Towards social robots: Automatic evaluation of human-robot interaction by face detection and expression classification

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Abstract

Computer animated agents and robots bring a social dimension to human computer interaction and force us to think in new ways about how computers could be used in daily life. Face to face communication is a real-time process operating at a time scale of less than a second. In this paper we present progress on a perceptual primitive to automatically detect frontal faces in the video stream and code them with respect to 7 dimensions in real time: neutral, anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness, surprise. The face finder employs a cascade of feature detectors trained with boosting techniques [13, 2]. The expression recognizer employs a combination of AdaBoost and SVM's. The generalization performance to new subjects for a 7-way forced choice was over 90% correct on two publicly available datasets. The outputs of the classifier change smoothly as a function of time, providing a potentially valuable representation to code facial expression dynamics in a fully automatic and unobtrusive manner. The system was deployed and evaluated for measuring spontaneous facial expressions in the field in an application for automatic assessment of human-robot interaction.

1 Introduction

Computer animated agents and robots bring a social dimension to human computer interaction and force us to think in new ways about how computers could be used in daily life. Face to face communication is a real-time process operating at a time scale of less than a second. Thus fulfilling the idea of machines that interact face to face with us requires development of robust real-time perceptive primitives. In this paper we present first steps towards the development of one such primitive: a system that automatically finds faces in the visual video stream and codes facial expression dynamics in real time. The system automatically detects frontal faces and codes them with respect to 7 dimensions: Joy, sadness, surprise, anger, disgust, fear, and neutral. Speed and accuracy are enhanced by combining feature selection based on AdaBoost with feature integration based on support vector machines. We host an online demo of the system at http://mplab.ucsd.edu.

The system was trained and tested on two publicly avaliable datasets of facial expressions collected by experimental psychologists expert in facial behavior. In addition, we deployed

and evaluated the system in an application for recognizing spontaneous facial expressions from continuous video in the field. We assess the system as a method for automatic measurement of human-robot interaction.

2 Face detection

We developed a real-time face-detection system based on [13], capable of detection and false positive rates equivalent to the best published results [11, 12, 10, 13]. The system consists of a cascade of classifiers trained by boosting techniques. Each classifier employs integral image filters reminiscent of Haar Basis functions, which can be computed very fast at any location and scale in constant time (see Figure 1). In a 24×24 pixel window, there are over 160,000 possible filters of this type. For each stage in the cascade, a subset of features are chosen using a feature selection procedure based on AdaBoost [3].

We enhance the approach in [13] in the following ways: (1) Once a feature is selected by boosting, we refine the selection by finding the best performing single-feature classifier from a new set of filters generated by shifting and scaling the chosen filter by two pixels in each direction, as well as composite filters made by reflecting each shifted and scaled feature horizontally about the center and superimposing it on the original. This can be thought of as a single generation genetic algorithm, and is much faster than exhaustively searching for the best classifier among all 160,000 possible filters and their reflection-based cousins.

(2) While [13] use AdaBoost in their feature selection algorithm, which requires binary classifiers, we employed Gentleboost, described in [4], which uses real valued features. Figure 2 shows the first two filters chosen by the system along with the real valued output of the weak learners (or tuning curves) built on those filters. Note the bimodal distribution of filter 2.

(3) We have also developed a training procedure so that after each single feature, the system can decide whether to test another feature or to make a decision. This system retains information about the continuous outputs of each feature detector rather than converting to binary decisions at each stage of the cascade. Preliminary results show potential for dramatic improvements in speed with no loss of accuracy over the current system.

The face detector was trained on 5000 faces and millions of non-face patches from about 8000 images collected from the web by Compaq Research Laboratories. Accuracy on the CMU-MIT dataset (a standard, public data set for benchmarking frontal face detection systems) is comparable to [13]. Because the strong classifiers early in the sequence need very few features to achieve good performance (the first stage can reject 60% of the non-faces using only 2 features, using only 20 simple operations, or about 60 microprocessor instructions), the average number of features that need to be evaluated for each window is very small, making the overall system very fast. We made the source code for the face detector freely available at http://www.sourceforge.net/projects/kolmogorov.

