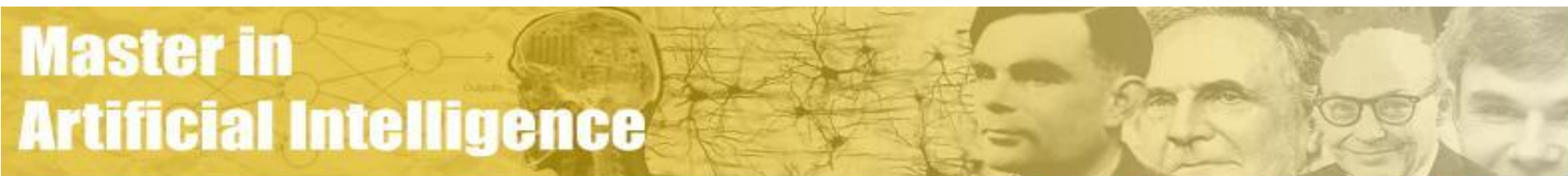


# Face Image Analysis

Laura Igual

*BCN Perceptual Computing Lab*



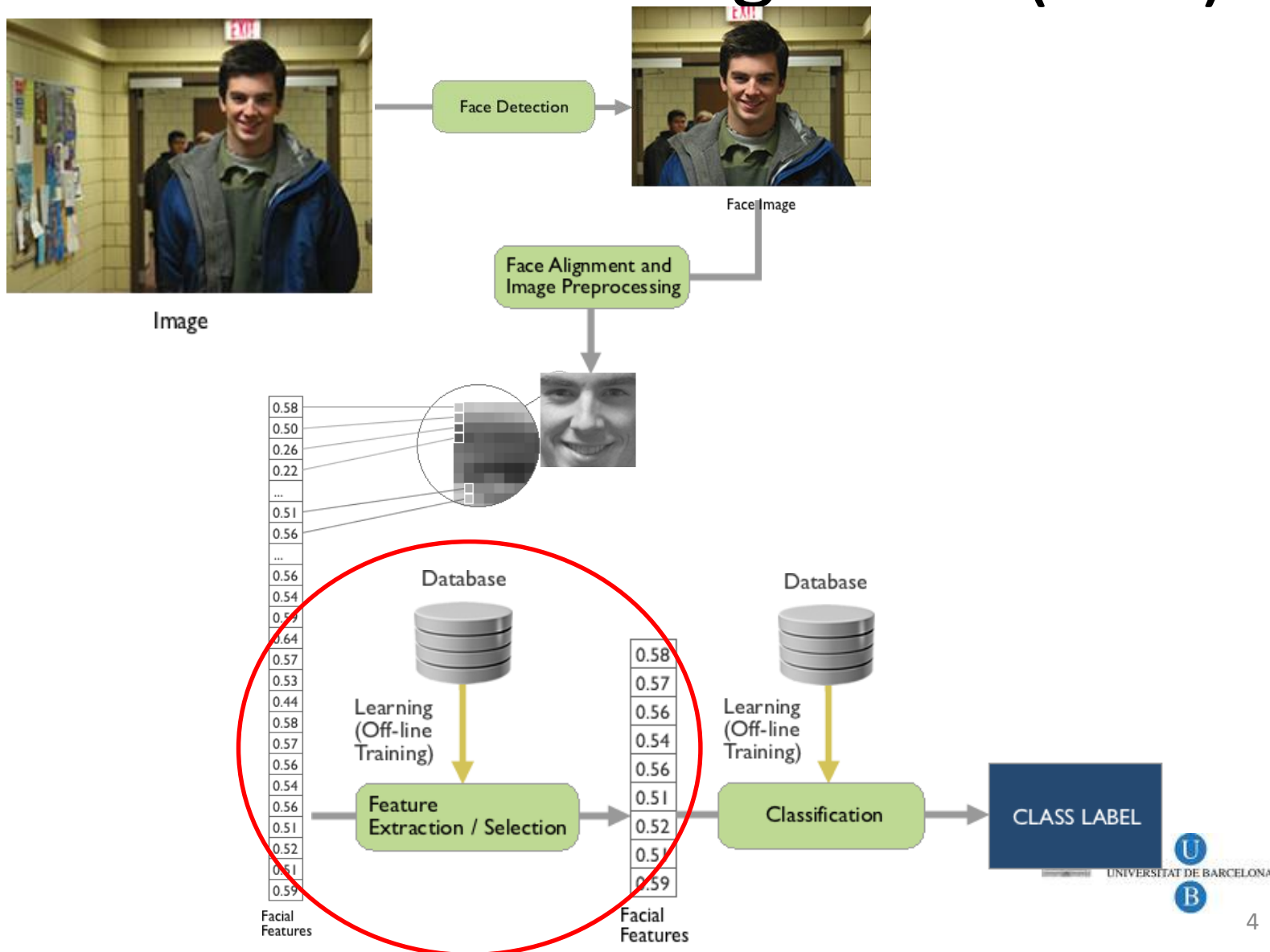
# Outline

1. Face image analysis: an introduction
2. Face detection
  1. Basic Concepts
  2. Visual features
  3. Ensemble learning
  4. Cascade of classifiers
3. Face Recognition
  1. Principal Component Analysis
  2. EigenFaces
  3. Linear Discriminant Approach
4. Applications

# Face Identification

- Face detection
  - Is this a face?
  - Face vs. Non-Face problem
- Face identification
  - Who is he/she?

# Automatic Face Recognition (AFR)



# Feature Selection vs Extraction

- **Feature selection:** Choosing  $k < d$  important features, ignoring the remaining  $d - k$
- Exemple:  
Given the data  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ , where  $x_i$  corresponds to a gene information.  
Choose the  $k$  most relevant to represent the data.
- **Feature extraction:** Project the original high-dimensional data to lower dimensional data.

# Dimensionality Reduction

- Dimensionality Reduction is an approach to deal with high dimensional data.
- Project high dimensional data onto a lower dimensional subspace using linear or non-linear transformations.



# Advantages of Dimensionality Reduction

1. Reduces time complexity: Less computation
2. Reduces space complexity: Less parameters
3. Simpler models are more robust on small datasets
4. More interpretable; simpler explanation
5. Data visualization (structure, groups, outliers, etc.) if plotted in 2 or 3 dimensions
6. Smart ways of reducing dimensions can “improve” data representation.

# Linear Approaches

- Linear transformations are simple to compute and tractable.

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}$$

$k \times 1$     $k \times d$     $d \times 1$     $(k \ll d)$

projection matrix

The diagram shows the equation  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}$ . Below the terms, arrows indicate their dimensions:  $\mathbf{b}$  is  $k \times 1$ ,  $\mathbf{P}$  is  $k \times d$ , and  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $d \times 1$ . A red arrow points from the text 'projection matrix' (enclosed in a red box) to the matrix  $\mathbf{P}$ . The condition  $(k \ll d)$  is noted to the right.

- Classical linear approaches:
  - Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
  - Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) or Fisher Discriminant Analysis (FDA).



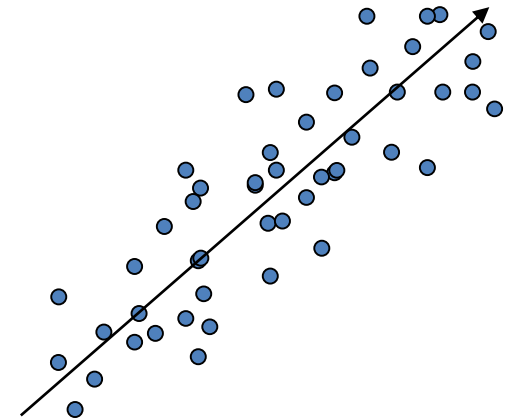
# Linear Approaches

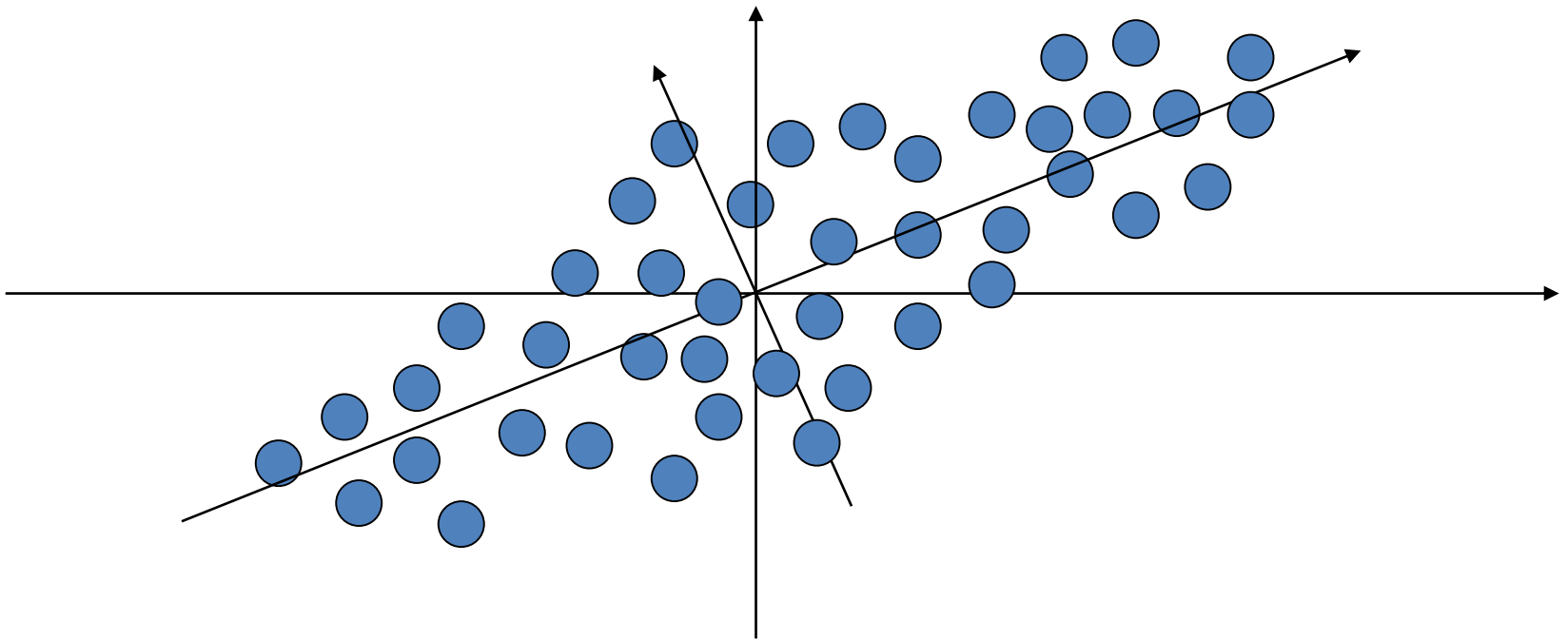
- Each dimensionality reduction technique finds an appropriate **transformation by satisfying certain criteria** (e.g., information loss, data discrimination, etc.)
- The goal of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is to reduce the dimensionality of the data while **retaining as much as possible of the variation present in the dataset.**

# PCA

Example:

