

Interacting Classical Gas

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I. INTRODUCTION

II. PREPARATION

A. Scaling behaviour

We investigated the classical gas in harmonic trap with a repulsive interaction. We chose one of the simplest types of interaction:

$$F = \begin{cases} F = F_0 & , x < \sigma \\ F = 0 & , x > \sigma \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

so the Hamiltonian is

$$H = \frac{1}{2}m\omega_0^2 \sum_i x_i^2 + \frac{1}{2}m \sum_i v_i^2 + \sum_{|x_i - x_j| < \sigma} F_0 (\sigma - |x_i - x_j|) \quad (2)$$

It can be shown that eq.2 can be rewrite into the following form:

$$\tilde{H} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \tilde{x}_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left(\frac{d\tilde{x}}{d\tilde{t}} \right)^2 + \sum_{|\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{x}_j| < 1} F_0 (1 - |\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{x}_j|) \quad (3)$$

with the transformation:

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{H} &= \frac{H}{m\omega_0^2\sigma^2} \\ \tilde{x}_i &= \frac{x_i}{\sigma} \\ \tilde{t} &= \omega_0 t \\ \tilde{F}_0 &= \frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2\sigma} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

In this manner, we reduced number of the parameters in our model into three: \tilde{H} , \tilde{F}_0 , N . Equivalently, we set σ , ω_0 and m to 1 in our numerical simulation. Throughout, we will use “E” and “ F_0 ” to denote their reduced version \tilde{H} , \tilde{F}_0 .

B. Overview

1. Relation between Radius and Energy

The radius of the cloud R is defined as the root-mean-square of particles' position $\{x_i\}$. When E is very large, the interaction energy can be omitted, so E is dominated by the kinetic energy and potential energy of harmonic oscillators. Thus, $E = \omega_0^2 \sum_i x_i^2 = N\omega_0^2 R^2$

2. Ground states

For the ground state of this system, one could predict that

(1) When the σ is larger than the size of the cloud (in view of the scaling behaviour, large σ is equivalent to **small F_0 limit** when we fix $\sigma = 1$), it can be easily shown that the ground state is crystal-like, since all every particle keeps an equal distance with its nearest neighbours, which is $\frac{2F_0}{\omega_0^2}$. The low-lying excitation is particles' independent harmonic oscillation around their equilibrium position.

(2) When **F_0 is very large** the molecules act like a hardcore gas, while the size of particle is just σ .

In the fig.1, we can see this crossover from the “solid-like” limit (left) to the “hardcore gas” limit (right).

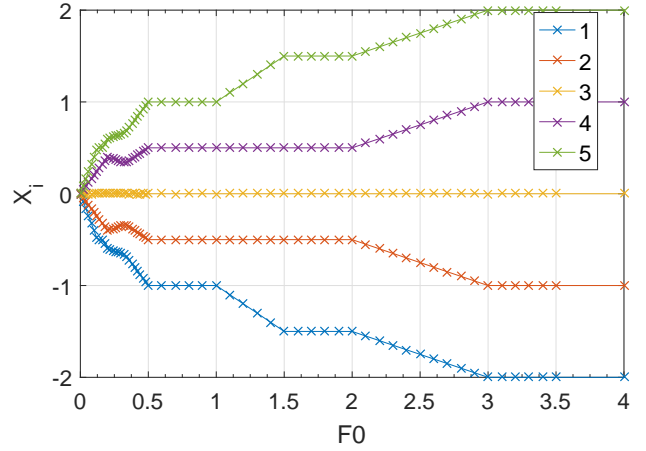


FIG. 1. particles' position at ground states

III. BREATHING FREQUENCY

Usually, to see the response of quantum gas to a quench, one begin simulation with the ground state and then suddenly vary some parameter by a little, for instance, $\omega_0' \rightarrow \omega_0 = \omega_0' + \Delta\omega$. In that case, one will observe the radius R oscillating at a certain frequency, which is usually called “breathing mode”. However, it is quite different in the classical version. Firstly, the ground state may be meaningless. In quantum case, the reason why we care about ground state and low lying excitations is that BEC occur at low temperature. But in classical case, there is no BEC. So it is not necessary to focus on low lying excitations in classical case. Besides,

since classical limit is $\hbar \rightarrow 0$, no matter how low the kT is, \hbar/kT is always zero so that classical behaviour of low lying excitations is quite different from the quantum one. Secondly, it is no longer necessary to vary parameters “by a little” in the quench. In quantum case, the small quench $\omega'_0 \rightarrow \omega_0 = \omega'_0 + \Delta\omega$ means the spectrum is shifted slightly, thus one may expect to see some beat phenomenon(?). But in classical case, since \hbar vanishes, no matter how small the quench is, one can never recover or approximate the quantum case. Thus it is not necessary to limit ourselves to small quench.

Furthermore, notice that X and P (normalized) are symmetric for simple harmonic oscillator. In weak interaction limit, the distribution cloud should be circular when the gas is completely thermalized. The difference between thermalized cloud before and after quench is that they are circular under different normalization of phase-space. If we look at both of them in the phase-space normalized according to the final ω_0 , we will find shape of the cloud before the quench is an ellipse while the final one is a circle.

Since the number of particles we use in the Molecular Dynamics simulation is limited (usually 5 to 20), the random noise is significant. If we start with a state whose configuration in phase-space is an ellipse slightly deviated from circle, the oscillating amplitude will be too small to be distinguished from noise. Therefore, we start from an extreme case – line distribution (random x , zero p) and observe the oscillation of $R(t)$.

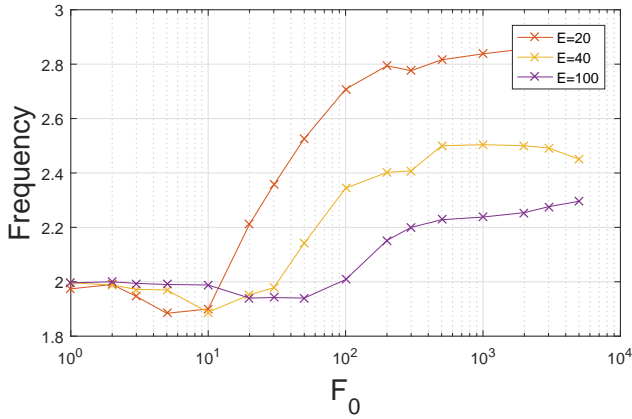


FIG. 2. breathing mode frequency measured at different E and F_0

Without interaction, the breathing mode frequency is exactly 2. When there is interaction, the frequency will drift to some other value near 2. We measure the radius of the cloud $R(t)$ and get the frequency spectrum of its oscillation behaviour by Fourier transform. Then we take the peak frequency near 2 as the breathing mode frequency. The frequency measured in different E and F_0 is shown in the Fig.2.

The mechanism that deviate breathing frequency from

2 is simple in real space. When two particles bounce, they exchange momentum immediately. It can be interpreted as particle A carries its momentum P_A and jump σ to the right, while particle B carries its momentum P_B and jump σ to the left. In this manner, every collision will save a particle some time $\frac{\sigma}{v}$. Since v is proportional to R while the number of collision each particle experiences in one period of harmonic oscillation can be estimated by N , we will get $\delta \sim N^{\frac{3}{2}} E^{-\frac{1}{2}}$.

To see this picture better, let us first introduce an approach to simplify this problem:

A. Rotating frame in Phase-space

Traditionally, we think of there is a distribution cloud in phase space, and due to harmonic trap, the cloud will rotate at frequency ω_0 . When there is interaction, we may think there is a small modification of the frequency $\omega = \omega_0 + \delta$. Now we want to understand how δ is dependent on parameters, so it is better to stand in the rotating frame in the phase space. In this frame, the picture we will see is as follows:

- * All particles are stationary when there is no interaction.
- * The real X and P axis are rotating counter-clockwise, using real X axis to measure distance between particles to determine the interaction at each moment.
- * When there is interaction, particles will gain a “velocity” in phase space: $\dot{P} = F/m$. Other effects are all cancelled by frame rotation.

This picture is actually a classical version of the interaction picture. With this picture, we will soon find the dynamic analysis greatly simplified.

In our system, we choose initial velocity to be zero, which means, the particles are aligned on $X|_{t=0}$ axis in phase-space at the beginning. If the breathing frequency of the system is $\omega = \omega_0 + \delta$, we will expect to see a line (which may gradually deform into an oval cloud or even an isotropic cloud) rotating at δ in rotating frame. If we plot $x-p$ with t , we expect to see a spiral motion. Since the motion we see is an additional rotation in rotating frame, we will call it precession. This precession directly leads to the δ .

