This chapter considers possible answers to the basic questions of the

p-adicization program, which are following.

Some of the basic questions of the p-adicization program are following.

#### \begin{enumerate}

\item Is there some kind of duality between real and p-adic physics? What is its

precise mathematic formulation? In particular, what is the concrete map

of p-adic physics in long scales (in real sense) to real physics in short scales? Can one find a rigorous mathematical formulation of the

canonical identification induced by the map \$p\rightarrow 1/p\$ in pinary

expansion of p-adic number such that it is both continuous and respects

symmetries or one must accept the finite measurement resolution.

Few years after writing this the answer to this question is in terms of

the notion of p-adic manifold. Canonical identification serving as its

building brick however allows many variants and it seems that quantum

arithmetics provides one further variant

\item What is the origin of the p-adic length scale hypothesis suggesting that primes near power of two are physically preferred? Why

Mersenne primes seem to be especially important (p-adic mass calculations suggest this)?

This chapter studies some ideas but does not provide a clearcut answer

to these questions. The notion of quantum arithmetics obtained is central in this approach.

### \end{enumerate}

The starting point of quantum arithmetics is the map  $n^{\}$  is the map  $n^{\}$ 

taking integers to quantum integers:  $n_q=(q^n-q^{-1})/(q-q^{-1})$ . Here

 $q = \exp(i\pi)$  is quantum phase defined as a root of unity. From TGD

point of view prime roots  $q = \exp(i\pi)$  are of special interest. Also

prime prime power roots  $q = \exp(i\pi)p^n$  of unity are of interest. Quantum phase can be also generalized to complex number with modulus different from unity.

One can consider several variants of quantum arithmetics. One can regard finite integers as either real or p-adic. In the intersection of

\blockquote{real and p-adic worlds} finite integers can be regarded both p-adic and real.

## \begin{enumerate}

\item If one regards the integer \$n\$ real one can keep some information about the prime decomposition of \$n\$ by dividing \$n\$ to its

prime factors and performing the mapping  $p\uparrow \$  The map takes prime first to finite field G(p,1) and then maps it to quantum

integer. Powers of \$p\$ are mapped to zero unless one modifies the quantum map so that \$p\$ is mapped to \$p\$ or \$1/p\$ depending on whether

one interprets the outcome as analog of p-adic number or real number.

This map can be seen as a modification of p-adic norm to a map, which

keeps some information about the prime factorization of the integer. Information about both real and p-adic structure of integer is kept.

\item For p-adic integers the decomposition into prime factors does

not make sense. In this case it is natural to use pinary expansion of

integer in powers of \$p\$ and perform the quantum map for the coefficients without decomposition to products of primes \$p\_1<p\$. This

map can be seen as a modification of canonical identification.

\item If one wants to interpret finite integers as both real and p-adic

then one can imagine the definition of quantum integer obtained by de-compositing \$n\$ to a product of primes, using pinary expansion and

mapping coefficients to quantum integers looks natural. This map would

keep information about both prime factorization and also a bout pinary

series of factors. One can also decompose the coefficients to prime factors but it is not clear whether this really makes sense since in finite field G(p,1) there are no primes.

# \end{enumerate}

One can distinguish between two basic options concerning the definition of quantum integers.

## \begin{enumerate}

\item For option I the prime number decomposition of integer is  $\mathsf{mapped}$ 

to its quantum counterpart by mapping the primes \$1\$ to quantum primes

 $l_q=(q^l-q^{-l})/(q-q^{-1})$ ,  $q=exp(i\pi)$  so that image of product

is product of images. Sums are {\it not} mapped to sums as is easy to

verify. \$p\$ is mapped to zero for the standard definition of quantum

integer. Now p is however mapped to itself or 1/p depending on whether one wants to interpret quantum integer as p-adic or real number.

Quantum integers generate an algebra with respect to sum and product.

\item Option II one uses pinary expansion and maps the prime factors of

coefficients to quantum primes. There seems to be no point in decomposing the pinary coefficients to their prime factors so that they

are mapped to standard quantum integers smaller than \$p\$.

The quantum primes \$l\_q\$ act as generators of Kac-Moody type algebra

defined by powers \$p^n\$ such that sum is completely analogous to that

for Kac-Moody algebra: \$a+b= \sum\_n a\_np^n+\sum b\_np^n=\sum\_n
(a\_n+b\_n)p^n\$. For p-adic numbers this is not the case.

\item For both options it is natural to consider the variant for which

one has expansion  $n=\sum_k n_k^{kr}\$ ,  $n_k^{r}\$ ,  $r=1,2...\$ .

would serve as cutoff.

# \end{enumerate}

The notion of quantum matrix group differing from ordinary quantum groups in that matrix elements are commuting numbers makes sense. This

group forms a discrete counterpart of ordinary quantum group and

its

existence suggested by quantum classical correspondence. The existence

of this group for matrices with unit determinant is guaranteed by mere

ring property since the inverse matrix involves only arithmetic product and sum.

\begin{enumerate} \item The quantum counterparts of special linear groups SL(n,F) exists always. For the covering group SL(2,C) of SO(3,1) this is the case so that 4-dimensional Minkowski space is in

a very special position. For orthogonal, unitary, and orthogonal groups

the quantum counterpart exists only if the number of powers of \$p\$ for

the generating elements of the quantum matrix group satisfies an upper

bound characterizing the matrix group.

\item For the quantum counterparts of \$\$0(3)\$ (\$\$U(2)\$/ \$\$U(3)\$) the

orthogonality conditions state that at least some multiples of the

prime characterizing quantum arithmetics is sum of three (four/six) squares. For \$50(3)\$ this condition is strongest and satisfied for all

integers, which are not of form  $n= 2^{2r}(8k+7)$ . The number  $r_3(n)$  of representations as sum of squares is known and  $r_3(n)$  is

invariant under the scalings  $n\rightarrow 2^{2r}n$ . This means scaling

by \$2\$ for the integers appearing in the square sum representation.

#### \end{enumerate}

The findings about quantum \$50(3)\$ suggest a possible explanation for

p-adic length scale hypothesis and preferred p-adic primes.

### \begin{enumerate}

\item The idea to be studied is that the quantum matrix group which is discrete is in some sense very large for preferred

p-adic primes. If cognitive representations correspond to the representations of quantum matrix group, the representational capacity

of cognitive representations is high and this kind of primes are survivors in the algebraic evolution leading to algebraic extensions with increasing dimension. The simple estimates of this chapter restricting the consideration to finite fields (\$0(p)=0\$ approximation) do not support this idea in the case of Mersenne primes.

\item An alternative idea is that number theoretic evolution leading

to algebraic extensions of rationals with increasing dimension favors

p—adic primes which do not split in the extensions to primes of the extension. There is also a nice argument that infinite primes which are

in one-one correspondence with prime polynomials code for algebraic extensions. These primes code also for bound states of elementary particles. Therefore the stable bound states would define preferred

p-adic primes as primes which do not split in the algebraic extension

defined by infinite prime. This should select Mersenne primes as preferred ones.

\end{enumerate}