# Proofs without syntax 

By Dominic J. D. Hughes<br>[M]athematicians care no more for logic than logicians for mathematics.

Augustus de Morgan, 1868


#### Abstract

Proofs are traditionally syntactic, inductively generated objects. This paper presents an abstract mathematical formulation of propositional calculus (propositional logic) in which proofs are combinatorial (graph-theoretic), rather than syntactic. It defines a combinatorial proof of a proposition $\phi$ as a graph homomorphism $h: C \rightarrow G(\phi)$, where $G(\phi)$ is a graph associated with $\phi$ and $C$ is a coloured graph. The main theorem is soundness and completeness: $\phi$ is true if and only if there exists a combinatorial proof $h: C \rightarrow G(\phi)$.


## 1. Introduction

In 1868, de Morgan lamented the rift between mathematics and logic [deM68]: " $[M]$ athematicians care no more for logic than logicians for mathematics." The dry syntactic manipulations of formal logic can be off-putting to mathematicians accustomed to beautiful symmetries, geometries, and rich layers of structure. Figure 1 (see Section 2) shows a syntactic proof in a standard Hilbert system taught to mathematics undergraduates [Hil28], [Joh87]. Although the system itself is elegant (just three axiom schemata suffice), the syntactic proofs generated in it need not be. Other syntactic systems include [Fr1879], [Gen35].

This paper presents an abstract mathematical formulation of propositional calculus (propositional logic) in which proofs are combinatorial (graphtheoretic), rather than syntactic. It defines a combinatorial proof of a proposition $\phi$ as a graph homomorphism $h: C \rightarrow G(\phi)$, where $G(\phi)$ is a graph associated with $\phi$ and $C$ is a coloured graph. For example, if $\phi=((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$ then $G(\phi)$ is:


A combinatorial proof $h: C \rightarrow G(\phi)$ of $\phi$ is shown below:


The upper graph $C$ has two colours (white $O$ and grey $\square$ ), and the arrows define $h$. The same proposition is proved syntactically in Figure 1.

The main theorem of the paper is soundness and completeness:
A proposition is true if and only if it has a combinatorial proof.
As with conventional syntactic soundness and completeness, this theorem matches a universal quantification with an existential one: a proposition $\phi$ is true if it evaluates to 1 for all $0 / 1$ assignments of its variables, and $\phi$ is provable if there exists a proof of $\phi$. However, where conventional completeness provides an inductively generated syntactic witness (e.g. Figure 1), this theorem provides an abstract mathematical witness for every true proposition (e.g. the homomorphism $h$ drawn above).

Just three conditions suffice for soundness and completeness: a graph homomorphism $h: C \rightarrow G(\phi)$ is a combinatorial proof of $\phi$ if (1) $C$ is a suitable coloured graph, (2) the image of each colour class is labelled appropriately, and (3) $h$ is a skew fibration, a lax form of graph fibration. Each condition can be checked in polynomial time, so combinatorial proofs constitute a formal proof system [CR79].

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## 2. Notation and terminology

Graphs. An edge on a set $V$ is a two-element subset of $V$. A $\operatorname{graph}(V, E)$ is a finite set $V$ of vertices and a set $E$ of edges on $V$. Write $V(G)$ and $E(G)$ for the vertex set and edge set of a graph $G$, respectively, and $v w$ for $\{v, w\}$. The complement of $(V, E)$ is the graph $\left(V, E^{c}\right)$ with $v w \in E^{c}$ if and only if $v w \notin E$. A graph $(V, E)$ is coloured if $V$ carries an equivalence relation $\sim$ such that $v \sim w$ only if $v w \notin E$; each equivalence class is a colour class. Given a set $L$, a graph is $L$-labelled if every vertex has an element of $L$ associated with it, its label. Let $G=(V, E)$ and $G^{\prime}=\left(V^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right)$ be graphs. A homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ is a function $h: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ such that $v w \in E$ implies $h(v) h(w) \in E^{\prime}$.

Below is a proof of Peirce's law $((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$ in a standard Hilbert formulation of propositional logic, taught to mathematics undergraduates [Joh87], with axiom schemata
(a) $x \Rightarrow(y \Rightarrow x)$
(b) $\quad(x \Rightarrow(y \Rightarrow z)) \Rightarrow((x \Rightarrow y) \Rightarrow(x \Rightarrow z))$
(c) $\quad((x \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow x$
and where $\left(m_{j}^{i}\right)$ marks modus ponens with hypotheses numbered $i$ and $j$. Hilbert systems tend to emphasise the elegance of the schemata (just (a)-(c) suffice) over the elegance of the proofs generated by the schemata. (Note: there may exist a shorter proof of Peirce's law in this system.)

