



Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

[Overview](#)

[Grid](#)

[Advection](#)

[Projection](#)

[Solving
large-scale linear
systems](#)

Eulerian Fluid Simulation

GAMES 201 Lecture 4

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MIT CSAIL

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Today's topic: Eulerian fluid simulation

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

- Eulerian representation uses still sensors in space, usually arranged in a regular grid/triangular mesh.
- A little bit of math - but not too much.
- This course: intuitive derivation - instead of finite volume/finite difference.

Recommended book

A great introduction to Eulerian fluid simulation:

Fluid simulation for computer graphics¹ by *Robert Bridson*.

¹R. Bridson (2015). *Fluid simulation for computer graphics*. CRC press.



Table of Contents

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

1 Overview

2 Grid

3 Advection

4 Projection

5 Solving large-scale linear systems



Material Derivatives: Lagrangian v.s. Eulerian

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

$$\frac{D}{Dt} := \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla$$

E.g.,

$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}_x}{Dt} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_x}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u}_x$$

\mathbf{u} : material (fluid) velocity. Many other names: Advective/Lagrangian/particle derivative.

Intuitively, change of physical quantity on a piece of material =

- ① change due to time $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ (Eulerian).
- ② change due to material movement $\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla$.



(Incompressible) Navier–Stokes equations

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Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

$$\begin{aligned}\rho \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} &= -\nabla p + \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \rho \mathbf{g}, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \\ \text{or} \\ \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} &= -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{g}, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0\end{aligned}$$

μ : dynamic viscosity; $\nu = \frac{\mu}{\rho}$: kinematic viscosity.

Variants of the N-S equations

The Navier-Stokes equations have many variants. Here we show a version that is the most friendly to fluids simulation in computer graphics. In graphics we usually drop **viscosity** except for highly viscous materials (e.g., honey).



Operator splitting [\[More details\]](#)

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

[Overview](#)

[Grid](#)

[Advection](#)

[Projection](#)

[Solving
large-scale linear
systems](#)

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p + \mathbf{g} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

Split the equations above into three parts:

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \frac{D\alpha}{Dt} = \mathbf{0} \quad (\text{advection}) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = \mathbf{g} \quad (\text{external forces, optional}) \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad (\text{projection}) \quad (3)$$

α : any physical property (temperature, color, smoke density etc.)



Eulerian fluid simulation cycle

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Time discretization with splitting: for each time step,

- 1 Advection: “move” the fluid field. Solve \mathbf{u}^* using \mathbf{u}^t

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \frac{D\alpha}{Dt} = 0$$

- 2 External forces (optional): evaluate \mathbf{u}^{**} using \mathbf{u}^*

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = \mathbf{g} \quad (\text{external forces, optional})$$

- 3 Projection: make velocity field \mathbf{u}^{t+1} divergence-free based on \mathbf{u}^{**}

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^{t+1} = 0$$



Table of Contents

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

1 Overview

2 Grid

3 Advection

4 Projection

5 Solving large-scale linear systems



Spatial discretization using *cell-centered* grids

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Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

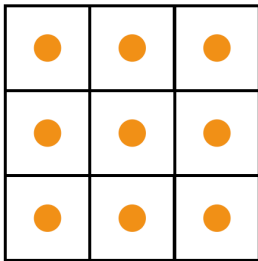


Figure: u_x , u_y , p are all stored at the center (orange) of cells.

```
n, m = 3, 3
u = ti.var(ti.f32, shape=(n, m)) # x-component of velocity
v = ti.var(ti.f32, shape=(n, m)) # y-component of velocity
p = ti.var(ti.f32, shape=(n, m)) # pressure
```



Spatial discretization using *staggered* grids

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

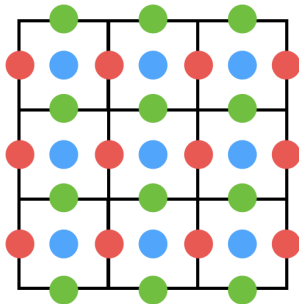


Figure: Red: u_x ; Green: u_y ; Blue: p .

```
n, m = 3, 3
u = ti.var(ti.f32, shape=(n+1, m)) # x-component of velocity
v = ti.var(ti.f32, shape=(n, m+1)) # y-component of velocity
p = ti.var(ti.f32, shape=(n, m)) # pressure
```



