

## **A Comparative Emotions-detection Review for Non-intrusive Vision-Based Facial Expression Recognition**

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### **Abstract**

Affective computing advocates for the development of systems and devices that can recognize, interpret, process, and simulate human emotion. In computing, the field seeks to enhance the user experience by finding less intrusive automated solutions. However, initiatives in this area focus on solitary emotions that limit the scalability of the approaches. Further reviews conducted in this area have also focused on solitary emotions, presenting challenges to future researchers when adopting these recommendations. This review aims at highlighting gaps in the application areas of Facial Expression Recognition Techniques by conducting a comparative analysis of various emotion detection datasets, algorithms, and results provided in existing studies. The systematic review adopted the PRISMA model and analyzed eighty-three publications. Findings from the review show that different emotions call for different Facial Expression Recognition techniques, which should be analyzed when conducting Facial Expression Recognition.

*Keywords: Facial Expression Recognition, Emotion Detection, Image Processing, Computer Vision*

### **1. Introduction**

As technology advances, users are finding themselves increasingly interacting with computers to accomplish various activities in their daily lives. For instance, a user will check their daily schedule on a digital device, order groceries online, swipe a card to access public transport and make payment transactions. This highlights the need to enhance human-computer interactions by integrating components that enable the machine to communicate and understand humans. Users often communicate with each other using various nonverbal signals such as hand gestures or facial expressions, which can enhance computer communication. Additionally, in a bid to make technology, more inclusive, application developers are increasingly becoming aware of the need to develop products accessible to people with disabilities. By providing alternative communication avenues, such users can easily use digital technology.

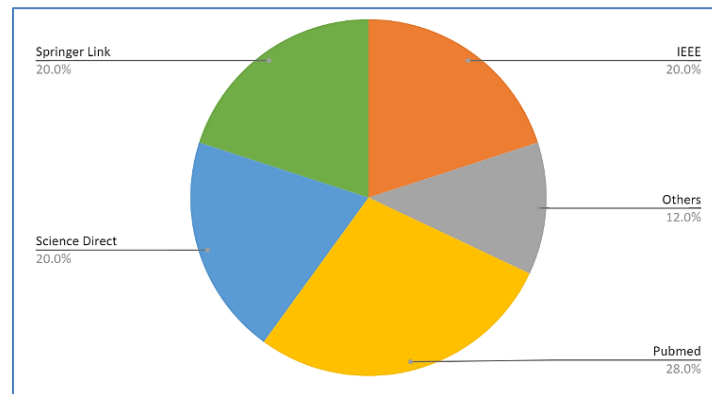
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This study examines Facial Expression Recognition (FER) as a non-intrusive vision-based technique useful for automated emotion detection. This field is useful for enhancing human-computer interactions where machines can communicate and understand humans (Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018). However previous reviews in this area (Mellouk & Handouzi, 2020) point out that despite the potential of FER, existing reviews have only focused on some basic emotions (anger, contempt, Disgust, Fear, Happiness, Sadness, Surprise). This approach conflicts with what is present in everyday life, which has emotions that are more complex (Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018). In this respect, existing reviews have reported popular FER Algorithms as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) (Balasubramanian et al., 2019; Baskar & Gireesh Kumar, 2018; Kartali et al., 2018; S. Li & Deng, 2020) and Support Vector Machines (SVM) (Fathima & Vaidehi, 2020). Further research is required to investigate whether these algorithms work best for different emotions. For instance, Facial expression-based methods also offer an effective technique, frequently used by medical experts to detect the emotional patterns of autistic children (Ray et al., 2019).

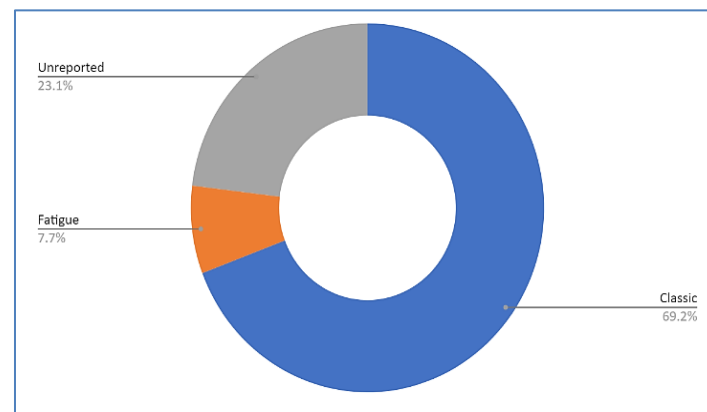
Eye-tracking is fast in becoming one of the most used sensor modalities in affective computing recently for monitoring Fatigue emotion. However, many studies conduct experiments using physiological signals, such as EEG brainwave signals, pupil responses, electrooculography (EOG), electrocardiogram (ECG), electromyogram (EMG), as well as galvanic skin response (GSR). Non-contact approaches that make use of vision-based FER methods would enhance the user experience. The eye-tracker used for such experiments also detects additional information such as blink frequency and pupil diameter changes (Lim et al., 2020). A typical eye-tracker (such as Video Oculography) consists of a video camera that records the movements of the eyes and a computer that saves and analyses the gaze data (Klaib et al., 2021). The monitoring of Fatigue differs from the monitoring of basic facial emotions (such as Anger, or Happiness) because different facial aspects are monitored such as the percentage eye closure (PERCLOS), or head nodding, head orientation, eye blink, speed, gaze direction, saccadic movement, or eye color. This is in contrast to the basic emotions (we shall refer to them as the *Classic* FER emotions in this study) which call for monitoring of the eye corner, lip corner, mouth, eyebrow, eye-opening, mouth opening, eyebrow constriction, mouth corners displacement, mouth length, and nose-side wrinkles detection. (Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018).

