



Karlsruher Institut für Technologie



Institut für Thermische Verfahrenstechnik

Development and Optimization of an Optical System and an Image Processing Code to Investigate the Particles Motion in a Solar Particle Receiver

Master thesis

cand. M.Sc. Lana Fionnguala Liebl

November 20, 2019 - July 6, 2020

Advisor: **Prof. Dr.-Ing. Thomas Wetzel**
Second advisor: **Prof. Dr. Reinhard Rauch**
Supervisor: **Serdar Hicdurmaz, Dr.-Ing. Martina Neises-von Puttkamer**
Institute of Solar Research, German Aerospace Center, Stuttgart

Masterarbeit

für

Frau B.Sc. Lana Liebl

Entwicklung und Optimierung eines optischen Systems und eines Bildverarbeitungsalgorithmus zur Untersuchung der Partikelbewegung in einem solaren Partikelreceiver

Development and Optimization of an Optical System and an Image Processing Code to Investigate the Particles Motion in a Solar Particle Receiver

Solar Towers using sand-like granular particles as Heat Transfer Fluid (HTF) have various advantages over molten salt based solar receivers, which are state-of-the-art Concentrated Solar Tower technology, like higher maximum temperature in the receiver and potentially lower operational and component costs. The Centrifugal Particle Receiver is a promising design compared to other particle receiver concepts because it allows an adjustment of particle residence time and thus particle outlet temperature. In the centrifugal particle receiver, the ceramic particles with various diameters (0.3 – 1 mm), which are accelerated centrifugally and gravitationally, are moving in an inclined rotating drum while at the same time being exposed to solar radiation that enters through the aperture. On-sun tests have shown that the particles can be heated up to 965 °C in a 2.5 MWth prototype.

Depending on the receiver rotational speed and the inlet particle mass flow rate, an optically opaque but sufficiently thin particle film can be achieved near the receiver wall. However, the particles, forming a particle film altogether and following helical-like trajectories, move relative to neighboring particles and eventually mix in all directions (radial, tangential and axial) due to sliding and rolling over neighboring particles. For a better understanding of the movement of single particles in the film, a numerical DEM-model (Discrete Element Method) is being developed at the moment, which will be validated by experimental results.

The first main objective of this work is to design and optimize an optical system consisting of GoPro cameras and diffusive lamps that will be integrated to a lab scale Centrifugal Receiver with ~ 0.8 m of cavity diameter. By means of this optical set-up, the particle motion can be detected in the receiver. The second main objective is the development of a particle tracking code to be used in image analysis of recorded particle flows.

The main tasks are as follows:

- Literature review of particle-based solar receiver systems and their experimental test set-ups
- Geometric characterization of ceramic particles by using sieve analysis
- Conducting experiments with stationary particle-tracer mixture to optimize the optical design and check its compatibility to the main system
- Image Processing Code Development in Python for tracer (white particle) tracking
- Image Processing Code Development in Python for particle film thickness evaluation
- Conducting experiments to detect and calibrate the effects resulting from the nature of camera and development of Image Processing Code in Python in order to generate corrected data for post-processing

The written documentation should include a clear and concise presentation of the work carried out. The results of the work will be presented within the Institute Colloquium.

Ausgabe der Arbeit: 20.11.2019

Abgabe der Arbeit:

Aufgabensteller:
Betreuer:

Prof. Dr.-Ing. Thomas Wetzel
Serdar Hicdurmaz, Martina Neises-von Puttkamer



Declaration of originality

I hereby declare that I have composed this paper by myself and without any assistance other than the sources given in my list of works cited. This paper has not been submitted in the past or is currently being submitted to any other examination institution. It has not been published. All direct quotes as well as indirect quotes which in phrasing or original idea have been taken from a different text (written or otherwise) have been marked as such clearly and in each single instance under a precise specification of the source.

I am aware that any false claim made here results in failing the examination.

Karlsruhe, July 6, 2020

Lana Fionnghuala Liebl

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Prof. Dr.-Ing. Thomas Wetzel (KIT) and to my supervisors Serdar Hicdurmaz (DLR) and Dr.-Ing. Martina Neises-von Puttkamer (DLR) for giving me the opportunity to examine this field of research for writing my master thesis. I want to say thank you to Prof. Dr.-Ing. Thomas Wetzel especially for the uncomplicated and quick communication.

I wish to expend my special thanks to Serdar Hicdurmaz for the technical discussions throughout the thesis as well as the support to finalize the thesis.

I wish to show my appreciation to all members of the research group for their straightforward support. I would like to express my special gratitude to Tamara Uhlig, Andreas Krause and Jens Rheinländer for the organizational assistance during the experiments in home office.

Last, but not least, I would like to thank my family and my boyfriend for their unlimited support during my studies and especially throughout the thesis period.

Contents

Symbols and Acronyms	V
1 Introduction	1
2 Fundamentals	3
2.1 Utilization of solar energy	3
2.2 Concentrated solar power	3
2.2.1 Collector types	3
2.2.2 Assembly of a concentrating solar power plant	4
2.3 Receiver	5
2.3.1 Geometrical configuration	6
2.3.2 Absorption and heat transfer in the receiver	6
2.3.3 Heat transfer medium	6
2.4 Particle receiver	8
2.4.1 Particle properties	8
2.4.2 Falling particle receiver	8
2.4.3 Particle receiver CentRec	9
2.5 Optical basics	13
2.6 Camera calibration	14
2.6.1 Extrinsic parameters	16
2.6.2 Intrinsic parameters	16
2.6.3 Distortion coefficients	16
3 Experiments	19
3.1 Material	19
3.1.1 Particles	19
3.1.2 Tracers	20
3.1.3 Camera	20
3.1.4 Illumination	20
3.1.5 Laser	21
3.2 Particle characterization	21
3.2.1 Particle size distribution: sieving analysis	21
3.2.2 Angle of repose	25
3.3 Optical design optimization	28
3.3.1 Illumination	28
3.3.2 Camera set up	40
3.4 Camera calibration	44

4	Image Processing Code	48
4.1	General video processing	48
4.2	Tracer tracking	50
4.3	Film thickness	57
5	Conclusion and Outlook	62
	Bibliography	64
	List of Figures	72
	List of Tables	74
	Appendix	74
A.1	Pictures of tested illuminations	75
A.2	Python code: Pixelcolor	76
A.3	ROI of the camera	79
A.4	Python code: Camera calibration	80
A.5	Python code: Generation of corrected data	84
A.6	Flow chart: Tracer tracking	85
A.7	Python code: Tracer tracking	86
A.8	Python code: Film thickness	103
A.8.1	Calibration for the calculation of the film thickness	103
A.8.2	Determination of the film thickness	108

Symbols and Acronyms

Roman symbols

Symbol	Unit	Description
A		camera intrinsic matrix
a	m/s^2	acceleration
C		optical center
d	m	distance
f	$1/s$	frame frequency
f	m	focal length
FT	m	film thickness
g		gray level pixel value
k		radial distortion coefficient
l	m	length
M	m	point in world coordinate system
m		projected point on image plane
m	kg	mass
n		number
p		tangential distortion coefficient
$Q_3(x_i)$	%	cumulative distribution
q	m	skew parameter
$q_3(x_i)$	$1/m$	mean distribution density
R	$1/m$	rotation matrix
s		scale factor
t		translation vector
u		tracer position
v	m/s	velocity
w		mass fraction
X, Y, Z	m	world coordinates
X_c, Y_c, Z_c		camera coordinates
x, y, z		pixel coordinates
x	m	sieve size
Δt	s	time step
$\Delta x, \Delta y$		distortion correction function

Greek symbols

Symbol	Unit	Description
α	°	angle
σ		standard deviation

Subscripts

Symbol	Description
CW	camera and wall
d	distorted
FOV	field of view
id	ideal (distortion free)
len	lengthwise
max	maximum
maxdot	most upper detected particle
min	minimum
n	frame number
pixel	pixel dimensions
rad	radial
stat	static angle of repose
tan	tangential
vertical	camera's vertical angle of view
x, y, z	directions x, y, z

Acronyms

Acronym	Description
CentRec	centrifugal particle receiver
CSP	concentrated solar power
DEM	discrete element method
DLR	Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt
FOV	field of view
fps	frames per second
HSV values	hue saturation value of a pixel
HTM	heat transfer medium
HT storage	high temperature storage
LED	light emitting diode
LT storage	low temperature storage
PSD	particle size distribution
PV cells	photovoltaic cells
RGB values	red green blue value of a pixel
ROI	region of interest
SG	Saint-Gobain
SM	storage medium

1 Introduction

A growing population, climate change and an increasing demand of energy and electricity are the major challenges humanity has to face in the twenty-first century. In the world energy outlook 2019, the international energy agency predicts a rise in the global energy demand of 1.3 % each year until 2040 [1]. As reported by the international renewable energy agency in 2019, the energy-related CO₂ emissions need to be shortened by 3.5 % per year until 2050 and further reductions are necessary afterwards, in order to meet the aims of the Paris agreement [2]. To expedite the decarbonization and achieve the sustainability goals, replacing fossil fuels by renewable energy sources (sun, wind, water, biomass, geothermal) is inevitable. However, the share of the renewable energies in electricity generation was only 26 % in 2018, which is why the electricity production from renewables needs to be scaled up [3]. Drastically rising renewables, such as solar energy, as power source for electricity generation, while increasing the usage of electricity for heating and transportation, could reduce the global CO₂ emissions significantly [4].

Up to now, the generation of electricity using wind and solar photovoltaic (PV) are the cheapest options in many markets, but other renewable technologies, such as concentrated solar power (CSP), bioenergy or geothermal, are expected to be cost competitive within the next decade [5]. According to the international renewable energy agency, the cost of all commercially available renewable technologies for electricity generation decreased in 2018 [5]. Especially, the reduction of the global weighted-average cost of electricity for CSP is notable, as it was reduced by 26 % compared to the previous year [5]. Since the technology costs for CSP plants have remarkably fallen in the last decade, the global capacity of CSP plants enlarged over the years from 5.1 GW in 2016 [6] to predicted 9.6 GW in 2023 [7]. Mainly responsible for this growth are the falling prices and the fact, that most of the future CSP plants are equipped with a thermal storage with increasing size [7]. The international renewable energy agency estimates, that the share of CSP in the global electricity generation in 2050 will be 4 % [8] and, if the technology develops following the current trends, CSP offers the possibility of covering up to 25 % of the global energy demand [6]. As both, wind and solar PV, are not able to deliver continuous and constant power, energy storage capabilities, management based on the demand and flexible power generation installations are necessary in order to sustain grid stability. Therefore, CSP plants with thermal energy storage are an auspicious option for locations with high direct normal irradiation throughout the whole year [9]. To further improve and increase energy production using CSP, the plant components need to be optimized. Thus, research is done on innovative receiver technologies, such as particle receivers.

In the scope of this thesis, a solar tower plant with sand-like granular particles as heat transfer medium (HTM) is considered. This CSP technology offers many advantages, such as high maximum receiver temperature and the potential of relatively low operation and component costs. The investigated centrifugal particle receiver CentRec provides a good regulation of the receiver outlet temperature, enabling the system to achieve the desired temperature for the downstream power block.

In the centrifugal particle receiver the particles are fed into an inclined rotating drum, where they are accelerated by gravitational and centrifugal force and heated up by the solar radiation, which is incident through the aperture of the receiver drum. To optimize the receiver efficiency, knowledge of the particle motion, such as the relative movement to their neighbors or potential radial, tangential and axial mixing, is necessary. Therefore, the main purpose of this thesis is the development and optimization of an optical system and corresponding image processing codes to investigate the particle motion in the solar particle receiver. In order to do so, the fundamentals of CSP, particle receivers and optical basics are presented in chapter 2. Chapter 3 provides an overview of the materials used in the experiments and presents the results of the geometric characterization of the ceramic particles and the tracers. Furthermore, the methodology and results of the design and optimization of the optical system to investigate the particle motion in the solar particle receiver are summarized. The developed image processing codes for tracer tracking and the determination of particle film thickness are explained in detail in chapter 4. Lastly, a summary and outlook can be found in chapter 5.

2 Fundamentals

In this chapter the fundamentals of concentrating solar power such as the potential of solar energy and the principal assembly of a concentrating solar power plant are described. A more detailed look into the receiver and especially into particle receiver is presented. Moreover, some optical basics and fundamentals of camera calibration are explained.

2.1 Utilization of solar energy

Solar radiation can be used for the generation of electricity or heat (high-temperature process heat or low-temperature heat). In flat plate collectors, the solar radiation is transformed into thermal energy and can be supplied for domestic use, e.g. for generation of hot water [10]. For the use of solar energy to produce electricity, there are two main technologies: PV cells and solar thermal plants. PV cells exploit the photoelectric effect to convert the solar radiation directly into electrical power [11]. Contrarily, the solar thermal plants generate process heat by conversion of the solar energy, which can be used in heat engines to generate electricity [12]. Following Carnot's theorem, the efficiency of a heat engine is increasing with increasing difference between hot and cold reservoir. Therefore, the temperature, generated by the solar radiation, is aimed to be as high as possible in order to maximize the temperature of the working fluid in the downstream process, which results in higher efficiency.

2.2 Concentrated solar power

Since the solar power inciding on the earth is relatively low, the solar radiation is optically concentrated first, in order to achieve the power density necessary for the generation of electricity in thermal solar power plants. For concentrating the solar radiation, mirrors in different shapes are utilized, as explained in the next section. The global solar-to-electricity efficiency of solar thermal plants is between 10 and 30 % [13; 14], depending on the collector shape, the material properties and the inclination angle. The solar-to-electricity efficiency includes the solar-to-heat efficiency, that describes the transformation of the energy from solar radiation to heat through collector, concentrator and receiver, and the heat-to-electricity efficiency of the conversion in turbines [14].

2.2.1 Collector types

The main part of solar power plants is similar to conventional power plants, except that the steam generators are not fired with fuel, but instead solar energy is used. The required high temperatures for the steam process imply the concentration of the solar radiation. [15]

To concentrate the solar radiation, mirrors are used to collect the incident solar rays and to focus them onto a smaller area. Depending on the collector shape, CSP systems are divided into line and point focus systems. In parabolic trough and linear Fresnel systems, the solar radiation is collected

with mirrors and focused onto a focal line. On the contrary, point focus collectors, such as dish Stirling (paraboloidal dish) or solar tower plants, focus the solar radiation collected with mirrors onto a single focal point. As the point focus systems focus all the collected solar energy onto a smaller area than the line focus ones, the achieved concentration is higher and hence, the reachable temperatures in the heat transfer medium are higher. Line focus systems reach concentration factors of around 8-80 (parabolic trough, [13; 16]) and 25-100 (Fresnel, [13]) and consequently, receiver temperatures up to around 400°C [16]. In contrast, point focus systems can reach concentration factors between 300-1000 (solar tower, [13]) and 1000-3000 (dish, [13]) and therefore, receiver temperatures up to 1000°C [13; 17; 18]. The annual solar efficiency of parabolic trough systems is around 10-16% [13; 18]. Because of their simpler optical design, the annual solar efficiency of Fresnel collectors is 33% less than the one of parabolic trough collectors (8-12%, [13; 18]) [19]. Solar tower plants show an annual solar efficiency between 10-25% [13; 18] and dish Stirling engines offer the highest efficiencies (16-29%, [18]). The higher efficiencies of the point focus systems are derived directly from the higher temperatures reached in the focal points.

The parabolic trough collector technology is the most mature and the most often installed technology in solar fields. Fresnel collectors are similar to parabolic trough collectors, but instead of bowed mirrors, the mirrors are flat, aiming at a simpler design and consequently lower costs. The paraboloidal dish solar concentrator needs a stable supporting structure and two-axis tracking to evolve its high energy efficiency. Thus, the cost of generation is relatively high for this collector type and no storage is available. Solar towers provide high efficiencies as well and additionally, offer the possibility of increasing the annual solar efficiency to $\geq 65\%$ [17] by storing the thermal energy. [13; 17; 18]

2.2.2 Assembly of a concentrating solar power plant

Figure 2.1 shows a schematic figure of a concentrating solar power plant. The sun rays incide onto the mirrors, which form the so called solar field. The mirrors bundle the solar rays and direct them to the focal point, where the receiver is located. The main task of the receiver is to collect the solar energy and transfer it to the HTM, which is flowing through the receiver. There are various receiver concepts with different ways to heat up the HTM. A distinction is made between direct heating of the HTM by the solar radiation and indirect heating of the HTM. A detailed description of different receiver designs is given in section 2.3. In figure 2.1 a direct heating particle receiver is used to heat up the HTM. In this case the particles are not only used as HTM, but also as storage medium (SM).

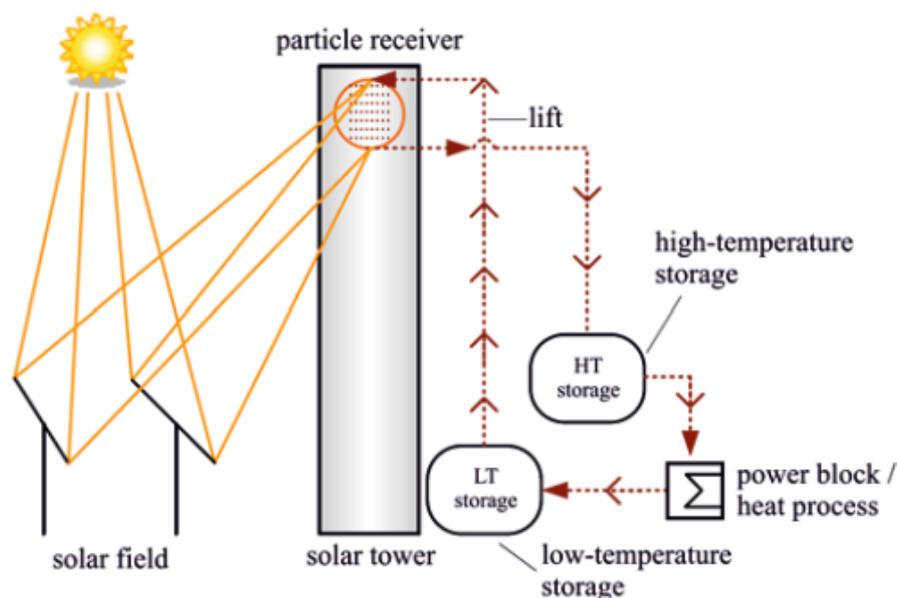


Figure 2.1: Schematic figure of a CSP plant with a particle receiver. Particles are both HTM and SM [20]

The particles are heated up in the receiver and transported to the heat exchanger, which is connected to a power block (generation of electricity) or to a process, in which the heat is used, e.g. in a chemical reaction. The cooled particles leave the heat exchanger towards the receiver, where they are heated up again. This circular flow can be complemented by a storage system, in order to extend the overall efficiency and the plant's capacity of utilization. If the available solar energy is higher than the demand, particles from the low temperature storage (LT storage) are fed into the circular particle flow, heated up in the receiver and stored in the high temperature storage (HT storage). If the solar radiation eases off, the stored hot particles are fed into the system and used in the heat exchanger as an additional heat source for the downstream process. Subsequently, the cooled particles are partly poured back into the LT storage. [20]

2.3 Receiver

The main task of the receiver is to absorb the concentrated solar radiation and transfer it to the HTM. Thus, the receiver can be considered as a heat exchanger. Increasing the thermal performance of the receiver, reduces the required size of the heliostat field and therefore, leads not only to higher efficiencies, but also to lower capital costs. Hence, many researchers put effort into the receiver optimization and the development of new technologies. In the literature many different receiver design options can be found and this section gives a rough overview of different receiver concepts.

One distinguishing characteristic is the geometrical configuration of the surface, which is absorbing the concentrated solar radiation. Moreover, receivers can be divided into direct and indirect absorption receivers, according to the manner of energy transfer to the HTM, or they can be classified by the HTM used. [21; 22]

2.3.1 Geometrical configuration

Depending on the design of the geometrical configuration, receivers can be constructed as external or cavity receivers. While external receivers have a surface that is completely exposed to the surrounding, cavity receivers are closed structures with an open or windowed aperture. Since the absorbing surface is exposed to the surrounding, the radiative and convective losses are higher in external receivers than in cavity receivers. Therefore, the reachable operating temperatures of external receiver applications are below approximately 730°C [22]. In cavity receivers, the solar radiation is absorbed inside the cavity, resulting in high absorption efficiency and therefore, in higher reachable temperatures of the HTM [22]. Generally, in cavity receivers the pressure is limited, commonly to below 15 bar, whereas in external receivers higher pressures can be applied. However, the temperature in external receivers is significantly lower than in cavity receivers.[23]

2.3.2 Absorption and heat transfer in the receiver

In indirect absorption receivers the HTM is not directly exposed to the solar radiation, but the solar radiation is absorbed by an absorber material. An example of indirect absorption receivers are tubular receivers. The external lateral surface of the receiver tubes absorbs the solar radiation, which is transformed into heat. By conduction through the tube wall, the heat is carried to the internal lateral surface of the receiver tubes and from there transferred to the HTM, which is passing in upward direction through various small vertically arranged tubes. The additional heat transfer step through tube wall and the high reflection losses are the biggest disadvantages of tubular receivers. In recent tubular receivers molten salt, sodium and water, which can be used for direct steam generation, have been investigated and applied as HTM. [24]

Other examples for indirect absorption receivers are volumetric receivers made of metal grids, reticulated wires or porous structures, such as honeycombs or porous ceramics. The structures are irradiated by concentrated sunlight and thereby heated up. The HTM, for example air, flows through the structure and is heated by forced convection. [25; 26]

In direct absorption receivers the HTM is directly exposed to solar irradiation. Thus, the heat transfer between an additional absorbing material and the HTM, as it is the case in indirect absorbing receivers, is eliminated. Direct absorption receivers also offer the advantage of avoiding technical restrictions by structural materials, that can not be heated up to temperatures as high as the HTM, e.g. particles, can be. [26]

An example for a direct absorption receiver is the falling particle receiver. Basically, the falling particle receiver in cavity shape is the simplest direct absorption receiver. The particles are poured into the receiver from the top and fall through the receiver, driven by the gravitational force. While falling, the particles are heated up by being irradiated directly with concentrated sunlight. The hot particles can be used for power generation in the power block or filled into the thermal storage tank. [27]

2.3.3 Heat transfer medium

Besides the receiver concept, the choice of the HTM is of crucial importance during the design of a CSP plant. Depending on the required process temperature an adequate and stable HTM should be chosen. Generally, typical HTMs are molten salt, water/steam (saturated and superheated), air or

other gases, thermal oils or organics, but research work is also put into liquid metals [28; 29], solid particles [30; 31; 32] and other gases, such as supercritical carbon dioxide [33] or helium [34]. Table 2.1 shows the range of working temperatures of different HTMs.

Table 2.1: Working temperature range of different HTMs

HTM	Temperature in °C	Literature
Organics	12 - 393	[35; 36]
Thermal oils	-20 - 400	[35; 37]
Water/steam	250 - 300 (saturated steam, 45bar)	[38]
	249 - 565 (superheated, 160bar)	[39]
Air	up to 680 - 800	[40; 41]
Liquid metals	98-883 (Na)	[42]
	up to 1533 (Pb-Bi)	[35]
Molten salt	238 - 600	[43]
	some up to 900	[35]
Solid particles	more than 1000	[44]

Since the HTM is one of the most important components of CSP plants and needed in a large amount, the aim is to find the optimal combination of performance and price. Thereby, the desired characteristics of the HTM are a low melting and a high boiling point (liquid HTM) as well as thermal stability, high thermal conductivity and high heat capacity. Moreover, low vapor pressure at high temperatures and low corrosive properties with metal alloys as well as no toxicity and chemical stability are preferable. [35; 45]

Table 2.1 shows, that thermal oils and other organics are not suitable as HTMs in applications with high temperatures. The combination water/steam provides the advantage of efficiency increase by direct steam generation and its use as both the HTM and the working fluid in the power cycle, resulting in higher inlet temperatures of the turbine [46]. Air is a cheap, available and non-toxic HTM, that offers a wide working temperature range, but the limited heat transfer and the great power needed for pumping are disadvantages of air as HTM [25; 42]. Liquid metals are stable at high temperatures and offer the possibility of high receiver outlet temperatures [42]. Additionally, they are found to be able to reduce costs, due to their high heat transfer efficiency at high temperatures [47]. Molten salts offer the possibility to be used as HTM and SM. Relatively high temperatures can be reached and they are cheap, compared to thermal oils or organics [35]. Furthermore, molten salts are utilized in many CSP plants, because of their high heat capacity as well as their good thermal and physical properties at high temperatures [48]. However, their corrosive properties have to be considered in the design of solar plants using molten salt as HTM [35].

Following Carnot's theorem, a higher temperature difference between hot and cold temperature leads to higher process efficiencies. Therefore, higher hot temperatures in the receivers are desirable to increase the overall thermal-to-electricity efficiency of the solar plant. Increasing temperatures not only restricts the availability of structural materials, but also affect the selection of the HTM. The commonly used molten salt (NaNO_3 , KNO_3) can only be used up to 600 °C, cf. table 2.1. Higher temperatures lead to thermal decomposition of the molten salt [49]. For temperatures around 1000 °C and higher, other HTMs, such as particles or liquid metals are investigated [50; 51].

2.4 Particle receiver

As described in the section above, particle receivers are currently in development for high temperature CSP plants. In this section the particle properties and the general design of falling particle receivers are explained. In particular, the centrifugal particle receiver CentRec, developed at the DLR, is presented.

2.4.1 Particle properties

As ceramic bauxite particles are used in the industry (gas and oil production), they are available in large quantities and are expected to have low costs [52; 53]. Moreover, these nearly black ceramic particles present good optical absorption properties over the solar radiation spectrum and are thermally stable up to 1000 °C [54]. This offers the possibility of high process temperatures and therefore, high process efficiencies. As the particles have high heat capacities and are suitable for storage, the use of the particles not only as HTM, but also as SM, gives the opportunity to produce electricity additionally during the night and reach higher efficiencies. In comparison to molten salt, the transport of particles is simpler and their usability does not depend on the temperature. The particles can be carried mechanically or pneumatically and there is no need for additional pipe heating to avoid solidification at lower temperatures.

2.4.2 Falling particle receiver

The most common particle receiver is the falling particle receiver, in which a falling particle film absorbs the concentrated solar radiation directly. An exemplary particle fall film receiver concept is shown in figure 2.2. Here, the receiver is built as a face-down cavity receiver, so that the aperture of the receiver faces the ground. With this receiver configuration, the convection losses are reduced without the necessity for covering the aperture with a window [55]. The cavity design also diminishes the receiver losses due to reflection, because part of the reflected radiation is absorbed by the particles inside the cavity receiver. Whereas the particle film in the centrifugal particle receiver CentRec, cf. section 2.4.3, is mostly optically opaque, the one in a falling particle receiver is often optically translucent. Consequently, the uncovered parts of the receiver are irradiated and heated up as well, leading to lower receiver efficiencies.

Recirculation and therefore, higher particle mass flows resulting in more opaque particle curtains are investigated to increase the receiver efficiency. Furthermore, the residence time of the particles in falling particle receivers is defined by their velocity of fall. This is the maximum time, that the particles are irradiated by the concentrated sunlight. In order to reach the requested outlet temperature, the particles might need to pass through the receiver several times. Due to reduced reflection losses in the face-down cavity receiver the recirculation is able to increase the receiver efficiency up to 92% [55].

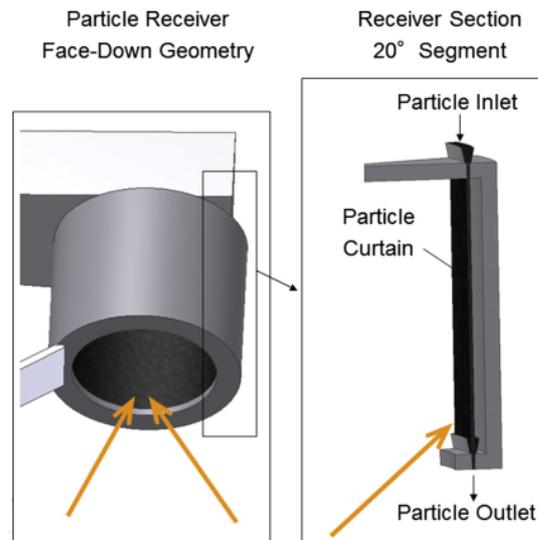


Figure 2.2: Particle receiver face-down geometry view from below (left) and 20° segment of receiver section with particle curtain (right) [55]

Besides the fall film receiver, there are other downflow particle receiver concepts, such as the choked-flow and the centrifugal particle receiver. Moreover, there are horizontal fluidized bed particle receivers and upflow particle receiver concepts, such as the spiral particle receiver, the upflow fluidized particle in tube receiver and the fluidized bed particle air receiver. Detailed descriptions of these concepts can be found in the comprehensive review of Jiang et al. [56]

In the scope of this thesis an optical system is developed and optimized to investigate the particle motion in the centrifugal particle receiver CentRec, whose principal function and set up is described in the following section.

2.4.3 Particle receiver CentRec

The centrifugal particle receiver CentRec, was developed at the DLR and patented in 2010 [57]. To demonstrate proof of concept of the CentRec, a prototype in laboratory scale ($15 \text{ kW}_{\text{th}}$) was designed and tested. The feasibility was proven by experimental studies resulting in an outlet temperature of 900°C and a predicted receiver efficiency of $> 85\%$ under full-load conditions [20; 58; 59]. Subsequently, the receiver was upscaled and a prototype ($2.5 \text{ MW}_{\text{th}}$) was fabricated [60] and tested with infrared heaters [61]. First on-sun tests have been conducted in the Juelich Solar Tower. The maximum measured temperature on the receiver outlet was 775°C , while temperatures above 900°C were achieved inside the receiver. However, the heliostat field at the Solar Tower Juelich is not designed for small, high flux density receivers. Hence, the spillage is very high in experiments with the CentRec and the highest flux density reachable in tests is 500 kWm^{-2} [62]. Further tests targeting receiver outlet temperatures up to 900°C are conducted successfully resulting in a maximum average receiver outlet temperature of 965°C [63].

In the following, the principal assembly of the CentRec is explained. Furthermore, the particle motion in the receiver is described in detail.

Assembly of the receiver

Figure 2.3 shows the design principle of the receiver.

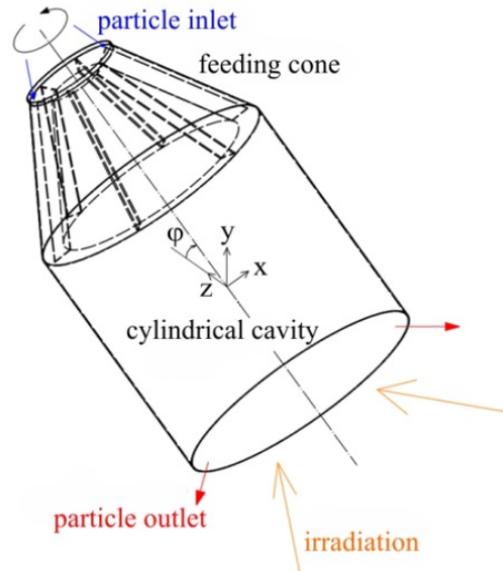


Figure 2.3: Design principal of the centrifugal particle receiver CentRec [20]

Principally, the centrifugal particle receiver consists of a cylindrical cavity and a feeding cone with particle inlet. The inclination angle of the rotating receiver can be varied. The cold particles are fed into the feeding cone, which is constituted of an inner and an outer cone and 32 fins [60]. Thus, the feeding cone has 32 chambers, where the particles are accelerated to the intended circumferential speed. Acceleration is necessary to secure, that the particles are pressed to the inner receiver wall and driven by gravitational forces, they slowly move downwards in axial direction instead of falling through the receiver. Other design options for the particle inlet, such as a bent pipe pouring the particles into the receiver, are currently under investigation. The aim of optimizing the particle inlet is to reach a uniformly and opaque particle film on the receiver wall and reduce the loss of particles. After entering the cylindrical cavity, the centrifugal force presses the particles to the inner receiver wall, where an opaque particle film is formed in such a way, that the entire circumference is covered by particles. Concentrated solar radiation incides into the aperture of the receiver and directly heats up the particles, resulting in an axial temperature gradient in the particle film. A collector ring at the bottom of the receiver collects the hot particles and afterwards, these particles are transported to either the particle heat exchanger connected the power block or the storage, cf. figure 2.1. The inclination angle of the rotating receiver can be varied from 0 to 90° to the horizontal plane, whereas 90° is related to the face-down receiver position with horizontal aperture and 0° corresponds to a horizontal receiver alignment with vertical aperture. [58]

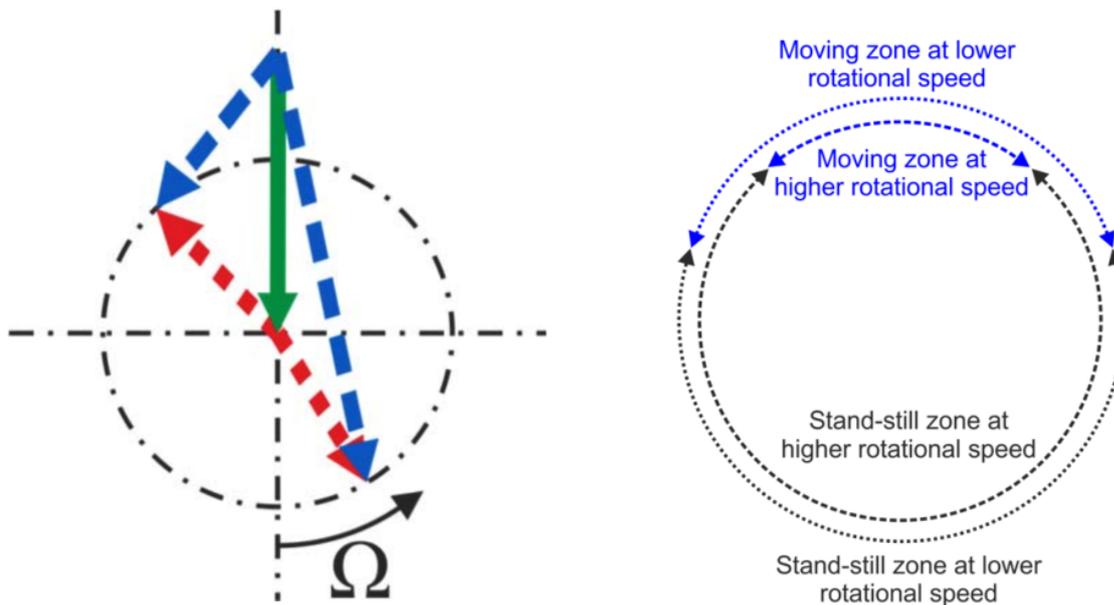
The residence time and the particle film thickness and therefore, the particle outlet temperature is adjustable with the rotational speed and the mass flow. This is one of the major advantages of the centrifugal particle receiver compared to other particle receivers, e.g. falling particle film receivers. A controllable and constant outlet temperature is essential for the downstream processes, that use the captured solar energy. Inclination of the receiver reduces convective losses and the cavity effect

diminishes the radiation losses, resulting in possible thermal receiver efficiencies up to 90% [58].

Particle motion

As the properties of the particle film (shape, particle form and material, thickness) are crucial for the performance of the receiver, a more detailed look into the particle motion in the centrifugal particle receiver is presented. Furthermore, one main task of this thesis is the development of an image processing code to investigate the particle motion in the receiver in order to validate a numerical DEM (discrete element method) model in the future. For this purpose, possible validation parameters are proposed.

The particle motion in the rotating receiver is dominated by gravitational and centrifugal forces. If the inclination angle is set to 90° (face-down receiver position), resulting in a vertical rotational axis of the receiver, the alignment of both forces is constant over the whole circumference during one turn. On the contrary, other inclination angles of the centrifugal receiver lead to periodical changes in the vectorial force resulting from the superposition of gravitational and centrifugal force. [60; 61] Figure 2.4a shows this resulting force for two different particle positions on the circumference of the receiver.



(a) Superposition (blue) of gravitational force (green) and centrifugal force (red) for two different particle positions on the circumference [61]

(b) Width of the moving zone with changing rotational speed [61]

If the particle is located in the lower half of the receiver, a part of the centrifugal force and a part of the gravitational force are acting in the same direction and the particles are pushed against the receiver wall (long blue arrow). This collaboration of the forces results in the stop of the particle motion, why this part of the receiver wall is called stand-still zone, as shown in figure 2.4b. Conversely, in the upper part of the receiver, a part of the centrifugal force and a part of the gravitational force counteract and the particles are not pushed against the wall very strongly (short blue arrow in figure 2.4a). Consequently, the particles are able to move. The part of the receiver wall, in which the

particles move, is called moving zone, as shown in figure 2.4b. Additionally, the axial component of the gravitational force causes the particle movement towards the receiver aperture. The particle movement is observed to be stepwise during each turn. As shown in figure 2.4b, the width of the moving zone depends on the rotational speed. The higher the rotational speed is, the narrower the moving zone is and consequently, the smaller the axial step of the particles per receiver turn is. This results from the stronger centrifugal force due to higher rotational speed. The residence time of the particles in the receiver can be controlled by the rotational speed and with the regulation of the mass flow entering the receiver, the required outlet temperatures can be achieved under any load condition. [60; 61]

One important parameter is the thickness of the particle film on the receiver wall. To avoid high temperature gradients between the different particle layers and reach optimum thermal efficiency, it should be as thin as possible, while still guaranteeing an opaque particle film to prevent the heating up of the receiver wall, respectively the stationary base layer of particles on the receiver wall. This base layer is constructed to achieve the same friction coefficient between the moving particles and the wall (base layer) as between the particles of two moving layers. Therefore, sliding of particles at lower rotational speed and accumulation, followed by avalanching of the particles at higher rotational speed, are avoided and a constant particle movement is enabled instead. The stationary base layer consists of particles, which are stuck in a wire mesh point-welded onto the inner receiver wall. [61] Thicker films cause higher temperature gradients between the particle layers and consequently, lower average receiver outlet temperatures of the particles compared to the peak film temperature. Therefore, the residence time of the particles in the receiver is increased for thicker films leading to significantly higher temperatures of the surface particle layer. The resulting raised radiation losses cause lower receiver efficiencies. [58]

The particle motion directly impacts the receiver performance and it is important to understand and characterize the movement of a single particle in the particle film relatively to its neighbors, e.g. mixing in all directions (radial, tangential and axial). In order to do so, a numerical model, based on the discrete element method, is developed. For the validation of the developed DEM-model, experimental results are necessary. In the following, possible validation parameters are suggested and a concise description of them is given.

