Occlusion Detection for Face Image Quality Assessment

Jacob Carnap¹[®]^a, Alexander Kurz²[®]^b, Olaf Henniger²[®]^c and Arjan Kuijper^{1,2}[®]^d

¹Technical University of Darmstadt, Department of Computer Science, Darmstadt, Germany ²Fraunhofer Institute for Computer Graphics Research IGD, Darmstadt, Germany

Keywords: Biometrics, Face Recognition, Face Image Quality Assessment.

Abstract: The accuracy of 2D-image-based face recognition systems depends on the quality of the compared face images. One factor that affects the recognition accuracy is the occlusion of face regions, e.g., by opaque sunglasses or medical face masks. Being able to assess the quality of captured face images can be useful in various scenarios, e.g., in a border entry/exit system. This paper discusses a method for detecting face occlusions and for measuring the percentage of occlusion of a face using face segmentation and face landmark estimation techniques. The method is applicable to arbitrary face images, not only to frontal or nearly frontal face images. The method was evaluated by applying it to publicly available face image data sets and analyzing the results obtained. The evaluation shows that the proposed method enables the effective detection of face occlusions.

1 INTRODUCTION

The accuracy of a face recognition system depends on the quality of the available images, where quality means utility or usefulness for automatic face recognition (ISO/IEC 29794-1, 2024). Assessing the quality of face images can be useful in various applications. Low-quality images can be discarded to reduce the false non-match rate. This is particularly important in large-scale systems such as entry/exit systems for monitoring border crossings. Face image quality assessment can also be used when verifying the compliance of passport photographs.

Various factors influence whether a person can be recognized in an image. These include the image resolution, underexposure and overexposure, the head pose, and the degree of occlusion of the face. Occlusions include hair, opaque sunglasses and any objects in front of the face (such as medical face masks, hat brims or hands). Beards, moustaches and eyebrows are not considered as occlusions (ICAO, 2018). In case of occlusions, the utility of the face image for recognition decreases. Therefore, assessing the degree of face occlusion can contribute to the overall assessment of the quality of the face image and gives

- ^a https://orcid.org/0009-0007-8973-5749
- ^b https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6175-9203
- ^c https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2499-8613

actionable feedback to the user. The contributions of this paper are:

- 1. To clarify the method to assess the percentage of face occlusion such that it works on any face image, not only on frontal and nearly frontal face images (Section 3),
- 2. To evaluate the results of the proposed method on customized and publicly available data sets (Sections 4 and 5),
- 3. To outline how to choose the maximum permissible face occlusion for a biometric system (Section 5.5).

2 RELATED WORK

A standard for how to calculate face image quality measures is under development (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024). Several state-of-the-art face image quality assessment methods are available (Merkle et al., 2022). To better understand face image quality assessment, algorithms can currently be submitted to NIST for comparative evaluation (Yang et al., 2024).

Just as the NFIQ (NIST Fingerprint Image Quality) software (Tabassi et al., 2021) has been established as reference implementation for the standard for assessing the quality of fingerprint images (ISO/IEC 29794-4, 2024), the OFIQ (Open Source

DOI: 10.5220/0013168500003905

In Proceedings of the 14th International Conference on Pattern Recognition Applications and Methods (ICPRAM 2025), pages 657-664

ISBN: 978-989-758-730-6; ISSN: 2184-4313

^d https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6413-0061

Paper published under CC license (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0)

Proceedings Copyright O 2025 by SCITEPRESS – Science and Technology Publications, Lda

Face Image Quality) software (Merkle et al., 2024) has been developed to serve as reference implementation for the emerging standard for assessing the quality of face images (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024). In addition to an overall quality score, OFIQ returns a vector of quality measures. The percentage of face occlusion is included in the OFIQ output vector. We use it as benchmark in our experiments.

3 PERCENTAGE OF FACE OCCLUSION

3.1 Overview

For assessing the degree of face occlusion, this paper adopts and advances the approach of the emerging standard (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024) and of NIST's face analysis technology evaluation (Yang et al., 2024), calculating the percentage of occlusion in the area between the eyebrows and the chin. The forehead is excluded because it contains little identifying information.