Fig.3 and Fig.5 show this precession motion in the rotating frame in phase-space.

B. Estimating Breathing Frequency

Let us begin with two-particle case. When interaction is very strong, the effect of interaction is equivalent to exchanging momentum when two particles approach each other at distance σ . In the rotating frame in phase-space, this process can be interpreted as follows:

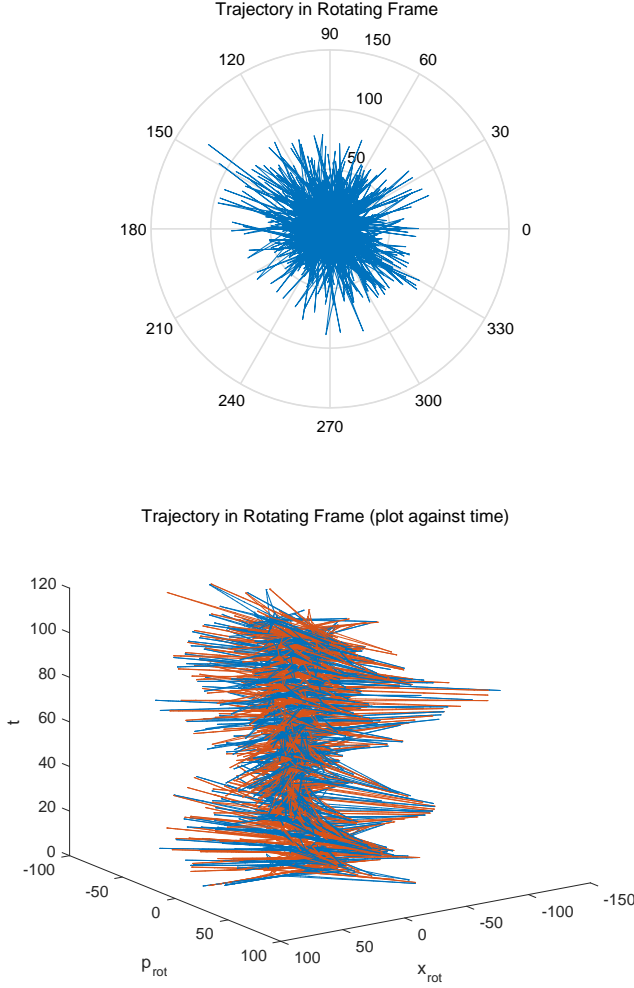


FIG. 3. precession motion in phase-space observed in rotating frame (only show one(two) particles' trajectory in upper(lower) picture for clarity)

(See fig.7(a)) Two particles flip to another line (thick gray line) which deviate a small angle α away from original configuration. Similar process happen when there are more particles. In every period of harmonic oscillation, each particle meet N particles and collide $2N$ times, while half of the collisions (N times) are between particles with huge difference in momentum, which is just the process shown in fig.7. (As for the remaining half of collisions, colliding particles have small difference in their momentum. Let us say, both particles have positive momentum. In fig.7, it can be shown that two particles on the same half of the P-axis cannot have strong effect on the rotation of distribution.)

Let us estimate the precession angle α in one collision by $\frac{\sigma}{R}$, which follows from the two-particle case study. Radius of the cloud R can be estimated according to $E = Nm\omega_0^2 R^2$ We will get the precession angular velocity

$$\delta = 2\omega_0 \frac{N^{\frac{3}{2}} m^{\frac{1}{2}} E^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma \omega_0}{2\pi} \quad (5)$$

When F_0 is not that large, the frequency behaviour seems complicated (see fig.2). Usually, when F_0 increase, frequency goes down below 2 first and then rise up and converge to some value higher than 2. The reason could also be well understood with the mechanism described before. In the former discussion, we goes to high F_0 limit, which means particles exchange momentum in infinitesimal time. For F_0 is not very big, the finite interaction time should be taken into consideration. During this time, the behaviour of each particle in phase space is exactly moving along the direction of the real P axis at 'velocity' F_0/m . Since the real P axis is rotating counter-clockwise, the particle will follow the circular trajectory (orange and green dashed line in fig.7) the α that we once use to estimate the precession motion should decrease with the increase of interaction time. There should be some "critical point" where α goes from plus to minus (dashed green line). At this point, we will see the precession stop so that the frequency is 2.

The dependence of frequency on energy and F_0 is shown in fig.8. For the first thing, as expected when F_0 is high the frequency behaviour is well-described by linear prediction eq.5. Secondly, the figure shows the frequency's dependence on F_0 . As we explained, when F_0 is not so large, the precession angle decrease. In language of real space, the finite F_0 create a finite approaching time, thus consumes the time saved by finite-range collision. As a result, the frequency should be lower when F_0 decrease, and reach 2 earlier.

the critical point that frequency falls to 2 can be estimate by:

$$\omega_0 \tau = \alpha \quad (6)$$

which states that the approaching time τ exactly cancels the precession angle derived before τ can be estimated by R/F_0 . With some math, one can show that this condition is equivalent to

$$\frac{E}{N} = F_0 \sigma \quad (7)$$

which is the same as the criterion of whether two particle will bounce or pass by if one estimate the average internal energy of a pair with $\frac{E}{N}$. This argument indicate the reason why we see frequency stop falling down below 2 as one should expect with previous discussion: All our previous analysis based on fig.7 only studies the case of bouncing. If the energy of particles are so large that they often overcome the interaction potential barrier and pass each other, the situation would be completely different. In that case, in fig.7, particles will move a little bit out of their initial position, and soon move back, almost return to their initial place. In this manner, the interaction do not affect the distribution of the cloud in phase space. Thus, the frequency will stay near 2 when E is large.

Before completing the discussion, it is necessary to point out that none of the argument here require "energy thermalization". In addition, if the system is completely thermalized in terms of their phase of orbit in

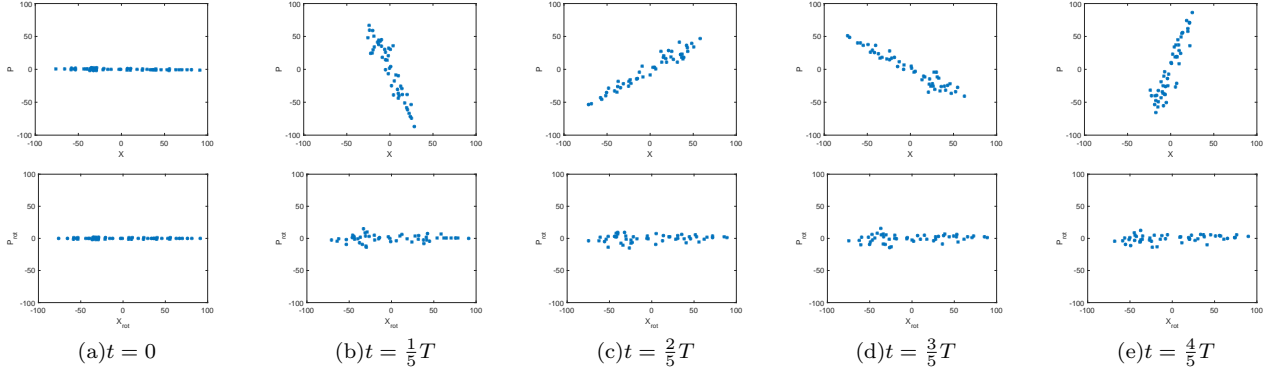
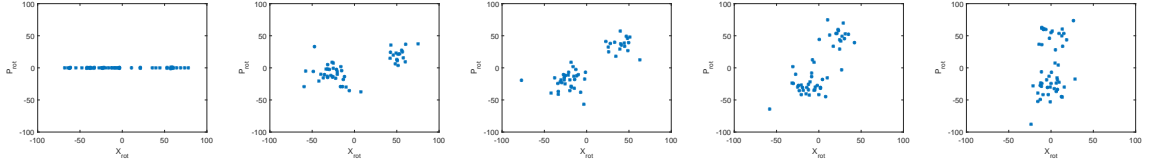
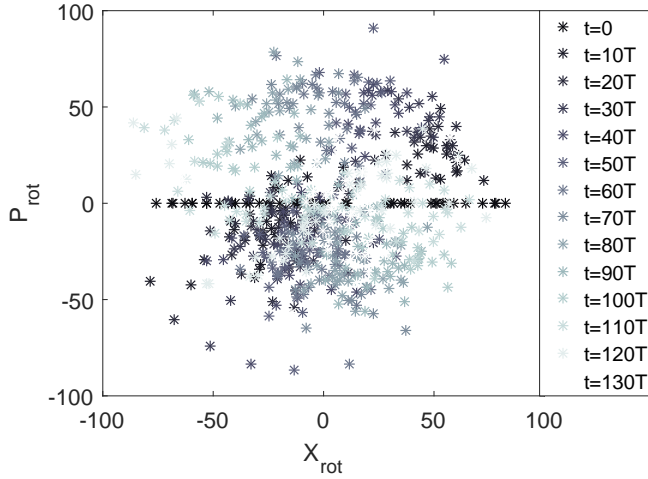
FIG. 4. $N=50, F_0=100, E=50000$ FIG. 5. the precession behaviour of cloud viewed in the rotating frame in phase-space. $\frac{t}{T} = 0, 20, 40, 60, 80$ 

