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A Linear/Producer/Consumer Model of Classical Linear Logic

Jennifer Paykin
jpaykin@gmail.com

Stephan A. Zdancewic
University of Pennsylvania, stevez@cis.upenn.edu

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Disciplines
Computer Engineering | Computer Sciences

Comments
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This paper defines a new proof- and category-theoretic framework for classical linear logic that separates reasoning into one linear regime and two persistent regimes corresponding to ! and ?. The resulting linear/producer/consumer (LPC) logic puts the three classes of propositions on the same semantic footing, following Benton’s linear/non-linear formulation of intuitionistic linear logic. Semantically, LPC corresponds to a system of three categories connected by adjunctions that reflect the linear/producer/consumer structure. The paper’s metatheoretic results include admissibility theorems for the cut and duality rules, and a translation of the LPC logic into the category theory. The work also presents several concrete instances of the LPC model, including one based on finite vector spaces.

1 Introduction

Since its introduction by Girard in 1987, linear logic has been found to have a range of applications in logic, proof theory, and programming languages. Its notion of “resource consciousness” sheds light on topics as diverse as proof search (Liang and Miller 2009), memory management (Ahmed et al. 2007), alias control (Hicks et al. 2004), computational complexity (Gaboardi 2007), and security (Zdancewic and Myers 2002), among many others.

Linear logic’s power stems from its ability to carefully manage resource usage: it makes a crucial distinction between linear (used exactly once) and persistent (unrestricted use) hypotheses, internalizing the latter via the ! connective. From a semantic point of view, the literature has converged (following Benton (1995)) on an interpretation of ! as a comonad given by ! = F ∘ G where F ◁ G is a symmetric monoidal adjunction between categories L and P arranged as shown below:

Here, L (for “linear”) is a symmetric monoidal closed category and P (for “persistent”) is a cartesian category. This is, by now, a standard way of interpreting intuitionistic linear logic (for details, see the discussion in Melliès’ article (Melliès 2009)).

If, in addition, the category L is *-autonomous, then the structure above is sufficient to interpret classical linear logic, where the monad ? is determined by ? = (F op (G op (−) −1))∂. While sound, this situation is not entirely satisfactory because it essentially commits to a particular implementation of ? in terms of P op, which, as we show, is not necessary.

With that motivation, this paper defines a proof- and category-theoretic framework for full classical linear logic that uses two persistent categories: one corresponding to ! and one to ?. The resulting categorical
structure is shown in Figure 1, where \( \mathcal{P} \) now takes the place of the “producing”, category, in duality with \( \mathcal{C} \) as the “consuming” category. This terminology comes from the observations that:

\[
\begin{align*}
!A &\vdash 1 \\
\bot &\vdash ?A \\
A &\vdash ?A
\end{align*}
\]

Intuitively, the top row means that !\( A \) is sufficient to produce any number of copies of \( A \) and, dually, the bottom rows says that ?\( A \) can consume any number of copies of \( A \).

Contributions. In Section 2 we survey Benton’s linear/non-linear presentation of intuitionistic linear logic (Benton 1995). Section 3 defines a linear/producer/consumer (LPC) presentation of classical linear logic which, extending Benton’s work, syntactically exhibits the decomposition of ! and ? into their constituent functors. We prove that cut and duality rules are admissible in the logic, and that LPC is consistent.

Section 4 develops the categorical model for LPC, relates it to other models from the literature, and considers how to interpret judgments of the LPC logic as morphisms in the appropriate categories. Section 5 presents several concrete example instances of the LPC categorical framework, and, in particular, gives an example in which \( \mathcal{C} \) is not just \( \mathcal{P}^{op} \).

We conclude the paper with a discussion of related work.

2 Linear/Non-Linear Logic

This section introduces the Linear/Non-Linear (LNL) model of intuitionistic linear logic presented by Benton (1995, 1994). In traditional presentations of linear logic, the exponential !\( A \) is a linear proposition with persistence. This means linearity is the default state of the system, and persistence the exception. In the larger context of term calculi, it often is more natural to have two kinds of variables and propositions depending on whether the variable will be used linearly or persistently (Barber 1996). This linear/non-linear or linear/persistent paradigm shifts the balance of power by placing linearity and persistence on equal footing. Categorically, such a relationship can be modelled as a symmetric monoidal adjunction between a cartesian (non-linear) category \( \mathcal{P} \) and a symmetric monoidal closed (linear) category \( \mathcal{L} \):

\[
\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{P} & \mathcal{L} \\
\downarrow[swap]{G} & \downarrow{F} \\
\top & \end{tikzcd}
\]

This categorical axiomatization will be revisited in Section 4.
The LNL logic is made up of a pair of sequents—one linear and one persistent. There are two classes of propositions, as follows:

\[ A, B := \mathbf{I} \mid A \otimes B \mid A \rightarrow B \mid F X \]

\[ X, Y := 1 \mid X \times Y \mid X \rightarrow Y \mid G A \]

The linear sequent may reference either linear propositions \( A \) or persistent propositions \( X \) in order to prove a linear proposition; thus sequents are of the form \( \Theta; \Gamma \vdash \vdash L A \) where \( \Theta \) ranges over persistent propositions and \( \Gamma \) ranges over linear propositions. Meanwhile non-linear sequents are of the form \( \Theta \vdash \vdash P X \), meaning that they may refer to only persistent propositions in order to prove a persistent proposition.

One of the principle properties of linear logic is that every hypothesis is used exactly once in a derivation. Consequently, the so-called “linear” rules for axioms, \( \otimes, \times, \rightarrow \) and \( \to \) always partition contexts instead of duplicating them. However, the expected behavior for non-linear propositions is that they can be used any number of times. This behavior is encoded explicitly by means of the weakening and contraction rules, which are applicable for non-linear propositions in either the linear or non-linear sequents:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Theta, X, X; \Gamma \vdash \vdash L A & \quad \text{C}_{\vdash} \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash \vdash A & \quad \text{W}_{\vdash} \\
\Theta, X, X \vdash \vdash Y & \quad \text{C}_{\vdash} \quad \Theta \vdash \vdash Y & \quad \text{W}_{\vdash}
\end{align*}
\]

The only way to move in between the linear and non-linear sequents is by passing through the \( F \) and \( G \) functors:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Theta; F X, \Gamma \vdash \vdash L A & \quad \text{F-L} \quad \Theta \vdash \vdash X & \quad \text{F-R} \\
\Theta, G A; \Gamma \vdash \vdash L A & \quad \text{G-L} \quad \Theta \vdash \vdash A & \quad \text{G-R}
\end{align*}
\]

There are three forms of the cut rule, depending on the type of the cut term and sequent. These have the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Theta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash \vdash L A & \quad \Theta_2; A, \Gamma_2 \vdash \vdash L B \quad \text{CUT}^\ell_{\vdash} \\
\Theta_1, \Theta_2; \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \vdash L B \\
\Theta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash \vdash P X & \quad \Theta_2; \Gamma_2 \vdash \vdash L A \quad \text{CUT}^p_{\vdash} \\
\Theta_1, \Theta_2; \Gamma \vdash \vdash L X & \quad \text{CUT}^p_{\vdash} \\
\Theta_1 \vdash \vdash Y & \quad \Theta_2 \vdash \vdash P Y \quad \text{CUT}^p_{\vdash}
\end{align*}
\]

We will see in Section 3 that the form of these rules carries over to the LPC logic defined in that section. In LNL, the formulation of these rules stems from the syntactic separation between linear and persistent propositions; linear sequents prove linear propositions and persistent sequents prove persistent propositions. The LPC cut rules follow the same pattern of linear versus persistent sequents, but the structural necessity of this formulation is less apparent in that context. Nevertheless, the formulation is semantically necessary with regards to cut admissibility in LPC.
3 Linear/Producer/Consumer Logic

The syntax of the LPC logic is made up of three syntactic forms for propositions (as opposed to Benton’s two): linear propositions $A$, producer propositions $P$ and consumer propositions $C$.

$$A ::= \quad 0 \mid A_1 \otimes A_2 \mid \top \mid A_1 \& A_2$$
$$P ::= \quad 1_P \mid P_1 \otimes P_2 \mid [A]$$
$$C ::= \quad \bot_C \mid C_1 \& C_2 \mid [A]$$

The syntactic form of a proposition is called its mode—linear $L$, producing $P$ or consuming $C$. The meta-variable $X$ ranges over propositions of any mode, and the tagged meta-variable $X^m$ ranges over propositions of mode $m$. The term persistent refers to propositions that are either producers or consumers.

LPC replaces the usual constructors $!$ and $?$ with two pairs of connectives: $F_I$ and $[-]$ as well as $F_I$ and $[-]$. If $A$ is a linear proposition, $[A]$ is a producer and $\lceil A \rceil$ is a consumer. On the other hand, a producer proposition $P$ may be “frozen” into a linear proposition $F_I P$, effectively discarding its persistent characteristics. Similarly for a consumer $C$, $F_I C$ is linear. The linear propositions $!A$ and $?A$ are encoded in this system as $F_I ([A])$ and $F_I ([\lceil A \rceil])$ respectively.

The syntax does not include duality operators. Later on in this section we will define duality as a meta-operation on propositions and prove that duality rules are admissible in the logic.

The inference rules of the logic are given in Figures 2 to 5. There are two sequent relations: the linear sequent $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ and the persistent sequent $\Gamma \vdash \Delta^P$. In the linear sequent, the contexts $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$ may be made up of propositions of any mode: linear, producing, or consuming. In the persistent sequent, however, the contexts may contain only persistent propositions. The denotation $\Gamma^P$ refers to contexts containing only producer propositions, and $\Delta^C$ refers to contexts containing only consumer propositions.

The linear inference rules in Figures 2 and 3 encompass rules for the units and the linear operators $\&$, $\otimes$ and $\lnot$. It is worth noting that the multiplicative product $\otimes$ is defined only on linear and producer propositions, while the multiplicative sum $\lnot$ is defined only on linear and consumer propositions.

The structural inference rules are given in Figure 4. Weakening and contraction apply only for producers on the left and consumers on the right. The rules for the operators $F_I$, $F_I$, $[-]$ and $[-]$ are more interesting as they must be able to encode derogation and promotion. On the left, the $F_I$ and $[-]$ rules can be applied freely to transform linear propositions into producers and vice versa. These rules emulate the derogation rule for linear logic:

$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, !A \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{versus} \quad \frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, [A] \vdash \Delta} \quad [-]-L$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, F_I [A] \vdash \Delta} \quad F_I-L$$

On the right however, these rules can only be applied when the contexts are persistent and of the correct form, as in the $!$ introduction rule in linear logic:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta_C, A}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta_C, !A} \quad \text{versus} \quad \frac{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta_C, [A]}{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta_C, F_I [A]} \quad [-]-R$$

$$\frac{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta_C, F_I [A]}{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta_C, [A]} \quad F_I-R$$

The $F_I$ and $[-]$ rules are dual to those of $F_I$ and $[-]$.

