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Porous Flow and Sediment Transport Simulation for Physically-Based Weathering

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Figure 1: Coffee is dissolved in the water that gets inside the filter. Concentrated water then seeps through the filter to reach the glass. From left to right: Render of the scene, solid and wetting, fluid and its contained sediments, sediments density.

Abstract

In the graphic community, rendering lifelike scenes remains an open challenge. Among the features required to reach photorealism, aging is the crucial detail that breaks the pristine aspect that is rarely observed in real life. Multiple approaches have been proposed, from example-based to physical simulation, to compute the aging of an object. In this context, we present a simulation framework that handles multiple weathering effects causing an object to alter over time. We identify the key phenomena (wetting, drying, erosion, deposition, and dissolution) and propose a base framework to address the aging process. To tackle this challenge, our method adapts a Smooth Particle Hydrodynamics model to represent external fluids (i.e., classical fluid simulation) and internal porous flow. Our framework handles the wetting, drying, and flow in the porous space in a unified approach. We extend pre-existing sediment transport method to allow the sediment transport outside and inside the porous space. With our method, sediments can be eroded from a solid surface, transported across solid objects through their porous space, and deposited to modify other objects' properties across the scene.

1. Introduction

As stated by Becket and Badler [BB90], an ideal renderer cannot produce realistic imagery if the virtual scene only exhibits pristine objects. In real life, appearances of objects are constantly modified by their surrounding environment. Those modifications can be reversible (wetting, dust deposition, deformations, etc.) or definitive (cracks, scratches, rust, etc.). Aging can impact many of the properties of the objects (geometric, chemical, optical, mechanical) and should always be considered when rendering a photorealistic scene.

Usually, geometries and/or textures are authored manually to emulate those appearances modifications. However, dealing with the complexity and the number of underlying phenomena is a time-consuming and challenging task, leading to heavy manual authoring requiring advanced physical knowledge.

Dorsey et al. [DRS07] classified the processes affecting appearance in three categories: mechanical, chemical, and biological. As each process can affect several properties of the material, Merillou and Ghazanfarpour [MG08] classified them with a phenomenolog-

1 ical approach. In the same way, we identified that most appearance
 2 changes are due to the simultaneous interactions between elemen-
 3 tary phenomena. Based on previous works, we highlight a set of
 4 phenomena that are key to tackling the aging problem:

5 **Deposition:** Deposition is a process where a deposit of matter is
 6 left behind after the interaction between a surface and a fluid carry-
 7 ing micro-particles. Deposits cover the initial surface and affect
 8 the object’s albedo, geometry, and physical properties. They can
 9 accumulate to create durable volumes of matter or be cleaned off
 10 by further fluid interactions. See **A** in Fig. 2.

11 **Dissolution:** When an object interacts with a fluid, part of the
 12 matter can pass into the fluid phase. This reaction affects geometry
 13 and the albedo/light absorption of the solvent. See **B** in Fig. 2.

14 **Erosion:** Erosion is a generic concept where fluid interactions
 15 alter the surface. It can be a direct consequence of dissolution or
 16 mechanical interactions between the object and the fluid. In this
 17 article, we consider erosion as a mechanical phenomenon. See **C** in
 18 Fig. 2.

19 **Chemical reaction:** A chemical reaction occurs when reactants
 20 interact to form new products. When fluids and/or solids get in con-
 21 tact their chemical compositions are altered, thus modifying their
 22 physical properties, albedo, and geometry. See **D** in Fig. 2.

23 **Organic growth:** Fluids transport seeds or spores. Those can
 24 take root object surfaces or within the porous space. External fac-
 25 tors may activate plant growth (temperature, moisture, illumina-
 26 tion). In addition, roots create internal stress, which deforms the
 27 host object and creates new geometry. See **E** in Fig. 2.

28 **Deformation, cracks and peeling:** When a material undergoes
 29 regular environmental changes such as variations in temperature
 30 or moisture level, its properties can be altered. Depending on the
 31 material, the frequency, and the magnitude of these changes, defor-
 32 mations may occur and create cracks or peelings in the case of thin
 33 layers. See **F** in Fig. 2.

34 **Impacts and scratches:** Mechanical interactions between ob-
 35 jects can introduce surface alteration at different scales. Both mi-
 36 croscopic scratches and collision-induced impacts change the sur-
 37 face geometry. More pernicious interactions can cause damage to a
 38 material’s protective layer, thus allowing the intervention of other
 39 phenomena (e.g., impact on a car paint removing rust protection of
 40 the underlying metal). See **G** in Fig. 2.

41 All the previously described phenomena strongly correlate with
 42 the transport of matter both inside the objects (due to porosity) and
 43 on their surfaces. Moreover, they interact through this matter flow,
 44 making the aging process of very complex systems challenging to
 45 model accurately. Indeed, changing the behavior of any part of the
 46 process may impact the flow and change or even prevent any aging
 47 phenomenon from occurring.

48 In this paper, we propose to address these issues by introduc-
 49 ing a framework that can handle both temporary phenomena (such
 50 as wetting and evaporation) and definitive flow-based phenomena
 51 which do not dissipate without leaving a trace. In summary, our
 52 main contributions are:

- A generic simulation framework that can handle multiple phe- 53
 nomena simultaneously such as wetting and evaporation of water, 54
 erosion and dissolution of a solid material leading to the creation, 55
 transport and deposition of micro-particles from the initial 56
 object; 57
- An authoring pipeline to simulate the aging process of a pristine 58
 scene to achieve a plausible, realistic weathered counterpart; 59

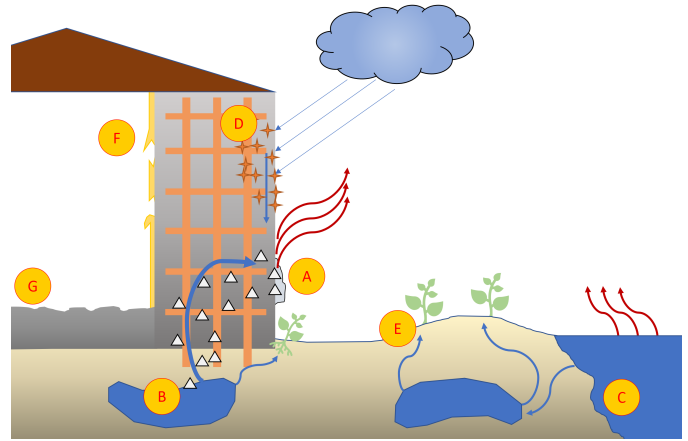


Figure 2: Example scene featuring multiple weathering phenomena. **A:** Deposition or crystallization of salts at the building surface. **B:** Salt dissolution in the groundwater reservoir and its transport to the surface. **C:** River bed erosion. **D:** Corrosion of iron rods in armed concrete and transport of iron oxide to the surface through moisture. **E:** Organic growth favored by sun exposition and soil moisture level. **F:** Wall paints peeling due to humidity within the wall. **G:** Impacts and scratches on the floor.

2. Previous Works 60

61 Reproducing realistic and complex weathered appearances is a
 62 challenging and trending task in computer graphics. As weathered
 63 appearances result from several concurrent physical phenomena,
 64 such a goal can be achieved either by the simulation of the under-
 65 lying physical processes or through the direct synthesis of the final
 66 appearance using various input data guiding the synthesis.