- **Axial step size:**
How far do particles move in axial direction per turn depending on the mass flow and the rotational speed.
- **Width of the moving zone:**
How wide is the moving zone depending on mass flow and the rotational speed.
- **Sampling rate:**
How often do particles emerge and sink per turn or per square meter depending on the mass flow and the rotational speed.

Figure 2.5 shows one expected trajectory of a tracer during one turn of the receiver and illustrates the proposed validation parameters axial step size and width of the moving zone.

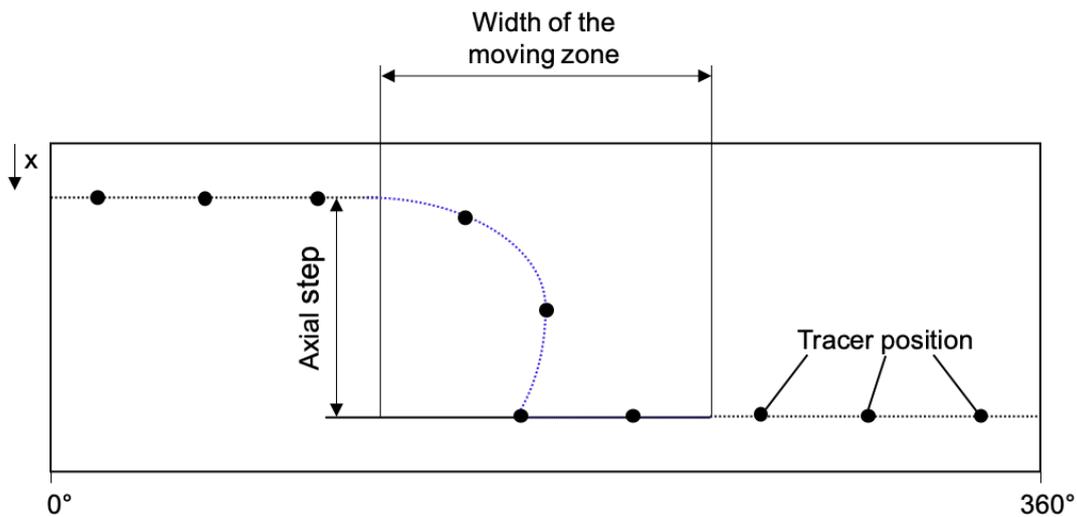


Figure 2.5: Expected tracer trajectory consisting of tracer positions detected during one turn of the receiver with illustration of the proposed parameters to validate DEM-model

The black circles illustrate the positions of detected tracers in frames of different time steps. The blue dotted part of the tracer trajectory describes the moving zone, cf. figure 2.4b

To obtain the necessary experimental results, an optical system and associated image processing codes are developed and optimized in the scope of this thesis. The methodology and results of stationary pre-tests to optimize the set up of the optical system, that in the future shall be used in the investigation of the particle motion in the receiver, are presented in section 3.3. In the following sections, optical basics and fundamentals of camera calibration are explained.

2.5 Optical basics

The **field of view (FOV)** of a camera is the total picture area of a picture taken with the camera. Its size depends on the camera's angle of view in horizontal and vertical direction. It can be indicated in pixel size or as area in terms of object size (metric system). In the second case, the distance between camera and object is of importance, because the metric size of one pixel depends on this distance and the selected resolution of the camera for recording videos, respectively taking pictures.

The so called **region of interest (ROI)** is the part of the camera's FOV, that contains the interesting information and therefore, is cut out for further examination in the image processing.

Color spaces are used to model colors in pictures quantitatively and represent them by specific tuplets of numbers, often triplets. In the scope of this thesis, two different color models are utilized, the RGB color model and the HSV color model.

The **RGB color model** is generally well known as it is used in most of the image processing and graphic programs. Moreover, it provides the basis for the color display in electronic devices, such as computers, digital cameras and scanners, as well as in the saving process of image files. The RGB color model is an additive color model, as each color is generated by a specific combination of the three primary colors red (R), green (G) and blue (B). Therefore, in the RGB color model colors are represented by triplets in the form of (R, G, B). The values for R, G and B are always positive and their upper limit is defined by a maximum value. As the most digital images are 8 bit images, this

maximum is set to 255. However, the components of the RGB triplets are often normalized, resulting in values between 0 and 1 for each of the component R,G and B. In the RGB color model, black is expressed by the triplet (0, 0, 0) and white is represented by the triplet (1,1,1). [64; 65]

Similar to the RGB color model, the **HSV color model** represents colors by triplets (H, S, V), meaning hue (H), saturation (S) and value (V). Thereby, hue describes the position in the color spectrum and is relatively independent of the brightness of the color. The normalized values of the H component are between 0 and 1. For all shades of gray, the hue component is not defined. The saturation can be indicated in terms of percent or normalized to values between 0 and 1. A saturation value of 1 corresponds to vibrant colors. Lower values of the saturation result in less intense colors. All shades of gray, including white and black, have saturation values of 0. The third component of the HSV color model represents the brightness of the color with normalized values between 0 (very bright) and 1 (dark). In consequence, the HSV color model describes the color white by the triplet (-,0,1) and the color black by (-,0,0). As in the HSV color model the color tone is only defined by the first component, its application is very advantageous for image segmentation by color. Compared to the RGB color model, the HSV model is based on the human color recognition and therefore more intuitive. [65]

2.6 Camera calibration

Camera models describe the correlation between coordinates of points in the three dimensional space and their projected points on the image plane of the camera [66]. The basis for mathematically describing cameras is the ideal pinhole camera model [67]. As the ideal pinhole camera has no lens, this model does not consider any distortion caused by camera lenses. To model the camera used in the scope of this thesis, the pinhole camera model has to be extended by modeling parameters for lens distortion [68]. Figure 2.6a illustrates the ideal pinhole camera model.

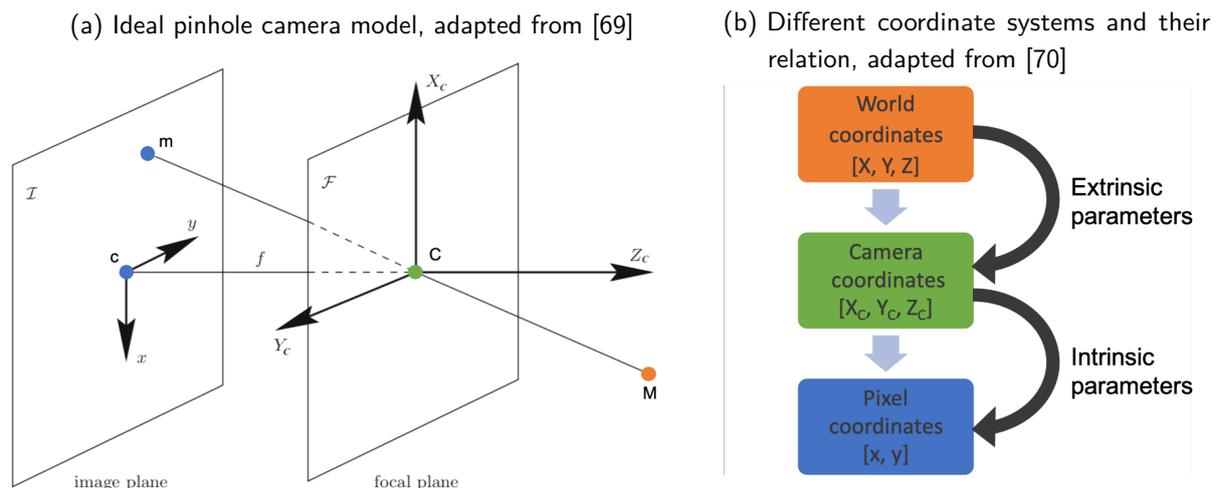


Figure 2.6: Fundamentals of camera modelling

In the ideal pinhole camera, a pinhole C in focal plane F , which is at a fixed distance f , called the focal length, allows light rays, reflected or emitted by an object, e.g. point M in figure 2.6a, to impinge on the image plane I . Thereby, it is assumed, that the light can reach the image plane only through the

pinhole. The optical axis is the line perpendicular to the image plane I . The intersection point of the optical axis with the focal plane is called optical center C and the point, where the optical axis intersects the image plane I , is called the principal point c . In a real camera the lens is located in the optical center and the housing prevents the image plane from light rays inciding from other directions, than through the lens. The result of the perspective projection, meaning the projection of points in the 3D space to an image plane without considering any effects of real cameras, such as blurring of unfocused objects or lens distortion, is an inverted image of the object on the image point. [69]

Camera models use three different coordinate systems: the world coordinates (3D), the camera coordinates (3D) and the pixel coordinates in the image plane (2D). Figure 2.6b shows the relation between these different coordinate systems. Any point in the world coordinate system is represented by a triplet of coordinates. Point M in figure 2.6a is therefore described with $[X, Y, Z]^T$. The extrinsic parameters correlate the world coordinates to the camera coordinates. The origin of the camera coordinate system is in the optical center C on the focal plane. Points in the camera coordinate system have the same structure as points in word coordinates, a triplet of coordinates to describe one point. With the intrinsic parameters of the camera, the camera coordinates are converted to pixel coordinates. **The pixel coordinate system often originates in the upper left corner of the image.** The projection of point M results in point m on the image plane, represented by $[x, y]^T$. [69; 70] With equation 2.1 the position of one point $m = [x, y]^T$, projected onto the image plane in the pixel coordinate system, can be calculated from the position of the original point $M = [X, Y, Z]^T$ in the world coordinate system [67].

$$sm = A[R \quad t]M \quad (2.1)$$

A is the camera intrinsic matrix, which is explained in section 2.6.2. R and t are extrinsic parameters for rotation and translation, as discussed in section 2.6.1, and s is an arbitrary scale factor [67].

According to the definition of the perspective projection, all points in the world coordinate system are projected onto the image plane. Therefore, all points are located in the same image plane, resulting in a fixed value of the z component of the projected points. By defining s in equation 2.1 to $s = 1/z$ and assigning the value one to the constant z coordinate, the projected point m is defined as shown in equation 2.2. [71]

$$m = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.2)$$

The developed Python code used in the calibration procedure to determine the camera parameters (cf. section 3.4), is based on the ideal pinhole camera model. Additional parameters to describe and minimize the distortion in the pictures [72], are explained in section 2.6.3. In the tracer tracking algorithm, cf. section 4.2, the determination of the centers of gravity of the detected tracers and the consequential neighbor search are important steps of the image processing, which need the capability of good measurement of distances in the image. Therefore, the correction of lens distortion in the pictures is of crucial importance to reduce errors in the tracking resulting from false determination of the tracers' position. In the scope of camera calibration, intrinsic and extrinsic parameters [73] and distortion coefficients are estimated. In the following each of these parameters is explained in detail.

2.6.1 Extrinsic parameters

As shown in figure 2.6b, the extrinsic parameters convert the three dimensional position and orientation of a point in the world coordinate system into the camera coordinate system and vice versa [73]. For a certain position of the camera in the world coordinate system, the camera coordinate system is fixed relatively to this position of the camera. Therefore, the extrinsic parameters have to be determined experimentally according to each experimental set up of the camera and the object to be recorded. **In the ideal pinhole camera model, the extrinsic parameters consist of the 3x3 rotation matrix R and the translation vector $t = [t_x, t_y, t_z]^T$.** The rigid body (Euclidean) transformation between the two cartesian coordinate systems (world and camera) considers rotation and translation and can be described mathematically with equation 2.3 [73].

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_c \\ Y_c \\ Z_c \end{bmatrix} = R \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix} + t \quad (2.3)$$

2.6.2 Intrinsic parameters

The intrinsic camera matrix A includes the focal lengths f_x and f_y and the pixel coordinates of the optical center C_x and C_y , located in the image plane, cf. figure 2.6a. In the parameter q any possible skew between the sensor axes and the optical axis, arising from inaccurate mounting of the sensor perpendicular to the optical axis of the camera, can be considered in the camera model. In the scope of this thesis, this effect is negligible and the parameter is considered to be zero. Equation 2.4 shows the structure of the camera matrix used in the intrinsic model to transform the camera coordinates to pixel coordinates. [71]

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} f_x & q & C_x \\ 0 & f_y & C_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

With the defined extrinsic and intrinsic parameters and the ideal pinhole camera model (equation 2.1), the pixel coordinates of the ideal projected point m on the image plane can be calculated. As in this linear projection no distortion is considered, the camera model has to be extended by distortion coefficients, which describe and compensate the distortion. These coefficients are described in the next section.

2.6.3 Distortion coefficients

Using correction functions Δx and Δy , the distortion, leading to the deviation between the ideal projection point $[x_{id}, y_{id}]^T$ and the real (distorted) normalized pixel coordinates of the projected point on the image plane $[x_d, y_d]^T$, is added to the pinhole model explained before, resulting in equation 2.5 [67].

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_d \\ y_d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{id} \\ y_{id} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.5)$$

Deviations between the image points and the ideal image points have different causes, such as radial-symmetric (short: radial) distortion, tangential distortion or affinity and shear [74]. The correction

functions for affinity and shear include the deviations resulting from non orthogonal coordinate axes or non uniform scaling of the coordinate axes to the distortion model. As the impact of affinity and shear is negligibly small compared to the radial and the tangential distortion, their correction function is not considered in the scope of this thesis. Therefore, a suitable accurate camera model is used, including the correction functions for radial and tangential distortion [68].

Figure 2.7 shows the displacement of image points caused by radial and tangential distortion (figure 2.7a) and illustrates the resulting distortion of an image due to radial (figure 2.7b) and tangential distortion (figure 2.7c).

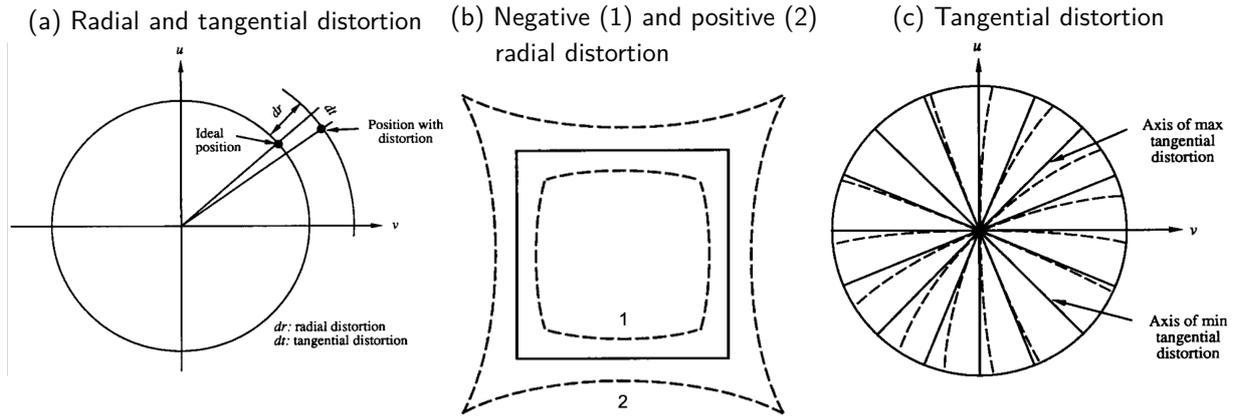


Figure 2.7: Illustration of radial and tangential distortion, in (b) and (c): no distortion (solid lines), distortion (dashed lines) [75]

In most of the cases, the radial distortion is more distinct than tangential distortion. For good quality lenses the impact of radial distortion can be up to 10 times greater than the one of tangential distortion [74]. The effect of distortion is expressed with the correction functions Δx_{rad} , Δy_{rad} and Δx_{tan} , Δy_{tan} for the radial and the tangential distortion each and shown in equation 2.6 [71; 76] and equation 2.7 [74; 76].

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x_{\text{rad}} &= x(1 + k_1 r^2 + k_2 r^4 + k_3 r^6) \\ \Delta y_{\text{rad}} &= y(1 + k_1 r^2 + k_2 r^4 + k_3 r^6)\end{aligned}\quad (2.6)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x_{\text{tan}} &= p_1(r^2 + 2x^2) + 2p_2xy \\ \Delta y_{\text{tan}} &= p_2(r^2 + 2y^2) + 2p_1xy\end{aligned}\quad (2.7)$$

$$\text{with } r^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

Commonly, the radial distortion is approached by a polynomial series, in which k_n represent the radial distortion coefficients [76]. For most of the camera lenses, only the first two or three coefficients are needed to model the radial distortion sufficiently accurate [74].

Radial distortion is originated in imperfect lens shapes and is visible in the form of curved lines as projection of straight lines [75]. Decreasing magnification with increasing distance between the projection of an object and the principal point on the image plane, is called negative radial distortion

or barrel distortion (figure 2.7b, dashed line 1). Straight lines appear curved out in the image plane. On the contrary, increasing magnification with increasing distance between object and optical axis, is named positive radial distortion or pincushion (figure 2.7b, dashed line 2). The projection of straight lines occurs bowed inwards. [77]

The maximum of radial distortion occurs at the image edges and the resulting deviation is symmetric to the point in which the projection ray and the image plane are perpendicular to each other (principal point), cf. figure 2.6 [78].

Misalignment of the individual lens centers and decentering of the lenses within the camera objective result in tangential distortion, described by the parameters p_1 and p_2 . In the determination of the tangential distortion coefficients the maximum tangential distortion is considered, cf. figure 2.7c.

In the scope of this thesis, the following distortion coefficients are determined experimentally during the calibration, cf. section 3.4, and are used to undistort the frames in the recorded videos to generate corrected data for the tracer tracking algorithm and the determination of the film thickness, cf. section 4.1. As explained above, k_1 , k_2 and k_3 are the coefficients for radial distortion and p_1 and p_2 are the ones considering the tangential distortion, cf. equation 2.8. Because these parameters can be assigned to a physical meaning, they are called physical camera parameters [68].

$$\text{distortion coefficients} = (k_1 \quad k_2 \quad p_1 \quad p_2 \quad k_3) \quad (2.8)$$

In wide-angle or fisheye cameras, such as GoPros, the distortion arising from the lenses is extremely distinct. In these cameras the camera's FOV is enlarged by the use of multiple sequential lenses and therefore, they are often not described sufficiently accurate with a camera model based on the ideal pinhole camera. As in the scope of this thesis, the distance between the camera lens and an object is kept below 200 mm, the effect of the wide-angle effect is not very distinct. Thus, the resulting deviation in the object size, originating from the distortion, is smaller than in pictures taken from further distances. When taking pictures from close distances between the camera and the object, it is assumed, that the deviation between the undistorted pictures, using camera calibration parameters based on the pinhole camera model, and the pictures undistorted with camera parameters estimated for a wide-angle camera, is small. As the camera model for wide-angle cameras is much more complex and time consuming, the camera calibration for estimating the GoPros' camera parameters is done using a modified pinhole camera model including the distortion coefficients. This is an approach, which can also be found in other applications [79].

3 Experiments

This chapter contains a detailed description of the materials used in the experiments, conducted in the scope of this thesis, and explains the procedure of particle characterization, including particle size distribution (PSD) and static angle of repose and their results. Furthermore, the methods and results of the optical design optimization as well as the results of the camera calibration are presented and discussed.

3.1 Material

In this section the materials used in the experiments are listed and their properties are described in detail.

3.1.1 Particles

The particles used in the experiments, Proppants 16/30 Sintered Bauxite, are distributed by Saint-Gobain (SG). According to the manufacturer the main diameter is 0.971 mm and the sphericity calculated following Krumbein & Sloss [80] is 0.9. The PSD provided by Saint-Gobain states that 86 % of the SG particle diameters are between 0.841 and 1.19 mm. The particles are made of Bauxite (CAS number: 1318-16-7), which is a mineral hydrated form of aluminum hydroxide. The color of the particles is tan to reddish-brown. [81] The initial boiling point is 2980 °C [81], the absorption coefficient lies between 0.8 and 0.9 [58; 82] and the specific heat capacity is about 1100 J / (kg K) [58]. Thus, the SG particles are an excellent HTM for CSP particle receivers. The characteristic parameters of the SG particles are summarized in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Characteristic parameters of the SG particles [83] and the tracers [84]

	SG particle	Tracer
Name	Proppants 16/30 Sintered Bauxite	SAZ - ER120S
Manufacturer	Saint-Gobain	Mühlmeier Mahltechnik
Material	Aluminum hydroxide	Zirconium mixed oxide
Main diameter	0.971 mm	0.8 - 1.25 mm
Specific weight	3.49 g/cm ³	3.8 g/cm ³
Bulk density	2.02 g/cm ³	2.3 g/cm ³
Sphericity	0.9	> 0.7 (95 % of the tracer)

The results of the determination of SG particles' PSD is presented and discussed in section 3.2.1. The experimentally determined angle of repose is 27°, cf. section 3.2.2.

3.1.2 Tracers

The tracers used to track the particle movement in the centrifugal receiver are chosen in a way that the flow properties are as similar as possible to the ones of the SG particles. Thus, it is possible to conclude the flow regime of the continuum directly from the tracer movement. The tracers, SAZ-Perlen ER120 S 0.8-1.25 mm ZrO₂, are provided by Mühlmeier Mahltechnik [84] and the color of the tracers is white to achieve a high contrast compared to the brownish SG particles. As shown in table 3.1, the specific weight and the bulk density of the tracers are less than 15 % higher than the ones of the SG particles. The determined PSD is presented and discussed in section 3.2.1. The experimentally determined angle of repose is 22.2°, cf. section 3.2.2.

3.1.3 Camera

The purpose of the camera is to record the moving particles in the receiver. Important parameters for the selection of the camera and the recording mode are the frame frequency, the resolution and the size of the field of view. The camera used in the experiments is a GoPro HERO3+ Silver. The camera's angle of view is 90° in horizontal and 100° in vertical direction, respectively. The camera takes color photos and has the ability to record videos or take photos with adjustable resolution, frame frequency and size of the FOV. For the purpose of the experiments in the scope of this thesis, the following camera settings are chosen:

- video resolution of 1080p, which corresponds to a screen resolution of 1920x1080 pixels
- frame frequency of 60 fps
- narrow FOV

To start and stop recording during future experiments in the receiver, the camera can be connected to a SmartRemote 2.0 via WiFi.

3.1.4 Illumination

The purpose of the illumination is to illuminate the region of interest in the FOV of the camera. In general, strobe lights offer brighter illumination than permanent ones. However, a strobe light can not be used, because the shutter signal of the GoPro camera is not accessible and therefore, it is not possible to synchronize the camera's exposure time and the flashing of the illumination. LED lights, which are often used in machine vision because of their multiple advantages like fast response, long lifetime, high output stability and their mechanical resistance [85], are selected as luminant. The illumination used for tracking the tracers is the FLDL-i70A white direct ring light from FALCON illumination. For the measurement of the film thickness the FLDL-i86x15 white bar light from FALCON illumination is used. The important characteristics of the illuminations are listed in table 3.2. The illumination is chosen after conducting several stationary tests, which are explained in section 3.3.1 along with the discussion of the results.

Table 3.2: Characteristic parameters of the illuminations [86; 87]

	Illumination tracer tracking	Illumination film thickness
Name	FLDL-i70A	FLDL-i86x15
Manufacturer	FALCON illumination	FALCON illumination
Shape	Direct ring light	Bar light
Color of light	White	White
Dimensions	Ø70.0x22.5 mm	17.5x94.5x20.0 mm (WxLxH)
Luminant	LED	LED
Illumination area	Ø65mm	86x15 mm

3.1.5 Laser

The laser will be used in the image processing to determine the angular position of the camera for each frame. The laser will be mounted onto the stationary part of the receiver outlet so that the laser always focuses the same spot on the receiver wall. The dot laser, FP-D-520-1-C-F, is provided by Laser Components GmbH. The wavelength of the light is 520 nm, which corresponds to green light. [88]

3.2 Particle characterization

This section includes the description and the results of the particle characterization. To characterize the particles, the PSD and static angle of repose is experimentally determined.

3.2.1 Particle size distribution: sieving analysis

There are different approaches to determine the PSD of a particle collective. It is distinguished between optical and mechanical methods [89]. The sieving analysis is an accurate, simple, cheap and frequently used mechanical method to determine the PSD of a particle collective [90]. The sieving analysis provides more accurate results for increasing sphericity of the particles examined. Alternatively, there are optical methods, such as the laser diffraction spectroscopy. However, in the scope of this thesis, the sieving analysis is selected for the geometric characterization of the SG particles and tracers, as the sphericity of the SG particles is very high [91].

The sieving analysis is an important characterization method for particle collectives. It determines the mass fraction of particular particle size intervals defined by two different mesh sizes of sieves. There are several procedures depending on the fracture opening of the sieves. Typical fracture openings of the sieves are between 5 µm and 125 mm. For small particle sizes (5 µm - 25 mm) wet sieving is advantageous. For particle mixtures with a narrow particle size distribution between 20 µm and 500 µm air jet sieving is a good option. [89]

As described in section 3.1.1 the particle used within the scope of this thesis are assumed to have a nominal diameter of around 1 mm [83]. Therefore, the vibration sieving, which is suitable for particles in the range of 90 µm - 125 mm, is used to determine the PSD. The result of the sieving analysis is a discrete mass distribution, whose resolution depends on the number of sieves and the differences in

mesh size between the sieves. The principal assembly of the vibration sieving analysis used in this thesis is shown in figure 3.1.

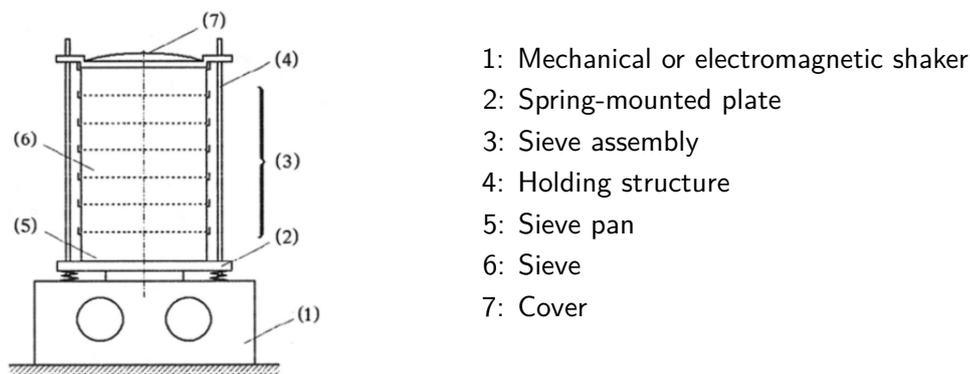


Figure 3.1: Principal assembly of a vibration sieving analysis apparatus [89]

The sieves (6) with different mesh size are stacked on top of each other, with increasing mesh size from the bottom to the top. All sieves are placed in a holding structure (4) and covered on top (7). Below the lowest sieve a sieve pan (5) is located to collect the small particles, which are not sorted out in the sieves. All described components are placed onto a plate (2), that is spring-mounted on a mechanical or electromagnetic shaker (1). The duration and the intensity in terms of amplitude and acceleration of the vibrational motion can be adjusted, e.g. when using more sieves and/or finer meshes in order to increase the resolution of the PSD. [89]

Before starting the sieving analysis, the total mass of the particles is measured. Subsequently, the particles are poured into the most upper sieve and the shaker is switched on. The particles are separated by their size of diameter. Whether a particle is able to move onto the lower next sieve, depends on the ration between their diameter and the mesh size of the sieve on which the separation takes place. If the particles are much smaller than the mesh size, they can easily pass through the sieve, independent of their rotational orientation. If the particles are much bigger than the mesh size, they stuck on the surface of the sieve. The closer the ratio between particle diameter and mesh size is to one, the more complicated and slower the separation on the surface of the sieve becomes. In this case, the success of the separation strongly depends on the shape of the particles. If they are not perfectly spherical, the orientation is of crucial importance and the duration and intensity of shaking has to be adjusted in a way, that the particles have the possibility to reach the sieve holes several times with different orientation. During the sieving analysis particles, having nearly the same diameter as the mesh size of the sieve, may cause plugging of the sieve holes. Thus, the shaking of the sieves must be intense and long enough to loosen the stuck particles out of the sieves. [89]

In the scope of this thesis, the vibrations sieving is carried out with 15 different sieve sizes from 1.8 mm to 0.071 mm. The sizes of the sieves used are the following: 1.8, 1.7, 1.18, 1.12, 1.0, 0.9, 0.85, 0.8, 0.71, 0.6, 0.5, 0.4, 0.2, 0.1, 0.071 mm. The duration of the vibration is set to ten minutes to enable the particles to accumulate in the adequate sieve [89]. As a result of some pre-tests the frequency of the vibration is set to 70 Hz and the amount of particles poured in is chosen as 500 g. The mass fraction for each sieve size w_n is calculated with equation 3.1.

$$w_n = \frac{m_n}{m} \quad \text{with} \quad m = \sum_{n=1}^N m_n \quad (3.1)$$

To reduce statistical errors the sieving analysis is conducted three times and the mean value is calculated for each sieve size. Assuming that the measured values are samples of the entire population, the standard deviation σ for each sieve size is determined with equation 3.2.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{n=1}^N (w_n - \mu)^2}{N - 1}} \quad \text{with} \quad \mu = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n}{N} \quad (3.2)$$

The PSD is obtained for the SG particles and for the tracers and compared to the specification of the manufacturer and to each other. The discrete particle size distribution is plotted as a histogram [92]. In order to do so, the mean distribution density $q_3(x_i)$ for each sieve size interval Δx_i is calculated with equation 3.3.

$$q_3(x_i) = \frac{\bar{w}_i}{\Delta x_i} \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1} \quad (3.3)$$

The cumulative distribution $Q_3(x_i)$ is determined with equation 3.4 and displays the percentage of SG particles, respectively tracers, with diameters smaller than x_i .

$$Q_3(x_i) = \sum_{n=1}^i w_n * 100 \% \quad (3.4)$$

To compare the particle size distribution of the SG particles and the tracers, the median diameter and its standard deviation are calculated as well as the $q_{90,3}$. This value represents the lower limit of the 90 wt% percentile, which implies that 10 wt% of the SG particles or tracers have a diameter that is smaller than this value.

PSD of the SG particles

The discrete particle size distribution of the SG particles is shown in figure 3.2 on the primary axis. The width of the bars is defined by the difference in mesh size of two consecutive sieves. The vertical red lines illustrate the standard deviations. On the secondary axis the cumulative distribution is displayed in green.

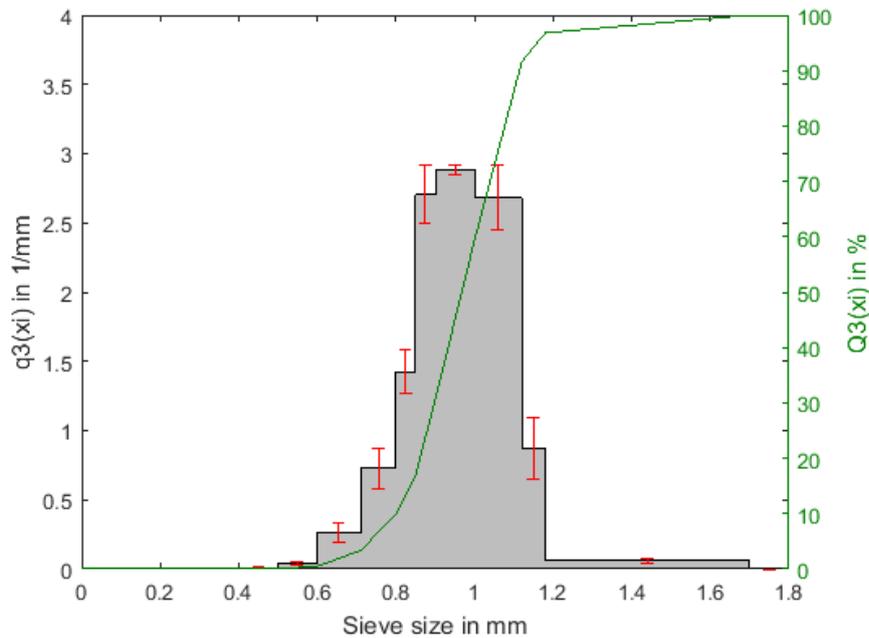


Figure 3.2: Particle size distribution of the SG particles determined by sieving analysis

The mean diameter of the SG particles is 0.967 mm and the calculated standard deviation is 0.013 mm. This value matches the specification of the manufacturer (main diameter 0.971 mm, [83]). The percental deviation between the measured mean diameter and the specification of the manufacturer is 0.36%. 90 wt% of the particles have a diameter greater than 0.798 mm and 86.9 wt% of the particle diameters are between 0.8 and 1.18 mm. This result corresponds to the specification of the manufacturer, according to which 86% of the particles have a diameter between 0.841 and 1.19 mm [83].

Since only 61 wt% of the particles have a diameter between 0.9 and 1.12 mm, the assumption of one single diameter in the numerical model should be revised. The results of the SG particles' PSD indicate, that a PSD instead of a single particle diameter should be used in the numerical simulation to improve the accuracy of the model.

PSD of the tracers

On the primary axis in figure 3.3 the discrete particle size distribution of the tracers is displayed. Analogue to figure 3.2, the width of the bars is defined by the difference in mesh size of two consecutive sieves and the vertical red lines illustrate the standard deviations. The cumulative distribution of the tracer diameters is shown on secondary axis in green.

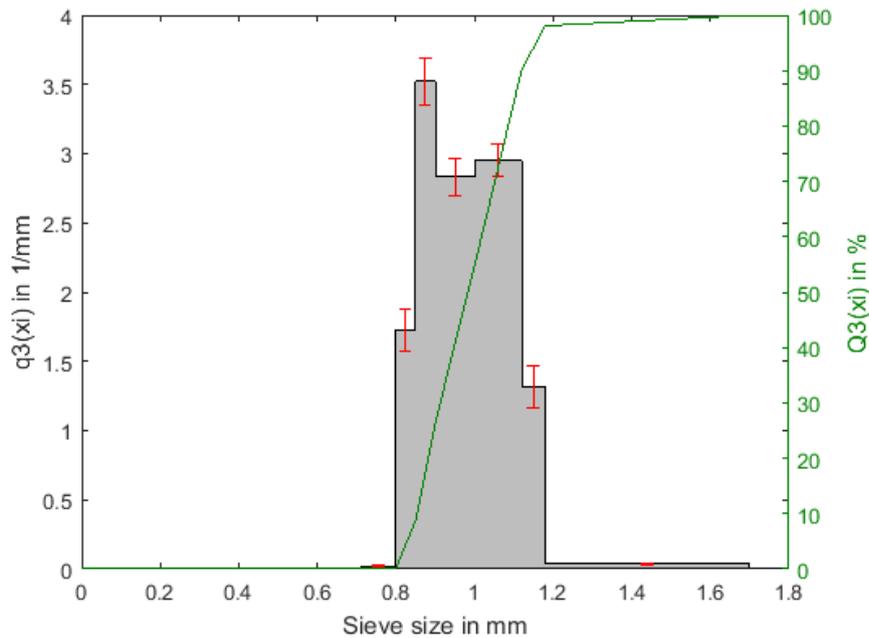


Figure 3.3: Particle size distribution of the tracers determined by sieving analysis

The mean diameter of the tracers is 0.983 mm and the calculated standard deviation is 0.008 mm. According to the manufacturer, the tracer diameter is between 0.8 and 1.25 mm [84]. The results of the sieving analysis show, that 97.91 wt% tracer diameters are between 0.8 and 1.18 mm and 90 wt% of the tracers have a diameter greater than 0.853 mm.

The mean diameter of the tracers is slightly greater than the one of the SG particles. The absolute deviation between the mean diameter of the tracers and the one of the SG particles is 0.016 mm, corresponding to 1.6% of the mean SG particle diameter. This result justifies the assumption, that the tracers' effect on the flow characteristics of the particle film in the receiver is negligible. To strengthen this assumption, the angle of repose is measured for both the pure SG particles and a SG particle tracer mixture and then compared. The results are discussed in the following section.

3.2.2 Angle of repose

To characterize a bulk material, the angle of repose is an essential parameter, because it provides a good indication of flowability of granular material and it can be related to macroscopic bulk material phenomena, such as segregation, avalanching and stratification. Generally, the definition of the angle of repose depends on the application and the behavior of the material used [93]. One commonly used definition of the angle of repose is the angle between the surface of a pile under gravity and the horizontal plane at which no avalanches occur spontaneously [94]. There are two different types of angle of repose: static and dynamic. For the purpose of this thesis only the static angle of repose is determined. The aim of the determination of the angle of repose is to investigate the influence of the tracers on the fluid-like mechanical properties of the particle collective. The angle of repose of a SG particle tracer mixture with 5 wt% tracers is experimentally determined and compared to the one of the pure SG particle bulk material. Figure 3.4 shows the experimental assembly, that is used to determine the static angle of repose.

