

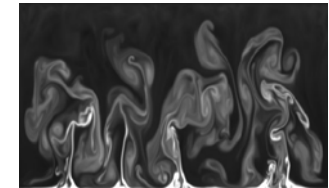
Liquids animations



Utilization of fluid mechanics to create realistic animations of dynamic liquids and gases scenes

Liquids animations

- ⌘ Gas behavior is described quite similarly to liquids and therefore our discussion applies to both.
- ⌘ Animations of smokes and liquids are not easy to create using standard modeling software.



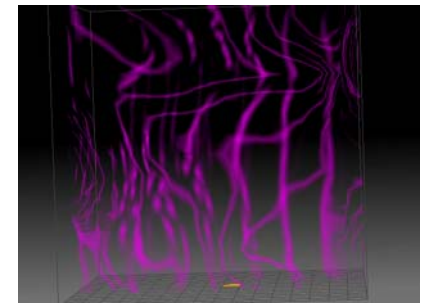
Liquids animations

- ⌘ Using mathematical simulation of Newtonian mechanics applied for fluids (gases), we can achieve realistic dynamic animations of such materials.
- ⌘ It is almost impossible to model such shapes with elementary geometric entities. (specially when creating dynamic scenes).
- ⌘ Objects such as clouds:



Liquids animations

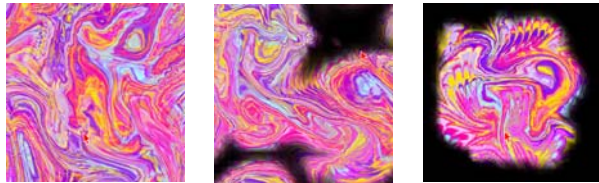
- ⌘ Different kinds of smoke (gases):



Liquids animations

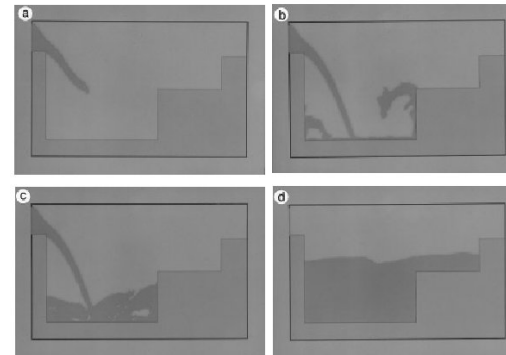


⌘ Different colored fluids mixed together:



Liquids animations

⌘ Simulations of water colors and splashing water:



Topics discussed next

- ⌘ Derivation of the mathematical model describing the fluids mechanics.
- ⌘ Numerical methods for solution.
- ⌘ (Computer Graphics aspects.)

Mathematical Model

- ⌘ First, we begin with the model of an *ideal fluid* - a fluid who's motion satisfies the conservation laws of mass, momentum and energy.
- ⌘ Next, we add the viscous effect which arise from the molecular transport of momentum.
- ⌘ Finally, we'll end up with the **Navier-Stokes** equations for incompressible flow, by adding this property to the fluid.

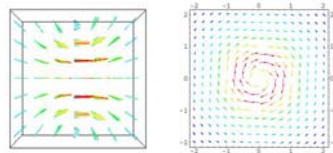
Definitions

- ⌘ A real differential function defined over some subset of the Real space (plane) will be called a *Scalar Field*

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathfrak{R} \quad D \subseteq \mathfrak{R}^{2,3}$$

- ⌘ A vector differential function defined over some subset of the Real space (plane) will be called a *Vector Field*

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{2,3} \quad D \subseteq \mathfrak{R}^{2,3}$$



Definitions

- ⌘ Some essential functions used in our model:

Let $\vec{x} = (x, y, z)$ denote a point in the three dimensional space,

Let $\underline{u} : (\vec{x}, t) \rightarrow (u_x, u_y, u_z)$ denote the velocity of the particle of fluid moving through \vec{x} at time t and call it the velocity field of the fluid,

Let $\rho : (\vec{x}, t) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ denote the fluid's mass density at point \vec{x} in space and at time t .

