



ESTIMATION OF AGE USING FACIAL IMAGE

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Abstract—Image mining is a vital technique which is used to mine knowledge straightforwardly from image. Image segmentation is the primary phase in image mining. Image mining is simply an expansion of data mining in the field of image processing. Image mining handles with the hidden knowledge extraction, image data association and additional patterns which are not clearly accumulated

in the imagesThe face of a human being conveys a lot of information about identity and emotional state of the person. Face recognition is an interesting and challenging problem, and impacts important applications. In this work a novel and computational fast algorithm is proposed for predicting age of humans with PeanoCountTree (P-Tree). The predicting system was developed and tested based on texture features extracted local gradient patterns (LGP) and gray level co-occurrence matrix (GLMC) to give better and more predicting accuracy with a range of time period. In our research work, we empirically evaluate face recognition which considers both shape and texture information to represent face images based on Local Binary Patterns for person independent face recognition. The face area is first divided into small regions from which Local Binary Patterns (LBP) extracted and concatenated into a single feature vector. This feature vector forms an efficient representation of the

face and is used to measure similarities between images.

Keywords— Local binary pattern (LBP), feature extraction, classification, pattern recognitin, feature vector, Decision tree.

I. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge discovery systems are constrained by three main limited resources: time, memory and sample size. Recognition of human skin is an important task for both computer applications. In computer graphics, facial animation is an important problem which necessitates reliable skin texture recognition. In addition to computer vision and graphics, skin recognition is useful in dermatology and several industrial fields.Many skin segmentation methods depend on skin color [1] [2] which has many difficulties. For the above reasons combining the texture features of skin with its color feature will increase the accuracy of skin recognition. Skin is a complex landscape that is difficult to model for many reasons. The skin texture features depends on many variables such as body location (knuckle vs. torso), subject parameters (age/gender/health) and imaging parameters (lighting and camera). Also as with many real world surfaces, skin appearance is strongly affected by the age with folds on the face as shown in the below figure1.

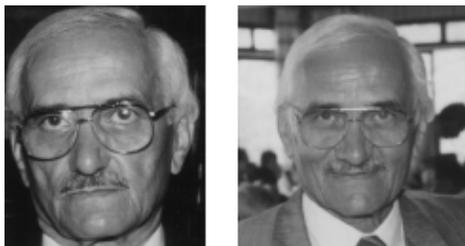


Figure 1: wrinkles changes based on the age on the face.

In many commercial areas, very large quantities of data are generated and collected every day, such as international airports, security surveillance systems, and Verification and authentication in different places. These data arrive too fast to be analyzed or mined in time. Such kinds of data are called “data streams” [3]. Classifying open-ended data streams brings challenges and opportunities since traditional techniques often cannot complete the work as quickly as the data is arriving in the stream [4]. Such data sets can be very large and are often archived in deep storage before valuable information can be obtained from them. An objective of spatial data stream mining is to mine such data in near real time prior to deep storage archiving. Classification is one of the important areas of data mining. In classification task, a training set (or called learning set) is identified for the construction of a classifier. Each record in the learning set has several attributes, one of which, the goal or class label attribute, indicates the class to which each record belongs. The classifier, once built and tested, is used to predict the class label of new records that do not yet have a class label attribute value. A test set is used to test the accuracy of the classifier. The classifier, once certified, is used to predict the class label of future unclassified data. Different models have been proposed for classification such as decision trees, neural networks, Bayesian belief networks, fuzzy sets, and generic models. Among these models, decision trees are widely used for classification. We focus on decision tree induction in this paper. ID3 (and its variants such as C4.5) [5, 6] and CART [7] are among the best known classifiers that use decision trees. Other decision tree classifiers include Interval Classifier [8] and SPRINT [9] which concentrate on making it possible to mine databases that do not fit in main memory by only requiring sequential scans of the data. Classification has

been applied in many fields, such as retail target marketing, customer retention, fraud detection and medical diagnosis. Spatial data is a promising area for classification. In this paper, we propose a decision tree based model to perform classification on spatial data streams. A new data structure, the Peano Count Tree (P-tree) [10] is used to build the decision tree classifier. P-trees represent spatial data bit-by-bit in a recursive quadrant-by-quadrant arrangement. With the information in P-trees, we can rapidly build the decision tree. Each new component in a spatial data stream is converted to P-trees and then added to the training set as soon as possible. Typically, a window of data components from the stream is used to build (or rebuild) the classifier. There are many ways to define the window, depending on the data and application.

