

Impact of Vehicle Speed on Traffic Signs Missed by Drivers

Farzan Heidari and Michael A. Bauer

Department of Computer Science, The University of Western Ontario, London, ON, N6A-5B7, Canada

Keywords: Traffic Object Detection, Vehicle Speed, Driver's Visual Attention Area.

Abstract: A driver's recognition of traffic signs while driving is a pivotal indicator of a driver's attention to critical environmental information and can be a key element in Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS). In this study, we look at the impact of driving speed on a driver's attention to traffic signs by considering signs missed. We adopt a very strict definition of "missing" in this work where a sign is considered "missed" if it does not fall under the gaze of a driver. We employ an accurate algorithm to detect traffic sign objects and then estimate the driver's visual attention area. By intersecting this area with objects identified as traffic signs, we can estimate the number of missed traffic sign objects while driving at different ranges of speeds. The experimental results show that the vehicle speed has a negative impact on drivers missing or seeing traffic sign objects.

1 INTRODUCTION

Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS) have been widely used by different vehicle manufacturers to try to provide enhanced environments for the safety of drivers in different driving conditions. Evidence has demonstrated that a considerable number of traffic deaths, more than 20,000 deaths per year, can be prevented by ADASs (National Center for Statistics and Analysis, 2019). To achieve this goal, vehicles must be equipped with different sensors to be able to accurately determine the objects around the vehicle in order to use this information to try to avoid dangerous situations (Calvert et al., 2017).

Traffic sign detection systems can play a critical role in improving the perception of ADASs. These systems attempt to accurately as possible localize and recognize traffic sign objects in different traffic environments. Coupling this with the ability to identify a driver's visual attention area can provide an ADAS with the ability to estimate which detected objects are possibly seen or missed by the driver. Hence, when a driver does not look at a sign on the road, the ADAS system can warn the driver or even take necessary actions. Since vehicle speed can affect many aspects of driving, it can also affect a driver's attention to the objects in the environment. Therefore, understanding the impact of speed on drivers' attention to traffic signs can help to design a system to improve the reliability and efficiency of ADAS.

In this study, we employ a real-time object detector, YOLOV4, as a single-stage convolution neural network for our object detection method

(Bochkovski et al., 2020). We then project the driver's gaze direction to the stereoscopic system proposed by (Kowsari et al., 2014) and estimate the driver's visual attention area by utilizing the driver's attentional gaze cone. We intersect the traffic sign objects and the driver's visual attention area to define missed traffic sign objects. In addition, we investigate the relationship between a driver's pre-attentive/attentive fixations on traffic signs and vehicle speed. During pre-attentive fixations, drivers explore the surroundings to discover something, while an attentive fixation means that a driver has focused on a specific object. Pre-attentive fixations usually take 150 ms to 250 ms, and attentive fixations take longer than 250 ms (Bär et al., 2013).

The primary contribution of this study is to elucidate the impact of vehicle speed on missed traffic signs. We also analyze the pre-attentive/attentive drivers' fixations on the traffic signs at different vehicle speeds in order to provide more information on the relationship between vehicle dynamics and driver attention to traffic signs. We employ an accurate object detector to find traffic sign objects on the road, assign an ID to each, and use the visual driver's attentional area to find missed traffic signs. The proposed method is advantageous in ADAS systems it makes it possible to identify traffic sign objects missed by drivers.

The rest of the article is structured as follows. In section 2, we review the related literature. In section 3, the proposed method is presented. The analysis of experimental results is explained in Section 4 and Section 5 summarizes this paper and suggests future work.

2 RELATED WORK

Traffic object detection algorithms proposed in recent years can be mainly classified as traditional and deep learning (Gupta et al., 2021). We provide a summary of the literature focusing on detecting the traffic signs and driver's gaze in order to identify seen or missed traffic signs.

Traditional methods of traffic sign object detection and classification are primarily based on feature extraction. Shao et al. (Shao et al., 2018) developed an algorithm based on wavelets to detect traffic sign objects. Histogram of Oriented Gradient (HOG) features and Support Vector Machines (SVM) have been widely used to detect traffic sign objects (Xing et al., 2016; Salhi et al., 2017). Other approaches made use of Local Binary Patterns (LBP) (Acharya and Nanda, 2021; Wang et al., 2009) and Adaboost (Freund and Schapire, 1997; Lin and Wang, 2012) to detect meaningful traffic sign objects. The main disadvantage of these feature extraction-based algorithms is that they are sensitive to lighting, shadows, obstacles, rain, and snow in real driving situations.