3.1 Displacement

The commas on the left-hand-side of both the linear and persistent sequents intuitively correspond to the multiplicative product $\otimes$, and the commas on the right correspond to the multiplicative sum $\lnot$. This correspondence motivates the context restriction of the rules that move between the linear and persistent
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\perp \vdash \perp$</td>
<td>$\perp$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma, B \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$&amp;\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, A &amp; B \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$&amp;\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, A_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \Delta, A_2$</td>
<td>$&amp;\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, A_1 &amp; A_2$</td>
<td>$&amp;\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, 0 \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$0^\perp$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma \vdash \Delta, A$</td>
<td>$\vdash\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, A @ B \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$\vdash\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, X_1^m, X_2^m \vdash \Delta \quad m \in {L, P}$</td>
<td>$\otimes\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, X_1^m \otimes X_2^m \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$\otimes\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, 1_m \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma \vdash \Delta, 1_m$</td>
<td>$1^\perp$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, 1_m \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$1^\perp$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, X_1^m \vdash \Delta_1 \quad \Gamma, X_2^m \vdash \Delta_2 \quad m \in {L, P}$</td>
<td>$\otimes\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, X_1^m \otimes X_2^m \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2$</td>
<td>$\otimes\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad m \in {L, C}$</td>
<td>$\Gamma, \perp \vdash \Delta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, \perp_m$</td>
<td>$\perp\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, B \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma, A &amp; B \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$\vdash\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma, A &amp; B \vdash \Delta$</td>
<td>$\vdash\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, \top$</td>
<td>$\top\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, \perp$</td>
<td>$\perp\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, \top$</td>
<td>$\top\vdash$-L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \Delta, \perp$</td>
<td>$\perp\vdash$-R</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Linear Inference Rules for Linear Sequent

Figure 3: Linear Inference Rules for Persistent Sequent
\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, P \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{W}^+\text{-L} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, C} \quad \text{W}^+\text{-R} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, P \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{W}^-\text{-L} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, C} \quad \text{W}^-\text{-R} \\
\frac{\Gamma, P, P \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, P \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{C}^-\text{-L} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, C, C}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, C} \quad \text{C}^-\text{-R} \\
\frac{\Gamma, P, P \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, P \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{C}^-\text{-R} \\
\frac{\Gamma, P \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, F, P \vdash \Delta} \quad F^\text{-L} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, C}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, F, P} \quad F^\text{-R} \\
\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, [A] \vdash \Delta} \quad [-]^-\text{-L} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, C}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, F, [A]} \quad [-]^-\text{-R} \\
\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, A, [A] \vdash \Delta} \quad [-]^-\text{-R} \\
\]

Figure 4: Structural Inference Rules

\[
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, A}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \text{CUT}_L^+ \\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, C}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \text{CUT}_C^+ \\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, A, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_2}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \text{CUT}_L^- \\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, C, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_2}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \text{CUT}_C^- \\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, A, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_2}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \text{CUT}_L^- \\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, C, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_2}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \text{CUT}_C^- \\
\]

Figure 5: CUT Inference Rules
regimes. The restriction ensures that almost all of the propositions have the “natural” mode—producers on the left and consumers on the right. We say almost because the principle formula in each of these rules defies this classification. We will call such propositions displaced.

**Definition 1.** In a derivation of \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta \), a producer \( P \) is displaced if it appears in \( \Delta \). A consumer \( C \) is displaced if it appears in \( \Gamma \).

**Lemma 2 (Displacement).** For any LPC derivation \( D \) of \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta \), \( D \) contains exactly one displaced proposition.

**Proof.** By straightforward induction on \( D \).

If \( D \) is a producer axiom, then the proposition on the right is displaced; if \( D \) is a consumer axiom, then the proposition on the left is displaced.

If the last rule in \( D \) is a left tensor rule then the principle formula is not displaced, so the inductive hypothesis applies directly to prove there is exactly one displaced formula in \( D \). Similarly, weakening and contraction occur only for non-displaced propositions.

If \( D \) is the \( 1_P \) right rule then \( 1_P \) occurs in a displaced position with no other propositions in the contexts.

Suppose the last rule in \( D \) is a \( \otimes \)-R rule as follows:

\[
D = D_1, D_2
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, P_1}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2, P_1 \otimes P_2} \quad \text{\( \otimes \)-R}
\]

The inductive hypotheses for \( D_1 \) and \( D_2 \) state that there is exactly one displaced formula in each of these derivations. Since \( P_1 \) is displaced in \( D_1 \), none of the formulas in \( \Gamma_1 \) or \( \Delta_1 \) may be displaced, and similarly for \( D_2 \). Therefore the only displaced formula in \( D \) itself is \( P_1 \otimes P_2 \).

Suppose the last rule in \( \Delta \) is a \( [\cdot] \)-R rule:

\[
D' = D_1 \quad \frac{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta^C, A}{\Gamma^P \vdash [\cdot], [A]} \quad \text{\( [\cdot] \)-R}
\]

By construction, none of the propositions in \( \Gamma^P \) or \( \Delta^C \) are displaced, although \( [A] \) is.

The cases for \( \perp, \gamma \) and \( [\cdot] \) are similar. \( \square \)

### 3.2 Cut Rules

This section presents the cut rules of Figure 5 and proves they are admissible in LPC. These rules are perhaps unintuitive—a simpler cut formulation might include the following pair of rules:

\[
\frac{D_1}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, P} \quad \frac{D_2}{\Gamma_2, P \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{Cut}_P \text{-BAD1}
\]

\[
\frac{D_1}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, P} \quad \frac{D_2}{\Gamma_2, P \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{Cut}_P \text{-BAD2}
\]

Notice that these rules could not be structured to produce persistent judgments when at least one of the hypotheses are linear, because linear propositions are not possible in persistent judgments. To see why these rules are inadmissible in LPC, consider the simple derivations

\[
D_1 = 1_L \vdash 1_P \quad \text{and} \quad D_2 = 1_P \vdash [1_L] \quad \text{\( [\cdot] \)-R}
\]
Then the cut rule would postulate a derivation of \( I_L \models \lceil I_L \rceil \). But there is no cut-free method of constructing this derivation as it is impossible to introduce a term of the form \( \lceil - \rceil \) on the right-hand-side of a linear sequent.

The next logical step is to restrict the propositions in \( D_1 \) to persistent ones when the cut term is a producer—this way the resulting cut could produce a persistent judgment as well. So consider the following rule:

\[
\frac{D_1 \quad D_2}{\Gamma_p^1 \models \Delta_{1, p}^C, P \quad (P)_n, \Gamma_2 \models \Delta_{2}} \quad \text{Cut}_{p-BAD3} \quad \frac{D_1 \quad D_2}{\Gamma_p^1, \Gamma_2 \models \Delta_{1, p}^C, \Delta_{2}} \quad \text{Cut}_{p-BAD4}
\]

Consider then the derivations

\[
\begin{aligned}
\vdash & 1_p \rightharpoonup \Gamma_p^1 \models \lceil I_L \rceil \models \lceil - \rceil \rightharpoonup \Gamma_p^1 \models 1_p + \rightharpoonup \text{Ax}_{+} \quad \text{Ax}_{+} \\
& \Gamma, (P)_n \models \Delta \quad \Gamma \models \Delta_n \quad \Gamma, (P)_n \models \Delta, C
\end{aligned}
\]

Then the desired cut sequent would be of the form \( \lceil I_L \rceil, \lceil - \rceil \rightharpoonup \lceil - \rceil \rightharpoonup \), which is not provable in LPC without Cut.

**Admissibility**

To show admissibility of the Cut rules, it is sufficient to show admissibility of an equivalent set of rules, called Cut+, which are given in Figure 6. For linear cut terms, the Cut+ rule is identical to the corresponding Cut rule. For persistent cut terms, Cut+ uses the observation that when a persistent proposition is not displaced in a sequent, it can be replicated any number of times. That is, for any \( n \) the derivations

\[
\frac{\Gamma, (P)_n \models \Delta}{\Gamma, P \models \Delta} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\Gamma \models \Delta_n}{\Gamma \models \Delta, C} \quad \text{are admissible in LPC, and similarly for the persistent derivation. It is easy to see that the Cut and Cut+ rules are equivalent in strength.}
\]

**Lemma 3 (Cut+ Admissibility).** The Cut+ rules in Figure 6 are admissible in LPC.

**Proof.** Let \( D_1 \) and \( D_2 \) be the hypotheses of one of the cut rules. We proceed by induction on the cut term primarily and the sum of the depths of \( D_1 \) and \( D_2 \) secondly.

1. Suppose \( D_1 \) or \( D_2 \) ends in a weakening rule on the cut term. In the case where the cut term is a producer and \( D_2 \) is a linear judgment, we have

\[
\frac{D_1}{\Gamma_1 \models \Delta_{1, p}^C, P} \quad \text{W-L} \quad \frac{D_2'}{\Gamma_2, (P)_n \models \Delta_2} \quad \text{W-L}
\]
By the inductive hypothesis on $P$, $D_1$ and $D'_2$, there exists a cut-free derivation of $\Gamma^p_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta^c_1, \Delta_2$. The persistent judgment and consumer cases are similar.

2. Suppose $D_1$ or $D_2$ ends in a contraction rule on the cut term. Again, if the cut term is a producer and $D_2$ is a linear judgment, then

$$
\frac{D_1 \vdash \Delta^c_1, P}{\Gamma^p_1 \vdash \Delta^c_1, P} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{D_2}{\Gamma_2, (P)_{n+2} \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{C-L}
$$

By the inductive hypothesis on $P$, $D_1$ and $D'_2$, there exists a derivation of $\Gamma^p_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta^c_1, \Delta_2$. The persistent judgment and consumer cases are similar.

3. If $D_1$ or $D_2$ is an axiom, the case is trivial.

4. Suppose the cut term is the principle formula in both $D_1$ and $D_2$. It suffices to exclude weakening and contraction rules, as these have already been covered.

$(\&)$

$$
\frac{D_{11}}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, A_1} \quad \frac{D_{12}}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, A_2} \quad \frac{D'_2}{\Gamma_2, A_1 \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{\&}_{i=R} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{D_2}{\Gamma_2, A_1 \& A_2 \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{\&}_{i=L} \quad \text{1}_L
$$

By the inductive hypothesis on $A_1$, $D_{11}$ and $D'_2$ there exists a derivation of $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2$ as desired.

$(\otimes_L)$

$$
\frac{D_{11}}{\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12} \vdash \Delta_{11}, A_1 \& A_2} \quad \frac{D_{12}}{\Gamma_{12} \vdash \Delta_{12}, A_1 \& A_2} \quad \frac{D'_2}{\Gamma_2, A_1 \& A_2 \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{\otimes}_{i=R} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{D_2}{\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{11}, \Delta_{12}, \Delta_2} \quad \text{\otimes}_{i=L} \quad \text{1}_L
$$

By the inductive hypothesis on $A_2$, $D_{12}$ and $D'_2$, there exists a derivation $E$ of $\Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2, A_1 \vdash \Delta_{12}, \Delta_2$. By the inductive hypothesis on $A_1$, $D_{11}$ and $E$ we can then obtain the desired derivation of $\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{11}, \Delta_{12}, \Delta_2$.

$(\otimes_P)$

$$
\frac{D_{11}}{\Gamma^p_{11}, \Gamma^p_{12} \vdash \Delta^c_{11}, P_1, P_2} \quad \frac{D_{12}}{\Gamma^p_{12} \vdash \Delta^c_{12}, P_1, P_2} \quad \frac{D'_2}{\Gamma_2, \Gamma_2, (P_1 \otimes P_2)_{n+1} \vdash \Delta_2} \quad \text{\otimes}_{i=R} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{D_2}{\Gamma^p_{11}, \Gamma^p_{12}, \Gamma_2, P_1, P_2 \vdash \Delta^c_{11}, \Delta^c_{12}, \Delta_2} \quad \text{\otimes}_{i=L}
$$

First of all, the inductive hypothesis on $P_1 \otimes P_2$, $D_1$ itself and $D'_2$ gives us a derivation

$$
E \vdash \Gamma^p_{11}, \Gamma^p_{12}, \Gamma_2, P_1, P_2 \vdash \Delta^c_{11}, \Delta^c_{12}, \Delta_2
$$
Multiple applications of the inductive hypothesis give the following derivation:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\text{IH}(P_2)}{\Gamma_{11} \vdash \Delta_{12}^c, P_1} & \frac{\text{IH}(P_1)}{\Gamma_{12} \vdash \Delta_{12}^c, P_2} & \frac{\epsilon}{\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_2} \\
\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_2 & \Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_2 & \Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_{12}^c, \Delta_2
\end{array}
\]

Because the replicated contexts are made up exclusively of non-displaced propositions, it is possible to apply contraction multiple times to obtain the desired sequent.

