Rigid Body Dynamics (I)

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From Particles to Rigid Bodies

- Particles
 - No rotations
 - Linear velocity v only
- Rigid bodies
 - Body rotations
 - Linear velocity v
 - Angular velocity ω

Outline

- Rigid Body Preliminaries
 - Coordinate system, velocity, acceleration, and inertia
- State and Evolution
- Quaternions
- Collision Detection and Contact Determination
- Colliding Contact Response

Coordinate Systems

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

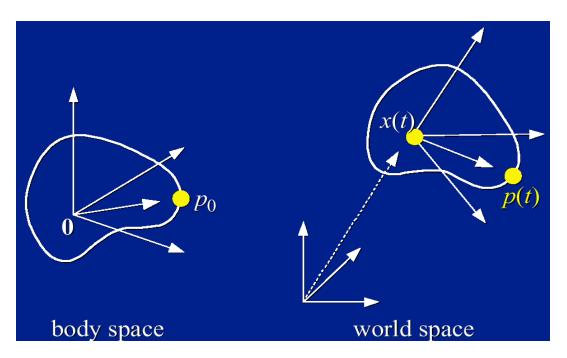
Coordinate Systems

- World Space
 - bodies are transformed to this common system

$$p(t) = R(t) p_0 + x(t)$$

- x(t) represents the position of the body center
- R(t) represents the orientation
 - Alternatively, use *quaternion* representation

Coordinate Systems

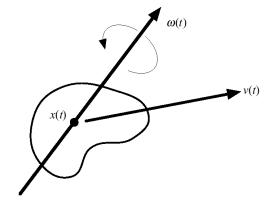


Meaning of R(t): columns represent the coordinates of the body space base vectors (1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1) in world space.

Kinematics: Velocities

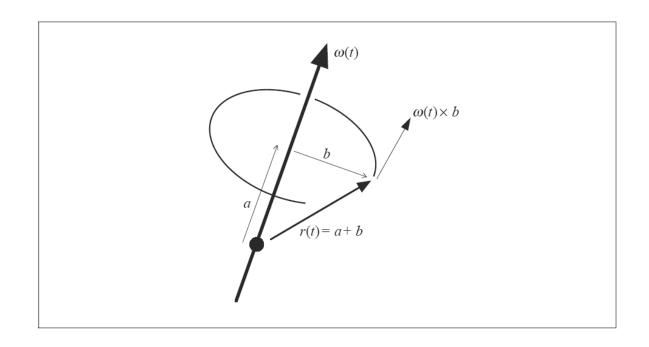
- How do x(t) and R(t) change over time?
- Linear velocity v(t) = dx(t)/dt is the same:
 - Describes the velocity of the center of mass (m/s)
- Angular velocity $\omega(t)$ is new!
 - Direction is the axis of rotation
 - Magnitude is the angular velocity about the axis (degrees/time)
 - There is a simple relationship between R(t) and ω(t)





Kinematics: Velocities

Then



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

Angular Velocities

 $\mathbf{R}(t)$ and $\omega(t)$ are related by: $\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{R}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega_z(t) & \omega_y(t) \\ \omega_z(t) & 0 & -\omega_x(t) \\ -\omega_y(t) & \omega_x(t) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}(t)$ $= \omega(t)^* \mathbf{R}(t)$

Dynamics: Accelerations

- How do v(t) and dR(t)/dt change over time?
- First we need some more machinery
 - Forces and Torques
 - Momentums
 - Inertia Tensor
- Simplify equations by formulating accelerations terms of momentum derivatives instead of velocity derivatives

Forces and Torques

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

$$\tau_i(t) = (r_i(t) - x(t)) \mathbf{f} F_i(t)$$

Total external torque

$$\tau = \sum ((r_i(t)-x(t)) \mathbf{f} F_i(t)$$

- F(t) doesn't convey any information about where the various forces act
- τ(t) does tell us about the *distribution* of forces

Linear Momentum

 Linear momentum P(t) lets us express the effect of total force F(t) on body (simple, because of conservation of energy):

$$F(t) = dP(t)/dt$$

- Linear momentum is the product of mass and linear velocity
 - $\begin{array}{ll} & P(t) & = \sum m_i dr_i(t)/dt \\ & = \sum m_i v(t) + \omega(t) \text{ } \text{£ } \sum m_i(r_i(t)-x(t)) \end{array}$
- But, we work in body space:
 - $P(t)=\sum m_i v(t) = Mv(t)$ (linear relationship)
 - Just as if body were a particle with mass M and velocity v(t)
 - Derive v(t) to express acceleration: $dv(t)/dt = M^{-1} dP(t)/dt$
- Use P(t) instead of v(t) in state vectors