In the last few years, Deep Neural Networks (DNNs), in particular Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), have developed into the leading algorithms in object detection with outstanding performance (Sharma and Singh, 2017). Generally, Deep Neural Networks (DNN) object detectors are partitioned into single-stage and two-stage algorithms (Liu et al., 2020). Two-stage classifiers first generate category-independent Regions of Interest (RoI) from images and extract features from these regions. Then a neural network classifier is used to put them into the different object classes. Among the two-stage approaches, we find Fast R-CNN (Girshick, 2015; Wang et al., 2017) and Faster R-CNN (Ren et al., 2015; Pon et al., 2018) are popular.

On the other hand, single-stage detectors are regression-based algorithms that directly extract features and predict class probabilities and locations from images with a single network. Since the classification is performed in a single feed-forward network, single-stage detectors usually classify faster than two-stage detectors (Liu et al., 2020). One-stage approaches mainly include Single Shot Multibox Detector (SSD) (Liu et al., 2016) and You Only Look Once (YOLO) algorithms (Bochkovskiy et al., 2020). You et al. (You et al., 2020) adopt a multiscale feature detection technique that enhanced the detection for small targets. Also, a multi-object detection algorithm based on depth learning could classify persons, cars, and cyclists on an improved SSD network (Wang et al., 2018). Different versions of YOLO are

broadly used methods based on CNN networks that show remarkable results in (Liu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020) to detect traffic sign objects in real-time.

In the field of the eye-mind, there is a strong association between what the driver is gazing at and what the driver's mind is engaged with (Just and Carpenter, 1980; Rucci et al., 2016). Kowsari et al. (Kowsari et al., 2014) developed a unique cross-calibration method to project the 3D driver's gaze from the reference frame of an eye-gaze tracker system, mounted on the vehicle's dashboard, onto the reference frame of a forward stereo vision system, located on the roof of the vehicle. To analyze the robustness of various approaches that connect traffic objects to the driver's gaze, different types of gaze trackers calibrated against other sensors have been studied (Schwehr et al., 2019). Shripour et al. (Shirpour et al., 2020) proposed a probabilistic model, a Gaussian Process Model (GPR), employing driver head pose to estimate the most probable gaze direction on the forward stereo vision system. This method provided a confidence area of where the driver could be looking.

Zabihi et al. (Zabihi et al., 2017) proposed a vision-based framework to detect and recognize traffic sign objects inside of the driver's visual attention that utilized HoG as features for detection, SVM as a classifier, and Scale Invariant Feature Transforms (SIFT) to recognize traffic signs. Shirpour et al. (Shirpour et al., 2021b) introduced an approach based on Multi-Scale HOG-SVM and a Faster R-CNN to detect traffic signs and ResNet-101 to recognize them. However, these methods did not include any of objects in consecutive frames to determine how many are seen or missed by drivers.

The study of drivers' behavior is crucial to improve the reliability of active vehicle safety systems. Speed is a critical factor in driving and understanding the effect of norms, attitudes and habits of drivers is important (Warner and Åberg, 2006; De Pelsmacker and Janssens, 2007). Eboli et al. (Eboli et al., 2017) found an explanation of the latent construct describing driving style by using speed and acceleration as indicators of driving behaviour. Using a driving simulator, Bowden et al. (Bowden et al., 2017) investigated the effect of speed on a driver's perception of the road and detection of peripheral objects. They showed that stricter speed enforcement resulted in increased subjective workload and therefore decreased detection of peripheral objects. Shirpour (Shirpour et al., 2021a) investigated driver gaze features and road vanishing points considering the vehicle speed in a naturalistic data set.

We make use of YOLO-V4 as an accurate and

real-time object detector. We determine missed traffic sign objects surrounding the vehicle environment based on the driver's visual attention for different ranges of vehicle speed. We also analyze the driver's pre-attentive and attentive fixations on traffic sign objects for these speed ranges as well.