\((F_i)\)

\[
\frac{\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta_{1}^c, A}{\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta_{1}^c, P} \quad \frac{\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta_{1}^c, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash A}{\Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash A} \quad \frac{\Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash A}{\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_{12}, \Gamma_2 \vdash A}
\]

\(([-]-)\)

\[
\frac{\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta_{1}^c, A}{\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta_{1}^c, A} \quad \frac{\Gamma_{2}, A \vdash \Delta_{2}}{\Gamma_{2}, [A] \vdash \Delta_{2}}
\]

The desired derivation is given by the inductive hypothesis applied to \(A\), \(D_1'\) and \(D_2'\).

5. Suppose the cut term is not the principle formula in \(D_1\).

\((0-L)\)

\[
\frac{\Gamma_{11}, 0 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A}{\Gamma_{11}, 0 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A} \quad \frac{\Gamma_{2}, A \vdash \Delta_{2}}{\Gamma_{2}, A \vdash \Delta_{2}}
\]

The desired derivation of \(\Gamma_{11}, 0, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}\) can be obtained by a direct application of the 0-L rule.

\((\oplus-L)\)

\[
\frac{\Gamma_{11}}{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \vdash \Delta_{1}, B} \quad \frac{\Gamma_{12}}{\Gamma_{12}, A_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, B} \quad \frac{\oplus_{1-L}}{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \oplus A_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, B}
\]

The inductive hypothesis on \(B\), \(D_{11}\) and \(D_{12}\) asserts the existence of a derivation \(E_1'\) of \(\Gamma_{11}, A_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, \Delta_2\) and similarly the inductive hypothesis for \(A_2\), \(D_{12}\) and \(D_{12}\) gives a derivation \(E_2'\) of \(\Gamma_{12}, A_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, \Delta_2\). The desired derivation is given by application of the \(\oplus\)-L rule:

\[
\frac{\epsilon_1}{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \oplus A_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, \Delta_2} \quad \frac{\epsilon_2}{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \oplus A_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, \Delta_2} \quad \frac{\oplus_{1-L}}{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \oplus A_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, \Delta_2}
\]

\((\oplus-R)\)

\[
\frac{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A_1}{\Gamma_{11}, A_1 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A_1} \quad \frac{\Gamma_{2}, B \vdash \Delta_{2}}{\Gamma_{2}, B \vdash \Delta_{2}}
\]

The inductive hypothesis on \(B\), \(D_{11}'\) and \(D_{2}\) gives a derivation \(\epsilon\) of \(\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A_1, \Delta_2\), from which we can obtain

\[
\frac{\epsilon}{\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A_1, \Delta_2} \quad \frac{\oplus_{1-R1}}{\Gamma_{11}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_{1}, A_1, \Delta_2}
\]
If the cut term is a producer, then $D_1$ is a persistent judgment so it cannot be the case that the last rule of $D_1$ is a $\text{F}_1$ rule or a $[\cdot]-L$ or $[\cdot]-R$ rule. But it also cannot be the case that the last rule in $D_1$ is a in a $[\cdot]-R$ or $[\cdot]-L$ rule because there is a non-principle formula—namely, the cut formula—which is in a displaced position.

By the inductive hypothesis on $\delta$, $D_1$ and $D_2$ assert the existence of a derivation $E$ of $\Gamma_1, P_1, P_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2$. From this we can apply the $\otimes$ rule to obtain $E$.

The inductive hypothesis on $B$, $D_1$ and $D_2$ states that there exists a derivation $E$ of $\Gamma_1, P_1, P_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2$. From this we may construct the following derivation:

$$E$$

$$\frac{\Gamma_1, P_1, P_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2}{\Gamma_1, P_1, P_2, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \otimes^p-L$$
The inductive hypothesis on \( B, D_1' \) and \( D_2 \) gives a derivation of \( \Gamma_1, A \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2 \), to which the left \([-]\) rule can be applied as usual.

By the inductive hypothesis on \( P, D_1' \) and \( D_2 \), there is a derivation \( \mathcal{E} \) of \( \Gamma_1^p, \Gamma_2^p \vdash \triangleleft \Gamma_1^c, \Delta_2^\triangleright \). Because the contexts in \( D_2 \) were undisplaced, it is possible to apply the \([-\cdot]-R\) rule to \( \mathcal{E} \) to obtain

\[
\Gamma_1^p, \Gamma_2^p \vdash \triangleleft \Gamma_1^c, A, \Delta_2^\triangleright \ [\mathcal{E}] \cdot-R
\]

Weakening can be applied to any context, so here it commutes with the inductive hypothesis. The case for contraction is similar.

**Corollary 4 (Cut Admissibility).** The Cut rules in Figure 5 are admissible in LPC.

### 3.3 Duality

Looking again at the LPC inference rules, it is easy to see that every rule has a dual. We take advantage of this implicit duality in our proofs to cut down the number of cases we have to consider, but we have not yet made this notion formal. Unlike standard presentations of linear logic, LPC does not consist of an explicit duality operator \((-)^\perp\), nor a linear implication \(\rightarrow\) with which to encode duality. Instead, we will define \((-)^\perp\) to be a meta-operation on propositions and prove the following duality rules are admissible in LPC:

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta, A}{\Gamma, A^\perp \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{\([-\cdot]-L\)} \quad \frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, A^\perp \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{\([-\cdot]-R\)}
\]

In fact, we define three versions of the duality operation: \((-)^\perp\) for linear propositions, \((-)^*\) for producers and \((-)_*\) for consumers. These operators have the property that for a linear proposition \( A, A^\perp \) is linear, but for a producer \( P, P^* \) is a consumer, and for a consumer \( C, C_* \) is a producer. The duality rules are given in Figure 7.
Figure 7: Duality inference rules

We define these duality operations as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
1^\perp_L &:= 1_L \\
(A \otimes B)^\perp &:= A^\perp \nabla B^\perp \\
\bot^\perp &:= 1_L \\
(A \nabla B)^\perp &:= A^\perp \otimes B^\perp \\
\top^\perp &:= 0 \\
(A \& B)^\perp &:= A^\perp \& B^\perp \\
0^\perp &:= \top \\
(A \oplus B)^\perp &:= A^\perp \& B^\perp \\
(F, P)^\perp &:= F, P^* \\
(F, C)^\perp &:= F, C^* \\
1^\perp_P &:= \bot_C \\
(P \otimes Q)^* &:= P^* \nabla Q^* \\
1^\perp_C &:= 1_P \\
(C \nabla D)^* &:= C^* \otimes D^* \\
A[\perp] &:= [A^\perp] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Lemma 5. The following axioms hold in LPC:

\[
A, A^\perp \vdash \cdot \\
P, P^* \vdash \cdot \\
C, C^* \vdash \cdot 
\]

Proof. We proceed by mutual induction on \( A, P \) and \( C \).

- If \( A = 0 \) then the derivation of \( 0, \top \vdash \cdot \) is given by the 0-L rule.
- If \( A = A_1 \oplus A_2 \) then the inductive hypotheses give us derivations \( \mathcal{D}_1 \) of \( A_1, A_1^\perp \vdash \cdot \) and \( \mathcal{D}_2 \) of \( A_2, A_2^\perp \vdash \cdot \). The desired derivation can then be constructed as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\mathcal{D}_1 \\
&\frac{A_1, A_1^\perp \vdash \cdot \quad A_1^\perp \& A_2^\perp \vdash \cdot}{A_1 \oplus A_2, A_1^\perp \& A_2^\perp \vdash \cdot} & \&_L-1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

- If \( A = 1_L \) then the following is a valid derivation of \( 1_L, \bot_L \vdash \cdot \):

\[
\begin{align*}
&\bot_L \vdash \cdot \\
&\frac{1_L^\perp \vdash \cdot}{1_L \vdash \cdot} & \&_L-1 \\
\end{align*}
\]
• If \( A = A_1 \otimes A_2 \) then the inductive hypotheses postulate the derivations \( D_1 \) of \( A_1, A_1 \vdash \cdot \) and \( D_2 \) of \( A_2, A_2 \vdash \cdot \). From these it is possible to obtain the following:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
D_1 \\
A_1, A_1 \vdash \cdot \\
A_1, A_2, A_1 \vdash \cdot \\
A_1, A_2, A_1 \vdash \cdot \quad \gamma^- \cdot \\
\hline
A_1 \otimes A_2, A_1 \vdash \cdot \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
D_2 \\
A_2, A_2 \vdash \cdot \\
A_1, A_2, A_2 \vdash \cdot \\
\hline
A_1 \otimes A_2, A_1 \vdash \cdot \\
\end{array}
\]

• If \( A = F \models P \) then the inductive hypothesis for \( P \) gives a derivation \( D \) of \( P, P^* \vdash \cdot \). We then have

\[
\begin{array}{c}
D \\
P, P^* \vdash \cdot \\
F \models P \vdash \cdot \\
\hline
F \models P^* \vdash \cdot \\
\end{array}
\]

• If \( P = \lceil A \rceil \) then the inductive hypothesis provides a derivation \( D \) of \( A, A^\perp \vdash \cdot \). Consider

\[
\begin{array}{c}
D \\
A, A^\perp \vdash \cdot \\
\lceil A \rceil, A^\perp \vdash \cdot \\
\hline
\lceil A \rceil, \lfloor A \rfloor \vdash \cdot \\
\end{array}
\]

The other cases are similar.

An isomorphic proof shows that \( \cdot \vdash A, A^\perp, \cdot \vdash P, P^* \) and \( \cdot \vdash C, C^* \) are axioms as well. This proof does not extend to the case of persistent propositions in a linear sequent, but it is nevertheless possible to construct proofs of \( P, P^* \vdash \cdot \) and \( \cdot \vdash P, P^* \) as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
P^* \vdash P^* \quad \text{Ax}^* \\
P, P^* \vdash \cdot \quad \text{Cut}_C \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\vdash P, P^* \\
P \vdash P \\
\text{Ax}^* \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\vdash P, P^* \\
P \vdash P \\
\text{Cut}_P \\
\end{array}
\]

**Theorem 6** (Admissibility of Duality). *The duality inference rules given in Figure 7 are admissible in LPC.*

*Proof.* The linear rules can be encoded using cut and the lemmas above.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash \Delta, A \\
\Gamma, A^\perp \vdash \Delta \\
\text{Cut}_L \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\vdash A, A^\perp \\
\Gamma, \Delta, A^\perp \vdash \Delta \\
\text{Cut}_L \\
\end{array}
\]

Next, consider the producer duality rule for persistent sequents. The right rule can be implemented by means of a cut, but when applying cut for the left rule, the mode of the contexts are restricted, as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta^c, P \\
\Gamma^p, P^* \vdash \cdot \\
\text{Cut}_P \\
\end{array}
\]

By the displacement theorem this restriction is actually redundant; \( P \) is the only displaced proposition in any derivation of \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta, P \).

The same restrictions on the cut rules lead to the following left duality rule for producers in linear sequents, which is *not* equivalent to the one in Figure 7:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\Gamma^p \vdash \Delta^c, P \\
\Gamma^p, P^* \vdash \cdot \\
\text{Cut}_P \\
\end{array}
\]
In this case the hypothesis and conclusion are different types of sequent, and the restrictions exclude the occurrence of any linear terms in the contexts. We can avoid these restrictions by proving the more general form of the rule directly. Let \( \mathcal{D} \) be any derivation of \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta, P \). We will prove by induction on \( \mathcal{D} \) that there is a derivation of \( \Gamma, P^* \vdash \Delta \).

