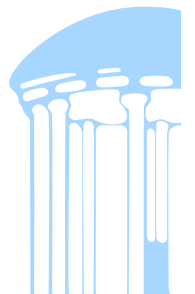


Rigid Body Dynamics (I)

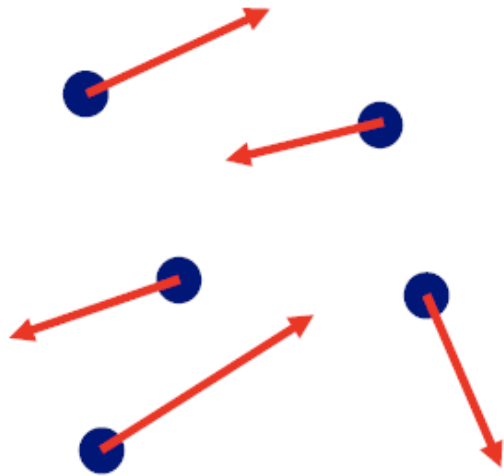
COMP768: October 4, 2007

Nico Galoppo <nico@cs>

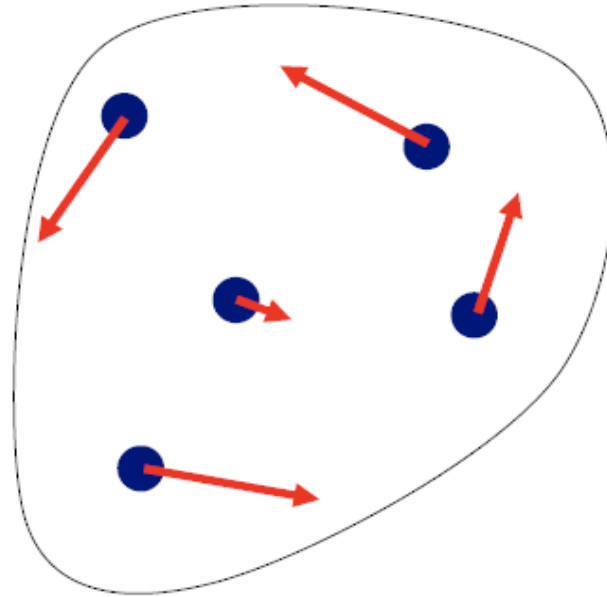
COMP768- M.Lin



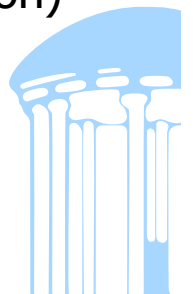
From Particles to Rigid Bodies



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

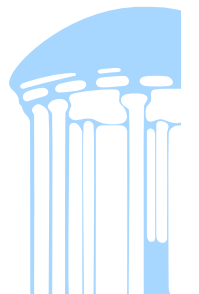


- Rigid bodies
 - 6 DoFs (translation + rotation)
 - Linear velocity \mathbf{v}
 - Angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$