Imaged Based Methods 67

68 Leveraging the inherent correlation between appearance and
 69 weathering phenomena, most of these methods compute a weather-
 70 ing degree map from appearance variations in input photographs or
 71 3D scans. Explicit manipulation of the map provides artistic control
 72 over the result and allows for appearance transfer and arbitrary
 73 weathering or de-weathering of similar surfaces. The final appear-
 74 ance is then synthesized by reprojecting the corresponding visual
 75 content accordingly to the map.

76 By taking advantage of the non-uniformity of the weathered ap-
 77 pearance of an otherwise uniform pristine object, an appearance
 78 manifold linking weathering phenomena and visual content can
 79 be built [WTL*06] to guide appearance synthesis. To absolve the
 80 method from heavy lighting restrictions in the capture process, Xu

et al. [XWT*08] propose to split the input photograph into reflectance and illumination component. The appearance manifold extracted from the input image is used to generate both the weathering degree and shading maps. After editing the weathering degree map, (de)weathered appearance can be synthesized by searching for the best candidate in the appearance manifold matching both weathering degree and lighting conditions. It also details how to transfer appearance between two pictures, successfully transforming corrosion present in a photo into organic growth extracted from another example.

Because appearance manifolds can be costly to construct, Bandedira and Walter [BW09] proposed to use an appearance map based on the Lab color space to alleviate the (de)weathered pixel color search. Bellini et al. [BKCO16] tackled the appearance synthesis of manufactured structures by exploiting the regularity of patterns found in those structures. Through the use of texture analysis, Lu, Dorsey, and Rushmeier [LDR09] extracted content-aware patches from input exemplars. Those are then distributed on a new texture to reproduce the input's spatial distribution and mesoscopic details.

By taking into account the correlation between local geometry and object appearance, a guidance map can be extracted from an input textured mesh [MKC*06,LGG*07]. Using this guidance map and a spatially varying texture synthesis model, the input mesh appearance can be mapped to another one. This automatic process removes the manual authoring of the weathering distribution map.

Physically Based Simulations

Several simulation-based approaches were proposed to accurately model and reproduce the weathering effect. The patina formation, for instance, can be simulated by combining the use of heightmaps and basic morphological operators to thicken or erode micro geometric surface details [DH96]. Following the idea of Dorsey et al. [DPH96], Chen et al. [CXW*05] proposed a generalized model of interaction between particles and surfaces that can represent multiple material property changes allowing stains, erosion, corrosion, and dirt deposition. While maintaining a good level of artistic control, this approach does not guarantee physically accurate results.

Dorsey et al. [DEJ*99] simulate the water flow that occurs in porous stones to tackle object aging. This approach lies on an eulerian simulation scheme computed in small cubic volumes aligned with the object surface called slabs. This method supports erosion, deposition, and sediments transport within and between the slabs. The underlying simulation data structures allow precomputing subsurface scattering. While this approach guarantees physically plausible results, it is limited to stones. In addition, the method requires a quad mesh representation to place voxels slabs correctly.

Estimating the fluid flow both inside and outside the materials pore space has been studied [LAD08]. Using Smooth Particle Hydrodynamics (later referred to as SPH), authors proposed a method supporting two-way coupling and elastic bodies to exhibit realistic wetting and deformations under pressure.

Wojtan et al. [WCMT07] proposed a method to compute animations of natural phenomena such as erosion, sedimentation, and

acidic corrosion. Solids are represented using a level set stored in regular grids distinct from the grid used for fluid simulation. Level-set grids are then used to update the physical properties of solid objects.

Kristof et al. [KBKS09] use SPH to simulate hydraulic erosion, transport, and deposition of sediments on heightfield terrains. While limited to this representation, their approach produces realistic river beds and adds details to the terrain reliefs.

With both particle simulation and appearance manifold, Bosch et al. [BLR*11] proposed a hybrid approach. They combine extracted stains color and distribution information from a captured photograph [XWT*08] and a user-defined proxy mesh to produce a set of parameters driving a particle-based simulation capable of reproducing such appearance alterations. The particle simulation is then applied to novel virtual scenes.

Cracks and peeling on a planar surface can be estimated using [PPD02]'s method. By decomposing the surface into two layers, cracks and peeling are simulated using a 2D grid. A 3D mesh of the resulting peeled paint layer is then extracted. The process allows cracks to be user-defined via an input texture. However, this approach is limited to planar surfaces and does not take into account paint thickness.

Merillou et al. [MMGG12] investigated building degradations caused by salt decay. They proposed a model based on user-defined input textures to identify material's characteristics, such as albedo, porosity and salt concentration. By combining the procedurally computed crystallization depth and external atmospheric conditions, the model generates an aging-location texture. The latter is interpolated during rendering to alter material albedo or heightmaps.

Huber et al. [HPS11] proposed a liquid diffusion model in porous textiles based on SPH and a discrete cellular automaton to compute the various diffusion states. Interactions between hairs and water were also studied by Rungjiratananon et al. [RKN12]. They proposed using an eulerian grid to simulate the fluid diffusion within hairs where strands are modeled using connected lagrangian particles. Dripping is also taken into account when grid cells are oversaturated. Patkar et al. [PC13] proposed to model the wetting of porous solids by simulating liquid absorption, diffusion, and dripping on a tetrahedral mesh. While supporting mesh deformation and allowing two-way coupling between solids and fluids, advection is neglected.

Rungjiratananon et al. [RSKN08] proposed a model to tackle wetness propagation in granular materials. The latter is simulated using a combination of discrete element methods for granular materials and a SPH fluid simulation handling surface tension between granular particles. Mechanical interactions between granular materials and liquids have been recently studied and modeled using Material Point Methods by Gao et al. [GPH*18].

Recently, Munoz et al. [MPBM*18] proposed a method to model the pollution accumulation on building facades. Given a 2D map of the city and its pollution sources, such as traffic roads, a 2D Lattice-Boltzmann simulation is computed to obtain a wind map. This map is then used to compute a pollution map which stores the pollution propagation in the 2D scene. During rendering, they combine

1 screen-space techniques and material properties to estimate multiple factors which affect the final appearance such as insolation, pollution, porosity, wind accessibility, sky accessibility and rain accessibility.

2 As seen above, all these approaches commonly share the tendency to only tackle specific aging effects or to simulate a small number of them in a restricted context. However material appearance is not only affected by a specific phenomenon but by a joint intricated interaction of multiple weathering effects. In this paper, we propose a framework for the simulation of aging phenomena based on the computation of the fluid flow inside and outside the objects volume enabling the transport of sediments and solute through porous networks. It relies on Smoothed Particle Hydrodynamics which is a commonly used concept for solving numerical simulations of continuum mechanics. We refer the reader to an extensive state of the art of SPH-based methods [KBST19]. We present a comprehensive model handling: erosion, dissolution, deposition and evaporation as the combination of these phenomena are responsible for full changes in appearance.