FIG. 6. the precession behaviour of cloud viewed in the rotating frame in phase-space, one snapshot in each 10 periods.

phase space, the argument will no longer work – there is a stable isotropic distribution in phase space, no matter how the cloud rotate, no oscillation can be observed.

IV. THERMALIZATION

A. Dynamics Study

It is natural to think that a many-body system with interaction will be thermalized in “usual” case. To study

the condition of thermalization is equivalent to find out the mechanism that prohibits the system from ergodic. We begin the study with two-particle motion.

1. two particles

To see the way interaction change the orbit (energy level) of the particles, we had better start from two-particle case.

We can always think of them in the reference frame of their center of mass “C”. In frame C, one can easily show that when there is no interaction what we will see is that two particles are bound together by a harmonic trap center at C (black line in fig.9). So their relative motion is also a harmonic oscillation.

In this case, the system has two frequency components. The first one is the frequency of C, which is just ω_0 . The other one is the frequency of their relative motion ω_r , which is slightly deviated from ω_0 . The deviation grows with the increase of F_0 and the decrease of internal energy of the pair. As a result, when the F_0 is small and when the E is large, a beat with low frequency $\omega_r - \omega_0 = \delta$ will exist. This phenomenon means energy transfer between particles are inefficient, thus it will slow down the thermalization process.

2. More particles

Now let’s consider the three-particle case. For two particle, the motion is non-chaotic. On the other hand, in-

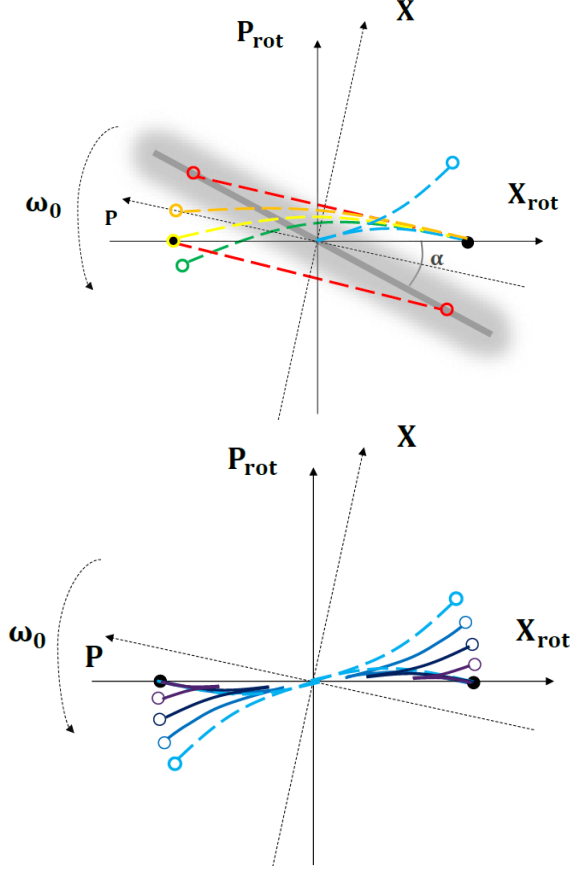


FIG. 7. a schematic diagram of the collision process: (a)(Upper)when $F_0 * \sigma$ is big, particles can not penetrate each other, thus their trajectory in rotating frame is a circular arc. (b) (Lower) When $F_0 * \sigma$ is small, particles easily pass each other, so that the force they feel is not continuous, their trajectory has a turning point(the dashed bright blue trajectory is identical with the one in the upper figure, which is the critical situation between passing and bouncing, that is to say, particles have zero relative velocity when they collide.)

tuitively, we will say that three-body motion is chaotic so that the system could be “thermalized” soon. However, in some cases, the time scale of thermalizing could still be very long. Suppose two of them, say, A and B, has small internal energy, which means their distance and relative velocity are both small. Meanwhile, suppose particle C has some energy quite different from A & B. In this case, A & B will often be in the interaction, while C will pass both of them at a high speed in each period. How will energy transfer between C and the two-particle system A and B? Since the relative velocity of C and the two-particle system is usually large, C will pass A-B pair in a short time $\tau \sim \frac{\sigma}{R}$ ($\tau \ll \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$). C gives A a push when approaching it, and then push A back when leaving. As has been discussed in the two-particle case, this process is equivalent to giving A a very small speed ($\sim O(\frac{\sigma}{R})$) in the background of a trap. Since both the position and velocity of A and B are close ($|x_A - x_B| \sim \sigma$), the velocity in-

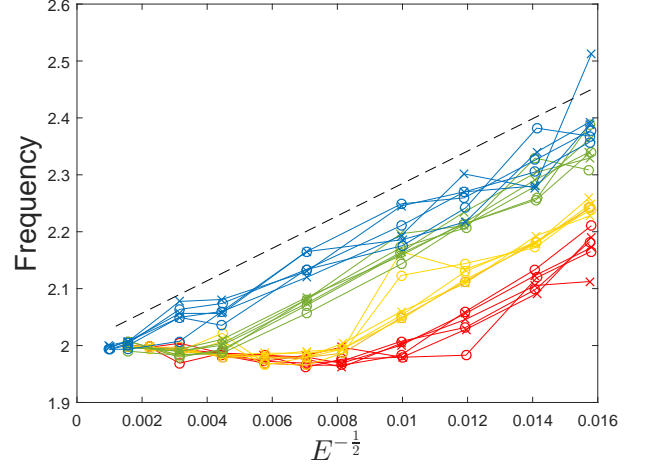


FIG. 8. dependence of breathing frequency on Energy, $N=20$. Different color stands for different F_0 : Red for $F_0=2000$; Yellow for $F_0=3000$; Green for $F_0=10000$; Blue for $F_0=100000$. Run with 3 different initial states in each case, and in each run, measure the frequency in 0-100 time unit (label as crosses) and in 900-1000 time unit (label as circles). The black dashed line is the prediction of eq.5.

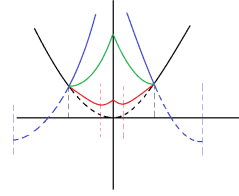


FIG. 9. effective potential for two-particle system

crease of A & B are almost the same (difference $\sim O(\frac{\sigma^2}{R^2})$). In this manner, the passing of particle C only kicks the center of mass of the A-B pair slightly, leaving the internal motion of the pair unaffected. In another word, the existence of C will not have significant effect on the energy transfer between A and B, but only “dance” with their center of mass. The physics of the “dance” is similar to the dance between two particle. As is shown in fig.11, the particles with energy close to each other tends to form a pair with small internal energy and the pair’s internal energy transfer is relatively stable.

