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UNCONSTRAINED FACE IDENTIFICATION WITH MULTI-SCALE BLOCK-BASED CORRELATION

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ABSTRACT

Many approaches to unconstrained face identification exploit small patches which are unaffected by distortions outside of their locality. However, small patches have limited discriminative ability, making accurate patch matching difficult. We propose a novel block-based approach to exploit the greater discriminative information in larger areas, while maintaining robustness to local variations. A testing block contains several neighboring testing patches. We identify all the matching training patches in a block jointly, using normalized cross correlation (NCC), as a means of reducing the uncertainty of each matching patch with the addition of the neighboring patch information. We further propose a multi-scale extension in which we carry out block-based matching at several block sizes, where a larger block contains more neighboring testing patches, to combine complementary information across scales for further robustness. For evaluation, we use two unconstrained datasets, cropped Labelled Faces in the Wild (LFWCrop) and Unconstrained Facial Images (UFI). Our new approach is able to significantly improve identification accuracy over existing patch-based methods, in the presence of uncontrolled pose, expression and lighting variations.

Index Terms— Face identification, multi-patch blocks, block-based correlation, multi-scale approach, unconstrained variations.

1. INTRODUCTION

Face identification performance degrades in real-world scenarios. Variations caused by pose and illumination changes can be greater than those caused by a subject’s identity [1]. Because these variations affect different regions differently, many approaches treat images as ensembles of small patches [2–21], assuming that each patch is unaffected by variations outside its locality. Recognition can be performed by finding a matching training patch for each testing patch. In many current methods, this is done independently for each patch. For example, sparse representation classification (SRC) forms an estimate of each testing patch, as a linear combination of the training patches, independently of the other testing patches; the independent patch classifications can then be combined in a voting scheme, for final classification [2]. More recently, a matching scheme using normalized cross correlation (NCC), or Pearson’s correlation coefficient, was applied to unconstrained face identification [3], which identifies the matching patches independently based on maximum patch-sized correlation. Variations can also be handled by including or synthesizing diverse conditions in training data. This has been used for patch-based and holistic SRC [2, 22, 23], as well as collaborative representation classification (CRC) [24].

Patch-based approaches can also be used to deal with variable lighting conditions. By assuming piecewise constant lighting across the patches [4, 25, 26], illumination normalization filters such as self-quotient images (SQIs) [5] and gradientfaces [6] can be applied in small patches, each with a near even lighting condition, to remove low frequency illumination variation while maintaining fine details. Local binary patterns (LBPs) [7], and its variants [8–14], describe small patches, assuming constant or low-frequency lighting in each patch, by encoding high frequency variations which represent facial structure. The NCC metric can cancel the constant lighting difference between small patches for comparison (e.g., [3, 26]).

Small patches can be limited in their discriminative ability, making their independent matching prone to errors. However, larger matching areas may be unidentifiable due to local appearance changes across the region. Multi-scale approaches combine the complementary information at several patch-sizes to mitigate this problem. Multi-scale LBPs (MLBP) [15, 16] concatenate LBPs at several patch-sizes to improve robustness, the hierarchical MLBP (HMLBP) reduces feature dimensionality while maintaining discriminative information by selecting a single appropriate scale for each image location [17]. The pattern of oriented edge magnitudes (POEM) [18] is a multi-scale descriptor where local appearance is captured by accumulating gradient magnitudes in small patches, and the larger structure is captured by extracting LBPs from larger blocks in the derived gradient images. Multi-scale extensions to subspace-based approaches, including SRC (MSRC) [19] and CRC (MPCRC) [20, 21], have also improved robustness.

In this paper, we extend the previous work towards a more robust approach to unconstrained facial image identification. Our extension includes two novel aspects. First, we propose a block-based approach, in place of the conventional patch-based approach, to improve discrimination for face identification. A testing block contains a number of neighboring patches which are matched jointly to reduce the uncertainty for each individual matching training patch. By optimising both the matching training patches and their illumination difference with the corresponding testing patches, we exploit the discriminative information in larger regions while maintaining robustness to local variations. Second, we propose a multi-scale extension to our block-based matching, where a block at a higher scale contains more neighbouring testing patches, to further enlarge the matching areas and combine their complementary information to improve discrimination and robustness. We have compared our new approach with existing approaches on two difficult unconstrained facial databases and achieved improved performance.

