Quadratic Contact Energy Model for Multi-impact Simulation

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Figure 1: Our algorithm is able to simulate various scenarios: (a) a Rube Goldberg machine composed of several parts; (b) simulation of wave propagation in Newton’s Cradle; (c) many bunnies and pawns falling on the ground.

Abstract

Simultaneous multi-impact simulation is a challenging problem that frequently arises in physically-based modeling of rigid bodies. There are several physical criteria that should be satisfied for rigid body collision handling, but existing methods generally fail to meet one or more of them. In order to capture the inner process of potential energy variation, which is the physical foundation of collisions in a multi-impact system, we present a novel quadratic contact energy model for rigid body simulation. By constructing quadratic energy functions with respect to the impulses, post-impact reactions of rigid bodies can be computed efficiently. Our model can satisfy the physical criteria and can simulate various natural phenomena including the wave effect. Also, our model can be easily combined with Linear Complementary Problem (LCP) and can provide feasible results with any restitution coefficient. In practice, our model can solve the simultaneous multi-impact problem efficiently and robustly, and we highlight its performance on different benchmarks.

1. Introduction

Modeling multi-body impact is a widely researched problem in rigid body simulation. The collision process generally consists of two stages, contact, compression and decompression, and can hardly be simulated with only a discrete configurations of the bodies. For this reason, impacts between rigid bodies are treated as happening in an instant in many widely-used simulation models. However, with this assumption, determining the sequence of impacts becomes an ill-posed problem. Simultaneity and propagation are two categories of models used when referring to the sequencing problem. Simultaneity models assume all the impacts occur at the same time instance and should be solved simultaneously. Propagation models assume that the impacts happen sequentially and a pairwise propagated method should be applied to resolve them.
In computer graphics, simultaneity and propagation models have different applications, but each of them has some limitations. Smith et al. [SKV*12] discuss the advantages and disadvantages of both type of models and propose five physical desiderata for a correct algorithm for instantaneous impact: Break away (BRK), Symmetry preserved (SYM), Energy bounded (KIN), Momentum conserved (MOM) and One-sided impulses (ONE).

Linear complementary problem (LCP) is one of the most widely used dynamics model. However, it fails to satisfy (BRK), and cannot work for Newton’s Cradle, because post-impact relative velocities are incorrectly computed due to incorrect predictions from pre-impact relative velocities. For example, if the pre-impact relative velocity equals zero, the post-impact relative velocity will remain zero even if a non-zero impulse is applied. This is inconsistent with real-world experiments and therefore, not suitable for multi-impact systems. In order to deal with (BRK), some improvements have been proposed for LCP. Smith et al. [SKV*12] proposed Generalized Reflection (GR), making it possible to simulate breaking away phenomena while preserving the symmetry and bounding the energy.

The effect of breaking away is actually caused by the propagation of a shock wave in the chain of objects, which is the physical basis of collisions in nature [SHB*08]. In order to describe this phenomenon, we propose Wave effect (WAV) as the physical criteria for accurate multi-body simulation.

(WAV) Wave effect. Theoretically, wave effect refers to the propagation of shock waves through contacting bodies at the time of collision. Therefore, the post-impact relative velocity of a contact point should not only be determined by its pre-impact velocity locally, but also influenced by other contact points. This is due to the fact that momentum and energy also propagate along with the wave in a chain of bodies [SHB*08]. If this propagation effect is ignored, the influence of other contact points is being ignored during the computation. As a result, its post-impact relative velocity will be computed relative to the pre-impact velocity and may not be accurate. The (BRK) effect in Newton’s Cradle is a typical case of wave propagation. The wave effects can be observed in physical experiments [Pay08], e.g. colliding balls shown in Fig. 2, where two balls on each side should exchange their velocities after the impact, while the ball in the middle will remain stable.

However, due to the complexity of multiple impacts, analyzing the wave in detail during an impact is either considered expensive or unnecessary in prior approaches. Therefore, the physical rules corresponding to (WAV) cannot be satisfied, and this may result in simulation artifacts.

Contributions: We present a Quadratic Contact Energy (QCE) model for rigid multiple body simulation. Our model satisfies all the above physical desiderata as well as (WAV).

The accurate wave propagation during an impact can be captured by resolving the QCEs. We analyze the contacts and model the potential energy of each contact point with QCE, there making the simulation of rigid objects more accurate. Moreover, the equation of QCE can be solved analytically without either numerical errors or large computational overhead.

2. Related Work

In order to model the law of multiple impacts in rigid body dynamics, various models have been proposed in computer graphics and mechanics [Hab88, Bar89, CR98, Bro99, MC95]. Some of these have been further improved or substituted, e.g. models of the velocity-impulse level replace those of force-acceleration level [AP97]. Each of these models has unique advantages in some simulation scenarios while they fall short in others. None of them are totally robust or produce the correct outcome in all cases. A recent survey of these simulation models is given in [BET14].

