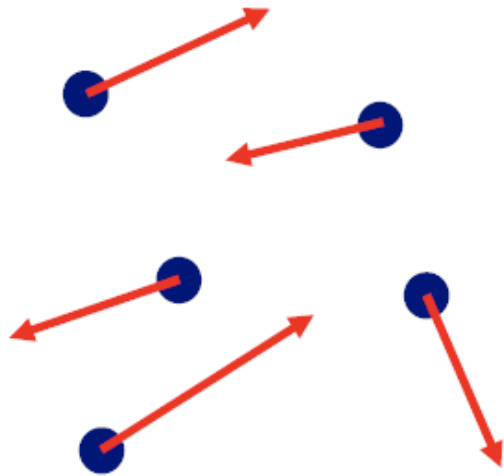
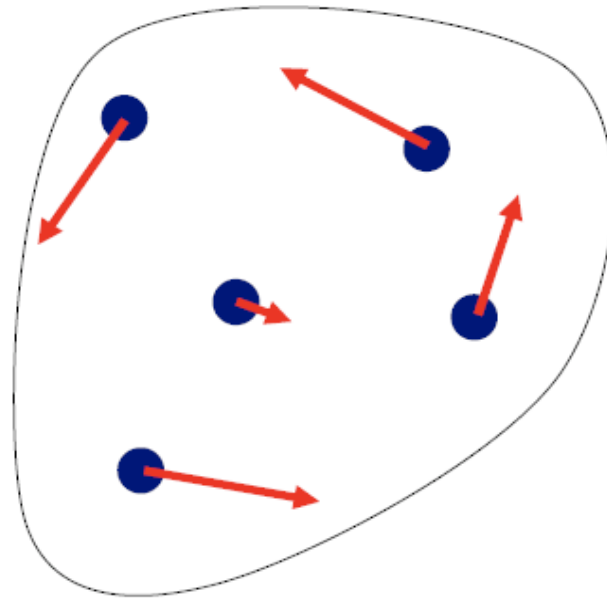


# From Particles to Rigid Bodies



- Particles
  - No rotations
  - Linear velocity  $\mathbf{v}$  only
  - $3N$  DoFs

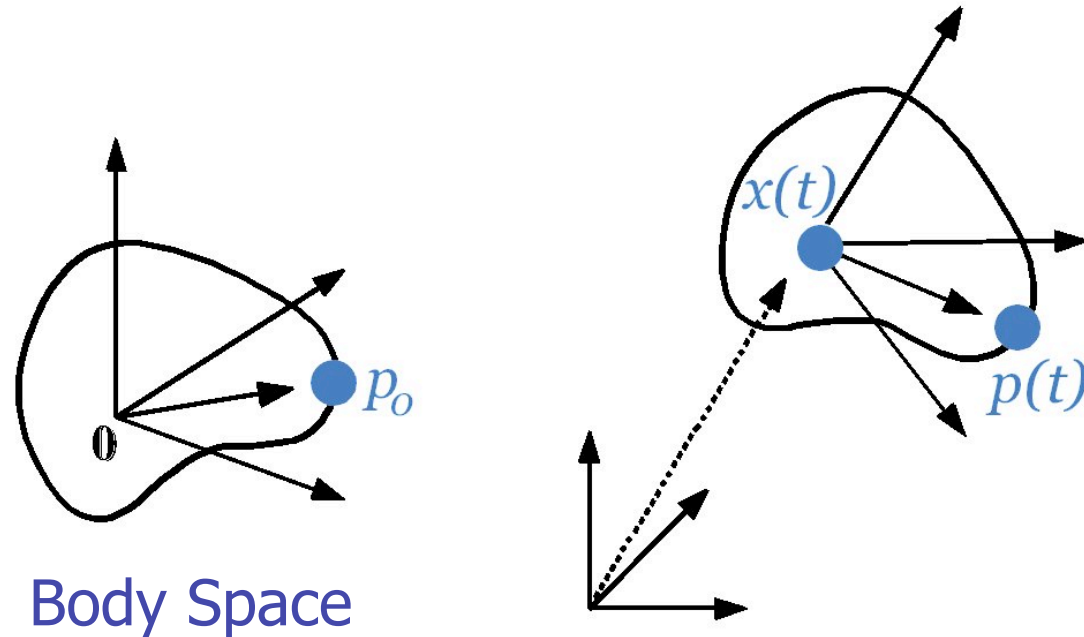


- Rigid bodies
  - 6 DoFs (translation + rotation)
  - Linear velocity  $\mathbf{v}$
  - Angular velocity  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$