Definitions

- ⌘ We denote the Del partial derivatives operator by Nabla:

$$\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right)$$

- ⌘ Notice that:

$$\nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right) = \text{grad}(f)$$

- ⌘ The Divergence of vector field F is defined by:

$$\text{div}F = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} \quad \text{whereas } F = (F_x, F_y, F_z)$$

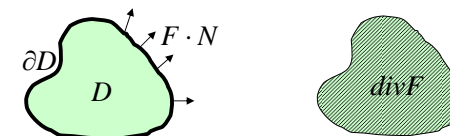
$$\nabla \cdot F = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot F = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} = \text{div}(F)$$

Theorems

- ⌘ The Divergence Theorem states that:

$$\int_{\partial D} F \cdot N \, dA = \int_D \text{div}F \, dV$$

- ⌘ It means that the integral of some vector field multiplied with the unit outer normal of the boundary of some domain D , is equal to the integral of the divergence over that domain.



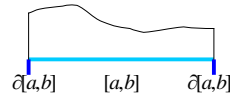
Theorems

- ⌘ The Divergence Th. is a special case of the Stokes Theorem that argues:

$$\int_{\partial D} F dA = \int_D dF dV$$

- ⌘ Which is actually the extension of the Fundamental theorem of the Integration calculus. The integral over the boundary is equal to the domain integral of the differential.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$



Conservation of Mass

- ⌘ Let W be a sub region of D , the total mass in W at time t is:

$$m(W, t) = \int_W \rho(\vec{x}, t) dV$$

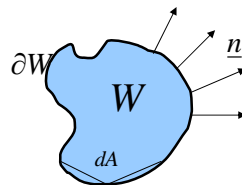
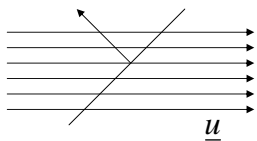
- ⌘ Therefore, the rate of change of mass in W is:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} m(W, t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_W \rho(\vec{x}, t) dV = \int_W \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho(\vec{x}, t) dV$$

Conservation of Mass

Let ∂W denote the boundary of W , let \underline{n} denote the unit outward normal defined over ∂W and let dA denote the area element on ∂W . The volume flow rate across ∂W per unit area is $-\underline{u} \cdot \underline{n}$ and the mass flow rate per unit area is $-\rho \underline{u} \cdot \underline{n}$.

- ⌘ A simple motivation:



Conservation of Mass

- ⌘ Thus the total mass flow rate across ∂W is the following surface integral:

$$-\int_{\partial W} \rho \underline{u} \cdot \underline{n} dA = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{time}}$$

- ⌘ Which is the rate of change of mass crossing ∂W in the outward direction.

Conservation of Mass

- Therefore the principle of conservation of mass in W equals the rate at which mass is crossing ∂W in the inward direction with the change of mass:

$$\int_W \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho(\vec{x}, t) dV = - \int_{\partial W} \rho \underline{u} \cdot \underline{n} dA$$

- Now, according the divergence theorem we get:

$$\int_{\partial D} \underline{F} \cdot \underline{N} dA = \int_D \text{div} \underline{F} dV \Rightarrow \int_{\partial W} \rho \underline{u} \cdot \underline{n} dA = \int_W \text{div}(\rho \underline{u}) dV$$

Conservation of Mass

- We will finally get the following integral form of the law of conservation of mass:

$$\int_W \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}(\rho \underline{u}) dV = 0$$

- And since the above holds for all W subset of D , we get:



$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}(\rho \underline{u}) = 0$$

- Which is called the differential form of the law of conservation of mass, also known as the *continuity equation*.

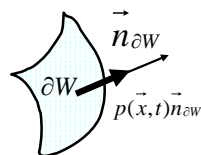
Balance of Momentum

- Given some region W subset of D , we'll denote $\vec{p}(\vec{x}, t)$ to be the pressure (force per unit area) at point \vec{x} and at time t in the direction of $\vec{n}_{\partial W}$ (which is the unit outward normal of ∂W).

- Then the total force over the surface enclosing W is:

$$- \int_{\partial W} p \underline{I} \cdot \underline{n} dA = - \int_W \nabla p dV$$

- The equality is followed from Stokes theorem.



Balance of Momentum

- Since the former equation holds for any W in D we may conclude that the force exerted on any fluid element by the remaining fluid is: $-\nabla(p)$ per a unit volume.

- Next we wish that every fluid particle will satisfy the second rule of the Newtonian mechanics:

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{m} \mathbf{a}$$

- We've just seen that $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla p$, and know that $\mathbf{m} = \rho$ which will assumed to be a constant soon.

Balance of Momentum

⌘ We are left to evaluate **a** the acceleration parameter of the particle.

