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# Facial asymmetry quantification for expression invariant human identification

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## Abstract

We investigate facial asymmetry as a biometric under expression variation. For the first time, we have defined two types of quantified facial asymmetry measures that are easily computable from facial images and videos. Our findings show that the asymmetry measures of automatically selected facial regions capture individual differences that are relatively stable to facial expression variations. More importantly, a synergy is achieved by combining facial asymmetry information with conventional EigenFace and FisherFace methods. We have assessed the generality of these findings across two publicly available face databases: Using a random subset of 110 subjects from the FERET database, a 38% classification error reduction rate is obtained. Error reduction rates of 45–100% are achieved on 55 subjects from the Cohn–Kanade AU-Coded Facial Expression Database. These results suggest that facial asymmetry may provide complementary discriminative information to human identification methods, which has been missing in automatic human identification.

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## 1. Motivation

Human facial asymmetry has long been a critical factor for evaluation of facial attractiveness [38] and expressions [32] in psychology and anthropology, albeit most

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studies are carried out qualitatively using human observers as judges, or locally where features are measured individually (e.g., length of ears). Asymmetrical faces are considered less attractive [38], and it has been reported that facial attractiveness for men is inversely related to recognition accuracy [30]. For face recognition by humans, a small yet statistically significant decrease in recognition performance is observed when facial asymmetry is removed from images [40], which suggests that facial asymmetry may play a role in human identification by humans.

Individuals in the general population display a wide range of variation in the amount of facial asymmetry (Fig. 1). *Intrinsic facial asymmetry* in individuals is affected by multiple factors, including growth, injury, and age-related change. *Extrinsic facial asymmetry* is caused by viewing orientation, illuminations, shadows, and highlights. In this work, our goal is to find answers to these questions: Whether intrinsic facial asymmetry (1) is useful for human identification by machines; (2) can be used for automatic human identification across different databases; and (3) is robust for automatic human identification under expression variation.



Fig. 1. Left: original face images taken under balanced bilateral lighting. Middle: a perfectly symmetrical face made of the left half of the original face. Right: a perfectly symmetrical face made of the right half of the original face. Notice the difference in nasal regions in both individuals caused by left–right asymmetry of the nasal bridge.

Bilateral anatomical symmetry of humans and other animals has been exploited successfully in other fields for the purpose of classification and clustering [7,11,18]. In computer graphics for instance, it is a commonly accepted assumption that human faces are bilaterally symmetrical (e.g. [35,44]). On the other hand, facial expressions lateralization was reported in the literature [4,5] where facial expression is found to be more intense on the left side. Previous work on facial expression analysis, e.g. [3,9,37,39,43], is almost exclusively focused on expression recognition and coding without regarding to asymmetry. In [27,28], Martinez used local regions on each half face image separately for human identification under a given facial expression and reported different recognition rates for left and right face images.

Different from all previous work, we investigate whether facial asymmetry, as a holistic, explicit, and quantified multidimensional measure is discriminative across individuals, especially under expression variation [24,25].

As an initial attempt in quantifying facial asymmetry, we use frontal facial images obtained under controlled lighting. This is for the purpose of maximum isolation of intrinsic from extrinsic factors, and determining how intrinsic facial asymmetry may contribute to human identification. First, we investigate facial asymmetry as a biometric in face images consisting of predominantly neutral expressions. Using the FERET face database [31], we found that facial asymmetry captures individual differences that can contribute to improved face recognition. We then investigate whether facial asymmetry as a biometric is robust to type and intensity of facial expression. The Cohn–Kanade AU-Coded Facial Expression Database [15] is used as the primary testbed.

## 2. Image data sets

Two datasets are used in this reported work. To test the feasibility of facial asymmetry measure as a biometric, the first dataset is composed of 110 pairs of images



Fig. 2. Some sample normalized face image pairs from the FERET database.

from 110 subjects randomly chosen from the FERET database (frontal faces only, slight expression variations) (Fig. 2). The second dataset is chosen from The Cohn–Kanade AU-Coded Facial Expression Database [15]. This dataset consists of video sequences of subjects of different races and gender displaying requested facial expressions (Fig. 3). Each subject was videotaped under one of the three bilaterally balanced lightings: (1) ambient lighting, (2) a single high intensity lamp, (3) dual high intensity lamps with reflective umbrellas. Fifty-five subjects are selected who have complete video data for each of the three expressions: anger, disgust, and joy. Each expression sequence begins with a neutral expression and ends with a target expression. Video sequences range in length from 8 to 65 frames. Each frame is a grey-scale image of  $640 \times 480$  pixels. To maintain equal sampling for different subjects, three frames from each emotion sequence are chosen. These frames are the initial (neutral), middle, and final (peak) expression images. Therefore the total sample size is 495 ( $3 \times 3 \times 55 = 495$ ).

### 3. Quantification of facial asymmetry

Asymmetry is a structural descriptor of an object that cannot be captured by a single local measure (e.g., either left or right face alone). Bilateral reflection symmetry is defined with respect to a reflection line/plane. Human faces possess such a natural reference line/plane, although it is not necessarily a geometrically straight line (plane).



Fig. 3. Normalized faces from the Cohn–Kanade AU-Coded Facial Expression Database [15]. Each column represents one subject (total of 7 subjects displayed) with neutral, peak joy, peak disgust, and peak anger expressions in video sequences, respectively.

