

Chaos near critical point

M.Asadi

School of Particles and accelerators, IPM

August 30, 2023

Outline

1 Classical Chaos

2 Quantum Chaos

Brief review

Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.

- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.

- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.
- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

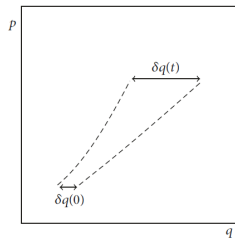
Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.



- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

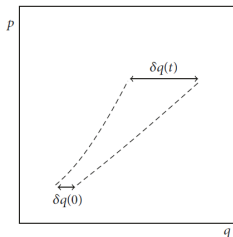
Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.



- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

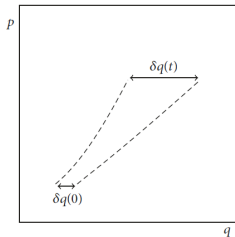
Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.



- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

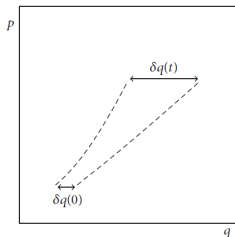
Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.



- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Brief review

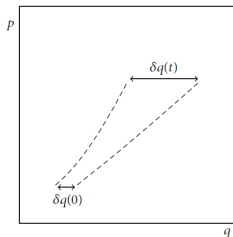
Consider a classical thermal system with phase space denoted as $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p})$.

\mathbf{q} : Coordinates of the phase space. \mathbf{p} : Momenta of the phase space.

★ Is the system chaotic or not?

✓ **To Ans:** Measure the stability of a trajectory in phase space under small changes of the initial condition.

- Consider a reference trajectory in phase space $\mathbf{X}(t)$ with initial condition $\mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{X}_0$.
- A small change in the initial condition $\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_0 + \delta\mathbf{X}_0$.
- New trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(t) + \delta\mathbf{X}(t)$.
- The system is chaotic if the distance between the new trajectory and the reference one increases exponentially with time.



- $|\delta\mathbf{X}(t)| \sim |\delta\mathbf{X}_0|e^{\lambda t}$, or $\frac{\partial\mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial\mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$.

Note

- 1 The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- 2 A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- 3 When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.
- 4 There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:

- The Lyapunov exponent λ_{\max} is bounded by the maximum Lyapunov exponent of black holes, $\lambda_{\max} \leq \frac{2\pi}{\beta} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} k_B T$.
- The chaotic behavior, characterized by the Lyapunov exponent, is exponentially suppressed in thermally equilibrated states.

Note

- ① The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- ② A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- ③ When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.
- ④ There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:

Note

- 1 The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- 2 A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- 3 When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.
- 4 There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:

Note

- 1 The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- 2 A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- 3 When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.

Now consider a classical thermal system with inverse temperature β

- There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:

Note

- ④ The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- ② A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- ③ When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.

Now consider a classical thermal system with inverse temperature β

- There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:

• The Lyapunov behavior, characterizing the sensitive dependence on initial conditions (correspond to blue-shift suffered by in-falling quanta).

• The inverse temperature, β , corresponding to the Hawking temperature.

Note

- 1 The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- 2 A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- 3 When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.

Now consider a classical thermal system with inverse temperature β

- There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:
 - ✓ The Lyapunov behavior, characterizing the sensitive dependence on initial conditions (correspond to blue-shift suffered by in-falling quanta).
 - ✓ The Ruelle behavior, characterizing the approach to thermal equilibrium (correspond to black hole's quasinormal modes).

Note

- ④ The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- ② A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- ③ When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.

Now consider a classical thermal system with inverse temperature β

- There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:
 - ✓ The Lyapunov behavior, characterizing the sensitive dependence on initial conditions (correspond to blue-shift suffered by in-falling quanta).
 - ✓ The Ruelle behavior, characterizing the approach to thermal equilibrium (correspond to black hole's quasinormal modes).

Note

- 1 The exponential increase depends on the orientation of $\delta\mathbf{X}_0$ and this leads to a spectrum of Lyapunov exponents, $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_K\}$, where K is the dimension of the phase space.
- 2 A useful parameter characterizing the trajectory instability is $\lambda_{\max} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta\mathbf{X}_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{\delta\mathbf{X}(t)}{\delta\mathbf{X}_0} \right)$, which is called the maximum Lyapunov exponent.
- 3 When the above limits exist and $\lambda_{\max} > 0$, the trajectory shows sensitivity to initial conditions and the system is said to be chaotic.

Now consider a classical thermal system with inverse temperature β

- There are two exponential behaviors in classical thermal systems that have analogues in terms of black holes physics:
 - ✓ The Lyapunov behavior, characterizing the sensitive dependence on initial conditions (correspond to blue-shift suffered by in-falling quanta).
 - ✓ The Ruelle behavior, characterizing the approach to thermal equilibrium (correspond to black hole's quasinormal modes).