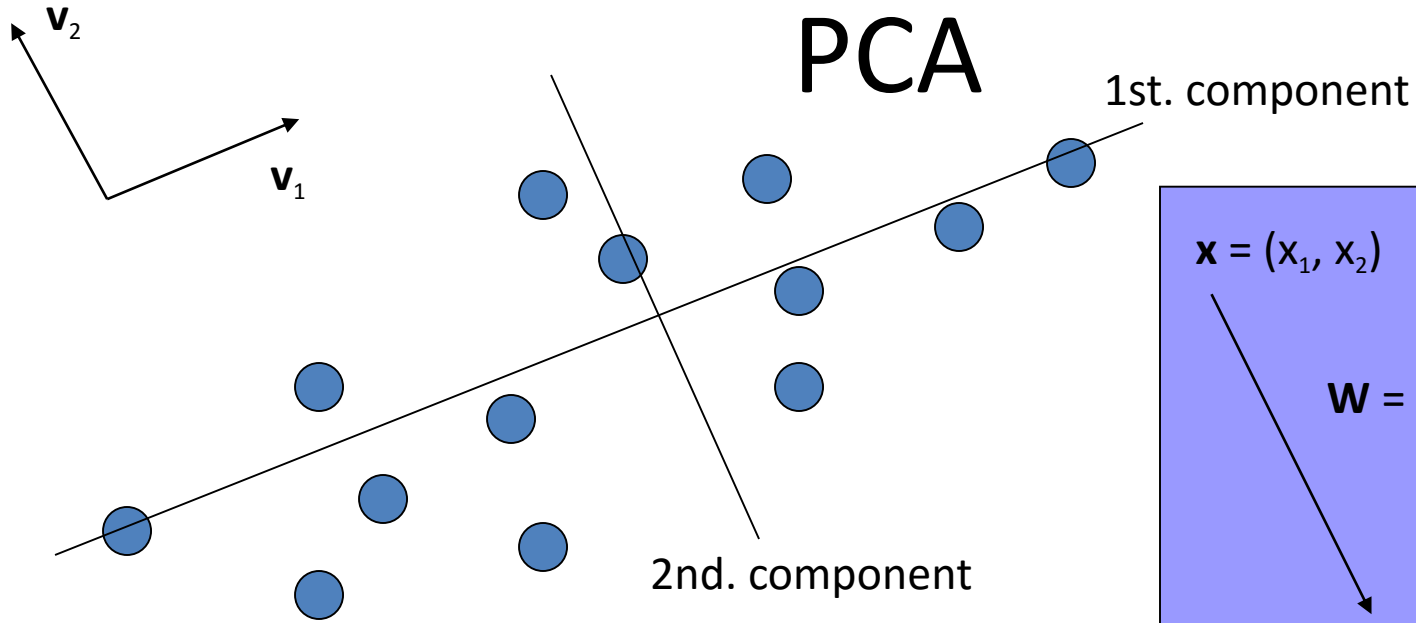
- Imagine that we have many examples of the same pattern.
- Data appear clouded, unclear and even redundant.
- Goal of PCA: find new representation (basis) to filter the noise and reveal hidden dynamics.





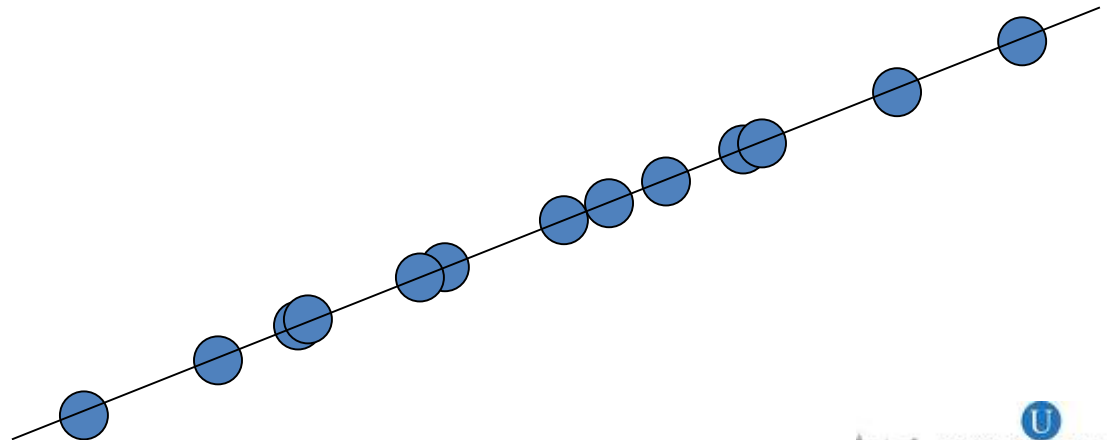
Maximal variance directions

# PCA



$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$$
$$\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{v}_{11} \ \mathbf{v}_{12})$$
$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}$$

scalar      2D vector



# PCA

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
  - Mathematical procedure that transforms a number of (possibly) correlated variables into a (smaller) number of **uncorrelated** variables called principal components.
  - The first principal component accounts for as much of the variability in the data as possible, and each succeeding component accounts for as much of the remaining variability as possible.

# PCA algorithm

1. Get data:  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ ,  $d$ -dimensional column vectors.
2. Compute the mean:  $\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i$
3. Subtract the mean from data  $\Phi_i = x_i - \mu$  and build  $d \times n$  matrix:  $A = [\Phi_1 \Phi_2 \dots \Phi_n]$
4. Calculate the covariance matrix  $C = AA^T$  ( $d \times d$  matrix)
5. Calculate the eigenvectors  $\mathbf{u}_i$  and eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  of the covariance matrix  $C$ .  
Order eigenvectors:  $U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_2 \dots \mathbf{u}_d]$  with descending order  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_d$
6. Choose  $k$  components and form a matrix of eigenvectors  $W = [\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_2 \dots \mathbf{u}_k]$
7. Derive the new data set:  $\mathbf{b} = W^T (\mathbf{x} - \mu)$

# Expressing points using eigenvectors

- Since the covariance matrix  $C$  is symmetric,  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_d\}$  form a basis, that we represent in a  $d \times d$  matrix:

$$U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_d]$$

- Any vector  $\mathbf{x}$  or actually  $(\mathbf{x} - \mu)$ , can be written as a linear combination of the eigenvectors:

$$\mathbf{x} - \mu = b_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + b_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + b_d \mathbf{u}_d = \sum_{i=1}^d b_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

- The coefficients  $b_i$  can be computed as follows:

$$\mathbf{b} = U^T (\mathbf{x} - \mu)$$

# New data representation

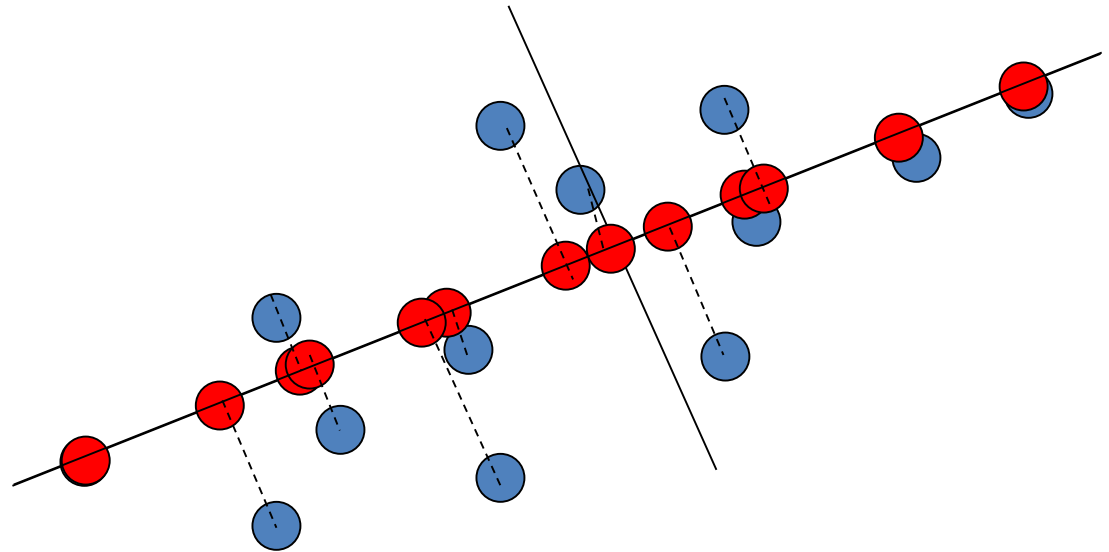
- For dimensionality reduction we keep only  $k$  vectors, corresponding to the  $k$  largest eigenvectors.
- Applying the  $d \times k$  matrix  $W = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \dots \ u_k]$  we project data into the  $k$ -dimensional space.

$$b = W^T (x - \mu)$$



New data representation

$$b = [b_1 \ b_2 \ \dots \ b_k]^T$$





# Reconstruction

- So, then the point  $x$  is now  $\hat{x}$ :

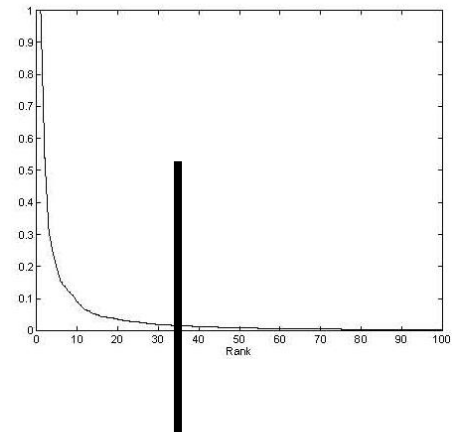
$$\hat{x} - \mu = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i u_i \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{\hat{x} = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^k b_i u_i} \quad \text{where } k \ll d$$

# How to choose k?

- **Proportion of Variance (PoV)** explained (or acumulated percent explained):