### 3.1. Face image normalization

The goal of normalization is to establish a common coordinate system such that different faces can be meaningfully and easily compared. To make facial asymmetry measures readily comparable and combinable with those of EigenFace and Fisher-Face, we follow a face normalization process similar to [1,41]. We identify three anatomical feature points on each face: the inner canthus of each eye, ( $C_1, C_2$ ) and the philtrum  $C_3$  (Fig. 4). We define *face midline* as the line going through the mid point of ( $C_1, C_2$ ) and the philtrum  $C_3$ . A common coordinate in all faces is formed by transforming the face midline to a fixed vertical line centered in each face image. More specifically, this is done by moving [ $C_1, C_2, C_3$ ] into their normalized positions in three steps (Fig. 4):

1. rigid rotation: rotate  $\overline{C_1C_2}$  into a horizontal line segment,
2.  $X$ -skewing: skew the face image horizontally such that  $C_3$  is centered on the perpendicular line going through the midpoint of  $C_1, C_2$ ,
3.  $X, Y$ -scaling: scale  $\overline{C_1C_2}$  into length  $a$ , and scale the distance between  $C_3$  and  $\overline{C_1C_2}$  to length  $b$ .

Step 2 above ( $X$ -skewing) forces  $C_1, C_2$  to be bilaterally symmetrical with respect to the face midline. This step is equivalent to “reorienting” the anatomical face midline by an affine transformation. In general, affine transformation may fail to preserve Euclidean distance upon which definitions of symmetry are based [10]. However, as in the case of skewed symmetry [14], the relative distances of corresponding points with respect to their midpoint remain intact before and after skewing. Alternatively, one could normalize face images for facial asymmetry computation without skewing.

The three facial feature points (two canthi and a philtrum) are marked manually in the first frame and then tracked using the Lucas–Kanade algorithm [16]. In a

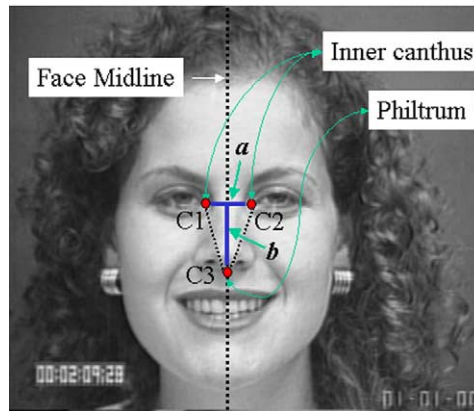


Fig. 4. Each face image is normalized using three points: left and right inner canthi ( $C_1, C_2$ ) and the philtrum ( $C_3$ ), by an affine transformation as follows: (1) rotation: rotate  $\overline{C_1C_2}$  into a horizontal line segment; (2)  $X$ -skewing: skew the face image horizontally such that  $C_3$  is located on the perpendicular line going through the midpoint of  $C_1, C_2$ ; (3)  $X/Y$ -scaling: scale  $\overline{C_1C_2}$  into length  $a$  and scale the distance between  $C_3$  and  $\overline{C_1C_2}$  to length  $b$ .

related study, tracked feature points are highly correlated ( $\geq 0.95$ ) with manually marked final positions [42]. Each image is then cropped into a  $128 \times 128$  squared image with face midline centered vertically. All normalized faces have inner canthi and philtrum in the same pixel locations:  $C_1 = [40, 48]$ ,  $C_2 = [88, 48]$ , and  $C_3 = [64, 84]$ . Thus  $a = 48$  and  $b = 36$  (upper-left corner has coordinates  $[0,0]$ ) (Fig. 4).

### 3.2. Facial asymmetry measurements

Once a face midline is determined, each point in the normalized face image has a unique corresponding point on the other side of the face image (given even number of columns in the image). Let us establish a coordinate system in a normalized face image with  $X$ -axis perpendicular to the face midline and  $Y$ -axis coinciding with the face midline. For a given normalized face density image  $I$ , its vertically reflected image  $I'$ , and their respective “edge” images  $I_e, I'_e$  (formed by applying an edge extraction algorithm to  $I$ , and  $I'$ ), we can define the following two facial asymmetry measurements:

*Density Difference (D-face):*

$$D(x, y) = I(x, y) - I'(x, y). \quad (1)$$

*Edge orientation Similarity (S-face):*

$$S(x, y) = \cos(\phi_{I_e(x,y), I'_e(x,y)}), \quad (2)$$

where  $\phi_{I_e(x,y), I'_e(x,y)}$  is the angle between the two edge orientations of images  $I_e, I'_e$  at the same pixel point  $x, y$ . Fig. 5 displays three normalized faces and their respective *D-face* and *S-face*. *D-face* and *S-face* capture facial asymmetry from different perspectives. *D-face* represents left–right relative intensity variation while *S-face* is affected by the zero-crossings of the intensity field. The higher the value of *D-face*, the more *asymmetrical* the face. The higher the value of *S-face*, the more *symmetrical* the face.

By construction, *S-face* is bilaterally symmetric, and the left and right halves of *D-face* are opposite (Fig. 5). Therefore, half of *D-face* and *S-face* contains all the needed information. From now on, we denote these half faces as *D-face* and *S-face*. In Table 1, we define six projections of *D-face* and *S-face*,  $\mathbf{D}, D_x, D_y, \mathbf{S}, S_x, S_y$ , and call them *AsymmetryFaces*. Each dimension of an *AsymmetryFace* is called a *feature*.

Fig. 6 shows the average *D-face* (*S-face*) from 55 subjects and its most asymmetrical (symmetrical) regions. Fig. 7 demonstrates  $D_x$  and  $D_y$  (Table 1) of the average *D-face*, respectively. One can observe from these two plots the distribution of facial asymmetry by rows and columns of the average face from 55 subjects.