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal expectation values from the long-time limit is called Ruelle behavior. The exponential approach to the thermal expectation value is

$$\langle F \rangle_\beta - \langle F \rangle_\beta(t) \sim e^{-\lambda t}$$

- The exponential approach to the thermal expectation value is called Ruelle behavior. The exponential approach to the thermal expectation value is

$$\langle F \rangle_\beta - \langle F \rangle_\beta(t) \sim e^{-\lambda t}$$

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one need to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is

$$\langle F \rangle_{\beta} = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}.$$

- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation values, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_{\beta}$
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal expectation values from both sides is exponential

$$\langle F \rangle_{\beta} - \langle F \rangle_{\beta}^{\text{th}} \sim e^{-\lambda_{\text{Ruelle}} t}$$

$$\langle F \rangle_{\beta}^{\text{th}} - \langle F \rangle_{\beta} \sim e^{-\lambda_{\text{Ruelle}} t}$$

$$\langle F \rangle_{\beta} - \langle F \rangle_{\beta}^{\text{th}} \sim e^{-\lambda_{\text{Ruelle}} t}$$

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

• The Lyapunov exponent is defined as $\lambda = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \ln \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right|$.

• The Lyapunov exponent is related to the entropy S by $S = k_B \lambda$.

• The Lyapunov exponent is related to the entropy S by $S = k_B \lambda$.

• The Lyapunov exponent is related to the entropy S by $S = k_B \lambda$.

• The Lyapunov exponent is related to the entropy S by $S = k_B \lambda$.

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal equilibrium i.e. how fast the system forgets its initial condition can be quantified by two-point functions of the form $G(t) = \langle X(t)X(0) \rangle_\beta - \langle X \rangle_\beta^2$.

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal equilibrium i.e. how fast the system forgets its initial condition can be quantified by two-point functions of the form $G(t) = \langle X(t)X(0) \rangle_\beta - \langle X \rangle_\beta^2$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $G(t) \sim \sum_j b_j e^{-\mu_j t}$, where b_j are constants and μ_j are complex parameters called Ruelle resonances.
- The late time behavior: $G \sim e^{-\mu_{\min} t}$.

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal equilibrium i.e. how fast the system forgets its initial condition can be quantified by two-point functions of the form $G(t) = \langle X(t)X(0) \rangle_\beta - \langle X \rangle_\beta^2$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $G(t) \sim \sum_j b_j e^{-\mu_j t}$, where b_j are constants and μ_j are complex parameters called Ruelle resonances.
- The late time behavior: $G \sim e^{-\mu_{\min} t}$.

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal equilibrium i.e. how fast the system forgets its initial condition can be quantified by two-point functions of the form $G(t) = \langle X(t)X(0) \rangle_\beta - \langle X \rangle_\beta^2$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $G(t) \sim \sum_j b_j e^{-\mu_j t}$, where b_j are constants and μ_j are complex parameters called Ruelle resonances.
- The late time behavior: $G \sim e^{-\mu_{\min} t}$.

✓ Lyapunov behavior in a thermal system ($\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}_0} \sim e^{\lambda t}$):

- To quantify the sensitivity to initial conditions one needs to consider thermal expectation values. The classical expectation value of any function $F(\mathbf{X})$ is $\langle F \rangle_\beta = \frac{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})} F(\mathbf{X})}{\int d\mathbf{X} e^{-\beta H(\mathbf{X})}}$.
- Note that $\partial \mathbf{X}(t)/\partial \mathbf{X}(0)$ can be both positive and negative. To avoid cancellations in a thermal expectation value, we consider $F(t) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(0)} \right)^2 \right\rangle_\beta$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $F(t) \sim \sum_k c_k e^{2\lambda_k t}$, where c_k are constants and λ_k are the Lyapunov exponents.
- At later time: $F \sim e^{2\lambda_{\max} t}$.

✓ Ruelle behavior in a thermal system:

- The approach to thermal equilibrium i.e. how fast the system forgets its initial condition can be quantified by two-point functions of the form $G(t) = \langle X(t)X(0) \rangle_\beta - \langle X \rangle_\beta^2$.
- The expected behavior of this quantity is $G(t) \sim \sum_j b_j e^{-\mu_j t}$, where b_j are constants and μ_j are complex parameters called Ruelle resonances.
- The late time behavior: $G \sim e^{-\mu_{\min} t}$.

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ What is the quantum version of this quantity?

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Quantum Chaos

Now consider a 1D thermal system with phase space variables (q, p) .

Classically, for a chaotic system, $\partial q(t)/\partial q(0)$ grows exponentially with time.

★ **What is the quantum version of this quantity?**

- $\frac{\partial q(t)}{\partial q(0)} = \{q(t), p(0)\}_{P.B.} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \hat{q}(t)}{\partial \hat{q}(0)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$
- In the thermal systems, we must calculate the expectation value of $[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]$ in a thermal state.
- This commutator might be positive or negative in a thermal expectation value and this might lead to cancellations.
- Therefore, we consider the expectation value of the square of this commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[\hat{q}(t), \hat{p}(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- More generally, one can replace $\hat{q}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(0)$ by two generic Hermitian operators V and W and quantify chaos with the double commutator

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}.$$
- This quantity measures how much an early perturbation V affects the later measurement of W

Chaos means sensitive dependence on initial conditions. So we expect $C(t)$ to be 'small' in nonchaotic system and 'large' if the dynamics is chaotic.

