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Original Research Article

A Comparative Analysis of Selected Fisher Linear Discriminant Based Algorithms in Human Faces

ABSTRACT

One of the most reliable biometrics when issues of access control and security is been considered is face recognition. An integral part of a face recognition system is the feature extraction stage, which becomes a critical problem where is a need to obtain the best feature with minimum classification error and low running time. Many of the existing face recognition systems have adopted different linear discriminant-based algorithms independently for feature extraction in which excellent performance were achieved, but identifying the best most suitable of these variants of linear discriminant-based algorithms for face recognition systems remains a subject open for research. Therefore, this paper carried out a comparative analysis of the performance of the basic Linear Discriminant Algorithm (LDA) and two of its variants which are Kernel Linear Discriminant Analysis (KLDA) and Multiclass Linear Discriminant Analysis (MLDA) in face recognition application for access control.

Three Hundred and forty (340) face images were locally acquired with default size of 1200 x 1200. Two hundred and forty (240) images were used for training while the remaining hundred (100) images were used for testing purpose. The image enhancement involves converting into grayscale and normalizing the acquired images using histogram equalization method. Feature extraction and dimension reduction of the images were done using each of LDA, KLDA and MLDA algorithms individually. The extracted feature subsets of the images from each of LDA, KLDA and MLDA algorithm were individually classified using Euclidian distance. This technique was implemented using Matrix Laboratory (R2015a). The performance of LDA, KLDA and MLDA was evaluated and compared at 200 x 200 pixel resolution and 0.57 threshold value using recognition accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, false positive rate, training time and recognition time.

The evaluation result shows that the LDA algorithm yielded recognition accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, false positive rate, training time and recognition time of 93.00%, 92.86%, 93.33%, 6.67%, 1311.76 seconds and 67.98 seconds respectively. Also, KLDA recorded recognition accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, false positive rate, training time and recognition time of 95.00%, 95.71%, 93.33%, 6.67%, 1393.24 seconds and 63.67 seconds respectively. Furthermore, MLDA algorithm yielded recognition accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, false positive rate, training time and recognition time of 97.00%, 97.14%, 96.67%, 3.33%, 1191.55 seconds and 58.65 seconds respectively. The t-test measured between the accuracies of MLDA algorithm and KLDA reveals that MLDA algorithm was statistically significant at

$P < 0.05$; $P = 0.014 \wedge \mu = 1.50$. Also, the t-test measured between the accuracies of MLDA algorithm and LDA reveals that MLDA algorithm was statistically significant at $P < 0.01$; $P = 0.001 \wedge \mu = 3.75$.

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Keywords: Biometrics, Face, Feature extraction, LDA, KLDA, MLDA.

1. INTRODUCTION

With continuous increase in world population, identification and authentication of individuals is becoming more significantly important. Hence, the need for highly accurate, secured and practical identification and authentication systems. Over the years, many traditional identification and authentication systems such as usernames, passwords, keys, personal identification number (PIN), identification (ID) cards, hardware token- based systems have been use for access control, but each of them has its own attendant problems. Generally, they are not reliable and secure in many of the security zones. Thus, there is an increasing need for an automatic and reliable identification and authentication systems. Biometric identification has proven to be more reliable means of verifying the human identity [27]. Biometrics is the science of establishing human identity by using physical or behavioral traits such as face, fingerprints, palm prints, iris, hand geometry and voice [28]. The work focuses on face recognition as a form of biometric identification and authentication technique.

Face recognition is a technology which recognizes human by his/her face image. Face recognition has attracted much attention and is still attracting the interest of many researchers in the area of pattern recognition, machine learning, and computer vision because of its immense application potentials [17]. Generally, facial recognition involves four major stages. These stages include image acquisition, image pre-processing, feature extraction and image classification. Of these four major stages, feature extraction is the most essential. Basically, it consists of extracting the most relevant features of an image and assigning it into a label [19]. Extracting features from face images for detection and recognition purpose is a central issue for face recognition systems [5]. Although feature extraction methods provide researchers with the main features that are associated with the face image sufficient enough to make good recognition, the feature set produced by these methods have very large dimension [4]. Hence, the need for dimensionality reduction. Dimensionality reduction plays crucial role in the face recognition problem. It is generally applied for improving robustness and reducing computational complexity of the face recognition problem. Out of all approaches available at hand, those based on appearance is considered to be most favourable. Therefore, methods like Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) are used for dimensionality reduction and hence can provide efficient matching of features of faces for recognition purposes [30].

Furthermore, extracting proper features is crucial for satisfactory design of any pattern classifier, and how to develop a general procedure for effective feature extraction remains an interesting and challenging problem [14]. Traditionally, PCA has been the standard approach to reduce the high-dimensional original pattern vector space into low-dimensional feature vector space. Comparative studies between Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis (FLDA) and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on the face recognition problem were reported independently by [6] and [12], in which FLDA out performed PCA significantly. These successful applications of FLDA have drawn a lot of attention on this subject and the ensuing years have witnessed a burst of research activities on various issues relating to applying subspace methods such as PCA and FLDA to pattern recognition problems, with the latest development being an attempt to unify all these subspace methods under the same framework [18]. LDA provides fast feature extraction and classification due to its discriminative power and computational simplicity. Variants of LDA include LDA, Kernel-LDA

65 (KLDA), Incremental LDA (ILDA) and Multiclass LDA (MLDA) [34]. They have been widely
66 applied in many applications of pattern recognition, computer vision, face recognition, text-
67 image combination multimedia retrieval, speech and music classification, outliers detection,
68 generalized image and video classification and so on [9].

69
70 This paper carried out a comparative assessment of the performance of LDA, and two of its
71 variants, that is KLDA and MLDA in face recognition application. The face recognition
72 system comprises of modules which involve face image acquisition, image preprocessing,
73 feature extraction and feature classification for recognition. African face dataset from Ladoke
74 Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho (LAUTECH) was used. The LDA techniques
75 were used independently for feature extraction and the feature classification in all cases was
76 achieved using Euclidean distance. The best among the three LDA techniques in face
77 recognition was ascertained based on their performance. The rest of the paper is organized
78 into the following: Section two presents review of relevant literatures to this research;
79 Section three details the research methodologies employed in the comparative analysis;
80 Section four present the results and Sections five summarized and concludes the paper.

81

82 **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

83

84 **2.1 Face Recognition**

85 Face recognition is one of the most important applications of biometrics based authentication
86 system in the last few decades. Face recognition is a type of recognition task pattern, where
87 a face is categorized as either known or unknown after comparing it with the images of a
88 known person stored in the database. Over the years, face recognition has found
89 applications in security, criminal justice systems, image database investigation, surveillance,
90 smart card applications, video indexing, human computer interaction, multimedia
91 environment with adaptive human computer interface to mention, but a few.

