# Computational Algebraic Topology Topic B: Sheaf cohomology and applications to quantum non-locality and contextuality Lecture 4 

Samson Abramsky<br>Department of Computer Science, University of Oxford

## The Support Presheaf

## The Support Presheaf

Recall that a probability table such as the Bell table can be represented by a family $\left\{p_{C}\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ with $p_{C}$ a probability distribution on $\mathcal{E}(C)=O^{C}$, where contexts $C$ corresponds to the rows of the table.

## The Support Presheaf

Recall that a probability table such as the Bell table can be represented by a family $\left\{p_{C}\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ with $p_{C}$ a probability distribution on $\mathcal{E}(C)=O^{C}$, where contexts $C$ corresponds to the rows of the table.

Similarly, "possibility tables" such as the Hardy model and the PR box can be represented by boolean distributions.

## The Support Presheaf

Recall that a probability table such as the Bell table can be represented by a family $\left\{p_{C}\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ with $p_{C}$ a probability distribution on $\mathcal{E}(C)=O^{C}$, where contexts $C$ corresponds to the rows of the table.

Similarly, "possibility tables" such as the Hardy model and the PR box can be represented by boolean distributions.

This latter case, with which the logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned, can equivalently be represented by a subpresheaf $\mathcal{S}$ of $\mathcal{E}$, where for each context $U \subseteq X, \mathcal{S}(U) \subseteq O^{U}$ is the set of all possible outcomes.

## The Support Presheaf

Recall that a probability table such as the Bell table can be represented by a family $\left\{p_{C}\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ with $p_{C}$ a probability distribution on $\mathcal{E}(C)=O^{C}$, where contexts $C$ corresponds to the rows of the table.

Similarly, "possibility tables" such as the Hardy model and the PR box can be represented by boolean distributions.

This latter case, with which the logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned, can equivalently be represented by a subpresheaf $\mathcal{S}$ of $\mathcal{E}$, where for each context $U \subseteq X, \mathcal{S}(U) \subseteq O^{U}$ is the set of all possible outcomes.

Explicitly, $\mathcal{S}$ is defined as follows, where $\operatorname{supp}\left(p_{C} \mid u \cap C\right)$ is the support of the marginal of $p_{C}$ at $U \cap C$.

$$
\mathcal{S}(U):=\left\{s \in O^{U}|\forall C \in \mathcal{M} . s|_{U \cap C} \in \operatorname{supp}\left(\left.p_{C}\right|_{U \cap C}\right)\right\}
$$

## The Support Presheaf

Recall that a probability table such as the Bell table can be represented by a family $\left\{p_{C}\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ with $p_{C}$ a probability distribution on $\mathcal{E}(C)=O^{C}$, where contexts $C$ corresponds to the rows of the table.

Similarly, "possibility tables" such as the Hardy model and the PR box can be represented by boolean distributions.

This latter case, with which the logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned, can equivalently be represented by a subpresheaf $\mathcal{S}$ of $\mathcal{E}$, where for each context $U \subseteq X, \mathcal{S}(U) \subseteq O^{U}$ is the set of all possible outcomes.

Explicitly, $\mathcal{S}$ is defined as follows, where $\operatorname{supp}\left(p_{C} \mid u \cap C\right)$ is the support of the marginal of $p_{C}$ at $U \cap C$.

$$
\mathcal{S}(U):=\left\{s \in O^{U}|\forall C \in \mathcal{M} . s|_{U \cap C} \in \operatorname{supp}\left(\left.p_{C}\right|_{U \cap C}\right)\right\}
$$

Can be specified axiomatically. In particular, "flasque below the cover" corresponding to No-Signalling/compatibility.

## Contextuality for support presheaves

## Contextuality for support presheaves

Note also that any compatible family on the cover $\mathcal{M}$ has a unique global section in $\mathcal{E}(X)$, and hence in $\mathcal{S}(X)$.

## Contextuality for support presheaves

Note also that any compatible family on the cover $\mathcal{M}$ has a unique global section in $\mathcal{E}(X)$, and hence in $\mathcal{S}(X)$.

## Definition

For any empirical model $\mathcal{S}$ :

- For all $C \in \mathcal{M}$ and $s \in \mathcal{S}(C), \mathcal{S}$ is logically contextual at $s$, written $\operatorname{LC}(\mathcal{S}, s)$, if $s$ is not a member of any compatible family. $\mathcal{S}$ is logically contextual, written $\operatorname{LC}(\mathcal{S})$, if $\operatorname{LC}(\mathcal{S}, s)$ for some $s$.
- $\mathcal{S}$ is strongly contextual, written $\operatorname{SC}(\mathcal{S})$, if $\operatorname{LC}(\mathcal{S}, s)$ for all $s$. Equivalently, it is strongly contextual if it has no global section, i.e. if $\mathcal{S}(X)=\varnothing$.


## All-versus-Nothing

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

Many papers subsequently, with many examples.

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

Many papers subsequently, with many examples.
However, no general definition of what an AvN argument is.

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

Many papers subsequently, with many examples.
However, no general definition of what an AvN argument is.
We shall provide such a definition, and formulate a conjecture of a simple characterisation of when such arguments can be made.

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

Many papers subsequently, with many examples.
However, no general definition of what an AvN argument is.
We shall provide such a definition, and formulate a conjecture of a simple characterisation of when such arguments can be made.

Motivation:

## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

Many papers subsequently, with many examples.
However, no general definition of what an AvN argument is.
We shall provide such a definition, and formulate a conjecture of a simple characterisation of when such arguments can be made.

Motivation:

- Understand where AvN sits in the hierarchy of contextuality properties


## All-versus-Nothing

This style of argument was first conceptualised by Mermin.
See in particular his paper
"A Simple Unified Form For the Major No-Hidden-Variables Theorems" (PRL 1990)

Many papers subsequently, with many examples.
However, no general definition of what an AvN argument is.
We shall provide such a definition, and formulate a conjecture of a simple characterisation of when such arguments can be made.

Motivation:

- Understand where AvN sits in the hierarchy of contextuality properties
- Characterise the quantum states which give rise to maximal degrees of non-locality/contextuality.


## The XOR Game



## Motivating Example: GHZ

## Motivating Example: GHZ

$$
\mathrm{GHZ}=\frac{|\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow\rangle+|\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}
$$

## Motivating Example: GHZ

$$
\mathrm{GHZ}=\frac{|\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow\rangle+|\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}
$$

|  | +++ | ++- | +-+ | +-- | -++ | -+- | --+ | --- |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X X X$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $X Y Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y X Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y Y X$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

## Motivating Example: GHZ

$$
\mathrm{GHZ}=\frac{|\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow\rangle+|\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}
$$

|  | +++ | ++- | +-+ | +-- | -++ | -+- | --+ | --- |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X X X$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $X Y Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y X Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y Y X$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

Strongly contextual: no assignment

$$
\left\{X_{1}, Y_{1}, X_{2}, Y_{2}, X_{3}, Y_{3}\right\} \longrightarrow\{+1,-1\}
$$

consistent with this support.

## Motivating Example: GHZ

$$
\mathrm{GHZ}=\frac{|\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow\rangle+|\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}
$$

|  | +++ | ++- | +-+ | +-- | -++ | -+- | --+ | --- |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X X X$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $X Y Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y X Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y Y X$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

Strongly contextual: no assignment

$$
\left\{X_{1}, Y_{1}, X_{2}, Y_{2}, X_{3}, Y_{3}\right\} \longrightarrow\{+1,-1\}
$$

consistent with this support.
Note that the eigenvalues of the operators $X X X$ etc. are +1 and -1 .

## Motivating Example: GHZ

| $\mathrm{GHZ}=\frac{\|\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow\rangle+\|\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | +++ | ++- | +-+ | +-- | -++ | -+- | --+ | --- |
| $X X X$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $X Y Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y X Y$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $Y Y X$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

Strongly contextual: no assignment

$$
\left\{X_{1}, Y_{1}, X_{2}, Y_{2}, X_{3}, Y_{3}\right\} \longrightarrow\{+1,-1\}
$$

consistent with this support.
Note that the eigenvalues of the operators $X X X$ etc. are +1 and -1 .
The expected values of these measurements give information about the parity of the support.

## The Pauli Operators

## The Pauli Operators

The 1-qubit operators

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad Y=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad Z=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

## The Pauli Operators

The 1-qubit operators

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad Y=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad Z=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Self-adjoint operators with eigenvalues $+1,-1$.

## The Pauli Operators

The 1-qubit operators

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad Y=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad Z=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Self-adjoint operators with eigenvalues $+1,-1$.
Relations:

$$
\begin{gathered}
X^{2}=Y^{2}=Z^{2}=1 \\
X Y=i Z, \quad Y Z=i X, \quad Z X=i Y \\
Y X=-i Z, \quad Z Y=-i X, \quad X Z=-i Y
\end{gathered}
$$

## Mermin's AvN Argument

## Mermin's AvN Argument

The $X Y Y, Y X Y$ and $Y Y X$ operators all stabilise the GHZ state, i.e. leave it fixed.

## Mermin's AvN Argument

The $X Y Y, Y X Y$ and $Y Y X$ operators all stabilise the GHZ state, i.e. leave it fixed.
Note that

$$
\langle A\rangle_{v}=\langle v| A|v\rangle, \quad\langle v| A|v\rangle=1 \Longleftrightarrow A|v\rangle=|v\rangle .
$$

## Mermin's AvN Argument

The $X Y Y, Y X Y$ and $Y Y X$ operators all stabilise the GHZ state, i.e. leave it fixed.
Note that

$$
\langle A\rangle_{v}=\langle v| A|v\rangle, \quad\langle v| A|v\rangle=1 \Longleftrightarrow A|v\rangle=|v\rangle .
$$

Thus the expected value of measuring any of these operators on GHZ is +1 .

## Mermin's AvN Argument

The $X Y Y, Y X Y$ and $Y Y X$ operators all stabilise the GHZ state, i.e. leave it fixed.
Note that

$$
\langle A\rangle_{v}=\langle v| A|v\rangle, \quad\langle v| A|v\rangle=1 \Longleftrightarrow A|v\rangle=|v\rangle .
$$

Thus the expected value of measuring any of these operators on GHZ is +1 .
This says that the support of the outcomes of measuring $X X X$ on GHZ should have even parity.

## Mermin's AvN Argument

The $X Y Y, Y X Y$ and $Y Y X$ operators all stabilise the GHZ state, i.e. leave it fixed.
Note that

$$
\langle A\rangle_{v}=\langle v| A|v\rangle, \quad\langle v| A|v\rangle=1 \Longleftrightarrow A|v\rangle=|v\rangle .
$$

Thus the expected value of measuring any of these operators on GHZ is +1 .
This says that the support of the outcomes of measuring $X X X$ on GHZ should have even parity.

