation/2018/cuny-gc-logic-and-metaphysics/.

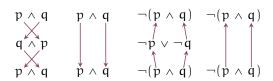
2 ISOMORPHISMS

 $f: A \to B$ is an *isomorphism* in a category iff it has an *inverse* $g: B \to A$, where $g \circ f = id_A : A \to A$ and $f \circ g = id_B : B \to B$. (If g and g' are inverses, $g = id_A \circ g = (g' \circ f) \circ g = g' \circ (f \circ g) = g' \circ id_B = g'$, so any inverse is unique. We can call it f^{-1} .)

If A and B are isomorphic in a category C, then what we can do with A (in C) we can do with B, too.

If A and B are isomorphic in \mathfrak{C} , then they agree not only on *provability*, but also, on *proofs*. The distinctions drawn when you analyse how something is *proved* (from premises), are not far from what you want to understand when you ask how something is *made true*.

Isomorphisms in \mathfrak{C} : $p \wedge q \cong q \wedge p$; $\neg(p \wedge q) \cong \neg p \vee \neg q$



Non-isomorphisms in \mathfrak{C} : $\mathfrak{p} \wedge (\mathfrak{q} \vee \neg \mathfrak{q}) \ncong \mathfrak{p}$; $\mathfrak{p} \wedge \mathfrak{p} \ncong \mathfrak{p}$; $\mathfrak{p} \wedge (\mathfrak{q} \vee r) \ncong (\mathfrak{p} \wedge \mathfrak{q}) \vee (\mathfrak{p} \wedge r)$; $\mathfrak{p} \wedge (\mathfrak{p} \vee \mathfrak{q}) \ncong \mathfrak{p} \vee (\mathfrak{p} \wedge \mathfrak{q})$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
p \wedge (q \vee \neg q) & p \wedge (q \vee \neg q) \\
p & & \\
p \wedge (q \vee \neg q) & p \wedge (q \vee \neg q)
\end{array}$$

Occurrence Polarity Condition: If A is isomorphic to B in $\mathfrak C$ then each variable occurs positively [negatively] in A exactly as many times as it occurs positively [negatively] in B. (This condition is *necessary*, not sufficient: $p \land (p \lor q) \not\cong p \lor (p \land q)$.)

A is isomorphic to B iff A and B are equivalent in the following calculus:

$$\begin{array}{lll} A \wedge B \leftrightarrow B \wedge A, & A \wedge (B \wedge C) \leftrightarrow (A \wedge B) \wedge C. \\ A \vee B \leftrightarrow B \vee A, & A \vee (B \vee C) \leftrightarrow (A \vee B) \vee C. \\ \neg (A \vee B) \leftrightarrow \neg A \wedge \neg B, & \neg (A \wedge B) \leftrightarrow \neg A \vee \neg B. \\ \neg \neg A \leftrightarrow A. & A \leftrightarrow B \Rightarrow C(A) \leftrightarrow C(B). \end{array}$$

(This allows for a *negation normal form*, but not DNF or CNF. These are the equivalences in multiplicative linear logic, where \land is understood as \otimes , \lor is \Re , and \neg is linear negation.)

Proof Sketch (Došen and Petrić, 2012 [3]).

If $A \leftrightarrow B$ holds in the calculus, A and B are isomorphic. \P A is isomorphic to B iff there are diversified A' and B' where A' and B' are isomorphic, and $A = \sigma A'$ and $B = \sigma B'$ for some substitution σ . \P A is isomorphic to B iff their negation normal forms are isomorphic. (If A is diversified, so is its negation normal form.) \P If A and B are diversified, isomorphic, and in negation normal form, if A is a conjunction in A (A and A in negation normal form, if A is a conjunction in A (A and A in negation normal form, if A is a conjunction in A (A and A in negation normal form) shows that A and A must be conjunctively joined in A too. The same goes for A in A is shows how to reconstruct a proof of equivalence for A and A in the syntactic calculus for isomorphic formulas.

Isomorphism is a very tight constraint: If A and B are isomorphic, they can play essentially the same role in proof. \P Replacing A by B in a proof (as a premise or conclusion) not only gives you something that is also a proof (mere logical equivalence would do that), but it gives you a proof which is essentially the same. \P Not even A and $A \wedge A$ are equivalent in this sense. \P Yet, A and $A \wedge A$ seem

to have identical *subject matter* (insofar as we understand that notion). ¶ Can we use the fine-grained tools of proof theoretical analysis to generalise this notion of subject matter to arbitrary statements?

