

Human Facial Expression Recognition using Stepwise Linear Discriminant Analysis and Hidden Conditional Random Fields[†]

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Abstract—This paper introduces an accurate and robust facial expression recognition (FER) system. For feature extraction, the proposed FER system employs Stepwise Linear Discriminant Analysis (SWLDA). SWLDA focuses on selecting the localized features from the expression frames using the partial F -test values, thereby reducing the within class variance and increasing the low between variance among different expression classes. For recognition, the Hidden Conditional Random Fields (HCRF) model is utilized. HCRF is capable of approximating a complex distribution using a mixture of Gaussian density functions. To achieve optimum results, the system employs a hierarchical recognition strategy. Under these settings, expressions are divided into three categories based on parts of the face that contribute most towards an expression. During recognition, at the first level, SWLDA and HCRF are employed to recognize the expression category; whereas, at the second level, the label for the expression within the recognized category is determined using a separate set of SWLDA and HCRF, trained just for that category. In order to validate the system, four publicly available datasets were used, and a total of four experiments were performed. The weighted average recognition rate for the proposed FER approach was 96.37% across the four different datasets, which is a significant improvement in contrast to the existing FER methods.

Index Terms—Facial Expressions, Stepwise Linear Discriminant Analysis, Hidden Markov Models, Hidden Conditional Random Fields.

I. INTRODUCTION

Expressions play a vital role in our daily communications, and recent years have witnessed a great amount of work being done to develop accurate and reliable facial expressions recognition (FER) systems. Such systems can be employed in many applications, such as in daily communications, personality and child development [3], neuroscience and psychology [4], access control and surveillance [5], and human behavior studies in telemedicine and e-health environments [6]. FER systems can be categorized into two types: posed expression recognition systems [7], [8] and spontaneous expression recognition systems [9], [10]. Former case deals with recognizing artificial expressions: expressions produced by people

when they are asked to do so [5]. On the other hand, the latter case deals with the expressions that people give out spontaneously, and these are the ones that can be observed on a day-to-day basis, such as during conversations or while watching movies [5]. The focus of this study is posed FER systems.

A typical FER system employs either frame-based classification or sequence-based classification. In frame-based classification methods, only the current frame is utilized with or without a reference image (neutral face image) in order to recognize the expressions; whereas, in sequence-based classification methods, the temporal information of the sequences are utilized in order to recognize the expressions in one or more frames [11]. In sequence-based methods, the geometrical displacement of facial feature points between the current frame and the initial frame are calculated [12]; whereas, frame-based methods do not have this property. The temporal information of expression in sequences of frames is important for facial expression analysis [13].

In this research study, we propose the use of Stepwise Linear Discriminant Analysis (SWLDA) coupled with Hidden Conditional Random Fields (HCRF) for a sequence-based FER system named SH-FER. The block diagram of the SH-FER is shown in Fig. 1. Though SWLDA has been used in many different areas before [14], it is for the first time that it is being utilized as a feature extraction technique in an FER system. The purpose of using SWLDA as a feature extraction technique is to extract the localized features from faces that the previous feature extraction techniques were limited in analyzing. As for the HCRF, the existing HCRF models are limited by their independence suppositions [15], which may reduce classification accuracy. In this work, we have tried to overcome this limitation by approximating the complex distributions by using a mixture of full covariance Gaussian density function.

Another important aspect of this work is that our system is based on the theory that different expressions can be grouped into three categories based on the part of the face that most contributes to the expression [16], [17], [18]. This classification is shown in Table I.

Those expressions in which the lips have a major contribution are labeled as lip-based expressions. In lip-eyes-based expressions, both the lips and eyes equally contribute to the expressions. In lip-eyes-forehead expressions, the lips, eyes, and eyebrows or forehead have equal roles. In our FER system

[†]This work is the extension of our previous works [1], [2].

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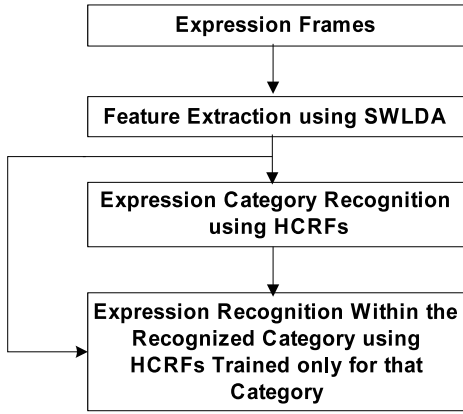


Fig. 1. Block diagram of the SH-FER.

TABLE I
THE CLASSIFIED CATEGORIES AND FACIAL EXPRESSIONS USED IN THIS STUDY.

Category	Facial Expressions
Lips-Based	Happy
	Sad
	Surprise
Lips-Eyes-Based	Disgust
	Anger
	Fear
Lips-Eyes-Forehead-Based	

(SH-FER), as shown in Fig. 1, an expression is classified into one of these three categories at the first level; then at the second level, SWLDA and HCRF (trained for the recognized category) are employed to label this expression within the recognized category. The SH-FER yielded a weighted average recognition rate of 96.37% when tested on four publicly available standard datasets of facial expressions, which is a significant improvement in accuracy.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II reviews related work regarding feature extraction and classification modules and their limitations in the FER domain. Section III presents an overview of the SH-FER system. The experimental setup of the SH-FER is represented in Section IV. The experimental results and discussion are given in Section V. Finally, the paper concludes with future directions in Section VI.

II. RELATED WORK

A. Feature Extraction

Feature extraction deals with extracting distinguishable features from each facial expression shape and quantizing them into discrete symbols [19]. According to the face descriptors, there are two types of features: global features and local features. For global features, features are extracted from the entire face, whereas for local features, parts of the face, such as eyes, mouth, nose and forehead are used.

Global feature extraction methods are known as holistic methods. These include Nearest Features Line-based Subspace Analysis [20], Eigenfaces and Eigenvector [21], [22] and [23], Fisherfaces [24], global features [25], Independent Component

Analysis (ICA) [26], [27], Principal Component Analysis (PCA) [28], [29], [30], frequency-based methods [31], Gabor wavelet [32]. One problem that can be associated with the use of these methods is the fact that they are very sensitive to variations in pose, illumination, occlusion, aging, and rotation changes of the face [33], [34]. Furthermore, these techniques are poor at handling data where classes do not follow the Gaussian distribution. Also, these techniques do not work well in case of a small sample size [34]. Furthermore, complexity-wise, most of these techniques are much expensive because of considering the entire face, as this requires more memory [35]. Lastly, these methods work well mostly in a controlled environment [36].

