

Face Recognition by Fast and Stable Bi-dimensional Empirical Mode Decomposition

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Abstract: In this study the use of a new fast and stable decomposition technique, bi-dimensional empirical mode decomposition, is used for face recognition tasks. Images are decomposed individually, and then the distance with reference images is computed. Three different types of distances are tested. Then class association is based on minimum distance and by using a classifier. Preliminary results (90.0% of classification rate) are satisfactory and will justify a deep investigation on how to apply this bi-dimensional decomposition technique for face recognition.

1 INTRODUCTION

Face recognition is a field of study that has been developed in recent years. Errors of classification in this field of study have decreased over the last twenty years by three orders of magnitude when recognizing frontal faces (Phillips et al. 2011). Face recognition has been developing quickly, and it seems that there is not a limit for the capacity of this system, because the data entry of these systems can be really big. For this reason, researchers aim to improve face recognition systems by introducing new characteristics and new working lines that can be valid for the development of these kinds of systems (Iancu et al. 2007).

Usually applications given to this field are as diverse as an online search for images or the use of face recognition for security (Wagner et al. 2012). Different examples of commercial software that use face recognition are Picassa, iPhoto or Windows Live Gallery. On the other hand, several security laws have been proposed in order to increase control access to different places. Therefore face recognition has been used in continuous monitoring or access security (Woodward et al. 2002; Xiao 2007).

This paper explores a promising strategy for face recognition, using a new decomposition technique, called *Fast and Stable Bi-dimensional Empirical Mode Decomposition* (FSBEMD). Images of the subjects are decomposed and compared before the classification is performed. Previous work (Gallego-Jutglà et al. 2013) studied the use of *Multivariate Empirical Mode Decomposition* (mEMD) for the same purpose. However, in that approach only the information contained in one dimension was evaluated due to the unfolding of the images before the computation of mEMD. In this new approach, FSBEMD is computed with images in the original format, without unfolding. Therefore the information contained in the two dimensions of the image is taken into account for classification.

This paper is organized as follows: After this introduction, methods are detailed in Section 2, including the explanation of the data base, the FSBEMD technique and the signal processing applied to the data. Results of applying these methods on the images are presented in Section 3. Finally, Section 4 is devoted to discussion of the obtained results and to present conclusions and future lines of research.

2 METHODS

Methods used to compute the image classification using FSBEMD are detailed in this section. First in Section 2.1 the used data base is presented. In Section 2.2 an introduction to *Bi-dimensional Empirical Mode Decomposition* (BEMD) is presented and then in Section 2.3 FSBEMD is detailed. Section 2.4 explains the classification system used to compute image classification and cross-validation. Finally in Section 2.5 the image processing applied is detailed by jointly using all the methods presented before.

2.1 Data Base

The used data base contains 10 different images for 40 different subjects. Therefore a total of 400 different images are contained in the data base. Images were taken with a dark background, with frontal position and with different orientations of the subjects.

This data base presents images with different gestural positions, such as eyes open, eyes closed, smile or no smile, glasses or no glasses and illumination variations. The illumination variations are not defined. All images are grey scale of 256 values, with a size of 92 x 112 pixels. The whole dataset is presented in Figure 1.

2.2 Bi-dimensional Empirical Mode Decomposition

Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD) or BEMD is a sifting process that decomposes a signal into its Intrinsic Mode Functions (IMFs) or Bi-dimensional Intrinsic Mode Functions (BIMFs) and a residue based basically on the local frequency or oscillation information.

The first IMF/BIMF contains the highest local frequencies of oscillation or the smallest local spatial scales, the final IMF/BIMF contains the lowest local frequencies of oscillation and the residue contains the trend of the signal/data. Like time frequency distribution with EMD, acquiring the space spatial-frequency distribution of 2D data/image is possible with BEMD, which may be named as Bi-dimensional Hilbert Huang Transform (BHHT).

