

Calculation of Mountain Bike Suspension Settings through Image Analysis

Joe Barrett - 40117680

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Abstract

To do (1)

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1 Introduction

1.1 Context

The suspension on a mountain bike plays a vital part in the rider's performance, comfort and overall enjoyment of the sport. With some suspension units costing upwards of £1000 it is vital that they are setup to function correctly. The objective of this dissertation is to examine how image analysis can be used in the set-up of mountain bike suspension, and produce a prototype application that helps beginner and intermediate riders to carry out an initial set-up.

1.2 Background

A survey carried out by the International Mountain Bike Association found that the average price paid for a mountain bike was €2546 (£2206) (IMBA Europe, 2015). Starting at approximately £1000 (Giant Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 2017c), enthusiast level mountain bikes can be purchased with suspension for both the front and rear wheels, known as Full Suspension (FS) bikes whereas Hard Tail (HT) bikes only have front suspension units; this difference can be seen in Figure 1. The price of higher specification mountain bikes can run to many thousands of pounds, but even entry level models are equipped with adjustable suspension units that need to be correctly configured to the rider's weight and the characteristics of the terrain.



Figure 1: Hardtail and full suspension mountain bikes (Giant Manufacturing Co. Ltd., 2017a, 2017b)

It has been proven that using a FS bike as opposed to a HT gives the rider a measurable performance advantage (Titlestad, Fairlie-Clarke, Davie, Whittaker, & Grant, 2003). However, if the suspension fork and/or rear shock have not been correctly configured it can be detrimental to the rider's performance and potentially lead to injury. For example, if a shock has too little rebound damping set and the rider goes off a jump, the excessive speed at which the rear of the bike extends can create forwards rotation, causing the rider to go over the handlebars of the bike. However many enthusiasts lack the specialist knowledge required to optimize the set-up of their bike's suspension units and as a consequence compromise their performance and riding experience.

Additionally, an incorrect suspension setup can cause excessive wear and tear on the

bike's frame and components. For instance, suspension which is set too soft will cause "bottoming out" where the unit reaches the end of its available range so that excess forces are transferred to the frame causing stress and potentially dramatic fracture that could result in injury. Conversely, suspension that is set too hard forces energy that would normally be absorbed to the wheels resulting in denting and warping of the rims.

Many bicycle retailers will configure the suspension of a newly purchased mountain bike for the customer at the time of collection. Most of the time this will be enough to avoid incident but as the customer is unlikely to be wearing weighty protection equipment and accessories such as helmet, body armour and hydration pack, this initial setup is rarely accurate. Furthermore, with some manufacturers choosing direct sales over local retailers (Harker, 2010; Staff, 2015), even this rudimentary setup can be omitted altogether.

Since the birth of the modern smartphone in 2007, brought about by the first generation Apple® iPhone® and introduction of the Android™ mobile operating system, the use of mobile computing in everyday life has grown rapidly. Google™ stated that there were approximately 1.4 billion active Android users worldwide in 2015 (Callaham, 2015).

The introduction of activity tracking devices and mobile applications such as FitBit (Diaz et al., 2015) and Strava (West, 2015) and their growing popularity (Formosa, 2012) shows that many individuals like to use their smartphones to aid or augment their performance and enjoyment of their chosen hobby or sport. On the back of this increase in the use of smartphone, a number of companies have launched small devices (Aston, 2016; Hwang, 2016) and mobile applications (Benedict, 2012) designed to help riders setup and fine tune their own suspension, either at home or while out on a ride. Each of the devices produced cost more than £100 and require the suspension to have an initial set up in place and the only mobile application capable of producing an initial setup is tied to a single suspension manufacturer.

1.3 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this project is to create a prototype application capable of providing the user with a suggested suspension setup using image analysis techniques. This will be achieved by meeting the following objectives:

- Complete a literature review of mountain bike suspension and image analysis techniques including how image analysis is currently used in sports science.
- Implement the prototype application using identified and researched methods
- Evaluate the success and appropriateness of the produced application
- Present conclusions about the project's successes and downfalls

1.4 Dissertation Structure

This dissertation will document the project by taking the following structure:

- 1 Introduction** - Outlines the context of the project and states the major aims and objectives
- 2 Literature Review** - Presents a literature review to further describe the project context and provide information on mountain bike suspension concepts and image analysis techniques
- 3 Methodology** - Discusses the methodologies available which could be used to complete the project and their advantages
- 4 Results** - Describes the outcome of the project including any deviations from the plan, the operation of the application, and a critical evaluation of the application
- 5 Conclusion** - Presents conclusions and learnings from completion of the project including potential future work and a self appraisal

2 Literature Review

The aim of this project is to produce an application that makes use of image analysis techniques to provide the user with a suggested set-up for their suspension units. This literature review will identify the intricacies involved in correctly configuring a rear suspension unit and how these make it difficult for riders to do it themselves. It will then go on to highlight how image analysis is carried out and identify the various techniques that are relevant to this project. This review will shed light on the problem at hand and help identify a viable solution.

2.1 Mountain Bike Suspension Concepts

The purpose of suspension on a mountain bike is to absorb the energy created from riding over features such as bumps and rough terrain encountered along a trail, improving comfort for the rider and allowing them to go faster by maintaining better contact between the tires and the ground. This requires the use of a spring and damper, collectively known as a shock absorber, which allows the wheel to move away from the feature on contact and make a controlled return once it has been passed.

2.1.1 Travel and Stroke

Travel is the distance which the bike's fork or frame allow the wheel to move in an upward direction while stroke is the distance that the shock absorber can compress before it bottoms out. Travel is measured in millimetres or inches and can range from 80mm to 210mm or 4in to 9in. Bikes designed for different disciplines require differing amounts of travel with those designed for cross-country riding typically requiring less travel than those designed for more aggressive disciplines such as downhill racing having more. See Table 1 for typical specifications.

Table 1: Table of common suspension travels and intended disciplines

| Travel (mm) | Cross Country | Trail | Enduro | Downhill |
|-------------|---------------|-------|--------|----------|
| 80 | | | | |
| 100 | | | | |
| 120 | | | | |
| 140 | | | | |
| 160 | | | | |
| 180 | | | | |
| +200 | | | | |

2.1.2 Front Suspension

Front suspension commonly employs a linear telescoping shock absorber, known as a fork due to its dual sided construction. On nearly all suspension forks the stroke is 1:1 with the potential travel of the wheel. Front suspension is found on all FS and HT bikes.

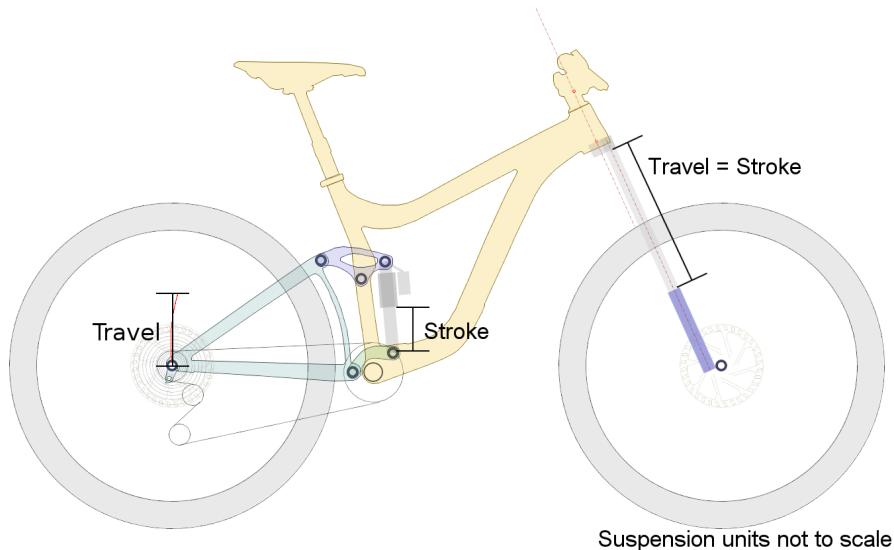


Figure 2: Diagram showing travel and stroke on a full suspension bike¹

2.1.3 Rear Suspension

Rear suspension uses a shock absorber that is much shorter than a fork so it cannot operate on a 1:1 ratio and still allow the desired travel. Full suspension frames incorporate one or more pivot points and linkages which allow the wheel to move and act as multipliers for the suspension. Rear ratios are expressed as n:1 where n is the average distance the rear wheel moves for every 1mm the shock compresses throughout its stroke; the leverage ratio changing constantly across the compression cycle.

The difference between front and rear stroke and travel can be seen in Figure 2 noting the separation of rear wheel travel from the stroke of the shock absorber. Although manufacturers design their rear suspension differently, the rear wheel always rotates around the main pivot, (or in some cases a virtual pivot), as opposed to moving linearly as front forks do. As a result, the frame behaves differently through its travel, depending on the number and location of pivot points and the type of shock that it is being used.

Because of this the average ratio is normally dismissed in favour of a leverage curve that plots the ratio n:1 throughout the compression cycle. Figure 3 shows the leverage curves of three modern suspension designs. Each of these designs has between 150mm and 170mm of travel and uses the 27.5 inch wheel size. However, it is evident that varying the location of pivot points produces suspension with drastically different characteristics.

The Virtual Pivot Point (VPP) design of the Giant Reign (shown blue) has an initial falling rate, meaning the shock can be compressed easily, but slows down and even rises slightly towards the end of its travel as seen in Figure 3. This means the suspension will feel soft most of the time but stiffer as compression increases. This is emphasised by the Horst link system of the Lapierre Spicy (shown magenta) where the leverage curve rises significantly towards the end of its travel. In contrast, the curve of the single pivot Empire MX-6 Evo (shown green) is effectively linear. This is due to the MX-6 having only one pivot and swinging arm, as opposed to multiple pivots and linkages of the VPP and horst link designs, so there is an almost direct input from the

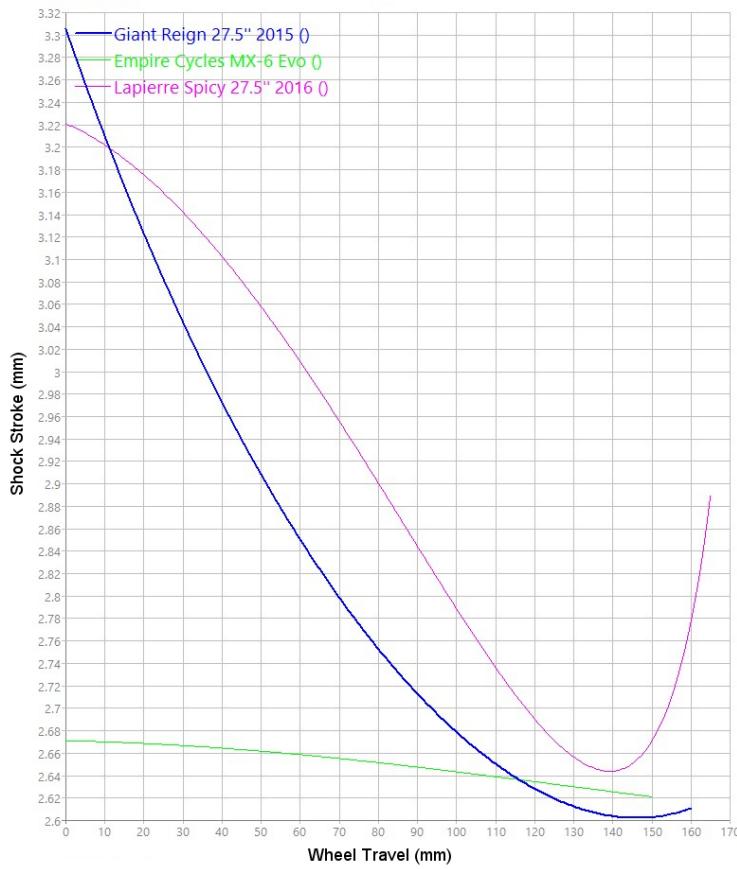


Figure 3: Leverage curves of three modern suspension designs

rear wheel to the shock. The physical differences in each of these frames can be seen in Figure 4.

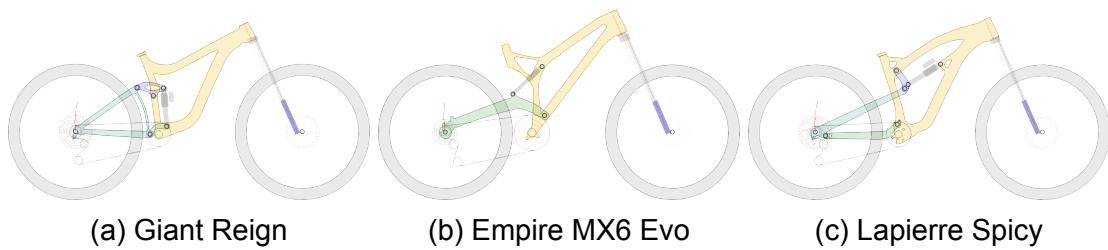


Figure 4: Full suspension frame comparison

For this project two bikes will be used for development and testing of the application. The first is a 2015 Giant Reign, shown on figure 3 in blue, as it will be constantly available throughout the project. The frame uses Giant's Maestro™ suspension system which is a variation of VPP. Like all VPP systems Maestro uses two links, an upper and lower, to create a virtual main pivot point, however unlike other VPP systems, Maestro creates its virtual pivot as close to the rear of the frame as possible As shown by the red circle in Figure 5. The second will be a 2011 Orange 5 which has the same suspension design as the Empire MX6 Evo in Figure 3. This bike was selected as it has a completely different design to the Giant Reign and will also be easily accessible throughout the project.

Although rear suspension designs are complex, neither the average rider nor profes-

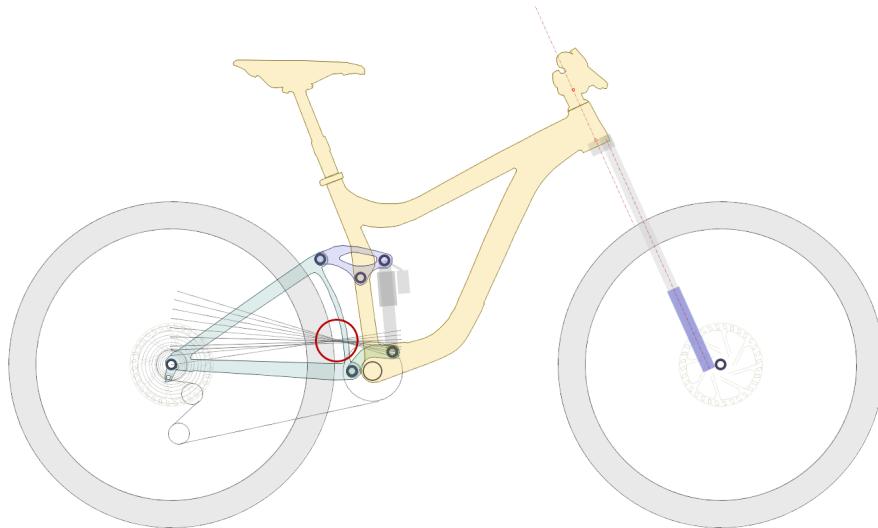


Figure 5: Maestro suspension

sionals, such as mechanics, working in the industry necessarily need this specialist knowledge. Leverage curves are predominantly used by designers to determine how a particular suspension unit will behave when researching and designing new frames (Cane Creek, 2016). Though having an understanding of leverage curves will help the individual rider to fine tune their suspensions settings described in the following sections themselves, the majority will take little interest in the differences between a single pivot and VPP design, choosing a simpler "set and forget" approach to their suspension.

In the context of this project and the intended user for the application, this begs the question of how much information should be provided to the user? Modern human/computer interaction principles aim toward providing information to the user which is relevant and necessary in context (Shneiderman, 2010). Presenting the user with a leverage curve which may require extensive interpretation before they understand the implications within the limitations of a mobile application may prove detrimental to the user experience. For an application which is intended to remove the difficulties of suspension setup and allow for quick and easy production of a basic setup, providing a single sag setting would be preferable over a plethora of technical data.

2.1.4 Sag

To do ⁽²⁾ Sag is the amount that the suspension sits into its travel when the rider is in a neutral position, described in Figure 6. It is required so that the suspension has travel available to extend as well as just compress and is calculated using the rider's weight, available travel, and intended riding style.

The amount of sag depends on the stiffness of the suspension unit which can be adjusted by changing the air pressure of an air spring or replacing the spring and adjusting the preload of a traditional coil shock. Depending on discipline and the amount of travel the bike has, sag can vary between 15% and 40% of the available travel though it is typically set at between 25% and 35% for the average rider with greater variances only encountered in competition.