- For some class of chaotic systems, which include holographic systems, $C(t)$ is expected to behave as:

$$\bullet C(t) \sim \begin{cases} N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} & t < t_d \\ N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} e^{\lambda_L t} & t_d \ll t \ll t_* \\ \mathcal{O}(1) & t > t_* \end{cases},$$

where N_{dof} is the number of degrees of freedom of the system and we have assumed V and W to be unitary and Hermitian operators, so that $VV = WW = 1$.

Chaos means sensitive dependence on initial conditions. So we expect $C(t)$ to be 'small' in nonchaotic system and 'large' if the dynamics is chaotic.

- For some class of chaotic systems, which include holographic systems, $C(t)$ is expected to behave as:

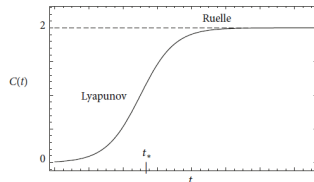
$$\bullet C(t) \sim \begin{cases} N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} & t < t_d \\ N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} e^{\lambda_L t} & t_d \ll t \ll t_* \\ \mathcal{O}(1) & t > t_* \end{cases} ,$$

where N_{dof} is the number of degrees of freedom of the system and we have assumed V and W to be unitary and Hermitian operators, so that $VV = WW = 1$.

Chaos means sensitive dependence on initial conditions. So we expect $C(t)$ to be 'small' in nonchaotic system and 'large' if the dynamics is chaotic.

- For some class of chaotic systems, which include holographic systems, $C(t)$ is expected to behave as:

$$\bullet C(t) \sim \begin{cases} N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} & t < t_d \\ N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} e^{\lambda_L t} & t_d \ll t \ll t_* \\ \mathcal{O}(1) & t > t_* \end{cases} ,$$

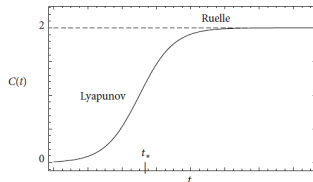


where N_{dof} is the number of degrees of freedom of the system and we have assumed V and W to be unitary and Hermitian operators, so that $VV = WW = 1$.

Chaos means sensitive dependence on initial conditions. So we expect $C(t)$ to be 'small' in nonchaotic system and 'large' if the dynamics is chaotic.

- For some class of chaotic systems, which include holographic systems, $C(t)$ is expected to behave as:

$$\bullet \quad C(t) \sim \begin{cases} N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} & t < t_d \\ N_{\text{dof}}^{-1} e^{\lambda_L t} & t_d \ll t \ll t_* \\ \mathcal{O}(1) & t > t_* \end{cases} ,$$



where N_{dof} is the number of degrees of freedom of the system and we have assumed V and W to be unitary and Hermitian operators, so that $VV = WW = 1$.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .

- The dissipation time, t_d :

• t_d^{-1} is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).

• t_d characterizes the exponential decay of observables correlation functions $\langle O(t)O(0) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$.

• t_d depends on how fast the system forgets its initial conditions. The stronger the chaotic mixing, the shorter t_d .

• t_d controls the late-time behavior of $C(t)$.

- The scrambling time, t_* :

• t_* is defined as the time at which $C(t)$ becomes of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$. It is related to the Lyapunov exponent λ_L as $t_* \sim \lambda_L^{-1} \ln S$.

• t_* depends on how fast the chaotic system forgets its initial state.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :
 - ✓ is defined as the time at which the Lyapunov exponent saturates to the value λ_{max} .
 - ✓ depends on how fast the chaotic system mixes the information.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :
 - ✓ is defined as the time at which the Lyapunov exponent saturates at $\lambda_L = \log 2$.
 - ✓ depends on how fast the chaotic system mixes its information.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :

• The Lyapunov exponent λ_L is the largest real part of the spectrum of the transfer operator \mathcal{L} (see Lecture 10)

• The Lyapunov exponent λ_L is the largest real part of the spectrum of the transfer operator \mathcal{L} (see Lecture 10)

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :
 - ✓ is defined as the time at which $C(t)$ becomes of order $O(1)$ ($t_* \sim \lambda_L^{-1} \log N_{\text{dof}}$)
 - ✓ separates the fast and slow changing regimes in quantum chaos.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :
 - ✓ is defined as the time at which $C(t)$ becomes of order $O(1)$ ($t_* \sim \lambda_L^{-1} \log N_{\text{dof}}$)
 - ✓ controls how fast the chaotic system scrambles information.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :
 - ✓ is defined as the time at which $C(t)$ becomes of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ($t_* \sim \lambda_L^{-1} \log N_{\text{dof}}$)
 - ✓ controls how fast the chaotic system scrambles information.

- The exponential growth of $C(t)$ is characterized by the Lyapunov exponent λ_L and takes place at intermediate time scales bounded by the dissipation time t_d and the scrambling time t_* .
- The dissipation time, t_d :
 - ✓ is related to the classical Ruelle resonances ($t_d \sim \mu^{-1}$).
 - ✓ characterizes the exponential decay of two-point correlators $\langle V(0)V(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t/t_d}$
 - ✓ controls how fast the system forgets its initial condition (the approach to thermal equilibrium)
 - ✓ controls the late time behavior of $C(t)$.
- The scrambling time, t_* :
 - ✓ is defined as the time at which $C(t)$ becomes of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ($t_* \sim \lambda_L^{-1} \log N_{\text{dof}}$)
 - ✓ controls how fast the chaotic system scrambles information.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:
 $OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$
- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.
- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to
 $C(t, \mathbf{x}) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, \mathbf{x})]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$
- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by
 $C(t, \mathbf{x}) \sim e^{\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|\mathbf{x}|}{v_B} \right)}$, where v_B is the butterfly velocity.
- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.
- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:

$$OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$$

- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.
- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to

$$C(t, \mathbf{x}) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, \mathbf{x})]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$
- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by

$$C(t, \mathbf{x}) \sim e^{\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|\mathbf{x}|}{v_B} \right)},$$
 where v_B is the butterfly velocity.
- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.
- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:

$$OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$$

- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.

- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to

$$C(t, x) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, x)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$

- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by

$$C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B} \right)}, \text{ where } v_B \text{ is the butterfly velocity.}$$

- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.
- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:

$$OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$$

- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.

- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to

$$C(t, \mathbf{x}) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, \mathbf{x})]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$

- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by

$$C(t, \mathbf{x}) \sim e^{-\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|\mathbf{x}|}{v_B} \right)}, \text{ where } v_B \text{ is the butterfly velocity.}$$

- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.

- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:

$$OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$$

- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.

- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to

$$C(t, x) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, x)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$

- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by

$$C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B} \right)}, \text{ where } v_B \text{ is the butterfly velocity.}$$

- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.
- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:

$$OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$$

- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.

- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to

$$C(t, x) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, x)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$

- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by

$$C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B} \right)}, \text{ where } v_B \text{ is the butterfly velocity.}$$

- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.

- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

- Now we write the double commutator as (assumption: V and W are Hermitian and unitary operators)

$$C(t) = \langle -[W(t), V(0)]^2 \rangle_{\beta} = 2 - 2\langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle_{\beta}.$$

- All the relevant information about $C(t)$ is contained in the OTOC:

$$OTOC(t) = \langle W(t)V(0)W(t)V(0) \rangle$$

- $C(t)$ approaches 2 at later times which implies that the $OTOC(t)$ should vanish in that limit. This is related to chaos.

- In quantum field theories we can upgrade $C(t)$ to

$$C(t, x) = \langle -[V(0, 0), W(t, x)]^2 \rangle_{\beta}$$

- In many examples the above commutator is roughly given by

$$C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L \left(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B} \right)}, \text{ where } v_B \text{ is the butterfly velocity.}$$

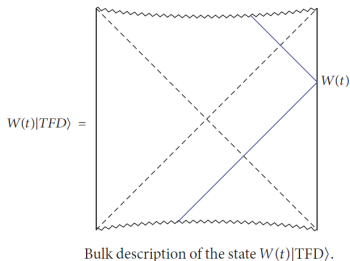
- This velocity describes the growth of the operator W in physical space and sets a bound for the rate of transfer of quantum information.
- There is an additional delay in scrambling due to the physical separation between the operators.

Perturbations of the TFD state & Shockwave geometries

- Consider a states of the form $W(t)|TFD\rangle$, where W is a thermal scale operator that acts on the right boundary theory.
- This state can be describe by a 'particle' (field excitation) in the bulk that comes out of the past horizon, reaches the boundary at time t producing the perturbation $W(t)$, and then falls into the future horizon. We will refer to this bulk excitation as the W -particle.
- If $|t|$ is not too large, the state $W(t)|TFD\rangle$ will represent just a small perturbation of the TFD state and the corresponding description in the bulk will be just an eternal two-sided black hole geometry slightly perturbed by the presence of a probe particle.

Perturbations of the TFD state & Shockwave geometries

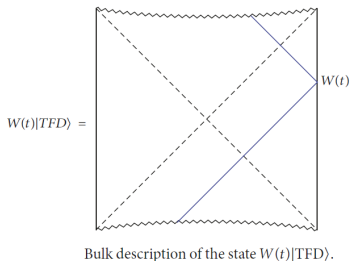
- Consider a states of the form $W(t)|TFD\rangle$, where W is a thermal scale operator that acts on the right boundary theory.
- This state can be describe by a ‘particle’ (field excitation) in the bulk that comes out of the past horizon, reaches the boundary at time t producing the perturbation $W(t)$, and then falls into the future horizon. We will refer to this bulk excitation as the W -particle.



- If $|t|$ is not too large, the state $W(t)|TFD\rangle$ will represent just a small perturbation of the TFD state and the corresponding description in the bulk will be just an eternal two-sided black hole geometry slightly perturbed by the presence of a probe particle.

Perturbations of the TFD state & Shockwave geometries

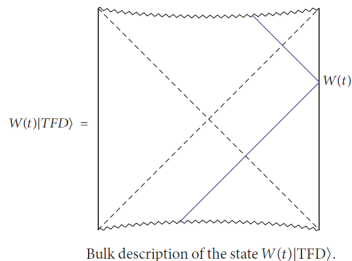
- Consider a states of the form $W(t)|TFD\rangle$, where W is a thermal scale operator that acts on the right boundary theory.
- This state can be describe by a ‘particle’ (field excitation) in the bulk that comes out of the past horizon, reaches the boundary at time t producing the perturbation $W(t)$, and then falls into the future horizon. We will refer to this bulk excitation as the W -particle.



