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## To cite this version:

Morgan Rogers, Thomas Seiller, William Troiani. Simplifying normal functors: an old and a new model of $\lambda$-calculus. 2024. hal-04500078

HAL Id: hal-04500078

## https://hal.science/hal-04500078

Preprint submitted on 11 Mar 2024

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## 1






# Simplifying normal functors: an old and a new model of $\lambda$-calculus 

Morgan Rogers $\square$ (D)<br>Sorbonne Paris Nord University, France<br>Thomas Seiller $\square$ (D)<br>CNRS, France<br>William Troiani $\square$ (D)<br>Melbourne University, Australia


#### Abstract

The introduction of Linear Logic by Jean-Yves Girard takes its origins in the so-called normal functors model of lambda-calculus in which untyped $\lambda$-terms are interpreted as 'normal functors' between presheaf categories. As a result, we produce a new model in 'normal functions' between sets of (possibly infinite) multisets, gaining new insights on Girard's original construction. We then extend this to an explicit model of intuitionistic Linear Logic, contrasting the result with the weighted relational model.


2012 ACM Subject Classification Theory of computation $\rightarrow$ Program semantics; Theory of computation $\rightarrow$ Categorical semantics; Theory of computation $\rightarrow$ Linear logic

Keywords and phrases Lambda-calculus, Linear Logic, Semantics, Normal functors
Digital Object Identifier 10.4230/LIPIcs...

## 1 Introduction

What is a model of Linear Logic? Loosely speaking, there are at least two possible answers organised as those which take the models as central, with the syntax playing a supporting role, and those which take the syntax as central, with the models playing a supporting role. So-called categorical models fall in the former class: often, constraints are imposed that are justified by mathematical elegance or convenience rather than logical necessity; foremost of these is the requirement that the exponential modality (!) should be a comonad. Investigating the origins of this requirement leads to a paper by Seely [22] in which he writes 'Notice that these rules seem to imply that we should regard! as a functor, indeed a cotriple [...], an extremely loose justification. The models we will work with in the present paper, which focus on invariants and dynamics of the logic, are of the latter kind sometimes referred to as "models of cut-elimination". Although present from the very origins of Linear Logic, this more general syntactic perspective has since remained comparatively unexplored.
Normal Functors and Linear logic. In the initial development of Linear Logic [9], an important part was played by the 'normal functors' model of untyped $\lambda$-calculus [10] where terms are interpreted by finite polynomial functors [15]. This model has been studied through the lens of categorical semantics [24, 13], and plays a fundamental role in the current work around 2-categorical models of Linear Logic [2, 5, 3]. In [10] Girard proved his so-called Normal Form Theorem ${ }^{1}$ : an equivalence between normal functors and analytic functors ${ }^{2}$, by way of a normal form common to each type of functor. Exploiting this result, he constructed a model of the untyped $\lambda$-calculus which can be understood as a categorification of Scott

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domains [19, 20, 21, 6]: instead of interpreting terms as continuous functions between directed complete partially ordered sets, he interprets them as functors preserving certain (co)limits (normal functors) between categories which possess the corresponding (co)limits. More precisely, a term $t$ (equipped with a valid context $\underline{x}$ ) is interpreted as a normal functor $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid t \rrbracket:\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{A}$, where $A$ is a fixed countably infinite set.

However, within this model lurks more structure than that which is reflected in the syntax of the untyped $\lambda$-calculus. A defining property of normal functors is that they are determined by their restriction to integral functors. Though this holds for all normal functors, the stronger condition that a functor is defined by its restriction to the underlying sets $A \times \ldots \times A \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ only holds for a subclass of normal functors which we call linear. Restricting to the simply typed $\lambda$-calculus (à la Church) then extending the syntax to capture linear functors leads to the familiar logical system of Linear Logic.

How exactly it is that Linear Logic is modelled by normal functors was never written down in Girard's original paper. And it turns out that the origin of Linear Logic is most of the time explained, even by Girard himself, by referencing coherence space semantics [10, 8, 9], a special case of domains that is obtained as a qualitative version of normal functors.

Contributions. The starting point of this paper was the realisation that what is written in Girard's paper is overcomplicated, both in presentation and content. We remedy the former by providing a greatly streamlined account of both Girard's Normal Form Theorem in Section 2 and a restructured presentation of Girard's model in Section 3. As a consequence, we find that one need not consider normal functors at all, as the core mathematical ideas at work can be understood by considering much simpler normal functions instead. This leads to a simplification of the normal functors model in Section 4; in contrast to coherence spaces, this model remains quantitative. At face value, the simplified model bares similarities to the weighted relational model [16], and also to the "weighted Scott domains" model [1, Section 3]. We show in Section 6 that it is distinct from these, so we declare this new (to the best of the authors' knowledge) model, as one of this paper's main contributions.

The other main contribution is more conceptual. A critical point in Girard's original paper is the use of so-called analytic functors (see Definition 4) which admit a presentation as a kind of generalized power series. This presentation is exploited to define the operations that interpret application and abstraction in Girard's model in spite of the fact that the ambient category in which Girard implicitly works is not cartesian closed. The fact that normal functors are naturally isomorphic to analytic functors (see Theorem 7) is thus framed as crucial to recovering a functorial, presentation-independent version of his model. This idea of functors which can be presented via variants of power series has been elaborated upon by work generalising Girard's ideas to the setting of profunctors and generalised species [4, 25]. These developments are of interest in their own right, but they may give one the false impression that such a presentation is necessary for modelling $\lambda$-calculus. Our simplification of Girard's model demonstrates that the conditions for interpreting $\lambda$-calculus (resp. Linear Logic) are in fact much simpler, requiring only that a function interpreting a $\lambda$-term (resp proof) is determined by its restrictions to smaller domains in a systematic way.

That our simplification moves our understanding of Girard's model away from power series is a deliberate and positive aspect of this current paper. We remark again that neither Girard's model nor our own is a 'categorical model' in the usual sense. We stress this because it is usually treated as a deficiency of Girard's original model, whereas we find this assessment, and more generally the associated belief that a model of Linear Logic should satisfy the axioms of a categorical model, potentially harmful as it could lead to disregarding interesting models. Indeed, had the normal functor model been abandoned due to the failure
of cartesian-closedness, we would likely not have Linear Logic, since Girard himself points to this paper as the origin of the formalism in reprints of this work [10]. In this regard, we judge that the most important feature resulting in the emergence of Linear Logic is the presence of linearity in his model, in the sense of a subclass of normal functors having a stronger property than being normal. We exhibit the corresponding class of linear functions appearing in our formalism as part of a model of Intuitionistic Linear Logic in Section 5; an interpretation of Linear Logic in Girard's original model can be deduced from this one.

## 2 Girard's Normal Form Theorem

In this section we survey Girard's model, taking the opportunity to state the main results from his paper [10] in more modern terminology. We will show in the next section how this is used to define a model of $\lambda$-calculus.

- Definition 1. Let $A, B$ be fixed sets. A functor $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ is normal if it preserves directed colimits and wide pullbacks. More generally, a functor $\operatorname{Set}^{A_{1}} \times \cdots \times \operatorname{Set}^{A_{n}} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ is normal if it is so in each argument, or equivalently, if it is normal as a functor $\operatorname{Set}^{A_{1} \sqcup \cdots \sqcup A_{n}} \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{Set}^{B}$.
- Remark 2. The collection of normal functors is closed under composition, by inspection. For $b \in B$, the evaluation functor $\mathrm{ev}_{b}: \mathrm{Set}^{B} \rightarrow$ Set is a normal functor. As such, given a functor $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ we write $\mathscr{F}_{b}$ for the composite functor $\mathrm{ev}_{b} \circ \mathscr{F}$, which will be normal whenever $\mathscr{F}$ is.

Normal functors $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ have the crucial property that the image of any functor $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ under $\mathscr{F}$ is determined by finitary data, even when $F$ takes values in infinite sets. To illustrate this point, consider the special case $A=B=\{*\}$, so $\mathscr{F}$ is a normal functor Set $\rightarrow$ Set. Given a set $X$, let $\left\{X_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be the collection of its finite subsets. Then $X$ can be written as the direct colimit $\operatorname{colim}_{i \in I} X_{i}$. Since $\mathscr{F}$ preserves filtered colimits and wide pullbacks, we have the following:

$$
\mathscr{F}(X)=\mathscr{F}\left(\operatorname{colim}_{i \in I} X_{i}\right)=\operatorname{colim}_{i \in I} \mathscr{F}\left(X_{i}\right) .
$$

We can think of the collection $\left\{\mathscr{F}\left(X_{i}\right)\right\}_{i \in I}$ as the collection of approximations of $\mathscr{F}(X)$ determined by finite data from $X$. In particular, it follows that $\mathscr{F}$ is entirely determined by its values on finite sets, and even by its restriction to the Von Neumann integers.

Since $\mathscr{F}$ preserves pullbacks it preserves monomorphisms, so the colimit is a directed union. Moreover, if $y \in \mathscr{F}(X)$ and $X_{i}, X_{j} \subseteq X$ are such that $y \in \mathscr{F}\left(X_{i}\right)$ and $y \in \mathscr{F}\left(X_{j}\right)$ then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y \in \mathscr{F}\left(X_{i}\right) \cap \mathscr{F}\left(X_{j}\right)=\mathscr{F}\left(X_{i} \cap X_{j}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $\mathscr{F}$ preserves pullbacks. This implies that there exists a minimal finite subset $X_{k} \subseteq X$, depending on $y$, from which $y$ emerges upon applying $\mathscr{F}$. Note that we only needed finite pullbacks here because $A$ was a singleton, but wide pullbacks are needed as soon as $A$ is infinite.