The argument above still holds in many-particle case. Once we start from some configuration where n particles have a set of close energy levels $\{E_n\}$ and another m particles have another set of energy levels close to each other $\{E_m\}$, and $\{E_n\}$ is quite different from $\{E_m\}$, we will find these two systems oscillating on the energy level diagram at low frequency. The discussion above gives us some pictures about the non-ergodic state. For these state, life time is rather long so that once the system reach such configuration (or certain energy distribution),

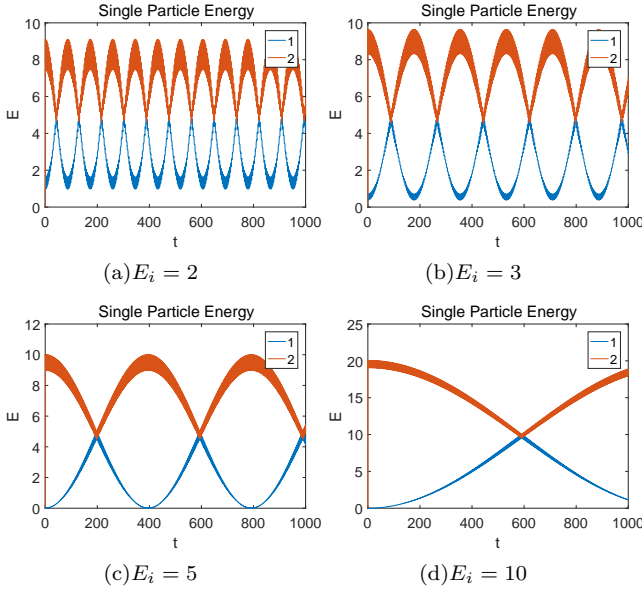


FIG. 10. the dependence of beat frequency on internal energy. The diagram is the energy of two particles. Here, F_0 is set to be 1. In this case, the larger E_i is, the lower the beat frequency is.

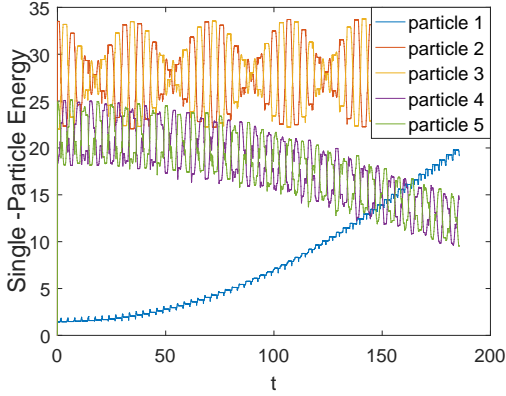


FIG. 11. evolution of single-particle energy

it will take a long time (more than 10^4 periods for $N=5$ case) to decay.

B. Thermalization condition

The main obstruct to get an thermalized state (which can be examined by observing distribution) is the low frequency oscillation mentioned before. Because once these modes are excited, the relaxing time could be very long ($>10^4$). As a result, to achieve ergodic state, we have to avoid such low frequency oscillation. According to our discussion before, the solution is to make internal energy of each two-particle pair not “too large”. Though it is impossible to express the internal energy of every pair in

terms of the total energy E , we can estimate it by the average energy, which is $\frac{E}{N}$. At least they are of the same order. The thermalization condition could be given by:

$$F_0 \sigma \sim \frac{E}{N} \quad (8)$$

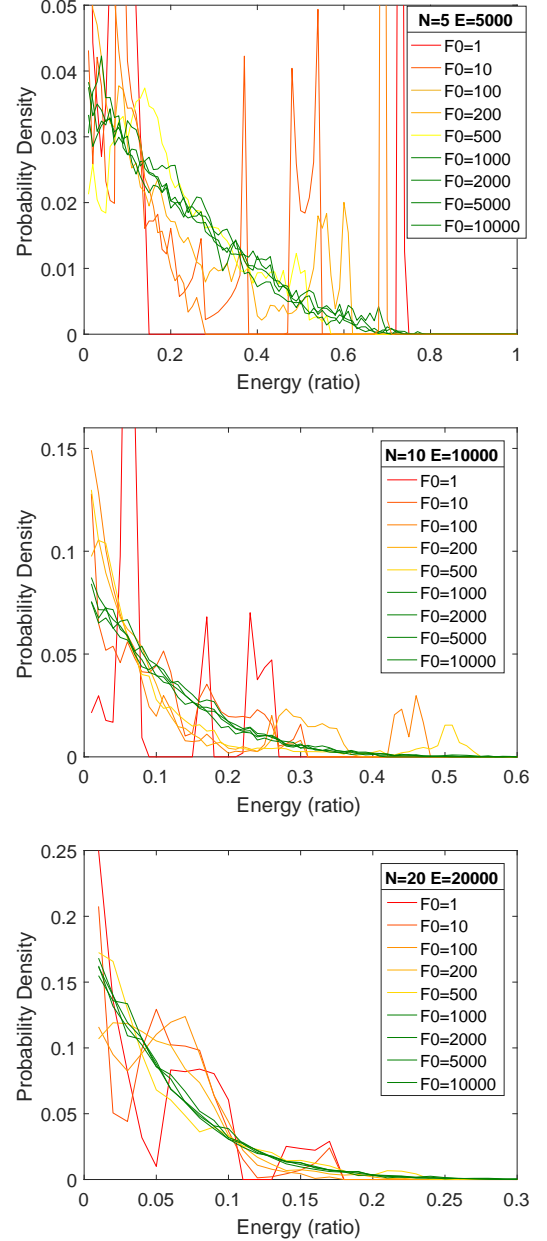


FIG. 12. the energy distribution measured in ~ 10000 time units, as will be verified later, green curves corresponds to Boltzmann distribution; red curves are obviously non-Boltzmann, while the yellow ones are intermediate case, represent “thermalization threshold”. In three figures for different N , we choose E/N identical ($=1000$), and thermalization is reached at $F_0 = 500 - F_0 = 1000$, which is consistent with our prediction in eq.8

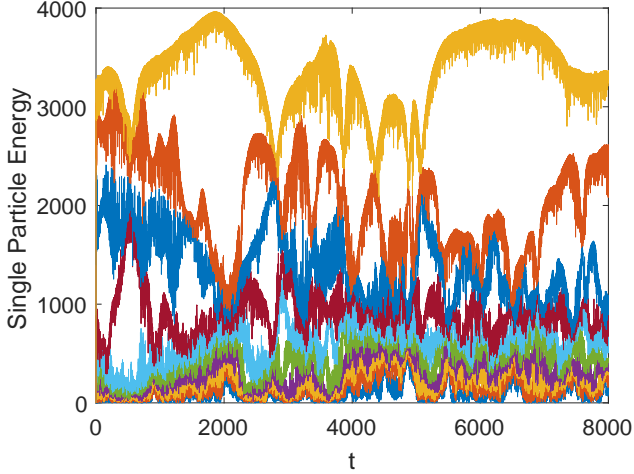


FIG. 13. energy of each particle, $F_0 = 200$

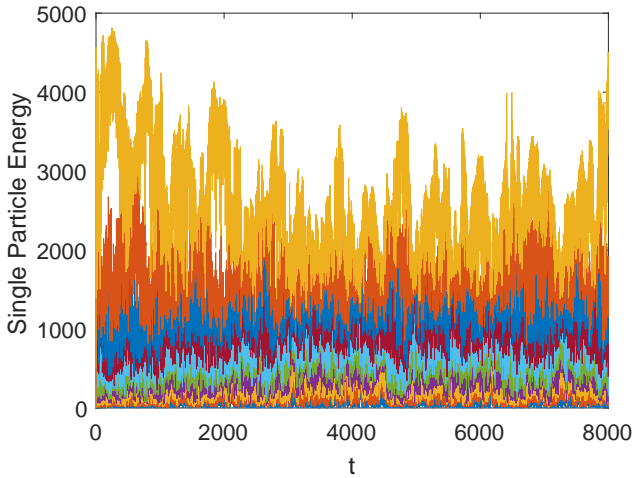


FIG. 14. energy of each particle, $F_0 = 1000$

As is shown in fig.12 above, the critical point for reaching “Boltzmann-like” distribution (later we will verify that it is Boltzmann distribution) is $F_0 = 500$ - $F_0 = 1000$ (we always set $\sigma = 1$), while the average energy ~ 1000 , as we expected, they are of the same order. As a supplementary proof of our argument, fig.13 and fig.14 show the great difference of single-particle energy between two examples of below and above the thermalization threshold ($F_0 = 200$ & $F_0 = 1000$ for $N = 10, E = 10000$): in the former one there is always some particle maintained at high excitation, while in the latter the system probably goes to ergodic. To date, we have verified that the threshold of thermalization, which is $\frac{NF_0\sigma}{E} \sim 1$, and corresponding feature of their energy distribution in two side of the threshold.