- If $|t|$ is not too large, the state $W(t)|TFD\rangle$ will represent just a small perturbation of the TFD state and the corresponding description in the bulk will be just an eternal two-sided black hole geometry slightly perturbed by the presence of a probe particle.

Perturbations of the TFD state & Shockwave geometries

- Consider a states of the form $W(t)|TFD\rangle$, where W is a thermal scale operator that acts on the right boundary theory.
- This state can be describe by a ‘particle’ (field excitation) in the bulk that comes out of the past horizon, reaches the boundary at time t producing the perturbation $W(t)$, and then falls into the future horizon. We will refer to this bulk excitation as the W -particle.



- If $|t|$ is not too large, the state $W(t)|TFD\rangle$ will represent just a small perturbation of the TFD state and the corresponding description in the bulk will be just an eternal two-sided black hole geometry slightly perturbed by the presence of a probe particle.

- In the large $|t|$ case, there is a nontrivial modification of the geometry.
- A very early perturbation is described in the bulk in terms of a particle that falls towards the future horizon for a very long time and gets highly blue-shifted in the process.
- If the particle's energy is E_0 in the asymptotic past, this energy will be exponentially larger from the point of view of the $t = 0$ slice of the geometry, $E = E_0 e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}$.
- Therefore, for large enough $|t|$, the particle's energy will be very large and one needs to include the corresponding backreaction.
- The back-reaction of a very early (or very late) perturbation corresponds to a shock wave geometry.
- To understand that, we first need to notice that, under boundary time evolution, the stress energy of a generic perturbation W gets compressed in the V -direction and stretched in the U -direction.

- In the large $|t|$ case, there is a nontrivial modification of the geometry.
- A very early perturbation is described in the bulk in terms of a particle that falls towards the future horizon for a very long time and gets highly blue-shifted in the process.
- If the particle's energy is E_0 in the asymptotic past, this energy will be exponentially larger from the point of view of the $t = 0$ slice of the geometry, $E = E_0 e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}$.
- Therefore, for large enough $|t|$, the particle's energy will be very large and one needs to include the corresponding backreaction.
- The back-reaction of a very early (or very late) perturbation corresponds to a shock wave geometry.
- To understand that, we first need to notice that, under boundary time evolution, the stress energy of a generic perturbation W gets compressed in the V -direction and stretched in the U -direction.

- In the large $|t|$ case, there is a nontrivial modification of the geometry.
- A very early perturbation is described in the bulk in terms of a particle that falls towards the future horizon for a very long time and gets highly blue-shifted in the process.
- If the particle's energy is E_0 in the asymptotic past, this energy will be exponentially larger from the point of view of the $t = 0$ slice of the geometry, $E = E_0 e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}$.
- Therefore, for large enough $|t|$, the particle's energy will be very large and one needs to include the corresponding backreaction.
- The back-reaction of a very early (or very late) perturbation corresponds to a shock wave geometry.
- To understand that, we first need to notice that, under boundary time evolution, the stress energy of a generic perturbation W gets compressed in the V -direction and stretched in the U -direction.

- In the large $|t|$ case, there is a nontrivial modification of the geometry.
- A very early perturbation is described in the bulk in terms of a particle that falls towards the future horizon for a very long time and gets highly blue-shifted in the process.
- If the particle's energy is E_0 in the asymptotic past, this energy will be exponentially larger from the point of view of the $t = 0$ slice of the geometry, $E = E_0 e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}$.
- Therefore, for large enough $|t|$, the particle's energy will be very large and one needs to include the corresponding backreaction.
- The back-reaction of a very early (or very late) perturbation corresponds to a shock wave geometry.
- To understand that, we first need to notice that, under boundary time evolution, the stress energy of a generic perturbation W gets compressed in the V -direction and stretched in the U -direction.

- In the large $|t|$ case, there is a nontrivial modification of the geometry.
- A very early perturbation is described in the bulk in terms of a particle that falls towards the future horizon for a very long time and gets highly blue-shifted in the process.
- If the particle's energy is E_0 in the asymptotic past, this energy will be exponentially larger from the point of view of the $t = 0$ slice of the geometry, $E = E_0 e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}$.
- Therefore, for large enough $|t|$, the particle's energy will be very large and one needs to include the corresponding backreaction.
- The back-reaction of a very early (or very late) perturbation corresponds to a shock wave geometry.
- To understand that, we first need to notice that, under boundary time evolution, the stress energy of a generic perturbation W gets compressed in the V -direction and stretched in the U -direction.

- In the large $|t|$ case, there is a nontrivial modification of the geometry.
- A very early perturbation is described in the bulk in terms of a particle that falls towards the future horizon for a very long time and gets highly blue-shifted in the process.
- If the particle's energy is E_0 in the asymptotic past, this energy will be exponentially larger from the point of view of the $t = 0$ slice of the geometry, $E = E_0 e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}$.
- Therefore, for large enough $|t|$, the particle's energy will be very large and one needs to include the corresponding backreaction.
- The back-reaction of a very early (or very late) perturbation corresponds to a shock wave geometry.
- To understand that, we first need to notice that, under boundary time evolution, the stress energy of a generic perturbation W gets compressed in the V -direction and stretched in the U -direction.

- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^U \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t} / \beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.

