Face Recognition using Modified Generalized Hough Transform and Gradient Distance Descriptor

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Abstract: This research uses a modified version of the generalized Hough transform based on a new image descriptor, known as the gradient distance descriptor, to tackle the problem of face recognition. Thus, in addition to the position of the edges in a sketch of a face, this approach also takes into consideration the value of the corresponding descriptors. Individual descriptors are compared against one another using the matrix cosine similarity measure. This enables the technique to identify the region of a query face image that best matches a target face image in a database. The proposed technique does not require any training data and can be extended to general object recognition.

1 INTRODUCTION

One of the most important problems in computer vision is that of face recognition (Li and Jain, 2011). This paper addresses the problem using a modified form of the generalized Hough transform (Ballard, 1981) (GHT), along with a new image descriptor (Goshtasby, 2012), known as the gradient distance descriptor (GDD). This method therefore combines the ability of the GHT to find shapes with the power of descriptors to describe features that may be obscured by deformations or varying illumination conditions. And, because any descriptor may ultimately be used, the performance of this approach will continue to improve as descriptors become more discriminative. This combination of techniques further enables the method to capture both the global and local structure of a face. What's more, unlike many other approaches, this method does not require any training data. Additionally, it can be further extended to general object recognition. As part of a preliminary study, the new approach is tested on the Yale face database (Yale, 1997). This particular database allows one to avoid, for the moment, problems of face alignment, cropping and background removal. The foremost application of this work is that of video surveillance in situations in which there is a given database of target individuals. Note that the ideas outlined in this paper were first presented in (Moise, 2012).

The GHT has been previously employed in other tasks, such as the recognition of handwritten Chinese

characters (Li and Dai, 1995), template-based image matching (Li and Zhang, 2005) or sketch-based image retrieval (Anelli et al., 2007). In (Schubert, 2000), real-time face detection and tracking is performed using the GHT. As part of a more elaborate approach (Barinova et al., 2012), Hough forests (Gall and Lempitsky, 2009) are trained on image patches to detect multiple faces, such as pedestrians in crowded places. Among the earliest methods in the field of face recognition are those of Eigenfaces (Turk and Pentland, 1991) and Fisherfaces (Belhumeur et al., 1997). Of these two, Fisherfaces is generally perceived as being superior given that it reduces intra-class differences between faces of the same individual. As well, it appears to be the better of the two at handling variations in lighting, changes in facial expressions and the presence of glasses.

Several additional descriptors are considered in this work. The first of these is the *locally adaptive regression kernel* (Seo and Milanfar, 2011) (LARK) descriptor. It is derived from other descriptors via *principal component analysis* (Duda et al., 2001) (PCA). In another approach (Seo and Milanfar, 2009), a query image is divided into a set of overlapping patches that are compared with those of a target image using the *matrix cosine similarity* (Seo and Milanfar, 2010) (MCS) measure. Two additional descriptors examined in this paper are the *self similarities local descriptor* (Shechtman and Irani, 2007) (SSLD) and one based on the *discrete cosine transform* (Gonzalez and Woods, 2002) (DCT).

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2 METHOD

First proposed in (Ballard, 1981), the GHT is a method of finding an arbitrary, non-analytic shape in an image using predefined boundary information. Together, these boundaries, or edges (Gonzalez and Woods, 2002), make up a sketch of a shape. The GHT creates a template of a sketch of a shape using this edge information. This template, also called an *R-table* (Ballard, 1981), stores the locations of the edge points relative to a reference point, which can be thought of as the origin of the system of coordinates. During the recognition process, each edge point in a query sketch votes for the location of this reference point. The resulting maximum accumulated value represents the assumed reference point of the shape. This method works even when a sketch becomes discontinuous due to noise, minor deformations or partial occlusions (Ballard, 1981).

2.1 Modified GHT

This section describes the modified GHT, the name given to the new approach defined in this paper. The modified GHT, like the conventional GHT, compares a sketch of the face in a query image against sketches of target faces in a database. All sketches are generated using a Canny (Canny, 1986) edge detector. An individual edge point in a sketch is denoted x, while the complete set of all of the edge points in a sketch is denoted E. The direction (Gonzalez and Woods, 2002) of a given edge \mathbf{x} is denoted ϕ . The vector between an edge \mathbf{x} and the reference point \mathbf{y} is denoted \vec{r} . Note that the reference point $\mathbf{y} = (x_r, y_r)$ of a query sketch is taken to be the center of mass of all of the edges in that sketch. Lastly, the descriptor of a given edge \mathbf{x} is denoted D. Note that D may be any image descriptor, including the GDD of Section 2.2. Just as in (Ballard, 1981), individual edges x are clustered into an R-table. The R-table employed in the modified GHT is similar to that of the traditional GHT, with the exception that it includes the individual descriptors Dcomputed for each of the edges \mathbf{x} in a sketch. This modified table is shown in Table 1. The R-table is organized into a number of rows or bins. An individual bin *i* contains all edges **x** with a gradient angle that is equal, when rounded, to $i\Delta\phi$, for some step size $\Delta\phi$.