2.2.1 General BEMD

General BEMD is a sifting process that decomposes $X(m,n)$ into multiple hierarchical components known as BIMFs. A typical sifting process is

summarized in the following iterations:

- i. Initialization: set $r(m,n) = X(m,n)$. Identify all local maxima and local minima of $r(m,n)$.
- ii. Interpolate the local maxima, $e_{max}(m,n)$, to obtain the upper surface and local minima, $e_{min}(m,n)$, to obtain the lower surface.
- iii. The mean $M(m,n) = [e_{max}(m,n) + e_{min}(m,n)]/2$ is computed and subtracted from $r(m,n)$ to obtain $r'(m,n) = r(m,n) - M$.
- iv. Update $r(m,n)$ by $r'(m,n)$. Repeat steps (i.) to (iii.) until the stopping criterion is met.

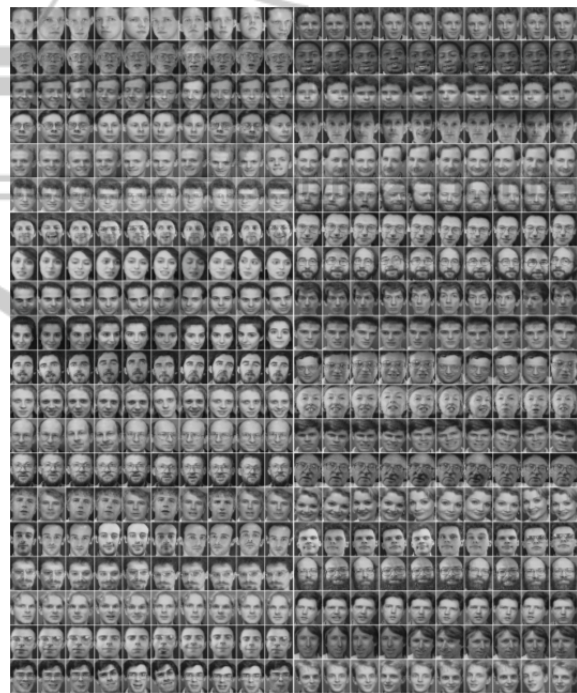


Figure 1: Data base ORL (Olivetti Research Laboratory).

2.3 Fast and Stable Bi-dimensional Empirical Mode Decomposition

Similar to other BEMD techniques, the number of BIMFs and their characteristics are highly dependent on envelope estimation techniques in the sifting process, on the methods to detect extrema, and on stopping criteria during the iterations. In that sense, and with the intention of overcoming the difficulty in implementing BEMD via the application of surface interpolation, a novel approach is proposed introducing a tension parameter to cope with surface interpolation problems. It uses Green's functions for

spline interpolation to estimate the upper and lower surfaces. Including surface tension greatly improves the stability of the method relative to gridding without tension.

Based on the properties of the proposed approach, it is considered a FSBEMD. The latter differs from the standard BEMD algorithm basically in the process of robustly estimating the upper and lower surfaces, and in limiting the number of iterations per BIMF to a few iterations only. Hence, the FSBEMD is considered as an efficient algorithm compared to other BEMD algorithms. The details of extrema detection and surface formation of the FSBEMD process are discussed in the following section.

2.3.1 Extract of Local Extrema

Local extrema are points that have the largest or smallest function value relative to their immediate neighbours. Detection of local extrema means finding the local maxima and minima from the given data. The 2D region of local maxima is called a *maxima map* and the 2D array of local minima is called a *minima map*, respectively. Like BEMD, a neighbouring window method is employed to find local maxima and local minima during intermediate steps of the sifting process for estimating a BIMF of any source image. In this method, a data point/pixel is considered as a local maximum (minimum), if its value is strictly higher (lower) than all of its neighbours.

Let $P = \{P_i | i = 1, \dots, N\}$ be a set of local minima (maxima) of an $x \times y$ -dimensional 2D matrix such that it exists a small (large) circle around any such local optimal point P_i on which the function value is never larger (smaller) than $f(x, y)$ at P_i . Local extrema occur only at critical points. Let $D(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$. If $D > 0$ at a critical point, then the critical point P_i is a local extremum. The signs of f_{xx} and f_{yy} determine whether the point is a maximum or a minimum. If $D < 0$ at a critical point, then the point P_i is saddle point. In practice, a 4×4 or 3×3 window results in an optimal *extrema map* for a given 2D image. A 4×4 window is applied in this paper. However, a larger window size might be used in some applications.