# Outline

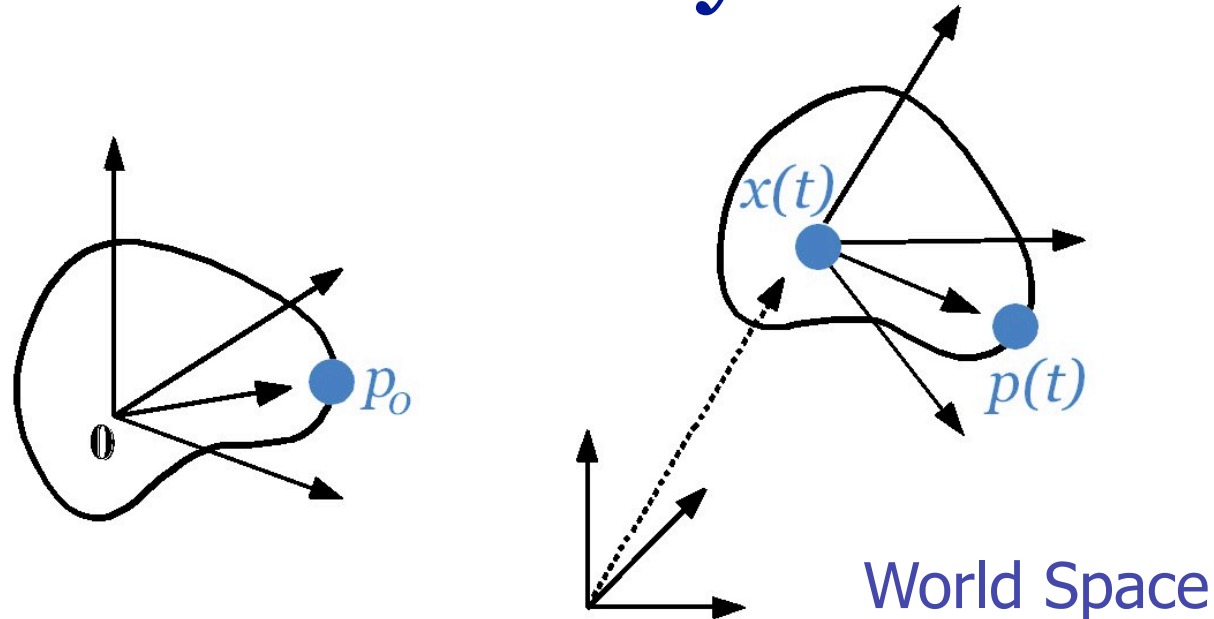
- Rigid Body Representation
- Kinematics
- Dynamics
- Simulation Algorithm
- Collisions and Contact Response

# Coordinate Systems



- Body Space (Local Coordinate System)
  - Rigid bodies are defined relative to this system
  - Center of mass is the origin (for convenience)
    - We will specify body-related physical properties (inertia, ...) in this frame

# Coordinate Systems



- World Space:  
rigid body transformation to common frame

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{x}(t) + \text{Rot}(\mathbf{p}_0)$$

translation

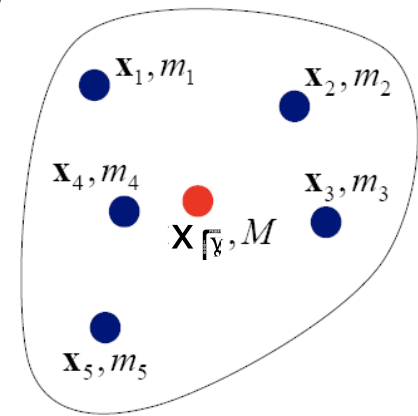
rotation

# Center of mass

- Definition

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \frac{\sum m_i \mathbf{x}_i}{\sum m_i} = \frac{\sum m_i \mathbf{x}_i}{M}$$

$$M \mathbf{x}_0 = \sum m_i \mathbf{x}_i$$



- Motivation: forces

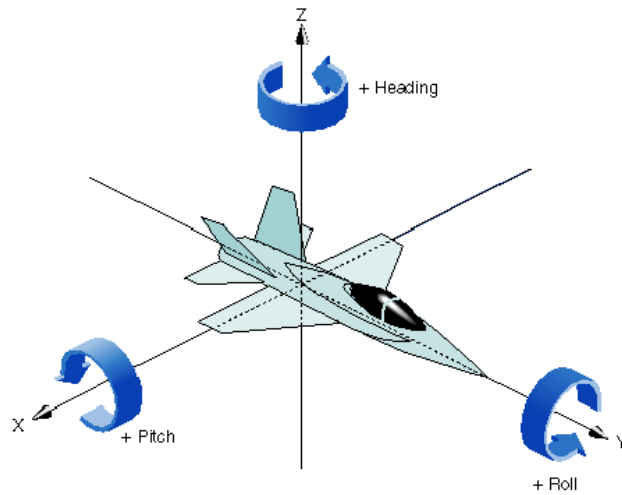
(one mass particle:)  $\mathbf{f}_i = m_i \ddot{\mathbf{x}}_i$

(entire body:)  $\mathbf{F} = \sum \mathbf{f}_i = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \sum m_i \mathbf{x}_i$

$$\mathbf{F} = M \ddot{\mathbf{x}}_0$$

# Rotations

- Euler angles:
  - 3 DoFs: roll, pitch, heading
  - Dependent on order of application
  - Not practical



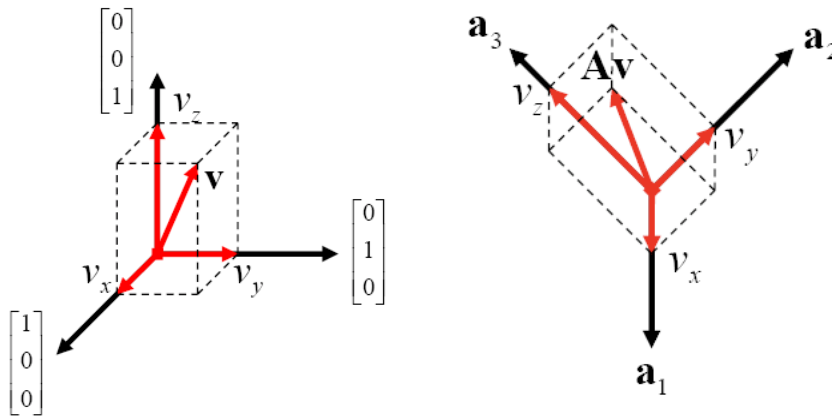
# Rotations

- Rotation matrix

- 3x3 matrix: 9 DoFs

- Columns: world-space coordinates of body-space base vectors

- Rotate a vector:  $\text{Rot}(\mathbf{v}) = R\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \mathbf{a}_3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}$