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1 (c) \(\quad((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow q\)
2 (a) \(\quad(((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow(\perp \Rightarrow(((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow q))\)
\(3\left(m_{2}^{1}\right) \quad \perp \Rightarrow(((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow q)\)
4 (b) \(\quad(\perp \Rightarrow(((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((\perp \Rightarrow((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(\perp \Rightarrow q))\)
\(5\left(m_{4}^{3}\right) \quad(\perp \Rightarrow((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(\perp \Rightarrow q)\)
6 (a) \(\perp \Rightarrow((q \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)\)
\(7 \quad\left(m_{5}^{6}\right) \quad \perp \Rightarrow q\)
8 (a) \(\quad(\perp \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow(\perp \Rightarrow q))\)
\(9\left(m_{8}^{7}\right) \quad p \Rightarrow(\perp \Rightarrow q)\)
10 (b) \(\quad(p \Rightarrow(\perp \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))\)
\(11 \quad\left(m_{10}^{9}\right) \quad(p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)\)
12 (a) \(\quad((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p))\)
13 (b) \(\quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))\)
14 (a) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))) \Rightarrow\)
    \((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))))\)
\(15\left(m_{14}^{13}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))\)
16 (b) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))) \Rightarrow\)
    \(((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))))\)
\(17\left(m_{16}^{15}\right) \quad(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))\)
\(18\left(m_{17}^{12}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))\)
19 (b) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))) \Rightarrow\)
    \(((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))\)
20 ( \(\left.m_{19}^{18}\right) \quad(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))\)
21 (a) \(\quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)))\)
22 (a) \(\quad((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))) \Rightarrow\)
    \((((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))))\)
23 ( \(\left.m_{22}^{20}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))\)
24 (b) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))) \Rightarrow((((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow\)
    \((p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))))\)
\(25\left(m_{24}^{23}\right) \quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)))\)
\(26 \quad\left(m_{25}^{21}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))\)
\(27\left(m_{26}^{11}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)\)
28 (a) \(\quad(p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp))\)
29 (b) \(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp))) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp))) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp)))\)
\(30 \quad\left(m_{29}^{28}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp))) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp))\)
31 (a) \(\quad(p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp))\)
\(32\left(m_{30}^{31}\right) \quad(p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp)\)
33 (b) \(\quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow(p \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp))\)
\(34\left(m_{33}^{32}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)\)
35 (c) \(\quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p\)
36 (a) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p))\)
\(37 \quad\left(m_{36}^{35}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)\)
38 (b) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow((((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p))\)
\(39 \quad\left(m_{38}^{37}\right) \quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p)\)
\(40\left(m_{39}^{34}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p\)
41 (a) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p))\)
\(42 \quad\left(m_{41}^{40}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p)\)
43 (b) \(\quad(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow((((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p))\)
\(44\left(m_{43}^{42}\right) \quad(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow((p \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow p)) \Rightarrow(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p)\)
\(45\left(m_{44}^{27}\right) \quad((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p\)
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Figure 1: A syntactic proof in a standard Hilbert system

If $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ are disjoint, the union $G \vee G^{\prime}$ is ( $V \cup V^{\prime}, E \cup E^{\prime}$ ) and the join $G \wedge G^{\prime}$ is $\left(V \cup V^{\prime}, E \cup E^{\prime} \cup\left\{v v^{\prime}: v \in V, v^{\prime} \in V^{\prime}\right\}\right)$; colourings or labellings of $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ are inherited. A graph $(V, E)$ is a cograph [CLS81] if $V$ is non-empty and for any distinct $v, w, x, y \in V$, the restriction of $E$ to edges on $\{v, w, x, y\}$ is not $\{v w, w x, x y\}$. A set $W \subseteq V$ induces a matching if it is non-empty and for all $w \in W$ there is a unique $w^{\prime} \in W$ such that $w w^{\prime} \in E$.