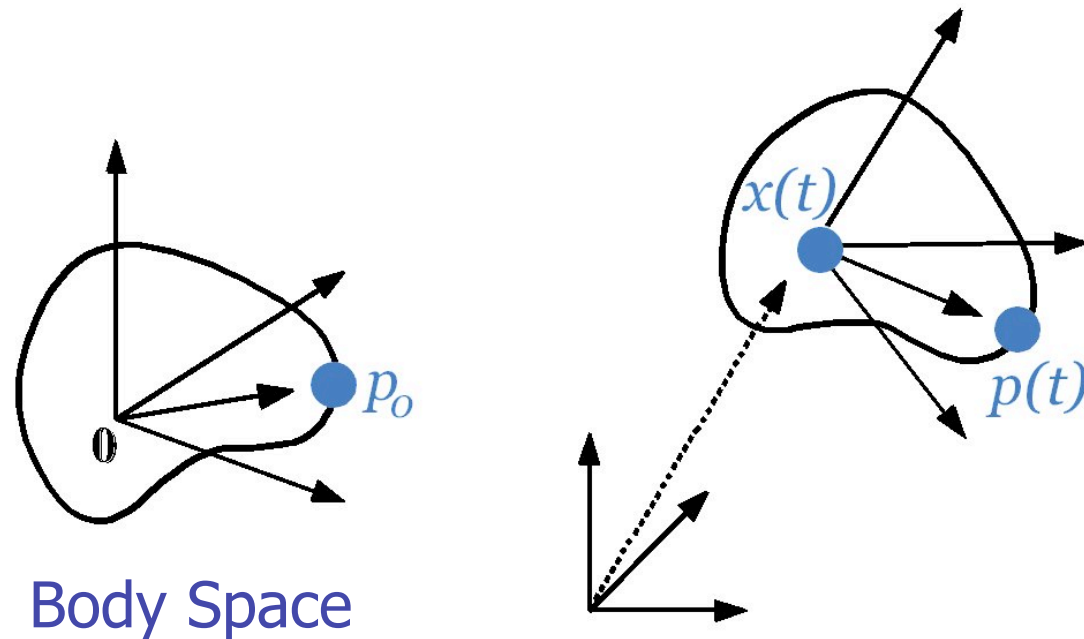


Outline

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



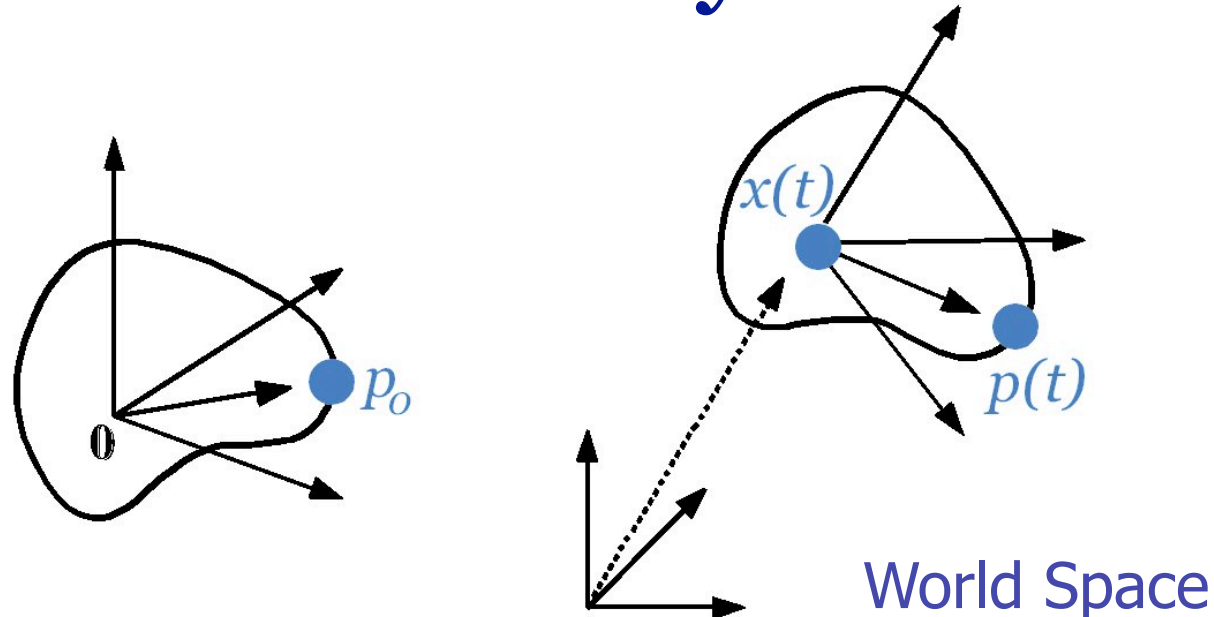
Coordinate Systems



- 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



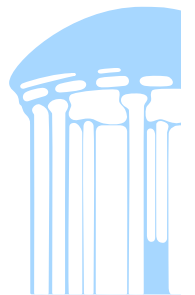
- World Space:
rigid body transformation to common frame