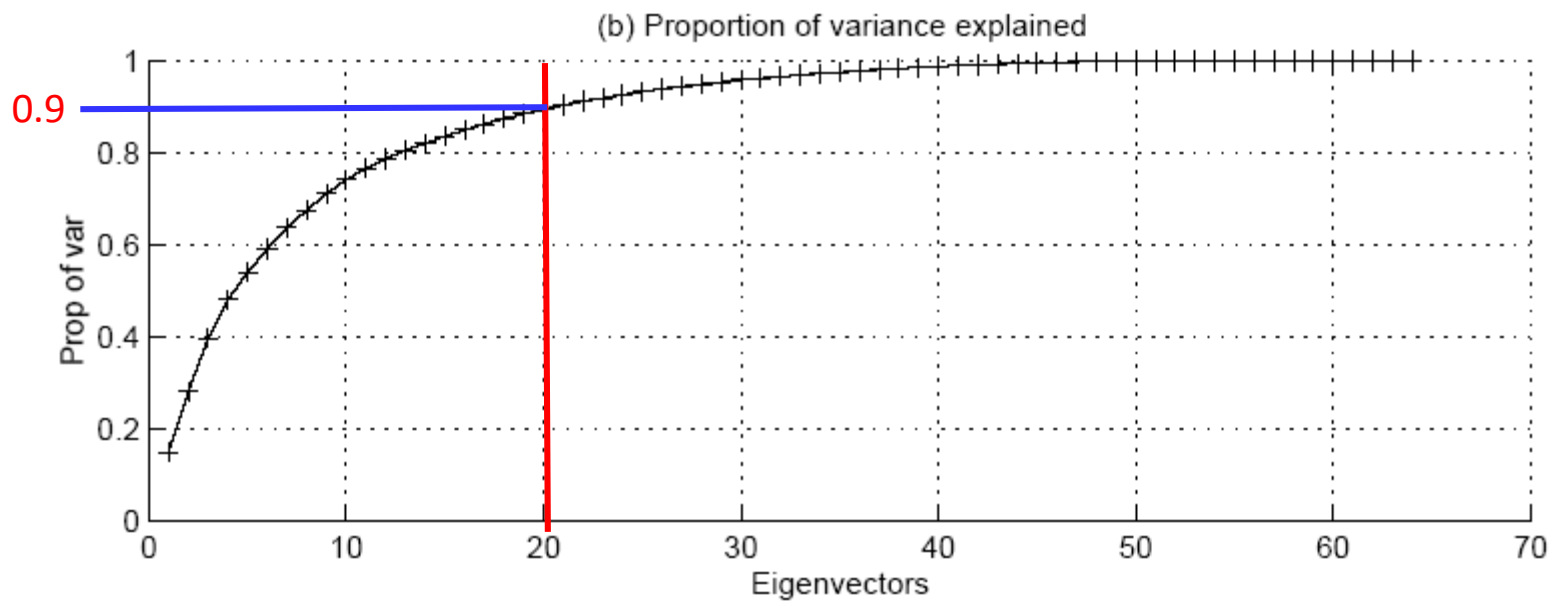
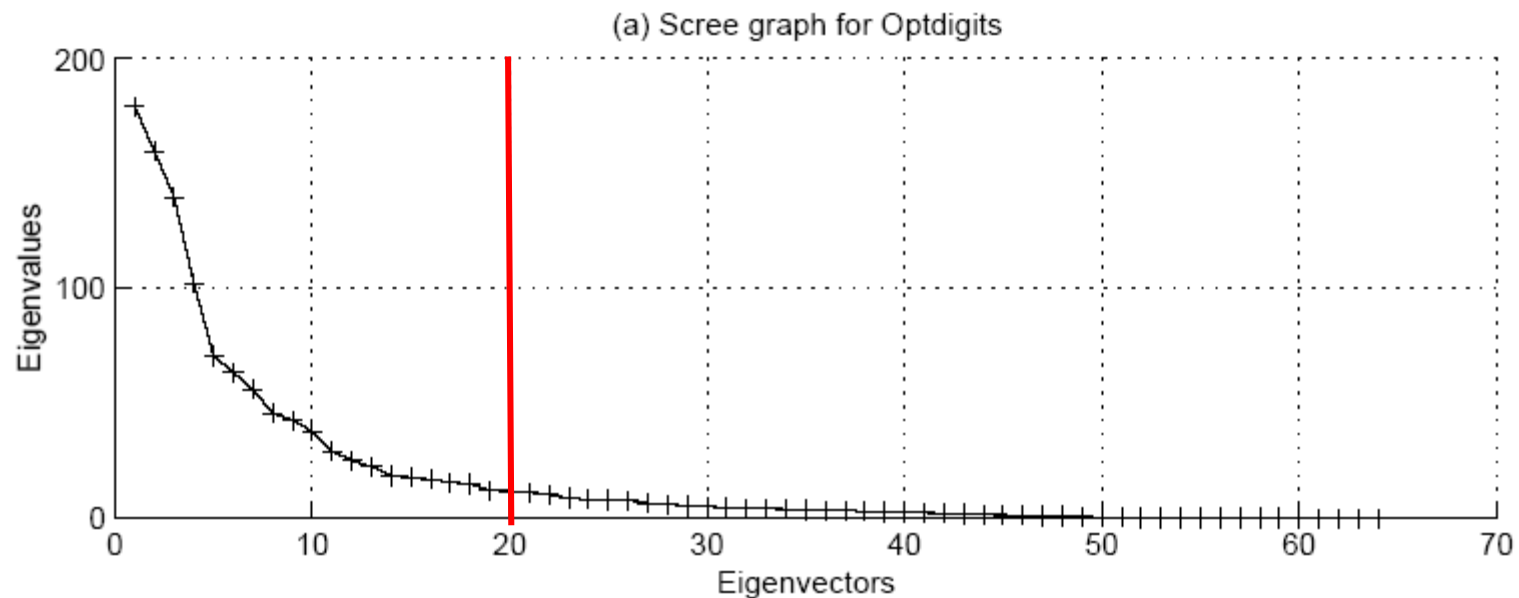
$$PoV = \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k + \dots + \lambda_d}$$

when  $\lambda_i$  are sorted in descending order



- Typically, stop at PoV>0.9

Common criterion



# What is the error due to dimensionality reduction?

- We know that:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mu = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

- It can be shown that the low-dimensional basis based on principal components **minimizes the reconstruction error**:

$$e = \|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\|$$

- The error is equal to:  $e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=k+1}^d \lambda_i$

# Standardization

- Normalization (or Standardization)
  - The principal components are dependent on the units used to measure the original variables
  - We should always normalize the data prior to use PCA
  - A common normalization method is to transform all the data to have zero mean and unit standard deviation:

$$\frac{(x_i - \mu)}{\sigma}$$

Mean of  $x_i$

Standard deviation of  $x_i$


# EIGENFACES FOR FACE RECOGNITION

# PCA

- Eigenfaces for Face Detection/Recognition
  - M. Turk, A. Pentland, "Eigenfaces for Recognition", *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 71-86, 1991.
- Face Representation
  - Problems arise when performing recognition in a high-dimensional space.
  - Significant improvements can be achieved by first mapping the data into a *lower dimensionality* space.
  - How to find this lower-dimensional space?

# Eigenfaces: the idea

- Think of a face as being a weighted combination of some “component” or “basis” faces.

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i \mathbf{u}_i$$


These basis faces are called **eigenfaces**





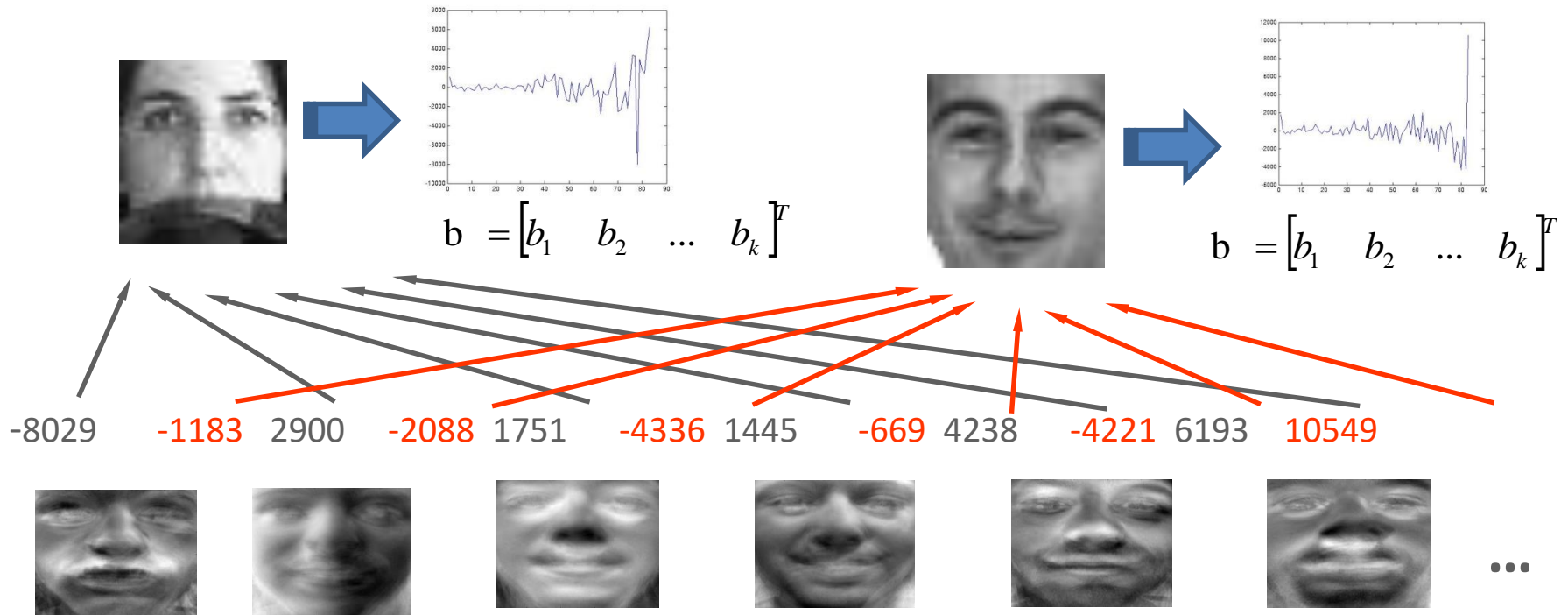
The visual equation shows a target face on the left, followed by an equals sign, then a series of terms:  $b_1$  multiplied by a basis face, plus  $b_2$  multiplied by another basis face, plus  $b_3$  multiplied by a third basis face, plus  $b_4$  multiplied by a fourth basis face, and finally plus an ellipsis (...). This represents the target face as a linear combination of the basis faces.

(Figure by Jeremy Wyatt)



# Eigenfaces

- These eigenfaces can be differently weighted to represent any face  $\mathbf{x}$
- So we can use the vectors of weights to **represent** faces  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x}$  into a low-dimensional space.



# Learning Eigenfaces

- We take a set of real training faces



- Then we use PCA to find (learn) a set of basis faces which best represent the differences between them.
- The statistical criterion for measuring this notion is: “best representation of the differences between the training faces”
- We can then store each face as a set of weights for those basis faces.