## 4. Feature space dimension reduction

For a *D-face* (*S-face*) of size  $n \times n/2$ , its total dimension is  $n^2/2$ . When  $n = 128$ ,  $n^2/2 = 8192$ . These dimensions are not necessarily independent nor equally useful for human identification. To find the combination of local facial asymmetry

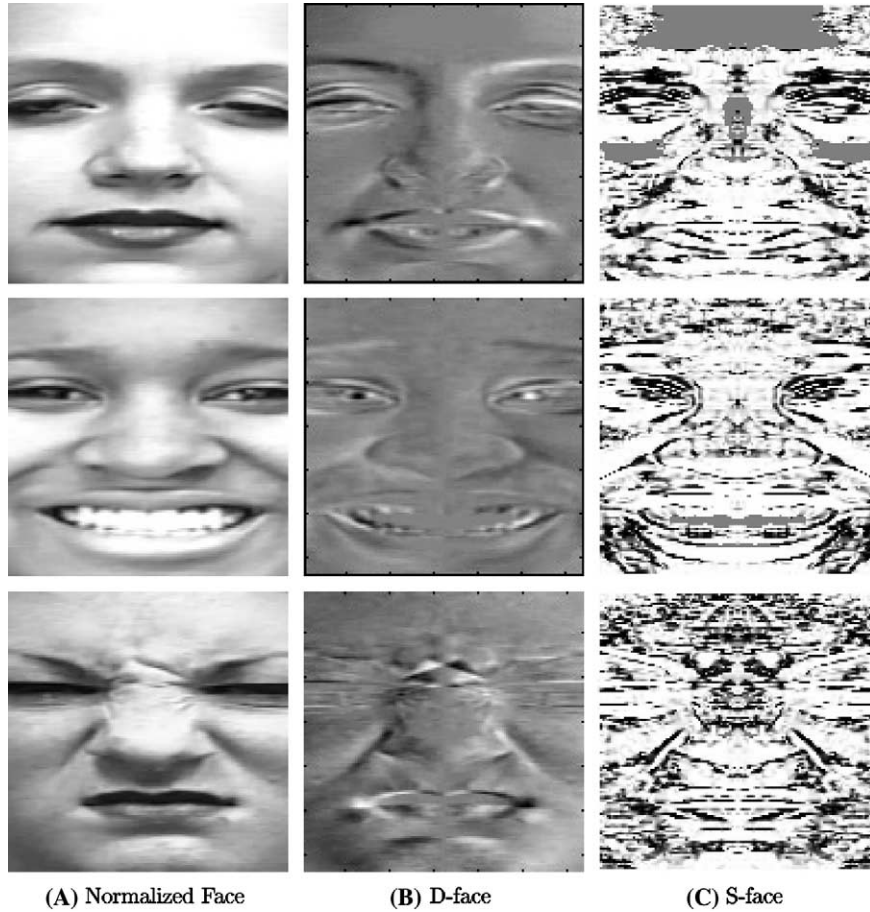


Fig. 5. (A) normalized face, (B) *D-face*, and (C) *S-face*.

measures that is most discriminative across human identities and reduce computation cost, we have experimented with several approaches for feature dimensionality reduction.

In the following, we use a specific set of *AsymmetryFaces* computed from the Cohn–Kanade database as a concrete example of feature space reduction. The dimensions of the six *AsymmetryFaces* from this database are specified in the right column of Table 1.

#### 4.1. Principle component analysis

Principle component analysis (PCA) is performed on an  $495 \times 192$  matrix to produce dataset **D** and **S** as defined in Table 1.  $8192 = 128 \times 64$  is the total number of pixels (feature dimension) in each *D-face* (*S-face*) and 495 is the sample number.

Table 1  
Different AsymmetryFaces

Notation	Definitions	Size ( $Y$ -axis $\times$ $X$ -axis)
$D$ -face	Intensity Difference image	$128 \times 64$
$S$ -face	Edge Similarity image	$128 \times 64$
AsymmetryFaces	Description	Dimensions (samples $\times$ features)
<b>D</b>	Top $k$ PCs accounting for 95% variance of $D$ -face	$495 \times 60$
$D_x$	Column-mean of $D$ -face on $X$ -axis	$495 \times 64$
$D_y$	Row-mean of $D$ -face on $Y$ -axis	$495 \times 128$
<b>S</b>	Top $k$ PCs accounting for 95% variance of $S$ -face	$495 \times 100$
$S_x$	Column-mean of $S$ -face on $X$ -axis	$495 \times 64$
$S_y$	Row-mean of $S$ -face on $Y$ -axis	$495 \times 128$

Right column indicates the AsymmetryFaces dimensions. PCs means principal components.

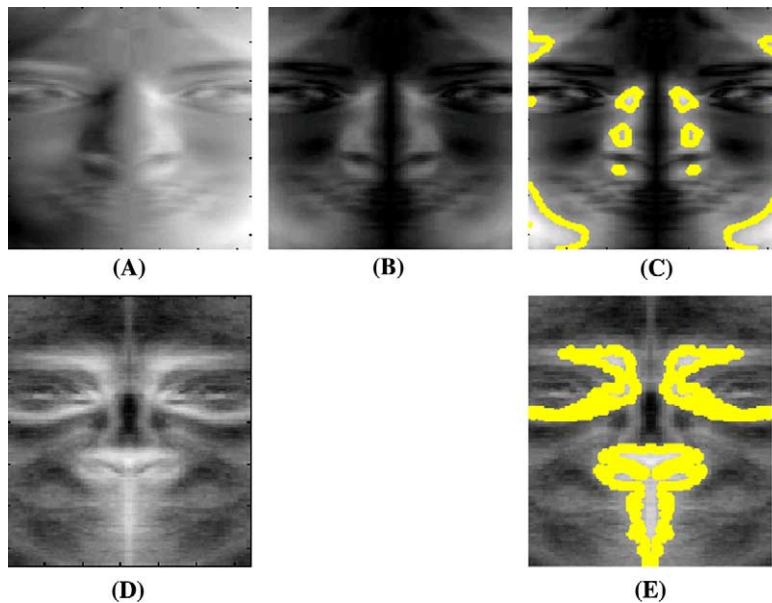


Fig. 6. (A) average  $D$ -face of 55 subjects, each subject has three expression videos. (B) The absolute values of  $D$ -face. (C) The top 1/3 most asymmetrical regions by  $D$ -face measure are circled. (D) Average  $S$ -face. (E) The top 1/3 most symmetrical regions by  $S$ -face measure are circled.