Generally, LCP is the most widely used model [Bar89, Bar91, Ste00], and it computes plausible reactions after an impact in most cases. It converts the rigid body dynamics into a linear complementary problem by applying the Signorini Condition. The linear problem can be solved using numerical methods [NE15]. Projected Gauss-Seidel(PGS) is one typical solver [Mur88, Erl04]. PGS can generate feasible results within a few iterations in most cases. Recently, Gauss-Seidel based splitting method has also been used [TBV12]. This method improves the convergence and parallelism.

LCP itself has various formulations [WLN*13]. When used in computer graphics, the typical LCP formulation has some limitations. For example in Newton’s Cradle, the phenomenon of breaking away is expected. However LCP will generate an unreal sticking result [Bar89, SKV*12]. This is caused by its intrinsic formulation. To solve this problem, Smith et al. [SKV*12] proposed the Generalized Reflection (GR), which combines LCP with propagation ap-
3. Potential Energy Analysis and Modeling

The wave effect is widely observed and studied in engineering mechanics. In order to analyze its propagation over a very short time duration, a collision is treated as a process, instead of as an instant event. This is somewhat similar to the quasi-rigid objects simulation in [PPG04]. Under the effect of local deformation, a body’s velocity varies over the time duration. Through the variation of the velocity, shock waves propagate through the bodies. Therefore the wave effect can be easily simulated by analyzing the velocity variations of bodies. Our formulation is inspired by these observations.

Deformable objects undergo significant deformation during the collision. Therefore Finite Element Method (FEM) or other methods are used to analyze the shape of deformation. Once the elastic modulus becomes infinite, a deformable body turns into a rigid body and the local deformation becomes infinitely small. In this case, the deformation cannot be simulated directly by FEM. Therefore, in order to analyze the process during the contact of rigid bodies, the micro-deformation is simulated indirectly based on its potential energy, instead of analyzing its shape.

In terms of positive or negative relative velocity, the collision process can be decomposed into two phases: the compression phase and the expansion phase. Local deformation, which contains potential energy and provides contact force, exists in both the phases. The potential energy of a contact point has positive correlation to the local deformation. Starting from zero, the potential energy increases during the compression phase and decreases during the expansion phase. Returning to zero indicates the end of contact at this point. Therefore, we use the potential energy of each contact point as the key to model a multi-impact system.

Considering a system having $n$ rigid bodies with generalized position coordinates $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^{6n}$ and the mass matrix $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{6n \times 6n}$. Let us assume that in this system $m$ contact points are detected. For an arbitrary contact point $i$, the potential energy of this point $E_i$ can be represented by the negative work done by contact force $\mathbf{f}_i$ and its relative velocity $\mathbf{v}_i$

$$E_i = -\int_0^T \mathbf{f}_i(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}_i(t) dt. \quad (1)$$

We adjust the expression of $E_i$ using impulse $\mathbf{P}_i$ as the independent variable instead of time $T$. $\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the vector of normal impulses. $\mathbf{P}_i$ represents the magnitude of the impulse in contact point $i$, therefore $d\mathbf{P}_i = \mathbf{f}_i dt$. On the other hand, with the Jacobian matrix $\mathbf{J} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 6n}$ of contact constraints and the generalized velocity $\dot{\mathbf{q}} \in \mathbb{R}^{6n}$, the relative velocity of contact point $i$ can be represented as $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{J} \dot{\mathbf{q}}$. $\mathbf{J}_i$ is the $i$-th row of matrix $\mathbf{J}$. With the new form of $d\mathbf{P}_i$ and $\mathbf{v}_i$, the potential energy $E_i$ can be transformed into

$$E_i = -\int_0^{\mathbf{P}_i} \mathbf{J}_i \dot{\mathbf{q}} d\mathbf{P}_i. \quad (2)$$

In this way we are able to analyze the variation of potential energy while bypassing the dependence on time as a variable. Here $\mathbf{P}_i$ is the normal impulse of point $i$ and it increases during the contact process. The potential energy $E_i$ will restore to zero at the end of contact. Therefore we seek a set of $\mathbf{P}_i$ such that our potential energy is zero once the collision is resolved. Resolving the impulse vector $\mathbf{P}$ that makes all elements in the potential energy vector $\mathbf{E}$ return to zero is the key to the multi-impact system

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{P}) = 0. \quad (3)$$

3.1. Quadratic Contact Energy Model

To solve the potential energy equation, we use the Quadratic Contact Energy Model. In what follows we derive our model beginning with Eq. 2. The generalized velocity $\mathbf{q}$ can be divided into two parts: the initial generalized velocity $\mathbf{q}_0$ and the increment caused by the contact impulse $\mathbf{P}$.

$$\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}_0 + \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{P}. \quad (4)$$

Then the potential energy at contact point $i$ can be expressed as:

$$E_i = -\int_0^{\mathbf{P}_i} \mathbf{J}_i \dot{\mathbf{q}} d\mathbf{P}_i + \mathbf{J}_i \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}_i^T \mathbf{P}_i. \quad (5)$$

In Eq. 5, all variables except $\mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{P}_i$ are constant during the contact process. This potential energy will experience a loading-to-unloading cycle and the normal impulse $\mathbf{P}_i$, which makes the energy return to zero. We would like to solve this precisely. In order to compute the integration, the relationship between each element in $\mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{P}_i$ is necessary.