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

translation

COMP768- M.Lin

rotation



Center of mass

- Definition

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

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

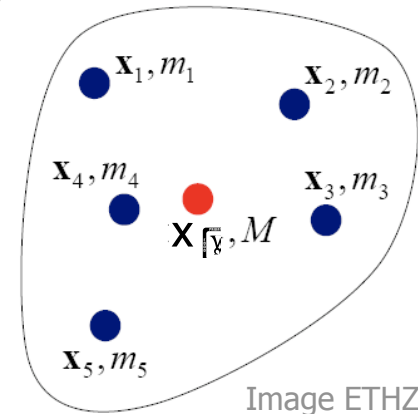


Image ETHZ 2005

- Motivation: forces

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

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

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

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Rotations

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

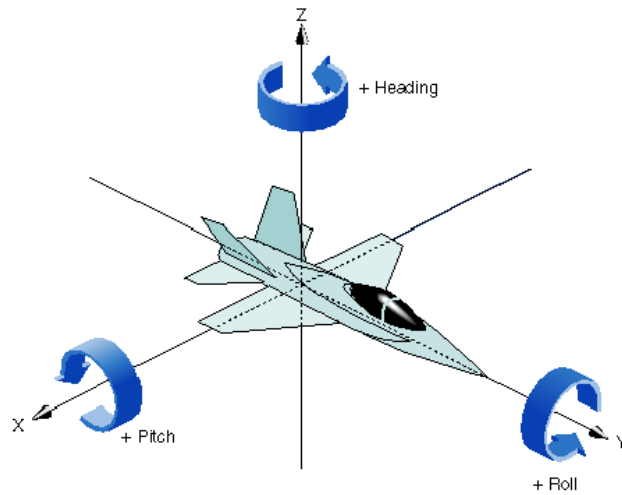
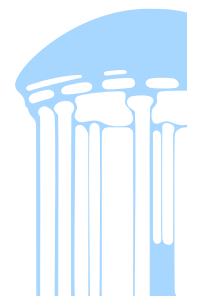


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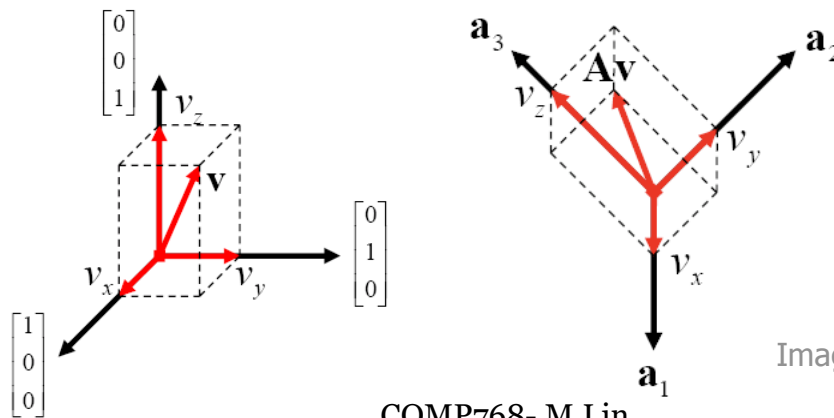
Rotations

- Rotation matrix

- 3x3 matrix: 9 DoFs

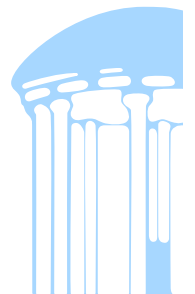
- Columns: world-space coordinates of body-space base vectors

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



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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



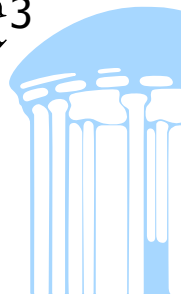
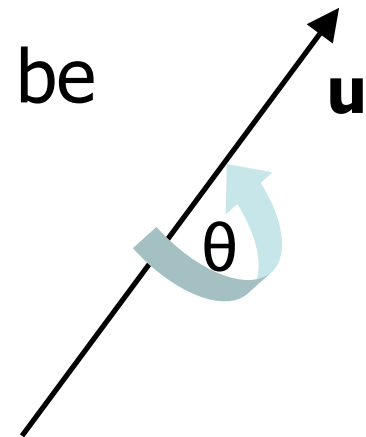
Unit Quaternion Definition

- $\mathbf{q} = [s, \mathbf{v}]$: s is a scalar, \mathbf{v} is vector
- A rotation of θ 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 \mathcal{R}^3



Unit Quaternion Operations

- Special multiplication:

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

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

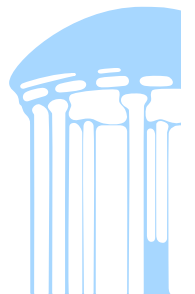
- Back to rotation matrix

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



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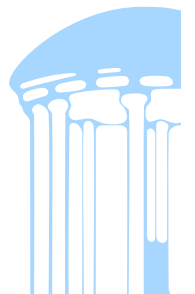
Kinematics: Velocities

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

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)

