Mixed Fluid and Rigid Body Simulations
An Object Oriented Component Library based on the Physolator Framework

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Abstract: This paper presents an approach towards implementing physical simulations, where the physical system consists of both fluids and movable rigid bodies. The approach is based on Physolator. Physolator is an object oriented Java based framework for physical simulation. This paper introduces a library of Java classes that are designed for building such simulations. The classes are designed to be used inside the Physolator framework.

1 INTRODUCTION

Physical simulation is used in different domains and there are various software tools tailored to the specific needs of such domains. Fluid simulations and rigid body simulations are such domains.

Fluid simulations describe the flow of gases and liquids. A fluid simulation describes the actual location of the fluids for each point in time, the forces applied to the fluids and physical fields for the flow velocity and pressure. Particle models are frequently used for computer based physical simulations (Greenspan, 1997, 1985, 2004, Nijmeijer, 1992, Korlie, 1997, 1999, Pozrikidis, 2017). Particle simulations are challenging. It takes a big number of particles to achieve a reasonable accuracy. Therefore, such simulations usually require big amounts of computing time. Programmers have to spend a lot of time for optimizations in order to achieve a reasonable simulation accuracy within a limited computation time.

Rigid body mechanics is about physical bodies, that are not deformable. During the simulations, the rigid bodies move, the shape however remains unchanged. Different kinds of forces can apply to a rigid body during simulation: gravity, magnetic forces, sliding friction, static friction, rolling friction, etc.. These forces accelerate rigid bodies and change their translational and rotational velocity. Furthermore, there are collisions between rigid bodies. Collisions abruptly change the translational and rotational velocity of the bodies involved. Rigid body simulations are frequently used in computer games and animated films. Game engines usually contain a component named “physics engine”. This kind of physics engine is usually limited to rigid body physics. From a computational point of view, rigid body simulations are far less challenging than fluid simulations. Physics engines inside computer games are designed for real time execution. For a limited amount of components, they succeed computing frames within milliseconds. In a computer game, the accuracy of the physical computation has to be reasonable in a sense that the user of the computer game should get the impression, that the virtual world of the computer game behaves just like the real world. Simulations inside computer games need not necessarily produce results, that are precise in a scientific sense.

This paper is about physical systems consisting of both fluids and rigid bodies. Concepts from both worlds, fluid simulation and rigid body simulation, are to be applied. The next section describes how such physical systems look like and gives an example. The following section explains the concept used to create models for such physical systems and it explains, how to run such simulations. Finally, there will be a section with algorithmic considerations. Whenever you deal with particle simulations, computing time matters. The final section describes the algorithms and the concurrency.
concepts used inside the library in order to achieve a good performance.

2 MIXED FLUID AND RIGID BODY SYSTEMS

This section describes, how physical systems with fluids and rigid bodies look like. Using an example, it is explained, what kind of components are used to build up such systems and which physical effects have to be considered.

Figure 1 shows a sequence of snapshots from a physical simulation with water and rigid bodies. In picture (I) you can see a basin filled with water. A water drop is about to fall into the basin. The floor of the basin and the wall on the left hand side are fixed. On the right hand side of the basin, there is a rectangular solid block. The block lies on the basin floor. In the beginning, the block does not move.

![Figure 1: Simulation with water and rigid bodies.](image)

The water inside the basin applies a force towards the block pushing the block rightwards. Static friction, however, hinders the block from moving. The static friction force is a counterforce to the force from the water with the same absolute value, but opposite direction. Static friction applies as long as the block is not in motion and as long as the force applied to the block does not exceed a certain maximum. The maximal static friction force is a constant. It depends on the force the block applies to the floor of the basin and a static friction coefficient. In the beginning, the absolute value of the force from the water is smaller than the maximal friction force.

