

TikTok for good: Creating a diverse emotion expression database

Saimourya Surabhi Bhavik Shah Peter Washington Omur Cezmi Mutlu
 Emilie Leblanc Prathamesh Mohite Arman Husic Aaron Kline
 Kaitlyn Dunlap Maya McNealis Bennett Liu Nick Deveaux Essam Sleiman
 Dennis P. Wall

Department of Pediatrics (Systems Medicine), Department of Biomedical Data Science, and
 Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University

mourya@stanford.edu, shah.bhavik627@gmail.com, {peter100, cezmi}@stanford.edu, emilie.eam.leblanc@gmail.com
 { mohitep1, ahusic, akline, kdunlap2, mayamcne, bennett1, ndeveau, sleiessa, dpwall}@stanford.edu

Abstract

Facial expression recognition (FER) is a critical computer vision task for a variety of applications. Despite the widespread use of FER, there is a dearth of racially diverse facial emotion datasets which are enriched for children, teens, and adults. To bridge this gap, we have built a diverse expression recognition database using publicly available videos from TikTok, a video-focused social networking service. We describe the construction of the TikTok Facial expression recognition (FER) database. The dataset is extracted from 6428 videos scraped from TikTok. The videos consist of 9392 distinct individuals and labels for 15 emotion-related prompts. We were able to achieve a F1 score 0.78 for Ekman emotions on expression classification using transfer learning. We hope that the scale and diversity of the TikTokFER dataset will be of use to affective computing practitioners.

1. Introduction

Emotion recognition research has come a long way since Dr. Paul Ekman’s [14] work on universal emotions, identifying the following “universal” emotions: Happiness, Sadness, Surprise, Anger, Disgust, Fear, and Contempt. A large body of Facial Expression Recognition (FER) research focuses on building algorithms to automatically identify emotions, and especially Ekman emotions, from modalities such as voice [6], text, faces, and video clips [48]. They rely on the availability of large datasets enriched with information such as categorical emotion labels, facial landmarks like the position of the nose or eyes, Facial Action Coding System (FACS) [13] action units detecting subtle

changes in facial features, or continuous dimensions of valence, arousal, and dominance. Many of these datasets have been created and made publicly available for research purposes. The Cohn-Kanade dataset (CK) [30], one of the most used datasets in the field, consists of frontal and side views of 182 adults (18-50 years old, 69% female and 31% male, 81% European American) displaying 23 facial expressions, some of which are FACS coded and emotion-labeled by annotators. The CK dataset was then enhanced with 27% more subjects, revised emotion expression labels, and non-posed smiles seen in the CK+ dataset [43]. Other efforts, such as the Multimedia Understanding Group (MUG) dataset, [1] also attempt to gather both posed and naturalistic expressions. Unlike structured in-lab data collection efforts, AffectNet [46] gathered over 1 million facial images extracted from 3 major search engines using 1250 emotion-related keywords, also automatically increasing the number of distinct subjects. AFF-Wild2 [38], AM-FED [44], GIFGIF+ [8], EMOTIW [12] and the OMGEemotion [3] datasets also are compilations of real-world “in the wild” video clips or gifs. Addressing the racial imbalance in the datasets, some have focused their efforts on collecting data from specific ethnicities, such as JAFFE [29] and ISED [17].

FER algorithms are trained, tested, and validated on these available datasets. As described in detail by Ko [32], there are two main approaches for FER algorithms: using handcrafted features or generating features automatically through neural network outputs. The first approach relies on the extraction of facial components or landmarks in images, such as FACS action units and their spatial and temporal changes from videos. An expression classifier, such as a sup-

port vector machine or random forest, is then trained on these facial features. The second approach to FER relies on deep learning, extracting optimal features directly from the image or video data using convolutional neural networks (CNN) or a combination of CNN and RNN (recurrent neural networks) for temporal features of consecutive frames.