3 Facial expression classification

3.1 Data set

The facial expression system was trained and tested on Cohn and Kanade's DFAT-504 dataset [6]. This dataset consists of 100 university students ranging in age from 18 to 30 years. 65% were female, 15% were African-American, and 3% were Asian or Latino. Videos were recoded in analog S-video using a camera located directly in front of the subject. Subjects were instructed by an experimenter to perform a series of 23 facial expressions. Subjects began and ended each display with a neutral face. Before performing each display, an experimenter described and modeled the desired display. Image sequences from neutral to target display were digitized into 640 by 480 pixel arrays with 8-bit precision for grayscale values.

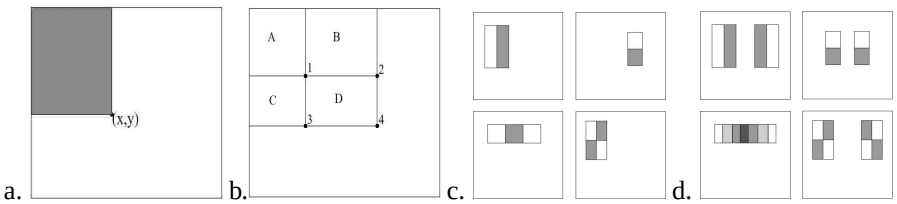

Figure 1: Integral image filters (after Viola & Jones, 2001 [13]). a. The value of the pixel at (x, y) is the sum of all the pixels above and to the left. b. The sum of the pixels within rectangle D can be computed as $4 + 1 - (2 + 3)$. (c) Each feature is computed by taking the difference of the sums of the pixels in the white boxes and grey boxes. Features include those shown in (c), as in [13], plus (d) the same features superimposed on their reflection about the Y axis.

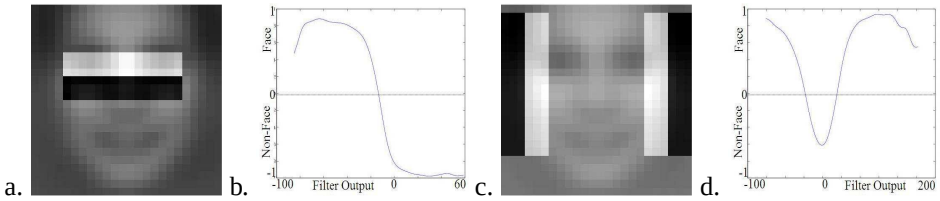

Figure 2: The first two features (a,c) and their respective tuning curves (b,d). Each feature is shown over the average face. The first tuning curve shows that a dark horizontal region over a bright horizontal region in the center of the window is evidence for a face, and for non-face otherwise. The output of the second filter is bimodal. Both a strong positive and a strong negative output is evidence for a face, while output closer to zero is evidence for non-face.

For our study, we selected 313 sequences from the dataset. The only selection criterion was that a sequence be labeled as one of the 6 basic emotions. The sequences came from 90 subjects, with 1 to 6 emotions per subject. The first and last frames (neutral and peak) were used as training images and for testing generalization to new subjects, for a total of 626 examples. The trained classifiers were later applied to the entire sequence.

All faces in this dataset were successfully detected. The automatically located faces were rescaled to 48x48 pixels.The typical distance between the centers of the eyes was roughly 24 pixels. No further registration was performed, i.e. no explicit detection and alignment of internal facial features was performed. The recognition system presented here performs well without that step, providing a considerable savings in processing time. The images were converted into a Gabor magnitude representation, using a bank of Gabor filters at 8 orientations and 5 spatial frequencies (4:16 pixels per cycle at 1/2 octave steps) [7].

4 SVM's and AdaBoost

SVM performance was compared to AdaBoost for emotion classification. The system performed a 7-way forced choice between the following emotion categories: Happiness, sadness, surprise, disgust, fear, anger, neutral. The classification was performed in two stages. First, seven binary classifiers were trained to discriminate each emotion from everything else. The emotion category decision was then implemented by choosing the classifier with the maximum output for the test example.

Support vector machines (SVM's) are well suited to this task because the high dimensionality of the Gabor representation does not affect training time for kernel classifiers. Linear, polynomial, and RBF kernels with Laplacian, and Gaussian basis functions were explored. Linear and RBF kernels employing a unit-width Gaussian performed best, and are presented here. Generalization to novel subjects was tested using leave-one-subject-out cross-validation. Results are presented in Table 1.

The features employed for the AdaBoost emotion classifier were the individual Gabor filters. There were 48x48x40 = 92160 possible features. A subset of these filters was chosen using AdaBoost. On each training round, the threshold and scale parameter of each filter was optimized and the feature that provided best performance on the boosted distribution was chosen.