3 MORE PROOFS FROM A TO A

$$Id(p \lor (p \land \neg p)) \qquad \begin{matrix} p \lor (p \land \neg p) \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \uparrow \\ p \lor (p \land \neg p) \end{matrix}$$

In Id(A), each occurrence of an atom in the premise is linked with every its corresponding occurrence of in the conclusion. Different occurrences of atoms in A are treated differently.

$$Hz(p \lor (p \land \neg p)) \qquad \psi \lor (p \land \neg p) \\ \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \qquad \uparrow \\ p \lor (p \land \neg p)$$

In Hz(A), each positive [negative] occurrence of an atom in the premise is linked with every positive [negative] occurrence in the conclusion. We treat occurrences of an atom in A—with the same polarity—equally.

$$Mx(p \lor (p \land \neg p)) \qquad \begin{array}{c} p \lor (p \land \neg p) \\ \downarrow \\ p \lor (p \land \neg p) \end{array}$$

In Mx(A), each syntactically possible linking is included. We treat all occurrences of an atom in A equally.

Note: Hz(A) is Mx(A) with the caps and cups removed.

Let's look at relations like isomorphism, but which erase distinctions, up to Hz or Mx.

Let's say that A and B Hz-MATCH, when there are proofs $\pi: A \succ B$ and $\pi': B \succ A$ where $\pi' \circ \pi = Hz(A)$ and $\pi \circ \pi' = Hz(B)$. We write " \approx_{Hz} " for the Hz-matching relation, and we write " $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Hz} B$ " to say that $\pi: A \succ B$ and $\pi': B \succ A$ define a Hz-match between A and B.

Let's say that A and B Mx-MATCH, when there are proofs $\pi: A \succ B$ and $\pi': B \succ A$ where $\tau \circ \pi = Mx(A)$ and $\pi \circ \pi' = Mx(B)$. We write " \approx_{Mx} " for the Mx-matching relation, and we write " $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Mx} B$ " to say that $\pi: A \succ B$ and $\pi': B \succ A$ define a Mx-match between A and B.

Isomorphism \subseteq Hz-Matching: If $\pi: A \succ B$ and $\pi^{-1}: B \succ A$, then consider $\pi' = Hz(B) \circ \pi \circ Hz(A)$ and $\tau' = Hz(A) \circ \pi^{-1} \circ Hz(B)$. These satisfy the Hz-matching criteria, $\tau' \circ \pi' = Hz(A)$ and $\pi' \circ \tau' = Hz(B)$.

Hz-Matching \subseteq Mx-Matching: If $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Hz} B$, then consider $\tau = Mx(B) \circ \pi \circ Mx(A)$ and $\tau' = Mx(A) \circ \pi' \circ Mx(B)$. These satisfy the Mx-matching criteria, $\tau' \circ \pi' = Mx(A)$ and $\pi' \circ \tau' = Mx(B)$.

 $\textit{Mx-Matching} \subseteq \textit{Logical Equivalence} : \text{If } A \approx_{\mathsf{Mx}} B \text{ then there are proofs } \pi : A \succ B \text{ and } \tau : B \succ A.$

Matching Relations are Equivalences: Reflexive Hz(A), Hz(A): $A \approx_{Hz} A$. Mx(A), Mx(A): $A \approx_{Mx} A$. \mathfrak{G} symmetric If $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Hz} B$, then $\pi', \pi: B \approx_{Hz} A$. If $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Mx} B$, then $\pi', \pi: B \approx_{Mx} A$. \mathfrak{G} transitive If $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Hz} B$ and $\tau, \tau': B \approx_{Hz} C$, then $(\tau \circ \pi), (\pi' \circ \tau'): A \approx_{Hz} C$. If $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Mx} B$ and $\pi, \pi': B \approx_{Mx} C$, then $(\tau \circ \pi), (\pi' \circ \tau'): A \approx_{Mx} C$.

Matchings: $p \lor p \approx_{Hz} p \approx_{Hz} p \land p$; $p \land (q \lor r) \approx_{Hz} (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$.

Mx-Matching \subset Logical Equivalence: If an atom p occurs positively [negatively] in A but not in B, then A and B do not Mx-match.