# Rotations

- Problem with rotation matrices: numerical drift

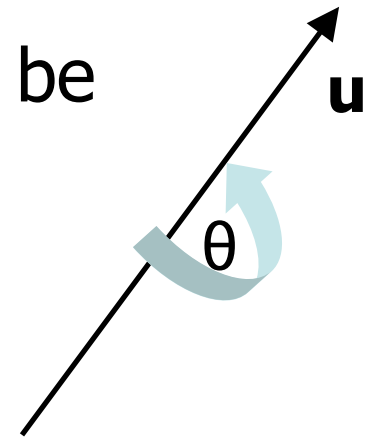
$$R(t_k) = \Delta t^k \dot{R}(t_k) \dot{R}(t_{k-1}) \dot{R}(t_{k-2}) \dots R(t_0)$$

- Fix: use Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization
- Drift is easier to fix with quaternions



# Unit Quaternion Definition

- $\mathbf{q} = [s, \mathbf{v}]$  :  $s$  is a scalar,  $\mathbf{v}$  is vector
- A rotation of  $\theta$  about a unit axis  $\mathbf{u}$  can be represented by the unit quaternion:  
$$[\cos(\theta/2), \sin(\theta/2) \mathbf{u}]$$
- Rotate a vector:  $\text{Rot}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{q}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{q}^*$
- Fix drift:
  - 4-tuple: vector representation of rotation
  - Normalized quaternion always defines a rotation in  $\mathfrak{R}^3$



# Unit Quaternion Operations

- Special multiplication:

$$[s_1, v_1][s_2, v_2] = [s_1s_2 - v_1 \cdot v_2, s_1v_2 + s_2v_1 + v_1 \times v_2]$$

$$\frac{dq(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}\omega(t)\mathbf{q}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega(t) \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}(t)$$

- Back to rotation matrix

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 2v_y^2 - 2v_z^2 & 2v_xv_y - 2sv_z & 2v_xv_z + 2sv_y \\ 2v_xv_y + 2sv_z & 1 - 2v_x^2 - 2v_z^2 & 2v_yv_z - 2sv_x \\ 2v_xv_z - 2sv_y & 2v_yv_z + 2sv_x & 1 - 2v_x^2 - 2v_y^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Outline

- Rigid Body Representation
- Kinematics
- Dynamics
- Simulation Algorithm
- Collisions and Contact Response

# Kinematics: Velocities

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}(t) = \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \dot{\mathbf{R}}(t)\mathbf{p}_0$$

Linear velocity

Angular velocity

- How do  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  and  $\mathbf{R}(t)$  change over time?
- Linear velocity  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  describes the velocity of the center of mass  $\mathbf{x}$  (m/s)

# Kinematics: Velocities

- Angular velocity, represented by  $\omega(t)$

- Direction: axis of rotation
- Magnitude  $|\omega|$ : angular velocity about the axis (rad/s)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \omega \times \mathbf{x}$$

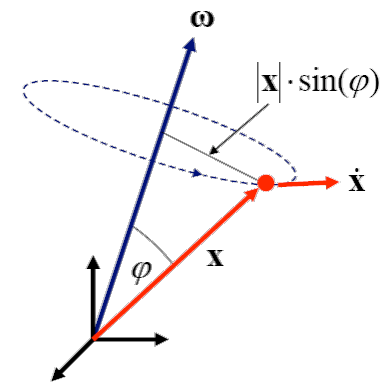


Image ETHZ 2005

- Time derivative of rotation matrix:
  - Velocities of the body-frame axes, i.e. the columns of R

$$\dot{R} = \left( \omega(t) \times \begin{pmatrix} r_{xx} \\ r_{xy} \\ r_{xz} \end{pmatrix} \quad \omega(t) \times \begin{pmatrix} r_{yx} \\ r_{yy} \\ r_{yz} \end{pmatrix} \quad \omega(t) \times \begin{pmatrix} r_{zx} \\ r_{zy} \\ r_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

# Angular Velocities

- $\mathbf{R}(t)$  and  $\boldsymbol{\omega}(t)$  are related by:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{R}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\omega_z(t) & \omega_y(t) \\ \omega_z(t) & 0 & -\omega_x(t) \\ -\omega_y(t) & \omega_x(t) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}(t)$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\omega}(t)^* \mathbf{R}(t)$$

# Outline

- Rigid Body Representation
- Kinematics
- Dynamics
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# Dynamics: Accelerations

- How do  $v(t)$  and  $\omega(t)$  change over time?
- First we need some more machinery
  - Forces and Torques
  - Linear and angular momentum
  - Inertia Tensor
- Simplify equations by formulating accelerations in terms of momentum derivatives instead of velocity derivatives



# Forces and Torques

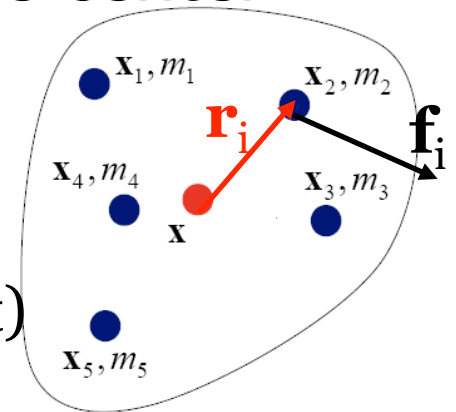
- External forces  $\mathbf{f}_i(t)$  act on particles
  - Total external force  $\mathbf{F} = \sum \mathbf{f}_i(t)$
- Torques depend on distance from the center of mass:

$$\tau_i(t) = (\mathbf{r}_i(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)) \times \mathbf{f}_i(t)$$