However, their product is $-X X X$, which also stabilises GHZ.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
X_{1} & Y_{2} & Y_{3} & =1 \\
Y_{1} & X_{2} & Y_{3} & =1 \\
Y_{1} & Y_{2} & X_{3} & =1 \\
X_{1} & X_{2} & X_{3} & = \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

## Mermin's AvN Argument

The $X Y Y, Y X Y$ and $Y Y X$ operators all stabilise the GHZ state, i.e. leave it fixed.
Note that

$$
\langle A\rangle_{v}=\langle v| A|v\rangle, \quad\langle v| A|v\rangle=1 \Longleftrightarrow A|v\rangle=|v\rangle .
$$

Thus the expected value of measuring any of these operators on GHZ is +1 .
This says that the support of the outcomes of measuring $X X X$ on GHZ should have even parity.

However, their product is $-X X X$, which also stabilises GHZ.

$$
\begin{array}{rlll}
X_{1} & Y_{2} & Y_{3} & =1 \\
Y_{1} & X_{2} & Y_{3} & =1 \\
Y_{1} & Y_{2} & X_{3} & =1 \\
X_{1} & X_{2} & X_{3} & = \\
\end{array}
$$

However, this can never be the case for any assignment

$$
\left\{X_{1}, Y_{1}, X_{2}, Y_{2}, X_{3}, Y_{3}\right\} \longrightarrow\{+1,-1\}
$$

## Logical version of the AvN argument

## Logical version of the AvN argument

Use the isomorphism

$$
(\{+1,-1\}, \times) \cong(\{0,1\}, \oplus)
$$

## Logical version of the AvN argument

Use the isomorphism

$$
(\{+1,-1\}, \times) \cong(\{0,1\}, \oplus)
$$

We can translate the stabilisers into parity assertions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1} \oplus Y_{2} \oplus Y_{3}=0 \\
& Y_{1} \oplus X_{2} \oplus Y_{3}=0 \\
& Y_{1} \oplus Y_{2} \oplus X_{3}=0 \\
& X_{1} \oplus X_{2} \oplus X_{3}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Logical version of the AvN argument

Use the isomorphism

$$
(\{+1,-1\}, \times) \cong(\{0,1\}, \oplus)
$$

We can translate the stabilisers into parity assertions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1} \oplus Y_{2} \oplus Y_{3}=0 \\
& Y_{1} \oplus X_{2} \oplus Y_{3}=0 \\
& Y_{1} \oplus Y_{2} \oplus X_{3}=0 \\
& X_{1} \oplus X_{2} \oplus X_{3}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, these are inconsistent.

## General Setting

## General Setting

We can define everything for general empirical models (i.e. "generalized probability tables" ) over a measurement scenario $(X, \mathcal{M})$ (with dichotomic measurements).

## General Setting

We can define everything for general empirical models (i.e. "generalized probability tables") over a measurement scenario $(X, \mathcal{M})$ (with dichotomic measurements).

To each such model $e$, we can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(e)$.

## General Setting

We can define everything for general empirical models (i.e. "generalized probability tables" ) over a measurement scenario $(X, \mathcal{M})$ (with dichotomic measurements).

To each such model $e$, we can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(e)$.
For each measurement context $C \in \mathcal{M}$, this will have the assertion

$$
\bigoplus_{x \in C} x=0
$$

when the support of $e_{C}$ is even, and

$$
\bigoplus_{x \in C} x=1
$$

when the support is odd.

## General Setting

We can define everything for general empirical models (i.e. "generalized probability tables" ) over a measurement scenario $(X, \mathcal{M})$ (with dichotomic measurements).

To each such model $e$, we can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(e)$.
For each measurement context $C \in \mathcal{M}$, this will have the assertion

$$
\bigoplus_{x \in C} x=0
$$

when the support of $e_{C}$ is even, and

$$
\bigoplus_{x \in C} x=1
$$

when the support is odd.
We say that the model is AvN if this theory is inconsistent.

## General Setting

We can define everything for general empirical models (i.e. "generalized probability tables" ) over a measurement scenario $(X, \mathcal{M})$ (with dichotomic measurements).

To each such model $e$, we can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(e)$.
For each measurement context $C \in \mathcal{M}$, this will have the assertion

$$
\bigoplus_{x \in C} x=0
$$

when the support of $e_{C}$ is even, and

$$
\bigoplus_{x \in C} x=1
$$

when the support is odd.
We say that the model is AvN if this theory is inconsistent.

## Proposition

If an empirical model e is AvN , then it is strongly contextual.

## The Stabiliser World

## The Stabiliser World

To see how such AvN models can arise from quantum mechanics, we generalise Mermin's argument.

## The Stabiliser World

To see how such AvN models can arise from quantum mechanics, we generalise Mermin's argument.

The natural setting for this is stabilisers.

## The Stabiliser World

To see how such AvN models can arise from quantum mechanics, we generalise Mermin's argument.

The natural setting for this is stabilisers.
The Pauli $n$-group $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ : a list of $n$ Pauli operators (from $\{X, Y, Z, I\}$ ), with a global phase from $\{ \pm 1, \pm i\}$.

## The Stabiliser World

To see how such AvN models can arise from quantum mechanics, we generalise Mermin's argument.

The natural setting for this is stabilisers.
The Pauli $n$-group $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ : a list of $n$ Pauli operators (from $\{X, Y, Z, I\}$ ), with a global phase from $\{ \pm 1, \pm i\}$.

A Galois correspondence between Pauli operators and states/vectors in the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ :

$$
g R v \Longleftrightarrow g v=v
$$

Closure operators on sets of group elements and of vectors:

$$
S^{\perp}:=\{v \mid \forall g \in S . g R v\}, \quad V^{\perp}:=\{g \mid \forall v \in V \cdot g R v\} .
$$

## The Stabiliser World

To see how such AvN models can arise from quantum mechanics, we generalise Mermin's argument.

The natural setting for this is stabilisers.
The Pauli $n$-group $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ : a list of $n$ Pauli operators (from $\{X, Y, Z, I\}$ ), with a global phase from $\{ \pm 1, \pm i\}$.

A Galois correspondence between Pauli operators and states/vectors in the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ :

$$
g R v \Longleftrightarrow g v=v
$$

Closure operators on sets of group elements and of vectors:

$$
S^{\perp}:=\{v \mid \forall g \in S . g R v\}, \quad V^{\perp}:=\{g \mid \forall v \in V \cdot g R v\} .
$$

The closed sets ( $X=X^{\perp \perp}$ ) are subgroups and subspaces respectively.

## The Stabiliser World

To see how such AvN models can arise from quantum mechanics, we generalise Mermin's argument.

The natural setting for this is stabilisers.
The Pauli $n$-group $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ : a list of $n$ Pauli operators (from $\{X, Y, Z, I\}$ ), with a global phase from $\{ \pm 1, \pm i\}$.

A Galois correspondence between Pauli operators and states/vectors in the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ :

$$
g R v \Longleftrightarrow g v=v
$$

Closure operators on sets of group elements and of vectors:

$$
S^{\perp}:=\{v \mid \forall g \in S . g R v\}, \quad V^{\perp}:=\{g \mid \forall v \in V \cdot g R v\} .
$$

The closed sets ( $X=X^{\perp \perp}$ ) are subgroups and subspaces respectively.
The subgroups of $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ which stabilise non-trivial subspaces must be commutative, and only contain elements with global phases $\pm 1$.

## The Galois Correspondence

## The Galois Correspondence



## The Galois Correspondence



The subgroups are constraints on states: the more constraints, the fewer states satisfy them.

## The Galois Correspondence



The subgroups are constraints on states: the more constraints, the fewer states satisfy them.

Akin to the Galois correspondence of theories and models in logic.

## The Galois Correspondence



The subgroups are constraints on states: the more constraints, the fewer states satisfy them.

Akin to the Galois correspondence of theories and models in logic.
Note that the correspondence is tight: a rank $k$ subgroup determines a dimension $2^{n-k}$ subspace.

## Stabiliser subgroups induce XOR theories

## Stabiliser subgroups induce XOR theories

We can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(S)$ to each stabiliser subgroup $S$.

## Stabiliser subgroups induce XOR theories

We can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(S)$ to each stabiliser subgroup $S$.
For each element $P_{1} \ldots P_{n}$ of $S, P_{i} \in\{X, Y, Z, I\}$, with global phase +1 , we have the formula

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=0
$$

and for each such element with global phase -1 , we have the formula

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=1
$$

## Stabiliser subgroups induce XOR theories

We can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(S)$ to each stabiliser subgroup $S$.
For each element $P_{1} \ldots P_{n}$ of $S, P_{i} \in\{X, Y, Z, I\}$, with global phase +1 , we have the formula

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=0
$$

and for each such element with global phase -1 , we have the formula

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=1
$$

We say that $S$ is $A v N$ if $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(S)$ is inconsistent.

## Stabiliser subgroups induce XOR theories

We can associate an XOR theory $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(S)$ to each stabiliser subgroup $S$.
For each element $P_{1} \ldots P_{n}$ of $S, P_{i} \in\{X, Y, Z, I\}$, with global phase +1 , we have the formula

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=0
$$

and for each such element with global phase -1 , we have the formula

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=1
$$

We say that $S$ is $A v N$ if $\mathbb{T}_{\oplus}(S)$ is inconsistent.
Question:
How can we characterise when this happens?

## AvN Triples

## AvN Triples

Define an AvN triple in $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ to be (e, $f, g$ ) (order is important) with global phases +1 , which pairwise commute, and additionally satisfy the following conditions:
(A1) For all $i=1, \ldots, n$ at least two of $e_{i}, f_{i}, g_{i}$ are the same.
(A2) The number of $i$ such that $e_{i}=g_{i} \neq f_{i}$, all distinct from $I$, is odd.

## AvN Triples

Define an AvN triple in $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ to be (e,f,g) (order is important) with global phases +1 , which pairwise commute, and additionally satisfy the following conditions:
(A1) For all $i=1, \ldots, n$ at least two of $e_{i}, f_{i}, g_{i}$ are the same.
(A2) The number of $i$ such that $e_{i}=g_{i} \neq f_{i}$, all distinct from $I$, is odd.
So in (A2) these are triples $P Q P$ of Pauli matrices, all distinct from $I, Q \neq P$.

## AvN Triples

Define an AvN triple in $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ to be (e,f,g) (order is important) with global phases +1 , which pairwise commute, and additionally satisfy the following conditions:
(A1) For all $i=1, \ldots, n$ at least two of $e_{i}, f_{i}, g_{i}$ are the same.
(A2) The number of $i$ such that $e_{i}=g_{i} \neq f_{i}$, all distinct from $l$, is odd.
So in (A2) these are triples $P Q P$ of Pauli matrices, all distinct from $I, Q \neq P$.
Now the claim is that such a triple yields an AvN argument.

