CATEGORICAL VISION FOR QUANTUM THEORY AND ML

Ivan Fesenko

May 14 2022

	Ivan	Fesen	ko
--	------	-------	----

イロト イヨト イヨト イヨト

Relations between mathematics and physics

have not been easy in the last 100 years ...

ъ

・ロト ・ 一下・ ・ 三ト・・

Relations between mathematics and physics

have not been easy in the last 100 years ...

BULLETIN OF THE AMERICAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY Volume 78, Number 5, September 1972

MISSED OPPORTUNITIES¹

BY FREEMAN J. DYSON

It is important for him who wants to discover not to confine himself to one chapter of science, but to keep in touch with various others. JACQUES HADAMARD

◆ロト ◆聞ト ◆注ト ◆注ト

'As a working physicist, I am acutely aware of the fact that the marriage between mathematics and physics, which was so enormously fruitful in past centuries, has recently ended in divorce.'

'Twenty years ago ... Richard Feynman gave a description of relativistic quantum field theory in terms of a naive physical picture which he called "sum over histories."

His description seems to make sense as a qualitative guide to the understanding of physical processes, but it makes no sense at all as a mathematical definition.

Mathematical rigor is the last thing that Feynman was ever concerned about.'

(a) < (a) < (b) < (b)

'As a working physicist, I am acutely aware of the fact that the marriage between mathematics and physics, which was so enormously fruitful in past centuries, has recently ended in divorce.'

'Twenty years ago ... Richard Feynman gave a description of relativistic quantum field theory in terms of a naive physical picture which he called "sum over histories."

His description seems to make sense as a qualitative guide to the understanding of physical processes, but it makes no sense at all as a mathematical definition.

Mathematical rigor is the last thing that Feynman was ever concerned about.'

Feynman integral

Feynman functional/path integral

$$\int_{P} \exp\left(\frac{i}{\hbar} S(x)\right) \mathscr{D} x$$

for the action integral $S(x) = \int_0^t \left(\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dx}{ds}\right)^2 - V(x(s)) ds$ on P

where V is the potential, P is the space of real valued continuous functions on [0, t] with fixed boundary condition.

The problem is with $\mathscr{D}x$ which is a translation invariant measure on *P*.

The space P is not locally compact, so it does not have a nontrivial translation invariant real valued measure. So the integral does not exist for a mathematician, except some special cases.

Associated alchemistry of renormalisation or regularisation rules, satisfying to most physicists while math rigour is typically missing.

Manin: 'imagine something like the Eiffel Tower, hanging in the air with no foundation, from a mathematical point of view. So it exists and works just right, but standing on nothing we know of. This situation continues to this very day.'

Feynman integral

Feynman functional/path integral

$$\int_{P} \exp\left(\frac{i}{\hbar} S(x)\right) \mathscr{D} x$$

for the action integral $S(x) = \int_0^t \left(\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dx}{ds}\right)^2 - V(x(s)) ds$ on P

where V is the potential, P is the space of real valued continuous functions on [0, t] with fixed boundary condition.

The problem is with $\mathscr{D}x$ which is a translation invariant measure on *P*.

The space P is not locally compact, so it does not have a nontrivial translation invariant real valued measure. So the integral does not exist for a mathematician, except some special cases.

Associated alchemistry of renormalisation or regularisation rules, satisfying to most physicists while math rigour is typically missing.

Manin: 'imagine something like the Eiffel Tower, hanging in the air with no foundation, from a mathematical point of view. So it exists and works just right, but standing on nothing we know of. This situation continues to this very day.'

Feynman integral

Feynman functional/path integral

$$\int_{P} \exp\left(\frac{i}{\hbar} S(x)\right) \mathscr{D} x$$

for the action integral $S(x) = \int_0^t \left(\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dx}{ds}\right)^2 - V(x(s)) ds$ on P

where V is the potential, P is the space of real valued continuous functions on [0, t] with fixed boundary condition.

The problem is with $\mathscr{D}x$ which is a translation invariant measure on P.

The space P is not locally compact, so it does not have a nontrivial translation invariant real valued measure. So the integral does not exist for a mathematician, except some special cases.

Associated alchemistry of renormalisation or regularisation rules, satisfying to most physicists while math rigour is typically missing.

Manin: 'imagine something like the Eiffel Tower, hanging in the air with no foundation, from a mathematical point of view. So it exists and works just right, but standing on nothing we know of. This situation continues to this very day.'

The divorce actually had happenned earlier, in foundations of quantum theory some 100 years ago.

Quantum theory has enormous conceptual problems in its standard formulation that used 100–70 years old mathematics.

These problems are often ignored by many physicists.

Unfortunately, most of mathematics of the last 70 years are typically not known to quantum experts.

・ロト ・ 同ト ・ ヨト ・

The divorce actually had happenned earlier, in foundations of quantum theory some 100 years ago.

Quantum theory has enormous conceptual problems in its standard formulation that used 100–70 years old mathematics.

These problems are often ignored by many physicists.

Unfortunately, most of mathematics of the last 70 years are typically not known to quantum experts.

・ロト ・ 同ト ・ ヨト ・

There are many alternative interpretations of quantum theory:

 \circ The standard Copenhagen interpretation: the state collapses as soon as its degree of macroscopicity becomes so large that we are no longer able to measure the phase between the two terms of the superposition.

The *measurement process*: the quantum object becomes entangled with the macroscopic measurement apparatus and, subsequently, with the experimentalist.

The *instrumental interpretation* of quantum theory that denies the possibility of talking about systems without reference to an external observer.

A 'thing' becomes simply a result of a measurement, physical statements represent our knowledge of events rather than events themselves.

At which point does the superposition collapse into a set of probabilities, a *subjective* phenomenon that only seems to happen when the observer becomes a part of the superposition.

$\circ\,$ Many-worlds interpretation

Consistent histories interpretation

 \circ Hidden variables interpretation to deal with assumed incompleteness of the quantum theory formalism

Non-locality and contextuality (Bell, Kochen–Specker) — these features of quantum mechanics are used to obtain quantum advantage over classical computational models in quantum computing.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト

$\circ\,$ Many-worlds interpretation

\circ Consistent histories interpretation

 \circ Hidden variables interpretation to deal with assumed incompleteness of the quantum theory formalism

Non-locality and contextuality (Bell, Kochen–Specker) — these features of quantum mechanics are used to obtain quantum advantage over classical computational models in quantum computing.

(a) < (a) < (b) < (b)

- $\circ\,$ Many-worlds interpretation
- \circ Consistent histories interpretation

 \circ Hidden variables interpretation to deal with assumed incompleteness of the quantum theory formalism

Non-locality and contextuality (Bell, Kochen–Specker) — these features of quantum mechanics are used to obtain quantum advantage over classical computational models in quantum computing.

(a) < (a) < (b) < (b)

- $\circ\,$ Many-worlds interpretation
- \circ Consistent histories interpretation

 \circ Hidden variables interpretation to deal with assumed incompleteness of the quantum theory formalism

Non-locality and contextuality (Bell, Kochen–Specker) — these features of quantum mechanics are used to obtain quantum advantage over classical computational models in quantum computing.

Classical theory (quantities are real valued) \longrightarrow a quantisation of it,

but why should quantities be real valued?

Why should quantum probabilities be in $[0,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$?

Frauchiger-Renner: 'Quantum theory cannot consistently describe the use of itself'

Standard mathematics description of quantum theory assumes certain properties of space and/or time but the Planck scale hints otherwise!

Gisin: the need a better version of real numbers, for math with the absence of law of excluded middle, for math that can better incorporate indeterminant issues

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト

Classical theory (quantities are real valued) \longrightarrow a quantisation of it,

but why should quantities be real valued?