3 PROPOSED METHOD

The proposed method determines the missed traffic objects considering vehicle speed and eye fixation, and consists of three main steps. First, we use a robust and precise approach for deriving 3D Point-of-Gaze and driver's visual attention in absolute coordinates expressed in the frame of reference of the vehicle. Next, we provide details about our method to detect traffic sign objects. Following this, a technique is proposed to count missed sign objects and determine driver's pre-attentive and attentive fixations on traffic sign objects and group them by categories of vehicle speeds.

3.1 Driver Visual Attention

To obtain the 3D Point-of-Gaze (PoG) in absolute coordinates expressed in the vehicle frame of reference, we employ a robust and accurate technique for the cross-calibration of 3D Line-of-Gaze (LoG) with stereoscopic vision systems that has been proposed in (Kowsari et al., 2014). Next, the intersection of the plane perpendicular at the 3D PoG along the 3D LoG of the driver makes the driver's attentional gaze cone; this is illustrated in Figure 1. The angular opening of the cone defines a circle within the 3D space, which represents the driver's visual attention. Moreover, when the eye fixates on a 3D Point-of-Gaze (PoG) within the foveal vision, objects can be considered sharp and play a pivotal role in human activities when visual details are of primary importance (Bär et al., 2013). Therefore, we use the foveal angular opening in this work, and if this area does not intersect with an object while driving, we consider that the driver misses this object.

The first step of our procedure is calculating the radius of the circular attentional gaze area by the following formula:

$$r = \tan(\theta)d(e, g) \quad (1)$$

where $e = (e_x, e_y, e_z)$ is the eye position estimated by the remote gaze tracker and transformed into the frame of the forward stereo scene system and $g = (g_x, g_y, g_z)$ is the 3D PoG transformed into the frame

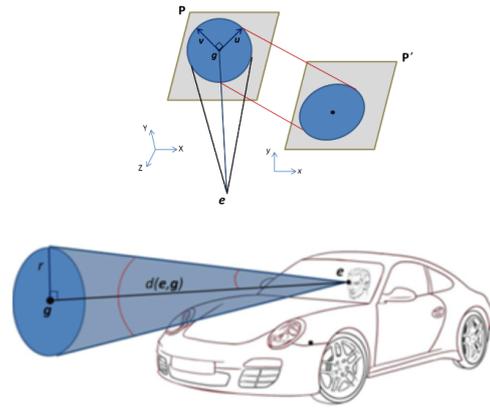


Figure 1: A depiction of the driver's attentional gaze cone and the re-projection of the 3D attentional circle onto the image plane of the forward stereo scene system.

of the forward stereo scene system. The transformation matrix between the remote gaze tracker and the stereoscopic systems is calculated based on (Kowsari et al., 2014). θ is half of the angular opening, and d is the Euclidean distance between e and g , given by

$$d(e, g) = \sqrt{(e_x - g_x)^2 + (e_y - g_y)^2 + (e_z - g_z)^2} \quad (2)$$

Then, we project the defined circle of the 3D plane perpendicular to the LoG on the image plane of the forward stereo scene system. The parametrically 3D circle formula is:

$$(X, Y, Z) = g + r(\cos\phi u + \sin\phi v) \quad (3)$$

where $u = (u_x, u_y, u_z)$ and $v = (v_x, v_y, v_z)$ are the coordinates of two perpendicular vectors within the plane perpendicular to the LoG, and ϕ is the angles with values $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$. Using perspective projection and applying the intrinsic calibration matrix of the forward stereo camera, we can place it on the stereo imaging plane. More details and equations are given in (Kowsari et al., 2014) and (Zabihi et al., 2014).

3.2 Traffic Object Detection

We require an object detection algorithm to detect critical on-road objects. We used YoloV4 (Bochkovskiy et al., 2020), a robust and accurate object detection algorithm, to find the traffic objects on the road. This algorithm belongs to the group of One-Stage detectors that only look at an image once and detect objects on the image in a single forward propagation through its neural network. These One-Stage detectors do classification and localization at the same time, and as a result, they are suitable for real-time ADAS applications (Ćorović et al., 2018). An example of the result of image detection in our case is shown in Figure 2.