In this paper, the focus is on feature extraction and building fast classifier algorithm. We are implementing our work in four stages.

1. Image mining, Ptree and decision tree
2. Local Binary Patterns.
3. Feature extraction.
4. Application part (Lighting condition, Pose, size and Surgery problems).

Here we finished three things and images are correctly recognised. Last stage is still in progress.

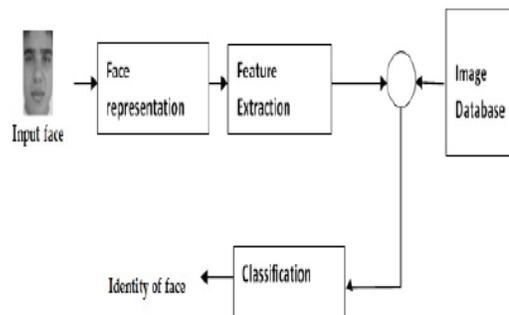


Figure 2: General structure of steps in classification.

Most existing skin segmentation techniques involve the Classification of individual image pixels into skin and non-skin categories on the basis of pixel color. Lots of relative studies of skin color pixel classification have been reported. In [11] Nidhal K. Al abbadhi proposed a method for skin texture recognition using neural network. They proposed a skin recognition system. This system is using skin color feature and texture feature. In [12] authors proposed a texture recognition system based on Grey Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM) for automatic

recognizing the texture. Based on the differences in texture appearance skin texture is categorized into 3 different disease classes. Features extracted from GLCM are contrast, homogeneity, mean and variance. Based on the differences in texture appearance skin texture is categorized into 3 different disease classes. Brand and Mason [13] compared three different techniques on the Compaq database: thresholding the red-green ratio, color space mapping with 1D pointer and RGB skin probability map. In [14] authors implemented a classifier using MLP neural network for face detection. Face can be detected through different features similar to shape skin texture and skin color. They are interested by the design of ANN not by the features. In [15] authors proposed a technique for image segmentation using texture content. Texture features are extracted from spatial blocks using quad tree decomposition. All feature sets are computed from Quadrature Mirror Filter (QMF) wavelet representation. Texture feature extraction can be done based on block-based features, wavelet sub band features. Numbers of comparative studies of skin color pixel classification have been reported. LDP is a general framework to encode directional pattern features based on local derivative variations [16]. The n^{th} -order LDP is proposed to encode the $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ -order local derivative direction variations, which can capture more detailed information than the first-order local pattern used in local binary pattern (LBP). Different from LBP encoding the relationship between the central point and its neighbors, the LDP templates extract high-order local information by encoding various distinctive spatial relationships contained in a given local region.

II. HUMAN SKIN COLOR MODEL

A human skin color model is used to decide if a color is a skin or nonskin color. Major requirements of a skin color model are listed below:

- **Very low false rejection rate at low false detection rate.**

Skin color detection is first step in skin segmentation; therefore it is imperative that almost all skin colors are detected while keeping the false detection rate low. False detections can be handled later when

more *a priori* knowledge about the object of interest (ie. face, hand) is available.

- **Detection of different skin color types.** There are many skin color types, ranging from whitish and yellowish to blackish and brownish, which must be all classified in one class, skin color.
- **Handling of ambiguity between skin and nonskin colors.** There are many objects in the environment that have the same color as skin. In these instances, even a human observer cannot determine if a particular color is from a skin or nonskin region without taking into account contextual information. An effective skin color model should address this ambiguity between skin and nonskin colors.
- **Robustness to variation in lighting conditions.** Skin color can appear markedly different under different lighting. It is impractical to construct a skin color model that works under all possible lighting conditions. However, a good skin color model should exhibit some sort of robustness to variations in lighting conditions. In our work, we aim to create a skin color model for typical office lighting and daylight conditions.