The theory presented in the remainder of this section can be thought of as a generalisation of the phenomena just observed. First, we must identify the analogue of finite sets.

- Definition 3. Let $X \in$ Set be a set and $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ a functor. We introduce the terminology: - $X$ is an integer if it is a Von Neumann integer $(0:=\varnothing, 1:=\{0\}, \ldots, n:=\{0, \ldots, n-1\}, \ldots)$. - $F$ is finite if for all $a \in A$ the set $F(a)$ is finite, and all but finitely many of the $F(a)$ are equal to $\varnothing$.
- $F$ is integral if it is finite and for all $a \in A$ the set $F(a)$ is an integer.

For an arbitrary set $A$ we denote by $\operatorname{Int}(A)$ the set of integral functors in $\operatorname{Set}^{A}$.
The main reason that we need to restrict to integral functors rather than finite functors is to provide a set of representatives to serve as indices in the following definition.

- Definition 4. A functor $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ is analytic if there exists a family of functors $\left\{C_{G}\right\}_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}$ in $\operatorname{Set}^{B}$ such that for all objects $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ and all morphisms $\mu: F \rightarrow F^{\prime}$ :

$$
\mathscr{F}(F)=\coprod_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(C_{G} \times \operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F)\right) \quad \mathscr{F}(\mu)=\coprod_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(C_{G} \times \operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, \mu)\right) .
$$

Girard presented the formulas in the definition of analytic functors as a kind of power series, whence the choice of name. To compare normal functors and analytic functors, we consider 'normal forms'.

- Definition 5. Let $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ and $b \in B$. Let $\operatorname{El}\left(\mathscr{F}_{b}\right)$ denote the category of elements of $\mathscr{F}_{b}$ (cf. Remark 2) and $(F, x)$ an object of this category, so $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ and $x \in \mathscr{F}(F)(b)$. A
form of $\mathscr{F}$ with respect to $(F, x)$ is an object of the slice category $\operatorname{El}\left(\mathscr{F}_{b}\right) /(F, x)$. Given a
form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$, we say:
- $\eta$ is finite if $G$ is finite.
- $\eta$ is integral if $G$ is integral.
- $\eta$ is normal if it is an initial object in $\operatorname{El}\left(\mathscr{F}_{b}\right) /(F, x)$.

With these notions established, we can introduce a third property of functors which mediates between normal and analytic functors.

- Definition 6. A functor $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ is said to satisfy the finite normal form property if for every $b \in B$ and object $(F, x)$ in $\operatorname{El}\left(\mathscr{F}_{b}\right)$ there exists a finite normal form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$. The functor $\mathscr{F}$ is said to satisfy the integral normal form property if in the above the form $\eta$ can be taken to be integral.

Girard's main theorem states that the three properties of functor are equivalent. Notice that the statement from the original article contains a minor error, the correct statement is as follows.

- Theorem 7. Let $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ be a functor. The following are equivalent:

1. $\mathscr{F}$ is normal.
2. $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the finite normal form property.
3. $\mathscr{F}$ is isomorphic to an analytic functor.

The proof of Theorem 7 is difficult and requires all of the definitions introduced so far. For instance, when Girard proves $(2 \Rightarrow 1)$ he relies on an explicit translation through integral functors. A full exposition of the proof of Theorem 7 is given in Appendix A.

## $3 \lambda$-terms as normal functors

In this section, we present Girard's model of the untyped $\lambda$-calculus using normal functors. In his paper, Girard was concerned with the minimal data property that we sketched at the start of Section 2; this corresponds to the hypothesis that normal functors preserve wide pullbacks. Accordingly, if one is willing to drop this property then the preservation of pullbacks may be dropped too! While preservation of pullbacks was important for the correspondence in Theorem 7, we will not require it at any point in the following results;
in other words, it is not essential for modelling $\lambda$-calculus. In Section 4 we will present our simplification of Girard's model consisting of normal functions, where we do not impose the analogue of this condition.

In the following, we use the notation $\operatorname{Norm}(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D})$ to denote the collection of normal functors from a category $\mathcal{C}$ to a category $\mathcal{D}$. The properties of normal functors enable us to "curry" and "uncurry" functions of several variables.

- Lemma 8. For sets $A, B, C$ there exists a pair of functions $(-)^{+},(-)^{-}$:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Norm}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A} \times \operatorname{Set}^{B}, \operatorname{Set}^{C}\right) \stackrel{(-)^{+}}{\stackrel{(-)^{-}}{\leftrightarrows}} \operatorname{Norm}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}, \operatorname{Set}^{\operatorname{Int}(B) \times C}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that the composite $\left((-)^{+}\right)^{-}$is the identity.
Proof. Let $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \times \operatorname{Set}^{B} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{C}$ be normal. By Theorem 7, $\mathscr{F}$ is analytic (up to natural isomorphism), so that for $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ and $F^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ we have isomorphisms,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{F}\left(F, F^{\prime}\right) \cong \coprod C_{G, G^{\prime}} \times \operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F) \times \operatorname{Set}^{B}\left(G^{\prime}, F^{\prime}\right), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the coproduct is taken over all $\left(G, G^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Int}(A) \times \operatorname{Int}(B)$, for some family of functors $\left\{C_{G, G^{\prime}} \in \operatorname{Set}^{C}\right\}_{\left(G, G^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{Int}(A) \times \operatorname{Int}(B)}$. For $\left(G^{\prime}, c\right) \in \operatorname{Int}(B) \times C$, we can thus define:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{F}^{+}(F)\left(G^{\prime}, c\right):=\coprod_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)} C_{G, G^{\prime}}(c) \times \operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, given a normal functor $\mathscr{G}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{\operatorname{Int}(B) \times C}$ we define for $\left(F, F^{\prime}\right) \epsilon$ $\operatorname{Set}^{A} \times \operatorname{Set}^{B}$ and $c \in C$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{G}^{-}\left(F, F^{\prime}\right)(c):=\coprod_{G^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Int}(B)} \mathscr{G}(F)\left(G^{\prime}, c\right) \times \operatorname{Set}^{B}\left(G^{\prime}, F^{\prime}\right) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The fact that $\left((-)^{+}\right)^{-}$is the identity follows easily.
Remark 9. We can express the operations employed by Girard in terms of $(-)^{-}$and $(-)^{+}$. For example, Girard's App functor, [10, Definition 2.20], is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { App : } \operatorname{Set}^{\operatorname{Int}(A) \times B} \times \operatorname{Set}^{A} & \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{B} \\
(H, F) & \mapsto \coprod_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)} H(G,-) \times \operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F),
\end{aligned}
$$

but it can expressed more succinctly as $\left(\mathrm{id}_{\operatorname{Set}^{\operatorname{Int}(A) \times B}}\right)^{-}$. Girard presents the fact that App is a normal functor as a result [10, Theorem 2.21], but in this form it follows immediately from the fact that $(-)^{-}$takes normal functors to normal functors.

The model of the untyped (or more precisely, unityped) $\lambda$-calculus will interpret terms as normal functors between powers of $\operatorname{Set}^{A}$ for a suitable choice of $A$. As such, let us fix a choice of infinite set $A$ and a bijection $q: \operatorname{Int}(A) \times A \rightarrow A$. This bijection induces an equivalence of categories $\bar{q}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{\operatorname{Int}(A) \times A}$.
Remark 10. In the original presentation, [10, Proposition 3.1], $A$ is taken to be the initial algebra for the endofunctor $X \mapsto \operatorname{Int}(X) \times X$ on Set, which Girard constructs inductively and denotes by $\mathcal{A}_{\infty}$. This is countably infinite and equipped with a canonical bijection $\operatorname{Int}\left(\mathcal{A}_{\infty}\right) \times \mathcal{A}_{\infty} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_{\infty}$. Since the universal property of this algebra is not used anywhere, we allow for greater flexibility here.

To be more specific, the model we will interpret $\lambda$-terms in context, so that terms of several variables are interpreted as functors of an appropriate arity.

- Definition 11. A context is a sequence of variables $\underline{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. A context $\underline{x}$ is valid for a $\lambda$-term $t$ if the set of free variables of $t$ is a subset of $\underline{x}$.
- Definition 12. Let $t$ be a term and $\underline{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ a valid context for $t$. We define the functor $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid t \rrbracket:\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ by induction on the structure of $t$ :
- when $t=x_{i}$ is a variable, $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid x_{i} \rrbracket:=\pi_{i}$;
- when $t=\left(t_{1}\right) t_{2}$ is an application, $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid\left(t_{1}\right) t_{2} \rrbracket:=\left(\bar{q} \circ \llbracket \underline{x} \mid t_{1} \rrbracket\right)^{-} \circ\left\langle\operatorname{id}_{\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n}}, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid t_{2} \rrbracket\right\rangle$;
- when $t=\lambda y \cdot t^{\prime}$ is an abstraction, $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid \lambda y \cdot t^{\prime} \rrbracket:=\bar{q}^{-1} \circ\left(\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t^{\prime} \rrbracket^{+}\right)$.
- Remark 13. Although the notation and presentation differs significantly, this definition is identical in content to [10, The model $\mathcal{A}_{\infty}$ ]. In particular, we eliminate the App functor by observing that for $H:\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{\operatorname{Int}(A) \times A}$ and $J:\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{App} \circ\langle H, J\rangle=H^{-} \circ\left\langle\operatorname{id}_{\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n}}, J\right\rangle \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Our presentation makes it transparent, by the cancellation of $\bar{q}$ and $\bar{q}^{-1}$ and of $\left((-)^{+}\right)^{-}$, that the application of an abstracted term corresponds to substitution into the last argument (see the proof of Theorem 25). Definition 12 therefore gives a model of untyped $\lambda$-calculus. It is moreover a denotational model.