92

93 Face recognition is a challenge, given the certain variability in information because of
94 random variation across different people, including systematic variations from various factors
95 such as lightening conditions, pose and so on [15]. The human face is an extremely
96 complex and dynamic structure with characteristics that can significantly and quickly change
97 in time. Face recognition involves a range of activities from various aspects of human life.
98 Humans can recognize faces, but too many faces sometimes being hard to memorized,
99 machine learning is now being improved to do this task. Researchers attempt to understand
100 the architecture of the human face when building or developing face recognition systems.
101 Atalay (1996) presented a face recognition system that heavily carries the characteristics of
102 a typical pattern recognition system. The system was summarized in modules as follows
103 [26]:

- 104 i. Acquisition module is the entry point of the face recognition process. It is the module
105 in which the face image under consideration is presented to the system. An
106 acquisition module can request a face image from several different environments
107 such as well-illuminated environment.
- 108 ii. Pre-processing module by means of early vision techniques, face images are
109 enhanced by using histogram equalization method and if desired, they are enhanced
110 to improve the recognition performance of the system.
- 111 iii. Feature extraction module takes place after performing some pre-processing (if
112 necessary), the normalized face image is presented to the feature extraction module
113 in order to find the key features that are going to be used for classification.
- 114 iv. Classification module are used, with the help of a pattern classifier, extracted
115 features of the face image is compared with the ones stored in a face library (or face
116 database). After doing this comparison, face image is classified as either known or
117 unknown. Training sets are used during the "learning phase" of the face recognition

118 process. The feature extractions and the classification modules adjust their
119 parameters in order to achieve optimum recognition performance by making use of
120 training sets. Face library or face database is a repository of face images which after
121 some face images are being classified as "unknown", face images can be added to
122 a library (or to a database) with their feature vectors for later comparisons. The
123 classification module makes direct use of the face library [26].
124

125 2.2 Feature Extraction Techniques

126 Feature extraction is a very important field of image processing and face recognition.
127 Fundamental component of characters is called features. The basic task of feature extraction
128 and selection is to find out a group of the most effective features for classification; that is,
129 compressing from high-dimensional feature space to low-dimensional feature space, so as
130 to design classifier effectively [10]. Feature extraction process can be defined as the
131 procedure of extracting relevant information from a face image. This information must be
132 valuable to the later step of identifying the subject with an acceptable error rate. The feature
133 extraction process must be efficient in terms of computing time and memory usage. The
134 output should also be optimized for the classification step. Feature extraction involves
135 several steps - dimensionality reduction, feature extraction and feature selection. These
136 steps may overlap, and dimensionality reduction could be seen as a consequence of the
137 feature extraction and selection algorithms. Both algorithms could also be defined as cases
138 of dimensionality reduction [13].
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140 Dimensionality reduction is an essential task in any pattern recognition system. The
141 performance of a classifier depends on the amount of sample images, number of features
142 and classifier complexity. One could think that the false positive ratio of a classifier does not
143 increase as the number of features increases. However, added features may degrade the
144 performance of a classification algorithm. This may happen when the number of training
145 samples is small relatively to the number of features. This problem is called "curse of
146 dimensionality" or "peaking phenomenon".
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148 A generally accepted method of avoiding this phenomenon is to use at least ten times as
149 many training samples per class as the number of features. This requirement should be
150 satisfied when building a classifier. The more complex the classifier, the larger should be the
151 mentioned ratio [14]. This "curse" is one of the reasons why it's important to keep the
152 number of features as small as possible. The other main reason is the speed. The classifier
153 will be faster and will use less memory. Moreover, a large set of features can result in a false
154 positive when these features are redundant. Ultimately, the number of features must be
155 carefully chosen. Too less or redundant features can lead to a loss of accuracy of the
156 recognition system. There are two predominant approaches to the face recognition problem:
157 geometric (feature based) and photometric (view based). As researcher interest in face
158 recognition continued, many different algorithms were developed, such as Discrete Cosine
159 Transform (DCT), Principal Components Analysis (PCA), Fisher Linear Discriminant
160 Analysis (FLDA), and Elastic Bunch Graph Matching (EBGM).
161

162 2.3 Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

163 Originally developed in 1936 by R.A. Fisher, discriminant analysis is a classic method of
164 classification that has stood the test of time. Discriminant analysis often produces models
165 whose accuracy approaches (and occasionally exceeds) more complex modern methods.
166 Discriminant analysis can be used only for classification (that is with a categorical target
167 variable), not for regression. The target variable may have two or more categories. It is also
168 known as Fisher Discriminant Analysis (FDA) [21]. Dimensionality reduction is fundamentally
169 important for analyzing high-dimensional data, and has received sufficient attention in the
170 field of artificial intelligence [23]. The goal of dimensionality reduction is to embed the data

171 into a low-dimensional subspace, while retaining the desired discriminant information. The
172 pseudo code for LDA is depicted below:

173 The description of Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis procedure is given below:

174 Given the data matrix $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$, $x_j \in R^{d+1}$ with C classes, the purpose of LDA is to
175 learn a linear transformation matrix $W \in R^{d+m}$ ($m \ll d$) to map the d -dimensional data x_j to
176 a m -dimensional vector:

$$177 \quad y_j = W^T x_j \quad (2.1)$$

178 FLDA supposes that an optimal transformation should push the data points from different
179 classes far away from each other while pulling those within the same class close to each
180 other. So the objective of FLDA can be written as

$$181 \quad \max_W \sum_{i=1}^C n_i \quad (2.2)$$

182 where n_i is the number of samples in class i , μ^i is the mean of the samples in class i , μ is the
183 mean of all the samples, and x_j^i is the j -th sample in class i . Denote the between-class
184 scatter matrix S_b and the within-class scatter matrix S_w as in equation (2.3) and (2.4)

$$185 \quad S_b = \sum_{i=1}^C n_i (\mu^i - \mu)(\mu^i - \mu)^T \quad (2.3)$$

$$186 \quad S_w = \sum_{i=1}^C \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_j^i - \mu^i)(x_j^i - \mu^i)^T \quad (2.4)$$

187 then the problem can be rewritten into a concise form:

$$188 \quad \max_W \frac{\text{tr}(W^T S_b W)}{\text{tr}(W^T S_w W)} \quad (2.5)$$

189 Where $\text{tr}()$ indicates the trace operator. Due to the complexity to solve the above trace ratio
190 problem, many researchers transform it into a ratio trace form,

$$191 \quad \max_W \text{tr} \left(\frac{W^T S_b W}{W^T S_w W} \right) \quad (2.6)$$

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194 **2.4 Kernel Linear Discriminant Analysis (KLDA)**

