# Scrambling & Chaos in Quantum Networks Or Things To Think About When You Cargle Tellopsleep On Planes

J.M., J-G Hartmann, D. Rosa & J. Shock

based on: 1901.04561 and 2006.xxxxx

Oxford Particle Theory Seminar, 2020





[Milgram '67, Watts '99]

In 1967 Stanley Milgram attempted to quantify social connectivity in the US by:

- Identifying random individuals in lowa
- → Identifying a target individual in Boston
- Having the lowans send a letter to the target by mailing only someone they knew and thought would be better placed to connect with the target

Milgram's team tracked the progress of the letter by having participants send a postcard directly to the researchers when they mailed the letter. This determined the links and nodes in the social network

How connected are we really?

- With a small variance, the letter reached the target by 6 mailings
- The social network exhibited a small world phenomenon in that complete strangers were connected by a short acquaintance chain.
- This connectivity was mediated by a number of highly connected study participants

[Milgram '67, Watts '99]

In 1967 Stanley Milgram attempted to quantify social connectivity in the US by:

- Identifying random individuals in Nebraska
- ◆ Identifying a target individual in Boston
- Having the Nebraskans send a letter to the target by mailing only someone they knew and thought would be better placed to connect with the target

Milgram's team tracked the progress of the letter by having participants send a postcard directly to the researchers when they mailed the letter. This determined the links and nodes in the social network

How connected are we really?

- With a small variance, the letter reached the target by 6 mailings
- The social network exhibited a small world phenomenon in that complete strangers were connected by a short acquaintance chain.
- This connectivity was mediated by a number of highly connected study participants

[Milgram '67, Watts '99]

In 1967 Stanley Milgram attempted to quantify social connectivity in the US by:

- Identifying random individuals in Nebraska
- ◆ Identifying a target individual in Boston
- Having the Nebraskans send a letter to the target by mailing only someone they knew and thought would be better placed to connect with the target

Milgram's team tracked the progress of the letter by having participants send a postcard directly to the researchers when they mailed the letter. This determined the links and nodes in the social network

How connected are we really?

- With a small variance, the letter reached the target by 6 mailings
- The social network exhibited a small world phenomenon in that complete strangers were connected by a short acquaintance chain.
- This connectivity was mediated by a number of highly connected study participants

[Milgram '67, Watts '99]

In 1967 Stanley Milgram attempted to quantify social connectivity in the US by:

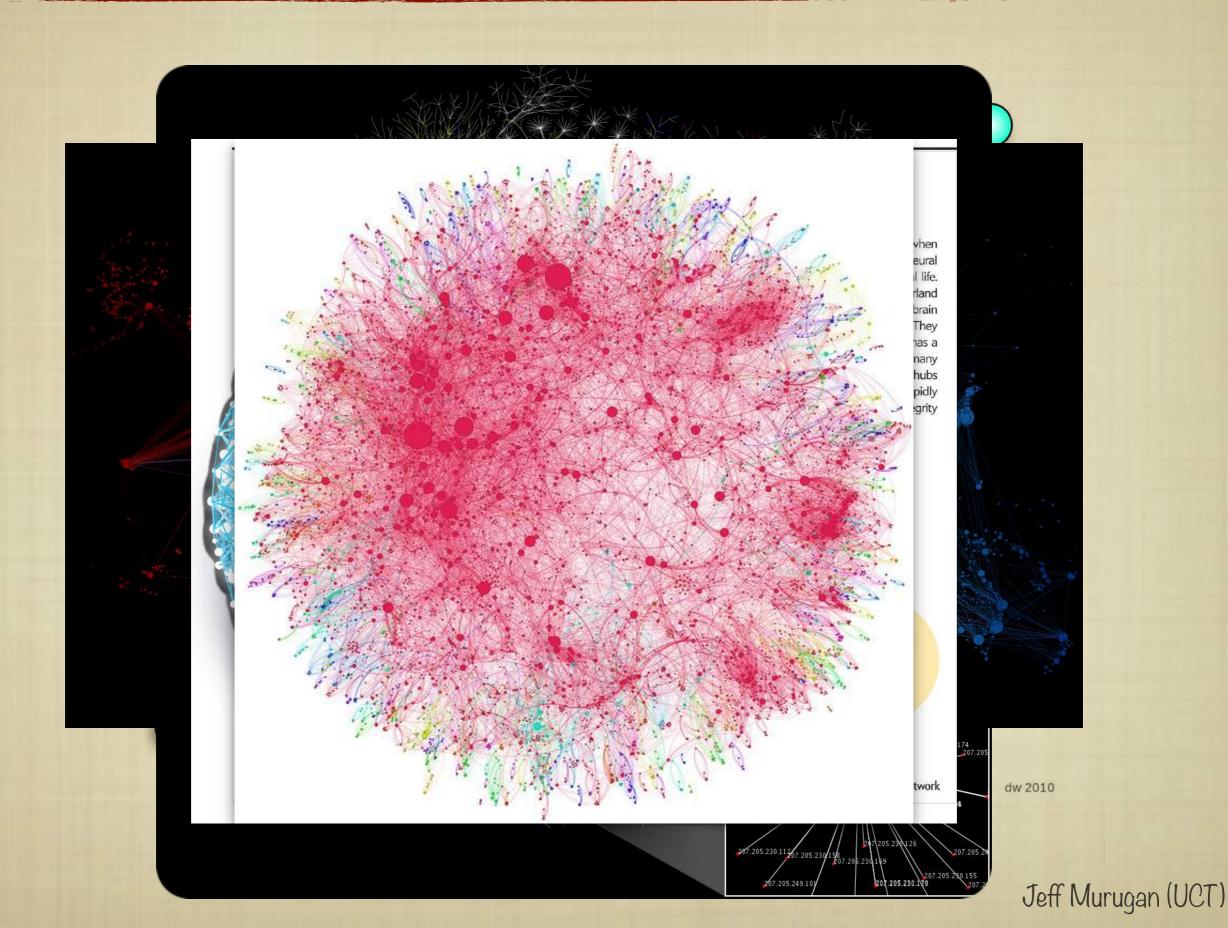
- Identifying random individuals in Nebraska
- ◆ Identifying a target individual in Boston
- Having the Nebraskans send a letter to the target by mailing only someone they knew and thought would be better placed to connect with the target

Milgram's team tracked the progress of the letter by having participants send a postcard directly to the researchers when they mailed the letter. This determined the links and nodes in the social network

How connected are we really?

- · With a small variance, the letter reached the target by 6 mailings
- The social network exhibited a small world phenomenon in that complete strangers were connected by a short acquaintance chain.
- This connectivity was mediated by a number of highly connected study participants

# Six Degrees of Separation

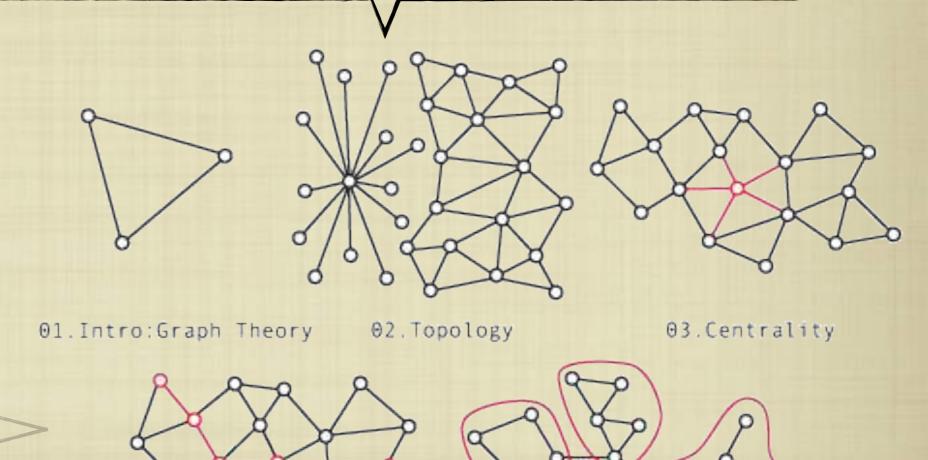


## A Network Theory Primer

[Watts '99]

ullet A graph or network G(V,E) is a collection of vertices  $V=\{v_I,I=1\dots N\}$  and edges  $E\subseteq V\otimes V$  organised in a particular way.

- The organisation can be regular like a lattice or random like an Erdös-Rényi graph
- The organisation can be sparse or dense.
- If every node is connected to every other node, the graph is called complete.



04.Distance

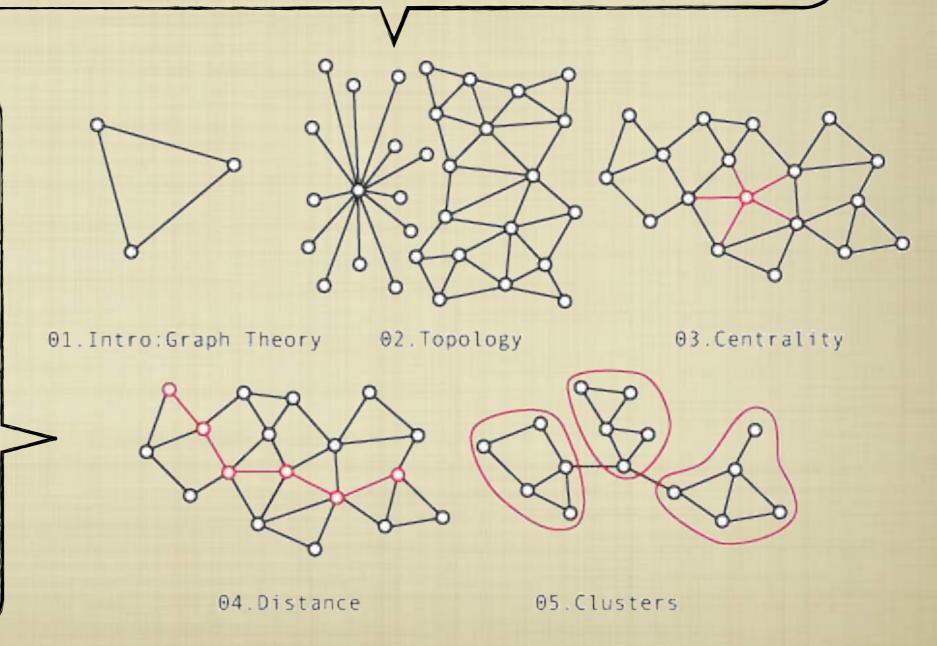
05.Clusters

## A Network Theory Primer

[Watts '99]

ullet A graph or network G(V,E) is a collection of vertices  $V=\{v_I,I=1\dots N\}$  and edges  $E\subseteq V\otimes V$  organised in a particular way.