Bilinear interpolation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

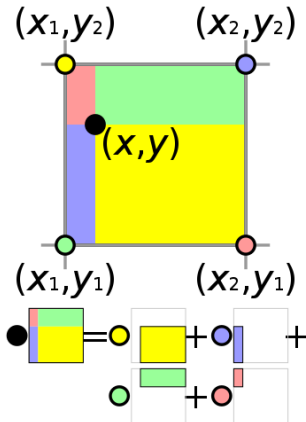


Figure: Bilinear interpolation: value at (x, y) is a weighted average of the four corners.
Source: Wikipedia



Table of Contents

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

1 Overview

2 Grid

3 Advection

4 Projection

5 Solving large-scale linear systems



Advection schemes

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

A trade-off between numerical viscosity, stability, performance and complexity:

- Semi-Lagrangian advection²
- MacCormack/BFECC³
- “BiMocq²”⁴
- Particle advection (PIC/FLIP/APIC/PolyPIC, later in this course)
- ...

²R. Courant, E. Isaacson, and M. Rees (1952). “On the solution of nonlinear hyperbolic differential equations by finite differences”. In: *Communications on pure and applied mathematics* 5.3, pp. 243–255; J. Stam (1999). “Stable fluids”. In: *Proceedings of the 26th annual conference on Computer graphics and interactive techniques*, pp. 121–128.

³B. Kim et al. (2005). *Flowfixer: Using BFECC for fluid simulation*. Tech. rep. Georgia Institute of Technology; A. Selle et al. (2008). “An unconditionally stable MacCormack method”. In: *Journal of Scientific Computing* 35.2-3, pp. 350–371.

⁴Z. Qu et al. (2019). “Efficient and conservative fluids using bidirectional mapping”. In: *ACM Transactions on Graphics (TOG)* 38.4, pp. 1–12.



Semi-Lagrangian advection

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

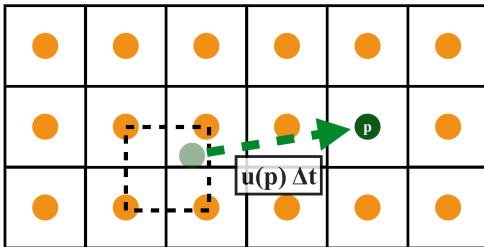


Figure: What should be the field value at \mathbf{p} now based on the field and velocity at the previous time step? Well, just let reverse the simulation...

```
@ti.func
def semi_lagrangian(x, new_x, dt):
    for I in ti.grouped(x):
        new_x[I] = sample_bilinear(x, backtrace(I, dt))
```



What if ...

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Simulation

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[Overview](#)

[Grid](#)

[Advection](#)

[Projection](#)

[Solving
large-scale linear
systems](#)

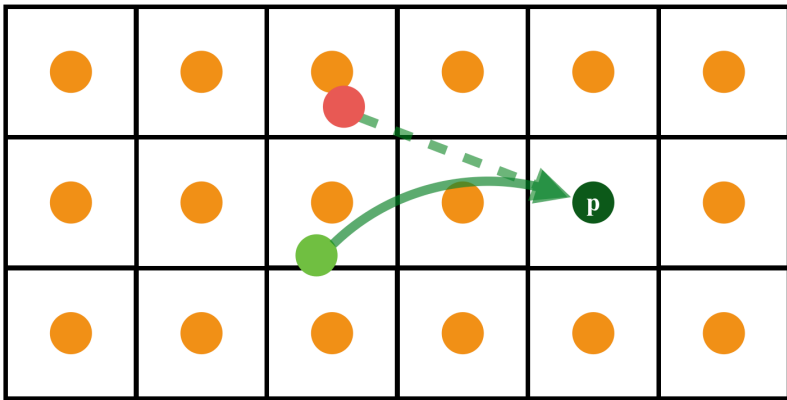


Figure: The real trajectory of material parcels can be complex... Red: a naive estimation of last position; Light gree: the true previous position.