195 KLDA is a generalization of Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis (FLDA), a statistical method
196 to find linear combinations of features (that is variables in a data set, or points in a trace) that
197 characterize class separations. In particular, it outputs projection directions that maximize
198 the ratio of between-group to within group scatter, so that 'interesting' variation may be
199 concentrated into a reduced dimension space for further analysis. KLDA has been promoted
200 as one of a number of methods to extract sensitive data dependent features from side-
201 channel traces for some years [31]. However, because it only finds linear combinations, it is
202 unable to locate the types of joint data dependencies exhibited by traces which have been
203 protected by software masking. By contrast, the 'kernel trick' employed by KLDA allows to
204 implicitly map the data into a higher dimensional feature space within which to perform the
205 discriminant analysis, thereby extracting non-linear combinations of the sort that do yield
206 sensitive information on further analysis [31]

207

208 Discriminant Analysis with Kernels LDA can be used to find optimal linear mappings of high
209 dimensional data but is not applicable when the relevant information is known to be

210 contained in non-linear combinations of points, as is the case for side-channel leakages of
 211 masked implementations. To extend FLDA to the non-linear case, we consider the problem
 212 in a feature space F induced by some mapping function (this mapping process is implicit as
 213 will be seen in the following subsection), $\Phi: R^n \rightarrow F$. KLDA is used to find nonlinear
 214 directions by first mapping the data non-linearly by Φ into some feature space F within which
 215 to compute linear discriminants, thus implicitly yielding a non-linear discriminant in the input
 216 space [20]. To find such a discriminant, equation 2.7 is used:
 217

$$218 \quad J(\omega') = \frac{W'^T S_B^\Phi \omega'}{W'^T S_W^\Phi \omega'}$$

219 (2.7)

220 Where $\omega' \in F$ and S_B^Φ and S_W^Φ are the corresponding matrices in F .

$$221 \quad S_B^\Phi = \sum_{m \in M} n_m \quad (2.8)$$

$$222 \quad S_W^\Phi = \sum_{m \in M} \sum_{m_i=m} \quad (2.9)$$

223 where P_i^Φ is $\Phi(P_i)$ projection of P_i on F by Φ . For a properly chosen Φ an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ can
 224 be defined on F , which makes for a so-called 'reproducing kernel Hilbert space',
 225
 226

$$227 \quad K(x, y) = \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(y) \rangle \quad (2.10)$$

228 where K is known as the kernel function. Widely-used kernel functions include the Gaussian
 229 kernel $K(x, y) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - y\|_c^2}{c}\right)$ (the 2-norm), and the polynomial kernel $K(x, y) =$
 230 $(x \cdot y)^{d'}$, for positive constants c and d' satisfying Mercer's condition [25], as defined in [29].
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233 2.5 Multiclass Linear Discriminant Analysis (MLDA)

234 If the number of classes is more than two, then a natural extension of Fisher Linear
 235 discriminant exists using multiple discriminant analysis [16]. As in two-class case, the
 236 projection is from high dimensional space to a low dimensional space and the transformation
 237 suggested still maximizes the ratio of intra-class scatter to the inter-class scatter. But unlike
 238 the two-class case, the maximization should be done among several competing classes.
 239 Suppose that now there are n classes. The intra-class matrix is calculated as:

$$240 \quad \sum_w S_1 + \dots + S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{x \in c_i} (x - \hat{x}_i) \quad (2.11)$$

241

242 The inter-class scatter matrix slightly differs in computation and is given by $\sum_b \sum_{i=1}^n m_i (\hat{x}_i -$
 243 $\hat{x})$
 244 (2.12)

245 Where m_i is the number of training samples for each class, \hat{x}_i is the mean for each class
 246 and \hat{x} is total mean vector given by $\hat{x} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \hat{x}_i$. After obtaining \sum_b and \sum_w , the linear
 247 transformation Φ . It can be shown that the transformation Φ can be obtained by solving the
 248 generalized eigenvalue problem:

$$249 \quad \sum_b \Phi = \lambda \sum_w \Phi \quad (2.13)$$

250

251 It is easy to prove that the upper bounds of the rank of \sum_b and \sum_w are respectively $m-n$ and
 252 $n-1$. Multiple discriminant analysis provides an elegant way for classification using
 253 discriminant features. If classification is required, instead of dimension reduction, there are a
 254 number of alternative techniques available. For instance, the classes may be partitioned,
 255 and a standard Fisher discriminant or LDA used to classify each partition. A common
 256 example of this is "one against the rest" where the points from one class are put in one
 257 group, and everything else in the other, and then LDA applied. This will result in C
 258 classifiers, whose results are combined. Another common method is pair-wise classification,

259 where a new classifier is created for each pair of classes (giving $C(C - 1)/2$ classifiers in
260 total), with the individual classifiers combined to produce a final classification.

261

262 **2.6 Related Works**

263

264 [8] proposed a technique that involved using FLDA for classification. The approach was
265 termed Clustering based Discriminate Analysis (CDA) and achieved a recognition accuracy
266 of 93% for three classes of expression. The conventional linear approach like LDA and PCA
267 are straightforward and proficient on the grounds that they are linear. Notwithstanding, these
268 are not appropriate for representing powerfully changing facial expressions in light of the fact
269 that the changing expressions are characteristically non-linear.

270

271 [11] present a novel face recognition system that uses two-class linear discriminant analysis
272 for classification. In this approach a single M-class linear discriminant classifier was divided
273 into M two-class linear discriminant classifiers. This formulation provides many advantages
274 like more discrimination between classes, simpler calculation of projection vectors and
275 easier update of the database with new individuals. The proposed algorithm was tested on
276 the CMU PIE and Yale face databases. Two-class LDA performs slightly better than the
277 multi-class LDA, where there is only 2.22%, 10.29%, performance difference between the
278 best classification scores of these two algorithms for Yale and CMU respectively. Significant
279 performance improvements were observed, especially when the number of individuals to be
280 classified increases.

281

282 [22] proposed an optimised fisher discriminant analysis for recognition of faces having black
283 features. About 460 faces samples from 46 black African individuals (with and without tribal
284 marks) were acquired. In the experiment, different sizes of gray scale images were used for
285 recognition and performance accuracy of between 88 and 99% were obtained. Also, taken
286 into consideration was the rate of identifying an image using the same number of images to
287 test the face recognition system. The optimized fisher discriminant analysis was found to be
288 efficient.

289

290 [7] proposed a face recognition system by Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA). ORL face
291 database consisting of ten different images each for 40 distinct subject is used for both
292 training and testing. Three hundred and sixty images were used for training while forty
293 images were used for testing. 37 of the images were correctly recognised while 3 were
294 wrongly recognised to achieve an accuracy of 92.5%.

295

296 [2] investigated three PCA based face recognition system which involves PCA, PCA-ANN
297 and BPCA (Binary PCA). They utilized 400 face images which is made up of four (4) facial
298 expression images for 100 individuals. The experimental results revealed that PCA-ANN
299 method achieved the best recognition accuracy of 94%.

