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# The General Collision Theorem

## Proof and Consequences

Roy Lisker  
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The proof of the General Collision Theorem depends in a fundamental way on the Restricted Collision Theorem:

**Restricted Collision Theorem:**

*Let  $S$  be a system of massive particles in a 1-dimensional universe with inertia but no gravitation.*

$$S = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N\}$$

*Each (point) particle  $p_i$  has mass  $m_i$ . The initial conditions are assumed given:  $p_i = (m_i, a_i, v_i), i = 1, \dots, N$ , at time  $t = 0$ ,  $N$  being a finite number. By fixing the origin and rest frame of the system at the center of gravity, one has the 3 conservation laws:*

*Conservation of Moment*

$$\sum_{i=1}^N m_i x_i = 0$$

*Conservation of Momentum*

$$\sum_{i=1}^N m_i v_i = 0$$

*Conservation of Energy*

$$\sum_{i=1}^N m_i v_i^2 = 2E = \text{const.}$$

*Under these conditions, the total number of collisions of the system, both before and after  $t$ , is finite.*

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We assume that the Restricted Collision Theorem has been proven in all that follows. This being the case, all such systems will have associated with them a *collision number*  $c$ , an integer which is a function of the initial conditions.

## General Collision Theorem

Keep the initial masses and velocities fixed, but allow the initial positions  $a_i$  to vary freely, (under the constraint of keeping the rest frame origin at the center of gravity).

*Then the total number of all collision numbers for all possible distributions of the  $a_i$ , will be finite.*

The proof of the Restricted Theorem is simple and straightforward. The proof of the General Theorem appears to be unavoidably difficult; at least until a simpler version presents itself.

## Preliminaries

All systems can be put into a simple canonical form:

Since the total number of collisions is finite, one can assume that the initial state of the system is located sometime  $t(=0)$  before any collisions have taken place. A bit of thought will show that  $S$  assumes the following simple form:

The sequence of initial velocities  $\{v_i\}$  separates into two sets, a set of positive velocities  $v_1 \geq v_2 \geq \dots \geq v_s$  and a set of negative velocities  $|v_N| \geq |v_{N-1}| \geq \dots \geq |v_{s+1}|$  to the right of these. ("Speed" is always positive; "velocity" may be positive or negative) Note that the divide can occur anywhere, for it is only the locations that

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figure in the equation for the Moment that determines the origin. However, because of the conservation of Momentum one has:

$$\boxed{m_1 v_1 + \dots + m_s v_s = m_{s+1} (-v_{s+1}) + \dots + m_N (-v_N)} \\ \boxed{= m_{s+1} |v_{s+1}| + \dots + m_N |v_N|}$$

(That these are the correct forms for the inequalities can be seen through playing the system in reverse time and noting that if, for example,  $v_2$  were larger than  $v_1$ , a collision would have occurred in the past.)

Another consequence of this distribution of velocities is that every particle must collide at least once with its immediate neighbors:

*Lemma* : A collision between particles  $p_k$  and  $p_{k+1}$  must occur if either:

- (1)  $v_k$  is positive and  $v_{k+1}$  is negative; or
- (2)  $v_k$  and  $v_{k+1}$  are both positive with  $v_k > v_{k+1}$ ; or
- (3)  $v_k$  and  $v_{k+1}$  are both negative with  $|v_{k+1}| > |v_k|$

*Proof*: If two particles are headed towards each other, whatever impinges on them before the collision must increase their speeds. This establishes (1)

If two particles are moving in the same direction in such a way that, if isolated, one would collide with the other, then whatever impinges on the faster particle will increase its speed, while whatever collides with the slower particle will either slow it down or reverse its direction, thus increasing the speed at which it moves towards collision. This establishes (2) and (3).

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## Collision Matrices and Collision Number

Consider first a two-particle system  $S = \{p_1, p_2\}$ . Both rest frame and origin are chosen arbitrarily, so that the conditions at time

$$t=0 \text{ are } p_1 = \{m_1, a_1, v_1\}; p_2 = \{m_2, a_2, v_2\}; t = 0$$

The conservation laws are:

$$\begin{aligned} m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2 &= \text{const.} = m_1 v_1' + m_2 v_2' \\ m_1 v_1^2 + m_2 v_2^2 &= 2E = \text{const.} = m_1 (v_1')^2 + m_2 (v_2')^2 \end{aligned}$$

where  $v_1'$  and  $v_2'$  are the velocities after collision. The equations of motion before collision are:

$$x_1 = v_1 t + a_1; x_2 = v_2 t + a_2$$

Given these initial equations one can show through straightforward calculation that the velocities after collision are related to those before collision by the matrix formula:

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1' \\ v_2' \end{pmatrix} = A \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1 + m_2} & \frac{2m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \\ \frac{2m_1}{m_1 + m_2} & -\frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

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Note that neither the a's nor the v's occur in the matrix: A is always the same for every collision. <sup>1</sup> This is quickly generalized to the following

*Theorem* : If particles  $p_k$  and  $p_{k+1}$  collide, then the velocities after the collision are related to those before the collision by the formula:

$$\begin{pmatrix} v'_k \\ v'_{k+1} \end{pmatrix} = C^k \begin{pmatrix} v_k \\ v_{k+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C^k = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{m_k - m_{k+1}}{m_k + m_{k+1}} & \frac{2m_{k+1}}{m_k + m_{k+1}} \\ \frac{2m_k}{m_k + m_{k+1}} & \frac{m_k - m_{k+1}}{m_k + m_{k+1}} \end{pmatrix}$$

For describing the history H of a system in terms of its collisions and the order in which they occur,  $C^k$  can be incorporated into an  $N \times N$  matrix  $A^k$  as a  $2 \times 2$  diagonal element.

$$A^k = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ 0 & \cdot & & & 0 \\ \cdot & & C^k & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & \cdot & \cdot & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

with  $N-2$  1's on the diagonal,  $C_k$  filling up places  $(k,k+1) \dots (k+1,k+1)$ , and 0's everywhere else.

The Generalized Collision Theorem can now be restated as :

*Given initial conditions of mass, velocity for  $n$  particles on a line, the number of collision numbers attained by arbitrarily assigning locations  $x_1 < x_2 < x_3 \dots < x_N$  . is finite.*

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<sup>1</sup>(Note that the eigenvalues for such collision matrices are always  $i$  and  $-i$ , a result which has some bearing in symplectic or Hamiltonian manifolds. )

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*Corollary: There is a maximum collision number.*

Obviously there is always a minimum collision number. In fact, if all the velocities are distinct, it is always 1! One places the particles relative to the Center of Gravity in such a way that they all collide simultaneously at the origin. The situation in which 2 or more particles have an identical velocity is a limiting case in which the particles of equal velocity are placed together on the same location.

### Equivalent Histories

There are several ways to describe the "history" of a system  $S(a_i; v_i; m_i) \ i=1,2,\dots,N$ , where the initial conditions are assumed to apply before any collisions have taken place. A complete description of the "history" of  $S$ , from first to last collision can then be written as:

$$v^e = H(v^0) = A^{j_c} A^{j_{c-1}} A^{j_{c-2}} \dots A^{j_1} (v^0)$$

where the indices  $j_i$  are chosen among the indices of particles  $p_1 \dots p_N$ , and

$$v^0 = \begin{pmatrix} v_1^0 \\ \cdot \\ v_N^0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$v^e = \begin{pmatrix} v_1^e \\ \cdot \\ v_N^e \end{pmatrix}$$

are the initial and terminal velocity values respectively.

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If H is presented in its numerical form one will not be able to reconstruct the pattern of collisions, or even the individual collisions which transform the initial velocity vector into the terminal one. To do this we have to write down

(i) The sequential product of collision matrices in temporal order. That is, if the j-th collision occurred before the j+1-st collision, the order of collision matrices is  $\boxed{\dots A^{k_j} A^{k_{j+1}} \dots}$ . If the collisions are simultaneous, then the order is immaterial.

(ii) The numerical entries in all the  $A^{k_j}$  are replaced by *formal indeterminates* , or mass letters. For example, if the entries for  $A^1$  are  $c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4$ , then for these numbers one makes the following substitutions:

$$\left( \begin{array}{l} c_1 = \frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad c_2 = \frac{2m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \\ c_3 = \frac{2m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \quad c_4 = -\frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \end{array} \right)$$

One then replaces the numerical entries in H by *all the rational functions in the masses  $m_1 \dots m_N$  derived from the formal products of the terms in the collision and multiple collision matrices.*

Although the sequential changes in the entries in the velocity N-vector after collisions *cannot be derived from the formal matrices* , the formal matrices can all be derived from the velocities and of the (numerical ) configuration of velocities and positions of the system after collisions. What this is saying that the indices of the particles involved in the next collision are directly derivable from the velocities and positions of the particles themselves.

We therefore define

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(1) The *material history* of an N- system  $S(a_i; v_i; m_i)$  consists of all the collision matrices with their numerical entries arranged sequentially in the temporal order in which collisions occur, as well as the list of all the velocity N-vectors and position N-vectors that are the result of such collisions. From these vectors, the index of the next collision or multiple collision matrix can be unambiguously determined.