Just as with the conventional GHT, when a query sketch is to be checked against a target sketch, the modified GHT compares the descriptors of the individual edges in the query sketch against those in the appropriate bin in the R-table of the target image. This comparison of the descriptors is carried out using the robust matrix cosine similarity measure.

Table 1: Modified R-table.

i	o _i	\vec{r}_{ϕ_i}	D_{igaphi_i}
0	0	$\vec{r} \mid \mathbf{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$	$D \mid \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$
1	Δφ	$\vec{r} \mid \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \Delta \phi$	$D \mid \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \Delta \phi$
2	2Δφ	$\vec{r} \mid \phi(\mathbf{x}) = 2\Delta \phi$	$D \mid \phi(\mathbf{x}) = 2\Delta \phi$
÷	:	:	•

Note that the MCS measure was chosen over the competing *correlation* (Gonzalez and Woods, 2002) measure for reasons of accuracy (Schneider and Borlund, 2007). If there is a match between the two descriptors, then the two are said to represent the same point in a shape. Accordingly, the matching entry in the Hough *accumulator* (Ballard, 1981) array, as usual, is incremented. And, just as always, the entry that receives the most votes is taken to be the reference point of the target sketch. In the end, the target image that receives the highest overall vote count is selected as the best match to the face in the query image. Pseudocode of the complete modified GHT algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1 of Section 2.2, immediately after the discussion of the new GDD measure.

Two separate accumulator arrays are visualized in Figure 1. In both instances, brighter colors correspond to higher vote totals, while darker shades represent smaller totals. The array shown in Figure 1(a) was obtained by comparing two images of the same individual, one in which the person is wearing glasses and one in which the person is not. One will notice that there are only a few "significant" values in this array, specifically those in the range of 3×10^5 and 6×10^5 , with the largest value representing the best overall position of the reference point. On the other hand, the various totals in the array of Figure 1(b), which relates to the comparison of two different individuals, are noticeably lower, with most lying between 1.5×10^5 and 3×10^5 . The sizeable gap between the largest values in the two arrays of Figures 1(a) and 1(b) enables the new algorithm to discriminate between individuals.

2.2 Gradient Distance Descriptor

Image descriptors characterize an image using attributes such as shape, orientation, edges, luminosity, color and texture. They can also be used to remove unwanted parts of an image, including backgrounds, blurred regions and outlying pixels. Moreover, many descriptors are invariant to scaling, rotation, shearing, translation, lighting variations and small deformations. Although image descriptors require additional memory and increase the overall computational complexity of a problem, they are preferable to raw pixel intensities as they better represent the features



Figure 1: Accumulator arrays (originals in color); (a) same person with and without glasses; (b) two different persons.

of an image than do single pixels.

The new GDD is based on the LARK descriptor. It was ultimately chosen over the three other competing measures due to its slightly better performance. It is the weighted average of the horizontal and vertical image gradients G_x and \overline{G}_y (Gonzalez and Woods, 2002), denoted \overline{G}_x and \overline{G}_y , respectively, of an edge **x**, over the pixels in a patch surrounding that edge **x**. Formally, for a $p \times p$ patch centered on an edge **x**, the GDD is given as

$$GDD(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} d_{1,1} & d_{1,2} & \cdots & d_{1,p} \\ d_{2,1} & d_{2,2} & \cdots & d_{2,p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ d_{p,1} & d_{p,2} & \cdots & d_{p,p} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where

$$d_{m,n} = \exp\left(-\left(\bar{G}_x \cdot dx_{m,n} + \bar{G}_y \cdot dy_{m,n}\right)^2\right).$$
(2)