300

301 [1] analysed the Performance of different Support Vector Machine kernels (Radial Basis
302 Function, Linear Function, Quadratic Function and Polynomial Function) for face emotion
303 recognition. A local African database of 714 face emotion images consisting of seven facial
304 expression taken twice from 51 persons was used. The results obtained using the SVM
305 multi-class classification scheme reveals that the Quadratic Function SVM kernel performs
306 best for face emotion recognition with an average accuracy of 99.33%. However, despite the
307 good performance achieved with higher dimensions the computation time is high.

308

309 [33] proposed a method which involved Distance Transform on a Kernel Discriminant
310 Analysis DT_KDA to extraction, and the recognition using Kohonen SOM. The work
311 involved two approaches. The first approach is a combination of KDA-DT-Kohonen, the

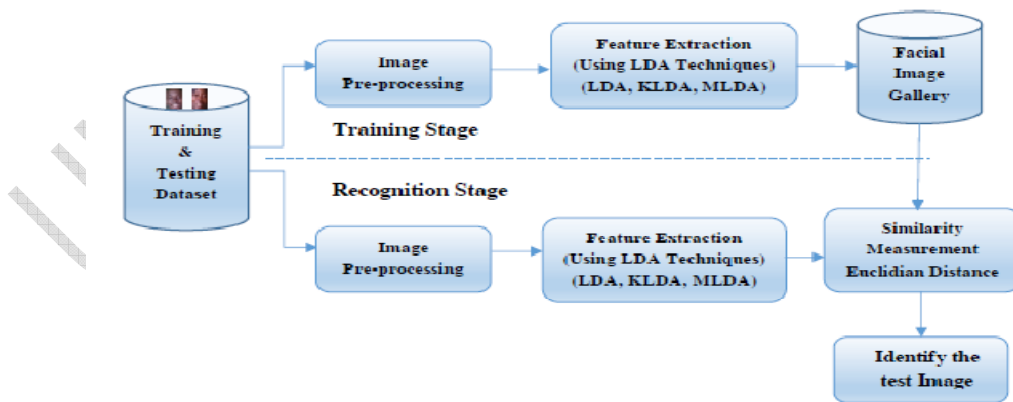
312 second is KDA-Kohonen and tested on two datasets: CALTECH and Computer Vision
 313 (CE1). The second dataset is used to describe the effect of rotation of the face and
 314 background. Extraction of facial features using KDA without DT was found to be more
 315 accurate as the Kohonen SOM network parameters for recognizing the face at CALTECH
 316 and CE1 dataset. The KDA-Kohonen techniques achieved 98.79% and 79.65 % using CE1
 317 and CALTECH dataset respectively, while KDA-DT-Kohonen techniques achieved 92.78%
 318 and 76.09 % using CE1 and CALTECH dataset respectively.

319
 320 In the above review LDA techniques had good performance in terms of the performance
 321 metrics used. Most of the work uses few parameters without requiring additional training or
 322 any parameter optimization. However, most of the existing techniques have issues within
 323 representing powerfully changing facial feature due to the fact that changing expressions of
 324 the face are characteristically non-linear. Also, there are issues with the computational
 325 efficiency with respect to training and testing times. Therefore, this research carried out a
 326 comparative analysis of some selected LDA techniques. The best among these techniques
 327 was determined based on the aforementioned performance metrics.

328 3. METHODOLOGY

330 3.1 Overview of the Methodology

331 In this paper work, three hundred and forty (340) static facial images were obtained using a
 332 digital camera. The acquired images were divided into training dataset and testing dataset.
 333 The acquired images were pre-processed after cropping and resizing them. Noise and other
 334 unwanted elements were removed from the images. The coloured images were converted
 335 into gray scales for time and memory management using function rgb2gray (RGB) in
 336 MATLAB Computing Toolbox. Normalization of the images was achieved through the
 337 application of histogram equalization techniques. The feature dimensionality reduction,
 338 separation and extraction of the pre-processed image was achieved by the application LDA
 339 techniques (LDA, KLDA and MLDA). Euclidian distance was used for similarity measurement
 340 between the tested images and the trained images. The results obtained was evaluated
 341 using recognition accuracy, precision, sensitivity, false positive rate and computation time to
 342 determine the performance of the techniques. Figure 1 depicts the scheme for evaluating the
 343 LDA techniques while Figure 2 depicts the flowchart of the procedure for training and testing
 344 face with LDA techniques.



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Figure 1: The Scheme for Evaluating the LDA Techniques

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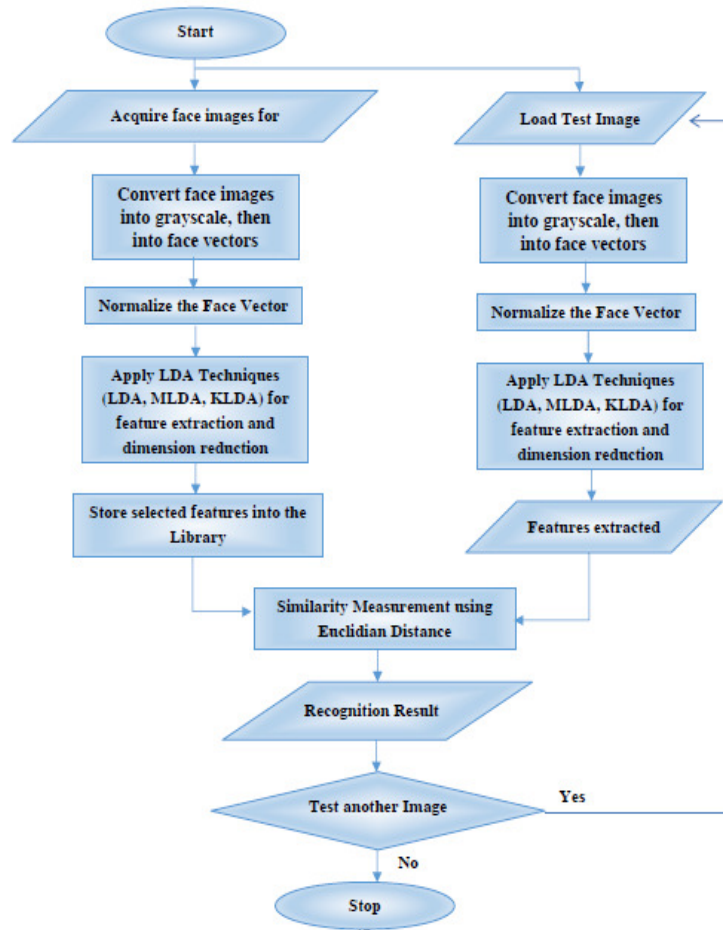


Figure 2: Flowchart for the Procedure of Training and Testing Face with LDA Techniques

3.2 Stages of the Face Recognition Scheme

- a) **Acquisition of Face Images:** Three hundred and forty (340) images were taken with a digital camera at 1200 x 1200 pixel resolution. The original face images were downsized into a suitable pixel. Two hundred and forty (240) of the images were used for training while the remaining One Hundred (100) were used for testing.
- b) **Image Pre-processing:** Image pre-processing has to do with actions such as image brightness, contrast alteration, image scaling, filtering, cropping and other operations that helps in the enhancement of images. In this phase, pre-processing was carried out by converting the coloured image into grayscale and normalizing of face vectors by computing the average face vector and deducting average face from each face vector. This was done to remove noise and other unwanted element from the face images. This stage helps to get rid of unwanted information that would have been extracted as features and reduces the work to be done during dimensionality reduction (feature extraction). Grayscale conversion is necessary to reduce the number of pixels.