As soon as the water drop falls inside the basin, the force applied to the block increases. At a certain point in time (II), this force exceeds the maximal static friction force and the block starts moving rightwards. At this point in time, static friction is replaced by sliding friction. The sliding friction is smaller than the static friction. Sliding friction applies as long as the block is in motion. As soon as the block moves to the right, also the water starts moving rightwards (III). Since the water moves rightwards, the water level inside the basin is decreased. As a consequence, the force from the water applied to the block lessens. As soon as this force is smaller than the sliding friction, the total force applied to the block is directed to the left. The block is slowing down and finally stops (IV). As soon as the block stops, sliding friction is replaced by static friction and the block remains in this final position.

Different kinds of physical effects have to be considered when performing this simulation: forces between the water particles, internal friction, forces between the liquid and the rigid bodies, static friction, sliding friction. Some of these effects are related to fluid physics and some to solid body physics.

Basically, the relationship between the physical variables involved can be described via differential equations. However, also points of discontinuity have to be considered. At the point in time, when the block stops moving, the static friction abruptly vanishes and is replaced by sliding friction. At the point in time, when the block stops moving, it is the other way round: sliding friction is replaced by static friction. Physical simulations are an appropriate means for answering question like these: When will the block start moving? How far will it move? When will it stop moving?

Figure 2 shows a function plot with some of the physical variables involved in this simulation. This diagram shows the forces applied to the block. The upper horizontal line represents a constant: the maximal static friction. In the beginning, there are two forces with the same absolute value: the force, that the water applies to the block and the static friction force. The value of this force is continuously changing due to the movement of the water. As soon as the force from the water reaches the maximal static friction force, the block starts moving. As long as the block is moving, there is still the force from the water, but the counterforce does not have the
same absolute value any more. The counterforce is the sliding friction force and this force is constant. The total force applied to the block is the difference between the force from the water and the dynamic friction force. This force accelerates the block. As the block moves rightwards, the water level is reduced and therefore also the force, that the water applies to the block, is reduced. As soon as the force from the water is less than the sliding friction, the total force is negative and the block is slowing down. At a certain point in time the block stops. Then sliding friction is replaced by static friction. Since the force from the water is less than the maximal static friction, the absolute value of the counterforce produced by static friction equals the force from water. The block stops and remains in its final position.

Such physical systems consist of three different kinds of physical components: fluid particles, fixed rigid bodies and movable rigid bodies (see figure 3). The basin with its floor and its wall on the left hand side are fixed rigid bodies. The block is a movable rigid body. There are attraction and repulsion forces between the fluid particles and between the fluid particles and the rigid bodies. The formulas from Greenspan (Eisenbiegler, 1997) are used to describe these forces. Various different forces could be applied to rigid bodies, such as gravitation forces, forces due to magnetic or electrical fields, static friction, dynamic friction, forces due to springs connected with the rigid body, Coriolis forces and centrifugal forces. Besides, rigid bodies may also collide in an elastic or inelastic manner. Appropriate physical formulas have to be used to describe such physical events.

In this example, there are no collisions. The only movable component is a block. Earth gravitation presses the block to the basin floor and the force from the water particles pushes the block rightwards. There is always friction between the block and the basin floor. As long as the block stands still, there is static friction and as long as the block is in motion, there is sliding friction.
systems are implemented in a modular style, where a physical system is built from components such as point masses, springs, liquids etc. Such components are called physical components. They are defined as Java classes. Each physical component represents a part of a physical system with some physical variables and formulas. Once you have defined such components, you can reuse them in different physical systems. In many cases, building a physical system means just composing physical components: build instances of the classes representing the physical components, assign the variables of the physical components appropriate values and link the physical components together. Example: First create some point masses, springs and pivot points. Then assign appropriate constants to the physical components: initial positions, masses, spring rates. Finally, connect each end of a spring either with a point mass or a pivot point.

Every physical system may have one or more graphics components. Graphics components linked to a physical system are automatically loaded whenever the physical system is loaded. Graphics components are used to visually represent the current state of a physical system. During the physical simulation, the variables of the physical system change their values. A graphical representation is easier to receive than a big number of physical variable values. Therefore, graphics components can be used to visually represent the state of the physical system.