Why should quantum probabilities be in $[0,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$?

Frauchiger-Renner: 'Quantum theory cannot consistently describe the use of itself'

Standard mathematics description of quantum theory assumes certain properties of space and/or time but the Planck scale hints otherwise!

Gisin: the need a better version of real numbers, for math with the absence of law of excluded middle, for math that can better incorporate indeterminant issues

(a) < (a) < (b) < (b)

Classical theory (quantities are real valued) \longrightarrow a quantisation of it,

but why should quantities be real valued?

Why should quantum probabilities be in $[0,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$?

Frauchiger-Renner: 'Quantum theory cannot consistently describe the use of itself'

Standard mathematics description of quantum theory assumes certain properties of space and/or time but the Planck scale hints otherwise!

Gisin: the need a better version of real numbers, for math with the absence of law of excluded middle, for math that can better incorporate indeterminant issues

Classical theory (quantities are real valued) \longrightarrow a quantisation of it,

but why should quantities be real valued?

Why should quantum probabilities be in $[0,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$?

Frauchiger-Renner: 'Quantum theory cannot consistently describe the use of itself'

Standard mathematics description of quantum theory assumes certain properties of space and/or time but the Planck scale hints otherwise!

Gisin: the need a better version of real numbers, for math with the absence of law of excluded middle, for math that can better incorporate indeterminant issues

Topos theoretical approach to quantum theory

Isham–Döring's topos theoretical approach to quantum theory

builds locally on (the topos of presheaves of) commutative (hence classical) sub-algebras of

the algebra B(H) of all bounded operators on the quantum theory's Hilbert space.

Using topos theory leads to a reformulation of quantum theory which in several aspects looks like classical physics,

propositions can be given truth values without using concepts of measurement or external observer.

See the next talk!

It will be explained below in this talk that the topos theory looks in several aspects like sets theory.

A topos has an internal logical structure that is similar to the way in which Boolean algebra arises in set theory, but instead of two truth values 1 and 0, goes outside Boolean logic with truth values are in a larger set.

Topos theory is a math theory that can 'speak' of indeterminism.

Topos theoretical approach to quantum theory

Isham–Döring's topos theoretical approach to quantum theory

builds locally on (the topos of presheaves of) commutative (hence classical) sub-algebras of

the algebra B(H) of all bounded operators on the quantum theory's Hilbert space.

Using topos theory leads to a reformulation of quantum theory which in several aspects looks like classical physics,

propositions can be given truth values without using concepts of measurement or external observer.

See the next talk!

It will be explained below in this talk that the topos theory looks in several aspects like sets theory.

A topos has an internal logical structure that is similar to the way in which Boolean algebra arises in set theory, but instead of two truth values 1 and 0, goes outside Boolean logic with truth values are in a larger set.

Topos theory is a math theory that can 'speak' of indeterminism.

Categories and quantum theory and related theories

There are many texts about categories in quantum theory.

Category Theory for Programmers

Bartosz Milewski

Version 0.1, September 2017

0 🖲

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License (CC BY-SA 4.0).

Converted to LaTeX from a series of blog posts by Bartosz Milewski. PDF compiled by Igal Tabachnik.



Categories for Quantum Theory: An Introduction Chris Heunen and Jamie Vicary

ABSTRACT

Monoidal category theory serves as a powerful framework for discribule logical aspects of quantum theory, giving an abatrate language for parallel and sequential composition and a conceptual way to understand many high-level quantum phenomene. Here, we lay the foundations for this conjugated quantum matchings, within emphasism on the graphical catedata and fual adjects, and show how quantum toleportation can be studied abstrately using these structures. We investigate monoids, Probust structures an ... betwo = -

Keywords: Category, Quantum theory, Graphical calculus, Quantum teleportation, Compositionality, Higher categories, Tensor product, Hopf algebras, Frobenius algebras

・ロト ・ 同ト ・ ヨト ・

BIBLIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION Print publication date: 2019 Published to Oxford Scholarship Online: January 2020

Print ISBN-13: 9780198739623 DOI:10.1093/oso/9780198739623.001.0001

There are various theories, somewhere between mathematics and physics, such as string theory or topological quantum field theory or functional quantum field theory, which use categories.

nd in rldCat

It is interesting which of them are considered as physics by physicists.

Let's look at very basic things at the next 30 slides about sets, the category theory and topos theory in very general terms, emphasising key ideas and concepts, and the associated languages and visions.

Categories and quantum theory and related theories

There are many texts about categories in quantum theory.

Category Theory for Programmers

Bartosz Milewski

Version 0.1, September 2017

0 🖲

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License (CC BY-SA 4.0).

Converted to LaTeX from a series of blog posts by Bartosz Milewski. PDF compiled by Igal Tabachnik.



Categories for Quantum Theory: An Introduction Chris Heunen and Jamie Vicary

ABSTRACT

Monoidal category theory serves as a powerful framework for discribulg logical aspects of quantum theory, priving an abstrate language for parallel and sequential composition and a conseptial way to understanding and high-level quantum phenomene. Here, we lay the foundations for this categoried quantum meta-tiss, with an emphasism of the graphical categolas and full adjusts, and show how quantum teleportation can be studied abstrately using these structures. We investigate monoids, Probation structures an ... betwo = ∞

Keywords: Category, Quantum theory, Graphical calculus, Quantum teleportation, Compositionality, Higher categories, Tensor product, Hopf algebras, Frobenius algebras

<ロト < 同ト < ヨト < ヨ

BIBLIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION Print publication date: 2019 Published to Oxford Scholarship Online: January 2020

Print ISBN-13: 9780198739623 DOI:10.1093/oso/9780198739623.001.0001

There are various theories, somewhere between mathematics and physics, such as string theory or topological quantum field theory or functional quantum field theory, which use categories.

nd in rldCat

It is interesting which of them are considered as physics by physicists.

Let's look at very basic things at the next 30 slides about sets, the category theory and topos theory in very general terms, emphasising key ideas and concepts, and the associated languages and visions.

Categories and quantum theory and related theories

There are many texts about categories in quantum theory.

Category Theory for Programmers

Bartosz Milewski

Version 0.1, September 2017

0 🖲

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International License (CC BY-SA 4.0).

Converted to LaTeX from a series of blog posts by Bartosz Milewski. PDF compiled by Igal Tabachnik.



Categories for Quantum Theory: An Introduction Chris Heunen and Jamie Vicary

ABSTRACT

Monoidal category theory serves as a powerful framework for discribulg logical aspects of quantum theory, priving an abstrate language for parallel and sequential composition and a conseptial way to understanding and high-level quantum phenomene. Here, we lay the foundations for this categoried quantum meta-tiss, with an emphasism of the graphical categolas and full adjusts, and show how quantum teleportation can be studied abstrately using these structures. We investigate monoids, Probation structures an ... betwo = ∞

Keywords: Category, Quantum theory, Graphical calculus, Quantum teleportation, Compositionality, Higher categories, Tensor product, Hopf algebras, Frobenius algebras

イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

BIBLIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION Print publication date: 2019 Published to Oxford Scholarship Online: January 2020

Print ISBN-13: 9780198739623 DOI:10.1093/oso/9780198739623.001.0001

There are various theories, somewhere between mathematics and physics, such as string theory or topological quantum field theory or functional quantum field theory, which use categories.

nd in rldCat

It is interesting which of them are considered as physics by physicists.

Let's look at very basic things at the next 30 slides about sets, the category theory and topos theory in very general terms, emphasising key ideas and concepts, and the associated languages and visions.