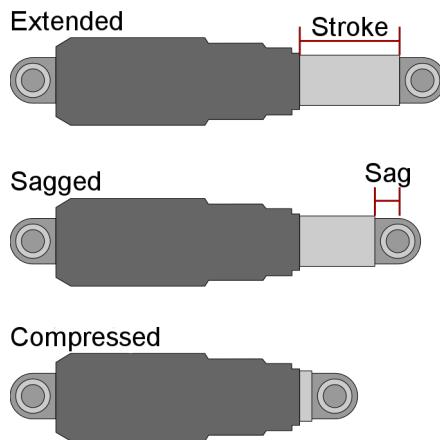


Figure 6: Diagram of shock states indicating sag

Sag is set by first calculating the distance that the shock should sit into its travel by producing the desired percentage of the shocks stroke. For an air shock the manufacturers recommended pressure is then pumped into the shock and the rider weights the bike. On each air shock there is a marker o-ring which is pushed down the shock shaft when the shock is compressed. The position this o-ring ends at can be measured and the shock pressure adjusted accordingly until it sits at the target measurement.

2.1.5 Damping

In a spring and mass system, when the spring is elongated it will exert a returning force on the mass which, according to Hooke's law (Rychlewski, 1984), is directly proportionate to the distance which the spring has been pulled. In suspension this force is explained as two separate forces. If an individual were to push down on mountain bike suspension they would feel a resistance, this is known as compression, and when they let go the suspension will return to its neutral state, this is rebound. Both of these can be controlled which is known as damping.

Suspension damping works by forcing oil within the shock absorber through a series of holes in the absorber's damping circuit. Reducing the size or number of holes increases resistance, reducing the speed at which the oil flows through the circuit to increase the damping effect by making compression and rebound slower.

2.1.5.1 Compression Damping This is applied while the shock absorber is being compressed to control the effort required to do so. Increasing damping forces the wheel to remain in contact with the ground which makes the suspension feel stiffer. However too much compression damping can make the suspension overly stiff so it does not effectively absorb the impact of bumps and rough terrain. Conversely, too little compression damping can cause the suspension to "blow through" all of the available travel prematurely with nothing left to soak up impact when it is most required.

2.1.5.2 Rebound Damping This is used to control the speed at which the shock absorber recovers to its normal riding position after compression. An optimal setting will allow the suspension to track the ground, quickly and smoothly returning to the

correct position after a bump or hole is passed.

Too much rebound damping causes the suspension unit to recover slowly and sometimes “pack down” meaning the shock absorber remains compressed for too long leaving the rider fully exposed to the next impact. Too little rebound damping can cause the suspension to “buck” the rider, like a horse, and potentially cause an accident.

2.1.5.3 High and Low Speed Damping The ways of adjusting compression and rebound damping differ by manufacturer and model with better specified bikes having two adjustable speeds for each damping circuit giving four damping settings. High speed adjustments are used in high G-force situations such as riding large jumps or drops where compression needs to be set softer to absorb impacts and rebound set slower so the rider has time to recover without the equilibrium of the bike being upset.

Low speed damping set ups are used against lower G-force movements such as rider weight shifts or long, slow compressions. Optimally compression is set stiffer as this type of feature can use a lot of travel and rebound damping set faster to deal with multiple features in quick succession.

2.1.6 Optimal Setup

Although setups will vary between rider, suspension system and discipline, there are some key principles that all riders should aim to achieve. Sag should be set to an appropriate measurement by adjusting the air pressure on air shocks or spring rating on coil shocks. Compression damping should feel soft and soak up bumps efficiently without excessive bottoming out. Rebound damping should be set to return as fast as possible without bucking the rider, which is normally somewhere in the middle of the two setting available with a slight bias towards the faster option.

Attaining this optimal setup can be difficult for both beginners and intermediate riders as they lack experience and in-depth knowledge of suspension units and may not know how different frames react while being ridden. Knowing which measurements to make and the calculations required to correctly configure sag, compression and rebound settings are typically beyond the capabilities of this level of rider unless they have been previously trained by a professional or investigated the topic in detail for themselves.

2.2 Image Analysis

Image Analysis (IA) is the use of various techniques such as pattern recognition, geometry calculations and signal processing to extract information from digital images . Image processing is the application of various processes on an image to change or enhance its appearance. In practice, the processing stage normally comes before the analysis stage as a way of simplifying the image prior to analysis in order to maximize the likelihood of generating usable data.

2.2.1 Digital Camera Operation

A digital camera operates by capturing visible light reflected by objects onto the camera's sensor. The light must travel from the object through a convex focusing lens which refracts the light onto a corresponding point on the sensor.

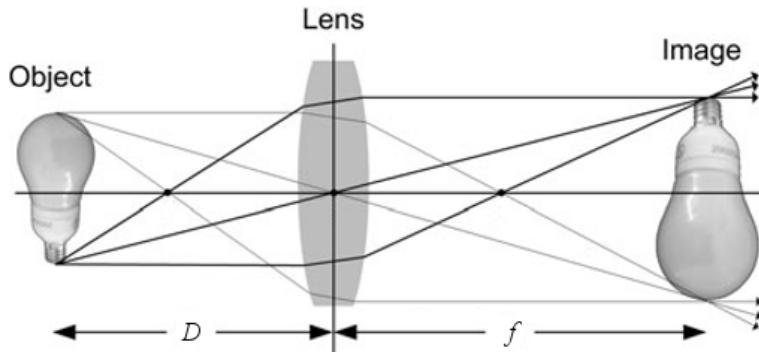


Figure 7: Diagram of camera and lens operation (Moeslund, 2012)

The distance between where light enters the lens and the point at which it is no longer diffused is known as the focal length, marked f in figure 7. This point can be adjusted by changing the optical characteristics of the lens so that the refracted light hits the sensor to create a sharply focussed image.

A camera's sensor is made up of an array of photosensitive cells capable of collecting light and generating an integer value based on the brightness and colour of the received light. The microprocessor inside the camera takes these values and converts them into the image data, sometimes taking an average of the surrounding values to better understand the light as it was captured. Each of the cells in the camera's sensor equates to a single pixel in the final imaged, so for example, a camera with a sensor made up of 1920 cells across by 1080 down (otherwise known as a 2 megapixel sensor) produces an image 1920 pixels wide and 1080 high. The larger the physical size of the sensor, the more cells it can contain resulting in a higher quality image.

Image processing is the manipulation of these integer values to adjust the visual appearance of the image for either artistic or scientific purposes. Image analysis is the comparison of these values either to their neighbours or in clusters to locate features, produce measurements, or for other purposes within the context of the image.

2.2.2 Lighting Conditions

When capturing images to be analysed, it is important to have good lighting conditions so that none of the required detail is lost (Moeslund, 2012). If the image is captured in unsuitable conditions, such as low light, then this can seriously affect the outcome of subsequent analysis.

Certain image processing techniques, such post-processing images captured as Camera RAW files, can help ameliorate poor lighting conditions though this is not foolproof and it is always better to capture a well-lit image in camera. Figure 8 shows the effects

that different lighting angles have on a subject.

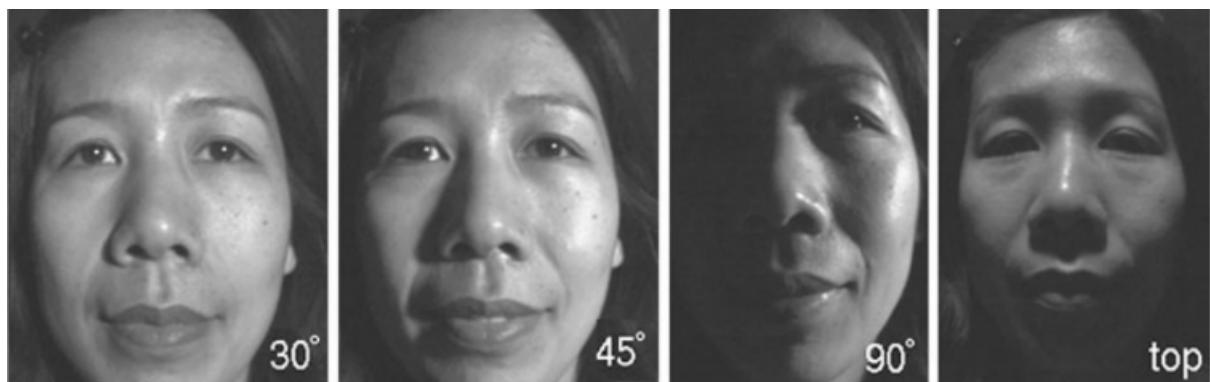


Figure 8: The effects of different lighting conditions on a face (Moeslund, 2012)

It can be seen that the situation which highlights the most detail is when the light source is directly in front of the subject matter. Such lighting reduces the amount of image processing required before analysing and produces the largest amount of usable data. In the context of this project many smartphones also have an integral flash function which means the user can correctly light their image in sub-optimal lighting conditions where required details may otherwise be lost.

2.2.3 Usages

Image processing and image analysis have been applied to multiple areas with its value and effectiveness rapidly improving alongside advances in camera technology and computing power. These applications range from facial recognition in social media uploads (Zuckerberg, Sittig, & Marlette, 2011) to the utilisation of satellite imagery to tracking the changing shape of coastlines (Potter, 2013).

2.2.3.1 Medical This is arguably one of the most important uses of IA. Advances in medical imaging have reduced costs, diagnosis time and patient recovery time while improving the ability to localise and personalise treatments (European Science Foundation, 2007). Major uses of IA in medical applications are the use of Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) and Computerised Topography Scanning (CT Scan) to create detailed images of the human body and identify illness before most symptoms arise. This is shown top left in Figure 9.

2.2.3.2 Transport Image analysis has been included in the consumer automotive market on various models since 2004 when Honda introduced a thermographic night vision camera with automatic pedestrian detection on their Legend model (Honda Motor Co., 2004). Other manufacturers including Audi have since introduced similar technology and their implementation can be seen top right in Figure 9. Since this initial use many other vehicle manufacturers have included functionality based on image analysis expanding its use into areas such as the automatic recognition of speed limit signs, lane departure warning systems, and automatic braking systems based on hazard recognition.

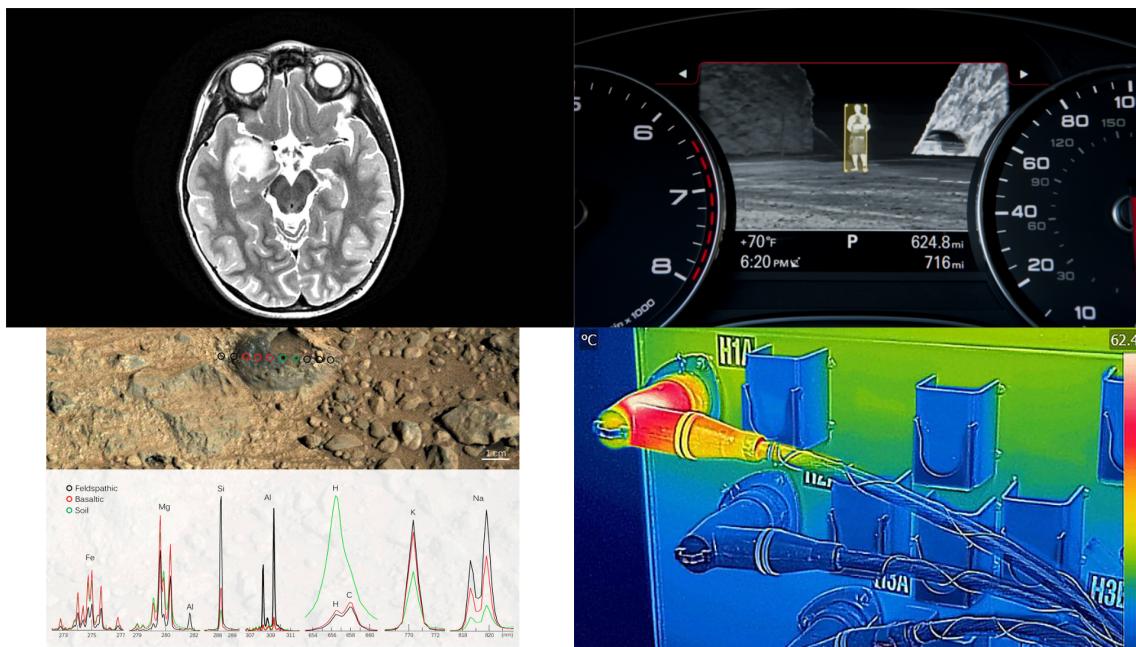


Figure 9: Uses of image analysis, from top left clockwise: An MRI brain scan, automotive night vision with pedestrian recognition, infrared image taken with a smartphone, chemical rock analysis from mars

2.2.3.3 Engineering The use of image analysis in engineering has helped to create more stable and efficient structures, in bridges and skyscrapers for example, by looking at the materials used in their construction (Masad, Muhunthan, Shashidhar, & Harman, 1999) and monitoring their stresses and potential weak areas (Kim & Kim, 2013). Today advances in mobile computing have allowed engineers to routinely use IA while on site and some application vendors target their products at an engineering sector by improving their durability and integrating features such as infrared imaging (Liszewski, 2016), the output of which can be seen lower right in Figure 9.

2.2.3.4 Space While some industries make use of satellite imagery to monitor changes to our own planet, agencies such as NASA and ESA use image analysis to look at other planets and celestial bodies. The Martian rover, Curiosity, uses multiple cameras for navigation, hazard avoidance, and scientific imaging with the images streamed back to Earth for detailed analysis. Major uses of such extraterrestrial images include the identification of geological formations and their likely composition (Blake et al., 2013; Garvin, Malin, & Miniti, 2014) and location and identification of chemicals using the analysis tools such as "ChemCam" (Schröder et al., 2015), which can be seen lower left in Figure 9.

2.2.4 Image Analysis Techniques

There are a number of analysis techniques which can be applied to imagery to extract information. Perhaps the most common is analysing the pixels in an image to identify discontinuities in their data values which suggest the edge of an object, structure or land mass. Such functionality is readily available on desktop image processing packages designed for amateur photographers (Adobe, 2017). But scientific and en-

gineering applications of edge detection provide far great levels of sensitivity helping isolate objects that can be subsequently measured with high level of accuracy (MatLab, 2017).

2.2.4.1 Thresholding Image thresholding is the most basic form of image segmentation (Haralock & Shapiro, 1991). By taking a greyscale image, the intensity of each pixel is examined and set to black if it is below a certain threshold or white if it is above though this is the simplest implementation. By thresholding an image, objects lose detail but their silhouettes become clearer making them more visible to object detection techniques.



Figure 10: A copy of Figure 1 with thresholding applied

2.2.4.2 Edge Detection This is the application of mathematical algorithms to locate and highlight the edges of features in an image. There are multiple algorithms which can be used for edge detection, including Sobel, Roberts, Canny, and fuzzy logic, although all utilise the same basic concept of comparing the data values of adjacent pixels to find "steps" from one value to another.

Table 2: Table of pixel data showing an edge

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|-----|-----|-----|
| 5 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 152 | 148 | 149 |
| | | | | | | |

Table 2 represents possible pixel values of an edge indicated by the large difference between 4 and 152. The applied algorithm will pick up this discontinuity which will be highlighted on the resulting image. A common application for edge detection is text recognition such as in automatic number plate recognition (ANPR) (Ahmad, Boufama, Habashi, Anderson, & Elamsy, 2015) where unwanted background data is automatically excluded using thresholding techniques to highlight the block shapes of the vehicle registration plate. Figure 11 shows an image which has had edge detection applied with the number plate of the car clearly visible.

2.2.4.3 Hough Transform ^{To do (3)} Originally created in 1962 by Paul Hough, the Hough transform methods offer techniques for the discovery of imperfect objects in images. The original algorithms were created for the detection of lines but have since been improved and adapted to find circles, ellipses, and other basic shapes.



Figure 11: Edge detection applied to an image for number plate recognition

While edge detection is suitable for highlighting critical points in an image, it can be problematic if the base image is not well lit or sharply focussed causing an edge detector to produce imperfect lines. Such artefacts can make rudimentary feature detection techniques difficult but the Hough Transformation techniques circumvent such issues by considering points as a part of an object through a voting procedure.

Linear Hough Transform To locate straight lines in an image, the linear Hough transform utilises Hesse normal form $r = x\cos\theta + y\sin\theta$. Lines, or planes, in an image are expressed as pairs of (r, θ)

Circular Hough Transform

2.2.4.4 Taking Measurements To measure the dimensions of an object in an image, certain data about the camera and its location are required. By using digital imagery, the majority of this information is automatically provided as each image contains metadata or EXchangeable Image Format (EXIF) data which includes information such as camera manufacturer, focal length, image size, and location if available.

$$H_o = \left(\frac{f \times \left(\frac{H_i}{H_s} \right)}{D - f} \right) \times H_c \quad (1)$$

where

- f is the focal length of the camera lens
- D is the distance to the object
- H_o is the height of the object
- H_i is the height of the image in pixels
- H_s is the height of the camera sensor
- H_c is the height of the camera from the ground

The process to calculate the height of an object in an image is shown in equation 1. Necessary data, such as f , H_i , and H_s can be acquired from EXIF data. However D

and H_c are not collected by the camera and must be measured. When dealing with image analysis this means that this data has to be collected at the time the image is taken.