Propositions. Fix a set $\mathcal{V}$ of variables. A proposition is any expression generated freely from variables by the binary operations and $\wedge$, or $\vee$, and implies $\Rightarrow$, the unary operation not $\neg$, and the constants (nullary operations) true 1 and false 0 . A valuation is a function $f: \mathcal{V} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. Write $\hat{f}$ for the extension of a valuation $f$ to propositions defined by $\hat{f}(0)=0, \hat{f}(1)=1$, $\hat{f}(\neg \phi)=1-\hat{f}(\phi), \hat{f}(\phi \wedge \rho)=\min \{\hat{f}(\phi), \hat{f}(\rho)\}, \hat{f}(\phi \vee \rho)=\max \{\hat{f}(\phi), \hat{f}(\rho)\}$, and $\hat{f}(\phi \Rightarrow \rho)=\hat{f}((\neg \phi) \vee \rho)$. A proposition $\phi$ is true if $\hat{f}(\phi)=1$ for all valuations $f$. Variables $p \in \mathcal{V}$ and their negations $\bar{p}=\neg p$ are literals; $p$ and $\bar{p}$ are dual, as are 0 and 1 . An atom is a literal or constant, and $\mathcal{A}$ denotes the set of atoms.

## 3. Combinatorial proofs

Given an $\mathcal{A}$-labelled graph $G$, define $\neg G$ as the result of complementing $G$ and every label of $G$. For example, if $G$ is the graph below-left, then $\neg G$ is the graph below-right.


Define $G \Rightarrow G^{\prime}=(\neg G) \vee G^{\prime}$. Identify each atom $a$ with a single vertex labelled $a$; thus, having defined operations $\neg, \vee, \wedge$ and $\Rightarrow$ on $\mathcal{A}$-labelled graphs, every proposition $\phi$ determines an $\mathcal{A}$-labelled graph, denoted $G(\phi)$. For example, $G((p \vee \neg q) \wedge(0 \vee p))$ is above-left, $G((q \wedge \neg p) \vee(1 \wedge \neg p))$ is above-right, and $G(((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p)$ is as in the introduction. A colouring is nice if every colour class has at most two vertices and no union of two-vertex colour classes induces a matching. A graph homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ is a skew fibration (see figure below) if for all $v \in V(G)$ and $h(v) w \in E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ there exists $v \widehat{w} \in E(G)$ with $h(\widehat{w}) w \notin E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$.


Given a graph homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ with $G^{\prime}$ an $\mathcal{A}$-labelled graph, a vertex $v \in V(G)$ is axiomatic if $h(v)$ is labelled 1 , and a pair $\{v, w\} \subseteq V(G)$ is axiomatic if $h(v)$ and $h(w)$ are labelled by dual literals.

Definition 3.1. A combinatorial proof of a proposition $\phi$ is a skew fibration $h: C \rightarrow G(\phi)$ from a nicely coloured cograph $C$ to the graph $G(\phi)$ of $\phi$, such that every colour class of $C$ is axiomatic.

A combinatorial proof of $((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$ is shown in the introduction. The reader may find it instructive to consider why $p \wedge \neg p$ has no combinatorial proof.

Theorem 3.1 (Soundness and Completeness). A proposition is true if and only if it has a combinatorial proof.

Section 4 reformulates this theorem in terms of combinatorial (non-syntactic, non-inductive) notions of proposition and truth. Section 5 proves the reformulated theorem.

Notes. The map $\phi \mapsto G(\phi)$ is based on a well understood translation of a boolean formula into a graph [CLS81], and (up to standard graph isomorphism ${ }^{1}$ ) represents propositions modulo associativity and commutativity of $\wedge$ and $\vee$, double negation $\neg \neg \phi=\phi$, de Morgan duality $\neg(\phi \wedge \rho)=(\neg \phi) \vee(\neg \rho)$ and $\neg(\phi \vee \rho)=(\neg \phi) \wedge(\neg \rho)$, and $\phi \Rightarrow \rho=(\neg \phi) \vee \rho$. Perhaps the earliest graphical representation of propositions is due to Peirce [Pei58, vol. 4:2], dating from the late 1800s.

A skew fibration is a lax notion of graph fibration. A graph homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ is a graph fibration (see e.g. [BV02]) if for all $v \in V(G)$ and $h(v) w \in E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ there is a unique $v \widehat{w} \in E(G)$ with $h(\widehat{w})=w .^{2}$ The definition of skew fibration drops uniqueness and relaxes $h(\widehat{w})=w$ to 'skewness' $h(\widehat{w}) w \notin$ $E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$.