⌘ Denoting the path of a specific particle (volume element) as: $\vec{x} = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$

We get that : $\underline{v}(t) = \underline{u}(x(t), y(t), z(t), t) = (x'(t), y'(t), z'(t))$

⌘ According the chain rule we get:

$$a(t) = \frac{\partial \underline{v}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t}(x(t), y(t), z(t), t) = \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial x} x' + \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial y} y' + \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial z} z' =$$

$$\frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + (\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} \quad \text{whereas} \quad \underline{u} \cdot \nabla = x' \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y' \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + z' \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

Balance of Momentum

⌘ And therefore the expression **F=ma** is:

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + \underline{u} \cdot \nabla \underline{u} \right) = -\nabla p \Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + \underline{u} \cdot \nabla \underline{u} \right) + \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p = 0$$

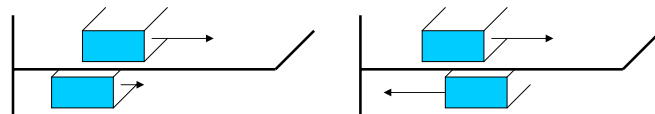
⌘ Adding some external force F (gravity for example) we get:

$$\frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + (\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} + \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla(p) = F$$



Viscous Effects

⌘ So far we have described the mechanics of an ideal fluid. Where no tangential interaction between adjacent elements was taken into account.



⌘ Consider the case illustrated above, where two close fluid particles (in this case we can think of molecules) move in the same direction but in a different speed (or in the opposite directions).

Viscous Effects

⌘ We'd expect that in such cases the different particles will exchange momentum (velocity).

⌘ This interaction is called the *Viscous Effect* and rises only when neighboring fluid elements move relative to each other.

⌘ According to experimental data the viscous force on a fluid element at any point is proportional to the velocity's gradient at that point $\propto \nabla \underline{u}$.

Viscous Effects

⌘ Using the divergence theorem such as before:

$$F_{vis}(W) = \int_{\partial W} \nabla \underline{u} \cdot \underline{N} \, dA = \int_W \operatorname{div} \nabla \underline{u} \, dV$$

⌘ Which applies for all W subset of D thus the force on every fluid particle is:

$$\operatorname{div} \nabla \underline{u} = \frac{\partial^2 \underline{u}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \underline{u}}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \underline{u}}{\partial z^2} = \nabla^2 \underline{u} = \Delta \underline{u}$$

⌘ This is the Laplacian of \underline{u} , usually multiplied by scalar ν known as the *kinematic viscosity*.

Giving:
$$F_{vis} = \nu \Delta \underline{u}$$

The Navier-Stokes Eqs.

⌘ So far we derived the following three equations:

⌘ Mass cons. -

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div}(\rho \underline{u}) = 0$$

⌘ Momentum cons. -

$$\frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + (\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} + \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla(p) = \underline{F}$$

⌘ Viscous Effect -

$$F_{vis} = \nu \Delta \underline{u}$$



The Navier-Stokes Eqs.

⌘ Assuming that the fluid is incompressible we get that: $\rho = \rho_0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0 \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \underline{u} = \operatorname{div}(\underline{u}) = 0$

⌘ Plugging all together we finally get:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \underline{u} &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} &= -(\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} - \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla(p) + \nu \Delta \underline{u} + \underline{F} \end{aligned}$$

⌘ Which is widely known as the **Navier-Stokes eqs. for incompressible fluids**.

The Navier-Stokes Eqs.

⌘ The explicit (scalar) form of those equations is:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial u^2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial uv}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial uw}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \nu \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \right) + F_x$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial vu}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v^2}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial vw}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \nu \left(\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial z^2} \right) + F_y$$

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial wu}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial wv}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial w^2}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \nu \left(\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} \right) + F_z$$

⌘ Whereas $\underline{u} = (u, v, w)$ And $\underline{F} = (F_x, F_y, F_z)$



The Navier-Stokes Eqs.

- ⌘ These are 4 partial differential equations with four unknowns: u, v, w, p
- ⌘ These equations must be supplemented by boundary conditions.
- ⌘ The conditions in our case are $\underline{u} = \vec{0}$ on the boundary of the fluid space.
- ⌘ Together with these conditions the equations are well-posed, i.e. a unique solution exists and depends continuously on the initial data.