Following a commonly accepted criterion in face recognition [36,41], in this work (unless otherwise stated) we keep the top  $k$  principle components (PCs) that account for 95% of the variance in the data. Based on this cut-off rate, the top 60 principal components of  $D$ -face and 100 principal components of  $S$ -face are retained. The feature dimensions are thus reduced from 8192 to 60 and 100, respectively.



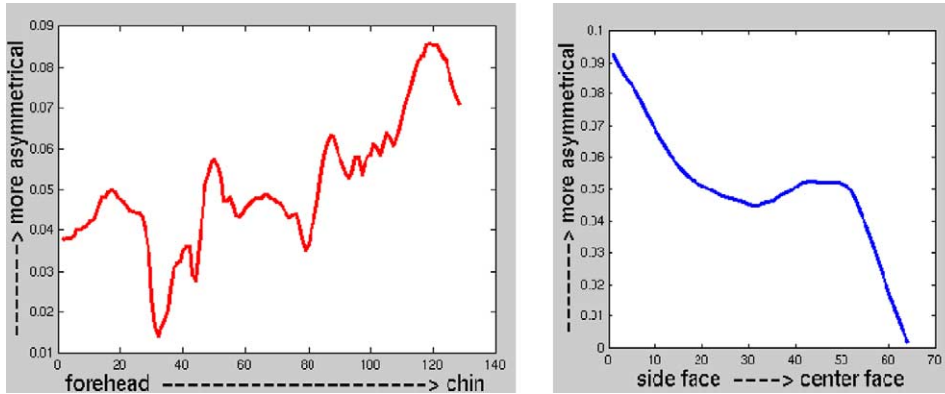


Fig. 7. Left:  $D_y$  (128 dimensions) starts from forehead and ends at the chin of the average  $D$ -face in Fig. 6(A). Right:  $D_x$  (64 dimensions) starts from the ear-side of the face (more asymmetrical) and ends in the center of the face (more symmetrical) of the average  $D$ -face.

#### 4.2. Feature averaging

We computed the mean values of  $\mathbf{D}$  and  $\mathbf{S}$  along  $X, Y$ -axes to obtain  $D_x, D_y, S_x, S_y$  (Table 1) as one way to reduce the feature space dimensions from 8192 to 64 and 128, respectively. These AsymmetryFaces provide an economical way to examine facial asymmetry row by row and column by column. Using the  $D_x, D_y, S_x, S_y$  representation, facial asymmetry of an expression video can be expressed as a spatiotemporal 3D surface for visualization and comparison. Fig. 8 shows an example of how  $D_y$  (row projections of  $D$ -face) varies across expression video clips (joy, anger, and disgust) between two different subjects. Despite expression changes, the between subject variation is more pronounced than variation across expression.

#### 4.3. Discriminative feature subset selection

A common theme in our research is to use available image features selectively for different image discrimination tasks; this is especially effective when redundancy presents within different feature dimensions [17–19,26]. In the current study, instead of using the full range of the six AsymmetryFaces (Table 1) certain criteria are used to seek a discriminative feature subspace.

For a feature  $F$  with values  $S_F$  in a data set with  $C$  total classes, the *variance ratio* (VR) of between- to within-variance is calculated as

$$\text{VR}(F) = \frac{\text{Var}(S_F)}{1/C \sum_{k=1, \dots, C} \text{Var}_k(S_F)},$$

where  $\text{Var}_k(S_F)$  is the variance of the subset of values from feature  $F$  which belongs to class  $c$ . Though VR accounts for the spread between means with the between-class variance, it does not take into account separation of classes on an individual basis.

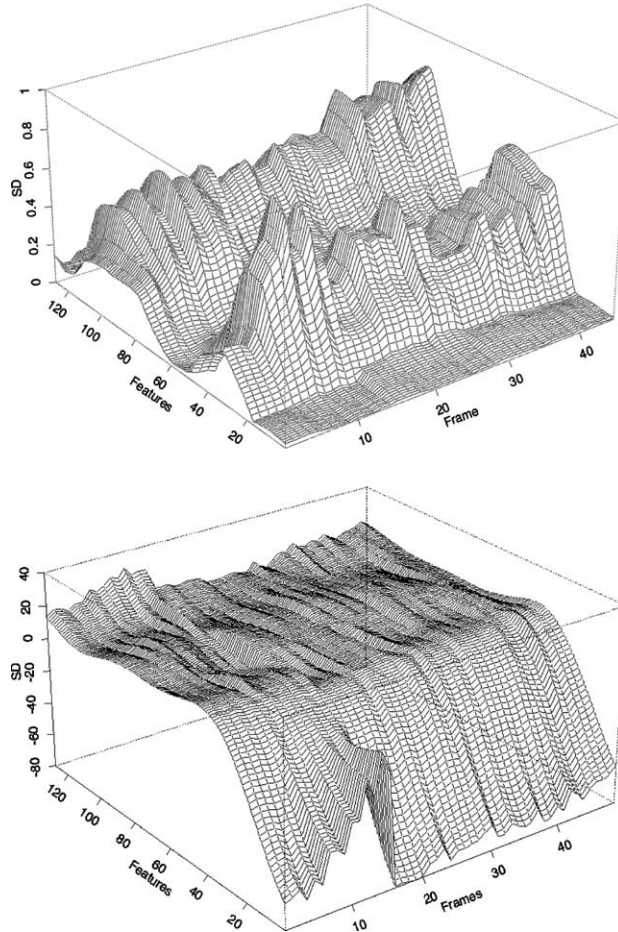


Fig. 8. Spatiotemporal surface of three expression video clips expressed using AsymmetryFace  $D_y$ . Top: subject 85. Bottom: subject 10. The “Frame” axis indicates the temporal ordering of joy–anger–disgust expression video clips consecutively. The “Features” axis shows AsymmetryFace  $D_y$  starting from forehead going towards the chin. The height is the  $D$ -face value.