To give more weight to those pixels that are closest to the center of the descriptor, the average gradients \bar{G}_x and \bar{G}_y of each entry $d_{m,n}$ are scaled by the horizontal and vertical distances, $dx_{m,n}$ and $dy_{m,n}$, respectively, of a pixel $q_{m,n} \in GDD(\mathbf{x})$ from the center of the descriptor, where

$$dx_{m,n} = n - \frac{p+1}{2} \tag{3}$$

and

$$dy_{m,n} = m - \frac{p+1}{2}.$$
 (4)

Lastly, the weighted averages \bar{G}_x and \bar{G}_y are calculated using the MatLab® *circular averaging filter*, denoted here as $C^{p \times p}$. Formally,

$$\bar{G}_x = \frac{1}{p^2} \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p (a_{i,j} \cdot G_x),$$
(5)

and

$$\bar{G}_{y} = \frac{1}{p^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(a_{i,j} \cdot G_{y} \right), \tag{6}$$

for weights $a_{i,j} \in C^{p \times p}$.

During the face recognition process, the descriptor D of each edge point **x**, with a direction of ϕ , in a query face sketch is compared, using the matrix cosine similarity measure, with those of the edges in the bin corresponding to this angle ϕ in the R-table of the target face sketch. The overall degree of similarity between two descriptors, as determined via the MCS measure, is given by δ . Two descriptors are said to match if $\delta < \varepsilon$, for a threshold ε . If a given descriptor cannot be matched to any of those in a target sketch, then that descriptor is discarded, and, as a result, the associated edge point does not take part in the ensuing voting process. This is captured in the pseudocode of the complete modified GHT algorithm, given in Algorithm 1. Note that other descriptors may be substituted for the GDD in Algorithm 1. As well, C_1 is an added constant.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The modified GHT is first compared with the popular Eigenfaces and Fisherfaces approaches. All tests are performed on the Yale face database. This database is comprised of 15 subjects, including both males and females, in 11 different environments, giving a total of $15 \cdot 11 = 165$ images. Each of these 165 images is individually compared against the other 164 images in the database. A search is deemed to be successful if the current image is matched to one of the other ten images corresponding to the individual in the current image. In each of the experiments, ε is taken to be 0.05 and C_1 is set to 10^6 .

The plot of Figure 2 shows the overall recognition rate obtained using Eigenfaces and Fisherfaces.

 $A \leftarrow 0$ {initialize accumulator array A to 0} $R \leftarrow \emptyset$ {initialize R-table R to empty}

for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$ do

$$\begin{split} \phi &\leftarrow \text{ direction of } \mathbf{x} \\ \vec{r} &\leftarrow \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \text{ {get vector between } \mathbf{x} and } \mathbf{y} \text{ } \\ D &\leftarrow \text{GDD}(\mathbf{x}) \\ R &\leftarrow R \ \cup \ \{\vec{r}, \ D\} \end{split}$$

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\begin{array}{ll} \text{for all } \mathbf{x}^* \in R & \mid & \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}^*) \text{ do} \\ D^* \leftarrow \text{GDD}(\mathbf{x}^*) \\ \delta \leftarrow \text{MCS}\left(D, \ D^*\right) \end{array}
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\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \delta < \epsilon \text{ then} \\ \mathbf{y}^* \leftarrow \mathbf{x} - \vec{r} \; \{\mathbf{y}^* \text{ is estimate of } \mathbf{y}\} \\ A\left(\mathbf{y}^*\right) \leftarrow A\left(\mathbf{y}^*\right) \; + \; \texttt{round}(C_1(\epsilon - \delta)) \; + \; 1 \\ \text{end if} \\ \text{end for} \end{array}
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end for
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\begin{array}{l} \hat{\mathbf{y}} \gets \texttt{get\_max\_accumulator\_array\_vote\_count}\left(A\right) \\ \texttt{return} \quad \hat{\mathbf{y}} \ \{\hat{\mathbf{y}} \text{ is best estimate of } \mathbf{y}\} \end{array}
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Figure 2: Performance comparisons of Eigenfaces and Fisherfaces (original in color).

Training for these two techniques was carried out using 60 of the 165 images in the database, with the remaining 105 used for testing. The Fisherfaces procedure, as expected, outperforms the competing Eigenfaces method. The modified GHT, not explicitly shown in this plot, achieves recognition rates above 0.94, thereby significantly outperforming both of these classic approaches.

As part of a second experiment, the new GDD is tested against the LARK, SSLD and DCT descriptors in four different scenarios, the results of which are seen in Figure 3. In each test, the three competing descriptors are each individually substituted for the

GDD in the modified GHT algorithm.