To measure the percentage of face occlusion, two regions need to be determined: The face region of interest and the part of it that is occluded. The face region of interest is referred to as landmarked region because it is determined using facial landmarks (see Section 3.2). The part of the landmarked region that is occluded is determined using a binary pixel-wise segmentation map that indicates for each pixel whether it belongs to the face or not (see Section 3.3).

3.2 Landmarked Region

Several state-of-the-art facial landmark estimators are available (Merkle et al., 2022). We use the landmark estimator skps (Lz, 2023) to estimate the positions of facial landmarks. It takes a face bounding box as input and estimates the positions of 98 landmarks that outline the face, eyebrows, eyes, nose, and mouth. To detect faces and to draw face bounding boxes, many face detectors are available (Merkle et al., 2022). We use a modified version of the YOLO network (Redmon et al., 2016), trained to recognize faces (hpc203, 2024).

The facial landmarks form the basis for determining the landmarked region. The emerging standard (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024) suggests computing the convex hull of the landmarks. In mathematical terms, the boundary of the convex hull of a set of landmarks is the simple closed curve with minimum perimeter containing all landmarks. This works well for frontal and nearly frontal face images. For nonfrontal face images, however, the convex hull of the landmarks can include portions of the background, which is not intended. To avoid this, we draw a concave polygon connecting the landmarks on the face contour and on the upper boundaries of the eyebrows and consider all pixels inside and on this concave polygon as landmarked region.

Figure 1 shows examples of landmarked regions determined using the proposed method, including both very good and faulty results. The landmarked region in Fig. 1c on a heavily occluded face is faulty.



Figure 1: Landmarked regions determined using skps, marked in blue on the original face image.

3.3 Face Segmentation Map

Several state-of-the-art face segmentation methods are available (Merkle et al., 2022). We adopted the face segmentation approach face3d0725 (Yin and Chen, 2022), which is recommended in the emerging standard (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024) and also used in OFIQ (Merkle et al., 2024). The method utilizes an alignment technique based on facial landmarks, resizing the image to a resolution of 256×256 pixels. The model generates a pixel-wise binary segmentation map of the face image. As desired, hair hanging over the face is counted as occlusion, while facial features such as beards, mustaches, and eyebrows are not. Side whiskers, however, are counted as occlusions. Also, glasses are counted as occlusion even if the frame is neither extremely thick nor occluding the eyes. This deviates from the requirements (ICAO, 2018; ISO/IEC 19794-5, 2011). The baseline model is structured on a ResNet-18 backbone, following the U-Net architecture, and trained using a binary cross-entropy loss combined with online hard example mining.

Figure 2 shows examples of segmentation maps. While the segmentation maps are very accurate in general, image Fig. 2c highlights an imperfection, where the segmentation model struggles to accurately capture the left side of the face.



Figure 2: Face segmentation maps marked in blue on the original face image.

3.4 Occluded Region

Let *F* be the landmarked region, *S* the segmentation map containing the face pixels that are not occluded, and $O = F - F \cap S$ the area within the face that is occluded. Then the percentage of occlusion α is the ratio of |O| to |F| (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024):

$$\alpha = \frac{|O|}{|F|} = \frac{|F - F \cap S|}{|F|} \tag{1}$$

The output is a value between 0 and 1. |Y| represents the number of pixels in an image region *Y*, i.e., the area of that region.

Figure 3 shows the relevant face regions. The percentage of face occlusion in the example is calculated to be 28.9 %.





(a) Face image.





(c) Segmentation map S. (d) Occluded region O.

Figure 3: Examples of the regions used in Eq. (1), marked in blue on the original face image.

3.5 Sources of Errors

There are various reasons that can cause a deviation of the determined value from the expected value. Such deviations in the context of face occlusion can occur due to a faulty landmarked region (see Section 3.2) or due to a faulty face segmentation map (see Section 3.3).