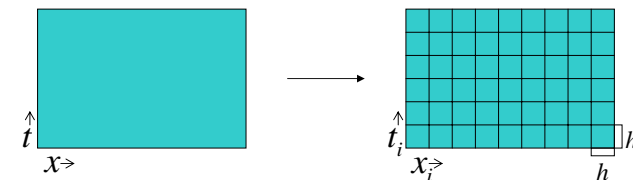
Part II - Numerical Solution

Numerical Methods of Solution

- ⌘ Such sets of differential equations are usually impossible to solve exactly (analytically). So approximations are needed.
- ⌘ **Finite Differences Method:**
Using discrete functions representations, derivatives can be approximated using differences.

Numerical Methods of Solution

- ⌘ A one dimensional example for parabolic equations: $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$ whereas $u = u(t, x) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$



- ⌘ The domain's discretization is illustrated above with some interval h for both x, t directions.

Numerical Methods of Solution

⌘ Approximating the first derivative using Taylor poly.:

$$f(t+h, x) = f(t, x) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)h - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t, x)h^2 + o(h^3)$$

$$f(t-h, x) = f(t, x) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)h - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t, x)h^2 + o(h^3)$$

$$f(t+h, x) - f(t-h, x) = 2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)h + o(h^3)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x) = \frac{f(t+h, x) - f(t-h, x)}{2h} + o(h^2)$$



⌘ And in our discrete domain:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t_i, x_j) \approx \frac{f(t_{i+1}, x_j) - f(t_{i-1}, x_j)}{2h} \approx \frac{f(t_{i+1}, x_j) - f(t_i, x_j)}{h}$$

Numerical Methods of Solution

⌘ Approximating the second derivative using Taylor poly.:

$$f(t+h, x) = f(t, x) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)h + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t, x)h^2 + o(h^3)$$

$$f(t-h, x) = f(t, x) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)h + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t, x)h^2 + o(h^3)$$

$$f(t+h, x) + f(t-h, x) = 2f(t, x) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t, x)h^2 + o(h^3)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t, x) = \frac{f(t+h, x) - 2f(t, x) + f(t-h, x)}{h^2} + o(h^2)$$

⌘ And in our discrete domain:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(t_i, x_j) \approx \frac{f(t_{i+1}, x_j) - 2f(t_i, x_j) + f(t_{i-1}, x_j)}{h^2}$$

Numerical Methods of Solution

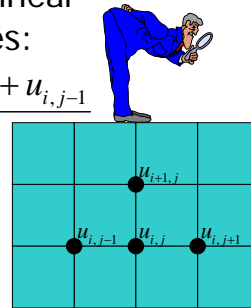
⌘ Finally, we get an discrete set of linear equations for the discrete variables:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \Rightarrow \frac{u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j}}{h} = \frac{u_{i,j+1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j-1}}{h^2}$$

whereas $u_{i,j} = u(t_i, x_j)$ we get :

$$u_{i+1,j} = \frac{1}{h}(u_{i,j+1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j-1}) + u_{i,j}$$

⌘ This can be solved using one iteration, given the boundary conditions. (i.e. $u_{0,j} \forall j$).



Fractional Stepping

⌘ Given equations of the form:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = A(u, x, t) + B(u, x, t)$$

⌘ We can decompose it into several steps:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u^*}{\partial t} &= A(u, x, t) & \longrightarrow & \quad u^* = u^n + \Delta t A(u^n, x, t) \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} &= B(u, x, t) & \longrightarrow & \quad u^{n+1} = u^* + \Delta t B(u^{n/*}, x, t) \end{aligned}$$

Computer Graphics rendering

- ⌘ So far we have the velocity field \underline{u} calculated. How can we use it for the visual animation?
- ⌘ How fine can \underline{u} be in case of 3D? \underline{u} is a 3D vector field, this means that for every 3 coordinates vector \underline{u} matches 3 dimensional vector (fractional vector!).
- ⌘ Simple calculation shows that for 100 by 100 by 100 resolution we need to perform million operations for each time step in our animation (and will consume 6-12MB's).
- ⌘ Therefore we will have to use lower volume resolution comparing with the output image details level.

