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Blinking supervision in a working environment

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Abstract

The health of the ocular surface requires blinks of the eye to be frequent in order to provide moisture and to renew the tear film. However, blinking frequency has been shown to decrease in certain conditions, such as when subjects are conducting tasks with high cognitive and visual demands. These conditions are becoming more common as people work or spend their leisure time in front of video display terminals (VDT). Supervision of blinking frequency in such environments is possible thanks to the availability of computer-integrated cameras. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to develop an algorithm for the detection of eye blinks and to test it, in a number of videos captured, while subjects are conducting a variety of tasks in front of the computer. The sensitivity of the algorithm for blink detection was found to be of 87.54% (range 30-100%), with a mean false positive rate of 0.19% (range 0-1.7%), depending on the illumination conditions during which the image was captured and other computer-user spacial configurations. The current automatic process is based on a partly modified preexisting eye detection and image processing algorithms and consists of 4 stages that are aimed at eye detection, eye tracking, iris detection and segmentation and iris height/width ratio assessment.

Keywords: automatic eye blink detection, blinking frequency, image processing algorithm, computer vision syndrome (CVS), video display terminal (VDT), dry eye, webcam

1. Introduction

Users of visual display terminals (VDT) commonly complain of visual fatigue after prolonged work in front of the computer. The term Computer Vision Syndrome (CVS) was coined to describe the diverse symptoms reported by computer users, including eyestrain, tired eyes, irritation, a burning sensation, dry eye, redness, blurred long vision and double vision¹. Among these, dry eye is the most frequently reported ocular complaint of VDT users^{2,3}. Computer use has been associated with an alteration of the blinking patterns and with a larger palpebral aperture, which is influenced by screen position. The joint contribution of both factors results in a greater exposure of the ocular surface to the environment and in an increased tear film evaporation and instability, leading to dry eye symptomatology⁴.

Spontaneous eye blink rate (SEBR), which is usually measured in blinks per minute (blinks/min), has been found to be a very sensitive parameter to changes in the cognitive demands. For instance, SEBR was observed to have increased from 4.5 blinks/min while reading, to 17 blinks/min at rest, with a further increment to 26 blinks/min during conversation⁵. Similarly, several authors described a sharp decrease in SEBR when subjects perform a highly demanding task with the computer. Indeed, Skotte and co-workers noted a change in SEBR from 16 blinks/min to 5 blinks/min when comparing passive (watching a film) to active computer tasks (this requires subjects to connect a sequence of small dots on the screen)⁶. Similarly, Himebaugh et al, evaluated SEBR whilst participants conducted a series of low to high levels of concentration on VDT tasks (looking at a blank computer screen or watching a film, and playing a computer game or viewing a series of rapidly changing letters, respectively)⁷. They observed a

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comparatively reduced blinking rate during the high concentration activities, in addition to a higher level of fluctuation in SEBR values, particularly during the computer game trial.

2. Background

Given its widespread application in multiple fields of science, psychologists, psychiatrists, ophthalmologists and neurophysiologists have studied blinking of the human eye for decades. Some authors used electrooculography (EOG) for this purpose⁶. That is a relatively complex technique, not easily applicable for blink monitoring in a real life-working environment. However, in more recent times, the incorporation of cheap integrated cameras in computers suggests the possibility of using image processing techniques for the evaluation of SEBR, instead of using other more invasive or intrusive methods. Several efforts have subsequently been conducted to developing automatic blink detection strategies.

Won and co-workers, 2010, described a blinking detection algorithm based on binary images⁸. The binarisation threshold is critical and depends on the illumination conditions of the image, that is, it requires a previous normalization process whereby the threshold is automatically determined⁹. Won used two features to detect whether the eye was open or closed: firstly, consecutive frames were compared to determine the number of cumulated black pixels, since in the open eye conditions the presence of the iris/pupil leads to a greater number of black pixels; secondly, the relation between iris height and width was measured. These two factors were combined using a support vector machine (SVM) to determine the frames, and thus the time during which the eyelids were closed.