Going back in time (Demo)

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Initial value problem (ODE): simply use explicit time integration schemes, e.g.,

- Forward Euler ("RK1")

```
p -= dt * velocity(p)
```

- Explicit Midpoint ("RK2")

```
p_mid = p - 0.5 * dt * velocity(p)
p -= dt * velocity(p_mid)
```

- RK3

```
v1 = velocity(p)
p1 = p - 0.5 * dt * v1
v2 = velocity(p1)
p2 = p - 0.75 * dt * v2
v3 = velocity(p2)
p -= dt * (2 / 9 * v1 + 1 / 3 * v2 + 4 / 9 * v3)
```




BFECC and MacCormack advection schemes

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

BFECC: Back and Forth Error Compensation and Correction

- $\mathbf{x}^* = \text{SL}(\mathbf{x}, \Delta t)$
- $\mathbf{x}^{**} = \text{SL}(\mathbf{x}^*, -\Delta t)$
- Estimate the error $\mathbf{x}^{\text{error}} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^{**} - \mathbf{x})$
- Apply the error $\mathbf{x}^{\text{final}} = \mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{x}^{\text{error}}$

Be careful: need to prevent overshooting.

Demo!

```
@ti.func
def maccormack(x, dt):
    semi_lagrangian(x, new_x, dt)
    semi_lagrangian(new_x, new_x_aux, -dt)

    for I in ti.grouped(x):
        new_x[I] = new_x[I] + 0.5 * (x[I] - new_x_aux[I])
```



Table of Contents

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

1 Overview

2 Grid

3 Advection

4 Projection

5 Solving large-scale linear systems



Chorin-style projection

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

How to ensure the velocity field is divergence free after projection?

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad (\text{projection})$$

Expand (using finite difference in time):

$$\mathbf{u}^* - \mathbf{u} = -\frac{\Delta t}{\rho} \nabla p \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^* = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbf{u}^* = \mathbf{u} - \frac{\Delta t}{\rho} \nabla p \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^* = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^* = \nabla \cdot \left(\mathbf{u} - \frac{\Delta t}{\rho} \nabla p \right) \quad (6)$$

$$0 = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} - \frac{\Delta t}{\rho} \nabla \cdot \nabla p \quad (7)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla p = \frac{\rho}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} \quad (8)$$



Poisson's equation

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

(From the previous slide)

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla p = \frac{\rho}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} \quad (9)$$

... which is Poisson's equation

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla p = f \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta p = f. \quad (10)$$

$\Delta = \nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla$ is the **Laplace operator**. If $f = 0$, the equation is called **Laplace's equation**.



Spatial discretization (2D)

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Recall the equation for p :

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla p = \frac{\rho}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} \quad (11)$$

Discretize on a 2D grid:

$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p})_{i,j} = (\nabla \cdot \nabla p)_{i,j} = \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} (-4p_{i,j} + p_{i+1,j} + p_{i-1,j} + p_{i,j-1} + p_{i,j+1}) \quad (12)$$

$$\mathbf{b}_{i,j} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} \right)_{i,j} = \frac{\rho}{\Delta t \Delta x} (\mathbf{u}_{i+1,j}^x - \mathbf{u}_{i,j}^x + \mathbf{u}_{i,j+1}^y - \mathbf{u}_{i,j}^y) \quad (13)$$

Again, a linear system:

$$\mathbf{A}_{nm \times nm} \mathbf{p}_{nm} = \mathbf{b}_{nm}$$

n, m : numbers of cells along the x - and y -axis.



Spatial discretization (2D): $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}$

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Simulation

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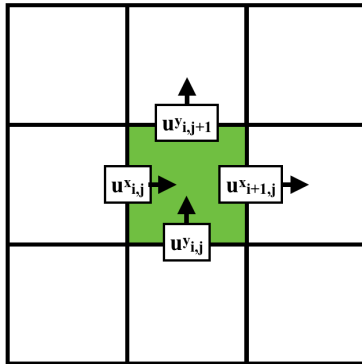
[Overview](#)

[Grid](#)

[Advection](#)

[Projection](#)

[Solving
large-scale linear
systems](#)



$$(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})_{i,j} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} (\mathbf{u}^x_{i+1,j} - \mathbf{u}^x_{i,j} + \mathbf{u}^y_{i,j+1} - \mathbf{u}^y_{i,j})$$