It is possible for a feature to have small within-class scatter for a class even if the mean value of the feature for that class is very close to the mean value of the feature in another class. Thus we define an *augmented variance ratio* (AVR) as follows

$$AVR(F) = \frac{\text{Var}(S_F)}{(1/C) \sum_{i=1, \dots, C} (\text{Var}_i(S_F) / \min_{i \neq j} (|\text{mean}_i(S_F) - \text{mean}_j(S_F)|))},$$

where  $\text{mean}_i(F)$  is the mean of feature  $F$ 's values in class  $i$ . AVR is the ratio of the variance of the feature between subjects to the variance of the feature within subjects, with an added penalty for features that have close inter-subject mean values. Individual features that have higher variance ratios are more discriminative.

Fig. 9 shows the variance ratio values of each feature dimension of the four AsymmetryFaces  $D_x$ ,  $D_y$ ,  $S_x$ ,  $S_y$  (Table 1). The row with the highest AVR value of  $D_y$  corresponds to the nasal bridge region in the face images (Fig. 10). This finding is consistent with our observations in Fig. 1, but contrary to the intuition that mouth and eyes regions are the most discriminating characteristics for face recognition.

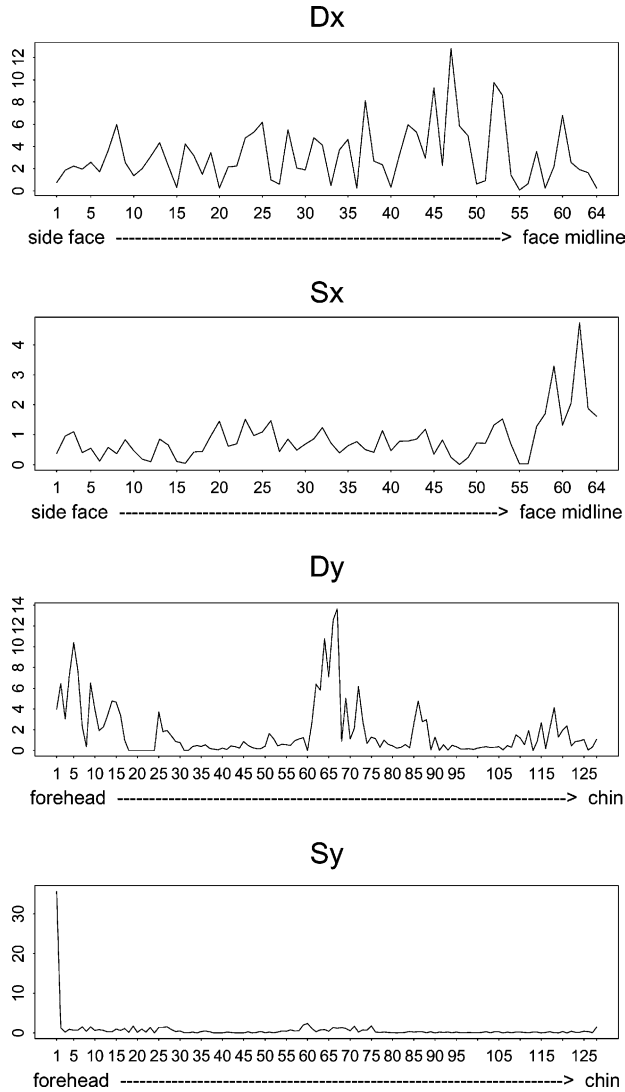


Fig. 9. Each plot shows the AVR value of each of the AsymmetryFaces ( $D_x$ ,  $D_y$ ,  $S_x$ ,  $S_y$  defined in Table 1). The higher the AVR value for a single dimension the more discriminating power that individual feature has.  $D_y$  and  $S_y$  (128 dimensions) start from forehead (left) to chin (right).  $D_x$  and  $S_x$  (64 dimensions) start from side face (left) towards the face midline (right).



Fig. 10. These are three video clips (joy, anger, disgust) with the most discriminative row feature indicated. The most discriminative row feature on a horizontal region, selected using augmented variance ratio measurement on each feature dimension, is around nasal bridge area. This region corresponds to the peak of  $D_y$  in Fig. 9.

Only those regions that are relatively invariant and unique for each subject across different expressions are candidates for discriminative features. Our goal is to use computer algorithms to find these regions automatically (Section 5.1.2).

## 5. Face identification experiments

To test the effectiveness of facial asymmetry measurements, we have used two datasets for our experiments. The first one is the FERET Database [31] and the second is the Cohn–Kanade AU-Coded Facial Expression Video Sequence Database [15].

### 5.1. Experimental methods

Two different datasets with different statistical properties are used for our experiments. Accordingly, two different classification methods are used as baseline classifiers for comparison when facial asymmetry information is added: EigenFace [41] and FisherFace [1]. For the dataset from the FERET database where there are only two samples per subject, PCA analysis (EigenFace) is used. Each subject has many more samples in the dataset from the Cohn–Kanade database, so Linear Discriminant Analysis (FisherFace) is used. Using different classifiers for different datasets based on their sample characteristics is well-justified [29].

### 5.1.1. Eigenface as a baseline classifier

A popular technique for estimating a covariance is called “EigenFace” [41]. In this technique, we calculate the overall mean and covariance for all images in our training set, then use the top  $k$  eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, selected based on the magnitude of their eigenvalues (here  $k$  is chosen to retain 95% variance). To classify a new image, we project it onto the  $k$  remaining eigenvectors, then measure its distance in this projected space to the mean of each class of training images. Before computing distances we may scale the coordinates in the projected space by some estimate of their standard deviation. The EigenFace technique is usually applied directly to raw image data, but we can also apply it to preprocessed image data. For example, we compute the eigenfaces of face images after edge detection or after computing measures of facial asymmetry.