- The organisation can be regular like a lattice or random like an Erdös-Rényi graph
- The organisation can be sparse or dense.
- If every node is connected to every other node, the graph is called complete.



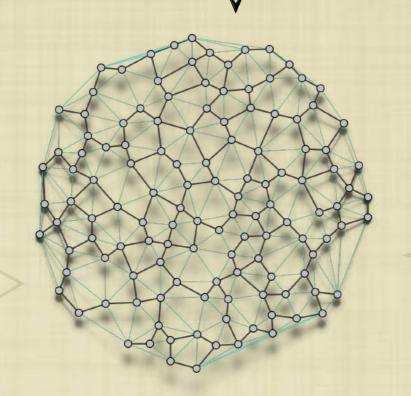
## Network Properties

#### [Newman'18]

- The degree of a node is the number of edges connected to it and can be computed from the adjacency metric as  $k_i = \sum_i A_{ij}$
- The network Laplacian generalises the idea of the usual Laplacian to a network as

$$L_{ij} = \begin{cases} k_i & i = j \\ -1 & i \neq j, (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

adjacency matrix through



The adjacency matrix

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & (i,j) \notin E \end{cases}$$

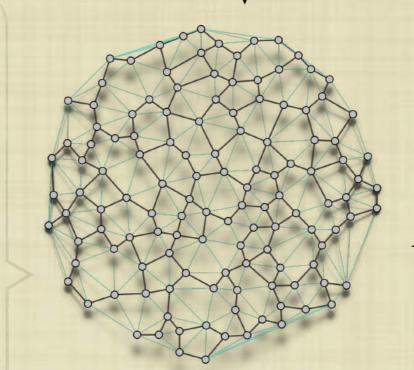
gives an unambiguous representation of any simple network

Allows for a formulation of network properties in terms of matrix algebra.

The **spectrum**  $\sigma(G)$  of the adjacency matrix is a network invariant that solves the characteristic polynomial

$$\det\left(\lambda I - A\right) = 0$$

The degree of a node is the number of edges connected to it and can be computed from the adjacency metric as  $k_i = \sum A_{ij}$ 



The adjacency matrix

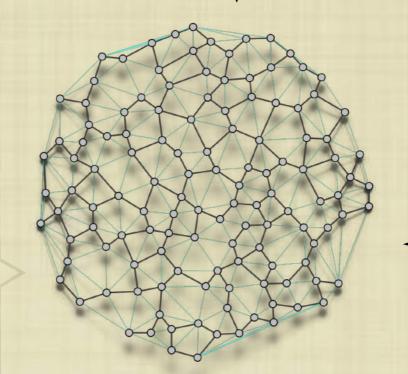
$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & (i,j) \notin E \end{cases}$$

gives an unambiguous representation of any simple network

 Allows for a formulation of network properties in terms of matrix algebra.

$$L_{ij} = k_i \delta_{ij} - A_{ij}$$

The degree of a node is the number of edges connected to it and can be computed from the adjacency metric as  $k_i = \sum_i A_{ij}$ 



The adjacency matrix

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & (i,j) \notin E \end{cases}$$

gives an unambiguous representation of any simple network

Allows for a formulation of network properties in terms of matrix algebra.

ullet The **spectrum**  $\sigma(G)$  of the adjacency matrix is a network invariant that solves the characteristic polynomial

$$\det\left(\lambda I - A\right) = 0$$

#### [Newman'18]

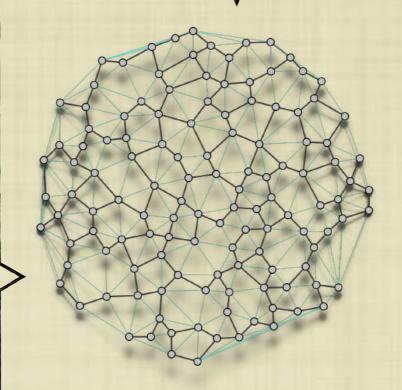
- The degree of a node is the number of edges connected to it and can be computed from the adjacency metric as  $k_i = \sum_i A_{ij}$
- The network Laplacian generalises the idea of the usual Laplacian to a network as

$$L_{ij} = \begin{cases} k_i & i = j \\ -1 & i \neq j, (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 It can be related to the adjacency matrix through

$$L_{ij} = k_i \delta_{ij} - A_{ij}$$

 Useful for the partitioning of the network.



The adjacency matrix

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & (i,j) \notin E \end{cases}$$

gives an unambiguous representation of any simple network

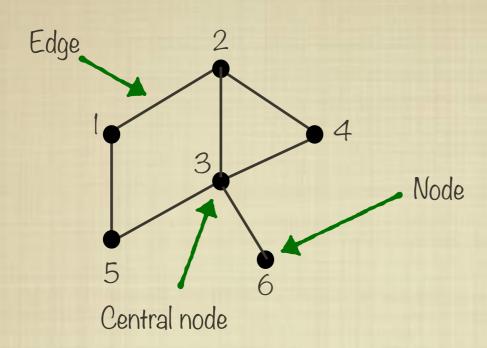
Allows for a formulation of network properties in terms of matrix algebra.

ullet The **spectrum**  $\sigma(G)$  of the adjacency matrix is a network invariant that solves the characteristic polynomial

$$\det\left(\lambda I - A\right) = 0$$

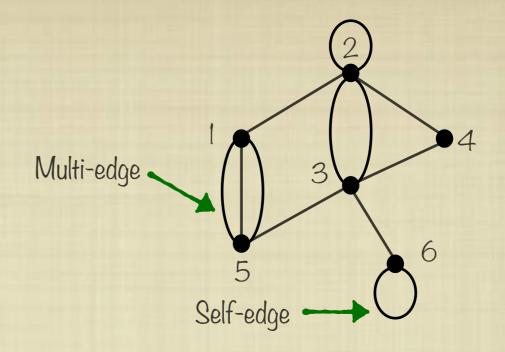
## Some Examples

[Newman '18]



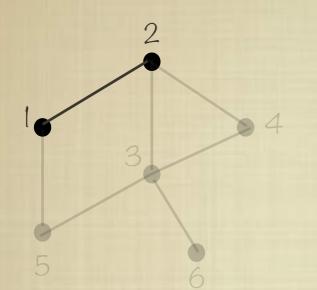
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

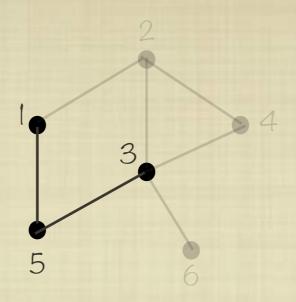


$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

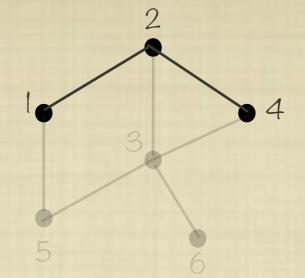
# Path length



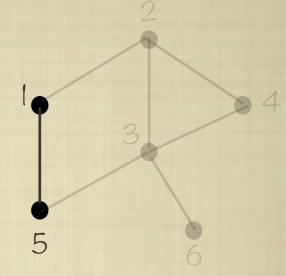
$$d_{12} = 1$$



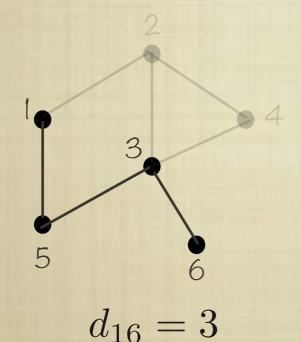
$$d_{13} = 2$$



$$d_{14} = 2$$



$$d_{15} = 1$$



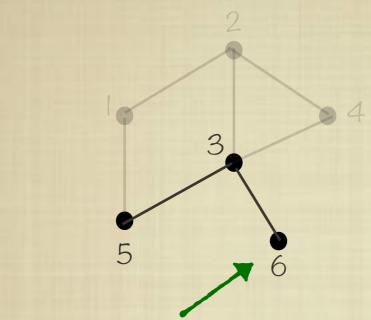
Mean distance between node I and all other nodes:

$$l_1 = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{j=1}^{6} d_{1j} = \frac{3}{2}$$

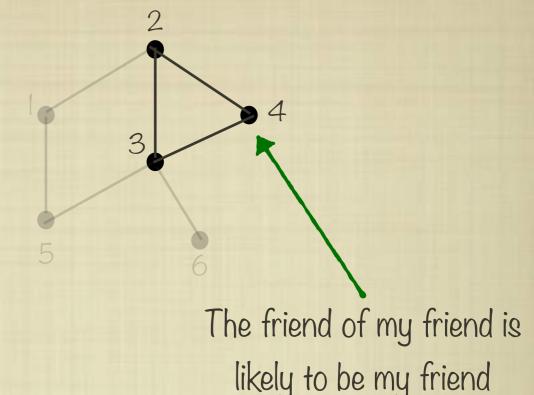
◆ Mean distance between nodes for the whole network:

$$\langle l \rangle = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} l_i = \frac{4}{3}$$

## Transitivity & Clustering



The friend of my friend is not necessarily my friend



- Paths of length 2 and are closed form a loop. Networks with many loops are highly clustered.
- We quantify the clustering of a network by the clustering coefficient

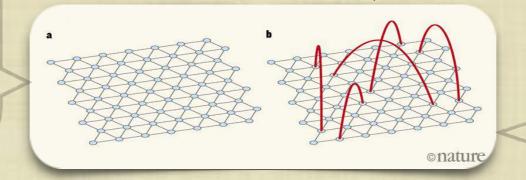
$$C = \frac{\text{\# of closed paths of length 2}}{\text{\# of paths of length 2}} = \frac{6 \times (\text{\# of triangles})}{\text{\# of paths of length 2}} = \frac{3 \times (\text{\# of triangles})}{\text{\# of connected triples}}$$

[Watts-Strogatz '98, Watts '99]

Small world networks interpolate between the clustering (localising) properties of regular graphs and the rapid spreading of information in random networks.