An issue occurs at the boundaries of the regions. Even if there is no occlusion and both the landmarked region and the segmentation map contain no significant errors, a small percentage of occlusion can still be measured. This happens when the face contour of the segmentation map is placed more centrally than the landmarked region. An example is the left side of the face image in Fig. 4. Although no occlusion is evident on the left side, a minor occlusion is mistakenly detected due to the deviation between the landmarked region and the segmentation map. Approaches to solve this problem include rounding to fewer decimal places, introducing a threshold above which occlusion is counted, or automatic downsizing of the landmarked region.

Another issue that deserves attention is the potential for varying interpretations of the underlying definitions. For instance, opaque lenses of glasses are supposed to count as occlusion while transparent lenses do not. However, the criteria for distinguishing between opaque and transparent lenses are not explicitly defined. This makes it challenging to differentiate between both and leaves room for interpretations.



(a) Landmarked (b) Segmentation (c) Occluded region *F*. map *S*. region *O*.

Figure 4: Example of the issue occurring at the boundaries of the regions.

4 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

4.1 Face Image Data Sets

For evaluating the performance of the presented method, we use the following face image data sets, which are publicly available for research purposes:

- Caltech Occluded Faces in the Wild (COFW) data set (Burgos-Artizzu et al., 2022): We chose this data set because baseline segmentation maps (Yin and Chen, 2022) and 68 baseline landmarks (Ghiasi and Fowlkes, 2015) are given for 507 images from this data set. From these baselines, we calculated baseline values for the percentage of face occlusion, using Eq. (1).
- ONOT data set (Di Domenico et al., 2024): This data set is a collection of synthetic high-quality, well-controlled images with frontal pose, neutral expression, uniform background as well as no occlusion as required for enrolment (ISO/IEC 19794-5, 2011). We chose this data set because it contains face images known to be without occlusion.
- EURECOM's Kinect face data set (Min et al., 2014): We chose this data set because it contains both, ICAO-compliant reference face images and face images that are occluded but otherwise of high quality. It includes face images of 52 subjects (14 females, 38 males) obtained using a multimodal Kinect device. Data was captured in two sessions approximately half a month apart. Each session included face images of each subject in nine states: neutral facial expression, smile, open mouth, left profile, right profile, eyes occluded by sunglasses, mouth occluded by hand, half of the face occluded by paper, and lights on.

4.2 Face Comparisons

To evaluate the effect of face occlusions on face comparison scores, we compared 2D face images from EURECOM's Kinect face data set (Min et al., 2014). As reference images, we used 52 face images from the first session that show a neutral facial expression. As probe images, we used 208 mated face images from the second session: unoccluded face images as well as face images partially occluded by sunglasses, a hand or a sheet of paper, all showing a neutral facial expression. All images were taken under the same, very good capture conditions, only the occlusion varied.

For feature extraction, we used ArcFace (Deng et al., 2019), an open-source deep-learning-based face feature extraction algorithm implemented in Python. This algorithm aims at obtaining highly discriminative face embeddings for automatic face recognition by incorporating margins in the loss function. For comparing two face feature vectors, we calculated their cosine similarity as similarity score in the range from -1 to 1 (the more similar, the higher). Cosine similarity measures the similarity of the orientation of two feature vectors regardless of their magnitude. ArcFace is designed to give best results with cosine similarity.

5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

5.1 Images with Known Occlusion

The evaluation metrics for face images with known occlusion are aligned with those used by NIST in their evaluation of special image defect detection algorithms (Yang et al., 2024). However, the test data set is different because NIST uses a sequestered data set.

The COFW baseline values for the percentage of face occlusion are used to evaluate the validity of the presented method for calculating the percentage of occlusion. In Fig. 5, for each of the 507 images a point is plotted. The *x* coordinate corresponds to the baseline value considered to be the ground truth of the percentage of face occlusion. The *y* coordinate corresponds to the value estimated by the presented method. The line y = x represents the optimal agreement. The closer the estimated value is to the baseline value, the closer the plotted point is to the line y = x.

While our method achieved a mean absolute error of 3.91 percentage points, OFIQ achieved a mean absolute error of 3.86 percentage points in the same data set. For images with known occlusion, both OFIQ and



Figure 5: Estimated vs. baseline percentage of occlusion. The blue line represents perfect agreement.

our method slightly underestimate the presence of occlusion.

