GroupGazer: A Tool to Compute the Gaze per Participant in Groups with Integrated Calibration to Map the Gaze Online to a Screen or Beamer Projection

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Abstract: In this paper we present GroupGazer. It is a tool that can be used to calculate the gaze direction and the gaze position of whole groups. GroupGazer calculates the gaze direction of every single person in the image and allows to map these gaze vectors to a projection like a projector. In addition to the person-specific gaze direction, the person affiliation of each gaze vector is stored based on the position in the image. Also, it is possible to save the group attention after a calibration. The software is free to use and requires a simple webcam as well as an NVIDIA GPU.

1 INTRODUCTION

Eye tracking is an important input modality and information source in the modern world (Cognolato et al., 2018). In the field of human-machine interaction, the gaze signal is used and further researched for interaction with robots (Willemsen and Wykowska, 2019) but also other technical devices (Wanluk et al., 2016). This involves not only simple control but also collaboration in which a human communicates complex behavior to a robot or system (Palinko et al., 2016). Interaction with the eyes is also an interesting source of information in the field of computer games (Alkan and Cagiltay, 2007). Eye interaction is many times faster than mouse interaction, which could revolutionize the professional computer gaming field (Jönsson, 2005). In the field of virtual reality, gaze information can be used to render only small areas of the scene in high resolution, leading to a significant reduction in the resources consumption of the devices (Meng et al., 2018). Another important area in which the gaze signal plays an important role is driver observation. Here it is necessary to assess whether the driver is able to control the vehicle or is too tired in the case of autonomous driving to take over the vehicle (Zandi et al., 2019). Of course, this also applies to car rental companies, for which it is important to know whether the driver is, for example, intoxicated or an unsafe driver (Maurage et al., 2020). In the field of medicine, research is also being conducted into methods of self-diagnosis (Clark et al., 2019). This involves, for example, the early detection of Alzheimer’s disease (Crawford, 2015), strokes (Matsumoto et al., 2011), as well as eye defects (Eide et al., 2019) or autism (Boraston and Blakemore, 2007). In the field of safety, the eye signal also gains increasingly more interest (Katsini et al., 2020; Fuhl et al., 2021a). This is due to the fact that personal behavior is reflected in the gaze signal, which can be used to identify the person (Fuhl et al., 2021b). Other information contained in the eye is the cognitive load based on pupil dilation (Chauliac et al., 2020), attention (Chita-Tegmark, 2016), procedural strategies (Jenke et al., 2021) and many others. A relatively new area in which the eye tracking signal is used is behavioral research (Yang and Krajbich, 2021; Das et al., 2018). Here it is on the one hand about extracting expert knowledge from the eye signal and passing this knowledge to trainees (Manning et al., 2003; Hoghooghi et al., 2020). This concerns, all areas in which the training is only possible with expensive tools and training devices (Vijayan et al., 2018). In the area of medicine the main interest is to distill the expert knowledge better (Quen et al., 2021; Manning et al., 2003). Another area of behavioral research which is also the subject of this thesis is group behavior (Hwang and Lee, 2020; Reichenberger et al., 2023).
2020; Kredel et al., 2017). Here there is research in the area of teaching (Korbach et al., 2020; Schneider et al., 2008; Jarodzka et al., 2020) but also in dynamic environments like sports (Oldham et al., 2021; Du Toit et al., 2009; Reneker et al., 2020).

The current problems in the field of behavioral research for groups, is that there is no freely available software for this. Therefore, research groups have to resort to expensive solutions such as multiple worn eye trackers. This creates further issues like the assignment of the important areas between the different scene cameras. One way around this is to use virtual reality together with eye tracking. However, this also changes the behavior of the test persons and cannot be carried out over longer periods of time with regard to motion sickness. Alternatively to worn eye trackers, there is also the possibility to use external cameras. In this case, the researchers have to implement their technical solutions independently, which often leads to dependencies on other working groups and is also an expensive undertaking due to the image processing cameras which are usually used.