- Definition 14. Given $\lambda$-terms $t, s$ and a variable $x$, we write $t[x:=s]$ for the term given by substituting $s$ for $x$ in $t$. More formally, we inductively define:
- if $t$ is a variable then either $t=x$ in which case $t[x:=s]=s$, or $t \neq x$ in which case $t[x:=s]=t$.
- if $t=t_{1} t_{2}$ then $t[x:=s]=t_{1}[x:=s] t_{2}[x:=s]$.
- if $t=\lambda y \cdot t^{\prime}$ we may assume by $\alpha$-equivalence that $y \neq x$ and that $y$ does not occur in $s$ and set $t[x:=s]=\lambda y \cdot t^{\prime}[x:=s]$.
Recall that a model of untyped $\lambda$-calculus is said to be a denotational model if for all $\lambda$-terms $s, t$ in a context $\underline{x}$, we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket \underline{x}|(\lambda y . t) s \rrbracket=\llbracket \underline{x}| t[y:=s \rrbracket \rrbracket . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Theorem 15. Definition 12 yields a denotational model of the $\lambda$-calculus.

An essential intermediate result in proving Theorem 15 is the Substitution Lemma, which witnesses the fact that substitution works as expected in terms of the interpreting functors.

- Lemma 16 (Substitution Lemma). Let $t, s$ be $\lambda$-terms, $\underline{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ a collection of variables and $y$ a further variable such that $\underline{x} \cup\{y\}$ is a valid context for $t$ and $\underline{x}$ is a valid context for s. Then for any $\underline{F} \in\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket \underline{x} \mid t[y:=s \rrbracket \rrbracket(\underline{F})=\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t \rrbracket(\underline{F}, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket(\underline{F})) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proofs of these results are identical to the proofs of the analogous results in the simpler model, Lemma 24 and Theorem 25, below.

## $4 \lambda$-terms as normal functions

There are several dissatisfying aspects of the model given in the previous sections. Firstly, from the perspective of category theory it is unnatural to have to choose particular representatives
of finite sets (the Von Neumann integers). Moreover, requiring that $A$ is a set renders naturality of transformations between functors vacuous, as any collection of $A$-indexed functions is natural. Lastly, the preservation of wide pullbacks plays no technical role in the model per se: it instead provides a feature of the model which may or may not be desired.

We eliminate these aspects in the present section by constructing a simpler model. We dispose of the preservation of wide pullbacks entirely, as well as the superfluous categorical structure. In the sequel to this paper [18] we will show that both Girard's model (minus wide pullback preservation) and our simplified model are special cases of a family of models.

- Notation 1. For a set $A$, we denote by $\mathcal{Q}(A)$ the set of functions $\underline{a}: A \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup\{\infty\}$ and by $\mathcal{I}(A)$ the subset consisting of those $\underline{a}$ such that $\sum_{a \in A} \underline{a}(a)<\infty$ (that is, those for which all values are finite and all but finitely many are 0 ). The set $\mathcal{Q}(A)$ admits a partial order $\leq$ given by $\underline{a}_{1} \leq \underline{a}_{2}$ if and only if $\forall a \in A, \underline{a}_{1}(a) \leq \underline{a}_{2}(a)$.
- Definition 17. We say a function $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ is normal if it is order-preserving and preserves suprema of filtered sets. That is, if $\left\{\underline{a}_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a filtered set of elements in $\mathcal{Q}(A)$, then $f\left(\sup _{i \in I}\left\{\underline{a}_{i}\right\}\right)=\sup _{i \in I}\left\{f\left(\underline{a}_{i}\right)\right\}$.

Observe that $\mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \cong \mathcal{Q}\left(A \sqcup A^{\prime}\right)$ and this bijection induces a natural ordering on the left-hand side, so we can extend Definition 17 to functions of several variables as we did in Definition 1.

Since we do not impose the analogue of wide pullback preservation, we do not have a presentation of normal functions resembling power series and therefore do not have a direct analogue of analytic functors. Nonetheless, we can still break our functions down into finite parts in a natural way to obtain a result comparable to Theorem 7 in this simplified context.

- Theorem 18. Let $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ be order preserving. Then $f$ is normal if and only if for any pair $(\underline{a}, b) \in \mathcal{Q}(A) \times B$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\underline{a})(b)=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(A)} f(\underline{u})(b) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}}$ is equal to 1 if and only if $\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}$ and is equal to 0 otherwise.
Proof. Suppose $f$ is normal and let $(\underline{a}, b) \in \mathcal{Q}(A) \times B$. Consider the set $\mathscr{X}_{\underline{a}}:=\{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(A) \mid$ $\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}\}$. Then $\mathscr{X}_{\underline{a}}$ is filtered with respect to the ordering on $\mathcal{I}(A)$ and $\sup \mathscr{X}_{\underline{a}}=\underline{a}$. Since $f$ is normal, we thus have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\underline{a})(b)=f\left(\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathscr{X}_{\underline{a}}} \underline{u}\right)(b)=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathscr{\mathscr { O }}_{\underline{a}}} f(\underline{u})(b)=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(A)} f(u)(b) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, suppose (9) holds. Let $\left\{\underline{a}_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a filtered set. Then for any $b \in B$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\sup _{i \in I}\left\{\underline{a}_{i}\right\}\right)(b)=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(A)}\left\{f(\underline{u})(b) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \sup _{i \in I}\left\{\underline{a}_{i}\right\}}\right\} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup _{i \in I}\left\{f\left(\underline{a}_{i}\right)(b)\right\}=\sup _{i \in I}\left\{\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(A)}\left\{f(\underline{u})(b) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}_{i}}\right\}\right\} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

One can verify that the right-hand sides of (11) and (12) are equal by a circle of inequalities, exploiting the fact that $\underline{a} \leq \underline{a}^{\prime}$ implies $\tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}} \leq \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{a}^{\prime}}$ for all $\underline{u}$.

As in Section 3, we can "curry" a normal function $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ to a function $f^{+}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(B) \times C)$ and dually "uncurry" functions.

- Definition 19. Let $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ be arbitrary. We can define a function $f^{+}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(B) \times C)$ as follows.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{+}(\underline{a})(\underline{u}, c)=f(\underline{a}, \underline{u})(c) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, given arbitrary $g: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(B) \times C)$ we define $g^{-}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{-}(\underline{a}, \underline{b})(c):=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(B)} g(\underline{a})(\underline{u}, c) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{b}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

We note that $f^{+}$is normal when $f$ is and $g^{-}$is normal when $g$ is by Theorem 18.
The analogue of Lemma 8, that currying then uncurrying yields the identity, is the following proposition. We also consider of the effect of uncurrying followed by currying.

- Proposition 20. Given $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ and $g: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(B) \times C)$ which are normal, we have $\left(f^{+}\right)^{-}=f$ and $\left(g^{-}\right)^{+} \geq g$.

Proof. Let $(\underline{a}, \underline{b}) \in \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B), c \in C$. We have:

$$
\left(f^{+}\right)^{-}(\underline{a}, \underline{b})(c)=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(B)} f^{+}(\underline{a})(\underline{u}, c) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{b}}=\sup _{\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(B)} f(\underline{a}, \underline{b})(c) \tau_{\underline{u} \leq \underline{b}}=f(\underline{a}, \underline{b})(c)
$$

On the other hand, for $\underline{a}, c$ as above and $\underline{u} \in \mathcal{I}(B)$,

$$
\left(g^{-}\right)^{+}(\underline{a})(\underline{u}, c)=g^{-}(\underline{a}, \underline{u})(c)=\sup _{\underline{u}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{I}(B)} g(\underline{a})\left(\underline{u}^{\prime}, c\right) \tau_{\underline{u}^{\prime} \leq \underline{u}} \geq g(\underline{a})(\underline{b}, c) .
$$

Now fix an infinite set $A$ and a choice of bijection $q: \mathcal{I}(A) \times A \rightarrow A$. There is an induced bijection $\bar{q}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A) \times A)$.

- Definition 21. Let $\underline{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a set of variables and let $t$ be $a \lambda$-term for which $\underline{x}$ is a valid context (Definition 11). We associate to each such pair ( $\underline{x}, t$ ) a normal function $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid t \rrbracket: \mathcal{Q}(A)^{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ inductively on the structure of $t$ :
- when $t=x_{i}$ is a variable, $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid x_{i} \rrbracket:=\pi_{i}$;
- when $t=\left(t_{1}\right) t_{2}$ is an application, $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid\left(t_{1}\right) t_{2} \rrbracket:=\left(\bar{q} \circ \llbracket \underline{x} \mid t_{1} \rrbracket\right)^{-} \circ\left\langle\operatorname{id}_{\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\right)^{n}}, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid t_{2} \rrbracket\right\rangle$;
- when $t=\lambda y \cdot t^{\prime}$ is an abstraction, $\llbracket \underline{x} \mid \lambda y \cdot t^{\prime} \rrbracket:=\bar{q}^{-1} \circ\left(\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t^{\prime} \rrbracket\right)^{+}$.
- Remark 22. The resemblence between Definition 12 and Definition 21 is evident; the latter is obtained from the former by a substitution of simpler ingredients. This demonstrates that our model is capturing the conceptual essence of Girard's.
- Example 23 (Church numeral $\underline{2}$ in $\lambda$-calculus). Consider the term $(f)(f) x$ in the context $(f, x)$. Its interpretation in our model is as follows after simplifying:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\llbracket f, x \mid(f)(f) x \rrbracket: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(A) & \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A) \\
\left(\underline{a}_{1}, \underline{a}_{2}\right) & \mapsto \bar{q}^{-}\left(\underline{a}_{1}, \bar{q}^{-}\left(\underline{a}_{1}, \underline{a}_{2}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The interpretation of the Church numeral $\underline{2}:=\lambda f \lambda x .(f)(f) x$ is obtained by applying $(-)^{+}$ and $\bar{q}^{-1}$ (twice) but the essence of the interpretation is captured by the above. Beware that $\bar{q}^{-}$is distinct from $\bar{q}^{-1}$ !