An N-node small world network is a graph in which:

- ullet the **typical distance** between two randomly selected nodes in the network  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N^2-N)\sim \log N$
- \* there is a large degree of clustering.



Scale-free networks are a special class of small word graphs that proliferate a large number of hubs. As a result, the mean path length are significantly shorter and scale like  $L \sim \log \log N$ 

#### Small worldness of a graph can be measured by:

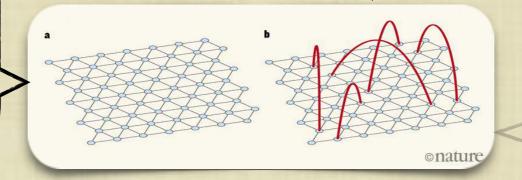
- The smallness coefficient  $\sigma=(C/C_r)/(L/L_r)$  which is >1 for a small world network but very dependent on the network size.
- ullet The small world parameter  $\omega=1-|(L_r/L-C/C_l)|$  which ranges between O (regular) and I (small world)

[Watts-Strogatz '98, Watts '99]

Small world networks interpolate between the clustering (localising) properties of regular graphs and the rapid spreading of information in random networks.

An N-node small world network is a graph in which:

- ullet the **typical distance** between two randomly selected nodes in the network  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N^2-N)\sim \log N$
- there is a large degree of clustering.



Small worldness of a graph can be measured by:

- The smallness coefficient  $\sigma=(C/C_r)/(L/L_r)$  which is >1 for a small world network but very dependent on the network size.
- ullet The small world parameter  $\omega=1-|(L_r/L-C/C_l)|$  which ranges between O (regular) and I (small world)

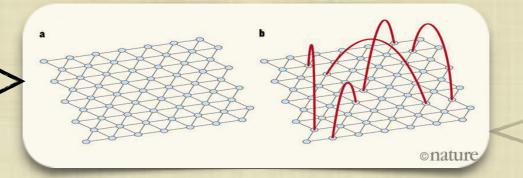
Scale-free networks are a special class of small word graphs that proliferate a large number of hubs. As a result, the mean path length are significantly shorter and scale like  $L \sim \log\log N$ 

[Watts-Strogatz '98, Watts '99]

Small world networks interpolate between the clustering (localising) properties of regular graphs and the rapid spreading of information in random networks.

An N-node small world network is a graph in which:

- ullet the **typical distance** between two randomly selected nodes in the network  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N^2-N)\sim \log N$
- there is a large degree of clustering.



Small worldness of a graph can be measured by:

- The smallness coefficient  $\sigma=(C/C_r)/(L/L_r)$  which is >1 for a small world network but very dependent on the network size.
- ullet The small world parameter  $\omega=1-|(L_r/L-C/C_l)|$  which ranges between O (regular) and I (small world)

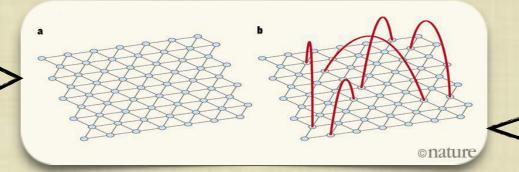
Scale-free networks are a special class of small word graphs that proliferate a large number of hubs. As a result, the mean path length are significantly shorter and scale like  $L \sim \log\log N$ 

[Watts-Strogatz '98, Watts '99]

Small world networks interpolate between the clustering (localising) properties of regular graphs and the rapid spreading of information in random networks.

An N-node small world network is a graph in which:

- ullet the **typical distance** between two randomly selected nodes in the network  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N^2-N)\sim \log N$
- there is a large degree of clustering.



Scale-free networks are a special class of small word graphs that proliferate a large number of hubs. As a result, the mean path length are significantly shorter and scale like  $L \sim \log\log N$ 

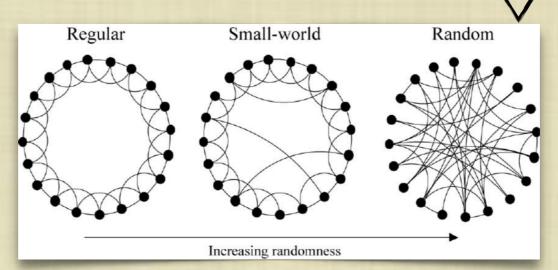
#### Small worldness of a graph can be measured by:

- The smallness coefficient  $\sigma=(C/C_r)/(L/L_r)$  which is >1 for a small world network but very dependent on the network size.
- $\bullet$  The small world parameter  $\omega=1-|(L_r/L-C/C_l)|$  which ranges between O (regular) and I (small world)

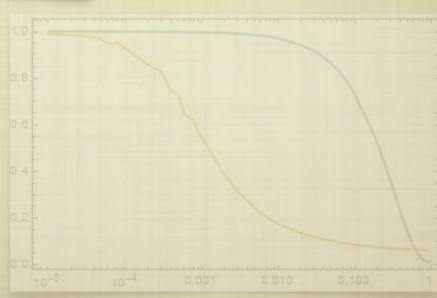
[Watts-Strogatz'98]

The resulting small world network inherits its clustering properties from the underlying lattice and its short path length from the random long-range connections.

- ◆ Start with a regular N-node lattice with k/2-nearest-neighbour edges.
- ullet At each node  $n_i$ :
  - ullet Iterate through each edge (i,j) connecting  $n_i$  to  $n_j 
    eq n_i$
  - ullet With probability p, rewire the edge by replacing (i,j) with a random (i,k)



- lacktriangle The clustering coefficient  $C_i=2E_i/(k_i(k_i-1))$  measures how cliquey the graph is.
- The path length  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N(N-1))$  of the network is the average of the shortest geodesic between any two nodes.

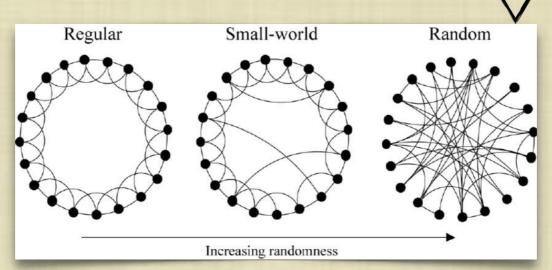


Jeff Murugan (UCT)

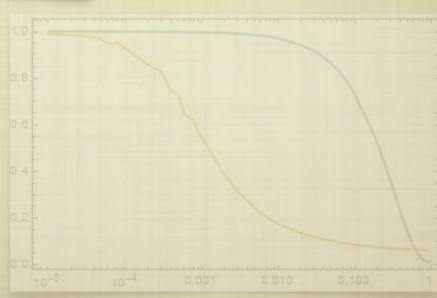
[Watts-Strogatz'98]

The resulting small world network inherits its clustering properties from the underlying lattice and its short path length from the random long-range connections.

- ◆ Start with a regular N-node lattice with k/2-nearest-neighbour edges.
- $\bullet$  At each node  $n_i$ :
  - ullet Iterate through each edge (i,j) connecting  $n_i$  to  $n_j 
    eq n_i$
  - ullet With probability p, rewire the edge by replacing (i,j) with a random (i,k)

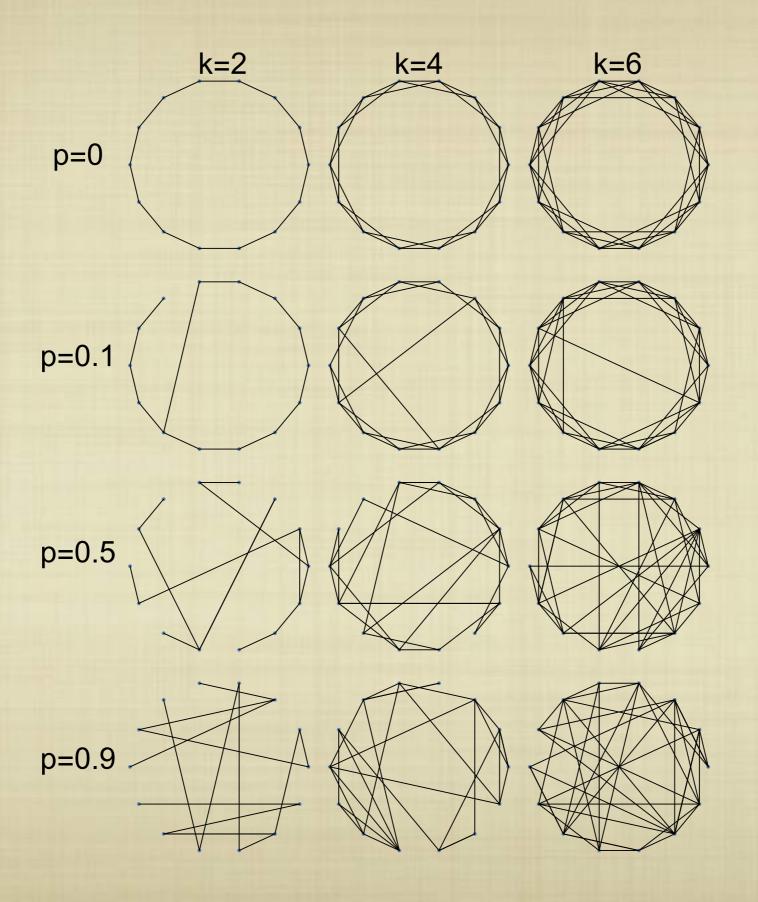


- lacktriangle The clustering coefficient  $C_i=2E_i/(k_i(k_i-1))$  measures how cliquey the graph is.
- The path length  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N(N-1))$  of the network is the average of the shortest geodesic between any two nodes.