(2) The *formal history* of an N- system  $S(a_i; v_i; m_i)$  consists of all the collision matrices with their numerical entries replaced by expressions in the indeterminate mass letters, and the entries in H replaced by the formal rational functions obtained through matrix multiplication. One cannot derive the sequence of collisions from the formal history, which depends upon the data furnished by the material history .

We are almost ready to define equivalence between systems. Basically, two systems with identical initial velocities and masses but differing initial locations are equivalence if there is a continuous deformation of one into the other that preserves the formal history up to the transposition of commuting matrices. One does not need to maintain strict temporal order if the global collision history is unaltered.

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What happens if there is a multiple collision? For example, if 3 particles  $k, k+1, k+2$  collide at the same place and time, then the matrix of this collision cannot be either the product  $A^k A^{k+1}$  or  $A^{k+1} A^k$ , since these are not formally equal. Instead the collision matrices are replaced by a *multiple collision matrix*  $M^k$ , where  $k$



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is the left-most particle in the triple collision. We will return to this in the following section.

Imagine first a system of 3-particles  $p_1, p_2, p_3$ . Placing the origin of the rest frame at the barycenter, the initial velocities before a triple collision will be transformed by the collision to:

$$v_1 \rightarrow -v_1; v_2 \rightarrow -v_2; v_3 \rightarrow -v_3$$

In this very special situation the mass numbers ( or letters) are irrelevant. Suppose next that the particles are in a system  $S$ , indexed as  $p_k, p_{k+1}, p_{k+2}$ , with velocities  $v_i$  relative to the barycenter of the entire system. One then computes the velocity  $u$ , of the barycenter of this 3-particle system, which by the conservation of Momentum is:

$$(m_k + m_{k+1} + m_{k+2})u = m_k v_k + m_{k+1} v_{k+1} + m_{k+2} v_{k+2}$$

The calculation of the transformation of velocities by this triple collision is done by subtracting  $u$  and applying the reflection of velocities cited above. The result may be summarized as follows:

The collision matrix  $M_{(3)}^k$  for a triple collision of particles  $p_k, p_{k+1}, p_{k+2}$  is given by :

$$M_{(3)}^k = \frac{1}{m_k + m_{k+1} + m_{k+2}} \begin{pmatrix} m_k - m_{k+1} - m_{k+2} & 2m_{k+1} & 2m_{k+2} \\ 2m_k & m_{k+1} - m_k - m_{k+2} & 2m_{k+2} \\ 2m_k & 2m_{k+1} & m_{k+2} - m_k - m_{k+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

As simultaneous collisions of 4 or more particles are immediate generalizations of this construction, there is no need to go into them here.

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Let  $s, t$  be real numbers. If  $s < t$ , then the interval between and including them is given by  $I = [s, t]$ .

*Definition:*  $|[s, t]|$  shall represent the interval *between*  $s$  and  $t$ . If  $s \leq t$ , then  $|[s, t]| = [s, t]$ . If  $s > t$ , then  $|[s, t]| = [t, s]$ . Obviously  $|[s, s]| = \{s\}$ . Equally clear is the expression  $z \in |[s, t]|$

Let the two systems

$$S_a = S(a_i; v_i; m_i) \text{ and } S_b = S(b_i; v_i; m_i)$$

$i = 1, 2, \dots, N$  be given, with identical masses and initial velocities, but arbitrary initial locations  $\{a_i\}$  and  $\{b_i\}$ , subject only to  $a_i < a_{i+1}$ ,  $b_i < b_{i+1}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N-1$

*Definition:*  $S_a$  and  $S_b$  are *equivalent* if

- (1) *The formal history of  $S_a$  is identical to the formal history of  $S_b$ ;*
- (2) *The decomposition by collision and multiple collision matrices is the same, perhaps permuted in their temporal order*
- (3) *Let  $E$  represent the "box" defined by*

$$\boxed{e \in E \rightarrow e = (e_1, \dots, e_N) \& e_i \in [a_i, b_i], i = 1, 2, \dots, N}$$

*Then the system  $S_e = S(e_i; v_i; m_i)$  has the same formal history and decomposition by collision and multiple collision matrices for all  $e \in E$ .*

Clearly, equivalent systems have the same collision number. The General Collision Theorem states that the number of equivalence classes is finite.