Combinatorial proofs constitute a formal proof system [CR79] since correctness can be checked in polynomial time. ${ }^{3}$ There is a polynomial-time computable function taking a propositional sequent calculus proof of $\phi$ with $n \geq 0$ cut rules [Gen35] to a combinatorial proof of $\phi$ with $n$ cuts: a combinatorial proof of $\phi \vee\left(\theta_{1} \wedge \neg \theta_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee\left(\theta_{n} \wedge \neg \theta_{n}\right)$ for propositions $\theta_{i}$.

In the example of a combinatorial proof drawn in the introduction, observe that the image of the colour class $\bigcirc \bigcirc$ under $h$ is $\stackrel{\bullet}{p} \stackrel{\bullet}{p}$. Think of the colour class as actively pairing an occurrence of a variable $p$ with an occurrence of its

[^0]dual $\bar{p}$. The idea of pairing dual variable occurrences has arisen in the study of various forms of syntax, such as closed categories [KM71], contraction-free predicate calculus [KW84] and linear logic [Gir87]. Combinatorial proofs relate only superficially to the connection/matrix method [Dav71], [Bib74], [And81]; the latter fails to provide a proof system [CR79].

A partially combinatorial notion of proof for classical logic, called a proof net, was presented in [Gir91], though promptly dismissed by the author as overly syntactic: a proof net of a proposition $\phi$ has an underlying syntax tree containing not only $\wedge$ 's and $\vee$ 's from $\phi$, but also auxiliary syntactic connectives which are not even boolean operations (contraction and weakening).

Nicely coloured cographs with two vertices in every colour class correspond to unlabelled chorded REBB-cographs [Ret03]. When labelled, the latter represent proof nets of mixed multiplicative linear logic [Gir87].

## 4. Combinatorial propositions and truth

A set $W \subseteq V(G)$ is stable if $v w \notin E(G)$ for all $v, w \in W$. A clause is a maximal stable set. A clause of an $\mathcal{A}$-labelled graph is true if it contains a 1-labelled vertex or two vertices labelled by dual literals; an $\mathcal{A}$-labelled graph is true if its clauses are true. For example, $\stackrel{\bullet}{p} \stackrel{\bullet}{\rho} \stackrel{\bullet}{\bullet}(=G(p \Rightarrow(p \wedge 1)))$ is true, with true clauses $\stackrel{\bullet}{p} \stackrel{\bullet}{p}$ and $\stackrel{\bullet}{p} \quad \stackrel{\bullet}{i}$.

Lemma 4.1. A proposition $\phi$ is true if and only if its graph $G(\phi)$ is true.
Proof. Exhaustively apply distributivity $\theta \vee\left(\psi_{1} \wedge \psi_{2}\right) \rightarrow\left(\theta \vee \psi_{1}\right) \wedge\left(\theta \vee \psi_{2}\right)$ to $\phi$ modulo associativity and commutativity of $\wedge$ and $\vee$, yielding a conjunction $\phi^{\prime}$ of syntactic clauses (disjunctions of atoms). The lemma is immediate for $\phi^{\prime}$ since $G\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)$ is a join of clauses, and $G\left(\theta \vee\left(\psi_{1} \wedge \psi_{2}\right)\right)$ is true if and only if $G\left(\left(\theta \vee \psi_{1}\right) \wedge\left(\theta \vee \psi_{2}\right)\right)$ is true since for non-empty graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, a clause of $G_{1} \vee G_{2}$ (resp. $G_{1} \wedge G_{2}$ ) is a clause of $G_{1}$ and (resp. or) a clause of $G_{2}$.

A combinatorial proposition is an $\mathcal{A}$-labelled cograph. Since a graph is a cograph if and only if it is derivable from individual vertices by union, join and complement [BLS99, §11.3], the graph $G(\phi)$ of any syntactic proposition $\phi$ is a combinatorial proposition; conversely, every combinatorial proposition is (isomorphic to) $G(\phi)$ for some $\phi$.

Definition 4.1. A combinatorial proof of a combinatorial proposition $P$ is a skew fibration $h: C \rightarrow P$ from a nicely coloured cograph $C$ whose colour classes are axiomatic.

Thus a combinatorial proof of a syntactic proposition $\phi$ (Def. 3.1) is a combinatorial proof of $G(\phi)$ (Def. 4.1). By Lemma 4.1, the following is equivalent to Theorem 3.1.

Theorem 4.1 (Combinatorial Soundness and Completeness). A combinatorial proposition is true if and only if it has a combinatorial proof.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 4.1

The diagram below shows the dependency between the Lemmas (4.1-5.8) and Theorems (Ti.j) in this paper.