By focusing on solitary emotion detection, existing reviews in FER studies do not illustrate how FER approaches vary based on the emotion detected. Aspects such as the types of datasets used, Choice of Feature Extraction and Emotion Detection Algorithms, Solution Design, and the Accuracy levels of results would inform future FER studies. Although various gaps have been highlighted by these reviews such as the inability of the solutions to handle pose (Bhattacharya & Gupta, 2019), image lighting (Jonathan et al., 2018), and the number of datasets used (Jonathan et al., 2018), without a comparative study it becomes difficult to appreciate whether this cuts across all types of emotions. Additionally, in many FER studies, the environment context seems to be ignored (Canedo & Neves, 2019). To address this, the current study set out to conduct a comparative analysis of popular emotions detected using vision-based FER techniques. The review





(a) Database Sources



(b) Emotions Examined

**Figure 2.** Review paper sources and emotions examined

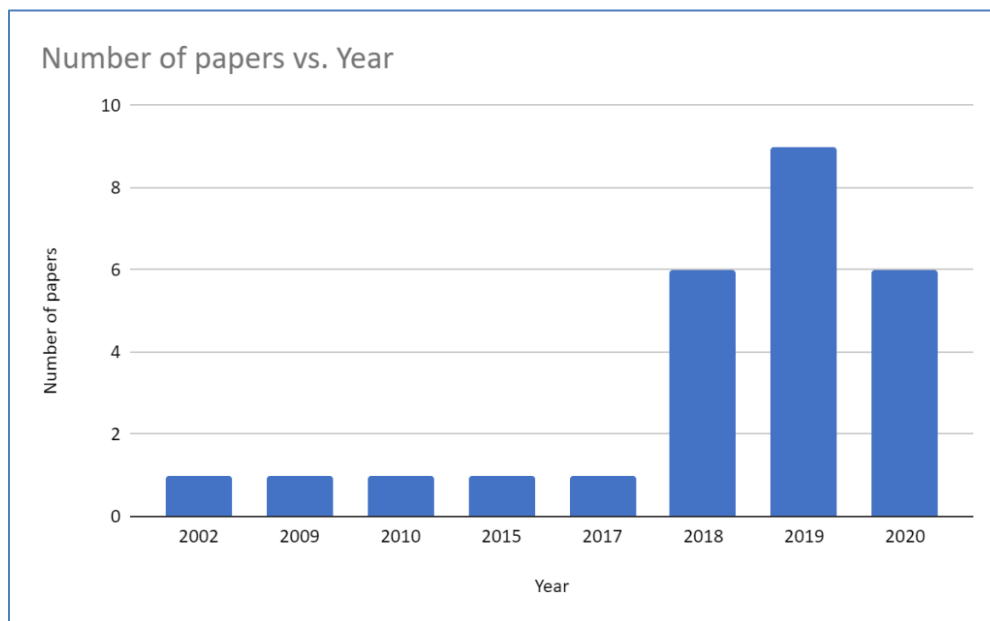
**Table 1.** Number of papers used in existing reviews

References	No. of Review Papers	No. Of Papers Used
(H. Ashraf et al., 2018; Edwards et al., 2002; Jonathan et al., 2018; Michel & El Kaliouby, 2003)	4	< 50
(Canedo & Neves, 2019; Klaib et al., 2021)	2	>100
(Balasubramanian et al., 2019; Baskar & Gireesh Kumar, 2018; Bhattacharya & Gupta, 2019; Chengeta, 2019; Dzedzickis et al., 2020; Egger et al., 2019; Fathima & Vaidehi, 2020; Gantayat & Lenka, 2021; Harms et al., 2010; Kartali et al., 2018; M. Q. Khan & Lee, 2019; S. Li & Deng, 2020; Liliana &	20	Unreported

Basaruddin, 2018; Lim et al., 2020; Mellouk & Handouzi, 2020; Ray et al., 2019; Sabu & Mathai, 2015; Samadiani et al., 2019; Shu et al., 2018; Wagh & Vasanth, 2019; J. Zhang et al., 2020)

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Most of the reviews did not report the number of papers used as observed in Table 1. Four reviews used less than fifty papers (Adeshina et al., 2009; H. Ashraf et al., 2018; Edwards et al., 2002; Jonathan et al., 2018) and only two reviews (Canedo & Neves, 2019; Klaib et al., 2021) used more than one hundred papers. Most of the reviews occurred in the last three years as shown in Figure 3 highlighting the growing interest in this area.

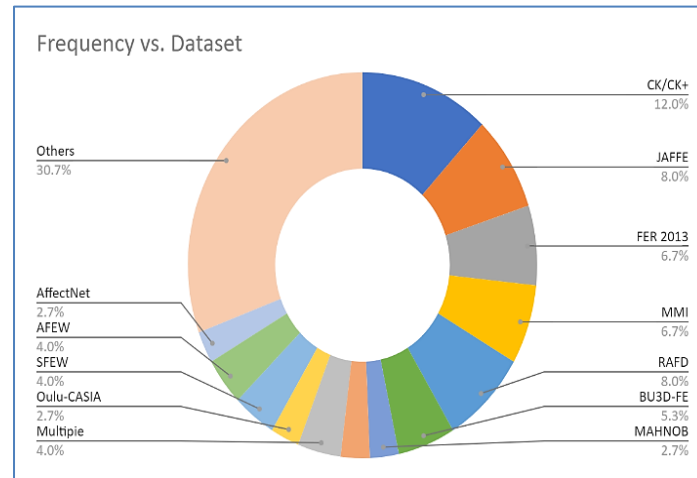


**Figure 3.** Review papers year of publication

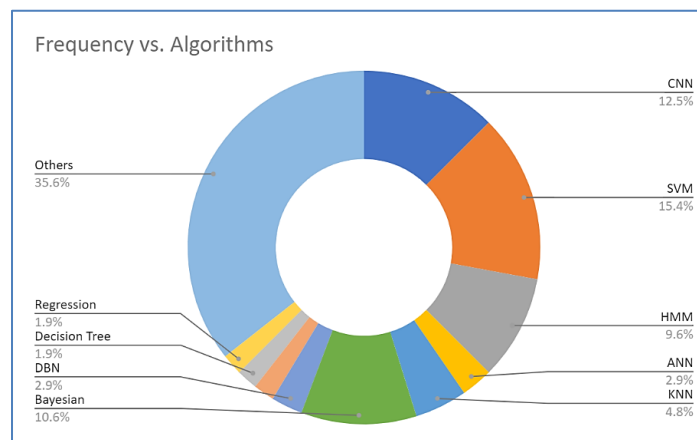
The review papers revealed that CK/CK+ was the most popular publicly available dataset (Gupta, 2018; Mehendale, 2020; Mohammadpour et al., 2017; J.-M. Sun et al., 2008) used for FER as shown in Figure 4 (a). The “other” category includes datasets only used by individual papers. Examples of such datasets are the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) (Canedo & Neves, 2019), Toronto Faces Dataset (S. Li & Deng, 2020), and the Geneva Multimodal Emotion Portrayals (GEMEP) (Mellouk & Handouzi, 2020) among others. The most popular algorithms used for classification are SVM and CNN as revealed by the reviews in Figure 4 (b) (H. Ashraf et al., 2018; Balasubramanian et al., 2019; Baskar & Gireesh Kumar, 2018; Bhattacharya & Gupta, 2019; Dzedzickis et al., 2020; Egger et al., 2019; Fathima & Vaidehi, 2020; Jonathan et al., 2018; Klaib et al., 2021; S. Li & Deng, 2020; Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018; Lim et al., 2020; Mellouk & Handouzi, 2020; Samadiani et al., 2019; Shu et al., 2018; Wagh & Vasanth, 2019; J. Zhang et al., 2020). The “other” category includes algorithms only used by individual papers such as Fuzzy expert systems (M. Q. Khan & Lee, 2019), Feedforward neural network (Fathima & Vaidehi, 2020).