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

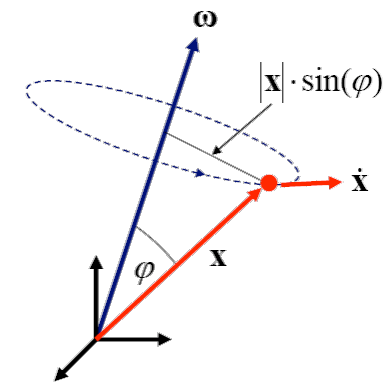
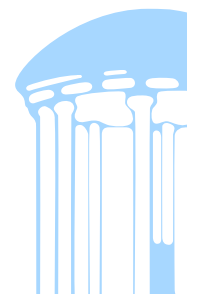


Image ETHZ 2005

- 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

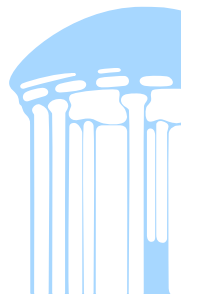
• $\mathbf{R}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}(t)$ are related by:

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



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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

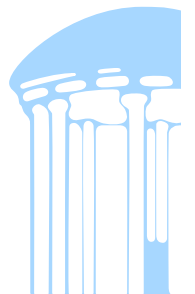
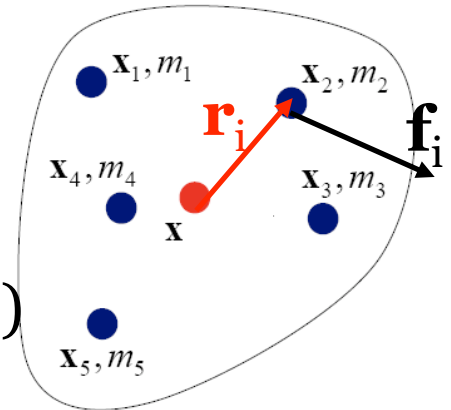
- External forces $\mathbf{f}_i(t)$ act on particles
 - Total external force $\mathbf{F} = \sum \mathbf{f}_i(t)$
- Torques depend on distance from the center of mass:

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

- 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

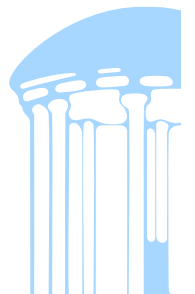


Linear Momentum

- 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
 - $\mathbf{P}(t) = \sum m_i d\mathbf{r}_i(t)/dt$
 $= \sum m_i \mathbf{v}(t) + \omega(t) \times \sum m_i (\mathbf{r}_i(t) - \mathbf{x}(t))$
 $= \sum m_i \mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{v}(t)$
 - 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

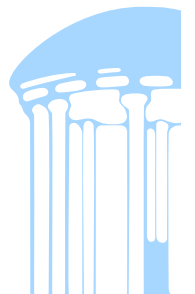
- Same thing, angular momentum $L(t)$ allows us to express the effect of total torque $\tau(t)$ on the body:

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

- 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

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

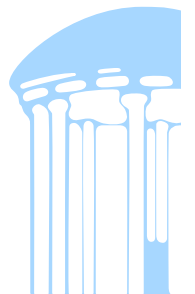
Bunch of volume integrals:

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



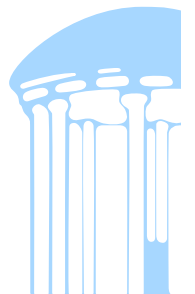
Inertia Tensor

- Avoid recomputing inverse of inertia tensor
- Compute I in body space I_{body} and then transform to world space as required
 - I(t) varies in world space, but I_{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
 - $L(t) = I(t)\omega(t) = R(t) I_{\text{body}} R^T(t) \omega(t)$
 - $I^{-1}(t) = R(t) I_{\text{body}}^{-1} R^T(t)$