412 c) **Conversion of Face Images into Grayscale and Face Vector:** The image
413 acquired from the digital camera was coloured images in three-dimensional form (3-
414 D). The coloured images were converted into grayscale using the MATLAB function
415 `rgb2gray` so as to reduce processing time being a two-dimensional matrix. Each of
416 the grayscale images were expressed and stored in form of matrix in MATLAB which
417 was converted to vector image for further processes. The conversion to face vector
418 was made to aid the normalization process.

419 d) **Normalization of Face Image:** The normalization of the images was carried out by
420 applying histogram equalization technique to the converted grayscale images to
421 improve the contrast in the images by stretching out the intensity range. This
422 enhances the brightness in the grayscale images for clearer view of the face of each
423 subject. Normalization phase removes any common features that all the face images
424 shared together, so that each face images is left with unique features. The common
425 features were discovered by finding the average face vector of the whole training set
426 (face images). Then, the average face vector was subtracted from each of the face
427 vectors which results into a normalized face vector.

428
429 e) **Feature Extraction:** Significant collection of basic parameters (face features) that
430 best illustrate the specific array of face images was extracted from the pre-
431 processed image of each subset and was used to discriminate between them. The
432 extracted face features was encoded and stored as weight vectors for each face
433 images in order to compare it to other images in the training dataset. Three variants
434 of Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis techniques (i.e. LDA, KLDA and MLDA) were
435 employed independently in this study to extract features and reduce the dimension
436 sizes of images. The resultant feature representation extracted by these techniques
437 presented a suitable platform to identify a test image. LDA produces an optimal
438 linear discriminant function which maps the input into the classification space in
439 which the class identification of this sample is decided based on some metric such
440 as Euclidean distance. Thus the objective of LDA is to find the optimal projection, so
441 that the ratio of determinants of between-class and the within class scatter matrices
442 of the projected samples reaches its maximum. Linear Discriminant Analysis
443 projects into a subspace that maximizes the between class scatter while minimizing
444 within class scatter of the projected data. LDA improves the generalization capability
445 by decomposing into a simultaneous diagonalization of the two within- class
446 covariance matrices. The robustness of the LDA procedure depends on whether the
447 within-class scatter captures reliable variations for a specific class or not.

448 449 3.3 Euclidean Distance

450 The extracted features by the LDA techniques i.e. LDA, KLDA and MLDA were classified
451 using Euclidean Distance. It was employed to measure the similarity between the test vector
452 and the reference vectors in the gallery. Euclidean distance is defined as the straight-line
453 distance between two points. For N -dimensional space, the Euclidean distance between two
454 any points' p_i and q_i is given by equation (3.1):

$$455 D(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2 + y_i^2} \text{ Where } x_i \text{ and } y_i \text{ is the coordinate of } x \text{ and } y \text{ in dimension } i.$$

456 457 3.4 Evaluation Measures

458 The performance of the variants of LDA techniques on both trained and recognized faces
459 was evaluated based on recognition accuracy, false positive rate, sensitivity, specificity and
460 average recognition time. Confusion matrix was used to determine the value of the
461 performance metrics. It contains "True Positive (TP), False Positive (FP), False Negative
462 (FN) and True Negative (TN)." TP contains amount of entries for the tuple that correctly
463 identified as positive. FP contains the amount entries for the tuples which are negative but

464 predicted as positive. TN is the number of tuples that are negative and predicted as
 465 negative. FN is the number of tuples that are positive but predicted as negative. Sensitivity,
 466 specificity and accuracy will be calculated using these terms.

$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (3.2) \quad \text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} \quad (3.3) \quad \text{FalsePositiveRate} = \frac{FP}{TN + FP}$$

$$= 1 - \text{Specificity} \quad (3.4)$$

$$\text{OverallAccuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \quad (3.5)$$

$$\text{Averagerecognitiontime} = \frac{\text{TotalRecognitionTime}}{\text{Numberofrecognizedfaces}} \quad (3.6)$$

467 The graphical representation of the relationship between the dimension size and the average
 468 training time as well as that of threshold values and the recognition time was plotted by MS-
 469 excel (2016). The regression analysis base on the computation time against the dimension
 470 size and the threshold values was also conducted using MS-excel (2016). Furthermore, the
 471 IBM SPSS Statistic version 21 was used to conduct the statistical analysis.
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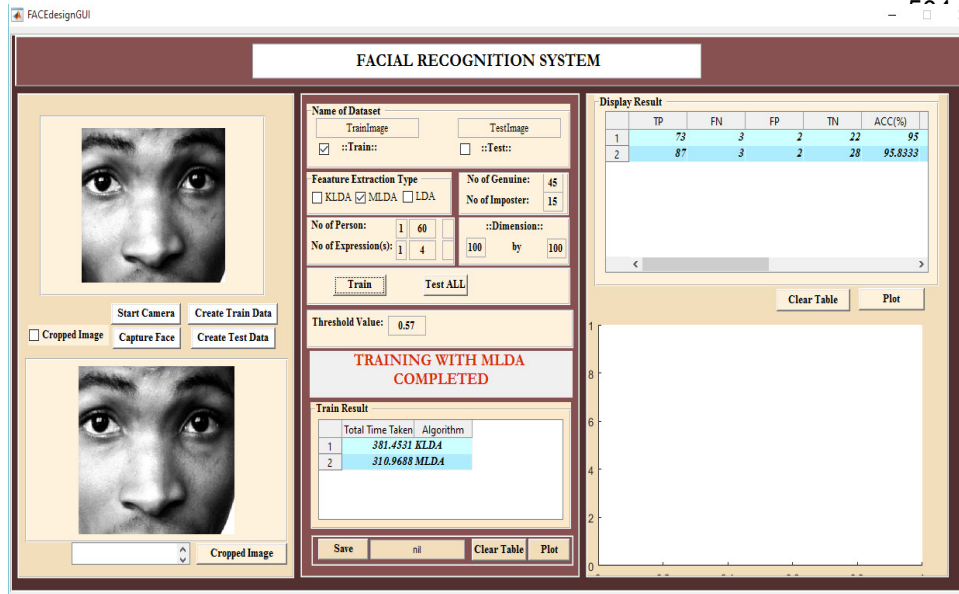
473 **3.4 Implementation in MATLAB**