However it is not necessary to collect data for H_o - the distance of the object being measured from the ground - as the size of the object is in direct proportion to its size on the camera's sensor so is not required. To test this equation, data was created from known object heights which was then re-used to see if the calculated height was equal to the actual height. For example:^{To do (4)}

To circumvent the need to collect data for H_c - the height of the camera -, a reference object of a known size can be included in the image as this allows a comparison to be made between the height of the object to be measured and the reference object. The previously mentioned Mars rover, Curiosity, carries a United States penny as a reference object so that its cameras can be precisely calibrated using reference charts as shown in Figure 12.



Figure 12: Contact Instrument Calibration Targets on Mars Rover Curiosity (NASA JPL, 2012)

However, the reference object must be located in the image using a technique such as ^{To do (5)} BLOB analysis or Hough transforms. Once the object is found, its width or height in pixels in the image is collected and compared against its actual size to give a ratio for applying to the pixel count of the object to calculate its actual height in real world. For example, if reference object that is 2mm wide measures 200 pixels across in an image then it can be concluded that 100 pixels in the image corresponds to 1mm in the real world. Knowing this ratio, any other objects that can be measured in pixels can have the real world measurement estimated as long as they are close to the same distance from the camera as the reference object.

This process will be applied in some manner in this project. Either a reference object will be used or measurements for H_c (the height of the camera from the ground) will be taken at the time the image is captured as knowing these measurements is vital

to achieving reliable results that will ensure that suspension units are correctly configured as previously discussed. But while incorporating Equation 1 in an application will be relatively simple, collecting the necessary data without too much user interaction may be more difficult.

2.3 Image Analysis in Sports Science

The benefits of image analysis in sports science are most prevalent in the area of biomechanics. In most sports , an individual's performance depends on a combination of physical fitness and skills. In certain sports, such as motorsports, equipment is undeniably important although unless "driver-athletes" can cope with the stresses and strains of race conditions they are unlikely to achieve success regardless of the technical superiority of their vehicle (Klarica, 2001).

In such sports, the performances of cars, motorcycles, and even mountain bikes are all predictable and measurable. They have all been designed and manufactured to be as fast as possible within the rules laid down by the sport's governing body so it is important to continually analyse and fine tune their set – up by changing tires or adjusting suspension to seeking out the margin gains that make the difference between gaining a place on the podium or not. As a result, performance cars and bikes are fitted with an array of sensors that constantly monitor critical aspects of performance (Segers, 2008).

Fitting sensors to humans without impairing their mobility is not quite so simple. To provide the best testing ground for fitness and technique, the participant should be unhindered and able to perform tasks without data capturing equipment getting in their way. Image analysis can play a large part in this as utilising various techniques can allow for stable and repeatable test situations while also providing a platform for reviewing the captured images. A study into bowling techniques in cricket used a mix of manual point picking and automated measuring from images to produce data such as angle and speed of bowling deliveries as well as ball spin (Cork, Justham, & West, 2012). While the dataset was limited due to conflicts with the players' training schedules, the results proved useful and were subsequently replicated in a pitching machine so that batsmen practised against more lifelike deliveries.

A second study on the use of IA in showjumping (Wejer, Lendo, & Lewczuk, 2013) made use of techniques similar to those used by Cook, Justham, and West. In this instance, the angles of the horse's limbs were recorded and compared over a period of four months to analyse whether different training techniques delivered measurable improvements. Here, passive image analysis was chosen as the preferred technique as attaching sensors to the horse could have frightened the animal and almost certainly caused it perform below par.

2.4 Image Analysis for Optimizing Mountain Bike Suspension

Though image analysis has been used for calculations in many engineering and sports applications (Kim & Kim, 2013; Masad et al., 1999), it is relatively unused with mountain bike suspension with only the specialists at Fox Racing Shox using the technology (Benedict, 2012). The mobile application that Fox has locks to the forks and shocks

that the company manufacture although the image analysis techniques they use are adaptable enough to be used on suspension units from other manufacturers.

By harnessing the image capturing and computing power of modern smartphones, image analysis can be applied to mountain bike suspension to produce a simple method of calculating a baseline setup for any suspension unit. The measurements and calculations required can be removed from the user's responsibility to create a simple and efficient method of generating a safe and reliable suspension setup.

2.5 Conclusion

By identifying the key aspects and settings relating to mountain bike suspension and the common image analysis techniques, this literature review has highlighted the processes that this project can utilise to achieve its aims. By using this knowledge, the following sections will identify distinct methods which the project could use and cover the results of this.

3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an outline of the methodologies used to complete the work identified in the previous chapters as well as the reasons for using these methods and rejecting alternatives that could have been used. The effectiveness of these methods determines the success of the project so those chosen need to be both reliable and manageable. A technical approach was identified for the most appropriate way to produce a solution to the problem identified and a project management approach was decided on so that the project could remain on track and meet the required deadline.

3.2 Literature Review

The purpose of the literature review presented in section 2 of this dissertation is to outline, investigate, and clarify the subject areas with which this project is involved. This aids both the reader and author in understanding these subject areas and helps explain to how the project presents a viable solution to the problem area.

There are numerous forms a literature review can take although not all have the same aims. A traditional or narrative review can be carried out to critique a body of literature and potentially locate inconsistencies (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007). This type of review is normally used when the research question is well defined. Alternatively a systematic literature review can be undertaken although this requires a more rigorous process and takes more time. Systematic reviews aim to locate previous studies that are within the same or similar subject areas and gain insight to expedite answers to the questions presented by the research (Kitchenham et al., 2009).

For this project a combination of both methods has been used. A systematic approach was applied to investigate how image analysis is used and ascertain which particular techniques were relevant to the use of IA in the context of mountain bike suspension. A traditional method has been applied to examine the uses of image analysis in sports science to determine whether previously used techniques would transfer to mountain bike suspension and provide some idea of how effective they could be.

3.2.1 Source Selection

Regardless of which types of review was chosen, it was necessary to adopt a methodological approach to identify sources relevant to the project. . Multiple services are available for viewing academic papers online and for this project the Edinburgh Napier University library and Google Scholar were utilised as between them they provide an expansive library to select from using a variety of advanced search filters.

As the application of advanced technologies to mountain bike suspension is in its infancy and commercially driven, much of the research is undertaken by the manufacturers themselves so there were no academic sources to use. As a result, numerous multiple mountain bike websites and blogs have been cited. In a subject area where the research is more established this would be frowned upon as such sources tends

to be biased and often unproven. However it was entirely unavoidable. To overcome author bias, multiple sources have been cited wherever possible as a way of providing different viewpoints on the same topic.

To determine whether a source is suitable requires a methodical and critical approach. Even before reading a paper or article, it is possible to decide whether the subject matter and research is up to date by referring to its publication date. Such an approach was adopted for this project in order to identify the most recent research available. As a second step, online libraries provide metrics about the number of times a paper has been cited elsewhere; the inference being that papers that have been cited most are both more relevant and trustworthy. However, applying this rule of thumb needed care as some papers are cited so frequently purely because they are the most controversial. Finally when reading a paper, the abstract should be read first followed by the conclusions. This takes little time and taken together, the abstract and conclusions provide a good indication of whether the paper contains relevant and reliable research. Only then should the body of the paper be read in its entirety.

3.3 Platform

As a proof of concept, the final product of this software project could take a variety of forms. In line with current products on the market an application for Android could be produced which would demonstrate the capabilities of image analysis on a mobile device. Alternatively, the image analysis algorithm can be produced in the Python programming language as a script creating a simpler prototype but clarifying the solution that is the core of the problem.

3.3.1 OpenCV

OpenCV is an open-source computer vision library created for a variety of platforms. Originally released by Intel in 1999 (Bradski & Kaehler, 2008) the library was intended as a research project to aid in CPU intensive visual applications. In 2012 the library was taken over by OpenCV.org (OpenCV.org, 2017), a non-profit organisation who provide support and documentation. Although the library is written in C and C++, modules are available for Python, Fortran, and the Android platform.

This project will use OpenCV as it is widely accepted as the best, free computer vision library available and provides functions for the various processes this project requires. Additionally it is well supported and documented which will aid in the development process.

3.3.2 Experimentation

To further understand what may be required to produce both the Android and Python based approaches and aid in deciding which method to use some basic experiments were carried out to compare the two. For the Android experiments some example applications which are bundled with the OpenCV library were hand copied and run on a mobile device. This allowed their output and functionality to be seen while simultaneously gaining experience in using OpenCV on Android. For the Python based ap-

proach, tutorials from the www.pyimagesearch.com website created by Adrian Rosebrock (Rosebrock, 2017) and the www.pythonprogramming.net website (Pythonprogramming, 2016) creators name unknown were followed and run on a desktop computer.

Appendix A shows the experiments which were carried out on the Android platform. It should be noted that, while all applications do not show compilation errors and were adjusted to work with the updated version of Android which the device was using, only two of the four experiments worked successfully. Although a stack trace of the errors was produced they do not explain the cause of the error. This is due to how OpenCV works on the Android system.

Alongside the Android Software Development Kit (SDK), Google provide a Native Development Kit (NDK) to allow modules which were not originally written in Java to be run on Android devices. The NDK understands various programming languages and applied a Java wrapper around them that is capable of extracting their functionality. This must be applied when using OpenCV on Android as it is written in C++. An artefact of using the NDK is that it cannot convert the stack trace produced by errors in the C++ module and following research into this issue it was found that this is difficult to rectify.

The two working Android experiments do not operate as expected either. Appendix A shows the issues with each that were encountered in the test. Although steps were taken to rectify the orientation in the Hello CV experiment and the full-screen issue in both, any fix which was applied was not accepted by the system. Research and debugging of these faults did not rectify these issues to produce an acceptable outcome. Appendix B shows the experiments that were carried out using Python. These were much more successful than the Android experiments as they are all functioned and worked exactly as anticipated.

Appendices A and B show a comparison between the two methods including the number of files and lines of code required to create the program as well as the relevant source code for each program. There is a clear difference between the two methods. The Android method taking an average of 295 lines of code over 3 files to produce arguably less complex and less functional applications than is produced by Python's 21 lines of code over 1 file.

Due to the difficulties encountered when using OpenCV on Android, the decision has been made to produce a proof of concept for the image analysis in Python which also benefits from being an operating system that is already a proven platform for mobile applications. This will allow the project to maintain focus on the analysis and algorithmic side of the solution as opposed to the portability. The decision also allows for more time to be spent making the program functionally stable which will serve as a better demonstration of the solution.

3.4 Source Code

3.4.1 Pythonic Coding

A metric of software quality is the conciseness and descriptiveness of the source code. The aim of the Python programming language is to complete the same tasks as other object oriented languages but in fewer lines and in a more readable manner (Kuhlman, 2009). By removing brackets and instead using indentation to define the boundaries of classes, functions, and conditionals as well as using worded operators, Python creates source code which reads like a list of instructions for people rather than computers; this is demonstrated in Listing 1. The source code for this project will be written in a pythonic way where it makes sense to do so.

```

1 long_string = 'This is a very long string'
2 if 'long' in long_string:
3     print 'Match found'
```

Listing 1: An example of Python code

3.4.2 Naming

As well as the readability which comes with Python, further efforts will be made to ensure all classes, methods, and variables will be named as descriptively as possible. This makes the system and its algorithms easier for an outsider to understand should if any parts of the code need to be revisited at a later date. This is demonstrated in Listing 2, where although the left-hand code looks cleaner, when read through looks extremely generic and could be part of any system. In contrast the right-hand code is much more descriptive of its function.

| | |
|---|--|
| <pre> 1 public List<int[]> getThem() { 2 List<int[]> list1 = new 3 ↪ ArrayList<int[]>(); 4 for (int[] x : theList) 5 if (x[0] == 4) 6 list1.add(x); 7 return list1; }</pre> | <pre> 1 public List<int[]> getFlaggedCells() { 2 List<int[]> flaggedCells = new 3 ↪ ArrayList<int[]>(); 4 for (int[] cell : gameBoard) 5 if (cell[STATUS_VALUE] == FLAGGED) 6 flaggedCells.add(cell); 7 return flaggedCells;</pre> |
|---|--|

Listing 2: Examples of bad naming (left) and proper naming (right) taken from Clean Code (Martin, 2009)

3.4.3 Object Orientation

Object orientation is the use of classes which contain their specific variables and methods to protect functionality from other parts of a system. An object oriented approach will be taken when creating the system to ensure its functions and data is protected should it ever be used as a module elsewhere. The use of private variables and methods with one or two public methods provides an Application Programming Interface

(API) with which other developers can use the system.

Python does not provide the private and public keywords as found in the Java or C++ languages. It instead identifies methods and variables prefixed by one or two underscores as protected. This means these items will be hidden from view when the system is used but remain accessible should the developer require them. The creators of Python chose this method as they enforce responsibility over restriction.

3.5 Testing

To verify the functionality and quality of a software application it must always be tested. This can be carried out at a variety of levels from testing a single class method to an entire system and by knowing how an application works in white-box testing or being unaware of the functionality in black-box testing.

3.5.1 Unit Testing

Unit testing is carried out on individual units of source code to ensure they are functioning correctly. Normally carried out in the scope of an individual class or module, these unit tests are typically written by the same software developer who produced the class itself. A single unit test comprises of a set-up process where data and objects are initialised, the test itself including an assertion on a variable determining pass or fail, and a tear-down process where any changes the test has made are cleared up.

As unit tests are simple in structure and quick to run they are commonly executed when changes are made to the source code. This verifies that the changes made have not broken other sections of code and can be committed into the master branch successfully. If a test failure does occur then each unit test should be concise and descriptive enough to aid the debugging process by indicating what has failed and where.

A metric of quality for unit testing is code coverage. To confirm that a class is of good quality and functional, every possible path through the code must be tested. Testers should aim for 100% coverage of a module meaning every possible piece of functionality has an associated test with a coverage of 85% for example meaning that 15% of a module is not under test and could cause undetected problems if any changes are made. Many Integrated Developers Environment (IDE) or testing suites provide coverage checking functionality to make this process simple.

3.5.1.1 Python Unit Testing Due to the package based and open-sourced nature of the Python programming language there are many implementations of unit testing frameworks to choose from. Each has its own advantages and disadvantages and there is much debate over which framework is the best to use. A good unit testing framework should provide the necessary functions to create simple unit tests for each path in the source code and be substantial enough to ensure the class or module is correctly tested.

3.5.2 Project Testing Scope

Due to the small size of the application which will be produced in this project, testing will be limited to unit testing as there is no integration to be carried out. This small size also means that 100% code coverage will be simple to achieve. From this, stability and functionality of the application can be verified improving the quality of the overall product.

Once the basic functionality has been added to the application, unit tests will be created covering all source code produced including normal operation and sections which can potentially produce errors. This means any subsequent changes can be tested to see if they have affected functionality. Any new functionality will have tests added to the testing suite to maintain 100% coverage.

The Python unit testing framework chosen is unittest2. Although it has been superseded by Python3, Unittest is the default framework used by the PyCharm IDE. The unittest2 module provides a backport of this functionality for use in Python2 meaning extra testing functions are provided to allow more suitable tests to be created. PyCharm also provides the ability to run tests with code coverage producing a clear indication of which sections of source code are covered and which are not; this will be greatly beneficial to achieving full coverage.

3.6 Project Management

3.6.1 Agile Development

To do (6) Introduced in 2001 with the writing of the Agile manifesto (Beck et al., 2001), agile development methodologies focus on high quality software products over the rigorous design-based structure of traditional waterfall methods. By utilising various techniques such as stand-up meetings, a strong customer focus, and sprint development cycles, agile has become widely adopted in industry and has been proven to produce successful projects that are both more closely tailored to the customers' needs in shorter time scales (VersionOne, 2015).

There are numerous agile methodologies (XP, Scrum, DSDM) each with their own principles and techniques. However it is commonplace for a company to create their own agile approach picking and choosing items from different methodologies to suit their particular needs (Aydin, Harmsen, Van Slooten, & STEGWEE, 2004). As this is a solo project with no customer then a single set methodology will not be used. Instead a variety of methods will be used to help manage the project and drive the efficiency of the development process. These will be outlined in the following sections.

3.6.1.1 Requirements Analysis Used in some form by the majority of agile methodologies (Cao & Ramesh, 2008), requirements analysis or requirements engineering is a variety of processes used to create the conditions that a project must meet. These requirements take into account stakeholders, users, and the development team or teams. Each requirement should be documented, actionable, measurable, testable, and traceable to aid in its understanding and completion.