# Eigenfaces

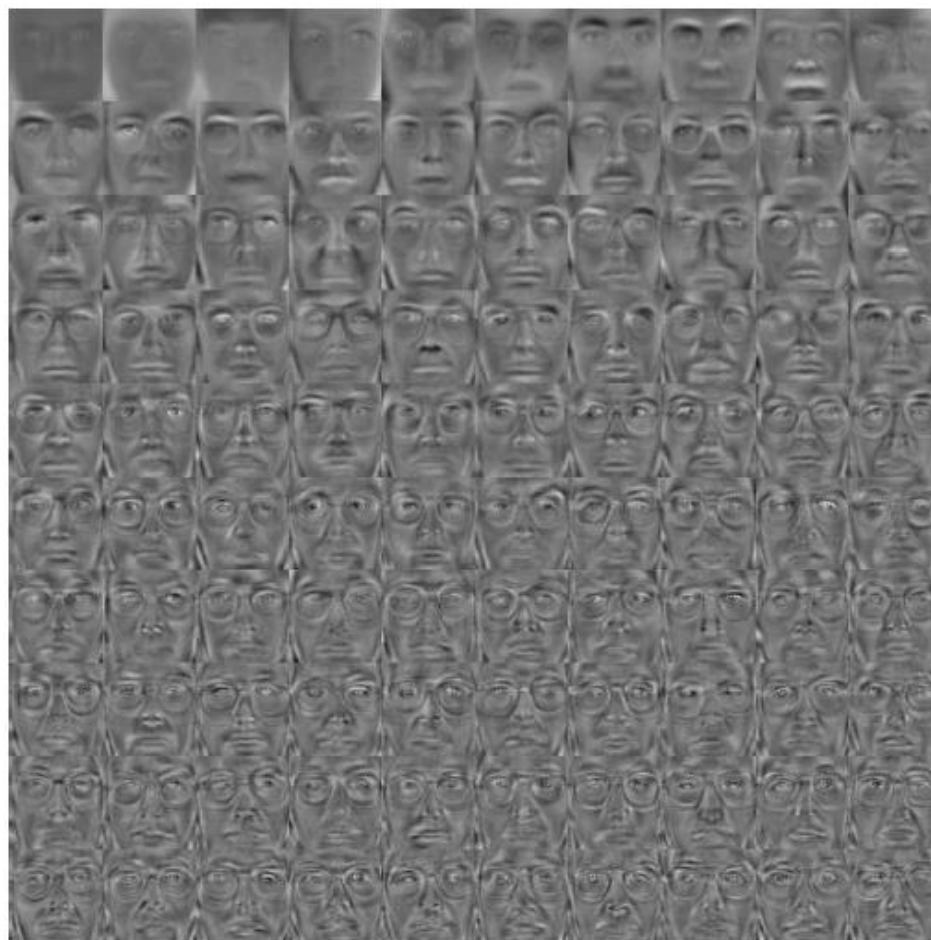


Graphical example  
of a mean Face

Graphical illustration of the  
eigenvectors of the covariance  
matrix

$$\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_d\}$$

These images are the  
***Eigenfaces***



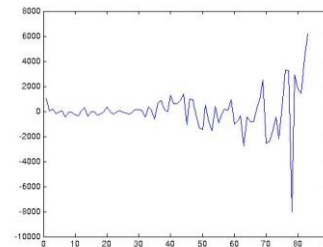
# Computation of Eigenfaces

- We transform an image of a face into a weight vector:  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{W}^T (\mathbf{x} - \mu)$  (projection from image space to face space)
- There are  $d$  eigenfaces  $\mathbf{u}_i$  in the face space  
→ we choose the best  $k$  ones.
- We calculate the corresponding weight for every eigenface

The  $i^{\text{th}}$  face in image space is a vector  $\mathbf{x}^i$



The corresponding weight vector in face space:  $\mathbf{b}^i = [b_1^i \quad b_2^i \quad \dots \quad b_k^i]^T$



# Computation of Eigenfaces

- If the dimension of the data is very large ( $d > n$ ):
- The covariance matrix  $C = AA^T$  is very large  $\rightarrow$  **Not practical!**
- **Alternative:**
  1. Consider the matrix  $A^T A$  ( $n \times n$ )
  2. Compute the eigenvectors of  $A^T A$ :  $A^T A v_i = \lambda_i v_i$   
 $A^T A v_i = \lambda_i v_i \implies AA^T A v_i = \lambda_i A v_i \implies CA v_i = \lambda_i A v_i$   
or  $Cu_i = \lambda_i u_i$  where  $u_i = Av_i$

Thus,  $AA^T$  and  $A^T A$  have the same eigenvalues and their eigenvectors are related as follows:  $u_i = Av_i$

# Computation of Eigenfaces

- **Remarks:**

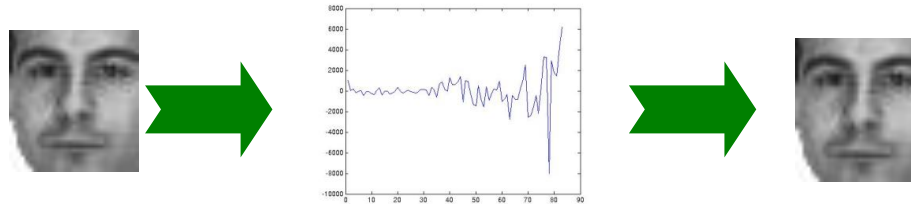
1.  $AA^T$  can have up to  $d$  eigenvalues and eigenvectors
2.  $A^T A$  can have up to  $n$  eigenvalues and eigenvectors
3. The  $n$  eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  (along with their corresponding eigenvectors) are the  $n$  largest eigenvalues of  $AA^T$  (along with their corresponding eigenvectors).

# **APPLICATIONS: USING EIGENFACES FOR RECONSTRUCTION & RECOGNITION & DETECTION**

# Reconstruction, Recognition & Detection

- We can use the eigenfaces in the following ways:

1. We can store and then reconstruct a face from a set of weights



2. We can recognise a new picture of a familiar face



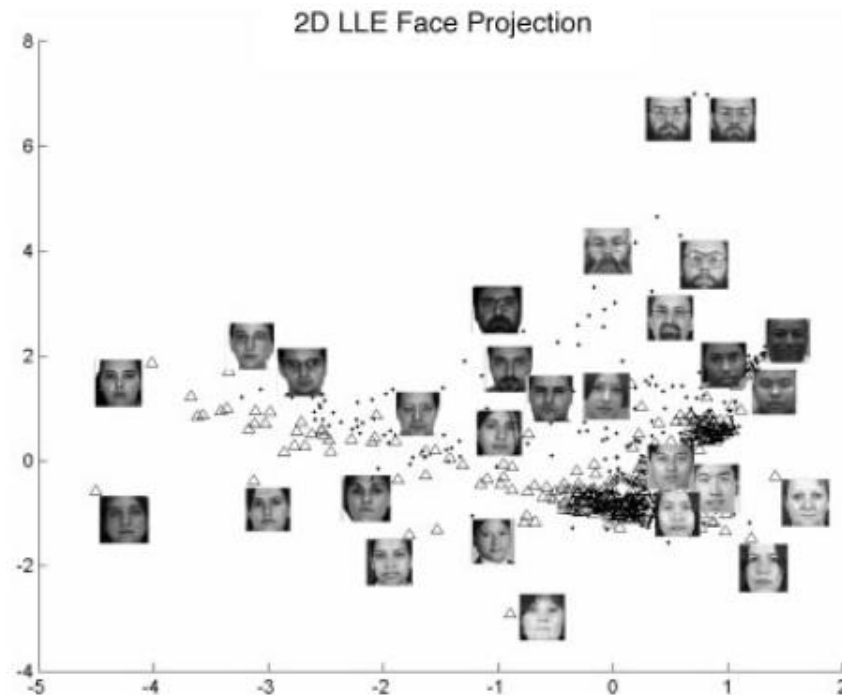
3. We can detect if an image is a face or not





# Recognition

- Recognition performed by means of similarity
  - Each face is compared with all the known faces in our system, and the result is the most similar face

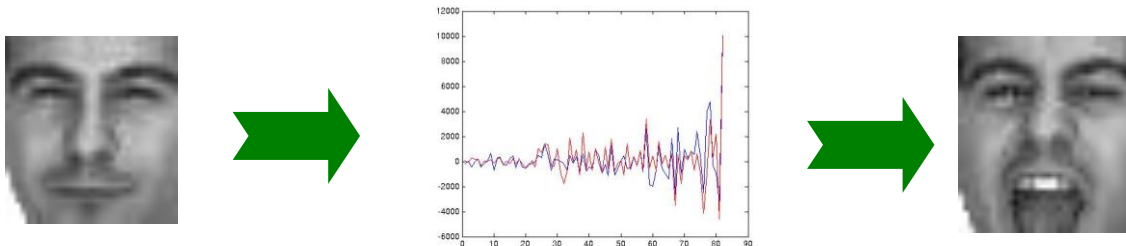


# Recognition (more details)

- Given an unknown face image  $\mathbf{x}^*$  (after subtracting the mean).
- Project to face space:  $\mathbf{b}^*$
- We compute the Euclidean distance  $D$  between the face  $\mathbf{b}^*$  and all the training faces  $\mathbf{b}^j$  in the feature space

$$D(\mathbf{b}^*, \mathbf{b}^j) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k (b_i^* - b_i^j)^2}, \forall j = 1, \dots, n$$

- The closest face in feature space is the chosen match
- K- Nearest Neighbour: predicts test sample' class memberships based on the  **$k$  closest training samples** in the feature space.



# Recognition: Remarks

- Find  $e_r = \min_j D(\mathbf{b}^*, \mathbf{b}^j)$   
If  $e_r < T_r$ , then  $\mathbf{b}^*$  is recognized as face  $j$  from the training set
- The distance  $e_r$  is called Distance **within** face or feature space.
- We can use the Euclidean distance to compute  $e_r$ , however, it has been reported that the Mahalanobis distance performs better:

$$D(\mathbf{b}^*, \mathbf{b}^j) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{\lambda_i} (b_i^* - b_i^j)^2}, \forall j = 1, \dots, n$$

(variations along all axes are treated as equally significant)

# Detection

- Given an unknown image  $\mathbf{x}$  (after subtracting the mean)
- Project to face space using  $\mathbf{W} \rightarrow \mathbf{b}$
- Project back to image space:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

- Compute the Euclidean distance between the face  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$

$$e_d = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i)^2}$$

- If  $e_d < T_d$ , then  $\mathbf{x}$  is a face

## Remarks:

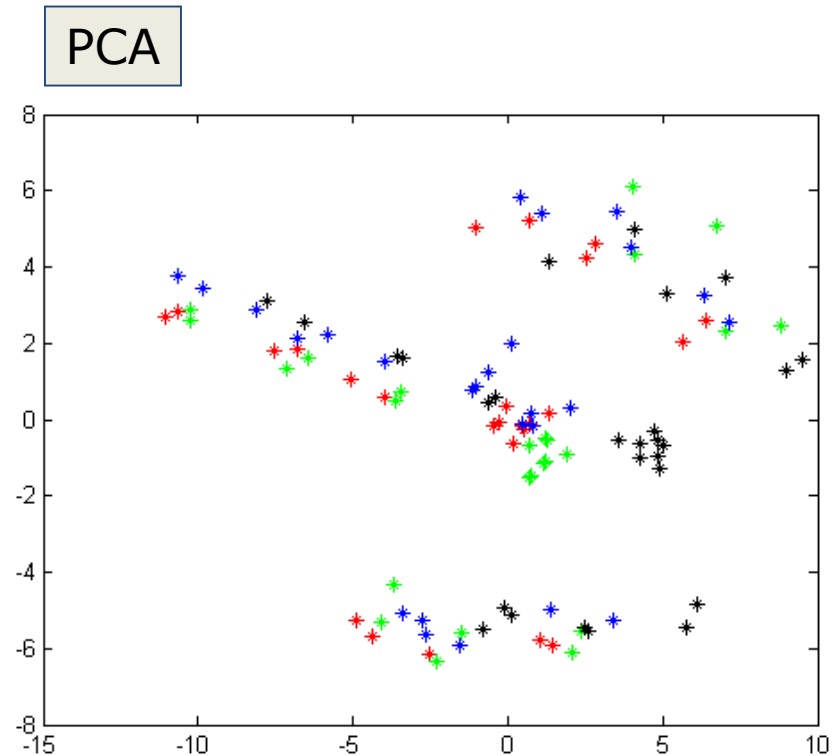
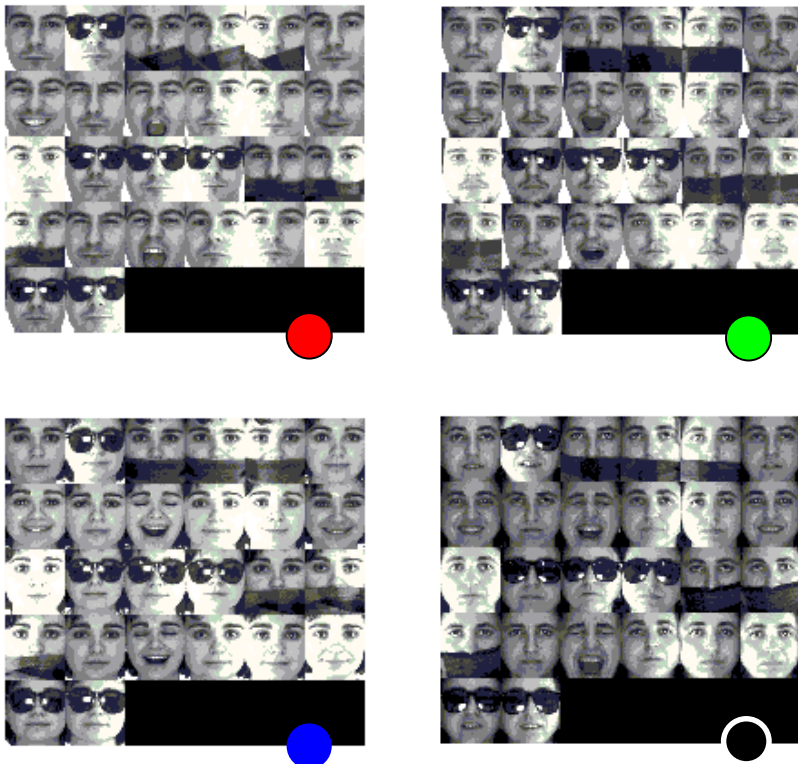
- $e_d$  is called Distance **from** face or feature space.
- We are assuring that face images can be explained using the computed eigenface basis.