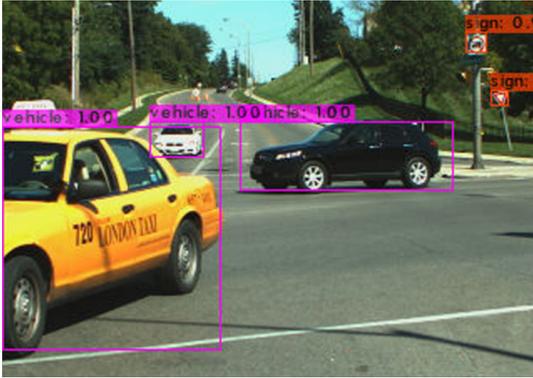


Figure 2: Example result of our image detection algorithm.

The backbone of the YOLO algorithms extracts the features; CSPDarknet53 (Wang et al., 2020) is used as the base of the backbone. The convolution architecture is a modification of DenseNet (Huang et al., 2017). This modified version sends a copy of the feature map from the base layer to the following layer. Boosting backpropagation, diminishing gradient vanishing problems, fewer network parameters, and improved learning are the pros of utilizing this architecture. This revised version employs the cross-stage partial connection which can reduce the computational bottleneck of DenseNet.

The next part of YOLO is the neck with extra layers between the backbone and the head to extract different feature maps from different stages of the backbone. This includes Path Aggregation Networks (PANets) and Spatial Pyramid Pooling (SPP). The former aggregates the features, and the latter enhances the receptive field and sorts out the most significant features from the backbone.

The head part of the algorithm detects the specific objects in the images. As with the previous version of YOLOV4, YOLOV3 (Redmon and Farhadi, 2018), anchor-based steps are performed in the head section. YOLOV4 also utilizes new techniques, such as Bag of Freebies (BoF) (Zhang et al., 2019) and Bag of Specials (BoS) (Bochkovskiy et al., 2020), to enhance algorithm performance. Bag of Freebies (BoF) is composed of methods that increase the accuracy during training without adding much inference time; these include data augmentation, random cropping, shadowing, dropout, and complete IoU loss (CIoU), to name a few, are some prevalent techniques. Additionally, Bag of Specials (BoS) using an attention module (Squeeze-and-Excitation and Spatial Attention Module), enlarges the receptive field of the model, and heightens feature integration power that can remarkably improve the accuracy of the results. Also, Bag of Specials (BoS) includes mesh activation, DioU-NMS,

modified path aggregation networks, etc.

3.3 Finding Seen and Missed Traffic Sign Objects

Based on the results of the processing described in the previous stages, we have the Point of Gaze (PoG) and the related attention area of the driver. After training YOLOV4, our network can detect sign objects. Hence, we have gaze information and traffic sign objects for all frames - information needed to count missed traffic sign objects. The steps have been shown in Figure 3.

To improve the reliability of our recognition of traffic sign objects, we consider an object to be a sign object when it is detected in consecutive frames. To determine unique traffic sign objects that fall under the driver's gaze while driving, we assign unique IDs to the traffic sign objects in consecutive frames. A traffic sign object gets an ID based on the center of its location when it is detected, and based on this information when compared to other possible traffic signs, this ID will be employed in the next frames. As a result, each unique traffic sign object gets a unique ID. Hence, we consider a traffic sign object as a missed traffic sign object if the driver's visual attention area does not intersect with the traffic sign object in the sequence of frames containing that object.

Eye fixation falls into pre-attentive and attentive fixations categories. During pre-attentive fixations, the driver explores the surroundings to discover crucial objects. This type of eye fixation usually takes 150 ms to 250 ms. On the other hand, attentive fixations refer to a situation when a driver focuses on and realizes a specific object. When eye fixations take between 250 ms and 500 ms, it considers attentive fixations (Bär et al., 2013).

Considering this information and in order to analyze driver's attention relative to vehicle dynamics, we can determine how many traffic sign objects are missed while driving during different ranges of speeds. We can also consider the pre-attentive and attentive fixations on traffic sign objects during these ranges to provide additional insight into a driver's visual behavior.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We employed the driver sequences dataset recorded by Beauchemin et al. (Beauchemin et al., 2010). This dataset includes OBD II CAN-BUS channel information, a remote gaze tracker with two cameras pointed to the driver's face, and two front-facing calibrated