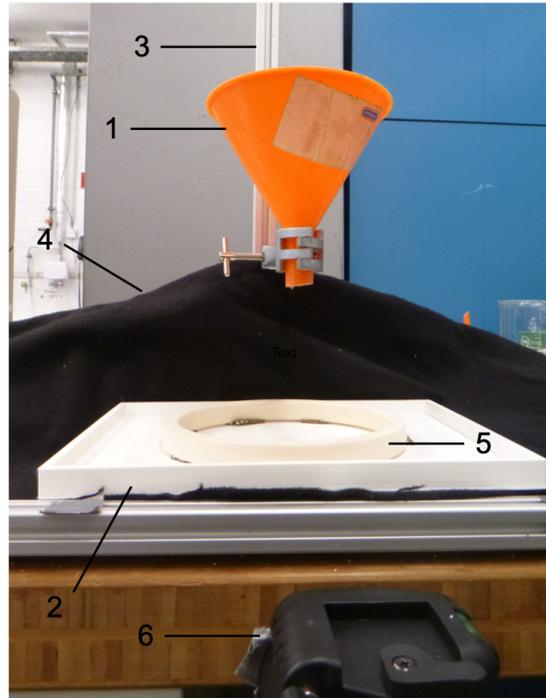


Figure 3.4: Assembly for the experimental determination of the static angle of repose

The material to be examined is filled into the fixed funnel (1). The funnel is mounted onto a holding structure (3), which places the outlet of the funnel directly above the center of a polyester ring (5). The polyester ring has a height of 20 mm and is placed on a white base plate (2). A digital camera, fixed to an adjustable tripod (6), is placed in front of the pile in a way, that the camera focuses the top of the pile. Black molton (4), respectively a white screen, is positioned behind the pile to increase the contrast and therefore, facilitate the image analysis. The images taken by the digital camera are evaluated by an online digitizer tool called WebPlotDigitizer [95] and a Matlab script. The WebPlotDigitizer is used to find and export the coordinates of points on the surface of the pile. Afterwards, the Matlab script reads the coordinates of the points describing the pile and divides the pile into two almost even parts. Subsequently, a polynomial fit of 4th order is used to describe the surface of the pile mathematically and a linear fit for each side of the pile is obtained. With the slope of the linear fit and the arctan function the static angle of repose is calculated for both sides of the pile. In figure 3.5 a cutout of a picture taken during the experiments with a SG particle tracer mixture (5 wt% tracer) is shown. Schematically the lines used in the calculation of the static angle are drawn.

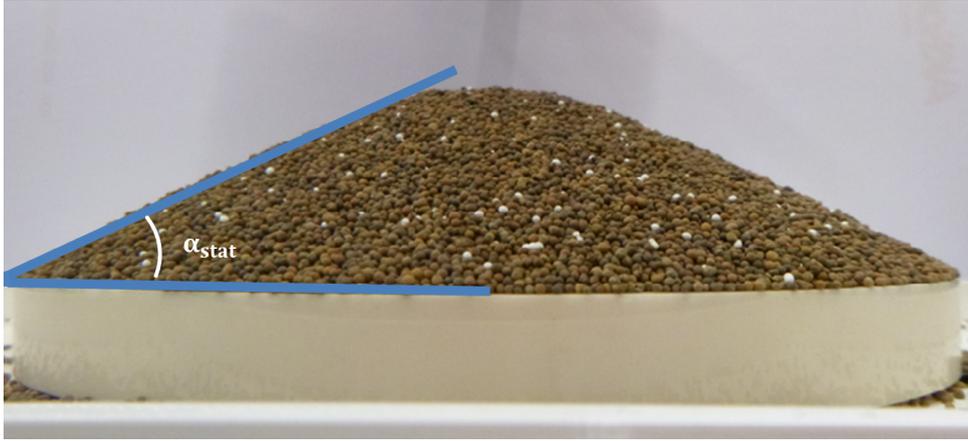


Figure 3.5: Cut out of a picture taken during the experiments with a SG particle tracer mixture (5 wt% tracer), schematic figure of the static angle of repose α_{stat}

Since avalanches do not happen symmetrically, but one side at a time, the top of the pile is not in the center of the pile. Hence, the calculated angles for the right and the left side do not coincide and the angle of repose is assumed to be the arithmetic average of both. To diminish the statistical error, the measurement is conducted ten times, resulting in a total number of values of 20. As well as the mean angle of repose for each side, the average of all 20 determined angles of repose is calculated and listed in table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Angle of repose for pure SG particles, pure tracers and a SG particle tracer mixture (5 wt% tracer), averaging over 10 measurements each left and right

Collective	Left angle	Right angle	Average angle
Pure SG particles	$27.2875 \pm 1.1869^\circ$	$26.7572 \pm 0.4981^\circ$	$27.0224 \pm 0.9025^\circ$
Pure tracers	$21.7597 \pm 0.4998^\circ$	$22.5338 \pm 0.6732^\circ$	$22.1468 \pm 0.6921^\circ$
5 wt % tracer	$26.0577 \pm 0.4009^\circ$	$25.9923 \pm 0.7663^\circ$	$26.0250 \pm 0.5776^\circ$

The mean angle of repose of the tracers is approximately 18 % lower than the one of the SG particles. Since the intended mass fraction of the tracers is not higher than 5 wt%, this deviation is not expected to be significant. To verify this assumption, the angle of repose is not only determined for pure SG particles and pure tracers, but additionally for a SG particle tracer mixture. The mass fraction of the tracers is chosen to be 5 wt%. In the mass fraction range between 0 and 5 wt% a sufficiently high probability of having enough tracers in the FOV of the camera is assumed, so that the recognition of tracers is feasible.

As the angle of repose does not change significantly when adding a tracer mass fraction of 5 wt%, the influence of the tracer mass fraction on the fluid-like mechanical properties of the SG particle tracer mixture is assumed to be nearly invariable in the range of tracer mass fraction up to 5 %. Thus, the tracer mass fraction is chosen in a way, that sufficient tracers are detected in the ROI of the picture. With a higher number of detected tracers, the computing time of picture processing increases and the tracking of the tracers becomes more complex due to a higher possibility of two or even more closely located tracers. If the tracers are too close to each other, the algorithm might merge them to one big tracer, which is then eliminated by the area filter in the tracking algorithm, cf. section 4.2. Because the mean angle of repose of the SG particle tracer mixture with 5 wt% tracers is only 3.7 %

lower than the one of the pure SG particles, tracer mass fractions up to 5 wt% are considered to not significantly impact the flow properties of the particle collective in the receiver.

3.3 Optical design optimization

One purpose of this thesis is to select and optimize the illumination and the camera set up by conducting tests with a stationary SG particle tracer mixture. Furthermore, the image processing is examined and optimized during these tests.

3.3.1 Illumination

It is of crucial importance, that the illumination is bright and homogeneous. Overexposure, causing too bright pictures, and underexposure, resulting in too dark pictures, should be prevented, as objects in very bright or shadowy regions can not be recognised correctly. As luminant LED lights are chosen, as described in section 3.1.4. In the selection process of the illumination lights from various manufacturers with different shapes and light colors are compared to each other. The most important evaluation parameters are the homogeneity of the illumination, the mean pixel value of a white sheet and the difference between the pixel values of the tracers and SG particles. Moreover, the set up complexity and the costs are considered. The set up shown in figure 3.6 is used to compare the different illumination options.

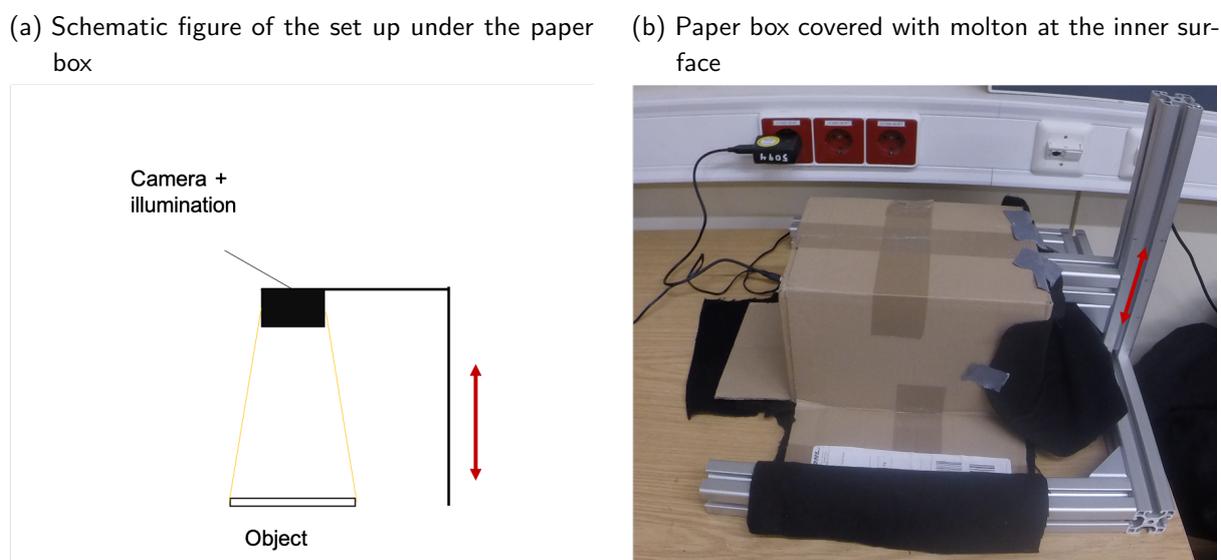


Figure 3.6: Assembly of the test set up to choose the most suitable illumination

The illumination and the camera are mounted onto the silver item structure, cf. figure 3.6a. Using the flexible item structure, the distance between the camera, respectively the illumination, and the bottom, where a flat white bowl is placed, can be adjusted. The inner surface of the paper box is covered with black molton to minimize the reflection of light, cf. figure 3.6b. For the homogeneity tests a white sheet is placed in the bowl. The camera and the illumination are located at the same height and the black box is imposed on the system. All edges and slots are covered with extra molton,

in order to prevent ambient light from affecting the measurement. While recording, the illumination is switched on and off three times. The time between each switch off and the switch on is 30 seconds, the same as each exposure time. This procedure is conducted to eliminate inhomogeneities, that could occur shortly after switching on or off the illumination. To check the calculations of the FOV, cf. table 3.6, the white sheet in the set up is replaced by a grid with squares of 5 mm x 5 mm and the procedure is repeated as described above. To compare the effect of the different illuminations on the recognition of the tracer, a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) is poured into the bowl on the ground in a way, that an opaque particle film covers the bottom of the bowl. The film thickness is a few particles (1 - 4 particles), similar to the film thickness expected in the experiments in the receiver. In order to find the most suitable illumination, five different options are tested, compared and rated. The tested illumination and their characteristics are listed in table 3.4. A photo of each illumination can be found in Appendix A.1. The results of the illumination tests are discussed below and table 3.5 summarizes the results of the rating criteria used for the selection of the illumination.

Table 3.4: Tested illuminations and their specifications

Abbr.	Name	Manufacturer	Shape	Light color	Illumination area	Price	Data sheet
P1	14-14-Sled-2-Flat-VA-16w	planistar Lichttechnik GmbH	Area light	White	140x140 mm	659€	[96]
L1	LED Spot5W-W	iiM AG	Spot light	White	Adjustable, up to Ø250 mm at 250 mm work distance	580€	[97]
F1	FLDL-i70A	FALCON illumination	Ring light	White	Ø65 mm	450€	[86]
F2	FLDL-i86x15	FALCON illumination	Bar light	White	86x15 mm	300€	[87]
F3	FFPR-Si100-RGB	FALCON illumination	Ring light	Blue (470 nm)	Ø94.6 mm	725€	[98]

The first image processing step of the videos taken during the tests is exporting each frame from the videos and selecting one representing frame for further analysis. As these tests are stationary, the position of the SG particles and tracers in the pictures should not change between different frames. To obtain a representative picture, a frame approximately 4 seconds after switching on the illumination is selected to avoid any initial illumination inhomogeneities. In the following, the selection parameters are discussed in detail. The parameters are: homogeneity of the illumination, brightness, difference between the pixel value of tracers and particles, set up complexity and price.

Homogeneity

To compare the homogeneity of the different illuminations, the procedure described in section 3.3.1 is conducted with a white sheet. A Python code, cf. Appendix A.2, is created to evaluate the color value of each pixel. From the selected pictures the center region with a size of 50 mm x 50 mm is cut out, if possible, cf. table 3.6. For distances smaller than 100 mm, the cut out area is chosen as close as possible to this size. Therefore, the size of the cut out depends on the distance between the camera and the object. To cut out the right area size, the pictures of the grid are used to evaluate the pixel size for each distance between the camera and the particles. Furthermore, the pictures of the grids are utilized to review the size of the cut out. Optimization results regarding the distance between the camera and the particle collective are discussed in section 3.3.2. With equation 3.5, which is based on the color coding of analog television, the *RGB* values of the pictures are converted to one gray level pixel value g [64].

$$g = 0.299 R + 0.587 G + 0.114 B \quad (3.5)$$

Each pixel value is stored into a matrix and saved to a text file. Furthermore, the minimum and the maximum pixel value and their difference are calculated. Additionally, the mean pixel value and its standard deviation as well as the median pixel value are calculated. For the calculation of the homogeneity equation 3.6 is used, in which \bar{g} represents the mean pixel value and σ the standard deviation of the mean pixel value.

$$\text{Homogeneity} = \frac{\bar{g} - \sigma}{\bar{g}} * 100\% \quad (3.6)$$

These values are saved into a text file for easier comparison between the different illuminations. Moreover, a histogram showing the number of pixels for each pixel value from 0 to 255 is created and saved as plot and as text file. Figure 3.7 shows the colored plot of the pixel value for the non cut pictures (whole FOV of the camera) taken with different illuminations. The magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI (50 mm x 50 mm). The distance between the camera and the white sheet is always 135 mm.

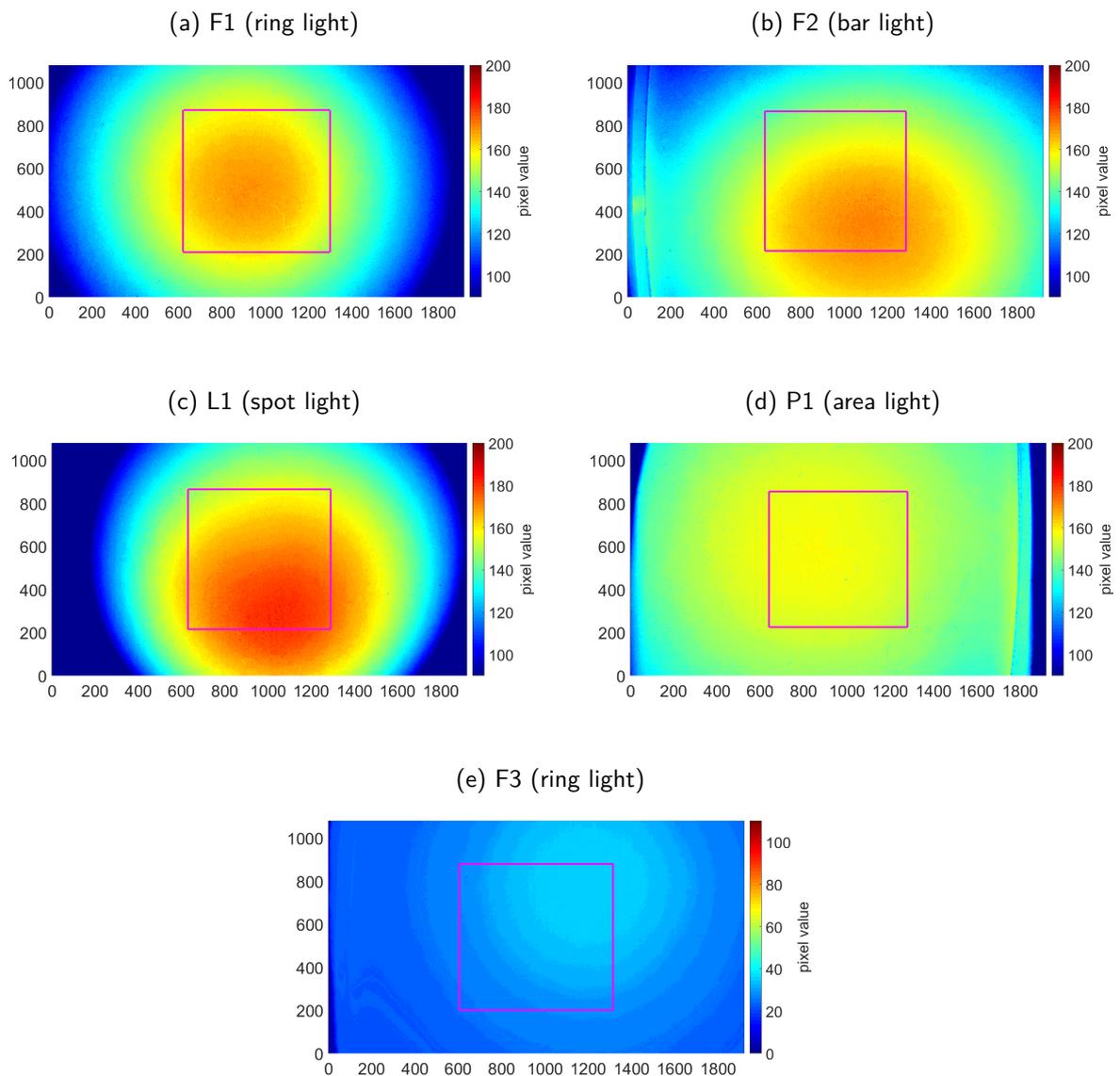


Figure 3.7: Pixel value illustration of a white sheet taken with different illuminations from 135 mm distance between the camera, respectively illumination, and the white sheet; the magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI (50 mm x 50 mm)

The color bar in figure 3.7a - 3.7d is set from 90 (dark blue) to 200 (dark red). As white is represented in the gray level pictures with the value 255, the more red the pixels are, the higher the pixel value is and hence, the brighter the illumination is at this point. While the illuminations (F1, F2, L1, P1) used to take the pictures in figure 3.7a - 3.7d are equipped with white light, the F3 illumination (figure 3.7e) supplies blue light. Thus, for illumination F3, the expected gray level pixel value of the white sheet is approximately 29, following equation 3.5. The color bar in figure 3.7e set from 0 (dark blue) to 110 (dark red), so that the range of the color bar is 110 in all five cases. The red area in the lower center of figure 3.7c shows, that illumination L1 is very bright in this area. The pixel value here is around 180. Considering the whole picture area, the outer edges are less bright (dark blue) and thus, the illumination, considering the total picture, is inhomogeneous. Cutting out the lower center as ROI for the picture processing would lead to higher homogeneity. However, mounting of

this illumination in a way, that the homogeneous and bright spot area is always in the center of the picture and thereby, cut out as ROI in the image processing, is a quite complex task. The ranking considering the set up is discussed in section 3.3.1. Illuminations F1 and F2 offer a less bright light than illumination L1, but the homogeneity of the total picture is higher. In figure 3.7a and 3.7b only the upper edges are dark blue and the color range is not fully exploited. Illumination F3 (figure 3.7e) provides a quite homogeneous light, but compared to F1 the center of the illumination does not fit as adequately to the camera's center. Illumination P1 (figure 3.7d) provides the most homogeneous light in the total FOV of the camera. Since only the ROI is cut out in the image processing, the homogeneity of the cut out area for each illumination is plotted against the distance between the camera and the white sheet, as shown in figure 3.8.

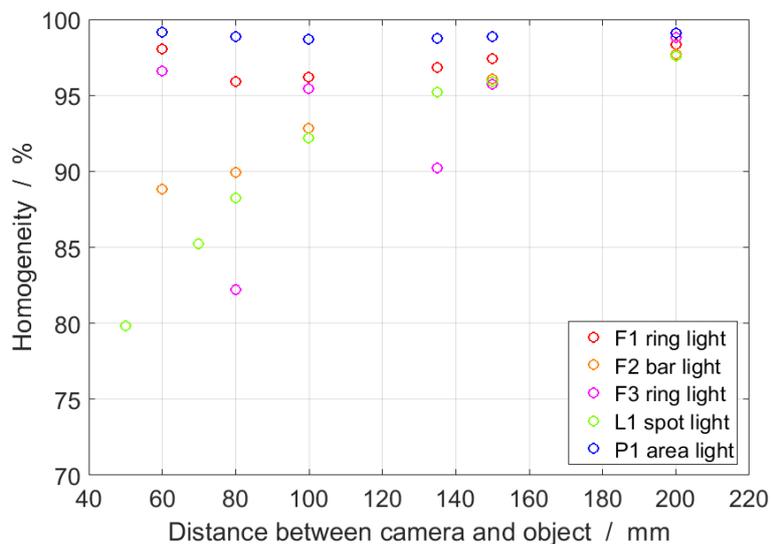


Figure 3.8: Calculated homogeneity plotted against the distance between camera and white sheet for five different illuminations

The plot shows that the area light P1 is the most homogeneous illumination. The homogeneity of this illumination is nearly independent of the distance between the camera and the white sheet and constantly above 98.7%. Likewise, the ring light F1 provides high homogeneities between 95.92% and 98.35%. With exception of the smallest distance (60 mm), the homogeneity increases with the distance between camera and object. This behavior is also observed for the bar light F2 and the spot light L1, but even more distinct. Except for the distance 80 mm and 135 mm, illumination F3 offers homogeneities above 90%. The deviation could result from misalignment of the centers of camera and illumination as seen in figure 3.7e. Illuminations L1 and F2 are equipped with smaller illumination areas, cf. table 3.4. Therefore, smaller distances between the illumination and the objects lead to less homogeneity in the ROI, because of the higher influence of less illuminated areas such as the edges. The further the distance between the illumination and the object is, the greater the illuminated area is and in conclusion, the higher the homogeneity becomes.

Figure 3.9 exemplary shows the FOV (total picture) and the cut out ROI (magenta square) for two different distances (50/60 mm and 200 mm) between the camera and a white sheet for illumination L1 (3.9a,3.9b) and P1 (3.9c,3.9d). In Appendix A.3 the analogue figures for illumination F1 (A.2a,A.2b), F2 (A.2c,A.2d) and F3 (A.2e,A.2f) are displayed.

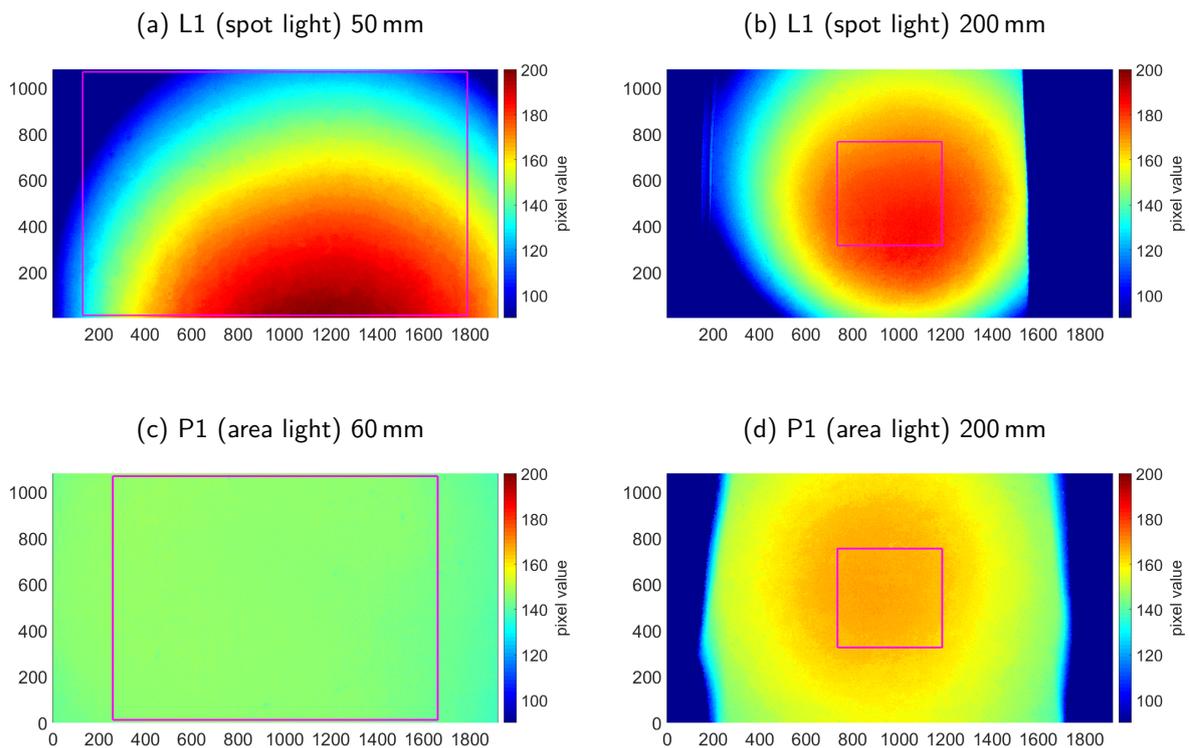


Figure 3.9: Pixel value illustration of a white sheet taken with different illuminations from 50/60 mm (left) and 200 mm (right) distance between the camera, respectively illumination, and the white sheet; the magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI

The influence of edge effects is not only depending on the distance between the illumination and the recorded object, but also on the shape and the size of the illuminated area of the illumination itself. The dark blue regions on the left and the right side of the pictures taken from 200 mm distance are the black molten inner lining of the box for the stationary test. The area light offers a relatively big illumination area and thus, even the edges of the picture taken from 60 mm are well illuminated, cf. figure 3.9c. Figure 3.9a shows, that for the spot light illumination L1 the distance between the camera and the recorded object is important due to the fact, that the illuminated region is divided in spheres with different intensity. With smaller distance, the ROI is a greater part of the FOV and therefore, the homogeneity of the illumination in the ROI is less. Further evaluation of the camera set up optimizing the distance between the camera and the particle film is discussed in section 3.3.2 and the ranking of the illuminations regarding the homogeneity is shown in table 3.5. Since the total energy of the light is constant, with a greater illuminated area the mean brightness of the illuminated area decreases. The result of the stationary tests regarding the brightness are discussed in the next section.

Brightness

The brightness of the illumination is reviewed using the mean pixel value of the cut out from the pictures (ROI) of a white sheet, cf. figure 3.7. Figure 3.10 shows the mean pixel value (gray scale) plotted against the distance between the camera, respectively the illumination, and the white sheet for the five different illuminations.

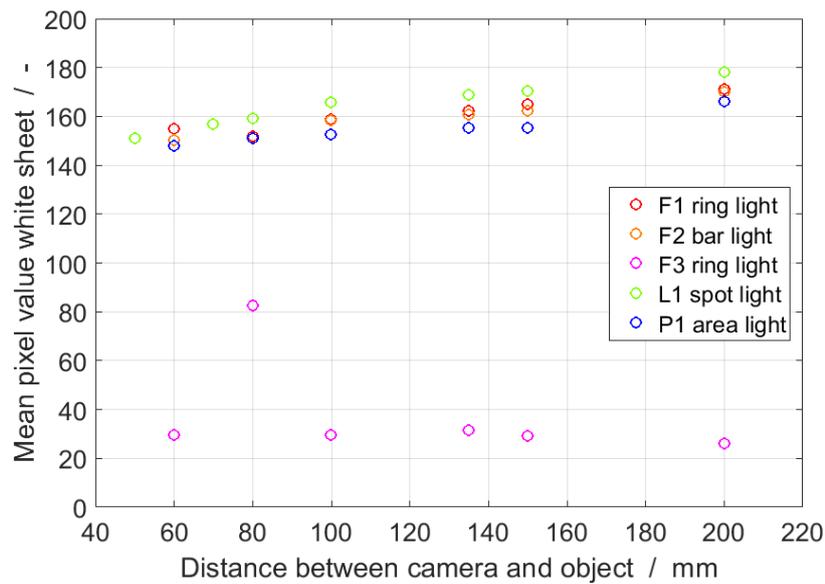


Figure 3.10: Mean pixel value (gray scale) plotted against the distance between camera and white sheet for five different illuminations

In the experiments a white sheet is used and thus, the expected values of the pixels in gray scale for white light illumination are around 200-255 and for the blue light illumination around 29. For illumination F3 (blue light) the calculated values correspond to the expected value, but for the other illuminations (white light), the calculated pixel values are between approximately 150 and 180 and therefore, lower than expected. As the same white sheet and the same experimental set up are used in all experiments, the changes in the mean pixel value is assumed to be attributable to the illumination and the distance between the illumination and the white sheet. Illuminations F1, F2, L1 and P1 all show increasing mean pixel values with increasing distance between the illumination and white sheet. This trend is expected due to the fact, that the cut out of the pictures is always the same size in terms of the object size (50 mm × 50 mm). With increasing distance, a larger part of the cut out area is located in the center of the illumination, which is the brightest region of the illuminated area. Thus, the closer the illumination and the object are to each other, the more important the shape and size of the illumination area are. The mean pixel value of a white sheet is depending on the fraction of less illuminated area (e.g. edges), analogue to the effect discusses in the section above and displayed in figure 3.9. The less bright the ROI is, the lower the mean pixel value of a white sheet is. In consequence of the shape, this effect is most distinct for the spot light L1 and less distinct for the area light P1 (except the rise between 150 and 200 mm). The percentual increase of the mean pixel value between 60 mm and 200 mm distance between illumination and object is 17.9% for illumination L1, 13.4% for illumination F2, 12.3% for illumination P1 and 10.4% for illumination F1. Illumination F3 shows a different graph. Except for the distance of 80 mm, the mean pixel value of the white sheet decreases with increasing distance between the illumination and the white sheet. The mean pixel value decreases 11.4% between 60 mm and 200 mm distance. This behavior is explicable with the shape and size of the ring light F3. The inner diameter of the ring light F3 is 73 mm, which is quite wide compared to the inner diameter of the ring light F1 (30 mm) and the diameter of the camera lens (22 mm). Thus, the influence of less illuminated edges is reduced. Therefore, the mean pixel value decreases with increasing distance, resulting from the growing size of the illuminated area

while the illumination power remains constant.

As the results of the blue illumination are the closest to the expectations, it is ranked as the best illumination considering the brightness, followed by L1, F1 and F2. Figure 3.10 shows the lowest mean pixel value for white lights for illumination P1. The ranking regarding the brightness is shown in table 3.5.

Difference between SG particles and tracers and tracer recognition

For the tracking of the tracers it is of crucial importance, that the tracers are detected completely and correctly. For this purpose, the mean values of SG particles and tracers and the shape of the distribution function of the number of pixels with a particular pixel value are necessary. To evaluate the capability of the tracer recognition for each illumination, the procedure explained above is conducted with a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers). For the cut out, the mean value of the pixels is calculated and, as the tracer mass fraction is low, assumed to be the mean pixel value of the SG particles. The tracer mean pixel value is obtained manually using the online webtool imagecolorpicker [99]. The webtool offers the possibility to upload an image and use a crosshair cursor to find the RGB value of a pixel. The cut outs of the pictures are uploaded to the website and for each picture three different tracers are detected manually and the RGB value of the center is read out with the webtool. Afterwards, the RGB values are converted into gray scale value using equation 3.5 and the mean pixel value is calculated. This procedure is repeated for six different distances for each of the five illuminations. The results are plotted in figure 3.11.

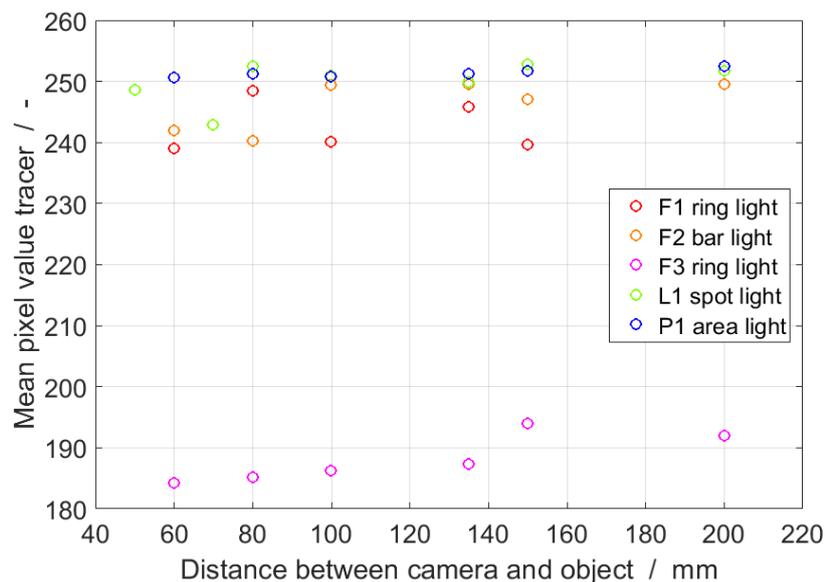


Figure 3.11: Mean pixel value of the tracers for different illuminations plotted against the distances between illumination and SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) collected with the webtool imagecolorpicker [99];

The expected value for the tracers using white light illumination with no interference, caused by incident ambient light through a perfectly obscured set up, is 255. As seen in figure 3.11, illuminations L1 and P1 offer a mean pixel value of the tracer around 250 over the total range of tested distances, which is close to the expected value. The mean pixel value of the tracers using illuminations F1 and

F2 is lower than the ones of the other two white illuminations at all tested distances. For illumination F2 the mean tracer value is around 240 for distances lower than 100 mm and around 250 for further distances. Illumination F1 shows mean pixel values of the tracers between 230 and 248 for all tested distances, decreasing with increasing distance. However, the recognition of the tracers using color filter is possible for all four white illuminations, since the pixel value of the SG particles is lower than 200. The tracers' mean pixel values using the blue light illumination F3 is lower than the ones using the white light illuminations over the whole range of tested distances. The values are between 184 and 194 and increase slightly with increasing distance.

For the tracer recognition the difference between the pixel value of the tracers and the one of the SG particles is essential. Thus, for each combination of distance and illumination, the difference between the mean pixel values of tracers and SG particles is calculated and in figure 3.12 plotted against the distance between the camera and the particle collective.

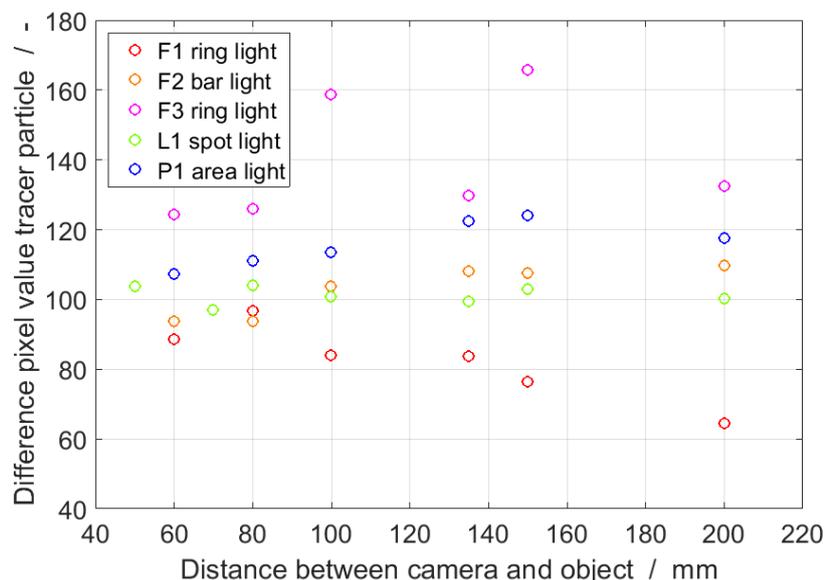


Figure 3.12: Difference between the pixel value (gray scale) of SG particles and tracers plotted for different illuminations against the distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt%)

The plot shows that illumination F3 offers the greatest difference in the pixel value between the tracers and the SG particles and hence, the easiest distinction between them. As the pixel values of the SG particles, vary between approximately 27 and 60, the difference of the pixel values is between approximately 125 and 165. These variations are not linearly connected to the distance between the camera and the particle collective. The resulting pixel value differences for 100 and 150 mm distance are about 30 pixels higher than the ones from the other distances. Figure 3.11 indicates, that the deviations for these two distances result from the smaller pixel values of the SG particles, as there is no anomaly in the tracers' mean pixel values at this distances. Figure 3.13 exemplary shows the cut out of a picture of the particle collective, taken with illumination F3 from 100 mm distance on the left side and one from 135 mm distance on the right side.

