Contextuality: at the borders of paradox

Samson Abramsky Joint work with Rui Soares Barbosa, Kohei Kishida, Ray Lal and Shane Mansfield

Department of Computer Science, University of Oxford

The Sheaf Team









Rui Soares Barbosa, Kohei Kishida, Ray Lal and Shane Mansfield

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Our claims:

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Our claims:

• Contextuality is a **general phenomenon**. It appears pervasively in many fields, e.g. logic and CS. Non-locality is a special case.

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Our claims:

- Contextuality is a **general phenomenon**. It appears pervasively in many fields, e.g. logic and CS. Non-locality is a special case.
- There is a general structure and mathematical theory of contextuality, applicable across these fields.

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Our claims:

- Contextuality is a **general phenomenon**. It appears pervasively in many fields, e.g. logic and CS. Non-locality is a special case.
- There is a general structure and mathematical theory of contextuality, applicable across these fields.
- Contextual probability, Contextual semantics.

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Our claims:

- Contextuality is a **general phenomenon**. It appears pervasively in many fields, e.g. logic and CS. Non-locality is a special case.
- There is a general structure and mathematical theory of contextuality, applicable across these fields.
- Contextual probability, Contextual semantics.

What is contextuality, as a problematic, non-classical phenomenon?

Renewed interest in contextuality in quantum information and foundations, as a **resource** in quantum information processing — perhaps the key one. (Howard, Wallman, Veith and Emerson, *Nature* 2014, Raussendorf PRA 2013).

Desiderata: analysis of **general concepts**, structural theory. Disentangling contextuality from QM

Our claims:

- Contextuality is a **general phenomenon**. It appears pervasively in many fields, e.g. logic and CS. Non-locality is a special case.
- There is a general structure and mathematical theory of contextuality, applicable across these fields.
- Contextual probability, Contextual semantics.

What is contextuality, as a problematic, non-classical phenomenon?

In a nutshell: where we have a family of data which is **locally consistent**, but **globally inconsistent**.

Contextuality Analogy: Local Consistency









Contextuality Analogy: Local Consistency











Contextuality Analogy: Global Inconsistency



If this phenomenon arises with **observable data**, reflecting physical reality, it takes us to the borders of paradox.

If this phenomenon arises with **observable data**, reflecting physical reality, it takes us to the borders of paradox.

What saves us from a direct conflict between logic and experience is that the data **cannot** be directly observed globally.

We cannot observe all the variables at the same time.

If this phenomenon arises with **observable data**, reflecting physical reality, it takes us to the borders of paradox.

What saves us from a direct conflict between logic and experience is that the data **cannot** be directly observed globally.

We cannot observe all the variables at the same time.

A "transcendental deduction" of the incompatibility (in general) of observables.

Thus contextuality is fundamentally about the passage from local to global, and **obstructions** to such a passage.

Thus contextuality is fundamentally about the passage from local to global, and **obstructions** to such a passage.

The natural mathematical language for talking about this is **sheaf theory**.

Thus contextuality is fundamentally about the passage from local to global, and **obstructions** to such a passage.

The natural mathematical language for talking about this is **sheaf theory**.

And we can use **sheaf cohomology** to witness contextuality.

Thus contextuality is fundamentally about the passage from local to global, and **obstructions** to such a passage.

The natural mathematical language for talking about this is **sheaf theory**.

And we can use **sheaf cohomology** to witness contextuality.

Why is this important? Cohomology is one of the major tools of modern mathematics.

Thus contextuality is fundamentally about the passage from local to global, and **obstructions** to such a passage.

The natural mathematical language for talking about this is **sheaf theory**.

And we can use **sheaf cohomology** to witness contextuality.

Why is this important? Cohomology is one of the major tools of modern mathematics.

Has been conspicuously **absent** from this field (and indeed from Computer Science, logic, etc.)

Thus contextuality is fundamentally about the passage from local to global, and **obstructions** to such a passage.

The natural mathematical language for talking about this is **sheaf theory**.

And we can use sheaf cohomology to witness contextuality.

Why is this important? Cohomology is one of the major tools of modern mathematics.