- If \( P \) is not the principle formula in \( \mathcal{D} \) then we can apply the inductive hypothesis directly to obtain the desired sequent.
- If \( \mathcal{D} \) is an axiom, then the desired sequent has the form \( P, P^* \vdash \cdot \), which we constructed above.
- The last rule in \( \mathcal{D} \) cannot be the \( \lceil - \rceil \) right rule because \( \mathcal{D} \) is a linear sequent.
- If \( \mathcal{D} \) is the \( 1_p \) right rule then the desired sequent is \( \perp \vdash \cdot \), which is simply the \( \perp \)-left rule.
- Finally, if

\[
\mathcal{D}_1 \quad \frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, P_1}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2, P_1 \otimes P_2} \quad \otimes^p\text{-R}
\]

\[
\mathcal{D}_2 \quad \frac{\Gamma_2 \vdash \Delta_2, P_2}{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2, P_1 \otimes P_2} \quad \otimes^p\text{-R}
\]

then the inductive hypotheses for \( \mathcal{D}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{D}_2 \) give us derivations \( \mathcal{D}_1' \) of \( \Gamma_1, P_1^* \vdash \Delta_1 \) and \( \mathcal{D}_2' \) of \( \Gamma_2, P_2^* \vdash \Delta_2 \). From this we can obtain

\[
\mathcal{D}_1' \quad \frac{\Gamma_1, P_1^* \vdash \Delta_1}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, P_1^* \n P_2^* \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \otimes^\perp\text{-L}
\]

\[
\mathcal{D}_2' \quad \frac{\Gamma_2, P_2^* \vdash \Delta_2}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, P_1^* \n P_2^* \vdash \Delta_1, \Delta_2} \quad \otimes^\perp\text{-L}
\]

The formulation of duality rules for consumers in linear sequents is similar.

3.4 Consistency

Using the cut and duality rules we can prove that LPC is consistent. Define the negation of a linear proposition to be \( \neg A := A \perp \n A \).

**Lemma 7 (Consistency).** There is no proposition \( A \) such that \( A \) and \( \neg A \) are both provable in LPC.

**Proof.** Suppose there were such an \( A \), along with derivations \( \mathcal{D}_1 \) of \( \cdot \vdash A \) and \( \mathcal{D}_2 \) of \( \cdot \vdash A \perp \n A \). Then we construct a derivation of \( \cdot \vdash 0 \) as follows:

\[
\frac{\mathcal{D}_2}{\cdot \vdash A^+, 0} \quad \frac{\mathcal{D}_1}{A^+ \vdash , \cdot \vdash 0} \quad \frac{\cdot \vdash A^+}{(-)^+ \text{-L}} \quad \frac{\cdot \vdash 0}{\text{Cut}_L^\perp}
\]

However, there is no cut-free proof of \( \cdot \vdash 0 \) in LPC, which contradicts cut admissibility.

4 Categorical Model

In this section we will describe a categorical axiomatization of LPC based on the three-category picture in Figure 1. We start by defining each of the three categories and the necessary adjunctions between them. Then we show LPC’s equivalence to other semantic models in the literature. Finally we define an interpretation of the logic into the category theory and demonstrate some properties about the interpretation.
4.1 The LPC Model

Monoidal Structures

We start with some basic definitions about symmetric monoidal structures.

Definition 8. A symmetric monoidal category is a category $C$ equipped with a bifunctor $\otimes$, an object $1$, and the following natural isomorphisms:

$$
\alpha_{A_1,A_2,A_3} : A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes A_3) \to (A_1 \otimes A_2) \otimes A_3 \\
\lambda_A : 1 \otimes A \to A \\
\rho_A : A \otimes 1 \to A \\
\sigma_{A,B} : A \otimes B \to B \otimes A
$$

These must satisfy the following coherence diagrams:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes (A_3 \otimes A_4)) \\
\downarrow \alpha_{A_1,A_2,A_3 \otimes A_4} \\
(A_1 \otimes A_2) \otimes (A_3 \otimes A_4) \\
\downarrow \alpha_{A_1 \otimes A_2,A_3 \otimes A_4} \\
((A_1 \otimes A_2) \otimes A_3) \otimes A_4 \\
\downarrow \alpha_{A_1,A_2,A_3 \otimes A_4}^{-1} \otimes id_{A_4} \\
(A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes A_3)) \otimes A_4
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes (1 \otimes A_2) \\
\downarrow id_{A_1} \otimes \lambda_{A_2} \\
\downarrow \rho_{A_1} \otimes id_{A_2} \\
A_1 \otimes A_2 \\
\downarrow \alpha_{A_1,1,A_2} \\
(A_1 \otimes 1) \otimes A_2
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes A_3) \\
\downarrow id_{A_1} \otimes \sigma_{A_2,A_3} \\
(A_1 \otimes A_2) \otimes A_3 \\
\downarrow \sigma_{A_1 \otimes A_2,A_3} \\
A_3 \otimes (A_1 \otimes A_2)
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes (A_3 \otimes A_2) \\
\downarrow \sigma_{A_1,A_2,A_3} \\
(A_1 \otimes A_3) \otimes A_2 \\
\downarrow \sigma_{A_1 \otimes A_3,A_2} \otimes id_{A_2} \\
(A_3 \otimes A_1) \otimes A_2
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A \otimes B \\
\downarrow \sigma_{A,B} \\
B \otimes A \\
\downarrow \sigma_{B,A} \\
A \otimes B
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1 \otimes A \\
\downarrow \sigma_{1,A} \\
A \otimes 1 \\
\downarrow \lambda_A \\
A \\
\downarrow \rho_A
\end{array}
\]
Definition 9. Let \((\mathcal{C}, \otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho, \sigma)\) and \((\mathcal{C}', \otimes', 1', \alpha', \lambda', \rho', \sigma')\) be symmetric monoidal categories. A symmetric monoidal functor \(F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C}'\) is a functor along with a map \(m_1^F : 1' \to F 1\) and a natural transformation \(m_{A,B}^F : F (A) \otimes' F (B) \to F (A \otimes B)\) that satisfy the following coherence conditions:
Linear Category

The linear category should interpret the inference rules from Figure 2 as well as the linear duality. Traditionally this fragment of linear logic is modeled by a *-autonomous category, where multiplicative product $\otimes$ and linear implication $\multimap$ are the primitive operators. In LPC however, the primitive multiplicative operators are $\otimes$ and $\otimes$, while linear implication $\multimap$ is derived as $A \multimap B := A^\perp \otimes B$. Therefore the linear category in the LPC axiomatization is a linearly distributive category, introduced by Cockett and Seely (1997), where the two monoidal structures are the primitive components.

**Definition 12.** Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a category with two symmetric monoidal structures: $(\otimes, 1, \alpha^\otimes, \lambda^\otimes, \rho^\otimes, \sigma^\otimes)$ and $(\multimap, \bot, \alpha^\multimap, \lambda^\multimap, \rho^\multimap, \sigma^\multimap)$. Let $\delta_{A_1, A_2, A_3} : A_1 \otimes (A_2 \multimap A_3) \to (A_1 \otimes A_2) \multimap A_3$ be a natural transformation in $\mathcal{L}$. We can derive the following variations on $\delta$:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes (A_2 \multimap A_3) \xrightarrow{id \otimes \sigma^\multimap} A_1 \otimes (A_2 \multimap A_3) \xrightarrow{\sigma^\otimes} (A_3 \multimap A_2) \otimes A_1 \xrightarrow{\sigma^\bot \otimes id} (A_2 \multimap A_3) \otimes A_1 \\
\delta_{L,L} = \delta \\
\delta_{L,R} \\
\delta_{R,R} \\
\delta_{R,L}
\end{array}
\]

Then $\mathcal{L}$ is a symmetric linearly distributive category if the following coherence conditions are satisfied:

**Distribution and Unit**

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1 \otimes (A \multimap B) \xrightarrow{\delta_{L,L}} (1 \otimes A) \multimap B \\
\lambda^\otimes \\
\rho^\otimes \otimes id \\
A \multimap B
\end{array}
\]

**Distribution and Associativity**

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes (A_3 \multimap A_4)) \xrightarrow{\alpha^\otimes} (A_1 \otimes A_2) \otimes (A_3 \multimap A_4) \\
\delta^L_{L,L} \\
\delta^L_{R,L} \\
\delta^L_{R,R}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \otimes ((A_2 \otimes A_3) \multimap A_4) \xrightarrow{\alpha^\otimes \otimes id} ((A_1 \otimes A_2) \otimes A_3) \multimap A_4 \\
\delta^L_{L,L} \\
\delta^L_{R,L} \\
\delta^L_{R,R} \otimes id
\end{array}
\]

**Distribution and Distribution**

\[
\begin{array}{c}
(A_1 \multimap A_2) \otimes (A_3 \multimap A_4) \xrightarrow{\delta^R_{L,L}} (A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes A_3) \multimap A_4) \\
\delta^R_{R,R} \\
\delta^R_{L,L} \\
\delta^R_{R,L} \otimes id
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_1 \multimap (A_2 \otimes (A_3 \multimap A_4)) \xrightarrow{\alpha^\multimap} (A_1 \otimes (A_2 \otimes A_3)) \multimap A_4 \\
\delta^L_{L,L} \\
\delta^L_{R,L} \\
\alpha^\bot
\end{array}
\]

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Co associativity and Distribution

\[ A_1 \otimes (A_2 \mp (A_3 \mp A_4)) \xrightarrow{id \otimes \alpha^\mp} A_1 \otimes ((A_2 \mp A_3) \mp A_4) \]

\[ \delta^{L.R} \]
\[ \delta^{L.L} \]
\[ A_2 \mp (A_1 \otimes (A_3 \mp A_4)) \xrightarrow{\delta^{L.L}} (A_1 \otimes (A_2 \mp A_3)) \mp A_4 \]
\[ \delta^{L.R} \mp id \]
\[ \delta^{L.L} \mp \alpha^\mp \]
\[ A_2 \mp ((A_1 \otimes A_3) \mp A_4) \xrightarrow{\alpha^\mp} (A_2 \mp (A_1 \otimes A_3)) \mp A_4 \]

In addition, all of the above diagrams must hold when translated through the following symmetries:¹ \([\text{op}']\) reverses the arrows and swaps \(\otimes\) and \(\mp\), as well as \(1\) and \(\bot\).

\[ \delta^{L,L} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]
\[ \delta^{L,R} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]
\[ \delta^{R,L} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]

\(\otimes\)' swaps the arguments of the tensor \(\otimes\):

\[ \delta^{L,L} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]
\[ \delta^{L,R} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]
\[ \delta^{R,L} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]

\(\mp\)' swaps the arguments of the cotensor \(\mp\):

\[ \delta^{L,L} \leftrightarrow \delta^{L,R} \]
\[ \delta^{R,L} \leftrightarrow \delta^{R,R} \]

The details of these symmetries are described in more detail by Cockett and Seely (1997).

**Definition 13.** A symmetric linear distributive category \(\mathcal{L}\) is said to have negation if there exists a map \((-)^\perp\) on objects of \(\mathcal{L}\), and families of maps

\[ \gamma^\perp_{A}: A^\perp \otimes A \rightarrow \perp \]
\[ \gamma^\perp_{1}: 1 \rightarrow A \mp A^\perp \]

 inducing maps

\[ \gamma^\perp_{A}': A \otimes A^\perp \xrightarrow{\sigma^\perp_{A,A^\perp}} A^\perp \otimes A \xrightarrow{\gamma^\perp_{A}} \perp \]
\[ \gamma^\perp_{1}': 1 \xrightarrow{\gamma^\perp_{1}} A \mp A^\perp \xrightarrow{\gamma^\perp_{A}'} A^\perp \mp A \]

which satisfy the following diagrams under the symmetries \(\text{op}', \otimes\)' and \(\mp\)':

¹When not specified, the symmetry is the identity.
Lemma 14 (Cockett and Seely (1997)). Symmetric linearly distributive categories with negation correspond to $\ast$-autonomous categories.

As a corollary, $(\cdot)\perp$ extends to a contravariant involutive functor which is both monoidal and comonoidal.

To encode the additives, we require that the linear category has finite products $\&$ with unit $\top$, and finite coproducts $\oplus$ with unit $0$.

The Persistent Categories

The producer and consumer categories must model weakening and contraction, but they must also be related via a categorical duality that respects the monoidal structures.