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Similarly, Jiang et al., 2013, were able to detect the beginning and the end of an eyeblink¹⁰. The difference between two consecutive frames was binarised and morphological operations were employed to determine the presence of the iris. The detection of the iris was based on dimension parameters requiring the definition of several thresholds, which needed to be optimized in advance. With optimal values for these thresholds, the authors reported True-Positive Rates (TPR) of 90.3% and False-Positive Rates (FPR) of 0.1%, this is an accuracy of 99.7%, using their technique. A level of precision of 66% was reported by Tan and Zhang, in their proposed method for iris detection through pattern recognition¹¹, which was subsequently improved to take into account the different configurations resulting from the actual position of the iris with respect to the maximal response zone¹². With this method the authors reported an accuracy of 88% in blink detection.

Finally, Mitelman and co-workers developed the semi-automatic Eye State Detection (ESD) algorithm¹³, with which the authors were able to detect the differences between open and closed eye conditions by examining the corresponding brightness and the frequency distribution of the image. This method, which requires a training process to define several thresholds, relied on brightness peaks arising from the iris and the pupil regions. Later, Bernard et al. implemented an accurate image processing analysis to detect the two lines that correspond to the margins of the eyelids, whereupon the distance between these two lines was monitored to identify eyeblinks¹⁴.

3. Blinking supervision with image processing

The blink counting algorithm that was developed in this study consists of a combination of known image processing algorithms, with the addition of a new algorithm which was inspired by the work of Jiang et al, 2013¹⁰. The present algorithm is conceptually divided into two tasks: eye segmentation and blink counting.

The first task, eye segmentation, is to carry out two key procedures: eye detection and eye tracking. This combination of procedures improves the efficiency, in terms of the actual computing time required for eye detection in each frame, since eye tracking only requires a portion of the image to operate. The second task, also involves the combination of two algorithms: iris detection and the iris height/width ratio evaluation. Redundancy was introduced to improve the accuracy and to avoid false blinking detection results (false positives). Blinks are only counted when both the algorithms detect a blink within the same set of consecutive frames. A detailed description of these algorithms follows on.

3.1 Eye detection

For eye detection, the rapid object detection algorithm developed by Viola and Jones, 2001, is applied¹⁵. This algorithm was first created to identify faces that are in an image, using a learning cascade feature detector. The implementation in MATLAB® (MathWorks, Inc, Natick, MA) of this algorithm can detect eyes, mouths, noses and it may also be trained to detect other user defined objects (facial features). The algorithm works by locating the left eye of the subject in the first frame, whereupon the eye tracking algorithm becomes active until the eye has disappeared (see **figure 1**). At that time, the cascade learning feature detector recommences and

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the process continues. It must be noted that blinking does not interfere with eye detection. In fact, even if the iris is lost during the interval of a blink, the eye is still detected.

3.2 Eye tracking

After the eye is detected, the region where the eye is located is used as the input region for the Kanade-Lucas-Tomasi feature tracking algorithm^{16,17}. The MATLAB® implementation of this algorithm is very thorough, including the tracking features and it also allows updates in regard to the size and the location of the feature search space, according to the relation between the positions of these features in consecutive frames.

In the present application of the algorithm, the configuration that is considered optimal is: the number of pyramid levels where the tracking points are looked for is 4; the maximum bidirectional error, which is a parameter to help check good tracking points and eliminate uncertain ones, is 2; the maximum number of search iterations is 40; and the type of assumed transformations between frames is similarity, which are, changes in scale, position and orientation of the object is allowed.

Finally, provided that the eye is successfully tracked from one frame to the next one, the region where the eye is located is used as the input region for blink detection. Blinks are counted in the next two algorithms.

3.3 Iris detection

The aim of this algorithm is to identify and segment the iris in each frame so that when the iris is not detected, the algorithm assumes a blink has taken place. This algorithm is inspired by the work of Jiang et al, 2013¹⁰, although several important modifications were implemented. First, the luminosity of the image is normalized using a 31x31 pixel median filter, after which the Otsu¹⁸ optimal threshold binarisation is applied. Finally, the eyebrow is erased with a mask and the borders are removed (to eliminate fortuitous portions of glasses, hair, etc.) (see **figure 2**).