Has been conspicuously **absent** from this field (and indeed from Computer Science, logic, etc.)

Our results show that it does apply, in a very direct way, to the analysis of contextuality.

An objection: the real content of quantum mechanics involves probabilities, Bell inequalities, etc. . . .

An objection: the real content of quantum mechanics involves probabilities, Bell inequalities, etc. . . .

But in fact, it turns out that there is a unifying principle for Bell inequalities based on logical consistency conditions.

An objection: the real content of quantum mechanics involves probabilities, Bell inequalities, etc. . . .

But in fact, it turns out that there is a unifying principle for Bell inequalities based on logical consistency conditions.

In fact, all Bell inequalities arise from purely logical consistency conditions.

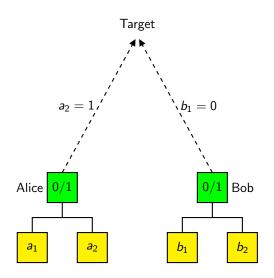
An objection: the real content of quantum mechanics involves probabilities, Bell inequalities, etc. . . .

But in fact, it turns out that there is a unifying principle for Bell inequalities based on logical consistency conditions.

In fact, all Bell inequalities arise from purely logical consistency conditions.

Logical and sheaf-theoretic structure also plays a key rôle in discerning a hierarchy of **degrees of contextuality**.

Alice and Bob look at bits





A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

Example: The Bell Model

Α	В	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)	
		1/2	0	0	1/2	
a_1	b_2	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8	
<i>a</i> ₂	b_1	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8	
<i>a</i> ₂	b_2	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8	

A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

Example: The Bell Model

Α	В	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)	
a_1	b_1	1/2	0	0	1/2	
a_1	b_2	1/2 3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8	
a_2	b_1	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8	
a_2	b_2	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8	

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_2 , then 1/8th of the time, Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 1.

A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

Example: The Bell Model

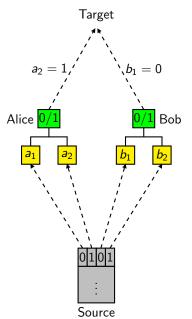
Α	В	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
a_1	b_1	1/2 3/8 3/8 1/8	0	0	1/2
a_1	b_2	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
a ₂	b_1	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
a ₂	b_2	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_2 , then 1/8th of the time, Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 1.

How can we explain this behaviour?

Classical Correlations: The Classical Source



Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_N

Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1,\ldots,ϕ_N

Suppose further we can assign a probability $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$ to each ϕ_i .

Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1,\ldots,ϕ_N

Suppose further we can assign a probability $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$ to each ϕ_i .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in ϕ_i ; p_i is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying ϕ_i .)

Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1,\ldots,ϕ_N

Suppose further we can assign a probability $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$ to each ϕ_i .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in ϕ_i ; p_i is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying ϕ_i .)

Suppose that these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg \phi_N,$$

Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1,\ldots,ϕ_N

Suppose further we can assign a probability $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$ to each ϕ_i .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in ϕ_i ; p_i is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying ϕ_i .)

Suppose that these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \ \Rightarrow \ \neg \phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \ \Rightarrow \ \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i.$$

Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_N

Suppose further we can assign a probability $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$ to each ϕ_i .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in ϕ_i ; p_i is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying ϕ_i .)

Suppose that these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \ \Rightarrow \ \neg \phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \ \Rightarrow \ \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i.$$

Using elementary probability theory, we can calculate:

$$p_N \leq \mathsf{Prob}ig(igvee_{i=1}^{N-1}
eg \phi_iig) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \mathsf{Prob}ig(
eg \phi_iig) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (1-p_i) = (N-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i.$$

Suppose we have propositional formulas ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_N

Suppose further we can assign a probability $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$ to each ϕ_i .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in ϕ_i ; p_i is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying ϕ_i .)