# Summary: PCA

- **Non-supervised** feature extraction technique (data labels are not taken into account)
- PCA finds a linear transformation of the data into a lower dimensional space, such that
  - The reconstruction error according to the Euclidean Distance is minimum.
  - Data do not lose much information.
  - Specially appropriated to reduce the noise of the data
- Normally called: Compression-base feature-extraction scheme.

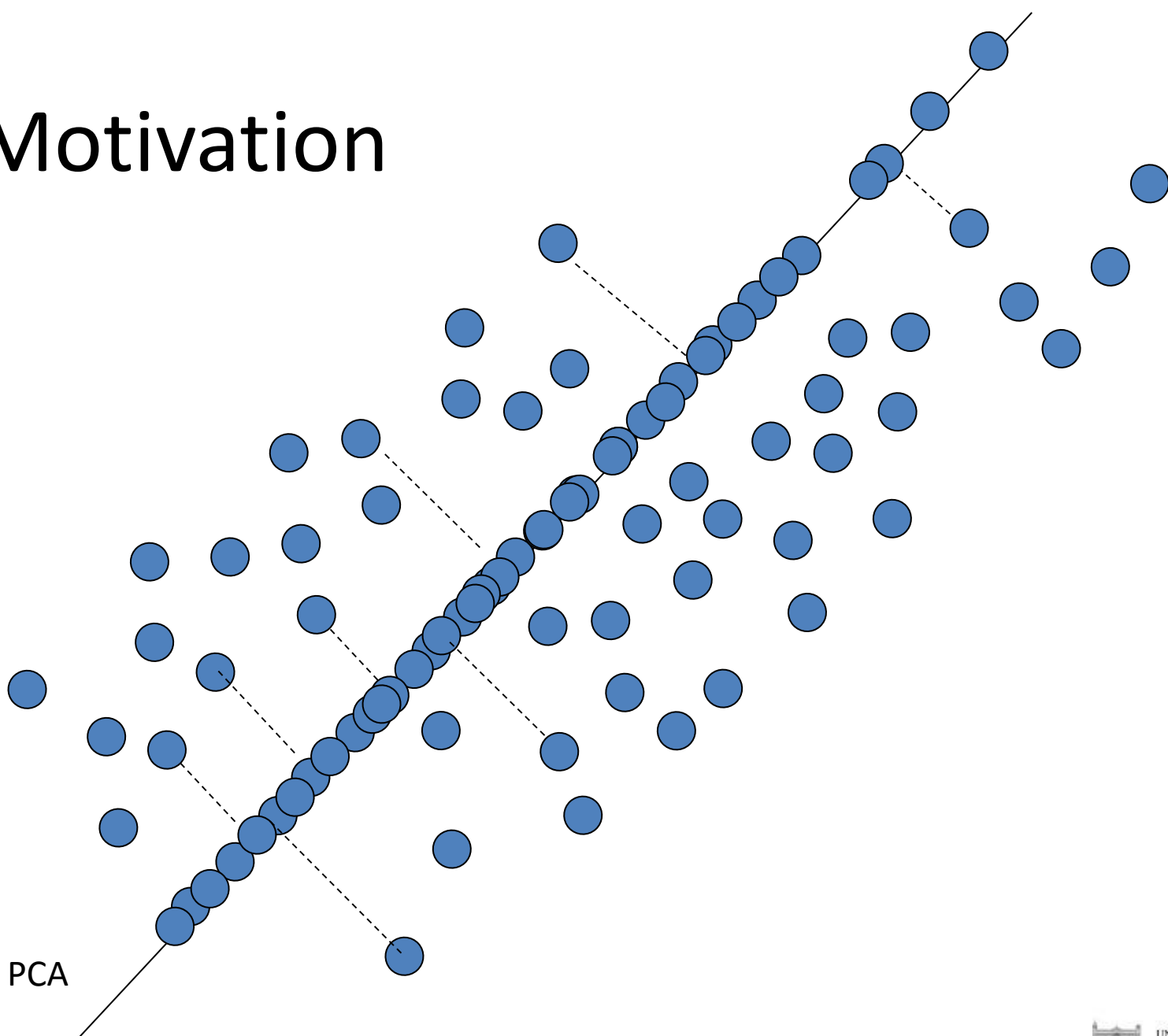
# PCA: Drawbacks

In this case, data are too mixed to successfully perform **subject recognition**



# **LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS (LDA) & FISHER**

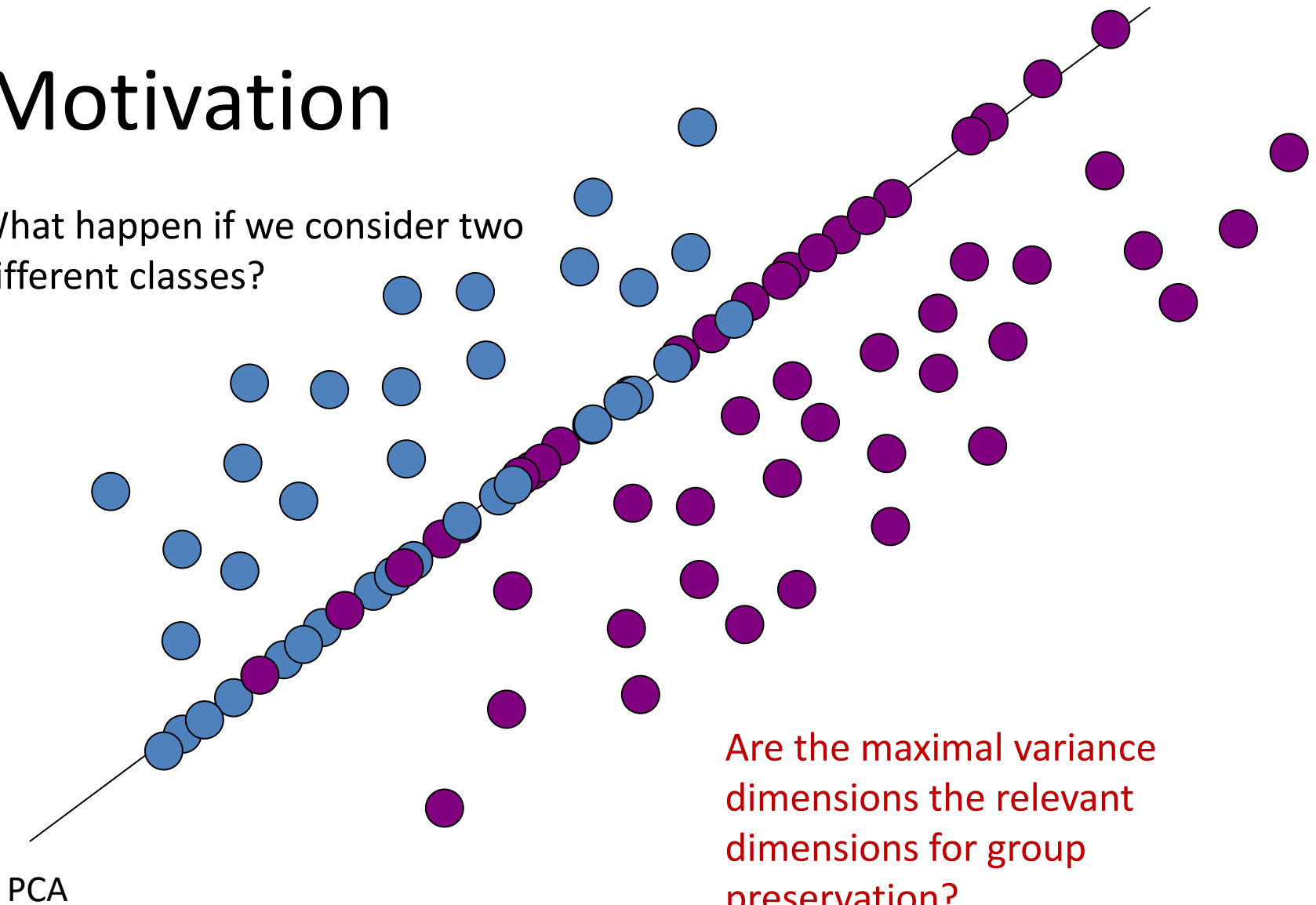
# Motivation





# Motivation

What happen if we consider two different classes?



Are the maximal variance dimensions the relevant dimensions for group preservation?

# PCA Limitations

Example in face recognition context:

- **Variations in lighting conditions**
  - Different lighting conditions for training and query.
  - Bright light causing image saturation.
- **Differences in pose – Head orientation**
  - 2D feature distances appear to distort.
- **Expression**
  - Change in feature location and shape.



Given PCA feature space, do you think feature points corresponding to **different poses** of the same subject will be closer (in Euclidean distance) to one another than to those of other subjects.?

# PCA Limitations

Example in face recognition context:

- It has been experimentally shown that ignoring the first few eigenvectors, corresponding to the top principal components, can lead to a substantial increase in recognition accuracy.
- Therefore, it seems that the secondary selection from PCA vectors is based on their discrimination power.