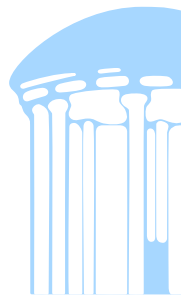
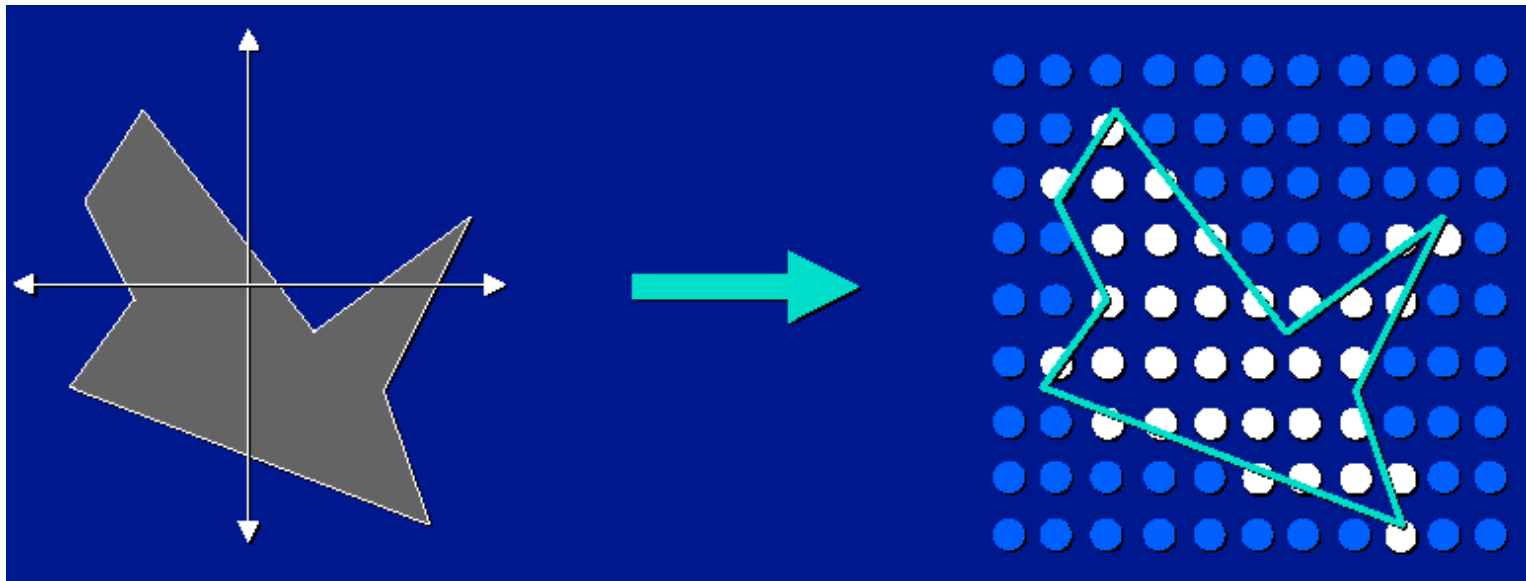
Computing I_{body}^{-1}

- 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>



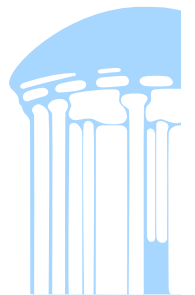
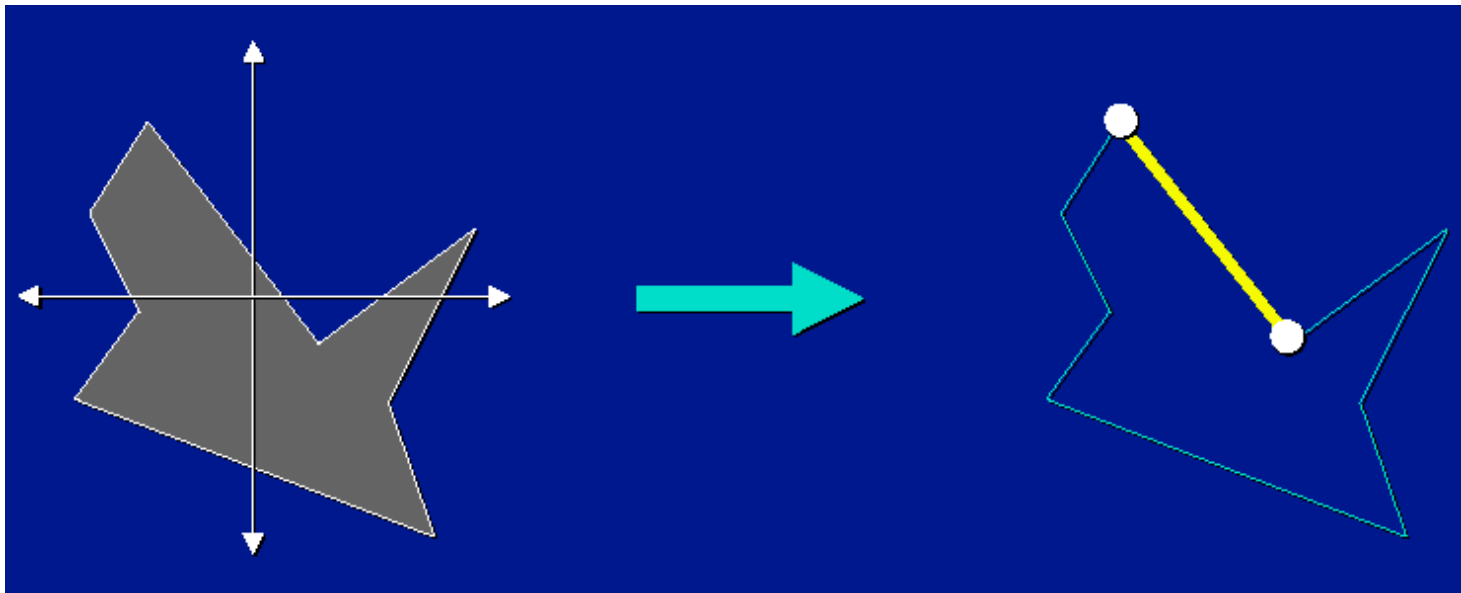
Approximation w/ Point