An earlier version of the proposed method using another occlusion segmentation model (Nirkin et al., 2018) has been submitted to NIST's special image defect detection evaluation, in the category of face occlusion detection when the forehead is excluded. It achieved the best results so far, along with the OFIQ software, which achieved the same mean absolute error value. Switching to the occlusion segmentation model face3d0725 (Yin and Chen, 2022) improved the mean absolute error of our method in the COFW data set by more than 3 percentage points.

5.2 Face Images Without Occlusion

To test how well the proposed method recognizes the absence of occlusions, we selected face images compliant to the requirements for passport photographs (ICAO, 2018). This goes beyond NIST's evaluation (Yang et al., 2024) and helps setting a face occlusion threshold for unoccluded face images (see Section 5.5).

We selected 353 such images from the ONOT data set. The selected images show the face frontally, welllit, and without any occlusion. Therefore, we expected the percentage of occlusion to be 0. However, as discussed in Section 3.5, this is not always the case. Figure 6 shows the histogram of the calculated values for the 353 face images without occlusion. It can be seen that in about 50 % of the images, an occlusion of less than 1 % is calculated.

The mean absolute error of our method is just above 2.85 percentage points. OFIQ achieved an mean absolute error of 2.83 percentage points in the same data set. The main source of error was the presence of eyeglasses, resulting in up to 14.6% face occlusion. The spike of error caused by the presence of glasses is also observable in Fig. 6. Additionally, a slight deviation from no occlusion is caused by hair covering the eyebrows or the side of the face. This is observable in Fig. 4, which shows an image of the ONOT data set.

5.3 Face Images with Eyeglasses

Figure 7 is a box and whisker plot showing the distributions of the percentages of face occlusion in the ONOT data set for 43 face images with and 310 without transparent eyeglasses. A box is drawn between the first and third quartiles with a line in between marking the second quartile (median value); crosses represent mean values. Whiskers are drawn at the greatest/smallest percentage of occlusion smaller/greater than 1,5 times the inter-quartile range (between the first and third quartiles) above/below the third/first quartile. Scores beyond the whiskers are outliers. Figure 7 shows that the measured percentage of face occlusion is considerably higher when eyeglasses are worn.

At a 95% confidence level, a two-sample *t*-test shows that the difference between the mean values in Fig. 7 is statistically significant. There is, however, no statistically significant difference between the mean values of the overall OFIQ quality scores for wearers of eyeglasses and for people who do not wear glasses.

5.4 Comparison with OFIQ

When using face images with known occlusion and when using face images without occlusion, a similar behaviour of OFIQ and the presented method was observed. We had expected differently. Both methods utilize the same occlusion segmentation model



Figure 6: Histogram of percentages of occlusion measured in unoccluded face images.

face3d0725 (Yin and Chen, 2022), but OFIQ, as reference implementation of the draft standard (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024), uses the OpenCV function convexHull when calculating the landmarked region. The similar behaviour of OFIQ and the presented method leads us to suspect that the OpenCV function convex-Hull does not return the convex hull in mathematical terms but the contour around the landmarks. OFIQ behaves as if the landmarked region is based on the possibly concave polygon along the face contour.

5.5 Face Occlusion Thresholds

How much face occlusion is admissible depends on the use case. The emerging standard (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024) considers three use cases:

- 1. Acquisition of reference face images for machine readable travel documents (MRTDs),
- 2. Acquisition of reference face images for other systems (e.g., entry/exit system),
- 3. Acquisition of probe face images for instantaneous recognition.

For use case 1 concerning passport photographs, ICAO prohibits face occlusions except in specific exceptional cases (ICAO, 2018). For use case 2 concerning system enrolment, weaker requirements (ISO/IEC 19794-5, 2011) apply (European Commission, 2019), but occlusions are not permitted either. Both documents (ICAO, 2018; ISO/IEC 19794-5, 2011) allow subjects to wear eyeglasses with transparent lenses not occluding the eyes. That is why we count face images with transparent eyeglasses in the



Figure 7: Percentage of occlusion for unoccluded face images with and without transparent eyeglasses.