On the other hand, local feature extraction methods compute local descriptors from parts of the face and then integrate this information into one descriptor. These include Local Feature Analysis (LFA) [37], Gabor features [38], Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF) and Local non-negative Matrix Factorization (LNMF) [39], and Local Binary Pattern (LBP) [12], [40]. Among these methods, LBP is the most commonly employed feature extraction technique. However, LBP does not provide the directional information of the facial frame [1].

Some recent studies have tried to solve the limitations of LBP. These methods include Local Transitional Pattern (LTP) [41], Local Directional Pattern (LDP) [42], Local Directional Pattern Variance (LDPv) [43]. Most of these methods exploited other information instead of employing intensity to overcome the problems due to noise and illumination change [44]. However, performance of these methods still degrade in non-monotonic illumination change, noise variation, change in pose, and expression conditions [44]. Another commonly used local feature extraction method for expression recognition is Local Fisher Discriminant Analysis (LFDA) [45]. But, LFDA fails to determine the essential assorted structure when face image space is highly nonlinear [46]. Furthermore, authors of [47] employed pixel and color segmentation for feature extraction to detect facial expressions. However, the performance of this approach also degrades with variation in illumination.

B. Classification

As for the classification module, a large number of methods have been employed for accurate expression classification. In [48], authors exploited artificial neural networks (ANNs) in order to classify different facial expressions and achieved a 73% recognition rate. However, ANN is a black box and has incomplete capability to explicitly categorize possible fundamental relationships [49]. Besides, ANNs may take long time to train and may trap in a bad local minima. Moreover, authors of [50] and [12] employed support vector machines (SVMs) for their FER system. But, in SVMs, the observation probability is calculated using indirect techniques; in other words, there is no direct estimation of the probability [51]. Furthermore, SVMs simply disregard temporal dependencies among video frames, and thus each frame is expected to be statistically independent from the rest. Similarly, authors of [52] and [53] utilized Gaussian mixture models (GMMs) to recognize different types of facial expressions. But facial

features could be very sensitive to noise; therefore, fast variations in facial frames cannot be modeled by GMMs and might cause misclassification [11].

Most of the aforementioned classifiers were employed for frame-based classification. On the other hand, the most commonly used sequence-based classification method is the Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) [54], [55]. HMMs have their own advantage in handling sequential data when frame-level features are used, whereas vector-based classifiers, such as GMMs, ANNs, and SVMs, fail to learn the sequence of the feature vectors.

Nevertheless, conventional HMMs are based on Markovian property, which presumes that the current state depends only on the previous state. Because of this assumption, labels of two contiguous states must hypothetically occur consecutively in the observed sequence. Unfortunately, this presumption is not always true in reality. Some other limitations of HMMs include their generative nature and the independence assumption between states and observations [56]. A non-generative model such as maximum entropy Markov model (MEMM) was developed in order to resolve the limitations of HMM, and it produced better results compared to HMM [57]. However, MEMM has a commonly known drawback called the "label bias problem".

Conditional Random Fields (CRF) [56] and HCRF [58], the generalizations of MEMM, were then proposed to take the full advantage of MEMM and to solve the "label bias problem" [56]. HCRF extends the capability of CRF with hidden states making it able to learn hidden structure of the sequential data. Both of them use global normalization instead of per-state normalization. Thus, they allow weighted scores, making the parameter space larger than those of MEMM and HMM. The following discussion provides the underlying theory of HCRF, and analyzes the limitations in their existing implementations.

We consider a task of mapping from inputs X to labels $Y \in \Gamma$, for instance, $\Gamma = \{\text{happy, anger, sad, surprise, disgust, fear}\}$ in an FER problem. Each input X is a sequence of T frames, $X = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T$. The training set contains N pairs $(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, N$. In a Q-state HCRF, the conditional probability of a class label Y given input X and set of parameters of the model Λ is computed as

$$p(Y|X; \Lambda) = \frac{\sum_{\bar{S}} \exp \{ \Lambda \cdot f(Y, \bar{S}, X) \}}{z(X, \Lambda)}, \quad (1)$$

where

$$z(X, \Lambda) = \sum_{Y' \bar{S}} \exp \{ \Lambda \cdot f(Y', \bar{S}, X) \}, \quad (2)$$

is the normalization factor to guarantee the sum-to-one rule of the conditional probability, where, Y' is the predicted label for the sequence, and $\bar{S} = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_T\}$ is a sequence of hidden states. Each $s_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, T$, can have an integer value from 1 to Q, the number of states, Λ is the parameter vector and $f(Y, \bar{S}, X)$ is known as the feature vector that consists

of the following sufficient statistics used by the model.

$$f_{y'}^{Pr}(Y, \bar{S}, X) = \delta(y = y'), \quad \forall y' \in Y, \quad (3)$$

$$f_{ss'}^{Tr}(Y, \bar{S}, X) = \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(s_{t-1} = s) \delta(s_t = s'), \quad \forall \{ss'\} \in \bar{S}, \quad (4)$$

$$f_s^{Occ}(Y, \bar{S}, X) = \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(s_t = s), \quad \forall s \in \bar{S}, \quad (5)$$

$$f_s^{M_1}(Y, \bar{S}, X) = \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(s_t = s) x_t, \quad \forall s \in \bar{S}, \quad (6)$$

$$f_s^{M_2}(Y, \bar{S}, X) = \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(s_t = s) x_t^2, \quad \forall s \in \bar{S}, \quad (7)$$

where $\delta(s = s')$ is equal to one when $s = s'$, otherwise equal to zero. Thus, $f_{y'}^{Pr}(Y, \bar{S}, X)$ in (3) tracks the number of times the predicted labels are equal to the original labels.

Similarly, $f_{ss'}^{Tr}(Y, \bar{S}, X)$ in (4) determines the number of times the transition ss' occurs in \bar{S} , and this process is repeated for

the entire state sequence. Likewise, $f_s^{Occ}(Y, \bar{S}, X)$ in (5) counts the occurrence of the state s . The first and second moments $f_s^{M_1}$ and $f_s^{M_2}$ in (6) and (7) respectively are the sum and sum of the squares of observations that align with the state s . It is to be noted that the term feature vector does not refer to the input features, but refers to the vector of sufficient statistics used by the model. Latter is referred to as the observation vector. The choice of the feature vector determines the dependencies of the HCRF model.