- 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.



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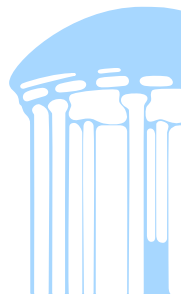
Position state vector

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

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

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

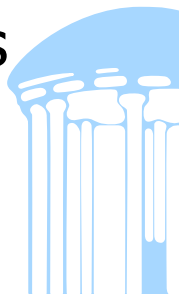
Size of the vector: $(3+4+3+3)N = 13N$



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

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

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

$$L \leftarrow I\omega$$

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

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

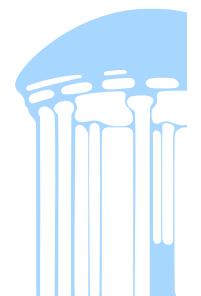
$$(\mathbf{X}, \dot{\mathbf{X}}) \leftarrow \text{step}(\mathbf{X}, \dot{\mathbf{X}}, \mathbf{F}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$$

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

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

Accumulate
forces

Your favorite
ODE solver



Simulation Algorithm

Pre-compute:

$$M \leftarrow \sum m_i$$

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

Initialize

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

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

$$L \leftarrow I \omega$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

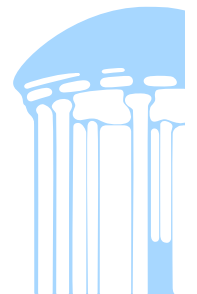
$$\mathbf{q} \leftarrow \mathbf{q} + \Delta t \frac{1}{2} \omega \mathbf{q}$$

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

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

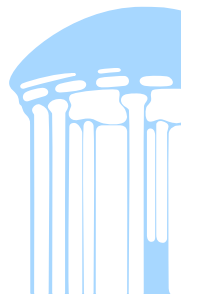
Accumulate
forces

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



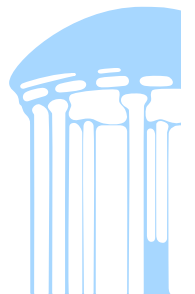
Detecting collisions and response

- 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



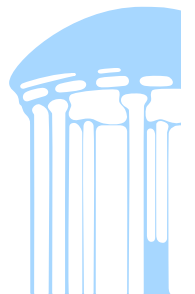
Distance(A,B)

- 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_{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