474 The applied techniques were implemented using MATLAB R2015a version on Windows 10
 475 Enterprise 64-bit operating system, Intel®Pentium® CPU T4500@2.30GHZ Central
 476 Processing Unit, 4GB RAM and 500 Gigabytes hard disk drive. An interactive Graphic User
 477 Interface (GUI) was developed with a real time database consisting of 340 face images. The
 478 techniques will be evaluated based on the aforementioned performance metrics. The model
 479 was experimented by taken into consideration the face recognition in 50 by 50, 100 by 100,
 480 150 by 150 and 200 by 200-pixel resolution.
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482 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

483 **4.1 Summary of results**

484 A couple of screenshots of the GUI of the implementation environment (MATLAB) is
 485 depicted Figures 3 and 4. The time spent by each LDA technique for training the dataset is
 486 shown in Table 1(a), Table 1(b) and Table 1(c). The time spent increases as the dimension
 487 size of the images increases, which implies that the time consumed depends on the features
 488 in the training set for LDA, KLDA and MLDA. The average training time generated by
 489 application of LDA after two trial for images at 50 by 50 pixel resolution is 469.16 s, 100 by
 490 100 pixel resolution is 591.42 s, 150 by 150 pixel resolution is 908.92 s, 200 by 200 pixel
 491 resolution is 1311.76 s as presented in Table 1(a). Similarly, the average training time
 492 generated by application of KLDA for image of at at 50 by 50 pixel resolution is 488.46 s,
 493 100 by 100 pixel resolution is 618.05 s, 150 by 150 pixel resolution is 977.15 s, 200 by 200
 494 pixel resolution is 1393.24 s as presented in Table 1(b). Also, the average training time
 495 generated by application of MLDA for image of at at 50 by 50 pixel resolution is 431.47 s,
 496 100 by 100 pixel resolution is 550.97 s, 150 by 150 pixel resolution is 855.12 s, 200 by 200
 497 pixel resolution is 1191.55 s as presented in Table 1(c). The result shows that the MLDA
 498 among other is less computationally expensive in terms of training time compared to the
 499 LDA and KLDA model.
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519 **Figure 3: MATLAB GUI Showing Results of the Training Stage of Face Recognition**

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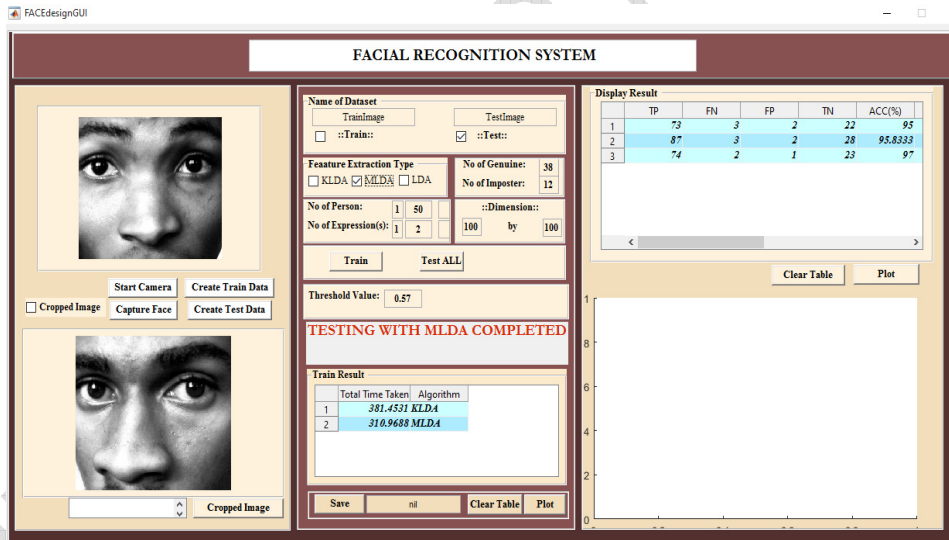


Figure 4: MATLAB GUI Showing Results of Testing Stage of Face Recognition

4.2 Experimental results

The LDA, KLDA and MLDA model were experimented by implementing the facial expression recognition using 200 x 200-pixel resolution. The system was tested and evaluated using the following performance metric: sensitivity, specificity, false positive rate, recognition accuracy and computation time. All performance metrics were analysed using by using a square dimension pixel resolution stated above at different threshold values.

Table 1: Average Training Time at Different Resolutions for LDA, KLDA and MLDA

(a) With LDA

Dimension Size	Time1(s)	Time2(s)	Average Time (seconds)
50 by 50	462.67	475.64	469.16
100 by 100	587.56	595.27	591.42
150 by 150	902.89	914.94	908.92
200 by 200	1318.22	1305.29	1311.76

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(b) With KLDA

Dimension Size	Time1(s)	Time2(s)	Average Time (seconds)
50 by 50	496.26	480.65	488.46
100 by 100	625.41	610.69	618.05
150 by 150	970.95	983.34	977.15
200 by 200	1390.49	1395.99	1393.24

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(c) With MLDA

Dimension Size	Time1(s)	Time2(s)	Average Time (seconds)
50 by 50	427.39	435.54	431.47
100 by 100	558.14	543.79	550.97
150 by 150	860.67	849.57	855.12
200 by 200	1193.28	1189.81	1191.55

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Table 2: Experimental Results for MLDA, KLDA and LDA

(a) MLDA at 200 x 200-pixel resolution

Threshold	FPR (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	Accuracy (%)	Recognition Time (sec)
0.25	20.00	98.57	80.00	93.00	57.56
0.35	13.33	98.57	86.67	95.00	58.89
0.46	6.67	97.14	93.33	96.00	59.01
0.57	3.33	97.14	96.67	97.00	58.65

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(b) KLDA at 200 x 200-pixel resolution

Threshold	FPR (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	Accuracy (%)	Recognition Time (sec)
0.25	20.00	97.14	80.00	92.00	64.23
0.35	13.33	97.14	86.67	94.00	64.89
0.46	10.00	95.71	90.00	94.00	63.89
0.57	6.67	95.71	93.33	95.00	63.67

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(c) LDA at 200 x 200-pixel resolution

Threshold	FPR (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	Accuracy (%)	Recognition Time (sec)
0.25	26.67	95.71	73.33	89.00	67.89
0.35	16.67	94.29	83.33	91.00	68.45
0.46	10.00	92.86	90.00	92.00	68.02
0.57	6.67	92.86	93.33	93.00	67.98

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4.2.1 Experimental Results for MLDA

567 Table 2(a) presented the result obtained by the MLDA at 200 x 200-pixel resolution at
568 threshold value of 0.25, 0.35, 0.46 and 0.57 with respect to the performance metrics. The
569 table reveals that the performance of MLDA varies with change in the threshold value. Also,
570 it was discovered that accuracy, specificity increases with increase in threshold value while
571 the false positive rate and sensitivity decreases with increase in the threshold value.
572 However, the optimum performance was achieved at threshold value of 0.57. The MLDA
573 achieved a false positive rate of 3.33%, sensitivity of 97.14%, specificity of 96.67% and
574 accuracy of 97.0% at 58.65 seconds. The table also shows that the computation time is
575 within the range of 57.56 to 59.65 seconds with increase in the threshold values.