## AvN Triples

Define an AvN triple in $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ to be (e,f,g) (order is important) with global phases +1 , which pairwise commute, and additionally satisfy the following conditions:
(A1) For all $i=1, \ldots, n$ at least two of $e_{i}, f_{i}, g_{i}$ are the same.
(A2) The number of $i$ such that $e_{i}=g_{i} \neq f_{i}$, all distinct from $I$, is odd.
So in (A2) these are triples $P Q P$ of Pauli matrices, all distinct from $I, Q \neq P$.
Now the claim is that such a triple yields an AvN argument.
Note that the conditions imply that the product e.f. $g=-h$, which translates into a condition of odd parity on the support of any state stabilised by these operators for the measurement $h$.

## AvN Triples

Define an AvN triple in $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ to be (e,f,g) (order is important) with global phases +1 , which pairwise commute, and additionally satisfy the following conditions:
(A1) For all $i=1, \ldots, n$ at least two of $e_{i}, f_{i}, g_{i}$ are the same.
(A2) The number of $i$ such that $e_{i}=g_{i} \neq f_{i}$, all distinct from $I$, is odd.
So in (A2) these are triples $P Q P$ of Pauli matrices, all distinct from $I, Q \neq P$.
Now the claim is that such a triple yields an $A v N$ argument.
Note that the conditions imply that the product e.f. $g=-h$, which translates into a condition of odd parity on the support of any state stabilised by these operators for the measurement $h$.

On the other hand, condition (A1) implies that under any global assignment/section on the variables, we can cancel the repeated items in each column, and deduce an even parity for $h$.

## AvN Triples

Define an $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{v}} \mathrm{N}$ triple in $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ to be $(e, f, g$ ) (order is important) with global phases +1 , which pairwise commute, and additionally satisfy the following conditions:
(A1) For all $i=1, \ldots, n$ at least two of $e_{i}, f_{i}, g_{i}$ are the same.
(A2) The number of $i$ such that $e_{i}=g_{i} \neq f_{i}$, all distinct from $I$, is odd.

So in (A2) these are triples $P Q P$ of Pauli matrices, all distinct from $I, Q \neq P$.
Now the claim is that such a triple yields an $\operatorname{AvN}$ argument.
Note that the conditions imply that the product e.f. $g=-h$, which translates into a condition of odd parity on the support of any state stabilised by these operators for the measurement $h$.

On the other hand, condition (A1) implies that under any global assignment/section on the variables, we can cancel the repeated items in each column, and deduce an even parity for $h$.

This means that any state in $V_{S}$, where $S$ is the subgroup generated by $\{e, f, g\}$, admits an $A v N$ argument. Note that this is a $2^{n-3}$-dimensional space, assuming $e, f, g$ are independent.

## The AvN Triple Conjecture

## The AvN Triple Conjecture

The further conjecture is that having an AvN triple is necessary as well as sufficient for an AvN argument.

## The AvN Triple Conjecture

The further conjecture is that having an AvN triple is necessary as well as sufficient for an AvN argument.

More precisely, any $A v N$ subgroup $S$ must contain an $A v N$ triple.

## The AvN Triple Conjecture

The further conjecture is that having an AvN triple is necessary as well as sufficient for an AvN argument.

More precisely, any $A v N$ subgroup $S$ must contain an $A v N$ triple.
Example from Mermin, yielding a GHZ argument:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
X & Y & Y \\
Y & X & Y \\
Y & Y & X
\end{array}
$$

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.
'Box 25' of the Pironio-Bancal-Scarani list of the vertices of the No-Signalling polytope:

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.
'Box 25' of the Pironio-Bancal-Scarani list of the vertices of the No-Signalling polytope:

- admits no parity argument;


## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.
'Box 25' of the Pironio-Bancal-Scarani list of the vertices of the No-Signalling polytope:

- admits no parity argument;
- but satisfies an inconsistent system of equations mod 3:

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{0}+2 b_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 \\
a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{0} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 \\
a_{1}+b_{0}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1}+2 c_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 \\
a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 \\
a_{1}+b_{1}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3
\end{aligned}
$$

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.
'Box 25' of the Pironio-Bancal-Scarani list of the vertices of the No-Signalling polytope:

- admits no parity argument;
- but satisfies an inconsistent system of equations mod 3:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
a_{0}+2 b_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 & a_{1}+2 c_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 \\
a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{0} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 & a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{1} \equiv 2 \bmod 3 \\
a_{1}+b_{0}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 & a_{1}+b_{1}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3
\end{array}
$$

- This suggests the use of general $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ instead of just $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.


## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.
'Box 25' of the Pironio-Bancal-Scarani list of the vertices of the No-Signalling polytope:

- admits no parity argument;
- but satisfies an inconsistent system of equations mod 3:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
a_{0}+2 b_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 & a_{1}+2 c_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 \\
a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{0} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 & a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{1} \equiv 2 \bmod 3 \\
a_{1}+b_{0}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 & a_{1}+b_{1}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3
\end{array}
$$

- This suggests the use of general $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ instead of just $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
- In fact, the ring structure is the essential ingredient.


## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

In fact, these arguments can be generalised far beyond parity arguments.
'Box 25' of the Pironio-Bancal-Scarani list of the vertices of the No-Signalling polytope:

- admits no parity argument;
- but satisfies an inconsistent system of equations mod 3:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
a_{0}+2 b_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 & a_{1}+2 c_{0} & \equiv 0 \bmod 3 \\
a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{0} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 & a_{0}+b_{1}+c_{1} \equiv 2 \bmod 3 \\
a_{1}+b_{0}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3 & a_{1}+b_{1}+c_{1} & \equiv 2 \bmod 3
\end{array}
$$

- This suggests the use of general $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ instead of just $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
- In fact, the ring structure is the essential ingredient.
- So, consider any commutative ring $R$.


## $R$-linear equations

## $R$-linear equations

- Context $C$ of measurements


## $R$-linear equations

- Context $C$ of measurements
- Assignments $\mathcal{E}(C)=R^{C}$ (measurements have outcomes valued in $R$ )


## $R$-linear equations

- Context $C$ of measurements
- Assignments $\mathcal{E}(C)=R^{C}$ (measurements have outcomes valued in $R$ )
- $R$-linear equations, on assignments $s: C \longrightarrow R$, of the form:

$$
\sum_{m \in C} a_{m} s(m)=b \quad\left(a_{m}, b \in R\right) .
$$

## $R$-linear equations

- Context $C$ of measurements
- Assignments $\mathcal{E}(C)=R^{C}$ (measurements have outcomes valued in $R$ )
- $R$-linear equations, on assignments $s: C \longrightarrow R$, of the form:

$$
\sum_{m \in C} a_{m} s(m)=b \quad\left(a_{m}, b \in R\right) .
$$

- A set of assignments $S \subseteq \mathcal{E}(C)$ determines an $R$-linear theory, $\mathbb{T}_{R}(S):=\{\phi \mid \forall s \in S . s \models \phi\}$.


## $R$-linear equations

- Context $C$ of measurements
- Assignments $\mathcal{E}(C)=R^{C}$ (measurements have outcomes valued in $R$ )
- $R$-linear equations, on assignments $s: C \longrightarrow R$, of the form:

$$
\sum_{m \in C} a_{m} s(m)=b \quad\left(a_{m}, b \in R\right) .
$$

- A set of assignments $S \subseteq \mathcal{E}(C)$ determines an $R$-linear theory, $\mathbb{T}_{R}(S):=\{\phi \mid \forall s \in S . s \models \phi\}$.
- A system of equations $\Gamma$ has a set of satisfying assignments, $\mathbb{M}(\Gamma):=\{s \in \mathcal{E}(C) \mid \forall \phi \in \Gamma . s \models \phi\}$.



## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

- Empirical model: $\mathcal{S} \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{E}$.


## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

- Empirical model: $\mathcal{S} \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{E}$.
- $\mathcal{S}(C) \subseteq \mathcal{E}(C)$ represents the possible outcome assignments when measuring C.


## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

- Empirical model: $\mathcal{S} \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{E}$.
- $\mathcal{S}(C) \subseteq \mathcal{E}(C)$ represents the possible outcome assignments when measuring C.
- compatibility (no-signalling): $\mathcal{S}(C)\left|c \cap C^{\prime}=\mathcal{S}\left(C^{\prime}\right)\right| c \cap c^{\prime}$. (equiv. "flasque beneath the cover": $\mathcal{S}\left(U^{\prime} \subseteq U\right): \mathcal{S}(U) \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}\left(U^{\prime}\right)$ surjective)


## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

- Empirical model: $\mathcal{S} \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{E}$.
- $\mathcal{S}(C) \subseteq \mathcal{E}(C)$ represents the possible outcome assignments when measuring C.
- compatibility (no-signalling): $\mathcal{S}(C)\left|c \cap C^{\prime}=\mathcal{S}\left(C^{\prime}\right)\right| c \cap c^{\prime}$. (equiv. "flasque beneath the cover": $\mathcal{S}\left(U^{\prime} \subseteq U\right): \mathcal{S}(U) \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}\left(U^{\prime}\right)$ surjective)

Given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$, define its $R$-linear theory to be

$$
\mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S}):=\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S}(C))
$$

## Generalised All-vs-Nothing arguments

- Empirical model: $\mathcal{S} \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{E}$.
- $\mathcal{S}(C) \subseteq \mathcal{E}(C)$ represents the possible outcome assignments when measuring C.
- compatibility (no-signalling): $\mathcal{S}(C)\left|c \cap C^{\prime}=\mathcal{S}\left(C^{\prime}\right)\right| c \cap c^{\prime}$. (equiv. "flasque beneath the cover": $\mathcal{S}\left(U^{\prime} \subseteq U\right): \mathcal{S}(U) \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}\left(U^{\prime}\right)$ surjective)

Given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$, define its $R$-linear theory to be

$$
\mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S}):=\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S}(C))
$$

The model $\mathcal{S}$ is $\operatorname{AvN}_{R}$ if $\mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S})$ is inconsistent, meaning there is no global assignment $g: X \longrightarrow R$ consistent with the eqs:

$$
\forall C . g \mid c \models \mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S}(C)) .
$$

## Affine Closure

## Affine Closure

The maps $\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{M}$ form a Galois connection:

$$
S \subseteq \mathbb{M}(\Gamma) \quad \text { iff } \quad \mathbb{T}(S) \supseteq \Gamma
$$

## Affine Closure

The maps $\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{M}$ form a Galois connection:

$$
S \subseteq \mathbb{M}(\Gamma) \quad \text { iff } \quad \mathbb{T}(S) \supseteq \Gamma
$$

Given solutions $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{t}$ to a linear equation, an affine combination of them,

$$
c_{1} s_{1}+\cdots+c_{t} s_{t} \quad \text { such that } \quad c_{1}+\cdots+c_{t}=1
$$

is again a solution.