## The Standard Position Theorems

*Definition:* Let  $S$  be a system with all initial parameters specified. Let us say that a multiple collision occurs at the  $j$ th place in the sequence of collisions. The  $N$ -velocity vector after that collision has entries  $v_1^*, \dots, v_N^*$  which are linear functions of the initial entries  $v_1^0, \dots, v_N^0$ , with coefficients that are rational functions of the masses of these entries. Not all of the particles in the system need enter into the linear expressions for the values of the after-collision velocities.

We say that a particle  $p_k$  is *responsible* for a multiple collision if its initial velocity enters into the linear expressions for the particle velocities after that collision. The collision of  $p_k$  with an adjacent particle, once or many times, preceded and was responsible for causing the collision

*First Standard Position Theorem:* Let  $c_{n1}, \dots, c_{nq}$  be all the multiple collisions for which some particle  $p_k$  is responsible. Then there is a neighborhood around  $a_k$ , (the initial position of  $p_k$ ) in which any point  $a_k' \neq a_k$  will *not* be responsible for *any* multiple collisions in the modified system

$$S' = S(a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, a_k', a_{k+1}, \dots, a_N)$$

We sketch the proof for triple-collisions, from which the generalization to  $n$ -fold collisions is immediate.

A simple collision of particles  $i$  and  $i+1$  is of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= v_i t + a_i \\ x_{i+1} &= v_{i+1} t + a_{i+1} \end{aligned}$$

The collision location is given by:

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$$\hat{x} = \frac{v_{i+1}a_i - v_i a_{i+1}}{v_{i+1} - v_i}$$

This is linear and homogeneous in the initial locations, with coefficients determined by the initial velocities and the collision matrices. After a certain number of collisions have taken place, the locations assume the form:

$$\begin{aligned}x_j &= c_1^j a_1 + \dots + c_N^j a_N \\x_{j+1} &= c_1^{j+1} a_1 + \dots + c_N^{j+1} a_N \\x_{j+2} &= c_1^{j+2} a_1 + \dots + c_N^{j+2} a_N\end{aligned}$$

Now a triple collision (*relative to the barycenter of this 3 particle system* ) occurs when the following set of ratios are equal:

$$\frac{x_j}{v_j^*} = \frac{x_{j+1}}{v_{j+1}^*} = \frac{x_{j+2}}{v_{j+2}^*}$$

these being the velocities attained at the moment just before this collision. It is clear that a tiny perturbation of *any single initial position*  $a_k$  , ( all others being left fixed) , will alter these ratios so that no triple collision occurs. Furthermore, if this is the *first* triple collision for which  $a_k$  is responsible, the alteration can be made so small that the expressions for the new velocities will not be changed by that alteration .

Having "uncoupled" the first multiple collision, one precedes to uncouple the next one by reducing the size of the perturbation. As the total number of multiple collisions for which  $a_k$  is responsible must be finite, one takes the intersection of all these perturbations to obtain a neighborhood around  $a_k$  , such that every real number in that neighborhood except  $a_k$  itself will not

be responsible for any multiple collisions in the modified system of initial conditions.

*Corollary:* Given a system  $S$  with initial locations  $\{a_i\}$ , there exists a hyperrectangle  $R$ , formed by the Cartesian product of neighborhoods of each  $a_i$ , such that any point  $r$  in  $R$  whose  $i^{\text{th}}$  coordinate is not equal to  $a_i$ , will provide the initial locations of a system which generates *no* multiple collisions.

*Standard Position Theorem 2* : Let  $S_a$  be a given system, and  $p_k$  a particle which is not responsible for any multiple collisions. Then there is an open interval around  $a_k$  of systems equivalent to  $S_a$ . The proof follows along the same lines as the First Standard Position Theorem.

It follows from basic continuity, ( no jumps in the trajectories) , and the linearity of the equations for locations in terms of earlier locations, that any particle which is not responsible for any multiple collision can be perturbed a tiny distance and still not be responsible for a multiple collision.

*Construction:* Now, keeping all initial locations fixed except the first, take the particle  $p_1$  and begin moving it to the left. As it does so, the location of the center of gravity will change, but all initial velocities, masses, and relative positions will remain unaltered. Whenever  $p_1$  hits a point at which it is responsible for a multiple collision, a small perturbation to the left will uncouple those collisions. Whenever  $p_1$  is in an interval in which it is not responsible for any multiple collisions it there will be a neighborhood around its location in which all systems generated by its points and the other initial locations, are equivalent.

Thus, fixing an origin which can be, (but cannot remain) the center of gravity, the motion of  $p_1$  to the left decomposes the real line into a series of open intervals in which  $p_1$  is *not* responsible for multiple collisions, each interval being separated by isolated points in which it *is* responsible for multiple collisions. All systems *within* each interval are equivalent.