The techniques used to produce requirements include stakeholder identification and interviews which are used to identify what the stakeholders of the project require once it is completed. These interviews may be followed by Joint Requirements Development Sessions which bring stakeholders together to further discuss the requirements of the project. A more traditional approach is to produce a contract-style requirements list although these are typically extensive and incomplete as considerable collaboration is involved in producing them. The requirements analysis techniques that are most frequently used in agile developments are use cases and user stories. These are either written or diagrammatic descriptions of how the system will interact with users or other systems and provide an indication of what will be required from the product.

Due to the prototype nature of the application being produced and as the project has no defined stakeholders, the only requirements analysis technique which will be used is production of use cases. These will aid in identifying how the application will be operated by users and what the project will need to produce. These requirements will then be prioritised using the MoSCoW format and inserted into a tracking system for the development process as described in the following sections.

3.6.1.2 MoSCoW First used in the DSDM agile framework (Bittner, 2002), MoSCoW analysis or prioritisation is the process of taking the requirements of a software product and placing them into one of four categories; Must, Should, Could, and Won't have. These deliverables may then be prioritised either for the entire project or for individual sprint cycles depending on the size and magnitude of the project.

MoSCoW was created to provide customers a better understanding of software requirements. Unlike categorizing priorities as high, medium and low, MoSCoW is more descriptive of what the prioritisation means for the software project. From a development point of view, this prioritisation process allows developers to focus on the core requirements of the project first, creating a viable software solution early in the development cycle with less important features being added later if the resources are available.

This project ^{To do (7)} will use MoSCoW to prioritise the requirements identified using the requirements analysis technique allowing the development process to complete the goals in the correct order. This will ensure that the core aspects of the solution are implemented first creating a successful project early and allowing it to improve as time allows.

3.6.1.3 Sprint Cycles ^{To do (8)} Used by Scrum development teams (Rising & Janoff, 2000), a sprint is a timeboxed effort of work scheduled to take between one week and one month. At the start of a sprint, goals are chosen from the project requirements which are to be completed by the end of the sprint. When a sprint is complete a retrospective review is carried out by the development team to discuss what went well, what didn't, and how this can be rectified in the next sprint.

This project will use sprints in the same manner as an agile development team as this will allow easier completion of requirements and tighter management of the devel-

opment process. Using sprints will ensure the time allotted for development is used effectively which will lead to a higher quality product at the end of the project.

As mentioned previously, MoSCoW prioritised requirements will be selected at the start of each sprint cycle to set objectives the work which will be carried out. Each cycle will aim to complete all of the must have requirements and the majority of should and could haves. At the end of each cycle, a retrospective review will be carried out which will re-prioritise any uncompleted requirements based on how successful the sprint cycle was. This means requirements may be promoted or demoted respectively.

3.6.2 Organic Development

An alternative method to agile development could be to take a more organic approach to the development process. This method would take the step-by-step ethic of agile and reduce the effort applied for analysis, documentation, and structuring of the working schedule.

To initiate the development process without analysis of requirements would be to begin producing the basic steps or functionality which the system will go through from a vision of the end product. Once started, development would take a natural direction identified by what is needed for the system or to solve any issues encountered.

To document the development process, a daily log of any work completed would be kept whenever any development is carried out. This would allow for referral at later dates and keep the project on track by identifying when features are completed.

There are advantages and disadvantages to using this method over an agile process. Due to the size of the software being produced the amount of management work inherent in an agile process could mean the development process is over managed

3.6.3 Version Control

Large software projects produce multiple files of code, data and documentation. These are vital to the overall success of a project and should be kept safe. Were these files to be lost then the project could easily be delayed or drawn to a close as the time and resources may not be available to recreate the lost data. To combat this any data relating to the project must be backed up, preferably on a cloud based system, to avoid loss and allow the project to continue should anything happen to the local copy of the data.

For this project the Git Version Control System (VCS) will be used. Git uses a cloud hosted repository to store any files relating to a project and allows for work to be carried out locally by cloning the repository on a computer. However VCSs also enables the management of the previous versions of files including information such as the individual changes made, details of when those changes were made, and who made them. This is a powerful tool as it means the various sections of the project can be worked on without the risk of damaging the project and should a change prove unsuccessful then the repository can be reverted to a functional point.

For this project the web service used to host the repository will be github.com. This site was chosen as it provides unlimited free repositories as well as simple repository management tools. The website also provides issue tracking functionality which will be used to log each new feature as it is added will be added, although strictly speaking they are not issues at all. The reason for this is that all features logged in the repository will have a unique identification and description against which commits to the recorded. This is useful for project management reasons as then each feature's stage and completeness can be monitored to ensure the project's success.

Alternative VCSs, such as Microsoft's Team Foundation Server or Perforce, are available. However these are limited under free licences or locked to certain development Environments whereas the accessibility and ease of use provided by Git makes it the optimal VCS to use for this project.

3.6.4 Milestones

Milestones are used in project management to mark significant events or points within a project's timeline. This allows a further breakdown of the project into milestones which can then be used as intermediary deadlines. The use of milestones allows the project manager, management team, or development team to keep track of the project's status and priorities at any given time.

This project has, and will use, milestones for exactly the same reason. Current examples include the week nine review session and the deadline for the completion of this document. As more milestones are identified through breaking down the development process into development sprints and other ancillary tasks, they too will be documented and acted upon.

3.6.5 Threshold

Tasks taking up more than their allotted time is a common cause of projects consuming more resource than initially allocated. To ensure all tasks can be completed within the allotted time for this project, each task will be allocated a threshold. Adding a threshold is a common technique in project management and provides extra time should anything unexpected occur which impacts the timely delivery of the project.

3.6.6 Gantt Chart

A Gantt chart is a method of breaking down a project into tasks and graphically representing them as bars on a chart first used by Henry Gantt in the second decade of the 20th century as a way of ensuring schedules are met. Commonly starting at a project's inception date and ending with its completion date, tasks are allocated an estimated duration for their completion and placed within the timeline. These tasks can then be allocated dependencies to indicate their prerequisites and graphically show the project's critical path.

This project will make full use of the Gantt chart technique by decomposing the project

into multiple stages for both writing and development. Previously mentioned milestones will also be added for the known fixed points. Each sprint cycle for the development process will be indicated with further notes on the tasks to be carried out. Microsoft Project 2016 will be used to create the Gantt chart.

3.7 Evaluation

To ensure that the application produced is extensively evaluated, multiple methods will be used. Each of the different methods will evaluate a single aspect of the application from varying points of view.

3.7.1 Validation

This is a measure of how well a design or solution meets its original specifications and fulfils its intended purpose. It involves checking that all required functionality is present, each output is correct and as expected, and the solution performs as expected.

In this project, validation will be provided through the implemented unit tests. Ensuring the application has near 100% coverage and that it has successfully passed each test will confirm that the application is operating as expected.

3.7.2 Reliability and Accuracy

Assessing the reliability and accuracy of the application proves that the results that it produces are both consistent and correct. To assess these an uncertainty metric will be produced as described below. When taking multiple measurements there is typically a "true" value which is the actual measurement that falls somewhere within the range of produced measurements. Uncertainty is a prediction of how close any produced measurement will be to this "true" value, expressed as $\bar{x} \pm U$. The method for producing a value for uncertainty is as follows:

1. Produce a suitable number of repeat measurements $\{x_0 \dots x_n\}$
2. Calculate the average value of these measurements $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum\{x_0 \dots x_n\}}{n}$
3. Find the differences between the measurements and the average $\{d_0 \dots d_n\} = \{(x_0 - \bar{x}) \dots (x_n - \bar{x})\}$
4. Calculate the average of these differences squared $\bar{d_s} = \frac{\sum\{d_0^2 \dots d_n^2\}}{n}$
5. Produce the uncertainty or standard deviation of these results which is the square root of the average differences $U = \sqrt{\bar{d_s}}$

This process will be carried out a number of times altering all possible variables depending on what the application is capable of once produced. These variances will be outlined once the evaluation has been completed.

3.7.3 Comparison to Alternatives

Comparing the process of using the application to produce a sag setting against other available methods will show how simple the application is to use and whether it is more effective than other methods. For this comparison, outputs from the application will be compared with a trial and error process that is a common practice for a beginner or intermediate rider setting their suspension for the first time as described in section 2.1.4. If the manufacturer's recommended setting prove to be incorrect, then pressure is increased or removed by set increments. Comparison to this process will indicate whether the application presents a benefit over the manual approach.

3.7.4 Professional Opinion

The final method of evaluation will be to seek the opinion of the application from professionals working within the mountain bike and cycling industry. This will provide a further indication of how well the application achieves its goal and how it might be received were it to commercialized as well as suggesting areas for future work which may not have been seen without outside consultation.

The Mountain Bike Research Centre of Scotland² will be approached to recommend an individual who they deem suitable to provide such expert assessment once the application can be demonstrated. Although it is anticipated that the meeting will take a semi-formal approach, general evaluative questions will be posed with responses recorded on an appropriate scoring scale where appropriate.

In addition to this meeting, the application will also be demonstrated to staff at a local bike shop to also gain their feedback using the same approach as the meeting with the individual designated by The Mountain Bike Research Centre.

²<http://www.napier.ac.uk/about-us/our-schools/school-of-applied-sciences/research/mountain-bike-centre-of-scotland>

4 Results

This chapter will cover how the project was created and evaluated. It will begin by describing any deviations from the planned development process including any problems which were encountered and how they were addressed. It will then continue to describe how the final version of the application operates with a pseudocode description. Finally it will present the previously outlined critical evaluation covering validation, reliability, alternative comparison, and professional opinion.

4.1 Deviation from Plan

4.1.1 Development Approach

As described in section 3.6 there was some uncertainty about which approach would be followed during the development stages of the project. As it happened, once the development stage was reached, an organic approach was taken. Although less structured than an agile methodology it was decided that removal of the sprint process would allow development of the application to progress quicker as items would not need to be delayed for the next sprint cycle. Allowing problems to be addressed immediately proved useful as the application was not left in an unusable state while other features were produced.

The log produced by the development stage can be seen in Appendix C. This shows that an adequate amount of work was carried out within the time-frame allocated despite using a less structured process and that the final application includes complete functionality to meet its stated aims.

4.1.2 Use of EXIF Data and Reference Point

As mentioned in section 2.2.4.4, the process which the application would use to produce measurements was undecided and required experimentation. Initially Exchangeable Image File Format (EXIF) data from the image was used, which was successful until collection of data about the sensor size was required. Due to this being uncommon in EXIF data, particularly in images taken with smartphone cameras, this method was abandoned in favour of using a reference point. The code produced during this experimentation phase can be seen in Appendix D where the function `get_sensor_size` is incomplete as this is the point where this approach was dropped.

The reference point chosen is a red circular sticker as these are cheap, freely available in store or online and being round do not need to be orientated to the object as a square or rectangular sticker would. This sticker is applied directly to the shock unit where it can be easily picked out in the image due to its prominent by its colour. But although locating the reference point was simple, issues were encountered in the measuring process and these will be discussed in a following section.

4.1.3 Colour Quantification

For initial experimentation with using a reference point, a similar sized red circle was manually added to images using an image processing application. This allowed for tuning of the colour masking process and refining the process before using a real reference point stuck on the shock. However when images with a real reference point were used, the application could not detect it. This was because the colour range for the masking process was using perfect red (RGB 255,0,0) and the non-standard reds of the sticker as captured in the image were not within this range.

A first attempt to resolve this issue involved expanding the boundaries of acceptable colours that the application would recognize in the image as being perfect red. This proved to be insufficient so a further image processing technique known as colour quantification was also used. This reduces an image to 2, 4, 8, 16, or 32 bit colour spaces which sacrifices the range of colours contained in an image detail but makes objects more prominent so they are easier to detect. The difference between an original image and one using quantified colours is shown in Figure 13. Quantifying the colours to 8 bit makes the reference point a flat tone of red while maintaining its shape allowing for the masking process to function correctly.

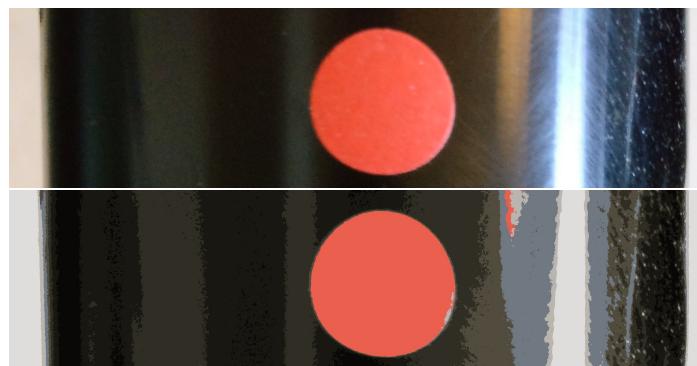


Figure 13: Normal image (top) versus quantified colours (bottom)

4.1.4 Dynamic Measurement Limits

It was decided that the application should utilise the distance between the shock wiper seal and the marker o-ring for providing the measurement. This was deemed suitable as the manual process to calculate sag also uses the O-ring which is a prominent feature on most shocks, unless removed by the owner. Initial versions of the application assumed it would find the O-ring somewhere about two thirds of the way up the image height although once multiple images were used from two different makes of shocks this assumption proved to be incorrect.

To address this and ensure the application is always able to find the O-ring no matter where it appears in the image, it was necessary to use a dynamic method to detect it. In much the same way that using quantified colours solved the issues of detecting the reference point, OpenCV's `findContours` can be used to find an O-ring of a known colour as long as it is present in the image. When located, a bounding box is drawn around the contour as shown in Figure 14 and this can be used to determine the lowest

point at which the O-ring appears in the image to establish the limit of measurement.

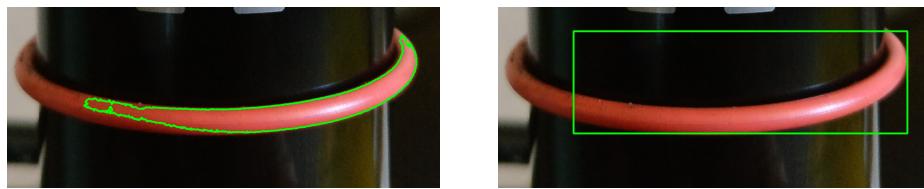


Figure 14: Red O-ring found using `findContours` (left) with `boundingBox` applied (right)

As some shocks do not have a coloured O-ring, this process was adapted to locate a black O-ring. This was not successful and an alternative method was used where thresholding is applied to the image and contours produced from the reflections on the telescopic shaft of the shock unit. This made it easy for the application to detect the discontinuity between the O-ring and the shaft so the same bounding box could be applied and used to establish the lower limit for where the application can measure. This process is shown in Figure 15.



Figure 15: Black o-ring found

4.1.5 Reference Point Measurement Method

To measure the dimensions of the circular reference point, the first process applied was Hough Circle Transform as described in 2.2.4.3. This method was chosen as it is designed specifically to find circles within an image and is simple to implement. Although this did produce measurements, once these values were compared with values derived by manually measuring the image, they proved to be unreliable with variances both above and below the actual value. This effect is shown in Figure 16 where it is clear that the circle identified using Hough Circle Transform is much smaller than the actual reference point.

To overcome this issue it was necessary to again use OpenCV's `findContours` in exactly the same way it used to successfully locate the O-ring. Once a contour is found that encompasses the entire reference point, a bounding circle can be drawn around it as shown in Figure 17. Although the bounding circle appears to be slightly larger than the reference point, experimentation with a variety of images showed that this method produced measurements that were within acceptable tolerances for the pixel per millimetre calculation.

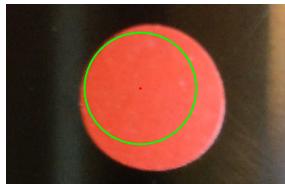


Figure 16: Reference point found using HoughCircles

The reason the Hough Circle method produced a bounding circle that is slightly different to the reference point captured in the image is because the reference point captured in the image is not a uniform circle. Although the thresholds of the Hough Circle method can be adjusted, applying the reference point to the cylindrical shaft of the shock unit means it is too misshapen to be detected correctly without the use of OpenCV's findContours.



Figure 17: Reference point found using findContours (left) with boundingCircle applied (right)

4.1.6 Pressure Calculation

The original method for producing a suggested pressure that would give the optimal amount of sag was to calculate a psi per millimetre metric from the measurement of the shock shaft and the current pressure of the shock supplied by the user. The assumption being that for every 1 PSI added to the shock, this would reduce the movement by a fixed amount proportionate to the original pressure. The equation for this metric is as follows:

$$P_s = \left(\frac{P_c}{M_c} \right) M_s \quad (2)$$

where

P_s is the pressure to produce the desired sag setting

P_c is the pressure currently in the shock

M_s is the measurement to produce the desired sag setting

M_c is the current measurement of the shock shaft

Though this hypothesised method had produced reliable results when tested manually, if failed to do so in the application both when different images, reference points and desired sag value were test and even when these values were hard-coded. Further investigation and discussion suggested the cause of this problem was the non-linearity of air springs as previously discussed in 2.1.3.

