

# Comprehensive Analysis of my Particle Simulator

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# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>4</b>
1.1	What is a Particle Simulator? . . . . .	4
1.2	Program Overview . . . . .	4
1.3	Raylib: The Underlying Graphics Library . . . . .	4
<b>2</b>	<b>Mathematical Functions</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1	Particle Motion . . . . .	5
2.1.1	Verlet Integration . . . . .	5
2.1.2	Velocity Calculation . . . . .	5
2.2	Collision Detection . . . . .	5
2.3	Collision Response . . . . .	5
2.3.1	Spring Force . . . . .	6
2.3.2	Damping Force . . . . .	6
2.4	Spatial Hashing . . . . .	6
2.4.1	Hash Function . . . . .	6
2.4.2	Grid Structure . . . . .	7
2.4.3	Collision Detection using Spatial Hashing . . . . .	7
2.5	Color Interpolation . . . . .	7
<b>3</b>	<b>Programming Techniques and Optimizations</b>	<b>8</b>
3.1	SIMD Optimizations . . . . .	8
3.2	Collision Cell Optimization . . . . .	8
3.3	Velocity Threshold . . . . .	8
3.4	Collision Response Optimization . . . . .	8
<b>4</b>	<b>Memory Management</b>	<b>9</b>
4.1	Vector Preallocation . . . . .	9
4.2	Fixed-Size Arrays . . . . .	9
4.3	Memory-Aligned Structures . . . . .	9
<b>5</b>	<b>Code Structure and Memory Analysis</b>	<b>10</b>
5.1	Overall Structure . . . . .	10
5.2	Particle.h . . . . .	10
5.2.1	Class Definition . . . . .	10
5.2.2	Memory Usage . . . . .	10
5.2.3	Variable Types . . . . .	10
5.3	Particle.cpp . . . . .	11
5.3.1	Method Implementations . . . . .	11
5.3.2	Memory Considerations . . . . .	11
5.3.3	Optimization Techniques . . . . .	11
5.4	HashGrid.h . . . . .	11
5.4.1	Template Class Definition . . . . .	11
5.4.2	CollisionCell Structure . . . . .	11
5.4.3	Memory Usage . . . . .	12
5.4.4	Variable Types . . . . .	12
5.4.5	Key Methods . . . . .	12
5.5	Memory Efficiency Considerations . . . . .	12
<b>6</b>	<b>Advanced Features and Potential Improvements</b>	<b>13</b>
6.1	Particle Colorization . . . . .	13
6.2	Particle Movement and User Interaction . . . . .	13
6.2.1	Function Signature . . . . .	13
6.2.2	Mouse Interaction Detection . . . . .	13
6.2.3	Particle Selection . . . . .	13
6.2.4	Mouse-Based Movement . . . . .	13
6.2.5	Collision Handling During Movement . . . . .	14
6.2.6	Optimization Considerations . . . . .	14
6.2.7	Physics Implications . . . . .	14

6.3	Potential Improvements . . . . .	14
6.3.1	Parallel Processing . . . . .	14
<b>7</b>	<b>Performance Analysis</b>	<b>15</b>
7.1	Theoretical Complexity . . . . .	15
7.2	Practical Performance Measurements . . . . .	15
7.2.1	Memory Usage . . . . .	15
7.2.2	Execution Profile . . . . .	15
7.2.3	Key Functions . . . . .	15
7.3	Performance Bottlenecks . . . . .	15
<b>8</b>	<b>Final Thoughts</b>	<b>16</b>
8.1	Reflections on Library Choice . . . . .	16
8.2	Program Overview . . . . .	16
8.3	Closing Thoughts . . . . .	16

# 1 Introduction

This document provides an in-depth analysis of my particle simulator implemented in C++ using Raylib. The simulator models the behavior of particles in a 2D space, incorporating accurate particle movement, advanced collision detection, and spatial hashing. We will delve into the mathematical foundations, programming techniques, optimizations, and memory management strategies employed in this simulator.