PROOF: Mx(A): A > A contains the link from [to] that occurrence of p in the premise A to [from] its corresponding occurrence in the conclusion A. ¶ No proof from A to B contains a link from [to] that occurrence to anything in B (since there is no positive [negative] occurrence in B at all). ¶ So, in the composition proof from A to A, there is no link from [to] the premise occurrence to [from] the conclusion occurrence. No proof from A to B and back can recreate Mx(A).

COROLLARY: $p \not\approx_{Mx} p \wedge (q \vee \neg q)$; $p \wedge \neg p \not\approx_{Mx} q \wedge \neg q$. Hz-matching \subset Mx-matching: $(p \wedge \neg p) \wedge (q \vee \neg q) \approx_{Mx} (p \vee \neg p) \wedge (q \wedge \neg q)$.

However, $(p \land \neg p) \land (q \lor \neg q) \not\approx_{Hz} (p \lor \neg p) \land (q \land \neg q)$. So:

 $Isomorphism \subset Hz$ -Matching $\subset Mx$ -Matching $\subset Logical Equivalence$

4 MATCHING & LOGICS OF ANALYTIC CONTAINMENT

Angell's Logic of Analytic Containment: [AC1] $A \leftrightarrow \neg \neg A$ [AC2] $A \leftrightarrow (A \land A)$ [AC3] $(A \land B) \leftrightarrow (B \land A)$ [AC4] $A \land (B \land C) \leftrightarrow (A \land B) \land C$ [AC5] $A \lor (B \land C) \leftrightarrow (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$ [R1] $A \leftrightarrow B$, $C(A) \Rightarrow C(B)$ Here, $A \lor B$ is shorthand for $\neg (\neg A \land \neg B)$. You can define $A \to B$ as $A \leftrightarrow (A \land B)$.

The first degree fragment of *Parry's* Logic of Analytic Containment is found by adding $(A \lor (B \land \neg B)) \to A$ to Angell's Logic. (Parry's logic still satisfies this relevance constraint: $A \to B$ is provable only when the atoms in B are present in A.)

First Degree Entailment (FDE) is found by adding $A \to (A \vee B)$ to Angell's Logic. \P FDE allows for a disjunctive (or conjunctive) normal form. The only difference from classical logic is that $p \vee \neg p$, and $q \wedge \neg q$ are both non-trivial, and ineliminable. \P A simple translation encodes FDE inside classical logic. Choose, for each atom p, a fresh atom p', its *shadow*. For each FDE formula A, its translation is the formula A' found by replacing the negative occurrences of atoms p in A by their shadows. An argument is FDE valid iff its translation is classically valid.

DEFINITION: Mx(A, B) is the set of all possible linkings which could occur in any proof from A to B. ¶ That is, it contains a link from {positive atoms in A, negative atoms in B} to matching {positive atoms in B, negative atoms in A}.

FACT: Mx(A, B) is a proof iff there is some proof from A to B. (And if so, it is the maximal such proof.)

 $Mx(p \vee \neg p, p \wedge \neg q)$ is not a proof:

$$\begin{array}{c}
p \lor \neg p \\
\downarrow \\
p \land \neg q
\end{array}$$

LEMMA: If $A \approx_{Mx} B$, then Mx(A, B) and Mx(B, A) are proofs, and Mx(A, B), Mx(B, A): $A \approx_{Mx} B$.

PROOF: If $\pi, \pi': A \approx_{Mx} B$, then $\pi \subseteq Mx(A, B)$ and $\pi' \subseteq Mx(B, A)$, so Mx(A, B) and Mx(B, A) are both proofs. \P Since $\pi' \circ \pi = Mx(A)$, we have $Mx(A) = \pi' \circ \pi \subseteq Mx(B, A) \circ Mx(A, B) \subseteq Mx(A)$, and similarly, $Mx(B) = Mx(A, B) \circ Mx(A)$, so $Mx(A, B), Mx(B, A): A \approx_{Mx} B$.

FACT: If A is classically equivalent to B, and all atoms occurring positively [negatively] in A also occur positively [negatively] in B, and *vice versa*, then A and B *Mx*-match—and conversely.

PROOF: If A is logically equivalent to B, then Mx(A, B) and Mx(B, A) are both proofs. § It suffices to show that $Mx(B, A) \circ Mx(A, B) = Mx(A)$ (and similarly for B). To show this, we need to show that each positive [negative] occurrence of an atom in A is linked to any positive [negative] occurrence of that atom in A by way of some link in Mx(A, B) composed with a link in Mx(B, A). But since that atom occurs positively [negatively] also in B at least once, the links to accomplish this occur in Mx(A, B) and Mx(B, A). § Conversely, if $A \approx_{Mx} B$, we have already seen that A and B must be equivalent, and no atom occurs positively [negatively] in A but not B.

