A Multimodal Eye Movement Dataset and a Multimodal Eye Movement Segmentation Analysis

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Fig. 1. data streams which can be extracted from a human eye image and used for eye movement classification.

We present a new dataset with annotated eye movements. The dataset consists of over 800,000 gaze points recorded during a car ride in the real world and in the simulator. In total, the eye movements of 19 subjects were annotated. In this dataset there are several data sources such as the eyelid closure, the pupil center, the optical vector, and a vector into the pupil center starting from the center of the eye corners. These different data sources are analyzed and evaluated individually as well as in combination with respect to their goodness of fit for eye movement classification. These results will help developers of real-time systems and algorithms to find the best data sources for their application. Also, new algorithms can be trained and evaluated on this data set. The data and the Matlab code can be downloaded here https://atreus.informatik.uni-tuebingen.de/seafile/d/8e2ab8c3fdd444e1a135/?p=%2FA%20Multimodal%20Eye%20Movement%20Dataset%20and%20and%20...&mode=list.

CCS Concepts: • Computing methodologies → Neural networks; Classification and regression trees; • Human-centered computing → Empirical studies in ubiquitous and mobile computing;

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Eye Movements, Data set, Classification, Driving, Real World, Machine Learning, Segmentation

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1 INTRODUCTION

The eyes are an increasingly important source of information [10]. Current research in eye movements is concerned with cognitive states [64], workload of people [65], attention assurance in autonomous driving vehicles [54], and gaze forecasting [61]. In addition, classical research in the eye domain, such as feature extraction [20, 23, 24, 34, 36, 43–46, 49, 50, 60], eye movement classification [1, 14, 16, 25, 37, 47, 59], and gaze point determination [21, 56], is far from complete.

The application fields of an eye tracker are wide-ranging and include expertise determination [4], human computer interaction [11], human robot interaction [3], improved remote assistance [71], visualizations [33, 35, 55], facilitating the work of surgeons [2, 5, 7, 8, 43], and much more. Due to this variety of possible applications, eye trackers must perform reliably under a wide range of conditions, which creates a great many challenges in image processing [10] but also in eye movement classification [37]. Many Classical eye movement classification algorithms use a variety of thresholds which are applied to the data [1, 52]. More modern algorithms use a wide variety of machine learning techniques [13, 28–31] to do this [15, 17, 37, 59, 77] but it is still very challenging.

The modern methods have the advantage that the algorithms can be adapted to different eye trackers through training and annotated data. The disadvantage this creates is the need for a large amount of annotated data with a high quality. Some works [6, 26, 37, 48] have therefore dealt with the generation and simulation of eye movements.

In this work, we present a new dataset that includes annotations for fixations, saccades, and smooth pursuits. Due to the driving context it can also be used for scan path analysis [12, 18] and saliency prediction [32, 51]. Currently, this is the world’s largest dataset along with new metrics such as the optical vector, relative eye opening state, and a vector computed from the pupil center and the center of the eye corners. Since this dataset is based on the image data of [21, 39], the segmentations for the pupil as well as the sclera [19, 22, 39] are also given as well as the eyeball parameters and the optical vector. Also, this work includes an evaluation of different machine learning algorithms to assess the goodness of individual features. The contribution of this work is listed below as a bullet point list.

(1) The first contribution of this work is an eyeball annotated dataset which has already been annotated with semantic segmentations, the eyeball, and the optical vector by previous work [21, 39]. These data come from the car driving context and was recorded in a simulator as well as during real driving.

(2) The presented dataset also contains more extracted features than previous datasets regarding eye movements. As features we have the optical vector, the pupil center, a vector which has its origin exactly between the eye corners, and the degree of aperture of the eyelid [40–42]. Also, the movements in the x,y and depth dimension are additionally provided.

(3) With this multitude of features, we perform an analysis that highlights the importance and contribution of each feature. To the best of our knowledge, this is also the first work that looks at these features and their combination. This allows algorithm developers to more easily select the data they need.