## 1.1 What is a Particle Simulator?

A particle simulator is a computer program that models the behavior of a large number of small particles interacting with each other and their environment. These simulations are used in various fields, including:

- Physics: To study fluid dynamics, gas behavior, and molecular interactions.
- Computer Graphics: For realistic visual effects in movies and video games.
- Engineering: To analyze particle-based manufacturing processes or material behavior.
- Environmental Science: To model pollutant dispersion or sediment transport.

Particle simulators typically handle tasks such as:

- Calculating particle positions and velocities over time.
- Detecting and resolving collisions between particles.
- Applying forces (e.g., gravity, electromagnetic fields) to particles.
- Visualizing particle movement and interactions.

## 1.2 Program Overview

My particle simulator is designed to efficiently handle thousands of particles in real-time, providing a visually engaging and physically accurate representation of particle dynamics. Key features of the simulator include:

- Real-time simulation of particle movement using Verlet integration.
- Efficient collision detection and resolution using spatial hashing.
- User interaction allowing manipulation of particles with mouse input.
- Dynamic particle colorization based on particle speed.
- Optimized performance using SIMD instructions and memory management techniques.

The simulator demonstrates how complex physical systems can be modeled computationally, balancing accuracy with performance to achieve real-time interaction.

## 1.3 Raylib: The Underlying Graphics Library

The simulator is built using Raylib, an open-source library designed for video game programming and computer graphics. Raylib was chosen for this project due to its simplicity and ease of use, making it ideal for rapid prototyping and development of graphical applications.

Key features of Raylib that benefit this project include:

- Simple and intuitive API for window creation and management.
- Built-in functions for basic shape drawing (e.g., circles for particles).
- Cross-platform compatibility (Windows, Linux, macOS).
- Minimal external dependencies, simplifying the build process.
- Support for both 2D and 3D graphics (though this project uses only 2D).

While Raylib provides a convenient framework for rapid development, it's worth noting that its high-level abstractions can sometimes limit performance optimization possibilities. This trade-off between development speed and fine-grained performance control will be discussed further in later sections of this document.

In the following sections, we will explore the mathematical principles, programming techniques, and optimization strategies used to create an efficient and engaging particle simulation system.

## 2 Mathematical Functions

### 2.1 Particle Motion

The motion of particles is modeled using Verlet integration, a numerical method used to integrate Newton's equations of motion. Aside it's low computational overhead, verlet integration is chosen for its simplicity and good energy conservation properties.

#### 2.1.1 Verlet Integration

The core equation for updating each particles' position in Verlet integration is:

$$[\mathbf{x}][\mathbf{y}](t + \Delta t) = 2[\mathbf{x}][\mathbf{y}](t) - [\mathbf{x}][\mathbf{y}](t - \Delta t) + \mathbf{a}(t)\Delta t^2 \quad (1)$$

Where:

- $[\mathbf{x}][\mathbf{y}](t + \Delta t)$  is the position at the next time step
- $[\mathbf{x}][\mathbf{y}](t)$  is the current position
- $[\mathbf{x}][\mathbf{y}](t - \Delta t)$  is the previous position
- $\mathbf{a}(t)$  is the acceleration at the current time
- $\Delta t$  is the time step

In the code, this is implemented as:

```
1 LocalPos.x = 2.0f * particle.m_pos.x - particle.m_prevPos.x + LocalAccel.x * (dt * dt);  
2 LocalPos.y = 2.0f * particle.m_pos.y - particle.m_prevPos.y + LocalAccel.y * (dt * dt);
```

#### 2.1.2 Velocity Calculation

Although Verlet integration doesn't explicitly use velocity, it can be approximated as:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{x}(t - \Delta t)}{\Delta t} \quad (2)$$

This is used in the code for velocity-based calculations:

```
1 float velx = (particle.m_pos.x - particle.m_prevPos.x);  
2 float vely = (particle.m_pos.y - particle.m_prevPos.y);
```