2. MULTI-SCALE BLOCK-BASED CORRELATION

2.1. Block Correlation

Our idea for improving facial identification accuracy can be illustrated with Fig. 1. Assume that we compare a testing image against a training image from person s, and that the testing image is divided...
into small patches located by the patch indexes \(k_1, k_2, \ldots\). Conventional patch-based methods tend to process these patches independently. In our new method, we aim to match a number of neighboring patches jointly. For example, in Fig. 1 we show the match of a block of 2 patches by 2 patches, \(k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4\). By considering a larger block area we will normally gain greater discriminative ability, and hence reduce uncertainty of the individual matching training patches, compared to the patch-based method. However, because of the potential pose/expression variations between unconstrained images, large, perfectly matching blocks may not exist. We assume that these local variations can be modeled by allowing for certain local displacement of the matching training patches, as an approximate model for the lack of pose/expression/alignment constraints on the data, but maintaining a similar geometric relationship, as a semantic constraint on valid facial structure, as Fig. 1 illustrates.

Let \(Y = (y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_K)\) represent a testing image divided into \(K\) small, partially overlapped patches, where \(y_k\) is the \(k\)th patch, with origin (top-left corner coordinates) \((i_k, j_k)\). For simplicity, we assume that all patches have the same size: \(M \times N\) pixels. We apply the same representation to the training images such that the training image of person \(s\), \(X_s\), has an expression \(X_s = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_Q)\), where \(x_k\) is the \(k\)th \(M \times N\)-sized patch. One person can have more than one training image. We use the GCC as a comparison metric and identify matching blocks to improve identification accuracy. One reduced form of our approach, described in [3], identified the individual matching patches independently. The GCC of two patches, \(y_k\) and \(x_l\), is measured with the expression:

\[
R(y_k, x_l) = \frac{\sum_{m,n}[y_k(m,n) - \mu_k][x_l(m,n) - \mu_l]}{\sigma_k \sigma_l} (1)
\]

where \(y_k(m,n)\) denotes a pixel at \((m, n)\) inside patch \(y_k\), the sum is over all pixels in the patch, \(\mu_k\) is the mean pixel value of patch \(y_k\), and \(\sigma_k\) is the zero-mean Euclidean norm of patch \(y_k\), i.e., \(\sigma_k^2 = \sum_{m,n}[y_k(m,n) - \mu_k]^2\). The same definitions apply to the training patch \(x_l\) with mean pixel value \(\mu_l\) and zero-mean Euclidean norm \(\sigma_l\). In [3], given a testing image, the matching training patches were identified independently, by maximizing \(R(y_k, x_l)\) for each testing patch \(y_k\) over the possible matching training patches \(x_l\). In this paper, we extend this approach to identifying larger matching blocks, as illustrated in Fig. 1, to improve discrimination. Let \(Y_{k_1:k_Q} = (y_{k_1}, y_{k_2}, \ldots, y_{k_Q})\) represent a testing block with \(Q\) patches (block \(Y_{1:K}\) contains all patches in the image and hence is equivalent to the whole image \(Y\)), and let \(X_{l_1:l_Q} = (x_{l_1}, x_{l_2}, \ldots, x_{l_Q})\) represent a possible matching training block, where the individual matching training patch locations \(l_q (q = 1, 2, \ldots, Q)\) may be a nonlinear function of the corresponding testing patch locations \(k_q\) to account for the potential nonlinear local displacement between the training and testing images; \(g_{l_q}\) is the gain for each local training patch, to compensate for lighting differences. We can assume that \(g_{l_q}\) is a constant within each small patch, but can be variable across the block. This is identical to a piece-wise constant lighting model [4, 25, 26]. The GCC for the two blocks can be written as:

\[
R(Y_{k_1:k_Q}, X_{l_1:l_Q}) = R(y_{k_1}, y_{k_2}, \ldots, y_{k_Q}, x_{l_1}, x_{l_2}, \ldots, x_{l_Q}) = \frac{\sum_{q=1}^{Q} g_{l_q} \sum_{m,n} y_{k_q}(m,n)x_{l_q}(m,n) - T \mu_{k_1:k_Q}\mu_{l_1:l_Q}}{\sigma_{k_1:k_Q}\sigma_{l_1:l_Q}} \tag{2}
\]

where \(T = MN\) is short-hand notation for the total number of pixels in each block, \(\mu_{l_1:l_Q}\) and \(\sigma_{l_1:l_Q}\) are the global mean pixel value and zero-mean Euclidean norm of training block \(X_{l_1:l_Q}\), i.e.,

\[
\mu_{l_1:l_Q} = \frac{1}{Q} \sum_{k=1}^{Q} g_{l_k} \sum_{m,n} x_{l_k}(m,n) \tag{3}
\]

\[
[\sigma_{l_1:l_Q}]^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{Q} g_{l_k} \sum_{m,n} [x_{l_k}(m,n)]^2 \tag{4}
\]