## Affine Closure

The maps $\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{M}$ form a Galois connection:

$$
S \subseteq \mathbb{M}(\Gamma) \quad \text { iff } \quad \mathbb{T}(S) \supseteq \Gamma
$$

Given solutions $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{t}$ to a linear equation, an affine combination of them,

$$
c_{1} s_{1}+\cdots+c_{t} s_{t} \quad \text { such that } \quad c_{1}+\cdots+c_{t}=1
$$

is again a solution.
In other words, the set of solutions $\mathbb{M}(\Gamma)$ to a system of equations $\Gamma$ is an affine submodule of $\mathcal{E}(U)$.

## Affine Closure

The maps $\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{M}$ form a Galois connection:

$$
S \subseteq \mathbb{M}(\Gamma) \quad \text { iff } \quad \mathbb{T}(S) \supseteq \Gamma
$$

Given solutions $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{t}$ to a linear equation, an affine combination of them,

$$
c_{1} s_{1}+\cdots+c_{t} s_{t} \quad \text { such that } \quad c_{1}+\cdots+c_{t}=1
$$

is again a solution.
In other words, the set of solutions $\mathbb{M}(\Gamma)$ to a system of equations $\Gamma$ is an affine submodule of $\mathcal{E}(U)$.

This means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { aff } \leq \mathbb{M} \circ \mathbb{T} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where aff $S$ stands for the affine closure of a set $S \subseteq \mathcal{E}(U)$ :

$$
\operatorname{aff} S:=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{t} c_{i} s_{i} \mid s_{i} \in S, c_{i} \in R, \sum_{i=1}^{t} c_{i}=1\right\}
$$

## Affine Closure

The maps $\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{M}$ form a Galois connection:

$$
S \subseteq \mathbb{M}(\Gamma) \quad \text { iff } \quad \mathbb{T}(S) \supseteq \Gamma
$$

Given solutions $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{t}$ to a linear equation, an affine combination of them,

$$
c_{1} s_{1}+\cdots+c_{t} s_{t} \quad \text { such that } \quad c_{1}+\cdots+c_{t}=1
$$

is again a solution.
In other words, the set of solutions $\mathbb{M}(\Gamma)$ to a system of equations $\Gamma$ is an affine submodule of $\mathcal{E}(U)$.

This means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { aff } \leq \mathbb{M} \circ \mathbb{T} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where aff $S$ stands for the affine closure of a set $S \subseteq \mathcal{E}(U)$ :

$$
\operatorname{aff} S:=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{t} c_{i} s_{i} \mid s_{i} \in S, c_{i} \in R, \sum_{i=1}^{t} c_{i}=1\right\}
$$

In the particular case of vector spaces (i.e. when $R$ is a field), This is an equality.

## The affine closure of a model

## The affine closure of a model

We now lift affine closure to the level of models.

## The affine closure of a model

We now lift affine closure to the level of models.
Let $\mathcal{S}$ be an empirical model on the scenario $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, R\rangle$. We define its affine closure, Aff $\mathcal{S}$, as the empirical model given, at each $C \in \mathcal{M}$, by $($ Aff $\mathcal{S})(C):=\operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{S}(C))$.

## The affine closure of a model

We now lift affine closure to the level of models.
Let $\mathcal{S}$ be an empirical model on the scenario $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, R\rangle$. We define its affine closure, Aff $\mathcal{S}$, as the empirical model given, at each $C \in \mathcal{M}$, by

$$
(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S})(C):=\operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{S}(C))
$$

Checking this is well-defined uses the naturality of affine closure, and the property of $\mathcal{S}$ being flasque below the cover.

## The affine closure of a model

We now lift affine closure to the level of models.
Let $\mathcal{S}$ be an empirical model on the scenario $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, R\rangle$. We define its affine closure, Aff $\mathcal{S}$, as the empirical model given, at each $C \in \mathcal{M}$, by

$$
(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S})(C):=\operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{S}(C))
$$

Checking this is well-defined uses the naturality of affine closure, and the property of $\mathcal{S}$ being flasque below the cover.

Since $\mathbb{T}_{R}(\mathcal{S})$ is given as the union of the theories at each maximal context, the Galois connection above lifts to the level of empirical models. We also have

$$
\text { Aff } \leq \mathbb{M} \circ \mathbb{T}
$$

with equality when $R$ is a field.

## Proposition

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be an empirical model on $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, R\rangle$. Then,

$$
\operatorname{AvN}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{SC}(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S})
$$

If $R$ is a field, the converse also holds.

## Cohomology detects all AvN arguments

## Cohomology detects all AvN arguments

We now aim to show that cohomology provides witnesses for all AvN arguments (over any ring).

## Cohomology detects all AvN arguments

We now aim to show that cohomology provides witnesses for all AvN arguments (over any ring).

All instances of quantum realisable strong contextuality known so far are in fact of AvN type.

## Cohomology detects all AvN arguments

We now aim to show that cohomology provides witnesses for all AvN arguments (over any ring).

All instances of quantum realisable strong contextuality known so far are in fact of AvN type.

We shall begin by revisiting our description of the cohomology invariant.

## Cohomology detects all AvN arguments

We now aim to show that cohomology provides witnesses for all AvN arguments (over any ring).

All instances of quantum realisable strong contextuality known so far are in fact of AvN type.

We shall begin by revisiting our description of the cohomology invariant.
We give a higher-level description, in terms of the connecting homomorphism of the long exact sequence.

## Relative Cohomology

## Relative Cohomology

In order to characterise when we can extend a local section to a global compatible family, we need to consider the relative cohomology of $\mathcal{F}$ with respect to an open subset $U \subseteq X$.

## Relative Cohomology

In order to characterise when we can extend a local section to a global compatible family, we need to consider the relative cohomology of $\mathcal{F}$ with respect to an open subset $U \subseteq X$.
We will assume that the presheaf is flasque beneath the cover (as is the case with $\mathcal{S})$.

## Relative Cohomology

In order to characterise when we can extend a local section to a global compatible family, we need to consider the relative cohomology of $\mathcal{F}$ with respect to an open subset $U \subseteq X$.
We will assume that the presheaf is flasque beneath the cover (as is the case with $\mathcal{S})$.

We define two auxiliary presheaves related to $\mathcal{F}$. Firstly, $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}$ is defined by

$$
\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}(V):=\mathcal{F}(U \cap V) .
$$

There is an evident presheaf map $p:\left.\mathcal{F} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}\right|_{U}$ given as

$$
p_{V}: \mathcal{F}(V) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(U \cap V)::\left.r \longmapsto r\right|_{U \cap V} .
$$

## Relative Cohomology

In order to characterise when we can extend a local section to a global compatible family, we need to consider the relative cohomology of $\mathcal{F}$ with respect to an open subset $U \subseteq X$.
We will assume that the presheaf is flasque beneath the cover (as is the case with $\mathcal{S})$.

We define two auxiliary presheaves related to $\mathcal{F}$. Firstly, $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}$ is defined by

$$
\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}(V):=\mathcal{F}(U \cap V) .
$$

There is an evident presheaf map $p:\left.\mathcal{F} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}\right|_{U}$ given as

$$
p_{V}: \mathcal{F}(V) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(U \cap V)::\left.r \longmapsto r\right|_{U \cap V} .
$$

Secondly, $\mathcal{F}_{\bar{U}}$ is defined by $\mathcal{F}_{\bar{U}}(V):=\operatorname{ker}\left(p_{V}\right)$. Thus, we have an exact sequence of presheaves

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\mathbf{0} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F} \overline{\mathcal{U}}_{\bar{U}} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{p} \mathcal{F}\right|_{U} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Relative Cohomology

In order to characterise when we can extend a local section to a global compatible family, we need to consider the relative cohomology of $\mathcal{F}$ with respect to an open subset $U \subseteq X$.
We will assume that the presheaf is flasque beneath the cover (as is the case with $\mathcal{S})$.

We define two auxiliary presheaves related to $\mathcal{F}$. Firstly, $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}$ is defined by

$$
\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}(V):=\mathcal{F}(U \cap V)
$$

There is an evident presheaf map $p:\left.\mathcal{F} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}\right|_{U}$ given as

$$
p_{V}: \mathcal{F}(V) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(U \cap V)::\left.r \longmapsto r\right|_{U \cap V} .
$$

Secondly, $\mathcal{F}_{\bar{U}}$ is defined by $\mathcal{F}_{\bar{U}}(V):=\operatorname{ker}\left(p_{V}\right)$. Thus, we have an exact sequence of presheaves

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\mathbf{0} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F} \overline{\mathcal{U}} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{p} \mathcal{F}\right|_{U} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The relative cohomology of $\mathcal{F}$ with respect to $U$ is defined to be the cohomology of the presheaf $\mathcal{F}_{\bar{U}}$.

## Towards the obstruction

## Towards the obstruction

We now see how this can be used to identify cohomological obstructions to the extension of a local section.

## Towards the obstruction

We now see how this can be used to identify cohomological obstructions to the extension of a local section.

First, recall that the image of $\delta^{0}, B^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})$, is contained in $Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})$.

## Towards the obstruction

We now see how this can be used to identify cohomological obstructions to the extension of a local section.

First, recall that the image of $\delta^{0}, B^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})$, is contained in $Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})$.
Therefore, the map $\delta^{0}$ can be corestricted to a map

$$
\tilde{\delta}^{0}: C^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \longrightarrow Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})
$$

whose kernel is

$$
Z^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \cong \check{H}^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})
$$

and whose cokernel is

$$
Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) / B^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \cong \check{H}^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})
$$

## Towards the obstruction

We now see how this can be used to identify cohomological obstructions to the extension of a local section.

First, recall that the image of $\delta^{0}, B^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})$, is contained in $Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})$.
Therefore, the map $\delta^{0}$ can be corestricted to a map

$$
\tilde{\delta}^{0}: C^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \longrightarrow Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})
$$

whose kernel is

$$
Z^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \cong \check{H}^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})
$$

and whose cokernel is

$$
Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) / B^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \cong \check{H}^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F})
$$

In summary, we have:

$$
\check{H}^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \xrightarrow{\text { ker } \tilde{\delta}^{0}} C^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \xrightarrow{\tilde{\delta}^{0}} Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \xrightarrow{\text { coker } \tilde{\delta}^{0}} \check{H}^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) .
$$

## The short exact sequences

We now lift the exact sequence of presheaves (2) to the level of cochains.

## The short exact sequences

We now lift the exact sequence of presheaves (2) to the level of cochains.
The map $C^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \longrightarrow C^{0}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}_{\tilde{U}}\right)$ is surjective due to flaccidity beneath the cover.