20 3. Framework

21 Our model relies on a particle-based simulation using SPH continuum equations. As we want to correctly model interactions between fluids and solids, we distinguish two types of particles: fluid particles to model external fluid and solid particles to model inner fluid interactions through material pores, the latter embedding material-related fields such as porosity, permeability, capillary potential. All these particles p_i , centered at position \mathbf{x}_i , with a mass m_i , a density ρ_i (hence a volume $V_i = m_i/\rho_i$) are used to sample continuous properties (such as porosity, water saturation, temperature, etc.). Using the following SPH continuum equations, we can sample an arbitrary field A at an arbitrary position \mathbf{x} :

$$32 \quad A(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \sum_j A_j V_j W(\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}) \quad (1)$$

33 $W(\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x})$ being the standard cubic spline kernel defined as follows:

$$35 \quad W(\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}) = \frac{8}{\pi h^3} \begin{cases} 6d^3 - 6d^2 - 1 & , d \leq 0.5 \\ 2(1-d)^3 & , 0.5 < d < 1.0 \\ 0 & , d \geq 1.0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

$$36 \quad \text{with } d = \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}\|}{h} \quad (3)$$

38 In order to ease the notation, $W(\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_i)$ will be later referred as W_{ij} . Its gradient estimation sampled at particle p_i , noted ∇W_{ij} , is defined as follow:

$$41 \quad \nabla W_{ij} = \frac{48}{\pi h^3} \frac{\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_i\| h} \begin{cases} d(3d-2) & , 0 < d \leq 0.5 \\ (-1+d)(1-d) & , 0.5 < d < 1.0 \\ 0 & , d \geq 1.0 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

42 We can thus estimate the gradients and laplacian of a field A

Symbol	Description	Unit	Phase
i	Particle index	—	—
k	Material index	—	—
s_k	Sediment index	—	—
r	Particle radius	m	—
H	Relative humidity	—	—
\mathbf{g}	Gravity	$\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$	—
D^{s_k}	Sediment diffusivity	$\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	—
\mathbf{x}_i	Particle position	m	Both
V_i	Particle volume	m^3	Both
V_i^f	Fluid volume	m^3	Both
$V_i^{s_k}$	Sediment volume	m^3	Both
$C_i^{s_k}$	Sediment concentration	—	Both
$\mathbf{v}_i^{s_k}$	Sediment settlement velocity	$\text{m} \cdot \text{s}$	Both
p_i^c	Capillary pressure	Pa	Both
T_i	Temperature	$^\circ\text{C}$	Both
α_i	Heat diffusion coefficient	$\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	Both
S_i	Pores fluid saturation	—	Both
V_i^k	Material volume	m^3	Solid
λ_i	Permeability	m^2	Solid
β_i	Porous stiffness	Pa	Solid
σ^k	Material stress resistance	Pa	Solid
Φ_i	Porosity	—	Solid
τ_i	Tortuosity	—	Solid
r^{s_k}	Sediment particle radius	mm	Solid
r^{p_k}	Characteristic pore radius	mm	Solid
ρ_i	Density at particle i	$\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$	Fluid
ρ_0	Fluid rest density	$\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$	Fluid
μ	Dynamic viscosity	$\text{Pa} \cdot \text{s}$	Fluid
Control parameters			
κ_{concentr}	Concentration	—	—
κ_{depos}	Deposition	—	—
κ_{erosion}	Erosion	—	—
κ_{evap}	Evaporation	—	—
$\kappa_{\text{saturation}}$	Saturation	—	—

Table 1: Notation table. In the paper, per-particles properties are indexed using i and j . Properties linked to a material are exponentiated using k , those linked to a sediment of material k using s_k and the ones linked to the fluid using f . Control parameters permits to tune the simulation and to exacerbate specific effects as shown in the figures.

using equations (5) and (6) respectively.

$$43 \quad \nabla A_{ij} \equiv \sum_j V_j A_{ij} \nabla W_{ij} \quad (5) \quad 44$$

$$45 \quad \nabla^2 A_{ij} \equiv \sum_j V_j A_{ij} \frac{2\|\nabla W_{ij}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_i\|} \quad (6) \quad 46$$

47 We suppose the solid to be incompressible and thus can use $V_j = m_j/\rho_j$. However, if material compression is required, equations (1), (5) and (6) must use the mass-density ratio formulation. 49

In practice, our materials are defined by a set of properties such 50

1 as porosity, permeability, capillarity potential, temperature diffu-
2 sivity, tortuosity (as seen in Table 1).

3 Each of our particles can aggregate several materials as needed.
4 In such a case, their final properties are linearly interpolated ac-
5 cording to the particle composition. This allows for the creation
6 of complex materials as commonly found in nature (impurities in
7 rocks or metal, for example) and reduces the number of particles
8 needed to represent the scene. The global volume V_i can then be
9 retrieved as the sum of the volume of each material of the solid
10 particles.

11 Fluid particles represent both a volume of fluid and the volume of
12 sediments they carry. As the maximal concentration of sediments in
13 fluid particles remains low, its influence on volume variations can
14 be safely neglected, simplifying the simulation.

15 We call "sediments" the set of properties describing the behavior
16 of physical micro-particles contained in the fluid phase or trapped
17 in the material pores. It can be used to represent both actual sedi-
18 ments (particles with a radius > micrometer) or soluble (particles
19 with a radius < micrometer). Sediment is characterized by its den-
20 sity, diffusivity in water (solubility), the maximum concentration in
21 water, and characteristic particle radius. Table 1 shows a compact
22 version of all relevant data and their corresponding phases.

23 3.1. External Flow

24 As explained previously, we distinguish how particles behave de-
25 pending on whether they are considered fluid or solid. Although we
26 rely on an SPH fluid simulation to accurately model particles behav-
27 ior, pressure acceleration, viscosity, surface tension, and bound-
28 ary conditions must be carefully considered.

29 In practice, we rely on the pressure solver from [SP09,KBST19]
30 to ensure incompressibility, namely preventing the fluid from con-
31 stantly oscillating over time. Viscosity is considered fixed for the
32 whole fluid using the standard model from [Mon05]. Surface ten-
33 sion is handled using [AAT13]'s approach. Finally, the volume field
34 (i.e. $\sum_j V_j W_{ij} = 1$) is normalized to preserve boundary conditions,
35 thus preventing fluid particles to get across solids.

36 3.2. Porous Flow

37 The key component of our method is to simulate the fluid flow in
38 porous materials. Since our liquid particles can contain sediments,
39 this step will then allow us to model the transport of sediments
40 through the object and, thus, more generally, the transport of matter
41 in the scene (see Section 3.3).

42 As described in [DEJ*99, LAD08], fluid flow traveling inside
43 a porous medium is governed by Darcy's law [Dar56]. The latter
44 (eq. (7)) expresses the instantaneous flux \mathbf{q} of a fluid, with a dy-
45 namic viscosity μ and density ρ , traveling in a porous medium with
46 a permeability λ , in relation with pressure gradient ∇p and gravity
47 acceleration \mathbf{g} :

$$48 \quad \mathbf{q} = -\frac{\lambda}{\mu}(\nabla p - \rho\mathbf{g}) \quad (7)$$

49 The fluid velocity within the medium (later referred to as porous

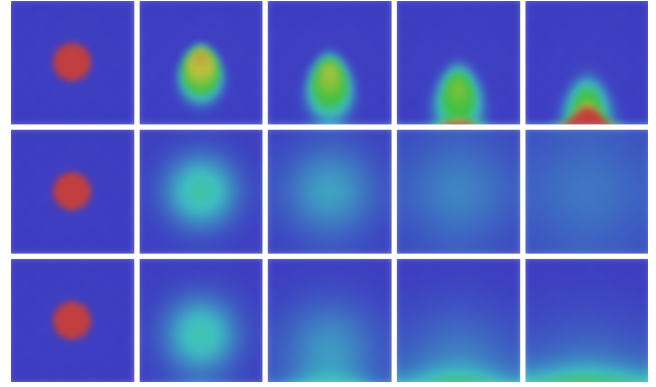


Figure 3: A vertical slice of a solid homogeneous porous material saturated with water at its center (red disk). The heatmap shows the pore saturation in water (red is fully saturated and blue is dry). **first row:** Only the advection part is computed, **second row:** Diffusion part only, **third row:** Full computation of water flow within the porous medium