The vision of categories

Categories formalise certain structures and conceptual frameworks which show up, in different incarnations, in math areas of

- algebraic topology,
- homotopy theory,
- homological algebra,
- number theory,
- various kinds of geometry,
- ∘ analysis,
- algebraic K-theory,
- higher class field theory,
- motives,
- higher adelic theory,
- ο IUT,
- o logic,
- model theory.

Categories is not just a language, it is a new conceptual vision on things in mathematics.

・ロト ・日 ・ ・ ヨト ・

The vision of categories

Categories formalise certain structures and conceptual frameworks which show up, in different incarnations, in math areas of

- algebraic topology,
- homotopy theory,
- homological algebra,
- number theory,
- o various kinds of geometry,
- ∘ analysis,
- algebraic K-theory,
- higher class field theory,
- motives,
- higher adelic theory,
- ο IUT,
- ∘ logic,
- \circ model theory.

Categories is not just a language, it is a new conceptual vision on things in mathematics.

・ロト ・ 同ト ・ ヨト ・

The vision of categories

Categories formalise certain structures and conceptual frameworks which show up, in different incarnations, in math areas of

- algebraic topology,
- homotopy theory,
- homological algebra,
- number theory,
- o various kinds of geometry,
- ∘ analysis,
- algebraic K-theory,
- higher class field theory,
- motives,
- $\circ\,$ higher adelic theory,
- ο IUT,
- logic,
- model theory.

Categories is not just a language, it is a new conceptual vision on things in mathematics.

Some contributors

In the 1940s Eilenberg and Mac Lane developed category theory to provide clearer structural approach to algebraic topology and to build bridges between algebra and topology.

Since the mid 1950s Grothendieck further developed category theory and its applications in numerous directions.

Lawvere, 1958: 'I liked experimental physics but did not appreciate the imprecise reasoning in some theoretical courses ... So I decided to study mathematics first ... Categories would clearly be important for simplifying the foundations of continuum physics'

<ロト < 同ト < ヨト < ヨ

Some contributors

In the 1940s Eilenberg and Mac Lane developed category theory to provide clearer structural approach to algebraic topology and to build bridges between algebra and topology.

Since the mid 1950s Grothendieck further developed category theory and its applications in numerous directions.

Lawvere, 1958: 'I liked experimental physics but did not appreciate the imprecise reasoning in some theoretical courses ... So I decided to study mathematics first ... Categories would clearly be important for simplifying the foundations of continuum physics'

Some contributors

In the 1940s Eilenberg and Mac Lane developed category theory to provide clearer structural approach to algebraic topology and to build bridges between algebra and topology.

Since the mid 1950s Grothendieck further developed category theory and its applications in numerous directions.

Lawvere, 1958: 'I liked experimental physics but did not appreciate the imprecise reasoning in some theoretical courses ... So I decided to study mathematics first ... Categories would clearly be important for simplifying the foundations of continuum physics'

イロト イヨト イヨト

Sets can be studied

o internally, by looking at their subsets, or

o externally, by looking at the relations to other sets.

A relation of one set to another set is a map f from one set A to another set B. One can represent this map as an arrow $f: A \rightarrow B$.

For example,

the image f(A) is a subset of the set B, the preimage $f^{-1}(b)$ of an element $b \in B$ is a subset of A.

The two studies of sets are closely related to each other.

For example, every subset R of a set S uniquely corresponds to a map f_R from S to the set of two elements $\{1,0\}$:

 $f_R(s) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{when } s \in R \ 0 & ext{when } s
otin R \end{cases}$

	Ivan	Fesenko
--	------	---------

Sets can be studied

- o internally, by looking at their subsets, or
- o externally, by looking at the relations to other sets.

A relation of one set to another set is a map f from one set A to another set B. One can represent this map as an arrow $f: A \rightarrow B$.

For example, the image f(A) is a subset of the set B, the preimage $f^{-1}(b)$ of an element $b \in B$ is a subset of A.

The two studies of sets are closely related to each other.

For example, every subset R of a set S uniquely corresponds to a map f_R from S to the set of two elements $\{1,0\}$:

 $f_R(s) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{when } s \in R \ 0 & ext{when } s
otin R \end{cases}$

<ロト < 回 > < 回 > < 三 > < 三 > 三 三

Sets can be studied

- o internally, by looking at their subsets, or
- externally, by looking at the relations to other sets.

A relation of one set to another set is a map f from one set A to another set B. One can represent this map as an arrow $f: A \rightarrow B$.

For example,

the image f(A) is a subset of the set B, the preimage $f^{-1}(b)$ of an element $b \in B$ is a subset of A.

The two studies of sets are closely related to each other.

For example, every subset R of a set S uniquely corresponds to a map f_R from S to the set of two elements $\{1,0\}$:

 $f_R(s) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{when } s \in R \ 0 & ext{when } s
otin R \end{cases}$

▲ロト ▲御ト ▲ヨト ▲ヨト ニヨー わへで

Sets can be studied

- o internally, by looking at their subsets, or
- externally, by looking at the relations to other sets.

A relation of one set to another set is a map f from one set A to another set B. One can represent this map as an arrow $f: A \rightarrow B$.

For example,

the image f(A) is a subset of the set B, the preimage $f^{-1}(b)$ of an element $b \in B$ is a subset of A.

The two studies of sets are closely related to each other.

For example, every subset R of a set S uniquely corresponds to a map f_R from S to the set of two elements $\{1,0\}$:

 $f_R(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } s \in R \\ 0 & \text{when } s \notin R \end{cases}$

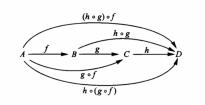
▲ロ ▶ ▲周 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ● の Q @

Sets

In the external study, one can compose maps: for $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ one has the composite map $g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$.

There is the *associativity* property for compositions of maps $f: A \rightarrow B$, $g: B \rightarrow C$, $h: C \rightarrow D$:

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$



(日)

For each set A there exists an identity map $1_A : A \to A$ which satisfies the (external) properties: for every map $g : A \to B$ we have $g \circ 1_A = g$ and for every map $h : C \to A$ we have $1_A \circ h = h$.

For every set A all maps from A to A form a monoid Mor(A, A).

・ロト ・ 同ト ・ ヨト ・

For each set A there exists an identity map $1_A : A \to A$ which satisfies the (external) properties:

for every map $g: A \to B$ we have $g \circ 1_A = g$ and for every map $h: C \to A$ we have $1_A \circ h = h$.

For every set A all maps from A to A form a monoid Mor(A, A).

イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

A category generalises this.

Definition. A category consists of *objects* A, B, ... and *morphisms* (or arrows) between the objects, so that

 \circ for every morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ one has the composite morphism $g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$

• the associativity property for compositions of morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$, $g: B \rightarrow C$, $h: C \rightarrow D$ holds:

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$

• for every object A there is an identity morphism 1_A (the properties as above).

Thus, Example 1 of a category is the category **Set** of sets and maps between them.

Categorical point of view is not to pay attention to what the objects and arrows are, but to what patterns of arrows exist between the objects

A category generalises this.

Definition. A category consists of *objects* A, B, ... and *morphisms* (or arrows) between the objects, so that

 \circ for every morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ one has the composite morphism $g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$

 \circ the associativity property for compositions of morphisms $f: A \to B$, $g: B \to C$, $h: C \to D$ holds:

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$

• for every object A there is an identity morphism 1_A (the properties as above).

Thus, Example 1 of a category is the category Set of sets and maps between them.

Categorical point of view is not to pay attention to what the objects and arrows are, but to what patterns of arrows exist between the objects

A category generalises this.