Liu et al. [LZB08] started from the force-indentation equation in contact mechanics and discovered a distribution rule for the normal impulses. They found that the ratio of $\frac{d \mathbf{P}_i}{d \mathbf{P}}$...
can be expressed as the function of $E_{ji}$, which is the ratio of potential energies between contact points $j$ and $i$.

$$\frac{dP_j}{dP_i} = \gamma_{ji}^{1/(\eta+1)} (E_{ji}(P_j, P_i))^{\eta/(\eta+1)}, \quad (6)$$

where $\gamma_{ji} = k_j/k_i$, $k_j$ and $k_i$ represent the contact stiffness of the $j$-th and $i$-th contact point respectively, $\eta$ indicates the kind of contact ($\eta = 3/2$ for a Hertz contact while $\eta = 1$ in a linear spring model).

With this distribution law, the integration $\int_0^{P_i} P_j/P_i$ can be performed. Therefore Eq. 5 can be resolved implicitly in the following manner:

$$E_i(P, E) = 0. \quad (7)$$

However, resolving this equation directly with Eq. 6 can be time-consuming. This is an implicit equation with a complex expression. Therefore, it cannot be solved easily. In particular, we are interested in an efficient solution. In order to solve Eq. 5 in a reasonable time, we need to find a fast way to compute the relationship between each element in $P$ and $P_i$.

There are prior works in mechanics on this ratio, called the impulse correlation ratio (ICR) [CH01, AB03], which is generally approximated as a constant. It is described as the ratio of impulse

$$ICR(i) = \frac{P_i}{P_{i+1}}. \quad (8)$$

The ICRs depend only on natural modes of the system and the pre-impact velocities [AB03], ICR makes solving of Eq. 5 easier, as it represents the ratio as a constant. In order to apply ICR to the energy equation, we extend ICR and assume the ratio of $r_{ji} = dP_j/dP_i$ is a constant. $r_{ji}$ is the ratio of pre-impact velocities, similar to ICR. That makes the relationship between each element of $P$ and $P_i$ obvious. This relationship can be written as a ratio vector $\mathbf{R}'$, which is defined as:

$$\mathbf{R}' = \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} \\ r_{21} \\ \vdots \\ r_{mi} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dP_1}{dP_i} \\ \frac{dP_2}{dP_i} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{dP_m}{dP_i} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_1/P_i \\ P_2/P_i \\ \vdots \\ P_m/P_i \end{pmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

The ratio of pre-impact velocities affects the process of impact. Intuitively, a contact point with higher pre-impact velocity will generate higher reaction force, which makes the variation of impulse $dP_i$ higher than that of other contact points. This phenomena is verified in [KS87]. Therefore, in addition to the theoretical support of ICR, using the ratio of pre-impact velocities to estimate the relationship between each element in $P$ and $P_i$ is reasonable.

With vector $\mathbf{R}'$, $E_i$ in Eq. 5 can be transformed into a simpler form:

$$E_i = -(J_0 q_i P_i + J M^{-1} J^T \int_0^{P_i} P_j R' dP_j)$$

$$= -(J_0 q_i P_i + J M^{-1} J^T \int_0^{P_i} P_j dP_j) \quad (10)$$

$R'$ is only related with the pre-impact velocity and is constant during the contact process. Therefore it can be pulled out of the integral in Eq. 10. The potential energy of contact point $i$ is now a quadratic function of $P_i$. Figuring out the $P_i$ that makes $E_i$ restore to zero is not expressed as a solution of the differential equation, solving problem any more. Rather it reduces to solving a quadratic equation. It can be solved analytically and is quite cheap. By solving Eq. 10, the contact impulses are acquired and the rigid body dynamics can be resolved.

### 3.2. Multiple Compression

In some complex situations, contact points may experience multiple compression-expansion phases. For example, a contact point may be re-compressed after a contact cycle when it receives the shock wave propagated from other bodies, which is common in the micro process of multi-body collision. It may cause problems for QCE. In Eq. 10, the vector $\mathbf{R}$ is determined by the ratio of pre-impact velocities. Therefore, the corresponding element in $\mathbf{R}$ will be out of date for those contact points that just begin their re-compression phases. This is because the corresponding ratio is calculated for those contact points that just begin their re-compression. Therefore the new velocity ratio, either zero or infinite, is not correct.

To overcome this problem, we use an iterative solution to separate multiple compression-expansion phases. In each iteration, a contact point can only experience one compression-expansion phase. If the relative velocity of this point becomes negative once again, the violation should be temporarily ignored and be delayed to the next iteration. This means that the problem caused by zero velocity at the beginning of the re-compression phase can be avoided. The iterations will be terminated when no more violations exist and the total impulses can be computed by simply adding the results from each iteration together. Let $\lambda^s \in \mathbb{R}^m$ denote the total impulse and $\lambda^s \in \mathbb{R}^m$ denote the result from the $s$-th iteration.

$$\lambda_i = \sum_{s=1}^{num} \lambda^s \quad (11)$$

where $num$ is the iteration count.