Graphics components are Java classes. For every physical system one can implement a specific graphics component tailored to this specific physical system. The Physolator provides a means for constructing generic graphical components. Generic graphics components are tailored not to a single physical system, but to a variety of physical systems from a certain domain. They are reusable. Whenever you implement a physical system for the specific domain, you can simply use the generic graphics component and you do not have to implement your own graphics component.

4 THE FRB CLASS LIBRARY

The FRB library provides a set of physical components plus some graphics components. Figure 5 shows the program code for the physical system from section 2. Loading this piece of program to the Physolator and starting the simulation results in the
public class SquareFriction extends MRBParticleSystem {
    private final double sigma0 = 50e-5;
    private final double rMax = 5 * sigma0;
    private final Vector2D g = new Vector2D(0, -9.81);
    private Line line = new Line(new Vector2D(0.06, 0), new Vector2D(-0.03, 0));
    public FrictionSquare square = new FrictionSquare(0.00025, 0, 0.03, 0.02, line, 0.6, 0.2);

    public SquareFriction() {
        beginStructure(rMax);
        setParticleSchema(water, sigma0, g);
        setMRBSchema(movableRigid, sigma0, g, square);
        setRBSchema(rigid, sigma0);
        line.schema = actualRBSchema;
        addLine(-0.03, -0.001325, -0.03, 0.03);
        addLine(line);
        addMovableRigidBody(square);
        fillRectangle(-0.02975, 0.00025, 0, 0.015);
        fillCircle(-0.015, 0.035, 0.01);
        endStrukture();
    }

    public void initPlotterDescriptors(PlotterParameters r) {
        r.add("square.acceleration.x, square.velocity.x", 0.4, -1, 2);
        r.add("square.F, square.friction", 0.4, -1e-4, 10e-4);
    }
}

The program code from figure 5 defines a new physical system named SquareFriction. SquareFriction inherits from class MRBParticleSystem. MRBParticleSystem is part of the FRB library. It provides some features and presets that make developing physical systems with fluids and rigid bodies easier. Due to this inheritance relationship, the physical system SquareFriction is automatically equipped with appropriate default values simulation parameters and it is automatically equipped with a generic visualization component tailored to the needs of fluid and rigid body simulations. Figure 1 shows snapshots of this component during the simulation.

The program code from figure 5 defines a physical system by combining physical components and by providing them with the right parameters and settings. Lines 3 and 4 define the core parameters for the particle model: sigma0 is used to specify the particles equilibrium distance and rMax is a constant, that defines a maximal distance. Forces between two particles are neglected, if the distance between the particles is greater than rMax (see section 5 for details). Line 5 defines the earth gravitation acceleration. Lines 6 through 9 define a squared rigid body resting on a horizontal line. First, the horizontal line is defined and then the squared rigid body. Line 9 creates the squared rigid body. The first four parameters define its location, width and height. The fifth parameter is the previously defined horizontal line. The squared rigid body has an internal link to the horizontal line. Parameters six and seven define the friction coefficients for static friction and dry sliding friction, respectively.

The constructor of the class (lines 11 through 27) defines the physical system. The commands that build up the physical system are located between the commands beginStructure and endStructure. Lines 14 through 16 initialize some data structures that are used as containers for fluid bodies and rigid bodies, respectively. See (Eisenbiegler, 2016b) for details. Line 18 defines the standard behaviour of fluids, that are in touch with rigid bodies. Lines 19 through 21 define three rigid bodies: two lines representing the floor and the wall at the left hand side and a squared block. The lines representing the floor and the wall on the left hand side are rigid bodies, that are not movable. The block is a movable rigid body. Lines
23 and 24 define amounts of water. Initially, the basin is filled with a rectangular amount of water and there is a circular amount of water located above the basin.