Spatial discretization (2D): $\nabla \cdot \nabla p$

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Simulation

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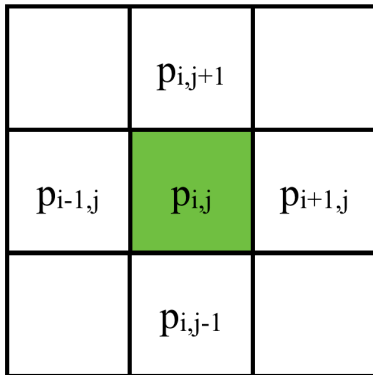
[Overview](#)

[Grid](#)

[Advection](#)

[Projection](#)

[Solving
large-scale linear
systems](#)



$$(\nabla \cdot \nabla p)_{i,j} = \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} (-4p_{i,j} + p_{i+1,j} + p_{i-1,j} + p_{i,j-1} + p_{i,j+1})$$

Question: How to handle Dirichlet and Neumann boundaries?



Table of Contents

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

1 Overview

2 Grid

3 Advection

4 Projection

5 Solving large-scale linear systems



The top 10 algorithms from the 20th century

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

- 1946: The Metropolis Algorithm for Monte Carlo.
- 1947: Simplex Method for Linear Programming.
- 1950: Krylov Subspace Iteration Method.
- 1951: The Decompositional Approach to Matrix Computations.
- 1957: The Fortran Optimizing Compiler.
- 1959: QR Algorithm for Computing Eigenvalues.
- 1962: Quicksort Algorithms for Sorting.
- 1965: Fast Fourier Transform.
- 1977: Integer Relation Detection.
- 1987: Fast Multipole Method.



The top 10 algorithms from the 20th century

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

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- 1957: The Fortran Optimizing Compiler.
- 1959: QR Algorithm for Computing Eigenvalues.
- 1962: Quicksort Algorithms for Sorting.
- **1965: Fast Fourier Transform.**
- 1977: Integer Relation Detection.
- **1987: Fast Multipole Method.**



Solving large-scale linear systems

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Many physics engines boil down to a (huge) linear system solve:

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$$

How to solve it:

- Direct solvers (e.g., PARDISO)
- Iterative solvers:
 - Gauss-Seidel
 - (Damped) Jacobi
 - (Preconditioned) Krylov-subspace solvers (e.g., conjugate gradients)

Good numeric solvers are usually **composed** of different solvers: e.g., *multigrid-preconditioned conjugate gradients with damped Jacobi smoothing and PARDISO at the bottom multigrid level.*



Matrix storage

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

What's special about \mathbf{A} : often sparse, symmetric & positive-definite (SPD).

How to store \mathbf{A} ? Options:

- ① As a dense matrix (e.g., `float A[1024][1024]` doesn't scale but works)
- ② As a sparse matrix (various sparse matrix formats: CSR, COO, ...)
- ③ Don't store it at all (aka. **Matrix-free**, often the ultimate solution...)

Modern computer architecture: memory bandwidth is expensive but FLOPs are free. So compute matrix entries on-the-fly (instead of fetching values from memory) can sometimes be good to performance.



Krylov-subspace solvers

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Krylov-subspace solvers are among most efficient linear system solvers. The most well-known version: **conjugate gradients (CG)**.

Less frequently used (in graphics):

- Conjugate residuals (CR)
- Generalized minimal residual method (GMRES)
- Biconjugate gradient stabilized (BiCGStab)
- ...

Recommended book

[An Introduction to the Conjugate Gradient Method Without the Agonizing Pain⁵](#)
by Jonathan Richard Shewchuk.

⁵J. R. Shewchuk et al. (1994). *An introduction to the conjugate gradient method without the agonizing pain.*



Conjugate gradients

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

$$\mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0$$

$$\mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{r}_0$$

$$k = 0$$

while True:

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^\top \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{p}_k^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_k}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r}_k - \alpha_k \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_k$$

if $\|\mathbf{r}_{k+1}\|$ is sufficiently small, break

$$\beta_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\top \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{r}_k^\top \mathbf{r}_k}$$

$$\mathbf{p}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_k \mathbf{p}_k$$

$$k = k + 1$$

return \mathbf{x}_{k+1}

Residual v.s. Error

Small residual \mathbf{r} does not mean small error \mathbf{e} , especially when \mathbf{A} is poorly conditioned (i.e., with a huge condition number (next slide)).