Definition. A category consists of *objects* A, B, ... and *morphisms* (or arrows) between the objects, so that

 \circ for every morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ one has the composite morphism $g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$

• the associativity property for compositions of morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$, $g: B \rightarrow C$, $h: C \rightarrow D$ holds:

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$

 \circ for every object A there is an identity morphism 1_A (the properties as above).

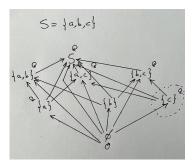
Thus, Example 1 of a category is the category Set of sets and maps between them.

Categorical point of view is not to pay attention to what the objects and arrows are, but to what patterns of arrows exist between the objects

Dots and arrows, to represent categories

 $S = \{a, b\}$ 1630 Jaco



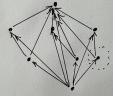


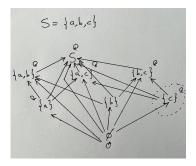
990

(日)

Dots and arrows, to represent categories

 $S = \{a, b\}$ 1630 Jaco





a category not corresponding to any set

999

(日) (四) (三) (三)

Example 2 of a category is in line with internal study, it is the category **Set**_S of all *subsets* R of a given set S and inclusions between them.

We write $R \subseteq S$ for such subsets. Subsets include the empty set \emptyset and the set S.

Morphisms are maps between them, which are inclusions of sets: $R \subseteq T$ with R and T subsets of S.

Subsets are partially ordered with respect to inclusion.

In general, they are not fully ordered since there can be subsets R, T none of which is a subset of the other set.

・ロト ・ 四ト ・ ヨト ・ ヨ

Example 2 of a category is in line with internal study, it is the category Set_S of all *subsets* R of a given set S and inclusions between them.

We write $R \subseteq S$ for such subsets. Subsets include the empty set \emptyset and the set S.

Morphisms are maps between them, which are inclusions of sets: $R \subseteq T$ with R and T subsets of S.

Subsets are partially ordered with respect to inclusion.

In general, they are not fully ordered since there can be subsets R, T none of which is a subset of the other set.

For two subsets R, T of S we have operations of intersection $R \cap T$ (it can be called the infimum of R and T) and union $R \cup T$ (it can be called the supremum of R and T).

They satisfy the *distributive* property:

 $R \cap (T \cup Q) = (R \cap T) \cup (R \cap Q), \qquad R \cup (T \cap Q) = (R \cup T) \cap (R \cup Q).$

They form a distributive lattice.

イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

For two subsets R, T of S we have operations of intersection $R \cap T$ (it can be called the infimum of R and T) and union $R \cup T$ (it can be called the supremum of R and T).

They satisfy the *distributive* property:

 $R \cap (T \cup Q) = (R \cap T) \cup (R \cap Q), \qquad R \cup (T \cap Q) = (R \cup T) \cap (R \cup Q).$

They form a distributive lattice.

For two subsets R, T of S we have operations of intersection $R \cap T$ (it can be called the infimum of R and T) and union $R \cup T$ (it can be called the supremum of R and T).

They satisfy the *distributive* property:

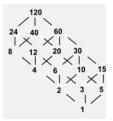
 $R \cap (T \cup Q) = (R \cap T) \cup (R \cap Q), \qquad R \cup (T \cap Q) = (R \cup T) \cap (R \cup Q).$

They form a distributive lattice.

Every subset R of S also has its complement in S: $S \setminus R$, sometimes denoted $\neg R$, so

 $R \cup \neg R = S$, $R \cap \neg R = \emptyset$.

The lattice of subsets is a *Heyting algebra*.

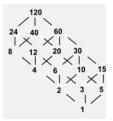


・ロト ・ 四 ト ・ ヨ ト ・

Every subset R of S also has its complement in S: $S \setminus R$, sometimes denoted $\neg R$, so

 $R \cup \neg R = S$, $R \cap \neg R = \emptyset$.

The lattice of subsets is a Heyting algebra.



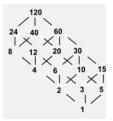
・ロト ・ 四 ト ・ ヨ ト ・

Fesen	

Every subset R of S also has its complement in S: $S \setminus R$, sometimes denoted $\neg R$, so

 $R \cup \neg R = S$, $R \cap \neg R = \emptyset$.

The lattice of subsets is a Heyting algebra.



・ロト ・ 四 ト ・ ヨ ト ・

Fesen	

Example 3 is the category $FSet_S$ of all finite subsets of a fixed set S and inclusions between them.

In this category the union of infinitely many objects is not necessarily an object of this category, and generally finite subsets do not have their complements in the same category.

Example 4 is the category $ZSet_S$ of all subsets containing almost all elements of a fixed set S and inclusions between them.

In this category the intersection of infinitely many objects is not necessarily an object of this category, and generally such subsets do not have their complements in the same category.

Example 3 is the category $FSet_S$ of all finite subsets of a fixed set S and inclusions between them.

In this category the union of infinitely many objects is not necessarily an object of this category, and generally finite subsets do not have their complements in the same category.

Example 4 is the category $ZSet_S$ of all subsets containing almost all elements of a fixed set S and inclusions between them.

In this category the intersection of infinitely many objects is not necessarily an object of this category, and generally such subsets do not have their complements in the same category.

イロト イ押ト イヨト イヨト

Suppose that S has a *topology*, i.e. it is a set S with a class of *open subsets*, including S and \emptyset , such that

the intersection of any two open subsets is open and

the union of finitely or infinitely many open subsets is open.

In particular, one can work with the

discrete topology on S in which every subset is open, or with

the (Zariski) topology in which open subsets are those which contain almost all elements.

Example 5 is more geometric: the category \mathbf{Set}_{S}^{T} of all open subsets of a fixed set S with respect to its topology and inclusions between them.

In this category we can define eg U as the interior (the maximal open subset) of $S \setminus U$.

Then $U \cup \neg U$ is generally different from S, so no law of excluded middle holds here.

イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

Suppose that S has a *topology*, i.e. it is a set S with a class of *open subsets*, including S and \emptyset , such that

the intersection of any two open subsets is open and

the union of finitely or infinitely many open subsets is open.

In particular, one can work with the

discrete topology on S in which every subset is open, or with

the (Zariski) topology in which open subsets are those which contain almost all elements.

Example 5 is more geometric: the category \mathbf{Set}_{S}^{t} of all open subsets of a fixed set S with respect to its topology and inclusions between them.

In this category we can define eg U as the interior (the maximal open subset) of $S \setminus U.$

Then $U \cup \neg U$ is generally different from S, so no law of excluded middle holds here.

Suppose that S has a *topology*, i.e. it is a set S with a class of *open subsets*, including S and \emptyset , such that

the intersection of any two open subsets is open and

the union of finitely or infinitely many open subsets is open.

In particular, one can work with the

discrete topology on S in which every subset is open, or with

the (Zariski) topology in which open subsets are those which contain almost all elements.

Example 5 is more geometric: the category \mathbf{Set}_{S}^{T} of all open subsets of a fixed set S with respect to its topology and inclusions between them.

In this category we can define $\neg U$ as the interior (the maximal open subset) of $S \setminus U$.

Then $U \cup \neg U$ is generally different from S, so no law of excluded middle holds here.

Suppose that S has a *topology*, i.e. it is a set S with a class of *open subsets*, including S and \emptyset , such that

the intersection of any two open subsets is open and

the union of finitely or infinitely many open subsets is open.

In particular, one can work with the

discrete topology on S in which every subset is open, or with

the (Zariski) topology in which open subsets are those which contain almost all elements.