III. FEATURE EXTRACTION

A. Local gradient patterns

To investigate the feasibility and effectiveness of using high-order local patterns for face representation. An Local gradient patterns is proposed, in which the first-order derivative direction variations based on a binary coding function. In this scheme, LBP is conceptually regarded as the nondirectional first-order local pattern operator, because LBP encodes all-direction first-order derivative binary result while LDP encodes the higher-order derivative information which contains more detailed discriminative features that the first-order local pattern (LBP) can not obtain from an image. Given an image $I(Z)$, we calculate first-order derivatives along 0° , 45° , 90° and 135° directions, which is denoted as $I'_\alpha(Z)$ where $\alpha = 0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ$ and 135° .

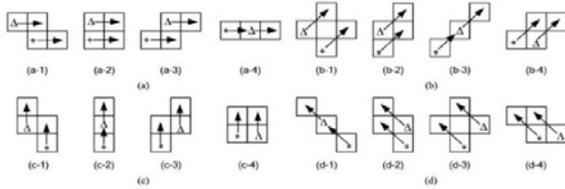
$$(a) I'_{0^\circ}(Z_0) = I(Z_0) - I(Z_4)$$

$$(b) I'_{45^\circ}(Z_0) = I(Z_0) - I(Z_3)$$

$$(c) I'_{90^\circ}(Z_0) = I(Z_0) - I(Z_2)$$

$$(d) I'_{135^\circ}(Z_0) = I(Z_0) - I(Z_1)$$

If Z_0 is one point in $I(Z)$, neighboring point around Z_0 (see Fig. below). So the four first-order derivatives at $Z=Z_0$



Once the first order gradient details of the image is obtained. The energy of the local gradient patterns is computed from the LDP image by the following equation.

$$Energy = \sum_{i,j}^{M,N} LDP(i,j)^2 \tag{1}$$

B.Gray Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM)

Texture analysis has been an active area of research in pattern recognition. A variety of techniques have been used for measuring textural similarity. In 1973, Haralick et al. proposed co-occurrence matrix (GLCM) representation of texture features to mathematically represent gray level spatial dependence of texture in an image [17]. In this method the co-occurrence matrix is constructed based on the orientation and distance between image pixels. Meaningful statistics are extracted from this co-occurrence matrix, as the representation of texture. Since basic texture patterns are governed by periodic occurrence of certain gray levels, co-occurrence of gray levels at predefined relative positions can be a reasonable measure of the presence of texture and periodicity of the patterns. Several texture features such as entropy, energy, contrast, and homogeneity, can be extracted from the co-occurrence matrix of gray levels of an image. The gray level co-occurrence matrix $C(i, j)$ is defined by first specifying a displacement vector $dx, y = (\delta x, \delta y)$ (where $\delta x, \delta y$ are the displacements in the x and y directions respectively) and then counting all pairs of Pixels separated by displacement dx, y and having gray levels i and j . The matrix $C(i, j)$ is normalized by dividing each element in the matrix by the total number of pixel pairs. Using this co-occurrence matrix, the texture features Metrics are computed as follows.

$$Entropy = \sum_{i,j}^{M,N} C(i,j) \log(C(i,j)) \tag{2}$$

$$Contrast = \sum_{i,j}^{M,N} (i - j)^2 C(i,j) \tag{3}$$

$$Homogeneity = \sum_{i,j}^{M,N} \frac{C(i,j)}{i + j + 1} \tag{4}$$

C.Feature dataset Organization using PeanoCount Tree

All the values have been scaled to values between 0 and 255 for simplicity. The pixel coordinates in raster order constitute the key attribute. One can view such data as table in relational form where each pixel is a tuple and each band is an attribute.