- Total external torque

$$\tau(t) = \sum ((\mathbf{r}_i(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)) \times \mathbf{f}_i(t))$$

- $\mathbf{F}(t)$  doesn't convey any information about where the various forces act
- $\tau(t)$  does tell us about the distribution of forces



# Linear Momentum

- Linear momentum  $\mathbf{P}(t)$  lets us express the effect of total force  $\mathbf{F}(t)$  on body (due to conservation of energy):  
$$\mathbf{F}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{P}(t)}{dt}$$
- Linear momentum is the product of mass and linear velocity
  - $\mathbf{P}(t) = \sum m_i d\mathbf{r}_i(t)/dt$   
 $= \sum m_i \mathbf{v}(t) + \boldsymbol{\omega}(t) \times \sum m_i (\mathbf{r}_i(t) - \mathbf{x}(t))$   
 $= \sum m_i \mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{v}(t)$
  - Just as if body were a particle with mass  $M$  and velocity  $\mathbf{v}(t)$
  - Time derivative of  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  to express acceleration:

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}}(t) = M^{-1} \frac{d\mathbf{P}(t)}{dt} = M^{-1} \mathbf{F}(t)$$

- Use  $\mathbf{P}(t)$  instead of  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  in state vectors

# Angular momentum

- Same thing, angular momentum  $L(t)$  allows us to express the effect of total torque  $\tau(t)$  on the body:

$$\dot{L}(t) = \tau(t)$$

- Similarly, there is a linear relationship between momentum and velocity:

$$L(t) = I\omega(t)$$

- $I(t)$  is inertia tensor, plays the role of mass
- Use  $L(t)$  instead of  $\omega(t)$  in state vectors

# Inertia Tensor

- 3x3 matrix describing how the shape and mass distribution of the body affects the relationship between the angular velocity and the angular momentum  $L(t)$
- Analogous to mass – rotational mass
- We actually want the inverse  $I^{-1}(t)$  to compute  $\omega(t) = I^{-1}(t)L(t)$

# Inertia Tensor

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} I_{xx} & -I_{xy} & -I_{xz} \\ -I_{yx} & I_{yy} & -I_{yz} \\ -I_{zx} & -I_{zy} & I_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

Bunch of volume integrals:

$$\begin{aligned} I_{xx} &= \int_V \rho(x, y, z) (y^2 + z^2) dV & I_{xy} &= I_{yx} = \int_V \rho(x, y, z) (xy) dV \\ I_{yy} &= \int_V \rho(x, y, z) (x^2 + z^2) dV & I_{xz} &= I_{zx} = \int_V \rho(x, y, z) (zx) dV \\ I_{zz} &= \int_V \rho(x, y, z) (x^2 + y^2) dV & I_{yz} &= I_{zy} = \int_V \rho(x, y, z) (yz) dV \end{aligned}$$

# Inertia Tensor

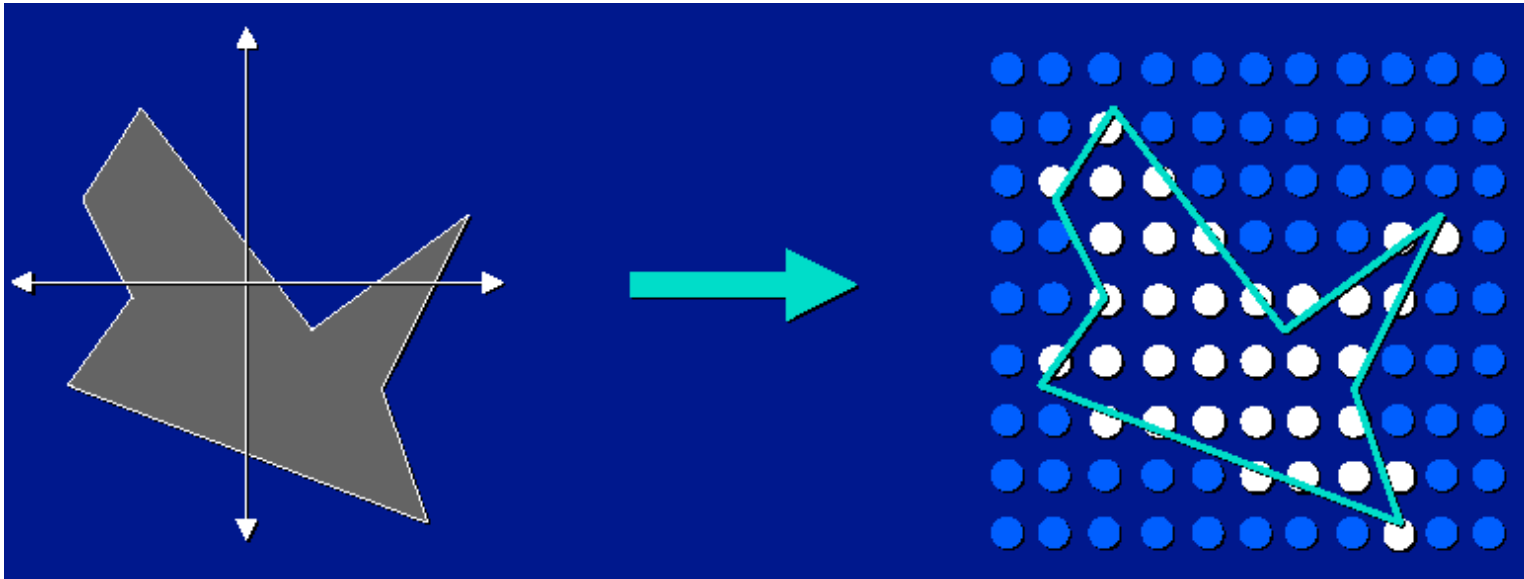
- Avoid recomputing inverse of inertia tensor
- Compute I in body space  $I_{\text{body}}$  and then transform to world space as required
  - I(t) varies in world space, but  $I_{\text{body}}$  is constant in body space for the entire simulation
- Intuitively:
  - Transform  $\omega(t)$  to body space, apply inertia tensor in body space, and transform back to world space
  - $L(t) = I(t)\omega(t) = R(t) I_{\text{body}} R^T(t) \omega(t)$
  - $I^{-1}(t) = R(t) I_{\text{body}}^{-1} R^T(t)$