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4.2.2 Experimental results for KLDA

578 Table 2(b) presented the result obtained by the KLDA at 200 x 200-pixel resolution at
579 threshold value of 0.25, 0.35, 0.46 and 0.57 with respect to the performance metrics. The
580 table reveals that the performance of KLDA varies with change in the threshold value. Also,
581 it was discovered that accuracy, specificity increases with increase in threshold value while
582 the false positive rate and sensitivity decreases with increase in the threshold value.
583 However, the optimum performance was achieved at threshold value of 0.57. The KLDA
584 achieved a false positive rate of 6.67%, sensitivity of 95.71%, specificity of 93.33% and
585 accuracy of 95.0% at 63.67 seconds. The table also shows that the computation time is
586 within the range of 63.63 to 64.89 seconds with increase in the threshold values.

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4.2.3 Experimental results for LDA

589 Table 2(c) presented the result obtained by the LDA at 200 x 200-pixel resolution at
590 threshold value of 0.25, 0.35, 0.46 and 0.57 with respect to the performance metrics. The
591 table reveals that the performance of LDA varies with change in the threshold value. Also,
592 it was discovered that accuracy, specificity increases with increase in threshold value while the
593 false positive rate and sensitivity decreases with increase in the threshold value. However,
594 the optimum performance was achieved at threshold value of 0.57. The LDA achieved a
595 false positive rate of 6.67%, sensitivity of 92.86%, specificity of 93.33% and accuracy of

596 93.0% at 67.98 seconds. The table also shows that the computation time is within the range
 597 of 67.89 to 68.45 seconds with increase in the threshold values.

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599 **4.2.4 Comparison Results between MLDA, KLDA and LDA**

600 Table 3 shows a combined result of MLDA, KLDA and LDA at the threshold value of 0.57
 601 with respect to all metrics at 200 by 200-pixel resolution. All result obtained in Table 3
 602 presume that MLDA model has a lower recognition time compared with the corresponding
 603 KLDA and LDA model irrespective of threshold value.

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605 Similarly, Recognition accuracy, sensitivity, false positive rate and specificity of MLDA, KLDA
 606 and LDA model are compared at 200 by 200-dimensional size; the study discovered that
 607 MLDA model has better performance in accuracy, specificity and false positive rate than
 608 KLDA and LDA model as enumerated in Table 3. The recognition accuracy of 97.0% with
 609 MLDA, 95.0% with KLDA and 93.0 % with LDA model. The MLDA model have a specificity
 610 of 96.67%, false positive rate of 3.33% and sensitivity of 97.14% at 58.65; the KLDA model
 611 have a specificity of 93.33%, false positive rate of 6.67% and sensitivity of 95.71% at 63.67
 612 while the LDA model have a specificity of 93.33%, false positive rate of 6.67% and sensitivity
 613 of 92.86% at 67.98. Hence, MLDA outperformed KLDA and LDA.

614

615 **Table 3: MLDA, KLDA and LDA at 200 x 200-pixel Resolution and 0.57 Threshold**

616

Algorithm	FPR (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	Accuracy (%)	Recognition Time (sec)
MLDA	3.33	97.14	96.67	97.00	58.65
KLDA	6.67	95.71	93.33	95.00	63.67
LDA	6.67	92.86	93.33	93.00	67.98

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619 **4.3 Discussion of Results**

620

621 The experimental results discussion in terms of training and recognition computation time
 622 analysis, evaluation of other performance metrics and statistical analysis is presented in this
 623 section.

624

625 **4.3.1 Computation Time Analysis**

626 The results shown in Table 1 shows that the MLDA model trains the dataset much faster
 627 than the KLDA and LDA model. Therefore, the MLDA is less computationally expensive
 628 compared to both KLDA and the LDA model. The training time increases with increase in the
 629 features of the training set. Figure 5 shows the graph of average training time against the
 630 dimension size. The relationship between the average training time (T_t) and the dimension
 631 size (dm) is found to be linear with a high correlation coefficient for MLDA, KLDA and LDA
 632 model as shown in equations 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 respectively.

$$T_t = 0.0207dm + 369.02R^2 = 0.9967(4.1)$$

$$T_t = 0.0247dm + 405.84R^2 = 0.9962(4.2)$$

$$T_t = 0.0229dm + 390.44R^2 = 0.997(4.3)$$

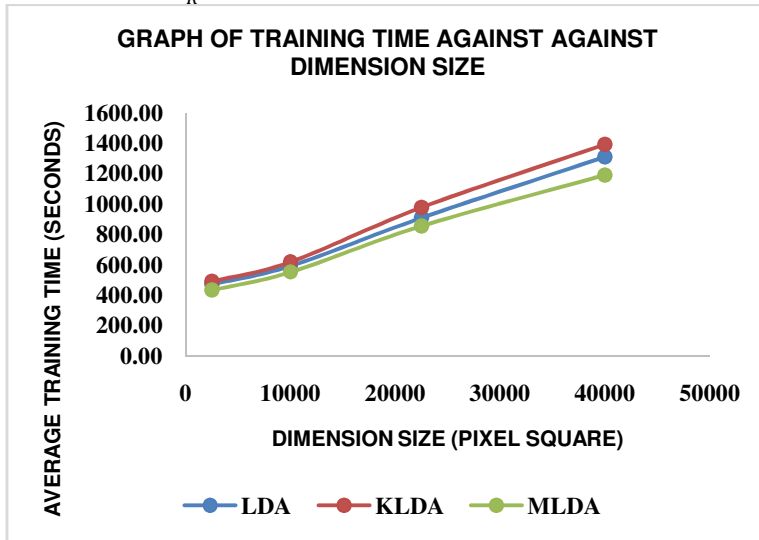
633 Similarly, Figure 6 shows the graphs which depict the relationship between the average
 634 recognition time and the threshold values for MLDA, KLDA and LDA model respectively.
 635 From the graph; the relationship between the recognition time (T_R) and the threshold values
 636 (th) is found to be quadratic with a high correlation coefficient for MLDA and polynomial of
 637

638 the third order with a high correlation coefficient for both KLDA and LDA model as shown in
 639 equation 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 respectively.