In our model, application is interpreted by introducing a new summand in the domain (via $\bar{q}^{-}$) and then substituting the interpretation of the second term into this new summand. So, in the above, we think of the interpretation of $(f) x$ as the substitution of $\underline{a}_{2}$ into the new argument of $\underline{a}_{1}$ introduced by $\bar{q}^{-}$. Then for $(f)(f) x$, this intermediate term $\bar{q}^{-}\left(\underline{a}_{1}, \underline{a}_{2}\right)$ is substituted into the new argument of $\underline{a}_{1}$ introduced by the outermost $\bar{q}^{-}$.

Our simplified model remains a denotational model (Definition 14); the proof relies on an analogue of Lemma 16.

- Lemma 24 (Substitution Lemma). Let $t, s$ be $\lambda$-terms and $\underline{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a collection of variables and $y$ another variable so that $\underline{x} \cup\{y\}$ is a valid context for $t$ and $\underline{x}$ is a valid context for $s$. Then for any $\alpha \in \mathcal{Q}(A)^{n}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket \underline{x} \mid t[y:=s \rrbracket \rrbracket(\alpha)=\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t \rrbracket(\alpha, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket(\alpha)) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We proceed by induction on the structure of the term $t$. The base case where $t$ is a variable is trivial.

Say $t=\left(t_{1}\right) t_{2}$ is an application. First, for $(\alpha, \underline{a}) \in \mathcal{Q}(A)^{n} \times \mathcal{Q}(A)$, we have the following. Note that we suppress the contexts to ease notation.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket\left(t_{1}\right) t_{2} \rrbracket(\alpha, \underline{a})=\left(\bar{q} \llbracket t_{1} \rrbracket\right)^{-}\left((\alpha, \underline{a}), \llbracket t_{2} \rrbracket(\alpha, \underline{a})\right) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\llbracket\left(t_{1}[y:=s]\right)\left(t_{2}[y:=s]\right) \rrbracket(\alpha) & =\left(\bar{q} \llbracket t_{1}[y:=s] \rrbracket\right)^{-}\left(\alpha, \llbracket t_{2}[y:=s] \rrbracket(\alpha)\right) \\
& =\left(\bar{q} \llbracket t_{1} \rrbracket\right)^{-}\left((\alpha, \llbracket s \rrbracket(\alpha)), \llbracket t_{2} \rrbracket(\alpha, \llbracket s \rrbracket(\alpha))\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where in the final line we have used the inductive hypothesis.
Say $t=\lambda y^{\prime} . t^{\prime}$ is an abstraction. We have, for $(\alpha, \underline{a}) \in \mathcal{Q}(A)^{n} \times \mathcal{Q}(A)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket \underline{x}, y\left|\lambda y^{\prime} . t \rrbracket(\alpha, \underline{a})=\bar{q}^{-1} \llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime}\right| t^{\prime} \rrbracket^{+}(\alpha, \underline{a}) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, we have for $\alpha \in \mathcal{Q}(A)^{n}$ and $c \in A$ the following (assume $q^{-1}(c)=\left(\underline{c}^{\prime}, c^{\prime \prime}\right)$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid \lambda y^{\prime} \cdot t[y:=s \rrbracket \rrbracket(\alpha)(c) & =\left(\bar{q}^{-1} \llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime}[y:=s] \rrbracket^{+}\right)(\alpha)(c) \\
& =\llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime}[y:=s\rfloor \rrbracket^{+}(\alpha)\left(\underline{c}^{\prime}, c^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
& =\sup _{u \in \mathcal{I}(A)^{n} \llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime}\left[y:=s \rrbracket \rrbracket\left(u, \underline{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(c^{\prime \prime}\right) \tau_{u \leq \alpha}\right.} \\
& =\sup _{u \in \mathcal{I}(A)^{n} \llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime} \rrbracket\left(u, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket(u), \underline{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(c^{\prime \prime}\right) \tau_{u \leq \alpha}} \\
& =\llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime} \rrbracket^{+}\left(\alpha, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket(\alpha), \underline{c}^{\prime}\right)\left(c^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
& =\bar{q}^{-1} \llbracket \underline{x}, y, y^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime} \rrbracket^{+}(\alpha, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket)(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have used the inductive hypothesis in the fourth line.

- Theorem 25. Definition 21 gives a denotational model of the $\lambda$-calculus.

Proof. By the Substitution Lemma we have for $\alpha \in \mathcal{Q}(A)^{n}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket \underline{x} \mid t[y:=s \rrbracket \rrbracket(\alpha)=\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t \rrbracket(\alpha, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket(\alpha)) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\llbracket \underline{x} \mid(\lambda y . t) s \rrbracket(\alpha) & \left.=\left(\bar{q} \bar{q}^{-1} \llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t \rrbracket^{+}\right)^{-}\langle\mathrm{id}, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket\rangle\right)(\alpha) \\
& =\llbracket \underline{x}, y \mid t \rrbracket(\alpha, \llbracket \underline{x} \mid s \rrbracket(\alpha))
\end{aligned}
$$

which concludes the proof.

$$
\begin{array}{lccc} 
& \vdots \pi_{1} & \vdots \pi_{2} & \vdots \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{} \pi^{\prime} \\
X \vdash X & (\mathrm{ax}) & \frac{\Gamma, \Delta^{\prime} \vdash B}{\Gamma, \Delta, \Delta^{\prime} \vdash B}(\mathrm{cut}) & \frac{\Gamma, A, B, \Delta \vdash C}{\Gamma, B, A, \Delta \vdash C}(\mathrm{ex}) \\
\text { (a) Axiom } & \text { (b) Cut } & \text { (c) Exchange }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
\vdots \pi^{\prime} & \vdots \pi_{1} & \vdots \pi_{2} & \vdots \pi^{\prime} \\
\Gamma, A, B, \Delta \vdash C \\
\Gamma, A \otimes B, \Delta, \vdash C & (\mathrm{~L} \otimes) & \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{}+\frac{\Delta \vdash B}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash A \otimes B}(\mathrm{R} \otimes) & \frac{\Gamma, A, \Gamma^{\prime} \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma,!A, \Gamma^{\prime} \vdash \Delta}(\mathrm{der})
\end{array} \frac{\vdots \pi^{\prime}}{!\Gamma \vdash!A}(\text { prom })
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
\vdots \pi^{\prime} & \vdots \pi_{1} & \vdots \pi_{2} & \vdots \pi^{\prime} \\
\frac{\Gamma, A, \Delta \vdash B}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash A \multimap B}(\mathrm{R} \multimap) & \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{} \frac{B, \Delta \vdash C}{\Gamma, A \multimap B, \Delta \vdash C}(\mathrm{~L} \multimap) & \frac{\Gamma,!A,!A \vdash B}{\Gamma,!A \vdash B}(\mathrm{ctr}) & \vdots \pi^{\prime} \\
\Gamma,!A \vdash B
\end{array}
$$

(h) Right implication
(j) Contraction
(k) Weakening

- Figure 1 Rules for linear logic sequent calculus


## 5 Linear proofs as linear functions

This model of the untyped $\lambda$-calculus can easily be extended to a model of the simply-typed $\lambda$-calculus by allowing the chosen set $A$ to vary. In fact, the situation is much better than that: we can extend our model to a model of Intuitionistic Linear Logic!

We recall the deduction rules for Intuitionistic Linear Logic (ILL henceforth) in Figure 1. Since the cut-elimination rules (which we need for Theorem 34) are more cumbersome, we refer the reader to $[17$, Section 3] for these. For our purposes, a model of ILL in a monoidal category ${ }^{3}(\mathcal{C}, \boxtimes, I)$ consists of an object $\underline{A}$ of $\mathcal{C}$ for each formula $A$ and a morphism $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket: \underline{A_{1}} \boxtimes \cdots \boxtimes \underline{A_{n}} \rightarrow \underline{B}$ of $\mathcal{C}$ for each proof $\pi$ of a sequent $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \vdash B$ constructed using the deduction rules of Figure 1, such that $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket$ whenever $\pi \sim \pi^{\prime}$ are two proofs which are equivalent up to cut-elimination. (Note that the empty monoidal product when $n=0$ is interpreted as the monoidal unit $I$.)

In order to construct the underlying category of our model, we need some further definitions. Recall from Section 4 that for a set $A, \mathcal{Q}(A)$ consists of all functions $f: A \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{N}}$. Considering $\overline{\mathbb{N}}$ as a set equipped with the operation of natural number addition (extended in the intuitive way to include $\infty$ ), the set $\mathcal{Q}(A)$ with its point-wise addition inherits a commutative monoid structure.

- Definition 26. Given an element $a \in A$, let $\delta_{a} \in \mathcal{Q}(A)$ be the function for which $\delta_{a}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$ evaluates to 1 if $a=a^{\prime}$ and to 0 otherwise. We say a function $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ is linear if

$$
f(\underline{a})(b)=\sum_{a \in A} \underline{a}(a) f\left(\delta_{a}\right)(b) .
$$

More generally, given sets $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B$, a function $f: \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{Q}\left(A_{i}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ is said to be multilinear if it is linear in each argument. We denote the set of such functions $\operatorname{Lin}\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{Q}\left(A_{i}\right), \mathcal{Q}(B)\right)$.