If a contact point, e.g. the $j$-th point, still has potential energy, it will keep applying force to each body. After an
expansion phase, the potential energy will restore to zero
and no force will persist at this point. The vanishing of such
force has influence on neighbor contact points because if dPj
drops to zero, the j-th element of R' should change from a
non-zero constant rji to zero (Eq. 9). Therefore, after solving
the impulse Pj of contact point j, all the points belonging to
the same bodies as j should reconstruct their energy equa-
tions.

Fig. 3 shows the flowchart that QCE works, corresponding
to the pseudo code in Alg. 1. A QCE step consists of multiple
iterations which represent multiple compression. The termi-
nation check module, which will return true only if no vio-
lation is detected, determines whether to terminate the iter-
ation or not. During each iteration, all of the energy equations
are initialized. Three steps, shown in the dotted lines, are re-
peated until the solution list is empty. This can resolve the
multiple compression-expansion process. Within each loop,
the minimal solution is selected first and the corresponding
impulse is recorded. Then the energy equations of neighbor
contact points are updated and the solutions are recalculated
as discussed above. After all solutions are selected, the loop
in the dotted lines will be terminated within one simulation
time step. Finally, the impulses are applied in order to up-
date the generalized velocity. This process is repeated until
no violations are detected.

3.3. Solver of Quadratic Contact Energy Model

According to Eq. 10, which describes the potential energy of
every contact point, we rewrite Eq. 3 as:

\[ E(P) = A \circ P \circ P + B \circ P + C = 0. \]  
(12)

Vectors A, B and C correspond to the coefficients of
quadratic equations. \( \circ \) is the Hadamard product (also known
as the entrywise product), which multiplies corresponding
elements of two matrices or two vectors with the same
dimension. Computing A, B and C from Eq. 10 directly can
be difficult. According to Eq. 9, the vector R' is different for
each contact point. Notice that because the pre-impact ve-
locity of a given contact point has the possibility of being
zero, this may result in a exceptional value to the ratio rji
when the denominator term corresponds to zero pre-impact
velocity. In order to solve this problem, we use the vector
F instead of R' for all the contact points. F is the vector of
pre-impact velocities and the j-th element of R' is Fj/Fj.
F = FjRj for any contact point j. We then multiply Fj, which
is non-zero, to both sides of Eq. 9,

\[ F_j E_j = J_j q_j F_j P_j + 1/2 J_j M^{-1} J_j^T F_j P_j^2. \]  
(13)

This multiplication does not change the result. However, it
enables A, B and C to be expressed in a simpler way as

\[ F_j E_j = A_j F_j^2 + B_j P_j + C_j. \]  
(14)

The initial values of A, B and C can be expressed as:

\[ A = 1/2 J_j M^{-1} J_j^T F \]
\[ B = F \circ J_j q_0 \]
\[ C = 0. \]  
(15)

and the energy equation becomes

\[ F \circ E(P) = 0. \]  
(16)

During the multi-contact process, interactions between
different contact points start concurrently but may termi-
nate individually. As discussed in Section 3.2, once a point
ends its contact, the energy equations of all neighbor con-
tact points need to be recomputed. Therefore, the sequence
of contact terminations is important for the final result. As
the time variable is eliminated in Eq. 2, we have to search
for a substitute to compute the sequence of terminations.
For any contact point i with non-zero pre-impact velocity,
let \( P = P_i R_i \) according to Eq. 9 and \( F_i R_i = F \), therefore,

\[ P = (P_i/F_i) F. \]  
(17)

where \( F_i \) is fixed and \( P_i \) increases during the contact. This
steadily increasing variable \( P_i/F_i \) is the ‘time-like’ independent
variable that we want and we use variable s to express it as:

\[ P = s F. \]  
(18)

For any contact point k, it has a corresponding impulse \( P_k \)
making its potential energy return to zero. There exists a cer-
tain \( s_k \) corresponding to the time of termination. The smaller
\( s_k \) is, the earlier the contact process is finished. All the \( s_k \)’s
can be computed by solving Eq. 14 at the beginning. The
algorithm repeatedly selects the smallest from them, then
terminates its impact process, and recomputes the energy
equations of neighboring contact points. The reconstruc-
tion is shown in Alg. 1, on line 20 - 26. Notice that the
quadratic equation in our algorithm has two roots \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \),
\( r_1 \leq s_k \leq r_2 \). Only the larger root \( r_2 \) is chosen because \( s \)
which represents the contact process never decreases.