At this point of the process, the image contains a black eye shape with fragments of the eyelids and, less frequently, of the eyebrows. In order to remove all but the iris (see **figure 3**), an opening process^{9,18} is applied with a disk structuring element of four pixels of radius. This operation keeps the iris and sometimes other round-shaped elements. Thereupon the image is labelled and only the largest object is kept. Provided that the iris is the only visible shape, an erosion process^{9,18} is subsequently applied, which results in the homogenization of the shape of the iris.

Finally, the Hough Transform^{9,18} is used to detect circular shapes in the image and thus to segment the iris. If one circular shape is detected, a no-blink condition is registered. Conversely, when a circle is detected in a frame but lost in the following one, the algorithm registers the beginning of a blink. The sensitivity of the circular Hough Transform, which is set to 0.82, determines whether the shape under consideration is circular or not.

It must be noted that this algorithm is not perfect. Indeed, in some cases the iris is not properly segmented from the surrounding anatomical structures, such as margins of the eyelids, thus failing to detect a circular shape, which leads to a false blink count (false positive). Therefore, as noted previously, the iris detection algorithm is combined with a second algorithm based on iris height/width ratio evaluation in order to improve the accuracy in blink detection.

3.4 Iris height/width ratio evaluation

This algorithm computes and compares the width and height of the iris. It is based on the work of Won et al⁸, although only the iris is used in the present modification of the algorithm, whereas these authors assessed the entire eye. Iris width and height were selected since their ratio suffers significant changes during an eye blink.

The maximum horizontal width and vertical height of the iris are measured from the image obtained in the last step of the iris detection algorithm. Assuming the algorithm is processing frame j . Since the image contains a round shaped object, the first column, starting left, that contains a black pixel is the leftmost end of the iris, $l(j)$. Similarly, the rightmost, top and bottom ends are identified, $r(j)$, $t(j)$, $b(j)$. The height-width ratio of frame j is

$$w(j) = \frac{b(j) - t(j)}{r(j) - l(j)}$$

An adaptive threshold, $\bar{w}(j)$, is calculated from the previous N frames as follows:

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$$\bar{w}(j) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=j}^{j-N} w(i)$$

where N was empirically set at 10 frames. Once the adaptive threshold is obtained, this value is compared with the current height-width ratio to determine the presence of a blink:

$$blink(j) = \begin{cases} true & \text{if } w(j) < K_{th} \bar{w}(j) \text{ and } w(j-1) > K_{th} \bar{w}(j-1) \\ false & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It must be noted that, to ensure the correct detection, this equation contains the parameter K_{th} , which needs to be adjusted depending on the illumination conditions, the camera configuration, the distance to the subject and other factors too. K_{th} is a value between 0 and 1, typically around 0.9.

4. Algorithm testing (preliminary results)

Preliminary trials revealed that the current version of the algorithm was not fast enough to be useful for real time video stream monitoring. Consequently, in its current state of development it was only used with recorded videos.

The algorithm was tested on 17 one-minute videos of subjects undertaking different actions on personal computers (reading texts, playing games, browsing the web, etc.). All participants provided written informed consent after the nature of the study was explained to them.

A variety of illumination conditions, working distances, face configurations (with and without glasses), skin tone and webcam resolutions were included in the preliminary trials to assess the

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performance of the algorithm in less than ideal conditions, albeit closer to real-life ones. Each video was manually revised to determine the true blink count, then this value was compared with the value obtained by our algorithm to calculate true blink positives (TP) and false blink positives (FP) and true blink negatives (TN) and false blink negatives (FN). Furthermore, true-positive [TPR=TP/(TP+FN)*100] and false-positive rates [FPR=FP/(FP+TN)*100] were determined to compare the performance of our algorithm to that of previously described algorithms.