Figure 8: Mated similarity score vs. percentage of occlusion scatterplot.

unoccluded category. Given the fact that some occlusion may be measured even in unoccluded face images (see Fig. 6) and to avoid bias against wearers of eyeglasses, a discard threshold of about 15 % measured face occlusion should be chosen.

For use case 3 concerning probe images for instantaneous recognition, the question arises as to how much occlusion would be permissible without exceeding a given FNMR target. Figure 8 shows the relationship between the percentage of occlusion of the probe images from the Kinect face data set and their mated similarity scores. Percentage of occlusion and mated similarity score appear to be negatively correlated. The orange data points in Fig. 8 also show that occlusions caused by transparent eyeglasses have no noticeable negative effect on the mated similarity scores of face images that are otherwise of high quality. In the given data set, in general, the sunglasses cause less occlusion than a hand or a sheet of paper partially occluding the face.

The maximum permissible percentage of face occlusion for the probe images depends on the application-specific decision threshold. For instance, let the target FNMR be 5% or less¹ and the decision threshold be a similarity score value of 0.8 in Fig. 8, then frontal probe images with a percentage of face occlusion of 23.85% or more should be discarded and recaptured to be able to meet the target FNMR. If the decision threshold is more relaxed, e.g., at a similarity score value of 0.7, then face images would need to be discarded and recaptured only if the percentage of occlusion exceeds 40.9%. The lower the required similarity, the higher the admissible percentage of occlusion.

Be aware that the error rates of a specific biomet-

¹Best practice guideline for automated border control is an FRR of at most 5 % at an FAR of 0.1 % (Frontex, 2015).

ric system depend on its input data and that the choice of thresholds depends on the costs of false accepts and false rejects. To set operational thresholds, the experiment should be run with commercial face comparison algorithms and more, operational face image data. Real-world probe images differ not only in terms of face occlusion but may exhibit other irregularities at the same time.

6 CONCLUSIONS

Drawing on state-of-the-art face landmark estimation and face segmentation methods, a C++ implementation to determine the percentage of face occlusion was developed. When forming the landmarked region, a concave polygon along the face contour landmarks is used instead of the convex hull proposed in (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024). For faces showing other than frontal or near-frontal poses, a convex hull of the landmarks incorrectly includes parts of the background. The proposed method is applicable to any image on which a face can be detected, not only to frontal or near-frontal face images. The experiments in Section 5 show that the presented method and OFIQ achieve very similar results. This suggests that OFIO does not use the convex hull in mathematical terms either but the possibly concave polygon bounded by the face contour.

Both, the presented method and OFIQ, use the same face segmentation model, which counts the frame of transparent eyeglasses as occlusion. To avoid bias against the demographic group of wearers of glasses, a discard threshold of almost 20 % measured face occlusion should be chosen. As this allows unwanted face occlusions to be ignored, it may be better to retrain the occlusion segmentation model not to count transparent eyeglasses as occlusions.

Some issues in the underlying face landmark estimation and face segmentation software have been identified in Section 3.5. Because of the observable continuous improvement of such algorithms (Merkle et al., 2022), it can be expected that these issues will be alleviated over time.

The proposed approach can be extended to other face image quality components defined in the emerging standard (ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5, 2024): The measurement of overexposure and underexposure can be restricted to the unoccluded landmarked region, and the face segmentation map can be used to check for the visibility of the eyes and the presence of sunglasses and to determine the percentage of mouth occlusion. Satisfactory results were also achieved in NIST's evaluation for these quality components.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research work has been funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research and the Hessian Ministry of Higher Education, Research, Science and the Arts within their joint support of the National Research Center for Applied Cybersecurity ATHENE.