In our experiment, the training set is composed of 110 images, each of them is one of the pairs and the other image in each pair forms the test set. First, the EigenFace method is applied to the 110 normalized face images. Then the same EigenFace method is applied to AsymmetryFace *S-faces* (edge orientation similarity). Finally, the EigenFace method is applied to the concatenation of the image and *S-face* vectors.

### 5.1.2. Fisherface as a baseline classifier

The expression video sequence image dataset [15] is our primary testbed, where we have many samples (frames in a video) for 55 subjects under three expressions (joy, anger, and disgust) together with their respective neutral and peak frames.

FisherFace [1] is another popular method used in face recognition. FisherFace is a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) applied to the PCA components of normalized face images. Given a set of relatively independent features on a dataset  $\mathbf{X}$  consisting of  $C$  classes, the objective of LDA is to obtain a  $(C - 1)$ -dimensional linear combination,  $Y = A'X$  that maximizes the ratio  $A'BA/A'WA$ , where  $B$  is the variance between classes and  $W$  is the common covariance matrix for features within a single class. In another word, LDA creates a linear combination of the given feature dimensions that yields the largest mean differences between the desired classes [8,29].

We have designed five types of experiments (Table 2) to systematically investigate whether the facial asymmetry measures we defined can contribute to expression invariant human identification. They are listed in Table 2:

Table 2  
Five types of experiments

	Train image expressions	Test image expressions
1	Anger and disgust	Joy
2	Disgust and joy	Anger
3	Joy and anger	Disgust
4	Peak of all three expressions	Neutral
5	Neutral	Peak of all three expressions

Given AsymmetryFaces  $A$  (six different feature sets as defined in Table 1), and PCA components  $P$  of the normalized face images  $F$ , the experiments are carried out in three steps:

- Step 1. *FisherFace*: apply FisherFace on  $F$ ;
- Step 2. *AsymmetryFaces*: for each of the six subsets of  $A$  and all their possible combinations,
  - compute the AVR value for each feature dimension of the training data and order the features in non-increasing order of their AVR values
  - carry out forward feature subset selection [2] on the ordered feature list to obtain a feature subspace
  - apply Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) to the test data in the selected feature subspace.
- Step 3. **FF + AF**—we define this symbol to denote the following process: for each and every possible feature vector concatenation of the PCA components  $P$  and each and all of the six AsymmetryFaces,
  - compute AVR values for each feature dimension and rank features in non-decreasing order of their AVR values ( $P$  followed by  $A$ );
  - apply forward feature subset selection to the concatenated feature vector of the training data;
  - perform LDA classification on the selected, reduced feature subspace for the test data.

In our classification procedure, we have included a feature subset selection step before applying LDA. The reason for this additional step is to eliminate irrelevant and redundant feature dimensions from the original feature space, thus establishing a feature subspace that has relatively independent feature dimensions.

## 5.2. Experimental results

The goal of these experiments is to test the incremental validity of AsymmetryFaces relative to EigenFace or FisherFace. We first test AsymmetryFaces in face image data whose facial expression variation is relatively small (FERET). We then test whether AsymmetryFaces are robust to variation in type and intensity of facial expression as found in the Cohn–Kanade database.

### 5.2.1. FERET database [31]

Using EigenFace alone, error rate is 15%. When *S-face* is added to the same classifier, the error rate decreases from 15% to 9.3%. If we define an *Error Reduction Rate* (ERR) as:  $(\%Error_{\text{before}} - \%Error_{\text{after}}) / \%Error_{\text{before}}$ , this result corresponds to an Error Reduction Rate of 38%.

### 5.2.2. Cohn–Kanade database

In Table 3, we show the outcome from each of the three experimental steps (Section 5.1.2: FisherFace, AsymmetryFaces and **FF + AF**) on the five different setups (Table 2). The dimension of the reduced feature space for FisherFace in [1] is no

larger than 15, we follow the same choice and report our results for FisherFace when 15 principal components are retained.

In comparison to FisherFace, AsymmetryFaces have lower error rates in each of the five experiments (Table 3). For the five experiments, the ERRs from FisherFace to **FF + AF** are 100% except for testing on joy, which is 45%. Paired  $t$  tests [6] show that at 5% significance level all five results of **FF + AF** are statistically better than those of FisherFace (Table 4).

Fig. 11 shows the change of error rates with the addition of AsymmetryFace feature sets. One can observe the trend that with the increasing of different types of AsymmetryFaces the error rates of FisherFace and **FF + AF** are decreasing. The steepest slopes appear between FisherFace alone (#1 on  $X$ -axis) and when  $D$ -face is added (#2 on  $X$ -axis). When testing on joy, one also sees that the error rate further declines as each additional AsymmetryFaces is introduced. This finding implies that the six AsymmetryFaces is not redundant in terms of their contribution towards human identification.

Since feature subset selection is a major ingredient in our algorithm for human face identification, let us take a closer look at the selected features for testing on joy and neutral expressions. Two samples of selected feature sets from the whole feature set of 559 dimensions for testing on joy and testing neutral are shown in Fig. 12.

The definitions and initial dimensions of the AsymmetryFaces are listed in Table 1. **FF** and AsymmetryFaces  $D$ ,  $S$  are computed principal components, while  $D_x$ ,  $D_y$ ,  $S_x$ ,  $S_y$  have direct relation with specific displacement on faces which are illustrated

Table 3  
Results of FisherFace versus AsymmetryFaces and **FF + AF**

Testing	Training	%Error		
		FisherFace	AsymmetryFaces	<b>FF + AF</b>
Joy	Anger and disgust	19.39 (15)	6.67 (544 → 127)	2.42 (559 → 187)
Anger	Joy and disgust	6.67 (15)	1.21 (544 → 161)	0.00 (559 → 221)
Disgust	Joy and anger	8.48 (15)	3.03 (544 → 136)	0.00 (559 → 147)
Neutral	Peak	6.06 (15)	0.00 (544 → 243)	0.00 (559 → 248)
Peak	Neutral	3.64 (15)	0.00 (544 → 212)	0.00 (559 → 261)

The numbers in the parentheses indicate the feature dimensions selected (before → after feature subset selection).