Jeff Murugan (UCT)

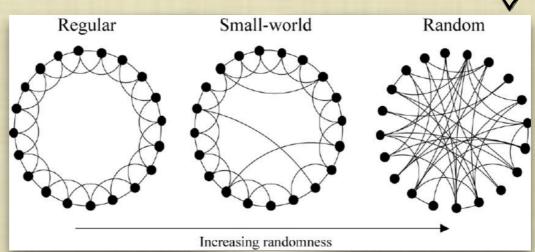
[Watts-Strogatz'98]



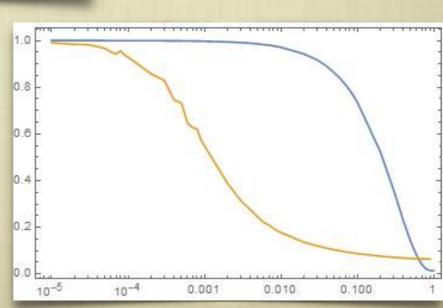
[Watts-Strogatz'98]

The resulting small world network inherits its clustering properties from the underlying lattice and its short path length from the random long-range connections.

- ◆ Start with a regular N-node lattice with k/2-nearest-neighbour edges.
- $\bullet$  At each node  $n_i$ :
  - ullet Iterate through each edge (i,j) connecting  $n_i$  to  $n_j 
    eq n_i$
  - lacktriangle With probability p, rewire the edge by replacing (i,j) with a random (i,k)



- ◆ The clustering coefficient  $C_i = 2E_i/(k_i(k_i-1))$  measures how cliquey the graph is.
- The path length  $L=\sum_{i\neq j}d_{ij}/(N(N-1))$  of the network is the average of the shortest geodesic between any two nodes.



Jeff Murugan (UCT)

#### [Moore-Newman 'OO]

$$t = \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^r \frac{du}{1 - u - s_0 e^{-\beta u/\gamma}}$$

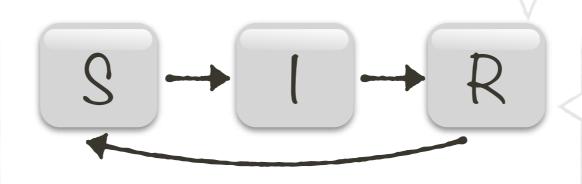
$$r \to 1 - e^{-\beta r/\gamma}$$

$$R_0 = \beta \gamma \int_0^\infty d\tau \, \tau e^{-\gamma \tau} = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$$

$$s = -\rho sx$$

$$\dot{s} = -\beta sx$$
  $\dot{x} = \beta sx - \gamma x$   $\dot{r} = \gamma x$ 

$$\dot{r} = \gamma x$$



$$x(t) = \frac{x_0 e^{\beta t}}{1 - x_0 + x_0 e^{\beta t}}$$

#### [Moore-Newman 'OO]

$$t = \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^r \frac{du}{1 - u - s_0 e^{-\beta u/\gamma}}$$

$$r \to 1 - e^{-\beta r/\gamma}$$

$$R_0 = \beta \gamma \int_0^\infty d\tau \, \tau e^{-\gamma \tau} = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$$

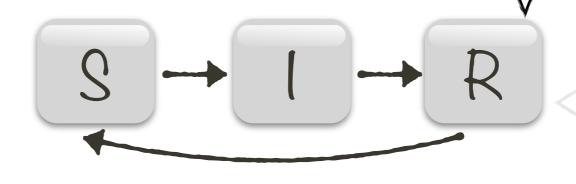
Traditional epidemic models compartmentalise the population into Susceptible, Infectious and Removed interacting in a fully mixed way:

$$s = -\beta sx$$

$$\dot{s} = -\beta sx$$
  $\dot{x} = \beta sx - \gamma x$   $\dot{r} = \gamma x$ 

$$\dot{r} = \gamma x$$

subject to s + x + r = 1



$$x(t) = \frac{x_0 e^{\beta t}}{1 - x_0 + x_0 e^{\beta t}}$$

#### [Moore-Newman 'OO]

$$t = \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^r \frac{du}{1 - u - s_0 e^{-\beta u/\gamma}}$$

$$r \to 1 - e^{-\beta r/\gamma}$$

$$R_0 = \beta \gamma \int_0^\infty d\tau \, \tau e^{-\gamma \tau} = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$$

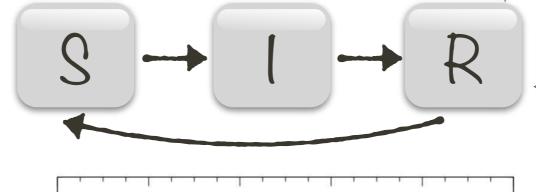
Traditional epidemic models compartmentalise the population into Susceptible, Infectious and Removed interacting in a fully mixed way:

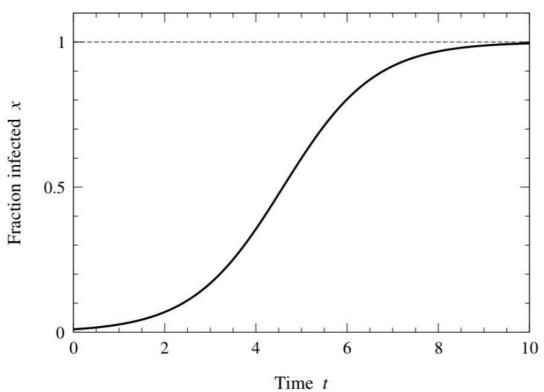
$$\dot{s} = -\beta sx$$

$$\dot{s} = -\beta sx$$
  $\dot{x} = \beta sx - \gamma x$   $\dot{r} = \gamma x$ 

$$\dot{r} = \gamma x$$

subject to s + x + r = 1





lacktriangle Setting  $\gamma=0$  in the SIR model reduces to an SI model with logistic growth

$$x(t) = \frac{x_0 e^{\beta t}}{1 - x_0 + x_0 e^{\beta t}}$$

of infected individuals which always results in an epidemic.

Jeff Murugan (UCT)

#### [Moore-Newman 'OO]

 The SIR model can be solved as a quadrature

$$t = \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^r \frac{du}{1 - u - s_0 e^{-\beta u/\gamma}}$$

At late times

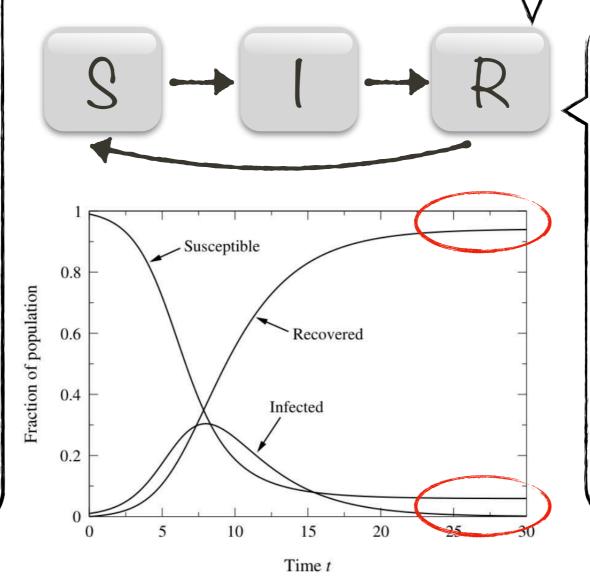
$$r \to 1 - e^{-\beta r/\gamma}$$

- The critical point  $\beta = \gamma$  defines the **epidemic threshold** below which there is no epidemic.
- ◆ In the SIR model, the basic reproduction number

$$R_0 = \beta \gamma \int_0^\infty d\tau \, \tau e^{-\gamma \tau} = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$$

• Traditional epidemic models compartmentalise the population into Susceptible, Infectious and Removed interacting in a fully mixed way:  $\dot{s} = -\beta sx \qquad \dot{x} = \beta sx - \gamma x \qquad \dot{r} = \gamma x$ 

subject to 
$$s + x + r = 1$$

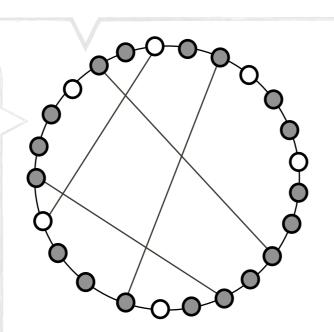


• Setting  $\gamma=0$  in the SIR model reduces to an SI model with logistic growth

$$x(t) = \frac{x_0 e^{\beta t}}{1 - x_0 + x_0 e^{\beta t}}$$

of infected individuals which always results in an epidemic.