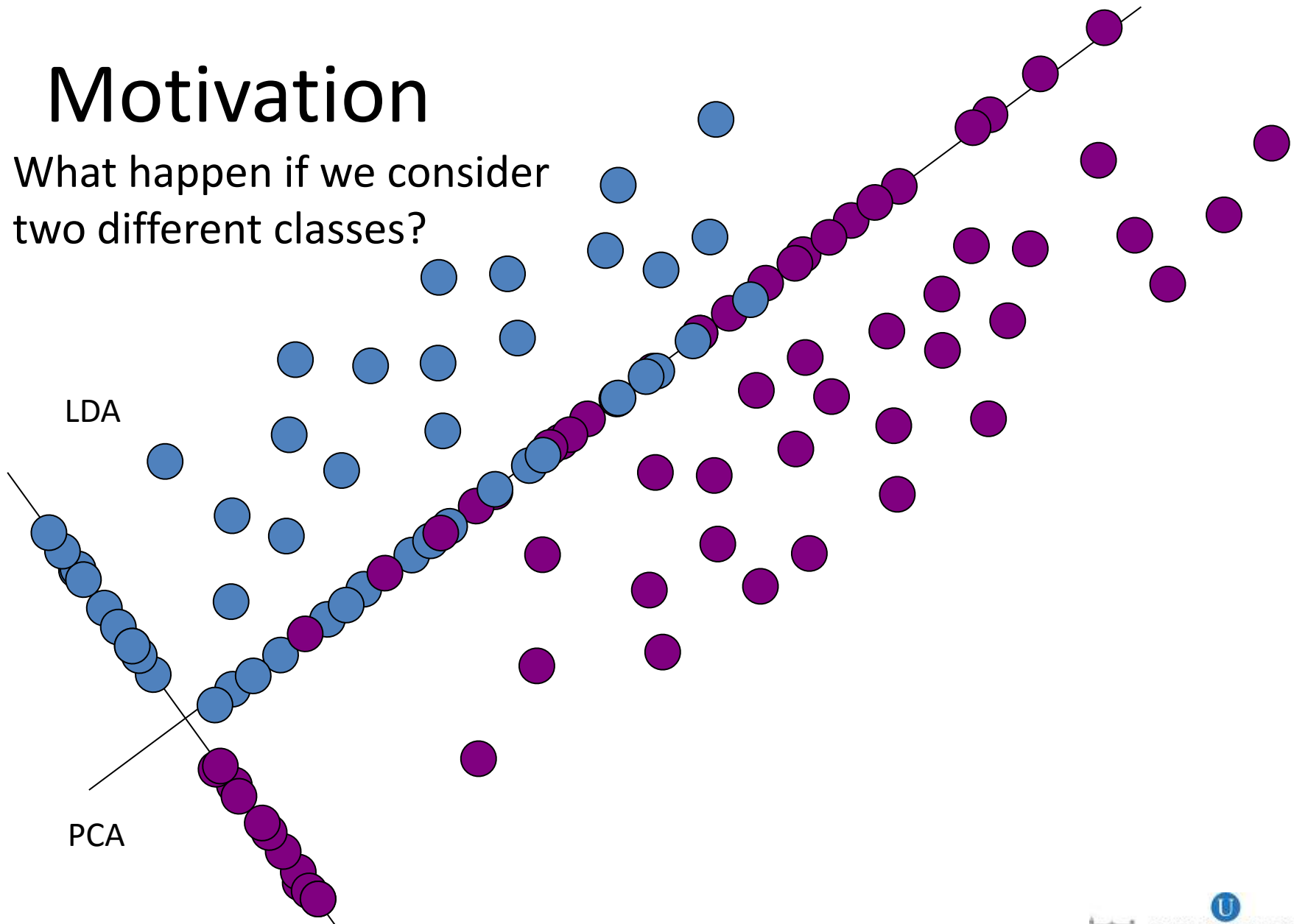


But!

**Why do we not start with criteria based on discrimination from the beginning to make the whole process more consistent?**

# Motivation

What happen if we consider two different classes?



# Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

- LDA is a linear **supervised** feature extraction technique
- Performs dimensionality reduction
- It finds a linear transformation of the data that maximize the class separability of the points.
- More concretely, the method seeks for a new data representation where **points of the same class are as close as possible, while points of different classes are as far as possible.**



Good for classification purposes!

# Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

- Given C classes with  $M_i$  the number of samples within class  $i=1,\dots,C$
- Let M be the total number of samples:  $M = \sum_{i=1}^C M_i$
- Let  $\mu_i$  be the mean vector of class i (intra class mean vector)
- Let  $\mu$  be the mean of the entire data set:  $\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i$

- **Whithin-class scatter matrix:**

$$S_w = \sum_{i=1}^C \sum_{j=1}^{M_i} (x_j - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_i)^T$$

$S_w \sim$  measures the dispersion of the elements that belong to the same class

- **Between-class scatter matrix:**

$$S_b = \sum_{i=1}^C (\mu_i - \mu)(\mu_i - \mu)^T$$

$S_b \sim$  measures the dispersion of the elements that belong to different classes

# LDA

- Find projection (from  $d$ -dim. space to  $f$ -dim. space):

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) \rightarrow (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_f), f \ll d;$$

$$y = U^T x$$

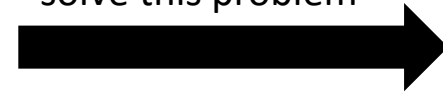
projection matrix

- LDA computes a transformation that **maximizes the between-class scatter while minimizing the within-class scatter.**
- One way to do this:

$$\max \frac{|\tilde{S}_b|}{|\tilde{S}_w|}$$

$\tilde{S}_b, \tilde{S}_w$  : scatter matrices of the projected data  $y$ .

Let us see how we solve this problem



# LDA

- The LDA solution is given by the eigenvectors of the generalized eigenvector problem:

$$S_b \mathbf{u}_k = \lambda_k S_w \mathbf{u}_k \longrightarrow \boxed{S_w^{-1} S_b \mathbf{u}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{u}_k}$$

- The linear transformation is given by a matrix  $U$  whose columns are the eigenvectors of the above problem.

$$U = (\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_d), \quad \mathbf{b} = U^T (\mathbf{x} - \mu)$$

- Important to note:**

- Since  $S_b$  has at most rank  $C-1$ , the max number of eigenvectors with non-zero eigenvalues is  $C-1$  (i.e., max dimensionality of subspace is  $C-1$ )

Proves included in:

Fisher R.A. *The statistical utilization of multiple measurements*, Annals of Eugenics, 8, 376–386, 1938).



# LDA

- Does  $S_w^{-1}$  always exist?

- If  $S_w$  is non-singular:

we can obtain a conventional eigenvalue problem by writing:

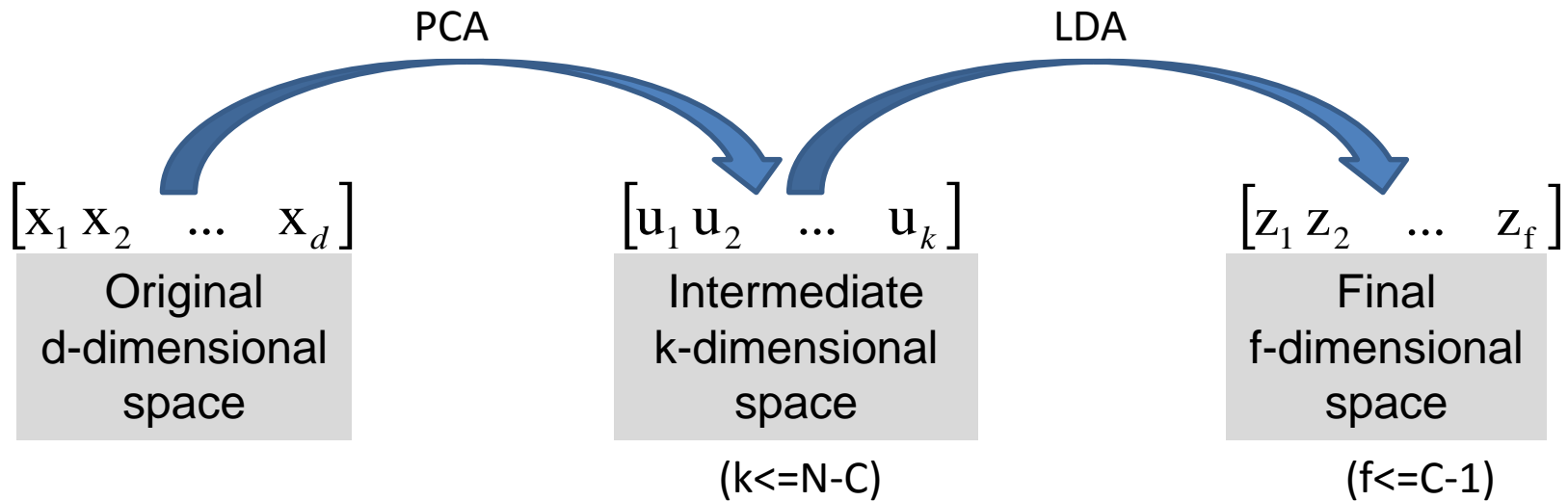
$$S_w^{-1} S_b \mathbf{u}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{u}_k$$

(the ratio is maximized when the column vectors of the projection matrix  $U$ , are the eigenvectors of  $S_w^{-1} S_b$  )

- In practice,  $S_w$  is often singular, since the data are image vectors with large dimensionality while the size of the data set is much smaller ( $n \ll d$  )

# LDA

- To alleviate this problem, we can use PCA first:



1) PCA is first applied to the data set to reduce its dimensionality.

2) LDA is then applied to find the most discriminative directions.