REFERENCES

- Burgos-Artizzu, X., Perona, P., and Dollar, P. (2022). Caltech occluded faces in the wild (COFW). https://doi. org/10.22002/D1.20099.
- Deng, J., Guo, J., Xue, N., and Zafeiriou, S. (2019). ArcFace: Additive angular margin loss for deep face recognition. In *IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*.
- Di Domenico, N., Borghi, G., Franco, A., Maltoni, D., et al. (2024). ONOT: a high-quality ICAO-compliant synthetic mugshot dataset. In 18th IEEE International Conference on Automatic Face and Gesture Recognition (FG).
- European Commission (2019). Commission Implementing Decision (EU) 2019/329 of 25 February 2019 laying down the specifications for the quality, resolution and use of fingerprints and facial image for biometric verification and identification in the Entry/Exit System (EES).
- Frontex (2015). Best practice technical guidelines for automated border control (ABC) systems. Frontex Technical Report.
- Ghiasi, G. and Fowlkes, C. (2015). Occlusion coherence: Detecting and localizing occluded faces. https://doi. org/10.48550/arXiv.1506.08347.
- hpc203 (2024). hpc203/yolov8-face-landmarksopencv-dnn. https://github.com/hpc203/ yolov8-face-landmarks-opencv-dnn.
- ICAO (2018). Portrait quality (reference facial images for MRTD). ICAO Technical Report. https://www.icao.int/Security/FAL/TRIP/Documents/ TR-PortraitQualityv1.0.pdf.
- ISO/IEC 19794-5 (2011). Information technology Biometric data interchange formats – Part 5: Face image data. International Standard ISO/IEC 19794-5.
- ISO/IEC 29794-1 (2024). Information technology Biometric sample quality – Part 1: Framework. International Standard ISO/IEC 29794-1.
- ISO/IEC 29794-4 (2024). Information technology Biometric sample quality – Part 4: Finger image data. International Standard ISO/IEC 29794-4.
- ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5 (2024). Information technology – Biometric sample quality – Part 5: Face image data. Final Draft International Standard ISO/IEC FDIS 29794-5.
- Lz (2023). 610265158/peppa_pig_face_landmark: new base line. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7894492.

ICPRAM 2025 - 14th International Conference on Pattern Recognition Applications and Methods

- Merkle, J., Rathgeb, C., Herdeanu, B., Tams, B., Lou, D.-P., Dörsch, A., Schaubert, M., Dehen, J., Chen, L., Yin, X., Huang, D., Stratmann, A., Ginzler, M., Grimmer, M., and Busch, C. (2024). Open Source Facial Image Quality (OFIQ) – Implementation and evaluation of algorithms. https://github.com/BSI-OFIQ/ OFIQ-Project/tree/main/doc/reports.
- Merkle, J., Rathgeb, C., Tams, B., Lou, D.-P., Dörsch, A., and Drozdowski, P. (2022). State of the art of quality assessment of facial images. https://doi.org/10.48550/ arXiv.2211.08030.
- Min, R., Kose, N., and Dugelay, J.-L. (2014). Kinect-FaceDB: A kinect database for face recognition. *IEEE Trans. on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics: Systems*, 44(11):1534–1548.
- Nirkin, Y., Masi, I., Tuan, A., Hassner, T., and Medioni, G. (2018). On face segmentation, face swapping, and face perception. In 13th IEEE Int. Conf. on Automatic Face & Gesture Recognition (FG), pages 98–105.
- Redmon, J., Divvala, S., Girshick, R., and Farhadi, A. (2016). You Only Look Once: Unified, Real-Time Object Detection. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 779–788.
- Tabassi, E., Olsen, M., Bausinger, O., Busch, C., Figlarz, A., Fiumara, G., Henniger, O., Merkle, J., Ruhland, T., Schiel, C., and Schwaiger, M. (2021). NFIQ 2.0 – NIST fingerprint image quality. NIST IR 8382, NIST.
- Yang, J., Grother, P., Ngan, M., Hanaoka, K., and Hom, A. (2024). Face analysis technology evaluation (FATE) Part 11: Face image quality vector assessment: Specific image defect detection. NIST IR 8485, NIST.
- Yin, X. and Chen, L. (2022). FaceOcc: A diverse, highquality face occlusion dataset for human face extraction. In *Treatment and Analysis of the Information Methods and Applications (TAIMA).*