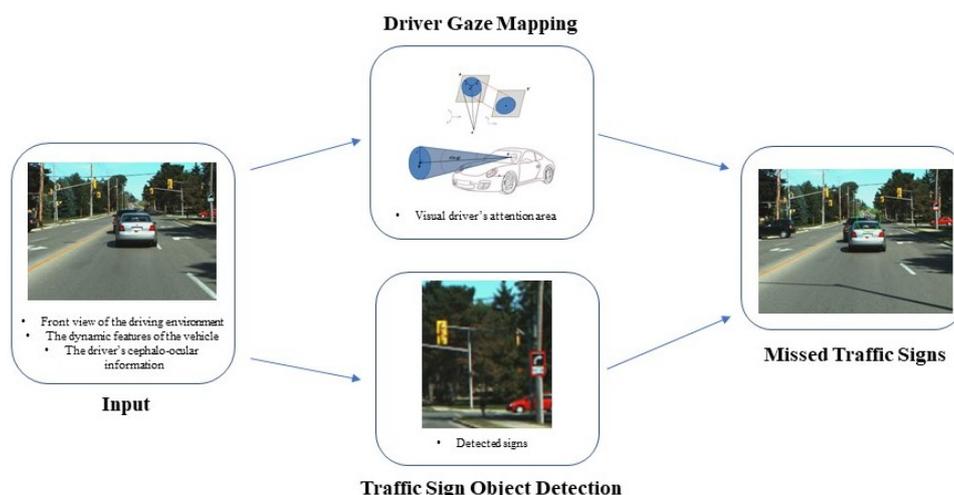


Figure 3: Steps of our approach to finding missed traffic signs. Inputs include front view of the driving environment, the dynamic features of the vehicle, the driver’s cephalo-ocular information.

Table 1: The number of missed and total number of traffic signs in each speed range for sequences 8, 9, 13, and 15 (speed is km/h).

Sequence number	Sequence8		Sequence9		Sequence13		Sequence15	
Speed Range (km/h)	Missed Signs	All Signs						
0 to 10	16	30	15	28	10	16	13	24
10 to 20	13	18	12	16	13	14	4	7
20 to 30	15	20	18	22	13	18	8	13
30 to 40	13	21	22	30	16	23	15	21
40 to 50	15	25	23	28	14	23	10	20
50 to 60	32	49	26	29	38	47	37	60
60 to 70	20	28	41	47	29	45	16	37
70 to 80	11	24	6	14	20	26	4	5

stereo cameras attached to the vehicle roof. The dataset consists of sixteen different drivers on a pre-determined 28.5 kilometres route in London, Ontario, Canada. The drives covered various environmental conditions, such as shaded portions, cloudy and sunny weather. We randomly selected four drivers for our study and examined approximately 50000 frames (about 28 minutes) for each roughly corresponding to the same segment of the route in each sequence. We divided the range of speed into steps of 10 km/h, which seemed large enough to see effects and not too large as to obscure them.

We provide results related to the driver’s attention to traffic sign objects in different speed ranges. Table 1 shows the results of analyzing four different drivers. It shows how many times the driver’s visual attention missed the traffic sign objects in the different ranges of speed for drivers (sequences) 8, 9, 13, and 15, respectively. Using the ID assigned to each unique sign detected, we can determine for each frame whether

the driver’s visual attention intersects with the traffic sign object or not. If the driver’s visual attention did not have any intersection with that traffic sign (same ID) in the consecutive frames, it is counted as a missed traffic sign. The Missed Signs columns in this table show the number of unique, as determined by IDs, traffic sign objects that were not hit by the driver’s visual attention during driving in each speed range. The All Signs column reports the total number of traffic sign objects in different speed ranges. Table 2 shows the percent of missed traffic sign objects to the total traffic sign objects for each of the different speed ranges. The last row of Table 2 provides the percent of missed traffic sign objects to total traffic sign objects regardless of their speed.

We flagged a traffic sign object as a pre-attentive fixation if the driver’s visual attention intersected with the traffic sign object lasted from 150 ms to 250 ms in consecutive frames, approximately 5 to 7 frames. When the duration of the intersection exceeded 250

Table 2: The percentage of missed traffic signs to total number of traffic signs for each speed range. The last row shows the percent of all traffic signs missed by each driver regardless of their speed.