One may think that this condition only means that the energy transfer in every collision is much smaller than the energy interval. But this is not the whole story. The essential difference between these two regime lies

in whether the energy transfer in every collision is correlated: In thermalizable regime, the energy transfer in every collision is much smaller than the energy interval, which definitely slows down the energy transfer. What is more, because of this, the particles is less interfered by other particles so that two-particle analysis survives. It means that for a particle pair, the energy transferred in this collision is correlated with the one in the next time. In this manner, each particle in the pair will pick up some energy in several collisions, and then return it back to its partner – which is just what the long term beat effect tells us. Thus the particles energy is localized in certain value. On the contrary, if we go to non-thermalizable regime, the energy transfer is so fast that for each particle don’t remember their partners. As a result, the energy transferred in every collision between two particles are no longer correlated, which is equivalent to say that two-particle analysis breaks down. Instead, the energy transfer is completely random, with a non-zero amplitude. On the single-particle energy diagram, what we expected to see is a “one dimensional random walk”, so energy levels quickly spread around the diagram.

To sum up, the thermalization threshold not only tells us whether the amplitude of energy transfer in every collision is small enough compared to particles’ energy, but also shows whether the “correlation time” of particle pair is much longer than the characteristic time of the system (the oscillation period).

C. Verifying Boltzmann distribution

Thermalization could have different definition. In our system, the “thermalization” we want to find means “losing all the memory of initial state”. One of the most important information of initial state is energy distribution.

For an isothermal system, the energy distribution of the whole system follows the Boltzmann distribution in equilibrium state. However, to our knowledge, there is not any obvious conclusion about the distribution for an isolated system where the total energy is conserved.

But intuitively, one will expect that if we measure the energy of a subsystem, e.g. one particle, then we will get a Boltzmann distribution because the rest part of the system serves as a bath for this particle. The temperature of this isolated system is defined according to $Nk_B T = E$. It is evident that this argument only hold when the energy of the single particle is not too big — if one particle take up 50% of the total energy, the rest could no longer be thought of as a good bath.

In the first picture below, we verify this argument by measuring the energy distribution of every particle at $N=10$ for different F_0 at $E=10000$ (parameters here satisfy thermalizing condition). In the other two, we tested different N .

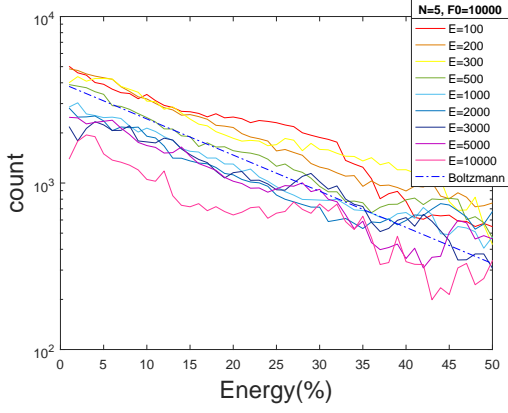


FIG. 15. Energy distribution, $N=5$, $F_0=10000$

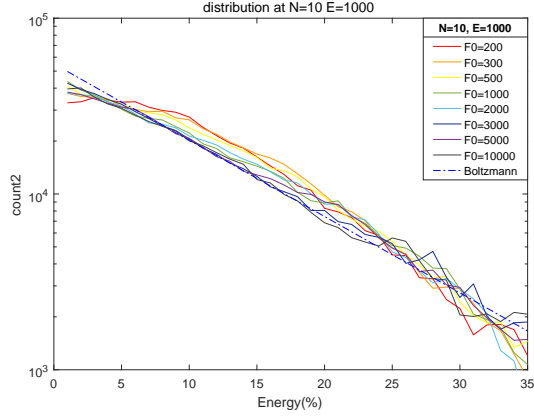


FIG. 16. Energy distribution, $N=10$, $E=1000$ Run with $N=10$ $F_0=10000$ to substitute this one

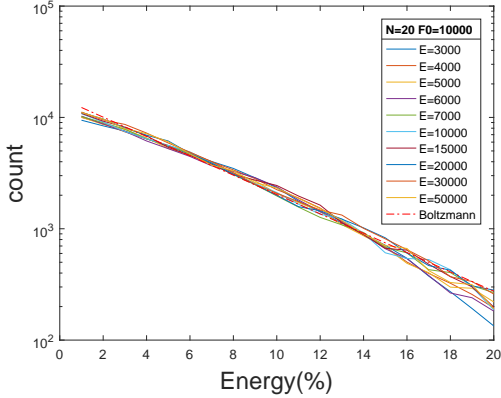


FIG. 17. Energy distribution, $N=20$, $F_0=10000$

To take the first one as an example, Y axis is logarithmically scaled. X axis is the ratio between single particle energy (where half of interaction is taken into account) and total energy of the system. The blue dotted line is the predicted Boltzmann distribution (normalized according to counts). Notice that normalizing of the Boltzmann line only change the intercept, leaving slope untouched, which means the slope is the only thing to com-

pare. In Energy ratio smaller than 30%, the experiment (colourful curves) fits well with the prediction. When energy of a single particle is higher, one can think of the "bath" formed by the remaining part has lower temperature, thus counts decrease faster to zero than Boltzmann law.

It is evident from $Nk_B T = E$ that the slope of Boltzmann distribution in this figure only depend on N . That is the reason why we want to measure at different N below.

In fig.16 and fig.17, the curve is slightly deviated from the standard Boltzmann distribution, which is probably due to the contribution of density of states (DOS). Possibility is proportional to Boltzmann exponential factor multiplied by density of states. The reason why we did not take DOS into account previously lies in that the DOS is a constant for simple harmonic oscillator. However, for simple harmonic oscillators with short range interaction, the energy shell is deformed in the small region of $|x_i - x_j| < \sigma$ so that the DOS is no longer a constant. But since $\sigma \ll R$, one can think of this as a small modification. Therefore, the tendency of the curve in fig.16 and fig.17 is deviated slightly from Boltzmann distribution.

V. RELAXATION IN PHASE-SPACE

When describing simple harmonic motion, it is usually convenient to use the language of phase-space (of single particle). In the phase-space, the motion becomes circular, so each of these particles has two independent degree of freedom, i.e., modulus and phase angle. Here, independent means that the simple harmonic oscillation never "mix" these two degrees of freedom. In view of this, when it comes to "thermalization", one may notice that the thermalization of energy, which is just the modulus, does not ensure the thermalization of phase angle. To distinguish these two kind of meanings of "thermalization", we will call the process of energy distribution going to equilibrium "thermalization", while the process of phase angle going to equilibrium "relaxation". The time scale of thermalization and relaxation could be different in principle. We start with the configuration where particles' velocities are set to be zero, which means in phase-space the cloud is line shape at the beginning. If the time scale of thermalization is much longer than that of relaxation, we will see cloud going to isotropic in a short time, and radius distribution slowly evolves to Boltzmann distribution. If the relaxation time is longer than the thermalization time, the cloud will maintain elliptical shape or elliptical shape for a long time while the radius distribution is already Boltzmann.

To study the relaxation, it is convenient to go back to the picture introduced in discussing breathing frequency, since in that chapter, we focus on the average effect of collision on precession motion, but now we focus on the fluctuation near this average effect. Let's recall two dis-

tinct regime discussed in Fig.7. These two regime will show different behaviour of relaxation.

In “bouncing regime”, (see Fig.7(a)) particles’ position in phase-space have a finite shift $\sim \sigma$ in one collision. As is discussed in former chapter, the average effect of this shift result in precession motion in phase-space and lead to a perturbed breathing frequency. This result is based on approximating the mean effect of collision process with the the collision between two particles aligned symmetrically on P axis. However, in reality, the particles are everywhere so that the shift do not rotate the particles’ phase angle by the same amount in every collision, thus the increase of the phase angle of each particle can be thought of as a wide distribution with a non-zero mean value. As a result of this distribution, the phase angle soon got thermalized, which means the “relaxation time” is short.

In “passing regime”, (see Fig.7(b)), the maximal shift of position in phase-space starts to decrease with the decrease of F_0 . The shift δ decrease as $\delta \sim F_0^2$. This means the particles are localized in their original position when F_0 is smaller– it is natural to get this conclusion, since the weaker the interaction is, the longer time it takes to “relax”.

All our discussion before is based on the approximation that every particle collide with each other once in one period. But this is hardly true in reality. If the number of collision in every period is taken into account, these two regime looks even more different: In “bouncing regime”, the average precession speed is significant, (see Fig.8), which means each collision cause a finite precession. The fluctuation of the number of collision one particle has in each period will contribute to the divergence of their phase angles. On the contrary, in “passing regime”, (see Fig.8), the breathing frequency is close to 2, which means the average effect of collision create zero precession speed. As a result, even though the number of collision is not a constant, it has no effect on average whether one particle collide more or less in one period.