This is *not* Equivalence in Parry's Logic. A is equivalent to B in Parry's logic of analytic containment iff A is classically equivalent to B and the atoms present in A are present in B and *vice versa*. $\P (p \land \neg p) \land q \not\approx_{Mx} (p \land \neg p) \land \neg q, \text{ but this pair satisfies Parry's variable sharing criterion.}$

QUESTION: Does the equivalence relation of *Mx*-matching occur elsewhere in the literature?

DEFINITION: Hz(A, B) is the set of all possible linkings which could occur in any proof from A to B, excluding caps and cups. \P That is, it contains a link from positive atoms in A to corresponding positive atoms in B and negative atoms in A to corresponding negative atoms in B.

 $Hz(p \land \neg p, q \lor \neg q)$ contains no links. $Hz(p \land \neg p, p \lor \neg p)$ is a proof, but not the maximal one:

$$\begin{array}{c}
p \land \neg p \\
\downarrow \qquad \uparrow \\
p \lor \neg p
\end{array}$$

FACT: Hz(A, B) is a proof iff A entails B in FDE.

PROOF: From FDE-validity to Hz-proof: straightforward induction on an FDE-axiomatisation. \P From the Hz-proof Hz(A,B) to FDE-validity: Notice that no negative occurrences of atoms in A or B are linked to any positive occurrences of atoms in A or B. So, there is another Hz-proof Hz(A',B') for the FDE translations for A and B.

LEMMA: If $A \approx_{Hz} B$, then Hz(A, B) and Hz(B, A) are proofs, and Hz(A, B), Hz(B, A): $A \approx_{Hz} B$.

PROOF: If $\pi, \pi' : A \approx_{Hz} B$, then then since $\pi' \circ \pi = Hz(A)$ and $\pi \circ \pi' = Hz(B)$, π and π' are cap- and cup-free, so $\pi \subseteq Hz(A, B)$ and $\pi' \subseteq Hz(B, A)$, so Hz(A, B) and Hz(B, A) are both proofs. \P Since $\pi' \circ \pi = Hz(A)$, we have $Mx(A) = \pi' \circ \pi \subseteq Hz(B, A) \circ Hz(A, B) \subseteq Hz(A)$,

and similarly, $Hz(B) = Hz(A, B) \circ Hz(A)$, so $Hz(A, B), Hz(B, A) : A \approx_{Mx} B$.

FACT: If A is FDE-equivalent to B, and all atoms occurring positively [negatively] in A also occur positively [negatively] in B, and vice versa, then A and B Hz-match — and conversely.

PROOF: If A is FDE-equivalent to B, then Hz(A, B) and Hz(B, A) are both proofs. \P It suffices to show that $Hz(B, A) \circ Hz(A, B) = Hz(A)$ (and similarly for B). To show this, we need to show that each positive [negative] occurrence of an atom in A is linked to any positive [negative] occurrence of that atom in A by way of some link in Hz(A, B) composed with a link in Hz(B, A). But since that atom occurs positively [negatively] also in B at least once, the links to accomplish this occur in Hz(A, B) and Hz(B, A). \P Conversely, if $A \approx_{Hz} B$, we have already seen that

A and B must be FDE-equivalent, and no atom occurs positively [negatively] in A but not B.

FACT: (Ferguson 2016 [4]; Fine 2016 [5]) A is equivalent to B in Angell's logic of analytic containment iff A is FDE equivalent to B, and any atom occurs positively [negatively] in A iff it occurs positively [negatively] in B.

So, Hz-matching \equiv Angellic Equivalence.

5 MATCHING AS ISOMORPHISM

Hz(A) and Mx(A) are Idempotents: $Hz(A) \circ Hz(A) = Hz(A)$, $Mx(A) \circ Mx(A) = Mx(A)$.

For any category \mathcal{C} , if i_A is an idempotent for each object A, we can form a new category \mathcal{C}_i with the same objects as \mathcal{C} , and with arrows $i_B \circ f \circ i_A : A \to B$. \P In this new category, the idempotents i_A are the new identity arrows. \P So, \mathfrak{C}_{Hz} and \mathfrak{C}_{Mx} are both categories — like \mathfrak{C} , but less discriminating, with fewer arrows.