Definition 15. Two symmetric monoidal categories $(\mathcal{P}, \otimes)$ and $(\mathcal{C}, \gamma)$ are in duality with each other if there exist contravariant functors $(-)^* : \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, which is comonoidal, and $(-)_* : \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$, which is monoidal, and natural isomorphisms

$$\epsilon^*_*: (\mathcal{C})^* \Rightarrow C$$
$$\eta^*_* : P \Rightarrow (P^*)_*$$

where $\epsilon^*_*$ is comonoidal and $\eta^*_*$ is monoidal.

Definition 16. Let $(\mathcal{P}, \otimes, 1_P)$ be a symmetric monoidal category. A commutative comonoid in $\mathcal{P}$ is an object $P$ in $\mathcal{P}$ along with two morphisms $e^\otimes : P \rightarrow 1_P$ and $d^\otimes : P \rightarrow P \otimes P$ such that the following commuting diagrams are satisfied:
Dually, a commutative monoid in a symmetric monoidal category \((\mathcal{C}, \otimes, \bot)\) is an object \(C\) along with morphisms \(e^\otimes : \bot \to C\) and \(d^\otimes : C \otimes C \to C\) such that the appropriate diagrams commute.

The LPC model

**Definition 17.** A linear/producing/consuming (LPC) model consists of the following components:

1. A symmetric weakly distributive category \((\mathcal{L}, \otimes, \neg)\) with negation \((-)^\perp\), finite products \& finite coproducts \(\oplus\).

2. Symmetric monoidal categories \((\mathcal{P}, \otimes)\) and \((\mathcal{C}, \neg)\), in duality with each other by means of contravariant functors
   \((-)^\ast : \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C} \quad \text{and} \quad (-)^\ast : \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}\).

3. Monoidal natural transformations
   \(e^\otimes_P : P \Rightarrow 1_P\) and \(d^\otimes_P : P \Rightarrow P \otimes P\)
in \(\mathcal{P}\), and comonoidal natural transformations
   \(e^\neg_C : \bot \Rightarrow C\) and \(d^\neg_C : C \Rightarrow C \otimes C\)
in \(\mathcal{C}\), interchanged under duality, such that
   (a) for every object \(P\) in \(\mathcal{P}\), \((P, d^\otimes_P, e^\otimes_P)\) forms a commutative comonoid; and
   (b) for every object \(C\) in \(\mathcal{C}\), \((C, d^\neg_C, e^\neg_C)\) forms a commutative monoid.

4. Symmetric monoidal functors
   \([-] : \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}\) and \(F_i : \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}\)
and symmetric comonoidal functors
   \([-] : \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}\) and \(F_i : \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}\)
that respect the dualities in that
   \((F_i P)^\perp \simeq F_i (P^\ast)\) and \([A] \simeq [A^\perp]\)
and that form monoidal/comonoidal adjunctions
   \([-] \dashv F_i\) and \(F_i \dashv [-]\).

We can make a few observations about the LPC characterization:

- The monoidal components \(m^{F_i}\) of the \(F_i\) functor are necessarily isomorphisms, whose inverses are as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
(m^{F_i})^{-1}_1 &= n^{F_i}_1 : F_i 1_P \xrightarrow{F_i 1_{[1_L]}} F_i [1_L] \xrightarrow{\epsilon_L} 1_L \\
(m^{F_i}_{P,Q})^{-1} &= n^{F_i}_{P,Q} : F_i (P \otimes Q) \xrightarrow{F_i ([F_i P] \otimes [F_i Q])} F_i (F_i P \otimes F_i Q) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{F_i P \otimes F_i Q}} F_i P \otimes F_i Q
\end{align*}
\]

Thus \(F_i\) is both monoidal and comonoidal, and similarly for \(F_i\).

- The condition that every object in \(\mathcal{P}\) forms a commutative comonoid is equivalent to the condition that \(\mathcal{P}\) is cartesian. The long form of the definition here highlights the fact that the comonoid structures in \(\mathcal{P}\) induce the respective structures in \(\mathcal{L}\) for the comonad \(!\). Similarly, Condition 3(b) is equivalent to stating that \(\mathcal{C}\) is cocartesian.
4.2 LPC and other models of linear logic

As LPC is inspired by Benton’s linear/non-linear paradigm, we would like to formalize the relationship between LPC and LNL.

**Definition 18** (Melliés (2003)). A linear/non-linear (LNL) model consists of

1. a symmetric monoidal closed category \( L \);
2. a cartesian category \( P \); and
3. functors \( G : L \to P \) and \( F : P \to L \) that form a symmetric monoidal adjunction \( F \dashv G \).

The LNL model given by Benton (1995) has the added condition that the cartesian category be cartesian closed.

**Lemma 19.** Every LPC model is an LNL model.

A *-autonomous category in a linear/non-linear model induces the consumer category in LPC:

**Lemma 20.** If the category \( L \) in an LNL model is *-autonomous, then the categories \( (L, P, P^{op}) \) form an LPC model.

Next we prove that every LPC model contains a classical linear category as defined by Schalk (2004).

**Definition 21.** A comonad \( (!, \mu, \nu) \) consists of a functor \(!\) and natural transformations

\[ \nu_A : !A \to A \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_A : !A \to !!A \]

such that the following diagrams commute:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
!A & \xrightarrow{\mu_A} & !!A \\
\downarrow{\nu_A} & & \downarrow{\mu_A} \\
!!A & \xrightarrow{id} & !A \\
\end{array}
\quad \quad
\begin{array}{ccc}
!A & \xrightarrow{\mu_A} & !!A \\
\downarrow{\nu_A} & & \downarrow{\mu_A} \\
!!A & \xrightarrow{id} & !A \\
\end{array}
\]

**Definition 22.** A comonad \( (!, \mu, \nu) \) is monoidal if \(!\) is a monoidal functor and \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) are monoidal natural transformations.

**Definition 23.** A symmetric monoidal category \( L \) has a linear exponential comonad if it has a monoidal comonad \( (!, \mu, \nu) \) such that

1. There exist monoidal natural transformations \( e^l_A : !A \to A \) and \( d^l_A : !A \to !A \otimes !A \) such that for every object \( A \) in \( L \), \( (!A, e^l_A, d^l_A) \) forms a commutative comonoid.

2. The morphisms \( e^l_A \) and \( d^l_A \) are coalgebra morphisms, meaning that they satisfy

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
!A & \xrightarrow{\mu_A} & !!A \\
\downarrow{d^l_A} & & \downarrow{\mu_A} \\
!A \otimes !A & \xrightarrow{\mu_A \otimes \mu_A} & !!A \otimes !!A \\
\end{array}
\quad \quad
\begin{array}{ccc}
!A & \xrightarrow{\mu_A} & !!A \\
\downarrow{e^l_A} & & \downarrow{\mu_A} \\
!A \otimes !A & \xrightarrow{\mu_A \otimes \mu_A} & !!A \otimes !!A \\
\end{array}
\quad \quad
\begin{array}{ccc}
!A & \xrightarrow{id} & !!A \\
\downarrow{1_A} & & \downarrow{1_A} \\
!A & \xrightarrow{id} & !!A \\
\end{array}
\]

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3. Every morphism $\mu_A$ is a morphism of comonoids, meaning that it satisfies

\[ \begin{array}{ccc}
\varepsilon^!_A & \to & \mu_A \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
\varepsilon^!_A & \downarrow & 1_L \\
\end{array} \]

Definition 24 (Schalk (2004)). A category $\mathcal{L}$ is a model for classical linear logic if and only if it

1. is $\ast$-autonomous;
2. has finite products $\&$ and thus finite coproducts $\oplus$;
3. has a linear exponential comonad $!$ and thus a linear exponential monad $\otimes$.

Theorem 25. The category $\mathcal{L}$ from the LPC model is a model for classical linear logic.

Proof. Lemma 14 states that $\mathcal{L}$ is $\ast$-autonomous, so it suffices to show that $\mathcal{L}$ has a linear exponential comonad. The proof is similar to that of Benton (1994), so we will simply provide a proof sketch here.

The adjunction $F_1 \dashv [-]$ is known to form a comonad $F_1([-)]$ in $\mathcal{L}$ with components

\[ \nu_A := F_1 [A] \xrightarrow{\Delta} A \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_A := F_1 [A] \xrightarrow{F_1 \eta[A]} F_1 [F_1 [A]] \]

where $\epsilon$ is the unit of the adjunction, and $\eta$ the counit. The comonad is monoidal because both functors, unit and counit are monoidal.

The monoid’s components come from the monoid in $\mathcal{P}$ passed through the adjunction:

\[ e^!_A := F_1 [A] \xrightarrow{F_1 \varepsilon[A]} F_1 1_p \xrightarrow{\eta_{1_p}} 1 \]
\[ d^!_A := F_1 [A] \xrightarrow{F_1 d[A]} F_1 ([A] \otimes [A]) \xrightarrow{\eta_{[A]} \otimes \eta[A]} F_1 [A] \otimes F_1 [A] \]

These natural transformations form a commutative comonoid because of the fact that $F_1$ is a monoidal functor and because $(P, e_P, d_P)$ forms a commutative monoid in $\mathcal{P}$.

To show that $e^!_A$ is a coalgebra morphism, we can expand out the diagram as follows:

\[ \begin{array}{ccc}
F_1 [A] & \xrightarrow{F_1 \eta[A]} & F_1 [F_1 [A]] \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
F_1 e[A] & \xrightarrow{F_1 \varepsilon[A]} & F_1 1_p \xrightarrow{\eta_{1_p}} F_1 [F_1 e[A]] \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
1_L & \xrightarrow{m_{1_L}^{F_1}} & F_1 1_p \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{1_p}} F_1 [1_L] \\
\end{array} \]
The rectangle commutes by the naturality of \( \eta \), and the bottom parallelogram commutes because \( \eta \) is monoidal. Meanwhile, the two lower triangles are due to the fact that \( n_{\Gamma}^{\mathcal{P}} \) is the inverse of \( m_{\Delta}^{\mathcal{P}} \).

The proof that \( d_A \) is a co-algebra morphism is similar.

Finally, the fact that \( \mu_A \) forms a morphism of comonoids stems easily from the facts that \( e, d \), and \( m^{\mathcal{P}} \) are natural transformations.

\[\square\]

### 4.3 Interpretation of the Logic

We define an interpretation of the LPC logic that maps propositions to objects in either \( \mathcal{L} \), \( \mathcal{P} \) or \( \mathcal{C} \), and derivations to morphisms. For objects, the \( [-]_L \) interpretation function is defined on all propositions, but \( [-]_P \) and \( [-]_C \) are defined only on persistent propositions. On the linear units and combinators, the interpretations act as expected. On the adjoint functors, the behavior is as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
[\Gamma; P]_L &= [\Gamma]_L \otimes [P]_L & [P]_L &= F; [P]_L \\
[\Gamma]_L &= [\Gamma]_L & [P]_L &= F; [P]_L \\
[\Gamma]_C &= [\Gamma]_C & [P]_C &= [\Gamma]_C \\
[\Gamma; P]_P &= [\Gamma; P]_L & [\Gamma]_P &= [\Gamma]_L
\end{align*}
\]

Finally, for persistent propositions of the opposite mode, we use duality to interpret the propositions:

\[
[\Gamma]_P = ([\Gamma]_C)^*, \quad [P]_C = ([P]_P)^*
\]

Contexts can be interpreted with the comma as either the tensor or cotensor in the linear category, though in the producer category there is no cotensor and vice versa for the consumer category.

\[
\begin{align*}
[\Gamma]_L^\otimes &= 1_L & [X, \Gamma]_L^\otimes &= [X]_L \otimes [\Gamma]_L^\otimes \\
[\Gamma]_L^\nabla &= \bot_L & [X, \Gamma]_L^\nabla &= [X]_L \nabla [\Gamma]_L^\nabla \\
[\Gamma]_P &= 1_P & [X, \Gamma]_P &= [X]_P \otimes [\Gamma]_P \\
[\Gamma]_C &= \bot_C & [X, \Gamma]_C &= [X]_C \nabla [\Gamma]_C
\end{align*}
\]

Recall that a context is an unordered collection of propositions, while its interpretation is an ordered mapping. The interpretation function is well-defined up to isomorphism because all three categories are symmetric monoidal, but for a more rigorous treatment of the interpretation function, the isomorphisms should be made explicit.