[^1]- Remark 27. Whereas a normal function $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ is determined by its restriction to the domain $\mathcal{I}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$, if $f$ is linear then it is determined by its restriction to the domain $A \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ (after identifying $a \in A$ with $\delta_{a}$ ).

To understand multilinearity, given a function $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ which is linear in the second argument, for any $\underline{a} \in \mathcal{Q}(A)$ and $\underline{b} \in \mathcal{Q}(B)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\underline{a}, \underline{b})=f\left(\underline{a}, \sum_{b \in B} \underline{b}(b) \cdot \delta_{a}\right)=\sum_{b \in B} \underline{b}(b) \cdot f\left(\underline{a}, \delta_{b}\right) . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can actually "curry" and "uncurry" multilinear functions using the presentation expressed in (19). Unlike currying for normal functions, this linear currying is a bijection.

- Proposition 28. There is a bijection,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Lin}(\mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B), \mathcal{Q}(C)) \stackrel{(-)^{\times}}{\stackrel{(-)^{+}}{\leftrightarrows}} \operatorname{Lin}(\mathcal{Q}(A), \mathcal{Q}(B \times C)) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We define $f^{\times}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B \times C)$ as follows for $\underline{a} \in \mathcal{Q}(A)$ and $(b, c) \in B \times C$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\times}(\underline{a})(b, c)=f\left(\underline{a}, \delta_{b}\right)(c) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, given a linear function $g: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B \times C)$ we define $g^{\dagger}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ as follows for $(\underline{a}, \underline{b}) \in \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B), c \in C$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\dot{ }}(\underline{a}, \underline{b})(c)=\sum_{b \in B} \underline{b}(b) \cdot g(\underline{a})(b, c) \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly, if $f: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(C)$ is linear in its second argument, then $\left(f^{\times}\right)^{\leftarrow}=f$. Conversely, for any $g: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B \times C)$ we have $\left(g^{\dot{亡}}\right)^{\times}=g$.

- Example 29. Taking $A=B$ and $C=\{*\}$ in Proposition 28, we find that $\left(\operatorname{id}_{\mathcal{Q}(A)}\right)^{*}$ is the 'scalar product' map,

$$
\left(\operatorname{id}_{\mathcal{Q}(A)}\right) \div\left(\underline{a}, \underline{a}^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{a \in A} \underline{a}(a) \cdot \underline{a}^{\prime}(a) \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}
$$

which is the linear extension of $\left(a, a^{\prime}\right) \mapsto \delta_{a}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$.
At this point we already have enough structure to interpret the formulas of Linear Logic.

- Definition 30. We choose, for each atomic formula $X$, a set which we denote $\underline{X}$. For a formula, we define the interpretation inductively via the rules:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underline{A \otimes B}=\underline{A \multimap B}=\underline{A} \times \underline{B}, \quad \underline{!}=\underline{\mathcal{A}}=\mathcal{I}(A) . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rather than the category of sets, we take the context for these interpretations to be the Kleisli category of $\mathcal{Q}$. Indeed, $\mathcal{Q}$ becomes a monad on Set when equipped with unit transformation $\delta: A \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ mapping $a$ to $\delta_{a}$ and multiplication $\mu: \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{Q}(A)) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ given by viewing elements on each side as extended multisets and taking the disjoint union. Morphisms $A \rightarrow B$ in the Kleisli category are functions $A \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$, which in turn correspond to linear functions $\mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$. As such, we will interpret a proof $\pi$ of a sequent $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \vdash B$ as a multilinear function $\mathcal{Q}\left(\underline{A_{1}}\right) \times \cdots \times \mathcal{Q}\left(\underline{A_{n}}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\underline{B})$, which correspond to linear maps $\mathcal{Q}\left(\underline{A_{1}} \times \cdots \times \underline{A_{n}}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$. Thus cartesian products of sets induces the monoidal product operation on the Kleisli category.

To interpret proofs, we need a little more structure. Let $d_{A}: \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A)) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ be the map sending $\delta_{\underline{a}}$ to $\sum_{a \in A} \underline{a}(a) \delta_{a}$, extended linearly. Let $p_{A}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A))$ be the morphism that maps $\delta_{a}$ to $\delta_{\delta_{a}}$, extended linearly. We will also employ the linear extension of the diagonal map, which we denote $\Delta_{A}: \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A)) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A) \times \mathcal{I}(A))$, and the swap map $s_{A, B}: \mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B) \times \mathcal{Q}(A)$.

- Definition 31. We construct the interpretation $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket$ of $a$ proof $\pi$ by induction on the structure of $\pi$, with reference to Figure 1. Throughout, when a composition symbol carries a subscript, this indicates the formula corresponding to the argument at which to compose.
- if $\pi$ consists of a single axiom rule (Figure $1 a$ ), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{Q}(X)}$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a cut rule (Figure 1b), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\llbracket \pi_{2} \rrbracket \circ_{A} \llbracket \pi_{1} \rrbracket$;
- if $\pi$ ends with an exchange rule (Figure 1c), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket \circ_{A, B} s_{\underline{B}, \underline{A}}$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a left tensor rule (Figure $1 d$ ), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket$ up to identifying multilinear maps out of $\mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(B)$ with linear maps out of $\mathcal{Q}(A \times B)$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a right tensor rule (Figure 1e), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket(a, b):=\llbracket \pi_{1} \rrbracket(a) \times \llbracket \pi_{2} \rrbracket(b)$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a right linear arrow rule (Figure 1h), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket^{\times}$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a left linear arrow rule (Figure $1 i$ ), then for $a \in A, \llbracket \pi \rrbracket(\alpha, \underline{a}, \underline{b}, \beta):=$ $\llbracket \pi_{1} \rrbracket^{\dagger}(\alpha, \underline{a}) \cdot \llbracket \pi_{2} \rrbracket(\underline{b}, \beta)$ (this is the linear version of application);
- if $\pi$ ends with a dereliction rule (Figure 1f), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket \circ_{A} d_{A}$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a promotion rule (Figure 1 g ), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=p_{A} \circ \llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a contraction rule (Figure 1j), then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket:=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket \circ_{!A,!A} \Delta_{\underline{A}}$;
- if $\pi$ ends with a weakening rule (Figure $1 k)$, then $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket\left(\underline{a}_{1}, \ldots, \underline{a}_{n}, \underline{a}\right):=\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket\left(\underline{a}_{1}, \ldots, \underline{a}_{n}\right)$.
- Example 32 (Church numeral $\underline{2}_{A}$ in Linear Logic). Consider the Church numeral $\underline{2}_{A}$ (without the penultimate right implication rules).

Recall that by definition, $\underline{A \multimap A=A \times A \text { (where on the right-hand side we drop the underline }}$ on the $A$ for convenience). Thus we can write $f \in!(A \multimap A)=\mathcal{I}(A \times A)$ as $f=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i}\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)$ with $a_{i}, b_{i} \in A$ and $c_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$. With this notation, $\overline{d_{A \times A}\left(\delta_{f}\right)}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \delta_{\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)}$, and hence the interpretation of the above proof is the function $\mathcal{Q}(A) \times \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A \times A)) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ obtained as the linear extension of:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \times \mathcal{I}(A \times A) & \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A) \\
(a, f) & \mapsto\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \cdot \delta_{a}\left(a_{i}\right)\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} c_{i} \cdot c_{j} \cdot \delta_{b_{i}}\left(a_{j}\right)\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j} \cdot \delta_{b_{j}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

- Remark 33. Let us take a moment to reflect on the relationship between normal functions and linear functions in light of the interpretations of terms and proofs in Definitions 30 and 31. Since linear functions are determined by their restriction along the inclusion $\delta: A \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ and normal functions are determined by their restriction to $\mathcal{I}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{Q}(A)$, one might expect to be able to identify normal functions $\mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$ with linear functions $\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A)) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(B)$, which would be the interpretation of a proof of $!A \vdash B$. While any normal function can indeed be presented as a linear function in this way, not every such linear function is normal, since it need not respect the ordering on $\mathcal{I}(A)$; we must apply the plus and minus constructions to each argument to recover a normal function. Nonetheless, this presentation of 'ordinary' functions as linear functions out of a modified domain is, according to Girard, the original inspiration for Linear Logic.

The dereliction operation $d$ is the linear extension of the inclusion $\mathcal{I}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$ whose normal extension is the identity $\mathcal{Q}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}(A)$. Thus the interpretation of the simplest proof of $!A \vdash A$, namely

$$
{\overline{\overline{A \vdash A}_{!}^{!}}{ }^{\text {(ax) }}}^{(\mathrm{der})}
$$

is precisely the linear function corresponding to Girard's interpretation of a variable in $\lambda$ calculus, and similarly for the simplest proof of more general variables. Similarly, promotion is chosen so that application of terms corresponds to the interpretation of promotion followed by cut:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\vdots \pi_{1} & \\
\frac{!\Gamma \vdash A}{!\Gamma \vdash!A} & \vdots \pi_{2} \\
& !\Gamma,!\Delta,!\Delta^{\prime} \vdash B
\end{array}
$$

Theorem 34. Definition 31 gives a model of Intuitionistic Linear Logic. That is, if $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ are (cut)-equivalent proofs, then $\llbracket \pi_{1} \rrbracket=\llbracket \pi_{2} \rrbracket$.

Proof. We go through each (cut)-elimination rule methodically and prove invariance of the interpretations under these transformations.