50 velocity) can be retrieved by dividing the flux by the material poros-
51 ity ϕ . While Darcy's law describes the porous flow for homoge-
52 neous mediums, it can be piecewisely adapted to simulate flow in
53 heterogeneous mediums. As each solid particle is defined by its
54 properties ϕ_i and λ_i , porous velocity can be rewritten using the
55 SPH formalism to model the volume exchange within the medium.
56 Porous velocity can thus be decomposed in two distinct parts: the
57 diffusion velocity (Diff^f) and the advection velocity (Adv^f), re-
58 spectively the rate at which a fluid will propagate from high to low-
59 pressure locations and the rate at which gravity will guide the flow
60 (see Fig. 3).

$$61 \quad \text{Diff}^f = -\frac{\lambda}{\mu\phi}(\nabla p) \quad (8)$$

$$62 \quad \text{Adv}^f = -\frac{\lambda}{\mu\phi}(-\rho\mathbf{g}) \quad (9)$$

63
64 **Diffusion:** As stated by [LAD08], at the pore scale, the pressure
65 applied on each particle is considered to be the capillary pressure
66 p_i^c . Its differential will drive fluid from saturated pores to lesser
67 ones:

$$68 \quad p_i^c = \beta(1 - S_i)^{\kappa_{\text{sat}}} \quad (10)$$

69 Where β is the porous stiffness (or capillary potential) and $\kappa_{\text{sat}} \in$
70 $[0; 1]$ a constant controlling the influence of the saturation. The par-
71 ticle saturation S_i is defined as the ratio between the fluid volume
72 V_i^f and the pore space $V_i\phi_i$ (i.e. the void volume of the particle):

$$73 \quad S_i = \frac{V_i^f}{V_i\phi_i} \quad (11)$$

74 Since we consider the material is homogeneous and that we ex-
75 press the capillary pressure as a function of saturation, we can ex-
76 press equation (8) as a saturation diffusion process using the Muller

1 SPH diffusion formulation [MSKG05]:

$$2 \quad \text{Diff}_i^f = - \sum_j \frac{\lambda}{\mu\phi} (p_i^c - p_j^c) V_j \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (12)$$

3 When multiple materials exist in a neighborhood, their particles
4 exhibit different properties that cannot be interpolated directly
5 without leading to incorrect behaviors. To prevent this, we must
6 only consider the strongest constraints. We rewrite $\lambda/\mu\phi$ in a per-
7 particle formulation:

$$8 \quad \eta_i^p = \frac{\lambda}{\mu\phi} = \frac{\lambda_i}{\mu} \frac{1}{\phi_i} \quad (13)$$

9 Substituting (13) in (12) to account for the maximal resistance to
10 fluid flow (smallest η^p) between particles i and j yields:

$$11 \quad \text{Diff}_i^f = - \sum_j \min(\eta_i^p, \eta_j^p) (p_i^c - p_j^c) V_j \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (14)$$

12 Since the diffusion is expressed as a function of the saturation,
13 we need to transform it back to a flow rate.

$$14 \quad \text{DiffV}_i^f = -V_i^f \sum_j \min(\eta_i^p, \eta_j^p) (p_i^c - p_j^c) V_j \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (15)$$

15 **Advection:** To take into account fluid advection between porous
16 solid particles, we chose to use a donor-acceptor scheme like the
17 one proposed by Kristof et al. [KBKS09]. We identify an acceptor
18 and a donor for each couple of particles i, j . Because we consider
19 solid and fluid in the pore space as incompressible material, we
20 assume that ρ is equivalent to its constant rest density ρ_0 in equation
21 (9).

22 Similarly to the diffusion velocity, we must also take into ac-
23 count the maximal resistance to fluid flow using the minimal porous
24 resistance between particles (using eq. (13)), thus we obtain:

$$25 \quad \text{Adv}_i^f = - \sum_j \begin{cases} V_j \min(\eta_i^p, \eta_j^p) (-\rho_0 \vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) \|\nabla W_{ij}\| & , -\rho_0 \vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} \geq 0 \\ V_i \min(\eta_i^p, \eta_j^p) (-\rho_0 \vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) \|\nabla W_{ij}\| & , -\rho_0 \vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} < 0 \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

26 Where $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$ denotes the normalized vector between particles i and j
27 (i.e. $\frac{\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_i\|}$). Similarly to equation (15), we transform the velocity
28 to a flow rate and simplify the formulation:

$$29 \quad \text{AdvV}_i^f = \sum_j \begin{cases} V_j^f V_j \min(\eta_i^p, \eta_j^p) \rho_0 (\vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) \|\nabla W_{ij}\| & , \vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} \leq 0 \\ V_i^f V_i \min(\eta_i^p, \eta_j^p) \rho_0 (\vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) \|\nabla W_{ij}\| & , \vec{g} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} > 0 \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

30 The final fluid volume variation at a given particle i is obtained
31 by combining the diffusion and the advection part:

$$32 \quad \frac{\partial V_i^f}{\partial t} = \text{DiffV}_i^f + \text{AdvV}_i^f \quad (18)$$

33 3.3. Sediment Transport

34 In a porous medium, sediments carried by fluid in the pore space
35 get slowed down due to interaction with the pore's surface. As such,
36 computing the water flow is not the only requirement to compute
37 the sediment flow in such materials. Sediment transport in fluid,

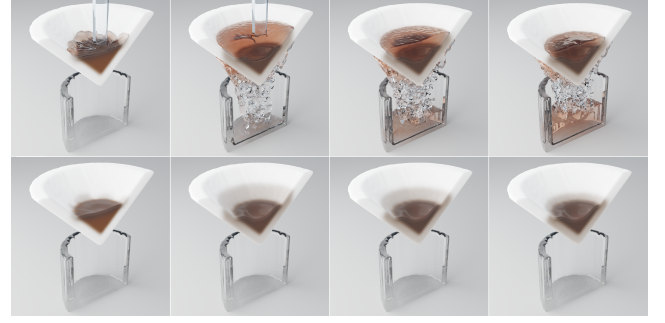


Figure 4: Cut view illustrating dissolution of coffee passing through a porous medium following water flow. **Top row:** Render of water, solid, and sediment. **Bottom row:** Only solid surface is shown illustrating the dissolution process.

much like water movement in a porous medium, is affected by dif- 38
39 fusion and advection components. The problem can thus be split as
40 we previously did in Section 3.2.