Given a graph homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$, an edge $v \widehat{w} \in E(G)$ is a skew lifting of $h(v) w \in E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ at $v$ if $h(\widehat{w}) w \notin E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. Thus $h$ is a skew fibration if and only if every edge $h(v) w \in E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ has a skew lifting at $v$.

A graph $G$ is a subgraph of $G^{\prime}$, denoted $G \subseteq G^{\prime}$, if $V(G) \subseteq V\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ and $E(G) \subseteq E\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. The subgraph $G[W]$ of $G$ induced by $W \subseteq V(G)$ is $(W,\{v w \in$ $E(G): v, w \in W\})$. Let $h: G \rightarrow H$ be a graph homomorphism and let $G^{\prime}$ and $H^{\prime}$ be induced subgraphs of $G$ and $H$, respectively. Write $h\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ for the induced subgraph $H\left[h\left(V\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right)\right]$ and $h^{-1}\left(H^{\prime}\right)$ for the induced subgraph $G\left[h^{-1}\left(V\left(H^{\prime}\right)\right)\right]$. Define the restriction $h_{\left\lceil H^{\prime}\right.}: h^{-1}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{\prime}$ by $h_{\left\lceil H^{\prime}\right.}(v)=h(v)$.

Lemma 5.1. Let $\diamond \in\{\wedge, \vee\}$. If $h: G \rightarrow H_{1} \diamond H_{2}$ is a skew fibration then both restrictions $h_{\upharpoonright H_{i}}$ are skew fibrations.

Proof. We prove that if $v \widehat{w}$ is a skew lifting of $h_{\uparrow H_{i}}(v) w=h(v) w \in E\left(H_{i}\right)$ at $v$ with respect to $h$, then $h(\widehat{w}) \in H_{i}$; hence $v \widehat{w}$ is a well-defined skew lifting with respect to $h_{\uparrow H_{i}}$. Suppose $h(\widehat{w}) \in H_{j}$ and $j \neq i$. If $\diamond=\vee$, since $h$ is a homomorphism, $h(v) h(\widehat{w})$ is an edge between $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ in $H_{1} \vee H_{2}$, a contradiction; if $\diamond=\wedge$, since $H_{1} \wedge H_{2}$ has all edges between $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}, h(\widehat{w}) w$ is an edge, contradicting $v \widehat{w}$ being a skew lifting with respect to $h$.

Lemma 5.2. Let $h:\left(G_{1} \wedge G_{2}\right) \vee\left(H_{1} \vee H_{2}\right) \rightarrow\left(K_{1} \wedge K_{2}\right) \vee L$ be a skew fibration with $h\left(G_{i}\right) \subseteq K_{i}$ and $h\left(H_{i}\right) \subseteq L$. Then $h_{i}: G_{i} \vee H_{i} \rightarrow K_{i} \vee L$ defined by $h_{i}(v)=h(v)$ is a skew fibration.

Proof. Since a graph union $X_{1} \vee X_{2}$ has no edges between $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$, (a) if $k: X_{1} \vee X_{2} \rightarrow Y$ is a skew fibration, so also is $k^{\upharpoonright X_{i}}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y$ defined by $k^{\mid X_{i}}(x)=k(x)$, and (b) if $k_{i}: Z_{i} \rightarrow X_{i}$ is a skew fibration for $i=1,2$, so also is $k_{1} \vee k_{2}: Z_{1} \vee Z_{2} \rightarrow X_{1} \vee X_{2}$ defined by $\left(k_{1} \vee k_{2}\right)(z)=k_{i}(z)$ if and only if $z \in V\left(Z_{i}\right)$. Since $h_{i}=h_{\upharpoonright K_{i}} \vee\left(h_{\upharpoonright L}\right)^{\upharpoonright H_{i}}$, it is a skew fibration by (a), (b) and Lemma 5.1.

Lemma 5.3. If $h: G \rightarrow K$ is a skew fibration into a cograph $K$, then every clause of $K$ contains a clause of $h(G)$.