(4) To our knowledge, the presented dataset is also the world’s largest dataset of annotated eye movements. This includes fixations, saccades, smooth pursuits, and errors in the data. The recordings come from long-term recordings in a driving simulator and from real-world car driving.
2 RELATED WORK

The two best known algorithms are IDT and IVT (Identification by Dispersion Threshold, Identification by Velocity Threshold) [69]. Here, different thresholds are used to limit the dispersion of the data points and the length of the segments. For IVT, only velocity is considered and a threshold is used to distinguish between fixation and saccade. For IVT there is also an approach which adaptively determines the threshold for velocity [9]. For filtering and smoothing the signal, a Kalman filter has also been presented [58]. Since the Kalman filter makes predictions, this smoothing can be used online. Also IVT was extended by a threshold for the segment length [57]. An approach which uses the $\chi^2$-test for smoothing was published in [57]. An extension of the IDT algorithm was presented using the F-tests scatter [74]. Here, the F-test decides the class thereby bypassing a fixed threshold. Since the F-test is very susceptible to noise, covariance was used instead of the F-test in [75]. However, the covariance approach has the disadvantage that three thresholds are now needed. In [57], a minimal spanning tree was computed to group the data into clusters. These clusters correspond to eye movement types. Since this algorithm requires all the data to compute, it cannot be used online.

In the field of machine learning, the first approaches were used to compute the threshold via statistics. The first approach used Hidden Markov Models (HMM) [57] and applied them to velocity. The model itself has two states and distinguishes between fixations and saccades. The first extension of this approach was presented in [72]. Here, automatic parameter determination was introduced. More recent approaches deal with newer eye movement types such as smooth pursuits and post saccadic movements (PSM). The first algorithm for PSM detection was presented in [67]. In the following year an algorithm which considers both eyes was presented [73]. The latter two algorithms use adaptive thresholding, the second assuming that both eyes perform the same movement. For four eye movements, an approach using adaptive thresholds was described in [63]. This can only be used offline, since it also includes some preprocessing steps. For high sampling rates, this algorithm has been extended [62]. The novelty in this approach is that a coarse segmentation is created after preprocessing. This segmentation is then further refined until the entire data is annotated.

Recent approaches to eye movement classification use deep neural networks (DNN) or random forests (RF). The first approach from this field is published in [53]. This approach transforms the data points in a fixed window into frequency space and then uses a DNN for classification. In [77], an approach using RF was presented. The algorithm was trained to work with different sampling rates. This was achieved by preprocessing the data using cubic spline interpolating and thus mapping it to a fixed sampling rate. Fourteen statistical features were also computed, which are used for classification. A rule-based approach, which can be fed with different data, was published in [17]. It learns rules consisting of threshold values and segments the individual data streams. Each segment combination is assigned a class. For the use of arbitrary machine learning algorithms the feature extractor histogram of oriented velocities (HOV) was presented [15]. Here, the HOVs are computed on the data and can then be used with any machine learning method. GazeNet [76] is another approach which uses deep neural networks together with LSTM (Long Short Term Memory) cells. Semantic eye movement classification in combination with fully convolutional networks was presented in [37]. Here variational autoencoders were used to generate data too. In [59] a new dataset as well as an algorithm based on RF was presented.

3 ANNOTATION PROCESS

For the annotation, we summarized and normalized the data from [21, 39]. In the first step, the optical vectors was normalized to a magnitude of one. The pupil center was normalized to the range of values of the image width and height, so that the new x and y coordinate multiplied by
the resolution gives the coordinates in pixels. The center was also calculated from the corners of the eyes and from this the vector to the center of the pupil was calculated. This vector was also normalized to the image width and height, but with the difference that it can contain both negative and positive values. To calculate the pupil center in pixels from this vector between the pupil and the eye corner center, the vector must be multiplied by the resolution and added to the eye corner center.