Figure 3: Flowchart of the QCE steps.
According to Alg. 1, selecting the smallest element from a \(m\)-dimension vector \(S\) has complexity of \(O(m)\) (line 14). However, this is expensive as this step is performed \(m\) times during each iteration. To speedup the algorithm, we use a min-heap, instead of a vector, as the underlying data structure for \(S\). Building a min-heap has the complexity \(O(m \log m)\), while popping the smallest element from the heap takes \(O(\log m)\) time, including \(O(1)\) for getting the element from the top of heap and \(O(\log m)\) for filtering down. The average number of neighboring contact points within the same object can be considered as a constant and has no relationship with \(m\); therefore, the reconstruction of equations after the selection takes \(O(1)\) time. The most time-consuming step during each iteration is the construction of min-heap, which takes \(O(m \log m)\). Overall, the complexity of one iteration is \(O(m \log m)\).

4. Restitution and Friction

Restitution is modeled from the change of potential energy with Stronge’s hypothesis in [Mir96]. Since analyzing the potential energy for each contact point in QCE is quite intuitive and effective, it is fine to couple Stronge’s hypothesis with QCE to simulate restitution. However, simple combinations may result in inelastic collapse. With an iterative strategy similar to GR, the count of iteration increases rapidly when the coefficient of restitution becomes small.

Fortunately, our QCE model can also be embedded into LCP to simulate a scenario with restitution and friction. Generally, resolving the LCP requires the prediction of post-impact velocity. The negative value of pre-impact velocity \(\dot{q}_0\) is adopted in LCP. This inaccurate prediction is the main reason for LCP’s violation in [BRK] [SKV12]. QCE can overcome this problem because the reliable post-impact velocity \(\dot{q}_e^*\) is available. \(\dot{q}_e^*\) can be used as the prediction of post-impact velocity instead of \(-\dot{q}_0\). Therefore, the QCE-LCP equation has the form of

\[
0 \leq \lambda \perp JM^{-1}J^T \lambda + Jq_0 \geq c_r J\dot{q}_e^*,
\]

where \(\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m\) is the vector of normal impulses’ magnitudes and \(c_r\) represents the coefficient of restitution. QCE-LCP degenerates to standard LCP when \(c_r = 0\), i.e., it generates the same result as standard LCP in purely inelastic multi-impact cases. QCE-LCP will generate the same result as QCE when \(c_r = 1\). Otherwise, in the case of \(0 < c_r < 1\), QCE-LCP is a mix of standard LCP and QCE. In this way, the restitution problem can be nicely solved.

In order to resolve friction, boxed LCP (BLCP) [TBV12, ST96] can be used. A boxed LCP, \(x = BLCP(A, b, l, h)\), is defined as

\[
\text{find } x \in \mathbb{R}^w \text{ such that, for all } i = 1 \ldots m,
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
    x_i &= l_i \text{ and } (Ax + b)_i \geq 0 \text{ or } \\
    x_i &= h_i \text{ and } (Ax + b)_i \leq 0 \text{ or } \\
    l_i &< x_i < h_i \text{ and } (Ax + b)_i = 0
\end{align*}
\]

(20)

The coupling of normal contact impulses \(\lambda\) and friction impulses \(\lambda_f\) can be expressed by the following formulation:

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda &= \text{QCE-LCP}(JM^{-1}J^T, Jq_0 + JM^{-1}D^T \lambda_f) \\
\lambda_f &= \text{BLCP}(DM^{-1}D^T, Dq_0 + DM^{-1}J^T \lambda, -\text{diag}(\mu)\lambda, \text{diag}(\mu)\lambda_f)
\end{align*}
\]

(21)

\(\text{diag}(\mu)\lambda\)
The ball typical three-ball chain is shown in Fig. 2. At the beginning, the six physical desiderata while previous models fail in one or more of them. Table 1: Multi-impact feature chart. Our model satisfies all the six physical desiderata while previous models fail in one or more of them. 5.1. Three-ball Chain

Three-ball chain is an ideal scenario to examine (WAV). A typical three-ball chain is shown in Fig. 2. At the beginning, the ball B rests in the middle while the other balls, A and C, have different approaching velocities. According to [Pay08], A and C should change their velocities while B remains still.

To quantitatively analyze the post-impact velocities, we set C’s velocity to a constant \( v_0 \) while A’s velocity is given by the independent variable \( v_a \). Then the post-impact velocities \( v_a^+ \), \( v_b^+ \), and \( v_c^+ \) are all determined by the value \( v_a^- \). All velocities are normalized by \( v_0 \) as shown in Fig. 4.

When \( v_a^- = 0 \), QCE matches the theoretical expectation. With this value of \( v_a^- \), the test case is Newton’s Cradle, in which LCP fails to satisfy (BRK). Smith et al. [SKV+12] solve this problem by introducing GR, making the result correct at \( v_a^- = 0 \). However, there is no difference between GR and LCP when \( v_a^- \) doesn’t equal zero. When two contact points both have negative relative velocities, the violator subset used in GR is the same as the active set in LCP. As a result, GR and LCP generate the same results. In Fig. 4, it means GR’s curves totally match LCP’s except at \( v_a^- = 0 \). For this reason, GR’s results are not rendered individually.

When \( v_a^- = v_0 \), both QCE and LCP generate the correct result. This is caused by the constraint of symmetry preservation. When A and C have the same approaching velocity, the test case is symmetric and should remain symmetric after collision. Clearly, both models satisfy (SYM).

