

# Null Space Approach of Fisher Discriminant Analysis for Face Recognition

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**Abstract.** The null space of the within-class scatter matrix is found to express most discriminative information for the small sample size problem (SSSP). The null space-based LDA takes full advantage of the null space while the other methods remove the null space. It proves to be optimal in performance. From the theoretical analysis, we present the NLDA algorithm and the most suitable situation for NLDA. Our method is simpler than all other null space approaches, it saves the computational cost and maintains the performance simultaneously. Furthermore, kernel technique is incorporated into discriminant analysis in the null space. Firstly, all samples are mapped to the kernel space through a better kernel function, called Cosine kernel, which is proposed to increase the discriminating capability of the original polynomial kernel function. Secondly, a truncated NLDA is employed. The novel approach only requires one eigenvalue analysis and is also applicable to the large sample size problem. Experiments are carried out on different face data sets to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed methods.

## 1 Introduction

Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) has been successfully applied to face recognition. The objective of LDA is to seek a linear projection from the image space onto a low dimensional space by maximizing the between-class scatter and minimizing the within-class scatter simultaneously. Belhumeur [1] compared Fisherface with Eigenface on the *HARVARD* and *YALE* face databases, and showed that LDA was better than PCA, especially under illumination variation. LDA was also evaluated favorably under the *FERET* testing framework [2], [7].

In many practical face recognition tasks, there are not enough samples to make the within-class scatter matrix  $S_w$  nonsingular, this is called a small sample size problem. Different solutions have been proposed to deal with it in using LDA for face recognition [1]-[6].

The most widely used methods (Fisherface) [1, 2, 3] applies PCA firstly to reduce the dimension of the samples to an intermediate dimension, which must be guaranteed

not more than the rank of  $S_w$ , so as to obtain a full-rank within-class scatter matrix. Then standard LDA is used to extract and represent facial features. All these methods above do not consider the importance of null space of the within-class scatter matrix, and remove the null space to make the resulting within-class scatter full-rank.

Yang et al. [4] proposed a new algorithm which incorporates the concept of null space. It first removes the null space of the between-class scatter matrix  $S_b$  and seeks a projection to minimize the within-class scatter (called Direct LDA / DLDA). Because the rank of  $S_b$  is smaller than that of  $S_w$ , removing the null space of  $S_b$  may lose part of or the entire null space of  $S_w$ , which is very likely to be full-rank after the removing operation.

Chen et al. [5] proposed a more straightforward method that makes use of the null space of  $S_w$ . The basic idea is to project all the samples onto the null space of  $S_w$ , where the resulting within-class scatter is zero, and then maximize the between-class scatter. This method involves computing eigenvalue in a very large dimension since  $S_w$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix. To avoid the great computational cost, pixel grouping method is used in advance to artificially extract features and to reduce the dimension of the original samples.

Huang et al. [6] introduced a more efficient null space approach. The basic notion behind the algorithm is that the null space of  $S_w$  is particularly useful in discriminating ability, whereas, that of  $S_b$  is useless. They proved that the null space of the total scatter matrix  $S_t$  is the common null space of both  $S_w$  and  $S_b$ . Hence the algorithm firstly removes the null space of  $S_t$  and projects the samples onto the null space of  $S_w$ . Then it removes the null space of the between-class scatter in the subspace to get the optimal discriminant vectors.

Although null space-based LDA seems to be more efficient than other linear subspace analysis methods for face recognition, it is still a linear technique in nature. Hence it is inadequate to describe the complexity of real face images because of illumination, facial expression and pose variations. The kernel technique has been extensively demonstrated to be capable of efficiently representing complex nonlinear relations of the input data. Kernel Fisher Discriminant Analysis [8, 9, 10] (KFDA) is an efficient nonlinear subspace analysis method, which combines the kernel technique with LDA. After the input data are mapped into an implicit feature space, LDA is performed to yield nonlinear discriminating features of the input data.

In this paper, some elements of state-of-the-art null space techniques will be looked at in more depth and our null space approach is proposed to save the computational cost and maintain the performance simultaneously. Furthermore, we concentrate on the advantages of both the null space approach and the kernel technique. A kernel mapping based on an efficient kernel function, called Cosine kernel, is performed on all the samples firstly. In kernel space, we can find that the total scatter matrix is full-rank, so the procedure of the null space approach is greatly simplified and more stable in numerical computation.