$$T_R = -29.849th^2 + 64.566th + 53.18R^2 = 0.9915(4.4)$$

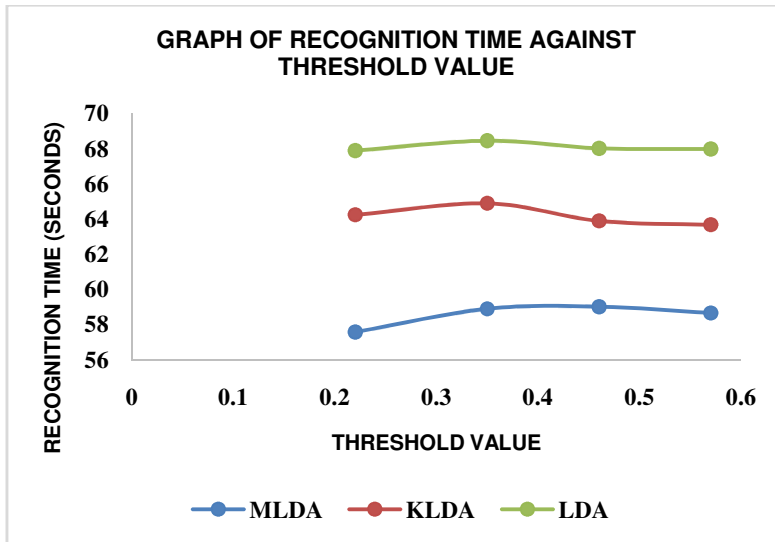
$$T_R = 260.75th^3 - 327.61th^2 + 127.17th + 49.332R^2 = 0.9999(4.5)$$

$$T_R = 143.86th^3 - 182.42th^2 + 72.621th + 59.21R^2 = 0.9999(4.6)$$



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Figure 5: Relationship between Average Training Time (seconds) and Dimension size (Pixel Square)



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Figure 6: Relationship between Recognition Time and Threshold Values

With the computation time analysis, it was discovered that MLDA is less computationally expensive in terms of training and time recognition time compared to KLDA and LDA. The KLDA used more time to train the dataset.

4.6.2 Discussion Based on Performance Metrics

The results obtainable in Table 2 show the performance of MLDA, KLDA and LDA model. The results show that there is significant variation in the performance metrics with increase in threshold value and the best result is obtained at the threshold value of 0.57 across all metrics (false positive rate, specificity, sensitivity and accuracy) for MLDA, KLDA and LDA. Therefore, the performance of these techniques is dependent on the threshold value. It can be inferred from the results based on the performance metrics that the MLDA model gave an increased 2.0% recognition accuracy, 3.34% specificity, 1.43% sensitivity and a decreased FPR of 3.34% over the KLDA model at 0.57 threshold value. Similarly, MLDA model gave an increased 4.0% recognition accuracy, 3.34% specificity, 4.28% sensitivity and a decreased FPR of 3.34% over the LDA model at 0.57 threshold value. Hence, MLDA outperformed KLDA and LDA in terms of FPR, recognition accuracy, specificity and sensitivity.

700

701 The result achieved in this study is in line with the work of [24] which states that the variation
702 in each of the variant of linear discriminant-based algorithms will have a varying performance
703 in face recognition application due to improvement on the basic LDA. The results reveal that
704 both KLDA and MLDA outperformed the basic LDA with MLDA having the optimum
705 performance. Hence, the improvement on basic LDA improves the performance in facial
706 recognition system. Nevertheless, the work of [11] proved otherwise. They reported that
707 other two classes of LDA outperformed the multi-class LDA.

708

709 In view of the results, the MLDA is more accurate, specific and sensitive with minimal false
710 positive than KLDA and LDA. Therefore, MLDA gave an improved accuracy, Sensitivity,
711 specificity and false positive rate than KLDA and LDA.

712

713 **4.6.3 Statistical Analysis of Facial Recognition Rates**

714 Statistical analysis was conducted on the result obtained in this study. Accuracy and
715 sensitivity were considered for analysis. The result in Table 2 shows that the MLDA has a
716 higher recognition rate than the corresponding KDLA and LDA. A t-test values was
717 measured between the accuracy of MLDA and KLDA as well as MLDA and LDA. The paired
718 t-test analysis conducted between accuracy of MLDA and KLDA reveals a small mean
719 difference ($\mu = 1.50$). Nevertheless, the result confirmed that the MLDA is statistically
720 significant at 0.05; $P = 0.014$ $tvalue = 5.196$. Also, a t-test values was measured between
721 the accuracy of MLDA and LDA. The paired t-test analysis conducted between MLDA and
722 LDA reveals a small mean difference ($\mu = 3.75$). Nevertheless, the result confirmed that the
723 MLDA is statistically significant at 0.01; $P = 0.001$ $tvalue = 15.0$. The t-test result further
724 validates the fact the MLDA outperformed both KLDA and LDA in terms of recognition
725 accuracy. Furthermore, a t-test values was measured between the sensitivity of MLDA and
726 KLDA as well as MLDA and LDA. The paired t-test analysis conducted between MLDA and
727 KLDA reveals a small mean difference ($\mu = 1.93$). Nevertheless, the result confirmed that the
728 MLDA is statistically significant at 0.01; $P = 0.007$ $tvalue = 6.686$. Also, a t-test values was
729 measured between the sensitivity of MLDA and LDA. The paired t-test analysis conducted
730 between MLDA and LDA reveals a small mean difference ($\mu = 3.925$). Nevertheless, the
731 result confirmed that the MLDA is statistically significant at 0.01; $P = 0.002$ $tvalue = 11.056$.
732 The t-test result further validates the fact the MLDA outperformed both KLDA and LDA in
733 terms of sensitivity.

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736 **5. CONCLUSION**

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738 This paper evaluated the essential features of variant of LDA face recognition system. Two
739 hundred and forty (240) facial images were trained and One Hundred (100) images were
740 used to test each of the LDA techniques model at different threshold value. The
741 experimental results obtained revealed that MLDA outperformed the KLDA and LDA in terms
742 of recognition accuracies, specificity, FPR, training and recognition computation time. In view
743 of this, a face recognition system based on MLDA would produce a more reliable security
744 surveillance system than KLDA and LDA. It should be considered in building a truly robust
745 face recognition system where high recognition accuracy and computational efficiency must
746 not be compromised. Future work can be carried out by investigating the performance of
747 each of variant of LDA on a classifier such as Support Vector Machine (SVM), Artificial
748 Neural network (ANN), Hidden Markov Model (HMM) and others. Furthermore, the
749 performance of Hybrid of MLDA and a suitable evolutionary search algorithm like Ant Colony
750 Optimization (ACO), Evolutionary Programming (EP), Genetic Programming (GP),
751 Differential Evolution (DE) and Artificial Immune Systems (AIS) can be considered as subject
752 for future research.

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