When an air spring is compressed the spring rate increases through its travel as the particles of air become increasingly compressed (Goodyear, 2014); While this effect

still allows the shock unit to be fine tuned, applying a linear equation to a non-linear phenomenon is clearly going to produce some degree of error. However as the range of measurement in this project is small compared to the full stroke of an air shock, it was considered that the spring rate can be considered as linear within the limited range of compression under consideration.

To investigate this, the sag of a shock was measured at pressures between 100 and 250 psi in increments of 10 psi. This was carried out for two shocks, one with a normal air can and another with a high volume air can, then the collected data was plotted and compared against a trend line generated by linear regression. The results of this can be seen in Figure 18.

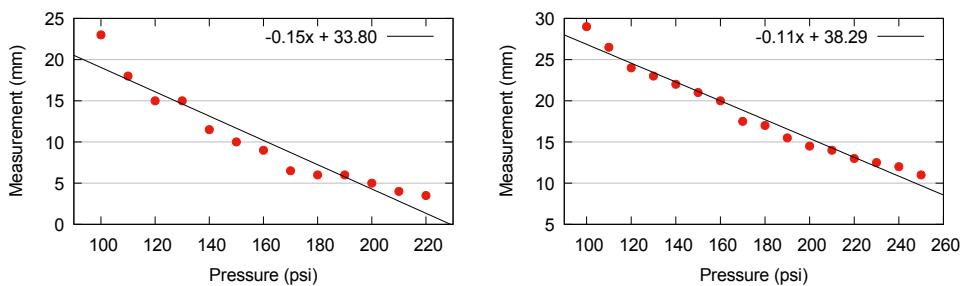


Figure 18: Sag measurements for standard air shock (left) and high volume air shock (right)

From this data it could be concluded that, within the range of measurements, the compression of the air spring linear. The data-points in Figure 18 do occasionally vary though and this thought to be due to it being a non-sterile test environment. Both shocks were well-used potentially containing age-related defects and loading the bike was done simply by using body weight.

Having established that the relationship between the pressure in the shock and movement from weighting the shock could be treated as if it were linear, the plan was to implement an ideal gas equation. However investigation into producing charts using Python uncovered a method of computationally producing a linear equation. This led to the application's process being rearranged so that it takes in two images, one of the shock loaded at 100psi and another at 150psi. Using this data it can produce a virtual plot and linear equation with which to calculate a value for the optimal sag setting.

4.2 Application

4.2.1 Images

The application requires two images to measure and produce calculations from. The application can process images in different lighting conditions and ones where a flash has been used though there are some criteria which are needed. There must be a red, circular, 7.5mm diameter sticker on the shock, preferably just above the shock seal. The image should also be taken so that the shock seal is around 1/3 down in the image. Examples of the images used are shown in Figure 19.

The user must supply one image of the shock which has been pressurised to 100psi and loaded under the normal riding weight, i.e. with helmet, bag, protection on, and a second with the shock pressurised to 150psi and loaded again. The marker o-ring should be returned to the top of the shock shaft before weight is applied to the shock.

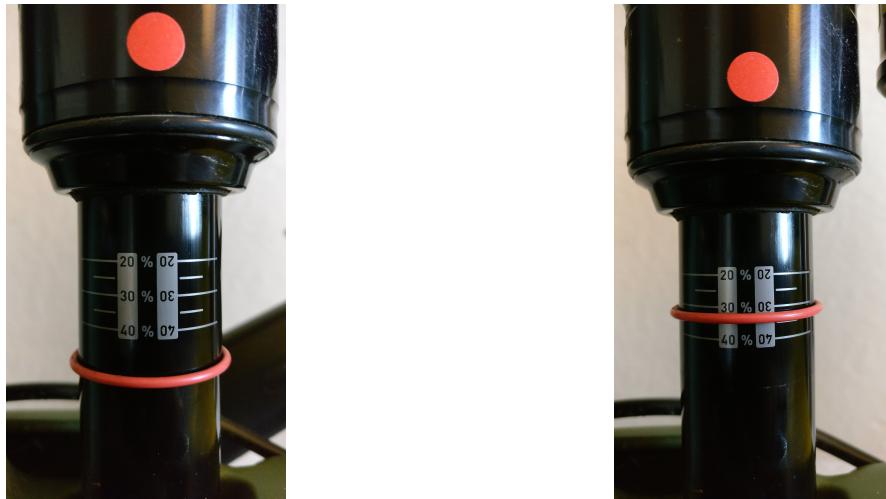


Figure 19: Images suitable for processing

4.2.2 Arguments

The application operates from a command line interface allowing the user to supply data through arguments; these are described in Table 3. This system uses Python's Argparse package and a full command to run the application would be as follows:

```
program -i user/images/100.jpg user/images/150.jpg -s 30 -t 57 -c red
```

Table 3: Table of application arguments

| Argument | Description | Usage |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| -i,--image <path1 path2> | The paths to the two images to be used for analysis | -i path/to/img/1 path/to/img/2 |
| -s,--sag <percentage> | The desired sag percentage | -s 30 |
| -t,--stroke | The stroke length of the shock being analysed | -t 57 |
| -c,--colour | The colour of the marker o-ring | -c red |
| -d,--debug | This produces outputs from each stage to the terminal for debugging purposes | |

4.2.3 Processing

4.2.3.1 Reference Point The first process which the application must complete is to find the reference point for measurement. This is done by first colour quantifying the

image to 8 bit colour so that the reference point becomes uniform in colour. The result of this process is shown in Figure 20a. So the application can find the red colour of the reference point within the entire image, a mask is applied for any colour within a range. The output of this process is shown in Figure 20b. If an alternative colour reference point were to be used, this colour range could be easily adapted.

The contours, or shapes, in this image are then found and sorted by their area in decreasing order. By doing this it can be assumed with a high level of confidence that the largest will be the reference point. The found contour can be seen in Figure 20c. A bounding circle is created around the reference point contour, shown in Figure 20d, from which the diameter can be produced which allows the pixels per millimetre metric.

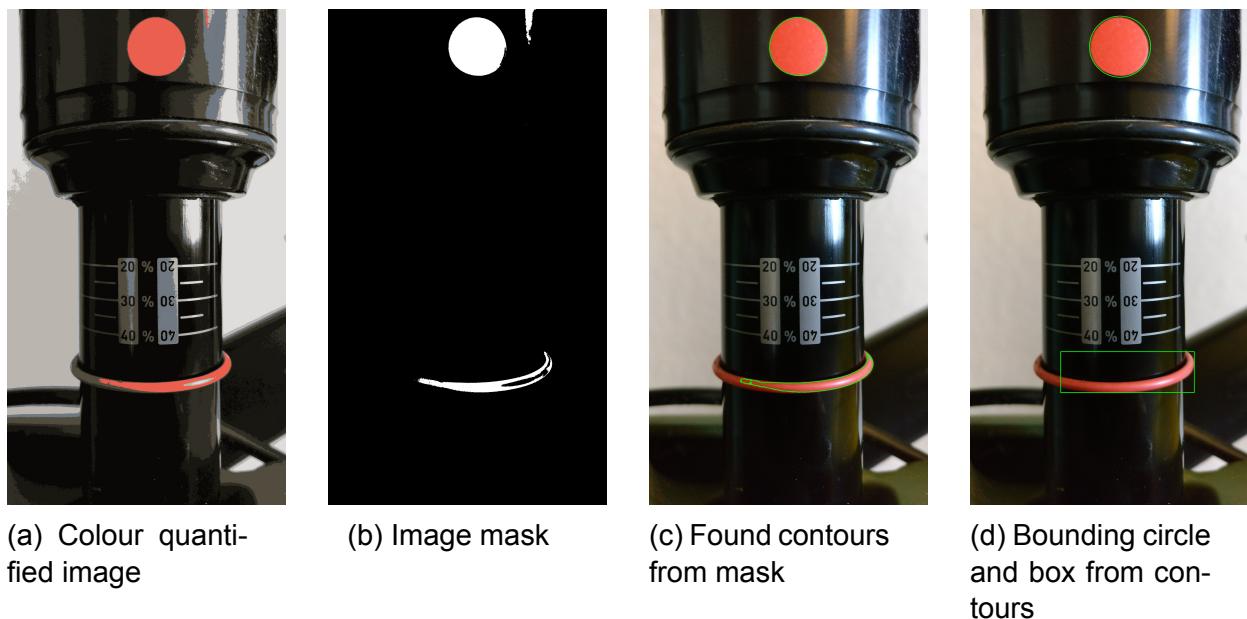
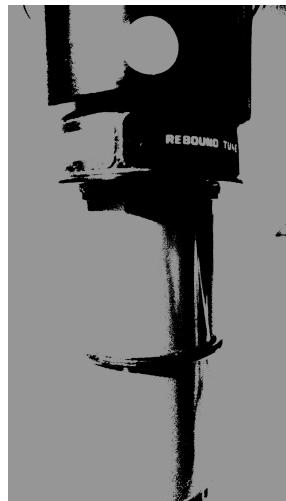


Figure 20: Processed images for finding reference point

4.2.3.2 O-Ring If a red coloured o-ring is specified then the same process to find the reference point is used. The second largest contour found will be the o-ring so a bounding box can be drawn round it from which a measurement limit can be collected. The red o-ring mask, contour, and bounding box can be seen in Figure 20.

If a black o-ring is specified, an alternative process is used. Thresholding is applied to the image which highlights any shadows or highlights on the shock shaft. As these are intersected by the o-ring it is simple to select a contour which ends at the o-ring to produce a measurement limit from. This process is shown in Figure 21.

4.2.3.3 Measurement With the pixels per millimetre metric produced and the measurement limit found, the sag under the current pressure is measured. First, edge detection is carried out on the original input image to highlight the lines of the shock, this output is shown in Figure 22a. Hough line transformation is then applied to locate



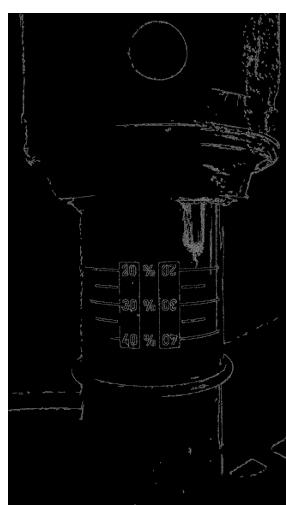
(a) Image thresholding



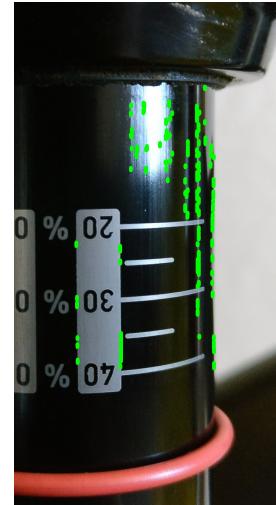
(b) O-ring indicator

Figure 21: Locating process for black o-ring

vertical lines between the top of the shock shaft and the measurement limit. The difference in pixels between the highest and lowest points of these lines is the current sag measurement. This can be converted to millimetres using the px/mm metric.



(a) Edge detected image



(b) Vertical lines in measurement area

4.2.3.4 Equation Once the measurements for the shock pressurised to 100psi and 150psi are produced, they can then be utilised to create a linear equation. This is carried out using Python's Scipy package and its linregress method which accepts two arrays of data and returns the slope and intercept of the linear equation. The equation is visually described in Figure 23; it should be noted that this plot is only produced virtually and never output to the user.

4.2.3.5 Produce Setting To produce the final setting the optimal distance that the shock should move to give the desired sag setting is first calculated from the user supplied data. For example if the shock stroke is 57mm and the desired sag is 30%

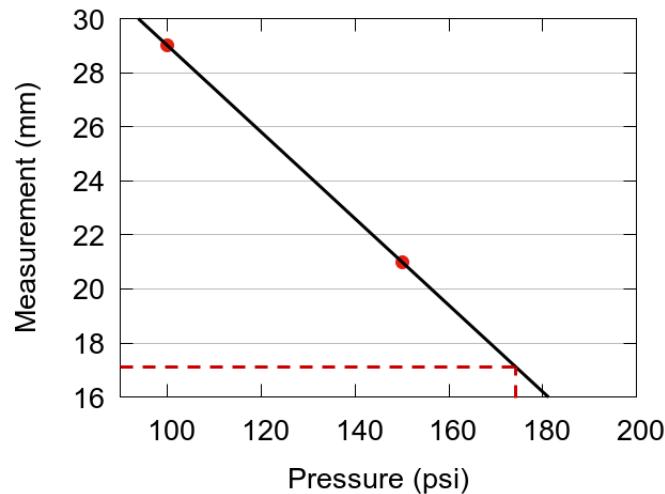


Figure 23: Example of linear equation plot

then the desired movement is 17.1mm. Using this and the equation produced in the last step, the optimal pressure is calculated; for example if the equation is $-5.017x + 246.426$ then the pressure is 161psi.

4.3 Evaluation

The following section will describe the results of applying the evaluation techniques outlined in section 3.7 to the final prototype application. The outcome of the evaluation presents an indication of how successful the application is at its intended goals and how successful the project was in producing it.

4.3.1 Validation

Figure 24 shows an extract from the testing report produced by the Pycharm IDE. It includes each test from both test modules and clearly indicates that all tests are passing in the final prototype application. These tests include checks to see if the outputs produced by the application are within an expected range, validating not only that the application works but that it also produces expected results.

| Unitests in program: 14 total, 14 passed | | 3 m 11 s |
|---|--------|----------|
| test_image_processor | | 3 m 11 s |
| TestImageProcessor | | 3 m 11 s |
| test_find_oring_black | passed | 825 ms |
| test_get_measurement_mm_in_range | passed | 37.06 s |
| test_get_measurement_mm_normal | passed | 28.50 s |
| test_get_measurement_px_in_range | passed | 28.66 s |
| test_get_measurement_px_normal | passed | 41.57 s |
| test_get_ref_point_width_in_range | passed | 14.16 s |
| test_get_ref_point_width_normal | passed | 16.34 s |
| test_get_ref_point_width_not_none | passed | 22.82 s |
| test_process_image_normal | passed | 854 ms |
| test_show_image_incorrect_file_path | passed | 30 ms |
| test_show_image_normal | passed | 197 ms |
| test_pressure_calculator | | 3 ms |
| TestPressureCalculator | | 3 ms |
| test_calculate_linear_equation | passed | 2 ms |
| test_get_ideal_pressure | passed | 1 ms |
| test_get_ideal_sag_mm_normal | passed | 0 ms |

Figure 24: Unit test results

Figure 25 shows the test coverage report for the application. As stated in section 3.5.2 a goal for this project was 100% test coverage of the application. This has not been achieved but has come close with 97% of the application being covered.

The main.py file has no coverage as it is a script as opposed to a testable Class; this is not an issue as it contains the argument parsing and calls to other classes which are not vital to test as the Argparse module is well tested already and the lower level classes have their own testing. The image_processor.py class does not have full coverage as this includes lines which check if outputs provided by OpenCV are valid and close the application if something has gone wrong. The conditions under which these

lines are hit could not be recreated due to the irregularity with which problems occur. However testing these lines would not validate the application's normal functionality.

| 83% files, 97% lines covered | |
|------------------------------|--------------------|
| Element | Statistics, % |
| image_processor.py | 93% lines covered |
| main.py | not covered |
| pressure_calculator.py | 100% lines covered |
| test_image_processor.py | 100% lines covered |
| test_pressure_calculator.py | 100% lines covered |
| utils.py | 100% lines covered |

Figure 25: Test coverage results

4.3.2 Reliability and Accuracy

Table 4 shows the results of calculating uncertainty for the application under different conditions. The calculations were carried out for two different shocks with two different colour O-rings, and for two sag settings on each. For the tests the application was run 10 times using the same images and arguments with every output collected, using these the uncertainty was then produced.