A linear derivation \( \mathcal{D} \) of the form \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta \) will be interpreted as a morphism \([\mathcal{D}]_L : [\Gamma]_L^\otimes \to [\Delta]_L^\otimes\), but this will not suffice for persistent derivations \( \Gamma \vdash P \). When mapped into \( \mathcal{P} \), the codomain cannot be interpreted as a \( \nabla \)-separated list. We proved in Section 3.1 that every persistent derivation \( \mathcal{D} \) contains exactly one displaced proposition. This means that \( \mathcal{D} \) is either of the form \( \Gamma^P \vdash \Delta^C, P \) or \( \Gamma^P, C \vdash \Delta^C \). In the category \( \mathcal{P} \), this derivation will be interpreted as a morphism

\[
[\mathcal{D}]_P : [\Gamma^P]_P \otimes [\Delta^C]_P \to [P]_P
\]

respectively. Similarly, in the category \( \mathcal{C} \), the derivation will be interpreted as a morphism

\[
[\mathcal{D}]_C : [P]_C \to [\Delta^C]_C \nabla [\Gamma^P]_C
\]

The interpretation is defined by mutual induction on the derivations.

Interpreting weakening and contraction in the persistent sequent is straightforward using the monoid in \( \mathcal{C} \) and comonoid in \( \mathcal{P} \). For weakening in the linear sequent, suppose we have the following derivation:

\[
\frac{D'}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta} \quad \text{W'}-L
\]
The interpretation of $\mathcal{D}$ inserts the comonoid in $\mathcal{P}$ into the linear category.

\[
\begin{align*}
[D]_L : ([\Gamma]^\otimes_L]_L \otimes F_1 [P]_P \\
 &\xrightarrow{id \otimes F_1 e^{\otimes}} \Delta_L^\otimes \otimes F_1 1_P \\
 &\xrightarrow{id \otimes (m^F)^{-1}} \Delta_L^\otimes \otimes 1_L \\
 &\rho^{\otimes} \xrightarrow{\rho} [Q]_P
\end{align*}
\]

In the producer sequent, suppose we have a derivation

\[
\mathcal{D}'
\]

\[
\mathcal{D} = \frac{\Gamma^P, P \vdash \Delta^L, Q}{W^\omega-L}
\]

The interpretation in $\mathcal{P}$ is defined as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
[D]_P : (([\Gamma^P]_P \otimes [P]_P) \otimes [\Delta^C]_P \\
 &\xrightarrow{(id \otimes c^{\otimes}) \otimes id} ([\Gamma^P]_P \otimes 1_P) \otimes [\Delta^C]_P \\
 &\xrightarrow{\rho^{\otimes} \otimes id} [\Gamma^P]_P \otimes [\Delta^C]_P \\
 &\xrightarrow{[D]'_P} [Q]_P
\end{align*}
\]

The case for contraction is similar. For a linear derivation with contraction such as

\[
[\Delta^C]_L
\]

\[
\mathcal{D}'
\]

\[
\mathcal{D} = \frac{\Gamma, P, P \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, P \vdash C^\omega-L}
\]

it is possible to construct the morphism

\[
\begin{align*}
[D]_L : ([\Gamma]^\otimes_L]_L \otimes F_1 [P]_P \\
 &\xrightarrow{id \otimes F_1 d^{\otimes}} [\Gamma]^\otimes_L \otimes F_1 ([P]_P \otimes [P]_P) \\
 &\xrightarrow{id \otimes (m^F)^{-1}} [\Gamma]^\otimes_L \otimes (F_1 [P]_P \otimes F_1 [P]_P) \\
 &\xrightarrow{[D]'_P} [\Delta]_L^\otimes
\end{align*}
\]

Next we move on to the rules for the adjoint functors. The $F_1$-L and $F_2$-R rules are interpreted directly by the inductive hypothesis; the $F_1$-R and $F_2$-L rules are a bit more complicated. Suppose $\mathcal{D}$ is the following derivation:

\[
\mathcal{D}'
\]

\[
\mathcal{D} = \frac{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta^L, P}{\Gamma^P \vdash C^\omega, F_1 P} F_1-R
\]

The inductive hypothesis provides a morphism $[D]'_P : ([\Gamma^P]_P \otimes [\Delta^C]_P) \rightarrow [P]_P$. It is necessary to undo this duality transformation for interpretation in the linear category. Notice that for any persistent context $\Gamma$, there is an isomorphism $\pi : [\Gamma]^\otimes_L \cong F_1 [\Gamma]_P$ given by the monoidal components of $F_1$. Furthermore, there
is an isomorphism $\tau$ between $([\![\Gamma]\!]_L^\gamma)^\perp$ and $F_1[\![\Gamma]\!]_p$ given by the isomorphism $(F_2 C)^\perp \cong F_1 C_\ast$. Using these morphisms we define the interpretation of $D$:

$$\begin{align*}
[\mathcal{D}]_L : [\![\Gamma]\!]_L^\circ & \xmapsto{\nu^\circ} [\![\Gamma]\!]_L^\circ \otimes 1_L \\
& \xmapsto{\text{id} \otimes \gamma_1} [\![\Gamma]\!]_L^\circ \otimes (([\Delta^C]_L^\gamma)^\perp \cong [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma) \\
& \xmapsto{\pi \otimes (\tau \text{id})} F_1[\![\Gamma]\!]_p \otimes (F_1[\![\Delta^C]\!]_p \cong [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma) \\
& \xmapsto{\delta_1 \circ L} (F_1[\![\Gamma]\!]_p \otimes F_1[\![\Delta^C]\!]_p) \cong [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma \\
& \xmapsto{m \circ \text{id}} F_1([\![\Gamma]\!]_p \otimes [\Delta^C]_p) \cong [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma \\
& \xmapsto{F_1[\![\mathcal{D'}]\!]_p \circ \text{id}} F_1[\![P]\!]_p \cong [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma \\
& \xmapsto{\sigma^\gamma} [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma \cong [F_1[\![P]\!]_L]
\end{align*}$$

The $[-]$-L rule uses the unit of the adjunction in its interpretation. Suppose

$$\begin{align*}
\mathcal{D}' & \xmapsto{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta} \mathcal{D} = \Gamma, [A] \vdash \Delta \quad [\cdot]$-L \\
\mathcal{D} & \xmapsto{\Gamma, [A] \vdash \Delta} \mathcal{D}
\end{align*}$$

Then its interpretation can be defined as

$$\begin{align*}
[\mathcal{D}]_L : [\![\Gamma]\!]_L^\circ \otimes F_1([\![A]\!]_L)) & \xmapsto{\text{id} \otimes \pi} [\![\Gamma]\!]_L^\circ \otimes [A]_L \\
& \xmapsto{[\mathcal{D}]_L} [\Delta^C]_L^\gamma
\end{align*}$$

The $[-]$-R rule uses the counit of the adjunction, along with the isomorphisms $\pi$ and $\tau$ defined previously. Let

$$\begin{align*}
\mathcal{D}' & \xmapsto{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta^C, A} \mathcal{D} = \Gamma^P \vdash \Delta^C, [A] \quad [\cdot]$-R \\
\mathcal{D} & \xmapsto{\Gamma^P \vdash \Delta^C, [A]} \mathcal{D}
\end{align*}$$

Its interpretation is defined as follows:

$$\begin{align*}
[\mathcal{D}]_P : [\![\Gamma^P]\!_p \otimes [\Delta^C]_p] & \xmapsto{\eta \otimes \eta} [F_1[\![\Gamma^P]\!]_p] \otimes [F_1[\![\Delta^C]\!]_p] \\
& \xmapsto{m[-1]} [F_1[\![\Gamma^P]\!]_p \otimes F_1[\![\Delta^C]\!]_p] \\
& \xmapsto{[\pi \otimes \tau \circ \text{id}]} ([\![\Gamma^P]\!]_L^\circ \otimes ([\Delta^C]_L^\gamma)^\perp) \\
& \xmapsto{[\mathcal{D'}]_L \circ \text{id}} ([([\Delta^C]_L^\gamma \cong [A]_L) \otimes ([\Delta^C]_L^\gamma)^\perp] \\
& \xmapsto{[\delta_R \circ \text{id}]} ([([\Delta^C]_L^\gamma \cong [A]_L) \otimes ([\Delta^C]_L^\gamma)^\perp] \\
& \xmapsto{\gamma^\perp \circ \text{id}} [\perp \cong [A]_L] \\
& \xmapsto{[\lambda^\gamma]} [\![A]_L] = [\![A]\!]_p
\end{align*}$$
Admissible Rules

The admissible duality and cut rules from the LPC logic should correspond with the expected notions of duality and cut in the categorical model. In the simplest case, suppose a derivation $D$ has the form

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{D_1}{\Gamma \vdash A} & \frac{D_2}{A \vdash \Delta} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{Cut}^\Leftarrow_L\]

Property 26. $\llbracket D \rrbracket_L = \llbracket D_2 \rrbracket_L \circ \llbracket D_1 \rrbracket_L$.

We will sketch some of the cases from the cut admissibility proof to demonstrate that the property holds. First, suppose

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{D_1}{\Gamma \vdash A} & \frac{D_2}{A \vdash \Delta} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{Cut}^\Leftarrow_L\]

By the definition of cut, we have $D = D_2$. So our goal is to show that $\llbracket D_2 \rrbracket_L = \llbracket D_2 \rrbracket_L \circ \llbracket D_1 \rrbracket_L$ which holds because $\llbracket D_2 \rrbracket_L = \llbracket D_2 \rrbracket_L$ and $\llbracket D_1 \rrbracket_L = \text{id}_L$.

Next, suppose $A$ has the form $A_1 \& A_2$ and that

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{D_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash A_1} & \frac{D_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash A_2} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\&^\Leftarrow_L\text{-R}\]

\[\Rightarrow\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{A_1 \vdash \Delta}{} & \frac{A_2 \vdash \Delta}{} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\&^\Leftarrow_L\text{-L}\]

By the definition of cut, $D$ is equal to the inductive derivation

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{D_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash A_1} & \frac{D_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash A_2} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{Cut}^\Leftarrow_L\]

while we have

\[
\llbracket D_1 \rrbracket_L : \llbracket [\Gamma] \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket D_{11} \rrbracket_L \& \llbracket D_{12} \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket A_1 \& A_2 \rrbracket_L
\]

\[
\llbracket D_2 \rrbracket_L : \llbracket [A_1 \& A_2] \rrbracket_L \quad \pi \quad \llbracket [A_1] \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket D'_{2L} \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket_L
\]

Finally, consider the case where $A$ is not the principle formula in $D_1$, and instead we have

\[
\frac{D'_1}{\Gamma, B \vdash A} \\
\hline
\frac{}{\Gamma, B \vdash \Delta}
\]

\[\text{[-] - L}\]

Working through the interpretation function, we know

\[
\llbracket D_1 \rrbracket_L : \llbracket [\Gamma] \rrbracket_L \otimes F \llbracket [B] \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket [\Gamma] \rrbracket_L \otimes \llbracket [B] \rrbracket_L \\
\hline
\llbracket D'_1 \rrbracket_L \quad \llbracket [A] \rrbracket_L
\]

In addition, since

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{D'_1}{\Gamma, B \vdash A} & \frac{D_2}{A \vdash \Delta} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{Cut}^\Leftarrow_L\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma, B \vdash A \quad A \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, B \vdash \Delta} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{[-] - L}\]

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by definition we have

\[[D]_L : [\Gamma]_L \otimes F_1 [B]_L \xrightarrow{\text{id} \otimes \epsilon} [\Gamma]_L \otimes [B]_L \]

\[[D'_1]_L \rightarrow [A]_L \]

\[[D_2]_L \rightarrow [\Delta]_L^\perp\]

5 Examples

This section provides some concrete instances of the LPC model. The following chart summarizes the three examples and their LPC categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \mathcal{L} )</th>
<th>( \mathcal{P} )</th>
<th>( \mathcal{C} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vectors</td>
<td>FINVECT</td>
<td>FINSET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations</td>
<td>REL</td>
<td>SET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boolean Algebras</td>
<td>FINBOOLALG</td>
<td>FINPOSET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FINLAT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1 Vector Spaces

The \( \otimes \), \((-)\perp \) and \( \kappa \) operators of linear logic are easily interpreted by the notions of tensor product, duality and direct product for vector spaces. However, the exponentials \( ! \) and \( ? \) are not induced from the usual structures of linear algebra. In this section we will expand on this intuition to develop the category of finite-dimensional vector spaces (over a finite field) as the linear component of an LPC model.