The paper is laid out as follows. In Section 2, the related work on LDA-based algorithms will be reviewed. Next, our null space method (NLDA) will be presented. In Section 4 null space-based KFDA (NKFDA) will be proposed and some experiments will be reported in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 ends with some conclusions.

## 2 Previous Work

Some assumptions and definitions in mathematics are provided at first. Let  $n$  denote the dimension of the original sample space, and  $c$  is the number of classes. The between-class scatter matrix  $S_b$  and the within-class scatter  $S_w$  are defined as below:

$$S_b = \sum_{i=1}^c N_i (m_i - m)(m_i - m)^T = \Phi_b \Phi_b^T, \quad (1)$$

$$S_w = \sum_{i=1}^c \sum_{k \in C_i} (x_k - m_i)(x_k - m_i)^T = \Phi_w \Phi_w^T, \quad (2)$$

where  $N_i$  is the number of samples in class  $C_i$  ( $i=1,2,\dots,c$ ),  $N$  is the number of all samples,  $m_i$  is the mean of the samples in the class  $C_i$ , and  $m$  is the overall mean of all samples. The total scatter matrix i.e. the covariance matrix of all the samples is defined as:

$$S_t = S_b + S_w = \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - m)(x_i - m)^T = \Phi_t \Phi_t^T. \quad (3)$$

LDA tries to find an optimal projection:  $W = [w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots, w_{c-1}]$ , which satisfies

$$J(W) = \arg \max_W \frac{|W^T S_b W|}{|W^T S_w W|}, \quad (4)$$

that is just Fisher criterion function.

### 2.1 Standard LDA and Direct LDA

As well known,  $W$  can be constructed by the eigenvectors of  $S_w^{-1} S_b$ . But this method is numerically unstable because it involves the direct inversion of a likely high-dimensional matrix. The most frequently used LDA algorithm in practice is based on simultaneous diagonalization. The basic idea of the algorithm is to find a matrix  $W$  that can simultaneously diagonalize both  $S_w$  and  $S_b$ , i.e.,

$$W^T S_w W = I, W^T S_b W = \Lambda. \quad (5)$$

Most algorithms require that  $S_w$  be non-singular, because the algorithms diagonalize  $S_w$  first. The above procedure will break down when  $S_w$  becomes singular. It surely happens when the number of training samples is smaller than the dimension of the sample vector, i.e. the small sample size problem (SSSP). The singularity exists for most face recognition tasks.

An available solution to this problem is to perform PCA to project the  $n$ -dimensional image space onto a lower dimensional subspace. The PCA step essentially removes null space from both  $S_w$  and  $S_b$ . Therefore, this step potentially loses useful information.

In fact, the null space of  $S_w$  contains the most discriminative information especially when the projection of  $S_b$  is not zero in that direction. The Direct LDA (DLDA) algorithm [4] is presented to keep the null space of  $S_w$ .

DLDA removes the null space of  $S_b$  firstly by performing eigen-analysis on  $S_b$ , then a simultaneous procedure is used to seek the optimal discriminant vectors in the subspace of  $S_b$ , i.e.

$$W^T S_b W = I, W^T S_w W = D_w . \quad (6)$$

Because the rank of  $S_b$  is smaller than that of  $S_w$  in majority, removing the null space of  $S_b$  may lose part of or the entire null space of  $S_w$ , which is very likely to be full-rank after the removing operation. So, DLDA does not make full use of the null space.

## 2.2 Null Space-based LDA

From Fisher's criterion that is objective function (4), we can find that: In standard LDA,  $W$  is sought such that (5), so the form of the optimal solution provided by standard LDA is

$$\underset{LDA}{optimum} = \max_W \left| W^T S_b W \right| / \left| W^T S_w W \right| = |\Lambda| = \underset{LDA}{opt} \max / 1 . \quad (7)$$

In DLDA,  $W$  is sought such that (6), so the form of the optimal solution provided by DLDA is

$$\underset{DLDA}{optimum} = \max_W \left| W^T S_b W \right| / \left| W^T S_w W \right| = 1 / |D_w| = 1 / \underset{DLDA}{opt} \min . \quad (8)$$

Compared with above LDA approaches, a more reasonable method (Chen [5]), we called Null Space-based LDA, has been presented. In Chen's theory, null space-based LDA should reach below:

$$\underset{Null}{optimum} = \max_W \left| W^T S_b W \right| / \left| W^T S_w W \right| = \underset{Null}{opt} \max / 0 . \quad (9)$$

That means the optimal projection  $W$  should satisfy

$$W^T S_w W = 0, W^T S_b W = \Lambda , \quad (10)$$

i.e. the optimal discriminant vectors must exist in the null space of  $S_w$ .