These expression recognition algorithms have many potential applications to not only improve the quality of human-computer interactions (e.g. through enhanced security cameras, online courses detecting frustration, or advanced driver assistance systems) but also to assist humans in their interactions with each other. Cultural differences, certain neurodevelopmental conditions such as Autism Spectrum Disorder, or blindness can affect our ability to understand the facial expressions of others. Initiatives like that of Buimer et al. [7] and SuperPowerGlass [10, 16, 31, 50, 51, 57], a wearable aid for the at-home therapy of children with autism, leverage video-based emotion recognition algorithms for clinical purposes and have had promising results. [9, 15] However, FER algorithms tend to suffer from the domain shift phenomena and therefore remain limited to datasets they are trained on. The performance of face and emotion recognition algorithms degrades when confronted with different ethnicities and age groups. To exemplify, Zhao et al. [60] noticed much higher accuracy on Finnish people in their dataset than on the Chinese subjects. Although algorithmic strategies are being developed to measure and adjust for these biases, building more diverse datasets remains a top priority.

To address the need for more diverse, balanced FER data, we leveraged TikTok challenges. We use publicly available recordings of emotion acting challenges to build a FER dataset containing racial diversity, tailored towards teens, and young adults. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: We describe the TiktokFER data set in Sec. 2. In Sec. 3 we describe how the data set is constructed by leveraging Amazon Mechanical Turk. Finally, in Sec. 4, we present analysis and a few simple experiments on the TikTokFER. Our goal is to show that the TikTokFER can serve as a useful resource for FER applications.

2. Properties of TikTokFER

Social media and TikTok in particular have come under scrutiny in the last few years because of their lack of member data protection, generation of potential national security concerns, and their influence on the radicalization of the US political landscape. These geopolitical concerns led to the ban of the TikTok app in India in June 2020, its prohibition on all US government-



Figure 1. Fitzpatrick Scale

issued devices by the US Navy and the US Army in December 2019, and calls to introduce US-based ownership of its parent company ByteDance. Nevertheless, since its launch in September 2016, TikTok’s user base has grown considerably and has been installed on devices over 3 billion times worldwide. It passed the one billion milestone in February 2019, and it reached three billion in mid-2021, with 1 billion monthly active users as of January 2022. The TikTok app, which lets users view 15 second clips and publish their short videos leverages viral marketing methods such as challenges to engage a highly active community. Relying primarily on teenagers and young adults (41% of its users are between the ages of 16 and 24), TikTok has managed to attract a wide range of users from over 155 countries and is available in 35+ languages [58].

TikTok’s huge and diverse audience is actively leveraged by brands through targeted marketing and influencer sponsoring. Political parties and governments have also started using this medium to communicate political [45] and public health messages, for instance during the COVID-19 crisis [4]. Educational initiatives have also shown promising results in engaging audiences through TikTok. “The Chemistry Collective,” for example, was able to increase viewers’ interest in chemistry by 82.7% [18] with their 16 educational TikTok clips. These initiatives illustrate the potential for TikTok to be used for the common good.

TikTok videos are typically short, fun recordings often involving music, dancing, or comedy. The vast majority of these videos are shot using a front facing mobile phone camera, where the recorder’s face is in clear view. New challenges are continuously widely adopted across a diverse population, such as particular dances or skits. The nature of these videos, being first-person shot, are rich with changing, human facial expressions. TikTok is a great resource to access large amounts of diverse facial expressions for our dataset.

Scale TikTok FER dataset contains a total of 6482 videos from 9392 distinct individuals, labeled for 15 emotion-related prompts. We created a diverse and