2.3.1 Green Function for Estimating Surfaces

Spline interpolation, whether in one or two dimensions, are basically used to find the smoothest curve or surface that passes through a set of non-

uniformity data points. Green's functions are used to shape an envelope or surface in terms of minimizing the curvature of the envelope interpolating non-uniformly spaced data points (Wessel & Bercovici 1998). The shape of the envelope or surface depends on their tension parameter. So the Green's function $\phi(x)$ obeys the following relation (Wessel & Bercovici 1998):

$$D\nabla^4\phi(x) - T\nabla^2\phi(x) = \delta(x) \quad (1)$$

where, ∇^4 and ∇^2 are the bi-harmonic and Laplace operators, respectively, D is the flexural rigidity of the curve or surface, T is the tension used at the boundaries, and $\phi(x)$ is the spatial position vector. The equation above is solved by introducing a new variable:

$$\Psi(x) = \nabla^2\phi(x) \quad (2)$$

Hence, $\Psi(x)$ is the curvature of the Green's function and (1) is rewritten as:

$$D\nabla^2\Psi(x) - T\Psi(x) = \delta(x) \quad (3)$$

Then, the Fourier transform is taken:

$$-k^2 D\nabla^2\Psi(k) - T\Psi(k) = 1 \quad (4)$$

Here, k is the wavenumber vector and $\Psi(k)$ is the Fourier transform of $\Psi(x)$. In k -space, the solution is:

$$\Psi(k) = -\frac{1}{D} \left(\frac{1}{k^2 + p^2} \right) \quad (5)$$

where $p^2 = \frac{T}{D}$. Hence, the solution for $\Psi(k)$ could be obtained for any dimension. However, in this paper we focus on the 2-D.

In the limit of a vanishing surface tension, i.e. $T = 0$, or a diminished surface stiffness, i.e. $D \rightarrow 0$, the Green's function behaves like $\Psi(k) = |x|^2 \log(|x|)$ or $\Psi(k) = \log(|x|)$, respectively.

The general solution for this problem in a 2-D spacial domain (Wessel & Bercovici 1998) can be achieved by using Hankel transform as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x) &= -\frac{1}{D} \int_0^\infty \frac{C_0(kr)}{k^2 + p^2} k dk = \\ &= -\frac{1}{D} k_0(p|x|) = AK_0(p|x|) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where $k = |k|$ represents the radial wavenumber, and K_0 is the adapted Bessel function of the second kind and order zero. By plugging (6) into (2) (with $r = |x|$) we obtain:

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} r \left(\frac{d\phi}{dr} \right) = AK_0(p|x|) \quad (7)$$

Integrating the equation above two times results in:

$$\phi(x) = \frac{A}{p^2} K_0(p|x|) + B \log|x| + C \quad (8)$$

C is set from the condition $\phi(x) = 0$ to $A \log(p)/p^2$, and ignoring the common factor A/p^2 , results in the final Green's function:

$$\phi(x) = K_0(p|x|) + \log(p|x|) \quad (9)$$

Thus, the gradient of the Green's function is

$$\nabla\phi(x) = p \left[\frac{1}{p|x|} - K_1(p|x|) \right] \frac{x}{|x|} \quad (10)$$

Thus, by decreasing the tension parameter T , the solution is expected to reach the minimum curvature solution (Sandwell 1987). In contrary, increasing the tension parameter T leads to an increase of $\phi(x)$. The trade-off between $\log(p|x|)$ and $K_0(p|x|)$ thus achieves a continuous spectrum of Green's functions. As $p \rightarrow 0$, we obtain the biharmonic Green's function $x^2 \log x$.

2.4 Classification

Extracted BIMFs, after applying FSBEMD to the images, are first parameterized and then classified using two different methods: by minimum distance and by using Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA).