Lines 30 and 31 define, that there shall be two plots: one plot with the acceleration and the velocity of the block and one plot with the force applied to the block and the actual total friction. For every plot, one has to define the names of the variables that are to be displayed, the range of time and the minimal and maximal values (y range).

To summarize, the program code of figure 5 defines a physical system by creating components from given classes from the FRB library. The program code creates some of these components, provides them with the right parameters and interconnects them. There are no physical formulas in this program code. As a user of the FRB library, you can just combine the components and you do not have to think about the underlying physics. The formulas representing the underlying physics are located inside the physical components of the FRB library.

5 EXAMPLES

The approach presented in the previous section can be used to define different kinds of physical systems. Figures 6 through 9 give some examples. All these simulations have been implemented with the help of the FRB library in the same style as program code in figure 5.

Figure 6 shows a physical system, that is similar to the initial example from the previous section: a basin with a block on one side and a fixed wall on the opposite side. For a certain time, the block is moved from left to right with a constant speed. Then the block is stopped. As a result, the water inside the basin starts moving. A wave moves from left to right. When reaching the fixed wall on the right, the wave is reflected and finally moves leftwards.

Figure 7 shows a ball, that is dropped into a basin of water. As soon as the ball touches the water, the water is pushed sideways and starts moving.

The physical system from figure 8 consists of two basins of water. Due to a small hole in floor of the upper basin, water drops from the upper basin to the lower basin. The water drops falling into the lower basin produce waves. In the lower basin, there is a ball floating on the water. The waves move this ball.

The physical system in figure 9 is similar to the one from figure 7: a ball drops into a basin filled with water. In figure 9, however, there are some barriers. On its way down to the water, the ball hits these barriers several time and rolls on them until it finally plops into the water.
The fluid simulation library from (Eisenbiegler, 2016b) provides a core infrastructure for modelling pieces of fluid using particles. In a particle based fluid simulation, the number of particles is crucial. Theoretically, every particle interacts with every other particle. For sake of simulation speed, a maximum distance $r_{\text{max}}$ is defined. Forces between particles are neglected if their distance is greater than $r_{\text{max}}$. A grid of boxes is used in order to efficiently find particles, that are in the neighbourhood of some particle. The grid spacing is $r_{\text{max}}$. Every box inside this grid is quadratic with the width and height being $r_{\text{max}}$. All particles are assigned to boxes in this grid. A hash map data structure is used to efficiently find the neighbouring boxes. After every movement of the particles, this data structure is computed anew and all particles are assigned to the boxes.

The FRB has been build on top of the fluid simulation library (Eisenbiegler, 2016b). It provides extra data structures for internally representing rigid bodies. To achieve good results as to performance, the algorithm for determining the particle-particle forces has been enhanced using multi-threading. Besides, an algorithm has been implemented for efficiently determining the forces between particles and rigid bodies.

In the fluid simulation library (Eisenbiegler, 2016b), a single threaded approach has been used to determine the forces between the particles. When
working with several threads, one has to make sure, that not more than one thread works with a particle at the same time. To compute the forces for one particle, one has to consider all particles from the same box plus all the particles from the neighbouring boxes. If two work with one particle at the same time (reentrancy), this could lead to false results. Synchronized methods would solve this problem. However, they use locking and locking could produce deadlocks. To synchronize the threads and to avoid deadlocks, a specifically developed synchronization strategy is to be used.

At a certain point in time every thread shall determine the actual forces for all particles of some box. To compute the forces of the particles in one box, the thread also has to work with the particles from the boxes in the direct neighbourhood. When working with one box, no other thread shall work with this box or its neighbours. If two threads are determining the forces for two boxes, there must be at least two boxes between these boxes.

\[ \text{Figure 10: Boxes used to avoid reentrancy.} \]

Figure 10 explains the multi threading and synchronization concept. In this figure, there are several amounts of water. Each amount of water is represented by a set of particles. During simulation, an orthogonal grid of quadratic boxes is used and each particle is assigned to one of the boxes. In Figure 10, one can see vertical columns. Each column represents a vertical sequence of boxes. The width of the columns is \( t_{\text{max}} \). At a point in time, one thread shall compute the forces for all particles of one column plus the forces applied from these particles to the particles that are in the columns next to the actual column. One has to make sure, that at no time there are two threads working with columns with less than two columns in between. Figure 10 shows a snapshot during computation. The grey columns represent columns, where a thread is currently computing the forces.