From all these values, the difference between two points was calculated as well as the difference for each axis and stored in a matrix. Values in which the detection failed based on the work of [39] were marked as errors. Also, all values using an error entry in the calculation were marked as errors. Subsequently, fixations and saccades were annotated over physiologically determined thresholds [52]. These segments were manually inspected and the ranges were adjusted. In this step, fixations were also reclassified to Smooth Pursuites. Finally, the approach of [37] was used to make the annotation as consistent as possible together with different validation procedures [27, 38]. Here, the approach was trained on 50% of a person’s data at a time and then applied to the remaining 50%. This process was repeated several times. Subsequently, all areas in which there was a difference between the annotation and the automated detection were inspected manually.

4 DATASET DESCRIPTION

- F1: Normalized euclidean pupil center distance between two frames.
- F2: Normalized euclidean eyelid center vector distance between two frames.
- F3: Normalized euclidean optical vector distance between two frames.
- F4: Eyelid opening in relation to eye width (eye corner distance).
- F5: Normalized pupil center distance in x direction.
- F6: Normalized pupil center distance in y direction.
- F7: Normalized eyelid center vector distance in x direction.
- F8: Normalized eyelid center vector distance in y direction.
- F9: Normalized optical vector distance in x direction.
- F10: Normalized optical vector distance in y direction.
- F11: Normalized optical vector distance in z direction.

The presented data set includes eleven features which are listed and described in the List 4. The image data comes from [21, 39]. The normalization of the data is described in the section 3. As can be seen in the List 4, these eleven features are four main features (F1-F4) and their differences into different dimensions (F5-F11). In total, our dataset has 866,050 annotated entries of which 154,242 are eye movement types segments and 10,580 are error segments. In total, 3.89% of the dataset is flagged as error based on the entries. More detailed information on all data types can be found in the Table 1. Our dataset includes car driving recordings of 19 people in total with the first 10 having driven in a simulator and the last 9 having performed real car rides. We also take this split for training (driving simulator) and testing (real driving) in the 5 section, where the multimodal data analysis is described. The eye tracker used was a Dikablis Pro with 25 frames per second. This low sampling rate makes it even harder to distinguish the different eye movement types.

Our data is provided in a Matlab data container (Mat file). Here the division into subjects as well as the division of the segments per eye movement type with amount of entries, start index, and stop index is given. Under Features you can find all features with the corresponding label.

Table 1 shows all statistics of our data set. Due to the low sampling rate of the eye tracker, it is also possible that there are several consecutive saccades with no fixation in between. This is due to the fact that the fixation occurred between two images. However, these annotations occur very rarely, which can also be seen in the statistics regarding saccades in Table 1, as the mean and
Table 1. Statistical characteristics of our dataset for each event type separately.

| Eye Movement Type | Data Points | Event Count | Mean Length | Deviation Length |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------------|
| Fixation          | 510.814     | 71.868      | 7.24        | 4.45             |
| Saccade           | 112.519     | 76.183      | 1.45        | 1.05             |
| Smooth Pursuit    | 208.962     | 6.191       | 32.94       | 16.75            |
| Error or Blink    | 33.755      | 10.580      | 3.12        | 2.87             |

The standard deviation are close to one for saccades. The longest segments are the smooth pursuits, which have a mean length of 32.94 data points as well as a standard deviation of 16.75 data points. Since these are subsequent movements, this is quite normal. The error segments in our dataset are relatively small on average, but there are also longer segments in person 15, which will be described later together with Figure 3. The fixations in our data set are up to one second long whereas these long fixations occur very rarely. Looking at the mean and standard deviation for fixations in Table 1, they are in the range of 290 milliseconds with a deviation of 180 milliseconds.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of the value ranges of the main features F1, F2, and F3. The red crosses are considered outliers. The blue boxes are the 75% confidence intervals and the red line is the median. Comparing the central (saccades) with the left (fixations) and right (smooth pursuit) plot, it is clear that the range of values regarding all features for saccades is significantly higher than the range of values for fixations and smooth pursuits. When looking at the left and right plot, it is noticeable that the second feature (F2) has significantly more outliers than the features F1 and F3. Since this is the vector between the eye corner center and the pupil, it can be assumed that the classification results in section 5 are significantly worse with this feature alone in comparison to F1 or F3. Another peculiarity of feature F3 is that it has a much higher range of values for saccades than features F1 and F2. F3 is the optical vector, which is also used for shift invariant calibrations. If the left plot is compared with the right plot, it is noticeable that the smooth pursuits have a minimally smaller range of values than the fixations. This is due to the fact that the fixations have significantly more transitions to and from saccades in relation to the data points, since smooth pursuits are generally much longer than fixations (See Table 1).