Figure3 : preprocessed image divided into 64 regions.

There are several formats used for spatial data, such as Band Sequential (BSQ), Band Interleaved by Line (BIL) and Band Interleaved by Pixel (BIP). The new format which was called as bit Sequential Organization (bSQ) is introduced. Since each intensity value ranges from 0 to 255, which can be represented as a byte, we try to split each bit in one band into a separate file, called a bSQ file. For example, for a TIFF image with three bands, we have 24bSQ files.

This example has been taken from [18]. The following relation table contains 4 features of 4-bit data values.

Record	B1	B2	B3	B4
0	0011	0111	1000	1011
1	0011	0011	1000	1111
2	0111	0011	0100	1011
3	0111	0010	0101	1011

4	0011	0111	1000	1011
5	0011	0011	1000	1011
6	0111	0011	0100	1011
7	0111	0010	0101	1011

8	0010	1011	1000	1111
9	0010	1011	1000	1111
10	1010	1010	0100	1011
11	1111	1010	0100	1011

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12| 0010| 1011| 1000| 1111
13| 1010| 1011| 1000| 1111
14| 1111| 1010| 0100| 1011
15| 1111| 1010| 0100| 1011
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Table 1. Feature sets in relational table

This dataset is converted in bSQ format. The feature-1bit-bands would be like below if we display the bSQ format in 2- dimension

```

      B11 B12 B13 B14
0000 0011 1111 1111
0000 0011 1111 1111
0011 0001 1111 0001
0111 0011 1111 0011

```

There is a constraint on bSQ formation. P-tree requires the number of rows and columns in bSQ file be multiple of four. In case, the number of tuples in database is not a multiple of four we need to pad zero vectors at the end; so that it is.

Based on this idea, to identify a person, the recognition

System works as follows:

- Basic p-trees of the enrolled feature sets are constructed as preprocessing. This is a one-time job.
- Feature vector of the person to be recognized is extracted.
- A tuple p-tree of this feature vector is generated based on the basic p-trees.
- If the root count of this tuple p-tree are classified by Peano-Tree classifier.

These tuple p-tree values are subjected through decision tree will different age groups will have different gradient energy.

D. P-Tree based Decision Classifier

Classification is a data mining technique that typically involves three phases, a learning phase, a testing phase and an application phase. A learning model or classifier is built during the learning phase. It may be in the form of classification rules, a decision tree, or a mathematical formula. Since the class label of each training sample is provided, this approach is known as supervised learning. In unsupervised learning (clustering), the class labels are not

known in advance. In the testing phase test data are used to assess the accuracy of classifier. If the classifier passes the test phase, it is used for the classification of new, unclassified data tuples. This is the application phase. The classifier *predicts* the class label for these new data samples. In this paper, we consider the classification of spatial data in which the resulting classifier is a decision tree (decision tree induction). Our contributions include

(1) A set of classification-ready data structures called Peano Count trees, which are compact, rich in information and facilitate classification;

(2) A data structure for organizing the inputs to decision tree induction, the Peano count cube.

(3) A fast decision tree induction algorithm, which employs these structures. We point out the classifier is precisely the classifier built by the ID3 decision tree induction algorithm.

The point of the work is to reduce the time it takes to build and rebuild the classifier as new data continue to arrive. This is very important for performing classification on data streams.

A Decision Tree is a flowchart-like structure in which each node denotes a test on an attribute. Each branch represents an outcome of the test and the leaf nodes represent class or class distributions. Unknown samples can be classified by testing attributes against the tree. The path traced from root to leaf holds the class prediction for that sample. The basic algorithm for inducing a decision tree from the learning or training sample set is as follows [19]:

- Initially the decision tree is a single node representing the entire training set.
- If all samples are in the same class, this node becomes a leaf and is labeled with that class label.
- Otherwise, an entropy-based measure, "information gain", is used as a heuristic for selecting the attribute which best separates the samples into individual classes (the "decision" attribute).
- A branch is created for each value of the test attribute and samples are partitioned accordingly.