In this paper, we present software that allows anyone to use a simple webcam for gaze estimation of groups and calibration each subject in parallel. By doing so, we hope to enable anyone to conduct behavioral group research. Our contributions to the state of the art are:

1. A tool to record the gaze of groups and calibrate each individual in parallel.
2. The tool has no specialized hardware requirements and only needs an NVIDIA GPU with at least 4 GB memory (We used a 1050 ti with 4 GB).
3. Stores the gaze per person as well as the average gaze location of the group.

2 RELATED WORK

Since our software is the combination of several research fields, we have divided the related work into three categories. The first category is face recognition, the second category is appearance based gaze estimation, and the third category is gaze based group behavior research.

2.1 Face Detection

Face recognition in arbitrary environments is still a very challenging field of research. Here, an arbitrarily large image is given, and all faces must be detected. This often involves occlusions, different head positions, changes in lighting conditions, and of course the faces in the image have different resolutions. The first very successful approach was presented by Viola and Jones (Viola and Jones, 2004). This is based on hair features and trained using AdaBoost. The next major step was achieved with deformable part models (DPM) (Yan et al., 2014). Compared to feature-based approaches, DPM is much more robust but requires significantly more computational effort. With the advent of deep neural networks, however, the state of the art was again significantly improved (Bai et al., 2018; Jiang and Learned-Miller, 2017; Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). The first extension of neural networks was the combination of face detection with face matching (Zhang and Zhang, 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). Current methods for face detection follow two directions. The first direction is the multistage approach, which is based on deep neural networks, however, the state of the art was again significantly improved (Bai et al., 2018; Jiang and Learned-Miller, 2017; Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). The first extension of neural networks was the combination of face detection with face matching (Zhang and Zhang, 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). Current methods for face detection follow two directions. The first direction is the multistage approach, which is based on deep neural networks, however, the state of the art was again significantly improved (Bai et al., 2018; Jiang and Learned-Miller, 2017; Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). The first extension of neural networks was the combination of face detection with face matching (Zhang and Zhang, 2014; Zhang et al., 2016).
already multiple versions, which consume even less resources at approximately the same detection rate. The advantage of the direct approaches, is the faster execution and the smaller resource consumption. The multilayer methods, on the other hand, provide a better detection rate and fewer misclassifications.

### 2.2 Appearance Based Gaze Estimation

Here, the entire facial image or eye area of a person is used to directly determine the gaze vector via a neural network. The first work in this area is from 1994 (Baluja and Pomerleau, 1994) and was extended in (Tan et al., 2002) by linear projection functions. These methods require very expensive calibration, since the neural network was trained for each person individually with many training examples. The first extensions to reduce the effort in calibration were a Gaussian process regression (Williams et al., 2006), saliency maps (Sugano et al., 2012), and optimal selection using a linear regression (Lu et al., 2014). While all of these methods advanced the state of the art, the appearance based approach still had many limitations, such as a fixed head position and per-person calibration. With deep neural networks and the advent of big data, this has changed significantly. In (Zhang et al., 2015) the first successful approach was presented, which realized appearance based gaze estimation with deep neural networks. The first extensions used, in addition to eye images, the subjects’ faces, which resulted in a significant improvement (Krafka et al., 2016; Kellnhofer et al., 2019). For extreme head positions and strongly deviating gaze angles to the head orientation, an asymmetric regression was presented (Cheng et al., 2020).

### 2.3 Gaze Based Group Behavior Research

In this section, we would like to mention and briefly explain only some works from this area, since our software is made for this purpose but does not perform a behavior research study.

The first area in behavioral research which can also be applied to groups is mind wandering (Hutt et al., 2017; Hutt et al., 2019). Mind wandering is a shift in attention to task-unrelated thoughts. This is an interesting effect for teaching since it negatively influences the learning performance of students (Robertson et al., 1997; Smallwood et al., 2008; Hutt et al., 2019). Mind wandering itself is a special form of disengagement and has to be separated from boredom or off-task behaviors (Cocea and Weibelzahl, 2010; Mills et al., 2014; Hutt et al., 2019). Another inter-

### 3 METHOD

Figure 2 shows the workflow of our approach. GroupGazer first opens a video stream on an available camera. Afterwards, all faces in the image are detected. If not all desired faces are detected, GroupGazer offers an upsampling factor, which can be set by the user. This upsampling factor resizes the input image to allow the face detection to detect even very small faces in the image. After the face detection, all detected faces are extracted from the image and resized to $100 \times 100$ pixels in a gray scale image. These images are grouped together to form a batch which is given to the gaze vector estimation DNN.
Table 1: Shows the architecture of our face detection deep neural network. The architecture is copied from dlib (King, 2009) and uses the max margin (King, 2015) training procedure. We modified the model in terms of tensor normalization (Fuhl, 2021b) and gradient centralization (Fuhl and Kasneci, 2021) as well as convolution size and depth.