Threads are synchronized using the wait/notify mechanism from Java to make sure, that at any time there are at least two columns in between two active threads. Figure 11 shows the pattern, that is used for this synchronization. Each number represents one column and each arrow represents a wait-notify-relationship. The thread actually executing the column at the starting point of the arrow has to finish its work, unless the computation of the column, that the arrow points to, cannot be started. A thread at the end point of an arrow has to invoke wait(). It is blocked unless the thread from the starting point of the arrow sends him a notify() signal.

\[ \text{Figure 11: Synchronization.} \]

Rigid bodies are either represented by lines or by circle segments. The algorithm shall compute all forces, that particles apply to rigid bodies, and all forces, that rigid bodies apply to particles. Theoretically, one would have to consider all combinations of rigid bodies and particles. To save computing time, forces shall be neglected if the distance is greater than \( r_{\text{max}} \).

The algorithms used for computing the forces between rigid bodies and particles use the grid of boxes. One has to find all combinations of boxes and rigid bodies, where the box is not more than \( r_{\text{max}} \) apart from the rigid body. More precisely: There is at least one point inside the box, that is not more than \( r_{\text{max}} \) apart from the rigid body. For every such pair of rigid body and box, one has to iterate through all particles and compute the actual distance to the rigid body. If the distance between the particle and the rigid body is not greater than \( r_{\text{max}} \), then the force between this particle and the rigid body is computed and this force is added to the rigid body and to the particle – with opposite signs.

But how to efficiently determine all combinations of boxes and rigid bodies, that are not more than \( r_{\text{max}} \) apart? There are two different approaches, that are to be called algorithm A and algorithm B. Algorithm A iterates through all boxes. For every box, the algorithm determines the distance to all rigid bodies. Algorithm B works the other way round: It iterates through all rigid bodies. For every rigid body, the algorithm walks along the rigid body from the beginning point to the end point of the line and computes the position of the boxes in the neighbourhood of the line. For every such position, it checks, if there is such a box with particles. Determining the position of all box positions is easy for lines. Beginning at the starting point of the line, one simply has to add a small piece of the direction
vector to iterate through all the boxes, that are in the neighbourhood of the line. Things are a little trickier with circle segments. To solve this problem, the algorithm uses the Bresenham algorithm (Bresenham, 1965). This algorithm has initially been invented to draw circular lines using a plotter.

The user of the FRB library can choose between algorithm A and algorithm B. The result is always the same, but the computing efficiency is different. It depends on the physical system, which of them is faster. Algorithm A performs well for a smaller number of particles and boxes and for a reasonable number of rigid bodies. For a big number of particles and a small number of rigid bodies with a small total line length, algorithm B is faster.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

This paper has presented a modular approach towards mixed fluid and rigid body systems. So far, there are still some limitations. First of all, the approach is based on the fluid library presented in (Eisenbiegler, 2016b) and this fluid library is limited to two dimensional simulations. Three dimensional fluid simulations are challenging. It takes far bigger numbers of particles to achieve the same precision with a three dimensional model. This results in a far bigger amount of computing time.

The rigid body physics used in the examples is limited to some physical effects: static friction, dynamic friction, and collision. The library is so far restricted to these effects. More physical effects could be added and should be added.

So far, there has been a focus on optimizing the fluid simulations. The data structures and algorithms are optimized to handle as many fluid particles as possible. However, the FRB library is not yet designed for big numbers of rigid bodies.

REFERENCES

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