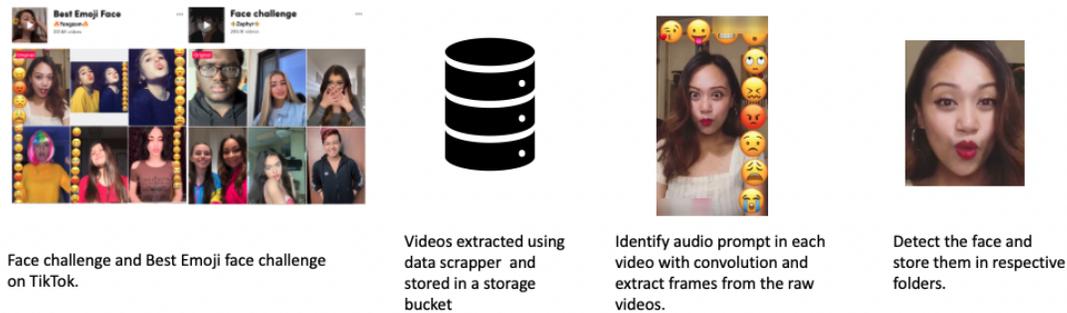


Figure 2. Schema of the data processing pipeline

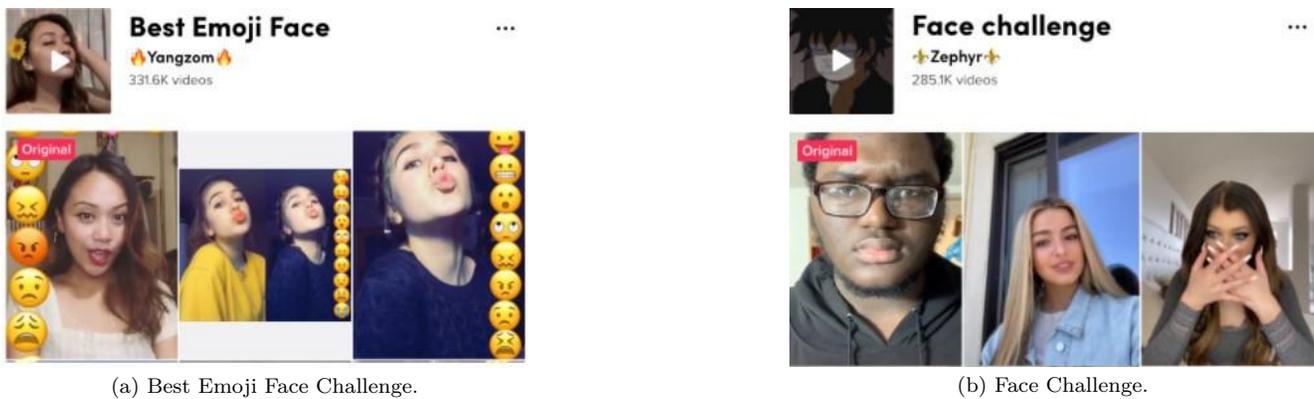


Figure 3. TikTok challenges

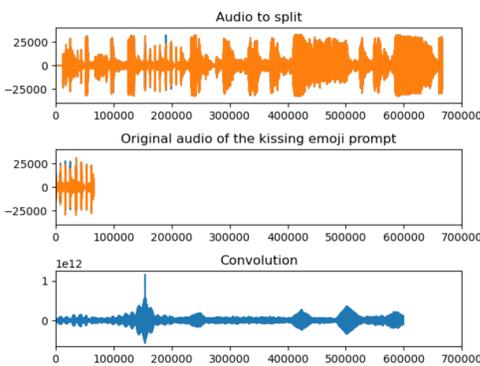


Figure 4. Use of convolution to find the location of an original prompt audio in a video to split (example with the kissing emoji audio prompt)

3.2.2 Splitting the videos into separate prompts.

The videos consist of different facial expressions, and the transition between them is accompanied by differ-

ent sound prompts that signal the user to mimic the given face/emoji. These signals are the same across all videos in a challenge and we use them to detect the beginning of an expression. We achieve this by first collecting all of the unique prompts in a challenge. We then “search” for these sets of prompts in the audio signals of all videos. This “search” is performed by a signal processing tool convolution. In convolution, we compute the inner product of our target signal (prompt) with a portion of the main signal (audio signal from the entire video) and we perform this computation for the entirety of the main signal and do this by sliding the target over the main signal, one sample at a time. When we achieve a perfect overlap between the prompt and the audio track, the inner product is maximized, hence we find the start time of the prompt. This method is also referred to as a matched filter, and it is an optimal detection algorithm in our conditions. More formally, for a target signal $h[t]$ and main signal $x[t]$ the result of convolution operation at time t^* is:

$$y[t^*] = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h[k]x[t^* + k]$$

where N is the length of the target signal. We calculate y for the all timestamps and search for the timestamp $y[t] = \sum_i h[i]^2$. If such point is found, corresponding index minus half the signal duration gives us the starting point of the prompt. In the following case, the first function is the original video’s pre-split audio prompt (the audio signal of “grinning face with clenched teeth” for example) and the second is the audio signal of the video we wish to split. The convolution between the two audio signals is maximal if there is no ambient noise when the original video’s audio prompt matches the location of the same audio prompt in the video we wish to split. As seen in figure 4, the kissing emoji audio prompt can be found in the audio to split at timestep 154,399, i.e. when the convolution of both audio signals is maximal.

The frames from each video are extracted once all the videos have been split into prompt sub-clips. We have limited ourselves to 2 frames per second.

3.2.3 Detecting and extracting each face from each frame.

To detect the face in each frame we used the RetinaFace [10] algorithm with the MobileNet-0.25 backbone. If no face is detected in the video taken in landscape mode we rotated the frames 90 degrees to account for the orientation. As provided in Table 1, on manual testing of 200 frames, the algorithm showed a 100% true positive rate and only had 4 false positives out of the total 223 faces in the frames. We have considered all human faces (excluding paintings) as a true positive and any detection of non-human faces (such as emojis) as false positives. The frames contained multiple faces, either because of multiple people in the video or duet style videos, and did not contain any faces. The faces were then aligned based on detected facial key points.

3.3. Crowdsourcing the labels

Crowdsourcing has been proven to be an affordable and effective way to label large amounts of data, including complex social human behaviors [52–56]. To build a gold standard labeled data set, we leverage crowdsourced workers to label a set of images collected after the face extraction and alignment process. We used Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) to label the data. In each of our labeling tasks, we present AMT workers with a set of candidate images and examples to help

them understand the task. We ask the workers to verify whether each image contains a face in the frame. If there is no face in the frame, no other label should be returned and the rating process ends. If there is a face in the frame, the rater indicates their estimation of the individual’s skin color, age, and gender in the second, third and fourth labels. In the final labels, the rater indicates their estimation of the emotion expressed by the individual within two lists of possible emotions: Ekman emotions and beyond Ekman which are complex non-Ekman emotions. The second list of possible emotions (complex non-Ekman emotions) is only presented to the rater if they have not selected any from the first list (Ekman emotions). It is crucial to set up a quality control system to ensure this accuracy. Human users make mistakes and not all users follow the instructions. Users do not always agree with each other, especially for more subtle or confusing images. The solution to these issues is to have multiple users independently label the same image. An image is considered positive only if it gets a convincing majority of the votes.

3.4. Data Validation

Identity resolution is necessary to identify the total number of individuals in the dataset, estimate their age, gender, and skin color, and validate the quality of the emotion labels. We model the dataset as a weighted undirected graph where each node corresponds to an image and connection weights are assigned based on the similarity of the two faces. For measuring similarity, we use convolutional neural networks to extract facial features and calculate the cosine distance between vectors for each individual to build the graph. In particular, we use the Arcface algorithm [11], which is a widely used facial recognition model, for feature extraction. We then threshold the edge weights and only keep the ones exceeding them to reduce the computational complexity of the clustering algorithm. This threshold is selected with a cross-validation process performed on a subset of the dataset. To accurately count the number of individuals in the dataset, we use the Chinese whispers (CW) [5] algorithm. The identity resolution is done in three steps (Figure 5) :

- Running the CW algorithm to identify the distinct individuals within the same video.
- Aggregating facial features per individual per video and using cosine similarity to identify identical individuals in other distinct videos.
- Using cosine similarity with a higher threshold to remove exact duplicates across videos.