Suppose that these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \ \Rightarrow \ \neg \phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \ \Rightarrow \ \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i.$$

Using elementary probability theory, we can calculate:

$$p_N \leq \mathsf{Prob}(\bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \mathsf{Prob}(\neg \phi_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (1-p_i) = (N-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i.$$

Hence we obtain the inequality

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i \leq N-1.$$

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1,b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1,b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\varphi_1 = (a_1 \wedge b_1) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_1
\varphi_2 = (a_1 \wedge b_2) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_2
\varphi_3 = (a_2 \wedge b_1) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_1
\varphi_4 = (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \quad \vee \quad (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \quad \oplus \quad b_2.$$

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1,b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\varphi_1 = (a_1 \wedge b_1) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_1
\varphi_2 = (a_1 \wedge b_2) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_2
\varphi_3 = (a_2 \wedge b_1) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_1
\varphi_4 = (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \quad \vee \quad (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \quad \oplus \quad b_2.$$

These propositions are easily seen to be contradictory.

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1/2	0	0	1/2
(a_1,b_2)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_1)	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
(a_2,b_2)	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\varphi_1 = (a_1 \wedge b_1) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_1
\varphi_2 = (a_1 \wedge b_2) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_2
\varphi_3 = (a_2 \wedge b_1) \quad \vee \quad (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad b_1
\varphi_4 = (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \quad \vee \quad (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \quad \oplus \quad b_2.$$

These propositions are easily seen to be contradictory. The violation of the logical Bell inequality is 1/4.

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b$$
, $\neg(a \wedge b')$, $\neg(a' \wedge b)$, $a' \vee b'$.

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b$$
, $\neg(a \wedge b')$, $\neg(a' \wedge b)$, $a' \vee b'$.

However, these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable.

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b$$
, $\neg (a \wedge b')$, $\neg (a' \wedge b)$, $a' \vee b'$.

However, these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable.

In this model, $p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = 1$.

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome ${\bf 0}$ as true and ${\bf 1}$ as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b$$
, $\neg(a \wedge b')$, $\neg(a' \wedge b)$, $a' \vee b'$.

However, these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable.

In this model, $p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = 1$.

Hence the Hardy model achieves a violation of $p_1 = \text{Prob}(a \wedge b)$ for the logical Bell inequality.



		(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

		(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

The entry in row 1 column 1 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_1 , then sometimes Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 0.

		(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

The entry in row 1 column 1 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_1 , then **sometimes** Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 0.

The entry in row 2 column 1 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_2 , then it never happens that Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 0.

The entry in row 1 column 1 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_1 , then **sometimes** Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 0.

The entry in row 2 column 1 says:

If Alice looks at a_1 and Bob looks at b_2 , then it never happens that Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 0.

Can we explain this behaviour using a classical source?

Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

More precisely, this would say that for each possible state of the system, there is a function λ which for each measurement m specifies an outcome $\lambda(m)$, independently of which other measurements may be performed.

Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

More precisely, this would say that for each possible state of the system, there is a function λ which for each measurement m specifies an outcome $\lambda(m)$, independently of which other measurements may be performed.

This point of view is called **non-contextuality**. It is equivalent to the assumption of a classical source.

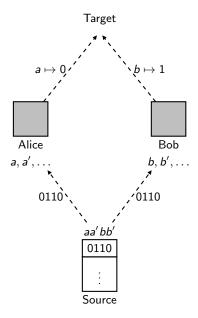
Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

More precisely, this would say that for each possible state of the system, there is a function λ which for each measurement m specifies an outcome $\lambda(m)$, independently of which other measurements may be performed.

This point of view is called **non-contextuality**. It is equivalent to the assumption of a classical source.

However, this view is **impossible to sustain** in the light of our **actual observations of (micro)-physical reality**.

Hidden Variables: The Mermin instruction set picture



Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0.$$

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0.$$

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1			
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	0	1		
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0.$$

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1			
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	0	1		
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)		?		0

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0.$$

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0	1		
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)		1		0

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0.$$

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1			
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	0	1		
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)		1		0

So there is a unique 'instruction set' λ that outcomes (0,0) for measurements (a_1,b_1) could come from:

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad a_2 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_2 \mapsto 1.$$

The 'Hardy Paradox'

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

So there is a unique 'instruction set' λ that outcomes (0,0) for measurements (a_1,b_1) could come from:

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad a_2 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_2 \mapsto 1.$$

However, this would require the outcome (0,0) for measurements (a_2,b_1) to be possible, and this is **precluded**.