Table 4  
 $P$  values for  $t$  tests with d.o.f. = 54

Test set	FisherFace versus AsymmetryFaces	FisherFace versus <b>FF + AF</b>
Joy	0.0030*	0.0000*
Anger	0.1592	0.0103*
Disgust	0.1066	0.0050*
Neutral	0.0239*	0.0239*
Peak	0.0326*	0.0326*

The ones with \* indicate statistical significance at 5% level.

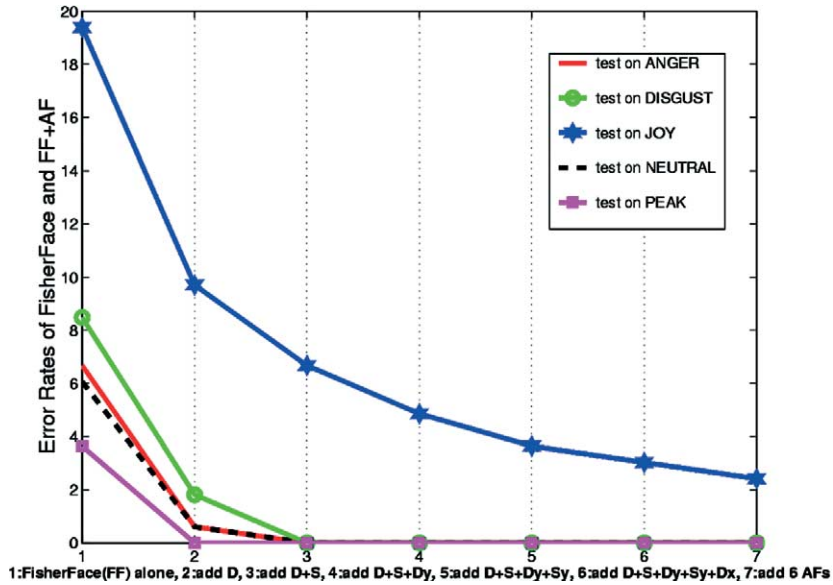


Fig. 11. Error rates of FisherFace and **FF + AF** when the six AsymmetryFaces are added into **FF + AF** one by one. Each plot represents the error rate when testing on each of the five unseen expressions listed in Table 2.

in Fig. 7. One can see that: (1) not all the 15 principal components computed directly from normalized face images are selected; (2) the selected features vary depending on which expressions are chosen for training/testing; and (3) since each feature set is added sequentially in feature selection process, the dimensions selected are getting fewer for feature sets added later. This happens since only those features that can decrease the current error rate will be added. (4) Bar plots for  $D_x$ ,  $D_y$ ,  $S_x$ ,  $S_y$  tell us exactly the facial asymmetry measures on which rows (columns) of the face are selected for this experiment. One can find more detailed experimental results in [20].

## 6. Discussion

### 6.1. Classification error in relation to the number of retained principal components

Our experimental results (Table 3) suggest that quantified facial asymmetry information has discriminative power for human identification. When AsymmetryFaces are explicitly included with existing face identification methods, obvious improvements on classification rates are observed. Meanwhile, we computed and observed that when more principal components of the normalized face images are used in FisherFace, the error rate decreases (Table 5). A pertinent question is then raised: is it possible that some small principal components of the normalized face images



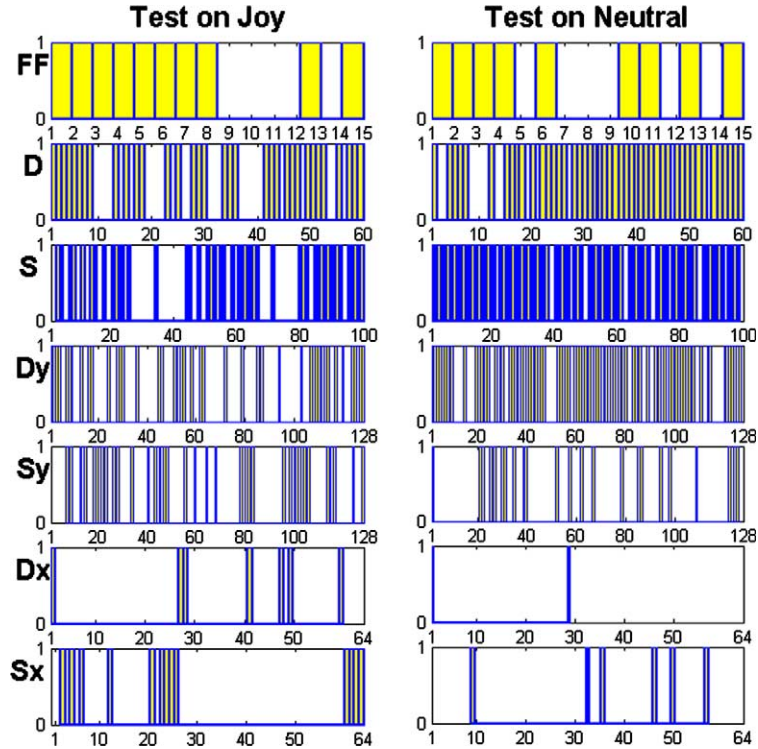


Fig. 12. Automatically selected feature dimensions indicated by a bar when testing on *joy* and training on anger and disgust (left column) and testing on *neutral* and training on peak expressions (right column). Here all feature sets of **FF** + **AF** are used with a total dimension of 559. The selected total feature space dimensions are 187 and 248, respectively. Note: the features of  $D_y$ ,  $S_y$  run from a subject's forehead towards the chin (1 to 128), and the features of  $D_x$ ,  $S_x$  go from the side of a face towards the face midline (1 to 64).