## 2.2 Collision Detection

Collision detection between particles is performed using the Euclidean distance formula:

$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2} \quad (3)$$

Collision occurs when  $d < (r_1 + r_2)$ , where  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are the radii of the particles:

```
1 bool IsColliding(Particle& particle, Particle& OtherParticle) {  
2     return (GetDistance(particle, OtherParticle)) < (particle.p_radius + OtherParticle.  
3         p_radius);  
4 }
```

In the code, an optimized version using the fast square root is implemented:

```
1 float GetDistance(Particle& particle, Particle& OtherParticle) {  
2     return fast_sqrt((particle.m_pos.x - OtherParticle.m_pos.x) * (particle.m_pos.x -  
3         OtherParticle.m_pos.x) +  
4         (particle.m_pos.y - OtherParticle.m_pos.y) * (particle.m_pos.y - OtherParticle.m_pos.y));  
5 }
```

## 2.3 Collision Response

The collision response uses a spring-damper model. This provides a physically plausible reaction all while allowing energy dissipation.

### 2.3.1 Spring Force

The spring force is calculated as:

$$F_{spring} = k \cdot \text{overlap} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} \quad (4)$$

Where:

- $k$  is the spring constant [SPRING\_CONSTANT (global variable)]
- overlap is the penetration depth of the particles
- $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  is the unit normal vector between the particles

### 2.3.2 Damping Force

The damping force is calculated as:

$$F_{damping} = -c \cdot (\mathbf{v}_{rel} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} \quad (5)$$

Where:

- $c$  is the damping coefficient [DAMPING\_FACTOR (global variable)]
- $\mathbf{v}_{rel}$  is the relative velocity between the particles
- $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  is the unit normal vector between the particles

The combined impulse from these forces is then applied to update the particles' positions:

```
1 float impulse = (SpringForce - DAMPING_FACTOR * RelativeVelDotNormal) * 0.5f;
2
3 particle.m_prevPos.x -= impulse * Normalized_dx;
4 particle.m_prevPos.y -= impulse * Normalized_dy;
5 OtherParticle.m_prevPos.x += impulse * Normalized_dx;
6 OtherParticle.m_prevPos.y += impulse * Normalized_dy;
```

Impulse is multiplied by 0.5f in lieu of dividing by 2, although minimal this reduces computational overhead by removing a division.

## 2.4 Spatial Hashing

Spatial hashing is a crucial optimization technique used to reduce the computational complexity of collision detection from  $O(n^2)$  to  $O(n)$  on average.

### 2.4.1 Hash Function

The spatial hash function maps a 2D position to a 1D hash value:

$$\text{HASH} = \left\lfloor \frac{x}{\text{CellSize}} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{y}{\text{CellSize}} \right\rfloor \cdot \text{GridWidth} \quad (6)$$

Where:

- $[x, y]$  is the position of the particle
- CellSize is the size of each grid cell
- GridWidth is the number of cells in the horizontal direction

This function is implemented in the code as:

```
1 uint32_t HashFunction(const Vec2& pos) const {
2     uint32_t x = static_cast<uint32_t>(pos.x / m_cellSize);
3     uint32_t y = static_cast<uint32_t>(pos.y / m_cellSize);
4     x = std::min(x, m_gridWidth - 1);
5     y = std::min(y, m_gridHeight - 1);
6     return (x + y * m_gridWidth);
7 }
```

### 2.4.2 Grid Structure

The hash grid is implemented as a vector of CollisionCell structures:

```
std::vector<CollisionCell<T>> m_data;
```

Each CollisionCell contains:

```
1 struct CollisionCell {
2     static constexpr uint8_t m_cellCapacity = 8;
3     uint8_t m_objectsCount = 0;
4     std::array<T*, m_cellCapacity> m_objects;
5     // ...
6 };
```

This structure allows for efficient storage and retrieval of particles within each cell.