# Computing $I_{\text{body}}^{-1}$

- There exists an orientation in body space which causes  $I_{xy}$ ,  $I_{xz}$ ,  $I_{yz}$  to all vanish
  - Diagonalize tensor matrix, define the eigenvectors to be the local body axes
  - Increases efficiency and trivial inverse
- Point sampling within the bounding box
- Projection and evaluation of Greene's thm.
  - Code implementing this method exists
  - Refer to Mirtich's paper at  
<http://www.acm.org/jgt/papers/Mirtich96>

# Approximation w/ Point

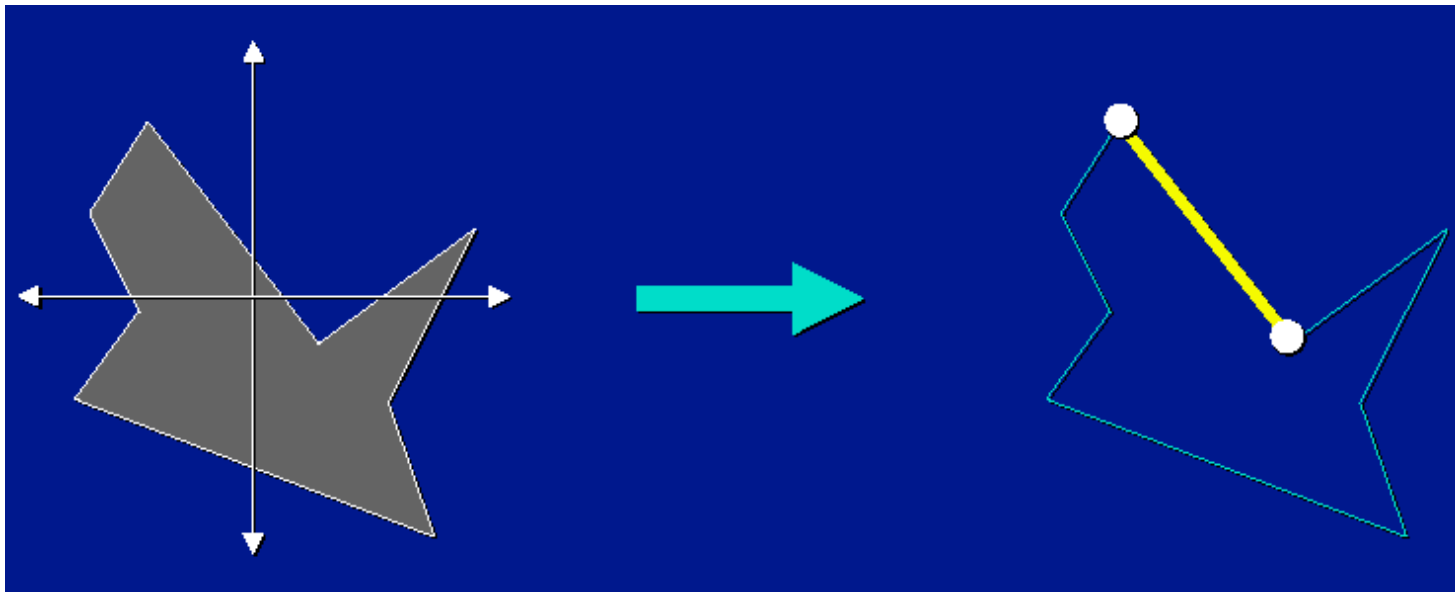
- Pros: Simple, fairly accurate, no B-rep needed.
- Cons: Expensive, requires volume test.





# Use of Green's Theorem

- Pros: Simple, exact, no volumes needed.
- Cons: Requires boundary representation.



# Outline

- Rigid Body Representation
- Kinematics
- Dynamics
- Simulation Algorithm
- Collisions and Contact Response

# Position state vector

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) \\ \mathbf{q}(t) \\ P(t) \\ L(t) \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \left. \vphantom{\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) \\ \mathbf{q}(t) \\ P(t) \\ L(t) \end{pmatrix}} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Spatial information} \\ \left. \vphantom{\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) \\ \mathbf{q}(t) \\ P(t) \\ L(t) \end{pmatrix}} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Velocity information} \end{array}$$

$\mathbf{v}(t)$  replaced by linear momentum  $P(t)$

$\boldsymbol{\omega}(t)$  replaced by angular momentum  $L(t)$

Size of the vector:  $(3+4+3+3)N = 13N$

# Velocity state vector

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) \\ \mathbf{q}(t) \\ P(t) \\ L(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}(t) \\ \frac{1}{2}\omega(t)\mathbf{q}(t) \\ F(t) \\ \tau(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{P(t)}{M} \\ \frac{1}{2}I^{-1}L(t)\mathbf{q}(t) \\ F(t) \\ \tau(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

Conservation of momentum ( $P(t)$ ,  $L(t)$ ) lets us express the accelerations in terms of forces and torques.