The 'Hardy Paradox'

Hardy models: those whose support satisfies

So there is a unique 'instruction set' λ that outcomes (0,0) for measurements (a_1,b_1) could come from:

$$\lambda: a_1 \mapsto 0, \quad a_2 \mapsto 0, \quad b_1 \mapsto 0, \quad b_2 \mapsto 1.$$

However, this would require the outcome (0,0) for measurements (a_2,b_1) to be possible, and this is **precluded**.

Thus Hardy models are **contextual**. They cannot be explained by a classical source.

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

However, if we use quantum rather than classical resources, it is realisable!

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

However, if we use quantum rather than classical resources, it is realisable!

More specifically, if we use an **entangled qubit** as a shared resource between Alice and Bob, who may be spacelike separated, then behaviour of exactly the kind we have considered **can** be achieved.

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

However, if we use quantum rather than classical resources, it is realisable!

More specifically, if we use an **entangled qubit** as a shared resource between Alice and Bob, who may be spacelike separated, then behaviour of exactly the kind we have considered **can** be achieved.

Alice and Bob's choices are now of **measurement setting** (e.g. which direction to measure spin) rather than "which register to load".



		(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

	(0,0)	(0, 1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements a_1 , a_2 for Alice and b_1 , b_2 for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements a_1 , a_2 for Alice and b_1 , b_2 for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.

Moreover, behaviour of this kind has been extensively experimentally confirmed.

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

This model can be physically realised in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements a_1 , a_2 for Alice and b_1 , b_2 for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.

Moreover, behaviour of this kind has been extensively experimentally confirmed.

This is really how the world is!

		(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1			
(a_1,b_2)	0			
(a_2,b_1)	0			
(a_2,b_2)				0

This model can be physically realised in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements a_1 , a_2 for Alice and b_1 , b_2 for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.

Moreover, behaviour of this kind has been extensively experimentally confirmed.

This is really how the world is!

This proves a strong version of Bell's theorem.

- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×

Logical Contextuality

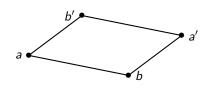
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	✓
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×

b' • • .

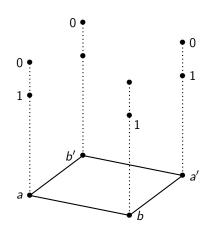
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



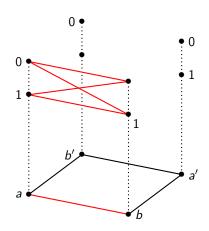
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	✓
a' b	×	√	√	✓
a' b'	√	√	√	×



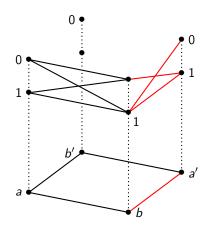
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



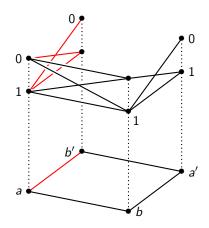
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



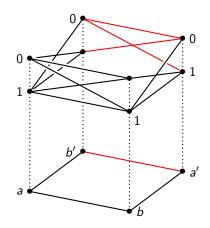
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	✓
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



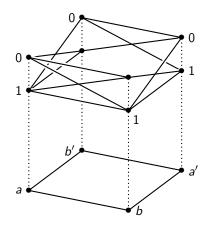
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



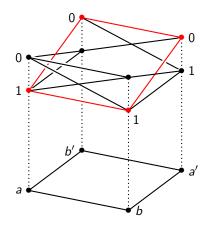
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



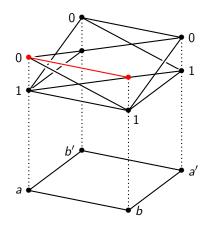
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a' b'	√	√	√	×



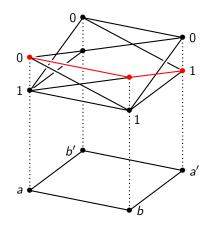
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	✓	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