41 Following [MSKG05], diffusion of an attribute A in a fluid in
42 relation with its diffusion coefficient D can be expressed as follow:

$$43 \quad \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} = D \nabla^2 A \quad (19) \quad 44$$

45 In our case, the volume variation of sediments within the fluid
46 combines the diffusion of the material sediments and the advection
47 induced by the sediment settlement velocity. Given N the number
48 of material present in the scene, we can compute the volume varia-
49 tion of a sediment s_k of a material $k \in [0, N]$ as the combination
50 of the diffusive part (eq. (19)) and the sediment settlement velocity
51 denoted v^{s_k} :

$$52 \quad \frac{\partial V_i^{s_k}}{\partial t} = D^{s_k} \nabla^2 C_i^{s_k} - v_i^{s_k} \quad (20)$$

53 Where V^{s_k} is the volume of sediment s_k , D^{s_k} is the diffusivity in
54 water of the sediment s_k , and C^{s_k} correspond to the concentration
55 of a sediment s_k :

$$56 \quad C_i^{s_k} = \frac{V_i^{s_k}}{V_i^f + \sum_n V_i^{s_n}} \quad (21)$$

57 In addition, porous materials may exhibit complex internal pore
58 geometry, referred to as tortuosity. The intrinsic pore geometry
59 causes sediments to reduce their travel speed through the material.
60 It limits the sediments' velocity within the pore space based on
61 the ratio of the sediment characteristic radius r^{s_k} and the material's
62 pore characteristic radius r^{p_k} . We represent tortuosity as an expo-
63 nent τ which dictates how much r^{s_k}/r^{p_k} impacts sediment speed. A
64 velocity reduction factor *filter* can be expressed as:

$$65 \quad \text{filter}_i = (1.0 - r^{s_k}/r^{p_k})^{\tau_i} \quad (22)$$

$$66 \quad \text{filter}_{(i,j)} = \min(\text{filter}_i, \text{filter}_j) \quad (23) \quad 67$$

68 Since the number of materials and sediment is finite for each

1 scene, a look-up table can be pre-computed for each couple sedi-
 2 ment/material. Sediment diffusion (eq. (24)) is governed by a dif-
 3 fusivity factor D^{sk} which represents how sediments would spread
 4 in its carrier (water in our case). We consider the filter parameter of
 5 the particle with the strongest constraint (eq. (23)) to avoid smooth-
 6 ing artifacts.

$$7 \quad \text{Diff}V_i^{sk} = V_i^f \sum_j \text{filter}_{(i,j)} D^{sk} (C_i^{sk} - C_j^{sk}) V_j^f \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (24)$$

8 Sediments may settle with time due to their density being heavier
 9 than water. Because of that, diffusion only is not enough to repre-
 10 sent sediment transport. We need to model the influence of gravity
 11 on those sediments. Following Stokes' law, a sediment settlement
 12 velocity (or terminal velocity) depends on a characteristic sediment
 13 particle radius and its relative density to its carrier (eq. (25)).

$$14 \quad \mathbf{v}_i^{sk} = \frac{2}{9} (r^{sk})^2 \frac{\rho^{sk} - \rho_0}{\mu} \mathbf{g} f(C_i^{sk}) \quad (25)$$

15 Where \mathbf{v}^{sk} denotes the settlement velocity for the sediment k , r^{sk}
 16 the radius of a sediment k particle, and ρ^{sk} the sediment k density.
 17 To prevent over-saturation due to advection, [WCMT07] uses the
 18 Richardson-Zaki relation $f(C^{sk})$ [RZ54] which guarantees that the
 19 sediment concentration doesn't exceed its maximal level $\text{Max}C^{sk}$.
 20 This relations uses a control parameter $\kappa_{\text{concentr}} \in [4; 5.5]$:

$$21 \quad f(C^{sk}) = \begin{cases} 1 - (C^{sk}/\text{Max}C^{sk})^{\kappa_{\text{concentr}}} & , C^{sk} < \text{Max}C^{sk} \\ 0 & , C^{sk} \geq \text{Max}C^{sk} \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

22 The terminal velocity of a spherical particle falling in a steady
 23 fluid is given by (25). We use this formulation to express the ve-
 24 locity of sediments in fluids both external and inside the pores of
 25 the objects. As in Section 3.2, we propose another donor-acceptor
 26 scheme to solve sediment advection between particles with the fol-
 27 lowing equation:

$$28 \quad \text{Adv}V_i^{sk} = - \sum_j \begin{cases} V_j^f V_j^{sk} \text{filter}_{(i,j)} (\mathbf{v}_{ij}^{sk} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{ij}) \nabla W_{ij} & , \mathbf{v}_{ij}^{sk} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{ij} \geq 0 \\ V_i^f V_i^{sk} \text{filter}_{(i,j)} (\mathbf{v}_{ij}^{sk} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{ij}) \nabla W_{ij} & , \mathbf{v}_{ij}^{sk} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{ij} < 0 \end{cases} \quad (27)$$

29 Where \mathbf{v}_{ij}^{sk} is the sediment velocity with the lowest norm between
 30 \mathbf{v}_i^{sk} and \mathbf{v}_j^{sk} to constrain the advected volume flow.

31 Any sediment present in the absence of water will be deposited.
 32 We explicitly control the deposition from fully-evaporated water
 33 particles by spreading the sediment volume to surrounding non-
 34 filled particles or spawning a new solid particle at the aforemen-
 35 tioned fluid particle position (see Section 4.1).

36 3.4. Erosion

37 Erosion is an important process in weathering and has a substantial
 38 impact on the geometry of objects. It transforms cohesive materials
 39 into small particles by tearing them from the surface. In our simu-
 40 lation, it means the solid volume transforms into a sediment volume
 41 in the fluid phase. Fluid in contact with solid matter induces shear
 42 stress σ_{ij} caused by the relative velocity of the fluid to the solid
 43 surface. Since the interaction only happens between solid and fluid
 44 phases, we can ignore this process when i and j are in the same



Figure 5: Erosion, transport and deposition of a brittle material (brown) over an immutable material (white). Each row depicts a specific simulation step. From left to right: simulation result, sediments shown in green within the fluid, solid particles only.

phase.

$$45 \quad \sigma_{ij} = \left(\frac{\|\mathbf{v}_i - \mathbf{v}_j\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_{ij}\|} \right)^{0.5} \quad (28) \quad 46$$

47 When σ_{ij} becomes greater than the intrinsic stress resistance of
 48 the material σ^k , erosion occurs.

49 Because erosion only occurs at the interface between solid and
 50 fluid, it is dependent on the contact area between the two phases. In
 51 our context, we consider this contact area as the area of the tangent
 52 face of the enclosing cube of our particle (i.e. $(2r)^2$ with r being the
 53 particle radius). We propose to compute the erosion rate of the ma-
 54 terial k for fluid particles i and solid particles j with the following
 55 equations:

$$56 \quad \frac{\partial V_i^{sk}}{\partial t} = (2r)^2 \kappa_{\text{erosion}} \sum_j \begin{cases} \frac{V_j^k}{V_j} (\sigma_{ij} - \sigma^k), & \sigma_{ij} > \sigma^k \\ 0, & \sigma_{ij} \leq \sigma^k \end{cases} \quad (29)$$

$$57 \quad \frac{\partial V_j^k}{\partial t} = -(2r)^2 \frac{V_j^k}{V_j} \kappa_{\text{erosion}} \sum_i \begin{cases} (\sigma_{ij} - \sigma^k), & \sigma_{ij} > \sigma^k \\ 0, & \sigma_{ij} \leq \sigma^k \end{cases} \quad (30) \quad 58$$

59 Where V^k is the volume of solid material k and κ_{erosion} is a con-
 60 trol parameter. In practice, this formulation could result in an ex-
 61 changed volume superior to the volume present in the solid parti-
 62 cles. Indeed, in the case of strong shear stress or low volume parti-
 63 cle, the computed values can get bigger than the actual volume
 64 of the particle. In such a case, we perform an explicit exchanged
 65 volume verification and clamp the results if necessary to guaran-
 66 tee volume conservation. The solid volume boundary handling is
 67 further discussed in Section 4.1.