After reviewing the 17 one-minute videos, the total number of blinks was 269, with a range from 2 to 45 per video. The mean TPR was 87.54% and the mean FPR was 0.19%, in accordance with the published report by Jiang and co-workers¹⁰. The range of TPR was from 30% to 100% and the range of FPR was from 0 to 1.7%. It must be noted that the worst values of TPR and FPR corresponded to the combination of very challenging illumination conditions, dark skin tone with features of interest were more difficult to discriminate from background, and low camera resolutions, resulting in video captures in which it was very difficult to observe the eye of the participants. In contrast, TPR and FPR values were close to 100% and 0%, respectively, provided that illumination conditions were close to those recommended by ergonomic standards such as, for example, ISO 9241-6¹⁹, which notes that the average room illumination should be between 320 and 600 lx, uniform and without large differences between the surrounding environment and the workstation. In addition, a webcam resolution of at least 720 pixels was considered a requirement for quality image acquisition. Given that these minimum criteria were met, it was found that the parameter K_{th} did not need for further adjustments prior to video analysis.

For instance, good blink detection conditions are shown in **Figure 4**, in which the subject blinked 19 times. Although our algorithm slightly overestimated the number of true blinks, all real blinks were detected, resulting in a TPR of 100% and a FPR of 0.52%. Conversely, **Figure 5** depicts a more challenging situation, in which the combination of darker skin tone, low webcam resolution, and unsatisfactory illumination conditions lead to an underestimation of true blinks (only 9 of 23 real blinks were successfully detected), with TPR and FPR rates of 30.43% and 0.06%, respectively.

5. Conclusion

The present research aims to develop and implement an algorithm for automatic blink detection and counting. Preliminary trials on recorded videos show good sensitivity of the algorithm to detect blinks, provided that normal illumination conditions and webcam resolutions are present. Given the relevance of blink frequency in the visual fatigue symptoms experienced by most computer users, non-invasive and non-intrusive blink monitoring strategies are a first step towards developing bio-feedback mechanisms for blink re-education. The innovation of the present algorithm relies on requiring the configuration of only one parameter, K_{th} , which may be kept constant if the workplace has normal illumination conditions, and on being functional on most computer-integrated webcams, thus supporting the need for further research to the advance in its implementation on other ubiquitous devices, such as tablets and smart phones. Further research is being carried out to make the algorithm operational on real-time video streaming and

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with standard computing languages and tools. An application incorporating bio-feedback for blinking re-education is currently under development.

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FIGURES

Figure 1: Eye segmentation. Each row shows the result of the algorithms on the sample frames.

From left to right: original image portion; Viola and Jones eye detection algorithm, which is highlighted with a yellow square; Kanade-Lucas-Tomasi eye tracking algorithm, with calculated features highlighted with green crosses.

Figure 2: The Binarisation process. Each row shows the result of the algorithms on the same sample frames as in figure 1. From left to right: original image; luminosity normalization; binarisation; and eyebrow masking.

Figure 3: Iris detection and segmentation is a step-by-step process. Each row shows the result continued from the samples of figure 2. From left to right: initial image; opening operation; the largest object preservation and homogenization; and the detection of circular shapes.

Figure 4: Blink detection in optimal conditions (True-positive rate: 100%; False-positive rate: 0.52%).

Figure 5: Blink detection in challenging conditions (True-positive rate: 30.43%; False-positive rate: 0.06%).

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Biographies

Bernardo Morcego is an Associate Professor at the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC). He received a PhD degree in Computer Science from the UPC in 2000. He has been teaching several subjects in the area of automatic control in the schools of Engineering and Aeronautics in Terrassa and Barcelona. He is a member of the Research Center for Supervision, Safety and Automatic Control of UPC. His research interests include UAV control systems and computer vision applications.

Marc Argilés graduated in Optometry in 2009 and was awarded a Master of Science in Vision in 2011 by the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC). He is currently undertaking a PhD degree in Optical Engineering at UPC, with research interests related to dry eye symptoms, computer vision syndrome and the relationship of ocular blinking and cognition. He is actively involved in various projects linking new visual display terminals with related vision problems.

Marc Cabrerizo received a degree in Industrial Electronics and Automatic Control in 2014 from the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC), Terrassa, Spain. He's currently working as PLC and Robot programmer in a Spanish company of manufacturing packaging machinery (SR INNOVA) located in Barcelona, Spain.

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