The interesting cases are $($ prom $) /($ der $)$ and $(\mathrm{R} \multimap) /(\mathrm{L} \multimap)$. First we consider (prom) $/(\mathrm{der})$. Say $\pi$ is on the left of the cut and $\pi^{\prime}$ is on the right. The two interpretations are respectively

$$
\begin{equation*}
\llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket \circ_{A} d_{A} \circ_{!A} p_{A} \circ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket, \quad \llbracket \pi^{\prime} \rrbracket \circ_{A} \llbracket \pi \rrbracket \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

So it suffices to show that $d_{A} \circ p_{A}=\operatorname{id}_{\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A))}$. It suffices to check this on elements of the form $\delta_{a}$, and indeed $d_{A}\left(p_{A}\left(\delta_{a}\right)\right)=d_{A}\left(\delta_{\delta_{a}}\right)=\delta_{a}$ is the identity, as required.

Next we consider $(\mathrm{R} \multimap) /(\mathrm{L} \multimap)$. One of the interpretations involves $\left(\llbracket \zeta \rrbracket^{\times}\right)^{\div}$for some proof $\zeta$ where the other involves simply $\llbracket \zeta \rrbracket$. These are equal by Proposition 28 and the result follows.

## 6 Comparison to other models

By replacing the set $\overline{\mathbb{N}}$ in the definition of $\mathcal{Q}$ with the two-element poset $0<1$, we recover the power set monad $\mathcal{P}$ on Set and many of the components of the models have parallels in that setting, producing a model resembling the relational model of Linear Logic. One can generalise powerset algebras to qualitative domains, which consist of a set $X$ along with a set $|X|$ of subsets of $X$, which contains the empty set, and is closed under arbitrary subset and also filtered colimits. Girard took this approach in [10, 8], where he showed that in fact binary qualitative domains also suffice for the construction of a model of $\lambda$-calculus. It is easy to show that binary qualitative domains are exactly coherent spaces. Investigating the true origins of Linear Logic was in fact the original motivation for the current paper.

More generally, we could replace $\overline{\mathbb{N}}$ with a continuous semiring and recover the components of weighted relational models [16]. A significant difference between our model and those is that ours is not functorial in the usual sense, as applying a dereliction rule followed by a promotion rule to an axiom yields a proof whose denotation is not the identity morphism on $\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{I}(A))$. This can be seen easily by the following calculation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{A} d_{A}\left(\delta_{\underline{a}}\right)=p_{A}\left(\sum_{a \in A} \underline{a}(a) \cdot \delta_{a}\right)=\sum_{a, a^{\prime} \in A} \underline{a}(a) \delta_{a}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \cdot \delta_{\delta_{a^{\prime}}}=\sum_{a \in A} \underline{a}(a) \cdot \delta_{\delta_{a}} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is not equal to $\delta_{\underline{a}}$. In this sense our model lies outside of the accepted categorical definition of a model of Linear Logic [17].

We note however that 'non-functorial' denotational models already exist in the literature. In particular the interpretation of Linear Logic proofs in Geometry of Interaction constructions [11, 12, 23] do not interpret the proof $\pi$ obtained from applying a dereliction and a promotion to an axiom as an identity. Indeed, using the notations of the first geometry of interaction ${ }^{4}$, the interpretation of that proof is equal to

$$
\pi^{\bullet}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & t\left(1 \otimes p^{*}\right) \\
(1 \otimes p) t^{*} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

which does not act as an identity, i.e. if applied to an argument $a$, this yields

$$
\operatorname{Ex}\left(\pi^{\bullet}, a\right)=t\left(1 \otimes p^{*}\right) a(1 \otimes p) t^{*}
$$

which is different from $a$ in general.
We adopt the attitude that the research program which realises Linear Logic models as categorical structures differs in principle from ours as we put the syntactic systems themselves as primary, and the models themselves as secondary, in the sense that we have not imposed convenient categorical hypotheses which are not justified by the logic: most notably, ! is not a comonad here. We wish to emphasise the fact that a perspective prioritising categorical aesthetics would have discarded our model, and we believe this would have been a mistake.

The merit of our model is that it puts on firm footing exactly how $\lambda$-terms may be thought of as structure preserving functions, and it does so in a down-to-earth way that we intend to generalize in future.

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## XX:16 Simplifying normal functors: an old and a new model of $\lambda$-calculus

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## A Proof of Girard's Normal Form Theorem

Clearly, every integral functor is finite. Conversely, every finite functor is isomorphic to an integral functor. It follows that the finite normal form property is equivalent to the integral normal form property. Moreover, this holds even when $A$ is an arbitrary category, even though this case was not considered in Girard's original paper [10].

We now show that if a functor $\mathscr{F}:$ Set $^{A} \rightarrow$ Set admits the finite normal form property then it is isomorphic to an analytic functor. This result can be thought of as recovering the functor $\mathscr{F}$ from its collection of normal forms. In short, given a functor $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ and an element $x \in \mathscr{F}(F)$, a normal form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ will induce the data of a triple $\left(G, \eta, y^{\prime}\right) \in \amalg_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F) \times C_{G}\right)$ where $y^{\prime}$ is equivalent to $y$ under an appropriate equivalence relation. To finish the proof, we must define the equivalence relation defining the classes which form $C_{G}$. This will require an alternate classification of when an integral form is normal without reference to its codomain.

Lemma 35. Let $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ be an integral form (not necessarily normal) and say $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the integral normal form property. Then $\eta$ is normal if and only if $\mathrm{id}_{G}:(G, y) \rightarrow$ $(G, y)$ is.

Proof. Let $\eta^{\prime}:\left(G, y^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow(F, x)$ be an integral normal form associated to $(F, x)$. Then by normality there exists a morphism $\gamma: G \rightarrow G$ so that the following is a commutative diagram in $\mathrm{El}(\mathscr{F})$.


Since id is normal, there exists a section $\gamma^{\prime}$ rendering (26) commutative.
Since $\gamma \gamma^{\prime}=\operatorname{id}_{G}$ and $\eta$ is normal, it follows that $\eta^{\prime}$ is normal. On the other hand, say $\eta$ is normal. Let $\epsilon:(H, w) \rightarrow(G, y)$ be arbitrary. Consider the composition $\eta \epsilon$. By normality of $\eta$, there exists a unique $\gamma:(G, y) \rightarrow(H, w)$ so that the following diagram commutes:


If $\gamma^{\prime}$ was another such map, then $\eta \epsilon \gamma=\eta \epsilon \gamma^{\prime}$ so by normality of $\eta$ we have that $\gamma=\gamma^{\prime}$.

- Lemma 36. If a functor $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow$ Set satisfies the finite normal form property, then $\mathscr{F}$ is isomorphic to an analytic functor.

Proof. The main step in the proof will be to define for each $G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)$ a set $C_{G}$ and for each $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ a bijection

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{F}: \mathscr{F}(F) \rightarrow \coprod_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F) \times C_{G}\right) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, in the current setting where $A$ admits only identity morphisms, this will complete the proof.

For any element $(F, x)$ of $\operatorname{El}(\mathscr{F})$ there is some finite normal form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$, isomorphic to an integral normal form. Thus, it suffices to consider the case where $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the integral normal form property.

An integral normal form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ is not uniquely determined by $(F, x)$, however, given another integral normal form $\eta^{\prime}:\left(G^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow(F, x)$ we have that $G^{\prime} \cong G$ by normality and thus $G^{\prime}=G$ by integrality. So at least the domain of the object is uniquely determined by $(F, x)$.

Let $X_{G}$ denote the elements $y \in \mathscr{F}(G)$ for which $\operatorname{id}_{G}:(G, y) \rightarrow(G, y)$ is normal, since $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the integral form property, there is always at least one such $y$. Let $C_{G}$ denote a set of choices of representatives of the isomorphism classes of $X_{G}$.

Thus, to each $x \in \mathscr{F}(F)$ we have associated an integral normal form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ and fixed particular choices so that this map $h_{F}(x)=(G, \eta, y)$ is a bijection.

The converse to Lemma 36 also holds, which we now move onto proving.
In general, if $\mu: H \rightarrow G$ is a natural transformation and $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ is a normal form, then the composite $\eta \mu$ is need not be a normal form. However, if $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the finite normal form property the normal forms can be carried through natural transformations. This is the content of the next Lemma.

- Lemma 37. Let $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow$ Set be a functor satisfying the normal form property. Then if $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ is a normal form and $\mu: G \rightarrow H$ is a natural transformation, then $\mu \eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ is a normal form.

Proof. Let $\epsilon:(K, z) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ be an arbitrary form. We show that there exists a unique morphism $(G, y) \rightarrow(K, z)$ in the category $\operatorname{El}(\mathscr{F}) /(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$. Since $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the normal form property there exists some normal form $\gamma:(L, w) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$. It is convenient to draw this situation out in the category $\operatorname{El}(\mathscr{F})$, ignore the dashed arrows for now.


Since $\mu \eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ is a form with respect to $(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ we have by initiality of $\gamma:(L, w) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ that there exists a morphism $\gamma:(L, w) \rightarrow(G, y)$ fitting into (29).

The morphism $\eta \gamma:(L, w) \rightarrow(F, x)$ induces the morphism $\gamma^{\prime}$ and composing this with the morphism $\beta$ (which is induce by initiality of $\gamma:(L, w) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ induces a morphism $(G, y) \rightarrow(K, z)$ which is the unique morphism rending the full diagram commutative. Thus $\mu \eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(H, \mathscr{F}(\mu)(x))$ is initial.

- Lemma 38. Let $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow$ Set be analytic. Then $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the normal form property.