During AdaBoost, training for each emotion classifier continued until the distributions for the positive and negative samples were separated by a gap proportional to the widths of the two distributions. The total number of filters selected using this procedure was 538 for 48x48 images with 5 Gabor frequencies.

Results are shown in Table 1. The generalization performance, 87.2%, was comparable to SVM performance. AdaBoost and SVM performances did not differ significantly on any conditions tested. AdaBoost was substantially faster, as shown in Table 2. Here, the system calculated the output of Gabor filters less efficiently, as the convolutions were done in pixel space rather than Fourier space, but the use of 200 times fewer Gabor filters nevertheless resulted in a substantial speed benefit.

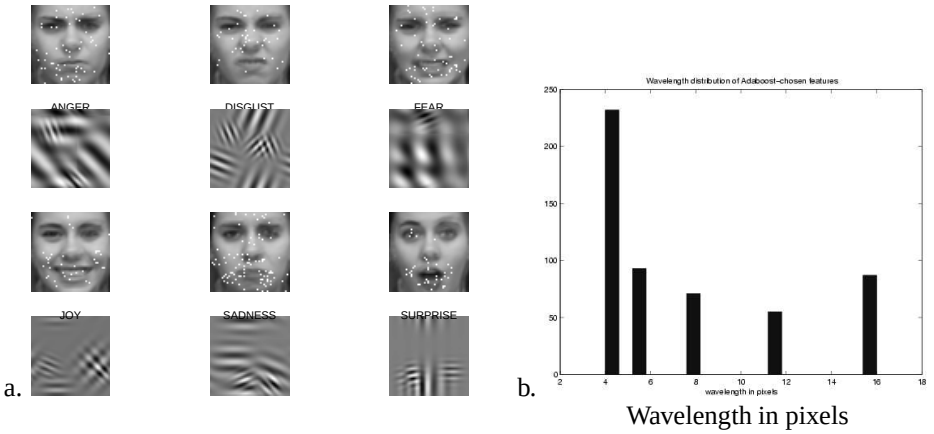

Figure 3: a. Gabors selected by AdaBoost for each expression. White dots indicate locations of all selected Gabors. Below each expression is a linear combination of the real part of the first 5 AdaBoost features selected for that expression. Faces shown are a mean of 10 individuals. b. Wavelength distribution of features selected by AdaBoost.

5 AdaSVM's

AdaBoost provides an added value of choosing which features are most informative to test at each step in the cascade. Figure 3a illustrates the first 5 Gabor features chosen for each emotion. The chosen features show no preference for direction, but the highest frequencies are chosen more often. Figure 3b shows the number of chosen features at each of the 5 wavelengths used.

We tried an approach in which the Gabor Features chosen by AdaBoost were used as a reduced representation for training SVM's, called AdaSVM's in abbreviation of Adaptive Boosting Selected Feature Representations in Support Vector Machines. AdaSVM's out-

performed SVM's by 2.7 percent points, an improvement that was marginally significant (z=1.55, p=0.06).

Examination of the frequency distribution of the Gabor filter selected by AdaBoost suggested that a wider range of spatial frequencies, particularly in the high spatial frequencies, could potentially improve performance. Indeed, by increasing from 5 to 9 spatial frequencies (2:32 pixels per cycle at 0.5 octave steps), performance of the AdaSVM improved to 93.3% correct. (See Table 1.) At this spatial frequency range, the performance advantage of AdaSVM's was greater. AdaSVM's outperformed both AdaBoost (z=2.1, p=.02) and SVM's (z=2.6, p$<$.01).

Performance of the system was also evaluated on a second publicly available dataset, Pictures of Facial Affect[1]. We obtained 97% accuracy for generalization to novel subjects, using the AdaSVM combined classifiers. This is about 10 percentage points higher than the best previously reported results on this dataset (e.g. [9, 8]).

An emergent property was that the outputs of the classifier change smoothly as a function of time, providing a potentially valuable representation to code facial expression dynamics in a fully automatic and unobtrusive manner. (See Figure 5.) In the next section, we apply this system to assessing spontaneous facial expressions in the field.

ω	kernel	AdaBoost	SVM	AdaSVM
4:16	Linear	87.2	86.2	88.8
4:16	RBF		88.0	90.7
2:32	Linear	90.1	88.0	93.3
2:32	RBF		89.1	93.3

Table 1: Generalization performance of AdaBoost,SVM's and AdaSVM's. ω: Gabor wavelength range, sampled at 0.5 octave intervals.