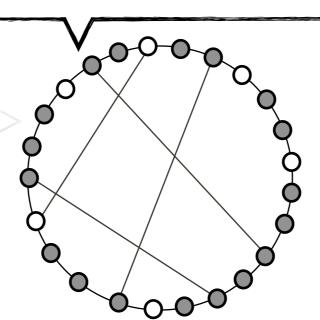
- Important epidemiological parameters are susceptibility of the population and transmissibility of the disease.
- When an epidemic takes place can be mapped to a standard percolation problem on a small-world network!
- Numerical results show that:
  - Epidemics spread more rapidly in highly susceptible populations
- The amount of time for an epidemic to spread is given by the average radius of connected clusters of susceptible individuals.
- The infection curve flattens as  $\phi$  is increased.
- No epidemic outbreak takes place below the percolation threshold



#### [Moore-Newman 'OO]

- A uniform probability of interaction corresponds to a random network.
- Real social networks exhibit clustering: two people are more likely to know each other if they have a common acquaintance.

- Important epidemiological parameters are susceptibility of the population and transmissibility of the disease.
- When an epidemic takes place can be mapped to a standard percolation problem on a small-world network!
- Numerical results show that:
  - Epidemics spread more rapidly in highly susceptible populations
- The amount of time for an epidemic to spread is given by the average radius of connected clusters of susceptible individuals.
- The infection curve flattens as  $\phi$  is increased.
- No epidemic outbreak takes place below the percolation threshold

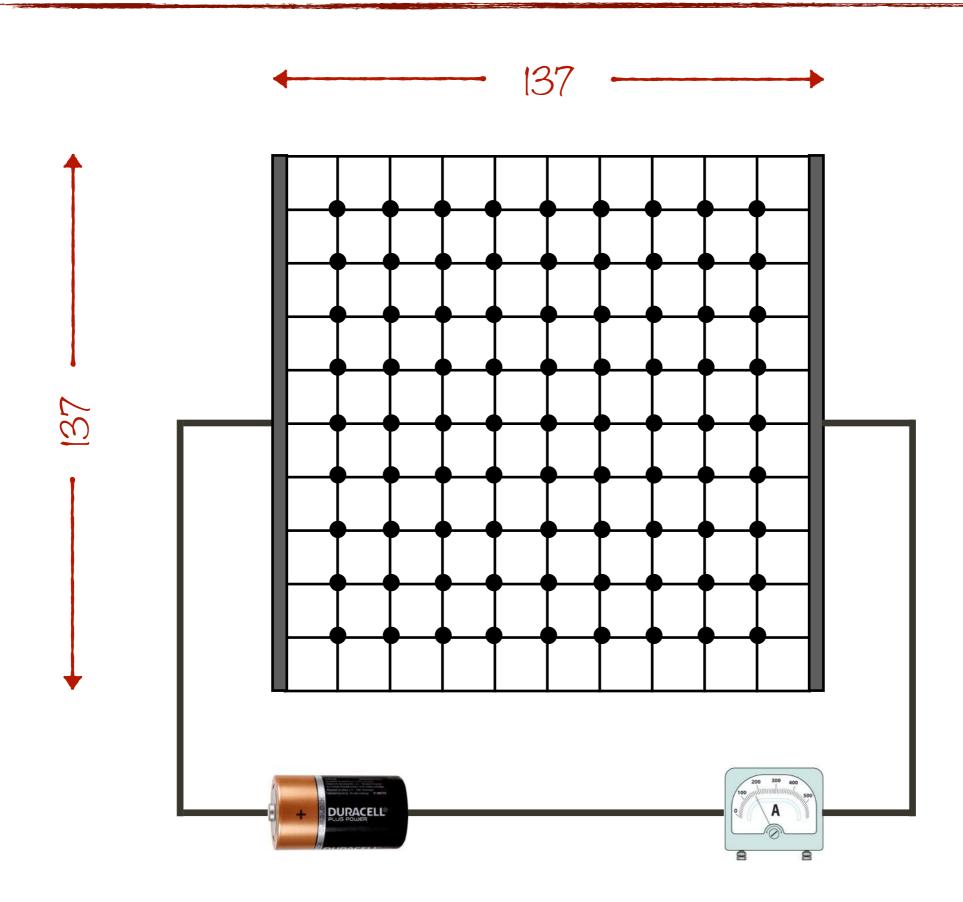


#### [Moore-Newman 'OO]

- A uniform probability of interaction corresponds to a random network.
- Real social networks exhibit clustering: two people are more likely to know each other if they have a common acquaintance.

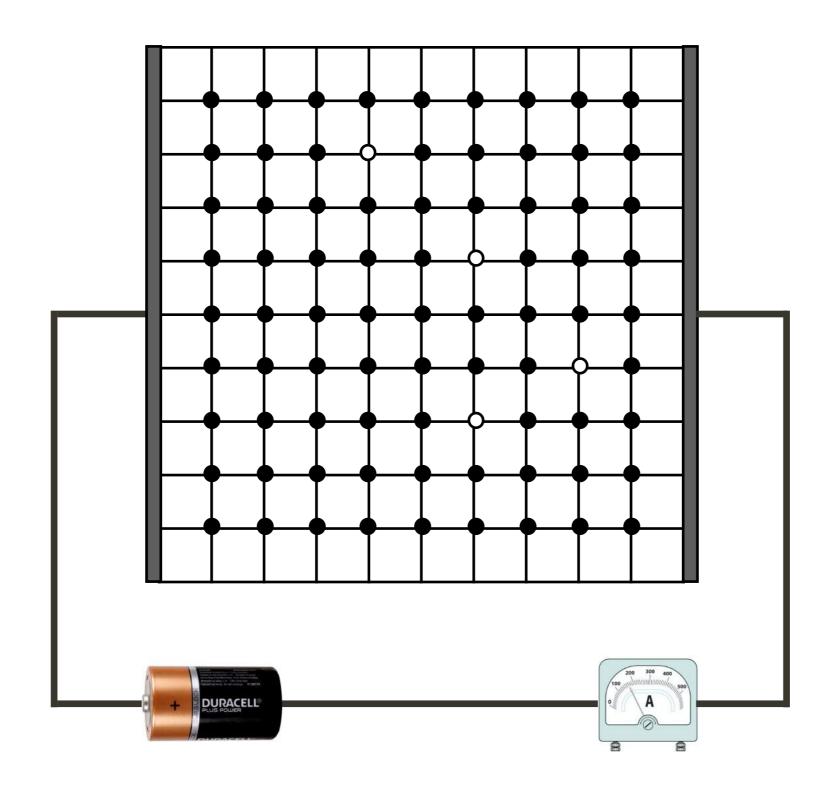
## Percolation

[Watson-Leath '74]

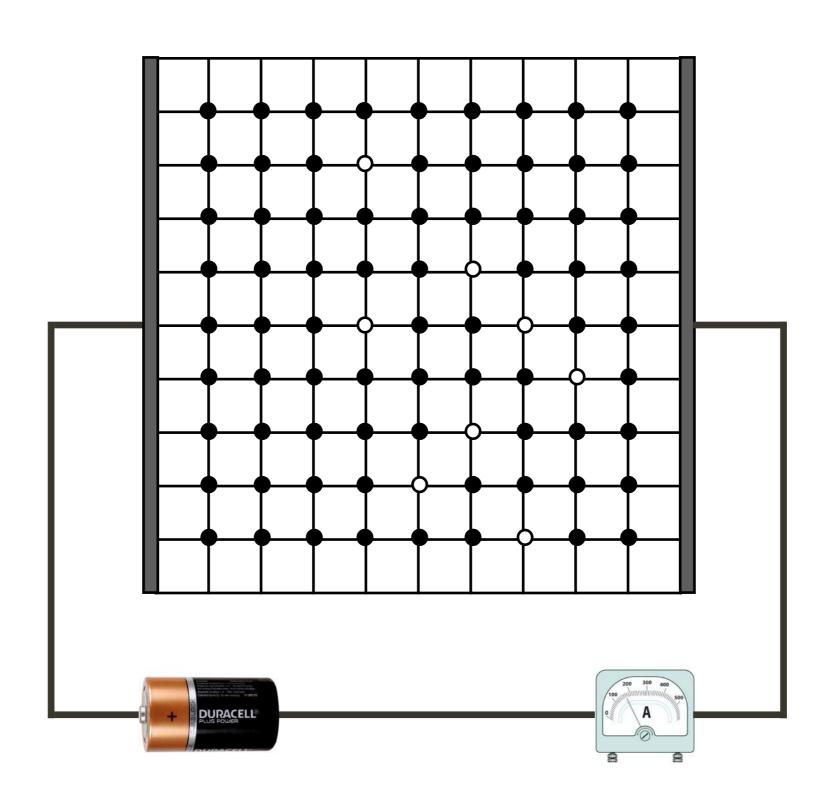


[Watson-Leath '74]