## The short exact sequences

We now lift the exact sequence of presheaves (2) to the level of cochains.
The map $C^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \longrightarrow C^{0}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}_{\tilde{U}}\right)$ is surjective due to flaccidity beneath the cover.

Putting this together with the previous observation, we obtain the diagram below:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{0} \longrightarrow C^{0}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}_{\tilde{U}}\right) \longrightarrow C^{0}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \longrightarrow C^{0}\left(\mathcal{M},\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbf{0} \\
& 0 \longrightarrow Z^{1}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}_{\tilde{U}}\right) \longrightarrow Z^{1}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}) \longrightarrow Z^{1}\left(\mathcal{M},\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{U}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

whose two rows are short exact sequences.

## Enter the Snake

## Enter the Snake

The snake lemma of homological algebra says that there exists a connecting homomorphism turning the kernels of the first row followed by the cokernels of the second into a long exact sequence, as shown in the following diagram.


## The cohomology obstruction

## The cohomology obstruction

We are interested in the case where $U$ is an element $C_{0}$ of the cover $\mathcal{M}$.

## The cohomology obstruction

We are interested in the case where $U$ is an element $C_{0}$ of the cover $\mathcal{M}$.
Then, it is clear that $\check{H}^{0}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F} \mid c_{0}\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{F}\left(C_{0}\right)$, meaning that its elements are the local sections at $C_{0}$.

## The cohomology obstruction

We are interested in the case where $U$ is an element $C_{0}$ of the cover $\mathcal{M}$. Then, it is clear that $\check{H}^{0}\left(\mathcal{M},\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{C_{0}}\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{F}\left(C_{0}\right)$, meaning that its elements are the local sections at $C_{0}$.

## Definition

Let $C_{0}$ be an element of the cover $\mathcal{M}$ and $r_{0} \in \mathcal{F}\left(C_{0}\right)$. Then, the cohomological obstruction of $r_{0}$ is the element $\gamma\left(r_{0}\right)$ of $\check{H}^{1}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}_{\tilde{C}_{0}}\right)$, where $\gamma$ is the connecting homomorphism.

## The cohomology obstruction

We are interested in the case where $U$ is an element $C_{0}$ of the cover $\mathcal{M}$.
Then, it is clear that $\check{H}^{0}\left(\mathcal{M},\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{C_{0}}\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{F}\left(C_{0}\right)$, meaning that its elements are the local sections at $C_{0}$.

## Definition

Let $C_{0}$ be an element of the cover $\mathcal{M}$ and $r_{0} \in \mathcal{F}\left(C_{0}\right)$. Then, the cohomological obstruction of $r_{0}$ is the element $\gamma\left(r_{0}\right)$ of $\check{H}^{1}\left(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{F}_{\tilde{C}_{0}}\right)$, where $\gamma$ is the connecting homomorphism.

The following justifies regarding these as obstructions.

## Proposition

Let the cover $\mathcal{M}$ be connected, $C_{0} \in \mathcal{M}$, and $r_{0} \in \mathcal{F}\left(C_{0}\right)$. Then, $\gamma\left(r_{0}\right)=0$ if and only if there is a compatible family $\left\{r_{C} \in \mathcal{F}(C)\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ such that $r_{C_{0}}=r_{0}$.

## Witnessing contextuality

## Witnessing contextuality

We now apply these tools to analyse the possibilistic structure of empirical models.

## Witnessing contextuality

We now apply these tools to analyse the possibilistic structure of empirical models.
The cohomological obstructions appear to be ideally suited to the problem of identifying contextuality.

## Witnessing contextuality

We now apply these tools to analyse the possibilistic structure of empirical models.
The cohomological obstructions appear to be ideally suited to the problem of identifying contextuality. The caveat is that, in order to apply those tools, it is necessary to work over a presheaf of abelian groups, whereas we are concerned with $\mathcal{S}$, which is merely a presheaf of sets.

## Witnessing contextuality

We now apply these tools to analyse the possibilistic structure of empirical models.
The cohomological obstructions appear to be ideally suited to the problem of identifying contextuality. The caveat is that, in order to apply those tools, it is necessary to work over a presheaf of abelian groups, whereas we are concerned with $\mathcal{S}$, which is merely a presheaf of sets.

We firstly consider how to build an abelian group from a set.

## The free module functor

## Definition

Given a ring $R$, we define a functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod to the category of $R$-modules (and thus, in particular, to the category of abelian groups). For each set $X, F_{R}(X)$ is the set of functions $\phi: X \longrightarrow R$ of finite support. Given a function $f: X \longrightarrow Y$, we define:

$$
F_{R} f: F_{R} X \longrightarrow F_{R} Y:: \phi \longmapsto \lambda y . \sum_{f(x)=y} \phi(x) .
$$

## The free module functor

## Definition

Given a ring $R$, we define a functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod to the category of $R$-modules (and thus, in particular, to the category of abelian groups). For each set $X, F_{R}(X)$ is the set of functions $\phi: X \longrightarrow R$ of finite support. Given a function $f: X \longrightarrow Y$, we define:

$$
F_{R} f: F_{R} X \longrightarrow F_{R} Y:: \phi \longmapsto \lambda y . \sum_{f(x)=y} \phi(x) .
$$

This assignment is easily seen to be functorial. We regard a function $\phi \in F_{R}(X)$ as a formal $R$-linear combination of elements of $X$ :

$$
\sum_{x \in X} \phi(x) \cdot x .
$$

## The free module functor

## Definition

Given a ring $R$, we define a functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod to the category of $R$-modules (and thus, in particular, to the category of abelian groups). For each set $X, F_{R}(X)$ is the set of functions $\phi: X \longrightarrow R$ of finite support. Given a function $f: X \longrightarrow Y$, we define:

$$
F_{R} f: F_{R} X \longrightarrow F_{R} Y:: \phi \longmapsto \lambda y . \sum_{f(x)=y} \phi(x) .
$$

This assignment is easily seen to be functorial. We regard a function $\phi \in F_{R}(X)$ as a formal $R$-linear combination of elements of $X$ :

$$
\sum_{x \in X} \phi(x) \cdot x .
$$

There is a natural embedding $x \mapsto 1 \cdot x$ of $X$ into $F_{R}(X)$, which we shall use implicitly throughout.

## The free module functor

## Definition

Given a ring $R$, we define a functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod to the category of $R$-modules (and thus, in particular, to the category of abelian groups). For each set $X, F_{R}(X)$ is the set of functions $\phi: X \longrightarrow R$ of finite support. Given a function $f: X \longrightarrow Y$, we define:

$$
F_{R} f: F_{R} X \longrightarrow F_{R} Y:: \phi \longmapsto \lambda y . \sum_{f(x)=y} \phi(x) .
$$

This assignment is easily seen to be functorial. We regard a function $\phi \in F_{R}(X)$ as a formal $R$-linear combination of elements of $X$ :

$$
\sum_{x \in X} \phi(x) \cdot x .
$$

There is a natural embedding $x \mapsto 1 \cdot x$ of $X$ into $F_{R}(X)$, which we shall use implicitly throughout.

In fact, $F_{R}(X)$ is the free $R$-module generated by $X$; and in particular, $F_{\mathbb{Z}}(X)$ is the free abelian group generated by $X$.

## Cohomological contextuality for empirical models

## Cohomological contextuality for empirical models

Given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$ defined on the measurement scenario $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O\rangle$, we shall work with the (relative) Čech cohomology for the abelian presheaf $F_{R} \mathcal{S}$ for some ring $R$.

## Cohomological contextuality for empirical models

Given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$ defined on the measurement scenario $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O\rangle$, we shall work with the (relative) Čech cohomology for the abelian presheaf $F_{R} \mathcal{S}$ for some ring $R$.

## Definition

With each local section, $s \in \mathcal{S}(C)$, in the support of an empirical model, we associate the cohomological obstruction $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}(s)$.

- If there exists some local section $s_{0} \in \mathcal{S}\left(C_{0}\right)$ such that $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}\left(s_{0}\right) \neq 0$, we say that $\mathcal{S}$ is cohomologically logically contextual, or $\operatorname{CLC}_{R}(\mathcal{S})$.
- If $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}(s) \neq 0$ for all local sections, we say that $e$ is cohomologically strongly contextual, or $\operatorname{CSC}_{R}$.


## Cohomological contextuality for empirical models

Given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$ defined on the measurement scenario $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O\rangle$, we shall work with the (relative) Čech cohomology for the abelian presheaf $F_{R} \mathcal{S}$ for some ring $R$.

## Definition

With each local section, $s \in \mathcal{S}(C)$, in the support of an empirical model, we associate the cohomological obstruction $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}(s)$.

- If there exists some local section $s_{0} \in \mathcal{S}\left(C_{0}\right)$ such that $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}\left(s_{0}\right) \neq 0$, we say that $\mathcal{S}$ is cohomologically logically contextual, or $\operatorname{CLC}_{R}(\mathcal{S})$.
- If $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}(s) \neq 0$ for all local sections, we say that $e$ is cohomologically strongly contextual, or $\mathrm{CSC}_{R}$.

The following proposition justifies considering cohomological obstructions as witnessing contextuality.

## Proposition

- $\mathrm{CLC}_{R}$ implies LC.
- $\mathrm{CSC}_{R}$ implies SC.


## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

Unfortunately, this condition is not, in general, necessary. It is possible that "false positives" arise in the form of families $\left\{r_{C} \in F_{R} \mathcal{S}(C)\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ which are not bona fide global sections in $\mathcal{S}(X)$ in which genuine global sections do not exist.

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

Unfortunately, this condition is not, in general, necessary. It is possible that "false positives" arise in the form of families $\left\{r_{C} \in F_{R} \mathcal{S}(C)\right\} \subset \in \mathcal{M}$ which are not bona fide global sections in $\mathcal{S}(X)$ in which genuine global sections do not exist.

Several examples are discussed in detail in CNC (and L3). An example for which a false positive arises is the Hardy model.

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

Unfortunately, this condition is not, in general, necessary. It is possible that "false positives" arise in the form of families $\left\{r_{C} \in F_{R} \mathcal{S}(C)\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ which are not bona fide global sections in $\mathcal{S}(X)$ in which genuine global sections do not exist.
Several examples are discussed in detail in CNC (and L3). An example for which a false positive arises is the Hardy model.

However, cohomological obstructions over $\mathbb{Z}$ (in fact, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is enough) provide witnesses of strong contextuality for a number of well-studied models, including: the GHZ model, the Peres-Mermin "magic" square, and the 18 -vector Kochen-Specker model, the PR box, and the Specker triangle.

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

Unfortunately, this condition is not, in general, necessary. It is possible that "false positives" arise in the form of families $\left\{r_{C} \in F_{R} \mathcal{S}(C)\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ which are not bona fide global sections in $\mathcal{S}(X)$ in which genuine global sections do not exist.