1. Shape of Distribution in Phase-space

If the oscillating phases of particles are highly correlated, for example, initial state with zero velocity, the shape of cloud will be a thin ellipse. If the phase of oscillation is completely random, the cloud should be isotropic in phase space. In view of this, we defined a shape factor S:

$S = \frac{a-b}{a+b}$, where a and b are long axis and short axis of inertia ellipse in phase space respectively. a,b can be calculated by diagonalizing the inertia matrices I: $I_{xx} = \sum x^2, I_{xp} = I_{px} = \sum xp, I_{pp} = \sum p^2$ S=1 for line-shape distribution, S=0 for circular distribution. The time evolution of S will probably show how fast the distribution “forget” its initial shape.

From fig.20, no evidence shows the shape of cloud will converge. Maybe the fluctuation of S is so large that

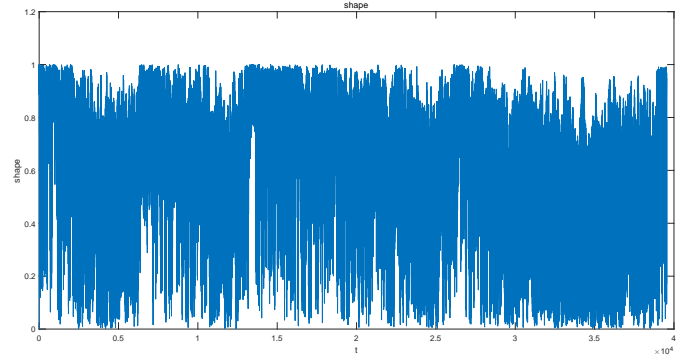


FIG. 18. N=5, F0=10000, E=1000, initial S=1

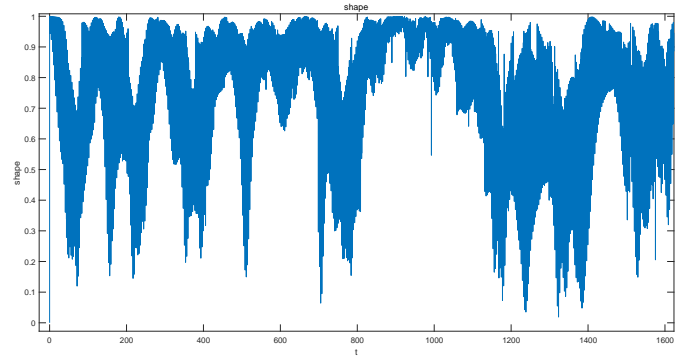


FIG. 19. Zoom in at the beginning part

make it hard to identify the convergence of S. The only way to solve this problem is using more particle simulation to suppress the fluctuation.

For N=20(fig.22), the S start evolving from 1 will soon decay and start fluctuating around some lower value(0.1-0.5, perhaps dependent on temperature). To tell whether this value correspond to a stable state of the system, we can set the initial state S to be other value (e.g. zero) to see whether it will come back to the same stable value(see

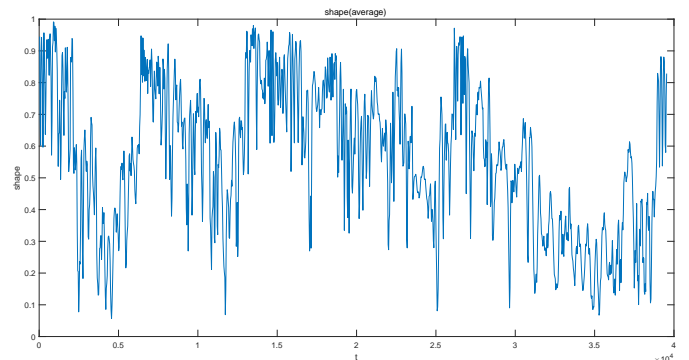
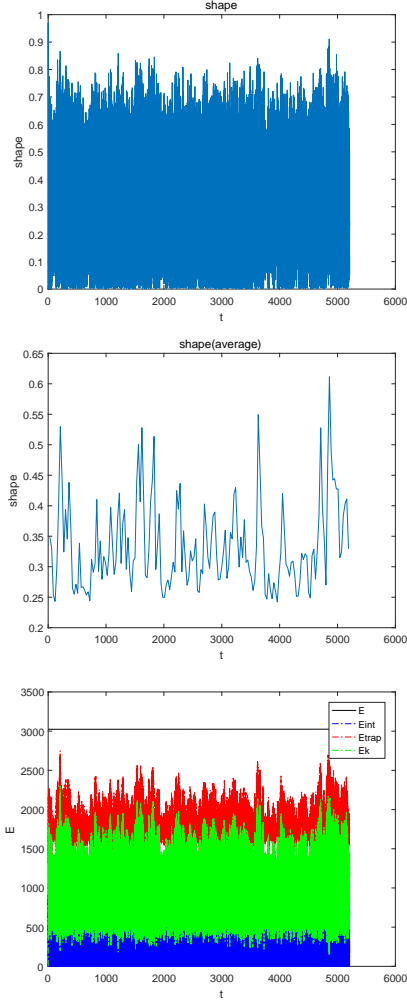
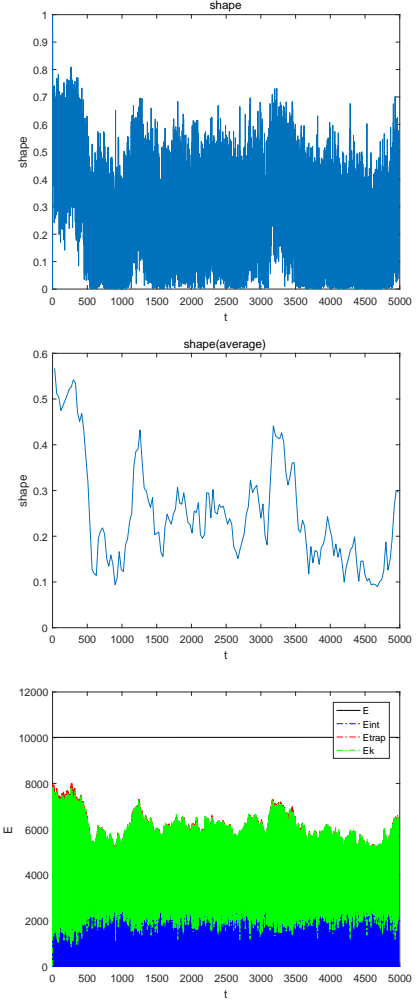


FIG. 20. average over every 30s to see the main tendency

FIG. 21. $N=20$, $F_0=1000$, $E=3000$, initial $S=1$

Different from $N=5$ case, this time the fluctuation of S is not that large. In return, with an average over every 30s, the S only fluctuate between 0.5 and 0.2

FIG. 22. $N=20$, $F_0=1000$, $E=10000$, initial $S=1$

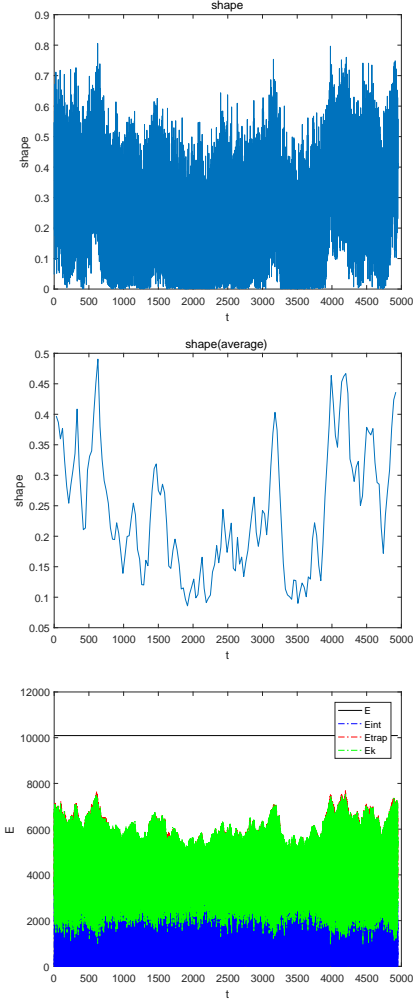
A. Correspondence between energy distribution, behaviour of shape-factor and oscillation of $R(t)$

fig.23).