We start with some preliminaries about vector spaces. For the entirety of this example, fix \( F \) to be a finite-dimensional field of dimension \( q \).

Definition 27. Let \( \text{FINVECT}(\bar{F}) \) be the category of finite-dimensional vector spaces over the finite field \( \bar{F} \). That is, the objects of \( \text{FINVECT}(\bar{F}) \) are vector spaces and the morphisms are linear transformations.

Definition 28. The free vector space \( \text{Free}(X) \) of a finite set \( X \) over \( F \) is the vector space with vectors the formal sums \( \alpha_1 x_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n x_n \), addition defined pointwise, and scalar multiplication defined by distribution over the \( x_i \)'s.

A basis for \( \text{Free}(X) \) is the set \( \{ \delta_x \mid x \in X \} \) where \( \delta_x \) is the free sum \( x \).

The tensor product \( \otimes \) is defined in terms of quotients of a free vector space.

Definition 29. The tensor product of two vector spaces \( U \) and \( V \) is \( U \otimes V = \text{Free}(U \times V)/W \) where \( W \) is the subspace generated by the following elements:

\[(u_1, v) + (u_2, v) - (u_1 + u_2, v) \quad \alpha(u, v) - (\alpha u, v) \]

The equivalence class of \((u, v)\) is denoted \( u \otimes v \). Notice that if \( B_1 \) is a basis for \( U \) and \( B_2 \) is a basis for \( V \) then \( B \otimes B_2 \) is a basis for \( U \otimes V \). The unit \( 1_\mathcal{L} \) of the tensor is the one-dimensional vector space generated by the basis \( \{1V\} \).

The tensor product of two linear maps \( f_1 : U_1 \rightarrow V_1 \) and \( f_2 : U_2 \rightarrow V_2 \) is

\[f_1 \otimes f_2(u_1 \otimes v_1) = f_1(u_1) \otimes f_2(v_2)\]

Since there is no traditional interpretation for \( \forall \) in linear algebra, we define \( \forall \) to be exactly \( \otimes \).

Definition 30. The dual of a vector space \( V \) over \( \bar{F} \) is the set \( V^\perp \) of linear maps from \( V \) to \( \bar{F} \).
For any vector \( v \in V \), we can define \( \pi \in V^\perp \) to be the linear map acting on basis elements \( x \in B \) in the following way:

\[
\pi[x] = \begin{cases} 
1 & x = v \\
0 & x \neq v 
\end{cases}
\]

Addition and scalar multiplication are defined pointwise. Then the set \( \{ \pi \mid x \in B \} \) is a basis for \( V^\perp \).

The additives \( \& \) and \( \oplus \) are embodied by the notions of the direct product and direct sum, which in the case of finite-dimensional vector spaces, coincide.

**Lemma 31.** The category \( \text{FinVect}(\mathbb{F}) \) is a symmetric linearly distributive category with negation, products and coproducts.

**Proof.** Since \( \otimes \) and \( \forall \) overlap, the natural transformation \( \delta \) is simply associativity. The coherence diagrams for linear distribution then depend on the commutativity of tensor, associativity, and swap morphisms. To show the category has negation, we define \( \gamma^\perp \) and \( \gamma^1 \) as follows, where \( B \) is a basis for \( A \):

\[
\gamma^\perp_A : A^\perp \otimes A \to \perp \quad \gamma^1_A : 1_L \to A \forall A^\perp \\
\gamma^\perp_A (\delta_u \otimes v) = \delta_u[v] \cdot 1 \\
\gamma^1_A (1) = \sum_{v \in B} v \otimes \pi
\]

It suffices to check that

\[
\lambda \circ (\gamma^\perp \otimes \text{id}) \circ \alpha \circ (\text{id} \otimes \lambda) = \rho.
\]

So \( \text{FinVect} \) will take the place of the linear category. The producer category will be the category \( \text{FinSet} \) of finite sets and functions, and the consumer category will be its opposite category \( \text{FinSet}^{\text{op}} \) of finite sets and inverse functions. It is not hard to see that the cartesian product in \( \text{FinSet} \) along with unit \( \{\emptyset\} \), is symmetric monoidal, and that the category admits the commutative comonoid, as follows:

\[
e_X : X \to \{\emptyset\} \\
d_X : X \to X \times X \\
e_X (x) = \emptyset \\
d_X (x) = (x, x)
\]

Finally, we present the adjunctions. For now we will address only one of the adjunctions; the other can be inferred from the opposite category. Define \([-] : \text{FinVect} \Rightarrow \text{FinSet} \) to be the forgetful functor, which takes a vector space to its underlying set of vectors, and a linear map to the corresponding function. As a monoidal functor, it has the following components:

\[
m_{1_L}^{[-]} : 1_L \to [1_L] \\
m_{A,B}^{[-]} : [A] \times [B] \to [A \otimes B] \\
m_{1_L}^{[-]} (\emptyset) = [\emptyset] \\
m_{A,B}^{[-]} ([u], [v]) = [u \otimes v]
\]

On objects, the functor \( F_1 : \text{FinSet} \Rightarrow \text{FinVect} \) takes a set \( X \) to the free vector space generated by \( X \). For a morphism \( f : X_1 \to X_2 \) in \( \text{FinSet} \), we can define

\[
F_1 f : \text{Free} (X_1) \to \text{Free} (X_2) \\
F_1 f (\delta_x) = \delta_f (x)
\]

This is a monoidal functor, with components

\[
m_{1_L}^{F_1} : 1_L \to F_1 1_L \\
m_{A,B}^{F_1} : F_1 (X_1 \otimes F_1 X_2) \to F_1 (X_1 \times X_2)
\]

**Lemma 32.** The functors \([-] \) and \( F_1 \) form a symmetric monoidal adjunction \([-] \dashv F_1 \).
Proof. We define the unit and counit of the adjunction as follows:

\[ \epsilon_A : F_l[A] \to A \quad \eta_P : P \to [F_l P] \]
\[ \epsilon_A(\delta_{u,v}) = v \quad \eta_P(x) = [\delta_x] \]

By simply unfolding the definitions, we can see that these families of morphisms are natural transformations. They form an adjunction because \([\epsilon_A] \circ [\eta_A](v) = [\epsilon_A](\delta_{u,v}) = [v],\]
and because \(\epsilon_{F_l P} \circ F_l(\eta_P)\) is the identity on \(\text{FINSET}:\)

\[ \epsilon_{F_l P} \circ F_l(\eta_P)(\delta_z) = \epsilon_{F_l P}(\delta_{\eta_P(z)}) = \epsilon_{F_l P}(\delta_{[\delta_z]}) = \delta_z.\]

Finally, \(\epsilon\) and \(\eta\) are both monoidal natural transformations. For \(\epsilon\), we must show that the following two diagrams commute:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
F_l[A] \otimes F_l[B] \xrightarrow{m_{F_l[A],[B]}^F} F_l([A] \otimes [B]) \xrightarrow{F_l m_{A,B}^F} F_l[A \otimes B] \\
\downarrow \epsilon_A \otimes \epsilon_B \\
A \otimes B \xrightarrow{id_{A \otimes B}} A \otimes B
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
F_l[1_L] \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{1_L}} 1_L \\
\downarrow F_l 1_p \xleftarrow{m_{1_L}^{F_l}} 1_L
\end{array}
\]

Working out these definitions, we see that

\[ \epsilon_{A \otimes B} \circ F_l m_{A,B}^F \circ m_{F_l[A],[B]}^F (\delta_{[u], [v]}) = \epsilon_{A \otimes B} \circ F_l m_{A,B}^F (\delta_{[u\otimes v], [v]}) \]
\[ = \epsilon_{A \otimes B} (\delta_{m_{A,B}^F (\delta_{[u], [v]}))}) \]
\[ = \epsilon_{A \otimes B} (\delta_{u \otimes v}) \]
\[ = u \otimes v \]
\[ = \epsilon_A \otimes \epsilon_B (\delta_{u} \otimes \delta_{v}) \]

and

\[ F_l m_{1_L}^{[-]} \circ m_{1_L}^{F_l} (1) = F_l m_{1_L}^{[-]} (\delta_{q}) = \delta_{m_{1_L}^{[-]} (\emptyset)} = [\delta_{1}] = \epsilon_{1_L} (1) \]

Similarly, \(\eta\) is a monoidal transformation. The following diagrams must commute:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
P \times Q \xrightarrow{id_{P \times Q}} P \times Q \\
\downarrow \eta_P \times \eta_Q \\
[F_l P] \times [F_l Q] \xrightarrow{m_{F_l P,F_l Q}^{[-]}} [F_l P \otimes F_l Q] \xrightarrow{[m_{F_l,P,Q}^{F_l}]} [F_l(P \times Q)]
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
P \xrightarrow{\eta_P} [F_l 1_P] \\
\downarrow id_1 \xleftarrow{m_{1_L}^{F_l}} 1_L
\end{array}
\]

\[ [F_l P] \times [F_l Q] \xrightarrow{m_{F_l P,F_l Q}^{[-]}} [F_l P \otimes F_l Q] \xrightarrow{[m_{F_l,P,Q}^{F_l}]} [F_l(P \times Q)] \]
These diagrams are witnessed by the following computations:

$$m_{F, Q}^P \circ m_{F, P, F, Q}^P \circ \eta_P \times \eta_Q (x, y) = [m_{P, Q}^F] \circ [m_{P, F, P, Q}^F ([\delta_x], [\delta_y])$$

$$= [m_{P, Q}^F] ([\delta_x \otimes \delta_y])$$

$$= [m_{P, Q}^F (\delta_x \otimes \delta_y)]$$

$$= ([\delta (x, y)] = \eta_P \times \eta_Q (x, y)$$

$$[m_{F, 1}^P] \circ m_{F, 1}^{-1} (\emptyset) = [m_{F, 1}^P] ([\mathbf{1}]) = [m_{F, 1}^P (\mathbf{1})]$$

$$= [\delta \emptyset] = \eta_P (\emptyset)$$

□

**Corollary 33.** $\text{FinVect}$, $\text{FinSet}$, and $\text{FinSet}^{op}$ together form an LPC model.

### 5.2 Relations

Let $\text{Rel}$ be the category of sets and relations, and let $\text{Set}$ be the category of sets and functions. (Notice that the sets in either category here may be infinite, unlike in the $\text{FinVect}$ case.) It is easy to see that $\text{Rel}$ is linearly distributive where the tensor and the cotensor are both cartesian product, and distributivity is just associativity. The unit is a singleton set; for concreteness assume $1_L = \bot_L = \emptyset$. Furthermore, negation on $\text{Rel}$ is the identity on objects, along with the maps

$$\gamma_A^\perp : A^\perp \otimes A \to \bot_L \quad \gamma_A^L : 1_L \to A \cong A^\perp$$

$$\gamma_A^\perp = \{(x, x, \emptyset) \mid x \in A\} \quad \gamma_A^L = \{((\emptyset, x)) \mid x \in A\}$$

$\text{Set}$ is cartesian and its opposite category $\text{Set}^{op}$, cocartesian. The $F_1$ and $F_7$ functors are the forgetful functors which interpret a function as a relation. The $[-]$ functor takes a set to its powerset. Suppose $R$ is a relation between $A$ and $B$. Then $[R] : [A] \to [B]$ is defined as

$$[R] (X) = \{y \in B \mid \exists x \in X, (x, y) \in R\}$$

with monoidal components

$$m_{1_L}^{-1} : 1_L \to [1_L] \quad m_A^{-1} : [A] \times [B] \to [A \times B]$$

$$m_{1_L}^{-1} (\emptyset) = \emptyset \quad m_{A, B}^{-1} (X_1, X_2) = X_1 \times X_2$$

The dual notion $[-]$ is just the inverse.