Several examples are discussed in detail in CNC (and L3). An example for which a false positive arises is the Hardy model.

However, cohomological obstructions over $\mathbb{Z}$ (in fact, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is enough) provide witnesses of strong contextuality for a number of well-studied models, including: the GHZ model, the Peres-Mermin "magic" square, and the 18 -vector Kochen-Specker model, the PR box, and the Specker triangle.

In fact, the Kochen-Specker model and the Specker triangle belong to a large class of models, known as $\neg \mathrm{GCD}$. In CNC, it is shown all the models in this class admit cohomological witnesses for their strong contextuality.

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

Unfortunately, this condition is not, in general, necessary. It is possible that "false positives" arise in the form of families $\left\{r_{C} \in F_{R} \mathcal{S}(C)\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ which are not bona fide global sections in $\mathcal{S}(X)$ in which genuine global sections do not exist.

Several examples are discussed in detail in CNC (and L3). An example for which a false positive arises is the Hardy model.

However, cohomological obstructions over $\mathbb{Z}$ (in fact, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is enough) provide witnesses of strong contextuality for a number of well-studied models, including: the GHZ model, the Peres-Mermin "magic" square, and the 18 -vector Kochen-Specker model, the PR box, and the Specker triangle.

In fact, the Kochen-Specker model and the Specker triangle belong to a large class of models, known as $\neg \mathrm{GCD}$. In CNC, it is shown all the models in this class admit cohomological witnesses for their strong contextuality.

This is greatly generalised in the result we will now see, described in detail in CCP.

## How complete is the cohomology invariant?

Thus we have a sufficient condition for contextuality in the existence of a cohomological obstruction.

Unfortunately, this condition is not, in general, necessary. It is possible that "false positives" arise in the form of families $\left\{r_{C} \in F_{R} \mathcal{S}(C)\right\}_{C \in \mathcal{M}}$ which are not bona fide global sections in $\mathcal{S}(X)$ in which genuine global sections do not exist.

Several examples are discussed in detail in CNC (and L3). An example for which a false positive arises is the Hardy model.

However, cohomological obstructions over $\mathbb{Z}$ (in fact, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is enough) provide witnesses of strong contextuality for a number of well-studied models, including: the GHZ model, the Peres-Mermin "magic" square, and the 18 -vector Kochen-Specker model, the PR box, and the Specker triangle.

In fact, the Kochen-Specker model and the Specker triangle belong to a large class of models, known as $\neg \mathrm{GCD}$. In CNC, it is shown all the models in this class admit cohomological witnesses for their strong contextuality.

This is greatly generalised in the result we will now see, described in detail in CCP.

## The chain of implications

## The chain of implications

Here is the main result:
Theorem
Let $\mathcal{S}$ be an empirical model on $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, R\rangle$. Then:

$$
\operatorname{AvN}_{R}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \mathrm{SC}(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{CSC}_{R}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{CSC}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \mathrm{SC}(\mathcal{S})
$$

## The chain of implications

Here is the main result:

## Theorem

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be an empirical model on $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, R\rangle$. Then:

$$
\operatorname{AvN}_{R}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{SC}(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{CSC}_{R}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{CSC}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{SC}(\mathcal{S})
$$

We have already seen the first and fourth implications. The third implication is an instance of the following general result:

## Proposition

Let $h: R^{\prime} \longrightarrow R$ be a ring homomorphism. Then, for any $C \in \mathcal{M}$ and $s \in \mathcal{S}(C)$, $\gamma_{F_{R^{\prime}} \mathcal{S}}(s)=0$ implies $\gamma_{F_{R} \mathcal{S}}(s)=0$, and so $\operatorname{CSC}_{R} \Rightarrow \operatorname{CSC}_{R^{\prime}}$ and $\mathrm{CLC}_{R} \Rightarrow \operatorname{CLC}_{R^{\prime}}$.

## Proving the second implication

## Proving the second implication

In order to prove the second implication, we use the properties of the functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod.

## Proving the second implication

In order to prove the second implication, we use the properties of the functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod.
$F_{R} X$ is the free $R$-module generated by $X$, i.e. the left adjoint of the forgetful functor $U: R$-Mod $\longrightarrow$ Set.


## Proving the second implication

In order to prove the second implication, we use the properties of the functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod.
$F_{R} X$ is the free $R$-module generated by $X$, i.e. the left adjoint of the forgetful functor $U: R$-Mod $\longrightarrow$ Set.


The unit $\eta$ of this adjunction is the obvious embedding, which we have been using, taking an element $x \in X$ to the formal linear combination $1 \cdot x$.

## Proving the second implication

In order to prove the second implication, we use the properties of the functor $F_{R}$ : Set $\longrightarrow R$-Mod.
$F_{R} X$ is the free $R$-module generated by $X$, i.e. the left adjoint of the forgetful functor $U: R$-Mod $\longrightarrow$ Set.


The unit $\eta$ of this adjunction is the obvious embedding, which we have been using, taking an element $x \in X$ to the formal linear combination $1 \cdot x$.

The counit is the natural transformation $\epsilon: F_{R} \circ U \Rightarrow I d_{R-M o d}$ given, for each $R$-module $M$, by the evaluation map

$$
\epsilon_{M}: F_{R} U(M) \longrightarrow M:: r \longmapsto \sum_{x \in M} r(x) x .
$$

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

We are interested in taking formal linear combinations of subsets of elements.

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

We are interested in taking formal linear combinations of subsets of elements.
Fix a module $M$ and a subset $S \subseteq U(M)$.

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

We are interested in taking formal linear combinations of subsets of elements.
Fix a module $M$ and a subset $S \subseteq U(M)$.
Then the map $\epsilon_{M}$, by virtue of being an $R$-module homomorphism, maps the formal linear combinations of elements of $S, F_{R}(S)$, which coincide with the linear span in $F_{R} U(M)$ of $\eta[S]=\{1 \cdot s \mid s \in S\}$, to the linear span of $S$ in $M$, $\operatorname{span}_{M} S$.

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

We are interested in taking formal linear combinations of subsets of elements.
Fix a module $M$ and a subset $S \subseteq U(M)$.
Then the map $\epsilon_{M}$, by virtue of being an $R$-module homomorphism, maps the formal linear combinations of elements of $S, F_{R}(S)$, which coincide with the linear span in $F_{R} U(M)$ of $\eta[S]=\{1 \cdot s \mid s \in S\}$, to the linear span of $S$ in $M$, $\operatorname{span}_{M} S$.
Moreover, it maps the formal affine combinations $F_{R}^{\text {aff }}(S)=\operatorname{aff}_{F_{R} U(M)} \eta[S]$ to the affine closure aff $M S$.

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

We are interested in taking formal linear combinations of subsets of elements.
Fix a module $M$ and a subset $S \subseteq U(M)$.
Then the map $\epsilon_{M}$, by virtue of being an $R$-module homomorphism, maps the formal linear combinations of elements of $S, F_{R}(S)$, which coincide with the linear span in $F_{R} U(M)$ of $\eta[S]=\{1 \cdot s \mid s \in S\}$, to the linear span of $S$ in $M$, $\operatorname{span}_{M} S$.
Moreover, it maps the formal affine combinations $F_{R}^{\text {aff }}(S)=\operatorname{aff}_{F_{R} U(M)} \eta[S]$ to the affine closure aff ${ }_{M} S$.

Recall that we are dealing with measurement scenarios whose outcomes are identified with a ring $R$, hence where $\mathcal{E}(U)$ are themselves $R$-modules, i.e. $\mathcal{E}: \mathcal{P}(X)^{\mathrm{op}} \longrightarrow R$-Mod.

## Formal linear combinations of subsets

We are interested in taking formal linear combinations of subsets of elements.
Fix a module $M$ and a subset $S \subseteq U(M)$.
Then the map $\epsilon_{M}$, by virtue of being an $R$-module homomorphism, maps the formal linear combinations of elements of $S, F_{R}(S)$, which coincide with the linear span in $F_{R} U(M)$ of $\eta[S]=\{1 \cdot s \mid s \in S\}$, to the linear span of $S$ in $M$, $\operatorname{span}_{M} S$. Moreover, it maps the formal affine combinations $F_{R}^{\text {aff }}(S)=\operatorname{aff}_{F_{R} U(M)} \eta[S]$ to the affine closure aff $M S$.

Recall that we are dealing with measurement scenarios whose outcomes are identified with a ring $R$, hence where $\mathcal{E}(U)$ are themselves $R$-modules, i.e. $\mathcal{E}: \mathcal{P}(X)^{\mathrm{op}} \longrightarrow R$-Mod.

Thus the counit can be horizontally composed to yield a natural transformation, or map of presheaves,

$$
\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{E}} * \epsilon: F_{R} \circ U \circ \mathcal{E} \longrightarrow \mathcal{E},
$$

given at each context $U \subseteq X$ by

$$
\epsilon_{\mathcal{E}(U)}: F_{R} U \mathcal{E}(U) \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(U)
$$

## Affine restriction

Now, given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$, we can apply the observation regarding subsets of the module at each context.

## Affine restriction

Now, given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$, we can apply the observation regarding subsets of the module at each context.

But, since aff $\mathcal{E}(U) \mathcal{S}(U)=(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S})(U)$ by definition for $U$ beneath the cover, and since containment still holds above it,

## Affine restriction

Now, given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$, we can apply the observation regarding subsets of the module at each context.

But, since aff $\mathcal{\mathcal { E } ( U )} \boldsymbol{\mathcal { S }}(U)=(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S})(U)$ by definition for $U$ beneath the cover, and since containment still holds above it,
we conclude that the presheaf map restricts as follows:


## Affine restriction

Now, given an empirical model $\mathcal{S}$, we can apply the observation regarding subsets of the module at each context.

But, since aff $\mathcal{\mathcal { E } ( U )} \boldsymbol{\mathcal { S }}(U)=(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S})(U)$ by definition for $U$ beneath the cover, and since containment still holds above it,
we conclude that the presheaf map restricts as follows:


We can use this to transfer compatible families of formal affine combinations of sections to compatible families of Aff $\mathcal{S}$, and hence to prove the second implication by contraposition.

## The chain of implications for logical contextuality

## The chain of implications for logical contextuality

Essentially the same strategy can be used to prove an analogous result for logical contextuality.

## The chain of implications for logical contextuality

Essentially the same strategy can be used to prove an analogous result for logical contextuality.

The notion of inconsistent theory has to be adapted: instead of asking whether there is a global assignment satisfying all the equations in the theory, we can ask, given a partial assignment $s_{0} \in \mathcal{E}\left(C_{0}\right)$ whether there is such a global assignment with the additional requirement that it restricts to $s_{0}$.

## The chain of implications for logical contextuality

Essentially the same strategy can be used to prove an analogous result for logical contextuality.