It can be seen from the above equations that with some specific set of parameters (Λ), HCRF's dependencies are similar to those of HMM. For example with above feature vector, the diagonal-covariance Gaussian distribution can be defined as

$$u_{y'}^{Pr} = \log(u_{y'}), \quad \forall y' \in Y, \quad (8)$$

$$A_{ss'}^{Tr} = \log(A_{ss'}), \quad \forall \{ss'\} \in \bar{S}, \quad (9)$$

$$\Lambda_s^{Occ} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\log(2\pi\sigma_s^2) + \frac{\mu_s^2}{\sigma_s^2} \right), \quad (10)$$

$$\Lambda_s^{M_1} = \frac{\mu_s}{\sigma_s^2}, \quad (11)$$

$$\Lambda_s^{M_2} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma_s^2}, \quad (12)$$

where u in (8) is the prior distribution of Gaussian-HMM, and A in (9) is a transition matrix, then the numerator of the condition probability can be written as

$$\sum_{\bar{S}} \exp \{ \Lambda \cdot f(Y, \bar{S}, X) \} = \sum_{\bar{S}} u(s_1) \prod_{t=1}^T A(s_{t-1}, s_t) N(x_t^2, \mu_{s_t}, \sigma_{s_t}), \quad (13)$$

where N denotes the Gaussian distribution. The conditional probability of X given Y is computed with a Gaussian-HMM by (13) that has a prior distribution u , and a transition matrix A .

A more generalized version of the HCRF model has been proposed by [59] in order to handle more complex distributions using a linear mixture of Gaussian density functions, and is given as

$$p(Y|X; \Lambda) = \frac{\sum_{\bar{S}} \sum_{m=1}^M \exp \{ \Lambda \cdot f(Y, \bar{S}, m, X) \}}{z(X, \Lambda)}, \quad (14)$$

where M is the number of components in the Gaussian mixture.

Although, there are some existing works that employed the above HCRF model and showed good results [60], [61]. They did not address and overcome the limitations of the model. As we can see in the above equation, that the model can only utilize diagonal-covariance Gaussian distribution. In other words, the variables (columns of $x_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$) are assumed to be pair-wise independent. Hereafter, we call this model *diagonal covariance Gaussian mixture hidden conditional random fields* (DCGM-HCRF). In addition, equations (10), (11), and (12) imply that with a particular set of values, the observation density at each state will converge to Gaussian form. Unfortunately, there is algorithm that could guarantee this convergence. Therefore, these assumptions may result in a decrease of accuracy.

In order to inherit the advantages of HCRF model and completely tackle the limitations of the existing work, we propose the use of HCRF algorithm that is able to explicitly utilize mixture of *full covariance Gaussian mixture hidden conditional random fields* (FCGM-HCRF).

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Stepwise Linear Discriminant Analysis (SWLDA)

Dimension reduction by extracting discriminating features is based on the idea of maximizing the total scatter of the data while minimizing the variance within classes. It can be seen in Fig. 2 that the feature values (gray scale values) for the six classes are highly merged, which can result in a high misclassification rate. Please note that the actual number of features (gray scale values) could be more than three, however, for the sake of visualization, the first three features were picked in order to create Fig. 2.

The problem shown in Fig. 2 is due to similarities among the expressions that result in high within-class variance and low between-class variance. Therefore, a method is required that not only provides the dimension reduction, but also increases the low between-class variance to increase class separation before the features are fed to the classifier.

In order to solve this problem, several methods have been proposed in the machine learning literature, such as kernel discriminant analysis (KDA) [62], generalized discriminant analysis (GDA) [63], and linear discriminant analysis (LDA) [64]. Among these, LDA has been widely employed in FER systems. However, LDA is a linear technique that is

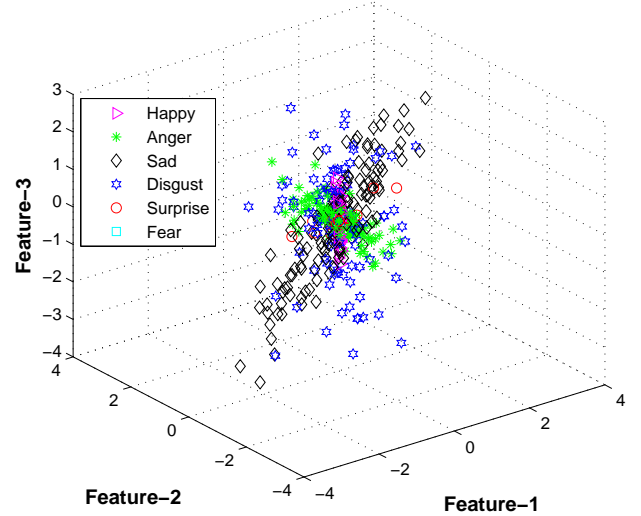


Fig. 2. 3D-feature (gray scale values) plot for six types of facial expressions.

limited in flexibility when applied to more complex datasets. For more details on LDA, please refer to a previous study [65]. Accordingly, this work employs a robust feature extraction technique called Stepwise Linear Discriminant Analysis (SWLDA). SWLDA is easy to explain, has good predictive ability, and computationally, it is less expensive than other existing methods [14]. Some limitations of the existing works, such as illumination change, do not affect the performance of the SWLDA. SWLDA only extracts a small set of features by employing forward and backward regression models. In forward regression, the most correlated features are selected based on partial F -test values, whereas in backward regression, the least significant features are removed from the regression model. In both cases, F -test values are calculated on the basis of defined class labels. The advantage of this method is that it is very efficient for seeking localized features. The actual number of the extracted features used is 200. For more details on SWLDA, please refer to a previous study [14].

B. Hidden Conditional Random Fields (HCRF)

As mentioned before that the existing HCRF utilizes diagonal covariance Gaussian distributions in the feature function and does not guarantee the convergence of its parameters to some specific values at which the conditional probability is modeled as a mixture of normal density functions. Because of this property, the existing HCRF losses a lot of information. This is one of the main disadvantages of the existing HCRF model.