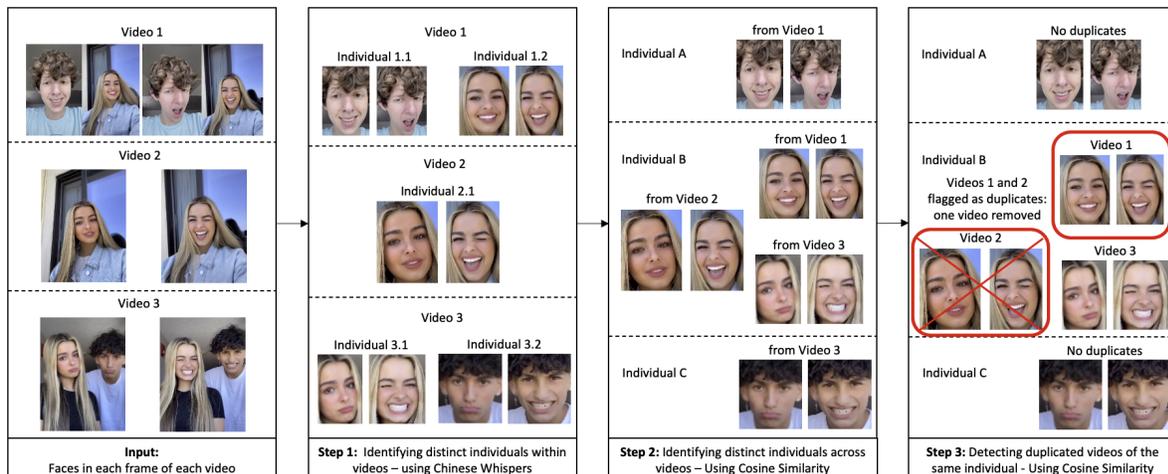


Figure 5. Identity resolution process on the TikTok dataset

#	Best Emoji Face	Face Challenge	Total
frames used	100	100	200
faces in the frames	110	113	223
faces correctly identified	110	113	223
faces missed	0	0	0
faces incorrectly identified	3	1	4

Table 1. Performance of the RetinaFace algorithm on randomly sampled frames

To validate this process we collected 100 faces, split evenly between both challenges. We manually checked these 100 videos and noticed that there were: 50 distinct individuals, 25 of them were present in two distinct videos (but not duplicated videos) and 25 of them were present as duplicates. The aim is to accurately detect clusters corresponding to the same individual and clusters corresponding to exact duplicates. Since we know the ground truth of the labels, we use the adjusted Rand [21] index for clustering evaluation. The adjusted Rand index is a consensus measure, measuring the similarity between two assignments, ignoring permutations, and adjusting for the chance. As seen in Table 2, the detection of unique individuals yielded an adjusted Rand index of 0.9

4. Results and Analysis

In this section, we present an analysis of the TikTokFER dataset and provide baseline performances on certain discriminative tasks.

4.1. Analysis

Face Challenge and Best Emoji Face Challenge resulted in a total of 6,428 videos (2,447 and 3,981, re-

spectively). After the data preprocessing and identity resolution, there are 92,389 distinct faces in the TikTokFER dataset. (Table 4) The TikTokFEER data set consists of 15 emotions: Angry, Clenched-teeth, Clown-face, Cringe, Cry, Disappointed, Disgust, Eye-roll, Kiss, Nauseated-face, Sad, Surprise, Smiling, Thinking face and Winking face. 5 of these emotions, namely: Angry, Disgust, Sad, Surprise, Smiling are Ekman emotions and the rest are complex beyond Ekman emotions. Figure 6 & 7 show the distribution of expressions in the dataset.

4.2. Results

To perform an initial analysis to gain an idea of the emotion-classification power of TikTok, we first develop a model using ResNet-50 [19], pre-trained on ImageNet. We replace the last linear to match our output size of 15 and allow all the layers to be trained. We use Adam optimizer with learning rate 0.001, default parameters and cosine annealing with warm restarts [42]. We utilize label smoothing [47] to avoid overconfidence. We implemented this model and its training procedures in PyTorch and performed training on a single NVIDIA Tesla P100 GPU.