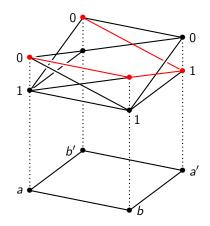
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



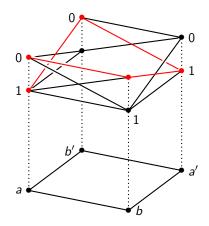
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a' b'	√	√	√	×



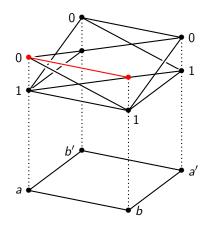
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



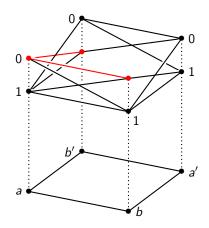
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



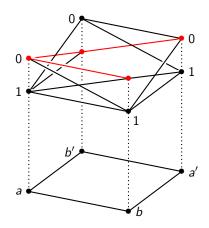
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



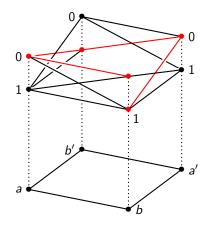
- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



- Ignore precise probabilities
- Events are possible or not
- E.g. the Hardy model:

	00	01	10	11
ab	✓	√	√	√
ab'	×	√	√	√
a' b	×	√	√	√
a'b'	√	√	√	×



Strong Contextuality

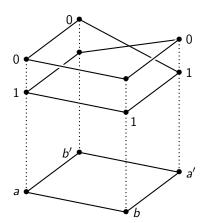
Α	В	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)	
a_1	b_1	1	0	0	1	
a_1	b_2	1	0	0	1	
a_2	b_1	1	0	0	1	
a ₂	b_2	0	1	1	0	

The PR Box

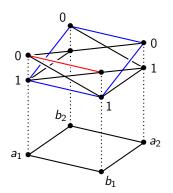
Strong Contextuality

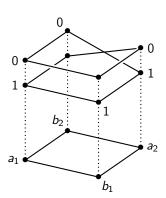
• E.g. the PR box:

	00	01	10	11
ab	√	×	×	✓
ab'	√	×	×	√
a' b	√	×	×	√
a'b'	×	√	√	×



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,

÷

 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.

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

$$x_1 = x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1} = x_n, x_n = \neg x_1$$

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,

:

 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.

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

$$x_1 = x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1} = x_n, x_n = \neg x_1$$

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

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

$$\{x_1, x_2\}: x_1 = x_2$$

 $\{x_2, x_3\}: x_2 = x_3$
 \vdots
 $\{x_{n-1}, x_n\}: x_{n-1} = x_n$
 $\{x_n, x_1\}: x_n = \neg x_1$

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

$$\{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 = x_2$$

$$\{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 = x_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} = x_n$$

$$\{x_n, x_1\} : x_n = \neg x_1$$

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

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

$$\{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 = x_2$$

$$\{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 = x_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} = x_n$$

$$\{x_n, x_1\} : x_n = \neg x_1$$

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.

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

$$\{x_1, x_2\} : x_1 = x_2$$

$$\{x_2, x_3\} : x_2 = x_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\{x_{n-1}, x_n\} : x_{n-1} = x_n$$

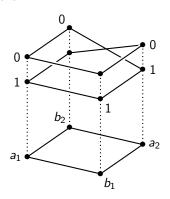
$$\{x_n, x_1\} : x_n = \neg x_1$$

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

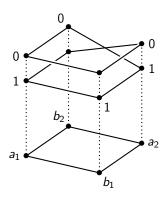
Up to rearrangement, the Liar cycle of length 4 corresponds exactly to the PR box.