Angular momentum

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

• Similarily, there is a linear relationship between momentum and velocity:

- I(t) is inertia tensor, plays the role of mass
- Use L(t) instead of ω(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 *I(t)*
- Analogous to mass rotational mass
- We actually want the inverse $I^{-1}(t)$ for computing $\omega(t)=I^{-1}(t)L(t)$

Inertia Tensor

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

Bunch of volume integrals:

$$I_{XX} = \int_{B_i} (y^2 + z^2) \ dV$$
 $I_{YY} = \int_{B_i} (z^2 + x^2) \ dV$ $I_{ZZ} = \int_{B_i} (x^2 + y^2) \ dV$

$$Ixy = Iyx = \int_{B_i} xy \ dV \qquad Ixz = Izx = \int_{B_i} zx \ dV \qquad Iyz = Izy = \int_{B_i} yz \ dV$$

Inertia Tensor

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

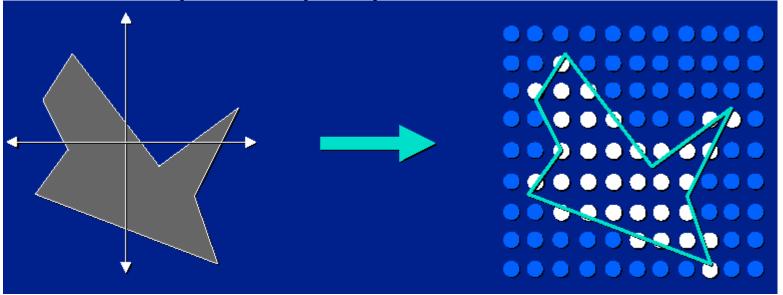
Computing I_{body}-1

- 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 Sampling

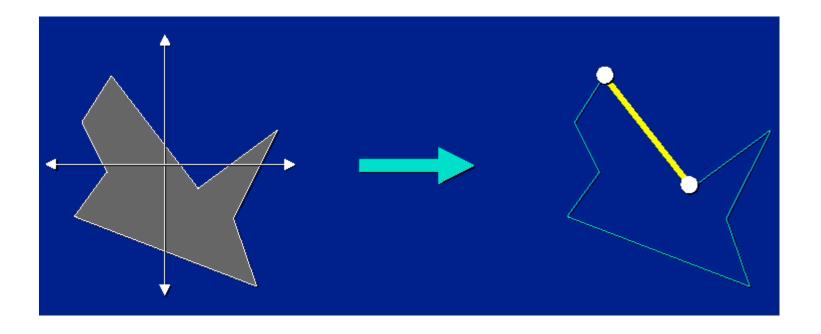
 Pros: Simple, fairly accurate, no B-rep needed.

Cons: Expensive, requires volume test.



Use of Green's Theorem

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



Outline

- Rigid Body Preliminaries
- State and Evolution
 - Variables and derivatives
- Quaternions
- Collision Detection and Contact Determination
- Colliding Contact Response

New State Space

$$\mathbf{X}(t) = \left(\begin{array}{c} x(t) \\ R(t) \\ P(t) \\ L(t) \end{array}\right) \right\} \longrightarrow \text{Spatial information}$$

$$\text{Velocity information}$$

v(t) replaced by linear momentum P(t) $\omega(t)$ replaced by angular momentum L(t) Size of the vector: (3+9+3+3)N = 18N

Taking the Derivative

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{X}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x(t) \\ R(t) \\ P(t) \\ L(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v(t) \\ \omega(t)^*R(t) \\ F(t) \\ \tau(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Simulate: next state computation

• From X(t) certain quantities are computed

$$\begin{cases} I^{-1}(t) = R(t) I_{body}^{-1} R^{T}(t) \\ v(t) = P(t) / M \end{cases}$$
$$\omega(t) = I^{-1}(t) L(t)$$

- We cannot compute the state of a body at all times but must be content with a finite number of discrete time points, assuming that the acceleration is continuous
- Use your favorite ODE solver to solve for the new state X(t), given previous state X(t-∆t) and applied forces F(t) and τ(t)