# Simulation Algorithm

Pre-compute:

$$M \leftarrow \sum m_i$$

$$I_{\text{body}}$$

Initialize

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}, R, \omega, \mathbf{X}, \dot{\mathbf{X}}$$

$$I^{-1} \leftarrow R I_{\text{body}} R^T$$

$$L \leftarrow I\omega$$

$$\tau \leftarrow \sum \mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{f}_i$$

$$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \sum \mathbf{f}_i$$

$$(\mathbf{X}, \dot{\mathbf{X}}) \leftarrow \text{step}(\mathbf{X}, \dot{\mathbf{X}}, \mathbf{F}, \tau)$$

$$R \leftarrow \text{quat2mat}(\mathbf{q})$$

$$I^{-1} \leftarrow R I_{\text{body}} R^T$$

Accumulate  
forces

Your favorite  
ODE solver

# Simulation Algorithm

Pre-compute:

$$M \leftarrow \sum m_i$$

$$I_{\text{body}}$$

Initialize

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}, R, \omega$$

$$I^{-1} \leftarrow R I_{\text{body}} R^T$$

$$L \leftarrow I \omega$$

$$\tau \leftarrow \sum \mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{f}_i$$

$$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \sum \mathbf{f}_i$$

$$P \leftarrow P + \Delta t \mathbf{F}$$

$$L \leftarrow L + \Delta t \tau$$

$$\omega \leftarrow I^{-1} L$$

$$\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathbf{x} + \Delta t \frac{P}{M}$$

$$\mathbf{q} \leftarrow \mathbf{q} + \Delta t \frac{1}{2} \omega \mathbf{q}$$

$$R \leftarrow \text{quat2mat}(\mathbf{q})$$

$$I^{-1} \leftarrow R I_{\text{body}} R^T$$

Accumulate  
forces

Explicit  
Euler step

# Outline

- Rigid Body Representation
- Kinematics
- Dynamics
- Simulation Algorithm
- Collision Detection and Contact Determination
  - Contact classification
  - Intersection testing, bisection, and nearest features

# What happens when bodies collide?

- Colliding
  - Bodies bounce off each other
  - Elasticity governs 'bounciness'
  - Motion of bodies changes **discontinuously** within a discrete time step
  - 'Before' and 'After' states need to be computed
- In contact
  - Resting
  - Sliding
  - Friction



# Detecting collisions and response

- Several choices
  - Collision detection: which algorithm?
  - Response: Backtrack or allow penetration?
- Two primitives to find out if response is necessary:
  - Distance(A,B): cheap, no contact information → fast intersection query
  - Contact(A,B): expensive, with contact information

# Distance(A,B)

- Returns a value which is the minimum distance between two bodies
- Approximate may be ok
- Negative if the bodies intersect
- Convex polyhedra
  - Lin-Canny and GJK -- 2 classes of algorithms
- Non-convex polyhedra
  - Much more useful but hard to get distance fast
  - PQP/RAPID/SWIFT++
- Remark: most of these algorithms give inaccurate information if bodies intersect, except for DEEP

# Contacts(A,B)

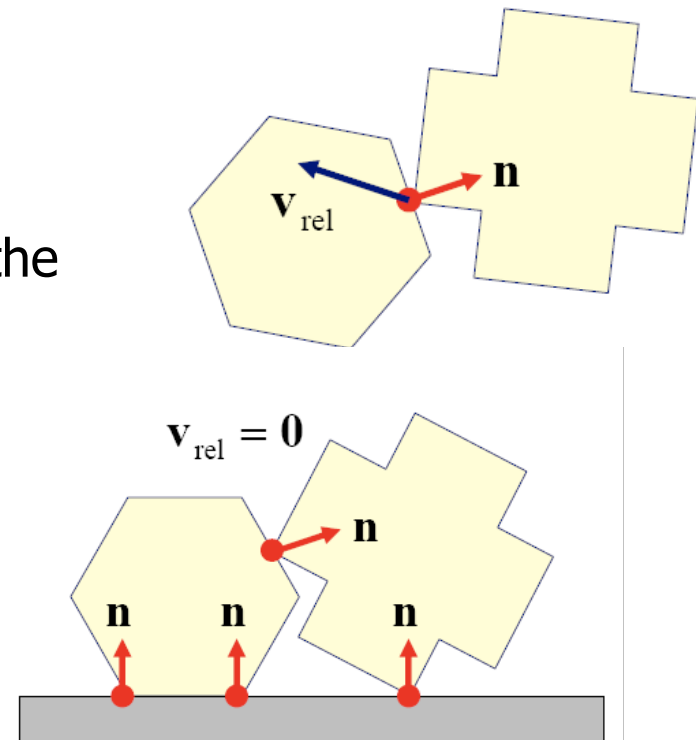
- Returns the set of features that are nearest for disjoint bodies or intersecting for penetrating bodies
- Convex polyhedra
  - LC & GJK give the nearest features as a bi-product of their computation – only a single pair. Others that are equally distant may not be returned.
- Non-convex polyhedra
  - Much more useful but much harder problem especially contact determination for disjoint bodies
  - Convex decomposition: SWIFT++