Proof. By induction on the number of vertices in $K$. The base case with $K$ a single vertex is immediate. Otherwise $K=K_{1} \diamond K_{2}$ for $\diamond \in\{\wedge, \vee\}$ and cographs $K_{i}$. Let $G_{i}=h^{-1}\left(K_{i}\right)$ and $h_{i}=h_{\upharpoonright K_{i}}: G_{i} \rightarrow K_{i}$, a skew fibration by Lemma 5.1. Let $C$ be a clause of $K$. If $\diamond=\wedge$ then $C$ is a clause of $K_{j}$ for $j=1$ or 2 ; by induction $C$ contains a clause $C^{\prime}$ of $h_{j}\left(G_{j}\right)$, also a clause of $h_{1}\left(G_{1}\right) \wedge h_{2}\left(G_{2}\right)=h(G)$. If $\diamond=\vee$ then $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ for clauses $C_{i}$ of $K_{i}$; by induction $C_{i}$ contains a clause $C_{i}^{\prime}$ of $h_{i}\left(G_{i}\right)$, so $C$ contains the clause $C_{1}^{\prime} \cup C_{2}^{\prime}$ of $h_{1}\left(G_{1}\right) \vee h_{2}\left(G_{2}\right)=h(G)$.

Lemma 5.4. Let $h: G \rightarrow P$ be a skew fibration into a combinatorial proposition $P$. If $h(G)$ is true then $P$ is true.

Proof. Lemma 5.3 and the definition of true.
The empty graph is the graph with no vertices. A graph is disconnected if it is a union of non-empty graphs, and connected otherwise. A component is a maximal non-empty connected subgraph. A graph homomorphism $h: G \rightarrow H$ is shallow if $h^{-1}(K)$ has at most one component for every component $K$ of $H$.

Lemma 5.5. For any combinatorial proof $h: G \rightarrow P$ there exists a shallow combinatorial proof $h^{\prime}: G \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ such that $P$ is true if and only if $P^{\prime}$ is true.

Proof. Let $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{n}$ be the components of $G$, and let $P^{\prime}$ be the union of $n$ copies of $P$ defined by $V\left(P^{\prime}\right)=V(P) \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $\langle v, i\rangle\langle w, j\rangle \in E\left(P^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if $v w \in E(P)$ and $i=j$, and the label of $\langle v, i\rangle$ in $P^{\prime}$ is equal to the label of $v$ in $P$. Define $h^{\prime}: G \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ on $v \in V\left(G_{i}\right)$ by $h^{\prime}(v)=\langle h(v), i\rangle$. Since $P^{\prime}$ is a union of copies of $P$, it is true if and only if $P$ is true (every clause of $P^{\prime}$ contains a clause of $P$; conversely the union of $n$ copies of a clause of $P$ is a clause of $P^{\prime}$ ), and $h^{\prime}$ is a combinatorial proof (skew liftings copied from $h$ ).

A subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ is a portion of $G$ if $G=G^{\prime} \vee G^{\prime \prime}$ for some $G^{\prime \prime}$. A fusion of graphs $G$ and $H$ is any graph obtained from $G \vee H$ by selecting portions $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ and $H^{\prime}$ of $H$ and adding edges between every vertex of $G^{\prime}$ and every vertex of $H^{\prime}$. Union and join are extremal cases of fusion: union with $G^{\prime}, H^{\prime}$ empty; join with $G^{\prime}=G, H^{\prime}=H$. On coloured graphs, fusion does not reduce to union and join: the coloured cograph $\circ \bigcirc \square \square \square$ is a fusion of $\bigcirc \bigcirc$ and $\square \square$, but is not a union or a join of coloured graphs (since we defined a colouring as an equivalence relation). Henceforth abbreviate nicely coloured to nice.

Lemma 5.6. A fusion of nice cographs is a nice cograph.

Proof. Let $C$ be the fusion of nice cographs $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ obtained by joining portions $C_{i}^{\prime}$ of $C_{i}$. Suppose $U$ is a union of two-vertex colour classes in $C$ which induces a matching. Let $U_{i}=U \cap V\left(C_{i}\right)$ and $U_{i}^{\prime}=U \cap V\left(C_{i}^{\prime}\right)$. By definition of fusion, the only edges in $C$ between $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ are between $U_{1}^{\prime}$ and $U_{2}^{\prime}$, and there are edges between all vertices of $U_{1}^{\prime}$ and all vertices of $U_{2}^{\prime}$; thus $(\star)$ there is at most one edge between $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$, or else two edges of $C$ on $U$ would intersect. Since $U$ is a union of two-vertex colour classes, each either in $U_{1}$ or $U_{2}$, each $U_{i}$ contains an even number of vertices. Therefore, since $U$ induces a matching, ( $\dagger$ ) there must be an even number of edges between $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$. Together ( $\star$ ) and ( $\dagger$ ) imply there is no edge between $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$; hence, for whichever $U_{i}$ is non-empty (perhaps both), $U_{i}$ is a union of two-vertex colour classes inducing a matching in $C_{i}$, contradicting $C_{i}$ being nice.