### 5.3 Boolean Algebras and the Birkhoff Duality

Next we examine an example of the LPC categories where $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ are related by a non-trivial duality. The relationship is based on Birkhoff’s representation theorem (Birkhoff 1937), which can be interpreted as a duality between the categories of finite partial orders and order-preserving maps ($\mathcal{P}$) on the one hand, and finite distributive lattices with bounded lattice homomorphisms ($\mathcal{C}$) on the other hand.

The linear category is the category $\mathcal{L}$ of finite boolean algebras with bounded lattice homomorphisms. This $\mathcal{L}$ is symmetric weakly distributive where the products overlap with the coproducts, meaning that the model is somewhat degenerate. For the monoidal structure, the units are both the singleton lattice $\emptyset$, and the tensors $A \otimes B$ and $A \bowtie B$ are the boolean algebra with base set $A \times B$ and lattice structure as follows:

$$\bot = (\bot, \bot) \quad \top = (\top, \top)$$

$$(x_1, y_1) \lor (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 \lor x_2, y_1 \lor y_2) \quad (x_1, y_1) \land (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 \land x_2, y_1 \land y_2)$$

$$\neg (x, y) = (\neg x, \neg y)$$
Given a partially ordered set \((P, \leq)\), a subset \(X \subseteq P\) is called lower if it is downwards closed with respect to \(\leq\). The set of all lower sets of \(P\) forms a lattice with \(\top = P, \bot = \emptyset\), meet as union and join and intersection. Let \(P^*\) refer to this lattice.

Meanwhile, given a lattice \(C\), an element \(x\) is join-irreducible if \(x\) is neither \(\bot\) nor the join of any two elements less than \(x\). That is, \(x \neq y \vee z\) for \(y, z \neq x\). Let \(C_*\) be the partially ordered set with base set the join-irreducible elements of \(C\), with the ordering
\[
x \leq y \quad \text{iff} \quad x = y \land x
\]
The operators \((-)^*\) and \((-)_*\) extend to functors that form a duality between \(P\) and \(C\). For the details of that categorical duality, refer to Stanley (2011).

The monoidal structure on \(P\) is given by the cartesian product with the following ordering:
\[
(x_1, y_1) \leq (x_2, y_2) \quad \text{iff} \quad x_1 \leq x_2 \text{ and } y_1 \leq y_2
\]The unit is the singleton order \(\{\emptyset\}\). For every poset \(P\) in \(P\), the following components form a commutative monoid:
\[
e^{\Box}_{P} : P \to 1_p \quad d^{\Box}_{P} : P \to P \otimes P
\]
\[
e^{\Box}_{P} (x) = \emptyset \quad d^{\Box}_{P} (x) = (x, x)
\]

Next, finite distributive lattices have a monoidal structure with the unit the singleton lattice \(\{\emptyset\}\) and the tensor \(C_1 \bowtie C_2\) the lattice where the base set is \(C_1 \times C_2\) and the lattice structure is given by
\[
\bot = (\bot, \bot) \quad \top = (\top, \top)
\]
\[
(x_1, y_1) \lor (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 \lor x_2, y_1 \lor y_2) \quad (x_1, y_1) \land (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 \land x_2, y_1 \land y_2)
\]

For every lattice \(C\) in \(C\) there exists a commutative monoid with the following components:
\[
e^{\Box}_{C} : \bot_C \to C \quad d^{\Box}_{C} : C \bowtie C \to C
\]
\[
e^{\Box}_{C} (\emptyset) = \bot \quad d^{\Box}_{C} (x, y) = x \land y
\]
The natural transformations \(e^{\Box}\) and \(e^{\Box}_C\), and \(d^{\Box}\) and \(d^{\Box}_C\) are in fact interchanged under the Birkhoff duality.

Next we define the symmetric monoidal functors. Define
\[
[-] : \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow \mathcal{P} \quad \text{and} \quad [-] : \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}
\]
to be forgetful functors.

For a finite partial order \(P\), define \(F_1 P\) to be the boolean algebra with base set \(\mathcal{P}(P)\), and with top, bottom, join, meet and negation corresponding to \(P, \emptyset,\) union, intersection and complementation respectively. For a morphism \(f : P_1 \to P_2\), define \(F_1 f : F_1 P_1 \to F_1 P_2\) to be
\[
F_1 f (X) = \{ f (x) \mid x \in X\}
\]

Similarly, for a finite distributive lattice \(C\), define \(F_1 C\) to be the boolean algebra with base set \(\mathcal{C}\) with the same structure as above. For morphisms \(f : C_1 \to C_2\) define \(F_1 f : F_1 C_1 \to F_1 C_2\) to again be
\[
F_1 f (X) = \{ f (x) \mid x \in X\}
\]

These functors must respect the dualities in that
\[
\left( F_1 P \right)^\perp \simeq F_1 P^* \quad \text{and} \quad \left[ A \right]^* \simeq \left[ A^{\perp} \right]
\]
We will prove the first of these here. For any element \(x\) in a poset \(P\), define \(\overline{x} \in P^*\) to be the downward closed set \(\{ y \mid y \leq x\}\). Notice that for any \(x, \sqrt{\overline{x}} = x\) and for any independently downward closed set \(X, \nabla X = X\).
Define a morphism \( f : (F_! P) \perp \to F_? P^* \) by
\[
f(X) = \{ x \mid x \in \neg X \}
\]
and define \( g : F_? P^* \to (F_! P) \perp \) by
\[
g(X) = \neg(\bigvee Y \mid Y \in X)
\]
It is easy to check that these are both bounded lattice homomorphisms. To verify that \( f \circ g \simeq \text{id}_{F_? P^*} \) and \( g \circ f \simeq \text{id}_{(F_! P) \perp} \), consider the following computations:
\[
f \circ g (X) = f (\neg(\bigvee Y \mid Y \in X)) \\
= \{ x \mid x \in \neg(\neg(\bigvee Y \mid Y \in X)) \} \\
\cong \{ x \mid x \in \bigvee Y \mid Y \in X \} \\
= \bigvee Y \mid Y \in X = \{ Y \mid Y \in X \} = X
\]
\[
g \circ f (X) = g (\{ x \mid x \in \neg X \}) \\
= \neg(\bigvee Y \mid Y \in \{ x \mid x \in \neg X \}) \\
= \neg(\bigvee x \mid x \in \neg X) \\
= \neg(\{ x \mid x \in \neg X \}) = \neg(\neg X) \cong X
\]

To construct the adjunction \( F_! \dashv [\_] \), it suffices to show a bijection of homomorphism sets \( \text{Hom}(F_! P, A) \cong \text{Hom}(P, [A]) \). Suppose \( f : F_! P \to A \) in \( L \). Then define \( f^\sharp : P \to [A] \) by
\[
f^\sharp (x) = f (\{ z \in X \mid z \leq x \})
\]
This morphism is in fact order-preserving. Next, for \( g : P \to [A] \) define \( g^\flat : F_! P \to A \) as follows:
\[
g^\flat (X) = \bigvee_{x \in X} g (x)
\]
Again it is easy to check that \( g^\flat \) is a lattice homomorphism. To show \( F_! \dashv [\_] \) it suffices to show that \((f^\sharp)^\flat = f\) and \((g^\flat)^\sharp = g\). Let \( f : F_! P \to A \) be a bounded lattice homomorphism of boolean algebras. Then
\[
(f^\sharp)^\flat (X) = \bigvee_{x \in X} f^\sharp (x) \\
= \bigvee_{x \in X} f (\{ z \mid z \leq x \}) \\
= f (\bigvee_{x \in X} \{ z \mid z \lor x = x \}) \\
= f (\bigvee_{x \in X} \{ z \mid z \lor x = x \}) \\
= f (\bigvee_{x \in X} \{ z \mid z \lor x = x \}) \\
= f (\bigvee_{x \in X} \{ x \} = f (X)
\]
Let \( g : P \to [A] \) be an order-preserving map. Then
\[
(g^\flat)^\sharp (x) = g^\flat (\{ z \mid z \leq x \}) \\
= \bigvee_{z \leq x} g (z) = g (x)
\]
From these definitions, the unit and counit of the adjunction are as follows:

\[ \epsilon_A : F_! [A] \to A \]
\[ \epsilon_A (X) = \text{id}_{[A]} (x) = \bigvee_{x \in X} A \]
\[ \eta_P : P \to [F_! P] \]
\[ \eta_P (x) = (\text{id}_{F_! P})^\sharp (x) = \{ z | z \leq x \} \]

To show the adjunction is monoidal, it suffices to prove \( \epsilon \) and \( \eta \) are monoidal natural transformations.

The proof of the monoidal adjunction \( [-] \dashv F_! \) is similar.

6 Related Work

Girard (1987) first introduced linear logic to mix the constructivity of intuitionistic propositional logic with the duality of classical logic. Partly because of this constructivity, there has been great interest in the semantics of linear logic in both the classical and intuitionistic fragments. Consequently, there exist several categorial frameworks for its semantic models.

One influential framework is Benton et al.’s linear category (Benton et al. 1993), consisting of a symmetric monoidal closed category with products and a linear exponential comonad \( ! \). Other characterizations include the Seely category (Seely 1987), based on a distribution morphism between \( !A \otimes !B \) and \( ![A \& B] \). Wadler (1992) and Bierman (1994) proved that there was a disconnect between Seely’s category and the popular term calculus due to Abramsky (1993). Bierman’s response was a new Seely category, sound with respect to Abramsky’s term language, which adds a symmetric monoidal adjunction between a Seely category and its co-Kleisli category.

Except for Seely’s original formulation, these works deal with the intuitionistic fragment of linear logic. The multiplicative fragment (restricted to \( \otimes \) and \( \& \)) of classical linear logic is usually modeled by a *-autonomous category, introduced by Barr (1991). Schalk (2004) adapted linear categories to the classical case by requiring that the symmetric monoidal closed category be *-autonomous. The coproduct \( \forall \) and coexponential \( ? \) are then induced from the duality.

Cockett and Seely (1997), seeking to study \( \otimes \) and \( \forall \) as independent structures unobscured by duality, introduced linearly distributive categories, which make up the linear category in the LPC model. The authors extended this motivation to the exponentials by modeling \( ! \) and \( ? \) as linear functors (Cockett and Seely 1999), meaning that \( ? \) is not derived from \( ! \) and \( (\cdot )^\perp \). The LPC model reflects that work by allowing \( ! \) and \( ? \) to have different adjoint decompositions.

Other variations of classical linear logic, notably Girard’s Logic of Unity (Girard 1993), distinguish linear propositions from persistent ones. The sequent \( \Gamma ; \Gamma' \vdash \Delta' ; \Delta \) is meant to be seen as a derivation where \( \Gamma' \) and \( \Delta' \) are persistent and admit weakening and contraction. In \( \Gamma \) and \( \Delta \) every proposition is purely linear.

Ramifying LU’s separation (in the intuitionistic case), Benton (1995) developed the linear/non-linear logic and categorical model described in Section 2. Barber used this model as the semantics for a term calculus called DILL (Barber 1996). A Lafont category (Lafont 1988) is a canonical instance of an LNL model where \( !A \) is the free commutative comonoid generated by \( A \). This construction automatically admits an adjunction between automatically forms an adjunction between a linear category \( \mathcal{L} \) and the category of commutative comonoids over \( \mathcal{L} \). However, the LNL and LPC models have an advantage over Lafont categories by allowing a much greater range of interpretations for the exponential—Lafont’s construction excludes traditional models of linear logic like coherence spaces and the category \( \text{REL} \).

References


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