As for other values of \( v_a^- \), there is no correlation between LCP’s outcome and the theoretical expectation. This is caused by the inaccurate prediction of post-impact velocity [SKV+12]. In contrast, our model is closer to the expectation. This is obvious when observing the velocities of post-impact \( v_a^+ \), \( v_b^+ \) and \( v_c^+ \) of the balls in Fig. 4. Since the ICR used in QCE is an approximation for wave propagation, QCE doesn’t completely match the ideal curve as a result. Actually, if we use Eq. 6, without the ICR approximation, the equation used to represent the potential energy will be precise enough to obtain the exact answers. It is a trade-off between precision and time complexity. In any case, the velocity curve of QCE matches the theoretical formulation for all values and demonstrates that QCE is more accurate than both GR and LCP.

5.2. Identical Objects

![Figure 5: Pool Break of billiards. A rack of billiard balls is hit by a moving one. The results of (b) QCE and (d) GR are highly similar to each other. Both models generate clean pool breaks with symmetric patterns. (c) and (d) are extracted from the video of [Smith et al. 2012]](image)

Given their simplicity, identical spheres are ideal simulation objects to test the accuracy of a contact model. The theoretical result of a collision can be easily computed.

We first use the Pool Break scenario to exhibit the clean and symmetric pattern. A billiard ball is fired along the axis of symmetry towards a rack of 15 billiard balls at rest. The billiard balls are initially symmetric, thus requiring the symmetry to be strictly preserved after impact. At the instant of contact, the shock wave propagates in the rack of billiard
Figure 4: The accuracy comparisons when simulating the case corresponding to Fig. 2 using different models. We set the pre-impact velocity of C to be constant \( v_C^0 \), \( v_b^- = 0 \), while the velocity of A is the independent variable \( v_a^- \). The ordinate axis represents the post-impact velocity of ball A \( v_A^+ \), B \( v_b^- \) and C \( v_C^- \) respectively. The unit of velocity is m/s.

Figure 6: 3D Newton’s Cradle. (a) Stationary balls in a line are hit by other moving balls; (b) the phenomenon of breaking away is generated.

Figure 7: Symmetry preservation test. (a) Four balls are placed in a circle. (b) After long-term simulation, the trajectories of balls are still symmetric.

balls from left to right. GR is the first model capable of simulating the breaking-away effect while preserving the symmetry. The pattern of billiard balls after impact is clean and symmetric. This pattern could not be achieved by either LCP or pair-wise approaches like Gauss-Siedel or Jacobi. We apply QCE to the Pool Break and successfully get a nice pattern. We compare the results of QCE and GR in Fig. 5 and find high similarity between them. As with GR, our model generates clean pool breaks with symmetric patterns.

Newton’s Cradle is another ideal scenario to demonstrate the importance of (WAV). It would not be possible to simulate many phenomena without accounting for wave propagation. Initially contacting spheres cannot break away during simulation. In fact, shock waves together with momentum and energy propagate in the spheres at the instant of impact. This micro-process, which is ignored by current models, is the base of our model. As a result, the simulation result of our model for Newton’s Cradle is highly comparable to reality.

In order to validate QCE’s capability of (SYM), we duplicate the four-ball experiment in [SKV*12]. As shown in Fig. 7, four balls are placed in a circle and the initial velocities are symmetric. In this example QCE preserves symmetry well during the long-term simulation. This can be easily observed from the trajectory of balls in Fig. 7.b.

5.3. Granular Objects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Iteration</th>
<th>Time cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>avg</td>
<td>max</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Square</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strip</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hex</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Convergence and performance statistics for extended patterns. We report the max, min and average number of iteration for the QCE step. We also report the total time (in seconds) spent in contact resolving (including QCE and BLCP step). All the examples are simulated with a fixed timestep of 0.0002s. Timings are recorded with a single thread on a 3.00GHz Intel Core i5-2320.

Wave propagation is commonly observed in granular simulation. The experiment in [JNB96] shows a nice wave pattern of granular objects after a single shock. Therefore we duplicate this experiment wherein 4,000 granules fall into a container. After the pile comes to rest, each granule is colored by its depth as displayed in Fig. 8.a. These horizontal stripes are composed of grains with the same depth and function as labels of layers. Then a single vertical shake of the
Figure 8: Shock wave pattern. (a) Stationary granular objects in a container are labeled by their depths. (b) After a single shake, the pattern of wave propagation can be clearly observed. We compare the pattern (c) to the experiment result (d) from [Jaeger et al. 1996] and find high similarity between them. $c_r = 0.3$ and $\mu = 0.2$ in this experiment.

Figure 9: The extended patterns. (a) The height map of vibrating granules. (b) After rendering the pattern is very clear. All parameter settings are the same with [BSS\textsuperscript{*}98].

container is carried out and shock waves propagate from bottom to top. In Fig. 8.b the pattern of wave can be clearly observed. This pattern matches well with the experiment result of [JNB96] in Fig. 8.d. Therefore the ability of QCE to satisfy (WAV) is further proved. Through generating the same wave pattern with experimental results, we demonstrate that our model is reliable.