Table 5

Error rates of FisherFace when different number of principal components is used (indicated in parentheses)

Test on:	Joy	Anger	Disgust	Neutral	Peak
Train on:	Anger and disgust	Joy and disgust	Joy and anger	Peak	Neutral
FF (1:10)	27.87%	10.30%	13.33%	8.48%	9.70%
FF (1:15)	19.39%	6.67%	8.48%	6.06%	3.64%
FF (1:20)	12.12%	4.24%	4.24%	3.64%	1.21%
FF (1:25)	12.12%	1.82%	4.24%	3.64%	0.61%

actually contain information of facial asymmetry, but are being discarded early on in most EigenFace/FisherFace classifiers?

We pursued this question for the case of testing on joy, which has the largest remaining error in our experiment. Fig. 13 shows the results for 57 subjects with 3703

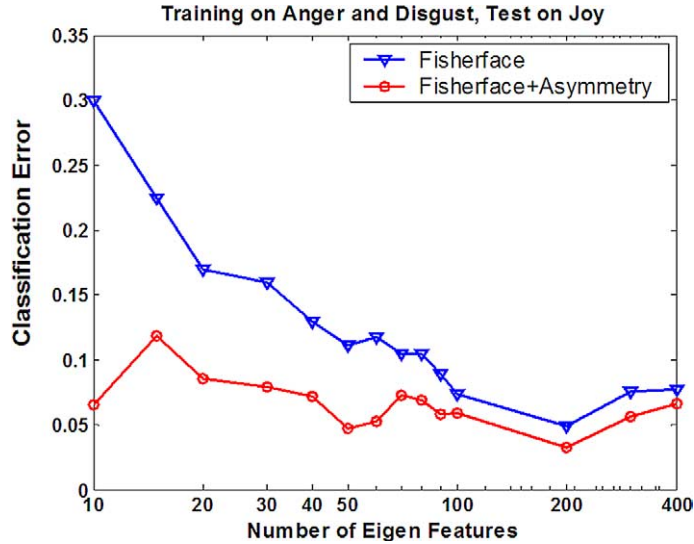


Fig. 13. The **FF + AF** method shows superior performance compared with FisherFace method alone even when extending the PCA components in FisherFace method to 400 dimensions.

frames, as the number of principal components (Eigen Features) is increased from 10 to 400 dimensions. Even when the principal components are increased to 400 dimensions, **FF + AF** method is still doing better than FisherFace alone. This suggests that explicitly computing and including facial asymmetry measurements in human identification is indeed beneficial.

### 6.2. Peak expression faces versus neutral faces are easier to identify

We have also observed from Table 3 that among the five different experimental setups (Table 2) the *test-on-neutral face* and *test-on-peak face* are relatively easier than those cases of training on two expressions and testing on a third expression. Most tests of human identification under expression variation fall into the neutral-peak categories [12,27,28]. However, our observation suggests that further studies across different expressions and intensity levels may be even more important and necessary. From the error rates reported in this work (Tables 3 and 5), one can see that training on two expressions and testing on an unseen expression usually has higher error rates for both FisherFace and AsymmetryFaces methods. Training on anger and disgust then testing on joy is the most difficult and worth further study.

### 6.3. Why joy faces are harder to identify?

We found small but consistent decrements in face recognition for joy relative to anger and disgust. One possible explanation is the difference in emotional valence between these emotion expressions. Theory and some data suggest that positive emo-

tions, such as joy, are lateralized in the left hemisphere while negative emotions such as anger and disgust are lateralized in the right [33]. A difference in lateralization, however, would not in itself explain why increased asymmetry would influence face recognition using asymmetry metrics. A critical factor may be in the location and range of motion of the muscles involved. Anger and disgust expressions involve muscle actions near the midline of the face and many of the movements are relatively small (e.g., eye narrowing or lip compression), whereas joy expressions involve muscles to the side of the face and one of the two muscles (*zygomatic major*) involved is relatively large, which affords greater range of motion. Larger motion toward the side of the face in joy expressions would therefore increase asymmetry relative to smaller facial motion toward the midline. This interpretation is consistent with our finding that asymmetry across all images was greatest toward the side of the face and decreased as one moves toward the midline (Fig. 7).

#### 6.4. Limitations

A limitation of the present study is the reliance on expressions produced by demand (i.e., deliberate) rather than those elicited by emotion eliciting stimuli. Deliberate facial expressions relative to spontaneous ones are believed to be more asymmetric [13,34], which means that variance due to expressions is increased relative to variance due to individual differences in faces. The present study may therefore provide a conservative estimate of the extent to which asymmetry metrics can contribute to face recognition.

Another limitation is the sizes of datasets used in our experiments. While larger datasets would have been preferable, the current findings appear reliable. They are confirmed with statistical tests wherever possible and are consistent across two independent databases. Nevertheless, further study with larger databases would be worthwhile.

### 7. Conclusion

Previous work in psychology suggests that facial asymmetry contributes to human identification. In this work, we found that similar benefits may be obtained in automated face recognition. Facial asymmetry seems to provide significant information especially when combined with conventional face recognition algorithms.

In this work, we have studied the use of facial asymmetry for human identification. We have proposed two quantitative measures of facial asymmetry and demonstrated that: (1) *D-face* and *S-face* measures and their projections are easy and fast to compute (Table 1); (2) The automatically selected facial asymmetry regions capture individual differences that show robustness to variations in facial expression (Table 3); (3) The most important finding in our work is that classification accuracy can be improved by combining AsymmetryFaces with FisherFace or EigenFace. These results suggest that facial asymmetry may provide complementary discriminative

information to human identification methods, which has been missing in automatic human identification.

Our current work includes studying the issue of how to distill intrinsic facial asymmetry from images cluttered with extrinsic facial asymmetries, examining the use of 3D faces in verification of our hypothesis and in aiding 2D recognition [23], using asymmetry for facial expression identification [21], gender relevance analysis [22] and pose estimation, and designing more effective discriminative feature subspace reduction schemes for optimal face classification.

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