X(t) $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ Solver::Step(X(t- Δ t), F(t), τ (t))

Simple simulation algorithm

```
X A InitializeState()
For t=t_0 to t_{final} with step \Delta t
  ClearForces(F(t), \tau(t))
  AddExternalForces(F(t), \tau(t))
  X_{new} \tilde{A} Solver::Step(X, F(t), \tau(t))
  X \tilde{A} X_{new}
  t \tilde{\mathbf{A}} t + \Lambda t
End for
```

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- Quaternions
 - Merits, drift, and re-normalization
- Collision Detection and Contact Determination
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Unit Quaternion Merits

- Problem with rotation matrices: numerical drift
- $R(t) = dR(t)/dt*\Delta t R(t_{-1})R(t_{-2})R(t_{-3})\cdots$
- A rotation in 3-space involves 3 DOF
- Unit quaternions can do it with 4
- Rotation matrices R(t) describe a rotation using 9 parameters
- Drift is easier to fix with quaternions
 - renormalize

Unit Quaternion Definition

- q = [s, v] -- s is a scalar, v is vector
- A rotation of θ about a unit axis u can be represented by the unit quaternion:

$$[\cos(\theta/2), \sin(\theta/2) * u]$$

• ||[s,v]|| = 1 -- the length is taken to be the Euclidean distance treating [s,v] as a 4-tuple or a vector in 4-space

Unit Quaternion Operations

Multiplication is given by:

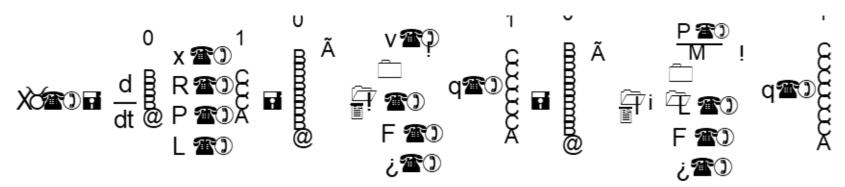
$$[s_1, v_1][s_2, v_2] = [s_1s_2 - v_1 \cdot v_2, s_1v_2 + s_2v_1 + v_1 \times v_2]$$

• $dq(t)/dt = \frac{1}{2} \omega(t) q(t) = [0, \frac{1}{2} \omega(t)] q(t)$

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

Unit Quaternion Usage

 To use quaternions instead of rotation matrices, just substitute them into the state as the orientation (save 5 variables)



where

$$R = QuatToMatrix(q(t))$$

 $I^{-1}(t) = R I_{body}^{-1} R^{T}$

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- Collision Detection and Contact Determination
 - Contact classification
 - Intersection testing, bisection, and nearest features
- Colliding Contact Response

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_{new} is a valid, non-penetrating state, proceed to next time step
- If intersection:
 - Classify contact
 - Compute response
 - Recompute new state

Bodies intersect! classify contacts

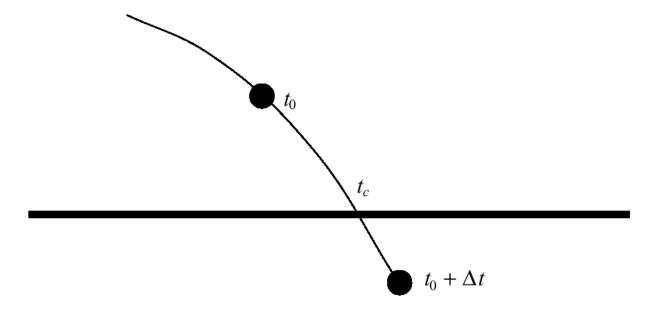
- Colliding contact (Today)
 - $v_{rel} < -\epsilon$
 - Instantaneous change in velocity
 - Discontinuity: requires restart of the equation solver
- Resting contact (Thursday)
 - $- \varepsilon < V_{rel} < \varepsilon$
 - Gradual contact forces avoid interpenetration
 - No discontinuities
- Bodies separating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

Collisiding contacts

- At time t_i , body A and B intersect and $v_{rel} < -\epsilon$
- 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)