68 3.5. Dissolution

69 Some granular materials have a stronger affinity to water molecules
 70 than their surrounding ones. This affinity is called solubility, and
 71 these materials are considered soluble (e.g., sugar, salts ...). The

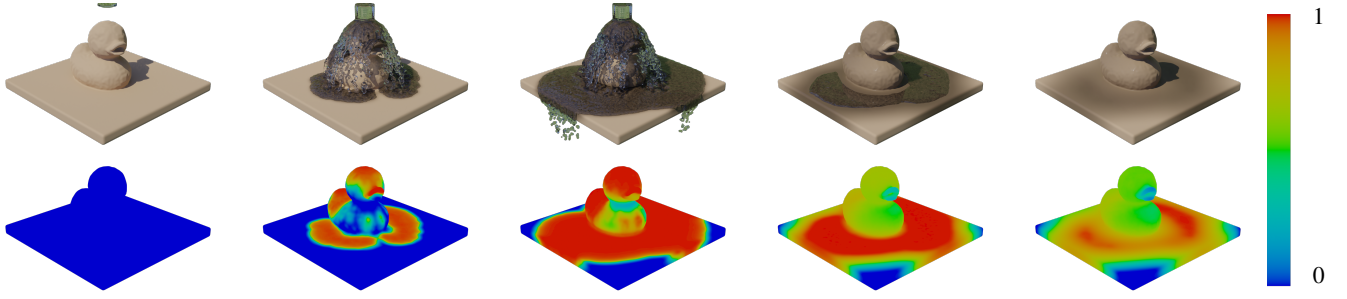


Figure 6: Wetting and drying process of a porous material. Top: rendered view. Bottom: Heatmap of the pore saturation in water.

1 capacity of a material to be dissolved by water is correlated to its
2 capacity to diffuse within the water.

3 Unlike erosion, dissolution does not require forces such as shear
4 stress to occur. This process only depends on the contact area be-
5 tween the two phases and the sediment concentration C^{sk} in the
6 fluid phase. We use a variation of equation (24) with a concentra-
7 tion set to $\text{Max}C^{sk}$ for solid particles containing the material k . For
8 a fluid particle i and solid particles j , dissolution can be written:

$$9 \quad \frac{\partial V_i^{sk}}{\partial t} = (2r)^2 \sum_j V_j^k D^{sk} (C_i^{sk} - C_j^{sk}) \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (31)$$

$$10 \quad \frac{\partial V_j^{sk}}{\partial t} = (2r)^2 V_j^k \sum_i D^{sk} (C_j^{sk} - C_i^{sk}) \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (32)$$

11
12 As the dissolution process can be altered by various external factors
13 (such as temperature, pressure, acidity, basicity, etc.) and depends
14 on the material considered, we rely on this simplified model where
15 we neglect these factors. Accounting for these factors would be a
16 clear venue for future works.

17 3.6. Evaporation

18 Evaporation is a phenomenon that occurs on the surface of a liquid
19 that progressively changes it to gas (i.e., vaporization). It is a key
20 component of the aging process as it contributes to sediment depo-
21 sition and crystallization. Moreover, it guides water flow in the pore
22 space by draining water from the surface, thus causing an internal
23 flow to reach the surface. Evaporation is mainly influenced by two
24 factors: Temperature and Relative Humidity.

25 **Temperature diffusion** is constrained by a temperature diffusiv-
26 ity α which is defined for each material. Temperature T variations
27 is given by Fick's law of diffusion:

$$28 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha \nabla^2 T \quad (33)$$

29 For each particle, we compute α_i as a weighted average of its
30 composing materials intrinsic heat diffusivity. The heat diffusivity
31 of fluid particles is constant and set to water heat diffusivity (e.g.
32 $\alpha_i \approx 0.143e-6 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$). We can compute the temperature diffusion
33 using the SPH formalism:

$$34 \quad \frac{\partial T_i}{\partial t} = - \sum_j \min(\alpha_i, \alpha_j) (T_i - T_j) V_j \nabla^2 W_{ij} \quad (34)$$

35 **Relative humidity** is the proportion of the amount of water va-
36 por in the air and the water vapor the air would contain at a spe-
37 cific temperature to balance fluid surface evaporation. This ratio
38 can be interpreted as the propensity of the air to capture molecules
39 from a fluid surface. The relative humidity H is defined as the ratio
40 of partial water vapor pressure p^w and the equilibrium water vapor
41 pressure p^{*w} .

42 In our case, H is set by the user as the input scene meteorological
43 condition. In order to estimate the equilibrium water vapor pressure
44 p^{*w} (eq. (35)), we use the Buck equation [Buc81] which exhibits
45 the best accuracy between 0 and 100 degrees celsius. Most natural
46 phenomena involving material transport matches this range.

$$47 \quad p^{*w}(T) = 6.1121 \cdot e^{(18.678 - \frac{T}{234.3}) \cdot \frac{T}{257.14+T}} \quad (35)$$

48 Since we want to obtain the partial pressure of water vapor in the
49 air p^w , using the known relative humidity H_{air} and temperature of
50 the air T_{air} , we can compute:

$$51 \quad p_{\text{air}}^w = H p^{*w}(T_{\text{air}}) \quad (36)$$

52 In our case, since we want to know the evaporation rate on our
53 surface, we consider its partial water vapor pressure as its equilib-
54 rium state for a given temperature. The water vapor pressure at a
55 surface particle i is then given by:

$$56 \quad p_i^w = p^{*w}(T_i) \quad (37)$$

57 Pressure gradient is given by the difference between p_{air}^w and p_i^w .
58 Taking into account the contact area between a particle and the air
59 (see Section 3.4) and a control factor κ_{evap} (set to 10^{-3} in shown
60 examples), we compute the evaporated or condensed amount of wa-
61 ter as:

$$62 \quad \frac{\partial V_i^f}{\partial t} = \kappa_{\text{evap}} (2r)^2 (p_i^w - p_{\text{air}}^w) \quad (38)$$

63 3.7. Sediment Deposition

64 We have seen how external water moves around the scene, how it
65 interacts with porous mediums, and how it gets transported through
66 the pore space. In addition, we have seen how sediments can form
67 by being ripped off the surface of the solid or dissolved in the fluid
68 and how the fluid transports those sediments. To finalize our sed-
69 iment transport model, we need to account for the phase transi-
70 tion of the sediments from fluid-carried to solid. In this section, we

1 study volume transfer from the fluid phase to the solid phase from
2 a physical perspective. Stable solid particle insertion and volume
3 evolution of the surface are addressed in Section 4.1.

4 The deposition is the result of particles settling on a solid sur-
5 face. When sediments are denser than water or when concentration
6 is above water capacity, deposition will occur. This process is re-
7 sponsible for the transformation of sediment into solid matter.

8 As previously studied in Section 3.3, sediments settle in a fluid
9 following equation (27). We modify this formulation for surface
10 interaction between a fluid particle i and a surface solid particle j :

$$11 \quad \frac{\partial V_j^k}{\partial t} = (2r)^2 \sum_i \kappa_{\text{depos}} V_i^{S_k} (\mathbf{v}_{ij}^{S_k} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) \nabla W_{ij} \quad (39)$$

12 Where κ_{depos} is a control parameter affecting the amount of de-
13 position. In addition, when a fluid particle become overly concen-
14 trated ($C_i^{S_k} > \text{Max}C^{S_k}$) due to volume loss (e.g. evaporation and
15 penetration in porous medium), sediments must be deposited on a
16 nearby existing surface. In this case, we transfer the excess sedi-
17 ment volume in the fluid particle to nearby surface solid particles.