In order to solve this limitation, we explicitly involve full covariance Gaussian distributions in the feature functions at the observation level. For the prior and transition probabilities, we used the same equations of [59] as described in (3) and

(4). Mathematically, our contribution can be explained as

$$f_s^{Ob}(Y, \bar{S}, X) = \sum_{t=1}^T \log \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \Gamma_{s,m}^{Obs} N(x_t^2, \mu_{s,m}, \Sigma_{s,m}) \right) (\delta(s_t = s)), \quad (15)$$

The (15) presents the observation of the input at each state. Where M is the number of density functions, Γ is used in order to consider the contextual information of the whole observation, $\Gamma_{s,m}^{Obs}$ is the mixing weight of the m^{th} component with mean $\mu_{s,m}$ and covariance matrix $\Sigma_{s,m}$. $N(x_t^2, \mu_{s,m}, \Sigma_{s,m})$ in (15) can be computed as

$$N(x_t^2, \mu_{s,m}, \Sigma_{s,m}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2} |\Sigma_{s,m}|^{1/2}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (x_t^2 - \mu_{s,m})' \Sigma_{s,m}^{-1} (x_t^2 - \mu_{s,m}) \right), \quad (16)$$

where D is the dimension of the observation, and $\Sigma_{s,m}$ is the full covariance matrix.

As we can see in (15), by changing Γ , μ and Σ we can create any mixture of the normal densities. So, the corresponding observation weight (Λ_s^{Obs}) is not necessary to be updated during the training phase. Therefore,

$$\Lambda_s^{Ob} = 1, \quad \forall s \in \bar{S}, \quad (17)$$

As a result, the conditional probability that is used to model the system can be rewritten as

$$p(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{\bar{S}} \exp(P(\bar{S}) + T(\bar{S}) + O(\bar{S}))}{z(X, \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma)}, \quad (18)$$

where

$$P(\bar{S}) = \sum_{s \in \bar{S}} \Lambda_{y'}^{Pr} f_{y'}^{Pr}(Y, \bar{S}, X), \quad (19)$$

$$T(\bar{S}) = \sum_{\{ss'\} \in \bar{S}} \Lambda_{ss'}^{Tr} f_{ss'}^{Tr}(Y, \bar{S}, X), \quad (20)$$

$$O(\bar{S}) = \sum_{s \in \bar{S}} f_s^{Ob}(Y, \bar{S}, X), \quad (21)$$

By putting the values of $P(\bar{S})$, $T(\bar{S})$, and $O(\bar{S})$ from (19), (20), and (21) respectively in (18), the updated conditional probability can be rewritten in (22).

As mentioned before, our contribution is at the observation level; therefore, by putting the value of $f_s^{Ob}(Y, \bar{S}, X)$ from (15), the updated conditional probability for the system can be rewritten in (23). The simple form of the conditional probability is defined in (24).

$$p(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{Score(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma)}{z(X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma)}, \quad (24)$$

The procedure of the proposed HCRF follows exactly the procedure of the [59]. Based on equations (23) and (24), we can further update the conditional probability using the well-known forward and backward algorithms (as the algorithms used in HMM), which are defined in equations (25) and (26) respectively.

Therefore, the $Score(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma)$ of (25) is equal to the forward algorithm (α) and backward algorithm (β) as in (27).

$$Score(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma) = \sum_{s \in \bar{S}} \alpha_T(s) = \sum_{s \in \bar{S}} \beta_1(s). \quad (27)$$

In the training phase, our goal was to find the parameters (Λ, Γ, μ , and Σ) to maximize the conditional probability of the training data. In SH-FER, we utilize (Limited-memory Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) L-BGFS method to search the optimal point. However, instead of repeating the forward and backward algorithms to compute the gradients as others did [59], we run the forward and backward algorithms only when calculating the conditional probability, then we reuse the results to compute the gradients.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The SH-FER has been tested and validated on four publicly available standard datasets of facial expressions [66], [67], [68], and [69]. In total, four experiments were performed. All the experiments were performed in Matlab using an Intel® Pentium® Dual-Core™ (2.5 GHz) with a RAM capacity of 3 GB. Detailed description of the four datasets used in this study are as follows:

- *Extended Cohn-Kanade Dataset (CK+)*: This facial expressions dataset contains 593 video sequences on seven facial expressions recorded from 123 subjects (university students). The age range of the subjects was from 18 to 30 years and most of them were female. Out of 593 video sequences, 309 were used in this work, corresponding to the six expressions mentioned in Table I. The original size of each facial frame in some of the images is 640×480, and 640×490 pixel in others, with 8-bit precision for grayscale values.
- *Japanese Female Facial Expressions (JAFFE) Dataset*: The expressions in this dataset were posed by 10 different subjects (Japanese female). Most of the expression frames were taken from the frontal view of the camera with tied hair in order to expose all the sensitive regions of the face. In the whole dataset, there is a total of 213 facial frames, which consist of seven expressions including neutral. Therefore, we selected only 195 expression frames, corresponding to the six facial expressions. The original size of each facial frame is 256×256 pixel.
- *Extended Yale B Face (B+) Dataset*: This dataset contains a total of 16128 facial frames taken under a single light source performed by 28 distinct subjects for 576 viewing conditions (9 poses × 64 illumination conditions). The original size of each facial frame is 320×243 pixel.
- *MMI Dataset*: The MMI dataset of facial expressions is a fully web-searchable collection of visual and audio-visual recordings of subjects displaying a facial expression. This dataset contains a total of 238 video sequences performed by 28 subjects (male and female). The original size of each facial frame is 720×576 pixel.

$$p(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{\bar{S}} \exp \left(\sum_{s \in \bar{S}} \Lambda_{y'}^{Pr} f_{y'}^{Pr}(Y, \bar{S}, X) + \sum_{\{ss'\} \in \bar{S}} \Lambda_{ss'}^{Tr} f_{ss'}^{Tr}(Y, \bar{S}, X) + \sum_{s \in \bar{S}} f_s^{Ob}(Y, \bar{S}, X) \right)}{z(X, \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma)}, \quad (22)$$

$$p(Y|X; \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{\sum_{\bar{S}=\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_T\}} \exp \left(\Lambda_{y'}^{Pr} + \sum_{t=1}^T \left(\Lambda_{s_{t-1}, s_t}^{Tr} \right) + \log \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \Gamma_{s_t, m}^{Obs} N(x_t^2, \mu_{s_t, m}, \Sigma_{s_t, m}) \right) \right)}{z(X, \Lambda, \Gamma, \mu, \Sigma)}, \quad (23)$$

$$\alpha_\tau = \sum_{\bar{S}=\{s_1, s_2, \dots, \{s_\tau=s\}\}} \exp \left(\Lambda_{y'}^{Pr} + \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \left(\Lambda_{s_{t-1}, s_t}^{Tr} \right) + \log \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \Gamma_{s_t, m}^{Obs} N(x_t^2, \mu_{s_t, m}, \Sigma_{s_t, m}) \right) \right),$$