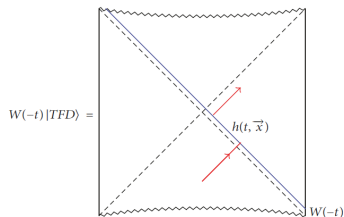
- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^u \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t}/\beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.

- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^u \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t} / \beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.

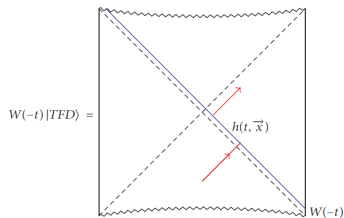
- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^u \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t} / \beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.

- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^u \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t} / \beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.

- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^U \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t} / \beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.



- For large enough $|t|$ we can approximate the stress tensor of the W -particle as $T_{VV} \sim P^U \delta(V) a(\vec{x})$.
- $P^U \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)t} / \beta$ is the momentum of the W -particle in the U -direction.
- $a(\vec{x})$ is some generic function that specifies the location of the perturbation in the spatial directions of the right boundary.
- T_{VV} is completely localized at $V = 0$ and homogeneous along the U -direction.
- The shock wave geometry produced by the W -particle is described by the metric $ds^2 = 2A(UV)dUdV + G_{ij}(UV)dx^i dx^j - 2A(UV)h(t, \vec{x})\delta(v)dV^2$.
- This geometry can be seen as two pieces of an eternal black hole glued together along $V = 0$ with a shift of magnitude $h(t, \vec{x})$ in the U -direction.
- We represent this geometry with the same Penrose diagram of the unperturbed geometry, but with the prescription that any trajectory crossing the shock wave gets shifted in the U -direction as $U \rightarrow U + h(t, \vec{x})$.

Bulk description of the state $W(-t)|TFD\rangle$.

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G'_H(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G'_H(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G_H'(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

$$\lambda_L \sim \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \sim \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \log S_{BH}.$$

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G'_H(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

$$\checkmark t_* \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log \frac{1}{G_N} \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log S_{BH},$$

$$\checkmark \lambda_L = \frac{2\pi}{\beta},$$

$$\checkmark v_B^2 = \frac{G'_H(r_H)}{(d-1)G'_t(r_H)}.$$

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G'_H(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

$$\checkmark \quad t_* \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log \frac{1}{G_N} \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log S_{BH},$$

$$\checkmark \quad \lambda_L = \frac{2\pi}{\beta},$$

$$\checkmark \quad v_B^2 = \frac{G'_H(r_H)}{(d-1)G''_H(r_H)}.$$

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G'_H(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

$$\checkmark \quad t_* \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log \frac{1}{G_N} \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log S_{BH},$$

$$\checkmark \quad \lambda_L = \frac{2\pi}{\beta},$$

$$\checkmark \quad v_B^2 = \frac{G'_H(r_H)}{(d-1)G''_H(r_H)}.$$

- The precise form of $h(t, \vec{x})$ can be determined by solving the VV -component of Einsteins equation.

- For a local perturbation, $a(\vec{x}) = \delta^{d-1}(\vec{x})$ the solution reads

$$h(t, \vec{x}) \sim G_N e^{(2\pi/\beta)t - \mu|\vec{x}|}, \text{ where } \mu = \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{(d-1)G'_{tt}(r_H)}{G'(tt)(r_H)}}.$$

(for simplicity, G_{ij} has been assumed to be diagonal and isotropic.)

- The shock wave profile contains information about the parameters characterizing the chaotic behavior of the boundary theory. So, we have

$$C(t, \vec{x}) \sim h(t, \vec{x}).$$

$$(C(t, x) \sim e^{\lambda_L(t - t_* - \frac{|x|}{v_B})})$$

- Therefore, we can write $h(t, \vec{x}) \sim e^{(2\pi/\beta)(t - t_* - |\vec{x}|/v_B)}$, where

$$\checkmark \quad t_* \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log \frac{1}{G_N} \sim \frac{\beta}{2\pi} \log S_{BH},$$

$$\checkmark \quad \lambda_L = \frac{2\pi}{\beta},$$

$$\checkmark \quad v_B^2 = \frac{G'_{tt}(r_H)}{(d-1)G'_{ii}(r_H)}.$$

Bounds on chaos

- The quantum Lyapunov exponent λ_L is bounded from above, while the scrambling time t_* is bounded from below.
 - ✓ For a generic many-body quantum system, the scrambling time is bounded from below as $t_* \geq C(\beta) \log N_{\text{dof}}$, where $C(\beta)$ is some function of the β . In the case of black holes this function is simply given by $C(\beta) = \frac{\beta}{2\pi}$.
- For black holes, one expects the dissipation time to be given by the black hole quasinormal modes $t_d \sim \beta$, while the scrambling time is parametrically larger $t_* \sim \beta \log N_{\text{dof}}$.