Speed Range (km/h)	Sequence8	Sequence9	Sequence13	Sequence15
0 to 10	53.33	53.57	62.50	54.16
10 to 20	72.22	75.00	92.85	57.14
20 to 30	75.00	81.81	72.22	61.53
30 to 40	61.90	73.33	69.56	71.42
40 to 50	60.00	82.14	60.86	50.00
50 to 60	65.30	89.65	80.85	61.66
60 to 70	71.42	87.23	64.44	43.24
70 to 80	45.83	42.85	76.92	80.00
All ranges	63.30	76.16	72.16	57.21

Table 3: Number of eye pre-attentive, attentive fixations on traffic signs for different speed ranges.

Sequence number Speed Range (km/h)	Sequence8		Sequence9		Sequence13		Sequence15	
	pre-attentive fixations	attentive fixations						
0 to 10	7	5	4	6	3	3	2	0
10 to 20	3	0	2	2	1	0	0	0
20 to 30	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
30 to 40	1	1	1	0	3	1	1	1
40 to 50	1	2	0	0	1	3	2	1
50 to 60	5	3	1	0	2	1	2	0
60 to 70	2	2	1	1	0	1	2	1
70 to 80	3	3	1	2	1	2	0	0

ms (8 frames), we counted it as an attentive fixation. These time slots for pre-attentive and attentive fixations are generally accepted in the field and are taken from previous research by Bär et al. (Bär et al., 2013). Table 3 shows pre-attentive and attentive fixations for sequences 8, 9, 13, and 15, respectively. A traffic sign object in a timeframe might intersect as attentive fixations and intersect as pre-attentive fixations in another timeframe. In this situation, we have counted one pre-attentive fixation and one attentive fixation.

The results show that there are differences among the drivers. Table 1 shows the number of missed traffic sign objects. As might be expected, when the vehicle speed is lower, drivers tend to pay more attention to signs, likely because drivers have more time to check their surroundings and are less concerned about checking the front of the car and other important road elements during driving.

The last row of Table 2 shows the percentage of missed traffic signs to all signs in all speed ranges during driving. These results show, for sequences 8, 9, 13, and 15, the percentage of the traffic signs that have been missed by the drivers during their drives are 63.30, 76.16, 72.16, and 57.21, respectively. In sequence 15, the driver missed the fewest traffic sign objects, while in sequence 9, the driver missed the

most traffic sign objects compared to other drivers. These differences show that drivers have different behaviors when checking on traffic sign objects. Many factors, such as a driver's awareness of the surroundings and traffic signs, road traffic, weather conditions, driver distraction, can be reasons for a driver to miss traffic signs while driving.

In regards to driver pre-attentive and attentive fixations (shown in Table 3 for different speed ranges), some drivers tended to focus more on signs, i.e., their gaze tended to stay on a sign for a longer period, while others paid less attention. The driver in sequence 15 had the lowest number of pre-attentive and attentive fixations during driving while the driver in sequence 8 had the highest number of pre-attentive and attentive fixations. Our results also indicate that drivers tend to fixate on traffic signs, either as pre-attentive or attentive fixations, more often when driving at slower speeds than at higher speed ranges. This could be because drivers are trying to read signs at lower speeds while at higher speeds are more focused on other aspects of the environment, such as the road, vehicles in front, etc. A subsequent study examining a broader range of objects that a driver has gazed upon could shed some light on this question.

5 CONCLUSION

In this study, we investigated the effect of vehicle dynamics on driver attention to traffic signs and missing traffic signs during driving. Utilizing an accurate object detector algorithm, YOLO-V4, and an accurate algorithm to map the driver's gaze to the forward stereoscopic system, we calculated the intersection of the driver's visual attention area and traffic signs. We determine the number of missed traffic signs, number of pre-attentive and attentive fixations at various speed ranges. The results indicate that fewer traffic signs are missed at lower speeds and that there are more pre-attention and attentive fixations at lower speeds. The results also indicate that different drivers have different behaviors regarding checking traffic signs during driving. In future work, we will look to employ our method on a larger and more diverse dataset. We would look to explore the potential impact of environmental factors, e.g. day/night, fog, harsh sunlight, rain, snow, etc. We also plan to investigate combining our method in fusion with data from other sensors to improve the accuracy. Analyzing the effect of characteristics of signs, e.g. shape, color, and orientation, in missing traffic signs is another interesting topic that can be investigated to provide more information on this subject.

In considering the implications for ADAS, we note that not all signs are equally important, e.g. a stop sign is probably more important than a parking sign. Thus we may want to focus on "critical" signs, which may be dependent on the driving context. We would like to implement our method in an equipped car to be used in actual driving situations where we can determine whether a driver misses a critical traffic sign, such as a stop sign, and possibly warning the driver.