2.4.1 Linear Discriminant Analysis

LDA is a well-known scheme for feature extraction and dimension reduction. It has been used widely in many applications involving high-dimensional data, such as face recognition and image retrieval. Classical LDA projects the data onto a lower-dimensional vector space such that the ratio of the between-class distances to the within-class distance is maximized, achieving maximum discrimination (Duda et al. 1995). The optimal projection (transformation) can be readily computed by applying the eigendecomposition on the scatter matrices. See (Duda et al. 1995; Fukunaga 1990), for details on the algorithm

2.4.2 Cross-validation for Classification

For the classification step, k -fold cross-validation is used in order to ensure stable results. In this evaluation methodology the original sample set is randomly divided into k subsets. Then, a single subset is retained as the validation data for testing the model, and the remaining $k - 1$ subsets are used as training data. The cross-validation process is repeated k times, with each of the k subsets used exactly once as the validation data.

The k obtained results from the folds are then averaged in order to produce a single estimation. The advantage of this method is that all observations are used for both training and validation, and each observation is used for validation exactly once. This is the most robust evaluation method because it tries to overcome a possible over-fitting. 10-fold cross-validation is common, but with few samples only, the leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) could be the best option.

LOOCV uses a single observation from the original set as the validation data, and the remaining observations as the training data. This is the same as a k -fold cross-validation with k equal to the number of observations in the original sample set. LOOCV is computationally expensive because it requires many repetitions of training but successfully with very small data sets. In this study both approaches, LOOCV and k -fold cross-validation, with $k = 10$, are used to evaluate the classification method. 10-fold cross-validation is computed 100 times in order to select different configurations for the training of the network.

2.5 Image Processing

The image processing applied uses all the previous methods defined in this section. It works as follows:

- (i) FSBEMD is computed in each of the images of the data base.
- (ii) For each class five images are kept as representative (R_{is}). The rest of the images are used to be classified as belonging to one of the classes.
- (iii) For each new input image I to be classified, the distances between BIMFs of I and BIMFs of R_{is} are computed. This process is repeated for all R_{is} .
- (iv) Distances of the BIMFs presenting the same number are compared. For each of the five images R_{is} of each subject, the minimum distance is kept for each BIMF. Minimal distances are then averaged obtaining one value of distance (D_s) for each of the subjects.
- (v) Steps (iii) and (iv) are repeated for all the subjects, for each images I to be classified.
- (vi) Final step concerning the class association is based on the distances computed with each subject. This step is done with two different criterion:
 - Minimum distance with each subject.
 - LDA classification.