We may zoom in to understand how the distribution cloud is deforming. in fig.24, we can see some peaks and dips. The peaks are generated by particle “bumping” (collision process discribed in Breathing frequency, see fig.??) along the short axis of the cloud, while the dips are generated by “bumping” along the long axis. Since these bumping only means momentum exchange, after a whole bumping process, the distribution should almost come back. So these peaks and dips will not affect the plateau value, as is shown in fig.24

In view of this, we take average of a short time to clear this peaks and dips in order to see the time evolution of the overall value of S (the second picture in fig.21,22,23).

However, there is still no sufficient evidence of convergence for the overall value of S for $N=20$.

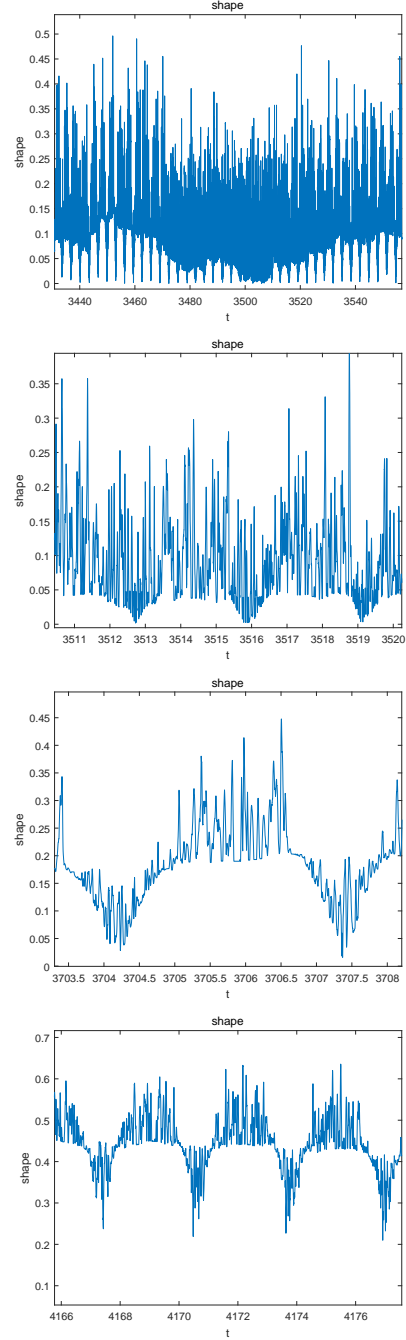
FIG. 23. $N=20$, $F_0=1000$, $E=10000$, Initial $S=0.05$

B. Lyapunov Exponents(unfinished)

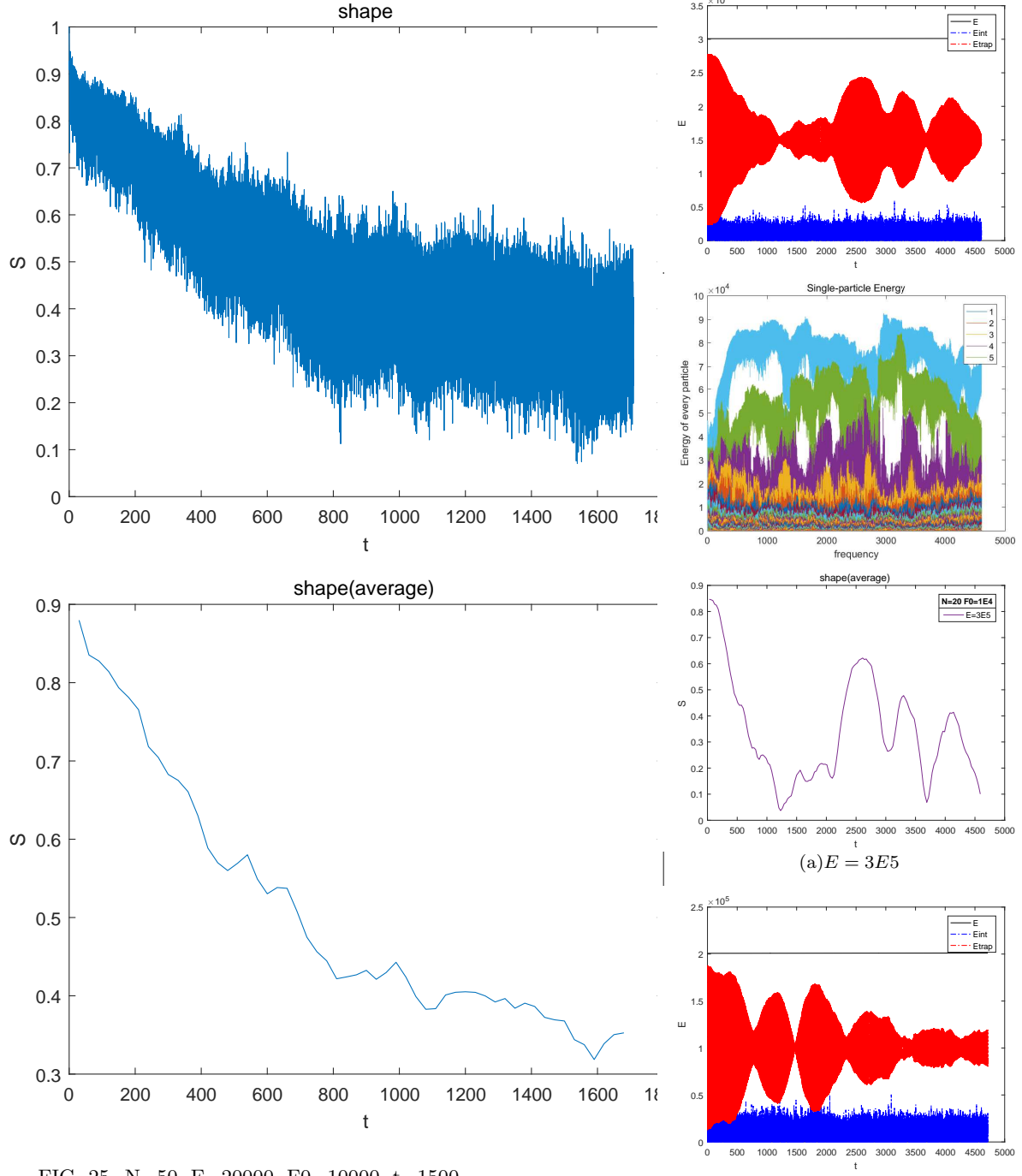
Lyapunov exponents(LE) describes how fast one orbit diverge from its nearby orbits in phase-space. The largest Lyapunov exponents (LLE) reflects the time scale that system lose its memory in phase-space. We will measure the LLEs along our trajectory and plot its distribution.

Fig.26, fig.27 and fig.28 serve as examples showing the way I measure LLE: I integrate and average the LLE along the trajectory, usually over 100-1000 time unit, the LLE converge to certain stable value, and then I start another LLE measurement. **From the examples above, one may judge how good the convergence is and how big the error of LLE measurement can be.**

fig.29 shows the distribution of LLE by color. The LLE decrease with the growth of Energy. The crucial part is near $E=5000$. The most probable value of LLE goes down from 1 to 0.1, which indicate that **the shortest time scale becomes longer than an oscillation period when E is larger than 5000**. And $E=5000$ is exactly our prediction value of thermalization threshold. So there

FIG. 24. $t=5E3$, $N=20$, $F=1000$, $E=10000$, initial $S=0$, zoom in

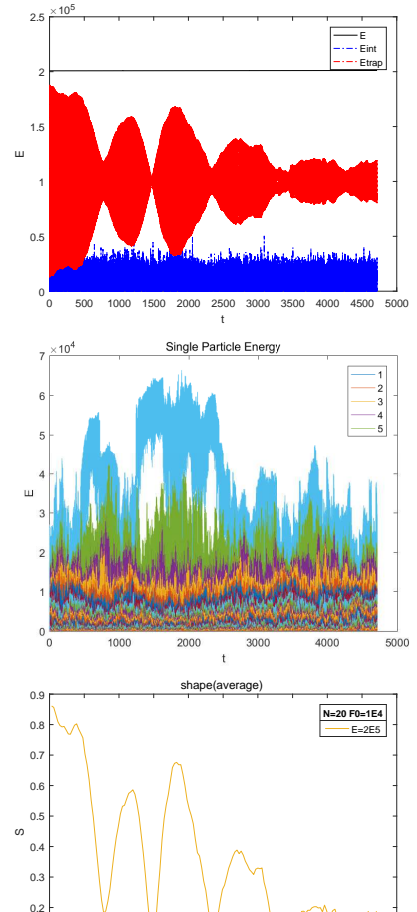
is a correspondence between energy thermalization and LLE. The size of bin(resolution of LLE) in fig.29 is 0.01, so when E goes far beyond the thermalization threshold, the LLE distribution is not that clear. We only know that LLE is concentrated close to zero in high E regime.