Figure 3 shows a section of the data from exactly 2,500 samples for each individual. As described in the legend at the very top, the color green stands for fixations, yellow for saccades, blue early smooth pursuits, and red for errors or blinks in the data. What can be seen first is that the smooth pursuits occur significantly more often in the simulator data (P1-P10). Likewise, one can see, for example, in person twelve (P12), that there can also be long saccades. As already mentioned in
Fig. 3. Shows a small section of the data for each person. Here, the colors red represent an error, blue a smooth pursuit, green a fixation, and yellow a saccade. The clipping corresponds to exactly 2,500 samples. Larger red areas, especially for person 15, come from eye camera malfunctions or reflections that cover the entire eye.

the statistics for table 1, this is due to successive saccades in which a very short fixation or blink occurs between two frames. In person fifteen (P15), large error segments can be seen. On the one hand, this is due to errors of the camera, which produced only distorted or black eye images in certain time ranges. Another reason for the large error segments are very strong reflections on the person’s glasses. These reflections cover the complete eye and thus make the detection of the eyelids and the pupil impossible.

5 MULTIMODAL EYE MOVEMENT CLASSIFICATION
For the evaluation of different data sources, we have chosen the two most popular machine learning methods. This would be the random forests (RF) on the one hand and the neural networks (NN) on the other hand. For the RF we evaluated two optimization methods, this would be bagging [68] where several RFs are trained and in the end a majority decision decides the class. The other
In the area of machine learning approaches, we have chosen decision trees, and a tiny neural networks. For the decision trees, we evaluate the boosting and bagging training algorithms. The input data are the normalized features specified on the left side of the table. Here we evaluated different window length and used the classifiers in an **online fashion** meaning that only previous data points can be used in the window for classification of the current data point. \( F = \text{Fixation}, S = \text{Saccade}, P = \text{Smooth Pursuit}, E = \text{Error} \)

| Window | Unit: Features | Bagged RF | Boosted RF | Neural Network |
|--------|----------------|-----------|------------|---------------|
| 1      |                | \( F, S, P, E \) | \( F, S, P, E \) | \( F, S, P, E \) |
| 10     |                | \( F, S, P, E \) | \( F, S, P, E \) | \( F, S, P, E \) |
| 30     |                | \( F, S, P, E \) | \( F, S, P, E \) | \( F, S, P, E \) |

Optimization method is RUS boosting [70], as it is particularly well suited for non-equilibrium datasets. Here, multiple RFs are also trained but each RF further optimizes the result of the last RF. For both approaches we always used 100 RFs and the default parameters of MatLab. This can also be seen in the attached script (Supplementary Material). For the NN we used the optimization method scaled conjugated gradients [66]. This allows very small meshes to be trained on the entire training set. The NN always had only one hidden layer with 50 neurons. As with the RF, we used the standard MatLab parameters for the NN. This can also be seen in the attached script in the supplementary material.
Table 3. For the decision trees, we evaluate the boosting and bagging training algorithms. The input data are the normalized features specified on the left side of the table. Here we evaluated a window length of 41 and used the classifiers in an offline fashion meaning that previous as well as consecutive data points are used in the window for classification of the current data point. \(F=\text{Fixation},S=\text{Saccade},P=\text{Smooth Pursuit},E=\text{Error}\)