Solving NS using Fractional stepping

Momentum Advection	$\frac{\partial u^1}{\partial t} = -u \cdot \nabla u$
Momentum Diffusion	$\frac{\partial u^2}{\partial t} = \Delta u^1$
Projection to Divergence-free space	$u^3 = u^2 + \nabla p \quad s.t. \quad \nabla \cdot u^3 = 0$

Linear Advection equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -u \cdot \nabla u$$

- ⌘ Lets assume that x is some particles trajectory along $u(x, t)$.

$$\frac{d}{dt}(u(x(t), t)) = \frac{\partial u(x(t), t)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial x(t)}{\partial t} \cdot \nabla u(x(t), t) = -u \cdot \nabla u + u \cdot \nabla u = 0$$

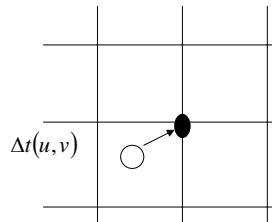
- ⌘ u is fixed! Such trajectories are called characteristics curves of the equations.

Computer Graphics rendering

- ⌘ This immediately calls for volume interpolation of the results of \underline{u} .
- ⌘ Next, we want to mark some of the space with a certain color and thus define a substance inside the volume. Such as milk stirred in coffee.
- ⌘ This could be done in several ways:

Tracking characteristics curves

- ⌘ Idea: lets "bring" u 's values from where it was a time step ago – upwinding.



- ⌘ Bilinear Interpolation: (CFL,sur)

$$\alpha = \Delta t u, \beta = \Delta t v \quad u_{i,j}^{n+1} = u_{i,j}^n \cdot \alpha \beta + u_{i+1,j}^n \cdot (1-\alpha)\beta + u_{i,j+1}^n \cdot \alpha(1-\beta) + u_{i+1,j+1}^n \cdot (1-\alpha)(1-\beta)$$

Solving the Heat equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \Delta u$$

- ⌘ What do we know about the nature of this solution?
- ⌘ Its *Green* function is known:

$$u(x,t) = \int K(x,\xi,t) u_0(\xi) d\xi$$

$$K(x,\xi,t) = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^{d/2}} \exp(-\|x-\xi\|^2 / 4t)$$

- ⌘ As time evolves every point receives material from its surrounding according Gaussian distribution with deviations t .

Solving the Heat equation

- ⌘ If dt is large we might have to look at distant variables:

- ⌘ Explicit:

$$u_i^{n+1} = u_i^n + \Delta t \frac{u_{i+1}^n - 2u_i^n + u_{i-1}^n}{\Delta x^2} \Rightarrow \Delta t < \Delta x^2 / 2$$

- ⌘ Implicit:

$$u_i^{n+1} = u_i^n + \Delta t \frac{u_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2u_i^{n+1} + u_{i-1}^{n+1}}{\Delta x^2}$$

Fast Diffusion Solver

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \sin(nx) = -n^2 \sin(nx)$$

- ⌘ Fourier base diagonalizes the Laplacian,

$$Ax = b \quad F^{-1}DF = A \Rightarrow DFx = Fb$$

$$A = \left(I - \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \right)$$

Projection step

⌘ Helmholtz-Hodge Decomposition Theorem:

$$w = u + \nabla p \quad s.t. \quad \nabla \cdot u = 0$$

⌘ And w is the closest in L2 sense!

⌘ But how can we decompose it? $\nabla \cdot w = \nabla \cdot u + \nabla \cdot \nabla p$

$$\nabla \cdot w = \Delta p$$

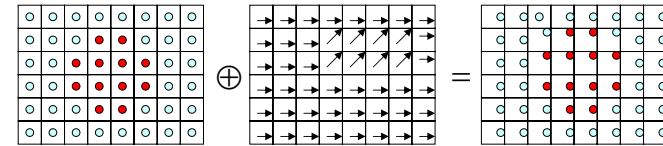
⌘ Poisson Equation which can be solved via Fast Poisson solver.

$$\Delta p = \nabla \cdot u^{n/*}$$

$$u^{n+1} = u^{n/*} - \nabla p$$

Computer Graphics rendering

⌘ We can define a sort of density field of that substance over the entire volume and update it using \underline{u} .



⌘ Note that here we saw a change of density in the fluid caused by \underline{u} . According the equations such thing shouldn't happen. Yet due to error caused by discretization such can happen.

Computer Graphics rendering

⌘ Volume rendering is a widely researched subject.

⌘ The main problem with this process is the big amounts of data involved - the 3D arrays representing the volume.

⌘ Many methods are suggested for achieving a better speed results.