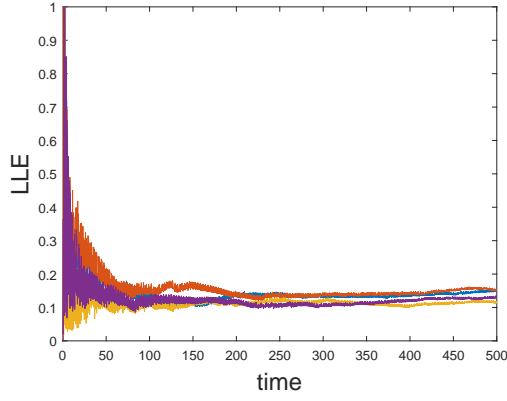
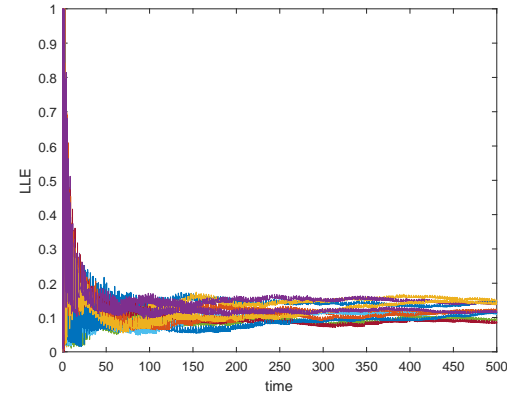


VI. OTHERS(THOSE I HAVEN'T ORGANIZED IT INTO THE TEXT IN LOGICAL ORDER BUT MAY BE USEFUL)

A. Evolution of $R(t)$ and $\sqrt{\delta^2 R(t)}/R(t)$

Results are shown in fig.30

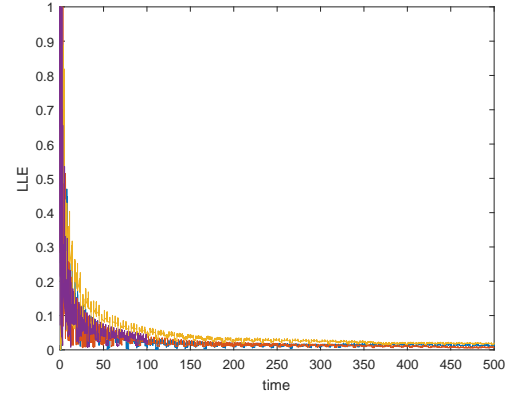
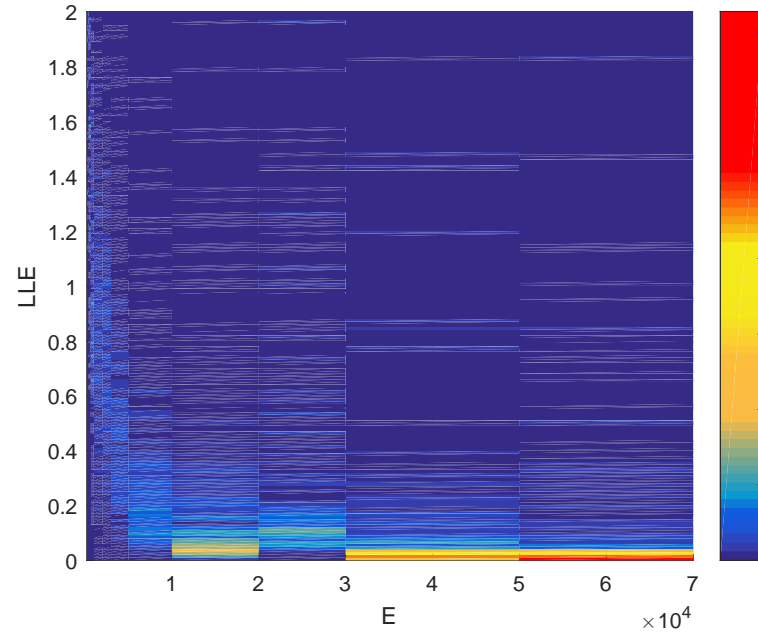


FIG. 26. $N=5$, $F_0=1000$, $E=3000$, Gaussian interactionFIG. 27. $N=5$, $F_0=1000$, $E=10000$, Gaussian interaction

B. Detailed discussion of two-particle motion

This chapter previously follow the subsection “two-particle case” in subsection “Dynamics study” in section “Thermalization”. But then I found we haven’t used these result. So I put it at the end for the time being.

From now on, let’s stand in the the frame of center of mass to observe the motion of two-particle system. In this frame, without interaction, we will find two particles sitting symmetrically in an equivalent harmonic trap

FIG. 28. $N=5$, $F_0=1000$, $E=100000$, Gaussian interactionFIG. 29. LLE distribution for $N=5$, $F_0=1000$, scan E . (It seems that MATLAB has difficulty changing .fig into .eps files. To get rid of the annoying white lines you may open this figure in MATLAB with .fig format.)

(black curve), whose shape is identical to the trap we see in the static frame. As a result, there frequency of relative motion is exactly 2ω (since two particle are identical). We label the position of center of mass as 0. And we may only analyse the motion on positive axis since positive and negative are symmetric.

Now, let’s consider the interaction between them. Because of interaction, the potential curve between $+\frac{\sigma}{2}$ should be modified to another parabolic curve that simultaneously satisfies the following two condition:

- 1) intersect with black curve at $+\frac{\sigma}{2}$
- 2) minima is $+\frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2}$, which comes from a simple har-

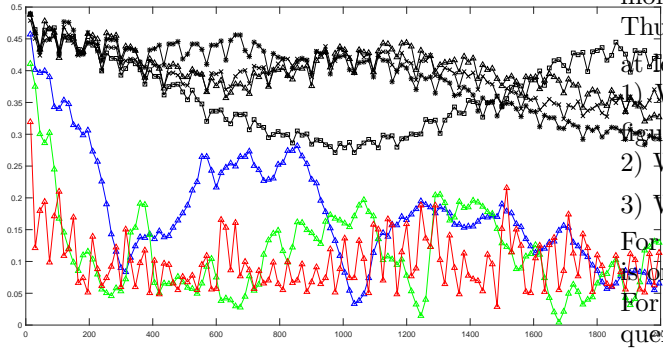


FIG. 30. fluctuation of R with time
sigma=0.01(short range),
 $F_0 = 0.1$ (black), 1(blue), 10(green), 100(red)

monic oscillator with an extra constant force F_0

Thus, it is obvious that by comparing $\frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2}$ and σ , we can at least divide our parameter into several regime:

1) When $\frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2\sigma} > 0.5$, we will have the blue curve (see figure 9)

2) When $\frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2\sigma} < 0.5$, the red curve

3) When $\frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2\sigma} = 0.5$, the green one.

For those three types of curve, the significant difference is only at low energy case:

For the red one, particle will oscillate at constant frequency ω ; For the blue one, when energy is lower, since the first derivative of the curve in the neighbourhood is non-zero, the frequency goes to infinity; For the green curve, in low energy limit, it takes finite time to finish half period of oscillation, while infinitesimal time is spent on the slope part. Thus, frequency will converge to 2ω .

[?]

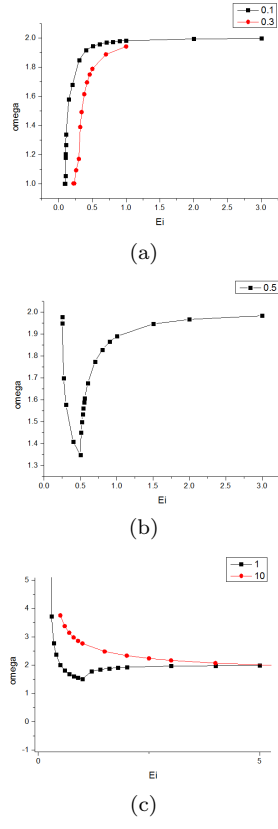


FIG. 31. Frequency of relative motion with internal energy in three regime

Numbers in the legend is the value of $\frac{F_0}{m\omega_0^2\sigma}$