# Prereq: Fast intersection test

- First, we want to make sure that bodies will intersect at next discrete time instant
- If not:
  - $X_{\text{new}}$  is a valid, non-penetrating state, proceed to next time step
- If intersection:
  - Classify contact
  - Compute response
  - Recompute new state

# Bodies intersect $\rightarrow$ classify contacts

- Colliding contact ('easy')
  - $v_{rel} < -\varepsilon$
  - Instantaneous change in velocity
  - Discontinuity: requires restart of the equation solver
- Resting contact (**hard!**)
  - $-\varepsilon < v_{rel} < \varepsilon$
  - Gradual contact forces avoid interpenetration
  - No discontinuities
- Bodies separating
  - $v_{rel} > \varepsilon$
  - No response required

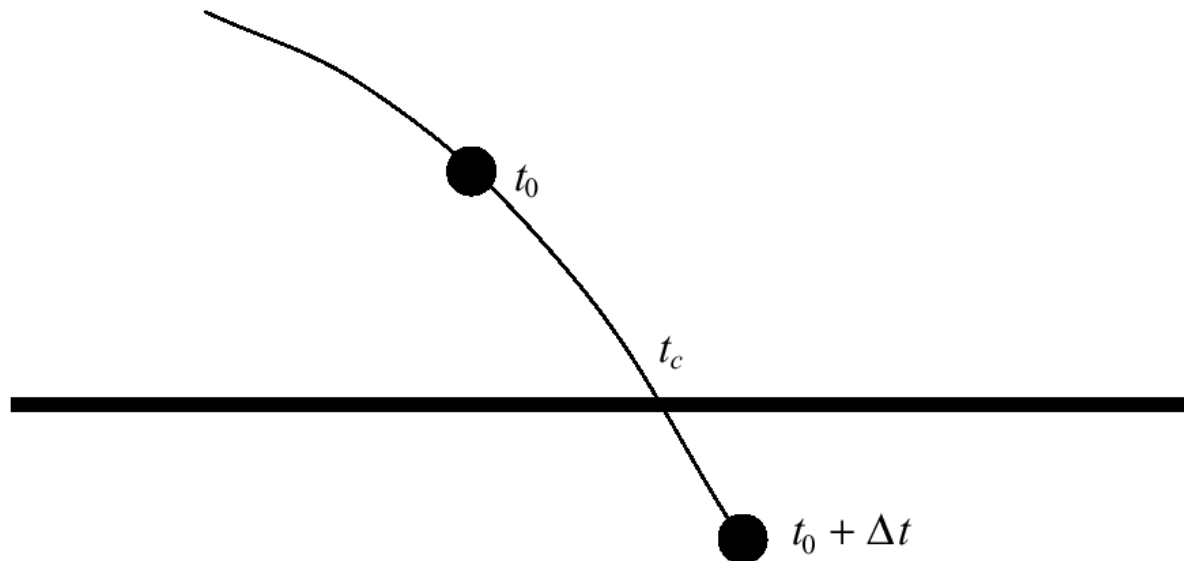


# Colliding contacts

- At time  $t_i$ , body A and B intersect and
$$V_{\text{rel}} < -\varepsilon$$
- Discontinuity in velocity: need to stop numerical solver
- Find time of collision  $t_c$
- Compute new velocities  $v^+(t_c) \rightarrow X^+(t)$
- Restart ODE solver at time  $t_c$  with new state  $X^+(t)$