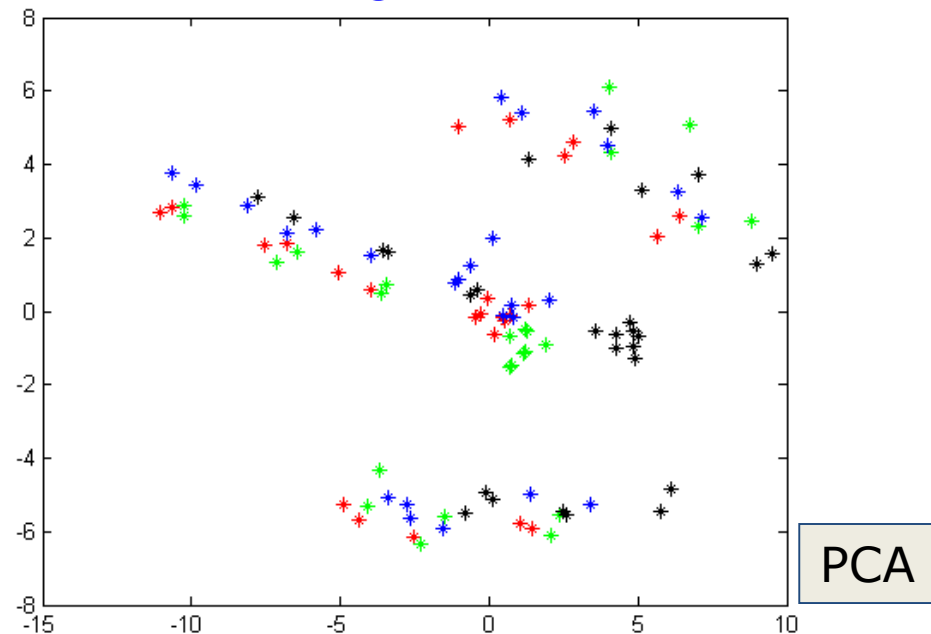
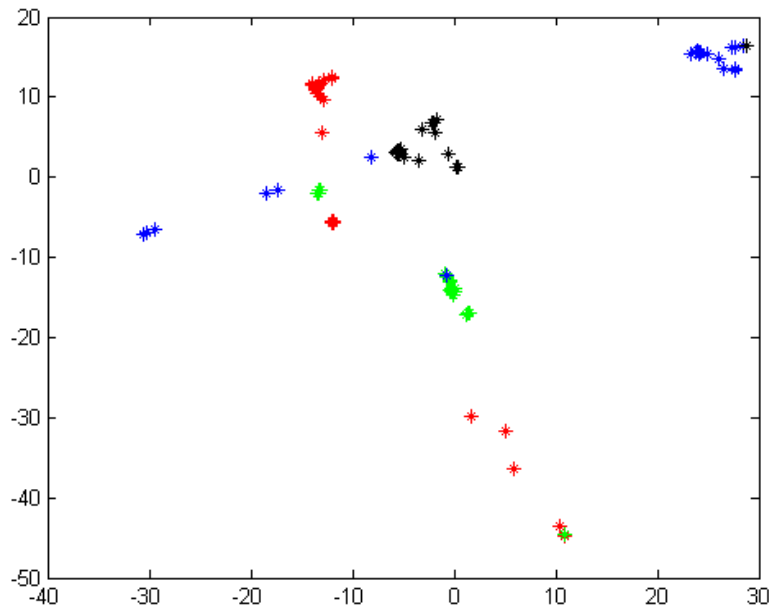
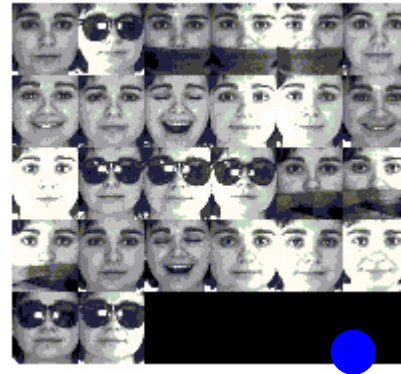
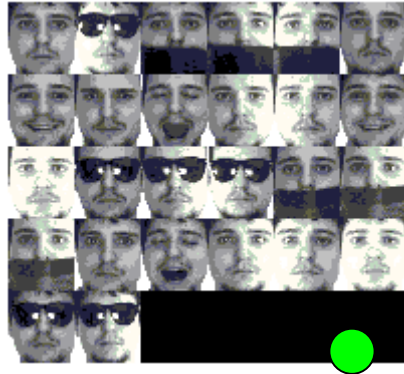
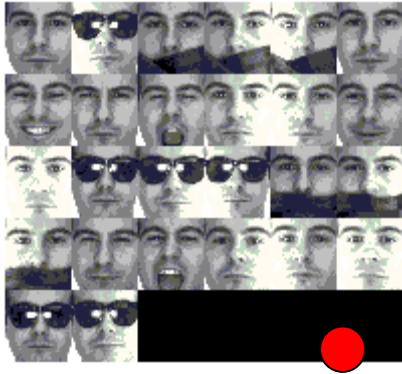
# **CASE OF STUDY: FISHERFACES FOR FACE DETECTION/RECOGNITION**

# Fisherfaces

- Fisherfaces is the name of the LDA or Fisher solution for dimensionality reduction.

# PCA versus LDA: Subject Recognition

- Clustering effect



# PCA versus LDA

- Is LDA always better than PCA?
  - There has been a tendency in the computer vision community to prefer LDA over PCA.
  - This is mainly because LDA deals directly with discrimination between classes while PCA does not pay attention to the underlying class structure.
- **Reference:**
  - Martinez, A. Kak, "PCA versus LDA", *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 228-233, 2001.

# PCA versus LDA

- Main results of this study:
  1. When the training set is **small**, PCA can outperform LDA.
  2. When the number of samples is **large** and **representative** for each class, LDA outperforms PCA.

Martinez, A. Kak, "PCA versus LDA", *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 228-233, 2001.

# PCA versus LDA

- Is LDA always better than PCA for recognition?

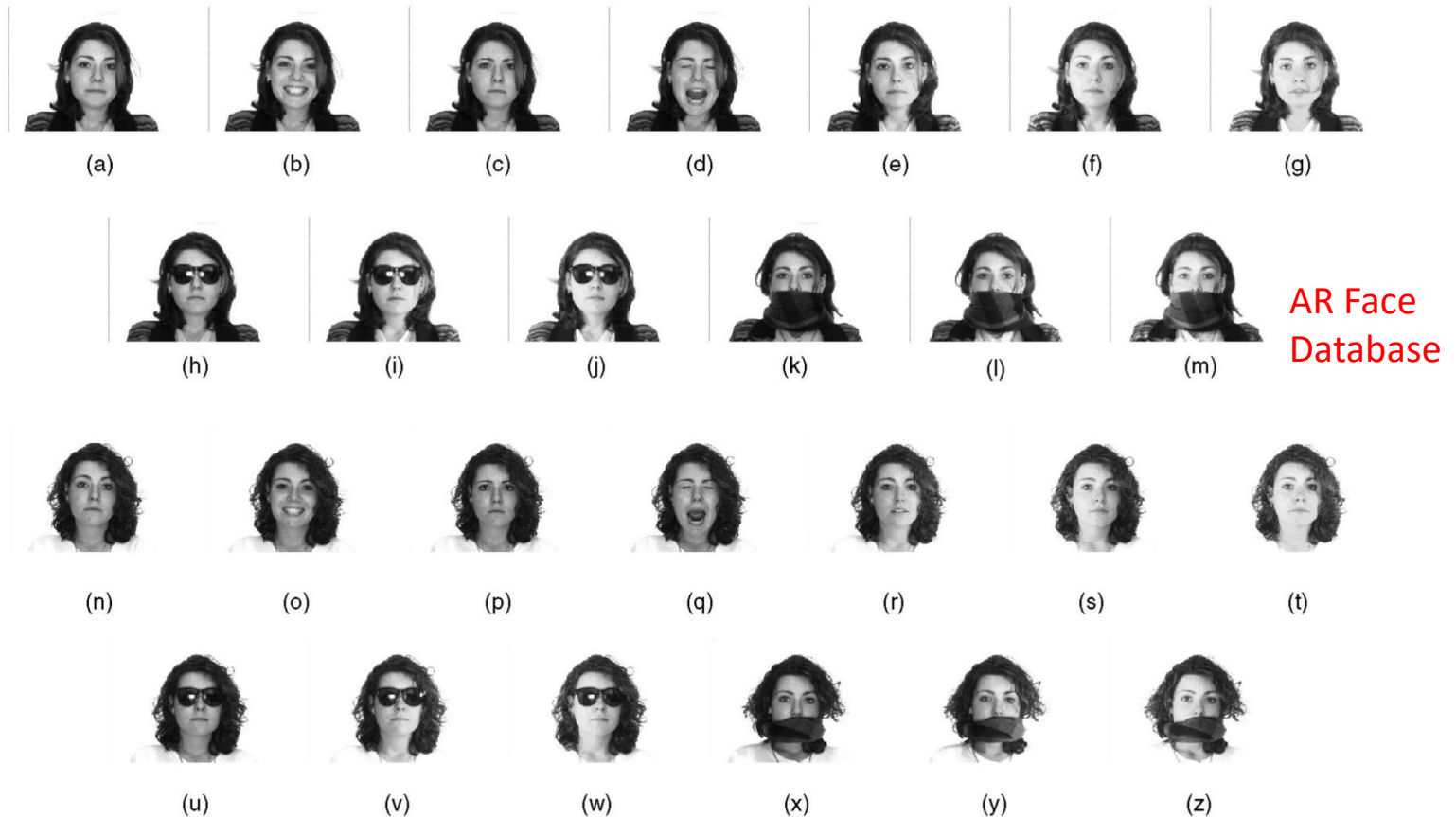


Fig. 3. Images of one subject in the AR face database. The images (a)-(m) were taken during one session and the images (n)-(z) at a different session.



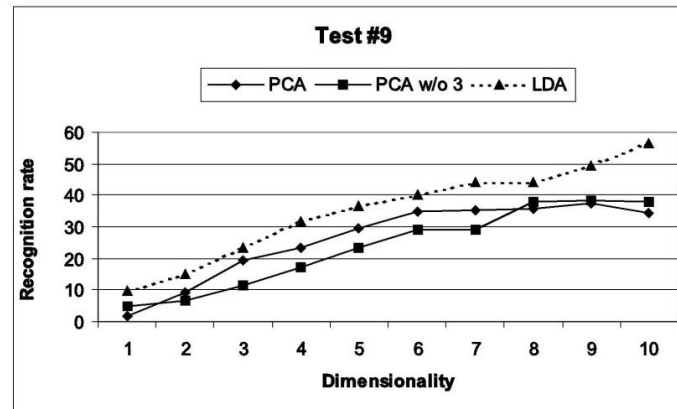
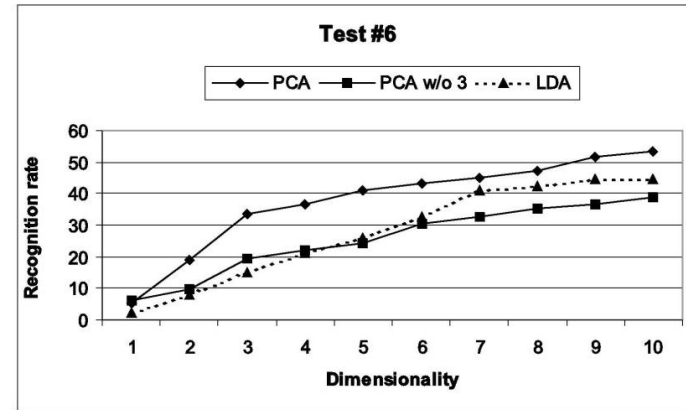
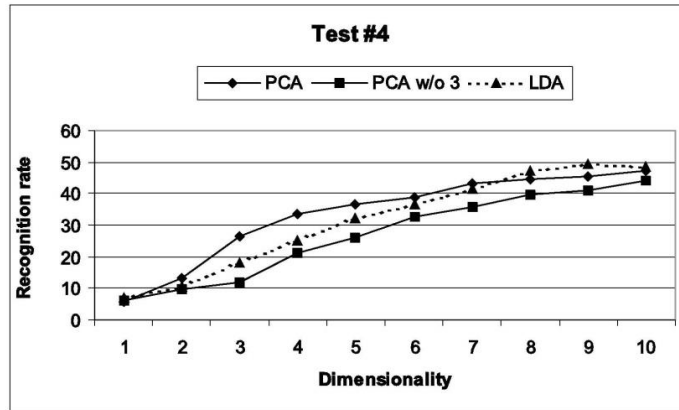
# Experiment preparation

*Recognition problem.* From AR database:

- Consider 50 different individuals (25 males and 25 females) →  $c=50$  classes.
- Images are transformed into 85x60 pixels arrays.
- To simulate small training data set use:
  - Training set made by: 2 images per subject  
→ Total number of samples in the training set  $n = 2*50 = 100$ .
  - Test set made by: 5 images per subject  
→ Total number of samples in the test set  $= 5*50 = 250$ .
- From the 7\*50 images available, there are 21 ways of building these training and test set  
→ 21 runs are done.
- Dimensionality reduction methods:
  - 1) PCA
  - 2) PCA w/o 3 (without the first three eigenvectors)
  - 3) LDA
- Classification: Nearest-neighbor algorithm using standard  $L_2$ -norm for the Euclidean distance.