Level Gaze estimator

| Input RGB image any resolution |
|--------------------------------|
| 1 Pyramid layer with six stages |
| 2 $5 \times 5$ Conv, dep 8, $2 \times 2$ down, BN, ReLu, TN |
| 3 $3 \times 3$ Conv, dep 8, $2 \times 2$ down, BN, ReLu, TN |
| 4 $3 \times 3$ Conv, dep 8, $2 \times 2$ down, BN, ReLu, TN |
| 5 $5 \times 5$ Conv, dep 16, BN, ReLu, TN |
| 6 $3 \times 3$ Conv, dep 16, BN, ReLu, TN |
| 7 $3 \times 3$ Conv, dep 16, BN, ReLu, TN |
| 8 $7 \times 7$ Conv, dep 1 |

Table 2: Shows the architecture of our gaze estimation deep neural network. It has the structure of a ResNet-34 (He et al., 2016) and uses the leaky maximum propagation blocks (Fuhl, 2021a), tensor normalization (Fuhl, 2021b), as well as the weight and gradient centralization (Fuhl and Kasneci, 2021).

Level Gaze estimator

| Input Gray scale image 100 $\times$ 100 |
|--------------------------------------|
| 1 $5 \times 5$ Conv, dep 32 |
| 2 ReLu with tensor normalization |
| 3 $2 \times 2$ Max pooling |
| 4 $3$ Max blocks, $2 \times 2$ d, $3 \times 3$ C, dep 64, BN |
| 5 ReLu with tensor norm |
| 6 $3$ Max blocks, $2 \times 2$ d, $3 \times 3$ C, dep 128, BN |
| 7 ReLu with tensor norm |
| 8 $3$ Max blocks, $2 \times 2$ d, $3 \times 3$ C, dep 256, BN |
| 9 ReLu with tensor norm |
| 10 Fully connected, 512 outputs |
| 11 ReLu |
| 12 Fully, 7 (3,7 for validation) |

The batch size can also be set by the user. This fixed batch size allows GroupGazer to have a static runtime and if there are fewer faces in the image, the rest of the batch is filled with black images. GroupGazer can be used with a 1050 ti graphics card for up to 40 faces in real time, which is also dependent on the input resolution to the face detection DNN. For newer GPUs more faces can be set by the user as well as larger input image resolutions for the face detection. The gaze estimation DNN processes the entire batch and computes a starting position (First two values), an accuracy of the starting position (Third value), the gaze vector (Forth to sixth value), as well as an accuracy of the gaze vector (Seventh value). With this information, each face has a gaze vector and an estimated accuracy. With the gaze vector and the starting position, a polynomial is used to map the gaze vector to a projection or monitor. The degree of the polynomial can be specified by the user, and the calibration procedure works as follows. The teacher or adviser tells the students to look at his mouse cursor position. On a left mouse click, all gaze vectors which are seen as valid and accurate are stored together with the click location. This is repeated multiple times. Afterwards, for each user, the polynomial is fitted in the least squares sense. With those polynomials, the mapping and therefore the gaze location is computed for each user. The reidentification of users is done by the smallest euclidean distance to the last detections, and the new position is not allowed to leave the last face detection bounding box. This is a simple procedure but saves a lot of computational resources since no additional network has to be used. In addition, it is much more robust since fine-tuning a Network online usually needs multiple examples to deliver reliable results, even if we use the hypersphere approach (Xie et al., 2019) or siam networks (Abdelzayed and Shehata, 2019).