### 2.4.3 Collision Detection using Spatial Hashing

The process of finding potential collisions using the hash grid involves:

1. Hashing the particle's position to find its cell.
2. Checking neighboring cells (including diagonals) for other particles.
3. Performing detailed collision checks only for particles in these cells.

```
1 std::vector<std::reference_wrapper<T>> GetPotentialCollisions(const T& obj) const {
2     // ... (code for finding neighboring cells)
3     for (uint16_t x = minX; x <= maxX; x++) {
4         for (uint16_t y = minY; y <= maxY; y++) {
5             uint16_t key = x + y * m_gridWidth;
6             if (key < data.size()) {
7                 const auto& cell = data[key];
8                 for (uint8_t i = 0; i < cell.m_objectsCount; ++i) {
9                     potentialCollisions.push_back(*cell.m_objects[i]);
10                }
11            }
12        }
13    }
14    return potentialCollisions;
15 }
```

This approach significantly reduces the number of pair-wise checks required for collision detection.

## 2.5 Color Interpolation

Color interpolation for particle visualization uses linear interpolation in RGB space:

$$C = (1 - t)C_1 + tC_2 \quad (7)$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are the start and end colors, and  $t$  is the interpolation factor ( $0 \leq t \leq 1$ ).

This is implemented for each color component (R, G, B, A) in the InterpolateColor function:

```
1 Color InterpolateColor(Color c1, Color c2, float iColor) {
2     if (iColor < 0.0f) iColor = 0.0f;
3     if (iColor > 1.0f) iColor = 1.0f;
4
5     unsigned char r = static_cast<unsigned char>((1.0f - iColor) * c1.r + iColor * c2.r);
6     unsigned char g = static_cast<unsigned char>((1.0f - iColor) * c1.g + iColor * c2.g);
7     unsigned char b = static_cast<unsigned char>((1.0f - iColor) * c1.b + iColor * c2.b);
8     unsigned char a = static_cast<unsigned char>((1.0f - iColor) * c1.a + iColor * c2.a);
9
10    Color result = { r, g, b, a };
11    return result;
12 }
```

## 3 Programming Techniques and Optimizations

### 3.1 SIMD Optimizations

Single Instruction, Multiple Data (SIMD) instructions are used to optimize certain calculations, particularly the square root:

```
1 float fast_rsqrt(float x) {  
2     return _mm_cvtss_f32(_mm_rsqrt_ss(_mm_set_ss(x)));  
3 }
```

```
1 float fast_sqrt(float x) {  
2     return x * fast_rsqrt(x);  
3 }
```

This uses the SSE instruction `_mm_rsqrt_ss` for a fast square root approximation. While less accurate than the standard library's `sqrt()`, it provides a significant speed boost for operations where absolute precision is not critical. Although the compiler will (if activated) automatically use these SIMD instructions for computing square roots, it is nonetheless a nice addition as it explicitly shows the use of this instruction set.

### 3.2 Collision Cell Optimization

The 'CollisionCell' struct uses a fixed-size array to store pointers to particles:

```
1 struct CollisionCell {  
2     static constexpr uint8_t m_cellCapacity = 8;  
3     uint8_t m_objectsCount = 0;  
4     std::array<T*, m_cellCapacity> m_objects;  
5     // ...  
6 };
```

This design offers several advantages:

1. It avoids dynamic memory allocation, reducing overhead.
2. It improves cache performance due to contiguous memory layout.
3. It allows for quick iteration over particles in a cell as well as limiting the amount of collisions within a singular cell.

### 3.3 Velocity Threshold

A velocity threshold is implemented to prevent numerical instability in the simulation:

```
1 float VelocityThreshold = 0.00999999f;  
2 if (std::fabs(velx) < VelocityThreshold) {  
3     velx = 0;  
4 }
```

This prevents very small velocities from accumulating errors over time, which could lead to unrealistic behavior or "jittering" of particles.