Bounds on chaos

- The quantum Lyapunov exponent λ_L is bounded from above, while the scrambling time t_* is bounded from below.
 - ✓ For a generic many-body quantum system, the scrambling time is bounded from below as $t_* \geq C(\beta) \log N_{\text{dof}}$, where $C(\beta)$ is some function of the β . In the case of black holes this function is simply given by $C(\beta) = \frac{\beta}{2\pi}$.
- For black holes, one expects the dissipation time to be given by the black hole quasinormal modes $t_d \sim \beta$, while the scrambling time is parametrically larger $t_* \sim \beta \log N_{\text{dof}}$.
 - ✓ For systems with such a large hierarchy between the scrambling and the dissipation time, there is an upper bound for the Lyapunov exponent:

$$\lambda_L \leq \frac{1}{t_d}$$

Bounds on chaos

- The quantum Lyapunov exponent λ_L is bounded from above, while the scrambling time t_* is bounded from below.
 - ✓ For a generic many-body quantum system, the scrambling time is bounded from below as $t_* \geq C(\beta) \log N_{\text{dof}}$, where $C(\beta)$ is some function of the β . In the case of black holes this function is simply given by $C(\beta) = \frac{\beta}{2\pi}$.
- For black holes, one expects the dissipation time to be given by the black hole quasinormal modes $t_d \sim \beta$, while the scrambling time is parametrically larger $t_* \sim \beta \log N_{\text{dof}}$.
 - ✓ For systems with such a large hierarchy between the scrambling and the dissipation time, there is an upper bound for the Lyapunov exponent:
$$\lambda_L \leq \frac{2\pi}{\beta}$$

Bounds on chaos

- The quantum Lyapunov exponent λ_L is bounded from above, while the scrambling time t_* is bounded from below.
 - ✓ For a generic many-body quantum system, the scrambling time is bounded from below as $t_* \geq C(\beta) \log N_{\text{dof}}$, where $C(\beta)$ is some function of the β . In the case of black holes this function is simply given by $C(\beta) = \frac{\beta}{2\pi}$.
- For black holes, one expects the dissipation time to be given by the black hole quasinormal modes $t_d \sim \beta$, while the scrambling time is parametrically larger $t_* \sim \beta \log N_{\text{dof}}$.
 - ✓ For systems with such a large hierarchy between the scrambling and the dissipation time, there is an upper bound for the Lyapunov exponent:
$$\lambda_L \leq \frac{2\pi}{\beta}$$

1RCBH Background

- Metric of this background:

$$ds^2 = \exp^{2A(R)}(-h(r)dt^2 + d\vec{x}^2) + \frac{\exp^{2B(r)}}{h(r)}dr^2,$$

where

$$A(r) = \ln\left(r\left(1 + \frac{Q^2}{r^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{6}}\right), \quad B(r) = -\ln\left(r\left(1 + \frac{Q^2}{r^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}\right), \quad h(r) = 1 - \frac{M^2}{r^2(r^2+Q^2)}.$$

- Temperature & chemical potential:

$$T = \frac{2r_h^2+Q^2}{2\pi\sqrt{Q^2+r_h^2}}, \quad \mu = \frac{Qr_h}{\sqrt{Q^2+r_h^2}}.$$

- It was shown that there is a critical point at $\frac{\mu}{T} = \left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)_* = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$ ($\frac{Q}{r_h} = \sqrt{2}$) and the solutions are thermodynamically stable for $\frac{Q}{r_h} < \sqrt{2}$.

1RCBH Background

- Metric of this background:

$$ds^2 = \exp^{2A(R)}(-h(r)dt^2 + d\vec{x}^2) + \frac{\exp^{2B(r)}}{h(r)}dr^2,$$

where

$$A(r) = \ln\left(r\left(1 + \frac{Q^2}{r^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{6}}\right), \quad B(r) = -\ln\left(r\left(1 + \frac{Q^2}{r^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}\right), \quad h(r) = 1 - \frac{M^2}{r^2(r^2+Q^2)}.$$

- Temperature & chemical potential:

$$T = \frac{2r_h^2+Q^2}{2\pi\sqrt{Q^2+r_h^2}}, \quad \mu = \frac{Qr_h}{\sqrt{Q^2+r_h^2}}.$$

- It was shown that there is a critical point at $\frac{\mu}{T} = \left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)_* = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$ ($\frac{Q}{r_h} = \sqrt{2}$) and the solutions are thermodynamically stable for $\frac{Q}{r_h} < \sqrt{2}$.

1RCBH Background

- Metric of this background:

$$ds^2 = \exp^{2A(R)}(-h(r)dt^2 + d\vec{x}^2) + \frac{\exp^{2B(r)}}{h(r)}dr^2,$$

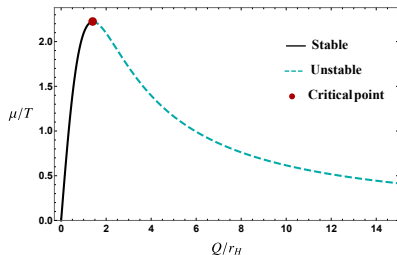
where

$$A(r) = \ln\left(r\left(1 + \frac{Q^2}{r^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{6}}\right), \quad B(r) = -\ln\left(r\left(1 + \frac{Q^2}{r^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}\right), \quad h(r) = 1 - \frac{M^2}{r^2(r^2+Q^2)}.$$

- Temperature & chemical potential:

$$T = \frac{2r_h^2 + Q^2}{2\pi\sqrt{Q^2 + r_h^2}}, \quad \mu = \frac{Qr_h}{\sqrt{Q^2 + r_h^2}}.$$

- It was shown that there is a critical point at $\frac{\mu}{T} = \left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)_* = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$ ($\frac{Q}{r_h} = \sqrt{2}$) and the solutions are thermodynamically stable for $\frac{Q}{r_h} < \sqrt{2}$.