$$\alpha_\tau = \sum_{s' \in \bar{S}} \alpha_{\tau-1}(s') \exp \left(\Lambda_{s's}^{Tr} + \log \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \Gamma_{s, m}^{Obs} N(x_\tau, \mu_{s, m}, \Sigma_{s, m}) \right) \right), \quad (25)$$

$$\beta_\tau(s) = \sum_{\bar{S}=\{s_\tau=s, s_{\tau+1}, \dots, s_T\}} \exp \left(\Lambda_{y'}^{Pr} + \sum_{t=\tau}^T \left(\Lambda_{s_{t-1}, s_t}^{Tr} \right) + \log \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \Gamma_{s_t, m}^{Obs} N(x_t^2, \mu_{s_t, m}, \Sigma_{s_t, m}) \right) \right),$$

$$\beta_\tau(s) = \sum_{s'} \beta_{\tau+1}(s') \exp \left(\Lambda_{s's}^{Tr} + \log \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \Gamma_{s, m}^{Obs} N(x_\tau, \mu_{s, m}, \Sigma_{s, m}) \right) \right), \quad (26)$$

The four experiments are explained as follows:

- In the first experiment, SH-FER was validated using a 10-fold cross-validation rule for each dataset. In other words, each dataset was divided into 10 subsets. Out of these 10 subsets, one subset was used as the validation data, whereas the remaining nine subsets were used as the training data. For each dataset, this process was repeated 10 times, with data from each subset used exactly once as the validation data.
- In the second experiment, n -fold cross-validation rule based on dataset was performed (in our case $n=4$). It means that from the four datasets, data from the three datasets were retained as the validation data for testing the system, and the data from the remaining dataset was used as the training data. This process was repeated four times, with data from each dataset used exactly once as the training data.
- In the third experiment, a set of three sub-experiments were performed in order to show the effectiveness of sub-components of SH-FER, i.e., SWLDA and HCRF. For this purpose, from the first experiment, the best case (dataset) was selected based on the recognition rate. Next, three sub-experiments were performed using the 10-fold validation rule. In the first case, ICA (a well-known local feature extraction technique) was utilized with HCRF instead of SWLDA. In the second case, ICA was coupled with LDA (a well-known discriminant analysis approach) before feeding the features to HCRF. Finally, in the third case, the existing HCRF [59] was used with SWLDA instead of using proposed HCRF.
- Lastly, in the fourth experiment, the performance of SH-FER was compared with some well-known existing FER systems, including [44], [70], [71], [72], [73], [12], [74],

[75]. We borrowed the implementations for some of the methods, whereas for other methods, the published results in their respective papers were used.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. First Experiment

The classification results at the first level of SH-FER (expression category classification) are shown in Table II(A) (using CK+), Table II(B) (using JAFFE), Table II(C) (using Extended Yale), and in Table II(D) (using MMI). The Feature plots for these cases are shown in Fig. 3, 4, 5, and 6 respectively. Once again, please note that the actual number of features used is 200. However, for the sake of visualization, we just picked the first three features in order to create all the feature plots. These plots show that at the first level, SH-FER provided a clear separation among the three categories for each dataset.

The overall classification results for the second level classification (expression classification within each category) using CK+, JAFFE, Extended Yale B, and MMI datasets are shown in Table III(A), Table III(B), Table III(C), and Table III(D), respectively. Similarly, the feature plots for these cases are shown in Fig. 7, Fig. 8, Fig. 9, and Fig. 10, respectively. These results indicate that the SH-FER consistently achieved a high recognition rate when applied to these datasets separately.

B. Second Experiment

For the second experiment, the overall results are shown in Table IV. It is clear from Tables IV(A) and IV(B) that SH-FER achieved a high recognition rate when it was trained using the CK+ and Extended Yale B face datasets. However, the system achieved low accuracy when it was trained on the JAFFE and

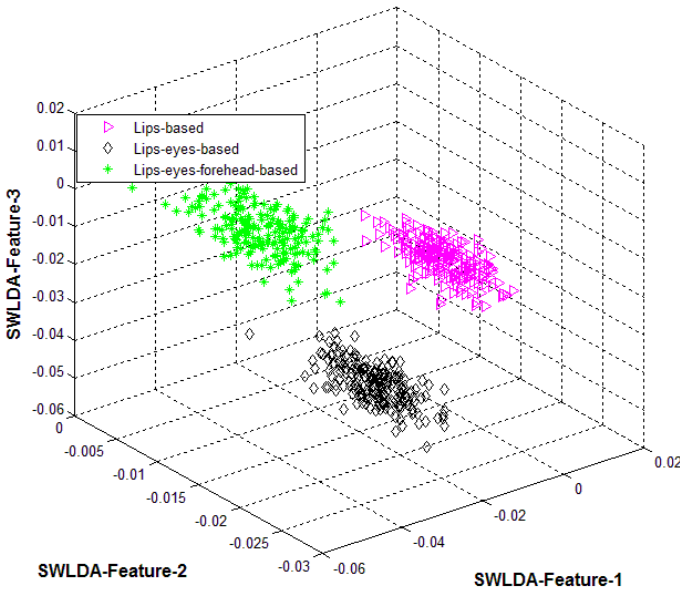


Fig. 3. 3D feature plots for the three expression-categories after applying SWLDA at the first level of SH-FER on CK+ dataset.

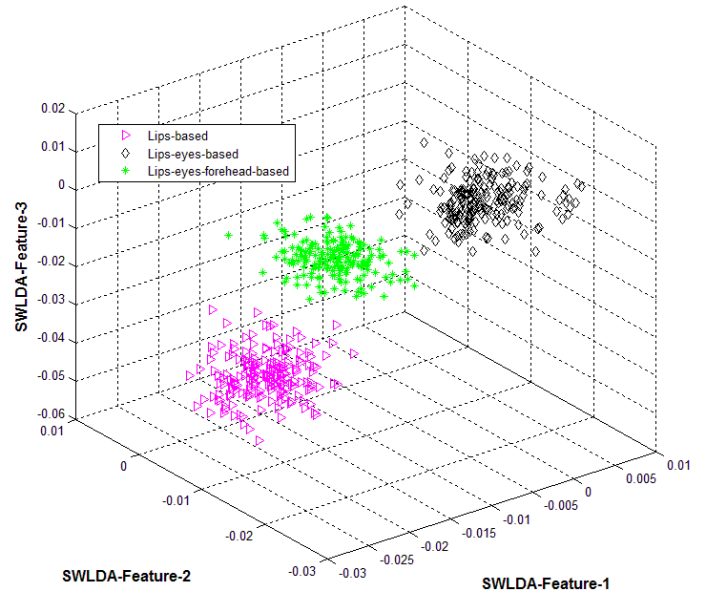


Fig. 5. 3D feature plots for the three expression-categories after applying SWLDA at the first level of SH-FER on Extended Yale B face dataset.