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2020), Independent component analysis (J. Zhang et al., 2020), and Gaussian mixture modeling (Canedo & Neves, 2019) among others.



(a) Datasets

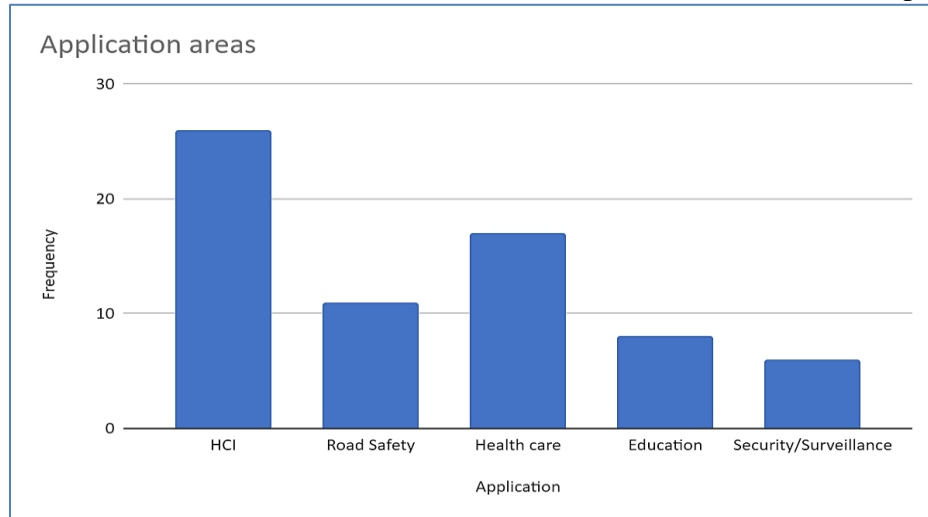


(b) Algorithms

**Figure 4.** Review paper datasets and Algorithms

Based on the classic emotions, most reviews recommended the applications of FER for enhancing Human-Computer Interaction through affective computing (Adeshina et al., 2009; Balasubramanian et al., 2019; Canedo & Neves, 2019; Jonathan et al., 2018; Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018; Lim et al., 2020; Sabu & Mathai, 2015; Samadiani et al., 2019). Some reviews recommended additional application areas such as Road Safety for detection of driver fatigue detection (M. Q. Khan & Lee, 2019); Healthcare for Autism or Adverse Behaviour detection (Bhattacharya & Gupta, 2019; Edwards et al., 2002; Mohammadpour et al., 2017; Ray et al., 2019); Education for

eLearning adaptive systems (Baskar & Gireesh Kumar, 2018; Klaib et al., 2021); and security for surveillance cameras or lie detection (Fathima & Vaidehi, 2020) as depicted in Figure 5.



**Figure 5.** Recommended FER application Areas

### 3. Methodology

#### 3.1 Research Process

The process started, by mining relevant studies through database searches. A systematic review of the literature was conducted using online databases that index health and technology research namely: IEEE, Science Direct, ACM Digital Library, and Springer during the period 2000 to 2021. The review process made use of the PRISMA methodology (P.R.I.S.M.A, 2015) for reporting the systematic reviews and meta-analyses. The search keywords used were facial expression detection, digital eye strain, and fatigue detection. To enhance the search process, acronyms complimented some of the keywords, for example in place of expression and digital we used terms such as emotion and computer respectively. Due to the different formats of each database, we used slightly different expressions of our search strategy for each database. For example, Table 2 displays the search strategy for the PubMed database.

**Table 2.** Mining Strategy used for PubMed Database

Detection	AND	Digital	AND	Fatigue	AND	Machine learning	NEAR	Computer Vision Camera
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We reviewed relevant articles published in the past 21 years (2000 -2021). The timeframe indicates when FER technology started and when it started gaining popularity which is 2010. Only papers in English were included in the review process. The search criteria sought articles that involved fatigue detection. Generic search terms (according to the thesaurus of each database) identified the relevant studies. The process of screening relevant studies used the inclusion and exclusion criteria tabulated in Table 3. The identification and elimination of duplicate studies followed. We categorized papers having the same titles or published by the same author on the same subject as duplicates.