In a performance benchmark, we can conclude that null space-based LDA generally outperforms LDA (Fisherface) or DLDA since

$$\underset{Null}{optimum} = \infty \geq \underset{DLDA}{optimum} \geq \underset{LDA}{optimum} . \quad (11)$$

Because the computational complexity of extracting the null space of  $S_w$  is very high because of the high dimension of  $S_w$ . So in [5] a pixel grouping operation is used in advance to extract geometric features and to reduce the dimension of the samples. However, the pixel grouping preprocess is irresponsible and may arouse a loss of useful facial features.

## 3 Our Null Space Method (NLDA)

In this section, the essence of null space-based LDA in the SSSP is revealed by theoretical justification, and the most suitable situation of null space methods is

discovered. Next, we propose the NLDA algorithm, which is conceptually simple yet powerful in performance.

### 3.1 Most Suitable Situation

For the small sample size problem (SSSP) in which  $n > N$ , the dimension of null space of  $S_w$  is very large, and not all null space contributes to the discriminative power. Since both  $S_b$  and  $S_w$  are symmetric and semi-positive, we can prove, as mentioned in [6], that

$$N(S_t) = N(S_b) \cap N(S_w). \quad (12)$$

From the statistical perspective, the null space of  $S_b$  is of no use in its contribution to discriminative ability. Therefore, the useful subspace of null space of  $S_w$  is

$$\hat{N}(S_w) = N(S_w) - N(S_t) = N(S_w) \cap \overline{N(S_t)}. \quad (13)$$

The sufficient and necessary condition so that null space methods work is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{N}(S_w) \neq \Phi &\Rightarrow N(S_w) \supset N(S_t) \Rightarrow \dim N(S_w) > \dim N(S_t) \Rightarrow \\ &rank(S_t) > rank(S_w). \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

In many cases,

$$rank(S_t) = \min\{n, N-1\}, rank(S_w) = \min\{n, N-c\}, \quad (15)$$

the dimension of discriminative null space of  $S_w$  can be evaluated from (12):

$$\dim \hat{N}(S_w) = rank(S_t) - rank(S_w). \quad (16)$$

If  $n \leq N-c$ , due to  $rank(S_t) = n \leq rank(S_w) = N-c$ , the necessary condition (14) is not satisfied so that we can not extract any null space. That means any null space-based method does not work in the large sample size case.

If  $N-c < n < N-1$ , due to  $rank(S_t) = n > rank(S_w) = N-c$ , the dimension of effective null space can be evaluated from (16):  $\dim \hat{N}(S_w) = n - N + c < c-1$ . Hence, the number of discriminant vectors would be less than  $c-1$ , and some discriminatory information maybe lost.

Only when  $n \geq N-1$  (SSSP), for  $rank(S_t) = N-1 > rank(S_w) = N-c$ , we derive  $\dim \hat{N}(S_w) = c-1$ . The dimension of extracted null space is just  $c-1$ , which coincides with the number of ideal features for classification. Therefore, we can conclude that null space methods are always applicable to any small sample size problem.

Especially when  $n$  is equal to  $N-1$ ,  $S_t$  is full-rank and  $N(S_t)$  is null. By (13) we have  $\hat{N}(S_w) = N(S_w)$ , it follows all null space of  $S_w$  contributes to the discriminative power. Hence, we conclude the most suitable situation for null space-based methods:

$$n = N - 1. \quad (17)$$

### 3.2 NLDA

Combining (12)-(16), we develop our null space method.