- The algorithm advances recursively to form the decision tree for the sub-sample set at each partition. Once an attribute has been used, it is not considered in descendent nodes.
- The algorithm stops when all samples for a given node belong to the same class or when there are no remaining attributes (or some other stopping condition)

The attribute selected at each decision tree level is the one with the highest information gain. The information gain of an attribute is computed by using the following algorithm. Assume B[0] is the class attribute; the others are non-class attributes. We store the decision path for each node. For example, in the decision tree below (Figure 3), the decision path for node N09 is “Band2, value 0011, Band3, value 1000”. We use RC to denote the root count of a P-tree, given node N’s decision path B[1], V[1], B[2], V[2], ..., B[t], V[t], let P-tree $P = PB[1], v[1] \wedge PB[2], v[2] \wedge \dots \wedge P B[t], v[t]$, we can calculate node N’s information I(P) through

$$I(P) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2(p_i)$$

Where $p_i = RC(P \wedge PB[0], V0[i]) / RC(P)$, here $V0[1]..V0[n]$ are possible B[0] values if classified by B[0] at node N. If N is the root node, then P is the full P-tree (root count is the total number of transactions). Now if we want to evaluate the information gain of attribute A at node N, we can use the formula: Gain (A) = I(P) - E (A), where entropy

$$E(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n I(P \wedge PA, VA[i]) = \frac{RC(P \wedge PA, VA[i])}{RC(P)}$$

Where VA [1], VA[n] are possible A values if classified by attribute A. Thus, the B1 basic P-trees are as follows (tree pointers are omitted).

P1, 1P1, 2 P1, 3P1, 4
 5 7 16 11
 0014 0403 4403
 0001 0111 0111

Then we generate basic P-trees and value P-trees similarly to F2, F3 and F4. Start with A = F2. Because the node currently dealing is the root node, P is the full P-tree. So pi can be 3/16, 1/4, 1/4, 1/8, 3/16, thus we can calculate

$$I(P) = 3/16 * \log_2(3/16) + 4/16 * \log_2(4/16) +$$

$$4/16 * \log_2(4/16) + 2/16 * \log_2(2/16) + 3/16 * \log_2(3/16)$$

$$I(P) = 2.281$$

To calculate E (B2), first P^PA, VA[i] should be all the value P-trees of B2. Then I (P^PA, VA[i]) can be calculated by ANDing all the B2 value P-trees and B1 value P-trees. Finally we get E (B2) = 0.656 and Gain (B2) = 1.625. Likewise, the Gains of B3 and B4 are computed: Gain (B3) = 1.084, Gain (B4) = 0.568. Thus, B2 is selected as the first level decision attribute. Branches are created for each value of F2 and samples are partitioned accordingly.

B2=0010 → Sample_Set_1
 B2=0011 → Sample_Set_2
 B2=0111 → Sample_Set_3
 B2=1010 → Sample_Set_4
 B2=1011 → Sample_Set_5

Advancing the algorithm recursively to each subsampleset, it is unnecessary to rescan the learning set to form these sub-sample sets, since the P-trees for those samples have been computed. The algorithm will terminate with the decision tree:

B2=0010 → B1=0111
 B2=0011 → B3=0100 → B1=0111
 → B3=1000 → B1=0011
 B2=0111 → B1=0011
 B2=1010 → B1=1111
 B2=1011 → B1=0010

Based on the above describe entropy and gain values root nodes are selected. The branch will give the path of particular tuple in the data set with class label as shown in the following decision tree.