The above (3) and (4) apply to \(\mu_{k_1:k_Q}\) and \(\sigma_{k_1:k_Q}\), the global mean and zero-mean Euclidean norm of testing block \(Y_{k_1:k_Q}\) (without the gain terms). Unlike previous approaches (e.g., the single patch based GCC [3], and SRC [19]) in which the individual patches are treated independently, in the proposed block-based GCC (2) there is no assumption of independence between the patches in a block. We will use (2) to identify the matching patches jointly.

2.2. Optimal Block Matching

Given a testing block \(Y_{k_1:k_Q}\), we seek the best concatenation of training patches to estimate a matching training block. To constrain the estimate to valid facial blocks, we formulate the estimation as a constrained maximization problem. We give a general expression:

\[
R^c(Y_{k_1:k_Q}, \tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q}) = \max_{\tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q}} R(Y_{k_1:k_Q}, \tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q})L(\tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q} | Y_{k_1:k_Q}) \alpha \tag{5}
\]

where \(\tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q}\) represents the optimal estimate of the matching training block, found from the training data for person \(s\). The optimal estimate has maximum block-based GCC subject to a constraint defining valid facial blocks, represented by the multiplying likelihood function \(L(\tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q} | Y_{k_1:k_Q})\), that \(\tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q}\) is likely to be a valid matching block for the given testing block \(Y_{k_1:k_Q}\), where \(\alpha\) denotes the weight for the constraint; \(R^c(Y_{k_1:k_Q}, \tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q})\) represents the constrained GCC and the value associated with the optimal estimate is \(R^c(Y_{k_1:k_Q}, \tilde{X}_{l_1:l_Q})\).

As an example, in our experiments, we use a simple semantic constraint on facial structure, by enforcing that the selected training patches have a similar geometric relationship to their corresponding testing patches. Specifically, we assume that the location of the matching training patch \(l_q\) corresponding to testing patch \(k_q\) can be expressed as a function of \(k_q\) as follows:

\[
l_q = k_q + h + \delta_q \tag{6}
\]

where \(h\) represents a common displacement for all patches in the block, which may be caused by some major misalignment which...
Able sizes affects all the patches equally, and $\delta_q$ represents a local displacement for a specific patch, which may be caused, for example, by random local pose or expression changes. Based on (6), we use a simple expression for the likelihood function:

$$L(X^i_{1,q} | Y_{k_1,k_Q}) = \prod_{q=1}^Q I_{\Delta_q}[l_q - (k_q + h)]$$

where $I_{\Delta_q}[l_q - (k_q + h)]$ is an indicator function of the form

$$I_{\Delta_q}[l_q - (k_q + h)] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } ||l_q - (k_q + h)|| \leq \Delta_q \\ 0 & \text{if } ||l_q - (k_q + h)|| > \Delta_q \end{cases}$$

where $\Delta_q$ is a threshold on the small local displacement $\delta_q$. Some displacement is allowed to account for local variations in pose, expression and alignment, but an upper limit is used as a semantic constraint, requiring that the matching training patches maintain a similar geometric relationship to the corresponding testing patches.

We use a computationally efficient iterative algorithm to solve the above constrained maximization problem (5). Given a testing block $Y_{k_1,k_Q} = (y_{k_1}, y_{k_2}, ..., y_{k_Q})$, we find an initial estimate $\hat{X}^i_{1,q} = (\hat{g}_1, \hat{X}_{1,1}^i, \hat{g}_2, \hat{X}_{1,2}^i, ..., \hat{g}_q, \hat{X}_{1,q}^i)$ by separately estimating each matching training patch $\hat{X}_{1,q}^i$ by maximizing the patch-based NCC $R(y_{k_1}, x_{1,q}^i)$ with a unit gain $\hat{g}_q$. Then we update this initial estimate by alternately re-estimating each matching training patch, with gain, to maximize the block-based constrained NCC $R^c(Y_{k_1,k_Q}, X_{1,q}^i)$; in re-estimating a specific training patch, the other training patches are fixed to their latest estimates. This alternate re-estimation process iterates until convergence is achieved. This algorithm manages to estimate the optimal training patches one patch at a time, subject to the constraints of all the other patches in the block, and hence can be calculated efficiently. It is shown that this algorithm converges in terms of generating a block estimate that always increases the block-sized, constrained NCC with each iteration. More details are given below.