⌘ Here we will see two fundamental approaches:

Computer Graphics rendering

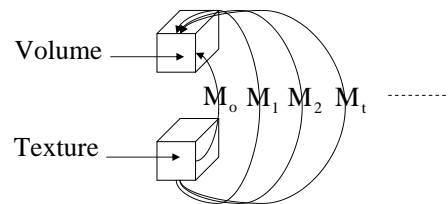
⌘ Evaluation using line integrals.

⌘ Since we are dealing with semi-transparent substances such as gases and liquids we have to compute the additive influence of every fluid particle on the rendered image.

⌘ Here, each pixel in the resulting image is the line integral of the fluid density over the projected ray.

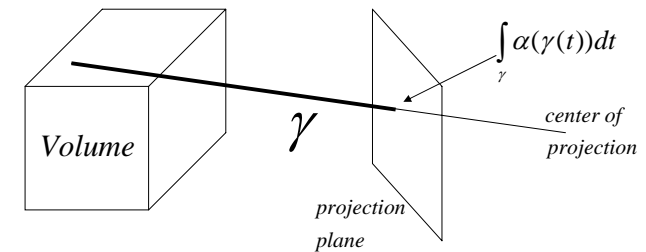
Computer Graphics rendering

- ⌘ Or we can use volume textures and map them to the volume using a mapping which is updated by \underline{u} (i.e. the mapping will accumulate the movement of the fluid given by \underline{u}).
- ⌘ Given an initial mapping $M:V \rightarrow T$, M is updated over time by \underline{u} . Lets say that M is given explicitly by a table (vector field). The update would be $M(t) = M(t-1) - \underline{u}(t)$ Where as $M(0) = M$.



Computer Graphics rendering

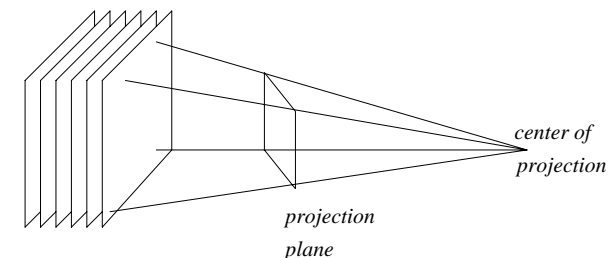
- ⌘ This line-ray integral is computed for any point in the projection plane.



Computer Graphics rendering

- ⌘ Since we don't have full occlusions we may additively project the volume into the viewing plane using forward mapping of the voxels to the image.
- ⌘ Or by performing projective transformations for the volume's 2D layers while adding them together.

Computer Graphics rendering

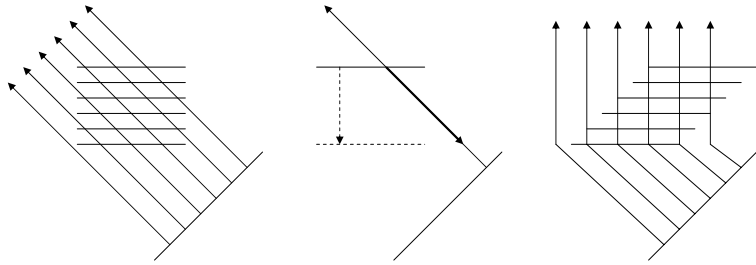


- ⌘ Each layer is projected onto the projection plane using homography in an additive composition.

Computer Graphics rendering

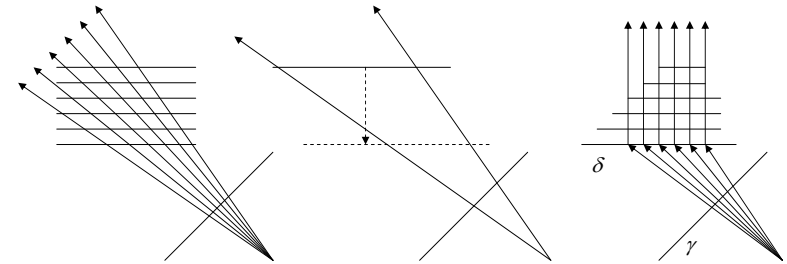
⌘ An optimized version is call the **shear-warp factorization**:

⌘ The case of a parallel projection:



Computer Graphics rendering

⌘ The case of a perspective projection:



⌘ And one plane to plane perspective (homography) transformation is needed between δ and γ .

Liquids animations

⌘ Animations by Jos Stam, Ronald Fedkiw

Liquids animations



THE END