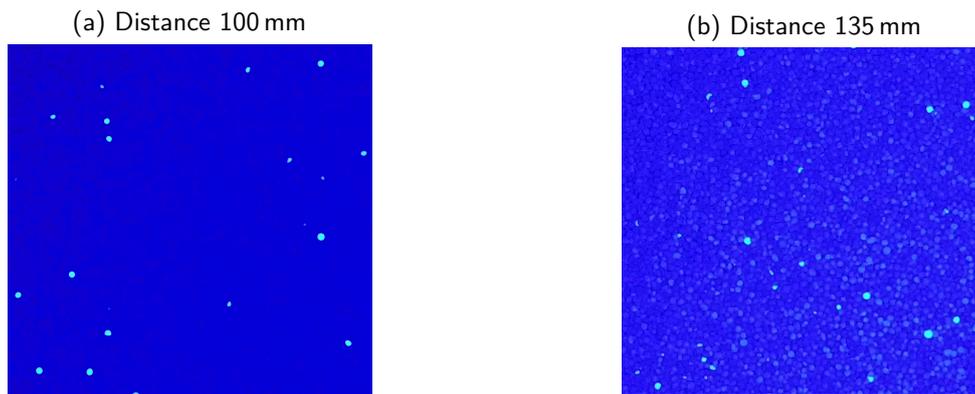


Figure 3.13: SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers), picture taken from different distances between the camera and the particle collective using illumination F3, cut out 50 mm × 50 mm

While in the right picture (135 mm distance) the single SG particles are clearly visible, in the left picture (100 mm distance) only the tracers are identifiable as bright dots. The picture taken from 150 mm looks similar to the one taken from 100 mm and the pictures taken from the 60, 80 and 200 mm distance appear like the one taken from 135 mm. This difference in the pictures explains the variation in the difference of the pixel value of tracers and SG particles observed in figure 3.12 for illumination F3. Considering the experimental set up and procedure, there is no explanation, why the pictures taken from 100 and 150 mm distance look different. The difference in the pixel value between the SG particles and the tracers for illumination P1 is increasing with the distance between the camera and the particle collective and is the second highest. The increase of the difference between the pixel values of the tracers and the SG particles, with increasing distance, results from the decreasing value of the SG particles, with increasing distance. The further away illumination and object are, the less intense the illumination is and the smaller the pixel value of the red-brownish SG particles becomes. Illumination F2 shows the same behavior. For illumination L1, the difference between the pixel value of the tracers and the SG particles is nearly independent of distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture. Its value is about 100. Using illumination F1, the difference between the pixel value of the tracers and the SG particles is greater with less distance between the camera and the particle collective. For this illumination, the highest difference value is approximately 97 for a distance of 80 mm. At a distance of 200 mm this difference is 64, which corresponds to only 66 % of the maximum difference. In addition to the difference between the mean pixel value of tracers and SG particles, the range of the pixel values for tracers and SG particles is important as well for the evaluation of the tracer recognition. In order to rate the illuminations according to the detection of the white tracers, not only the tracers' mean pixel value and the difference between the mean pixel value of the tracers and the SG particles are considered, but also the shape of the number distribution of the SG particles' pixel value.

Figure 3.14 displays the number distribution of the pixel values in the cut out of the pictures taken of a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt % tracers) for the five different illuminations. The distance between the illumination, respectively the camera, and the particle collective is always 135 mm.

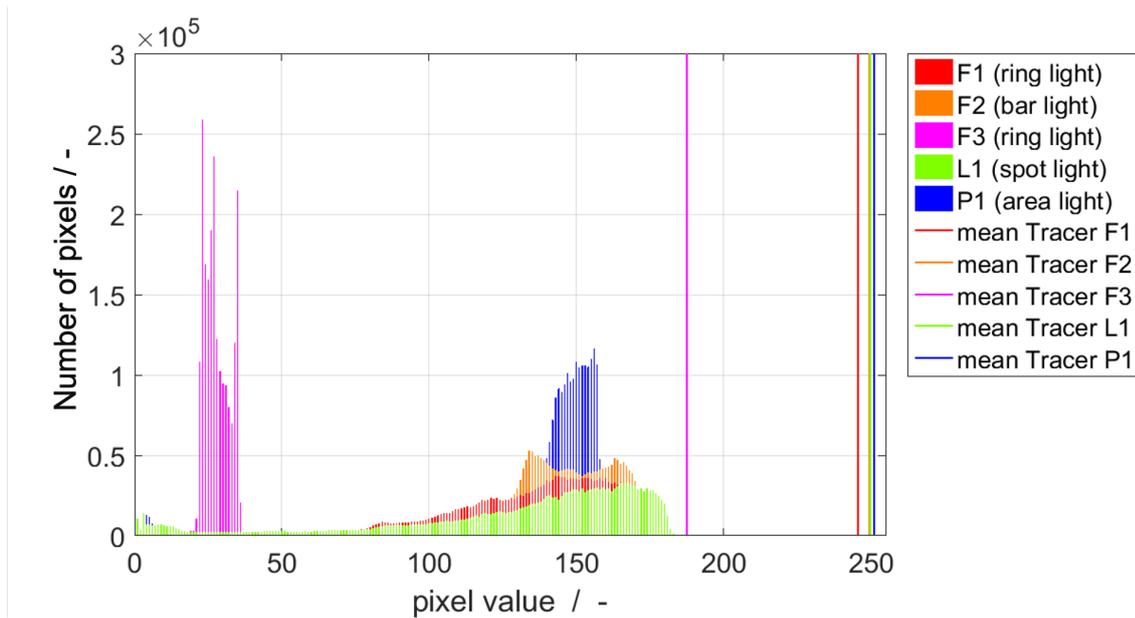


Figure 3.14: Histograms of the SG particles' pixel value and the mean tracer pixel value (vertical lines) for five different illuminations at 135 mm distance

As the range of the tracers' pixel values is quite narrow, the mean pixel value of the tracers is marked in figure 3.14 with a vertical line. The greater the difference between the mean pixel value of the tracer and the right limit of the SG particles pixel value is, the easier the distinction between the SG particles and the tracers becomes.

The histograms confirm the results of the calculated homogeneity, cf. section 3.3.1. The narrower the peaks are, the more homogeneous the illumination is. The blue light illumination F3 has much higher peaks than the white light illuminations. The absolute range of the pixel values is narrower, and since the absolute number of pixels in the cut out of the pictures is always the same at one distance, the peak is higher. But as equation 3.6 states, the homogeneity of the illuminations is normalized by referring to the mean pixel value in order to compare blue and white light illuminations. The shape of the peak is also important for the distinction between SG particle and tracer. The narrower the peaks of SG particles and tracers are and the greater the difference between the top of the peaks is, the easier the distinction between the SG particles and the tracers becomes. Moreover, figure 3.14 shows, that there is not only sufficient difference between the mean pixel value of the SG particles and the tracers, but also between the upper limit of the SG particles' pixel value distribution and the tracers. With the vertical lines in figure 3.14 representing the tracers' mean pixel value, illumination F3 is the best illumination regarding the tracer recognition, respectively the distinction between tracers and SG particles, followed by P1. However, since the distinction between the tracers and the SG particles is possible and sufficiently good with all illuminations, the ranking is not considered to be crucial in the decision process of the illumination for tracking the tracers.

Set up complexity

The complexity of the set up depends on the shape and the size of the illumination. F1 and F3 are ring lights and therefore, the camera can easily be placed on top of them, in a way, that the horizontal alignment of the camera and the illumination is achieved. As the inner diameter of illumination F1 is

30 mm, the width of the camera is 59 mm and the height of the camera is 41 mm, the center of the camera lens and the center of the illuminated area are easily arranged to coincide. For illumination F3 this is also achievable, but since the inner diameter (73 mm) is greater than the dimensions of the camera, the alignment of the centers is more complex. The area illumination P1 also has the advantage of easy horizontal alignment of camera and illumination, but the size and weight of this illumination are much greater compared to the others. This can be a disadvantage in the rotating receiver, because it causes more vibrations in the experimental set up, which can have a negative impact on the cameras' stability and therefore, on the tracking of the tracers and the determination of the film thickness. Illumination F2 is a bar light, which has to be inclined as well as the spot light illumination L1. The inclination angle has to be optimized in order to guarantee a homogeneous and bright illumination in the center of the picture. As seen in figure 3.7b and 3.7c the center of the illuminated area and the center of the camera lens do not coincide and thus, the illumination is less homogeneous. For these two illuminations, not only the inclination angle, but also the horizontal alignment of the camera and the illumination has to be considered additionally in the set up, because it is not feasible to place the camera on top of the illumination. The ranking of the illuminations regarding the set up complexity is shown in table 3.5.

Result

Table 3.5 summarizes the selection parameters and the evaluation of them for the five tested illuminations. The ratings discussed above are illustrated on a scale from ++ (best) to -- (worst).

Table 3.5: Summary of the optical design optimization results regarding the illumination

Illumination	Homogeneity	Brightness	Difference pixel value tracer and particle	Set up	Price	Total
P1	++	--	+	o	-	3
L1	-	+	o	-	o	5
F1	+	o	- /--	++	+	1
F2	o	-	o	-	++	4
F3	--	++	++	+	--	2

In conclusion of the stationary tests, illumination F1 is chosen for the tracking of the tracers. It offers good homogeneity and brightness. Even though the difference between the pixel value of the tracers and the SG particles is the lowest one, it is still sufficient to distinguish between tracers and SG particles. Combined with the easiest set up and an acceptable price, this illumination appears to be the best option for the tracking experiments. Moreover, the thickness of the particle film in the receiver is determined experimentally using an optical method, which is why a second illumination is needed. In this case, the requirements are less strict and the area of the picture is smaller, why the smallest and cheapest illumination (F2) is chosen. As the pictures will be taken of the particle film, the illumination and the camera will be nearly in parallel with the vertically inclined receiver wall. Thus, the small bar light F2 offers the easiest mounting inside the receiver.

3.3.2 Camera set up

The most important parameter in the optimization of the camera set up for tracking the tracers and determining the film thickness is the resolution of the pictures. Hence, the distance between the camera and the tracers, respectively the receiver wall, is optimized. If this distance is too small, the pictures become blurry, if it is too big, the recognition of the tracers is affected and flawed. To investigate the influence of the distance between the camera and the receiver wall, stationary tests with different distances are conducted. The distance between the camera and the receiver wall is determined as a parameter of the length and width of the camera's FOV and the relative size of one pixel to the average diameter of the particles. Figure 3.15 illustrates the characteristic dimensions of the camera set up.

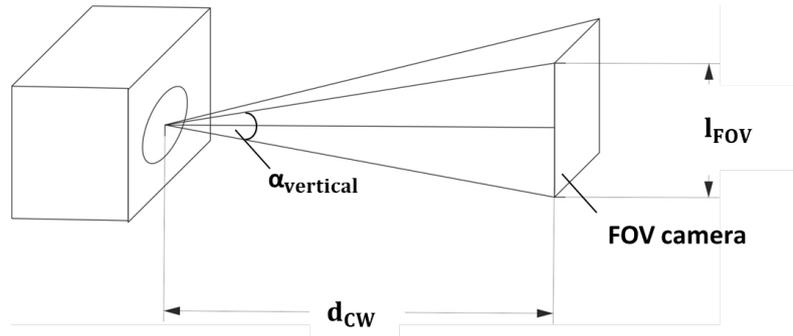


Figure 3.15: Schematic draft of the camera set up illustrating the characteristic dimensions

The minimum area of the picture required is set to 40 mm × 40 mm. This size is defined by the mean axial step of one particle in the receiver per rotation. From results of prior tests this distance is estimated as 4 cm (60 rpm, particle diameter: 1 mm). Consequently, the minimum FOV of the camera is 40 mm × 40 mm. As the camera's horizontal angle of view (100 °) is not much greater than the vertical one (90 °), and the aspect ratio is 16:9, the length of the pixels is the crucial dimension for a sufficient tracer detection. In conclusion, the minimum distance $d_{CW,min}$ is calculated with equation 3.7 to 20 mm considering the camera's vertical angle of view $\alpha_{vertical}$ and the minimum length of the FOV l_{min} , cf. figure 3.15.

$$d_{CW,min} = \frac{l_{FOV,min}}{2 \tan\left(\frac{\alpha_{vertical}}{2}\right)} \quad (3.7)$$

To decrease the number of particles hitting the camera lens, the minimum distance between the camera and the receiver wall is set to 50 mm. The pixel size has to be smaller than the particle size in order to secure the sufficient resolution of a single particle and thus, the accuracy of the measurement. Hence, the maximum length of one pixel is the diameter of one particle and, to ensure a good recognition of the tracers, a factor of 4 is applied. With the screen resolution of the picture (1920×1080 pixels, cf. section 3.1.3) the maximum length l_{max} of the FOV is calculated as 261.09 mm, using equation 3.8, where $l_{pixel,max}$ is the maximum length of one pixel (here 1/4 of the median SG particle diameter) and $n_{pixel,len}$ is the number of pixels lengthwise (here 1080).

$$l_{max} = l_{pixel,max} n_{pixel,len} \quad (3.8)$$

For this case, the maximum distance between the camera and the receiver wall $d_{CW,max}$ is calculated with equation 3.7 to 130.55 mm. In stationary tests six different distances between the camera and

the particle film are examined: 60, 80, 100, 135, 150 and 200 mm. The distances of 150 and 200 mm are evaluated and compared to the smaller distances to justify the calculated maximum distance between the camera and the particle film of 130.55 mm. For each of the five illuminations videos of a grid (5 mm×5 mm) are recorded from the six different distances. The square in the center of the exported pictures is used to determine the length and the width of one pixel. Thereby, it is assumed, that the distortion of the camera lens is negligible small in the center of the picture. From the dimensions of the pictures and the known screen resolution (1920×1080), the sizes of the FOV of the camera for the different distances between the camera and the receiver wall are calculated and displayed in table 3.6. Additionally, the length and width of the pixels and the size of the cut out area are listed in table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Sizes of the FOVs, the pixels, the cut out area and the maximum distance between the positions of one tracer in two consecutive frames for the different distances between the camera and an object (axial (x) and tangential (tan)), videos taken with illumination F1

d_{CW} in mm	Length FOV in mm	Width FOV in mm	Length pixel in mm	Width pixel in mm	Cut out area in mm ²	$d_{max,x}$ in pixel	$d_{max,tan}$ in pixel
60	40.3	70.6	0.037	0.037	40×50	5.36	5.44
80	50.0	85.7	0.046	0.045	49×50	4.32	4.48
100	63.5	110.3	0.059	0.057	50×50	3.40	3.48
135	81.8	141.2	0.076	0.074	50×50	2.64	2.72
150	91.5	160.0	0.085	0.083	50×50	2.36	2.40
200	122.7	208.7	0.114	0.109	50×50	1.76	1.84

The frame frequency is set to 60 fps. Pre-tests indicate, that the average velocity in axial direction is approximately 4 cm/s. Considering that the whole circumference is divisible into a moving and a stand-still zone, cf. section 2.4.3, and that the width of the moving zone is approximately 1/3 of the whole circumference, the average axial speed in the moving zone is about 12 cm/s. As those parameters strongly depend on the width of the moving zone and the mass flow, respectively on the residence time of the particles in the receiver, their actual value has to be determined in pre-tests. **The maximum axial speed $v_{max,x}$, the frame frequency f and the maximum length of one pixel $l_{pixel,max}$ determine the maximum distance between the positions of one tracer in two consecutive frames in axial direction $d_{max,x}$.** The calculation of the tangential speed is done analogously, using the maximum width instead of the maximum length. The maximum distances in pixel are calculated with equation 3.9.

$$d_{max,x} = \frac{v_{max,x}}{f l_{pixel,max}} \quad (3.9)$$

The distance between the positions of one tracer in two consecutive frames is an important parameter in the tracking algorithm, cf. section 4.2. Considering the different distances between the camera and the receiver wall in table 3.6, the maximum axial and tangential distance between the positions of one tracer in two consecutive frames are calculated and listed in table 3.6. As the orientation of the camera is adjustable, length and width of the FOV are interchangeable by rotating the camera.

Moreover, table 3.6 lists the size of the cut out area, the ROI of the picture, depending on the distance between the camera and the particle tracer mixture. For the distances 60 mm and 80 mm, the desired cut out area of 50 mm×50 mm is not achievable. In these cases, the FOV of the camera is smaller than the demanded ROI and the greatest area possible is cut out. As discussed before, the smaller the distance between the camera and an object is, the closer to one is the ration between ROI and FOV and consequently, the more influencing edge effects of the picture are. On the contrary, the further away the camera is from an object, the smaller the ratio between chosen ROI and FOV is. Consequently, the less part of the picture is cut out and because the center of the cut out and the center of the picture always coincide, the less influencing the edge effects are, as discussed in the evaluation of the homogeneity in section 3.3.1 (cf. figure 3.9).

Figure 3.16 shows the cut out of the pictures taken with the experimental set up explained above using illumination F1, figure 3.17 the analogue pictures using illumination F2. The distance between the camera and the particles varies between the pictures. The pictures on the left are taken with 80 mm distance between the camera and the particles (3.16a, 3.17a), the ones in the center with 135 mm (3.16b, 3.17b) and the ones on the right with 200 mm (3.16c, 3.17c).

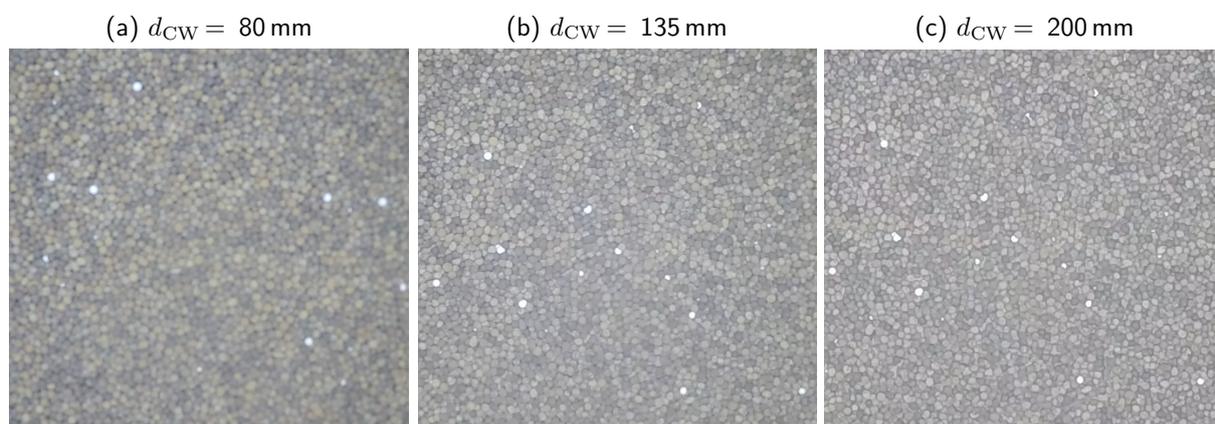


Figure 3.16: Picture of a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt%) taken from different camera particle distances d_{CW} (80, 135 and 200 mm), illumination: F1

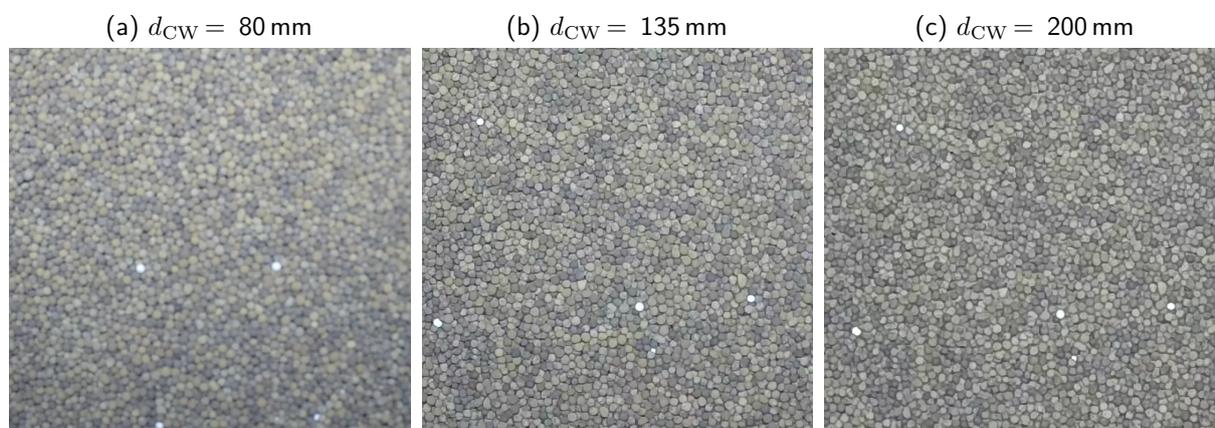


Figure 3.17: Picture of a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt%) taken from different camera particle distances d_{CW} (80, 135 and 200 mm), illumination: F2

The pictures show that for both illuminations a distance of 80 mm between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture results in blurry pictures. At this short distance, the camera is not able to focus and display the single particles clear and sharp. For the same reason the pictures taken from 60 mm appear blurry as well. Increasing the distance to 100 mm results in only slightly blurry pictures. The pictures taken from further distances (135, 150 and 200 mm) are all sharp. As one important step of tracking the tracers is the detection of the white tracers, blurry pictures might cause errors in their recognition. The further away the camera is from the SG particle tracer mixture, the sharper the pictures are for both illuminations. From this point of view, the maximum possible distance would be the best option. However, not only the sharpness of the picture, but also its resolution is important. With greater distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture, the length and the width of the pixels increases, as listed in table 3.6. Thus, the number of pixels representing one tracer decreases with increasing distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture. In conclusion, the algorithm for detecting the tracers, cf. section 4.2, becomes more error-prone. **Regarding the resolution, the distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture should be as short as possible, but the mean SG particle, respectively tracer, diameter should be at least four times bigger than the maximum size of one pixel side. This factor guarantees, that a tracer is represented by at least four complete pixels.**

As discussed in the selection of the best possible illumination (section 3.3.1), the intensity of the illumination depends on the distance between the illumination and an object. Beside the optimization of the set up for camera and illumination, it is important to avoid under or overexposure of the SG particle tracer mixture. If the SG particle tracer mixture is overexposed, the range of pixel values in the picture is shifted to higher values and the peak is often cropped at the upper limit of the pixel value range [100; 101]. Underexposure is the opposite and the pixel value range is shifted to the lower limit of the pixel values with nearly no pixels having high values. Pictures of a black and white chessboard using a good illumination should result in a histogram with two clearly distinguishable peaks and a wide range of pixel values, at best from 0 to 255. To review the exposure of illumination F1, chosen to be used in future receiver experiments for tracking the tracers, videos of a chessboard, cf. figure 3.19, are recorded from different distances and the experimental set up explained in section 3.3.1. In figure 3.18 the histograms of pictures exported from these videos are displayed. The maximum number of pixels corresponds to the video resolution, here 1080p, resulting in $1920 \times 1080 = 2.0736 \cdot 10^6$ pixels.

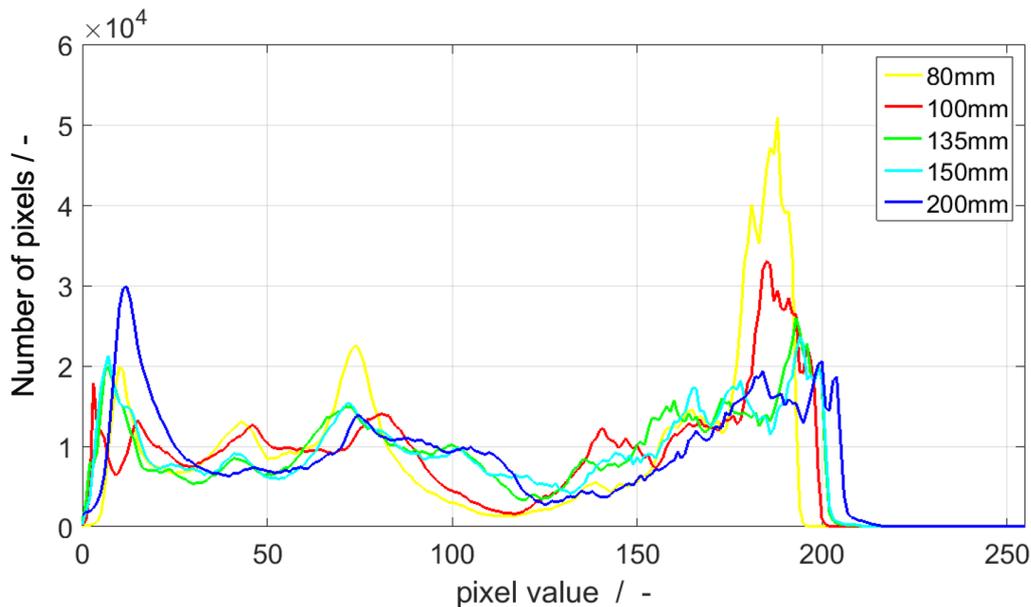


Figure 3.18: Histograms of a black and white chessboard picture for illumination F1 at different distances

All histograms do not show signs of over or underexposure, as the pixel value range for all distances is around 200. Further distance leads to slightly greater pixel value range, but also to less distinctive peaks in the range of bright colors (upper range of pixel values) and in the range of dark tones (lower range of pixel values). Regarding the exposure, from all distances tested in the scope of this thesis, illumination F1 does not over or under expose the object placed below and therefore, can be used in the receiver experiments for tracking the tracers with all tested distances between the camera and the receiver wall.

Considering all criteria explained above, 135 mm is chosen as the most adequate distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture for tracking the tracers and the determination of the film thickness.

3.4 Camera calibration

The cameras used in the experiments are not ideal pinhole cameras. Lenses in real cameras cause distortions in the pictures, that need to be minimized in order to generate corrected data for tracking the tracers in the image processing. To detect and evaluate these errors arising from the nature of the cameras' lenses a calibration is conducted. The theory of geometric camera calibration is explained in section 2.6.

The intrinsic camera calibration parameters, as discussed in section 2.6.2, are determined experimentally with the set up used in the stationary tests and explained in section 3.3.1. Instead of a white paper sheet a chessboard, which is shown in figure 3.19, is placed below the camera. The chessboard is symmetrical and consists of 10×7 squares.

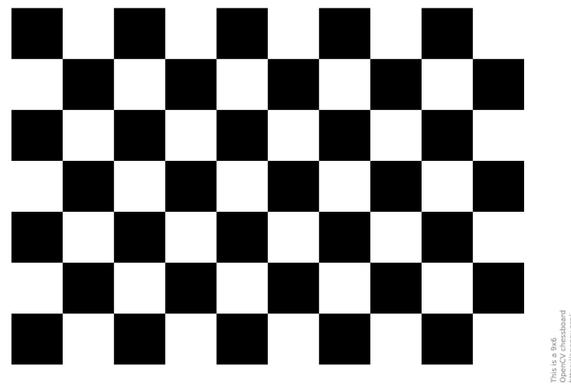


Figure 3.19: Calibration object for camera calibration: symmetrical 10x7 chessboard [102]

The chessboard pattern is printed out on a white sheet and glued to a rigid cardboard, so that the chessboard can be moved without being deformed. The maximum distance between the camera and the calibration object is set to 135 mm and illumination F1 or F2 is used during the calibration. For the simultaneous video recording for tracer tracking and film thickness determination, two cameras are needed. In conclusion, the calibration is done for both cameras. In order to do so, illumination F1 is used for camera A2 (tracer tracking) and illumination F2 is used for camera B3 (film thickness determination). The camera and the illumination are mounted onto the item structure used in the stationary tests (cf. figure 3.6) and thus, the position of both remains the same during the recording. The video recording settings of the camera are equal to the ones in the stationary tests, cf. section 3.1.3. While recording, the chessboard pattern is moved up, down, left and right and is also inclined in all directions. Thus, the camera takes images of the chessboard pattern from many different angles of view. As the movement of the chessboard pattern takes around 15 seconds and the camera records 60 frames per second, approximately 900 frames are recorded. To achieve high accuracy, the number of frames used in the calibration should be as high as possible and at least 4-5 different orientations are recommended [67]. For the calibration in this thesis 84 frames for camera A2 with illumination F1 and 121 frames for camera B3 with illumination F2 are used to calculate the camera parameters. The complete Python code to determine the camera parameters can be found in Appendix A.4. A detailed description of the functions used in the programming code for the calibration can be found in [72]. In the first step, the Python code reads the pictures considered for the calibration and searches for the chessboard. For this purpose, criteria for the iterative optimization algorithm and the dimensions of the chessboard are needed. After reading the pictures, they are converted into gray scale pictures. Function `cv2.findChessboardCorners()` searches for the positions of the chessboard's internal corners and function `cv2.cornerSubPix()` refines the locations of the found corners using the criteria of the iterative process defined before. The found corners are saved as image points with pixel coordinates and the corresponding object points are saved in world coordinates using the defined dimensions of the chessboard's squares and the assumption of a stationary XY plane with $Z=0$. The stationary camera and the fact that the chessboard is glued onto a rigid paper, permit this assumption for the sake of simplicity. Figure 3.20 shows the chessboard corners found with the procedure explained above.

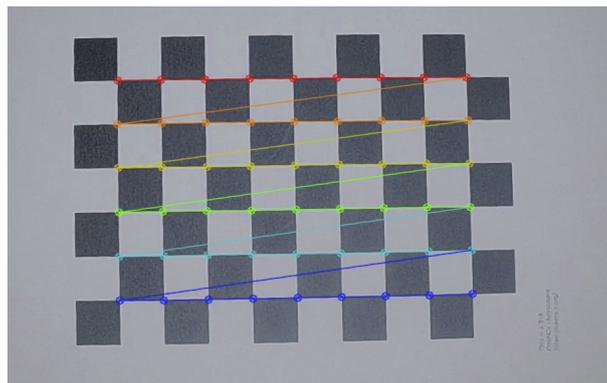


Figure 3.20: Chessboard corners found with the Python code for calibration (cf. Appendix A.4), picture taken with camera A2 using illumination F1

Function `cv2.calibrateCamera()` estimates the intrinsic and extrinsic camera parameters, using several pictures of the chessboard from different angles of view, and returns them. The function is based on algorithms described in [67] and [103]. The algorithm models the lens distortion mathematically and has the advantage of flexible use without the need of an expensive and elaborate calibration set up [67]. In addition to the camera calibration parameters, the Python code calculates the reprojection error. With function `cv2.projectPoints()` the object points (world coordinates) are converted into image points (pixel coordinates), using the determined camera calibration parameters. Consequently, the distances between the found image points and the projected object points are calculated and summarized in order to determine the arithmetical mean of the distances, the reprojection error. The closer this value is to zero, the better the calculated camera parameters are.

The results of the camera calibration for camera A2 and camera B3 are listed in table 3.7 (camera matrix) and in table 3.8 (distortion coefficients). The reprojection error of the camera calibration for camera A2 is 0.0523 pixel and the one for camera B3 is 0.0539 pixel. Thus, the calibrations are considered to be sufficiently precise.

Table 3.7: Calculated camera parameters and their standard deviation: Camera matrix, camera A2 with illumination F1 and camera B3 with illumination F2

		F1		F2	
Parameter	Unit	Value	Standard deviation	Value	Standard deviation
f_x	mm	1750.4106	167.1707	1774.5508	102.8925
f_y	mm	1756.3095	173.7426	1776.2548	102.4685
C_x	-	962.9112	66.9707	978.2048	21.6237
C_y	-	469.4679	103.5527	553.3701	58.6115

Table 3.8: Calculated camera parameters and their standard deviation: Distortion coefficients, camera A2 with illumination F1 and camera B3 with illumination F2

Parameter	Unit	F1		F2	
		Value	Error	Value	Error
k_1	-	-0.2732	0.0435	-0.2833	0.0411
k_2	-	0.1802	0.1343	-0.1606	0.1824
p_1	-	0.0028	0.0157	0.0006	0.0088
p_2	-	-0.0048	0.0117	-0.00008	0.0015
k_3	-	-0.2629	0.4660	-0.1409	0.7106

4 Image Processing Code

In this chapter the image processing codes developed in the scope of this thesis are explained in detail. The general video processing, including the correction of lens distortion of the camera, is described in the first section. Subsequently, the steps of the image processing code for tracer tracking are presented. Finally, the image processing code developed to evaluate the thickness of the particle film is explained. The image processing codes are implemented in Python using the OpenCV library [104]. All parameters, which have to be adjusted regarding the experimental set up in the receiver and the operation conditions in the experiments with the receiver, are explained in this chapter. Additionally, start values for the iterative determination of these parameters, resulting from pre-test with the experimental set up explained in section 3.3.1, are given.

4.1 General video processing

The evaluation of the recorded videos is done by means of a Python code using each frame of the video one by one. Thus, the processing of the videos is explained exemplary for one frame. After reading the videos frame by frame, the calibration parameters, cf. section 3.4, are used in the first video processing step to correct the recorded frames. The Python code for the generation of corrected data can be found in Appendix A.5. For the purpose of correction, function `cv2.undistort()` is used and the camera's FOV is cropped to the new ROI. To define the new ROI, function `cv2.getOptimalNewCameraMatrix()` is utilized. Thereby, the width and the length of the actual frame, the camera matrix and the distortion coefficients imported previously as well as one cropping parameter are the input parameters. The cropping parameter can have values between 0 and 1 and allows to adjust the size of the cropped frame manually. If this value is set to 0, the whole undistorted FOV of the camera is taken. This can result in black regions at the edges of the pictures, originated in the undistortion of the frame. If the value of pixels at the edges of the original image are shifted to the center in the corrected image by the undistortion function, these edge pixels are assigned with zeros as pixel value in the corrected image, illustrated by black color. If the cropping parameter is set to 1, the frame is cropped maximum, so that no black regions at the edges in the corrected image are left. Some tests with pictures of the chessboard, taken during the calibration, and different values of the cropping parameter are conducted. **As a result of these tests, the cropping parameter is set to 0, but it has to be confirmed when changing the experimental set up.**

Figure 4.1 shows pictures of a chessboard taken from 135 mm distance with camera A2 using illumination F1 and the set up from the stationary tests, as explained in section 3.3.1. On the left side (figure 4.1a) the original image is displayed and on the right side (figure 4.1b) the resulting picture applying the calibration parameters listed in table 3.7 and 3.8.

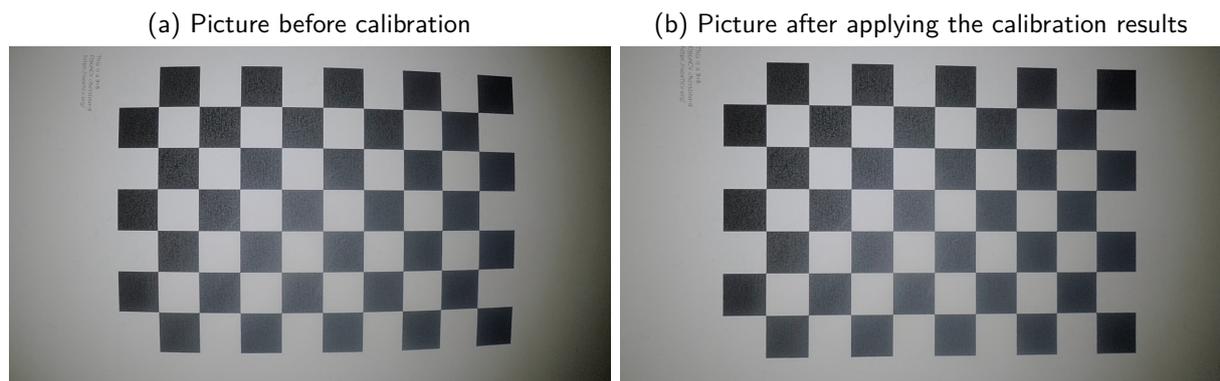


Figure 4.1: Symmetrical 10×7 chessboard, picture taken from 135 mm distance between camera A2 and the chessboard using illumination F1

The original picture (figure 4.1a) shows barrel distortion as the straight lines from the chessboard are visibly curved outwards. After undistorting the picture using the calculated camera parameters, the chessboard’s lines appear straight, as seen in figure 4.1b. Thus, the distance between the corners of the chessboard is nearly constant. Table 4.1 lists the mean horizontal and vertical distances between two points in the grid of the chessboard.

Table 4.1: Mean horizontal and vertical distances between two grid points for the original and the corrected image and their standard deviation, picture taken from 135 mm distance between camera A2 and the chessboard using illumination F1

Frame	Horizontal distance in pixel	Standard deviation in pixel	Vertical distance in pixel	Standard deviation in pixel
Original	127.7567	4.9242	130.2236	2.6053
Corrected	131.4423	3.0725	132.8104	1.6895

As the chessboard is symmetrical, all the distances, vertical and horizontal ones, are equal in the object plane. Therefore, the mean horizontal and vertical distances between two close grid points should be as similar as possible. Table 4.1 shows, that the deviation between the mean horizontal and the mean vertical distance in the original image is greater than in the corrected one. Whereas the mean vertical distance in the original image is approximately 1.9% greater than the horizontal one, it is only 1% wider in the corrected image. Considering the standard deviation of the mean distances, the distances in both directions are more uniformly distributed in the corrected frame than in the original frame. In consequence, the correction of the frames using the calibration parameters and the Python code explained above is considered to be successful.

4.2 Tracer tracking

The general steps of the Python code for tracking the tracers are the following:

1. Segmentation
2. Filter
3. Determination of the center of gravity
4. Tracking algorithm

A schematic diagram of the procedure for detection of the tracers (step 1 - 3) can be found in Appendix A.6. In this section each step is explained in detail. The whole Python code for detecting and tracking the tracers can be found in Appendix A.7. The figures shown in this section to describe the steps of the Python code are all taken with camera A2 using illumination F1 and a distance between the camera, respectively the illumination, and the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) of 135 mm. For better visibility, an area of 50 mm x 50 mm is cut out from the frames.

Segmentation

The first step in the tracer tracking procedure is the segmentation of the white tracers from the particles in the pictures. Figure 4.2 shows a picture of the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) before (figure 4.2a) and after (figure 4.2b) the segmentation procedure. Furthermore, the result after applying the filters, cf. section 4.2, is displayed in figure 4.2c.