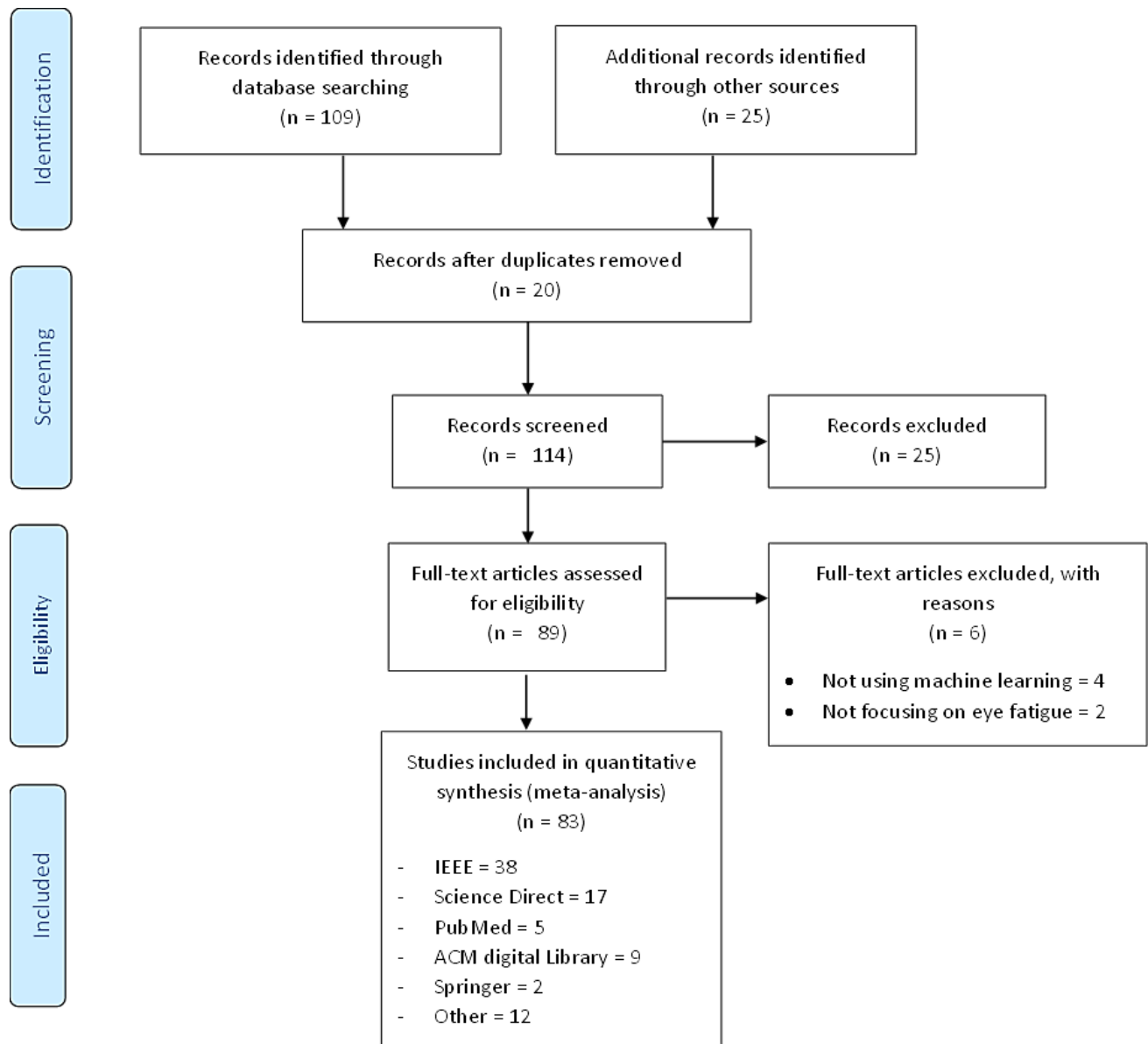
**Table 3.** Paper Mining Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Exclusion Criteria	Inclusion Criteria
The technology used for the detection of fatigue or emotions e.g., using EEG signals to monitor fatigue.	Machine learning for measurement of fatigue
Research not Published in English	Monitoring of classic emotions
Research Published before 2000	Monitoring of fatigue
Research-based on monitoring parameters. Body postures for fatigue	Peer-Reviewed publications
Papers that were not considered original research, such as letters to the editor, comments, etc.	Been published in English

### *3.2 Population and Sampling*

Initially, the search yielded 134 articles overall (IEEE = 50, Science Direct = 20, PubMed = 10, ACM Digital Library = 13, Springer = 16 and others = 25). After excluding duplicated papers, 121 records were eligible for screening. Twenty papers (20) that did not meet our inclusion criteria based on the initial screening resulted in 114 studies evaluated for eligibility. The authors retrieved and reviewed full-text records. After excluding irrelevant studies, eighty-three (83) papers remained as the population of the study. The authors sampled the entire population. The study selection process is depicted in Figure. 6.

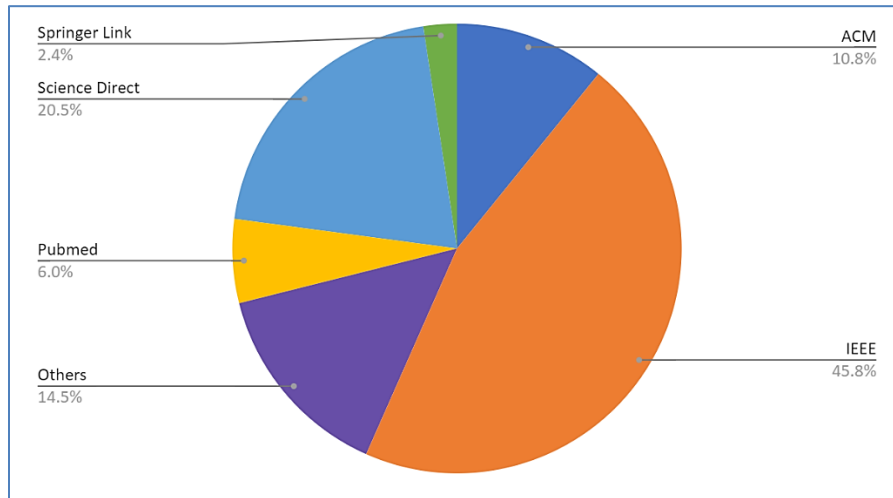




**Figure 6.** Paper Selection Process

### 3.3 Data Collection

This final review made use of 83 papers sourced from IEEE, Science Direct, ACM Digital Library, and Springer as shown in Figure 7. The list of papers extracted from each database is listed in Table 4. This review used 51 papers representing fatigue emotion and 29 papers representing classic emotions.



**Figure 7.** Sources of Papers used for the review

**Table 4.** Paper Mining Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Emotion	Database	Papers Used
Fatigue	ACM, Pubmed, Direct, Others	IEEE, Science
Classic Emotions	ACM, Pubmed, Direct, Springer Link, Others	IEEE, Science