The notion of inconsistent theory has to be adapted: instead of asking whether there is a global assignment satisfying all the equations in the theory, we can ask, given a partial assignment $s_{0} \in \mathcal{E}\left(C_{0}\right)$ whether there is such a global assignment with the additional requirement that it restricts to $s_{0}$.

This can be seen as a generalisation of the notion of robust constraint satisfaction studied by SA, Gottlob and Kolaitis from the complexity perspective.

## The chain of implications for logical contextuality

Essentially the same strategy can be used to prove an analogous result for logical contextuality.

The notion of inconsistent theory has to be adapted: instead of asking whether there is a global assignment satisfying all the equations in the theory, we can ask, given a partial assignment $s_{0} \in \mathcal{E}\left(C_{0}\right)$ whether there is such a global assignment with the additional requirement that it restricts to $s_{0}$.

This can be seen as a generalisation of the notion of robust constraint satisfaction studied by SA, Gottlob and Kolaitis from the complexity perspective.

We write $\operatorname{AvN}_{R}\left(e, s_{0}\right)$ if the theory of $\mathcal{S}$ has no solution extending $s_{0}$.

## The chain of implications for logical contextuality

Essentially the same strategy can be used to prove an analogous result for logical contextuality.

The notion of inconsistent theory has to be adapted: instead of asking whether there is a global assignment satisfying all the equations in the theory, we can ask, given a partial assignment $s_{0} \in \mathcal{E}\left(C_{0}\right)$ whether there is such a global assignment with the additional requirement that it restricts to $s_{0}$.

This can be seen as a generalisation of the notion of robust constraint satisfaction studied by SA, Gottlob and Kolaitis from the complexity perspective.

We write $\operatorname{AvN}_{R}\left(e, s_{0}\right)$ if the theory of $\mathcal{S}$ has no solution extending $s_{0}$.
Then we have:

$$
\operatorname{AvN}_{R}\left(e, s_{0}\right) \Rightarrow \mathrm{LC}\left(\operatorname{Aff} \mathcal{S}, s_{0}\right) \Rightarrow \operatorname{CLC}_{R}\left(\mathcal{S}, s_{0}\right) \Rightarrow \mathrm{CLC}_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(\mathcal{S}, s_{0}\right) \Rightarrow \mathrm{LC}\left(\mathcal{S}, s_{0}\right)
$$

## Visualizing Contextuality



The Hardy table and the PR box as bundles

## Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

## Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Liar cycles. A Liar cycle of length $N$ is a sequence of statements
$S_{1}: S_{2}$ is true,
$S_{2}: S_{3}$ is true,
$S_{N-1}: S_{N}$ is true,
$S_{N}: S_{1}$ is false.
For $N=1$, this is the classic Liar sentence
$S: S$ is false.

## Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Liar cycles. A Liar cycle of length $N$ is a sequence of statements
$S_{1}: S_{2}$ is true,
$S_{2}: S_{3}$ is true,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{N-1} & : S_{N} \text { is true, } \\
S_{N}: & S_{1} \text { is false. }
\end{aligned}
$$

For $N=1$, this is the classic Liar sentence

$$
S: S \text { is false. }
$$

Following Cook, Walicki, Wen et al. we can model the situation by boolean equations:

$$
x_{1}=x_{2}, \ldots, \quad x_{n-1}=x_{n}, \quad x_{n}=\neg x_{1}
$$

## Contextuality, Logic and Paradoxes

Liar cycles. A Liar cycle of length $N$ is a sequence of statements
$S_{1}: S_{2}$ is true,
$S_{2}: S_{3}$ is true,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
S_{N-1}: S_{N} \text { is true, } \\
S_{N}: S_{1} \text { is false. }
\end{array}
$$

For $N=1$, this is the classic Liar sentence

$$
S: S \text { is false. }
$$

Following Cook, Walicki, Wen et al. we can model the situation by boolean equations:

$$
x_{1}=x_{2}, \ldots, \quad x_{n-1}=x_{n}, \quad x_{n}=\neg x_{1}
$$

The "paradoxical" nature of the original statements is now captured by the inconsistency of these equations.

## Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

## Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}: & x_{1}=x_{2} \\
\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}: & x_{2}=x_{3} \\
\vdots & \\
\left\{x_{n-1}, x_{n}\right\}: & x_{n-1}=x_{n} \\
\left\{x_{n}, x_{1}\right\}: & x_{n}=\neg x_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}: & x_{1}=x_{2} \\
\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}: & x_{2}=x_{3} \\
\vdots & \\
\left\{x_{n-1}, x_{n}\right\}: & x_{n-1}=x_{n} \\
\left\{x_{n}, x_{1}\right\}: & x_{n}=\neg x_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Any subset of up to $n-1$ of these equations is consistent; while the whole set is inconsistent.

## Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}: & x_{1}=x_{2} \\
\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}: & x_{2}=x_{3} \\
\vdots & \\
\left\{x_{n-1}, x_{n}\right\}: & x_{n-1}=x_{n} \\
\left\{x_{n}, x_{1}\right\}: & x_{n}=\neg x_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Any subset of up to $n-1$ of these equations is consistent; while the whole set is inconsistent.

Up to rearrangement, the Liar cycle of length 4 corresponds exactly to the PR box.

## Contextuality in the Liar; Liar cycles in the PR Box

We can regard each of these equations as fibered over the set of variables which occur in it:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}: & x_{1}=x_{2} \\
\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}: & x_{2}=x_{3} \\
\vdots & \\
\left\{x_{n-1}, x_{n}\right\}: & x_{n-1}=x_{n} \\
\left\{x_{n}, x_{1}\right\}: & x_{n}=\neg x_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Any subset of up to $n-1$ of these equations is consistent; while the whole set is inconsistent.

Up to rearrangement, the Liar cycle of length 4 corresponds exactly to the PR box.

The usual reasoning to derive a contradiction from the Liar cycle corresponds precisely to the attempt to find a univocal path in the bundle diagram.

## Paths to contradiction



## Paths to contradiction



Suppose that we try to set $a_{2}$ to 1 . Following the path on the right leads to the following local propagation of values:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{2}=1 \leadsto b_{1}=1 \leadsto a_{1}=1 \leadsto b_{2}=1 \leadsto a_{2}=0 \\
& a_{2}=0 \leadsto b_{1}=0 \leadsto a_{1}=0 \leadsto b_{2}=0 \leadsto a_{2}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Paths to contradiction



Suppose that we try to set $a_{2}$ to 1 . Following the path on the right leads to the following local propagation of values:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{2}=1 \leadsto b_{1}=1 \leadsto a_{1}=1 \leadsto b_{2}=1 \leadsto a_{2}=0 \\
& a_{2}=0 \leadsto b_{1}=0 \leadsto a_{1}=0 \leadsto b_{2}=0 \leadsto a_{2}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

We have discussed a specific case here, but the analysis can be generalised to a large class of examples.

## The Robinson Consistency Theorem

## The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

## Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let $T_{i}$ be a theory over the language $L_{i}, i=1,2$. If there is no sentence $\phi$ in $L_{1} \cap L_{2}$ with $T_{1} \vdash \phi$ and $T_{2} \vdash \neg \phi$, then $T_{1} \cup T_{2}$ is consistent.

## The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

## Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let $T_{i}$ be a theory over the language $L_{i}, i=1,2$. If there is no sentence $\phi$ in $L_{1} \cap L_{2}$ with $T_{1} \vdash \phi$ and $T_{2} \vdash \neg \phi$, then $T_{1} \cup T_{2}$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

## The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

## Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let $T_{i}$ be a theory over the language $L_{i}, i=1,2$. If there is no sentence $\phi$ in $L_{1} \cap L_{2}$ with $T_{1} \vdash \phi$ and $T_{2} \vdash \neg \phi$, then $T_{1} \cup T_{2}$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

Note, however, that an extension of the theorem beyond the binary case fails. That is, if we have three theories which are pairwise compatible, it need not be the case that they can be glued together consistently.

## The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

## Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let $T_{i}$ be a theory over the language $L_{i}, i=1,2$. If there is no sentence $\phi$ in $L_{1} \cap L_{2}$ with $T_{1} \vdash \phi$ and $T_{2} \vdash \neg \phi$, then $T_{1} \cup T_{2}$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

Note, however, that an extension of the theorem beyond the binary case fails. That is, if we have three theories which are pairwise compatible, it need not be the case that they can be glued together consistently.

A minimal counter-example is provided at the propositional level by the following "triangle":

$$
T_{1}=\left\{x_{1} \longrightarrow \neg x_{2}\right\}, T_{2}=\left\{x_{2} \longrightarrow \neg x_{3}\right\}, T_{3}=\left\{x_{3} \longrightarrow \neg x_{1}\right\} .
$$

## The Robinson Consistency Theorem

A classic result:

## Theorem (Robinson Joint Consistency Theorem)

Let $T_{i}$ be a theory over the language $L_{i}, i=1,2$. If there is no sentence $\phi$ in $L_{1} \cap L_{2}$ with $T_{1} \vdash \phi$ and $T_{2} \vdash \neg \phi$, then $T_{1} \cup T_{2}$ is consistent.

Thus this theorem says that two compatible theories can be glued together. In this binary case, local consistency implies global consistency.

Note, however, that an extension of the theorem beyond the binary case fails. That is, if we have three theories which are pairwise compatible, it need not be the case that they can be glued together consistently.

A minimal counter-example is provided at the propositional level by the following "triangle":

$$
T_{1}=\left\{x_{1} \longrightarrow \neg x_{2}\right\}, T_{2}=\left\{x_{2} \longrightarrow \neg x_{3}\right\}, T_{3}=\left\{x_{3} \longrightarrow \neg x_{1}\right\} .
$$

This example is well-known in the quantum contextuality literature as the Specker triangle.

## Relational databases

## Relational databases

This geometric picture and the associated methods can be applied to a wide range of situations in classical computer science.

## Relational databases

This geometric picture and the associated methods can be applied to a wide range of situations in classical computer science.

In particular, as we shall now see, there is an isomorphism between the formal description we have given for the quantum notions of non-locality and contextuality, and basic definitions and concepts in relational database theory.

## Relational databases

This geometric picture and the associated methods can be applied to a wide range of situations in classical computer science.

In particular, as we shall now see, there is an isomorphism between the formal description we have given for the quantum notions of non-locality and contextuality, and basic definitions and concepts in relational database theory.

Samson Abramsky, 'Relational databases and Bell's theorem', In In Search of Elegance in the Theory and Practice of Computation: Essays Dedicated to Peter Buneman, Springer 2013.

## Relational databases

This geometric picture and the associated methods can be applied to a wide range of situations in classical computer science.

In particular, as we shall now see, there is an isomorphism between the formal description we have given for the quantum notions of non-locality and contextuality, and basic definitions and concepts in relational database theory.