Example 5 is more geometric: the category \mathbf{Set}_{S}^{T} of all open subsets of a fixed set S with respect to its topology and inclusions between them.

In this category we can define $\neg U$ as the interior (the maximal open subset) of $S \setminus U$.

Then $U \cup \neg U$ is generally different from S, so no law of excluded middle holds here.

Example 6 is even more geometric: the category **TSet** of topological spaces with continuous maps as morphisms.

A map $f: S \to T$ is called continuous if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in S for every open U in T.

We can operate with topological spaces using geometric intuition and continuity.

Further examples of categories come from situations when a group K acts on objects, i.e. there are monoid homomorphisms $K \to Mor(R)$ for every object R.

Many more important examples ...

For every category one has its opposite category which has the same objects and reversed arrows.

Example 6 is even more geometric: the category **TSet** of topological spaces with continuous maps as morphisms.

A map $f: S \to T$ is called continuous if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in S for every open U in T.

We can operate with topological spaces using geometric intuition and continuity.

Further examples of categories come from situations when a group K acts on objects, i.e. there are monoid homomorphisms $K \to Mor(R)$ for every object R.

Many more important examples ...

For every category one has its opposite category which has the same objects and reversed arrows.

Example 6 is even more geometric: the category **TSet** of topological spaces with continuous maps as morphisms.

A map $f: S \to T$ is called continuous if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in S for every open U in T.

We can operate with topological spaces using geometric intuition and continuity.

Further examples of categories come from situations when a group K acts on objects, i.e. there are monoid homomorphisms $K \to Mor(R)$ for every object R.

Many more important examples ...

For every category one has its opposite category which has the same objects and reversed arrows.

Example 6 is even more geometric: the category **TSet** of topological spaces with continuous maps as morphisms.

A map $f: S \to T$ is called continuous if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in S for every open U in T.

We can operate with topological spaces using geometric intuition and continuity.

Further examples of categories come from situations when a group K acts on objects, i.e. there are monoid homomorphisms $K \to Mor(R)$ for every object R.

Many more important examples ...

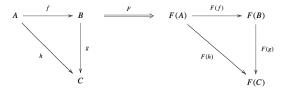
For every category one has its opposite category which has the same objects and reversed arrows.

To compare categories (external study) one needs kind of generalisation of a function. It is called a functor.

Definition. A (covariant) *functor* F from a category \mathscr{C} to a category \mathscr{D} is a map which associates to every objects A of \mathscr{C} an object F(A) of \mathscr{D} and to every morphism $f: A \to B$ in \mathscr{C} a morphism $F(f): F(A) \to F(B)$ in \mathscr{D}

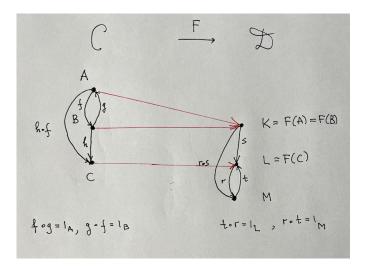
such that $F(1_A) = 1_{F(A)}$ and $F(g \circ f) = F(g) \circ F(f)$.

The latter property can be presented by a picture:



イロト イヨト イヨト

Example



5900

◆ロト ◆聞ト ◆臣ト ◆臣

Contravariant function is similar but reverses arrows and composition, i.e. $F(f): F(B) \to F(A)$ and $F(g \circ f) = F(f) \circ F(g)$

Example of a functor from a category $\mathscr C$ to itself: $1_{\mathscr C}$ sends each object to itself and each morphism to itself.

Another example is a forgetful functor: e.g. the functor from **TSet** to **Set** which forgets the topology.

The composition of functors is a functor.

Contravariant function is similar but reverses arrows and composition, i.e. $F(f): F(B) \to F(A)$ and $F(g \circ f) = F(f) \circ F(g)$

Example of a functor from a category $\mathscr C$ to itself: $1_{\mathscr C}$ sends each object to itself and each morphism to itself.

Another example is a forgetful functor: e.g. the functor from **TSet** to **Set** which forgets the topology.

The composition of functors is a functor.

Contravariant function is similar but reverses arrows and composition, i.e. $F(f): F(B) \to F(A)$ and $F(g \circ f) = F(f) \circ F(g)$

Example of a functor from a category $\mathscr C$ to itself: $1_{\mathscr C}$ sends each object to itself and each morphism to itself.

Another example is a forgetful functor: e.g. the functor from \mathbf{TSet} to \mathbf{Set} which forgets the topology.

The composition of functors is a functor.

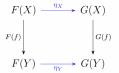
◆ロト ◆聞ト ◆注ト ◆注ト

One also wants to compare functors (external study)

Definition. Let F, G be functors from a category \mathscr{C} to a category \mathscr{D} . A *natural transformation* from F to G is a collection η of morphisms $\eta_X : F(X) \to G(X)$ for every object X of \mathscr{C} such that for every morphism $f : X \to Y$ in \mathscr{C} we have

 $\eta_Y \circ F(f) = G(f) \circ \eta_X,$

i.e. the following *diagram* of morphisms is *commutative*:



▲ロト ▲圖ト ▲ヨト ▲ヨト ニヨー のへで

Definition. A morphism $f: A \to B$ of a category \mathscr{C} is called an *isomorphism* if there is a morphism $g: B \to A$ such that $g \circ f = 1_A$ and $f \circ g = 1_B$.

In this situation the objects A and B are called *isomorphic*.

Definition. The category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$ of functors from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} has objects which are functors and morphisms which are natural transformations between the functors.

Definition. A natural transformation η from a functor F to a functor G, from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} , is called a natural isomorphism if it is an isomorphism in the category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$. This is the same as to ask that $\eta_X : F(X) \to G(X)$ is an isomorphism for every object X of \mathscr{C} .

In this situation the functors F and G are called *naturally isomorphic*.

Definition. Two categories \mathscr{C} and \mathscr{D} are called *equivalent* (not the same is isomorphic in the category of categories!) if there are functors $F \colon \mathscr{C} \to \mathscr{D}$ and $G \colon \mathscr{D} \to \mathscr{C}$ such that the functor $G \circ F$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$ and the functor $F \circ G$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$.

Definition. A morphism $f: A \to B$ of a category \mathscr{C} is called an *isomorphism* if there is a morphism $g: B \to A$ such that $g \circ f = 1_A$ and $f \circ g = 1_B$.

In this situation the objects A and B are called *isomorphic*.

Definition. The category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$ of functors from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} has objects which are functors and morphisms which are natural transformations between the functors.

Definition. A natural transformation η from a functor F to a functor G, from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} , is called a natural isomorphism if it is an isomorphism in the category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$. This is the same as to ask that $\eta_X : F(X) \to G(X)$ is an isomorphism for every object X of \mathscr{C} .

In this situation the functors F and G are called *naturally isomorphic*.

Definition. Two categories \mathscr{C} and \mathscr{D} are called *equivalent* (not the same is isomorphic in the category of categories!) if there are functors $F: \mathscr{C} \to \mathscr{D}$ and $G: \mathscr{D} \to \mathscr{C}$ such that the functor $G \circ F$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$ and the functor $F \circ G$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$.

Definition. A morphism $f: A \to B$ of a category \mathscr{C} is called an *isomorphism* if there is a morphism $g: B \to A$ such that $g \circ f = 1_A$ and $f \circ g = 1_B$.

In this situation the objects A and B are called *isomorphic*.

Definition. The category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$ of functors from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} has objects which are functors and morphisms which are natural transformations between the functors.