 $\phi = \text{Ratio of unblocked sites to total number of sites (137 x 137)}$ 

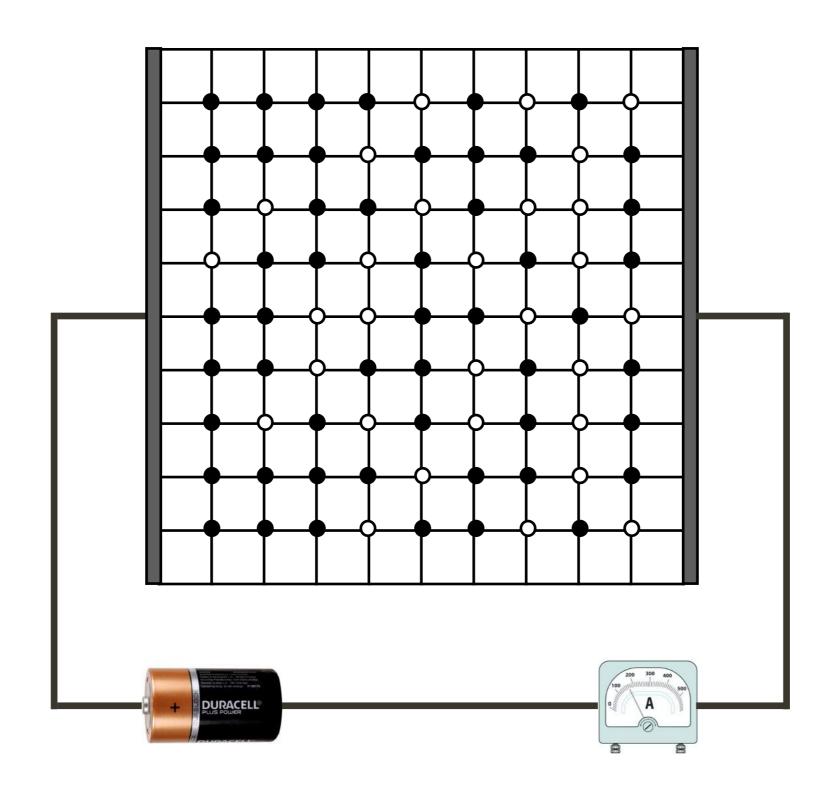


[Watson-Leath '74]

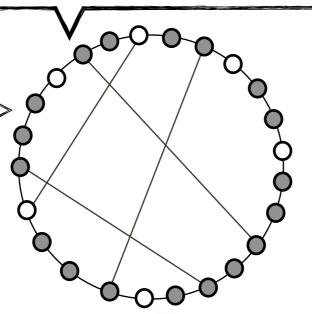


[Watson-Leath '74]

The smallest value of  $\phi$  at which no current flows is the <code>percolation</code> threshold  $\phi_c$ 

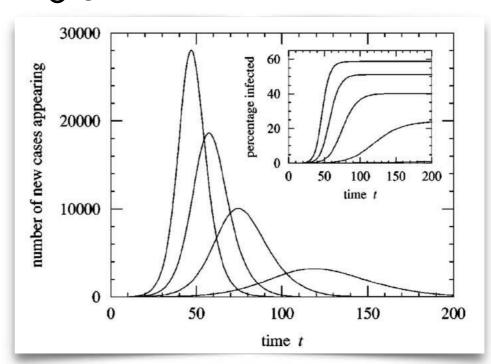


- Important epidemiological parameters are susceptibility of the population and transmissibility of the disease.
- When an epidemic takes place can be mapped to a standard percolation problem on a small-world network!
- Numerical results show that:
  - Epidemics spread more rapidly in highly susceptible populations
- The amount of time for an epidemic to spread is given by the average radius of connected clusters of susceptible individuals.
- The infection curve flattens as  $\phi$  is increased.
- No epidemic outbreak takes place below the percolation threshold.



[Moore-Newman 'OO]

- A uniform probability of interaction corresponds to a random network.
- Real social networks exhibit clustering: two people are more likely to know each other if they have a common acquaintance.



Jeff Murugan (UCT)

## Quantum Small-Worlds I - Hamiltonian

[JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

- For nearest-neighbour interactions this is the XXX Heisenberg spin chain, a well-known and much-loved integrable system.
- For more general (regular) couplings, we can still solve the eigenvalue problem for  $H\subset GL(2^N\times 2^N,\mathbb{C})$

$$H = -\sum_{I=1}^{N} \sum_{j=I+1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{3} A_{ij} S_i^k S_j^k$$

- Each vertex in the network accommodates a spin-1/2 state.
- \* Edges represent spin-exchange interactions between states on the lattice.
- $\bullet\, S_i^k = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_i^k\,$  is the k'th Pauli spin matrix acting at site i.
- ullet The network topology is encoded in the NxN adjacency matrix  $A_{ij}$  which will consist of either I's or O's if we normalise the couplings.

#### Quantum Small-Worlds I - Hamiltonian

k-local regular

N=11 sites. From

lattices with

top to bottom

(4,0.5,1.8);

(10,1.0,1.0)

(8,0.75,1.2) and

(k,C,L) =

[JM-Hartmann-Shock'19] Adjacency matrix with black=I and white=O 500 1000 1500 Eigenvalue spectrum 500 2000 1000 1500 1000

## Quantum Small-Worlds I - Hamiltonian

[JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

- For nearest-neighbour interactions this is the XXX Heisenberg spin chain, a well-known and much-loved integrable system.
- lacktriangle For more general (regular) couplings, we can still solve the eigenvalue problem for  $H\subset GL(2^N\times 2^N,\mathbb{C})$

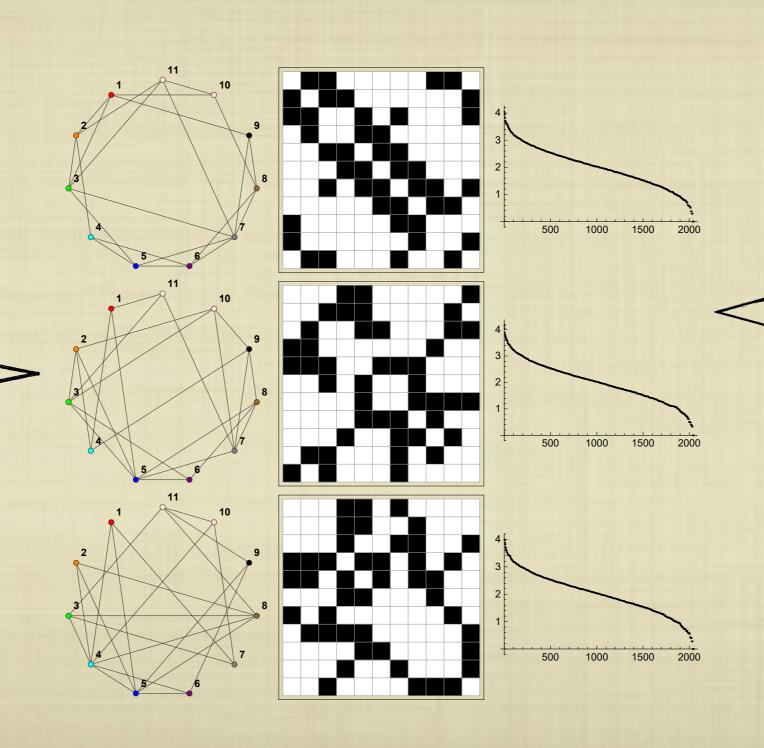
$$H = -\sum_{I=1}^{N} \sum_{j=I+1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{3} A_{ij} S_i^k S_j^k$$

- ◆ Each vertex in the network accommodates a spin-1/2 state.
- \* Edges represent spin-exchange interactions between states on the lattice.
- $\bullet\, S_i^k = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_i^k\,$  is the k'th Pauli spin matrix acting at site i.
- ullet The **network topology** is encoded in the NxN **adjacency matrix**  $A_{ij}$  which will consist of either I's or O's if we normalise the couplings.

## Quantum Small-Worlds I - Hamiltonian

[JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

Implementing the Watts-Strogatz protocol for fixed k=4 and N=11. From top to bottom the spinchains differ only in re-wiring probability, p



From top to bottom (p,C,L) = (0.1,0.45,0.76); (0.5,0.41,1.73); (0.75, 0.23, 1.67) Notice that even for large k the spectrum remains close to the regular chain

To study scrambling in quantum small-world networks, we compute the infinite temperature four-point OTOC

 $C_{\beta=0}(t)=\langle\psi|S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)|\psi\rangle_{\beta=0}$  where  $|\psi\rangle$  is some pure state and  $S_j^z(t)=e^{iHt}S_j^z(0)e^{-iHt}$  is the time-evolved Heisenberg spin operator

How do quantum small world systems scramble information?

An alternative diagnostic is the spectral form factor which is the analytic continuation of the thermal partition function

$$g(t;\beta) = \frac{\langle |Z(\beta,t)|^2 \rangle_J}{\langle Z(\beta) \rangle_J^2}$$

The SFF exhibits late time RMT behaviour and is closer to the OTOC than standard RMT measures.

### [JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

- \* Scrambling is the tendency of a many body quantum system to delocalize quantum information over all its degrees of freedom.
- It can be diagnosed
   by the thermally
   averaged
   commutator squared,
   C(t)
- Equivalently, through the OTOC

 $\langle A^{\dagger}(t)B^{\dagger}(0)A(t)B(0)\rangle$ 

To study scrambling in quantum small-world networks, we compute the infinite temperature four-point OTOC

 $C_{\beta=0}(t)=\langle\psi|S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)|\psi\rangle_{\beta=0}$  where  $|\psi\rangle$  is some pure state and  $S_j^z(t)=e^{iHt}S_j^z(0)e^{-iHt}$  is the time-evolved Heisenberg spin operator

How do quantum small world systems scramble information?

An alternative diagnostic is the spectral form factor which is the analytic continuation of the thermal partition function

$$g(t;\beta) = \frac{\langle |Z(\beta,t)|^2 \rangle_J}{\langle Z(\beta) \rangle_J^2}$$

The SFF exhibits late time RMT behaviour and is closer to the OTOC than standard RMT measures.