As mentioned in [SKV\textsuperscript{*}12], the extended patterns of massive granules on a vibrating floor are ideal computational benchmarks to examine both validation and efficiency. In order to generate the extended patterns, accurate resolution of multi-impacts with high velocity is required. The scaling and performance are also examined in such a large scene. In order to validate our model and examine the performance, we duplicate the experiment of extended patterns in [BSS\textsuperscript{*}98] where 60,000 granules fall on a vibrating floor. With different amplitudes and frequencies, three patterns are generated and correspond to the experimental results in [BSS\textsuperscript{*}98]: squares at $(f^* = 0.27, \Gamma = 3.00)$, stripes at $(f^* = 0.44, \Gamma = 3.00)$ and hexagons at $(f^* = 0.38, \Gamma = 4.00)$. This experiment further proves that the results from our model are plausible.

The convergence and performance statistics of extended patterns are reported in Table 2. The iteration step in QCE converges in all the examples. Benefitting from the quadratic form of contact energy, our model improves the performance significantly while maintaining the accuracy. The average time cost for frictional contact resolution in Hex is 0.25s. With the same parameters, GR spends 6.1s on an average according to [SKV\textsuperscript{*}12].

5.4. Complex Scenarios

Figure 10: (a) Bunnies fall onto the ground and are hit by falling pawns. (b) After energy dissipation during the collapse, these bunnies and pawns rest on the floor in a pile. $c_r = 0.2$ and $\mu = 0.2$ in this experiment.

So far, the experiments designed above are frictionless for simplicity. In fact, friction is significant in rigid body simulation. To examine the behavior of QCE-LCP under frictional conditions, we build a Card House composed of 24 thin plates. Card house is a delicate structure, which is stable only with precise resolution of normal impulses, tangential impulses and their coupling. We find that by using our model, the card house remains still, indicating the high accuracy of contact impulse resolving. Moreover, after being hit with two balls, the card house collapses and these thin plates collide with each other during the course of collapse. At last, all the plates rest on the floor in a pile with all kinetic energy dissipated by friction. Both static friction and dynamic friction are well simulated in the accompanying video.

In order to examine the generality, we design a more complex case called Rube Goldberg machine. It includes several typical parts mentioned above, e.g., Newton’s Cradle, Card House, and Pool Break. Tracks are used as the chains to link each part of the Rube Goldberg machine. Notice that this
scenario is simulated as a whole rather than joining several individual parts together. The whole process is well-designed and even a small error can break the chain of reactions. A rigid ball first rolls down a spiral track and hits three other balls resting on a straight track. As in Newton’s Cradle, the last one of the three balls flies out of the track and hits a card house, causing it to collapse. One piece of thin plate hits the domino when falling down causing the dominos to fall one by one. The last domino falls off of the table and drops on one side of a seesaw. On the other side, a resting ball is triggered by the seesaw and drops on an oblique track, speeding up towards a rack of ten billiard balls. After a clean pool break, one billiard ball in the corner drops on another spiral track, rolls down and finally knocks down several pillars in a row. Our model successfully simulates this Rube Goldberg machine with all parts working as expected. The whole process can be seen in the video.

Our method has high robustness for not only identical objects, but also for models represented using complex meshes. To demonstrate this, we simulate 144 bunnies falling onto the ground and then being hit by 16 pawns. The figure and accompanying video show that our approach behaves well during these tests and no crash or exception appears.

According to section 3.1, QCE is based on the variation of contact energy. Therefore, QCE should be capable of preserving the kinetic energy, satisfying (KIN). In order to examine this, we analyze the total kinetic energy before and after the QCE step. Given the pre-QCE energy $E^-$ and post-QCE energy $E^+$, we use $e$ to measure the error ratio, where $e = |E^- - E^+|/E^-$. In the scenario of falling bunnies and pawns, the average $e$ is 0.000243. This proves that QCE can preserve the kinetic energy well. Therefore, (KIN) can be satisfied.

5.5. Robustness

Numeric error and its accumulation may occur during the simulation. The robustness of simulation can be examined by these problems. For example, in the Newton’s Cradle the relative velocity of the contact points are generally considered as zero. However, in most cases the relative velocities are not strictly equal to zero due to the numeric error accumulation after long time steps. As shown in Fig. 12, we examine the robustness of QCE and GR using the Newton’s Cradle with disturbance to simulate the numeric error. All the balls are initially in contact. The ball on the leftmost has an initial velocity while others are still. At the instant of impact, we add random disturbance to the relative velocities of all contact points. The value of disturbance is much less than the impact velocity.

In theory, this disturbance should have little effect on the result. It should obey the rule that as the disturbance becomes infinitely small, its influence would also become infinitely small. It can be easily verified with the Hertz contact model. In Fig. 4, when $v_n^0$ is close to zero, the pre-impact velocity between ball A and B can be considered as the disturbance. It’s obvious that both the ideal result and the Hertz model show continuity of results. They are hardly influenced by the disturbance. GR is very sensitive and shows discontinuity in its results. It generates many results with varying disturbance, but none of them confirms the expected break-away effect. On the contrary, QCE demonstrates improved robustness and is more accurate than GR. It can simulate break-away effects, irrespective of whatever disturbance is added. QCE is based on the potential energy analysis of each contact point, therefore the added disturbance has no influence on the results for QCE.