The used model architectures can be seen in Table 1 and 2. Our face detection model is similar to the model from dlib (King, 2009) we only made some slight changes which improve the accuracy of the model and only impact the runtime slightly. For gaze estimation we used the architecture of a ResNet-34 (He et al., 2016) since it has a good accuracy and is resource saving in contrast to the other networks. We modified the ResNet-34 architecture only by adding some novel normalization (Fuhl, 2021b; Fuhl and Kasneci, 2021), the landmark validation loss (Fuhl and Kasneci, 2019), as well as leaky maximum propagations instead of the residual connections (Fuhl, 2021a).

4 EVALUATION

Gaze360 (Kellnhofer et al., 2019) is a huge data set with 3D gaze annotations recorded using multiple cameras covering 360 degree. The recordings were conducted indoor and outdoor with 238 subjects. The dataset contains large head variations as well as distances of the subjects to the camera. We only used approximately 80,000 images of this data set since the data set contains also human heads from behind as well as some partially covered heads which we removed from our data for training and evaluation. The train and test split was done by randomly selecting 20% for testing and 80% for training.

DLIB (King, 2009) data set contains images of various resolutions. Each image can have multiple faces which are annotated with bounding boxes. In
Table 3: Face detection results on DLIB data set (King, 2009) with precision and recall. We compare our model to other approaches in terms of detection percentage as well as runtime in milliseconds (ms) for one hundred images in average. OoM means out of memory exception.

| Method                           | Precision | Recall | Runtime GPU (ms) |
|----------------------------------|-----------|--------|------------------|
| Proposed                         | 0.99      | 0.89   | 67               |
| dlib (King, 2009)                | 0.99      | 0.88   | 175              |
| Res-34 & Faster-RCNN (Ren et al., 2015) | 0.99      | 0.91   | OoM              |
| Yolov5s (Redmon et al., 2016)    | 0.99      | 0.89   | OoM              |

Table 4: Appearance based gaze estimation results on the Gaze360 (Kellnhofer et al., 2019) dataset. We compared our model to other approaches and evaluated the gaze start estimation in average euclidean distance in pixel as well as the gaze vector estimation in degree. Time is measured for one face image as average over one thousand.

| Method                        | Gaze start | Gaze vector | Runtime GPU (ms) |
|-------------------------------|------------|-------------|------------------|
| Proposed                      | 0.6        | 0.2         | 3                |
| ResNet-34 (He et al., 2016)   | 0.9        | 0.5         | 8                |
| ResNet-50 (He et al., 2016)   | 0.5        | 0.2         | 12               |
| MobileNet (Howard et al., 2017)| 1.8        | 1.6         | 7                |
| MobileNetv2 (Sandler et al., 2018) | 1.7        | 1.6         | 7                |

In Table 3 and 4 our models are compared with other approaches. For face detection (Table 3), it can be seen that we have chosen a tradeoff between detection rate and runtime. The recognition rate of our approach can be further increased via the upscaling factor. However, this also increases the computation time, which also increases the runtime per image. For Yolo this is not possible, because the memory usage for images larger than 300 becomes too large. For the backbone of the faster-RCNN, the memory consumption is also too high for a large resolution. Which is also the main reason why we decided against YOLO and the faster-RCNN. In addition, both the faster-RCNN with backbone and the YOLO need a fixed input resolution with which they have to be trained. For our fully convolutional approach inspired by the dlib architecture, this is not necessary.

For the gaze direction determination, you can clearly see that our net runs significantly faster than the other nets. This is due to the fact that our layers use less depth than, for example, ResNet-34. The MobileNets cannot show their advantage on the GPU, since they cause cache conflicts here, whereby parts of the code are executed serialized. On a CPU, MobileNet would be significantly faster than our net, but with about 160 ms per face too slow for a real-time evaluation. In terms of results, ResNet-50 is the most accurate, closely followed by our network. In addition to accuracy, if we consider runtime on a GPU, our network is clearly ahead, which is why we chose our architecture.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented GroupGazer. This is a software that allows to determine the gaze direction of groups per person. This gaze determination is done online on a conventional computer with an NVIDIA GPU. GroupGazer allows each person in the group to be calibrated in parallel so that the individual gaze vectors can be mapped to a projection, such as that of a projector or large monitor. The software is intended to support behavioral research and thus make it possible to easily record the gaze positions of groups.

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