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

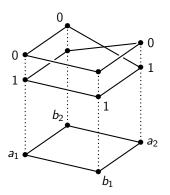


Suppose that we try to set a_2 to 1. Following the path on the right leads to the following local propagation of values:

$$a_2 = 1 \rightsquigarrow b_1 = 1 \rightsquigarrow a_1 = 1 \rightsquigarrow b_2 = 1 \rightsquigarrow a_2 = 0$$

$$a_2 = 0 \rightsquigarrow b_1 = 0 \rightsquigarrow a_1 = 0 \rightsquigarrow b_2 = 0 \rightsquigarrow a_2 = 1$$

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:

$$a_2 = 1 \rightsquigarrow b_1 = 1 \rightsquigarrow a_1 = 1 \rightsquigarrow b_2 = 1 \rightsquigarrow a_2 = 0$$

 $a_2 = 0 \rightsquigarrow b_1 = 0 \rightsquigarrow a_1 = 0 \rightsquigarrow b_2 = 0 \rightsquigarrow a_2 = 1$

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

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 ϕ 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.

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 ϕ 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.

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 ϕ 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 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 ϕ 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":

$$T_1 = \{x_1 \longrightarrow \neg x_2\}, \ T_2 = \{x_2 \longrightarrow \neg x_3\}, \ T_3 = \{x_3 \longrightarrow \neg x_1\}.$$

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 ϕ 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":

$$T_1 = \{x_1 \longrightarrow \neg x_2\}, \ T_2 = \{x_2 \longrightarrow \neg x_3\}, \ T_3 = \{x_3 \longrightarrow \neg x_1\}.$$

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

Measurement scenarios $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O \rangle$:

Measurement scenarios $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O \rangle$:

• X is a set of variables or measurement labels. Sufficient to consider finite discrete space — the base space of the bundle.

Measurement scenarios $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O \rangle$:

- X is a set of variables or measurement labels. Sufficient to consider finite discrete space — the base space of the bundle.
- $\mathcal{M} = \{C_i\}_{i \in I}$ set of **contexts** *i.e.* co-measurable variables. In quantum terms, compatible observables.

Measurement scenarios $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O \rangle$:

- X is a set of variables or measurement labels. Sufficient to consider finite discrete space — the base space of the bundle.
- $\mathcal{M} = \{C_i\}_{i \in I}$ set of **contexts** *i.e.* co-measurable variables. In quantum terms, compatible observables.
- O is set of outcomes or values for the variables, which we take to be the same in each fibre.

We have a sheaf of sets over $\mathcal{P}(X)$, namely $\mathcal{E}::U\longmapsto O^U$ with restriction

$$\mathcal{E}(U \subseteq U') \colon \mathcal{E}(U') \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(U) :: s \longmapsto s|U|.$$

Measurement scenarios $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O \rangle$:

- X is a set of variables or measurement labels. Sufficient to consider finite discrete space — the base space of the bundle.
- $\mathcal{M} = \{C_i\}_{i \in I}$ set of **contexts** *i.e.* co-measurable variables. In quantum terms, compatible observables.
- O is set of outcomes or values for the variables, which we take to be the same in each fibre.

We have a sheaf of sets over $\mathcal{P}(X)$, namely $\mathcal{E}::U\longmapsto O^U$ with restriction

$$\mathcal{E}(U \subseteq U') \colon \mathcal{E}(U') \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(U) :: s \longmapsto s|U|.$$

Each $s \in \mathcal{E}(U)$ is a **section**, and, in particular, $g \in \mathcal{E}(X)$ is a **global section**.

Measurement scenarios $\langle X, \mathcal{M}, O \rangle$:

- X is a set of variables or measurement labels. Sufficient to consider finite discrete space — the base space of the bundle.
- $\mathcal{M} = \{C_i\}_{i \in I}$ set of **contexts** *i.e.* co-measurable variables. In quantum terms, compatible observables.
- *O* is set of outcomes or values for the variables, which we take to be the same in each fibre.

We have a sheaf of sets over $\mathcal{P}(X)$, namely $\mathcal{E}::U\longmapsto O^U$ with restriction

$$\mathcal{E}(U\subseteq U')\colon \mathcal{E}(U')\longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(U)::s\longmapsto s|U|.$$

Each $s \in \mathcal{E}(U)$ is a **section**, and, in particular, $g \in \mathcal{E}(X)$ is a **global section**.

A probability table can be represented by a family $\{p_C\}_{C\in\mathcal{M}}$ with p_C a probability distribution on $\mathcal{E}(C)=O^C$, where contexts C corresponds to the rows of the table.

The logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned with **possibilities**, which can be represented by a subpresheaf S of E, where for each context $U \subseteq X$, $S(U) \subseteq O^U$ is the set of all possible outcomes.

The logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned with **possibilities**, which can 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, S is defined as follows, where supp $(p_C|U\cap C)$ is the support of the marginal of p_C at $U\cap C$.

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

The logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned with **possibilities**, which can 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, S is defined as follows, where supp $(p_C|U\cap C)$ is the support of the marginal of p_C at $U\cap C$.

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

Abstracting from this situation, we assume we are dealing with a sub-presheaf ${\cal S}$ of ${\cal E}$ with certain properties.

The logical and strong forms of contextuality are concerned with **possibilities**, which can 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, S is defined as follows, where supp $(p_C|U\cap C)$ is the support of the marginal of p_C at $U\cap C$.

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

Abstracting from this situation, we assume we are dealing with a sub-presheaf ${\cal S}$ of ${\cal E}$ with certain properties.

We can use this formalisation to characterize contextuality as follows.

Definition

For any empirical model S:

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



We have a cover

$$\mathcal{U} = \{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$$

of measurement contexts.

We have a cover

$$\mathcal{U} = \{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}$$

of measurement contexts.

Given $s = s_1 \in S_e(C_1)$, we define

$$z=\delta^0(s_1,\ldots,s_n),$$

where $s_1|_{C_1 \cap C_i} = s_i|_{C_1 \cap C_i}$, i = 1, ..., n.

We have a cover

$$\mathcal{U} = \{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}$$

of measurement contexts.

Given $s = s_1 \in S_e(C_1)$, we define

$$z=\delta^0(s_1,\ldots,s_n),$$

where $s_1|_{C_1 \cap C_i} = s_i|_{C_1 \cap C_i}$, i = 1, ..., n.

This is a cocycle in the relative Čech cohomology with respect to C_1 .

We have a cover

$$\mathcal{U} = \{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}$$

of measurement contexts.

Given $s = s_1 \in S_e(C_1)$, we define

$$z=\delta^0(s_1,\ldots,s_n),$$

where $s_1|_{C_1 \cap C_i} = s_i|_{C_1 \cap C_i}$, i = 1, ..., n.

This is a cocycle in the relative Čech cohomology with respect to C_1 .

We define

$$\gamma(s) = [z] \in \check{H}^1(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}_{\bar{\mathcal{C}}_1})$$

where \mathcal{F} is the **AbGrp**-valued presheaf $\mathbb{Z}[S_e]$.

We have a cover

$$\mathcal{U} = \{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}$$

of measurement contexts.

Given $s = s_1 \in S_e(C_1)$, we define

$$z=\delta^0(s_1,\ldots,s_n),$$

where $s_1|_{C_1 \cap C_i} = s_i|_{C_1 \cap C_i}$, i = 1, ..., n.

This is a cocycle in the relative Čech cohomology with respect to C_1 .

We define

$$\gamma(s) = [z] \in \check{H}^1(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{F}_{\bar{\mathcal{C}}_1})$$

where \mathcal{F} is the **AbGrp**-valued presheaf $\mathbb{Z}[S_e]$.

Here γ is in fact the **connecting homomorphism** of the long exact sequence.

Basic Results

Basic Results

Proposition

The following are equivalent:

- The cohomology obstruction vanishes: $\gamma(s_1) = 0$.
- **2** There is a family $\{r_i \in \mathcal{F}(C_i)\}$ with $s_1 = r_1$, and for all i, j:

$$r_i|C_i\cap C_j=r_j|C_i\cap C_j.$$

Basic Results

Proposition

The following are equivalent:

- **1** The cohomology obstruction vanishes: $\gamma(s_1) = 0$.
- **2** There is a family $\{r_i \in \mathcal{F}(C_i)\}$ with $s_1 = r_1$, and for all i, j:

$$r_i|C_i\cap C_j=r_j|C_i\cap C_j.$$

Proposition

If the model e is possibilistically extendable, then the obstruction vanishes for every section in the support of the model. If e is not strongly contextual, then the obstruction vanishes for some section in the support.