Proof. Let $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ be arbitrary and consider an element $(G, \eta, y)$ of $\mathscr{F}(F)=\amalg_{G^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}\left(G^{\prime}, F\right) \times\right.$ $\left.C_{G^{\prime}}\right)$. We can then consider the set

$$
\mathscr{F}(G)=\coprod_{G^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Int}(A)} \operatorname{Set}^{A}\left(G^{\prime}, G\right) \times C_{G^{\prime}}
$$

A particular element of this set is $\left(G, \operatorname{id}_{G}, y\right)$. We show that $\eta:\left(G,\left(G, \operatorname{id}_{G}, y\right)\right) \rightarrow(F,(G, \eta, y))$ is normal.

Say $\epsilon:\left(H,\left(G^{\prime}, \eta^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow(F,(G, \eta, y))$ is a form, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{F}(\epsilon)\left(G^{\prime}, \eta^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)=(G, \eta, y) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

We unpack the definition of the function $\mathscr{F}(\epsilon)=\amalg_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, \epsilon) \times C_{G}\right)$. This function makes the following Diagram commute, where the vertical morphisms are canonical inclusion maps.

$$
\begin{gather*}
山_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, H) \times C_{G}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathscr{F}(\mu)} 山_{G \in \operatorname{Int}(A)}\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F)\right) \\
\uparrow  \tag{31}\\
\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, H) \times C_{G} \xrightarrow{-^{0 \epsilon \times \operatorname{id}_{C_{G}}}} \operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, F) \times C_{G}
\end{gather*}
$$

So (30) implies $\left(\left(\_\circ \epsilon\right) \times \operatorname{id}\right)\left(\eta^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)=(\eta, y)$. We thus have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
G^{\prime}=G, \quad \epsilon \eta^{\prime}=\eta, \quad y^{\prime}=y \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the domain of the morphism $\epsilon:\left(H,\left(G^{\prime}, \eta^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow(F,(G, \eta, y))$ is equal to $\left(H,\left(G, \eta^{\prime}, y\right)\right)$. We need a unique morphism $\left(G,\left(G, \operatorname{id}_{G}, y\right)\right) \rightarrow\left(H,\left(G, \eta^{\prime}, y\right)\right)$. Clearly $\eta^{\prime}$ is such a morphism, and it is the unique such because for any morphism $\mu: G \rightarrow G$ we have $\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, \mu) \times C_{G}\right)(\mu)=$ $\mu$, and so $\eta^{\prime}$ is the unique morphism $\mu$ determined by the condition $\left(\operatorname{Set}^{A}(G, \mu) \times C_{G}\right)(\mu)=$ $\eta^{\prime}$.

Everything so far also holds in the setting where $A$ is an arbitrary category, even though the assumption was made in [10] that $A$ is a set.

- Lemma 39. Any functor $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ is the colimit of finite functors in $\operatorname{Set}^{A}$.

Lemma 39 is useful for proving that certain subobjects are finite. In short, one can prove a set $Y$ is finite by defining a surjective function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ where $X$ is finite. This suggest a relaxing of the finite normal form condition to the saturated form condition, which is to say that every appropriate pair $(F, x)$ admits a saturated form.

- Definition 40. A form $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ is saturated if any other form $\epsilon:(H, z) \rightarrow(G, y)$ is an epimorphism.
- Lemma 41. If $\mathscr{F}$ is normal, then every saturated form is finite.

Proof. Let $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ be a saturated form. We have by Lemma 39 that $G$ is the colimit of its finite subobjects, so we write $G \cong \operatorname{Colim}\left\{G_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$. Hence, $\mathscr{F}(G) \cong \mathscr{F} \operatorname{Colim}\left\{G_{i}\right\} \cong$ $\operatorname{Colim}\left\{\mathscr{F}\left(G_{i}\right)\right\}$, using normality.

Thus, we can view $y$ as an element of $\operatorname{Colim}\left\{\mathscr{F}\left(G_{i}\right)\right\}$ and consider $i \in I$ along with $y^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}\left(G_{i}\right)$ which maps onto $y \in \operatorname{Colim}\left\{\mathscr{F}\left(G_{i}\right)\right\}$ under the corresponding morphism of the colimit. We thus have a commutative diagram.


Thus, $\left(G_{i}, y^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow(G, y)$ is a form which is surjective by saturation of $\eta$. Since $G_{i}$ is finite, this implies $G$ is finite.

The final preliminary lemma required states that morphisms out of saturated normal forms are unique, in an appropriate sense. The proof of this lemma will use the fact that any functor preserving pullbacks preserves equalisers.

Lemma 42. Let $\eta:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ be saturated and $\eta^{\prime}:(G, y) \rightarrow(F, x)$ an arbitrary form. Then $\eta=\eta^{\prime}$.

Proof. Consider the equaliser $\operatorname{Eq}\left(\mathscr{F} \eta, \mathscr{F} \eta^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\mathscr{F} \eta(y)=\mathscr{F} \eta^{\prime}(y)$ we have that $y \in$ $\mathrm{Eq}\left(\mathscr{F} \eta, \mathscr{F} \eta^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\mathrm{Eq}\left(\mathscr{F} \eta, \mathscr{F} \eta^{\prime}\right) \cong \mathscr{F} \mathrm{Eq}\left(\eta, \eta^{\prime}\right)$ it follows that $\left(\mathrm{Eq}\left(\eta, \eta^{\prime}\right), y\right) \rightarrow(G, y)$ is a form, which in fact is surjective by saturation of $\eta$. It follows that $\eta=\eta^{\prime}$.

- Lemma 43. If $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow$ Set is normal then it satisfies the normal form property.

Proof. Let $(F, x)$ be a pair consisting of a functor $F \in \operatorname{Set}^{A}$ and an element $x \in \mathscr{F}(F)$. Consider all the saturated forms with codomain $(F, x)$ and take the pullback of this entire diagram. We use the labelling as given by (34).


There exists $y \in \mathscr{F}$ (PullBack) so that $\mathscr{F} \eta_{i}(y)=y_{i}$ for all $i$. We consider a saturated form $\epsilon:(G, z) \rightarrow$ (PullBack, $y$ ). We claim that this is a normal form with respect to $(F, x)$.

Assume there is a form $\gamma:(H, w) \rightarrow(F, x)$ and consider a saturated form $\gamma^{\prime}:\left(H^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $(H, w)$. A saturated form is one such that any form into it is surjective. Thus $\gamma \gamma^{\prime}:\left(H^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $(F, x)$ is saturated as $\gamma^{\prime}:\left(H^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow(H, w)$ is.

It follows that $(H, w)=\left(S_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ for some $i$. Thus we have a morphism $\eta_{i} \epsilon:(G, z) \rightarrow$ $\left(S_{i}, y_{i}\right)=(H, w)$. It follows from Lemma 42 that this is the unique morphism in the appropriate sense. This completes the proof.

The remaining result to be proved for is the converse to Lemma 43.

- Lemma 44. A functor $\mathscr{F}: \operatorname{Set}^{A} \rightarrow$ Set satisfying the finite normal form property is normal.

Proof. We must show that $\mathscr{F}$ preserves direct colimits and wide pullbacks.
$\mathscr{F}$ preserves direct colimits: consider a direct system, that is, assume there exists a collection of objects $\left\{F_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ fo $\operatorname{Set}^{A}$, where $I$ is a set equipped with a partial order <, along with a collection of morphisms $\left\{\alpha_{i j}: F_{i} \rightarrow F_{j}\right\}_{i, j \in I}$ subject to the following conditions

- $\forall i, j \in I, \exists k \in I$ such that $\alpha_{i k}: F_{i} \rightarrow F_{k}$, and $\alpha_{j k}: F_{j} \rightarrow F_{k}$ exist.
- $\forall i, j, k \in I, \alpha_{j k} \alpha_{i j}=\alpha_{i k}$
- $\forall i \in I \alpha_{i i}=\operatorname{id}_{F_{i}}$

Let $C$ denote the direct colimit of this direct system in the category $\operatorname{Set}^{A}$ and let $\left\{\mu_{i}: F_{i} \rightarrow C\right\}$ denote the associated morphisms into $C$. Consider also the direct colimit

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(C^{\prime},\left\{g_{i}: \mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right) \rightarrow C^{\prime}\right\}_{i \in I}\right) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the direct system given by $\left(\left\{\mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right)\right\}_{i \in I},\left\{\mathscr{F}\left(\alpha_{i j}\right): \mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right) \rightarrow \mathscr{F}\left(F_{j}\right)\right\}_{i, j \in I}\right)$ in the category Set.

By the universal property of $C^{\prime}$, there exists a unique function

$$
\begin{equation*}
f: C^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathscr{F}(C) \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that for all $i \in I$ the following diagram commutes.


We need to prove that $f$ is an isomorphism (ie, a bijection). We do this by proving that it is injective and surjective.

First we prove surjectivity. Let $z \in \mathscr{F}(C)$. By the finite normal form property, there exists a finite normal form $\epsilon:(G, w) \rightarrow(C, z)$. Now, for each $a \in A$ there is a function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon_{a}: G(a) \rightarrow C(a) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence, there exists some $i \in I$ and function $\epsilon_{a}^{\prime}: G(a) \rightarrow F_{i}(a)$ through which the function $\epsilon_{a}$ factors. Since $G$ is finite, and the colimit is direct, there exists an $i \in I$ such that for each $a \in A$ there is a morphism $G(a) \rightarrow F_{i}(a)$, which we also call $\epsilon_{a}^{\prime}$, which makes the following diagram commute.


We claim the collection $\epsilon^{\prime}:=\left\{\epsilon_{a}^{\prime}: G(a) \rightarrow F_{i}(a)\right\}$ is a natural transformation, however since $A$ is discrete (ie, has no non-identity morphisms), there is no condition to check, so this is vacuously satisfied.