*algorithm I:*

1. Remove the null space of  $S_t$ .

Perform PCA to project the  $n$ -dimensional image space onto a low dimensional subspace, i.e. perform eigen-analysis on  $S_t$ , the dimension of the extracted subspace is usually  $N-1$ . The projection  $P$ , whose columns are all the eigenvectors of  $S_t$  corresponding to the nonzero eigenvalues, are calculated firstly, and then the within-class scatter and between-class scatter in the resulting subspace are obtained.

$$P^T S_t P = D_t, \quad P^T S_w P = S_w', \quad P^T S_b P = S_b'.$$

2. Extract the null space of  $S_w'$ .

Diagonalize  $S_w'$ , we have

$$V^T S_w' V = D_w,$$

where  $V^T V = I$ ,  $D_w$  is diagonal matrix sorted in increasing order. Discard those with eigenvalues sufficiently far from 0, keep  $c-1$  eigenvectors of  $S_w'$  in most cases. Let  $Y$  be the first  $c-1$  columns of  $V$ , which is the null space of  $S_w'$ , we have

$$Y^T S_w' Y = 0, \quad Y^T S_b' Y = S_b''.$$

3. Diagonalize  $S_b''$  (usually a  $(c-1) \times (c-1)$  matrix) which is full-rank.

Perform eigen-analysis:

$$U^T S_b'' U = \Lambda,$$

where  $U^T U = I$ ,  $\Lambda$  is diagonal matrix sorted in decreasing order.

The final projection matrix is:

$$W = P Y U,$$

$W$  is usually an  $n \times (c-1)$  matrix, which diagonalizes both the numerator and the denominator of Fisher's criterion to  $(c-1) \times (c-1)$  matrices as (10), especially leads to a denominator of 0 matrix.

It is notable that the third step of Huang [6]' algorithm is used to remove the null space of  $S_b''$ . In fact, we are able to prove that it is full-rank once through the previous two steps.

**Lemmas**  $S_b''$  is full-rank,  $S_b''$  is defined in step2 of algorithm I.

**Proof:**

From step1 and 2, we derive that  $S_b'' = Y^T S_b' Y = Y^T S_b' Y + Y^T S_w' Y = Y^T (S_b' + S_w') Y = Y^T P^T (S_b + S_w) P Y = Y^T P^T S_t P Y = Y^T D_t Y$ , for any vector  $\alpha$  whose dimension is equal to that of  $S_b''$ ,  $\alpha^T S_b'' \alpha = \alpha^T Y^T D_t Y \alpha = (D_t^{1/2} Y \alpha)^T (D_t^{1/2} Y \alpha) \geq 0$ , so  $S_b''$  is semi-positive. Suppose there exists  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha^T S_b'' \alpha = 0$ , then  $D_t^{1/2} Y \alpha = 0$ . By step1, we know  $D_t$  is full-rank, thus  $Y \alpha = 0$ . And by step2, we derive that  $Y$  is full-rank in columns since it is the extracted null space. Hence  $\alpha = 0$ , iff.  $\alpha^T S_b'' \alpha = 0$ . Therefore  $S_b''$  is a positive matrix which is of course full-rank.  $\square$

The third step is optional. Although it maximizes the between-class scatter in the null subspace, which appears to achieve best discriminative ability, it may incur overfitting. Because projecting all samples onto the null space of  $S_w$  is powerful enough in its clustering ability to achieve good generalization performance, step3 of

algorithm  $I$  should be eliminated in order to avoid possible overfitting.

*NLDA algorithm:*

1. Remove the null space of  $S_t$ , i.e.

$$P^T S_t P = D_t, \quad P^T S_w P = S_w',$$

$P$  is usually  $n \times (N-1)$ .

2. Extract the null space of  $S_w'$ , i.e.

$$Y^T S_w' Y = 0,$$

$Y$  is the null space, and is usually  $(N-1) \times (c-1)$ .

The final NLDA projection matrix is:

$$W = PY,$$

$PY$  is the discriminative subspace of the whole null space of  $S_w$  and is really useful for discrimination. The number of the optimal discriminant vectors is usually  $c-1$ , which just coincides with the number of ideal discriminant vectors [1]. Therefore, removing step3 is a feasible strategy against overfitting.

Under situation (17),  $S_t$  is full-rank and step1 of the NLDA algorithm is skipped. The NLDA projection can be extracted by performing eigen-analysis on  $S_w$  directly. The procedure of NLDA under this situation is most straightforward and only requires one eigen-analysis. We can discover that NLDA will save much computational cost under the most suitable situation it is applicable to.

## 4 Null Space-based Kernel Fisher Discriminant Analysis

The key idea of Kernel Fisher Discriminant Analysis (KFDA) [8, 9, 10] is to solve the problem of LDA in an implicit feature space  $F$ , which is constructed by the kernel trick:

$$\phi: x \in R^n \rightarrow \phi(x) \in F. \quad (18)$$

The important feature of kernel techniques is that the implicit feature vector  $\phi$  needn't be computed explicitly, while the inner product of any two vectors in  $F$  need to be computed based a kernel function.