REFERENCES

- Acharya, S. and Nanda, P. K. (2021). Adjacent lbp and ltp based background modeling with mixed-mode learning for foreground detection. *Pattern Analysis and Applications*, 24(3):1047–1074.
- Bär, T., Linke, D., Nienhüser, D., and Zöllner, J. M. (2013). Seen and missed traffic objects: A traffic object-specific awareness estimation. In *2013 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium (IV)*, pages 31–36. IEEE.
- Beauchemin, S., Bauer, M., Laurendeau, D., Kowsari, T., Cho, J., Hunter, M., and McCarthy, O. (2010). Roadlab: An in-vehicle laboratory for developing cognitive cars. In *Proc. 23rd Int. Conf. CAINE*.
- Bochkovskiy, A., Wang, C.-Y., and Liao, H.-Y. M. (2020). Yolov4: Optimal speed and accuracy of object detection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.10934*.
- Bowden, V. K., Loft, S., Tatasciore, M., and Visser, T. A. (2017). Lowering thresholds for speed limit enforcement impairs peripheral object detection and increases driver subjective workload. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, 98:118–122.
- Calvert, S., Schakel, W., and Van Lint, J. (2017). Will automated vehicles negatively impact traffic flow? *Journal of advanced transportation*, 2017.
- Ćorović, A., Ilić, V., Đurić, S., Marijan, M., and Pavković, B. (2018). The real-time detection of traffic participants using yolo algorithm. In *2018 26th Telecommunications Forum (TELFOR)*, pages 1–4. IEEE.
- De Pelsmacker, P. and Janssens, W. (2007). The effect of norms, attitudes and habits on speeding behavior: Scale development and model building and estimation. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, 39(1):6–15.
- Eboli, L., Mazzulla, G., and Pungillo, G. (2017). How drivers' characteristics can affect driving style. *Transportation research procedia*, 27:945–952.
- Freund, Y. and Schapire, R. E. (1997). A decision-theoretic generalization of on-line learning and an application to boosting. *Journal of computer and system sciences*, 55(1):119–139.
- Girshick, R. (2015). Fast r-cnn. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 1440–1448.
- Gupta, A., Anpalagan, A., Guan, L., and Khwaja, A. S. (2021). Deep learning for object detection and scene perception in self-driving cars: Survey, challenges, and open issues. *Array*, 10:100057.
- Huang, G., Liu, Z., Van Der Maaten, L., and Weinberger, K. Q. (2017). Densely connected convolutional networks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 4700–4708.
- Just, M. A. and Carpenter, P. A. (1980). A theory of reading: from eye fixations to comprehension. *Psychological review*, 87(4):329.
- Kowsari, T., Beauchemin, S. S., Bauer, M. A., Laurendeau, D., and Teasdale, N. (2014). Multi-depth cross-calibration of remote eye gaze trackers and stereoscopic scene systems. In *2014 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium Proceedings*, pages 1245–1250. IEEE.
- Lin, C.-C. and Wang, M.-S. (2012). Road sign recognition with fuzzy adaptive pre-processing models. *Sensors*, 12(5):6415–6433.
- Liu, C., Tao, Y., Liang, J., Li, K., and Chen, Y. (2018). Object detection based on yolo network. In *2018 IEEE 4th Information Technology and Mechatronics Engineering Conference (ITOEC)*, pages 799–803. IEEE.
- Liu, L., Ouyang, W., Wang, X., Fieguth, P., Chen, J., Liu, X., and Pietikäinen, M. (2020). Deep learning for generic object detection: A survey. *International journal of computer vision*, 128(2):261–318.
- Liu, W., Anguelov, D., Erhan, D., Szegedy, C., Reed, S., Fu, C.-Y., and Berg, A. C. (2016). Ssd: Single shot multibox detector. In *European conference on computer vision*, pages 21–37. Springer.