Basic Results

Proposition

The following are equivalent:

- **1** The cohomology obstruction vanishes: $\gamma(s_1) = 0$.
- **②** There is a family $\{r_i \in \mathcal{F}(C_i)\}$ with $s_1 = r_1$, and for all i, j:

$$r_i|C_i\cap C_j=r_j|C_i\cap C_j.$$

Proposition

If the model e is possibilistically extendable, then the obstruction vanishes for every section in the support of the model. If e is not strongly contextual, then the obstruction vanishes for some section in the support.

Thus non-vanishing of the obstruction provides a cohomological witness for contextuality.

• There are false positives because of negative coefficients in cochains.

- There are false positives because of negative coefficients in cochains.
- We can effectively compute (mod 2) witnesses in many cases of interest: GHZ, Kylachko, Peres-Mermin, large class of Kochen-Specker models, ...

- There are false positives because of negative coefficients in cochains.
- We can effectively compute (mod 2) witnesses in many cases of interest:
 GHZ, Kylachko, Peres-Mermin, large class of Kochen-Specker models, ...
- In recent work, we obtain very general results in cases where the outcomes themselves have a module structure (over the same ring as the cohomology coefficients).

- There are false positives because of negative coefficients in cochains.
- We can effectively compute (mod 2) witnesses in many cases of interest: GHZ, Kylachko, Peres-Mermin, large class of Kochen-Specker models, ...
- In recent work, we obtain very general results in cases where the outcomes themselves have a module structure (over the same ring as the cohomology coefficients).
- This yields cohomological characterisations of All-vs.-Nothing proofs (Mermin). These account for most of the contextuality arguments in the quantum literature. In particular, we can find large classes of concrete examples in stabiliser QM.

Theorem

Let S be an empirical model on (X, \mathcal{M}, R) . Then:

$$\mathsf{AvN}_R(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{SC}(\mathsf{Aff}\,\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{CSC}_R(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{CSC}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{SC}(\mathcal{S})$$
.

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

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.

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.

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

From possibility models to databases

From possibility models to databases

Consider again the Hardy model:

	1	(0, 1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1, b_1) (a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1) (a_2, b_2)	1	1	1	1
(a_1,b_2)	0	1	1	1
(a_2,b_1)	0	1	1	1
(a_2,b_2)	1	1	1	0

From possibility models to databases

Consider again the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1, 1)
(a_1,b_1)	1	1	1	1
(a_1, b_2) (a_2, b_1)	0	1	1	1
(a_2,b_1)	0	1	1	1
(a_2, b_2)	1	1	1	0

Change of perspective:

a_1 , a_2 , b_1 , b_2	attributes
0, 1	data values
joint outcomes of measurements	tuples

The Hardy model as a relational database

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

<i>a</i> ₁	b_1
0	0
0	1
1	0
1	1

<i>a</i> ₁	<i>b</i> ₂
0	1
1	0
1	1

a ₂	b_1	
0	1	
1	0	
1	1	

a ₂	<i>b</i> 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:

<i>a</i> ₁	b_1
0	0
0	1
1	0
1	1

а	1	<i>b</i> ₂
C)	1
1		0
1	-	1

a ₂	b_1
0	1
1	0
1	1

a ₂	<i>b</i> 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:

<i>a</i> ₁	b_1
0	0
0	1
1	0
1	1

a ₁	<i>b</i> ₂
0	1
1	0
1	1

<i>a</i> ₂	<i>b</i> ₁
0	1
1	0
1	1

<i>a</i> ₂	<i>b</i> 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



whose projections onto $\{a_i, b_i\}$, 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.

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

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, ...

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.

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

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, . . .

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, ...

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

• 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.

- 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.

- 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. Use of sheaf cohomology to capture 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, 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, 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, G. Gottlob and P. Kolaitis, Robust Constraint Satisfaction and Local Hidden Variables in Quantum Mechanics, Proceedings IJCAI 2013.
- S. Abramsky, Rui Soares Barbosa, Kohei Kishida, Ray Lal and Shane Mansfield, Contextuality, Cohomology and Paradox. Submitted, 2015.