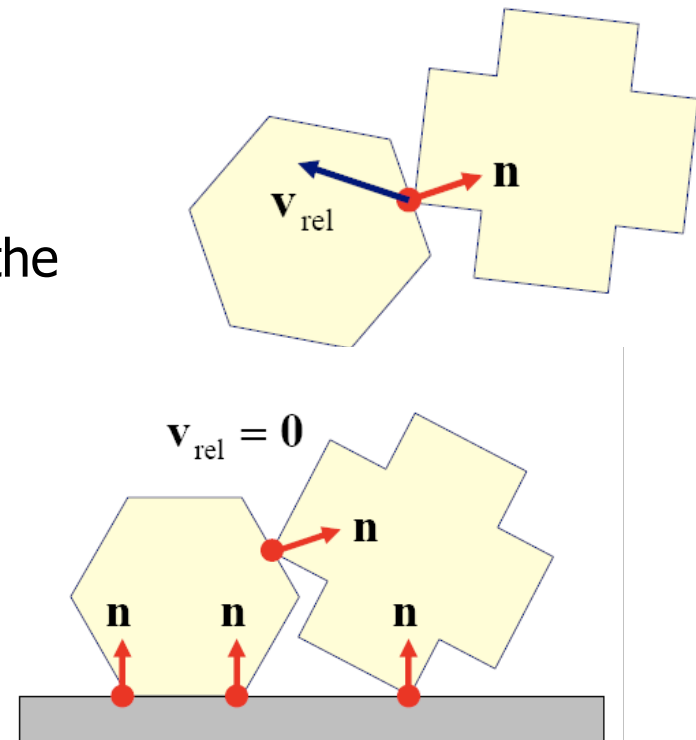
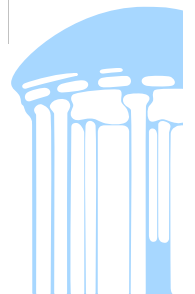


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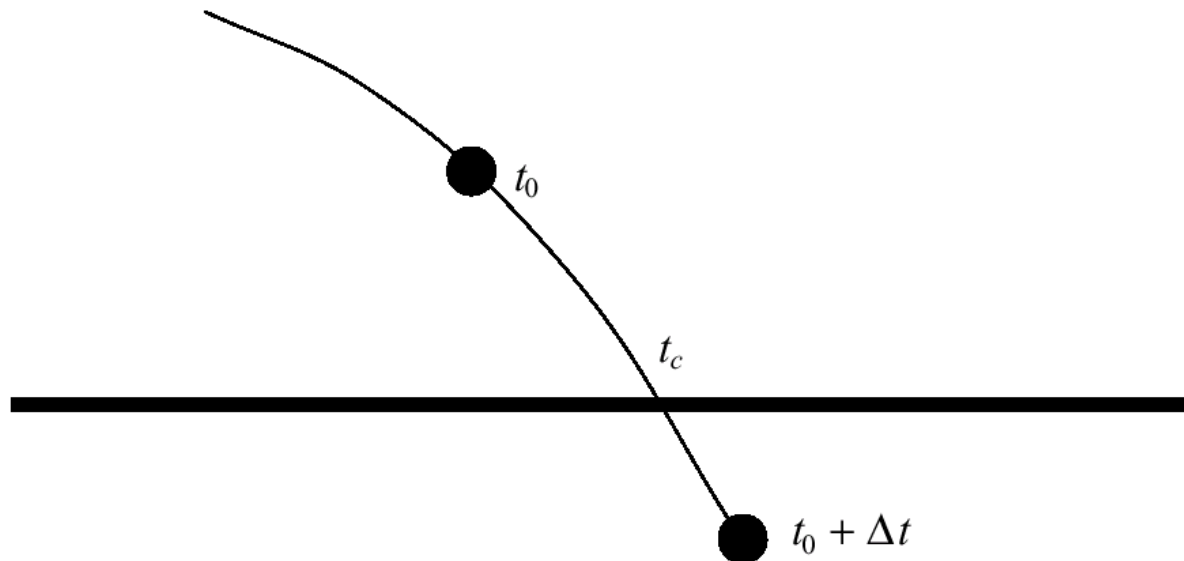
Colliding contacts