| Unit: Features | Bagged RF mean Intersection over Union (mIoU) * 100 | Boosted RF mean Intersection over Union (mIoU) * 100 | Neural Network mean Intersection over Union (mIoU) * 100 |
|----------------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| \(F1,F5,F6\)  | 92  89  79  98  0  87  22  97  78  73  27  80 | 91  88  75  94  0  87  23  87  74  48  23  79 | 91  89  72  98  0  87  22  98  74  27  10  96 |
| \(F2,F7,F8\)  | 84  73  66  98  64  0  0  98  75  61  30  80 | 83  73  63  93  0  0  18  87  73  48  25  81 | 92  89  72  98  0  87  22  98  79  74  33  82 |
| \(F3,F9,F10,F11\) | 89  87  70  98  64  0  0  97  79  78  29  84 | 89  87  70  95  0  0  18  86  79  74  33  82 | 91  93  72  98  64  0  0  97  79  74  30  83 |
| \(F1,F5,F6,F2,F7,F8\) | 91  95  72  98  0  87  22  97  72  27  10  96 | 91  95  71  95  0  87  23  87  75  38  22  79 | 91  95  71  95  0  87  23  87  79  74  30  83 |
| \(F1,F5,F6,F3,F9,F11,F10,F11\) | 92  89  78  98  0  87  22  98  80  84  32  83 | 92  89  78  96  0  87  23  87  77  59  29  82 | 92  89  78  96  0  87  23  87  78  46  26  78 |
| \(F2,F7,F8,F3,F9,F10,F11,F4\) | 91  93  72  96  0  0  18  86  75  46  26  78 | 91  93  72  96  0  0  18  86  75  46  26  78 | 91  93  72  96  0  0  18  86  79  77  56  32 |
| \(F1,F11\) | 93  97  75  97  0  87  23  87  77  61  30  79 | 93  97  75  97  0  87  23  87  77  61  30  79 | 93  97  75  97  0  87  23  87  77  61  30  79 |

The training and test split was chosen so that person one to ten (P1-P10) who drove in the simulator serve as training data and the real drives (P11-P19) as test data. This split was chosen because the data differ significantly (see Figure 3) and it makes the classification much more difficult. Also, we see this scenario as a realistic implementation for generating training data in an industrial setting. Here, the training data would also be recorded in a simulator or on a test track to obtain as much and clean data as possible. As a metric for all evaluations, we used the mean intersection over union (mIoU) or Jaccard index separately for each eye movement as well as the errors (\(\frac{\text{Predicted} \cap \text{Truth}}{\text{Predicted} \cup \text{Truth}}\)). The mIoU was used since it is very sensitive to mistakes. In image based segmentations a score above 0.5 is usually seen as a good result.

Table 2 and Table 3 show the evaluations of different machine learning methods with different feature combinations. In all cases, bagging in combination with RF is the best procedure. For the offline case (Window with previous and future values in Table 3) the results of bagged RF are very good. In the case of a window size of 1 (Table 2) it is very hard to detect the smooth pursuits for all machine learning methods. However, this improves for larger windows. Looking at the individual features (First three evaluations in Table 2 and 3) we can derive the quality ranking F1 best, F3 slightly worse, and F2 worst (F1=pupil center, F2=eye corner vector,F3=optical vector). As for the eye opening degree (F4), it worsens the results in most cases. As for the feature combinations, F1,F5,F6,F2,F7, and F8 seem to be the best in terms of smooth pursuits. If more emphasis is placed on the saccades, F1,F5,F6,F2,F7, and F8 are the best. This can be seen clearly in Table 2 and Table 3.

6 CONCLUSION

In this work, we have presented a new dataset which includes several features and consists of two different recording scenarios. This would be on the one hand the simulator driving and on the other hand the real driving. We have clearly shown that the sequences of eye movements differ significantly (Figure 3) and also performed a feature analysis. The feature analysis can be used to infer which features as well as which combinations can be used effectively. To our knowledge, the presented dataset is currently the largest dataset worldwide.
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