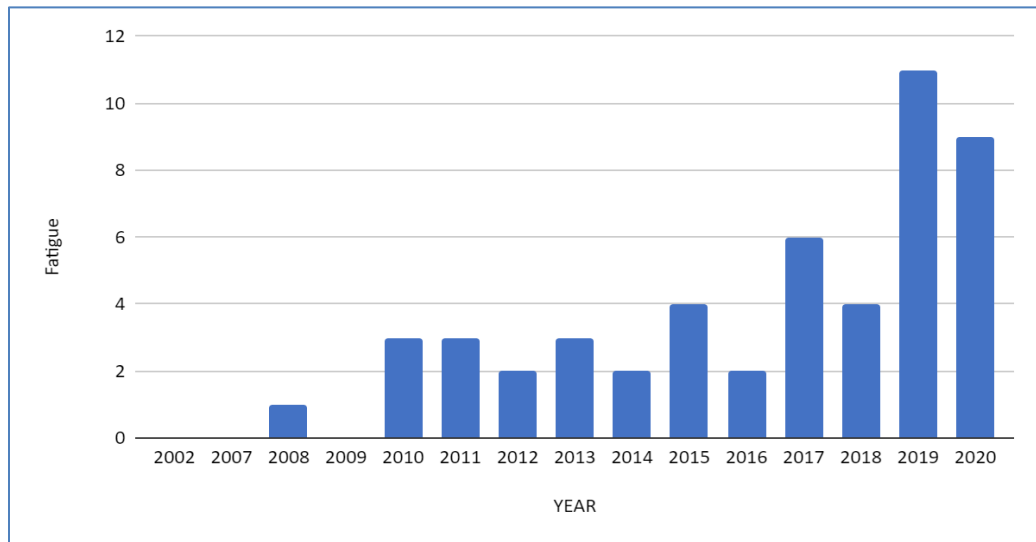
(Dagar et al., 2016; Deshmukh et al., 2017; Gan, 2018; Ghandi et al., 2010; Gilda et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2018; Gupta, 2018; Hickson et al., 2019; Ithaya Rani & Muneeswaran, 2016; Ivanova & Borzunov, 2020; Jing et al., 2020; Le & Vea, 2016; Loob et al., 2017; Miyakoshi & Kato, 2011; Mohammadpour et al., 2017, 2017; Park et al., 2015; Rajesh & Naveenkumar, 2016; Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020; Ramdhani et al., 2018; Sebe et al., 2007; S. Singh & Nasoz, 2020; J.-M. Sun et al., 2008; X. Wang et al., 2018; Xiaoxi et al., 2017; L. Zhang et al., 2013; Z. Zhang et al., 2016)

(Abdulin & Komogortsev, 2015; Bin et al., 2019; Chang & Chen, 2014; Chen, 2017, 2017; Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; Cyganek & Gruszczyński, 2014; Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Fa-deng & Min-xian, 2010; Gao & Wang, 2017; Huang et al., 2018; Huang & Wang, 2019; Iatsun et al., 2015; Jie et al., 2010; Jing et al., 2020; M. I. Khan & Mansoor, 2008; Kim & Lee, 2020; Knapik & Cyganek, 2019; Krestinskaya & James, 2017; Kurylyak et al., 2012; F. Li et al., 2020; K. Li et al., 2019; L. Li et al., 2011; X. Li et al., 2015, 2015; Z. Li & Nianqiang, 2019; Lin et al., 2015; Z. Liu et al., 2020, p.; Maior et al., 2020; McKinley

et al., 2011; Nie et al., 2017; Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020; Rehman et al., 2018; Shahrabi Farahani et al., 2013; Sharan et al., 2019; H. Singh et al., 2011; Song et al., 2020; Sravan et al., 2018; X. Sun et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2010; F. Wang et al., 2020; Y. Wang et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2012; Xing et al., 2019; J. Xu et al., 2018; X.-W. Xu et al., 2020; F. Zhang et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2016; Zhuang et al., 2020)

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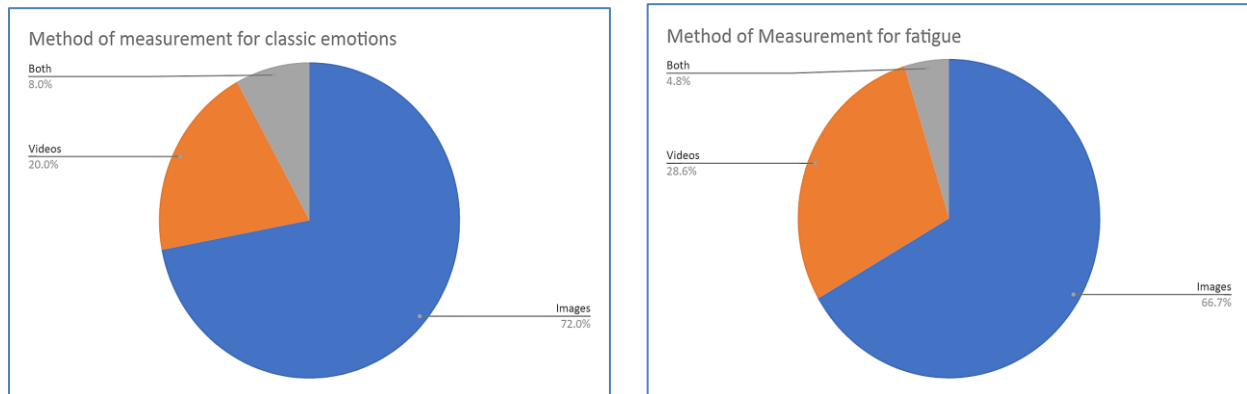
Research in FER has steadily increased over the years showing the growing interest in this area. The results in Figure 8 depict 2010 as the onset of this interest with the highest number of studies conducted in 2019 (Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Huang & Wang, 2019; Knapik & Cyganek, 2019; Xing et al., 2019) and 2020 (F. Li et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020; Zhuang et al., 2020).



**Figure 8.** Progress of FER Studies over the years

This review identified papers that focus on the detection of emotions using Automated Facial Expression Recognition techniques. It aimed at revealing the extent to which existing studies have explored the subject, drew analogies, and proposed solutions to research gaps in this area. The research emphasized studies that do not focus on the popular classic Facial Expression Emotions (Happy, Sad, Angry, Fear, and Normal) such as those focusing on Fatigue (Chen, 2017; Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Huang et al., 2018; Huang & Wang, 2019; Kurylyak et al., 2012; H. Singh et al., 2011; Sravan et al., 2018; X. Sun et al., 2017; Xing et al., 2019), Pain (A. B. Ashraf et al., 2009) or Digital Eye Strain to highlight these gaps. The word cloud generated from the papers' keywords in Figure 9, illustrates the relevance of the selected papers. The results show that the selected papers focused on the automated detection or recognition of fatigue on the face