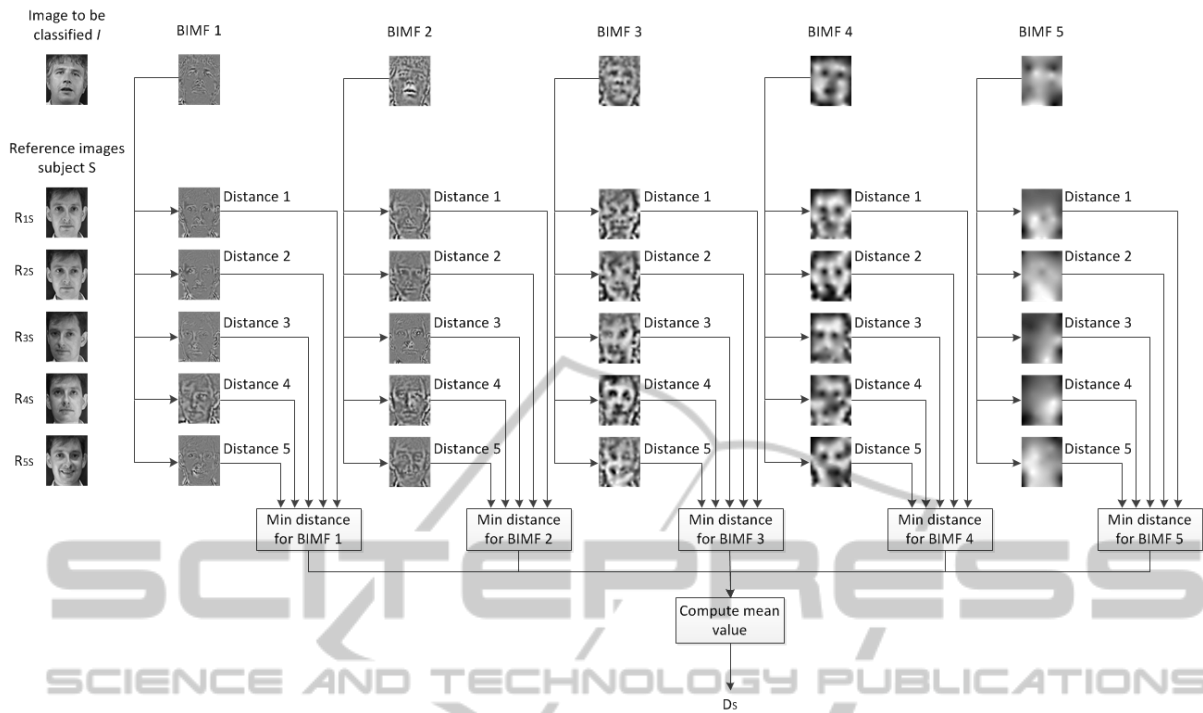


Figure 2: Scheme of the proposed image processing procedure for one image I to be classified. New Image I is compared with the images reference R_{is} of each subject. Distance between the same numbers of BIMF is computed and then the minimum distance is kept representing each BIMF. Minimum distances are then averaged. Final value D_s present the distance between the new image and the subject. Distance is computed with all the subjects.

Figure 2 presents an application example for explaining steps (iii) and (iv).

Hence, concerning to distances computed in point (iii) three different measures are used in order to explore and compare different configurations. These measures are correlation, the matrix scalar product and Frobenius norm. Considering two matrixes A and B the computation of each distance is done as follows:

1. Correlation coefficient between matrices A and B .

2. Matrix scalar product, also known as the normalized Frobenius inner product:

$$Distance(A, B) = \frac{A : B}{\|A\|_F \|B\|_F} \quad (11)$$

where $A : B$ is the the Frobenius inner product of the matrices A and B , defined as $A : B = \text{trace}(A^T B)$, and $\|\cdot\|_F$ is the Frobenius norm defined as $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\text{trace}(A^T A)}$, where T denotes the transpose of a matrix.

3. Frobenius norm of the difference $A - B$:

$$Distance(A, B) = \|A - B\|_F \quad (12)$$

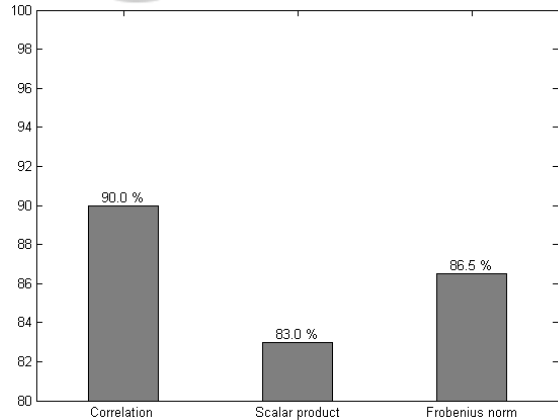


Figure 3: Obtained classification rates (%) for the three different distances when the class association is based on the minimum distance with each subject. Exact experimental values are presented at the top of each bar.

3 RESULTS

This section presents the results after applying the image processing to the data base and using the described three different distances measures.