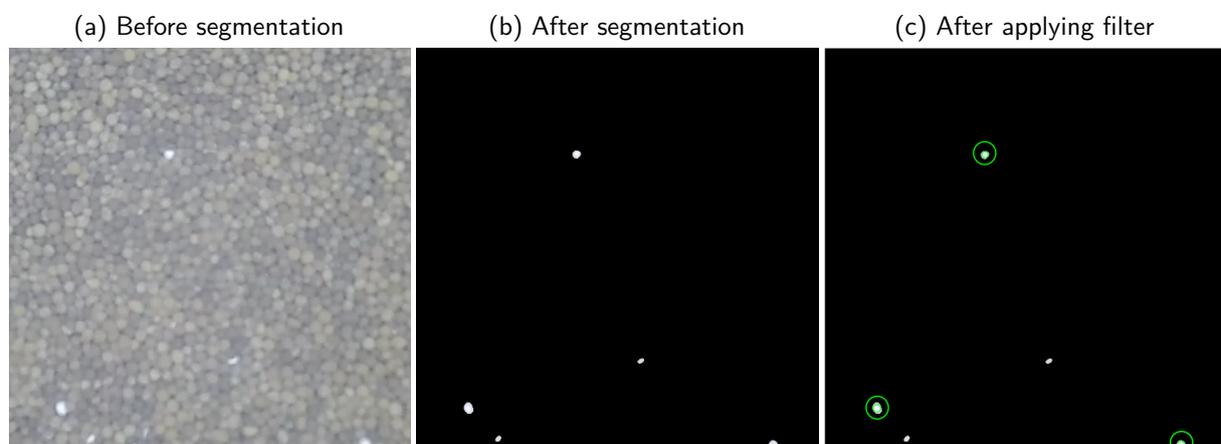


Figure 4.2: First two steps of the tracer tracking (Segmentation and Filter), detected tracers (green circles), picture taken from 135 mm distance between camera A2 and the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) using illumination F1

In order to distinguish the tracers from the SG particles, the pixel values of each frame are converted to HSV values. Furthermore, the HSV pixel values, representing the upper and lower limit for the tracer color, are defined depending on **a sensitivity parameter**. This parameter has to be adjusted to the pixel values of the tracers in the recorded videos with the experimental set up in the receiver. It can have values between 0 (only pure white considered as tracer color) and 100 (no segmentation).

Based on stationary tests, described in chapter 3, the start value of the sensitivity parameter is set to 50, resulting in a good segmentation between the tracers and the rest of the picture, cf. figure 4.2b. In the next step, a mask thresholds the image using function `cv2.inRange()`. In the resulting mask each pixel has either the value 255, if its value in the original image is in between the defined pixel value range, or, in case the pixel value in the original image is not in the defined pixel value range, its assigned value is 0. Afterwards, function `cv2.bitwise_and()` creates a new image by filling the pixel values either with the pixel value of the original image (in case the pixel value of the mask is 255) or with the value 0. To smooth the image, function `cv2.medianBlur()` can be used optionally. The input parameters of this function are the picture to be smoothed and the size of the aperture area (`blursize x blursize`) in which the median filter is used. Figure 4.2b shows the resulting picture of the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) at the end of the segmentation step.

Filter

In the segmentation step, all pixels with a pixel value outside of a specified value range are blanked out and set to 0. All other pixels keep their original pixel value. In the filter step, some characteristics of the tracers, such as area size or circularity, are used to detect possible tracers in the frame. Function `cv2.SimpleBlobDetector_Params()` is used to define the parameters for the tracer detection. The Python code offers the possibility of filtering the detectable tracers in the frame by color, area, circularity, convexity and inertia. Moreover, thresholds and minimum values for the distance between two tracers as well as the repeatability can be selected. **The minimum threshold is set to 200 and the maximum to 255. In the scope of this thesis, filtering by one single color or by convexity is not performed for detecting the tracers.** The following settings are results of iterative tests with the set up explained in section 3.1.4 and proposed as start values for the estimation of the values to track the tracers in the future experimental set up:

- **filterByArea:**
(distance between camera and object: 135 mm)
`params.minArea = 83 (pixel2)`
`params.maxArea = 180 (pixel2)`
- **filterByCircularity:**
`params.minCircularity = 0.7`
- **filterByInertia:**
`params.minInertiaRatio = 0.01`
- `params.minDistBetweenBlobs = 1.0 (pixel)`
- `params.minRepeatability = 2`

The limits for the area filter are calculated with the mean tracer diameter (0.983 mm, cf. section 3.2.1) and the minimum (0.074 mm/pixel, cf. table 3.6) and maximum (0.076 mm/pixel, cf. table 3.6) dimension of a pixel at the distance of 135 mm between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture. The area is determined as a circle with the mean tracer diameter and transformed from metric scale to pixel. The parameter of the minimum area `params.minArea` is set to 60 % of the calculated one and the one of the maximum area `params.maxArea` to 137 % of the calculated maximum area to

minimize errors originating from deviations in the difference between the camera and the particle film. The minimum value of the circularity *params.minCircularity* filter is set to 0.7, as the manufacturer states in the data sheet, that at least 95% of the tracers show a sphericity greater than 0.7 [84]. The inertia ratio (*params.minInertiaRatio*) is the ratio between the distance of the closest point from the center and the furthest one. For a line this value is 0, for a circle it is 1 and for elliptical geometries this value lies between 0 and 1. **The minimum distance between two detected tracers *params.minDistBetweenBlob* is set to 1 pixel. If two detected tracers are located closer than this distance, they are merged.** For each threshold from the minimum threshold to the maximum one, the SimpleBlobDetector finds possible tracers. The repeatability value *params.minRepeatability* is the lower limit of the amount, how often one tracer needs to be found in the different threshold steps to be detected. The higher the repeatability value is chosen, the more stable a detected tracer is across the different thresholds. In figure 4.2c the detected tracers are illustrated with green circles. After the segmentation step bright areas, that do not match the filters, are sorted out and not considered in the detection of the tracers using function **detector.detect()**, in which **detector** is the SimpleBlobDetector created using the parameters defined by the filters explained above.

Determination of the center of gravity

Important information, such as the coordinates of the center of gravity and the diameter of the detected tracers, is stored in the list **keypoints**. For each frame the coordinates (x,y) of each detected tracer are saved to a text file named *ExperimentName_4BE_framenumber.txt* and stored in the *doPTV* folder of the experiment. With the list of the detected tracers, the minimum and maximum diameter of the detected tracers in one frame as well as the mean diameter and its standard deviation are calculated. The results are exported to a text file named *ExperimentName_keydata_framenumber.txt*

Tracking algorithm

The fourth step of the tracer tracking is to connect matching positions of tracers in order to monitor their trajectories. To do so, an algorithm based on the 4BestEstimate algorithm [105] is implemented. In the following, the principle idea of this algorithm is explained and the created Python code is presented in detail.

At first some parameters for the tracking algorithm have to be selected. The most important parameters are the radii of the areas, in which the algorithm searches for possible candidates of sequential tracers. As discussed in section 3.3.2, the sizes of the radii depend on the maximum distance between the positions of one tracer in two consecutive frames and on the distance between camera and object. In consequence, these values have to be adapted to the characteristics of the experimental set up. Possible start values for the radii are listed in the following:

- **Search candidates for F1**
radiusF1 = 30 ()
- **Search candidates for F2**
radiusF2 = 30 (pixel)
- **Search candidates for F3**
radiusF3 = 30 (pixel)

The purpose of the Python code for tracking the tracers is to obtain the positions of the tracers and the length of their trajectories. In order to do so, the detected tracers, represented by the pixel coordinates of their center of gravity, are stored into matrices, from which possible trajectories (tracks) are extractable afterwards. Therefore, a matrix for the x coordinates of the centers of gravity (**trackingx**) and a matrix for the y coordinates of the centers of gravity (**trackingy**) are created. They have the same size (**dots_total_2 x i**), which is defined by the total number of detected dots (**dots_total_2**) in all frames of the recorded video (**i**). After defining the parameters and creating the storage matrices, the main loop, which repeats the procedure explained in the following for each frame of the recorded video, is executed. The algorithm needs at least four frames, which are referred to the numbers 0, 1, 2 and 3, to detect trajectories. For each step in the loop, the actual frame is represented by number 0 and the following frames accordingly by 1, 2 and 3. The code can be divided into nine steps repeated in the main loop:

1. Import positions of detected tracers in frames F0-F3
2. Find matching tracers in the first two frames (**couplesF0F1**)
3. Calculate velocities **v1_x** and **v1_y**
4. Estimate tracers' positions in third frame (**center2_g**)
5. Find possible trajectories in the first three frames (**couplesF0F1F2c**)
6. Estimate tracers' positions in fourth frame (**center3_g**) and find matching tracers in the first four frames (**couplesF0F1F2cF3c**)
7. Find positions of tracers in third frame, which are part of a trajectory (**foundF1F2**)
8. Find positions of tracers in the third frame, which are not part of a trajectory (**center2_not**)
9. Append positions of tracers in the third frame (found in step 7 and 8) to **trackingx** and **trackingy**

In the first step, the Python code reads the detected tracers in the actual frame (step 1.1) and in the three subsequent frames (step 1.2-step 1.4) by opening the text files, which are created in the determination of the center of gravity step (cf. section 4.2) and stored in the *doPTV* folder of the experiment. In each of the four frames used in the actual loop step, the coordinates of the centers of gravity of the detected tracers are imported and stored in lists (e.g. **x_0**, **y_0**, **center0**). Additionally, if the actual frame is the first frame, the coordinates of the detected tracers are saved into the first column of the storage matrices **trackingx** and **trackingy**.

The second step of the Python code for tracking the tracers is to search for matching sequential positions of the centers of gravity in frame 0 (actual) and in frame 1. Found couples are saved into the list **couplesF0F1**. Figure 4.3 schematically shows the second step of the tracking algorithm.

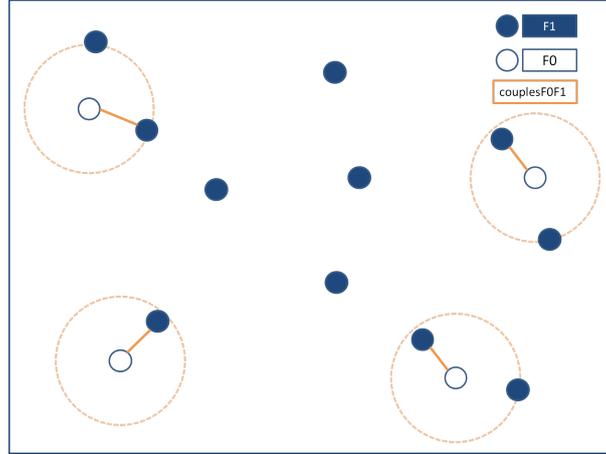


Figure 4.3: Schematic diagram of the tracer tacking algorithm

Step 2: Find matching tracers in the first two frames (**couplesF0F1**)

The empty circles represent the center of detected tracers in frame 0 and the filled dark blue circles illustrate the detected tracers in frame 1. The dotted orange circles depict the search volume with radius **radiusF1** surrounding the detected tracers in frame 0. For each detected tracer in frame 0, all detected tracers in frame 1, whose position lies within the circular search volume, are considered to be possible candidates for creating a trajectory. With the Nearest Neighbor approach, the tracer in frame 1, which yields the minimum distance to the position of the tracer in frame 0, is selected as the best matching option [105]. In figure 4.3 the resulting couples (**couplesF0F1**) are illustrated with an orange line. In case that the actual frame is the first one, the detected tracers in the second frame (F1) are saved to the storage matrices **trackingx** and **trackingy**. Thereby, **couplesF0F1** is used to find the index of the adequate row in the storage matrices, to add the tracers' positions in F1 to the storage matrices corresponding to the positions of the matching tracers in F0. Additionally, for F0 being the first frame of the video, all tracers detected in the second frame, which are not assigned to a suitable tracer in the first frame (**center1_not**), are appended to the storage matrices **trackingx** and **trackingy** in rows below the previously saved tracers.

In the third step of the tracer tracking algorithm, the velocities in both directions (**v_x,1** and **v_y,1**) are calculated with equation 4.1, within which $u_{i,n}$ represents the x or y value of the detected tracer in frame F_n and Δt is the time step between two consecutive frames F_n and F_{n-1} .

$$v_{i,n} = \frac{u_{i,n} - u_{i,n-1}}{\Delta t} \quad (4.1)$$

In the fourth step of the tracer tracking algorithm, the calculated velocities $v_{i,n}$ are used to determine the estimated position of the tracers in the third frame (F2) $u_{i,n+1}$ for each couple in **couplesF0F1**, based on the position of the tracers detected in frame F1 $u_{i,n}$. The pixel coordinates of these estimated positions are calculated with equation 4.2 [105] and saved in the list **center2_g**.

$$u_{i,n+1} = u_{i,n} + v_{i,n} \Delta t \quad (4.2)$$

Consequently, in the fifth step, candidates of detected tracers in frame F2, which are located within a circular search volume with the radius **radiusF2** surrounding the estimated positions in frame F2

(**center2_g**), are found and saved in the list **cand_2**. Figure 4.4 schematically shows the fifth step of the tracer tracking procedure.

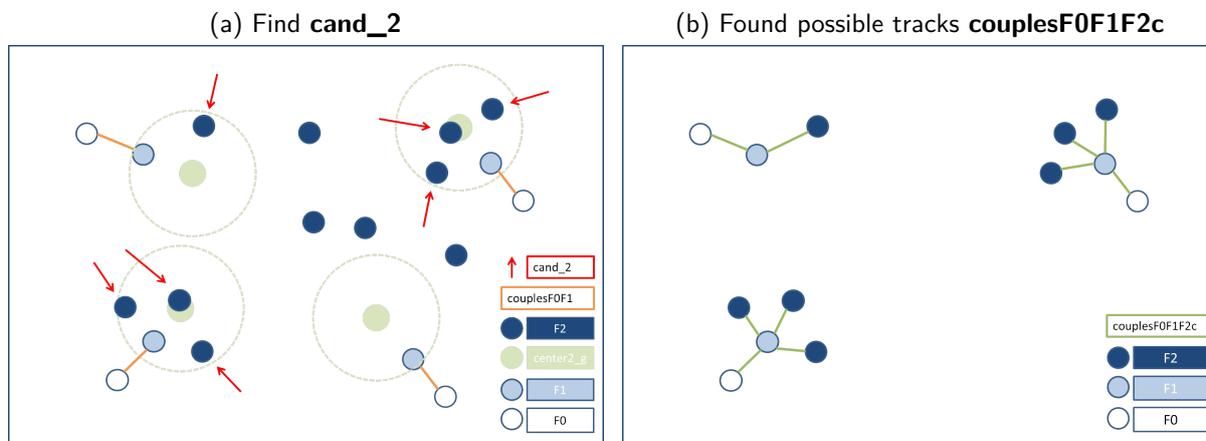


Figure 4.4: Schematic diagram of the tracer tracking algorithm

Step 5: Find possible trajectories in the first three frames (**couplesF0F1F2c**)

Analogue to figure 4.3 the orange connections in figure 4.4a illustrate **couplesF0F1** found in previous steps. The green dots represent the estimated positions of the tracers in F2 for each couple of F0 and F1 in **couplesF0F1**. The surrounding search volume is marked with a green dotted circle. All tracers detected in F2 are represented by filled dark blue circles. The ones located inside the search volume are the candidates, stored in the list **cand_2** and marked with a red arrow in figure 4.4a. To find matching triplets, stored in the list **couplesF0F1F2c**, the algorithm distinguishes between two different cases, which are shown in figure 4.4a. If there are no candidates for tracers in F2 (cf. bottom right corner in figure 4.4a), the track is ended. If there are candidates (cf. upper left, upper right and bottom left corner in figure 4.4a), the position of these tracers is added to the list **couplesF1F2F2c**, containing the coordinates of the tracers in F1 (**center1**), the matching estimated positions in F2 (**center2_g**) and the possible candidates in F2 (**cand_2**).

After the determination of the possible matching tracers detected in F2, the list **couplesF1F2F2c** is converted to the list **couplesF0F1F2c** by adding the matching tracers detected in F0 and removing the estimated position of the tracers in frame F2. The resulting list contains three sequential points of each possible track (F0, F1 and F2c). In figure 4.4b the resulting **couplesF0F1F2c** are illustrated with green connection lines.

To decide, if the triplets stored in **couplesF0F1F2c** are considered as tracks, the positions of the tracers detected in the fourth frame (F3) are examined in the sixth step, as shown schematically in figure 4.5.

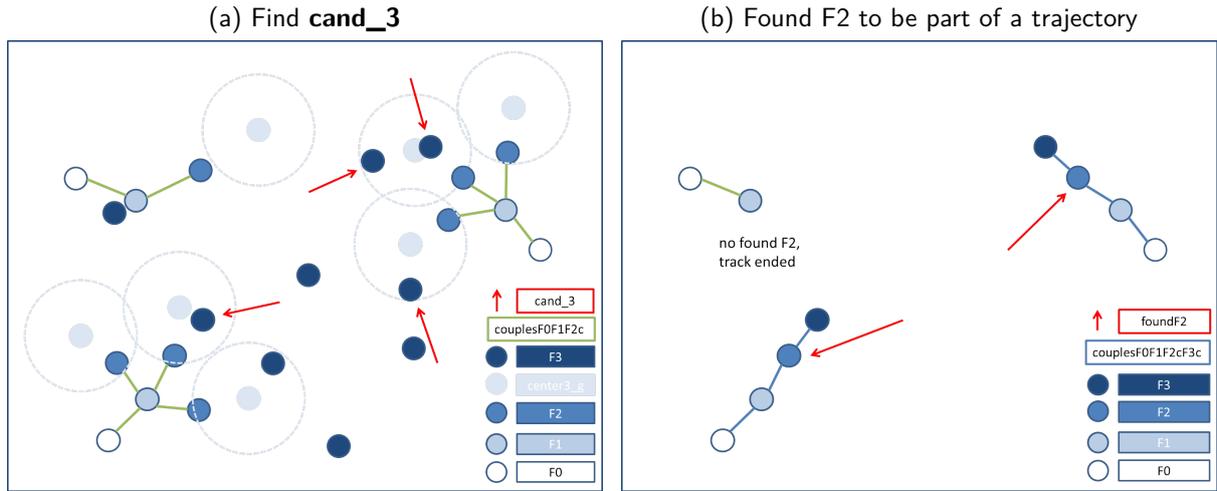


Figure 4.5: Schematic diagram of the tracer tacking algorithm

Step 6: Estimate tracers' positions in fourth frame (**center3_g**) and find matching tracers in the first four frames (**couplesF0F1F2cF3c**)

With the positions of the tracers in each triplet (**couplesF0F1F2c**), the velocities $v_{i,n}$ (equation 4.1) and the acceleration $a_{i,n}$ (equation 4.3) are calculated and consequently, the associated positions of tracers in frame F3 (**center3_g**) $u_{i,n+2}$ are estimated with equation 4.4 [105].

$$a_{i,n} = \frac{v_{i,n} - v_{i,n-1}}{\Delta t} \quad (4.3)$$

$$u_{i,n+2} = u_{i,n} + v_{i,n}(2\Delta t) + a_{i,n}(2\Delta t)^2 \quad (4.4)$$

Within equations 4.3 and 4.4 $u_{i,n}$ represents the x or y value of the detected tracer in frame F_n and Δt the time step between two consecutive frames.

In figure 4.5 these estimated points are represented by light blue dots. The tracers detected in frame F3 are illustrated with filled dark blue circles. Those tracers, which are located within the circular search volume with radius **radiusF3** surrounding the estimated point (**center3_g**), as illustrated with a light blue dotted circle, are considered to be potential candidates for the previous found **couplesF0F1F2c**. These candidates are stored in the list **cand_3** and, in figure 4.5a, marked with red arrows.

To find the tracers in F3, which are possible extensions of already existing tracks, stored in list **couplesF0F1F2cF3c**, the algorithm distinguishes between three different cases, as shown in figure 4.5a. If there are no candidates for tracers in F3 (cf. upper left corner in figure 4.5a), no matching tracer can be found in F3. Consequently, according to the 4 Best Estimate approach, no tracer detected in F2 is appended to the track and track is ended. If there are candidates in F3 (cf. upper right and bottom left corner in figure 4.5a), their positions are added to the list with candidates of tracers detected in frame F3 **cand_3**. If this list contains only one argument, the coordinates of the tracers' positions in F1 and F2 in this possible track together with the distance between the estimated tracer position in frame F3 (**center3_g**) and the candidate found in frame F3 (**cand_3**) are saved into the list **foundcouplesF1F2c**. If the list **cand_3** consists of more than one argument,

the candidate with the smallest distance between the estimated tracer position in frame F3 and the position of the candidate in F3 is selected. For this candidate, the positions of the matching tracers in frame F1 and F2 together with the minimum distance are appended to list **foundcouplesF1F2c**. In the 4BestEstimate algorithm, the tracer detected in frame F2 resulting in the minimum distance between the estimated position in frame F3 and the position of one tracer found in F3, is selected as the most suitable option [105]. Therefore, in the seventh step the algorithm searches for the track, consisting of the tracers' position in F1 and the one in F2, selected to be the best match and saves this couple to the list **foundF1F2**.

Afterwards, all tracers detected in frame F2 with no matching tracer in frame F1, are saved to the list **center2_not** in the eighth step of the tracer tracking algorithm.

In the last step of the algorithm, the coordinates of the tracers detected in frame F2 and found to be part of one track, are saved to the storage matrices **trackingx** and **trackingy**. Thereby, list **foundF1F2** is used to append the coordinates of the tracers found in frame F2 to the adequate row in the storage matrices, according to the matching tracers found in frame F1. Additionally, all tracers detected in frame F2, which are not considered to be part of an already existing track (**center2_not**), are saved in the storage matrices **trackingx** and **trackingy** in rows below the already found tracks. Finally, the frame number is increased by one and the steps of the main loop are repeated.

After closing the main loop, the storage matrices **trackingx** and **trackingy** are reduced to the maximum necessary size, saved to text files (*ExperimentName_trackingx_final.txt* and *ExperimentName_trackingy_final.txt*) and stored in the *Tracking* folder of the experiment. Additionally, every track is exported (*ExperimentName_trackingx_tracknumber.txt*) and saved in the *Tracking/Tracks* folder of the experiment.

4.3 Film thickness

The film thickness is determined experimentally by image processing of videos recorded with a GoPro camera. A white pin, similar to the one shown in figure 4.6, with black marked lines is used as scale. The width of the white and black lines is 1 mm. For a good recognition the lines on the pin should be painted with non reflecting black color.



Figure 4.6: Pin used as scale in the determination of the film thickness

The pin will be mounted onto an item structure inside the receiver in a way, that the small end is pressed against the receiver wall. **Before carrying out first experiments with this set up, a calibration measurement has to be conducted.** Therefore, the distance between the receiver wall and the first line of the pin has to be measured. This value is an important parameter used in the evaluation of the calibration for the film thickness determination. The Python code for the calibration can be found in Appendix A.8.1.

After reading the frames of the video, the calibration parameters of the camera are used to undistort the picture, cf. section 4.1. In the segmentation step, the pin is detected and the rest is blended out, as shown in figure 4.7a. The procedure is analogue to the segmentation step in the tracer tracking algorithm (cf. section 4.2). Additionally, function `cv2.Canny()` is used to detect the edges of the pin and the scale. The result of this function is shown in figure 4.7b.

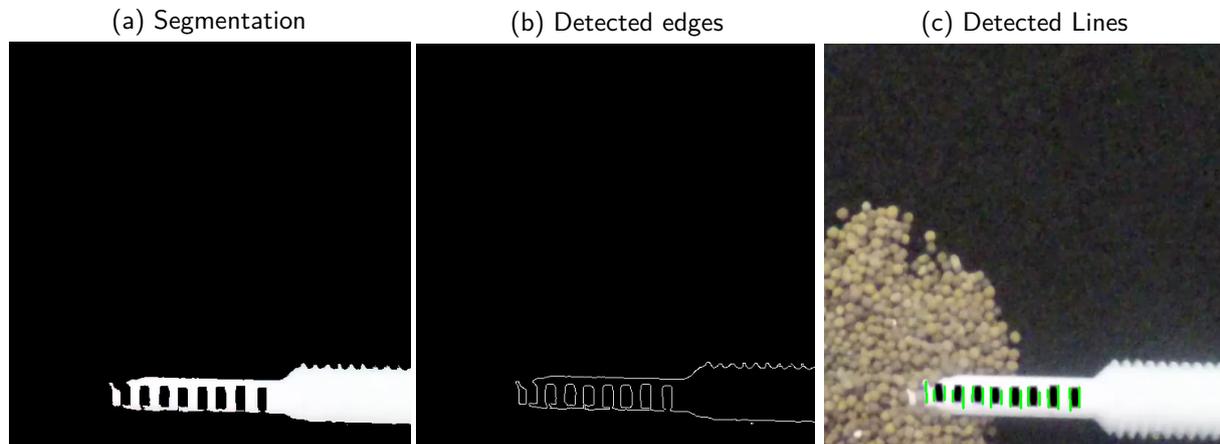


Figure 4.7: Results of the steps in the calibration for the determination of the film thickness

Within the edges found before, function `cv2.HoughLines()` searches for lines that meet specified criteria. Depending on the experimental set up (e.g. distance between camera/illumination and the particle film, inclination of the camera and the illumination, size of the cut out region and color of the lines on the pin), the values for the two parameters `minLineLength` and `maxLineGap` have to be set. `minLineLength` is the minimum length of lines, which means, that detected lines shorter than this value are sorted out. `maxLineGap` represents the maximum distance between two line segments to treat them as segments of the same line. If the gap between two line segments, each fulfilling the other restrictions, is wider than this value, the segments are considered to be two different lines. To prevent the detection of horizontal lines, `minangle` is the minimum angle between a line and the horizontal plane. If this angle is smaller, resulting in a line inclined to the horizontal, the detected line is excluded. As a result of pre-tests, the following values are found and proposed as start values while adjusting the parameters explained before for experiments in the receiver.

- `minLineLength` = 4 (pixel)
- `maxLineGap` = 5 (pixel)
- `minangle` = 85 (degree)

As the detected lines are nearly vertical, the mean value of the x coordinates of the the two final points of each detected line is calculated. If the algorithm detects two lines, whose mean x values are closer than 5 pixels to each other, they are considered to be representing one line in the scale on the pin. Therefore, the mean of the two mean x values is calculated. In the next step, the selected lines, represented by their mean x value, are sorted by value and correlated with the film thickness, represented by the scale on the pin. At this point, the measured distance between the receiver

wall and the scale on the pin is used to associate the pixel coordinates with real coordinates of the experimental set up. With a linear fit, the film thickness can be estimated from the x value of one point in the picture. Therefore, the slope and the intercept of the linear fit from the calibration are exported to a text file (*CalibrationFT.txt*). This text file can afterwards be used in the determination of the film thickness in experiments with a particle film. In figure 4.8 the green lines illustrate different film thicknesses. The lines are calculated using the linear parameters and equation 4.5.

$$FT = slope \cdot x_{\max\text{dot}} + intercept \quad (4.5)$$

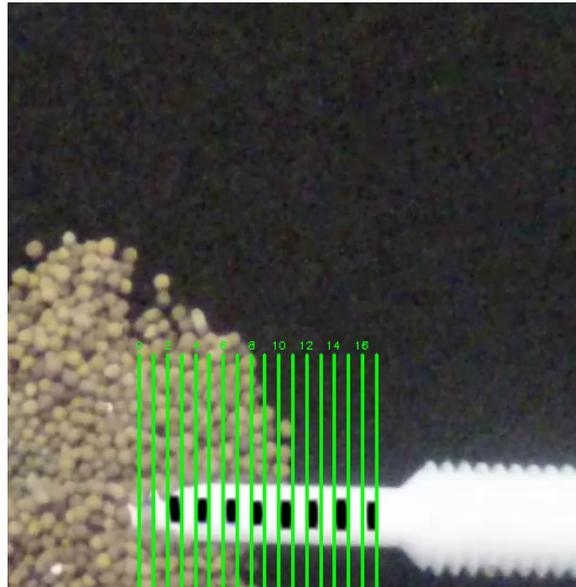


Figure 4.8: Determination of the film thickness, scale resulting from the calibration

The Python code for the determination of the film thickness consists of the following steps, which are repeated in a main loop for every frame of the analyzed video:

1. Undistortion of the frame
2. Detection of particles with the SimpleBlobDetector
3. Determination of the centers of gravity
4. Find coordinates of the most upper particle of the particle film
5. Calculation of the film thickness using the linear fit parameters of the calibration

The related Python code can be found in Appendix A.8.2. The first steps of the algorithm are the same ones as in the tracer tracking algorithm: Correction of the data (cf. section 4.1), detection of the particles (cf. section 4.2) and determination of the centers of gravity (cf. section 4.2). A detailed description of these steps can be found in the referred sections. Only the parameters in the SimpleBlobDetector, described in section 4.2, are adjusted, in order to not only detect the white tracers, but rather all particles in the particle tracer mixture. **These parameters have to be checked with videos recorded in future experiments and adjusted accordingly.** As a result of pre-tests, the following values are proposed as start values:

- **Thresholds:**
params.thresholdStep = 5
params.minThreshold = 60
params.maxThreshold = 255
- **filterByArea:**
(distance between camera and object: 135 mm)
params.minArea = 40 (pixel²)
params.minArea = 175 (pixel²)
- **filterByCircularity:**
params.minCircularity = 0.7
- **filterByInertia:**
params.minInertiaRatio = 0.01
params.maxInertiaRatio = 1
- params.minDistBetweenBlobs = 1.0 (pixel)
- params.minRepeatability = 2

After detecting all particles, the one with the greatest x value, representing the uppermost particle on the particle film surface, is selected, as shown in figure 4.9b.

(a) Picture before detection of the particles



(b) Detected particles, the center of gravity of the highest detected center (red line) and highest point of the particle film (blue line)

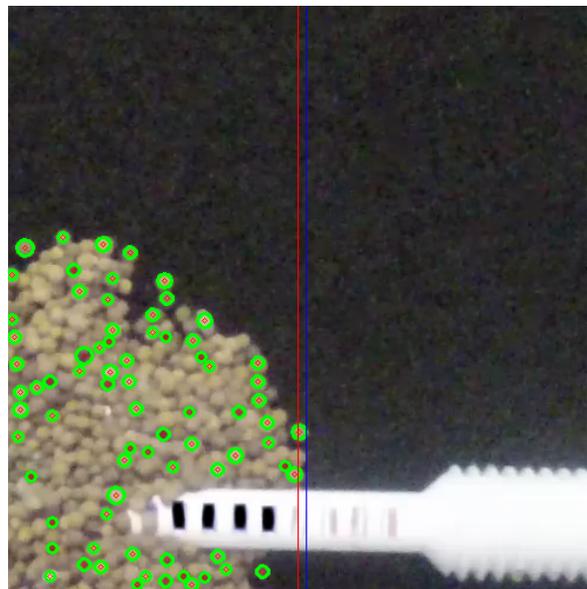


Figure 4.9: Determination of the film thickness; comparison before (a) and after detection of the particles (b)

With the results of the calibration the particle film thickness is calculated from the x value of the highest particle, using equation 4.5. The conversion between the x value of the highest particle and

the corresponding film thickness is done by linear regression of the calibration results, as explained before. Thus, the accuracy can be improved by detecting the scale of the pin in every frame. To do so, the black lines of the pin have to be painted very accurately and in such a way, that the lines are detected correctly in every frame. Furthermore, pre-tests have to be conducted to check the detection of the lines and to adjust the detection parameters of the lines (cf. section 4.3) and the particles (cf. section 4.3) accordingly.

5 Conclusion and Outlook

The aim of this thesis was to develop and optimize an optical system and an associated image processing code to investigate the particle motion in a solar particle receiver. Additionally, an image processing code to evaluate the particle film thickness had to be created and camera calibration had to be conducted.

In preparation, it was necessary to geometrically characterize the SG particles and the tracers, which will be used in future experiments in the prototype receiver at DLR Stuttgart, by sieving analysis. Additionally, the static angle of repose of pure SG particles, pure tracers as well as a SG particle tracer mixture was determined experimentally. These properties are important parameters in the numerical modelling of the particle motion in the receiver and they confirm the assumption, that the tracers do not significantly influence the flow properties of the particle mixture. Thus, the particle motion in the receiver can be investigated by tracking the tracers. Furthermore, an optical system for the investigation of the particle motion in the solar particle receiver, that is compatible to the existing experimental set up of the receiver prototype, was designed and optimized. Stationary experiments were conducted in order to select the best illumination and the optimum distance between the camera and the particle film, flowing down the receiver wall. Five different illumination options with different characteristics, such as shape and color of light, are compared. As selection parameters of the illumination the homogeneity, the brightness and the ability of tracer recognition as well as the set up complexity and the costs were chosen and the illuminations were ranked accordingly. To find the optimum distance between the camera and the receiver wall, pictures taken with the selected illuminations and the cameras from different distances were evaluated. Subsequently, an image processing code for tracer tracking was developed in Python within the scope of this thesis. This code detects the tracers in each frame of the video and it includes an algorithm, based on the 4 Best Estimate algorithm, which finds matching tracers in sequential frames and assembles their positions in order to find the tracers' trajectories. To evaluate the particle film thickness during the experiments and thus, be able to correlate the characteristics of the particle motion to the thickness of the particle film, an image processing code for the determination of the film thickness was developed in Python. Additionally, the optical system for evaluating the film thickness was designed in agreement with the existing experimental set up, and it was optimized regarding the illumination and the camera set up. To improve the results of the image processing codes for tracer tracking and determination of the film thickness, camera calibration was accomplished for both cameras, which will be used in future experiments in the receiver prototype. For this purpose, effects resulting from the nature of the cameras' lenses, such as distortion, were investigated. Moreover, an image processing code in Python was developed to determine the camera parameters (intrinsic, extrinsic and distortion coefficients) and generate corrected data, which subsequently will be used in the image processing codes for evaluation of the particle motion and the film thickness.

In future experiments with the receiver prototype, parameters of the image processing codes for tracer tracking and determination of the film thickness have to be adjusted accordingly, in order to achieve sufficiently good recognition of the tracers, respectively the particles and lines. These parameters are explained in chapter 4 and additionally, start values are given, which were experimentally obtained in the scope of this thesis. In order to be able to determine the film thickness, a calibration of the pin scale has to be conducted in the experimental set up inside the receiver prototype. Moreover, the results of the experiments with the receiver prototype can be used to calculate the proposed validation parameters and can be compared to simulation results in order to see, if these parameters are suitable for the validation of the numerical model. Furthermore, the length of the trajectories, found with the tracking algorithm, could be extended by considering the velocity of the tracers to be constant, if no matching tracer is found in the consecutive frame. The subsequent search with this constant velocity in the frame after next could give the possibility to obtain longer trajectories, even if the tracer is not visible in all of the frames. Otherwise, the found and exported trajectories can be searched for matching extensions to generate longer trajectories with tracers sinking and emerging through the particle film surface.

Bibliography

- [1] IEA. World energy outlook 2019 executive summary. Technical report, International Energy Agency, IEA, Paris, 2019. [Online]. [Accessed 22.06.20]. Available from: <https://www.iea.org/reports/world-energy-outlook-2019>.
- [2] IRENA. Global energy transformation: A roadmap to 2050 (2019 edition). Technical report, International Renewable Energy Agency, Abu Dhabi, 2019. ISBN 978-92-9260-121-8.
- [3] IRENA. Global renewables outlook: Energy transformation 2050. Technical report, International Renewable Energy Agency, Abu Dhabi, 2020. ISBN 978-92-9260-238-3.
- [4] MIT. The future of solar energy an interdisciplinary MIT study. Technical report, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 2015. ISBN 978-0-928008-9-8.
- [5] IRENA. Renewable power generation costs in 2018. Technical report, International Renewable Energy Agency, Abu Dhabi, 2019. ISBN 978-92-9260-126-3.
- [6] Mayorkinos Papaefthymiou, Fausto Pedro García Márquez, and Isaac Segovia Ramirez. *Concentrated Solar Power: Present and Future*, pages 51–61. Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2018.
- [7] IEA. Solar energy: Mapping the road ahead. Technical report, International Energy Agency, IEA, Paris, 2019. [Online]. [Accessed 22.06.20]. Available from: <https://www.iea.org/reports/solar-energy-mapping-the-road-ahead>.
- [8] IRENA. Global energy transformation: A roadmap to 2050 (2018 edition). Technical report, International Renewable Energy Agency, Abu Dhabi, 2018. ISBN 978-92-9260-059-4.
- [9] J. Forrester. The value of csp with thermal energy storage in providing grid stability. *Energy Procedia*, 49:1632 – 1641, 2014. Proceedings of the SolarPACES 2013 International Conference.
- [10] Martin Kaltschmitt, Marina Stegelmeier, and Wolfgang Streicher. *Solarthermische Wärmenutzung*, pages 181–262. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2013.
- [11] Martin Kaltschmitt, Kornelia Lippitsch, Jörg Müller, Stefan Reichert, Detlef Schulz, and Simon Schwunk. *Photovoltaische Stromerzeugung*, pages 353–452. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2013.
- [12] Martin Kaltschmitt, Gerhard Weinrebe, and Christina Wulf. *Solarthermische Stromerzeugung*, pages 263–351. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2013.
- [13] Pere Mir-Artigues, Pablo del Río, and Natàlia Caldés. *Short History, Recent Facts, and the Prospects of Concentrating Solar Power Generation*, pages 23–84. Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2019.