In this section, we will present a novel method (NKFDA) in which kernel technique is incorporated into discriminant analysis in the null space.

### 4.1 Kernel Fisher Discriminant Analysis (KFDA)

The between-class scatter  $S_b$  and the within-class scatter  $S_w$  in  $F$  are computed as (1) and (2). But at this time, we replace  $x_j$  by  $\phi(x_j)$  as samples in  $F$ . Consider performing LDA in the implicit feature space  $F$ . It caters for maximizing the Fisher criterion function (4).

Because any solution  $w \in F$  must lie in the span of all the samples in  $F$ , there exist coefficients  $\alpha_i, i=1,2,\dots,N$ , such that

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i \phi_i . \quad (19)$$

Substitute  $w$  in (4), the solution of (4) can be obtained by solve a new Fisher problem:

$$J(\alpha) = \arg \max_{\alpha} \frac{|\alpha^T K_b \alpha|}{|\alpha^T K_w \alpha|} , \quad (20)$$

where  $K_b$  and  $K_w$  (Liu [8]) are based on new samples:

$$\zeta_i = (k(x_1, x_i), k(x_2, x_i), \dots, k(x_N, x_i))^T, 1 \leq i \leq N . \quad (21)$$

As for the kernel function, Liu [13] proposed a novel kernel function called Cosine kernel, which is based on the original polynomial kernel, has been demonstrated to improve the performance of KFDA. It is defined as below:

$$k(x, y) = (\phi(x) \cdot \phi(y)) = (a(x \cdot y) + b)^d , \quad (22)$$

$$\tilde{k}(x, y) = \frac{k(x, y)}{\sqrt{k(x, x)k(y, y)}} . \quad (23)$$

In our experiments, Cosine kernel ( $a=10^{-3}/size\ of\ (image)$ ,  $b=0$ ,  $d=2$ ) is adopted and shows good performance in face recognition. Cosine measurement should be more reliable than inner production measurement due to a better similarity representation in the implicit feature space.

## 4.2 NKFDA

Here we define a kernel sample set (corresponding to the kernel space in  $N$  dimensions)  $\{\zeta_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ . The optimal solution of (4) is equivalent to that of (20), so the original problem can be entirely converted to the problem of LDA on the kernel sample set.

In section 3, we know that NLDA will save much computational cost under the most suitable situation. The null space projection can be extracted from the within-class scatter directly. Our objective is just to transform the dimension of all the samples from  $n$  to  $N-1$  through the kernel mapping, so that NLDA can work under the most suitable situation. Any method that can transform raw samples to  $(N-1)$ -dimensional data without adding or losing main information, can exploit the merit of NLDA.

In (19), all the training samples in  $F$ ,  $\{\phi_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ , are used to represent  $w$ . Define the kernel matrix  $M$ ,

$$M = (k(x_i, x_j))_{1 \leq i, j \leq N} = (k_{i,j})_{1 \leq i, j \leq N} , \quad (24)$$

assume  $\Phi = (\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_N)$ , then  $M = \Phi^T \Phi$ . In mathematics,

$$rank(\Phi) = rank(M) . \quad (25)$$



Because  $\text{rank}(M) < N$  holds, especially when the training data set is very large, it follows that  $\text{rank}(M) \ll N$  [11][12], we conclude that

$$\text{rank}(\Phi) \ll N . \quad (26)$$

Due to (26), we may assume  $\phi_N$  is not a basis vector of  $\{\phi_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq N}$  without loss of generality, and consequently we can rewrite (19) as follows:

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \alpha_i \phi_i , \quad (27)$$

subsequently,  $K_b$  and  $K_w$  are recomputed, we derive :

$$\zeta_i = (k(x_1, x_i), k(x_2, x_i), \dots, k(x_{N-1}, x_i))^T . \quad (28)$$

Now the dimension of our defined kernel space is  $N-1$ . My objective is just to enable NLDA work on the  $(N-1)$ -dimensional kernel sample set.