	SVM		AdaBoost	AdaSVM	
	Lin	RBF		Lin	RBF
Time t	t	90t	0.01t	0.01t	0.0125t
Time t′	t	90t	0.16t	0.16t	0.2t
Memory	m	90m	3m	3m	3.3m

Table 2: Processing time and memory comparison. Time t′ includes the extra time to calculate the outputs of the 538 Gabors in pixel space for AdaBoost and AdaSVM, rather than the full FFT employed by the SVM's. This table is for 48x48 pixels and 5 spatial frequencies.

6 Deployment and evaluation: Automatic evaluation of human-robot interaction

We conducted a pilot study at the Intelligent Robotics and Communication laboratories at ATR, Japan, to evaluate the system as a tool for automatically measuring the quality of human-robot social interaction, and to evaluate the expression recognition system in unconstrained environments. This test involved recognition of spontaneous facial expressions in the continuous video stream during unconstrained interaction with a social robot. Subjects interacted with RoboVie, a communication robot developed at ATR and the University of Osaka [5].

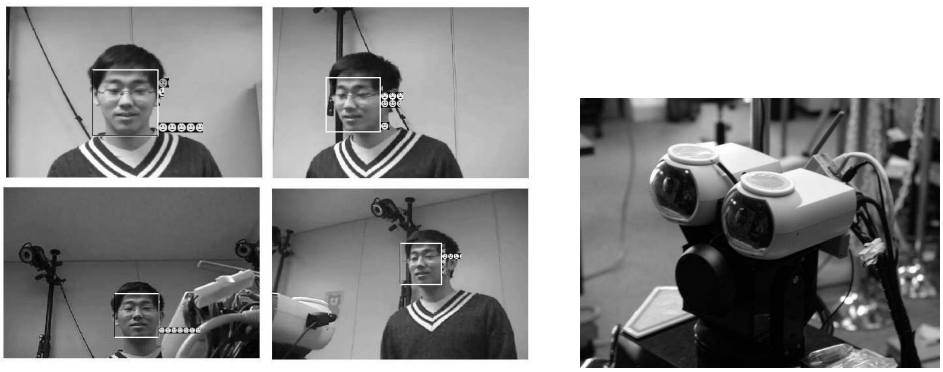

Figure 4: Human response during interaction with the RoboVie robot at ATR is measured by automatic expression analysis.

This was a challenging test of the system that involved significant deviations from the conditions used for training the system: The experiment included unconstrained head movement, presence of glasses (there were no glasses in the training set), new racial composition (100% Asian for this test compared to 3% in training), and changes in lighting conditions. 14 paid participants recruited from the university of Osaka were invited to interact with RoboVie for a 5 minute period. 10 subjects were male, 4 female, 5 wore glasses, and all 14 were Asian. To address unconstrained head movement, we simultaneously recorded video from 4 video cameras. (See Figure 4.) Faces were automatically detected and facial expressions classified independently in the four video streams. This resulted in a 28 dimensional vector per video frame consisting of the continuous outputs of the seven emotion classifiers (the distance to the separating hyperplane) $\times$ 4 cameras.

To assess the validity of the system, four naive human observers were presented with the videos of each subject at 1/3 speed. The observers indicated the amount of happiness shown by the subject in each video frame by turning a dial, a technique commonly used in marketing research. The mean frame-by frame correlation between human judges and other human judges was 0.54, averaged across subjects and judge pairs.

While in principle we expect 28 outputs per video frame, in practice missing values, occurred often, due to the fact that the face was not detected in one or more of the video streams. To combine information from the 4 cameras while dealing with missing values we modeled the 28 dimensional input vector plus the happiness score for each video frame as a 29 dimensional Gaussian distribution. Maximum likelihood estimates of the model parameters (mean and covariance matrix) were obtained using the EM algorithm. Once the mean and covariance matrix are known one can easily compute most probable estimates for the happiness score of each frame given any subset of the 28 input variables. We tried several variations of this model, some with extended input vectors including the mean of the 8 time steps preceeding and following the current frame, for a total of 84 values in the input. The output underwent temporal smoothing by convolving with a Gaussian ($\sigma = 33$ frames).