Definition. A natural transformation η from a functor F to a functor G, from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} , is called a natural isomorphism if it is an isomorphism in the category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$. This is the same as to ask that $\eta_X : F(X) \to G(X)$ is an isomorphism for every object X of \mathscr{C} .

In this situation the functors F and G are called *naturally isomorphic*.

Definition. Two categories \mathscr{C} and \mathscr{D} are called *equivalent* (not the same is isomorphic in the category of categories!) if there are functors $F : \mathscr{C} \to \mathscr{D}$ and $G : \mathscr{D} \to \mathscr{C}$ such that the functor $G \circ F$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$ and the functor $F \circ G$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$.

Definition. A morphism $f: A \to B$ of a category \mathscr{C} is called an *isomorphism* if there is a morphism $g: B \to A$ such that $g \circ f = 1_A$ and $f \circ g = 1_B$.

In this situation the objects A and B are called *isomorphic*.

Definition. The category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$ of functors from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} has objects which are functors and morphisms which are natural transformations between the functors.

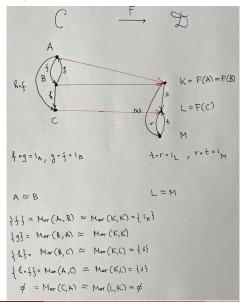
Definition. A natural transformation η from a functor F to a functor G, from \mathscr{C} to \mathscr{D} , is called a natural isomorphism if it is an isomorphism in the category $\mathscr{D}^{\mathscr{C}}$. This is the same as to ask that $\eta_X : F(X) \to G(X)$ is an isomorphism for every object X of \mathscr{C} .

In this situation the functors F and G are called *naturally isomorphic*.

Definition. Two categories \mathscr{C} and \mathscr{D} are called *equivalent* (not the same is isomorphic in the category of categories!) if there are functors $F : \mathscr{C} \to \mathscr{D}$ and $G : \mathscr{D} \to \mathscr{C}$ such that the functor $G \circ F$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{C}}$ and the functor $F \circ G$ is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor $1_{\mathscr{D}}$.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト 三日

Example of equivalent categories



▶ < ≣ ▶ <

The elementary theory of the category of sets by Lawvere is an axiomatic formulation of set theory in a category-theoretic spirit.

Lawvere was interested in set theory not be based on membership but on isomorphism-invariant structure and universal mapping properties

He provided a purely categorical description for the category of sets.

イロト イヨト イヨト

The elementary theory of the category of sets by Lawvere is an axiomatic formulation of set theory in a category-theoretic spirit.

Lawvere was interested in set theory not be based on membership but on isomorphism-invariant structure and universal mapping properties

He provided a purely categorical description for the category of sets.

The notion of topos was introduced in the early sixties by Grothendieck with the original first aim of bringing a topological or geometric intuition also in parts of number theory where actual topological spaces do not occur.

Grothendieck invented topos theory as part of his approach to prove the Weil conjectures in number theory.

He realised that many important properties of topological spaces X can be naturally formulated as properties of the categories Sh(X) of sheaves of sets on the spaces.

At the same time, $X \to Sh(X)$ is an embedding of continuous structures into categories which are discrete structures.

Topos theory helped to define étale site and étale cohomology, with enormous applications in geometry and number theory.

This was later used in Deligne's proof of the generalised Riemann hypothesis in algebraic geometry over finite fields.

・ ロ ト ・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・

The notion of topos was introduced in the early sixties by Grothendieck with the original first aim of bringing a topological or geometric intuition also in parts of number theory where actual topological spaces do not occur.

Grothendieck invented topos theory as part of his approach to prove the Weil conjectures in number theory.

He realised that many important properties of topological spaces X can be naturally formulated as properties of the categories Sh(X) of sheaves of sets on the spaces.

At the same time, $X \to Sh(X)$ is an embedding of continuous structures into categories which are discrete structures.

Topos theory helped to define étale site and étale cohomology, with enormous applications in geometry and number theory.

This was later used in Deligne's proof of the generalised Riemann hypothesis in algebraic geometry over finite fields.

The notion of topos was introduced in the early sixties by Grothendieck with the original first aim of bringing a topological or geometric intuition also in parts of number theory where actual topological spaces do not occur.

Grothendieck invented topos theory as part of his approach to prove the Weil conjectures in number theory.

He realised that many important properties of topological spaces X can be naturally formulated as properties of the categories Sh(X) of sheaves of sets on the spaces.

At the same time, $X \to Sh(X)$ is an embedding of continuous structures into categories which are discrete structures.

Topos theory helped to define étale site and étale cohomology, with enormous applications in geometry and number theory.

This was later used in Deligne's proof of the generalised Riemann hypothesis in algebraic geometry over finite fields.

The crucial unifying notion of topos is to provide the common geometric intuition for many areas of mathematics and to connect continuous with discrete.

L. Lafforgue: 'The common house of the continuous and the discrete is topos theory'

Grothendieck: 'We can consider that the new geometry is, above all, a synthesis between these two worlds, which until then had been adjoining and closely interdependent, but yet separate: the "arithmetic" world, in which "spaces" without a principle of continuity live, and the world of continuous quantity. In the new vision, these two formerly separate worlds become one.'

イロト イヨト イヨト イ

The crucial unifying notion of topos is to provide the common geometric intuition for many areas of mathematics and to connect continuous with discrete.

L. Lafforgue: 'The common house of the continuous and the discrete is topos theory'

Grothendieck: 'We can consider that the new geometry is, above all, a synthesis between these two worlds, which until then had been adjoining and closely interdependent, but yet separate: the "arithmetic" world, in which "spaces" without a principle of continuity live, and the world of continuous quantity. In the new vision, these two formerly separate worlds become one.'

<ロト < 同ト < ヨト < ヨ

He defined a topos as a certain category of sheaves, by introducing an abstract notion of covering and replacing the topological space X by a site (C, J) consisting of a (small) category C and a Grothendieck's topology (a generalized notion of covering) J on it.

A Grothendieck topos is any category equivalent to the category of sheaves on a site.

A topos has various features similar to the category of sets.

However, unlike sets, the law of excluded middle does not need to hold in a topos.

Statements about a topos are not necessarily either true or false, they can be true somewhere and false somewhere.

Somehow similar to a quantisation of a classical physical theory, constructions in topos theory can often be understood by looking at them in the category of sets or geometrical categories first and then lifting to the general case.

イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

He defined a topos as a certain category of sheaves, by introducing an abstract notion of covering and replacing the topological space X by a site (C, J) consisting of a (small) category C and a Grothendieck's topology (a generalized notion of covering) J on it.

A Grothendieck topos is any category equivalent to the category of sheaves on a site.

A topos has various features similar to the category of sets.

However, unlike sets, the law of excluded middle does not need to hold in a topos.

Statements about a topos are not necessarily either true or false, they can be true somewhere and false somewhere.

Somehow similar to a quantisation of a classical physical theory, constructions in topos theory can often be understood by looking at them in the category of sets or geometrical categories first and then lifting to the general case.

He defined a topos as a certain category of sheaves, by introducing an abstract notion of covering and replacing the topological space X by a site (C, J) consisting of a (small) category C and a Grothendieck's topology (a generalized notion of covering) J on it.

A Grothendieck topos is any category equivalent to the category of sheaves on a site.

A topos has various features similar to the category of sets.

However, unlike sets, the law of excluded middle does not need to hold in a topos.

Statements about a topos are not necessarily either true or false, they can be true somewhere and false somewhere.

Somehow similar to a quantisation of a classical physical theory, constructions in topos theory can often be understood by looking at them in the category of sets or geometrical categories first and then lifting to the general case.

Definition. Elementary topos (or topos) is a category with finite limits and colimits, exponentials, and a subobject classifier.