- [14] Peter Viebahn, Stefan Kronshage, Franz Trieb, and Yolanda Lechon. Final report on technical data, costs, and life cycle inventories of solar thermal power plants. Technical report, 2008. [Online]. [Accessed 15.01.20]. Available from: <https://www.solarthermalworld.org/>.
- [15] Robert Stieglitz and Volker Heinzl. *Solarthermische Hochtemperatursysteme*, pages 487–594. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2012.
- [16] Keith Lovegrove and Mike Dennis. Solar thermal energy systems in australia. *International Journal of Environmental Studies*, 63(6):791–802, 2006.
- [17] Patricia Palenzuela, Diego-César Alarcón-Padilla, and Guillermo Zaragoza. *Combined Fresh Water and Power Production: State of the Art*, pages 27–60. Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2015.
- [18] Fulya Verdier. Mena regional water outlook, part ii, desalination using renewable energy. Final report, Fichtner and DLR, 2011. [Online]. [Accessed 22.06.20]. Available from: https://www.dlr.de/tt/Portaldata/41/Resources/dokumente/institut/system/projects/MENA_REGIONAL_WATER_OUTLOOK.pdf.
- [19] Franz Trieb. Concentrating solar power for seawater desalination. Executive summary, German Aerospace Center (DLR) Institute of Technical Thermodynamics Section Systems Analysis and Technology Assessment, 2007. [Online]. [Accessed 22.06.20]. Available from: https://www.dlr.de/tt/Portaldata/41/Resources/dokumente/institut/system/publications/Trieb_AQUA-CSP-Full-Report-Final.pdf.
- [20] W. Wu, L. Amsbeck, R. Buck, R. Uhlig, and R. Ritz-Paal. Proof of concept test of a centrifugal particle receiver. *Energy Procedia*, 49:560 – 568, 2014.
- [21] Clifford K. Ho and Brian D. Iverson. Review of high-temperature central receiver designs for concentrating solar power. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 29:835–846, 2014.
- [22] Lifeng Li, Joe Coventry, Roman Bader, John Pye, and Wojciech Lipiński. Optics of solar central receiver systems: a review. *Optics Express*, 24(14):A985–A1007, 2016.
- [23] Sotirios Karellas and Tryfon C. Roumpedakis. Chapter 7 - solar thermal power plants. In Francesco Calise, Massimo Dentice D’Accadia, Massimo Santarelli, Andrea Lanzini, and Domenico Ferrero, editors, *Solar Hydrogen Production*, pages 179 – 235. Academic Press, 2019.
- [24] Spiros Alexopoulos and Bernhard Hoffschmidt. *Concentrating Receiver Systems (Solar Power Tower)*, pages 29–71. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY, 2013.
- [25] Antonio L. Ávila Marín. Volumetric receivers in solar thermal power plants with central receiver system technology: A review. *Solar Energy*, 85(5):891 – 910, 2011.
- [26] Csaba Singer. *Stand des Wissens*, pages 5–22. Springer Fachmedien, Wiesbaden, 2013.
- [27] Apurv Kumar, Wojciech Lipiński, and Jin-Soo Kim. Numerical modelling of radiation absorption in a novel multi-stage free-falling particle receiver. *International Journal of Heat and Mass Transfer*, 146:118821, 2020.

- [28] Thomas Wetzel, Julio Pacio, Luca Marocco, A. Weisenburger, A. Heinzl, Wolfgang Hering, Carsten Schroer, Georg Müller, Jürgen Konys, Robert Stieglitz, Joachim Fuchs, Joachim Knebel, C. Fazio, M. Daubner, and Frank Fellmoser. Liquid metal technology for concentrated solar power systems: Contribution by the German research program. *AIMS Energy*, 2:89–98, 2014.
- [29] Annette Heinzl, Wolfgang Hering, Jürgen Konys, Luca Marocco, Karsten Litfin, Georg Müller, Julio Pacio, Carsten Schroer, Robert Stieglitz, Leonid Stoppel, Alfons Weisenburger, and Thomas Wetzel. Liquid metals as efficient high-temperature heat-transport fluids. *Energy Technology*, 5(7):1026–1036, 2017.
- [30] J Martin and Vitko J Jr. Ascuas: a solar central receiver utilizing a solid thermal carrier. Technical report, Sandia National Labs., Livermore, CA (USA), 1982. [Online]. [Accessed 21.06.20]. Available from: <https://www.osti.gov/biblio/5663779/>.
- [31] J M Hruby. Technical feasibility study of a solid particle solar central receiver for high temperature applications. Technical report, Sandia National Labs., Livermore, CA (USA), 1986. [Online]. [Accessed 21.06.20]. Available from: <https://www.osti.gov/biblio/5905477-technical-feasibility-study-solid-particle-solar-central-receiver-high-temperature-applications>.
- [32] C. Ho, J. Christian, D. Gill, A. Moya, S. Jeter, S. Abdel-Khalik, D. Sadowski, N. Siegel, H. Al-Ansary, L. Amsbeck, B. Gobereit, and R. Buck. Technology advancements for next generation falling particle receivers. *Energy Procedia*, 49:398 – 407, 2014. Proceedings of the SolarPACES 2013 International Conference.
- [33] Jinping Wang, Jun Wang, P. Lund, and Hongxia Zhu. Thermal performance analysis of a direct-heated recompression supercritical carbon dioxide brayton cycle using solar concentrators. *Energies*, 12:4358, 2019.
- [34] Luca Massidda and Alberto Varone. A numerical analysis of a high temperature solar collecting tube, using helium as an heat transfer fluid. Technical report, CRS4 Centro di Ricerca, Sviluppo e Studi Superiori in Sardegna, 06 2007.
- [35] K. Vignarooban, Xinhai Xu, A. Arvay, K. Hsu, and A.M. Kannan. Heat transfer fluids for concentrating solar power systems – a review. *Applied Energy*, 146:383 – 396, 2015.
- [36] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). *La Dehesa*. [Online]. [Accessed: 23.06.20]. Available from: <https://solarpaces.nrel.gov/la-dehesa>, 2011.
- [37] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). *Solacor 2*. [Online]. [Accessed: 23.06.20]. Available from: <https://solarpaces.nrel.gov/solacor-2>, 2012.
- [38] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). *Planta Solar 20 (PS20)*. [Online]. [Accessed: 23.06.20]. Available from: <https://solarpaces.nrel.gov/planta-solar-20>, 2009.
- [39] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). *Ivanpah Solar Electric Generating System*. [Online]. [Accessed: 23.06.20]. Available from: <https://solarpaces.nrel.gov/ivanpah-solar-electric-generating-system>, 2014.

- [40] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). *Solar Tower Juelich*. [Online]. [Accessed: 23.06.20]. Available from: <https://solarpaces.nrel.gov/julich-solar-tower>, 2008.
- [41] Ming Liu, Martin Belusko, N.H. Steven Tay, and Frank Bruno. Impact of the heat transfer fluid in a flat plate phase change thermal storage unit for concentrated solar tower plants. *Solar Energy*, 101:220 – 231, 2014.
- [42] J. Pacio and Th. Wetzel. Assessment of liquid metal technology status and research paths for their use as efficient heat transfer fluids in solar central receiver systems. *Solar Energy*, 93:11 – 22, 2013.
- [43] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). *Crescent Dunes Solar Energy Project*. [Online]. [Accessed: 23.06.20]. Available from: <https://solarpaces.nrel.gov/crescent-dunes-solar-energy-project>, 2015.
- [44] Clifford K. Ho. A review of high-temperature particle receivers for concentrating solar power. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 109:958 – 969, 2016. Special Issue: Solar Energy Research Institute for India and the United States (SERIUS) – Concentrated Solar Power.
- [45] M.J. Bignon. The influence of the heat transfer fluid on the receiver design. *Electric Power Systems Research*, 3(1-2):99–109, 1980.
- [46] Anish Modi and Fredrik Haglind. Performance analysis of a kalina cycle for a central receiver solar thermal power plant with direct steam generation. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 65(1):201 – 208, 2014.
- [47] Csaba Singer, Reiner Buck, Robert Pitz-Paal, and Hans Müller-Steinhagen. Assessment of Solar Power Tower Driven Ultrasupercritical Steam Cycles Applying Tubular Central Receivers With Varied Heat Transfer Media. *Journal of Solar Energy Engineering*, 132(4), 10 2010.
- [48] Qiang Peng, Jing Ding, Xiaolan Wei, Jianping Yang, and Xiaoxi Yang. The preparation and properties of multi-component molten salts. *Applied Energy*, 87(9):2812 – 2817, 2010. Special Issue of the IGEC-IV, the 4th International Green Energy Conference (IGEC-IV), Beijing, China, October 20–22, 2008 Special Issue of the First International Conference on Applied Energy, ICAE'09, Hong Kong, January 5–7, 2009.
- [49] Rene I. Olivares. The thermal stability of molten nitrite/nitrates salt for solar thermal energy storage in different atmospheres. *Solar Energy*, 86(9):2576–2583, 2012.
- [50] Gregory J. Kolb, Richard B. Diver, and Nathan Siegel. Central-Station Solar Hydrogen Power Plant. *Journal of Solar Energy Engineering*, 129(2):179–183, 04 2006.
- [51] J. Flesch, A. Fritsch, G. Cammi, L. Marocco, F. Fellmoser, J. Pacio, and Th. Wetzel. Construction of a test facility for demonstration of a liquid lead-bismuth-cooled 10kw thermal receiver in a solar furnace arrangement - sommer. *Energy Procedia*, 69:1259 – 1268, 2015. International Conference on Concentrating Solar Power and Chemical Energy Systems, SolarPACES 2014.
- [52] Alejandro Calderón, Camila Barreneche, Anabel Palacios Trujillo, Mercè Segarra, Cristina Prieto, Alfonso Rodríguez-Sánchez, and Ana Fernández. Review of solid particle materials for heat

- transfer fluid and thermal energy storage in solar thermal power plants. *Energy Storage*, page e63, 05 2019.
- [53] Nathan P. Siegel, Michael D. Gross, and Robert Coury. The Development of Direct Absorption and Storage Media for Falling Particle Solar Central Receivers. *Journal of Solar Energy Engineering*, 137(4), 08 2015.
- [54] J. W. Griffin, K. A. Stahl, and R. B. Pettit. Optical properties of solid particle receiver materials: I. angular scattering and extinction characteristics of norton masterbeads®. *Solar Energy Materials*, 14(3):395–416, 1986.
- [55] Birgit Gobereit, Lars Amsbeck, Reiner Buck, Robert Pitz-Paal, Marc Röger, and Hans Müller-Steinhagen. Assessment of a falling solid particle receiver with numerical simulation. *Solar Energy*, 115:505–517, 2015.
- [56] Kaijun Jiang, Xiaoze Du, Yanqiang Kong, Chao Xu, and Xing Ju. A comprehensive review on solid particle receivers of concentrated solar power. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 116:109463, 2019.
- [57] Lars Amsbeck, Reiner Buck, Birgit Gobereit, Marc Röger, and Wei Wu. Patent DE10 2010 062 367.9: Solarstrahlungsempfängervorrichtung und Verfahren zur solaren Erhitzung von Wärmeträgermedium, 2010.
- [58] Wei Wu. *A Centrifugal Particle Receiver for High-Temperature Solar Applications*. Ph.d. thesis, RWTH Aachen University, 01 2014.
- [59] W. Wu, R. Uhlig, R. Buck, and R. Pitz-Paal. Numerical simulation of a centrifugal particle receiver for high-temperature concentrating solar applications. *Numerical Heat Transfer, Part A: Applications*, 68(2):133–149, 2015.
- [60] Miriam Ebert, Lars Amsbeck, Andrea Jensch, Johannes Hertel, Jens Rheinländer, David Trebing, Ralf Uhlig, and Reiner Buck. Upscaling, manufacturing and test of a centrifugal particle receiver. *Energy Sustainability*, 06 2016.
- [61] Lars Amsbeck, Reiner Buck, Miriam Ebert, Birgit Gobereit, Johannes Hertel, Andrea Jensch, Jens Rheinländer, David Trebing, and Ralf Uhlig. First tests of a centrifugal particle receiver with a 1m² aperture. *AIP Conference Proceedings*, 2033(1):040004, 2018.
- [62] Miriam Ebert, Lars Amsbeck, Reiner Buck, Jens Rheinländer, Bärbel Schlögl-Knothe, Stefan Schmitz, Marcel Sibum, Hannes Stadler, and Ralf Uhlig. First on-sun tests of a centrifugal particle receiver system. volume ASME 2018 12th International Conference on Energy Sustainability of *Energy Sustainability*, page V001T11A002, 06 2018.
- [63] Miriam Ebert, Lars Amsbeck, Jens Rheinländer, Bärbel Schlögl-Knothe, Stefan Schmitz, Marcel Sibum, Ralf Uhlig, and Reiner Buck. Operational experience of a centrifugal particle receiver prototype. *AIP Conference Proceedings*, 2126(1):030018, 2019.
- [64] Wilhelm Burger and Mark James Burge. *Farbbilder*, pages 233–298. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2006.

- [65] Alfred Nischwitz, Max Fischer, Peter Haberäcker, and Gudrun Socher. *Digitale Bilddaten*, pages 25–90. Springer Fachmedien, Wiesbaden, 2020.
- [66] O. Scheer. *Stereoanalyse und Bildsynthese*, chapter Das Kameramodell, pages 37–63. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2005.
- [67] Z. Zhang. A flexible new technique for camera calibration. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 22(11):1330–1334, Nov 2000.
- [68] J. Heikkila and O. Silven. A four-step camera calibration procedure with implicit image correction. In *Proceedings of IEEE Computer Society Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 1106–1112, June 1997.
- [69] Zhengyou Zhang. *Perspective Camera*, pages 590–592. Springer US, Boston, MA, 2014.
- [70] The MathWorks. *Camera Calibration Parameters*. [Online]. [Accessed: 10.06.20]. Available from: <https://de.mathworks.com/help/vision/ug/camera-calibration.html#buvr2qb-2>, 2020.
- [71] Richard Szeliski. *Computer Vision : Algorithms and Applications*. Texts in Computer Science-SpringerLink. Springer London, 2011.
- [72] opencv dev team. *Camera Calibration and 3D Reconstruction in OpenCV 2.4.13.7 documentation*. [Online]. [Accessed: 20.05.20]. Available from: https://docs.opencv.org/2.4/modules/calib3d/doc/camera_calibration_and_3d_reconstruction.html, 2019.
- [73] R. Tsai. A versatile camera calibration technique for high-accuracy 3d machine vision metrology using off-the-shelf tv cameras and lenses. *IEEE Journal on Robotics and Automation*, 3(4):323–344, August 1987.
- [74] Thomas Luhman, Stuart Robson, Stephen Kyle, and Ian Harley. *Close Range Photogrammetry: Principles, Techniques and Applications*. Whittles Publishing, Dunbeath, Scotland, UK, 2011. ISBN 978-1870325-50-9.
- [75] J. Weng, P. Cohen, and M. Herniou. Camera calibration with distortion models and accuracy evaluation. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 14(10):965–980, 1992.
- [76] Duane C. Brown. Close-range camera calibration. *PHOTOGRAMMETRIC ENGINEERING*, 37(8):855–866, 1971.
- [77] Arcangelo Distante and Cosimo Distante. *Optical System*, pages 177–209. Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2020.
- [78] Wilfried Linder. *Lens Distortion and Calibration*, pages 109–114. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2016.
- [79] C. Balletti, F. Guerra, V. Tsioukas, and P. Vernier. Calibration of action cameras for photogrammetric purposes. *Sensors*, no. 9:17471–17490, 2014.

- [80] William Christian Krumbein and Laurence L. Sloss. *Stratigraphy and sedimentation*. Freeman, San Francisco, 1958.
- [81] Saint Gobain. Safety data sheet bauxite, 2019.
- [82] Birgit Gobereit, Lars Amsbeck, Christoph Happich, and Martin Schmücker. Assessment and improvement of optical properties of particles for solid particle receiver. *Solar Energy*, 199:844 – 851, 2020.
- [83] Saint Gobain Proppants. *Data sheet Sintered Bauxite, CER-0009-XM-0504-SGCS*, 2004.
- [84] Mühlmeier Mahltechnik. *Produktinformation SAZ-ER120S, 070617 D-saz 02.06.2017*. [Online]. [Accessed: 24.06.20]. Available from: https://www.muehlmeier.de/fileadmin/user_upload/DE/mahltechnik/produktinformation/muehlmeier_de_saz.pdf, 2017.
- [85] opto engineering. *lighting*. [Online]. [Accessed: 18.03.20]. Available from: <https://www.opto-e.com/basics/lighting>, 2020.
- [86] Falcon illumination. *FLDR-i70A-W Form No: SOP-7.3.3 / Rev 1.8*. [Online]. [Accessed: 18.03.20]. Available from: <https://falconillumination.de/en/product-database/lightings/fldr-direct-ringlight.html>, 2018.
- [87] Falcon illumination. *FLDL-i86x15-W Form No: SOP-7.3.3 / Rev 1.7*. [Online]. [Accessed: 17.03.20]. Available from: <https://falconillumination.de/de/produktdatenbank/beleuchtungen/fldl-fhdl.html>, 2015.
- [88] Laser components. *Data sheet FLEXPOINT Dot Laser Modules, 09/17 / V13 / IF / laserlaserm/fp-dot-lasers*, 2017.
- [89] Matthias Stieß, editor. *Mechanische Verfahrenstechnik - Partikeltechnologie 1*, chapter Partikelmesstechnik, pages 161–260. Springer-Lehrbuch. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 3 edition, 2009.
- [90] RETSCH GmbH Haan. *Sieve Analysis Taking a close look at quality An expert guide to particle size analysis*. [Online]. [Accessed: 13.05.20]. Available from: https://www.retsch.com/dltmp/www/53e4b562-5294-4711-9111-636500000000-b8e580d34c65/expert_guide_sieving_en.pdf, 2015.
- [91] Johannes Grobbel. *Modeling Solar Particle Receivers with the Discrete Element Method*. PhD thesis, RWTH Aachen University, 2019.
- [92] Uwe Feuerriegel. *Verfahrenstechnik mit EXCEL: Verfahrenstechnische Berechnungen effektiv durchführen und professionell dokumentieren*, chapter Partikelsysteme, pages 333–356. Springer Fachmedien, Wiesbaden, 2016.
- [93] Beakawi Al-Hashemi Hamzah M. and Baghabra Al-Amoudi Omar S. A review on the angle of repose of granular materials. *Powder Technology*, 330:397 – 417, 2018.
- [94] A. Mehta and G. C. Barker. The dynamics of sand. *Reports on Progress in Physics*, 57(4):383–416, apr 1994.

- [95] Ankit Rohatgi. *WebPlotDigitizer*. [Online]. [Accessed: 13.05.20]. Available from: <https://automeris.io/WebPlotDigitizer/>, 2019. version 4.2.
- [96] planistar Lichttechnik GmbH. *data sheet & manual 14-14-Sled-2-Flat-VA-16w*. [Online]. [Accessed: 27.03.20]. Available from: https://downloads.datasheets-planistar.de/fileadmin/downloads/Datasheets/flaechenleuchten-va/sled-2-va-flat/datasheet_14-14-Sled-2-Flat-VA-16w.pdf, 2018.
- [97] iiM AG. *data sheet LED High Power Spots LED Spot5W-W, Version:V052019*. [Online]. [Accessed: 27.03.20]. Available from: https://www.iimag.de/fileadmin/user_upload/lumimax/produkte/artikel/datenblatt/101.0028.00.03.00.pdf, 2019.
- [98] Falcon illumination. *FFPR-Si100-RGB Form No: SOP-7.3.3 / Rev 1.0*. [Online]. [Accessed: 27.03.20]. Available from: <https://falconillumination.de/en/product-database/lightings/ffpr-ffpq-darkfield.html>, 2011.
- [99] ImageColorPicker.com. *Imagecolorpicker*. [Online]. [Accessed: 03.03.20]. Available from: <https://imagecolorpicker.com/de/>, 2020.
- [100] Anselm F. Wunderer. *Schwarz-Weiß-Fotografie*. Mitp Edition Profifoto. Verlagsgruppe Hüthig Jehle Rehm, 2014.
- [101] Elizabeth Allen and Sophie Triantaphillidou. *The manual of photography*. Focal Press, Oxford, UK, 10th ed edition, 2011.
- [102] catree at openCV git hub. *pattern.png*. [Online]. [Accessed: 29.04.20]. Available from: <https://github.com/opencv/opencv/blob/master/doc/pattern.png>, 2008.
- [103] J.Y.Bouguet. *Camera Calibration Toolbox for Matlab*. [Online]. [Accessed: 20.05.20]. Available from: http://www.vision.caltech.edu/bouguetj/calib_doc/, 2015.
- [104] Alexander Mordvintsev and Abid Rahman K. *Image Processing in OpenCV*. [Online]. [Accessed: 09.06.20]. Available from: https://docs.opencv.org/master/d0/de3/tutorial_py_intro.html, 2013. version 4.3.0.
- [105] Nicholas T. Ouellette, Haitao Xu, and Eberhard Bodenschatz. A quantitative study of three-dimensional lagrangian particle tracking algorithms. *Experiments in Fluids*, 40(2):301–313, 2006.

List of Figures

2.1	Schematic figure of a CSP plant with a particle receiver. Particles are both HTM and SM [20]	5
2.2	Particle receiver face-down geometry view from below (left) and 20° segment of receiver section with particle curtain (right) [55]	9
2.3	Design principal of the centrifugal particle receiver CentRec [20]	10
2.5	Expected tracer trajectory consisting of tracer positions detected during one turn of the receiver with illustration of the proposed parameters to validate DEM-model	13
2.6	Fundamentals of camera modelling	14
2.7	Illustration of radial and tangential distortion, in (b) and (c): no distortion (solid lines), distortion (dashed lines) [75]	17
3.1	Principal assembly of a vibration sieving analysis apparatus [89]	22
3.2	Particle size distribution of the SG particles determined by sieving analysis	24
3.3	Particle size distribution of the tracers determined by sieving analysis	25
3.4	Assembly for the experimental determination of the static angle of repose	26
3.5	Cut out of a picture taken during the experiments with a SG particle tracer mixture (5 wt% tracer), schematic figure of the static angle of repose α_{stat}	27
3.6	Assembly of the test set up to choose the most suitable illumination	28
3.7	Pixel value illustration of a white sheet taken with different illuminations from 135 mm distance between the camera, respectively illumination, and the white sheet; the magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI (50 mm x 50 mm)	31
3.8	Calculated homogeneity plotted against the distance between camera and white sheet for five different illuminations	32
3.9	Pixel value illustration of a white sheet taken with different illuminations from 50/60 mm (left) and 200 mm (right) distance between the camera, respectively illumination, and the white sheet; the magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI	33
3.10	Mean pixel value (gray scale) plotted against the distance between camera and white sheet for five different illuminations	34
3.11	Mean pixel value of the tracers for different illuminations plotted against the distances between illumination and SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) collected with the webtool imagecolorpicker [99];	35
3.12	Difference between the pixel value (gray scale) of SG particles and tracers plotted for different illuminations against the distance between the camera and the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt%)	36
3.13	SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers), picture taken from different distances between the camera and the particle collective using illumination F3, cut out 50 mm x 50 mm	37
3.14	Histograms of the SG particles' pixel value and the mean tracer pixel value (vertical lines) for five different illuminations at 135 mm distance	38

3.15	Schematic draft of the camera set up illustrating the characteristic dimensions	40
3.16	Picture of a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt%) taken from different camera particle distances d_{CW} (80, 135 and 200 mm), illumination: F1	42
3.17	Picture of a SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt%) taken from different camera particle distances d_{CW} (80, 135 and 200 mm), illumination: F2	42
3.18	Histograms of a black and white chessboard picture for illumination F1 at different distances	44
3.19	Calibration object for camera calibration: symmetrical 10×7 chessboard [102]	45
3.20	Chessboard corners found with the Python code for calibration (cf. Appendix A.4), picture taken with camera A2 using illumination F1	46
4.1	Symmetrical 10×7 chessboard, picture taken from 135 mm distance between camera A2 and the chessboard using illumination F1	49
4.2	First two steps of the tracer tracking (Segmentation and Filter), detected tracers (green circles), picture taken from 135 mm distance between camera A2 and the SG particle tracer mixture (1 wt% tracers) using illumination F1	50
4.3	Schematic diagram of the tracer tacking algorithm Step 2: Find matching tracers in the first two frames (couplesF0F1)	54
4.4	Schematic diagram of the tracer tacking algorithm Step 5: Find possible trajectories in the first three frames (couplesF0F1F2c)	55
4.5	Schematic diagram of the tracer tacking algorithm Step 6: Estimate tracers' positions in fourth frame (center3_g) and find matching tracers in the first four frames (couplesF0F1F2cF3c)	56
4.6	Pin used as scale in the determination of the film thickness	57
4.7	Results of the steps in the calibration for the determination of the film thickness . .	58
4.8	Determination of the film thickness, scale resulting from the calibration	59
4.9	Determination of the film thickness; comparison before (a) and after detection of the particles (b)	60
A.1	Pictures of the five different illuminations, which are tested in the selection of illumination during the optical design optimization procedure, cf. section 3.3.1	75
A.2	Pixel value illustration of a white sheet taken with different illuminations from 60 mm (left) and 200 mm (right) distance between the camera, respectively illumination, and the white sheet; the magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI	79
A.3	Schematic diagram of the procedure for detection of the tracers	85

List of Tables

2.1	Working temperature range of different HTMs	7
3.1	Characteristic parameters of the SG particles [83] and the tracers [84]	19
3.2	Characteristic parameters of the illuminations [86; 87]	21
3.3	Angle of repose for pure SG particles, pure tracers and a SG particle tracer mixture (5 wt% tracer), averaging over 10 measurements each left and right	27
3.4	Tested illuminations and their specifications	29
3.5	Summary of the optical design optimization results regarding the illumination	39
3.6	Sizes of the FOVs, the pixels, the cut out area and the maximum distance between the positions of one tracer in two consecutive frames for the different distances between the camera and an object (axial (x) and tangential (tan)), videos taken with illumination F1	41
3.7	Calculated camera parameters and their standard deviation: Camera matrix, camera A2 with illumination F1 and camera B3 with illumination F2	46
3.8	Calculated camera parameters and their standard deviation: Distortion coefficients, camera A2 with illumination F1 and camera B3 with illumination F2	47
4.1	Mean horizontal and vertical distances between two grid points for the original and the corrected image and their standard deviation, picture taken from 135 mm distance between camera A2 and the chessboard using illumination F1	49

Appendix

A.1 Pictures of tested illuminations

(a) F1 (ring light)



(b) F2 (bar light)



(c) F3 (ring light)



(d) P1 (area light)



(e) L1 (spot light)



Figure A.1: Pictures of the five different illuminations, which are tested in the selection of illumination during the optical design optimization procedure, cf. section 3.3.1

A.2 Python code: Pixelcolor

```

1  import cv2
2  import numpy as np
3  from numpy import *
4  import matplotlib
5  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
6  from PIL import Image
7  from matplotlib.colors import LogNorm
8  from matplotlib.colors import BoundaryNorm
9  from matplotlib.ticker import MaxNLocator
10 import pathlib
11
12 # Analysed Frame
13 framename='F3-200226-15'
14 distance='150' #in mm
15 number='P-3'
16 framenummer='_250'
17 fileextension='.png'
18 path=str(pathlib.Path(__file__).parent.absolute()).replace("\\","/")
19
20 # Values for the cropbox depending on the distance between the camera and the
    particles
21 ###cropbox 60mm:50x46mm
22 ##a1=376
23 ##a2=1544
24 ##b1=2
25 ##b2=1078
26 ###cropbox 80mm: 50x50mm
27 ##a1=420
28 ##a2=1500
29 ##b1=15
30 ##b2=1065
31 ###cropbox 100mm: 50x50mm
32 ##a1=525
33 ##a2=1395
34 ##b1=115
35 ##b2=965
36 ###cropbox 135mm: 50x50mm
37 ##a1=605
38 ##a2=1315
39 ##b1=200
40 ##b2=880
41 #cropbox 150mm: 50x50mm
42 a1=675
43 a2=1245
44 b1=260
45 b2=820
46 ###cropbox 200mm: 50x50mm
47 ##a1=730
48 ##a2=1190
49 ##b1=320
50 ##b2=760
51
52
53 ##
    -----
54 ## Generation of a colored image of the pixel color matrix (binary) to evaluate the
    homogeneity of the illumination
55 ##
56
57
58 #L = R * 299/1000 + G * 587/1000 + B * 114/1000
59 image1 =
    Image.open(path+"/"+framename+'/' +framename+number+' /Frames/ForAnalysis/' +framename+nu
    mber+framenummer+fileextension)
60 cropbox=(a1,b1,a2,b2)
61 cut=image1.crop(cropbox)
62 cut.save(path+"/"+framename+'/' +framename+number+' /Frames/ForAnalysis/' +framename+nu
    mber+framenummer+'_cut1'+fileextension)# just to check the evaluated picture part
63 image =
    Image.open(path+"/"+framename+'/' +framename+number+' /Frames/ForAnalysis/' +framename+nu
    mber+framenummer+'_cut1'+fileextension).convert('L')

```

```

64
65
66 #get pixel number of cut image
67 widthcut=a2-a1
68 heightcut=b2-b1
69 print('Width_cut:'+str(widthcut))
70 print('Height_cut:'+str(heightcut))
71
72
73 # save the value of each pixel in the matrix a and generation of a txt-file with the
74 # values of each pixel to evaluate the homogeneity of the illumination
75 a = zeros((widthcut,heightcut), dtype=int)
76 colorrow=list()
77 colors=list()
78 f=open(path+"/"+framenumber+"/"+framenumber+number+"/Pixelcolor/"+framenumber+number+framenumber+
79 #cut1_pixelcolor_gray.txt',"w+")
80
81 for y in range(heightcut):
82     for x in range(widthcut):
83         color=image.getpixel((x,y))
84         a[x,y]=color
85         colorrow.append(color)
86         f.write(str(color)+ ' ')
87     f.write("\n")
88     colors.append(colorrow)
89 f.close()
90
91 # plot and save the matrix a with colorbar
92 plt.pcolormesh(a,cmap=plt.cm.Greys)
93 plt.title('Pixel intensity image')
94 plt.xlabel('Pixel in x-direction')
95 plt.ylabel('Pixel in y direction ')
96 plt.grid(True)
97 plt.colorbar()
98 plt.savefig(path+"/"+framenumber+"/"+framenumber+number+"/Pixelcolor/"+framenumber+number+framenumber+
99 #cut1_pixelcolor_gray.png')
100 plt.close()
101
102 ##
103 -----
104
105 ## Generation of a histogram of the pixel values to evaluate the illumination
106 # (over/underexposure)
107 ##
108
109 maxi=np.amax(image)
110 print('Max:'+str(maxi))
111 mini=np.amin(image)
112 print('Min:'+str(mini))
113 delta=maxi-mini
114 print('Delta pixelcolor:'+str(delta))
115 medi=np.mean(image)
116 print('Mean:'+str(medi))
117 medi3=np.median(image)
118 print('Median:'+str(medi3))
119 stab=np.std(image)
120 print('Standard deviation:'+str(stab))
121 homog=100*(1-(stab/medi))
122 print('Homogeneity in % '+str(homog))
123
124
125 # Save keydata of the grey level picture as txt file
126 f=open(path+"/"+framenumber+"/"+framenumber+number+"/Pixelcolor/"+framenumber+number+framenumber+
127 #cut1_keydata.txt',"w+")
128 f.write('Name:'+str(framenumber+number)+"\n"+'Distance in mm:'+str(distance)+
129 "\n"+'Max:'+str(maxi)+ "\n"+'Min:'+str(mini)+ "\n"+'Delta pixelcolor:'+str(delta)+
130 "\n"+'Mean:'+str(medi)+ "\n"+'Median:'+str(medi3)+ "\n"+'Homogeneity in %:'+
131 str(homog)+ "\n"+ 'width: '+ str(widthcut)+ "\n"+'height:'+ str(heightcut))
132 f.close()
133
134 # Save grey level pixel colors to csv file

```

```
126 np.savetxt(path+"/"+framenumber+"/'+framenumber+number+' /Pixelcolor/'+framenumber+framenumber+'cut1_pixelcolor_gray.csv", image, delimiter=' ')
127
128 # Histogram
129 counts2,vals2 = np.histogram(image, bins=range(2 ** 8))
130 plt.plot(range(0, (2 ** 8) - 1), counts2)
131 plt.title('Greyscale image histogram')
132 plt.xlabel('Pixel value')
133 plt.ylabel('Count')
134 plt.savefig(path+"/"+framenumber+"/'+framenumber+number+' /Pixelcolor/'+framenumber+framenumber+'cut1_histogram_grey.png')
135 plt.close()
136
137 gray=cv2.cvtColor(cv2.imread(path+"/"+framenumber+"/'+framenumber+number+' /Frames/ForAnalysis/'+framenumber+number+framenumber+'_cut1'+fileextension), cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
138 hist2=cv2.calcHist([gray],[0],None,[256],[0,256])
139 f=open(path+"/"+framenumber+"/'+framenumber+number+' /Pixelcolor/'+framenumber+framenumber+'cut1_histogram_gray.txt','w+')
140 f.write(str(hist2).replace("[", "").replace("]", ""))
141 f.close()
142
143 cv2.waitKey(0)
144 cv2.destroyAllWindows()
145
```

A.3 ROI of the camera

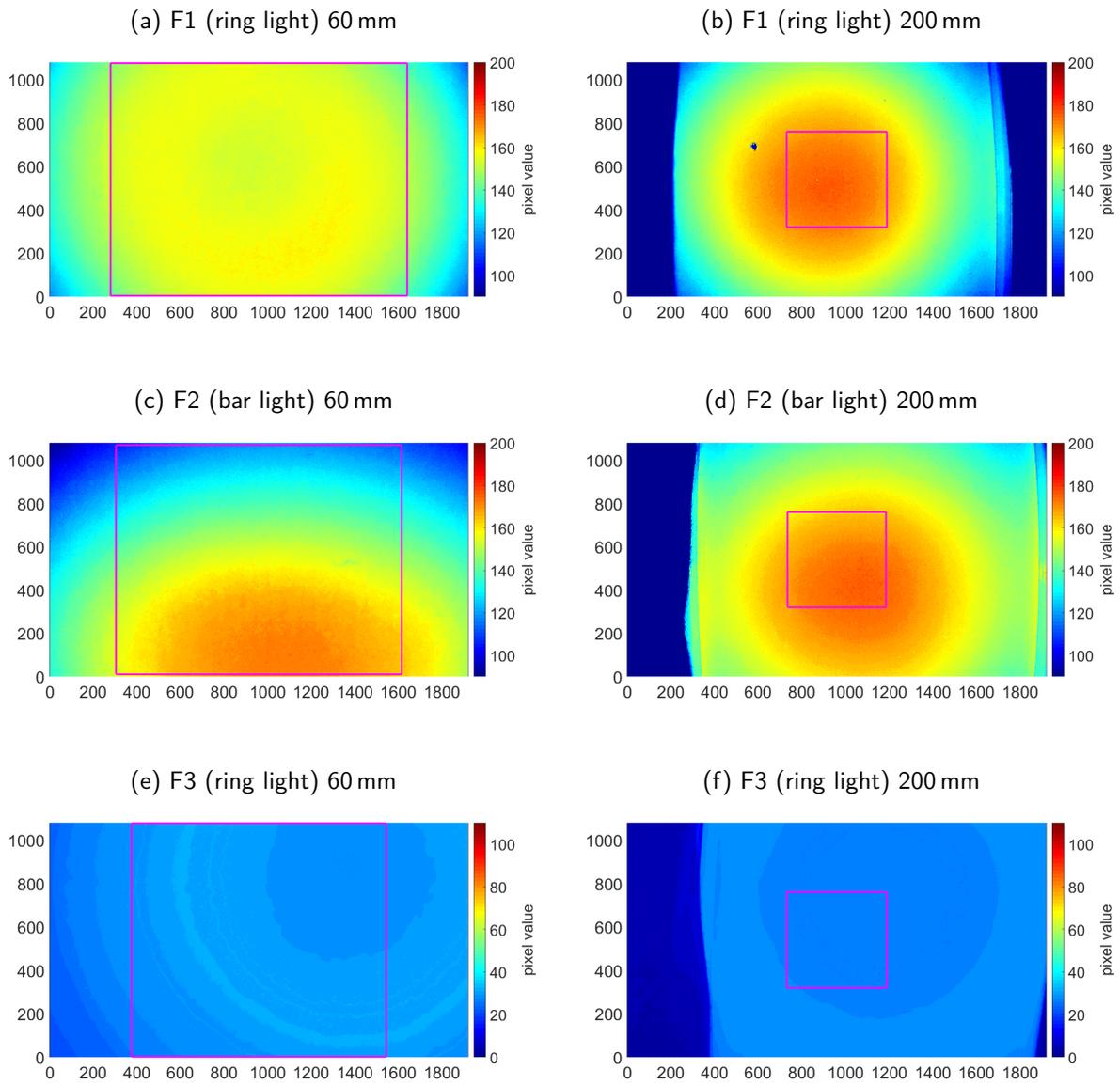


Figure A.2: Pixel value illustration of a white sheet taken with different illuminations from 60 mm (left) and 200 mm (right) distance between the camera, respectively illumination, and the white sheet; the magenta square illustrates the cut out ROI

A.4 Python code: Camera calibration

```

1  import numpy as np
2  import cv2
3  import glob
4  import pathlib
5
6  path=str(pathlib.Path(__file__).parent.absolute()).replace("\\", "/")
7  date='20200509'
8  name='A2-F1-CB-1'
9
10 #-----
11 # Find chessboard
12 #-----
13
14
15 # termination criteria
16 criteria = (cv2.TERM_CRITERIA_EPS + cv2.TERM_CRITERIA_MAX_ITER, 30, 0.001)
17
18 # prepare object points based on the actual dimensions of the calibration board,
19 # like (0,0,0), (50,0,0), (100,0,0) ...., (400,250,0)
20 boarddim=50 # size of a square in mm
21 numberofrows=9
22 numberoflines=6
23 objp = np.zeros((numberoflines*numberofrows,3), np.float32)
24 objp[:, :2] =
25 np.mgrid[0:(numberofrows*boarddim):boarddim,0:(numberoflines*boarddim):boarddim].T.reshape(-1,2)
26
27 # Arrays to store object points and image points from all the images.
28 objpoints = [] # 3d point in real world space
29 imgpoints = [] # 2d points in image plane.
30
31 # Lists to store the calibration parameters of all pictures
32 fxs=list()
33 fys=list()
34 cxs=list()
35 cys=list()
36 k1s=list()
37 k2s=list()
38 k3s=list()
39 p1s=list()
40 p2s=list()
41 errors=list()
42
43 # Pictures used for the calibration
44 images = glob.glob(path+'/' +date+'/' +name+' /Frames/ForCalibration/' + '*.png')
45 i=1
46 j=0
47 for fname in images:
48     # Read frame
49     img = cv2.imread(fname)
50
51     # Convert to grayscale
52     gray = cv2.cvtColor(img,cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
53
54     # Find the chessboard corners
55     ret, corners = cv2.findChessboardCorners(gray, (numberofrows,numberoflines),None)
56
57     if ret==False:
58         print('Frame '+str(fname)+ ': not usable')
59
60     # If found, add object points, image points (after refining them)
61     if ret == True:
62         #Add the chessboard corner points
63         objpoints.append(objp)
64
65         corners2 = cv2.cornerSubPix(gray,corners,(11,11),(-1,-1),criteria) #
66         # increase the accuracy
67         imgpoints.append(corners2)
68
69         # Draw and display the corners
70         #cv2.namedWindow("img", cv2.WINDOW_NORMAL)
71         #img = cv2.drawChessboardCorners(img, (numberofrows,numberoflines),