### 3.4 Collision Response Optimization

The collision response calculation is optimized by precomputing common terms and using a single division operation:

```
1 float conv = 1 / distance;  
2 float Normalized_dx = (particle.m_pos.x - OtherParticle.m_pos.x) * conv;  
3 float Normalized_dy = (particle.m_pos.y - OtherParticle.m_pos.y) * conv;
```

This approach reduces the number of division operations, which are typically more expensive than multiplications.



## 4 Memory Management

### 4.1 Vector Preallocation

To reduce reallocation overhead, vectors are preallocated with a reserve call:

```
1 potentialCollisions.reserve(100);
```

This reduces the number of reallocations and copies as the vector grows, improving performance, especially in tight loops.

### 4.2 Fixed-Size Arrays

The *CollisionCell* struct uses a fixed-size array to avoid dynamic memory allocation:

```
1 std::array<T*, m_cellCapacity> m_objects;
```

This provides a good balance between flexibility and performance, allowing for a predetermined maximum number of particles per cell without the overhead of dynamic allocation.

### 4.3 Memory-Aligned Structures

The *Vec2* vector structure is memory-aligned for better performance with SIMD instructions:

```
1 Vec2::Vec2(float x_in, float y_in)
2 :
3   x(x_in),
4   y(y_in) {}
```

This alignment ensures that SIMD operations can be performed efficiently on these structures.

## 5 Code Structure and Memory Analysis

### 5.1 Overall Structure

The particle simulator is organized into three main files:

- `Particle.h`: Header file defining the `Particle` class.
- `Particle.cpp`: Implementation of the `Particle` class methods.
- `HashGrid.h`: Template class implementing the spatial hash grid.

This separation of interface and implementation (for the `Particle` class) follows good C++ practices, allowing for better compilation times and cleaner organization.

### 5.2 Particle.h

#### 5.2.1 Class Definition

The `Particle` class is defined with a mix of public and private members:

```
1 class Particle {
2 private:
3     Vec2 m_pos;
4     Vec2 m_prevPos;
5     std::vector<Particle*> m_particleVector;
6     bool m_IsSelected = false;
7     Color m_color;
8
9 public:
10    Vec2 p_force = { 0.0f, 0.0f };
11    bool p_isShowingCollisions = false;
12    bool p_isGridActive = false;
13    bool p_toggleCircleLines = false;
14    bool p_showOutlines = false;
15
16    Hash<Particle> p_hashGrid;
17    float p_radius = 5.0f;
18    float p_mass = p_radius;
19    float p_particleCount = 0.0f;
20
21    // ... (method declarations)
22};
```

#### 5.2.2 Memory Usage

- `Vec2`: 8 bytes composed of two 4-byte floats.
- `std::vector<Particle*>`: 24 bytes.
- Boolean flags: 1 byte each, but padded to 4 bytes each for alignment.
- `Color`: 4 bytes (RGBA, 1 byte each).
- `float`: 4 bytes each.
- `Hash<Particle>`: Size depends on implementation, but significant enough to mention in this case.

Total size of a `Particle` object is 136 bytes, excluding the `HashGrid`.

#### 5.2.3 Variable Types

- Extensive use of `float`: For physical quantities (position, force, radius, mass).
- `bool`: For various flags controlling simulation behavior.
- `Vec2`: Custom type for 2D vectors (position, force).
- `Color`: Type (from Raylib) for particle color.

## 5.3 Particle.cpp

### 5.3.1 Method Implementations

This file contains the implementations of all methods declared in Particle.h.

Key methods include:

- `UpdateParticle`: Implements Verlet integration.
- `ParticleCollision`: Handles collision between particles.
- `WorldCollision`: Manages collisions with world boundaries.
- `MoveParticles`: Handles user interaction and particle movement.
- `AddParticles`: Populates the `ParticleVector` with a number of particles determined by the user.
- `ColorizeParticles`: Dynamically colors particles based on speed.
- `UpdateLoop`: Calls all relevant functions in an organized manner.