Eigenvalues and condition numbers

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Recall that if

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x},$$

then λ is an **eigenvalue** of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{x} is an **eigenvector** of \mathbf{A} .

The **condition number** κ of SPD matrix \mathbf{A} :

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$$

In general: a smaller condition numbers means faster convergence.
(Note that condition numbers have many different definitions.)



Iterative solver trick: Warm starting

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

If you start with an initial guess that is close to the solution, very likely fewer iterations are needed.

“Warm starting”: use the \mathbf{p} from the last frame as the initial guess of the current frame.

[Online demo](#)

In practice works well for (damped) Jacobi/Gauss-Seidel/CG, but for MGPCG (later in this lecture) it doesn't work well.



Preconditioning

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Find an approximate operator \mathbf{M} that is close to \mathbf{A} but easier to invert. Then,

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

Intuition: $\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{A}$ may have a smaller condition number (closer to identity) or better eigenvalue clustering than \mathbf{A} itself.

Question: why not directly let $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{A}$?



Common preconditioners

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

- Jacobi (diagonal) preconditioner $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{A})$
- Poisson preconditioner
- (Incomplete) Cholesky decomposition
- Multigrid: \mathbf{M} = very complex linear operator that almost inverts \mathbf{A} ...
 - Geometric multigrid
 - Algebraic multigrid
- Fast multipole method (FMM)



(Geometric) Multigrid methods

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Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

Multigrid V-Cycle: Solving \mathbf{PHI} in PDE $f(\mathbf{PHI}) = \mathbf{F}$

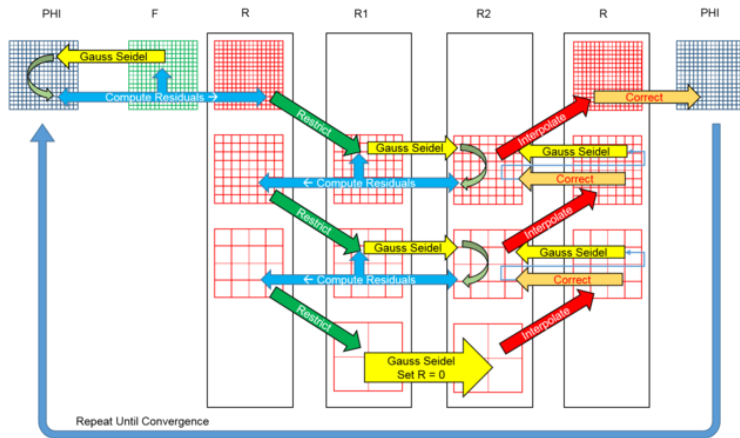


Figure: Multigrid V-cycle (source: Wikipedia)



The Multigrid design space

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Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

- 1 Restriction/prolongation
- 2 Cycle (**V**/W/F cycle)
- 3 Smoothers ((red-black) Gauss-Seidel, Jacobi, damped Jacobi, etc.)
- 4 Number of levels (e.g., coarsen until the bottom level has $< 50K$ voxels)
- 5 Bottom level solver (Brute-force Jacobi or direct solvers)
- 6 Number of pre/post iterations (usually, 2-5)
- 7 Coarsening and boundary handling (e.g., Galerkin coarsening, semi-algebraic multigrid)
- 8 ...



Multigrid preconditioned conjugate gradients (MGPCG)

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

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Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

When solving Poisson's equation in graphics, people ususally use geometric multigrid as the preconditioner for conjugate gradients.

Recommended reading

If you want to learn more about multigrid (and linear solvers in general):

- **A multigrid tutorial**⁶.
- A seminal and easy-to-understand multigrid paper in graphics: **A parallel multigrid Poisson solver for fluids simulation on large grids**⁷

Taichi demo: 2D/3D multigrid: `ti example mgpcg_advanced`

⁶W. L. Briggs, V. E. Henson, and S. F. McCormick (2000). *A multigrid tutorial*. SIAM.