In particular, topos has

- o an initial object (in Set this is the empty set),
- o a terminal object (in Set this is the ambient set),
- o products (in Set this is the Cartesian product of two sets) and

coproducts (in Set this is the disjoint union of two sets).

In particular, in topos for every two objects A and B there is an object B^A (in **Set** this is the set of maps from A to B).

The subject classifier C in **Set** is the two element set $\{1,0\}$ corresponding to true and false.

In an arbitrary topos, subobjects of A correspond to morphisms from A to C.

Definition. Elementary topos (or topos) is a category with finite limits and colimits, exponentials, and a subobject classifier.

In particular, topos has

- o an initial object (in Set this is the empty set),
- o a terminal object (in Set this is the ambient set),
- o products (in Set this is the Cartesian product of two sets) and

• coproducts (in **Set** this is the disjoint union of two sets).

In particular, in topos for every two objects A and B there is an object B^A (in **Set** this is the set of maps from A to B).

The subject classifier C in **Set** is the two element set $\{1,0\}$ corresponding to true and false.

In an arbitrary topos, subobjects of A correspond to morphisms from A to C.

Examples of an elementary topos:

• Set,

 \circ *K*-**Set** where *K* is a group,

 \circ Topos of sheaves on a topological space (in the first approximation, think of functions on open subsets, appropriately glued), for example:

the sheaf of regular functions on a variety

the sheaf of differentiable functions on a differentiable manifold

the sheaf of holomorphic functions on a complex manifold

the sheaf of continuous real-valued functions on any topological space

Examples of an elementary topos:

• Set,

\circ *K*-**Set** where *K* is a group,

 \circ Topos of sheaves on a topological space (in the first approximation, think of functions on open subsets, appropriately glued), for example:

the sheaf of regular functions on a variety

the sheaf of differentiable functions on a differentiable manifold

the sheaf of holomorphic functions on a complex manifold

the sheaf of continuous real-valued functions on any topological space

Examples of an elementary topos:

• Set,

 \circ *K*-**Set** where *K* is a group,

 \circ Topos of sheaves on a topological space (in the first approximation, think of functions on open subsets, appropriately glued), for example:

the sheaf of regular functions on a variety

the sheaf of differentiable functions on a differentiable manifold

the sheaf of holomorphic functions on a complex manifold

the sheaf of continuous real-valued functions on any topological space

イロト イ押ト イヨト イヨト

More examples:

 \circ Topos of presheaves on an arbitrary category $\mathscr C$, i.e. the topos of contravariant functors from $\mathscr C$ to **Set**, where morphisms are natural transformations between the functors.

 \circ Topos of sets living in time: objects are sets A(t) for any time t in the studied interval and maps are $A(t_1) \rightarrow A(t_2)$ for $t_1 \leq t_2$.

Lawvere describes objects in a topos as continuously variable sets while classical set theory treats the special case of constant sets.

More examples:

 \circ Topos of presheaves on an arbitrary category $\mathscr C$, i.e. the topos of contravariant functors from $\mathscr C$ to **Set**, where morphisms are natural transformations between the functors.

 \circ Topos of sets living in time: objects are sets A(t) for any time t in the studied interval and maps are $A(t_1) \rightarrow A(t_2)$ for $t_1 \leq t_2$.

Lawvere describes objects in a topos as continuously variable sets while classical set theory treats the special case of constant sets.

More examples:

 \circ Topos of presheaves on an arbitrary category $\mathscr C$, i.e. the topos of contravariant functors from $\mathscr C$ to **Set**, where morphisms are natural transformations between the functors.

 \circ Topos of sets living in time: objects are sets A(t) for any time t in the studied interval and maps are $A(t_1) \rightarrow A(t_2)$ for $t_1 \leq t_2$.

Lawvere describes objects in a topos as continuously variable sets while classical set theory treats the special case of constant sets.

イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

Each Grothendieck topos is an elementary topos, but the converse property is false: e.g. the category of finite sets, and the category of finite K-sets is an elementary topos but not a Grothendieck topos.

The natural notion of morphism in topos theory is that of geometric morphism. The natural notion of morphism of geometric morphisms if that of geometric transformation.

A global point of a topos T is defined as a geometric morphism from the topos **Set** to the topos T.

There are topoi/toposes which do not have global points.

The non-existence of classical explanations for quantum phenomena somehow corresponds to the non-existence of global sections.

イロト イヨト イヨト イ

Each Grothendieck topos is an elementary topos, but the converse property is false: e.g. the category of finite sets, and the category of finite K-sets is an elementary topos but not a Grothendieck topos.

The natural notion of morphism in topos theory is that of geometric morphism. The natural notion of morphism of geometric morphisms if that of geometric transformation.

A global point of a topos T is defined as a geometric morphism from the topos **Set** to the topos T.

There are topoi/toposes which do not have global points.

The non-existence of classical explanations for quantum phenomena somehow corresponds to the non-existence of global sections.

イロト イヨト イヨト イ

Each Grothendieck topos is an elementary topos, but the converse property is false: e.g. the category of finite sets, and the category of finite K-sets is an elementary topos but not a Grothendieck topos.

The natural notion of morphism in topos theory is that of geometric morphism. The natural notion of morphism of geometric morphisms if that of geometric transformation.

A global point of a topos T is defined as a geometric morphism from the topos **Set** to the topos T.

There are topoi/toposes which do not have global points.

The non-existence of classical explanations for quantum phenomena somehow corresponds to the non-existence of global sections.

Each Grothendieck topos is an elementary topos, but the converse property is false: e.g. the category of finite sets, and the category of finite K-sets is an elementary topos but not a Grothendieck topos.

The natural notion of morphism in topos theory is that of geometric morphism. The natural notion of morphism of geometric morphisms if that of geometric transformation.

A global point of a topos T is defined as a geometric morphism from the topos **Set** to the topos T.

There are topoi/toposes which do not have global points.

The non-existence of classical explanations for quantum phenomena somehow corresponds to the non-existence of global sections.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト

No quantities show up in category theory and topos theory.

What matters is the form of a category and its structure.

The notion of a geometric morphism in topos theory has allowed to build general cohomology theories which cannot be otherwise produced.

Homotopy-theoretic invariants such as the étale fundamental group, playing the key role in anabelian geometry, can be defined as topos invarants.

・ロト ・ 何 ト ・ ヨ ト ・

No quantities show up in category theory and topos theory.

What matters is the form of a category and its structure.

The notion of a geometric morphism in topos theory has allowed to build general cohomology theories which cannot be otherwise produced.

Homotopy-theoretic invariants such as the étale fundamental group, playing the key role in anabelian geometry, can be defined as topos invarants.

<ロト < 同ト < ヨト < ヨ

Developments

Caramello's recent theory of topos-theoretic 'bridges', which is a general theory of relations between the contents of different mathematical theories.

It uses topos theory to relate and unify mathematics theories and construct 'bridges' between them.

The work of Caramello and L. Lafforgue in using topos theory in various directions https://www.oliviacaramello.com/Papers/Papers.htm https://www.laurentlafforgue.org/publications.html

Applying topos theory in computer science, see e.g. https://aroundtoposes.com/toposesonline/

Developments

Caramello's recent theory of topos-theoretic 'bridges', which is a general theory of relations between the contents of different mathematical theories.

It uses topos theory to relate and unify mathematics theories and construct 'bridges' between them.

The work of Caramello and L. Lafforgue in using topos theory in various directions https://www.oliviacaramello.com/Papers/Papers.htm https://www.laurentlafforgue.org/publications.html

Applying topos theory in computer science, see e.g. https://aroundtoposes.com/toposesonline/

Developments

Caramello's recent theory of topos-theoretic 'bridges', which is a general theory of relations between the contents of different mathematical theories.