- 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 $X^+(t)$



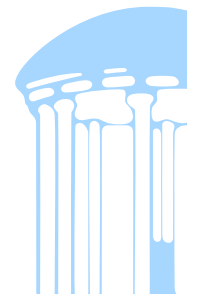
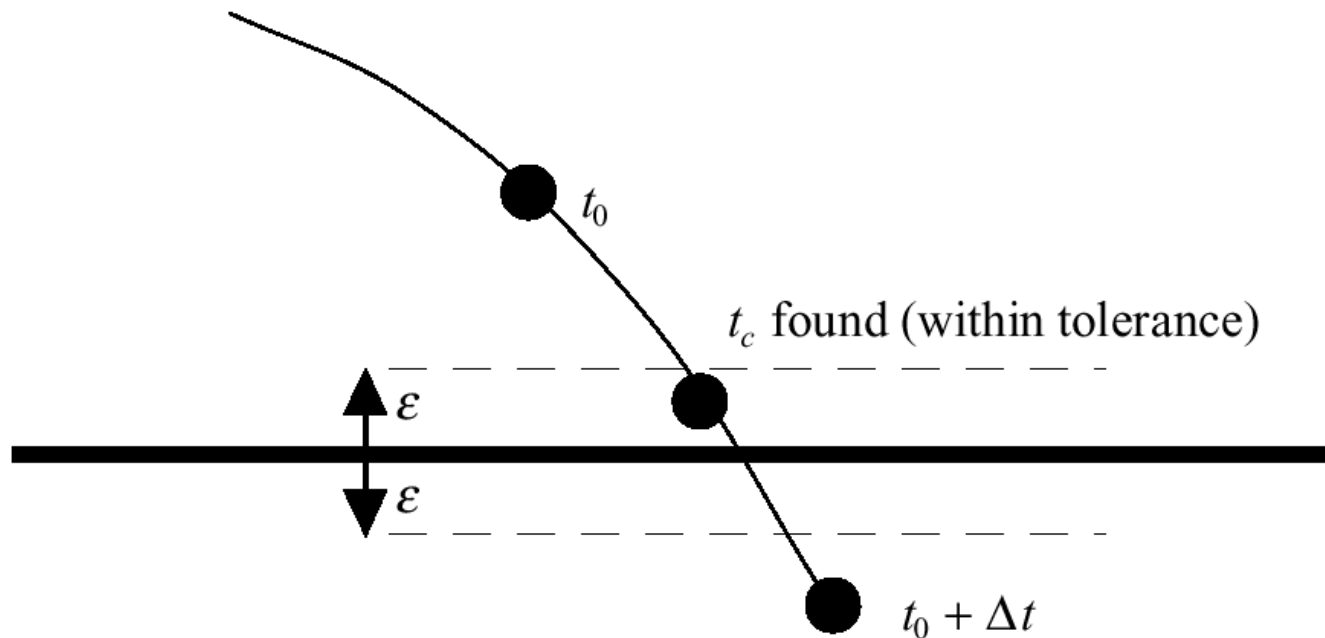
Time of collision

- 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) < ϵ then

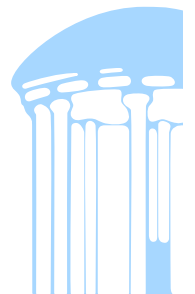
 break;

 else

$try_h /= 2$; $try_t += try_h$;

$hs(A,B) \rightarrow \text{append}(try_t - t)$;

$h = \min(hs)$;



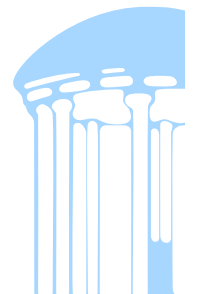
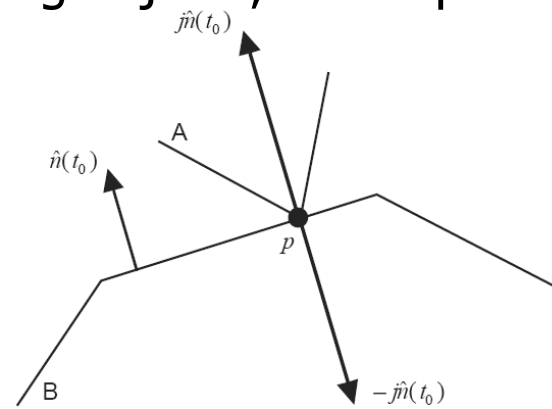
What happens upon collision

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

$$\Delta(\mathbf{P}) = \mathbf{J}$$

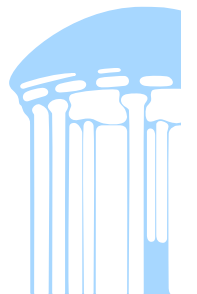
- We apply impulses to the colliding objects, at the point of collision
- For frictionless bodies, the direction will be the same as the normal direction:

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



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

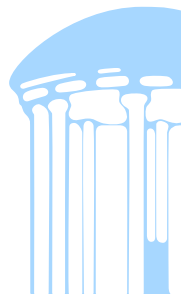
- Point velocities at the nearest points:

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

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

- 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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