Hz-matching is isomorphism in \mathfrak{C}_{Hz} .

Mx-matching is isomorphism in \mathfrak{C}_{Mx} .

 \mathfrak{C}_{Mx} and \mathfrak{C}_{Hz} are nontrivial, nonetheless.

These are each different proofs in \mathfrak{C}_{Mx} and \mathfrak{C}_{Hz} .

6 IN CONCLUSION

I These results allow for genuinely hyperintensional distinctions to be drawn, using tools that are native to classical proof theory. Proof theoretical resources indigenous to classical logic provide tools for fine-grained hyperintensional distinctions, and some of these tools slice at exactly the same joints as have been discerned using very different techniques. It is encouraging to see how non-classical logics like FDE and Angell's logic of analytic containment arise out of proof theoretical considerations in classical logic. (This is not unprecedented. In Chapter I.3 of Proof Theory and Logical Complexity, Girard shows how the sequent calculus, under another guise, gives rise to Kleene's 3-valued logic [6].) Here, we have started with the hyperintensionality of the phrase "... proves that ..." and shown this has an underlying logical structure and coherence deeper than the surface syntax of a particular representation system for proofs.

¶ Extending these results to include the units \top and \bot are not difficult. (They were left out only to ease the presentation). In short, we allow for degenerate edges for proofs involving the units. For $\succ \top$ we have a link with \top as the target, but with no source. There are no links with \top as a source. So, in the identity arrow from \top to \top , there is a degenerate link into the conclusion \top , and nothing leaving the premise. The situation is reversed for \bot . For $\bot \succ$ we have a link from \bot going nowhere. This link features in the identity proof for $\bot \succ \bot$.

As for isomorphisms in the calculus with \top and \bot , it turns out that $A \lor \bot \approx A \approx A \land \top$, $\neg \top \approx \bot$, and $\neg \bot \approx \top$. However, $A \land \bot \not\approx \bot$, in general, since this would violate the variable occurrence condition (which still holds). Nonetheless, $\bot \land \bot \approx \bot$ and $\bot \lor \bot \approx \bot$ and $\top \land \top \approx \top$.

¶ One open question is how to relate these results to *models* of logics of content. Is there a way to move from the family of different proofs for A (from different premises) to *situations* making

A true in any rich sense? An immediate issue to be confronted is that proofs—and proof terms—wear their premises and their conclusions on their face. A proof from A to B is not *also* a proof from a different C to a different D. Even though proof terms abstract away from some of the syntactic details of derivations or proofs, they don't abstract away the *premise* and the *conclusion*.

Situations, even though they can be more local and discriminating than possible worlds (or models assigning a truth value to every formula in the language), generally make more than one thing true. To construct situations from proof terms, we must bridge this gap in some way or other.

¶ Another step to consider is whether we can expand these results to first order logic. Some recent work of Dominic Hughes on unification nets for first order multiplicative linear logic [8] brings to light an important distinction for different approaches to proof terms for predicate logic. It is clear that these two derivations here correspond to the one natural deduction proof, and should have the same proof term:

$$\frac{\frac{Ft \succ Ft}{Ft \succ \exists xFx}}{\forall xFx \succ \exists xFx} \xrightarrow{\exists R} \approx \frac{\frac{\forall xFx}{Ft}}{\exists xFx} \xrightarrow{\forall E} \approx \frac{\frac{Ft \succ Ft}{\forall xFx \succ Ft}}{\forall xFx \succ \exists xFx} \xrightarrow{\exists R}$$

But what about two different derivations going through two different intermediate terms, t_1 and t_2 ? Girard's proof nets for first order MLL take these to be different [7]. There is one clear sense, proof theoretically, that the information flows from $\forall x Fx$ to $\exists x Fx$ in the same way regardless of which term used, so Hughes' unification nets (which abstract away from the identity of the particular unifiers used) seem well motivated on proof theoretic grounds.

However, when it comes to the metaphysics of grounding and subject matter, it seems that there is good reason allow each object that makes $\exists x \vdash x$ true contribute in its own, individual, way. This much seems clear. Different objects witness quantifiers in different ways, and this should be reflected in the detail of truthmakers. However, the *logic* of such distinctions is yet to be understood clearly. Perhaps tools from proof theory will be able to help clarify some of the options to further explore.

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