```

```

        corners2,ret)
69     #cv2.imshow('img',img)
70     #cv2.waitKey()
71
72     #-----
73     # Find calibration parameters (fx, fy, cx, cy, k1, k2, p1, p2,k3) and add them
    to arrays
74     #-----
75
76     ret, mtx, dist, rvecs, tvecs = cv2.calibrateCamera(objpoints, imgpoints,
    gray.shape[:-1],None,None)
77
78     fx=mtx[0][0]
79     fxs.append(fx)
80     if fx>2200:
81         print('delete: '+str(fname)+' in i: '+str(i))
82     fy=mtx[1][1]
83     fys.append(fy)
84     cx=mtx[0][2]
85     cxs.append(cx)
86     cy=mtx[1][2]
87     cys.append(cy)
88
89     k1=dist[0][0]
90     k1s.append(k1)
91     k2=dist[0][1]
92     k2s.append(k2)
93     p1=dist[0][2]
94     p1s.append(p1)
95     p2=dist[0][3]
96     p2s.append(p2)
97     k3=dist[0][4]
98     k3s.append(k3)
99
100
101     #-----
102     # Export calibration parameters for each picture
103     #-----
104
105     f=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/All/Keydata/'+name+'_keydata_4_'+str(i)
    )+'.txt','w+')
106     f.write('ret:'+str(ret)+ "\n"+mtx:'+str(mtx)+ "\n"+dist:'+str(dist)+
    "\n"+rvecs:'+str(rvecs)+ "\n"+tvecs:'+str(tvecs))
107     f.close()
108
109     g=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/All/Cameramatrix/'+name+'_cameramatrix
    _4_'+str(i)+'.txt','w+')
110     g.write('fx: \n'+str(fx)+"\n"+fy: \n'+str(fy)+"\n"+cx:
    \n'+str(cx)+"\n"+cy: \n'+str(cy)+"\n")
111     g.close()
112
113     h=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/All/Distortioncoefficients/'+name+'_di
    stortioncoeff_4_'+str(i)+'.txt','w+')
114     h.write('k1: \n'+str(k1)+"\n"+k2: \n'+str(k2)+"\n"+p1:
    \n'+str(p1)+"\n"+p2: \n'+str(p2)+"\n"+k3: \n'+str(k3)+"\n")
115     h.close()
116     j+=1
117
118     i+=1
119
120
121     #-----
122     # re-projection error
123     #-----
124     mean_error = 0
125     for k in range(len(objpoints)):
126         imgpoints2, _ = cv2.projectPoints(objpoints[k], rvecs[k], tvecs[k], mtx, dist)
127         error = cv2.norm(imgpoints[k],imgpoints2, cv2.NORM_L2)/len(imgpoints2)
128         mean_error += error

```

```

129
130 #-----
131 # Export re-projection error for each picture
132 #-----
133 k=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_reprojectionerror_4.txt','w+')
134 k.write('Error: \n'+str(mean_error/len(objpoints))+'\n')
135 k.close()
136 totalerror=mean_error/len(objpoints)
137 print("total error: ", totalerror)
138 errors.append(totalerror)
139
140 #-----
141 # Export calibration parameters for all calibration pictures in one txt-file
142 #-----
143
144 g=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_cameramatrix_4_all.txt','w+')
145 g.write('date: '+str(date)+"\n"+'name: '+str(name)+"\n")
146 g.write('fxs: \n'+str(fxs).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'fys:
\n'+str(fys).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'cxs:
\n'+str(cxs).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'cys:
\n'+str(cys).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n")
147 g.close()
148
149 h=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_distortioncoeff_4_all.txt','w+'
)
150 h.write('date: '+str(date)+"\n"+'name: '+str(name)+"\n")
151 h.write('k1s: \n'+str(k1s).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'k2s:
\n'+str(k2s).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'p1s:
\n'+str(p1s).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'p2s:
\n'+str(p2s).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'k3s:
\n'+str(k3s).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n")
152 h.close()
153
154
155 #-----
156 # Calcluate mean calibration parameters and their standard deviation
157 #-----
158
159 # Camera matrix
160 meanfx=np.mean(fxs)
161 stabfx=np.std(fxs)
162
163 meanfy=np.mean(fys)
164 stabfy=np.std(fys)
165
166 meancx=np.mean(cxs)
167 stabcx=np.std(cxs)
168
169 meancy=np.mean(cys)
170 stabcy=np.std(cys)
171
172 # Distortion coefficients
173 meank1=np.mean(k1s)
174 stabk1=np.std(k1s)
175
176 meank2=np.mean(k2s)
177 stabk2=np.std(k2s)
178
179 meanp1=np.mean(p1s)
180 stabp1=np.std(p1s)
181
182 meanp2=np.mean(p2s)
183 stabp2=np.std(p2s)
184
185 meank3=np.mean(k3s)
186 stabk3=np.std(k3s)
187
188 #-----
189 # Export mean calibration parameters for evaluation of the calibration
190 #-----
191
192 g=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_cameramatrix_4_mean.txt','w+')

```

```

193 g.write('date: '+str(date)+"\n"+'name: '+str(name)+"\n")
194 g.write('Mean fx: \n'+str(meanfx).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean
fx: \n'+str(stabfx).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Mean fy:
\n'+str(meanfy).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean fy:
\n'+str(stabfy).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'\n'+'Mean cx:
\n'+str(meancx).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean cx:
\n'+str(stabcx).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Mean cy:
\n'+str(meancy).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean cy:
\n'+str(stabcy).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n")
195 g.close()
196
197 h=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_distortioncoeff_4_mean.txt',"w+
")
198 h.write('date: '+str(date)+"\n"+'name: '+str(name)+"\n")
199 h.write('Mean k1s: \n'+str(meank1).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean
k1: \n'+str(stabk1).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Mean k2:
\n'+str(meank2).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean k2:
\n'+str(stabk2).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Mean p1:
\n'+str(meanp1).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean p1:
\n'+str(stabp1).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Mean p2:
\n'+str(meanp2).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean p2:
\n'+str(stabp2).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Mean k3:
\n'+str(meank3).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n"+'Stab mean k3:
\n'+str(stabk3).replace("[", "").replace("]", "")+"\n")
200 h.close()
201
202 i=open(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_numberofframes_4_mean.txt',"w+
")
203 i.write('date: '+str(date)+"\n"+'name: '+str(name)+"\n")
204 i.write('Number of frames used for calculation of the cameraparameters: \n'+str(j))
205 i.close()
206
207
208 #-----
209 # Export mean calibration parameters without comments to use for correction of the
data
#-----
210
211
212 cameramatrix=[meanfx, meanfy, meancx, meancy]
213 np.savetxt(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_cameramatrix_4_meanT.txt',c
ameramatrix)
214
215 distortioncoeffs=[meank1, meank2, meanp1, meanp2, meank3]
216 np.savetxt(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_distortioncoeff_4_meanT.txt
',distortioncoeffs)
217
218 np.savetxt(path+'/'+date+'/'+name+'/Results/Total/'+name+'_error_4_meanT.txt',errors)
219
220
221 cv2.destroyAllWindows()
222

```

A.5 Python code: Generation of corrected data

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import cv2
3 import glob
4 import pathlib
5
6 path=str(pathlib.Path(__file__).parent.absolute()).replace("\\", "/")
7 date='20200509'
8 name='A2-F1-CB-1'
9 nameframes='A2-F1-135-P'
10
11 #-----
12 # Read and Save Calibration Parameters
13 #-----
14
15 # Camera matrix
16 fileCM=open(path+'/' +date+'/' +name+'/Results/Total/' +name+'_cameramatrix.txt', "r")
17 CM=fileCM.readlines()
18
19 # Distortion coefficients
20 fileDC=open(path+'/' +date+'/' +name+'/Results/Total/' +name+'_distortioncoeff.txt', "r")
21 DC=fileDC.readlines()
22
23 mtx=np.zeros((3,3))
24 dist=np.zeros((1,5))
25 mtx[2][2]=1
26
27 mtx[0][0]=float(CM[0]) #fx
28 mtx[1][1]=float(CM[1]) #fy
29 mtx[0][2]=float(CM[2]) #cx
30 mtx[1][2]=float(CM[3]) #cy
31 dist[0][0]=float(DC[0]) #k1
32 dist[0][1]=float(DC[1]) #k2
33 dist[0][2]=float(DC[2]) #p1
34 dist[0][3]=float(DC[3]) #p2
35 dist[0][4]=float(DC[4]) #k3
36
37 #-----
38 # Loop for Undistortion
39 #-----
40 images = glob.glob(path+'/' +nameframes+'/Frames/' + '*.png')
41 for fname in images:
42     img = cv2.imread(fname)
43     h, w = img.shape[:2]
44     newcameramtx, roi=cv2.getOptimalNewCameraMatrix(mtx,dist,(w,h),0.5,(w,h)) #value
45     # undistort
46     dst = cv2.undistort(img, mtx, dist, None, newcameramtx)
47
48     # crop the image
49     x,y,w,h = roi
50     dst = dst[y:y+h, x:x+w]
51
52 cv2.destroyAllWindows()
53
54
```

A.6 Flow chart: Tracer tracking

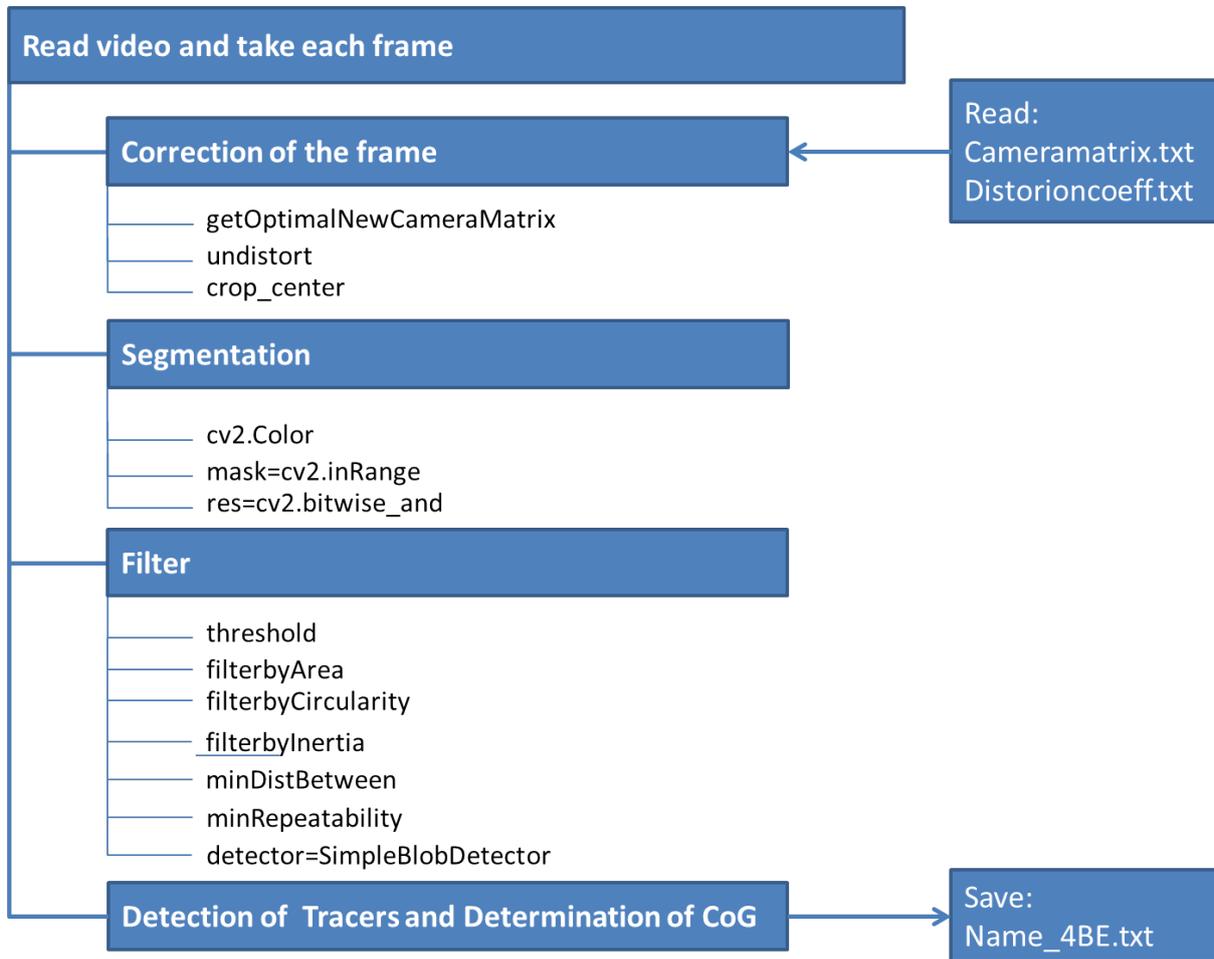


Figure A.3: Schematic diagram of the procedure for detection of the tracers

A.7 Python code: Tracer tracking

```

1  import cv2
2  import numpy as np
3  import sys
4  import pathlib
5  import glob
6  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
7  from PIL import Image
8  import os
9  import math
10
11
12  # cropbox
13  def crop_center(img,a1,a2,b1,b2):
14      return img[a1:a2,b1:b2]
15
16
17  #-----
18  # Name of the experiment
19  #-----
20  date='200617'
21  framename=date
22  number='_2'
23  fileextension='.mp4'
24  path=str(pathlib.Path(__file__).parent.absolute()).replace("\\","/")
25
26  #-----
27  # Calibration
28  #-----
29
30  pathCali='G:/Liebl/4-analysis/tracer tracking/calibration/'
31  dateCali='20200509'
32  nameCali='A2-F1-CB-1'
33
34  #-----
35  # Set data
36  #-----
37
38  v_x0=1
39  v_y0=1
40  delta_t=1
41  radius=1
42
43
44  #cropbox 135mm: 50mm x 50mm
45  # a width, b lenght
46  a1=710
47  a2=1300
48  b1=383
49  b2=974
50  cropbox=(a1,b1,a2,b2)
51
52  #-----
53  # Read and Save Calibration Parameters
54  #-----
55
56  # Camera matrix
57  fileCM=open(pathCali+'/'+dateCali+'/'+nameCali+'/Results/Total/'+nameCali+'_cameramatrix_4_meanT.txt',"r")
58  CM=fileCM.readlines()
59
60  # Distortion coefficients
61  fileDC=open(pathCali+'/'+dateCali+'/'+nameCali+'/Results/Total/'+nameCali+'_distortioncoeff_4_meanT.txt',"r")
62  DC=fileDC.readlines()
63
64  mtx=np.zeros((3,3))
65  dist=np.zeros((1,5))
66  mtx[2][2]=1
67
68  mtx[0][0]=float(CM[0]) #fx
69  mtx[1][1]=float(CM[1]) #fy
70  mtx[0][2]=float(CM[2]) #cx

```

```

71 mtx[1][2]=float(CM[3]) #cy
72 dist[0][0]=float(DC[0]) #k1
73 dist[0][1]=float(DC[1]) #k2
74 dist[0][2]=float(DC[2]) #p1
75 dist[0][3]=float(DC[3]) #p2
76 dist[0][4]=float(DC[4]) #k3
77
78 #-----
79 # Save to folder
80 #-----
81
82 f=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+'_dots.txt',"w+")
83 f.write('Framenumber NumberofDetectedDots MaxDiameter MinDiameter MeanDiameter
MedianDiameter StandardDeviation'+"\n" )
84
85 m=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+'_keydata.txt',"w+")
86 m.write('Name MeanNumberofDetectedDots StandardDeviation'+"\n" )
87 m.write(date+number)
88
89 j=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+'_dots_x.txt',"w+")
90 k=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+'_dots_y.txt',"w+")
91
92
93 #-----
94 # Get frames from video, undistort them and detect the tracers
95 #-----
96
97 # Take video
98 cap=cv2.VideoCapture(path+'/'+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+fileexten
sion)
99
100 frames=list()
101 correctedframes=list()
102 framenumbers=list()
103 allblobs=list()
104 zahl=0
105 br=0
106
107 #-----
108 # Loop for reading the video, segmentation, filter and detection of the tracer
109 #-----
110 # Read until video is completed
111 while(cap.isOpened()):
112
113     # Capture frame-by-frame
114     ret, frame = cap.read()
115     if ret == True:
116
117         zahl+=1
118         ## print('Framenumber: '+str(zahl))
119         f.write(str(zahl))
120         f.write(' ')
121         framenumbers.append(zahl)
122
123
124         img0 = frame
125         h, w = img0.shape[:2]
126         newcameramtx, roi=cv2.getOptimalNewCameraMatrix(mtx,dist,(w,h),0,(w,h))
#value between 0 (whole picture range) and 1 (cut out of the picture)
127
128         # undistort the original image
129         dst = cv2.undistort(img0, mtx, dist, None, newcameramtx)
130
131         # crop the original image
132         x,y,w,h = roi
133         dst = dst[y:y+h, x:x+w]
134         correctedframes.append(dst)
135         frames.append(frame)
136         framecut=crop_center(dst,b1,b2,a1,a2)
137         img=framecut
138         gray = cv2.cvtColor(img,cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
139

```

```
140 #-----
141 # Segmentation
142 #-----

143 # Convert BGR to HSV
144 hsv=cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2HSV)
145
146 # Get value sensitivity
147 sens=50
148
149 # Define range of white color in HSV with adjustable sensitivity
150 lower_white = np.array([ 0, 0, 100-sens])
151 upper_white = np.array([ 0, 0, 100    ])
152
153 # Threshold the HSV image to get only white colors, (in the range of the
154 mask: 1 (white))
155 mask = cv2.inRange(hsv, lower_white, upper_white)
156
157 # Bitwise-AND mask and original image, in the frame ther is the frame and
158 mask ist true; Bitwise: where are 1s in the frame: show the color)
159 res = cv2.bitwise_and(img,img, mask= mask)
160
161 img=res
162
163 ## # MedianBlur
164 ## blursize=1 #size = blursize*blursize
165 ## resblur = cv2.medianBlur(res,blursize)
166 ## img=resblur
167
168 #-----
169 # Create Filter and Detection of tracer
170 #-----

171
172 im = img
173
174 # Setup SimpleBlobDetector parameters
175 params = cv2.SimpleBlobDetector_Params()
176
177 # Change thresholds
178 params.thresholdStep = 5
179 params.minThreshold = 200
180 params.maxThreshold = 255
181
182 # Filter by Color (one specific color needed: not recommended)
183 params.filterByColor = False
184 params.blobColor = 255
185
186 # Filter by Area. see: Excel: picture-pillow
187 params.filterByArea = True
188 params.minArea = 83 # 135mm
189 params.maxArea = 180 # 135mm
190
191 # Filter by Circularity
192 params.filterByCircularity = True
193 params.minCircularity = 0.7 # circularity of a square
194
195 # Filter by Convexity (Area of the Blob / Area of it's convex hull)
196 params.filterByConvexity = False
197 params.minConvexity = 0.87
198
199 # Filter by Inertia (ratio of widest to thinnest point, measures how
200 elongated a shape is, circle:1, ellipse:0<x<1, line:0)
201 params.filterByInertia = True
202 params.minInertiaRatio = 0.01
203 ## params.maxInertiaRatio = 1 #
204
205 params.minDistBetweenBlobs = 1.0 # blobs closer will be merged
206 params.minRepeatability = 2
```

```

205
206
207     # Create a detector with the parameters
208     ver = (cv2.__version__).split('.')
209     if int(ver[0]) < 3 :
210         detector = cv2.SimpleBlobDetector(params)
211     else :
212         detector = cv2.SimpleBlobDetector_create(params)
213
214
215     # Detect blobs
216     keypoints = detector.detect(im)
217     blobnumber=len(keypoints)
218     print('Number of detected circles: '+ str(blobnumber))
219     f.write(str(blobnumber))
220     f.write(' ')
221     allblobs.append(blobnumber)
222
223     # Draw detected blobs as red circles
224     # cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS ensures the size of the circle
225     # corresponds to the size of blob
226     im_with_keypoints = cv2.drawKeypoints(im, keypoints, np.array([]),
227     (0,255,0), cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS)
228
229     center=list()
230     y1=list()
231     x1=list()
232     diameter=list()
233
234     d=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+frame+number+"/"+doPTV+"/"+frame+number+'_det
ectedDOTS_'+str(zahl)+'.txt','w+')
235
236     e=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+frame+number+"/"+doPTV+"/"+frame+number+'_4BE
_'+str(zahl)+'.txt','w+')
237     d.write('Dot X: ')
238     d.write('Dot Y: '+ '\n')
239     for keypoint in keypoints:
240         x = keypoint.pt[0]
241         y = keypoint.pt[1]
242         s = keypoint.size/2
243         KeyPoints=[x,y,s]
244         center.append(KeyPoints)
245         point=[x,y]
246         y1.append(y)
247         x1.append(x)
248         diameter.append(s*2)
249         d.write(str(x)+ ' ')
250         d.write(str(y)+ '\n')
251         e.write(str(x)+ ', '+str(y)+ '\n')
252         j.write(str(x)+ ', ')
253         k.write(str(y)+ ', ')
254     j.write('\n')
255     k.write('\n')
256
257     centerint = np.uint16(np.around(center)) #circle only can handle int
258
259     # Check the detected circles
260     for i in centerint:
261         # draw the outer circle
262         cv2.circle(im, (i[0],i[1]),i[2], (0,255,0), 2)
263         # draw the center of the circle4.
264         cv2.circle(im, (i[0],i[1]), 2, (0,0,255), 1)
265     print('diameter: '+str(diameter))
266
267     if len(diameter)>0:
268         # Calculation of characteristics of detected dots
269         maxi=np.amax(diameter)
270         mini=np.amin(diameter)
271         delta=maxi-mini
272         medi=np.mean(diameter)
273         medi3=np.median(diameter)

```

```

271         stab=np.std(diameter)
272
273         f.write(str(maxi)+ ' ' + str(mini)+ " "+str(medi)+ " "+str(medi3)+ "
"+str(stab)+"\n")
274     d.close()
275     e.close()
276
277     # Show blobs
278     ## cv2.namedWindow("Keypoints", cv2.WINDOW_NORMAL) #in case that the window
is to big
279     ## cv2.namedWindow("detected circles", cv2.WINDOW_NORMAL)
280     ## cv2.imshow("Keypoints", im_with_keypoints)
281
cv2.imwrite(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+'/Filter_after.png',im_with_key
points)
282     ## cv2.imshow('detected circles',im)
283     cv2.imwrite(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+'/DetectedTracer.png',im)
284
285     # Press Q on keyboard to exit
286     if cv2.waitKey(27) & 0xFF == ord('q'):
287         break
288
289     # Break the loop
290     else:
291         print('frame breake: '+str(zahl))
292         break
293
294 cap.release()
295
296 # Number of frames
297 n=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/"+filename+number+'_numberofframes.txt',"
w+")
298 n.write(str(zahl))
299 n.close()
300
301 meandots=np.mean(allblobs)
302 stabdots=np.std(allblobs)
303 m.write(' '+str(meandots)+' '+str(stabdots))
304 m.close()
305 f.close()
306 j.close()
307 k.close()
308
309 #-----
310 # Tracking using the 4BestEstimate algorithm
311 #-----
312 # Number of frames in video
313 folder=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/"+filename+number+'_numberofframes.t
xt')
314 i=int(folder.read())
315 print('Number of frames: '+str(i))
316
317 # Total number od detected dots
318 dots_all=list()
319 dots_total=0
320 numberdots=0
321
322
323 # Maximum number of detected dots in one frame
324 frameN=1
325 numberofdots=list()
326 while frameN <= i:
327
file=path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+'/doPTV/'+filename+number+'_4BE_'+str(fra
meN)+'.txt'
328 dots=np.loadtxt(file, str, delimiter=',').astype(np.float) # dots[x][y]
329 numberofdots.append(len(dots))
330 dots_total+=len(dots)
331 frameN+=1
332 maxnumberofdots=max(numberofdots)
333 print('Max number of dots in one frame: '+str(maxnumberofdots))
334 print('Total number of dots in all frame: '+str(dots_total))

```

```

335
336
337 # Matrices to save all the tracks
338 trackingx=np.zeros((dots_total, i))
339 trackingy=np.zeros((dots_total, i))
340
341 #-----
342 # Parameters for tracking (to be set)
343 #-----
344
345 # Radius of search volumes
346 # For F1
347 radiusF1=30
348 # For F2
349 radiusF2=30
350 # For F3
351 radiusF3=30
352
353 # Time step
354 deltaT=1
355
356 #-----
357 # Loop for all frames
358 #-----
359 framenummer=1
360 while framenummer< (i-2):
361     ##while framenummer< 15:
362
363     print()
364     print()
365     print('Step: '+str(framenummer))
366     print()
367
368     #-----
369     # Step 1: Read detected tracer
370     #-----
371
372     #-----
373     # Step 1.1: Read F_n: F_0
374     #-----
375     j0=framenummer
376     k=0
377     x_0=list()
378     y_0=list()
379     center0=list()
380
381     file=path+"/"+date+"/"+"+filename+number+"/doPTV/"+filename+number+'_4BE_'+str(j0)
382     +' .txt'
383     dots=np.loadtxt(file, str, delimiter=',').astype(np.float) # dots[x][y]
384     n0=len(dots)
385     dots_all.append(n0)
386     numberdots+=n0
387     while k < n0:
388         try:
389             x_0.append(dots[k][0])
390             y_0.append(dots[k][1])
391             center0.append([dots[k][0],dots[k][1]])
392         except IndexError:
393             x_0.append([dots[0]])
394             y_0.append([dots[1]])
395             center0.append([dots[0],dots[1] ])
396             k=n1
397         k+=1
398
399     if len(center0)==0:
400         x_0.append([0])
401         y_0.append([0])
402         center0.append([0,0])
403
404     ## print('center0:'+str(center0))
405     ## print('len(center0):'+str(len(center0)))

```

```

405  ##    print()
406
407  #-----
408  # Step 1.2: Read F_n+1: F_1
409  #-----
410  j1=j0+1
411  k=0
412  x_1=list()
413  y_1=list()
414  center1=list()
415
416
417  file=path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/doPTV/"+framename+number+'_4BE_'+str(j1)
418  +'.txt'
419  dots=np.loadtxt(file, str, delimiter=',').astype(np.float) # dots[x][y]
420  n1=len(dots)
421  while k < n1:
422      try:
423          x_1.append(dots[k][0])
424          y_1.append(dots[k][1])
425          center1.append([dots[k][0],dots[k][1]])
426      except IndexError:
427          x_1.append([dots[0]])
428          y_1.append([dots[1]])
429          center1.append([dots[0],dots[1] ])
430          k=n1
431          k+=1
432
433  if len(center1)==0:
434      x_1.append([0])
435      y_1.append([0])
436      center1.append([0,0])
437
438  ##    print('center1:'+str(center1))
439  ##    print('len(center1):'+str(len(center1)))
440  ##    print()
441
442  #-----
443  # Step 1.3: Read F_n+2: F_2
444  #-----
445  j2=j1+1
446  k=0
447  x_2=list()
448  y_2=list()
449  center2=list()
450
451
452  file=path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/doPTV/"+framename+number+'_4BE_'+str(j2)
453  +'.txt'
454  dots=np.loadtxt(file, str, delimiter=',').astype(np.float) # dots[x][y]
455  n2=len(dots)
456  while k < n2:
457      try:
458          x_2.append(dots[k][0])
459          y_2.append(dots[k][1])
460          center2.append([dots[k][0],dots[k][1]])
461      except IndexError:
462          print('error')
463          x_2.append([dots[0]])
464          y_2.append([dots[1]])
465          center2.append([dots[0],dots[1] ])
466          k=n2
467          k+=1
468
469  if len(center2)==0:
470      x_2.append([0])
471      y_2.append([0])
472      center2.append([0,0])
473
474  ##    print('center2: '+str(center2))
475  ##    print('len(center2): '+str(len(center2)))
476  ##    print()

```

```

473
474 #-----
475 # Step 1.4: Read F_n+3: F_3
476 #-----
477 j3=j2+1
478 k=0
479 x_3=list()
480 y_3=list()
481 center3=list()
482
483
484 file=path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/doPTV/"+framename+number+'_4BE_'+str(j3)
485 +'.txt'
486 dots=np.loadtxt(file, str, delimiter=',').astype(np.float) # dots[x][y]
487 n3=len(dots)
488 while k < n3:
489     try:
490         x_3.append(dots[k][0])
491         y_3.append(dots[k][1])
492         center3.append([dots[k][0],dots[k][1]])
493     except IndexError:
494         x_3.append([dots[0]])
495         y_3.append([dots[1]])
496         center3.append([dots[0],dots[1] ])
497         k=n3
498     k+=1
499
500 if len(center1)==0:
501     x_3.append(0)
502     y_3.append(0)
503     center3.append([0,0])
504
505 ## print('center3: '+str(center3))
506 ## print('len(center3): '+str(len(center3)))
507 ## print()
508
509 #-----
510 # If framenummer=1: save center 0 to the storage matrices trackingx and trackingy
511 #-----
512 if framenummer==1:
513     row=0
514     while row<len(center0):
515         trackingx[row][j0-1]=str(center0[row][0])
516         trackingy[row][j0-1]=str(center0[row][1])
517         row+=1
518
519 #-----
520 # Step 2: Find couplesF0F1
521 #-----
522 # Radius of search volume for F1
523 SVF1=radiusF1**2
524 couplesF0F1=list()
525
526 a0=0
527 while a0<len(center0):
528     center_x0=center0[a0][0]
529     center_y0=center0[a0][1]
530     a1=0
531     distances01=list()
532     distance01p=list()
533     distances01p=list()
534     count=0
535     while a1<len(center1):
536         # Circle
537         ((x,y)2_g)https://stackoverflow.com/questions/12262017/python-checking-if-coordinates-are-within-circle
538         test=(center1[a1][0]-center_x0)**2 + (center1[a1][1]-center_y0)**2
539         if test <=SVF1 :
540             d_F0_f=[center0[a0][0],center0[a0][1]]
541             d_F1_f=[center1[a1][0],center1[a1][1]]
542             distances01.append(test)

```

```

541         distance01p.append([d_F0_f, d_F1_f])
542         distances01p.append([d_F0_f, d_F1_f, test])
543         a1+=1
544
545     if len(distances01)==0:
546         coupleF0F1=[[center0[a0][0],center0[a0][1]], [0,0]]
547         couplesF0F1.append(coupleF0F1)
548
549     if len(distances01)>0:
550         if len(distances01)==1:
551             coupleF0F1=[distance01p[0][0],distance01p[0][1]]
552             couplesF0F1.append(coupleF0F1)
553         else:
554             distance01=min(distances01)
555             coupleF0F1=distance01p[distances01.index(distance01)]
556             couplesF0F1.append(coupleF0F1)
557         a0+=1
558
559     ## print('couplesF0F1: '+str(couplesF0F1))
560     ## print('len(couplesF0F1): '+str(len(couplesF0F1)))
561     ## print()
562
563     #-----
564     # If framenummer=1: save center 1 to the storage matrices trackingx and trackingy
565     #-----
566     if framenummer==1:
567         lenfoundcouplesF1F2=len(couplesF0F1)
568         row=0
569         while row<len(center0):
570             row2=0
571             count=0
572             while row2<len(couplesF0F1):
573                 if couplesF0F1[row2][0][0]!=0:
574                     if trackingx[row][j1-2]==couplesF0F1[row2][0][0]:
575                         trackingx[row][j1-1]=couplesF0F1[row2][1][0]
576                         trackingy[row][j1-1]=couplesF0F1[row2][1][1]
577                 row2+=1
578             row+=1
579
580     # Which center1 are not in mincouples01: append to center1_not
581     center1_not=list()
582     testC1=0
583     while testC1<len(couplesF0F1):
584         testMC01=0
585         count=0
586         while testMC01<len(center1):
587             if couplesF0F1[testC1][1][0]==center1[testMC01][0]:
588                 print('Center1 already appended')
589             else:
590                 count+=1
591             if count==len(center1):
592                 print('Center1 not append before')
593                 center1_not.append([center1[testC1][0],center1[testC1][1]])
594                 testMC01+=1
595             testC1+=1
596
597     ## print('Center1_not: '+str(center1_not))
598     ## print()
599
600     rowsxNF1=lenfoundcouplesF1F2
601     test=0
602     while test<len(center1_not):
603         trackingx[rowsxNF1][j1-1]=center1_not[test][0]
604         trackingy[rowsxNF1][j1-1]=center1_not[test][1]
605         test+=1
606         rowsxNF1+=1
607
608     lenfoundcouplesF1F2+=len(center1_not) # counting the rows in the storage
609     matrices, which are already used for a track
610
611     #-----
612     # Step 3: Calculate the velocity and acceleration of F_n:F_1 and velocity of

```

```

F_n-1:F0
612 #-----
613 # Initial position
614 x_m1=[0]*n0
615 y_m1=[0]*n0
616
617 # v0
618 if framenummer==1:
619     vx_0=list()
620     vx_0=[(i-j)/deltaT for i,j in zip(x_0,x_m1)]
621     vy_0=list()
622     vy_0=[(i-j)/deltaT for i,j in zip(y_0,y_m1)]
623     vx_1=vx_0
624     vy_1=vy_0
625
626 if len(x_1)>len(x_0):
627     aa=0
628     x_0_new=[0]*len(center1)
629     y_0_new=[0]*len(center1)
630     while aa<len(couplesF0F1):
631         x_0_new[aa]=couplesF0F1[aa][0][0]
632         y_0_new[aa]=couplesF0F1[aa][0][1]
633         aa+=1
634     x_0=x_0_new
635     y_0=y_0_new
636
637 if len(x_1)<len(x_0):
638     aa=0
639     x_1_new=[0]*len(center0)
640     y_1_new=[0]*len(center0)
641     while aa<len(couplesF0F1):
642         x_1_new[aa]=couplesF0F1[aa][1][0]
643         y_1_new[aa]=couplesF0F1[aa][1][1]
644         aa+=1
645     x_1=x_1_new
646     y_1=y_1_new
647
648 if len(center0)==1 and len(center1)==1:
649     x_0=x_0[0]
650     y_0=y_0[0]
651     x_1=x_1[0]
652     y_1=y_1[0]
653     # v1
654     vx_1=list()
655     vx_1=[(x_1[0]-x_0[0])/deltaT ]
656     vy_1=list()
657     vy_1=[(y_1[0]-y_0[0])/deltaT]
658
659 if len(center0)==1 and len(center1)==0:
660     x_0=x_0[0]
661     y_0=y_0[0]
662     x_1=[0]
663     y_1=[0]
664     # v1
665     vx_1=list()
666     vx_1=(x_1[0]-x_0[0])/deltaT
667     vy_1=list()
668     vy_1=(y_1[0]-y_0[0])/deltaT
669
670 else:
671     # v1
672     vx_1=list()
673     vx_1=[(i-j)/deltaT for i,j in zip(x_1,x_0)]
674     vy_1=list()
675     vy_1=[(i-j)/deltaT for i,j in zip(y_1,y_0)]
676
677 #-----
678 # Step 4: Calculation of estimated point F2_g
679 #-----
680 if len(center0)==0 and len(center1)==0:
681     # Estimated point of F2: F2_g
682     x_2_g=[0]

```

```

683     y_2_g=[0]
684     center2_g=[[0,0]]
685     couplesF0F1=[[0,0],[0,0]]
686
687     else:
688         # Estimated point of F2: F2_g
689         x_2_g=[(i+j*deltaT) for i,j in zip(x_1,vx_1)]
690         y_2_g=[(i+j*deltaT) for i,j in zip(y_1,vy_1)]
691         center2_g=[(i+j*deltaT),(k+l*deltaT)] for i,j,k,l in zip(x_1,vx_1,y_1,vy_1)]
692
693         #-----
694         # If no F0 was found, the estimated F2 is set to F1
695         #-----
696         testi=0
697         while testi<len(center2_g):
698             if vx_1[testi]==x_1[testi]:
699                 center2_g[testi][0]=x_1[testi]
700                 center2_g[testi][1]=y_1[testi]
701                 testi+=1
702
703     ## print('center2_g: '+str(center2_g))
704     ## print('len(center2_g): '+str(len(center2_g)))
705     ## print()
706
707     #-----
708     # Step 5: Find couplesF0F1F2F2c
709     #-----
710
711     #-----
712     # Step 5.1: Find couplesF1F2F2c
713     #-----
714     # Radius of search volume for F2
715     #radiusF2=100
716     SVF2=radiusF2**2
717     couplesF1F2F2c=list()
718
719     if len(center2)>len(center2_g): #more dots in picture (center2) as in the one
before (center1)
720         a2_g=0
721         while a2_g<len(center2_g):
722             center_x2_g=center2_g[a2_g][0]
723             center_y2_g=center2_g[a2_g][1]
724             cand_2=list()
725
726             a2=0
727             count=0
728             while a2<len(center2):
729                 # Circle
730                 ((x,y)2_g)https://stackoverflow.com/questions/12262017/python-checking-if-coordinates-are-within-circle
731                 test2=(center2[a2][0]-center_x2_g)**2 +
(center2[a2][1]-center_y2_g)**2
732                 if ((center2[a2][0]-center_x2_g)**2 +
(center2[a2][1]-center_y2_g)**2) <=SVF2 :
733                     cand_2.append([center2[a2][0],center2[a2][1]])
734
735                     coupleF1F2F2c=[[x_1[a2_g],center2_g[a2_g][0],center2[a2][0]],[
y_1[a2_g],center2_g[a2_g][1],center2[a2][1]]]
736                     couplesF1F2F2c.append(coupleF1F2F2c)
737
738                     a2+=1
739             if len(cand_2)==0:
740
741                 coupleF1F2F2c=[[x_1[a2_g],center2_g[a2_g][0],0],[y_1[a2_g],center2_g[a
2_g][1],0]] # no candidate for estimated F2* in F2 (found dots)
742                 couplesF1F2F2c.append(coupleF1F2F2c)
743             a2_g+=1
744
745     if len(center2)==len(center2_g): #same number of dots in picture (center2) as in
the one before (center1)
746         a2_g=0
747         while a2_g<len(center2_g):
748             center_x2_g=center2_g[a2_g][0]

```