⁷A. McAdams, E. Sifakis, and J. Teran (2010). "A Parallel Multigrid Poisson Solver for Fluids Simulation on Large Grids.". In: *Symposium on Computer Animation*, pp. 65–73.



Summary: Eulerian fluid simulation in graphics

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

For each time step,

- Advection: “move” the fluid field. Solve for \mathbf{u}^* using \mathbf{u}^t

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \frac{D\alpha}{Dt} = 0$$

Key: Use a advection scheme with low numerical viscosity (e.g., MacCormack/BFECC/Particle advection)

- Projection: make velocity field \mathbf{u}^{t+1} divergence-free based on \mathbf{u}^*

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^{t+1} = 0$$

Key: Use a fast linear solver (e.g., MGPCG).



Combining advection with reflection: IVOCK

SIGGRAPH 2015

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

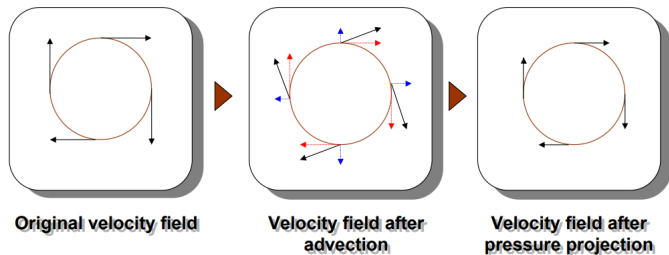


Figure: IVOCK: Restoring Missing Vortices in Advection-Projection Fluid Solvers⁸

⁸X. Zhang, R. Bridson, and C. Greif (2015). "Restoring the missing vorticity in advection-projection fluid solvers". In: *ACM Transactions on Graphics (TOG)* 34.4, pp. 1–8.



Advection-Reflection solver

SIGGRAPH 2018

Eulerian Fluid
Simulation

Yuanming Hu

Overview

Grid

Advection

Projection

Solving
large-scale linear
systems

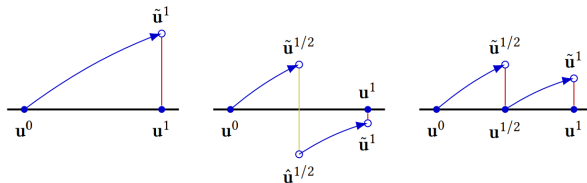


Fig. 2. A geometric interpretation of our method. *Left*: In a standard advection-projection solver, projection to the divergence-free subspace causes kinetic energy loss (red). *Middle*: Our reflection solver uses an energy-preserving *reflection* (yellow) halfway through the advection step, dramatically reducing the energy loss caused by the final projection. Our method has effectively identical computational cost to an advection-projection solver with half the time step (*right*), but loses less energy.

Figure: Source: [An Advection-Reflection Solver for Detail-Preserving Fluid Simulation](#)⁹

⁹J. Zehnder, R. Narain, and B. Thomaszewski (2018). “An advection-reflection solver for detail-preserving fluid simulation”. In: *ACM Transactions on Graphics (TOG)* 37.4, pp. 1–8.



Possible extensions

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Projection

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- Going to 3D
- Accurate boundary conditions and fluid-solid coupling¹⁰
- Two phase fluid simulation¹¹
- Handling free surfaces (level sets)¹²
- Vortex methods¹³

A well-implemented Eulerian fluid solver counts as Homework 1 :-)

¹⁰C. Batty, F. Bertails, and R. Bridson (2007). “A fast variational framework for accurate solid-fluid coupling”. In: *ACM Transactions on Graphics (TOG)* 26.3, 100–es.

¹¹R. Ando, N. Thuerey, and C. Wojtan (2015). “A stream function solver for liquid simulations”. In: *ACM Transactions on Graphics (TOG)* 34.4, pp. 1–9.

¹²S. Osher, R. Fedkiw, and K. Piechor (2004). “Level set methods and dynamic implicit surfaces”. In: *Appl. Mech. Rev.* 57.3, B15–B15.

¹³X. Zhang and R. Bridson (2014). “A PPPM fast summation method for fluids and beyond”. In: *ACM Transactions on Graphics (TOG)* 33.6, pp. 1–11.