JID: CAG

Computers & Graphics xxx (2018) xxx-xxx



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Computers & Graphics



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/cag

Technical Section

Exploring visual attention and saliency modeling for task-based visual analysis

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 3 October 2017 Revised 26 January 2018 Accepted 26 January 2018 Available online xxx

Keywords: Information visualization Eye-tracking experiment Saliency Visual attention Low-level analytical tasks

ABSTRACT

Memory, visual attention and perception play a critical role in the design of visualizations. The way users observe a visualization is affected by salient stimuli in a scene as well as by domain knowledge, interest, and the task. While recent saliency models manage to predict the users' visual attention in visualizations during exploratory analysis, there is little evidence how much influence bottom-up saliency has on task-based visual analysis. Therefore, we performed an eye-tracking study with 47 users to determine the users' path of attention when solving three low-level analytical tasks using 30 different charts from the MASSVIS database [1]. We also compared our task-based eye tracking data to the data from the original memorability experiment by Borkin et al. [2]. We found that solving a task leads to more consistent viewing patterns compared to exploratory visual analysis. However, bottom-up saliency of a visualization has negligible influence on users' fixations and task efficiency when performing a low-level analytical task. Also, the efficiency of visual search for an extreme target data point is barely influenced by the target's bottom-up saliency. Therefore, we conclude that bottom-up saliency models tailored towards information visualization are not suitable for predicting visual attention when performing task-based visual analysis. We discuss potential reasons and suggest extensions to visual attention models to better account for task-based visual analysis.

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1. Introduction 1

2 Visualization designers use a large variety of visual channels to effectively encode data. Due to the limited computational capacity 3 of the brain, parsing and interpreting these visual channels cannot 4 be performed rapidly. Instead, visual attention is serially directed 5 to different regions in the visualization, and the information is 6 7 gradually decoded. Visual attention is a set of cognitive processes that selects relevant information and filters out irrelevant informa-8 tion from the environment [3]. Attention is driven by both bottom-9 up and top-down factors. The aim of exogenous and very rapid 10 *bottom-up* attention is to warn of impending danger. It is guided by 11 12 low-level salient visual features which stand out from their neighborhood (the so-called "pop-out effect"), such as intensity or color 13 contrasts, texture and motion. Visual channels used in information 14 visualizations are perceived either with specialized receptors of the 15 human visual system (e.g. red-green opponency [4], orientation or 16

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spatial frequency [5]) or by multiple receptors in the case of complex channels, such as shape. In contrast to this stimulus-driven 18 attention, endogenous and much slower top-down attention is bi-19 ased by cognitive factors. It involves prior knowledge, expectations, 20 tasks and goals that enhance bottom-up attention. Real scene per-21 ception, referring to the organization and interpretation of sensory 22 information, lies in the interaction between bottom-up and top-23 down processing of attention [6]. 24

When users interpret visualizations, top-down factors of attention are incorporated in scene perception. Visual search is an important component of the process of interpreting visualizations. It is the process of finding a specific target object in a scene among non-targets. Visual attention thereby guides the user's gaze and the visual search, respectively. Understanding visual attention is therefore essential for selecting appropriate visual channels and designing effective visualizations.

Computational saliency models have been developed to predict 33 users' visual attention (see Section 2). These models are quite ac-34 curate for simple stimuli and natural images [7–9]. While saliency 35 models have also been used as a quality measure in the informa-36 tion visualization domain [10,11], it has been shown that these 37 models' accuracy for predicting visual attention in visualizations 38

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cag.2018.01.010 0097-8493/© 2018 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Please cite this article as: P. Polatsek et al., Exploring visual attention and saliency modeling for task-based visual analysis, Computers & Graphics (2018), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cag.2018.01.010

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39 is significantly poorer than for natural images [12]. Matzen 40 et al. [13] therefore recently introduced a saliency model tailored 41 towards information visualization, and showed that fixations dur-42 ing exploratory visual analysis could be predicted more accurately. While it has been shown that bottom-up factors captured by 43 this new model have a strong influence on users' visual attention 44 during exploratory visual analysis, it is still unknown how strong 45 top-down guidance influences attention during task-based visual 46 47 analysis. This work investigates human gaze behavior and saliency prediction when performing typical low-level analytical tasks with 48 49 visualizations. To this end, we performed an eye-tracking study 50 with charts from the MASSVIS database [1]. During this study, users solved three different low-level analytical tasks. We com-51 52 pared the data of this study with eye tracking data of the memorability experiment [2] with conditions closer to natural image 53 viewing. We could show that fixations are more coherent between 54 users, but correlate less with the visualization-tailored saliency 55 map when performing a low-level analytical task. We discuss some 56 potential extensions of saliency models to incorporate these added 57 top-down factors. 58