# PCA versus LDA

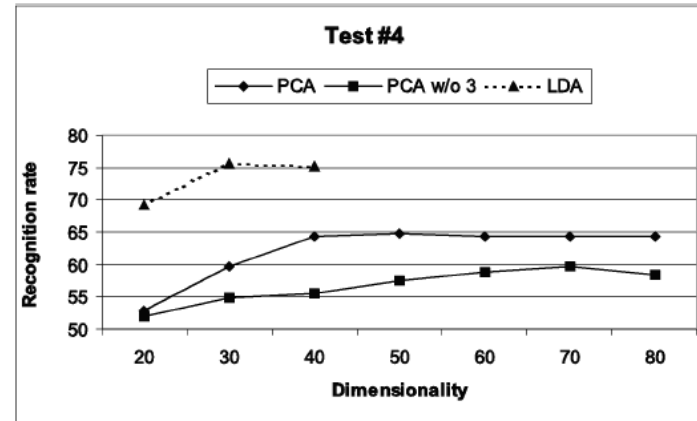
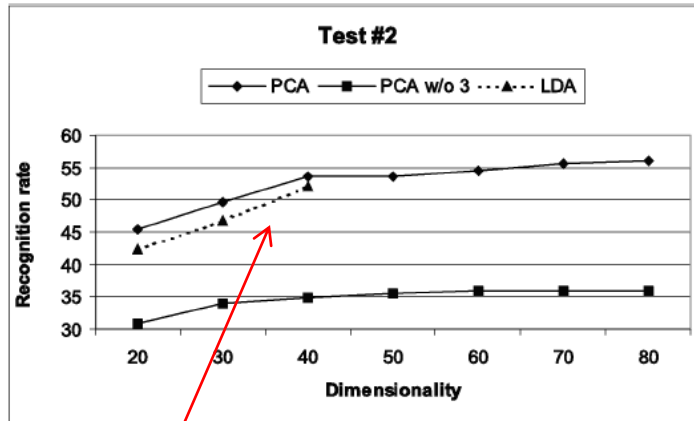
LDA is not always better when training set is **small** (high-dimension space)



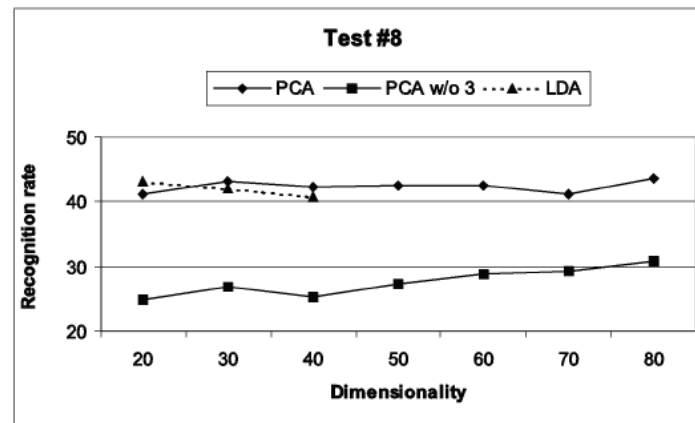
Dimensionality =  $f$  parameter.  
For every  $f$ , all possible values of  $k$  parameter are tried (from 15 to 50) and the best is chosen.

# PCA versus LDA

LDA is not always better when training set is small (high-dimension space)



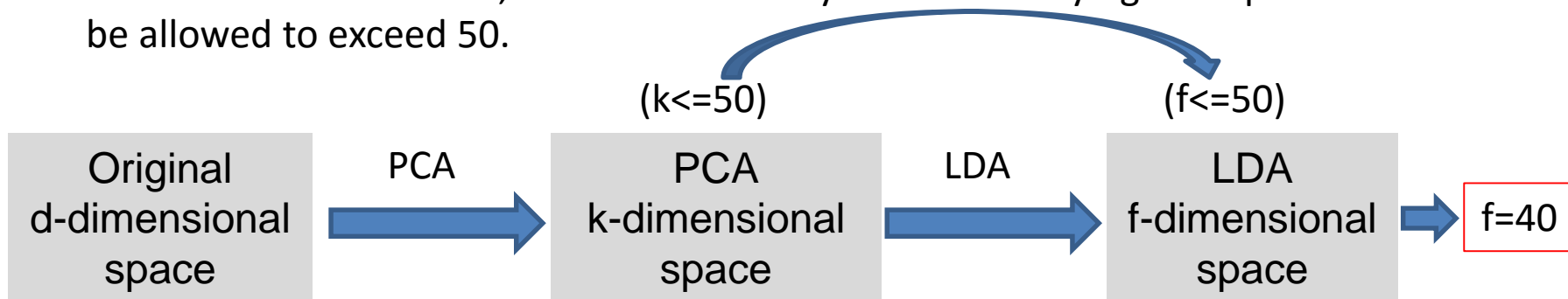
The LDA curves do not go beyond  $f=40$ ! Why?



# PCA versus LDA

Why the LDA curves do not go beyond  $f=40$ ? This is dictated by the following two considerations:

- The dimensionality of LDA is upper-bounded by  $c - 1$ .  
→ Since  $c=50$ , this gives an upper bound of 49 for the dimensionality of the LDA space.
- The dimensionality of the underlying PCA space (from which the LDA space is carved out) cannot be allowed to exceed  $n - c$ .  
→ Since  $n=100$  and  $c=50$ , the dimensionality of the underlying PCA space cannot be allowed to exceed 50.

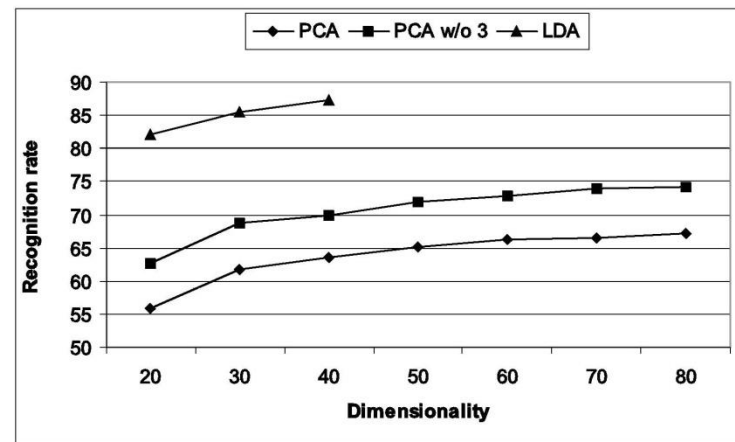
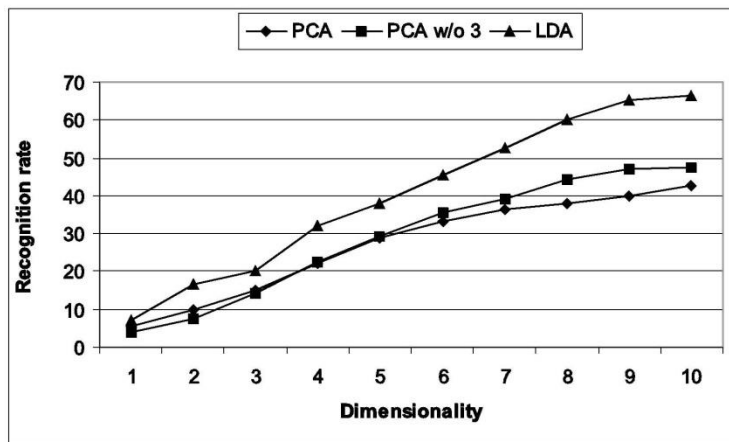


Since it makes no sense to extract a 49 dimensional LDA subspace out of a 50 dimensional PCA space, the dimensionality of the LDA space was arbitrarily hard-limited to 40.

# PCA versus LDA

LDA outperforms PCA when training set is **large**

- **Training** set made by: 13 images per subject  
→ Total number of samples in the training set:  $n = 13 * 50 = 650$ .
- **Test** set made by: 13 images per subject  
→ Total number of samples in the test set:  $13 * 50 = 650$ .



For each value of  $f$ , we tried all values of  $k$  from a low of 50 to the maximum allowed value of 600.

# References

## For Dimensionality Reduction Using PCA:

- R.O. Duda, P.E. Hart and D.G. Stork, "Pattern Classification". Wiley-Interscience Publication (2000). Chapter 3 – Section 3.8.
- "A tutorial on principal component analysis Derivation, Discussion and Singular Value Decomposition", Jon Shlens.
- "A tutorial on Principal Component Analysis", Lindsay I Smith.
- "Face Recognition", Jeremy Wyatt.

# References

## For Face Recognition Using Dimensionality Reduction:

- M. Turk, A. Pentland, "Eigenfaces for Recognition", *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 3(1), pp. 71-86, 1991.
- D. Swets, J. Weng, "Using Discriminant Eigenfeatures for Image Retrieval", *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 18(8), pp. 831-836, 1996.
- A. Martinez, A. Kak, "PCA versus LDA", *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 228-233, 2001.
- K. Ohba and K. Ikeuchi, "Detectability, Uniqueness, and Reliability of Eigen Windows for Stable Verification of Partially Occluded Objects", *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 19, no. 9, pp. 1043-1048, 1997.
- H. Murase and S. Nayar, "Visual Learning and Recognition of 3D Objects from Appearance", *International Journal of Computer Vision*, vol 14, pp. 5-24, 1995.

# References

## More interesting readings:

- S. Gong et al., *Dynamic Vision: From Images to Face Recognition*, Imperial College Press, 2001.
- K. Kastleman, *Digital Image Processing*, Prentice Hall.
- F. Ham and I. Kostanic. *Principles of Neurocomputing for Science and Engineering*, Prentice Hall.
- A. Jain, R. Duin, and J. Mao, "Statistical Pattern Recognition: A Review", *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 4-37, 2000.



# References

- L. Smith, A Tutorial on Principal Components Analysis, [www.cs.otago.ac.nz/cosc453/student\\_tutorials/principal\\_components.pdf](http://www.cs.otago.ac.nz/cosc453/student_tutorials/principal_components.pdf), 2002.
- Jolliffe, I. T. (1986). *Principal Component Analysis*, Springer-Verlag. pp. 487. R. Kramer, Chemometric Techniques for Quantitative Analysis, (1998) Marcel–Dekker.
- Shaw PJA, Multivariate statistics for the Environmental Sciences, (2003) Hodder-Arnold.
- Patra sk et al., J Photochemistry & Photobiology A:Chemistry, (1999) 122:23–31.
- Martinez, A. Kak, "PCA versus LDA", IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 228-233, 2001.
- Fisher R.A. *The statistical utilization of multiple measurements*, Annals of Eugenics, 8, 376–386, 1938).
- Belhumeur P. N., Hespanha J. P., and Kriegman D. J., *Eigenfaces vs. Fisherfaces: Recognition Using Class Specific Linear Projection*. IEEE Transactions on Pattern analysis and machine intelligence, 19, 711-720. 1997.

# Face Image Analysis

Laura Igual

*BCN Perceptual Computing Lab*