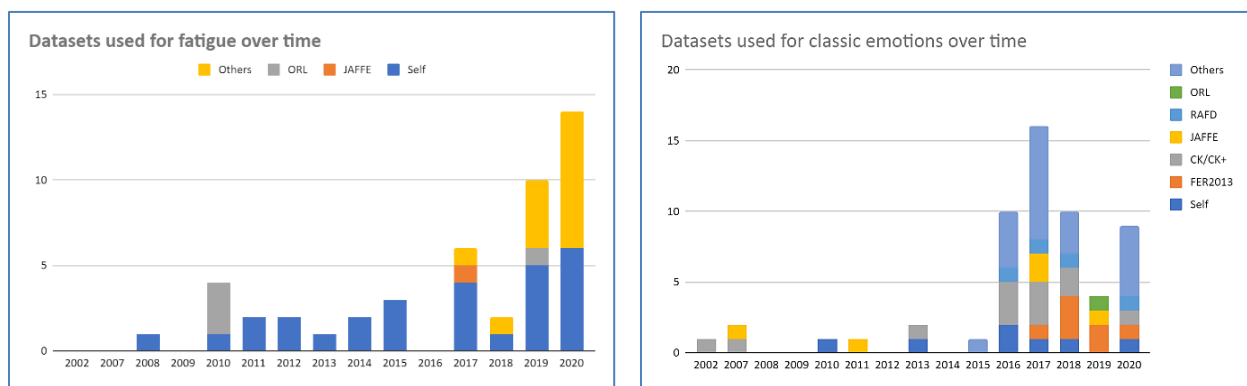




**Figure 10.** Input Data Format

#### 4.2 Datasets Used

As mentioned in section 3.3, research in Fatigue Detection has increased over time, and consequently, the development of datasets to support the studies has increased. The analysis in Figure 11 shows an increase in the popularity of datasets created for specific studies (Abdulin & Komogortsev, 2015; Kurylyak et al., 2012; Le & Vea, 2016; F. Li et al., 2020; Z. Zhang et al., 2016) over time compared to publicly available open datasets (Gupta, 2018; Healy et al., 2018; Ithaya Rani & Muneeswaran, 2016; Loob et al., 2017; Rajesh & Naveenkumar, 2016; Sebe et al., 2007; L. Zhang et al., 2013) when monitoring fatigue compared to the classic emotions. This highlights the need for public open datasets applicable across multiple studies for monitoring other emotions such as fatigue. The list of datasets used for each study is provided in Table 5.



(a) Datasets for Fatigue Emotion

(b) Datasets for Classic Emotions

**Figure 11.** Datasets used to detect different emotions over time.

**Table 5.** Datasets used for different studies

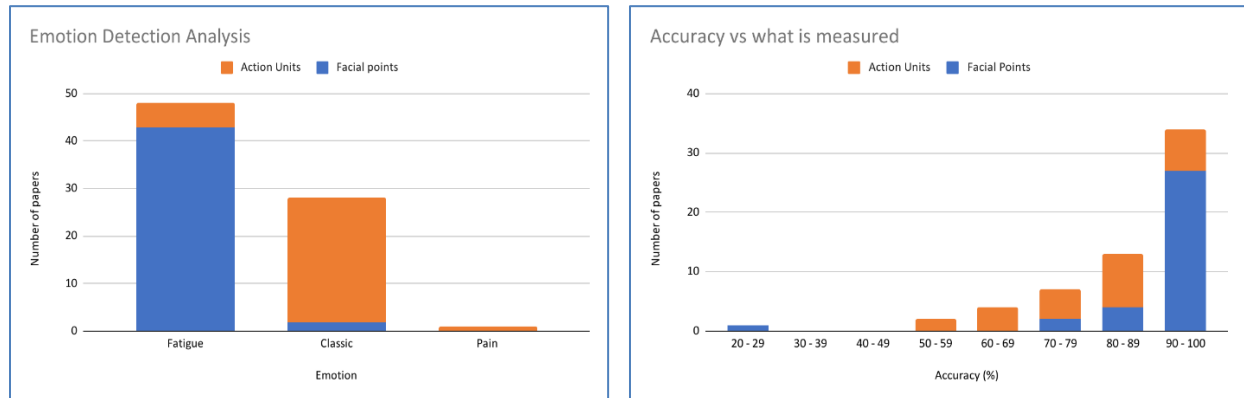
Dataset	References
Self-made	(Abdulin & Komogortsev, 2015; Chang & Chen, 2014; Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; Cyganek & Gruszczyński, 2014; Fa-deng & Min-xian, 2010; Gao & Wang, 2017; Jie et al., 2010; Jing et al., 2020; M. I. Khan & Mansoor, 2008; Knapik & Cyganek, 2019; Kurylyak et al., 2012; F. Li et al., 2020; K. Li et al., 2019; L. Li et al., 2011; X. Li et al., 2015, 2015; Z. Li & Nianqiang, 2019; Maior et al., 2020; Nie et al., 2017; Punitha et al., 2014; Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020; Rehman et al., 2018; Sharan et al., 2019; Song et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2010; F. Wang et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2012; F. Zhang et al., 2017)
ORL	(Fa-deng & Min-xian, 2010; Jie et al. 2010; Tang et al. 2010; Xing et al. 2019)
YanwnDD	(Huang & Wang, 2019; X.-W. Xu et al., 2020)
Caltech	(Z. Liu et al., 2020)
Cassia	(Kim & Lee, 2020)
Bath	(Kim & Lee, 2020)
Iris challenge Evaluation	(Kim & Lee, 2020)
IRF	(F. Zhang et al., 2017)
ZJU	(F. Zhang et al., 2017)
CEW human eye dataset	(S. Liu et al., 2019)
JAFFE	(Krestinskaya & James, 2017)
Drowsiness detection dataset	(Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019)
WFLW	(Zhuang et al., 2020)
The 300-W Challenge	(Zhuang et al., 2020)
Helen	(Zhuang et al., 2020)
Closed eyes in the wild	(Huang et al., 2018)
Eye Blink database	(Huang & Wang, 2019)

This table shows popular datasets that are used. Datasets used only once such as WFLW (Zhuang et al., 2020), the 300-W Challenge (Zhuang et al., 2020), Helen, and Caltech faces (Z. Liu et al., 2020; Zhuang et al., 2020) are put in the others category. The results show that the type of emotion influences the choice of the dataset used. Datasets such as FER2013 and CK/CK+ are used for the classic facial emotions (Gan, 2018; Pranav et al., 2020; Ramdhani et al., 2018; S. Singh & Nasoz, 2020; X. Wang et al., 2018) while others such as JAFFE and ORL (Dagar et al., 2016; Deshmukh et al., 2017; Miyakoshi & Kato, 2011; Sebe et al., 2007) are used for both the classic emotions and Fatigue. The preference to use self-created datasets when monitoring fatigue (Abdulin & Komogortsev, 2015; Chang & Chen, 2014; Fa-deng & Min-xian, 2010; Gao & Wang, 2017; Kurylyak et al., 2012; F. Li et al., 2020) shows that existing datasets are not adequate. There is a need for open datasets in that area that facilitate results reproducibility. A similar scenario exists with the classic emotions where there is an apparent preference towards using a dataset in only

one study (Deshmukh et al., 2017; Ithaya Rani & Muneeswaran, 2016; Mehendale, 2020; Rajesh & Naveenkumar, 2016; Yang et al., 2021) rather than using popular datasets such as FER2013 or CK/CK+. The results also show the possibility of detecting Fatigue without using datasets. For example, a popular approach (Chen, 2017; H. Singh et al., 2011; X. Sun et al., 2017) is the PERCLOS algorithm used to detect fatigue without the need for a dataset. PERCLOS is the percentage of eyelid closure over the pupil over time and reflects the proportion of time that the eyes are at least 80 percent closed. A driving simulator study established the PERCLOS drowsiness metric (Wierwille et al., 1994), currently considered as the most promising known real-time measures of alertness for drowsiness-detection systems in vehicles. This approach starts by detecting the eye using methods such as “Integro-differential operator” or using edge detection algorithms (Darshana et al., 2014).