### 3.3 Multi-Scale Block-Based Face Identification

Our approach can be extended to include scores for variable block-sizes, where block-size is defined by the number of patches in a block, to combine the complementary information across scales. Our block-based approach maintains invariance to local variations, even at large block-sizes, by optimizing the constituent patches. For example, at the testing block location $k_1$, we identify a number of matching training blocks for the testing blocks $Y_{k_1,k_Q}$ with variable sizes $Q$, using (5), and then calculate the overall matching score between these blocks using the following expression

$$\text{Score}_{s}(k_1) = \sum_Q R^c(Y_{k_1,k_Q}, X_{1,q}^i)w_Q$$

where $w_Q$ denotes the weight for block size $Q$, reflecting its importance in the combination. The overall score for person $s$ is formed by summing $\text{Score}_{s}(k_1)$ over all the testing block locations $k_1$. In our experiments, we have found that this multi-scale approach produces superior results to any individual block size, indicating its ability to capture complementary information from the variable-sized blocks.

### 3. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

#### 3.1 Experimental Settings

We assessed the efficacy of our approach for face identification in unconstrained conditions using the cropped Labelled Faces in the Wild (LFWCrop) [27] and Unconstrained Facial Images (UFI) [28] datasets. The LFWCrop dataset [27], contains pre-cropped images resized to 64 × 64 pixels, but still exhibiting real-life conditions, including misalignment. On LFWCrop we used a subset of 86 subjects with 11-20 images each, previously used in [22]. As in [22], we used 7 images per subject for training, and the rest for testing. The UFI set contains 605 subjects with a single testing image each, and an average of 7.1 training images. We used the cropped version for our experiments, and resized the images to 64 × 64 pixels. Example LFWCrop and UFI images are shown in Fig. 2. Throughout our NCC-based experiments, we used 8 × 8 patches with an overlap of 4 pixels. In the cropped images the facial features still exhibit various degrees of local variation, but occupy similar image regions (e.g. Fig. 2). Therefore, we assume that the common patch displacement $h = 0$ in (6), and the local patch displacement $\delta_q$ for each matching training patch is subject to a 30 × 30 search window surrounding the corresponding testing patch, i.e., $\Delta_q = 15$ in (8). In our approach matching patches may be selected from any of the training images for a subject, and the gain value for each matching training patch, $g_q$, is estimated by golden section search within the range $[0.1, 3]$. Unless otherwise indicated, we weighted scores of blocks from 1 × 1 up to 3 × 3 patches on LFWCrop, and from 1 × 1 up to 4 × 4 patches on UFI, with the weights tuned for each dataset, where smaller scales generally receive higher weights.

#### 3.2 Experimental Results on LFWCrop and UFI

On the LFWCrop dataset we compare our new Multi-scale Block-based NCC (M-BNCC) approach to a number of recent approaches to unconstrained face identification with the same training/testing subsets, particularly local patch-based and multi-scale techniques. These include a recent extension to the SRC framework [22], the HMLBP approach [17], the MPCRC [20] approach, and finally, the original patch-based NCC matching scheme [3]. We obtained the results for these approaches by running the code provided by the authors, except for the patch-based NCC which may be viewed as a special case of our M-BNCC approach. Table 1 shows the identification accuracy for each approach, indicating that our M-BNCC approach comfortably outperforms the existing approaches. As reported in [22], the SRC approach achieved identification accuracy of 34.96% on the same sets of LFW images we use, but manually cropped and resized. The performance drop may be caused by the uncontrolled misalignment in LFWCrop images. As reported in [20], MPCRC was able to achieve accuracy of 49% on LFW subsets with pre-alignment, unlike the mis-aligned LFWCrop images.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>LFWCrop</th>
<th>UFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SRC [22]</td>
<td>28.37</td>
<td>15.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HMLBP [17]</td>
<td>36.28</td>
<td>30.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC [3]</td>
<td>48.37</td>
<td>42.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M-BNCC</td>
<td><strong>65.27</strong></td>
<td><strong>65.27</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Identification rate (%) on UFI comparing our new M-BNCC approach with others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Identification Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LBP [7]</td>
<td>55.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDP [13]</td>
<td>50.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS-LBP [14]</td>
<td>63.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POEM [18]</td>
<td>67.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M-BNCC</td>
<td>74.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As reported in [3], on a subset of 50 LFW subjects, each with 5 training images and 3 testing images, and after applying the pose and illumination normalization process from [29], the original patch-based NCC scheme and the HMLBP approach achieved identification rates of 54% and 47% respectively. However, on a larger dataset than this, with no normalization process, we are able to produce higher identification rates using our M-BNCC approach, as shown in Table 1. Some other techniques have presented superior identification accuracy on various subsets of the LFW database, but make use of additional external data to improve performance (e.g., in [30] discriminative similarity measures were learned, exploiting negative background examples not seen in the database, to boost SVM classification and in [31] a probabilistic learning approach used weakly labelled data from internet searches to increase the amount of training data) or use many more training images per subject (e.g., [12]).