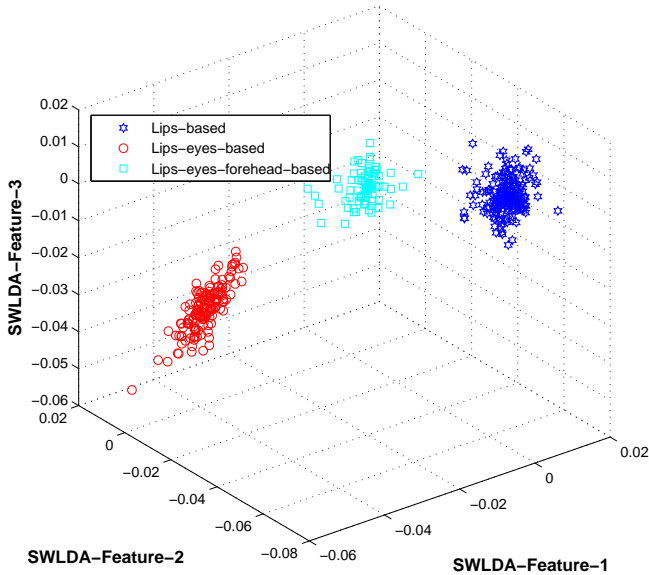


Fig. 4. 3D feature plots for the three expression-categories after applying SWLDA at the first level of SH-FER on JAFFE dataset.

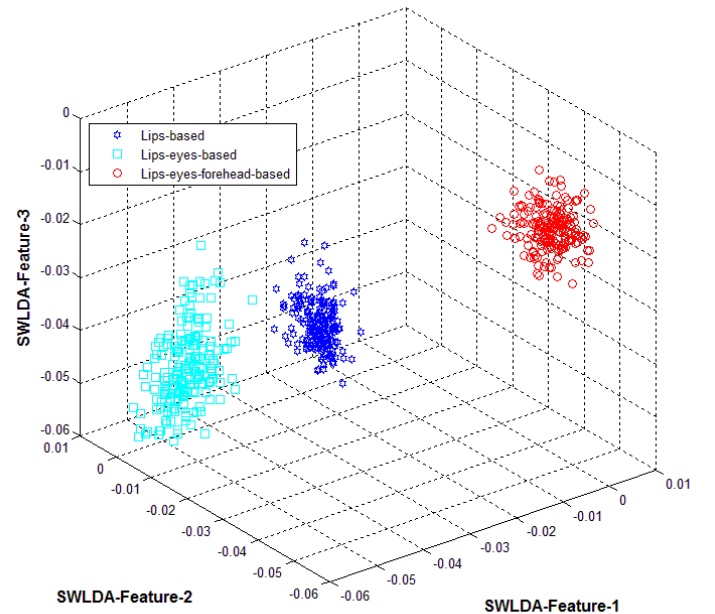


Fig. 6. 3D feature plots for the three expression-categories after applying SWLDA at the first level of SH-FER on MMI dataset.

MMI datasets (shown in Table IV(C) and (D)). This might be because the datasets have different facial features; for instance, some of the subjects in the Extended Yale B face dataset have worn glasses, whereas subjects in the CK+ and JAFFE datasets did not wear glasses. Furthermore, eye features in the JAFFE dataset are very different from those in CK+, Extended Yale B and MMI datasets. Similarly, some of the subjects in MMI dataset are at 30° to 45° angle to the camera, which might have resulted in low accuracy. Nevertheless, the results are very encouraging and this suggests that the SH-FER is robust, i.e., the system not only achieved a high recognition rate on

one dataset, it also provided good recognition rates when used across multiple datasets.

C. Third Experiment

The overall results for the three cases are shown in Table V. These results indicate that both the SWLDA and the HCRF played vital roles in the high accuracy of SH-FER system. It is apparent from Table V(A) and (B) that when SWLDA was replaced with ICA, the system was unable to achieve adequate recognition accuracy. The reason behind the better performance of SWLDA is apparent in Fig. 7, 8, 9, 10. When compared to Fig. 2, one can notice a clear separation among

TABLE II

CLASSIFICATION RESULTS OF SH-FER FOR EXPRESSION CATEGORY CLASSIFICATION ON: (A) CK+ DATASET, (B) JAFFE DATASET, (C) EXTENDED YALE B FACE DATASET (B+), AND (D) MMI DATASET OF FACIAL EXPRESSIONS. (UNIT: %).

Expressions Category	Classification Rate
Lips-based	99
Lips-eyes-based	99
Lips-eyes-forehead-based	98
Average	98.66

(A)

Expressions Category	Classification Rate
Lips-based	99
Lips-eyes-based	97
Lips-eyes-forehead-based	99
Average	98.33

(B)

Expressions Category	Classification Rate
Lips-based	97
Lips-eyes-based	98
Lips-eyes-forehead-based	99
Average	98.00

(C)

Expressions Category	Classification Rate
Lips-based	98
Lips-eyes-based	99
Lips-eyes-forehead-based	98
Average	98.33

(D)

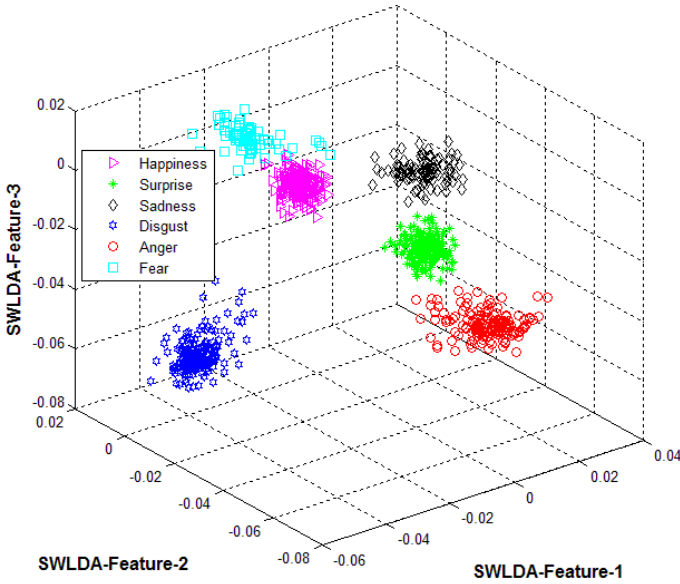


Fig. 7. 3D feature plots for the six expressions after applying SWLDA at the second level of SH-FER on CK+ dataset.

all the expression classes in these figures. Thus, SWLDA not only provides dimension reduction, it also increases the low between-class variance to increase the class separation before the features are fed to the classifier. The low within class variance and high between class variance are achieved because of the forward and backward regression models in the SWLDA.