**Input:** 1) training samples  $\{x_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq N}$  and label set  $\{C_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq c}$   
 2) the kernel function and its parameters:  $k(x, y)$

**Algorithm:**

1. For  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

do kernel mapping on each training sample:

$$K(x_i) = (k(x_1, x_i), k(x_2, x_i), \dots, k(x_{N-1}, x_i))^T .$$

For a new sample  $x$ , whose corresponding point in the kernel space is

$$K(x) = (k(x_1, x), k(x_2, x), \dots, k(x_{N-1}, x))^T .$$

2. Calculate class mean and within-class scatter:

$$m_j = \sum_{i \in C_j} K(x_i) / N_j ,$$

$$K_w = \sum_{j=1}^c \sum_{i \in C_j} (K(x_i) - m_j)(K(x_i) - m_j)^T .$$

3. Extract the null space  $Y$  of  $K_w$  ( $(N-1) \times (N-1)$ ), such that

$$Y^T K_w Y = 0 , Y \text{ is usually in } (N-1) \times (c-1) .$$

**Output:** The resulting mapping on the raw sample set:

$$\Psi(x) = (Y^T K) \cdot (x) = Y^T \cdot K(x) .$$

**Fig. 1.** NKFDA algorithm

As shown in Fig. 1, NKFDA algorithm outputs the mapping  $\Psi$  which is a nonlinear dimensionality reduction mapping ( $n$  dimensions reduce to  $c-1$ ). For any sample (whether it is a prototype or a query),  $\Psi$  provides a universal mapping to transform the raw sample point into a lower dimensional space. Such a technique can be applied with a reasonable implementation of generalization.

It's noticeable that our method NKFDA also cannot deal with the case that only one sample per person is available for training since KFDA can not achieve that.

For the large sample size problem ( $n \ll N$ ),  $S_w$  is full-rank so that we can not extract any null space. That means any null space-based method does not work in the large sample size case. However, after the kernel mapping, NLDA can work on the kernel sample set. Hence the kernel mapping extends the ability of null space approaches to the large sample size problem.

## 5 Experiments

To demonstrate the efficiency of our method, extensive experiments are done on the *ORL* face database, the *FERET* database and the mixture database. All LDA methods were compared on the same training sets and testing sets, including Fisherface proposed in [1, 2, 3], Direct LDA proposed in [4], and our methods: NLDA and NKFDA.

### 5.1 ORL Database

There are 10 different images for each subject in the *ORL* face database composed of 40 distinct subjects. All the subjects are in up-right, frontal position. The size of each face image is  $92 \times 112$ . The first line of Fig. 2 shows 6 images of the same subject.

We listed the recognition rates with different number of training samples. The number of training samples per subject,  $k$ , increases from 2 to 9. In each round,  $k$  images are randomly selected from the database for training and the remaining images of the same subject for testing. For each  $k$ , 20 tests were performed and these results were averaged. Table 1 shows the average recognition rates (%). Without any pre-processing, we choose 39 (i.e.  $c-1$ ) as the final dimensions. Our methods NLDA, NKFDA show an encouraging performance.

**Table 1.** Recognition rates on the ORL database

$k$	LDA	DLDA	NLDA	NKFDA
2	76.65	80.10	85.47	82.89
3	87.09	87.54	90.91	89.13
4	91.68	91.50	93.86	93.15
5	93.17	94.65	95.45	95.13
6	95.79	96.50	97.13	96.72
7	96.85	97.12	97.54	97.21
8	98.25	99.15	98.95	98.95
9	99.00	99.95	99.15	99.38

### 5.2 FERET Database

We have to test our method on more complex and challenging datasets such as the *FERET* database. We selected 70 subjects from the *FERET* database [7] with 6 up-

right, frontal-view images of each subject. The face images involve much more variations in lighting, facial expressions and facial details. The second line of Fig. 2 shows one subject from the selected data set.

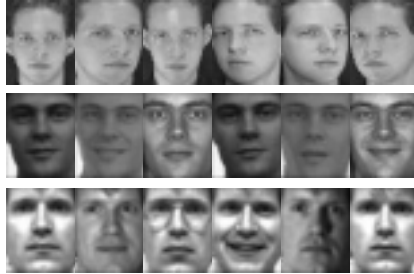
The eye locations are fixed by geometric normalization. The size of face images is normalized to  $92 \times 112$ , and 69 (i.e.  $c-1$ ) features are extracted. Training and test process are similar to those on the *ORL* database. Similar comparisons between those methods are performed. This time  $k$  changes between 2 to 5, and the corresponding averaging recognition rates (%) are shown in table 2.