### 5.3.2 Memory Considerations

- Extensive use of pass-by-reference (`Particle&`) to avoid unnecessary copying.
- In-place modifications of particle properties to minimize memory operations.
- Use of `const` references where appropriate to prevent accidental modifications.

### 5.3.3 Optimization Techniques

- SIMD instructions for fast inverse/square root calculations.
- Precomputation of common values to reduce redundant calculations.
- Use of `static` variables in methods to avoid reallocation (e.g., in `AddParticle`).

## 5.4 HashGrid.h

### 5.4.1 Template Class Definition

The Hash class is implemented as a template, allowing it to work with different object types:

```
1 template <typename T>
2 class Hash {
3 public:
4     std::vector<CollisionCell<T>> m_data;
5     float cellSize = 10.0f;
6     uint32_t m_maxSize = 1000u;
7     uint32_t m_gridWidth, m_gridHeight;
8
9     // ... (method declarations)
10};
```

### 5.4.2 CollisionCell Structure

```
1 template <typename T>
2 struct CollisionCell {
3     static constexpr uint8_t m_cellCapacity = 8;
4     uint8_t m_objectsCount = 0;
5     std::array<T*, m_cellCapacity> m_objects;
6
7     // ... (method declarations)
8};
```

### 5.4.3 Memory Usage

- `std::vector<CollisionCell<T>>`: Size depends on grid dimensions
- Each `CollisionCell`:
  - `objects_count`: 1 byte.
  - `objects`: 64 bytes (8 pointers \* 8 bytes each on 64-bit system).
- Total size of Hash object: 4 bytes (`CellSize`) + 12 bytes (`MaxSize`, `GridWidth`, `GridHeight`) + vector size

The memory usage of the Hash grid can be significant, especially for large simulation spaces.

### 5.4.4 Variable Types

- `uint32_t`: For grid dimensions and maximum size.
- `float`: For `CellSize`.
- `uint8_t`: For the object count in cells [ limits to 255 objects per cell ].
- `uint32_t`: For the hash values, limiting the grid to [  $2^{32} - 1 \times 2^{32} - 1$  cells ].

### 5.4.5 Key Methods

- `HashFunction`: Converts 2D position to 1D hash.
- `AddToHash`: Adds a particle to the appropriate grid cell.
- `GetPotentialCollisions`: Returns particles from neighboring cells.

## 5.5 Memory Efficiency Considerations

1. The use of fixed-size arrays in `CollisionCell` (`std::array<T*, cell_capacity>`) provides a good balance between flexibility and memory efficiency.
2. The `Particle` class uses a pointer-based vector (`std::vector<Particle*>`) for `ParticleVector`, which allows for efficient particle management without copying large objects.
3. The Hash grid's memory usage scales with the simulation space size. For very large simulations, an adaptive grid or octree structure might be more memory-efficient.
4. The use of small integer types (e.g., `uint8_t` for object count) helps reduce memory usage in the `CollisionCell` structure.

## 6 Advanced Features and Potential Improvements

### 6.1 Particle Colorization

The simulator implements a dynamic particle colorization scheme based on particle speed:

```
1 void ColorizeParticles(float maxspeed) {
2     float speed = GetParticleSpeed();
3     float conv = 1 / maxspeed;
4     float FinalColor = speed * conv;
5     color = GetHeatWaveColor(FinalColor);
6 }
```

This visual feedback provides an intuitive representation of particle kinetics, enhancing the user's understanding of the simulation dynamics.

### 6.2 Particle Movement and User Interaction

The MoveParticles function is a crucial component of the simulator that handles both particle movement and user interaction. This function demonstrates how the simulation integrates user input to manipulate particles in real-time, adding an interactive element to the physics simulation.

#### 6.2.1 Function Signature

```
1 void MoveParticles(Particle& p, Particle& other, float decay_in) const
```

The function takes three parameters:

- **p**: A reference to the primary particle being moved.
- **other**: A reference to another particle, used for collision handling.
- **decay\_in**: A decay factor used in collision response.