### [JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

- Scrambling is the tendency of a many body quantum system to delocalize quantum information over all its degrees of freedom.
- It can be diagnosed
  by the thermally
  averaged
  commutator squared,
  C(t)
- Equivalently, through the OTOC

 $\langle A^{\dagger}(t)B^{\dagger}(0)A(t)B(0)\rangle$ 

To study scrambling in quantum small-world networks, we compute the infinite temperature four-point OTOC

$$C_{\beta=0}(t)=\langle\psi|S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)|\psi\rangle_{\beta=0}$$
 where  $|\psi\rangle$  is some pure state and  $S_j^z(t)=e^{iHt}S_j^z(0)e^{-iHt}$  is the time-

evolved Heisenberg spin operator

How do quantum small world systems scramble information?

An alternative diagnostic is the spectral form factor which is the analytic continuation of the thermal partition function

$$g(t;\beta) = \frac{\langle |Z(\beta,t)|^2 \rangle_J}{\langle Z(\beta) \rangle_J^2}$$

The SFF exhibits late time RMT behaviour and is closer to the OTOC than standard RMT measures.

### [JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

- Scrambling is the tendency of a many body quantum system to delocalize quantum information over all its degrees of freedom.
- It can be diagnosed
  by the thermally
  averaged
  commutator squared,
  C(t)
- Equivalently, through the OTOC

 $\langle A^{\dagger}(t)B^{\dagger}(0)A(t)B(0)\rangle$ 

To study scrambling in quantum small-world networks, we compute the infinite temperature four-point OTOC

$$C_{\beta=0}(t)=\langle\psi|S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)S_i^z(0)S_j^z(t)|\psi\rangle_{\beta=0}$$
 is some nurs state and  $S_j^z(t)=e^{iHt}S_j^z(0)e^{-iHt}$  is the time

where  $|\psi\rangle$  is some pure state and  $S^z_j(t)=e^{iHt}S^z_j(0)e^{-iHt}$  is the time-evolved Heisenberg spin operator

How do quantum small world systems scramble information?

An alternative diagnostic is the spectral form factor which is the analytic continuation of the thermal partition function

$$g(t;\beta) = \frac{\langle |Z(\beta,t)|^2 \rangle_J}{\langle Z(\beta) \rangle_J^2}$$

The SFF exhibits late time RMT behaviour and is closer to the OTOC than standard RMT measures.

### [JM-Hartmann-Shock'19]

- Scrambling is the tendency of a many body quantum system to delocalize quantum information over all its degrees of freedom.
- It can be diagnosed by the thermally averaged commutator squared, C(t)
- Equivalently, through the OTOC

 $\langle A^{\dagger}(t)B^{\dagger}(0)A(t)B(0)\rangle$ 

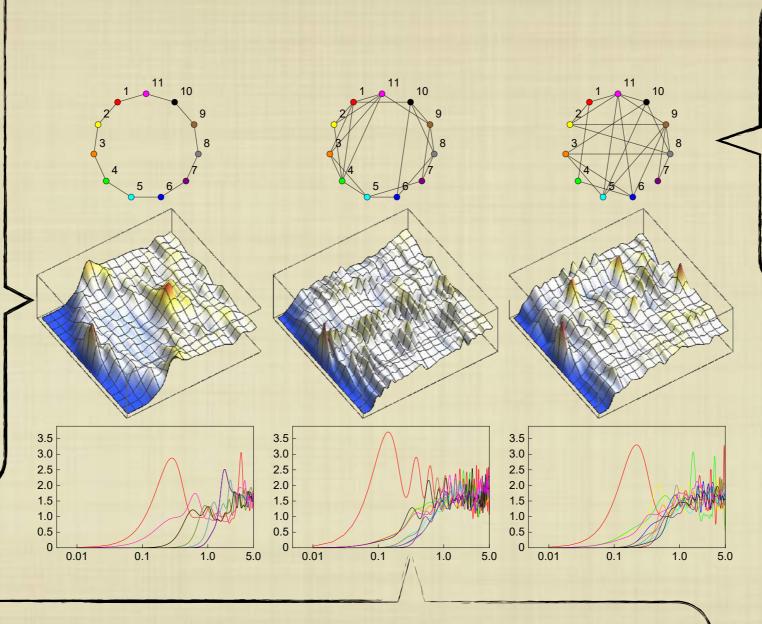
## Quantum Small-Worlds II - OTOC & SFF

[JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

The OTOC

$$C_{ij}(t) = 2(1 - Re(C_0(t)))$$

numerically computed and plotted as a function of the vertex degree k and rewiring probability p for (p,k) = (2,0); (4,0.25); (4,0.75)



Il-site lattices with random re-wirings of the lattice following the Watts-Strogatz protocol.

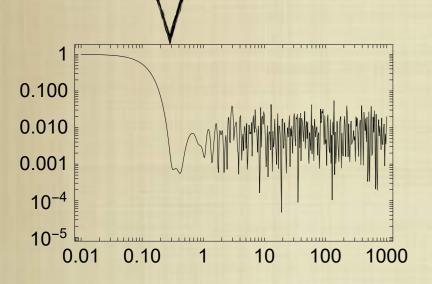
- lacktriangle Vertex-wise correlators  $C_{1j}(t)$  for an initial disturbance at site I.
- We note that  $C_{1j}(t) \sim t^b$  for 1.76 < b < 6.23; 1.76 < b < 3.22 and 1.73 < b < 3.42 for p=0, 0.25 and 0.75 respectively.

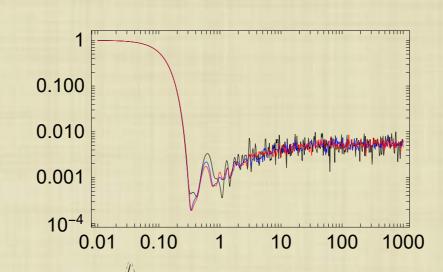
# Quantum Small-Worlds II - OTOC & SFF

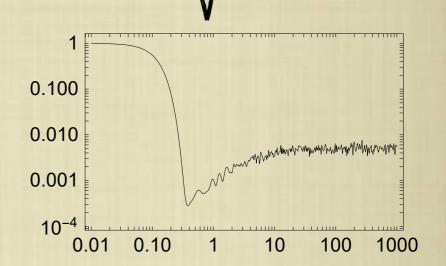
[JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

Infinite temperature SFF for zero re-wirings of the network (regular lattice. No DRP behaviour.

SFF computed for 20 re-wirings ( $p\sim1$ ). There is a clear Dip-Ramp-Plateau behaviour with the plateau setting in at around t=10, for N=7,8,9,...







SFF for I (black), 2 (blue) and 3 (red) re-wirings of the system. The Dip-Ramp-Plateau behaviour starts to manifest.

### [JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

- Any short-range chaos diagnostic will crucially depend on global symmetries of the system.
- ◆ No level-repulsion between eigenvalues in different global symmetry sectors.
- ◆ Each symmetry sector must be analysed separately.

- \* Neighbouring eigenvalues repel each other in random matrix theory
- ullet To study the spectral statistics we take a list of ordered, non-degenerate energy eigenvalues and compute  $s_i=E_{I+1}-E_i$
- If the system is chaotic,  $p_{\beta}(s) = a_{\beta}s^{\beta} \exp(-b_{\beta}s^2)$

How close to RMT is the Quantum Small World?

- Nearest neighbour distributions have two drawbacks:

  1. They require the spectrum to be
- unfolded
- 2. Only tell us if the spectrum is globally RMT or not.

- r-statistics is a local spectral observable capable of telling whether small clusters of energy eigenvalues display RMT behaviour
- lacktriangle Given the energy spacings, we define  $r_i = \mathrm{Min}(s_i,\,s_{I+1})/\mathrm{Max}(s_i,\,s_{I+1})$
- The ratios  $r_i$  take very specific values in RMT e.g.  $r_{GOE} \approx 0.53590$  but are much smaller for integrable systems e.g.  $r_P \approx 0.38629$

### [JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

- Any short-range chaos diagnostic will crucially depend on global symmetries of the system.
- ◆ No level-repulsion between eigenvalues in different global symmetry sectors.
- ◆ Each symmetry sector must be analysed separately.

- ◆ Neighbouring eigenvalues repel each other in random matrix theory
- ullet To study the spectral statistics we take a list of ordered, non-degenerate energy eigenvalues and compute  $s_i=E_{I+1}-E_i$
- If the system is chaotic,  $p_{\beta}(s) = a_{\beta}s^{\beta} \exp(-b_{\beta}s^2)$

How close to RMT is the Quantum Small World?

- Nearest neighbour distributions have two drawbacks:
- 1. They require the spectrum to be

### unfolded

2. Only tell us if the spectrum is globally RMT or not.

- r-statistics is a local spectral observable capable of telling whether small clusters of energy eigenvalues display RMT behaviour
- lacktriangle Given the energy spacings, we define  $r_i = \mathrm{Min}(s_i,\,s_{I+1})/\mathrm{Max}(s_i,\,s_{I+1})$
- The ratios  $r_i$  take very specific values in RMT e.g.  $r_{GOE} \approx 0.53590$  but are much smaller for integrable systems e.g.  $r_P \approx 0.38629$

[JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

- Any short-range chaos diagnostic will crucially depend on global symmetries of the system.
- No level-repulsion between eigenvalues in different global symmetry sectors.
- ◆ Each symmetry sector must be analysed separately.

- ◆ Neighbouring eigenvalues repel each other in random matrix theory
- ullet To study the spectral statistics we take a list of ordered, non-degenerate energy eigenvalues and compute  $s_i=E_{I+1}-E_i$
- If the system is chaotic,  $p_{\beta}(s) = a_{\beta}s^{\beta} \exp(-b_{\beta}s^2)$

How close to RMT is the Quantum Small World?