18 4. Implementation Details

19 In the simulation, spawning and deleting particles is a delicate pro-
20 cess that must be carefully implemented to ensure stability. Due to
21 the multiple phenomena our method handles, particles must appear
22 and disappear to best represent the weathering scene. In our simu-
23 lations, particles can only appear and disappear near the phases
24 boundary. To enforce stability, we must ensure the boundary does
25 not show abrupt changes over time. In this section, we describe
26 how to handle volume variation at the boundary and how to handle
27 outflow from a porous material.

28 4.1. Solid Volume Variation

29 In weathering, multiple important phenomena are related to inter-
30 actions between different phases. A key aspect of our method is
31 the handling of boundaries and their evolution over time. Due to
32 deposition, dissolution, and erosion, material volumes can switch
33 from one phase to another. When this happens, it creates a volume
34 variation in the solid phase. We thus have to take into account the
35 boundary modification accordingly.

36 If we only consider the solid volume scalar field for each particle
37 during the external flow process, fluid particles could slip through
38 solids to compensate for the volume loss of the solid particles. To
39 ensure the iso-surface remains continuous, we adapted the bound-
40 ary model defined by Akinci et al. [AIA*12] which overestimates
41 the density of particles at the boundary of the solid. In our case, we
42 account for the solid volume variation at boundary as:

$$43 \quad \text{BoundaryVolume}(i) = \frac{V_i}{\sum_j V_j W_{ij}} \quad (40)$$

45 Weathering effects such as dissolution and erosion will remove
46 matter from the material, whereas deposition will add matter onto
47 the surface. These effects hence compete against each other. If
48 managed sequentially, the result of those phenomenons would be

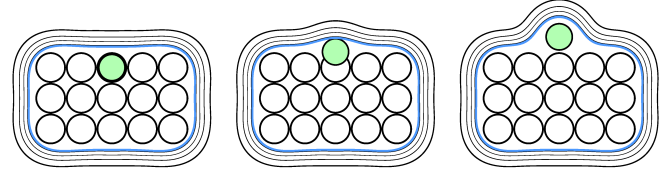


Figure 7: When solid sediment are deposited on another surface a new particle must be created (shown in green) to account for the volume change. As its volume ratio (eq. (40)) increases through time (from left to right: 0.0, 0.5, 1.0), the novel particle is gradually displaced to its final grid position.

order-dependent and would require multiple neighborhood recom- 49
putation. On the other hand, performing all operations at once be- 50
fore applying them to the simulation allows us to break the order- 51
dependency and reduce the overall cost of a simulation step. Up to 52
this point, we know the amount of matter variation at the boundary, 53
and we need to reflect it on the solid boundary. 54

In practice, we chose to organize solid materials using a regular 55
grid to ensure solid particles are evenly spaced within the materi- 56
al, preventing discontinuities. In addition, this regular grid facil- 57
itates the detection of boundary solid particles. For each grid cell, 58
we associate at most a single solid particle. The grid cell position 59
represents the particle position when it reaches the maximum parti- 60
cle volume (restricted by the kernel radius). The particle position 61
 \mathbf{x}_i at the boundary of the solid can be obtained by doing a linear 62
interpolation between the associated grid cell position $\mathbf{x}_i^{\text{grid}}$ and a 63
target position below the surface $\mathbf{x}_i^{\text{subsurface}}$ using its volume ratio 64
 V_i/V_{max} . This target position is given by: 65

$$66 \quad \mathbf{x}_i^{\text{subsurface}} = \mathbf{x}_i^{\text{grid}} - 2r \frac{\hat{\mathbf{N}}}{\max(|n_x|, |n_y|, |n_z|)} \quad (41)$$

67
68 Where $\hat{\mathbf{N}}$ is the normalized normal vector $\mathbf{N} = (n_x, n_y, n_z)^t$ obtained
69 by evaluating the density field gradient at \mathbf{x}_i . Then, when a parti-
70 cle loses volume, its position moves toward the interior of the solid
71 material. When its volume reaches zero, the particle is fully merged
72 in the surface. Thus, simply removing the particle from the simu-
73 lation does not introduce any discontinuities. Similarly, when matter
74 is added to the surface, new particles are spawned at the boundary
75 and shifted toward the object's interior. As their volume increase,
76 the newly-created particles progressively reach their final position
77 without creating discontinuities on the surface (as seen in Fig. 7).

78 4.2. Fluid Outflow

79 As previously discussed in Section 3.2, water can travel through
80 the pore space of a solid material. The water volume exchanged
81 between particles is described using equations (15) and (17). Since
82 fluid particles are considered saturated, and diffusion transfers fluid
83 volume from saturated particles to lesser ones, diffusion will not
84 cause outward flow.

Using equation (17), water volume is transferred from a solid 85

1 volume particle to a fluid particle j if and only if it is located toward
 2 the advection direction ($\rho_0 \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{ij} > 0$) and $V_j^f < V_{max}$. New fluid
 3 particles are spawned near the surface when the porous material
 4 contains water, and there are no fluid particles near the surface.

5. Results

6 In this section, we explicit the process of turning the resulting
 7 simulated data into exploitable assets for a standard renderer
 8 workflow, as well as discuss the results shown in our paper.

10 **Rendering:** Figures shown in this paper are rendered using the fol-
 11 lowing pipeline. For each phase (fluid and solid), we project the
 12 density field using SPH continuum equation (see eq. (1)) on a 3D
 13 lattice vertices. It allows us to reconstruct the surface of each phase
 14 by using a marching cube algorithm. To represent the sediments
 15 contained within the fluid phase, we export a concentration field
 16 for each by sampling their volume scalar field at each voxel of a
 17 sparse grid using OpenVDB format. Those fields will later be used
 18 as the absorption parameters of a volume BSDF.

19 Because we chose to use a physically-based rendering (PBR)
 20 workflow, material textures (albedo, metallic, roughness, specular)
 21 are created for the solid surface. We create a UV-parametrization
 22 of the surface, and for each texel of the PBR texture, we sample the
 23 material volume scalar fields accordingly and perform a weighted
 24 average of the material parameters. In addition, the albedo is mod-
 25 ified to account for the presence of sediments within the object
 26 pores. This is obtained by using the porosity scalar field and a
 27 per-sediment absorption parameter. The wetting effect is achieved
 28 by darkening the material and increasing its clearcoat. Alterna-
 29 tively, approaches like [HPMG06, BDP21] can be used to render
 30 wet porous materials. Finally, these data are fed into a standard
 31 production rendering engine (e.g. Blender) to produce realistic im-
 32 agery.

33 Note that this specific rendering pipeline is purely illustrative,
 34 and some of the chosen effects are exaggerated for better readabil-
 35 ity.

36 **Results:** Our approach can model the interaction of multiple phe-
 37 nomena, leading to a weathered representation of a 3D scene. In
 38 this section, we describe how different combinations of elementary
 39 phenomena can create different effects on the scene.

40 First, In Figures 1 and 4 we demonstrate a simple example of the
 41 capability of our framework. In this example, we simulate making
 42 coffee as in any good morning routine. This simulation combines
 43 three distinct elementary phenomena to recreate the wanted effect.
 44 First, the water is poured onto the dry coffee, then, the coffee *dis-*
 45 *solves* into the water, and finally the water *transport* the coffee sed-
 46 iment across the filter through *porous flow* and drips into the glass.