#### 6.2.2 Mouse Interaction Detection

The function begins by calculating the distance between the particle and the mouse cursor:

```
1 float dx = p.m_pos.x - GetMouseX();
2 float dy = p.m_pos.y - GetMouseY();
3 float distance = (dx * dx + dy * dy) *
4     _mm_cvtss_f32(_mm_sqrt_ss(_mm_set_ss(dx * dx + dy * dy)));
5 float radius = p.p_radius * 11.0f;
```

The interaction radius is set to 11 times the particle's radius, creating a larger area of influence for the mouse.

#### 6.2.3 Particle Selection

If the mouse is within the interaction radius, the particle is marked as selected:

```
1 if (distance < radius) {
2     p.SetState(true);
3     // ... (interaction code)
4 }
5 else {
6     p.SetState(false);
7 }
```

This selection state can be used for visual feedback or additional interaction logic.

#### 6.2.4 Mouse-Based Movement

When the left mouse button is pressed and a particle is selected, the function moves the particle towards the mouse position:

```
1 if (IsMouseButtonDown(MOUSE_BUTTON_LEFT)) {
2     float targetX = GetMouseX();
3     float targetY = GetMouseY();
4     float stepFactor = 0.00455f;
5     p.m_pos.x += (targetX - p.m_pos.x) * stepFactor;
6     p.m_pos.y += (targetY - p.m_pos.y) * stepFactor;
7 }
```

The `stepFactor` (0.00455f) determines how quickly the particle moves towards the mouse. This creates a smooth, gradual movement rather than instantly snapping to the mouse position. There is no real reason to the specificity of this number, It mainly came to be the default choice through trial and error.

### 6.2.5 Collision Handling During Movement

While moving a particle, the function also checks for and responds to collisions with other particles:

```
1 if (&p != &other) {
2     float other_dx = p.m_pos.x - other.m_pos.x;
3     float other_dy = p.m_pos.y - other.m_pos.y;
4     float other_distance = (other_dx * other_dx + other_dy * other_dy)
5         * _mm_cvtss_f32(_mm_rsqrt_ss(_mm_set_ss(other_dx * other_dx +
6         other_dy * other_dy)));
7     float min_distance = p.p_radius + other.p_radius;
8
9     if (other_distance < min_distance && other_distance > 0.0f) {
10         float overlap = min_distance - other_distance;
11         float conv = 1 / other_distance;
12         other_dx *= conv;
13         other_dy *= conv;
14
15         p.m_pos.x += other_dx * overlap * decay_in;
16         p.m_pos.y += other_dy * overlap * decay_in;
17         other.m_pos.x -= other_dx * overlap * decay_in;
18         other.m_pos.y -= other_dy * overlap * decay_in;
19     }
20 }
```

Although the general *ParticleCollision* method could have been called here instead of creating entirely new code for handling the collisions, the main goal was for the inter-particle interactions to feel more 'alive' when interacted with, and so re-writing another collision system specific to particles moved by the user felt like the right approach to solve this problem.

### 6.2.6 Optimization Considerations

Several optimization techniques are employed in this function:

1. Fast square root for distance calculations.
2. Early exit from the function if the particle is not within the interaction radius.
3. Use of a single division [`conv = 1 / other_distance`] to convert subsequent multiplications.
4. In-place modification of particle positions to avoid unnecessary copying.

### 6.2.7 Physics Implications

The `MoveParticles` function introduces an external force (user input) into the particle system. This has several implications for the physics simulation:

- It can inject energy into the system, potentially increasing overall kinetic energy.
- It provides a way to overcome local minima in the particle configuration.
- It allows for dynamic rearrangement of particles, enabling the user to set up specific scenarios or initial conditions.