6. Limitations and Future Work

We propose a novel contact model for multi-impact simulation. Inspired by engineering mechanics, we model the potential energy of each contact point and analyze its change during the contact process. The quadratic contact energy model, which can be resolved analytically without numerical error, generates feasible results that satisfy all the six physical desiderata, including WAV. By embedding the quadratic contact energy model with standard LCP, we propose QCE-LCP, which is able to simulate the effect of restitution and friction. QCE-LCP inherits advantages from both models and we have highlighted its performance for many complex scenarios.

In order to model restitution and friction, we combine QCE with LCP. This is because using the Stronge’s Hypoth-
Figure 12: (a) The Newton’s Cradle with random disturbance in order to examine the robustness. (b) Comparison between the results of QCE and GR. GR generates different results with different disturbance.

esis, similar to [Mir96], causes inelastic collapse. This is not a useful computation because the varying process of potential energy has already been analyzed in QCE. If the problem of inelastic collapse can be solved, restitution can be modeled more precisely. Intuitively the effect caused by different materials of objects can also be modeled through potential energy. This is a good topic for future work.

In our model we use an iterative strategy. While our approach matches the results with real-world behaviors and simulations, we don’t have a rigorous proof related to its termination. The iteration converges for all examples that we have tested so far. But it’s hard to prove the convergence mathematically. Moreover, if we can provide rigorous guarantees on its termination and convergence, that can also be used to improve the iteration count and accelerate the computation.

For a single iteration, the computational complexity is \(O(m\log(m))\), where \(m\) is the number of contact points. This makes QCE slower than LCP with a PGS solver. We don’t know whether \(O(m\log(m))\) is the lower bound for our model. The main reason that this results in such complexity is the repeated computation and selection of the smallest value in a vector using the min-heap. If this selection can be somehow skipped or replaced by a faster operation, it can accelerate our computation. Finally, we would like to further evaluate its performance on complex real-world simulation scenarios.

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References


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Appendix

Lemma. \( \lambda_c \) is a feasible solution to the QCE-LCP equation in purely elastic collision.

Proof. \( \lambda_c \) is the sum of \( \lambda^i \) according to Eq. 11 and each element in \( \lambda^i \) is less than zero, thus \( 0 \leq \lambda_c \). After the impulse \( \lambda_c \) is adopted, the post-impact velocity is represented as \( M^{-1}J^T\lambda_c + q_0 \), which is actually \( q^+ \), as the following:

\[
\text{JM}^{-1}J^T\lambda_c + q_0 = Jq^+.  \tag{22}
\]

Therefore \( \lambda_c \) is a feasible solution to the QCE-LCP equation.

\[
\Box
\]

Theorem. Energy is bounded for QCE-LCP. 

Proof. For the standard LCP with \( c_0 = 0 \) and QCE with \( c_1 = 1 \), two equations can be acquired respectively,

\[
0 \leq \lambda_l - \text{JM}^{-1}J^T\lambda_l + q_0 \geq 0 \tag{23}
\]

\[
0 \leq \lambda_c - \text{JM}^{-1}J^T\lambda_c + q_0 \geq 0. \tag{24}
\]

This proves the \( c_1 \) is the solution to QCE-LCP. Let \( q^+ \) be the velocity after adopting \( \lambda_c \).

\[
M^{-1}J^T\lambda_c + q_0 = q^+. \tag{25}
\]

For \( c_0 \) and \( \lambda_c \), \( q^+ \) and \( q^0 \) are velocities after adopting the two impulses respectively,

\[
M^{-1}J^T\lambda_c + q^0 = q^+. \tag{26}
\]

Again, multiple 1 \( c_1 \) to the first equation and 1 \( c_1 \) to the second then add them together,

\[
M^{-1}J^T\lambda_c + q_0 = (1 - c_1)q^0 + c_1q^+. \tag{27}
\]

Therefore, \( q^+ = (1 - c_1)q^0 + c_1q^+ \). The kinetic energy \( K \) of QCE can be calculated as

\[
K = q^T M q^+.
\]

\[
= ((1 - c_1)q^0 + c_1q^+)^T M ((1 - c_1)q^0 + c_1q^+)
\]

\[
= (1 - c_1)^2 q^0 M q^0 + c_1^2 q^+ M q^+. \tag{28}
\]

\[
+ 2c_1(1 - c_1)q^0 M q^+
\]

\[
\leq (1 - c_1)^2 q^0 M q^0 + c_1^2 q^+ M q^+
\]

\[
+ c_1(1 - c_1)(q^0 M q^0 + q^+ M q^+).
\]

It’s the proof that the kinetic energy of QCE-LCP is bounded.

\[
\Box
\]