LEMMA 5.7. Every nice cograph with more than one colour class is a fusion of nice cographs.

Proof. Let $C$ be a nice cograph. Since $C$ is a cograph, its underlying (uncoloured) graph has the form $\left(C_{1} \wedge C_{2}\right) \vee\left(C_{3} \wedge C_{4}\right) \vee \ldots \vee\left(C_{n-1} \wedge C_{n}\right) \vee H$ for cographs $C_{i}$ and $H$ with no edges. Assume $n \neq 0$, otherwise the result is trivial. Let $G$ be the graph whose vertices are the $C_{i}$, with $C_{i} C_{j} \in E(G)$ if and only if there is an edge or colour class $\{v, w\}$ in $C$ with $v \in V\left(C_{i}\right)$ and $w \in V\left(C_{j}\right)$ (cf. the proof of Theorem 4 in [Ret03]). A perfect matching is a set of pairwise disjoint edges whose union contains all vertices. Since $C$ is nice, $M=\left\{C_{1} C_{2}, C_{3} C_{4}, \ldots, C_{n-1} C_{n}\right\}$ is the only perfect matching of $G$. For if $M^{\prime}$ is another perfect matching, then $M^{\prime} \backslash M$ determines a set of two-vertex colour classes in $C$ whose union induces a matching in $C$ : for each $C_{i} C_{j} \in M^{\prime} \backslash M$ pick a colour class $\{v, w\}$ with $v \in V\left(C_{i}\right)$ and $w \in V\left(C_{j}\right)$. Since $G$ has a unique perfect matching, some $C_{k} C_{k+1} \in M$ is a bridge [Kot59], [LP86], i.e., $\left(V(G), E(G) \backslash C_{k} C_{k+1}\right)=X \vee Y$ with $C_{k} \in V(X)$ and $C_{k+1} \in V(Y)$. Let $W$ be the union of all colour classes of $C$ coincident with any $C_{i}$ in $X$, and let $W^{\prime}=V(C) \backslash W$. Then $C[W]$ and $C\left[W^{\prime}\right]$ are nice (since $W$ and $W^{\prime}$ are unions of colour classes), and $C$ is the fusion of $C[W]$ and $C\left[W^{\prime}\right]$ joining portions $C_{k}$ of $C[W]$ and $C_{k+1}$ of $C\left[W^{\prime}\right]$.

LEMMA 5.8. Let $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ be combinatorial propositions and $Q$ a combinatorial proposition or the empty graph. Then $\left(P_{1} \wedge P_{2}\right) \vee Q$ is true if and only if $P_{1} \vee Q$ and $P_{2} \vee Q$ are true.

Proof. A clause of $\left(P_{1} \wedge P_{2}\right) \vee Q$ is a clause of $P_{1} \vee Q$ or $P_{2} \vee Q$, and vice versa.

ThEOREM 5.1 (Combinatorial Soundness). If a combinatorial proposition has a combinatorial proof, it is true.

Proof. Let $h: C \rightarrow P$ be a combinatorial proof. We show $P$ is true by induction on the number of colour classes in $C$. In the base case, $V(C)$ is a colour class. If $v \in V(C)$ then $h(v)$ is in no edge of $P$ (for if $h(v) w \in E(P)$ then a skew lifting at $v$ is an edge in $C$, a contradiction), hence is in every clause $K$ of $P$. Since $V(C)$ is axiomatic, $K$ is true.

Induction step. By Lemmas 5.4 and 5.5, assume $h$ is shallow and surjective. By Lemma 5.7, $C$ is a fusion of nice cographs $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ obtained from $C_{1} \vee C_{2}$ by joining portions $C_{i}^{\prime}$ of $C_{i}$. If $C=C_{1} \vee C_{2}$ then $h^{\prime}: C_{1} \rightarrow P$ defined by $h^{\prime}(v)=h(v)$ is a combinatorial proof, and $P$ is true by the induction hypothesis. Otherwise each $C_{i}^{\prime}$ is non-empty. Let $P_{i}=h\left(C_{i}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $C_{1}^{\prime} \wedge C_{2}^{\prime}$ is a component of $C$ and $h$ is a shallow surjection, $P_{1} \wedge P_{2}$ is a component of $P$, say $P=\left(P_{1} \wedge P_{2}\right) \vee Q$. Define $h_{i}: C_{i} \rightarrow P_{i} \vee Q$ by $h_{i}(v)=h(v)$, a combinatorial proof: $C_{i}$ is a nice cograph, the axiomatic colour class property is inherited from $h$, and $h_{i}$ is a skew fibration by Lemma 5.2 (applied after forgetting colourings). By the induction hypothesis $P_{i} \vee Q$ is true; hence $P$ is true by Lemma 5.8.