#### *4.3 Feature Extraction*

Feature extraction refers to the mapping of image pixels into a feature space during the FER process. It reduces the initial set of raw image data to more manageable sizes for purposes of classification. Previous reviews (Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018) revealed Action Units (AU) and Facial Points (FP) analysis as two key methods used for Feature extraction of classic facial emotion. Action Units (AU) are numeric codes that describe the activity of facial muscles such as cheek raising, brow lowering, and nose wrinkling or upper lips movements. Action Units make use of Local Binary Patterns, Geometric Texture, Scale-Invariant Feature Transform, and Histogram of Oriented Gradients among other approaches. Facial Points (FP) analysis locates landmarks on a face such as eyes and mouth and uses them as control points (Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018). Facial Points make use of Restricted Boltzmann Machine, Wavelet motion, and edge detection approaches among others (Liliana & Basaruddin, 2018). The papers reviewed in this study revealed that Action Units are a popular feature extraction approach when analyzing the classic emotions or pain, exhibited in the entire face (Ghandi et al., 2010; Gilda et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2018; Gupta, 2018; Loob et al., 2017), while the eyes and mouth regions are preferred when analyzing emotions localized to specific areas in the face such as fatigue or drowsiness (Chen, 2017; Huang et al., 2018; Kurylyak et al., 2012; H. Singh et al., 2011; Sravan et al., 2018) as shown in figure 12(a). Further analysis revealed that the studies that used Facial points as a method of feature extraction yielded more accurate results compared to the studies that used action points for their experiments as shown in Figure 12 (b). These results are expected as facial points use a small region for feature extraction thus leading to higher accuracy rates. Table 6 presents a summary of the feature extraction approaches reported in the studies.



(a) Feature Extraction Approaches

(b) Reported Emotion Detection accuracy

**Figure 12.** Feature Extraction Approaches and Emotion Detection Accuracy levels

**Table 6.** Feature Extraction Approaches used in different studies

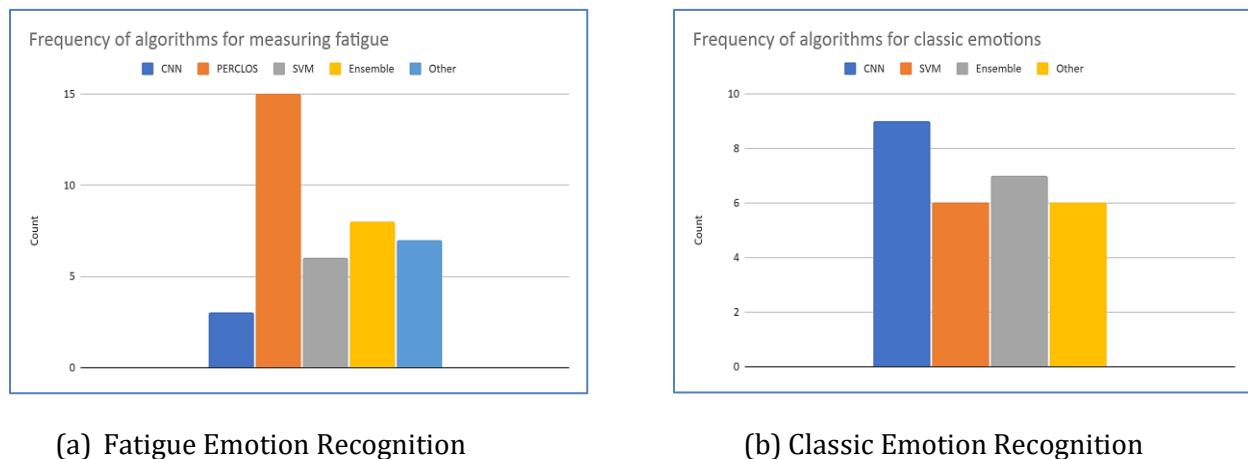
Emotion	References,
Facial Points	(Abdulin & Komogortsev, 2015; Bin et al., 2019; Chang & Chen, 2014; Chen, 2017; Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Fa-deng & Minxian, 2010; Gao & Wang, 2017, p.; Huang et al., 2018; Huang & Wang, 2019; Jie et al., 2010; Kurylyak et al., 2012; F. Li et al., 2020; L. Li et al., 2011; X. Li et al., 2015; Z. Li & Nianqiang, 2019; S. Liu et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2013; Punitha et al., 2014; Rehman et al., 2018; Sharan et al., 2019; H. Singh et al., 2011; Sravan et al., 2018; X. Sun et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2010; Xie et al., 2012; Xing et al., 2019; X.-W. Xu et al., 2020; F. Zhang et al., 2017; Zhuang et al., 2020)
Action units	(Ramdhani et al., 2018; F. Wang et al., 2020)

#### 4.4 Emotion Recognition

Several algorithms find applications in detecting facial expressions. Popular algorithms include CNN (Huang et al., 2018; Huang & Wang, 2019), SVM (Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; F. Li et al., 2020; Punitha et al., 2014; Rehman et al., 2018), and Ensemble approaches (Bin et al., 2019; Le & Vea, 2016; Sharan et al., 2019; Z. Zhang et al., 2016) for the classification of both the classic emotions and fatigue as illustrated in Figure 13. Some algorithms such as PERCLOS have found



applications in detecting Fatigue only Figure 13 (a). Algorithms used in single studies for fatigue include K means clustering (Bin et al., 2019), I-VT (Abduln & Komogortsev, 2015), Min-Max similarity Nearest Neighbor classifier (Krestinskaya & James, 2017), Deep belief network (F. Wang et al., 2020), Multiple kernel learning (F. Wang et al., 2020), and YOLOv3 (Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020). Algorithms used in single studies for the classic emotions include Bagging (Le & Veal, 2016), J48 (Le & Veal, 2016), Random Committee (Le & Veal, 2016), and Random Tree (Z. Zhang et al., 2016). A Summary of the studies showing the emotion recognition algorithm for Fatigue Emotion is provided in table 7.