Butterfly velocity and critical exponent

- v_B in 1RCBH model:

$$v_B^2 = \frac{4}{7 \mp \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\mu/T}{\pi/\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}},$$

–(+)
indicates the stable(unstable) black hole solutions.

- By expanding v_B and $\frac{dv_B}{d\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)}$ in power of $\left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)$ we obtain:

$$v_B = \frac{2}{\sqrt{7}} + \frac{2^{3/4}}{7\sqrt{7}\pi} \left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O}\left[\left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^1\right],$$

$$\frac{dv_B}{d\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)} = \frac{1}{7 \times 2^{1/4} \sqrt{7}\pi} \left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O}\left[\left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^0\right].$$

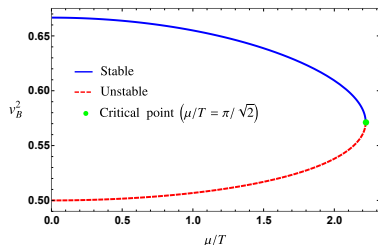
- It has been seen that v_B remains finite, while $\frac{dv_B}{d\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)}$ diverges near the critical point and one can see that the dynamical exponent is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$.

Butterfly velocity and critical exponent

- v_B in 1RCBH model:

$$v_B^2 = \frac{4}{7 \mp \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\mu/T}{\pi/\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}},$$

–(+) indicates the stable(unstable) black hole solutions.



- By expanding v_B and $\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})}$ in power of $\left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)$ we obtain:

$$v_B = \frac{2}{\sqrt{7}} + \frac{2^{3/4}}{7\sqrt{7}\pi} \left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O}\left[\left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^1\right],$$

$$\frac{dv_B}{d\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)} = \frac{1}{7 \times 2^{\frac{1}{4}} \sqrt{7}\pi} \left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O}\left[\left(\left(\frac{\mu}{T}\right)^* - \frac{\mu}{T}\right)^0\right].$$

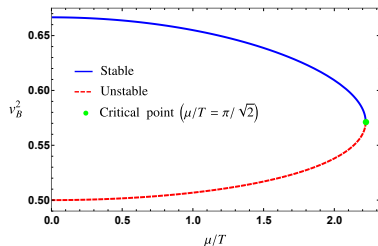
- It has been seen that v_B remains finite, while $\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})}$ diverges near the critical point and one can see that the dynamical exponent is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$.

Butterfly velocity and critical exponent

- v_B in 1RCBH model:

$$v_B^2 = \frac{4}{7 \mp \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\mu/T}{\pi/\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}},$$

-(+) indicates the stable(unstable) black hole solutions.



- By expanding v_B and $\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})}$ in power of $((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T})$ we obtain:

$$v_B = \frac{2}{\sqrt{7}} + \frac{2^{3/4}}{7\sqrt{7}\pi} \left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O} \left[\left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^1 \right],$$

$$\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})} = \frac{1}{7 \times 2^{\frac{1}{4}} \sqrt{7}\pi} \left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O} \left[\left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^0 \right].$$

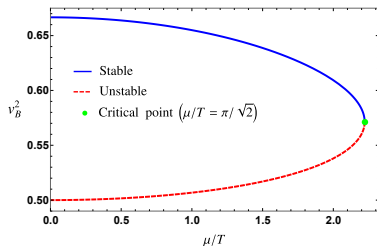
- It has been seen that v_B remains finite, while $\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})}$ diverges near the critical point and one can see that the dynamical exponent is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$.

Butterfly velocity and critical exponent

- v_B in 1RCBH model:

$$v_B^2 = \frac{4}{7 \mp \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\mu/T}{\pi/\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}},$$

–(+) indicates the stable(unstable) black hole solutions.



- By expanding v_B and $\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})}$ in power of $((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T})$ we obtain:

$$v_B = \frac{2}{\sqrt{7}} + \frac{2^{3/4}}{7\sqrt{7}\pi} \left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O} \left[\left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^1 \right],$$

$$\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})} = \frac{1}{7 \times 2^{\frac{1}{4}} \sqrt{7}\pi} \left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \mathcal{O} \left[\left((\frac{\mu}{T})^* - \frac{\mu}{T} \right)^0 \right].$$

- It has been seen that v_B remains finite, while $\frac{dv_B}{d(\frac{\mu}{T})}$ diverges near the critical point and one can see that the dynamical exponent is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$.

A bound on butterfly velocity

- In addition to the 1RCBH model, we consider AdS-Reisner-Nordstrom black hole which is holographically dual to a strongly coupled field theory with a U(1) charge.
- In the both this models, we obtain the inequality between the butterfly velocity and speed of sound for every black hole solution:

$$v_B^2 \geq c_s^2$$

A bound on butterfly velocity

- In addition to the 1RCBH model, we consider AdS-Reisner-Nordstrom black hole which is holographically dual to a strongly coupled field theory with a U(1) charge.
- In the both this models, we obtain the inequality between the butterfly velocity and speed of sound for every black hole solution:

$$v_B^2 \geq c_s^2$$

Thanks for your attention!