59 2. Visual attention models

60 In recent decades, various attention models have been proposed that differ in how they predict human visual attention. As pio-61 neers, Itti et al. [4] defined a computational bottom-up saliency 62 model using local center-surround differences of intensity, color 63 and orientation features at multiple spatial scales. This approach 64 65 of feature extraction has been adopted in many attention models. Harel et al. [14] also followed this approach. Their model 66 computes saliency using graph-based dissimilarity measures. Hou 67 68 et al. [15] introduced a model analyzing the frequency domain instead of the spatial domain to predict saliency. The bottom-up 69 70 model presented by Zhang and Sclaroff [16] is based on the prin-71 ciple of figure-background segregation. The model identifies fig-72 ures in a set of Boolean maps generated by thresholding feature maps. A work presented by Bruce and Tsotsos [17] defines saliency 73 74 as the self-information of visual features of the image. Zhang 75 et al. [18] proposed a Bayesian framework that incorporates top-76 down information dependent on the target's features with bottom-77 up saliency that is represented as the self-information derived from the statistics of natural images. Goferman et al. [19] pro-78 posed saliency detection based on patches with unique low-level 79 features, visual organization rules according to which regions close 80 to salient pixels are also salient and high-level factors, such as hu-81 man faces. Vig et al. [20] and Cornia et al. [21] introduced saliency 82 models that employ neural networks to predict fixations. 83

84 Visual saliency predicted by computational models can be ap-85 plied in many areas of computer science including image pro-86 cessing [22–24], computer graphics [25], robotics [26,27], surveillance systems [28,29] and human-computer interaction [30,31]. 87 88 Saliency models have been widely evaluated against different 89 datasets that usually contain natural scenes and fixations from free viewing [7,32–35]. The benchmarks [36–38] show for some image 90 databases a small difference between the state-of-the-art models 91 92 and human inter-observer (IO) that outputs a fixation map inte-93 grated from other subjects than the one under test. The map serves 94 as an upper bound for prediction accuracy. Generally, the prediction accuracy of the models is higher for simple images with few 95 96 salient objects. However, predicting human fixations in complex images with multiple objects is a challenging task [39,40]. 97

The models are commonly used to predict where the observer's attention is directed in natural images. However, they have also been used in visualization research to predict attention and to derive quality measures, respectively. For instance, Jänicke and Chen [11] describe a saliency-based quality metric for visualizations. It compares a saliency map using the cognitive model by Itti 103 et al. [4] and importance of visualized data, generated automati-104 cally from data or manually by visualization designers. The metric 105 is then computed as the difference of these maps. Attention in dy-106 namic geovisualizations was studied by Gagarlandini and Fabrikant 107 [10]. Saliency of dynamic visualizations was predicted by the spa-108 tiotemporal model by Itti et al. [41]. The highest saliency value was 109 predicted in regions of the change. Saliency was also applied in 110 volume visualizations to guide attention to selected regions [42]. 111 Saliency was first determined for each voxel, and was then en-112 hanced by center-surround operations between voxels inspired by 113 the standard cognitive saliency model [4]. 114

These works are based on the assumption that saliency models, 115 originally developed for natural image viewing, are equally accu-116 rate for predicting the attention when interpreting visualizations. 117 However, there are some notable differences between natural im-118 ages and classic charts used in information visualization. Graphical 119 marks, such as dots or lines, are usually abstract and simple com-120 pared to complex objects in natural images. Also, the background 121 is mostly uniform and the visualizations contain a lot of textual in-122 formation, such as labels and legends. Graphical marks and visual 123 channels are chosen by a visualization designer according to design 124 guidelines and visualization domain knowledge with the goal to 125 expressively and effectively represent the underlying data. Thereby, 126 visualization designers choose their visual channels to maximize 127 the amount of information displayed [43]. Matzen et al. [13] also 128 note that most saliency models tend to omit fine-grained visual 129 features, like thin lines, which are highly relevant for information 130 visualization. 131

Therefore, special variations of saliency models have been de-132 veloped for information visualization. Lee et al. [44], for instance, 133 introduced a saliency model for categorical map visualizations. 134 They define point saliency as color difference of each point against 135 its neighborhood. The class visibility quantifies the point saliency 136 values that correspond to a given category. Most relevant for our 137 work, Matzen et al. [13] proposed a novel saliency model that 138 combines the model of Itti et al. with text saliency to predict 139 saliency in data visualization with higher precision. The presented 140 work evaluated saliency models on the MASSVIS database [1]. The 141 results highlight the importance of text in visual attention since 142 the model that relies only on text saliency outperforms classic 143 saliency models in most evaluation metrics. 144

In our work, we will compute all above mentioned saliency 145 models for the visualizations used in our experiment and compute the correlations to the obtained fixations from our eye tracking data. 148

3. Related work

To explore the applicability of saliency models beyond nat-150 ural images, Borji et al. [7] compared the performance of four 151 saliency models to eye tracking data obtained during free view-152 ing of 20 different image categories, including abstract patterns 153 and line drawings. In their study, saliency models predicted fixa-154 tions surprisingly well for sketches. Matzen et al. [45] compared 155 fixation maps of novices and professional analysts when analyzing 156 synthetic aperture radar imagery to Itti et al.'s [4] saliency model. 157 They showed that fixation maps of novices were more correlated 158 with the saliency maps, compared to those of the professionals. 159 They concluded that novices are much more likely to be directed 160 by bottom-up salient features than experienced users. 161

Haass et al. [12] compared the performance of three different saliency models between the cat2000 dataset [7] and the MASSVIS dataset from Borkin et al.'s memorability experiment [2] using eight different comparison metrics. They found that saliency models performed worse for information visualizations than for the

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