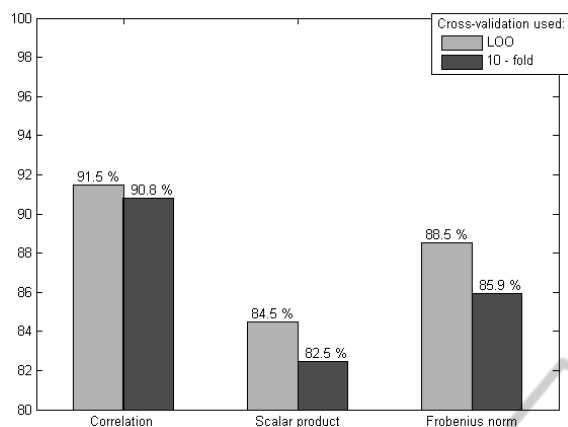


Figure 4: Obtained classification rates (%) for the three different distances when LDA classification is used for the class association. Exact experimental values are presented at the top of each bar.

Figure 3 summarizes the obtained classification results only based on the criterion of the minimum distance. 90.0% of accuracy is obtained with correlation, 83.0% is obtained when the used measure is the scalar product, and 86.5% is obtained with the Frobenius norm.

Figure 4 summarizes the obtained classification results using LDA in the classification step. Results obtained using LOOCV and 10-fold cross-validation are presented. Interestingly, the use of LDA and LOO cross-validation presents some small improvement in the results. Classification rates (CR) obtained using LOO cross-validation are 91.5%, 84.5% and 88.5% for correlation, scalar product and Frobenius norm respectively. These results are higher than results presented in Figure 3. However, when the 10-fold cross-validation is applied, only Correlation (which already presented the best result) presents better CR than those obtained when the class association is done only with the criterion of the minimum distance. Results obtained for scalar product and Frobenius norm present a decrease in comparison with results showed in Figure 3.

These experiments show that results obtained without any classifier are improved when LDA with LOO cross-validation is used. However, the variation is very small in these first experiments and we will try to increase it in future research.

4 CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This study explores the use of FSBEMD for face

recognition. Distance measures are computed between BIMFs obtained from reference images and the image to classify. Then, class is assigned based on the minimum distance between references and the images of example, and also using a LDA classifier.

Obtained results do not overcome existing results in the literature. Results presented in (Travieso et al. 2008) and in (Gallego-Jutglà et al. 2013) achieve a 98% of performance in the classification, which is better than results presented in this work. However, in the present work a more simple approach is used.

Results obtained in (Travieso et al. 2008) use a DCT or DWT (Biorthogonal 4.4 family) parameterization, which is combined with a support vector machine classifier. Here, the new FSBEMD technique is used to decompose each image of the data set and the vector of distance measures is used alone or is given to a classifier (LDA or ANN). In this case, the proposed system does not use any kind of transformation (DCT, DWT or others).

On the other hand, results presented in (Gallego-Jutglà et al. 2013) also present a CR of 98.25%. In this work no transformation such as DCT, DWT or others was applied. Methodology used in (Gallego-Jutglà et al. 2013) was based on mEMD to compute the joint decomposition of two images. Best result obtained was found by classifying obtained distances with an ANN. 98.25% of CR was achieved when all measures were combined as input features for the ANN, which may lead to overfitting. However, when each measure was used alone, the best result obtained was 97.25%. Another shortcoming of the work presented in (Gallego-Jutglà et al. 2013) is that if an implementation would be done in a real system the mEMD of the image to classify and all the existing images of the data base would have to be computed. This procedure is time consuming and therefore if the data base is big could not be implemented in real time. Methods defined in this work, however, compute the FSBEMD of an image which is time consuming, but this decomposition is only computed once.

Results presented here explore the two dimensional information contained in the image. Even though more information is used, results do not overcome previous results that used only one dimension. One possible shortcoming of the presented methodology is that some information may be lost in the average done to obtain the distance value D_s . Moreover, all extracted FSIMF are used whereas some of them may not add any new information but noise. This will be further analysed in future work.

On the other hand, in this study the original size

of the images have been used for the decomposition, another further analysis may explore the performance of the method by changing (reducing) the size of the image, in order to decrease the computational load of FSBEMD algorithm without losing accuracy in the results.

The success of the proposed method is promising and will encourage us to continue investigating the use FSBEMD for image processing. In any case, the method also needs to be tested with other databases in order to ensure its general performance. In this case the method has been tested in a database containing face of subjects, but it could also be used with images containing objects or biomedical images.

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