**Figure 13.** Emotion Recognition Algorithms

**Table 7.** Emotion Recognition Algorithms for Fatigue Emotion

Algorithm	References
CNN	(Bin et al., 2019; Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Huang & Wang, 2019; Jie et al., 2010; Xing et al., 2019; F. Zhang et al., 2017)
PERCLOS	(Chen, 2017; Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Gao & Wang, 2017; Jie et al., 2010; Kurylyak et al., 2012; L. Li et al., 2011; S. Liu et al., 2019; Z. Liu et al., 2020; Nie et al., 2017, p.; H. Singh et al., 2011; X. Sun et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2012; Xing et al., 2019; F. Zhang et al., 2017, 2017; Zhuang et al., 2020)
SVM	(Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; Kim & Lee, 2020; F. Li et al., 2020; K. Li et al., 2019; Punitha et al., 2014; Rehman et al., 2018; Song et al., 2020)
Ensemble	(Chang & Chen, 2014; Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; K. Li et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2013; Maior et al., 2020, 2020;

Others Shahrabi Farahani et al., 2013; Sharan et al., 2019; F. Wang et al., 2020)  
(Abdulin & Komogortsev, 2015; Bin et al., 2019; Chang & Chen, 2014; Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; Cyganek & Gruszczyński, 2014; Jing et al., 2020; Krestinskaya & James, 2017; K. Li et al., 2019; Z. Li & Nianqiang, 2019; Luo et al., 2013; Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020; Shahrabi Farahani et al., 2013; J. Xu et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2016),

#### *4.5 Implementation details.*

Analysis of the implementation details provided by various studies revealed the extent of reporting of the solution design and results for purposes of reproducing the research. This analysis also renders confidence in the reliability of the studies examined, sheds light on the extent to which the solution was tested, and provides opportunities for comparison with future studies. Four implementation aspects were examined namely algorithm expressions, solution architecture, solution design, and results. Based on these criteria, circular symbols with each quadrant representing one of the criteria visualized the findings as shown in Table 8. A full circle indicates that all categories were present, three-quarters circles represent three categories, semi-circles represent two categories, a quarter represents only one category, and an empty circle represents none. The results, illustrated in Table 8, reveal that only a few studies provided comprehensive implementation details (Bin et al., 2019; Jing et al., 2020; Knapik & Cyganek, 2019; Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020; Song et al., 2020; M. Wang et al., 2017; L. Zhang et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2016). Majority of the studies provided partial implementation details (Gupta, 2018; Healy et al., 2018; Loob et al., 2017; Miyakoshi & Kato, 2011; Park et al., 2015), with a few providing no details at all (Ivanova & Borzunov, 2020; Jing et al., 2020; Rehman et al., 2018). This observation is similar to the different emotions examined in this study.

**Table 8.** Implementation details used in different studies

Emotion	Reference\study	Implementation detail Reported
Fatigue	(Jing et al., 2020)	○
	(Bin et al., 2019; Coetzer & Hancke, 2011; Fa-deng & Min-xian, 2010; F. Li et al., 2020; L. Li et al., 2011; Z. Li & Nianqiang, 2019; Rakhmatulin & Duchowski, 2020; Shahrabi Farahani et al., 2013; H. Singh et al., 2011; Xie et al., 2012)	◐
	(A. B. Ashraf et al., 2009; Chang & Chen, 2014; Chen, 2017; Huang et al., 2018; Iatsun et al., 2015; K. Li et al., 2019; X. Li et al., 2015; S. Liu et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2013; Punitha et al., 2014; Sharan et al., 2019; Sravan et al., 2018; X.-W. Xu et al., 2020; Zhuang et al., 2020)	◑
	(Abduln & Komogortsev, 2015; Cyganek & Gruszczyński, 2014; Ed-doughmi & Idrissi, 2019; Huang & Wang, 2019; Jie et al., 2010; M. I. Khan & Mansoor, 2008; Kim & Lee, 2020; Krestinskaya & James, 2017; Kurylyak et al., 2012; Z. Liu et al., 2020; Maior et al., 2020; Nie et al., 2017, p.; Punitha et al., 2014; X. Sun et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2010; Y. Wang et al., 2019; Xing et al., 2019; J. Xu et al., 2018; F. Zhang et al., 2017)	◒
	(Knapik & Cyganek, 2019; Song et al., 2020; F. Wang et al., 2020; M. Wang et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2016)	●
Classic Emotions	(Deshmukh et al., 2017; Ivanova & Borzunov, 2020; Rehman et al., 2018)	○
	(Ivanova & Borzunov, 2020; Lim et al., 2020; Rajesh & Naveenkumar, 2016; Turabzadeh et al., 2017)	◐
	(Dagar et al., 2016; Gupta, 2018; Healy et al., 2018; Ithaya Rani & Muneeswaran, 2016; Loob et al., 2017; Miyakoshi & Kato, 2011; Park et al., 2015; Sebe et al., 2007; S. Singh & Nasoz, 2020; J.-M. Sun et al., 2008; Xiaoxi et al., 2017; Z. Zhang et al., 2016)	◑
	(Gan, 2018; Ghandi et al., 2010; Gilda et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2018; Hickson et al., 2019; Le & Vea, 2016; Mohammadpour et al., 2017; Pranav et al., 2020; Ramdhani et al., 2018; X. Wang et al., 2018; F. Zhang et al., 2016)	◒
	(Mehendale, 2020; Yang et al., 2021; L. Zhang et al., 2013)	●

## 5. Conclusion

This review set out to investigate the current state of research on the use of Machine learning for facial expression recognition. The review identified and analyzed eighty-three papers. The papers highlighted the gaps in existing research, noting that facial expression recognition algorithms and datasets depend on the type of emotion. There are, however, some limitations of the review findings presented in this paper. At present, Facial Expression Recognition studies have focused

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on only two types of emotions, that is classic emotions or driver fatigue. Additionally, most of the studies reviewed provided limited implementation details thereby limiting the findings from the comparative analysis. Future FER reviews should therefore incorporate studies with more emotions such as digitization, eyestrain, or health ailments manifested through facial expressions. Our future work will focus on developing a FER solution that detects different emotions outside of the classic and Fatigue emotions, to explore how FER techniques vary depending on the emotion in question.

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