Table 4: Table of uncertainty calculation results

| | High Volume, Red O-Ring | | Low Volume, Black O-Ring | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| | 25% | 30% | 25% | 30% |
| Measurements (PSI) | 175.02 | 160.97 | 133.31 | 120.54 |
| | 174.84 | 160.52 | 133.28 | 120.47 |
| | 174.95 | 160.41 | 133.42 | 120.48 |
| | 174.83 | 160.65 | 133.42 | 120.46 |
| | 174.94 | 160.75 | 133.29 | 120.53 |
| | 174.86 | 160.50 | 133.38 | 120.51 |
| | 175.63 | 160.48 | 133.35 | 120.50 |
| | 174.78 | 160.77 | 133.36 | 120.46 |
| | 175.29 | 160.57 | 133.36 | 120.46 |
| | 174.84 | 160.74 | 133.42 | 120.50 |
| Average | 175.00 | 160.64 | 133.36 | 120.49 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.27 | 0.17 | 0.05 | 0.03 |
| Uncertainty | 175 ± 0.27 | 160.64 ± 0.17 | 133.36 ± 0.05 | 120.49 ± 0.03 |

For each test the results are low, the highest being ± 0.27 , which indicates that the application is capable of producing correct sag settings which will be consistent. If these uncertainty measures were much higher then the settings produced by the application could not be trusted. The setting produced by the application is also rounded to the nearest whole number, this is because a change of less than 1 PSI in a mountain bike shock has a negligible effect. Even the most advanced, digital shock pumps do not display fractions of a PSI and professional race teams do not make changes of less than 1 PSI. This knowledge further reinforces the capabilities of the application.

The results for the shock with a red O-ring are higher than those for the black O-ring. This is due to the method for finding and applying a boundary to the red O-ring producing a larger variance in results than the method which finds the black O-ring; the source of the variance is unknown. However, the difference between the results is outweighed by their accuracy and correct figures are produced for both colours meaning that this is not an issue.

4.3.3 Comparison to Alternatives

4.3.4 Professional Opinion

To do⁽⁹⁾ As outlined in section 3.7.4, once the application was complete the Mountain Bike Centre of Scotland were contacted to arrange a meeting with an individual from the industry to demonstrate the application to and collect their feedback. The meeting was arranged with Geraint Florida-Jones of the centre and Mark To do⁽¹⁰⁾ who works as a mechanical engineer and has ventured into the design and manufacture of his own full suspension frame. Both Mark and Geraint are familiar with the current products similar to the application produced by this project, like Shockwiz (Dusty Dynamics, 2016) and the Fox IRD application (Benedict, 2012).

Once Mark and Geraint were familiar with the context of the project and operation of the application, they were asked for their feedback. They both stated that the project had been well executed and the application was simple to operate. Both verified that the setting produced appeared correct for the given shock, bike, and rider weight. Furthermore, both agreed that they would recommend the application to the target audience of beginner and intermediate riders though a more professional setup was required for racers.

It was unanimous that the application produced in this project should be released as a mobile application if it were pushed to market as this would make it much more user friendly. Additionally, both stated that more features should be added to provide a rounded user experience, these features will be explained in section 5.3. Mark questioned the application of a linear equation to a non-linear air shock though once the experiments into linearity, outlined in section 4.1.6, were explained he agreed that the shock could be considered linear within the range of its stroke that sag can be adjusted.

The application was also demonstrated to the staff at Pedals³ bike shop in Edinburgh. This received the same feedback which was given during the meeting with Mark and Geraint, it is a good execution of the concept, it is suitable for the target demographic, should be a mobile application, and should include more features.

The positive reception that the application received from professionals within the cycling industry demonstrates that it is a suitable prototype which produces correct settings in an easy to use manner. The only issues suggested were the lack of additional features and functionality which is addressed in section 5.3.

³<http://pedalsbikecare.co.uk/>

5 Conclusions

5.1 Meeting Aims

5.2 Comparison to other Products

5.3 Future Work

5.4 Self Appraisal

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A Android Experiments

A.1 Table of Android Experiments

| Experiment | Purpose | Functional | Issues | Files | LOC |
|----------------|--|------------|--|-------|-----|
| Hello CV | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Introduction to the android OpenCV libraryDisplays camera feed with fps | Yes | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Not fullscreenIncorrect orientation | 2 | 101 |
| 15Tile | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Sliding tile gameUses camera feed as puzzle | Yes | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Not fullscreen | 3 | 492 |
| Blob Detection | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Demonstrates blob detectionRuns blob detection on tapped area from camera | No | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Crash on screen tap | 3 | 311 |
| Face Detection | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Detects faces in camera viewPuts boundary around detected faces | No | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Crash on load | 3 | 279 |

A.2 Hello CV

```

1 package com.example.joe.base_app;
2
3 import android.support.v7.app.AppCompatActivity;
4 import android.os.Bundle;
5 import android.util.Log;
6 import android.view.SurfaceView;
7 import android.widget.TextView;
8 import org.opencv.android.*;
9 import org.opencv.core.*;
10
11 public class MainActivity extends AppCompatActivity implements
12     CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewListener2{
13
14     private static String TAG = "Main Activity";
15     private CameraBridgeViewBase mOpenCvCameraView;
16
17     private BaseLoaderCallback mLoaderCallback = new BaseLoaderCallback(this) {
18         @Override
19         public void onManagerConnected(int status) {
20             switch (status){
21                 case LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS:{
22                     Log.i(TAG, "Open CV loaded successfully");
23                     mOpenCvCameraView.enableView();
24                 }break;
25                 default:{
26                     super.onManagerConnected(status);
27                 }break;
28             }
29         };
30
31     @Override
32     public void onResume(){
33         super.onResume();
34         OpenCVLoader.initAsync(OpenCVLoader.OPENCV_VERSION_3_1_0, this,
35             mLoaderCallback);
36     }
37
38     @Override
39     protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
40         Log.i(TAG, "called OnCreate");
41         super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
42         setContentView(R.layout.activity_main);
43         mOpenCvCameraView = (CameraBridgeViewBase) findViewById(R.id.HelloOpenCvView);
44         mOpenCvCameraView.setVisibility(SurfaceView.VISIBLE);
45         mOpenCvCameraView.setCvCameraViewListener(this);
46     }
47
48     @Override
49     public void onPause(){
50         super.onPause();
51         if (mOpenCvCameraView != null){
52             mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
53         }
54     }
55 }
```

```

54
55     @Override
56     public void onDestroy(){
57         super.onDestroy();
58         if (mOpenCvCameraView != null){
59             mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
60         }
61     }
62
63     @Override
64     public void onCameraViewStarted(int width, int height) {
65
66     }
67
68     @Override
69     public void onCameraViewStopped() {
70
71     }
72
73     @Override
74     public Mat onCameraFrame(CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewFrame inputFrame) {
75         return inputFrame.rgba();
76     }
77 }
```

A.3 15tile

```

1 package com.example.joe.a15tile;
2
3 import android.annotation.SuppressLint;
4 import android.app.ActionBar;
5 import android.app.Activity;
6 import android.os.Bundle;
7 import android.os.Handler;
8 import android.util.Log;
9 import android.view.Menu;
10 import android.view.MenuItem;
11 import android.view.MotionEvent;
12 import android.view.View;
13 import android.view.WindowManager;
14
15 import org.opencv.android.BaseLoaderCallback;
16 import org.opencv.android.CameraBridgeViewBase;
17 import org.opencv.android.JavaCameraView;
18 import org.opencv.android.LoaderCallbackInterface;
19 import org.opencv.android.OpenCVLoader;
20 import org.opencv.core.Mat;
21
22 public class MainActivity extends Activity implements
23     CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewListener, View.OnTouchListener {
24     private static final boolean AUTO_HIDE = true;
25     private static final int AUTO_HIDE_DELAY_MILLIS = 3000;
26     private static final int UI_ANIMATION_DELAY = 300;
27     private final Handler mHideHandler = new Handler();
28     private View mContentView;
29     private final Runnable mHidePart2Runnable = new Runnable() {
```

```

29     @SuppressLint("InlinedApi")
30     @Override
31     public void run() {
32         // Delayed removal of status and navigation bar
33
34         // Note that some of these constants are new as of API 16 (Jelly Bean)
35         // and API 19 (KitKat). It is safe to use them, as they are inlined
36         // at compile-time and do nothing on earlier devices.
37         // mContentView.setSystemUiVisibility(View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_LOW_PROFILE
38         // | View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_FULLSCREEN
39         // | View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_LAYOUT_STABLE
40         // | View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_IMMERSIVE_STICKY
41         // | View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_LAYOUT_HIDE_NAVIGATION
42         // | View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_HIDE_NAVIGATION);
43     }
44 };
45 private View mControlsView;
46 private final Runnable mShowPart2Runnable = new Runnable() {
47     @Override
48     public void run() {
49         // Delayed display of UI elements
50         ActionBar actionBar = getActionBar();
51         if (actionBar != null) {
52             actionBar.show();
53         }
54         mControlsView.setVisibility(View.VISIBLE);
55     }
56 };
57 private boolean mVisible;
58 private final Runnable mHideRunnable = new Runnable() {
59     @Override
60     public void run() {
61         hide();
62     }
63 };
64 private final View.OnTouchListener mDelayHideTouchListener = new
65     View.OnTouchListener() {
66     @Override
67     public boolean onTouch(View view, MotionEvent motionEvent) {
68         if (AUTO_HIDE) {
69             delayedHide(AUTO_HIDE_DELAY_MILLIS);
70         }
71         return false;
72     }
73 };
74
75 private static final String TAG = "MainActivity";
76 private CameraBridgeViewBase mOpenCvCameraView;
77 private PuzzleProcessor mPuzzleProcessor;
78 private MenuItem mItemHideNumbers;
79 private MenuItem mItemStartNewGame;
80 private int mGameWidth;
81 private int mGameHeight;
82
83 private BaseLoaderCallback mLoaderCallback = new BaseLoaderCallback(this) {
84     @Override
85     public void onManagerConnected(int status) {

```

```

86         switch (status) {
87             case LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS: {
88                 Log.i(TAG, "OpenCV loaded successfully");
89                 mOpenCvCameraView.setOnTouchListener(MainActivity.this);
90                 mOpenCvCameraView.enableView();
91             }
92             break;
93         default: {
94             super.onManagerConnected(status);
95         }
96         break;
97     }
98 }
99 }
100 };
101
102 @Override
103 protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
104     super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
105     getWindow().addFlags(WindowManager.LayoutParams.FLAG_KEEP_SCREEN_ON);
106     Log.d(TAG, "onCreate: Creating and setting view");
107     mOpenCvCameraView = new JavaCameraView(this, -1);
108     setContentView(mOpenCvCameraView);
109     mOpenCvCameraView.setVisibility(CameraBridgeViewBase.VISIBLE);
110     mOpenCvCameraView.setCvCameraViewListener(this);
111     mPuzzleProcessor = new PuzzleProcessor();
112     mPuzzleProcessor.prepareNewGame();
113     mVisible = true;
114     //mControlsView = findViewById(R.id.fullscreen_content_controls);
115     //mContentView = findViewById(R.id.fullscreen_content);
116     // Set up the user interaction to manually show or hide the system UI.
117     //mContentView.setOnClickListener(new View.OnClickListener() {
118     //    @Override
119     //    public void onClick(View view) {
120     //        toggle();
121     //    }
122     //});
123     // Upon interacting with UI controls, delay any scheduled hide()
124     // operations to prevent the jarring behavior of controls going away
125     // while interacting with the UI.
126     //findViewById(R.id(dummy_button).setOnTouchListener(mDelayHideTouchListener);
127 }
128
129 @Override
130 public void onPause() {
131     super.onPause();
132     if (mOpenCvCameraView != null) mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
133 }
134
135 @Override
136 public void onResume() {
137     super.onResume();
138     if (!OpenCVLoader.initDebug()) {
139         Log.d(TAG, "onResume: Internal OpenCV library not found. Using OpenCV
140             ↪ manager for initialization");
141         OpenCVLoader.initAsync(OpenCVLoader.OPENCV_VERSION_3_1_0, this,
142             ↪ mLoaderCallback);
143     } else {

```

```

142         Log.d(TAG, "onResume: OpenCV lib found inside package. Using it!");
143         mLoaderCallback.onManagerConnected(LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS);
144     }
145 }
146
147 @Override
148 public void onDestroy() {
149     super.onDestroy();
150     if (mOpenCvCameraView != null) mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
151 }
152
153 @Override
154 protected void onPostCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
155     super.onPostCreate(savedInstanceState);
156
157     // Trigger the initial hide() shortly after the activity has been
158     // created, to briefly hint to the user that UI controls
159     // are available.
160     delayedHide(100);
161 }
162
163 @Override
164 public boolean onCreateOptionsMenu(Menu menu) {
165     Log.i(TAG, "onCreateOptionsMenu: called");
166     mItemHideNumbers = menu.add("Show/hide the tile numbers");
167     mItemStartNewGame = menu.add("Start a new game");
168     return true;
169 }
170
171 @Override
172 public boolean onOptionsItemSelected(MenuItem item) {
173     Log.i(TAG, "onOptionsItemSelected: Menu item selected" + item);
174     if (item == mItemStartNewGame) {
175         mPuzzleProcessor.prepareNewGame();
176     } else if (item == mItemHideNumbers) {
177         mPuzzleProcessor.toggleTileNumbers();
178     }
179     return true;
180 }
181
182 public void onCameraViewStarted(int width, int height) {
183     mGameWidth = width;
184     mGameHeight = height;
185     mPuzzleProcessor.prepareGameSize(width, height);
186 }
187
188 public void onCameraViewStopped() {
189 }
190
191 public boolean onTouch(View view, MotionEvent event) {
192     int xpos, ypos;
193
194     xpos = (view.getWidth() - mGameWidth) / 2;
195     xpos = (int) event.getX() - xpos;
196
197     ypos = (view.getHeight() - mGameHeight) / 2;
198     ypos = (int) event.getY() - ypos;
199 }
```

```

200     if (xpos >= 0 && xpos <= mGameWidth && ypos >= 0 && ypos <= mGameHeight)
201         mPuzzleProcessor.deliverTouchEvent(xpos, ypos);
202
203     return false;
204 }
205
206 public Mat onCameraFrame(Mat inputFrame) {
207     return mPuzzleProcessor.puzzleFrame(inputFrame);
208 }
209
210 private void toggle() {
211     if (mVisible) {
212         hide();
213     } else {
214         show();
215     }
216 }
217
218 private void hide() {
219     // Hide UI first
220     ActionBar actionBar = getActionBar();
221     if (actionBar != null) {
222         actionBar.hide();
223     }
224     //mControlsView.setVisibility(View.GONE);
225     mVisible = false;
226
227     // Schedule a runnable to remove the status and navigation bar after a delay
228     mHideHandler.removeCallbacks(mShowPart2Runnable);
229     mHideHandler.postDelayed(mHidePart2Runnable, UI_ANIMATION_DELAY);
230 }
231
232 @SuppressLint("InlinedApi")
233 private void show() {
234     // Show the system bar
235     mContentView.setSystemUiVisibility(View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_LAYOUT_FULLSCREEN
236             | View.SYSTEM_UI_FLAG_LAYOUT_HIDE_NAVIGATION);
237     mVisible = true;
238
239     // Schedule a runnable to display UI elements after a delay
240     mHideHandler.removeCallbacks(mHidePart2Runnable);
241     mHideHandler.postDelayed(mShowPart2Runnable, UI_ANIMATION_DELAY);
242 }
243
244 /**
245 * Schedules a call to hide() in [delay] milliseconds, canceling any
246 * previously scheduled calls.
247 */
248 private void delayedHide(int delayMillis) {
249     mHideHandler.removeCallbacks(mHideRunnable);
250     mHideHandler.postDelayed(mHideRunnable, delayMillis);
251 }
252 }

```

```

1 package com.example.joe.a15tile;
2
3 /**

```

```

4  * Created by joe on 07/11/16.
5  */
6
7  import android.util.Log;
8
9  import org.opencv.core.*;
10 import org.opencv.imgproc.Imgproc;
11
12 public class PuzzleProcessor {
13
14     private static final int GRID_SIZE = 4;
15     private static final int GRID_AREA = GRID_SIZE * GRID_SIZE;
16     private static final int GRID_EMPTY_INDEX = GRID_AREA - 1;
17     private static final String TAG = "PuzzleProcessor";
18     private static final Scalar GRID_EMPTY_COLOR = new Scalar(0x33, 0x33, 0x33, 0xFF);
19
20     private int[] mIndexes;
21     private int[] mTextWidths;
22     private int[] mTextHeights;
23
24     private Mat mRgba15;
25     private Mat[] mCells15;
26     private boolean mShowTileNumbers = true;
27
28     public PuzzleProcessor() {
29         mTextWidths = new int[GRID_AREA];
30         mTextHeights = new int[GRID_AREA];
31         mIndexes = new int[GRID_AREA];
32
33         for (int i = 0; i < GRID_AREA; i++) mIndexes[i] = i;
34     }
35
36     public synchronized void prepareNewGame() {
37         do {
38             shuffle(mIndexes);
39         } while (!isPuzzleSolvable());
40     }
41
42     public synchronized void prepareGameSize(int width, int height) {
43         mRgba15 = new Mat(height, width, CvType.CV_8UC4);
44         mCells15 = new Mat[GRID_AREA];
45
46         for (int i = 0; i < GRID_SIZE; i++) {
47             for (int j = 0; j < GRID_SIZE; j++) {
48                 int k = i * GRID_SIZE + j;
49                 mCells15[k] = mRgba15.submat(i * height / GRID_SIZE,
50                     (i + 1) * height / GRID_SIZE,
51                     j * width / GRID_SIZE,
52                     (j + 1) * width / GRID_SIZE);
53             }
54         }
55
56         for (int i = 0; i < GRID_AREA; i++) {
57             Size s = Imgproc.getTextSize(Integer.toString(i + 1), 3, 1, 2, null);
58             mTextHeights[i] = (int) s.height;
59             mTextWidths[i] = (int) s.width;
60         }
61     }