The four descriptors are first tested over the 165 images of the database using different patch sizes. Exact patch sizes range from 7×7 to 35×35 . The results of this first test are depicted in the plot of Figure 3(a). The recognition rate of each of the GDD, LARK and SSLD descriptors is more or less constant, regardless of the patch size. The performance of the DCT, conversely, improves as the patch size increases.

In the second scenario, the results of which are seen in Figure 3(b), the Canny edge threshold (Canny, 1986) is progressively increased. This threshold indirectly determines the number of face traits that are retained. As the threshold drops, more details are retained. All four descriptors show varying degrees of performance as this threshold changes, with the GDD showing generally the best performance. The performance of the LARK descriptor appears to improve as the threshold increases. Conversely, the performance of the DCT descriptor drops as the threshold rises. Lastly, the SSLD seems to work best for a single threshold, namely 0.35, with poorer performance observed for both larger and smaller thresholds.

There are noticeable differences in the performance of each of the three competing descriptors as the epsilon threshold ε changes, as one can see from Figure 3(c). Perhaps most exciting, the GDD shows similar performance regardless of the particular choice of ε . The other three generally show lower performance for smaller thresholds. Should the threshold be lowered too much, however, it will often be the case that $\delta \not\prec \varepsilon$. This means that there will be far fewer votes, thereby resulting in a lower recognition rate, regardless of the descriptor used.

Lastly, the performance of the four descriptors is compared as the number of bins changes. The results of this final experiment are seen in Figure 3(d). The recognition rate of the GDD is slightly above those of the others. In all cases, though, the recognition rate more or less falls as the number of bins increases. When there are too many bins, the exact measure of the gradient angle ϕ tends to play a very important role. When there are fewer such bins, the recognition rate is noticeably higher, as small variations in this angle become more or less negligible. In the example of Figure 3(d), a value of 20 leads to very good recognition rates. As a rule, the number of bins determines the maximum allowable difference between the angles ϕ of the edges in a given bin. If there are, again, 20 bins, then the maximum allowable difference is equal to $360^{\circ}/20 = 18^{\circ}$. If, however, there are many more bins, 180 perhaps, then this difference decreases to only $360^{\circ}/180 = 2^{\circ}$. Having fewer bins has the advantage of making the method more robust to de-



Figure 3: Performance comparisons of GDD, LARK, SSLD and DCT descriptors under varying conditions (originals in color); (a) varying patch size; (b) varying Canny threshold; (c) varying epsilon ε threshold; (d) varying number of bins.

formations and affine transformations. On the other hand, it increases the computational complexity as there are more descriptors in each bin, which means that more comparisons between descriptors have to be performed.

4 CONCLUSIONS

This research uses a modified variant of the GHT to address the problem of face recognition. It also makes use of a new image descriptor. One of the most significant advantages of the modified GHT is the fact that it does not require any training data. Moreover, it has the ability to handle partial occlusions, changes in illumination and small deformations. Additionally, this algorithm can be upgraded as new descriptors become

available.

A number of future directions are presently being explored. First, the method will be tested over several additional databases, such as the well-known labeled faces in the wild (Huang et al., 2007) database. These databases present new challenges, specifically ones relating to image alignment, cropping and background removal. As well, the modified GHT will be compared with other techniques beyond just Eigenfaces and Fisherfaces. Enhancements include, for example, adding a set of attribute classifiers (Kumar et al., 2009) to reduce the number of images in a database that need to be considered. These classifiers would allow the method to rule out certain faces based on gender, race, age, hair color or other attributes. Ensuring the proper alignment of faces in a database is another major concern. In addition to the GDD, one

might also look at the Weber local descriptor (Chen et al., 2010) (WLD). It is based on the Weber-Fechner law (Winkler, 2005), which states that humans perceive patterns according not only to changes in the intensity of a stimuli, but also the initial intensity of a stimuli. Additional descriptors worthy of study include those based on image histograms, ones that capture local shape information. Another powerful descriptor is presented in (Cheng et al., 2008). It is robust to non-rigid, affine and other synthetic deformations. With different descriptors having their own unique advantages, it might also be useful to combine multiple descriptors, with each encoding different characteristics of a face image. Lastly, the task of identifying multiple faces in an image could be tackled using the Hough forests method described in (Barinova et al., 2012). Another means of handling multiple faces is to employ a face detection algorithm as part of a preprocessing stage. Later, only those faces actually detected would be considered by the modified GHT.

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