- National Center for Statistics and Analysis (2019). 2018 fatal motor vehicle crashes: Overview. *Traffic Safety Facts Research Note. Report No. DOT HS 812 826*.
- Pon, A., Adrienko, O., Harakeh, A., and Waslander, S. L. (2018). A hierarchical deep architecture and mini-batch selection method for joint traffic sign and light detection. In *2018 15th Conference on Computer and Robot Vision (CRV)*, pages 102–109. IEEE.
- Redmon, J. and Farhadi, A. (2018). Yolov3: An incremental improvement. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1804.02767*.
- Ren, S., He, K., Girshick, R., and Sun, J. (2015). Faster r-cnn: Towards real-time object detection with region proposal networks. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 28.
- Rucci, M., McGraw, P. V., and Krauzlis, R. J. (2016). Fixational eye movements and perception. *Vision research*, 100(118):1–4.
- Salhi, A., Minaoui, B., Fakir, M., Chakib, H., and Grimech, H. (2017). Traffic signs recognition using hp and hog descriptors combined to mlp and svm classifiers. *Traffic*, 8(11):526–530.
- Schwehr, J., Knaust, M., and Willert, V. (2019). How to evaluate object-of-fixation detection. In *2019 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium (IV)*, pages 570–577.
- Shao, F., Wang, X., Meng, F., Rui, T., Wang, D., and Tang, J. (2018). Real-time traffic sign detection and recognition method based on simplified gabor wavelets and cnns. *Sensors*, 18(10):3192.
- Sharma, P. and Singh, A. (2017). Era of deep neural networks: A review. In *2017 8th International Conference on Computing, Communication and Networking Technologies (ICCCNT)*, pages 1–5. IEEE.
- Shirpour, M., Beauchemin, S. S., and Bauer, M. A. (2020). A probabilistic model for visual driver gaze approximation from head pose estimation. In *2020 IEEE 3rd Connected and Automated Vehicles Symposium (CAVS)*, pages 1–6.
- Shirpour, M., Beauchemin, S. S., and Bauer, M. A. (2021a). What does visual gaze attend to during driving? In *VEHITS*, pages 465–470.
- Shirpour, M., Khairdoost, N., Bauer, M., and Beauchemin, S. (2021b). Traffic object detection and recognition based on the attentional visual field of drivers. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Vehicles*, pages 1–1.
- Wang, C.-Y., Liao, H.-Y. M., Wu, Y.-H., Chen, P.-Y., Hsieh, J.-W., and Yeh, I.-H. (2020). Cspnet: A new backbone that can enhance learning capability of cnn. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition workshops*, pages 390–391.
- Wang, X., Han, T. X., and Yan, S. (2009). An hog-lbp human detector with partial occlusion handling. In *2009 IEEE 12th international conference on computer vision*, pages 32–39. IEEE.
- Wang, X., Hua, X., Xiao, F., Li, Y., Hu, X., and Sun, P. (2018). Multi-object detection in traffic scenes based on improved ssd. *Electronics*, 7(11):302.
- Wang, X., Shrivastava, A., and Gupta, A. (2017). A-fast-rcnn: Hard positive generation via adversary for object detection. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 2606–2615.
- Warner, H. W. and Åberg, L. (2006). Drivers' decision to speed: A study inspired by the theory of planned behavior. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 9(6):427–433.
- Xing, M., Chunyang, M., Yan, W., Xiaolong, W., and Xuetao, C. (2016). Traffic sign detection and recognition using color standardization and zernike moments. In *2016 Chinese Control and Decision Conference (CCDC)*, pages 5195–5198. IEEE.
- You, S., Bi, Q., Ji, Y., Liu, S., Feng, Y., and Wu, F. (2020). Traffic sign detection method based on improved ssd. *Information*, 11(10):475.
- Zabihi, S., Beauchemin, S. S., De Medeiros, E., and Bauer, M. A. (2014). Frame-rate vehicle detection within the attentional visual area of drivers. In *2014 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium Proceedings*, pages 146–150. IEEE.
- Zabihi, S., Zabihi, S., Beauchemin, S. S., and Bauer, M. A. (2017). Detection and recognition of traffic signs inside the attentional visual field of drivers. In *2017 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium (IV)*, pages 583–588. IEEE.
- Zhang, H., Qin, L., Li, J., Guo, Y., Zhou, Y., Zhang, J., and Xu, Z. (2020). Real-time detection method for small traffic signs based on yolov3. *IEEE Access*, 8:64145–64156.
- Zhang, Z., He, T., Zhang, H., Zhang, Z., Xie, J., and Li, M. (2019). Bag of freebies for training object detection neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1902.04103*.