Samson Abramsky, 'Relational databases and Bell's theorem', In In Search of Elegance in the Theory and Practice of Computation: Essays Dedicated to Peter Buneman, Springer 2013.

| branch-name | account-no | customer-name | balance |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cambridge | $10991-06284$ | Newton | $£ 2,567.53$ |
| Hanover | $10992-35671$ | Leibniz | $€ 11,245.75$ |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |

## From possibility models to databases

## From possibility models to databases

Consider again the Hardy model:

|  | $(0,0)$ | $(0,1)$ | $(1,0)$ | $(1,1)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\left(a_{1}, b_{2}\right)$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\left(a_{2}, b_{1}\right)$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

## From possibility models to databases

Consider again the Hardy model:

|  | $(0,0)$ | $(0,1)$ | $(1,0)$ | $(1,1)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\left(a_{1}, b_{2}\right)$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\left(a_{2}, b_{1}\right)$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Change of perspective:
$a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2}$
0,1
joint outcomes of measurements tuples

## The Hardy model as a relational database

The four rows of the model turn into four relation tables:

| $a_{1}$ | $b_{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{1}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{2}$ | $b_{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{2}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |

## The Hardy model as a relational database

The four rows of the model turn into four relation tables:

| $a_{1}$ | $b_{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{1}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{2}$ | $b_{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{2}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |

What is the DB property corresponding to the presence of non-locality/contextuality in the Hardy table?

## The Hardy model as a relational database

The four rows of the model turn into four relation tables:

| $a_{1}$ | $b_{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{1}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{2}$ | $b_{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |


| $a_{2}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |

What is the DB property corresponding to the presence of non-locality/contextuality in the Hardy table?

There is no universal relation: no table

| $a_{1}$ | $a_{2}$ | $b_{1}$ | $b_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ |

whose projections onto $\left\{a_{i}, b_{i}\right\}, i=1,2$, yield the above four tables.

## A dictionary

## A dictionary

| Relational databases | measurement scenarios |
| :--- | :--- |
| attribute | measurement |
| set of attributes defining a relation table | compatible set of measurements |
| database schema | measurement cover |
| tuple | local section (joint outcome) |
| relation/set of tuples | boolean distribution on joint outcomes |
| universal relation instance | global section/hidden variable model |
| acyclicity | Vorob'ev condition |

## A dictionary

| Relational databases | measurement scenarios |
| :--- | :--- |
| attribute | measurement |
| set of attributes defining a relation table | compatible set of measurements |
| database schema | measurement cover |
| tuple | local section (joint outcome) |
| relation/set of tuples | boolean distribution on joint outcomes |
| universal relation instance | global section/hidden variable model |
| acyclicity | Vorob'ev condition |

We can also consider probabilistic databases and other generalisations; cf. provenance semirings.

## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.


## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.
- Need Grothendieck topology: not just inclusions of sets of variables, but maps allowing for relabelling.


## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.
- Need Grothendieck topology: not just inclusions of sets of variables, but maps allowing for relabelling.
- Gluing local sections into global ones as semantic unification.


## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.
- Need Grothendieck topology: not just inclusions of sets of variables, but maps allowing for relabelling.
- Gluing local sections into global ones as semantic unification.
- This is used to express resolution of anaphoric references.


## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.
- Need Grothendieck topology: not just inclusions of sets of variables, but maps allowing for relabelling.
- Gluing local sections into global ones as semantic unification.
- This is used to express resolution of anaphoric references.

Example: 'John owns a donkey. It is grey.'

$$
\left.s_{1}=\{\operatorname{John}(x), \operatorname{Man}(x)\}, \quad s_{2}=\{\operatorname{donkey}(y), \neg \operatorname{Man}(y)\}, \quad s_{3}=\{\operatorname{grey}(z)\}\right\}
$$

## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.
- Need Grothendieck topology: not just inclusions of sets of variables, but maps allowing for relabelling.
- Gluing local sections into global ones as semantic unification.
- This is used to express resolution of anaphoric references.

Example: 'John owns a donkey. It is grey.'

$$
\left.s_{1}=\{\operatorname{John}(x), \operatorname{Man}(x)\}, \quad s_{2}=\{\operatorname{donkey}(y), \neg \operatorname{Man}(y)\}, \quad s_{3}=\{\operatorname{grey}(z)\}\right\} .
$$

Note that a cover which merged $x$ and $y$ would not have a gluing, since the consistency condition would be violated.

## Applications to Natural Language Semantics

Preliminary work with Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh.

- A presheaf of 'Basic DRS'.
- Need Grothendieck topology: not just inclusions of sets of variables, but maps allowing for relabelling.
- Gluing local sections into global ones as semantic unification.
- This is used to express resolution of anaphoric references.

Example: 'John owns a donkey. It is grey.'

$$
\left.s_{1}=\{\operatorname{John}(x), \operatorname{Man}(x)\}, \quad s_{2}=\{\operatorname{donkey}(y), \neg \operatorname{Man}(y)\}, \quad s_{3}=\{\operatorname{grey}(z)\}\right\} .
$$

Note that a cover which merged $x$ and $y$ would not have a gluing, since the consistency condition would be violated.

However, using the cover

$$
f_{1}: x \mapsto a, \quad f_{2}: y \mapsto b, \quad f_{3}: z \mapsto b
$$

we do have a gluing:

$$
s=\{\operatorname{John}(a), \operatorname{Man}(a), \operatorname{donkey}(b), \neg \operatorname{Man}(b), \operatorname{grey}(b)\} .
$$

## Contextual Semantics

## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?

## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?
The phenomenon of contextuality is pervasive. Once we start looking for it, we can find it everywhere!
Physics, computation, logic, natural language, ... biology, economics, ...

## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?
The phenomenon of contextuality is pervasive. Once we start looking for it, we can find it everywhere!
Physics, computation, logic, natural language, ... biology, economics, ...
The Contextual semantics hypothesis: we can find common mathematical structure in all these diverse manifestations, and develop a widely applicable theory.

## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?
The phenomenon of contextuality is pervasive. Once we start looking for it, we can find it everywhere!
Physics, computation, logic, natural language, ... biology, economics, ...
The Contextual semantics hypothesis: we can find common mathematical structure in all these diverse manifestations, and develop a widely applicable theory.

More than a hypothesis! Already extensive results in

## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?
The phenomenon of contextuality is pervasive. Once we start looking for it, we can find it everywhere!
Physics, computation, logic, natural language, ... biology, economics, ...
The Contextual semantics hypothesis: we can find common mathematical structure in all these diverse manifestations, and develop a widely applicable theory.

More than a hypothesis! Already extensive results in

- Quantum information and foundations: hierarchy of contextuality, logical characterisation of Bell inequalities, classification of multipartite entangled states, cohomological characterisation of contextuality, structural explanation of macroscopic locality, ...


## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?
The phenomenon of contextuality is pervasive. Once we start looking for it, we can find it everywhere!
Physics, computation, logic, natural language, ... biology, economics, ...
The Contextual semantics hypothesis: we can find common mathematical structure in all these diverse manifestations, and develop a widely applicable theory.

More than a hypothesis! Already extensive results in

- Quantum information and foundations: hierarchy of contextuality, logical characterisation of Bell inequalities, classification of multipartite entangled states, cohomological characterisation of contextuality, structural explanation of macroscopic locality, ...
- And beyond: connections with databases, robust refinement of the constraint satisfaction paradigm, application of contextual semantics to natural language semantics, connections with team semantics in Dependence logics, ...


## Contextual Semantics

Why do such similar structures arise in such apparently different settings?
The phenomenon of contextuality is pervasive. Once we start looking for it, we can find it everywhere!
Physics, computation, logic, natural language, ... biology, economics, ...
The Contextual semantics hypothesis: we can find common mathematical structure in all these diverse manifestations, and develop a widely applicable theory.

More than a hypothesis! Already extensive results in

- Quantum information and foundations: hierarchy of contextuality, logical characterisation of Bell inequalities, classification of multipartite entangled states, cohomological characterisation of contextuality, structural explanation of macroscopic locality, ...
- And beyond: connections with databases, robust refinement of the constraint satisfaction paradigm, application of contextual semantics to natural language semantics, connections with team semantics in Dependence logics, ...

For an accessible overview of Contextual Semantics, see the article in the Logic in Computer Science Column, Bulletin of EATCS No. 113, June 2014 (and arXiv).

## People

Comrades in Arms in Contextual Semantics:

## People

Comrades in Arms in Contextual Semantics:


## People

Comrades in Arms in Contextual Semantics:


Adam Brandenburger, Lucien Hardy, Shane Mansfield, Rui Soares Barbosa, Ray Lal, Mehrnoosh Sadrzadeh, Phokion Kolaitis, Georg Gottlob, Carmen Constantin, Kohei Kishida

## Some Recent Developments

## Some Recent Developments

- Hardy is almost everywhere: with bipartite exceptions, an algorithm which given an $n$-qubit entangled state, constructs $n+2$ local observables leading to a logically contextual model.


## Some Recent Developments

- Hardy is almost everywhere: with bipartite exceptions, an algorithm which given an $n$-qubit entangled state, constructs $n+2$ local observables leading to a logically contextual model.
- Characterization of the face lattice of the No-Signalling polytope as isomorphic to the support lattice.


## Some Recent Developments

- Hardy is almost everywhere: with bipartite exceptions, an algorithm which given an $n$-qubit entangled state, constructs $n+2$ local observables leading to a logically contextual model.
- Characterization of the face lattice of the No-Signalling polytope as isomorphic to the support lattice.
- General characterisation of All-versus-Nothing arguments. The cohomology invariant captures contextuality for all such models. Large classes of quantum examples using stabiliser groups.


## References

Papers (available on arXiv):

- S. Abramsky and A. Brandenburger. The sheaf-theoretic structure of non-locality and contextuality. New Journal of Physics, 13(2011):113036, 2011.
- S. Abramsky, S. Mansfield and R. Soares Barbosa, The Cohomology of Non-Locality and Contextuality (CNC), in Proceedings of QPL 2011, EPTCS 2011.
- S. Abramsky and L. Hardy. Logical Bell Inequalities. Phys. Rev. A 85, 062114 (2012).
- S. Abramsky, Relational Hidden Variables and Non-Locality. Studia Logica 101(2), 411-452, 2013.
- S. Abramsky, G. Gottlob and P. Kolaitis, Robust Constraint Satisfaction and Local Hidden Variables in Quantum Mechanics, Proceedings IJCAI 2013.
- S. Abramsky, Relational Databases and Bell's Theorem, In In Search of Elegance in the Theory and Practice of Computation: Essays Dedicated to Peter Buneman, Springer 2013.
- S. Abramsky, Rui Soares Barbosa, Kohei Kishida, Ray Lal and Shane Mansfield, Contextuality, Cohomology and Paradox (CCP), submitted, 2015.