Theorem 5.2 (Combinatorial Completeness). Every true combinatorial proposition has a combinatorial proof.

Proof. Let $P$ be a true combinatorial proposition. We construct a combinatorial proof of $P$ by induction on the number of edges in $P$. In the base case, $V(P)$ is a true clause, so there exists $W \subseteq V(P)$ comprising a 1-labelled vertex or a pair of vertices labelled with dual literals. Inclusion $W \rightarrow P$ is a combinatorial proof (viewing $W$ as a graph with no edge and a single colour class, and forgetting its labels).

Induction step. Since $P$ is a cograph with an edge, $P=\left(P_{1} \wedge P_{2}\right) \vee Q$ for combinatorial propositions $P_{i}$ and $Q$ a combinatorial proposition or the empty graph. Assume $Q$ is empty or not true; otherwise by induction there is a combinatorial proof $C \rightarrow Q$ composable with inclusion $Q \rightarrow P$ for a combinatorial proof of $P$, and we are done. By Lemma 5.8, $P_{i} \vee Q$ is true, so by induction has a combinatorial proof $h_{i}: C_{i} \rightarrow P_{i} \vee Q$. Let $C$ be the fusion of $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ obtained by joining the portions $h_{i}^{-1}\left(P_{i}\right)$ of $C_{i}$. By Lemma 5.6, $C$ is nice. Define $h: C \rightarrow P$ by $h(v)=h_{i}(v)$ if and only if $v \in V\left(C_{i}\right)$. Then $h$ is a graph homomorphism: let $v w \in E(C)$ with $v \in V\left(C_{i}\right)$ and $w \in V\left(C_{j}\right)$; if $i=j$ then $h(v) h(w) \in E(P)$ since $h_{i}$ is a homomorphism; if $i \neq j$ then $v w$ arose from fusion, so $h(v) \in P_{i}$ and $h(w) \in P_{j}$, hence $h(v) h(w) \in E(P)$ since $P_{1} \wedge P_{2} \subseteq P$ has all edges between $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$.

The axiomatic colour class property for $h$ is inherited from the $h_{i}$, so it remains to show that $h$ is a skew fibration. Let $v \in V(C)$ and $h(v) w \in E(P)$. By symmetry, assume $v \in V\left(C_{1}\right)$. Assume $h(v) \in V\left(P_{1}\right)$ and $w \in V\left(P_{2}\right)$; otherwise we immediately obtain a skew lifting of $h(v) w$ since $h_{1}$ is a skew fibration. There is a vertex $x$ in $h_{2}^{-1}\left(P_{2}\right)$ : if $Q$ is empty, this is immediate;
otherwise $Q$ is not true and $h_{2 \upharpoonright Q}: C_{2} \rightarrow Q$ would be a combinatorial proof, contradicting soundness. Since fusion joined the $h_{i}^{-1}\left(P_{i}\right)$, we have $v x \in E(C)$. If $h(x) w \notin E\left(P_{2}\right)$ we are done; otherwise since $h_{2}$ is a skew fibration and $h(x) w \in E\left(P_{2}\right)$ there exists $x y \in E\left(C_{2}\right)$ with $h(y) w \notin E\left(P_{2}\right)$. Since $v y \in E(C)$ (again by fusion), we have the desired skew lifting of $h(v) w$ at $v$. (See figure below. Note: $h(y)=w$ is possible.)


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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Graphs $(V, E)$ and $\left(V^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right)$ are isomorphic if there exists a bijection $h: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ with $v w \in E$ if and only if $h(v) h(w) \in E^{\prime}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is simply a convenient restatement of the familiar notions of fibration in topology [Whi78] and category theory [Gro59], [Gra66]: a graph homomorphism is a graph fibration if and only if it satisfies the homotopy lifting property (when viewed as a continuous map by identifying each edge with a copy of the unit interval) if and only if it has all requisite cartesian liftings (when viewed as a functor by identifying each graph with its path category).
    ${ }^{3}$ The skew fibration and axiomatic conditions are clearly polynomial. Checking that a graph $G$ is a cograph is polynomial by constructing its modular decomposition tree $T(G)$ [BLS99], and checking that $G$ is nicely coloured is a simple breadth-first search on $T(G)$.