47 Then, in figure 5, we demonstrate erosion, sediment transport,
 48 and deposition in a simple scene where a fluid is poured on brittle
 49 material similar to sand. In this example, the brittle material is
 50 *eroded* and captured by the fluid as sediment and then *transported*
 51 within the fluid. Finally, the sediments are *deposited* elsewhere in
 52 the scene.

53 In figure 6, we show a simulation that illustrates the porous flow



Figure 8: Stains produced by dirty water coming out of a hole. It shows diffusion of water and sediments in the medium and deposition on the surface after evaporation.

and evaporation. This scene is composed of single highly porous material that gets "wetted" by flow spray. This simulation shows how the *porous flow* helps transport fluid across a material. Finally, the fluid *evaporates*, and the material slowly goes back to its initial state. This simulation also illustrates the importance of simulating as many elementary phenomena as possible, especially those that modify the object boundary and composition.

In figure 8, we simulate pouring saturated fluid onto a slightly porous material. In this simulation, the fluid is saturated with colored sediment. These sediments are *transported* by the water through the *porous flow*, and leave colored stains when the fluid *evaporates*.

Figure 9 is the summarization of the different effects illustrated previously. Water is poured over a volume of soil, *eroding* it as it flows and carrying sediments over two materials, one waterproof and a porous one. Leaving *deposits* on the impervious surface and *stains* on the porous wall. Finally, the saturated water *penetrates* the wall and *seeps* into the base of the wall.

Finally, in figure 10, we simulate the complex process of efflorescence formation. This process happens when salt sediments (gypsum) are deposited when fluid (groundwater) *transport*s it through a material *porous space* via capillary action. These sediments are *deposited* on the surface of the object due to the *evaporation* of their carrier fluid.

6. Discussion & Limitations

As shown above, our method can handle interactions between the pore space and external fluids. However, it does not account for in-

1 teractions within the pore space. For instance, when fluid travels in
 2 the porous medium, dissolution can affect the size of internal pores.
 3 Similarly, sediment deposition or crystallization can also affect the
 4 internal geometry of the object and can lead to internal stress or
 5 structure deformations (e.g., cracks caused by salt crystallization,
 6 peeling paint layer on a wet wood surface). Considering these internal
 7 interactions would be a promising venue for future works.

8 Since wetting plays an essential role in a wide range of phenom-
 9 ena, it would be interesting to study the airflow and its interaction
 10 with the porous medium. It would allow a more accurate model of
 11 the water vapor pressure in the whole volume instead of relying
 12 solely on the temperature at the interface. Furthermore, a refined
 13 water vapor model could allow for a precise organic growth model
 14 within the porous mediums. In a more general manner, chemical
 15 interactions between fluid, sediments and solid matter could widen
 16 the range of phenomena we can depict (e.g. rust formation, corro-
 17 sion) and enrich our simplified dissolution model.

18 In the case of water flowing through and dripping from a materi-
 19 al (as illustrated in Fig. 1 and Fig. 4), the fluid outflow described
 20 in Section 4.2 requires the creation of new particles. As newly cre-
 21 ated particles may have a low volume, the number of particles con-
 22 sidered within the neighborhood can be large, hampering perfor-
 23 mances in the scenes mentioned earlier.

24 All results shown in this work consider solid volumes to be static.
 25 In order to integrate moving objects, approaches relying on per-
 26 object local grids (like [WCMT07]) could be considered. However,
 27 our proposed solid volume handling (see Section 4.1) should be un-
 28 suitable in the context of multiple moving objects. More specially,
 29 objects that are close to each other must be carefully considered
 30 when new particles spawn at their common interface and should re-
 31 quire taking to account mechanical forces. Despite everything, our
 32 proposed porous flow model should remain correct if we integrate
 33 motion acceleration during advection computations.

34 7. Conclusion & Future Works

35 Our main objective is to produce the weathered representation of a
 36 pristine scene to enrich realistic imagery. In this context, we pre-
 37 sented a framework based on SPH to model interactions between
 38 porous objects, fluid, and sediments.

39 This model can depict reversible phenomena like wetting and
 40 evaporation. It can also handle alteration of the object geometry
 41 through dissolution, deposition, and erosion and the alteration of
 42 object appearance via deposition and sediment transport. Through
 43 the interactions between these processes, our framework success-
 44 fully approximates physically plausible results which can be found
 45 in nature.

46 More interactions between materials could be accounted for in
 47 future works by solving the chemical reactions occurring in the
 48 scene. Furthermore, the accurate simulation of interactions within
 49 the pore space could lead to new research in organic growth and
 50 mechanical simulation for weathering. Finally, using the simulation
 51 data to deduce a mesoscale spatially-varying BSDF could reduce
 52 the gap between simulations of the aging process and the rendering
 53 of a weathered scene.

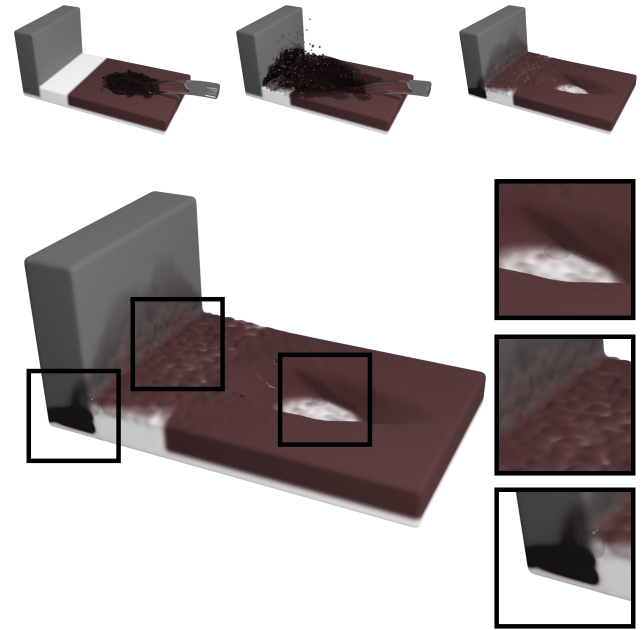


Figure 9: Erosion, Transport, Deposition and Porous flow occurring in the same scenario. **Top row** shows different points of the animation: before, during and after the water jet. **Middle** exhibits the outcome of the simulation. **Insets** depicts close-ups of the illustrated effects, from top to bottom: erosion, deposits and stains, porous flow.

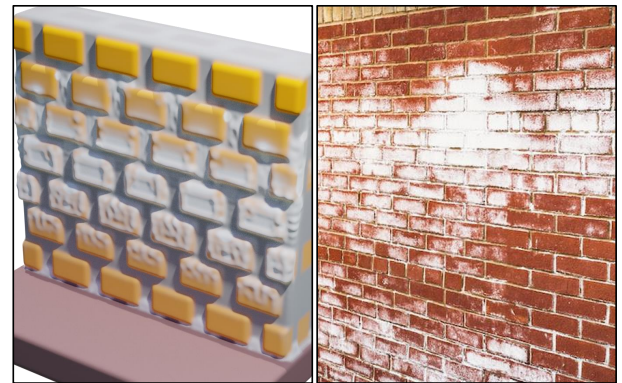


Figure 10: Efflorescence process on a brick wall. Salt is carried from the underground to the surface by ground water. It then deposits on the surface due to evaporation resulting in gypsum formation. **Top row:** Pristine wall. **Bottom row:** Weathered wall. **Left column:** Particle representation. **Right column:** Rendered result.

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