Figure 5 compares human judgments with the automated system. The average correlation between the 4 judges and the automated system on training data was 0.56, which does not differ significantly from the human/human agreement of 0.54 ($t(13) = 0.15$, $p<0.875$). Generalization performance for new images of known subjects was tested using leave-one-out cross-validation. The system was trained on 4 minutes of video data for a given subject, and tested on the remaining 1 minute. This was repeated 4 times per subject. Mean correlation across the 14 subjects was .30. The correlation was statistically significant ($t(1798) = 13.3$, $p << .001$). Smoothing the input had little effect on generalization performance and was dropped. The output smoothing, however, doubled the correlation coefficient from

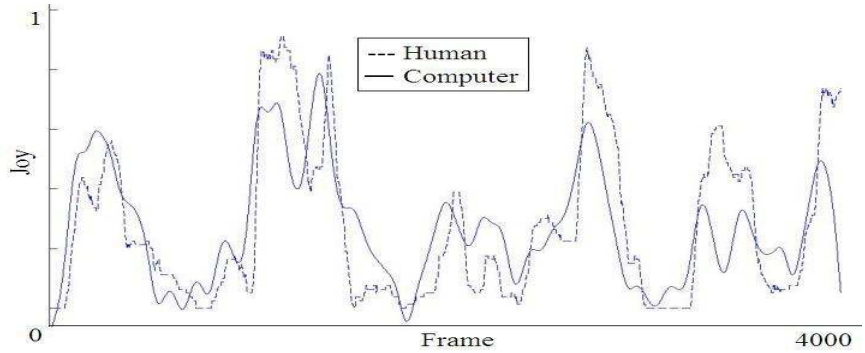

Figure 5: Mean human labels (–) compared to automated system labels (-) for 'joy' (one subject, one observer, training results).

the no-smoothing condition. Mean correlation for females was higher than males (0.42 vs. 0.24; $p << .001$), and mean correlation for subjects with no glasses was higher than for those with glasses (0.36 vs. 0.20; $p << .001$). Mean correlation for all subjects without occluders (one subject wore a hat), was 0.39.

The inter-coder agreement of the human coders predicted system performance, where the system gave better performance on subjects for whom inter-coder agreement was also high ($r=0.60$; $t(12)=2.6$; $p < .01$). Another predictor of system performance was the expressivity of the subject, rated by a human observer on a 1-10 scale. For the 9 subjects with no occluders, the system gave better performance on subjects with higher expressivity ratings ($r=.64$; $t(7)=2.2$; $p<.01$). There was a trend for the female subjects to be rated as more expressive than the males, which may account in part for the performance advantage for female subjects.

7 Conclusions

Face to face communication is a real-time process operating at a time scale of less than a second. The level of uncertainty at this time scale is considerable, making it necessary for humans and machines to rely on sensory rich perceptual primitives rather than slow symbolic inference processes. In this paper we present progress on one such perceptual primitive: Real time recognition of facial expressions.

Our results suggest that user independent fully automatic real time coding of basic expressions is an achievable goal with present computer power, at least for applications in which frontal views or multiple cameras can be assumed. Good performance results were obtained for directly processing the output of an automatic face detector without the need for explicit detection and registration of facial features. A novel classification technique was presented that combines feature selection based on AdaBoost with feature integration based on support vector machines. The AdaSVM's outperformed AdaBoost and SVM's alone, and gave a considerable advantage in speed over SVM's. Strong performance results, 93% and 97% accuracy for generalization to novel subjects, were presented for two publicly available datasets of facial expressions collected by experimental psychologists expert in facial expressions.

We introduced a technique for automatically evaluating the quality of human-robot interaction based on the analysis of facial expressions. This test involved recognition of spontaneous facial expressions in the continuous video stream during unconstrained behavior. The system predicted human judgments of joy in test sequences. We are presently evaluating this system as a potential new tool for research in behavioral and clinical studies. We are also developing automatic face image alignment in 3D, which may improve performance.

Within the past decade, significant advances in machine learning and machine perception open up the possibility of automatic analysis of facial expressions. Automated systems will have a tremendous impact on basic research by making facial expression measurement more accessible as a behavioral measure, and by providing data on the dynamics of facial behavior at a resolution that was previously unavailable. Such systems will also lay the foundations for computers that can understand this critical aspect of human communication. Computer systems with this capability have a wide range of applications in basic and applied research areas, including man-machine communication, security, law enforcement, psychiatry, education, and telecommunications.

Acknowledgments

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