It uses topos theory to relate and unify mathematics theories and construct 'bridges' between them.

The work of Caramello and L. Lafforgue in using topos theory in various directions https://www.oliviacaramello.com/Papers/Papers.htm https://www.laurentlafforgue.org/publications.html

Applying topos theory in computer science, see e.g. https://aroundtoposes.com/toposesonline/

Vafa (2000) 'In some sense quantum theory is a bending of physics towards number theory. However, deep facts of number theory play no role in questions of quantum mechanics... I predict that in the next century *we will witness deep applications of number theory in fundamental physics* ...

In fact, if I were to guess, I would think that quantum mechanics will be completely reformulated and that number theory will play a key role in this reformulation'

SB (2021) 'Number theory is connected to all other fields – and yet almost none of the related advances utilized in Physics.

Number theory is not even taught to physicists!

While in many cases related to quantum mechanics & computations – it is perhaps a simpler language to use.'

イロト イ押ト イヨト イヨト

Vafa (2000) 'In some sense quantum theory is a bending of physics towards number theory. However, deep facts of number theory play no role in questions of quantum mechanics... I predict that in the next century we will witness deep applications of number theory in fundamental physics ...

In fact, if I were to guess, I would think that quantum mechanics will be completely reformulated and that number theory will play a key role in this reformulation'

SB (2021) 'Number theory is connected to all other fields – and yet almost none of the related advances utilized in Physics.

Number theory is not even taught to physicists!

While in many cases related to quantum mechanics & computations – it is perhaps a simpler language to use.'

イロト イヨト イヨト

Even though the Feynman integral does not exist mathematically for potentials or degree higher than 4, there is a rigorous arithmetic analogue of it.

Using structures in higher local fields (and hence some category theory),

a theory of higher translation invariant integral on higher local objects that are not locally compact (e.g. $\mathbb{C}((x))$, a formal loop space) was developed in

https://ivanfesenko.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/aoh.pdf

It is not real valued, it takes values in $\mathbb{R}((t))$.

Fourier transform in this rigorous structural theory has many similarities to the Feynman integral.

This integration is used to define higher zeta integral whose applications provide entirely new methods to understand several key open problems in number theory

Even though the Feynman integral does not exist mathematically for potentials or degree higher than 4, there is a rigorous arithmetic analogue of it.

Using structures in higher local fields (and hence some category theory),

a theory of higher translation invariant integral on higher local objects that are not locally compact (e.g. $\mathbb{C}((x))$, a formal loop space) was developed in

https://ivanfesenko.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/aoh.pdf

It is not real valued, it takes values in $\mathbb{R}((t))$.

Fourier transform in this rigorous structural theory has many similarities to the Feynman integral.

This integration is used to define higher zeta integral whose applications provide entirely new methods to understand several key open problems in number theory

Even though the Feynman integral does not exist mathematically for potentials or degree higher than 4, there is a rigorous arithmetic analogue of it.

Using structures in higher local fields (and hence some category theory),

a theory of higher translation invariant integral on higher local objects that are not locally compact (e.g. $\mathbb{C}((x))$, a formal loop space) was developed in

https://ivanfesenko.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/aoh.pdf

It is not real valued, it takes values in $\mathbb{R}((t))$.

Fourier transform in this rigorous structural theory has many similarities to the Feynman integral.

This integration is used to define higher zeta integral whose applications provide entirely new methods to understand several key open problems in number theory

Several analogies have been noticed between ideas of algorithmic anabelian geometry and Mochizuki's IUT theory (they use categories and étale topos) and of quantum theories.

In IUT there are two types of topological monoid structures:

(i) structures coming from Galois groups of symmetries and

(ii) structures coming from 'ordered' objects.

The former structures pass intact through certain processes where the latter structures change.

One can say that the analogues of these two math structures are waves and particles.

The stabiliser formalism in quantum computing uses the facts

(a) the intersection of the Clifford group of a quantum state with the Pauli group still distinguishes quantum states,

(b) this intersection has much smaller number of generators.

Anabelian geometry and IUT work with the stabiliser groups with respect to the Galois action on closed points of relevant arithmetic schemes, they are called decomposition groups.

In anabelian geometry the map from points to conjugacy classes of decomposition groups is the main object of the central Grothendieck section conjecture in anabelian geometry; (a) is the injectivity of the analog of this section map.

Similarly to quantum computing, algorithmic IUT reduces exponential issues to polynomial issues.

Several analogies have been noticed between ideas of algorithmic anabelian geometry and Mochizuki's IUT theory (they use categories and étale topos) and of quantum theories.

In IUT there are two types of topological monoid structures:

(i) structures coming from Galois groups of symmetries and

(ii) structures coming from 'ordered' objects.

The former structures pass intact through certain processes where the latter structures change.

One can say that the analogues of these two math structures are waves and particles.

The stabiliser formalism in quantum computing uses the facts

(a) the intersection of the Clifford group of a quantum state with the Pauli group still distinguishes quantum states,

(b) this intersection has much smaller number of generators.

Anabelian geometry and IUT work with the stabiliser groups with respect to the Galois action on closed points of relevant arithmetic schemes, they are called decomposition groups.

In anabelian geometry the map from points to conjugacy classes of decomposition groups is the main object of the central Grothendieck section conjecture in anabelian geometry; (a) is the injectivity of the analog of this section map.

Similarly to quantum computing, algorithmic IUT reduces exponential issues to polynomial issues.

Several analogies have been noticed between ideas of algorithmic anabelian geometry and Mochizuki's IUT theory (they use categories and étale topos) and of quantum theories.

In IUT there are two types of topological monoid structures:

(i) structures coming from Galois groups of symmetries and

(ii) structures coming from 'ordered' objects.

The former structures pass intact through certain processes where the latter structures change.

One can say that the analogues of these two math structures are waves and particles.

The stabiliser formalism in quantum computing uses the facts

(a) the intersection of the Clifford group of a quantum state with the Pauli group still distinguishes quantum states,

(b) this intersection has much smaller number of generators.

Anabelian geometry and IUT work with the stabiliser groups with respect to the Galois action on closed points of relevant arithmetic schemes, they are called decomposition groups.

In anabelian geometry the map from points to conjugacy classes of decomposition groups is the main object of the central Grothendieck section conjecture in anabelian geometry; (a) is the injectivity of the analog of this section map.

Similarly to quantum computing, algorithmic IUT reduces exponential issues to polynomial issues.

Several analogies have been noticed between ideas of algorithmic anabelian geometry and Mochizuki's IUT theory (they use categories and étale topos) and of quantum theories.

In IUT there are two types of topological monoid structures:

(i) structures coming from Galois groups of symmetries and

(ii) structures coming from 'ordered' objects.

The former structures pass intact through certain processes where the latter structures change.

One can say that the analogues of these two math structures are waves and particles.

The stabiliser formalism in quantum computing uses the facts

(a) the intersection of the Clifford group of a quantum state with the Pauli group still distinguishes quantum states,

(b) this intersection has much smaller number of generators.

Anabelian geometry and IUT work with the stabiliser groups with respect to the Galois action on closed points of relevant arithmetic schemes, they are called decomposition groups.

In anabelian geometry the map from points to conjugacy classes of decomposition groups is the main object of the central Grothendieck section conjecture in anabelian geometry; (a) is the injectivity of the analog of this section map.

Similarly to quantum computing, algorithmic IUT reduces exponential issues to polynomial issues.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト 三日