Likewise, it is also obvious from Table V(C) that when HCRF

TABLE III

CLASSIFICATION RESULTS OF SH-FER FOR EXPRESSION CLASSIFICATION AT THE SECOND LEVEL USING: (A) CK+ DATASET (B) JAFFE DATASET, (C) EXTENDED YALE B FACE DATASET, AND (D) MMI DATASET OF FACIAL EXPRESSIONS. (UNIT: %).

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	97	1	0	1	1	0
Sad	2	96	1	0	1	0
Anger	0	1	97	1	0	1
Disgust	0	1	0	98	1	0
Surprise	0	1	0	1	98	0
Fear	1	0	3	0	2	95
Average	96.83					

(A)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	96	1	0	1	1	0
Sad	1	97	1	1	0	0
Anger	0	1	98	0	0	1
Disgust	1	0	2	95	2	0
Surprise	1	1	0	1	97	0
Fear	0	0	2	2	1	95
Average	96.33					

(B)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	97	2	0	1	0	0
Sad	1	96	0	2	1	0
Anger	0	1	95	2	1	1
Disgust	0	1	0	98	1	0
Surprise	0	2	0	1	95	2
Fear	0	1	0	2	1	95
Average	96.00					

(C)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	95	2	0	1	1	1
Sad	1	96	1	0	2	0
Anger	0	1	97	0	0	2
Disgust	1	1	0	97	1	0
Surprise	0	2	0	1	97	0
Fear	0	2	0	1	1	96
Average	96.33					

(D)

was replaced with existing HCRF [59], the system was unable to achieve good recognition rate. Thus the proposed HCRF model successfully addresses the limitations of HMM and existing HCRFs, which has widely been used for sequential FER.

D. Fourth Experiment

The recognition rates for the eight methods, chosen for this experiment, along with the SH-FER are summarized in Table VI. It can be seen that the SH-FER outperformed the existing methods. Thus, the proposed system shows significant potential in its ability to accurately and robustly recognize human facial expressions using video data.

VI. CONCLUSION

Over the past two decades, FER systems have received a great deal of attention from the research community due to their application in many areas of pattern recognition and computer vision. However, recognizing human facial expressions accurately is still a major concern. This lack of accuracy can

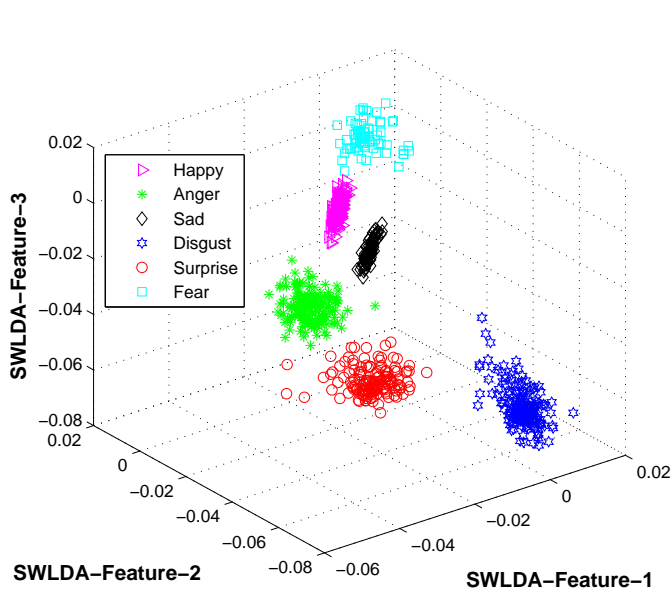


Fig. 8. 3D feature plots for the six expressions after applying SWLDA at the second level of SH-FER on JAFFE dataset.

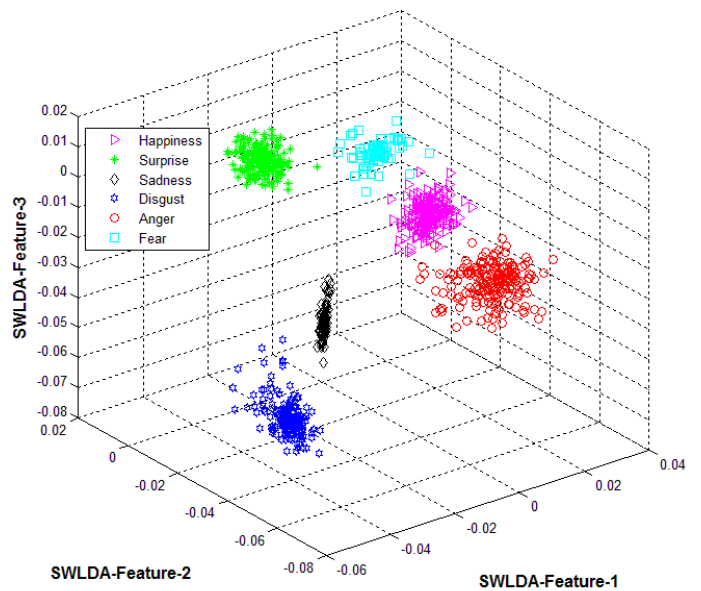


Fig. 10. 3D feature plots for the six expressions after applying SWLDA at the second level of SH-FER on MMI dataset.