**Table 2.** Recognition rates on the FERET database

$k$	LDA	DLDA	NLDA	NKFDA
2	56.04	63.25	75.20	72.21
3	76.95	76.71	85.64	83.60
4	87.23	88.30	92.79	93.85
5	94.80	94.71	97.34	98.29

### 5.3 Mixture Database

To test NLDA and NKFDA on large datasets, we construct a mixture database of 125 persons and 985 images, which is a collection of three databases: (a). The *ORL* database ( $10 \times 40$ ). (b). The *YALE* database ( $11 \times 15$ , the third line of Fig. 2 shows one subject). (c). The *FERET* database ( $6 \times 70$ ). All the images are resized to  $92 \times 112$ . There are facial expression, illumination and pose variations.



**Fig. 2.** Samples from the mixture database

The mixture database is divided into two non-overlapping set for training and testing. The training dataset consists of 500 images: 5 images, 6 images and 3 images per person are randomly selected from the *ORL*, the *YALE* database and the *FERET* subset respectively. The remaining 485 images are used for testing. In order to reduce the influence of some extreme illumination, histogram equalization is applied to the images as pre-processing. We compare the proposed method with Fisherface and DLDA, and the experimental results are shown in Fig. 3. It can be seen that NKFDA largely outperforms the other three when over 100 features are used, and a recognition rate of 91.65% can be achieved at the feature dimension of 124 (i.e.  $c-1$ ).

## 5.4 Discussion

From the above three experiments, we can find that NKFDA is better than NLDA for large number of training samples (such as larger than 300), while worse than NLDA in the case of small training sample size (such as smaller than 200), and superior to DLDA in most situations. Consequently, NKFDA is more efficient in larger sample size, for the greater the sample size, the more accurately kernels can describe the nonlinear relations of samples.

As to computational cost, the most time-consuming procedure, eigen-analysis, is performed on three matrices (one of  $N \times N$ , and two of  $(N-c) \times (N-c)$ ) in Fisherface method, on two matrices ( $c \times c$  and  $(c-1) \times (c-1)$ ) in DLDA, on two matrices ( $N \times N$ ,  $(N-1) \times (N-1)$ ) in NLDA, and on one matrix ( $(N-1) \times (N-1)$ ) in NKFDA. Our method NKFDA only performs one eigen-analysis to achieve efficiency and good performance.

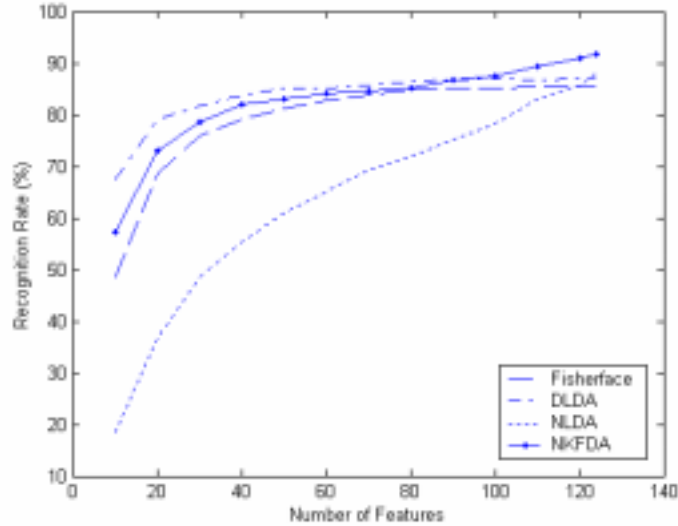


Fig. 3. Comparison of four methods

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper, we present two new subspace methods (NLDA, NKFDA) based on the null space approach and the kernel technique. Both of them effectively solve the small sample size problem and eliminate the possibility of losing discriminative information.

The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows: (a) The essence of null space-based LDA in the SSSP is revealed by theoretical justification, and the most suitable situation of null space method is discovered. (b) Propose the NLDA algorithm, which is simpler than all other null space methods and saves the computational cost and maintains the performance simultaneously. (c) A more

efficient Cosine kernel function is adopted to enhance the capability of the original polynomial kernel. (d) Present the NKFDA algorithm, which performs only one eigen-analysis and is more stable in numerical computation. (e) NKFDA is also applicable to the large sample size problem, and is superior to NLDA when the sample size is very large.

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