<.....  $a_1$  .....  $(a_2, a_3, \dots, a_N)$  .....

The set of multiple collision points may be labelled ,  
 $q_1, q_2, q_3 \dots = \{q_i\} = Q$

*Theorem:*  $Q$  has no finite limit point .

*Proof:* If  $q$  were a limit point of  $Q$ , then it would not be possible to create an interval around  $q$  in which there were no locations at which  $p_k$  would be responsible for a multiple collision, thus contradiction both the First and the Second Standard Position Theorems.

To prove the General Collision Theorem we proceed by mathematical induction. It is obviously true for  $N=1$  ,  $N=2$ . For  $N=3$ , there are at most 3 collision numbers: (1) The configuration producing a triple collision. (2) The configuration in which  $p_2$  is to the left of its place in (1) ; and (3) The configuration in which  $p_2$  is to the right of this place. See "Trains and Fly" for details.

*Theorem:* Assume that the General Collision Theorem is true for systems with  $1, 2, 3 \dots N-1$  particles. Then there exists a location  $L$ , to the left of the system  $S$  with initial locations  $a_2, \dots, a_N$  for particles  $p_2 \dots p_N$ , such that if  $p_1$  is placed at  $a_1$  anywhere

to the left of  $L$  it will *not be* responsible for a multiple collision. In consequence, all such systems will be equivalent.

*Proof by induction:*

(1) Suppose that the velocity of  $p_1$  is negative, so that it is moving *away* from the other particles. Let the collection of distinct equivalence classes for the system  $S = p_2, \dots, p_N$  be designated  $C(N-1)$ . Let  $T$  be one of these systems.

By the restricted collision theorem  $T$  *eventually* takes the form of a system expanding away from the origin in both directions. We will call this phase, after all collisions have occurred, the *expanding phase*. We can therefore place  $p_1$  so far away that the particle  $p_2$  does not collide with it *until that expansion has begun*.

$p_2$  recoils; it may reverse direction or simply move at a slower speed. If it reverses direction, then in order to hit  $p_1$  a second time, it must reverse direction again. However, to hit  $p_1$  it must be moving *faster* than it was before, as the speed of  $p_1$  has increased owing to the previous collision.

From this and the conservation of energy one sees that:  
*Sub-Theorem:* The number of reversing cycles of  $p_2$  between  $p_1$  and  $p_3$  must be finite in number, and a function only of the momenta of  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$  and  $p_3$  (in the expansion cycle).

*Continuing with the proof:* Since we are assuming the theorem to be true for  $N-1$  particles, each time  $p_2$  returns to the system, it has only a finite number of alternative velocities when it reaches  $p_1$ . One can therefore multiply all these numbers to obtain a maximum. Let's say this number is  $J$ .

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After  $p_2$  has exhausted all of its reversing cycles, it may now continue to strike  $p_1$ , but it will be moving only in the forward direction. However, the number of reversing cycles of  $p_3$  between  $p_2$  and  $p_4$  is also finite, and restricted by the conservation of energy.

Proceeding thusly, we eventually place  $p_1$  at a place  $G$  *so far to the left*, that there are only a finite number of systems to choose from for each  $a_1$  to the left of  $G$ . As  $a_1$  moves leftwards each such system takes up its interval of equivalence, separated from other systems by points at which  $a_1$  is responsible for multiple collisions. Therefore there is a place  $L$ , beyond  $G$ , such that all systems with  $a_1$  to the left of  $L$  are equivalent.

*(It should be possible to derive a proof based on the fact that the location ratios that determine multiple collisions will eventually be dominated by the absolute value of  $a_1$  so that no multiple collisions can occur after some point  $L$ . )*

**Theorem (General Collision):** Let  $p_1$ , then, be at some location  $a_1$  to the left of  $L$ . All systems with  $p_1$  to the left of  $L$  are equivalent, so one can gradually move the initial location of  $p_1$  to the right, until it hits the first point at which it is responsible for a multiple collision. One continues to move to the right, generating the pattern of open intervals and multiple collision producing locations described above. This motion generates a finite number  $E_T$  of equivalence classes of systems for the particle  $p_1$  and the selected system  $T$ .



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$C(N)$  is then obtained by doing the same process for every member  $T$  of  $C(N-1)$ . Since the number of elements of  $\#C(N-1)$  is finite, the total number of equivalence classes in  $C(N)$  is:

$$\#C(N) = E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_{\#C(N-1)} .$$

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