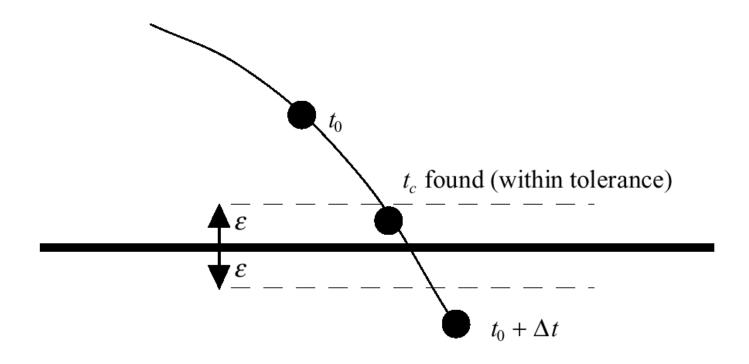
Time of collision

- 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** (cf.Dave Knott's lecture)
- t_c not always needed
 ! penalty-based methods

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

```
0 for each pair of bodies (A,B) do
1 Compute_New_Body_States(Scopy, t, H);
2 hs(A,B) = H; // H is the target timestep
3 if Distance(A,B) < 0 then
     try_h = H/2; try_t = t + try_h;
     while TRUE do
6
        Compute_New_Body_States(Scopy, t, try_t - t);
        if Distance(A,B) < 0 then
                try h /= 2; try_t -= try_h;
8
       else if Distance(A,B) < \varepsilon then
10
                break;
11
       else
                try_h /= 2; try_t += try_h;
12
     hs(A,B) = try_t - t;
13
14 h = min(hs);
```

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- Colliding Contact Response
 - Normal vector, restitution, and force application

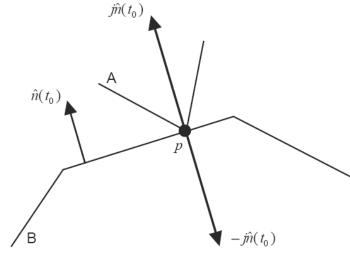
What happens upon collision

 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:

$$J = j^T n$$



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 $\in [0,1]$
 - $\epsilon = 0$ -- bodies stick together
 - $\epsilon = 1$ loss-less rebound
- After some manipulation of equations...

$$j = \frac{-(1+\epsilon)v_{rel}^{-}}{\frac{1}{M_{a}} + \frac{1}{M_{b}} + \hat{n}(t_{0}) \cdot \left(I_{a}^{-1}(t_{0})\left(r_{a} \times \hat{n}(t_{0})\right)\right) \times r_{a} + \hat{n}(t_{0}) \cdot \left(I_{b}^{-1}(t_{0})\left(r_{b} \times \hat{n}(t_{0})\right)\right) \times r_{b}}$$

Apply_BB_Forces()

 For colliding contact, the computation can be local

```
0 for each pair of bodies (A,B) do
1 if Distance(A,B) < ε then</li>
2 Cs = Contacts(A,B);
3 Apply Impulses(A,B,Cs);
```

Apply_Impulses(A,B,Cs)

• The impulse is an instantaneous force – it changes the velocities of the bodies instantaneously: $\Delta v = J/M$

```
    for each contact in Cs do
    Compute n
    Compute j
    J = j<sup>T</sup>n
    P(A) += J
    L(A) += (p - x(t)) xJ
    P(B) -= J
    L(B) -= (p - x(t)) xJ
```

Simulation algorithm with Collisions

```
X A InitializeState()
For t=t_0 to t_{final} with step \Delta t
      ClearForces(F(t), \tau(t))
      AddExternalForces(F(t), \tau(t))
      X_{new} \tilde{A} Solver::Step(X, F(t), \tau(t), t, \Delta t)
      t A findCollisionTime()
      X_{new} \tilde{A} Solver::Step(X, F(t), \tau(t), t, \Delta t)
      C A Contacts(X<sub>new</sub>)
      while (!C.isColliding())
                applyImpulses(X<sub>new</sub>)
      end if
     X \tilde{A} X_{new}
      t\tilde{\mathbf{A}}t + \Lambda t
End for
```

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

Global penalty based response

Global contact force computation

```
0 for each pair of bodies (A,B) do
1 if Distance(A,B) < ε then</li>
2 Flag_Pair(A,B);
3 Solve For_Forces(flagged pairs);
4 Apply_Forces(flagged pairs);
```

Local penalty based response

Local contact force computation

```
    0 for each pair of bodies (A,B) do
    1 if Distance(A,B) < ε then</li>
    2 Cs = Contacts(A,B);
    3 Apply Impulses(A,B,Cs);
```

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