```

```

62
63     public synchronized Mat puzzleFrame(Mat inputPicture) {
64         Mat[] cells = new Mat[GRID_AREA];
65         int rows = inputPicture.rows();
66         int cols = inputPicture.cols();
67
68         rows = rows - rows % 4;
69         cols = cols - cols % 4;
70
71         for (int i = 0; i < GRID_SIZE; i++) {
72             for (int j = 0; j < GRID_SIZE; j++) {
73                 int k = i * GRID_SIZE + j;
74                 cells[k] = inputPicture.submat(i * inputPicture.rows() / GRID_SIZE,
75                     (i + 1) * inputPicture.rows() / GRID_SIZE,
76                     j * inputPicture.cols() / GRID_SIZE,
77                     (j + 1) * inputPicture.cols() / GRID_SIZE);
78             }
79         }
80
81         rows = rows - rows % 4;
82         cols = cols - cols % 4;
83
84         for (int i = 0; i < GRID_AREA; i++) {
85             int idx = mIndexes[i];
86             if (idx == GRID_EMPTY_INDEX)
87                 mCells15[i].setTo(GRID_EMPTY_COLOR);
88             else {
89                 cells[idx].copyTo(mCells15[i]);
90                 if (mShowTileNumbers) {
91                     Imgproc.putText(mCells15[i],
92                         Integer.toString(1 + idx),
93                         new Point((cols / GRID_SIZE - mTextWidths[idx]) / 2,
94                             (rows / GRID_SIZE + mTextHeights[idx]) / 2),
95                         3,
96                         1,
97                         new Scalar(255, 0, 0, 255),
98                         2);
99                 }
100            }
101        }
102
103        for (int i = 0; i < GRID_AREA; i++) cells[i].release();
104
105        drawGrid(cols, rows, mRgba15);
106
107        return mRgba15;
108    }
109
110    public void toggleTileNumbers() {
111        mShowTileNumbers = !mShowTileNumbers;
112    }
113
114    public void deliverTouchEvent(int x, int y) {
115        int rows = mRgba15.rows();
116        int cols = mRgba15.cols();
117
118        int row = (int) Math.floor(y * GRID_SIZE / rows);
119        int col = (int) Math.floor(x * GRID_SIZE / cols);

```

```

120
121     if (row < 0 || row >= GRID_SIZE || col < 0 || col >= GRID_SIZE) {
122         Log.e(TAG, "deliverTouchEvent: Touch event outside of image not expected");
123         return;
124     }
125
126     int idx = row * GRID_SIZE + col;
127     int idxToSwap = -1;
128
129     if (idxToSwap < 0 && col > 0)
130         if (mIndexes[idx - 1] == GRID_EMPTY_INDEX)
131             idxToSwap = idx - 1;
132     if (idxToSwap < 0 && col < GRID_SIZE - 1)
133         if (mIndexes[idx + 1] == GRID_EMPTY_INDEX)
134             idxToSwap = idx + 1;
135     if (idxToSwap < 0 && row > 0)
136         if (mIndexes[idx - GRID_SIZE] == GRID_EMPTY_INDEX)
137             idxToSwap = idx - GRID_SIZE;
138     if (idxToSwap < 0 && row < GRID_SIZE - 1)
139         if (mIndexes[idx + GRID_SIZE] == GRID_EMPTY_INDEX)
140             idxToSwap = idx + GRID_SIZE;
141
142     if (idxToSwap >= 0) {
143         synchronized (this) {
144             int touched = mIndexes[idx];
145             mIndexes[idx] = mIndexes[idxToSwap];
146             mIndexes[idxToSwap] = touched;
147         }
148     }
149 }
150
151 private void drawGrid(int cols, int rows, Mat drawMat) {
152     for (int i = 1; i < GRID_SIZE; i++) {
153         Imgproc.line(drawMat,
154                     new Point(0, i * rows / GRID_SIZE),
155                     new Point(cols, i * rows / GRID_SIZE),
156                     new Scalar(0, 255, 0, 255),
157                     3);
158         Imgproc.line(drawMat,
159                     new Point(i * cols / GRID_SIZE, rows),
160                     new Point(i * cols / GRID_SIZE, rows),
161                     new Scalar(0, 255, 0, 255),
162                     3);
163     }
164 }
165
166 private static void shuffle(int[] array) {
167     for (int i = array.length; i > 1; i--) {
168         int temp = array[i - 1];
169         int randIx = (int) (Math.random() * i);
170         array[i - 1] = array[randIx];
171         array[randIx] = temp;
172     }
173 }
174
175 private boolean isPuzzleSolvable() {
176     int sum = 0;
177     for (int i = 0; i < GRID_AREA; i++) {

```

```

178         if (mIndexes[i] == GRID_EMPTY_INDEX) sum += (i / GRID_SIZE) + 1;
179     else {
180         int smaller = 0;
181         for (int j = i+1; j < GRID_AREA; j++){
182             if (mIndexes[j] < mIndexes[i]) smaller++;
183         }
184         sum += smaller;
185     }
186 }
187 return sum % 2 == 0;
188 }
189
190 }
```

A.4 BLOB Analysis

```

1 package com.example.joe.blob_analysis;
2
3 import android.app.Activity;
4 import android.os.Bundle;
5 import android.util.Log;
6 import android.view.MotionEvent;
7 import android.view.SurfaceView;
8 import android.view.View;
9 import android.view.Window;
10 import android.view.WindowManager;
11
12 import org.opencv.android.BaseLoaderCallback;
13 import org.opencv.android.CameraBridgeViewBase;
14 import org.opencv.android.LoaderCallbackInterface;
15 import org.opencv.android.OpenCVLoader;
16 import org.opencv.core.Core;
17 import org.opencv.core.CvType;
18 import org.opencv.core.Mat;
19 import org.opencv.core.MatOfPoint;
20 import org.opencv.core.Rect;
21 import org.opencv.core.Scalar;
22 import org.opencv.core.Size;
23 import org.opencv.imgproc.Imgproc;
24
25 import java.util.List;
26
27 /**
28 * Created by joe on 12/11/16.
29 */
30
31 public class ColorBlobDetectionActivity extends Activity implements
32     View.OnTouchListener, CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewListener2 {
33     private static final String TAG = "Activity: ";
34
35     private boolean mIsColorSelected = false;
36     private Mat mRgba;
37     private Scalar mBlobColorRgba;
38     private Scalar mBlobColorHsv;
39     private ColorBlobDetector mDetector;
        private Mat mSpectrum;
```

```

40     private Size SPECTRUM_SIZE;
41     private Scalar CONTOUR_COLOR;
42
43     private CameraBridgeViewBase mOpenCvCameraView;
44
45     private BaseLoaderCallback mLoaderCallback = new BaseLoaderCallback(this) {
46         @Override
47         public void onManagerConnected(int status) {
48             switch (status) {
49                 case LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS: {
50                     Log.i(TAG, "onManagerConnected: OpenCV Loaded");
51                     mOpenCvCameraView.enableView();
52                     mOpenCvCameraView.setOnTouchListener(ColorBlobDetectionActivity.this);
53                 }
54                 break;
55             default: {
56                 super.onManagerConnected(status);
57             }
58             break;
59         }
60     };
61
62
63     public ColorBlobDetectionActivity() {
64         Log.i(TAG, "ColorBlobDetectionActivity: Instantiated new");
65     }
66
67     @Override
68     public void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
69         Log.i(TAG, "onCreate: Called");
70         super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
71         requestWindowFeature(Window.FEATURE_NO_TITLE);
72         getWindow().addFlags(WindowManager.LayoutParams.FLAG_KEEP_SCREEN_ON);
73         setContentView(R.layout.color_blob_detection_surface_view);
74         mOpenCvCameraView = (CameraBridgeViewBase)
75             findViewById(R.id.color_blob_detection_activity_surface_view);
76         mOpenCvCameraView.setVisibility(SurfaceView.VISIBLE);
77         mOpenCvCameraView.setCvCameraViewListener(this);
78     }
79
80     @Override
81     public void onPause() {
82         super.onPause();
83         if (mOpenCvCameraView != null) {
84             mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
85         }
86     }
87
88     @Override
89     public void onResume() {
90         super.onResume();
91         if (!OpenCVLoader.initDebug()) {
92             Log.d(TAG, "onResume: OpenCV not found. Using Manager");
93             OpenCVLoader.initAsync(OpenCVLoader.OPENCV_VERSION_3_1_0, this,
94                 mLoaderCallback);
95         } else {
96             Log.d(TAG, "onResume: OpenCV found in package.");
97             mLoaderCallback.onManagerConnected(LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS);
98         }
99     }
100 }
```

```

96
97    }
98
99    public void onDestroy() {
100        super.onDestroy();
101        if (mOpenCvCameraView != null) {
102            mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
103        }
104    }
105
106    public void onCameraViewStarted(int width, int height) {
107        mRgba = new Mat(height, width, CvType.CV_8UC4);
108        mDetector = new ColorBlobDetector();
109        mSpectrum = new Mat();
110        mBlobColorRgba = new Scalar(255);
111        mBlobColorHsv = new Scalar(255);
112        SPECTRUM_SIZE = new Size(200, 64);
113        CONTOUR_COLOR = new Scalar(255, 0, 0, 255);
114    }
115
116    public void onCameraViewStopped() {
117        mRgba.release();
118    }
119
120    public boolean onTouch(View v, MotionEvent event){
121        int cols = mRgba.cols();
122        int rows = mRgba.rows();
123
124        int xOffset = (mOpenCvCameraView.getWidth() - cols) / 2;
125        int yOffset = (mOpenCvCameraView.getHeight() - rows) / 2;
126
127        int x = (int)event.getX() - xOffset;
128        int y = (int) event.getY() - yOffset;
129
130        Log.i(TAG, "onTouch: Touch coordinates: (" + x + ", " + y + ")");
131
132        if ((x < 0) || (y < 0) || (x > cols) || (y > rows)) return false;
133
134        Rect touchedRect = new Rect();
135
136        touchedRect.x = (x > 4) ? x - 4 : 0;
137        touchedRect.y = (y > 4) ? y - 4 : 0;
138
139        touchedRect.width = (x + 4 < cols) ? x + 4 - touchedRect.x : cols -
140            ↳   touchedRect.x;
140        touchedRect.height = (y + 4 < rows) ? y + 4 - touchedRect.y : rows -
141            ↳   touchedRect.y;
141
142        Mat touchedRegionRgba = mRgba.submat(touchedRect);
143
144        Mat touchedRegionHsv = new Mat();
145        Imgproc.cvtColor(touchedRegionRgba, touchedRegionHsv,
146                         ↳   Imgproc.COLOR_RGB2HSV_FULL);
146
147        mBlobColorHsv = Core.sumElems(touchedRegionHsv);
148        int pointCount = touchedRect.width * touchedRect.height;
149        for (int i = 0; i < mBlobColorHsv.val.length; i++) {
150            mBlobColorHsv.val[i] /= pointCount;

```

```

151     }
152
153     mBlobColorRgba = convertScalarHsv2Rgba(mBlobColorHsv);
154
155     Log.i(TAG, "onTouch: Touched rgba color: (" + mBlobColorRgba.val[0] + ", " +
156           ↵ mBlobColorRgba.val[1] + ", " + mBlobColorRgba.val[2] + ", " +
157           ↵ mBlobColorRgba.val[3] + ")");
158
159     mDetector.setHsvColor(mBlobColorHsv);
160
161     Imgproc.resize(mDetector.getSpectrum(), mSpectrum, SPECTRUM_SIZE);
162     mIsColorSelected = true;
163
164     touchedRegionRgba.release();
165     touchedRegionHsv.release();
166
167     return false;
168 }
169
170 public Mat onCameraFrame(CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewFrame inputFrame) {
171     mRgba = inputFrame.rgba();
172     if (mIsColorSelected) {
173         mDetector.process(mRgba);
174         List<MatOfPoint> contours = mDetector.getContours();
175         Log.e(TAG, "onCameraFrame: Contours count: " + contours.size());
176         Imgproc.drawContours(mRgba, contours, -1, CONTOUR_COLOR);
177         Mat colorLabel = mRgba.submat(4, 68, 4, 68);
178         colorLabel.setTo(mBlobColorRgba);
179         Mat spectrumLabel = mRgba.submat(4, 4 + mSpectrum.rows(), 70, 70 +
180             ↵ mSpectrum.cols());
181         mSpectrum.copyTo(spectrumLabel);
182     }
183
184     return mRgba;
185 }
186
187 private Scalar convertScalarHsv2Rgba(Scalar hsvColor) {
188     Mat pointMatRgba = new Mat();
189     Mat pointMatHsv = new Mat(1, 1, CvType.CV_8UC3, hsvColor);
190     Imgproc.cvtColor(pointMatHsv, pointMatRgba, Imgproc.COLOR_HSV2RGB_FULL, 4);
191     return new Scalar(pointMatRgba.get(0, 0));
192 }

```

```

1 package com.example.joe.blob_analysis;
2
3 import org.opencv.core.Core;
4 import org.opencv.core.CvType;
5 import org.opencv.core.Mat;
6 import org.opencv.core.MatOfPoint;
7 import org.opencv.core.Scalar;
8 import org.opencv.imgproc.Imgproc;
9
10 import java.util.ArrayList;
11 import java.util.Iterator;
12 import java.util.List;

```

```

13
14 /**
15 * Created by joe on 12/11/16.
16 */
17
18 public class ColorBlobDetector {
19
20     private Scalar mLowerBound = new Scalar(0);
21     private Scalar mUpperBound = new Scalar(0);
22
23     private static double mMinContourArea = 0.1;
24
25     private Scalar mColorRadius = new Scalar(25, 50, 50, 0);
26     private Mat mSpectrum = new Mat();
27     private List<MatOfPoint> mContours = new ArrayList<MatOfPoint>();
28
29     Mat mPyrDownMat = new Mat();
30     Mat mHsvMat = new Mat();
31     Mat mMask = new Mat();
32     Mat mDilatedMask = new Mat();
33     Mat mHierarchy = new Mat();
34
35     public void setColorRadius(Scalar radius) {
36         mColorRadius = radius;
37     }
38
39     public void setHsvColor(Scalar hsvColor) {
40         double minH = (hsvColor.val[0] >= mColorRadius.val[0]) ? hsvColor.val[0] -
41             → mColorRadius.val[0] : 0;
42         double maxH = (hsvColor.val[0] + mColorRadius.val[0] <= 255) ? hsvColor.val[0]
43             → + mColorRadius.val[0] : 255;
44
45         mLowerBound.val[0] = minH;
46         mUpperBound.val[0] = maxH;
47
48         mLowerBound.val[1] = hsvColor.val[1] - mColorRadius.val[1];
49         mUpperBound.val[1] = hsvColor.val[1] + mColorRadius.val[1];
50
51         mLowerBound.val[2] = hsvColor.val[2] - mColorRadius.val[2];
52         mUpperBound.val[2] = hsvColor.val[2] + mColorRadius.val[2];
53
54         mLowerBound.val[3] = 0;
55         mUpperBound.val[3] = 255;
56
57         Mat spectrumHsv = new Mat(1, (int)(maxH-minH), CvType.CV_8UC3);
58
59         for (int j = 0; j < maxH-minH; j++) {
60             byte[] tmp = {(byte)(minH+j), (byte)255, (byte)255};
61             spectrumHsv.put(0, j, tmp);
62         }
63
64         Imgproc.cvtColor(spectrumHsv, mSpectrum, Imgproc.COLOR_HSV2RGB_FULL);
65     }
66
67     public Mat getSpectrum() {
68         return mSpectrum;
69     }