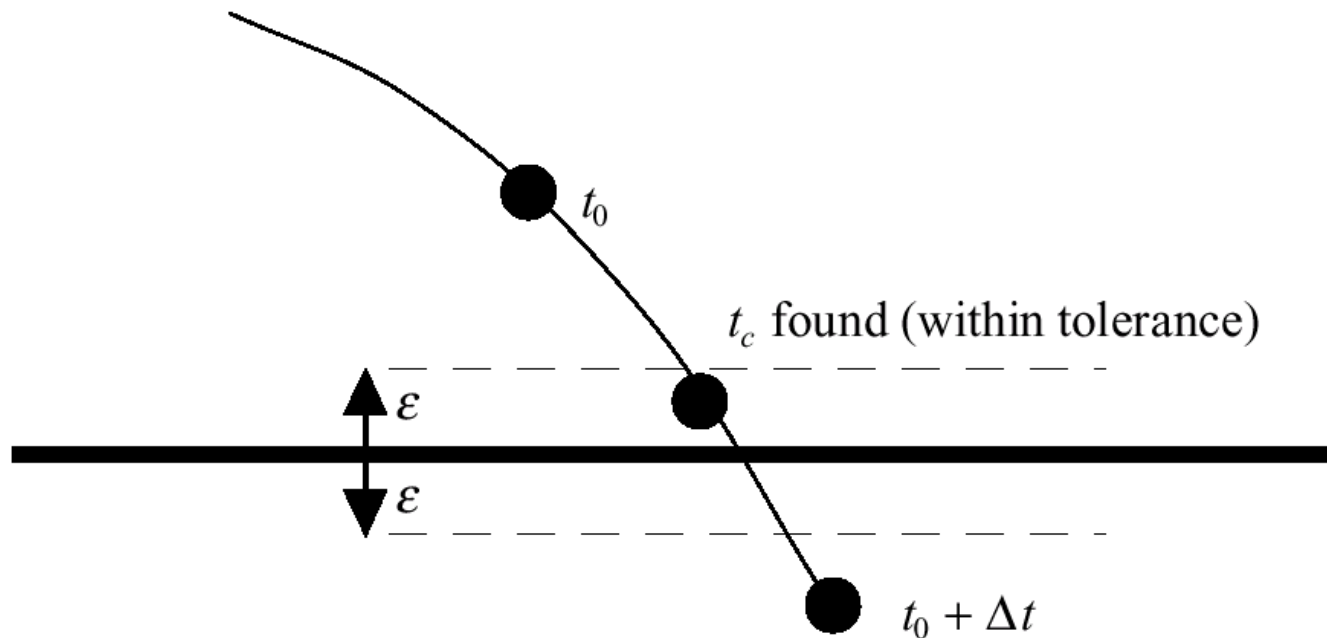
# Time of collision

- We wish to compute when two bodies are “close enough” and then apply contact forces
- Let’s recall a particle colliding with a plane



# Time of collision

- We wish to compute  $t_c$  to some tolerance





# Time of collision

1. A common method is to use **bisection search** until the distance is positive but less than the tolerance
2. Use **continuous collision detection**
3.  $t_c$  not always needed  
→ **penalty-based methods**

# Bisection

findCollisionTime(X,t, $\Delta t$ )

foreach pair of bodies (A,B) do

  Compute\_New\_Body\_States( $S_{\text{copy}}$ , t,  $\Delta t$ );

  hs(A,B) =  $\Delta t$ ; // H is the target timestep

  if Distance(A,B) < 0 then

    try\_h =  $\Delta t / 2$ ; try\_t = t + try\_h;

    while TRUE do

      Compute\_New\_Body\_States( $S_{\text{copy}}$ , t, try\_t - t);

      if Distance(A,B) < 0 then

        try\_h /= 2; try\_t -= try\_h;

      else if Distance(A,B) <  $\epsilon$  then

        break;

      else

        try\_h /= 2; try\_t += try\_h;

      hs(A,B)->append(try\_t - t);

  h = min( hs );

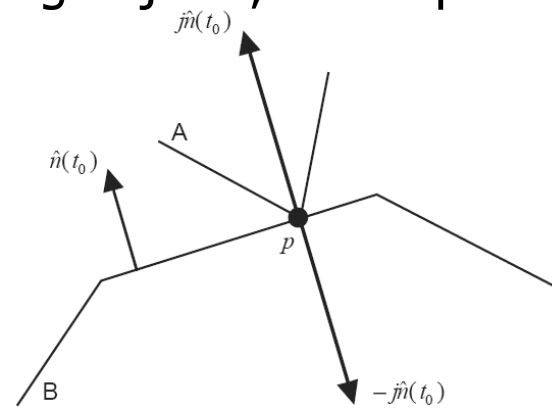
# What happens upon collision

- Force driven
  - Penalty based
  - Easier, but slow objects react 'slow' to collision
- Impulse driven
  - Impulses provide instantaneous changes to velocity, unlike forces

$$\Delta(P) = J$$

- We apply impulses to the colliding objects, at the point of collision
- For frictionless bodies, the direction will be the same as the normal direction:

$$J = j \mathbf{n}$$



# Colliding Contact Response

- Assumptions:
  - Convex bodies
  - Non-penetrating
  - Non-degenerate configuration
    - edge-edge or vertex-face
    - appropriate set of rules can handle the others
- Need a contact unit normal vector
  - Face-vertex case: use the normal of the face
  - Edge-edge case: use the cross-product of the direction vectors of the two edges

# Colliding Contact Response

- Point velocities at the nearest points:

$$\dot{p}_a(t_0) = v_a(t_0) + \omega_a(t_0) \times (p_a(t_0) - x_a(t_0))$$

$$\dot{p}_b(t_0) = v_b(t_0) + \omega_b(t_0) \times (p_b(t_0) - x_b(t_0)).$$

- Relative contact normal velocity:

$$v_{rel} = \hat{n}(t_0) \cdot (\dot{p}_a(t_0) - \dot{p}_b(t_0))$$

# Colliding Contact Response

- We will use the empirical law of frictionless collisions:  $v_{rel}^+ = -\epsilon v_{rel}^-$ 
  - Coefficient of restitution  $\epsilon \in [0,1]$ 
    - $\epsilon = 0$  – bodies stick together
    - $\epsilon = 1$  – loss-less rebound
- After some manipulation of equations...

$$j = \frac{-(1 + \epsilon)v_{rel}^-}{\frac{1}{M_a} + \frac{1}{M_b} + \hat{n}(t_0) \cdot \left( I_a^{-1}(t_0) (r_a \times \hat{n}(t_0)) \right) \times r_a + \hat{n}(t_0) \cdot \left( I_b^{-1}(t_0) (r_b \times \hat{n}(t_0)) \right) \times r_b}$$

# Compute and apply impulses

- The impulse is an instantaneous force – it changes the velocities of the bodies instantaneously:

$$J = j\mathbf{n}$$

$$\Delta\mathbf{v} = \frac{J}{M}$$

$$\Delta L = (\mathbf{x}_{\text{impact}} - \mathbf{x}) \times J$$

# Penalty Methods

- If we don't look for time of collision  $t_c$  then we have a simulation based on penalty methods: the objects are allowed to intersect.
- **Global** or **local** response
  - **Global**: The penetration depth is used to compute a spring constant which forces them apart (dynamic springs)
  - **Local**: Impulse-based techniques



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