On the more recent UFI dataset we compare with the baseline approaches presented in [28]. The baseline UFI results include the traditional LBP approach [7], and the more recent Local Derivative Patterns (LDPs), which extracts LBP in high order derivative space [13]. Face-Specific LBP (FS-LBP) [14], where facial feature points are identified to extract LBP from, rather than extracting LBP in a regular grid, and the multi-resolution POEM descriptor [18] which achieved the best baseline performance. These results are cited from [28] and presented in Table 2, along with our M-BNCC results. To the best of our knowledge, our approach has superior performance to the best published results on this unconstrained dataset.

3.3. Further M-BNCC Algorithmic Evaluation

For the new M-BNCC approach, we evaluate the importance of the joint estimation of the matching patches in each block, and the semantic constraint to confine the matching patches’ locations, towards improving the identification accuracy. Table 3 shows the identification accuracy on the LFWCrop dataset, at several block-sizes, with the joint estimation or without joint estimation (i.e., the matching patches are searched independently of one another), and with the semantic constraint or without this constraint (i.e., the matching patches can come from anywhere in the training images). We can see that our joint estimation significantly improves the discriminative ability, in terms of identification accuracy. Our semantic constraint on the location of selected matching training patches also improves identification accuracy. In Table 4 we present the identification accuracy with and without our estimated gain factors, $g_q$, showing that they attenuate the effect of local illumination variation on the selection of a matching block, increasing identification accuracy. At larger block-sizes, where non-uniform lighting is more likely, the benefit of optimised gain factors is more pronounced.

Table 5 shows the benefit of our multi-scale combination, across 4 block-sizes. We can see that each scale included in the weighted combination incrementally improves the identification accuracy by providing complementary information. We note that different scales classify different images correctly, and that a multi-scale combination can correctly classify face images that none of the constituent scales could. Finally, Fig. 3 summarizes the convergence of the iterative algorithm, showing the average number of iterations, and the initial and final constrained block-based NCC scores, on LFWCrop, at 4 block-sizes. Our search for the optimal matching block increases the NCC at each iteration. We stop the iteration when none of the block’s constituent patches are updated between iterations.

Table 4: Identification rate (%) on LFWCrop at 3 block-sizes, with optimised gain factors, $g_q$, and without gain optimisation ($g_q = 1$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gain value</th>
<th>Identification Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$g_q = 1$</td>
<td>56.74 52.40 47.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimised $g_q$</td>
<td>63.87 60.62 59.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 3: Increase in constrained block correlation with iteration, at 4 block-sizes.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper studied the problem of face identification with unconstrained pose, expression and lighting variations. We extended the previous patch-based NCC matching scheme to block-based matching. A block contains several neighbouring patches. We identify all the matching patches in a block jointly to reduce the uncertainty in identifying each individual matching patch. By estimating the lighting difference between small matching patches, we attenuate the effect of illumination variation across the block. Finally, by combining our block-based classification scores at several block-sizes, we combine the complementary information across scales for further robustness. On two unconstrained datasets we have shown the benefit of our contributions, and improved identification accuracy significantly over existing patch-based methods. In future, we would like to develop an algorithm for learning weights to combine scales more effectively, rather than manually tuning.
5. REFERENCES