Note: even in the case where $A$ is an arbitrary category, we still obtain naturality, it is inhereted from naturality of the morphisms involved in the following diagram:


We have constructed a natural transformation $\epsilon^{\prime}: G \rightarrow F_{i}$ so that the following diagram commutes.


Let $z^{\prime}$ denote $\mathscr{F}\left(\epsilon^{\prime}\right)(w)$. We have commutativity of the following diagram


Hence, $g_{i}\left(z^{\prime}\right)$ is an element of $C^{\prime}$ such that $f\left(g_{i}\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right)=z$, establishing surjectivity.
Now we prove injectivity. Let $x_{1}, x_{2} \in C^{\prime}$ be such that $f\left(x_{1}\right)=f\left(x_{2}\right)$. Let $z$ denote this element of $\mathscr{F}(C)$. The functions $\left\{g_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ form a surjective family over $C^{\prime}$ and so there exists $i, i^{\prime} \in I$ and $x_{1}^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right), x_{2}^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}\left(F_{i^{\prime}}\right)$ so that $g_{i}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)=x_{1}, g_{i^{\prime}}\left(x_{2}^{\prime}\right)=x_{2}$. In fact, since the diagram the colimit is over is direct, we can assume without loss of generality that $i=i^{\prime}$.

Turning our consideration to $z$, which is an element of $\mathscr{F}(C)$, we choose a normal form $\epsilon:(G, y) \rightarrow(C, z)$. We have already seen in the proof of surjectivity how from this we obtain a $j \in I$ along with a natural transformation $\epsilon^{\prime}: G \rightarrow F_{j}$ so that the following diagram commutes.


We have that $\mathscr{F}\left(\mu_{i}\right)\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{F}\left(\mu_{i}\right)\left(x_{2}^{\prime}\right)=z$. So, by initiality of $(G, y)$ there exists unique morphisms $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}: G \rightarrow F_{i}$ so that the following diagram commutes

and so that $\mathscr{F}\left(\gamma_{1}\right)(y)=x_{1}$ and $\mathscr{F}\left(\gamma_{2}\right)(y)=x_{2}$.
Combining (43) and (44) we obtain commutativity of the following diagram.


Now, let $a \in A$ be an arbitrary element of $A$ and consider (45) with everything evaluated at $a$, this gives a commuting diagram in Set. We notice that if $G(a)$ is non-empty, then there exists a pair of elements $d, d^{\prime} \in F_{i}(a)$ so that $\mu_{i a}(d)=\mu_{i a}\left(d^{\prime}\right)$ and so there exists some $k \in I$ such that $\alpha_{i k a}: F_{i}(a) \rightarrow F_{k}(a)$ so that $\alpha_{i k a}(d)=\alpha_{i k a}\left(d^{\prime}\right)$. By finiteness of $G$ (in particular, since all but finitely many $a \in A$ are such that $G(a)$ is non-empty) there thus exists $k \in I$ and $\alpha_{i k}: F_{i} \rightarrow F_{k}$ so that for all $a \in A$ there exists $d, d^{\prime} \in F_{i}(a)$ so that $\alpha_{i k a}(d)=\alpha_{i k a}\left(d^{\prime}\right)$. Lastly, by the first property above of direct colimits we may assume $k=j$. The result is the following commutative diagram in $\operatorname{Set}^{A}$.


Finally, we can consider the following commuting diagram in Set.


Thus, $\mathscr{F} \alpha_{i j} \mathscr{F} \gamma_{1}(y)=\mathscr{F} \alpha_{i j} \mathscr{F} \gamma_{2}(y)$, ie, $\mathscr{F} \alpha_{i j}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{F} \alpha_{i j}\left(x_{2}^{\prime}\right)$, ie, $x_{1}=x_{2}$. This establishes injectivity.


We must show that $f$ is a bijection. First we show surjectivity. Let $z \in P^{\prime}$. For each $i$ we consider $\mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i}\right)(z)$, which we denote by $z_{i}$. Since $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the normal form property, there exists a normal form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta_{i}:\left(G_{i}, w_{i}\right) \rightarrow\left(F_{i}, z_{i}\right) \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Lemma 37 the compositions

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{i} \eta_{i}:\left(G_{i}, w_{i}\right) \rightarrow\left(H, \mathscr{F}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\left(w_{i}\right)\right) \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

are normal forms with respect to $\left(G, \mathscr{F}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\left(w_{i}\right)\right)$ (note, $\mathscr{F}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\left(w_{i}\right)$ is independent of $i$ ).
Hence by essential uniqueness of initial objects, we can assume without loss of generality that for all pairs $i, j \in I$ we have $G_{i}=G_{j}$, denote this common element by $G$.

By the universal property of the pullback, there exists a natural transformation $\gamma: G \rightarrow P$ rendering the following Diagram commutative.


We notice also that the colleciton of elements $\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ induces an element $w \in \mathscr{F} G$ so that for all $i \in I$ we have $\mathscr{F}\left(\eta_{i}\right)(w)=z_{i}$.

We claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \mathscr{F}(\gamma)(w)=z \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

It suffices to show the following for all $i \in I$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi_{\mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right)}(z)=\pi_{\mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right)} f \mathscr{F}(\gamma)(w) \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

This holds by the following calculation.

$$
\begin{align*}
\pi_{\mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right)} f \mathscr{F}(\gamma)(w) & =\mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i}\right) \mathscr{F}(\gamma)(w)  \tag{54}\\
& =\mathscr{F}\left(\eta_{i}\right)(w)  \tag{55}\\
& =z_{i}  \tag{56}\\
& =\pi_{\mathscr{F}\left(F_{i}\right)}(z) \tag{57}
\end{align*}
$$

Now we prove injectivity. Let $x_{1}, x_{2} \in \mathscr{F} P$ be such that $f\left(x_{1}\right)=f\left(x_{2}\right)$. By the normal form property, there is a normal form $\chi_{1}:\left(X_{1}, x_{1}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(P, x_{1}\right)$ with respect to $\left(P, x_{1}\right)$ and a normal form $\chi_{2}:\left(X_{2}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(P, x_{2}\right)$ with respect to $\left(P, x_{1}\right)$. Let $i \in I$ be arbitrary and consider the composition of these normal forms with the natural transformation $\pi_{i}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(X_{1}, x_{1}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\chi_{1}}\left(P, x_{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\pi_{i}}\left(F_{i}, \mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i} \chi_{1}\right)\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right) \tag{58}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\left(X_{2}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\chi_{2}}\left(P, x_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\pi_{i}}\left(F_{i}, \mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i} \chi_{2}\right)\left(x_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

Now, by commutativity of (48) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i} \chi_{1}\right)\left(x_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i}\right)\left(x_{1}\right)=\mu_{i} f\left(x_{1}\right)=\mu_{i} f\left(x_{2}\right)=\mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i} \chi_{2}\right)\left(x_{2}^{\prime}\right) \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $w$ denote this common element.
This implies that (58) are both objects of the same comma category, $\operatorname{El}(\mathscr{F}) /\left(F_{i}, w\right)$, and in fact these are both normal by Lemma 37. We can thus assume without loss of generality that $X_{1}=X_{2}, x_{1}^{\prime}=x_{2}^{\prime}$, we let $X, x$ respectively denote these common elements. Thus, our hypothesis is: for all $i \in I$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi_{i} \chi_{1}=\pi_{i} \chi_{2} \tag{60}
\end{equation*}
$$

It now remains to show

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{F}\left(\chi_{1}\right)(x)=\mathscr{F}\left(\chi_{2}\right)(x) \tag{61}
\end{equation*}
$$

We do this by proving $\chi_{1}=\chi_{2}$.

XX:24 Simplifying normal functors: an old and a new model of $\lambda$-calculus

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First, notice that for $k=1,2$ and all $i \in I$ we have $\mathscr{F}\left(\pi_{i} \chi_{k}\right)=\mu_{i} f \mathscr{F}\left(\chi_{k}\right)(x)$. Thus, by Lemma 37 the following are normal forms:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi_{i} \chi_{k}:(X, x) \rightarrow\left(F_{i}, \mu_{i} f \mathscr{F}\left(\chi_{k}\right)(x)\right) \tag{62}
\end{equation*}
$$

By uniqueness of normal forms, it follows that $\pi_{i} \chi_{1}=\pi_{i} \chi_{j}$ for all $i \in I$. Let $\xi_{i}$ denote this common morphism. We now have that both $\chi_{1}$ and $\chi_{2}$ are morphisms $X \rightarrow P$ rendering the following diagram commutative for all $i, j \in I$.


It follows from the universal property of the pullback that $\chi_{1}=\chi_{2}$.


[^0]:    1 Which is a variant of normal form theorems on ordinals obtained within the theory of dilators [7].
    2 We stress here that the notion of analytic functor as introduced by Girard differs from that introduced and studied by Joyal [14].

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ Formally we could take $\mathcal{C}$ to be a multicategory here, but we will not exploit this level of generality.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ As a very quick recap, the first geometry of interaction interprets proofs as matrices whose coeficients are linear operators acting on the Hilbert space $\ell^{2}(\mathbf{N})$ of square-summable sequences of complex numbers. The operators $p$ and $q$ are the linear operators induced by applying the injections $n \mapsto 2 n$ and $n \mapsto 2 n+1$ on the standard natural basis. The operator $t$ implements associativity of the tensor product (which encodes the tensor of $a$ and $b$ as $p^{*} a p+q^{*} b q$ ): it is induced by the following bijection applied to the standard basis: $2 n \mapsto 4 n, 4 n+1 \mapsto 4 n+2,4 n+3 \mapsto 2 n+1$.