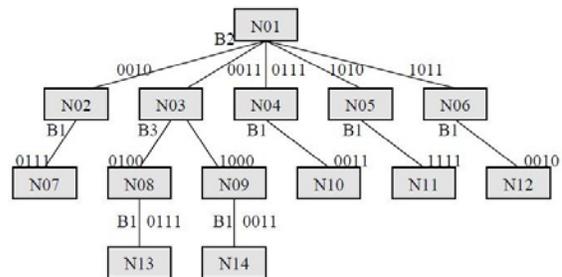


Figure 4: Decision Tree on example dataset

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A spatial image can be viewed as a 2-dimensional array of pixels. Associated with each person to computed energy of local gradient pattern image and Gray level Co-occurrence metric (GLCM) from the data base. The energy of LGP is taken as class label and global texture features as various descriptive attributes, called “features”. Based on idea of texture analysis, it is understood with the increase age of particular person the wrinkles on the face will appear. Which change the properties of skin texture in terms of more number of changes will happen. This can be identified through first gradient operators.

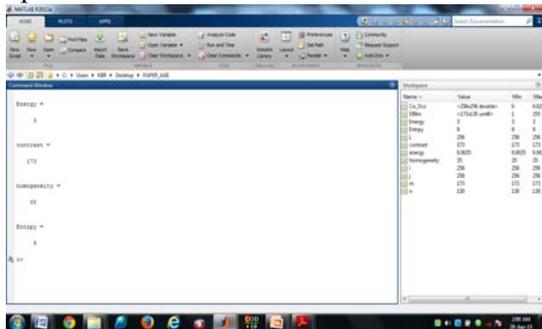


Figure 5: Energy, contrast, homogeneity, entropy are calculated.

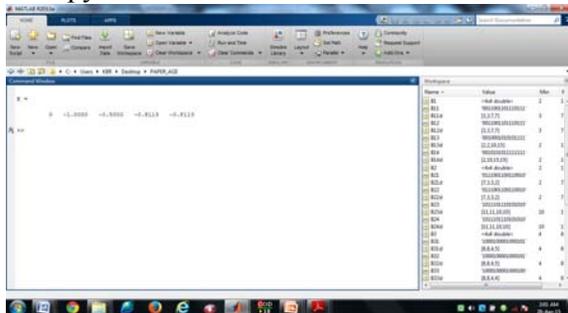


Figure 6. Entropy calculated as per the procedure

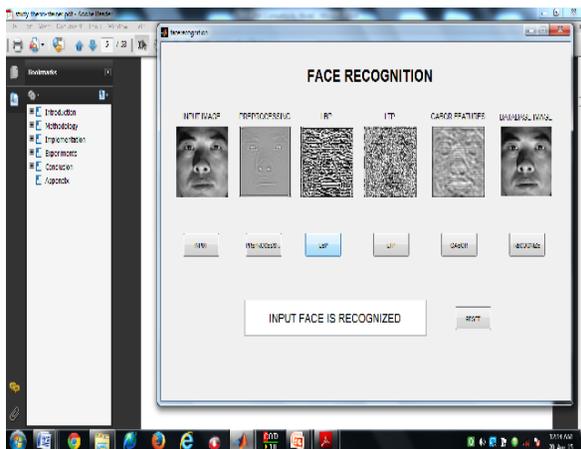


Figure 6 : Image processing based on above procedure and recognition of a human face.

V. Conclusion

This system is an application of image mining. Here knowledge is obtained based on wrinkles and by using these wrinkles it is easy to guess age of a person with the help of assumption rules in bio-informatics. This system is based on texture analysis. Here after preprocessing we performed LBP, LTP, Gabor filter entropy calculations for a given image. Here first order gradient operator and GLCM is taken as a method of feature extraction. For analyzing texture, symmetrical normalized GLCM is computed along four directions. From this matrix texture features are calculated and averaged over 4 directions. The gradient energy is calculated along with contrast, homogeneity and entropy. These features are very useful to recognize texture of skin and these features are classified with a novel P-tree classifier. This classifier uses decision tree induction that is especially useful for the classification of spatial data streams. We use the data organization, bit Sequential organization (bSQ) and a lossless, data-mining ready data structure, the Peano Count Tree (P-tree), to represent the information needed for classification in an efficient and ready-to-use form. This makes classification of open-ended streaming datasets feasible in near real time.

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