- Nearest neighbour distributions have two drawbacks:
- 1. They require the spectrum to be

### unfolded

2. Only tell us if the spectrum is globally RMT or not.

- r-statistics is a local spectral observable capable of telling whether small clusters of energy eigenvalues display RMT behaviour
- Given the energy spacings, we define  $r_i = \text{Min}(s_i, s_{I+1})/\text{Max}(s_i, s_{I+1})$
- ◆ The ratios  $r_i$  take very specific values in RMT e.g.  $r_{GOE}\approx 0.53590$  but are much smaller for integrable systems e.g.  $r_P\approx 0.38629$

### [JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

- Any short-range chaos diagnostic will crucially depend on global symmetries of the system.
- No level-repulsion between eigenvalues in different global symmetry sectors.
- Each symmetry sector must be analysed separately.

- ◆ Neighbouring eigenvalues repel each other in random matrix theory
- ullet To study the spectral statistics we take a list of ordered, non-degenerate energy eigenvalues and compute  $s_i=E_{I+1}-E_i$
- If the system is chaotic,  $p_{\beta}(s) = a_{\beta}s^{\beta} \exp(-b_{\beta}s^2)$

How close to RMT is the Quantum Small World?

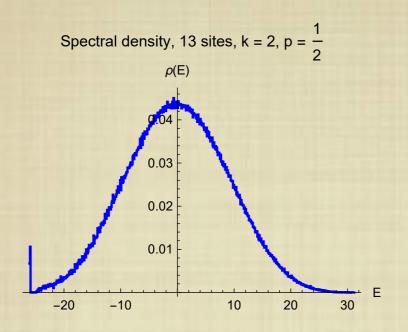
- Nearest neighbour distributions have two drawbacks:
- 1. They require the spectrum to be

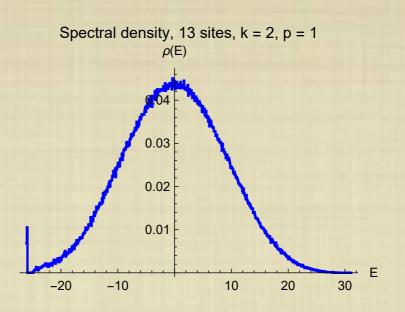
### unfolded

2. Only tell us if the spectrum is globally RMT or not.

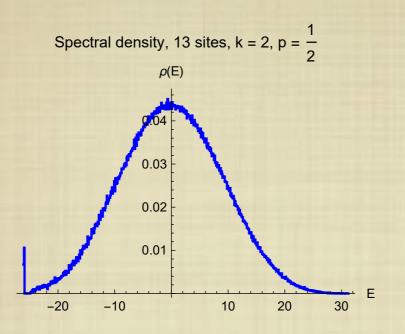
- r-statistics is a local spectral observable capable of telling whether small clusters of energy eigenvalues display RMT behaviour
- Given the energy spacings, we define  $r_i = \min(s_i, s_{I+1})/\max(s_i, s_{I+1})$
- ◆ The ratios  $r_i$  take very specific values in RMT e.g.  $r_{GOE}\approx 0.53590$  but are much smaller for integrable systems e.g.  $r_P\approx 0.38629$

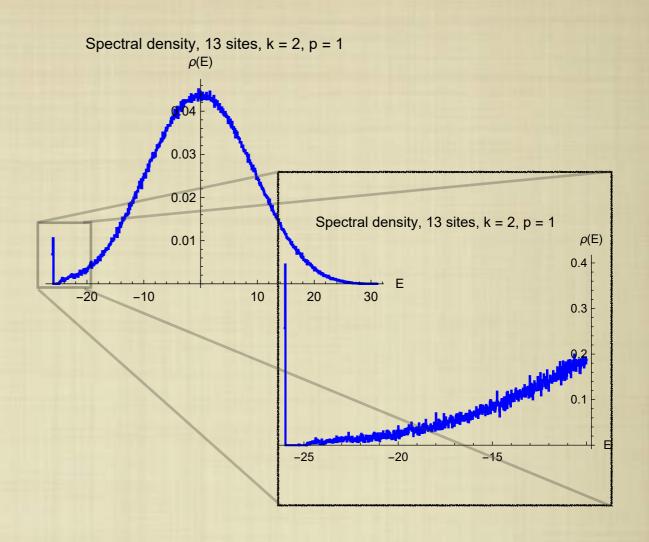
[JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]



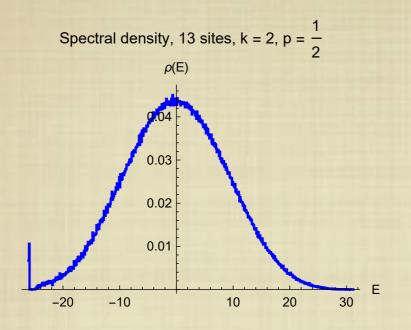


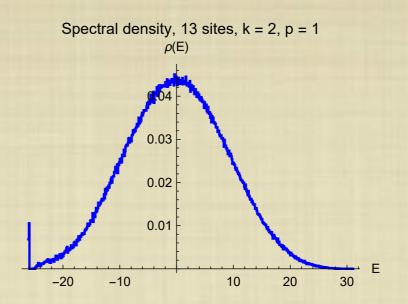
### [JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]

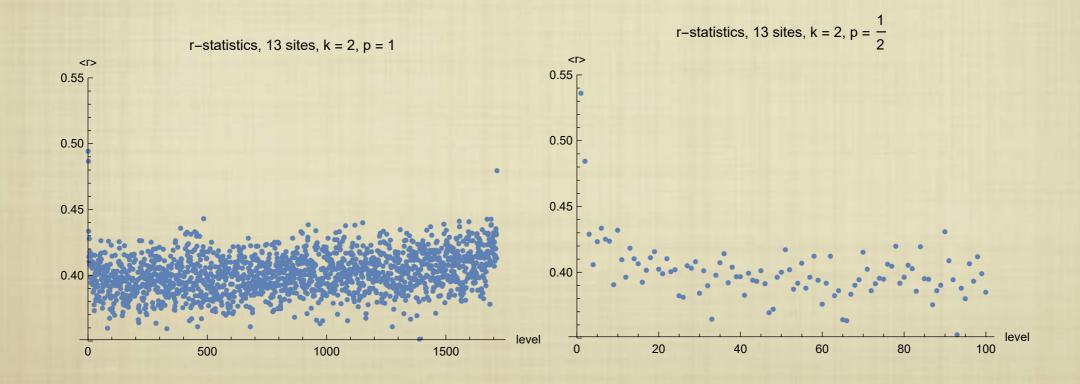




[JM-Hartmann-Rosa-Shock'19]







- Quantum small-world systems offer a novel class of many-body problems that parametrically interpolate between integrable (regular) and chaotic (random) systems
- The OTOC and SFF are best understood for large N (and in, for example SYK, large k). However our numerics are restricted to k < N < II so we have a few-body sparse quantum system. We need to understand such systems for larger values of N.
- Our computations are restricted to the very simple infinite temperature limit (especially for the SFF). Finite temperature corrections are important and subtle and needs to be understood.
- ◆ While this is clearly a toy model, it is similar to table-top cold-atom experiments in cavity QED studied in recent work by Swingle et.al. Can such models be physically realised?

- Quantum small-world systems offer a novel class of many-body problems that parametrically interpolate between integrable (regular) and chaotic (random) systems
- ◆ The OTOC and SFF are best understood for large N (and in, for example SYK, large k). However our numerics are restricted to k < N < ll so we have a few-body sparse quantum system. We need to understand such systems for larger values of N.
- Our computations are restricted to the very simple infinite temperature limit (especially for the SFF). Finite temperature corrections are important and subtle and needs to be understood.
- ◆ While this is clearly a toy model, it is similar to table-top cold-atom experiments in cavity QED studied in recent work by Swingle et.al. Can such models be physically realised?

- Quantum small-world systems offer a novel class of many-body problems that parametrically interpolate between integrable (regular) and chaotic (random) systems
- ◆ The OTOC and SFF are best understood for large N (and in, for example SYK, large k). However our numerics are restricted to k < N < ll so we have a few-body sparse quantum system. We need to understand such systems for larger values of N.
- Our computations are restricted to the very simple infinite temperature limit (especially for the SFF). Finite temperature corrections are important and subtle and needs to be understood.
- ◆ While this is clearly a toy model, it is similar to table-top cold-atom experiments in cavity QED studied in recent work by Swingle et.al. Can such models be physically realised?

- Quantum small-world systems offer a novel class of many-body problems that parametrically interpolate between integrable (regular) and chaotic (random) systems
- ◆ The OTOC and SFF are best understood for large N (and in, for example SYK, large k). However our numerics are restricted to k < N < ll so we have a few-body sparse quantum system. We need to understand such systems for larger values of N.
- Our computations are restricted to the very simple infinite temperature limit (especially for the SFF). Finite temperature corrections are important and subtle and needs to be understood.
- ◆ While this is clearly a toy model, it is similar to table-top cold-atom experiments in cavity QED studied in recent work by Swingle et.al. Can such models be physically realised?

Մերսի Hristo! 감사합니다 CΠacuδi! התודה நென்றிVdiyabulela! Ke a leboha! Paldies σας ευχαριστώ! Gracies! Ngeyabonga! Baie Dankie! Děkuji Ukhani! Obrigado! Merci! Asante Grazias! Tak Ihe edn! Inkomu! Siyabonga! Danke! Ďakujem Tak धनावान i Gracias धन्यवान Grazie! ありがとう Eskerrik asko! Suksema! Juspajaraña ぶん Тәҙәkkür edirəm! Dzięki Obrigadu! Дзякуй Благодаря Diolch Dank Je Dankon Mahalo