```

745         center_y2_g=center2_g[a2_g][1]
746         as012=list()
747         a012p=list()
748         as012p=list()
749         cand_2=list()
750
751         a2=0
752         count=0
753         while a2<len(center2):
754             # Circle
755             ((x,y)2_g)https://stackoverflow.com/questions/12262017/python-checking-if-
756             coordinates-are-within-circle
757             test2=(center2[a2][0]-center_x2_g)**2 +
758             (center2[a2][1]-center_y2_g)**2
759             if ((center2[a2][0]-center_x2_g)**2 +
760             (center2[a2][1]-center_y2_g)**2) <=SVF2 :
761                 cand_2.append([center2[a2][0],center2[a2][1]])
762
763                 coupleF1F2F2c=[[x_1[a2_g],center2_g[a2_g][0],center2[a2][0]],
764                 [y_1[a2_g],center2_g[a2_g][1],center2[a2][1]]]
765                 couplesF1F2F2c.append(coupleF1F2F2c)
766
767                 a2+=1
768         if len(cand_2)==0:
769
770             coupleF1F2F2c=[[x_1[a2_g],center2_g[a2_g][0],0],[y_1[a2_g],center2_g[a
771             2_g][1],0]] # no candidate for estimated F2* in F2 (found dots)
772             couplesF1F2F2c.append(coupleF1F2F2c)
773             a2_g+=1
774
775         if len(center2)<len(center2_g): #less dots in picture (center2) as in the one
776         before (center1)
777             a22_g=0
778             while a22_g<len(center2_g):
779                 center_x2_g=center2_g[a22_g][0]
780                 center_y2_g=center2_g[a22_g][1]
781                 as012=list()
782                 a012p=list()
783                 as012p=list()
784                 cand_2=list()
785
786                 a22=0
787                 count=0
788                 while a22<len(center2):
789                     # Circle
790                     ((x,y)2_g)https://stackoverflow.com/questions/12262017/python-checking-if-
791                     coordinates-are-within-circle
792                     test2=(center2[a22][0]-center_x2_g)**2 +
793                     (center2[a22][1]-center_y2_g)**2
794                     if ((center2[a22][0]-center_x2_g)**2 +
795                     (center2[a22][1]-center_y2_g)**2) <=SVF2 :
796                         cand_2.append([center2[a22][0],center2[a22][1]])
797
798                         coupleF1F2F2c=[[x_1[a22_g],center2_g[a22_g][0],center2[a22][0]]
799                         ,[y_1[a22_g],center2_g[a22_g][1],center2[a22][1]]]
800                         couplesF1F2F2c.append(coupleF1F2F2c)
801
802                         a22+=1
803                 if len(cand_2)==0:
804
805                     coupleF1F2F2c=[[x_1[a22_g],center2_g[a22_g][0],0],[y_1[a22_g],center2_
806                     g[a22_g][1],0]] # no candidate for estimated F2* in F2 (found dots)
807                     couplesF1F2F2c.append(coupleF1F2F2c)
808                     a22_g+=1
809
810             ##         print('couplesF1F2F2c: '+str(couplesF1F2F2c))
811             ##         print('len(couplesF1F2F2c): '+str(len(couplesF1F2F2c)))
812             ##         print()
813
814             #-----
815             # Step 5.2: Append F0 to found couplesF1F2F2c and create couplesF0F1F2
816             #-----

```

```

800 couplesF0F1F2F2c=list()
801 couplesF0F1F2c=list()
802
803 test1=0
804 while test1<len(couplesF1F2F2c):
805     test2=0
806     count=0
807     while test2<len(couplesF0F1):
808         if couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][0]==couplesF0F1[test2][1][0] and
809             couplesF0F1[test2][1][0]!=0:
810
811                 coupleF0F1F2F2c=[[couplesF0F1[test2][0][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0]
812 ]][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][1],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][2]],[cou
813 plesF0F1[test2][0][1],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1]
814 est1][1][1],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][2]]]
815                 couplesF0F1F2c.append(coupleF0F1F2F2c)
816
817                 coupleF0F1F2c=[[couplesF0F1[test2][0][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][
818 0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][2]], [couplesF0F1[test2][0][1],couplesF
819 1F2F2c[test1][1][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][2]]]
820                 couplesF0F1F2c.append(coupleF0F1F2c)
821
822                 else:
823                     count+=1
824                     if count==len(couplesF0F1):
825
826                         coupleF0F1F2F2c=[[0,couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][0],couplesF1F2F2c[tes
827 t1][0][1],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][2]], [0,couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1]
828 [0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][1],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][2]]]
829                         couplesF0F1F2c.append(coupleF0F1F2F2c)
830
831                         coupleF0F1F2c=[[0,couplesF1F2F2c[test1][0][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1
832 ][0][2]], [0,couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][0],couplesF1F2F2c[test1][1][2]
833 ]]
834                         couplesF0F1F2c.append(coupleF0F1F2c)
835
836                 test2+=1
837                 test1+=1
838
839 ## print('couplesF0F1F2F2c: '+str(couplesF0F1F2F2c))
840 ## print('len(couplesF0F1F2F2c): '+str(len(couplesF0F1F2F2c)))
841 ## print('couplesF0F1F2c: '+str(couplesF0F1F2c))
842 ## print('len(couplesF0F1F2c): '+str(len(couplesF0F1F2c)))
843 ## print()
844
845 #-----
846 # Step 6: Determine foundF1F2c
847 #-----
848 # Radius of search volume for F3
849 #radiusF3=100
850 SVF3=radiusF3**2
851
852 couplesF1F2F2cF3c=list()
853 foundcouplesF1F2c=list()
854
855 a2c=0
856 while a2c<len(couplesF0F1F2F2c):
857     center_x2_cand=couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][2]
858     center_y2_cand=couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][1][2]
859     mindists3=list()
860     noF2=list()
861     cand_3=list()
862
863     # v1
864     vx_1=(couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][1]-couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][0])/deltaT
865     vy_1=(couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][1]-couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][0])/deltaT
866
867     # v2
868     vx_2=(couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][3]-couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][1])/deltaT
869     vy_2=(couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][3]-couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][1])/deltaT
870
871     # a1
872     ax_1=(vx_2-vx_1)/deltaT
873     ay_1=(vy_2-vy_1)/deltaT

```

```

858
859 # Estimated point of F3: F3_g
860 x1=couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][1]
861 y1=couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][1]
862 x_3_g=x1+vx_1*2*deltaT+ax_1*(2*deltaT)**2
863 y_3_g=y1+vy_1*2*deltaT+ay_1*(2*deltaT)**2
864 center3_g=[[x_3_g,y_3_g]]
865
866 #-----
867 # If no F0 was found, velocity v1 is set to zero
868 #-----
869 if abs(vx_1)==abs(x1):
870     x_3_g=x1
871     y_3_g=y1
872     center3_g=[[x1,y1]]
873
874 ##         print('center3_g: '+str(center3_g))
875 ##         print('len(center3_g): '+str(len(center3_g)))
876
877 as0123=list()
878 a0123p=list()
879 as0123p=list()
880 F3dists=list()
881
882 a3=0
883 count=0
884 while a3<len(center3):
885     # Circle
886     ((x,y)2_g)https://stackoverflow.com/questions/12262017/python-checking-if-coordinates-are-within-circle
887     if ((center3[a3][0]-x_3_g)**2 + (center3[a3][1]-y_3_g)**2) <=SVF3 :
888         cand_3.append([center3[a3][0],center3[a3][1]])
889
890         coupleF1F2F2cF3c=[couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][0],couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][1],
891         couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][2],center3[a3][0]], [couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][1][0],c
892         ouplesF1F2F2c[a2c][1][1],couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][1][2],center3[a3][1]]
893         couplesF1F2F2cF3c.append(coupleF1F2F2cF3c)
894         F3dist=(center3[a3][0]-x_3_g)**2 + (center3[a3][1]-y_3_g)**2
895         F3dists.append(F3dist)
896
897         a0123p.append([[couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][0],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][1]
898         ],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][2],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][3],center3[a3][
899         0]], [couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][0],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][1],couplesF0
900         F1F2F2c[a2c][1][2],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][3],center3[a3][1]])]
901
902         as0123p.append([[couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][0],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][1]
903         ],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][2],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][0][3],center3[a3]
904         ][0]], [couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][0],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][1],couples
905         F0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][2],couplesF0F1F2F2c[a2c][1][3],center3[a3][1]],F3dis
906         t]])
907     a3+=1
908
909 ##         print('len(cand_3): '+str(len(cand_3)))
910 ##         print()
911
912 if len(F3dists)==0:
913     print('len(cand_3)==0: No F2 appended to track')
914
915     coupleF1F2F2cF3c=[[couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][0],couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][1]
916     ,couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][0][2],3333], [couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][1][0],couplesF1F
917     2F2c[a2c][1][1],couplesF1F2F2c[a2c][1][2],3333]]
918     couplesF1F2F2cF3c.append(coupleF1F2F2cF3c)
919
920 if len(F3dists)>0:
921     if len(F3dists)==1:
922         F3dist=F3dists[0]
923
924         foundcouplesF1F2c.append([couplesF1F2F2cF3c[a2c][0][0],couplesF1F2
925         F2cF3c[a2c][0][2],couplesF1F2F2cF3c[a2c][1][0],couplesF1F2F2cF3c[a
926         2c][1][2],F3dist])
927     else:

```

```

910             F3dist=min(F3dists)
911             coupleF1F2F2cF3c=a0123p[as0123.index(a0123)]
912             couplesF1F2F2cF3c.append(coupleF1F2F2cF3c)
913
914             foundcouplesF1F2c.append([[couplesF1F2F2cF3c[a2c][0][0],couplesF1F2
915             F2cF3c[a2c][0][2],couplesF1F2F2cF3c[a2c][1][0],couplesF1F2F2cF3c[a
916             2c][1][2],F3dist])
917
918         a2c+=1
919
920     ## print('couplesF1F2F2cF3c: '+str(couplesF1F2F2cF3c))
921     ## print('len(couplesF1F2F2cF3c): '+str(len(couplesF1F2F2cF3c)))
922     ## print()
923     ## print('foundcouplesF1F2c: '+str(foundcouplesF1F2c))
924     ## print('len(foundcouplesF1F2c): '+str(len(foundcouplesF1F2c)))
925     ## print()
926
927     #-----
928     # Step 7: Find foundF1F2
929     #-----
930     foundF1F2=list()
931
932     aa=0
933     while aa<len(foundcouplesF1F2c):
934         F1=foundcouplesF1F2c[aa][0]
935         bb=0
936         mindist=list()
937         mindistp=list()
938         minip=list()
939         count=0
940         while bb<len(foundcouplesF1F2c):
941             if F1==foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][0]:
942                 dist=foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][4]
943                 mindist.append(dist)
944
945                 minip.append([[foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][0],foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][1]], [fou
946                 ndcouplesF1F2c[bb][2],foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][3]]])
947
948                 mindistp.append([[foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][0],foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][1]],
949                 [foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][2],foundcouplesF1F2c[bb][3]],dist])
950                 count+=1
951             bb+=1
952         if count>1:
953             minidist=min(mindist)
954             foundF1F2i=mindistp[minip.index(minidist)]
955         else:
956             foundF1F2i=minip[0]
957             foundF1F2.append(foundF1F2i)
958             aa+=1
959
960     #-----
961     # Step 8: Find F2, with no matching F1
962     #-----
963     #which center2 are not in foundF1F2: append to center2_not
964     center2_not=list()
965
966     testC2=0
967     if len(foundF1F2)==0:
968         while testC2<len(center2):
969             center2_not.append([center2[testC2][0],center2[testC2][1]])
970             testC2+=1
971     else:
972         while testC2<len(center2):
973             testMC12=0
974             count=0
975             while testMC12<len(foundF1F2):
976                 if center2[testC2][0]==foundF1F2[testMC12][0][1]:
977                     print('center2[testC2][0]==foundF1F2[testMC12][1][0]')
978                 else:
979                     count+=1
980             if count==len(foundF1F2):
981                 center2_not.append([center2[testC2][0],center2[testC2][1]])
982             testMC12+=1

```

```

975         testC2+=1
976
977     ##     print('center2_not: '+str(center2_not))
978     ##     print('len(center2_not): '+str(len(center2_not)))
979     ##     print()
980
981     #-----
982     # Step 9: Store found F2s in the matrices trackingx and trackingy (in the row of
the matching F1)
983     #-----
984     if framenummer==1:
985         lenfoundcouplesF1F2=len(center0)+len(center1)-len(couplesF0F1)
986         row=0
987         while row<lenfoundcouplesF1F2: #
988             lenfoundcouplesF1F2=len(center0)+len(center1)-len(mincouples01)
989             test1=trackingx[row][j2-2] # F1_x in trackingx
990             rows4=0
991             while rows4<len(foundF1F2):
992                 if trackingx[row][j2-2]==foundF1F2[rows4][0][0]:
993                     trackingx[row][j2-1]=foundF1F2[rows4][0][1]
994                     trackingy[row][j2-1]=foundF1F2[rows4][1][1]
995                     rows4+=1
996             row+=1
997         lenfoundcouplesF1F2+=len(center2_not)
998
999     if framenummer>1:
1000         row=0
1001         while row<lenfoundcouplesF1F2:
1002             test1=trackingx[row][j2-2] # F1_x in trackingx
1003             rows4=0
1004             while rows4<len(foundF1F2):
1005                 if trackingx[row][j2-2]==foundF1F2[rows4][0][0]:
1006                     trackingx[row][j2-1]=foundF1F2[rows4][0][1]
1007                     trackingy[row][j2-1]=foundF1F2[rows4][1][1]
1008                     rows4+=1
1009             row+=1
1010
1011         rowsxNF2=lenfoundcouplesF1F2
1012         test=0
1013         while test<len(center2_not):
1014             trackingx[rowsxNF2][j2-1]=center2_not[test][0]
1015             trackingy[rowsxNF2][j2-1]=center2_not[test][1]
1016             test+=1
1017             rowsxNF2+=1
1018         lenfoundcouplesF1F2+=len(center2_not)
1019     ##     print('lenfoundcouplesF1F2 after: '+str(lenfoundcouplesF1F2))
1020     ##     print()
1021
1022     # Export the tracking matrices for each frame
1023
1024     np.savetxt(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/Tracking/Steps/"+framename+number+
'trackingx_'+str(framenummer)+'.txt', trackingx, delimiter=',')
1025
1026     np.savetxt(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/Tracking/Steps/"+framename+number+
'trackingy_'+str(framenummer)+'.txt', trackingy, delimiter=',')
1027
1028     framenummer+=1
1029
1030     #-----
1031     # Step 10: Export the found tracks and the final tracking matrices trackingx and
trackingy
1032     #-----
1033     trackingx_final=list()
1034     trackingy_final=list()
1035
1036     stepi=0
1037     while stepi< lenfoundcouplesF1F2+1:
1038         trackingx_final.append(trackingx[stepi])
1039         trackingy_final.append(trackingy[stepi])
1040
1041     np.savetxt(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+"/Tracking/Tracks/"+framename+number

```

```
1039     +'trackingx_'+str(stepi)+'.txt', trackingx[stepi], delimiter=',')
1040     np.savetxt(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/Tracking/Tracks/"+filename+number
1041     +'trackingy_'+str(stepi)+'.txt', trackingy[stepi], delimiter=',')
1042     stepi+=1
1043     np.savetxt(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/Tracking/"+filename+number+'trackingx
1044     _final.txt', trackingx_final, delimiter=',')
1045     np.savetxt(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/Tracking/"+filename+number+'trackingy
1046     _final.txt', trackingy_final, delimiter=',')
1047     cv2.waitKey(0)
1048     cv2.destroyAllWindows()
1049
1050
1051
1052
1053
1054
1055
```

A.8 Python code: Film thickness

A.8.1 Calibration for the calculation of the film thickness

```

1  import cv2
2  import numpy as np
3  import sys
4  import glob
5  import pathlib
6  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
7  from PIL import Image
8  from matplotlib.colors import hsv_to_rgb
9
10 # Name of the experiment
11 date='200603'
12 filename=date
13 number='_1'
14 fileextension='.mp4'
15 path=str(pathlib.Path(__file__).parent.absolute()).replace("\\", "/")
16 print(path)
17
18 # cropbox
19 def crop_center(img,a1,a2,b1,b2):
20     return img[a1:a2,b1:b2]
21
22
23 #-----
24 # Calibration Camera
25 #-----
26
27 pathCali='C:/Users/lieb_la/Desktop/Calibration/'
28 dateCali='20200509'
29 nameCali='B3-F2-CB-1'
30
31 #-----
32 # Get frames from video
33 #-----
34
35 #cropbox 135mm: 50x50mm
36 # a width, b lenght
37 a1=910
38 a2=1400
39 b1=250
40 b2=750
41 cropbox=(a1,b1,a2,b2)
42
43
44 #-----
45 # Read and Save Calibration Parameters
46 #-----
47
48 # Camera matrix
49 fileCM=open(pathCali+'/' +dateCali+'/' +nameCali+' /Results/Total/' +nameCali+'_cameramatr
50 ix_4_meanT.txt','r")
51 CM=fileCM.readlines()
52
53 # Distortion coefficients
54 fileDC=open(pathCali+'/' +dateCali+'/' +nameCali+' /Results/Total/' +nameCali+'_distortion
55 coeff_4_meanT.txt','r")
56 DC=fileDC.readlines()
57
58 mtz=np.zeros((3,3))
59 dist=np.zeros((1,5))
60 mtz[2][2]=1
61
62 mtz[0][0]=float(CM[0]) #fx
63 mtz[1][1]=float(CM[1]) #fy
64 mtz[0][2]=float(CM[2]) #cx
65 mtz[1][2]=float(CM[3]) #cy
66 dist[0][0]=float(DC[0]) #k1
67 dist[0][1]=float(DC[1]) #k2
68 dist[0][2]=float(DC[2]) #p1
69 dist[0][3]=float(DC[3]) #p2
70 dist[0][4]=float(DC[4]) #k3

```

```

71
72 frames=list()
73 correctedframes=list()
74 FT_all=list()
75 FT_sort=list()
76 framenummer=list()
77 zahl=0
78 framenummer_withFT=list()
79
80 # Print the detected lines
81 p=open(path+"/"+framename+number+'_Lines.txt',"w+")
82 p.write('Framenummer, Xs, Ys, Xs, Ys, Slope'+"\n")
83
84 g=open(path+"/"+framename+number+'_LinesXMean.txt',"w+")
85 g.write('Framenummer, XMeans'+"\n")
86
87 l=open(path+"/"+framename+number+'_LinesXMeanSorted.txt',"w+")
88 l.write('Framenummer, XMeans'+"\n")
89
90
91 lenxmeans_new=list()
92 xmeanALL=list()
93 minlines=list()
94 frame_withFT=0
95
96 # Take video and read it until video is completed: if Calibration is done with
97 frames from a video
98 ##cap=cv2.VideoCapture(path+'/'+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+fileext
99 ension)
100 ##while(cap.isOpened()):
101 ## # Capture frame-by-frame
102 ## ret, frame = cap.read()
103 ## if ret == True:
104
105 for filename in glob.glob('*.*png'): # if Calibration is done with frames
106     frame = cv2.imread(filename)
107     zahl+=1
108     print('Framenummer: '+str(zahl))
109     framenummer.append(zahl)
110
111     #-----
112     # Correction of the data using the calibration
113     #-----
114
115     img0 = frame
116     h, w = img0.shape[:2]
117     newcameramtx, roi=cv2.getOptimalNewCameraMatrix(mtx,dist,(w,h),0,(w,h))
118     #value between 0 (whole picture range) and 1 (cut out of the picture)
119
120     # Undistort the original image
121     dst = cv2.undistort(img0, mtx, dist, None, newcameramtx)
122
123     # Crop the orinigal image
124     x,y,w,h = roi
125     dst = dst[y:y+h, x:x+w]
126     correctedframes.append(dst)
127     frames.append(frame)
128     framecut=crop_center(dst,b1,b2,a1,a2)
129
130     cv2.imwrite(path+'/Frames/'+framename+number+'_correctedframecut'+str(zahl)+'
131     .png',framecut)
132     img=framecut
133
134     #-----
135     #Segmentation
136     #-----
137
138     # Convert BGR to HSV
139     hsv=cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2HSV)
140
141     # Get value sensitivity
142     sens=20

```

```

138
139     # Define range of white color in HSV with adjustable sensitivity
140     lower_white = np.array([ 0, 0, 100-sens])
141     upper_white = np.array([ 0, 0, 100    ])
142
143     # Threshold the HSV image to get only white colors, (in the range of the
144     # mask: 1 (white))
145     mask = cv2.inRange(hsv, lower_white, upper_white)
146
147     # Bitwise-AND mask and original image, in the frame ther is the frame and
148     # mask ist true; Bitwise: where are 1s in the frame: show the color)
149     res = cv2.bitwise_and(img,img, mask= mask)
150     cv2.imwrite(path+"/Frames/"+framenam+number+'_res'+str(zahl)+'.png',res)
151
152     # Find the edges
153     edges = cv2.Canny(res,100,250) #,apertureSize=3)
154     cv2.imwrite(path+"/Frames/"+framenam+number+'_edges'+str(zahl)+'.png',edges)
155
156     #-----
157     # Read detected lines from calibration
158     #-----
159     ymeans=list()
160     xmeans=list()
161     yls=list()
162     xls=list()
163     y2s=list()
164     x2s=list()
165     slopes=list()
166     angles=list()
167
168     # Criteria for the line detection
169     minLineLength = 5 #min lenght of lines, line segments shorter than that are
170     #rejected
171     maxLineGap = 4 #maximum gap between line segments to treat them as a single
172     #line
173     minangle=85 #eliminate all lines with angle >x° (horizontal lines)
174
175     lines = cv2.HoughLinesP(edges,1,np.pi/180,10,minLineLength,maxLineGap)
176     g.write(str(zahl)+'\n')
177     l.write(str(zahl)+'\n')
178     try:
179         for line in lines:
180             x1,y1,x2,y2 = line[0]
181             angle = np.arctan2(y2 - y1, x2 - x1) * 180. / np.pi
182             if abs(angle) >= minangle:
183                 cv2.line(img, (x1, y1), (x2, y2), (0, 255, 0), 2)
184                 angles.append(angle)
185                 cv2.line(img, (x1, y1), (x2, y2), (0, 255, 0), 2)
186                 xls.append(x1)
187                 x2s.append(x2)
188                 yls.append(y1)
189                 y2s.append(y2)
190                 slope=(y2-y1)/(x2-x1)
191                 p.write(str(zahl)+'\n'+str(x1)+'\n'+
192                 str(y1)+'\n'+str(slope)+'\n'+str(x2)+'\n'+ str(y2)+"\n")
193                 slopes.append(slope)
194                 xmean=(x1+x2)/2
195                 g.write(str(xmean)+'\n')
196                 xmeans.append(xmean)
197                 ymean=(y1+y2)/2
198                 ymeans.append(ymean)
199     except TypeError:
200         print('No lines detected')
201
202     p.write('\n')
203     g.write('\n')
204
205     xmeans.sort()
206     xmeans_new=list()
207     means=list()
208     mindist=5
209     count=0

```

```

205     if len(xmeans)>1:
206         while count < len(xmeans):
207             count2=0
208             counti=0
209             while count2 < len(xmeans):
210                 if count != count2:
211
212                     if abs(xmeans[count]-xmeans[count2])< mindist:
213                         mean=(xmeans[count]+xmeans[count2])/2
214                         means.append(mean)
215                     else:
216                         counti+=1
217                         if counti==len(xmeans)-1:
218                             xmeans_new.append(xmeans[count])
219                             count2+=1
220                             count+=1
221                 else:
222                     xmeans_new=xmeans
223
224     means2=means
225     x=0
226     while x <len(means):
227         x2=0
228         while x2<len(means2):
229             if x!=x2:
230                 if means[x]==means2[x2]:
231                     del means2[x2]
232                 x2+=1
233             x+=1
234
235     x3=0
236     while x3<len(means2):
237         xmeans_new.append(means2[x3])
238         x3+=1
239
240     xmeans_new.sort()
241     lenxmeans_new.append(len(xmeans_new))
242     xmeanALL.append(xmeans_new)
243     l.write(str(xmeans_new).replace("[", " ").replace("]", " "))
244     l.write('\n')
245
246     cv2.imwrite(path+'Frames/'+framenumber+'_detectedLines'+str(zahl)+'.png',
247               img)
248     ## # Break the loop if a video is used for calibration
249     ## else:
250     ##     break
251
252     ##cap.release()
253     p.close()
254     g.close()
255     l.close()
256
257     # Save to folder
258     xmeans_MEAN=list()
259     maxlenxmeans_new=max(lenxmeans_new)
260     x=0
261     while x< maxlenxmeans_new:
262         b=0
263         y=0
264         while y<len(xmeanALL):
265             b+=xmeanALL[y][x]
266             y+=1
267         xmeans_MEAN.append(b/y)
268         x+=1
269     print('xmeans_MEAN: '+str(xmeans_MEAN))
270
271     #-----
272     # Calculation of calibration parameters for the determination of the film thickness
273     #-----
274     # Scale on the pin
275     ScalePIN=list(range(1, len(xmeans_MEAN)+1))

```

```
275
276 # Linear fit
277 m2,b2 = np.polyfit(xmeans_MEAN,ScalePIN, 1)
278
279 # Save
280 z=open(path+"/"+framenam+number+'_CalibrationFT.txt',"w+")
281 z.write(str(m2)) # slope
282 z.write('\n')
283 z.write(str(b2)) # intercept
284 z.close()
285
286 cv2.waitKey(0)
287 cv2.destroyAllWindows()
288
289
290
```

A.8.2 Determination of the film thickness

```

1  import cv2
2  import numpy as np
3  import sys
4  import pathlib
5  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
6  from PIL import Image
7  from matplotlib.colors import hsv_to_rgb
8
9  # name of the experiment
10 date='200617'
11 filename=date
12 number='_1'
13 fileextension='.mp4'
14 path=str(pathlib.Path(__file__).parent.absolute()).replace("\\", "/")
15
16 # save to folder
17 p=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/"+filename+number+'_filmthickness.txt',"w
18 +")
19 p.write('Framenumber xmaxdots Filmthickness'+"\n")
20
21 k=open(path+"/"+date+"/"+filename+number+"/"+filename+number+'_filmthickness_mean.tx
22 t',"w+")
23
24 #-----
25 # Calibration Camera
26 #-----
27 pathCali='G:/Liebl/4-analysis/tracer tracking/calibration/'
28 dateCali='20200509'
29 nameCali='B3-F2-CB-1'
30
31 #-----
32 # Calibration FT
33 #-----
34 pathCaliFT=path+"/calibration/"
35 dateCaliFT='200603'
36 nameCaliFT='_1'
37
38 fileCaliFT=open(pathCaliFT+'/'+dateCaliFT+'/'+dateCaliFT+nameCaliFT+'/'+dateCaliFT+nam
39 eCaliFT+'_CalibrationFT.txt',"r")
40 CalibrationFT=fileCaliFT.readlines()
41 slope=float(CalibrationFT[0])
42 intercept=float(CalibrationFT[1])
43
44 #-----
45 # Cropbox (Same size than in calibration!)
46 #-----
47
48 # cropbox
49 def crop_center(img,a1,a2,b1,b2):
50     return img[a1:a2,b1:b2]
51
52 #cropbox 135mm: 50x50mm
53 # a width, b lenght
54 a1=910
55 a2=1400
56 b1=250
57 b2=750
58 cropbox=(a1,b1,a2,b2)
59
60 maxLimit=300 # Has to be adjusted!!
61
62 #-----
63 # Read and Save Calibration Parameters
64 #-----
65
66 # Camera matrix
67 fileCM=open(pathCali+'/'+dateCali+'/'+nameCali+'/Results/Total/'+nameCali+'_cameramatr
68 ix_4_meanT.txt',"r")
69 CM=fileCM.readlines()

```

```

69 # Distortion coefficients
70 fileDC=open(pathCali+'/'+dateCali+'/'+nameCali+'/Results/Total/'+nameCali+'_distortion
coeff_4_meanT.txt',"r")
71 DC=fileDC.readlines()
72
73 mtx=np.zeros((3,3))
74 dist=np.zeros((1,5))
75 mtx[2][2]=1
76
77 mtx[0][0]=float(CM[0]) #fx
78 mtx[1][1]=float(CM[1]) #fy
79 mtx[0][2]=float(CM[2]) #cx
80 mtx[1][2]=float(CM[3]) #cy
81 dist[0][0]=float(DC[0]) #k1
82 dist[0][1]=float(DC[1]) #k2
83 dist[0][2]=float(DC[2]) #p1
84 dist[0][3]=float(DC[3]) #p2
85 dist[0][4]=float(DC[4]) #k3
86
87
88 #-----
89 # Get frames from video, undistort them and detect particles
90 #-----
91 frames=list()
92 correctedframes=list()
93 framenumbers=list()
94 framenumbers_withFT=list()
95 zahl=0
96 FT_all=list()
97 FT2_all=list()
98
99 #take video
100 cap=cv2.VideoCapture(path+'/'+date+"/"+framename+number+"/"+framename+number+fileexten
sion)
101 # Read until video is completed
102 while(cap.isOpened()):
103     # Capture frame-by-frame
104     ret, frame = cap.read()
105     if ret == True:
106
107         zahl+=1
108         print('Framenumber: '+str(zahl))
109         p.write(str(zahl)+',')
110     ##
111     cv2.imwrite(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+'/Frames/'+framename+number+'_frame'+st
r(zahl)+'.png',frame)
112     framenumbers.append(zahl)
113
114     #-----
115     # Correction of the data using the calibration
116     #-----
117     img0 = frame
118     h, w = img0.shape[:2]
119     newcameramtx, roi=cv2.getOptimalNewCameraMatrix(mtx,dist,(w,h),0,(w,h))
120     #value between 0 (whole picture range) and 1 (cut out of the picture)
121
122     # Undistort the original image
123     dst = cv2.undistort(img0, mtx, dist, None, newcameramtx)
124
125     # Crop the original image
126     x,y,w,h = roi
127     dst = dst[y:y+h, x:x+w]
128     correctedframes.append(dst)
129     frames.append(frame)
130     framecut=crop_center(dst,b1,b2,a1,a2)
131     ##
132     cv2.imwrite(path+"/"+date+"/"+framename+number+'/Frames/'+framename+number+'_framecut'
+str(zahl)+'.png',framecut)
133     im=framecut
134
135     #-----

```

```
134     # Detection of particles
135     #-----
136
137     # Setup SimpleBlobDetector parameters.
138     params = cv2.SimpleBlobDetector_Params()
139
140     # Change thresholds
141     params.thresholdStep = 5
142     params.minThreshold = 60
143     params.maxThreshold = 255 # limit, so that the pin is not detected: has to
    be checked
144
145     # Filter by Color (one specific color needed: not recommended)
146     params.filterByColor = False
147     params.blobColor = 255
148
149     # Filter by Area depending on the distance between the camera and the
    particle tracer mixture. see: Excel: picture-pillow
150     params.filterByArea = True
151     params.minArea = 40 # 60mm:127, 80mm:92, 100mm:60, 135mm:40, 150mm:26,
    200mm:17
152     params.maxArea = 175 # 60mm:500, 80mm:366, 100mm:238, 135mm:158, 150mm:102,
    200mm:66
153
154     # Filter by Circularity
155     params.filterByCircularity = True
156     params.minCircularity = 0.7 # circularity of a square
157
158     # Filter by Convexity (Area of the Blob / Area of it's convex hull)
159     params.filterByConvexity = False
160     params.minConvexity = 0.87
161
162     # Filter by Inertia (ratio of widest to thinnest point, measures how
    elongated a shape is, circle:1, ellipse0-1, line:0)
163     params.filterByInertia = True
164     params.minInertiaRatio = 0.01
165
166     params.minDistBetweenBlobs = 1.0 # keypoints closer will be merged
167     params.minRepeatability = 2
168
169
170     # Create a detector with the parameters
171     ver = (cv2.__version__).split('.')
172     if int(ver[0]) < 3 :
173         detector = cv2.SimpleBlobDetector(params)
174     else :
175         detector = cv2.SimpleBlobDetector_create(params)
176
177
178     # Detect blobs
179     keypoints = detector.detect(im)
180     blobnumber=len(keypoints)
181
182
183     # Draw detected blobs as red circles
184     # cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS ensures that the size of the
    circle corresponds to the size of blob
185     im_with_keypoints = cv2.drawKeypoints(im, keypoints, np.array([]),
    (0,0,255), cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS)
186
187     center=list()
188     ycenterdots=list()
189     xcenterdots=list()
190     diameter=list()
191     diametermm=list()
192
193     for keypoint in keypoints:
194         x = keypoint.pt[0]
195         y = keypoint.pt[1]
196         s = keypoint.size/2
197         KeyPoints=[x,y,s]
198         center.append(KeyPoints)
```

```

199         ycenterdots.append(y)
200         xcenterdots.append(x)
201         diameter.append(s*2)
202
203         centerint = np.uint16(np.around(center)) #circle only can handle int
204
205         # To check the detected circles
206         for i in centerint:
207             # Draw the outer circle
208             cv2.circle(im, (i[0], i[1]), i[2], (0, 255, 0), 2)
209             # Draw the center of the circles.
210             cv2.circle(im, (i[0], i[1]), 2, (0, 0, 255), 1)
211
212         #-----
213         # Find the highest detected particle
214         #-----
215         # Values of the highest dot
216         ymin_centerdots=min(ycenterdots)
217         xmax_centerdots=max(xcenterdots)
218         print('xmax_centerdots: '+str(xmax_centerdots))
219         radiusofcentermax=diameter[xcenterdots.index(xmax_centerdots)]/2
220         xmax_centerdotswithRadius=xmax_centerdots+radiusofcentermax
221         print('xmax_centerdotswithRadius: '+str(xmax_centerdotswithRadius))
222         p.write(str(xmax_centerdots)+'\n')
223
224         # Draw a line to the maximum detected dot
225         cv2.line(im, (int(xmax_centerdotswithRadius),
226             0), (int(xmax_centerdotswithRadius), 1080), (255, 0, 0), 1)
227         cv2.line(im, (int(xmax_centerdots), 0), (int(xmax_centerdots), 1080),
228             (0, 0, 255), 1)
229
230         cv2.imwrite(path+"-"+date+"/"+"frame"+number+'Frames/'+frame+number+'_d
231             etectedCircles'+str(zahl)+'.png', im)
232
233         #-----
234         # Film thickness calculation
235         #-----
236         if xmax_centerdots < maxLimit:
237             FT=xmax_centerdots*slope+intercept
238             FT2=xmax_centerdotswithRadius*slope+intercept
239             FT_all.append(FT)
240             FT2_all.append(FT2)
241             framenumbers_withFT.append(zahl)
242             p.write(str(FT)+'\n')
243             p.write("\n")
244
245         # Break the loop
246         else:
247             break
248
249         cap.release()
250         p.close()
251
252         # Calculation of mean film thickness
253         FT_mean= np.mean(FT_all)
254         FT_stab=np.std(FT_all)
255         print('FT_Mean (Center of the highest dot): '+str(FT_mean))
256         print('FT_stab: '+str(FT_stab))
257         print('Number of FT measurements with xmax_dots<Limit:'+str(len(FT_all)))
258         k.write('FT_Mean (Center of the highest dot): '+str(FT_mean)+'\n')
259         k.write('FT_stab: '+str(FT_stab)+'\n')
260         k.write('Number of FT measurements with xmax_dots<Limit:'+str(len(FT_all)))
261         k.close()
262
263         FT2_mean= np.mean(FT2_all)
264         FT2_stab=np.std(FT2_all)
265         print('FT2_Mean (Center+radius of the highest dot): '+str(FT2_mean))
266         print('FT2_stab: '+str(FT2_stab))
267
268         # Plot of the Filmthickness
269         plt.plot(framenumbers_withFT, FT_all, 'bo', markersize=1)

```

```
267 plt.title('Filmthickness')
268 plt.xlabel('Framenumber')
269 plt.ylabel('Filmthickness in mm')
270 #plt.show()
271 plt.savefig(path+"/"+date+"/"+framenumber+'/'+'framenumber+'_FT.png')
272 plt.close()
273
274 cv2.waitKey(0)
275 cv2.destroyAllWindows()
276
277
278
```