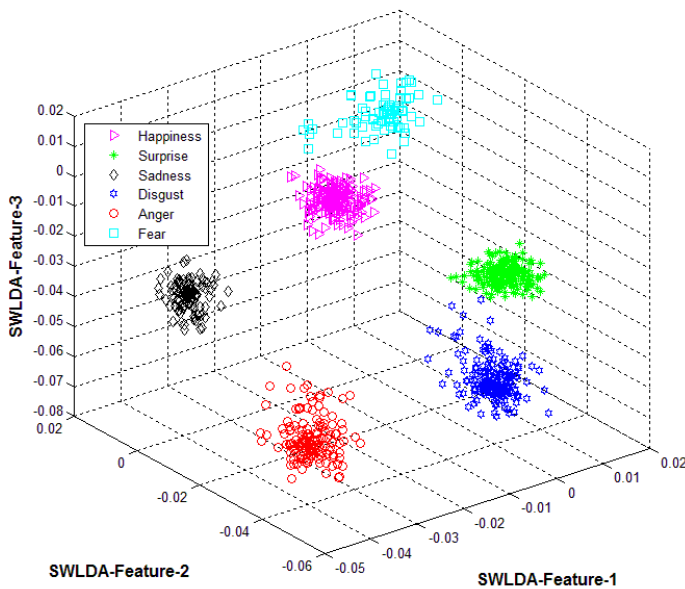


Fig. 9. 3D feature plots for the six expressions after applying SWLDA at the second level of SH-FER on Extended Yale B face dataset.

be attributed to various causes, such as the failure to extract prominent features, and the high similarity among different facial expressions that results due to the presence of low between-class variance in the feature space.

Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to propose an accurate and robust FER system, called SH-FER, which is capable of exhibiting high recognition rate. The SH-FER uses SWLDA and HCRF as its feature extraction and classification techniques, respectively. SWLDA helps the system in extracting the most significant features thereby reducing the high within class variance and increasing the low between class variance. HCRF then uses these features to accurately classify the human facial expressions. This model is capable

of approximating the complex distributions using a mixture of full covariance Gaussian density functions.

The proposed SH-FER system has been validated using four publicly available datasets. Each dataset consisted of six facial expressions, i.e., happy, sad, surprise, disgust, anger, and fear, performed by different people, and each expression was composed of several sequence of expression frames. All of these experiments were performed in the laboratory using offline validation. Though the system was very successful in recognizing each of the six expressions in all of these experiments with a very high accuracy, its performance in real environment is yet to be investigated. The system performance could degrade in real-life tests, especially when used with various face angles and clutter (unnecessary objects in a test image). To resolve these issues, a real-time and robust segmentation technique would be required. Moreover, in a real environment, the facial frames may have different angles (different side views). Therefore, further research is required to maintain and improve the same recognition rate with different facial angles and clutter.

Since SH-FER employs two-level recognition with SWLDA and HCRFs at each level, this might lead to complexity issues. As described before, in the proposed HCRF model we explicitly involve full covariance Gaussian distribution instead of diagonal distribution and we believe that the proposed HCRF could take more time to train as compared to the existing HCRF. However, the proposed HCRF model also showed significant improvement over existing work in terms of recognition accuracy.

One solution could be to use a light weight classifier, like K-nearest neighbor (K-NN), at the first level; however, k-NN has some limitations. For example, it is very sensitive to noise and to the presence of inappropriate parameters as well. Therefore, further research is required in order to investigate ways to maintain the high recognition rate of the SH-FER

TABLE IV

CLASSIFICATION RESULTS OF SH-FER FOR THE SECOND EXPERIMENT. (A) TRAINING ON EXTENDED YALE B FACE DATASET AND TESTING ON CK+, JAFFE, AND MMI DATASETS, (B) TRAINING ON CK+ DATASET AND TESTING ON JAFFE, EXTENDED YALE B, AND MMI DATASETS, (C) TRAINING ON JAFFE DATASET AND TESTING ON CK+, EXTENDED YALE B, AND MMI DATASETS, (D) TRAINING ON MMI DATASET AND TESTING ON CK+, EXTENDED YALE B, AND JAFFE DATASETS (UNIT: %).

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	87	3	2	2	3	3
Sad	3	89	2	1	3	2
Anger	0	2	90	2	4	2
Disgust	0	4	3	89	1	3
Surprise	3	2	5	4	80	6
Fear	1	2	5	3	2	87
Average	87.0					

(A)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	89	4	2	3	2	0
Sad	3	91	3	2	1	0
Anger	2	3	90	0	2	3
Disgust	0	2	4	91	2	1
Surprise	1	0	5	3	88	3
Fear	2	0	4	3	4	87
Average	89.3					

(B)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	79	7	4	3	2	5
Sad	6	80	4	4	3	3
Anger	2	3	83	5	3	4
Disgust	0	2	4	90	1	3
Surprise	1	5	2	4	85	3
Fear	2	6	3	3	4	82
Average	83.1					

(C)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	86	4	3	3	1	3
Sad	3	82	5	3	4	3
Anger	3	1	84	2	6	4
Disgust	3	0	4	88	3	2
Surprise	4	2	3	0	89	2
Fear	2	3	10	4	6	75
Average	84.0					

(D)

while improving its efficiency at the same time.

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TABLE V

CLASSIFICATION RESULTS OF SH-FER FOR THE THIRD EXPERIMENT USING EXTENDED COHN-KANADE (CK+) DATASET OF FACIAL EXPRESSIONS. (A) ICA WITH HCRF, INSTEAD OF USING SWLDA, (B) ICA+LDA+HCRF, (C) SWLDA WITH EXISTING HCRF [59], INSTEAD OF USING THE PROPOSED HCRF MODULE (UNIT: %).

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	87	3	2	4	2	2
Sad	3	89	2	2	3	1
Anger	2	1	90	2	3	2
Disgust	2	2	1	89	4	2
Surprise	2	0	4	3	87	2
Fear	2	3	4	2	4	85
Average	87.83					

(A)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	88	4	3	2	2	1
Sad	3	93	1	2	0	1
Anger	3	2	90	1	1	3
Disgust	2	3	2	89	3	1
Surprise	2	1	2	3	90	2
Fear	0	3	2	3	4	88
Average	89.66					

(B)

	Happy	Sad	Anger	Disgust	Surprise	Fear
Happy	88	2	0	3	4	3
Sad	0	91	1	2	4	2
Anger	2	1	92	2	0	3
Disgust	0	2	3	93	0	2
Surprise	3	1	3	2	90	1
Fear	2	1	3	2	3	89
Average	90.50					

(C)

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF SH-FER WITH EXISTING FER SYSTEMS USING THE DATASETS MENTIONED IN THEIR RESPECTIVE PAPERS: (A) CK+, (B) EXTENDED YALE B, (C) MMI, AND (D) JAFFE DATASETS (UNIT: %).

Existing Works	[44]	[70]	SH-FER
Recognition Rates	89	90	96

(A)

Existing Works	[71]	[72]	SH-FER
Recognition Rates	90	87	96

(B)

Existing Works	[73]	[12]	SH-FER
Recognition Rates	73	86	96

(C)

Existing Works	[74]	[75]	SH-FER
Recognition Rates	84	92	96

(D)

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