## 6.3 Potential Improvements

### 6.3.1 Parallel Processing

One significant improvement could be the implementation of parallel processing techniques. The spatial hashing algorithm lends itself well to parallelization, as each grid cell can be processed independently. Utilizing OpenMP or GPU acceleration via CUDA or OpenCL could dramatically increase the simulation's performance, allowing for even more particles or more complex physics calculations.

## 7 Performance Analysis

### 7.1 Theoretical Complexity

- Without spatial hashing:  $O(n^2)$
- With spatial hashing:  $O(n)$

This theoretical improvement is substantiated by the practical performance measurements.

### 7.2 Practical Performance Measurements

- Maximum particles at 60 FPS without spatial hashing:  $\geq 500$
- Maximum particles at 60 FPS with spatial hashing:  $\geq 4000$

#### 7.2.1 Memory Usage

Memory consumption is typically stable at around  $3.1GB$ . The memory usage pattern shows a gradual increase as particles are added, eventually plateauing, which indicates effective memory management without significant leaks.

#### 7.2.2 Execution Profile

Analysis of the simulator's execution profile reveals the following distribution of computational resources:

- `Particle::UpdateLoop`: Approximately 93% of total CPU time, 0.51% of self.
- `Hash<Particle>::GetPotentialCollisions`: 50% of total CPU time, 1.68% of self.
- `Particle::DrawParticle`: 23% of total CPU time, 0.22% of self.
- Rendering functions (`rVertex3f`, `DrawCircleSector`): 30% combined, 12% combined of self.
- Miscellaneous functions (debugging, system calls): 5%

#### 7.2.3 Key Functions

The most computationally intensive functions in the simulation are:

- `Hash<Particle>::GetPotentialCollisions`: Consumes about half of the total CPU time, highlighting the significance of collision detection even with spatial hashing.
- `Particle::DrawParticle`: Accounts for nearly a quarter of CPU usage, indicating that rendering is a substantial part of the computational load.
- `DrawCircleSector`: Uses approximately 20-25% of CPU time, further emphasizing the impact of rendering on overall performance. This is mainly due to RayLibs' heavily abstracted rendering functions. Although they are extremely simple to use and implement, they leave very little room for optimization and end up eating away at the programs' performance.

### 7.3 Performance Bottlenecks

1. Collision detection: Despite the implementation of spatial hashing, the `GetPotentialCollisions` function remains the most time-consuming operation.
2. Particle rendering: The combined time spent in `DrawParticle`, `rVertex3f`, and `DrawCircleSector` indicates that visualization is a significant performance factor.

## 8 Final Thoughts

### 8.1 Reflections on Library Choice

While Raylib provided a convenient framework for rapid development, particularly in terms of window management and basic graphics operations, it's worth noting that its heavily abstracted rendering functions may have introduced some performance limitations. Functions like `DrawCircleSector` and `rVertex3f` consumed a significant portion of CPU time, suggesting that a lower-level graphics API might offer better performance for this specific application. Future iterations of the simulator might benefit from a more performance-oriented graphics library or direct GPU programming for rendering tasks.

### 8.2 Program Overview

This particle simulator demonstrates a blend of physics concepts and efficient programming techniques. It allows for real-time interaction with thousands of particles, providing a visually engaging representation of particle dynamics. The use of spatial hashing for collision detection, combined with optimized data structures like the fixed-size array in the `CollisionCell`, showcases how algorithmic improvements and careful memory management can dramatically enhance performance in computationally intensive applications.

### 8.3 Closing Thoughts

This particle simulator serves as an excellent example of how theoretical computer science concepts, such as spatial partitioning, can be applied to solve practical performance challenges. It also highlights the ongoing balance us developers must strike between using convenient, high-level libraries and achieving maximum performance. While the current implementation is already quite efficient, there remain exciting opportunities for further optimization. Potential avenues include parallelization, GPU acceleration, and more efficient rendering techniques. In conclusion, this project not only demonstrates effective particle simulation but also serves as a case study in optimization techniques, showcasing the significant performance gains that can be achieved through careful algorithm selection and implementation.