```

```

69     public void setMinContourArea(double area){mMinContourArea = area;}
70
71     public void process(Mat rgbaImage){
72         Imgproc.pyrDown(rgbaImage, mPyrDownMat);
73         Imgproc.pyrDown(mPyrDownMat, mPyrDownMat);
74
75         Imgproc.cvtColor(mPyrDownMat, mHsvMat, Imgproc.COLOR_RGB2HSV_FULL);
76
77         Core.inRange(mHsvMat, mLowerBound, mUpperBound, mMask);
78         Imgproc.dilate(mMask, mDilatedMask, new Mat());
79
80         List<MatOfPoint> contours = new ArrayList<MatOfPoint>();
81
82         Imgproc.findContours(mDilatedMask, contours, mHierarchy,
83             → Imgproc.RETR_EXTERNAL, Imgproc.CHAIN_APPROX_SIMPLE);
84
85         double maxArea = 0;
86         Iterator<MatOfPoint> each = contours.iterator();
87         while (each.hasNext()) {
88             MatOfPoint wrapper = each.next();
89             double area = Imgproc.contourArea(wrapper);
90             if (area > maxArea) {
91                 maxArea = area;
92             }
93         }
94
95         mContours.clear();
96         each = contours.iterator();
97         while (each.hasNext()) {
98             MatOfPoint contour = each.next();
99             if (Imgproc.contourArea(contour) > mMinContourArea*maxArea) {
100                 Core.multiply(contour, new Scalar(4,4), contour);
101                 mContours.add(contour);
102             }
103         }
104
105     public List<MatOfPoint> getContours(){return mContours;}
106
107 }
```

A.5 Face Detection

```

1 package com.example.joe.face_recognition;
2
3 import org.opencv.core.Mat;
4 import org.opencv.core.MatOfRect;
5
6 /**
7  * Created by joe on 08/11/16.
8 */
9
10 public class DetectionBasedTracker {
11     public DetectionBasedTracker(String cascadeName, int minFaceSize) {
12         mNativeObj = nativeCreateObject(cascadeName, minFaceSize);
13     }

```

```

14
15     public void start() {
16         nativeStart(mNativeObj);
17     }
18
19     public void stop() {
20         nativeStop(mNativeObj);
21     }
22
23     public void setMinFaceSize(int size) {
24         nativeSetFaceSize(mNativeObj, size);
25     }
26
27     public void detect(Mat imageGray, MatOfRect faces) {
28         nativeDetect(mNativeObj, imageGray.getNativeObjAddr(),
29                     faces.getNativeObjAddr());
30     }
31
32     public void release() {
33         nativeDestroyObject(mNativeObj);
34         mNativeObj = 0;
35     }
36
37     private long mNativeObj = 0;
38
39     private static native long nativeCreateObject(String cascadeName, int minFaceSize);
40     private static native void nativeDestroyObject(long thiz);
41     private static native void nativeStart(long thiz);
42     private static native void nativeStop(long thiz);
43     private static native void nativeSetFaceSize(long thiz, int size);
44     private static native void nativeDetect(long thiz, long inputImage, long faces);
}

```

```

1 package com.example.joe.face_recognition;
2
3 import android.app.Activity;
4 import android.content.Context;
5 import android.os.Bundle;
6 import android.util.Log;
7 import android.view.Menu;
8 import android.view.MenuItem;
9 import android.view.WindowManager;
10
11 import org.opencv.android.BaseLoaderCallback;
12 import org.opencv.android.CameraBridgeViewBase;
13 import org.opencv.android.LoaderCallbackInterface;
14 import org.opencv.android.OpenCVLoader;
15 import org.opencv.core.Mat;
16 import org.opencv.core.MatOfRect;
17 import org.opencv.core.Rect;
18 import org.opencv.core.Scalar;
19 import org.opencv.core.Size;
20 import org.opencv.imgproc.Imgproc;
21 import org.opencv.objdetect.CascadeClassifier;
22
23 import java.io.File;
24 import java.io.FileOutputStream;

```

```

25 import java.io.IOException;
26 import java.io.InputStream;
27
28 /**
29 * Created by joe on 08/11/16.
30 */
31
32 public class FrActivity extends Activity implements
33     CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewListener2 {
34
35     private static final String TAG             = "FrActivity";
36     private static final Scalar FACE_RECT_COLOR = new Scalar(0,255,0,255);
37     private static final int    JAVA_DETECTOR   = 0;
38     private static final int    NATIVE_DETECTOR = 1;
39
40     private MenuItem mItemFace50;
41     private MenuItem mItemFace40;
42     private MenuItem mItemFace30;
43     private MenuItem mItemFace20;
44     private MenuItem mItemType;
45
46     private Mat          mRgba;
47     private Mat          mGray;
48     private File         mCascadeFile;
49     private CascadeClassifier mJavaDetector;
50     private DetectionBasedTracker mNativeDetector;
51
52     private int          mDetectorType = JAVA_DETECTOR;
53     private String[]     mDetectorName;
54
55     private float        mRelativeFaceSize = 0.2f;
56     private int          mAbsoluteFaceSize = 0;
57
58     private CameraBridgeViewBase mOpenCvCameraView;
59
60     private BaseLoaderCallback mLoaderCallback = new BaseLoaderCallback(this) {
61         @Override
62         public void onManagerConnected(int status) {
63             switch (status){
64                 case LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS:{
65                     Log.i(TAG, "onManagerConnected: OpenCV loaded correctly");
66                     System.loadLibrary("detection_based_tracker");
67                     try{
68                         InputStream is =
69                             getResources().openRawResource(R.raw.lbpcascade_frontalface);
70                         File cascadeDir = getDir("cascade", Context.MODE_PRIVATE);
71                         mCascadeFile = new File(cascadeDir,
72                             "lbpcascade_frontalface.xml");
73                         FileOutputStream os = new FileOutputStream(mCascadeFile);
74
75                         byte[] buffer = new byte[4096];
76                         int bytesRead;
77                         while ((bytesRead = is.read(buffer)) != -1){
78                             os.write(buffer, 0, bytesRead);
79                         }
80                         is.close();
81                         os.close();
82                     }
83                 }
84             }
85         }
86     }

```

```

80             mJavaDetector = new
81                 ↪ CascadeClassifier(mCascadeFile.getAbsolutePath());
82             if (mJavaDetector.empty()){
83                 Log.e(TAG, "onManagerConnected: Failed to load cascade
84                     ↪ classifier");
85                 mJavaDetector = null;
86             }else{
87                 Log.i(TAG, "onManagerConnected: Loaded cascade classifier
88                     ↪ from "+mCascadeFile.getAbsolutePath());
89             }
90             mNativeDetector = new
91                 ↪ DetectionBasedTracker(mCascadeFile.getAbsolutePath(), 0);
92             cascadeDir.delete();
93         }catch (IOException e){
94             e.printStackTrace();
95             Log.e(TAG, "onManagerConnected: Failed to load cascade.
96                     ↪ Exception thrown: "+e);
97         }
98     }
99 }
100 }
101 };
102
103 public FrActivity(){
104     mDetectorName = new String[2];
105     mDetectorName[JAVA_DETECTOR] = "Java";
106     mDetectorName[NATIVE_DETECTOR] = "Native (tracking)";
107     Log.i(TAG, "FrActivity: Instantiated new" + this.getClass());
108 }
109
110 @Override
111 public void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState){
112     Log.i(TAG, "onCreate: Called");
113     super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
114     getWindow().addFlags(WindowManager.LayoutParams.FLAG_KEEP_SCREEN_ON);
115     setContentView(R.layout.face_detect_surface_view);
116     mOpenCvCameraView = (CameraBridgeViewBase)
117         ↪ findViewById(R.id.fd_activity_surface_view);
118     mOpenCvCameraView.setVisibility(CameraBridgeViewBase.VISIBLE);
119     mOpenCvCameraView.setCvCameraViewListener(this);
120 }
121
122 @Override
123 public void onPause(){
124     super.onPause();
125     if (mOpenCvCameraView != null) mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
126 }
127
128 @Override
129 public void onResume(){
130     super.onResume();
131     if (!OpenCVLoader.initDebug()){

```

```

131         Log.d(TAG, "onResume: Internal OpenCV lib not found. Using OpenCV manager
132             for initialization");
133
134             → OpenCVLoader.initAsync(OpenCVLoader.OPENCV_VERSION_3_1_0, this, mLoaderCallback);
135     }else{
136         Log.d(TAG, "onResume: OpenCV lib found inside package.");
137         mLoaderCallback.onManagerConnected(LoaderCallbackInterface.SUCCESS);
138     }
139
140     public void onDestroy(){
141         super.onDestroy();
142         mOpenCvCameraView.disableView();
143     }
144
145     public void onCameraViewStarted(int width, int height){
146         mGray = new Mat();
147         mRgba = new Mat();
148     }
149
150     public void onCameraViewStopped(){
151         mGray.release();
152         mRgba.release();
153     }
154
155     public Mat onCameraFrame(CameraBridgeViewBase.CvCameraViewFrame inputFrame){
156         mRgba = inputFrame.rgba();
157         mGray = inputFrame.gray();
158
159         if (mAbsoluteFaceSize == 0){
160             int height = mGray.rows();
161             if (Math.round(height * mRelativeFaceSize)>0){
162                 mAbsoluteFaceSize = Math.round(height * mRelativeFaceSize);
163             }
164             mNativeDetector.setMinFaceSize(mAbsoluteFaceSize);
165         }
166
167         MatOfRect faces = new MatOfRect();
168
169         if (mDetectorType == JAVA_DETECTOR){
170             if (mJavaDetector != null){
171                 mJavaDetector.detectMultiScale(mGray,
172                     faces,
173                     1.1,
174                     2,
175                     new Size(mAbsoluteFaceSize, mAbsoluteFaceSize),
176                     new Size());
177             }
178         }else if (mDetectorType == NATIVE_DETECTOR){
179             if (mNativeDetector != null){
180                 mNativeDetector.detect(mGray, faces);
181             }
182         }else{
183             Log.e(TAG, "onCameraFrame: Detection method is not selected");
184         }
185
186         Rect[] facesArray = faces.toArray();

```

```
187     for (Rect aFacesArray : facesArray)
188         Imgproc.rectangle(mRgba, aFacesArray.tl(), aFacesArray.br(),
189                           FACE_RECT_COLOR, 3);
190
191     return mRgba;
192 }
193
194 @Override
195 public boolean onCreateOptionsMenu(Menu menu){
196     Log.i(TAG, "onCreateOptionsMenu: called");
197     mItemFace50 = menu.add("Face size 50%");
198     mItemFace40 = menu.add("Face size 40%");
199     mItemFace30 = menu.add("Face size 30%");
200     mItemFace20 = menu.add("Face size 20%");
201     mItemType = menu.add(mDetectorName[mDetectorType]);
202     return true;
203 }
204
205 private void setMinFaceSize(float faceSize){
206     mRelativeFaceSize = faceSize;
207     mAbsoluteFaceSize = 0;
208 }
209
210 private void setDetectorType(int type){
211     if (mDetectorType != type){
212         mDetectorType = type;
213         if (type == NATIVE_DETECTOR){
214             Log.i(TAG, "setDetectorType: Detection based tracker enabled");
215             mNativeDetector.start();
216         }else{
217             Log.i(TAG, "setDetectorType: Cascade detector enabled");
218             mNativeDetector.stop();
219         }
220     }
221 }
```

B Python Experiments

B.1 Table of Python Experiments

| Experiment | Purpose | Functional | Issues | Files | LOC |
|--------------------|---|------------|--------|-------|-----|
| Find Game | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Identify red game cartridge out of 3Displays boundary around correct part of image | Yes | N/A | 1 | 18 |
| Threshold Methods | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Demonstrates various thresholding methods on an imageOriginal image text unreadable but clear after techniques are applied | Yes | N/A | 1 | 14 |
| Image Operations | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Moves parts of an image to other locations using arraysDemonstrates how pixel data is stored | Yes | N/A | 1 | 15 |
| Distance to Camera | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Calculates distance to the camera from an identified objectDisplays various distances using 3 images | Yes | N/A | 1 | 38 |

B.2 find_game.py

```

1 import numpy as np
2 import cv2
3
4 image = cv2.imread('games.jpg')
5
6 upper = np.array([65, 65, 255])
7 lower = np.array([0, 0, 200])
8 mask = cv2.inRange(image, lower, upper)
9
10 cnts, _ = cv2.findContours(mask.copy(), cv2.RETR_EXTERNAL, cv2.CHAIN_APPROX_SIMPLE)
11 c = max(cnts, key=cv2.contourArea)
12
13 peri = cv2.arcLength(c, True)
14 approx = cv2.approxPolyDP(c, 0.05 * peri, True)
15
16 cv2.drawContours(image, [approx], -1, (0,255,0), 4)
17 cv2.imshow('Image', image)
18 cv2.waitKey(0)

```

B.3 thresholding.py

```

1 import cv2
2 import numpy as np
3
4 img = cv2.imread('bookpage.jpg')
5 grayscaled = cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
6 _, threshold = cv2.threshold(img, 12, 255, cv2.THRESH_BINARY)
7 _, gs_threshold = cv2.threshold(grayscaled, 10, 255, cv2.THRESH_BINARY)
8 adaptive = cv2.adaptiveThreshold(grayscaled, 255, cv2.ADAPTIVE_THRESH_GAUSSIAN_C,
9     cv2.THRESH_BINARY, 115, 1)
10 cv2.imshow('original', img)
11 cv2.imshow('threshold', threshold)
12 cv2.imshow('grayscale', gs_threshold)
13 cv2.imshow('adaptive', adaptive)
14 cv2.waitKey(0)
15 cv2.destroyAllWindows()

```

B.4 img_ops.py

```

1 import cv2
2 import numpy as np
3
4 img = cv2.imread('watch.jpg', cv2.IMREAD_COLOR)
5 px = img[55, 55]
6 img[55, 55] = [255, 255, 255]
7 px = img[55, 55]
8 print(px)
9 px = img[100:150, 100:150]
10 print(px)
11
12 watch_face = img[37:111, 107:194]

```

```

13 img[0:74, 0:87] = watch_face
14 cv2.imshow('image', img)
15 cv2.waitKey(0)
16 cv2.destroyAllWindows()

```

B.5 distance_to_camera.py

```

1 import numpy as np
2 import cv2
3
4
5 def find_marker(image):
6     gray = cv2.cvtColor(image, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
7     gray = cv2.GaussianBlur(gray, (5, 5), 0)
8     edged = cv2.Canny(gray, 35, 125)
9
10    (cnts, _) = cv2.findContours(edged.copy(), cv2.RETR_LIST, cv2.CHAIN_APPROX_SIMPLE)
11    c = max(cnts, key=cv2.contourArea)
12
13    return cv2.minAreaRect(c)
14
15
16 def distance_to_camera(knownWidth, focalLength, perWidth):
17     return (knownWidth * focalLength) / perWidth
18
19
20 KNOWN_DISTANCE = 24.0
21 KNOWN_WIDTH = 11.0
22 IMAGE_PATHS = ['2ft.png', '3ft.png', '4ft.png']
23
24 image = cv2.imread(IMAGE_PATHS[0])
25 marker = find_marker(image)
26 focalLength = (marker[1][0] * KNOWN_DISTANCE) / KNOWN_WIDTH
27
28 for imagePath in IMAGE_PATHS:
29     image = cv2.imread(imagePath)
30     marker = find_marker(image)
31     inches = distance_to_camera(KNOWN_WIDTH, focalLength, marker[1][0])
32
33     box = np.int0(cv2.cv.BoxPoints(marker))
34     cv2.drawContours(image, [box], -1, (0, 255, 0), 2)
35     cv2.putText(image, '%.2fft' % (inches/12),
36                 (image.shape[1] - 200, image.shape[0] - 20), cv2.FONT_HERSHEY_SIMPLEX,
37                 2.0, (0, 255, 0), 3)
38     cv2.imshow('image', image)
39     cv2.waitKey(0)

```

C Development Log

D EXIF Extraction Code

```

36 def get_sensor_size(exif):
37     # (Resolution in pixels / Focal plane resolution in dpi) X 25.4(mm / in) = size in
38     # → mm
39     # Do for hor and ver
40     horizontal_measurement = None
41     vertical_measurement = None
42
43 def get_focal_length(exif):
44     """
45
46     :param exif:
47     :return:
48     """
49     measurement, divisor = exif['FocalLength']
50     return float(measurement)/float(divisor)
51
52
53 def get_exif(image_path):
54     """
55
56     :param image_path:
57     :return:
58     """
59     image = PIL.Image.open(image_path)
60     exif = {PIL.ExifTags.TAGS[k]: v
61             for k, v in image._getexif().items()
62             if k in PIL.ExifTags.TAGS}
63
64     return exif

```

E Commit Log

F Photos

To do...

- 1 (p. i): Write abstract
- 2 (p. 7): review section adding detail on setup method
- 3 (p. 13): complete hough transform section
- 4 (p. 15): What is going on here?
- 5 (p. 15): Add section or briefly explain
- 6 (p. 23): Remove statements saying this will be used
- 7 (p. 24): Could use
- 8 (p. 24): revise in light of dev methods
- 9 (p. 40): adapt once statement comes in
- 10 (p. 40): last name