We tested the performance of our model on popu-

Challenge	Number of Input Faces	Number of Distinct Individuals	Adjusted Rand Index
Face challenge	100 (including 25 duplicates and 25 faces from same individuals but a different timestamp)	50	0.89
Best Emoji Face	100 (including 25 duplicates and 25 faces from same individuals but a different timestamp)	50	0.91
Both	200 (including 50 duplicates and 50 faces from same individuals but a different timestamp)	100	0.9

Table 2. Performance of the Chinese whispers algorithm

lar FER benchmarks for 5 Ekman emotions present in our dataset and results are provided in Table 3. The analysis on classification accuracy shows that TikTokFER dataset can provide significant predictive power for expression classifications tasks.

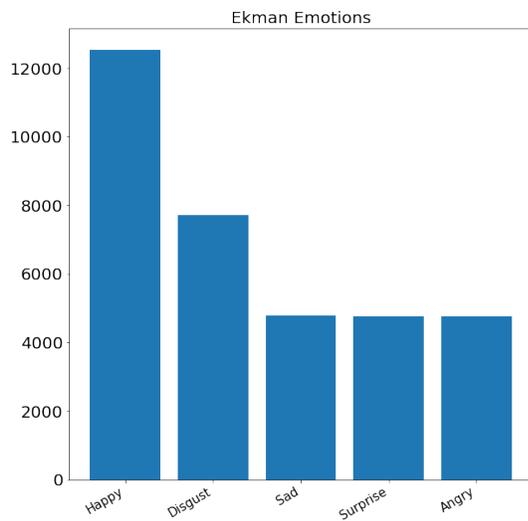


Figure 6. Distribution of Ekman emotions in the dataset

5. Discussion and Future Work

We anticipate that TikTokFER will become a useful resource for a broad range of FER-related research. Most directly, TikTokFER can become a standard training resource for FER. Most of today’s FER recognition algorithms have focused on smaller data sets that are not diverse. TikTokFER, on the other hand, contains a large number of images for Ekman emotion classes. One interesting research direction could be to study the evolution of emotion across various age, gender, and skin color groups. (2) Using Tiktok FER dataset to build a personalized FER algorithm using meta-learning methods. Current emotion classifiers fail on pediatric populations [20, 24]. Using FER models which are tuned for pediatric populations can improve digital interventions for children with affective conditions such as autism [25–28].

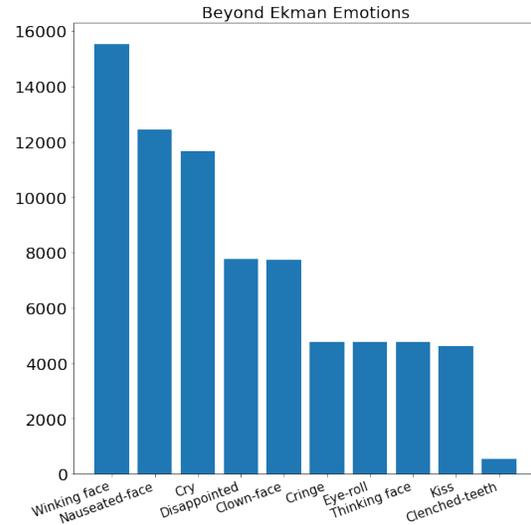


Figure 7. Distribution of beyond Ekman emotions in the dataset

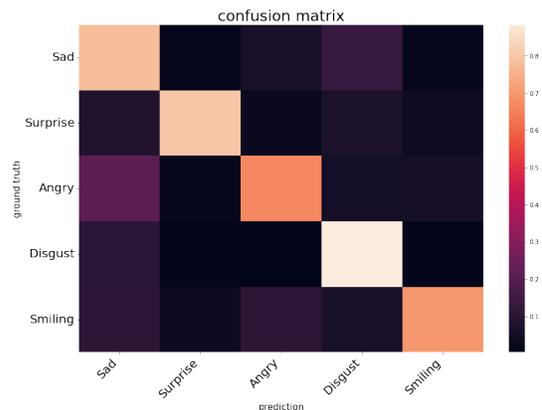


Figure 8. Confusion matrix for Ekman emotions on validation set

Some potential drawbacks of the dataset are that the emotions are not natural or genuine, as they are acted out. In the challenge, the TikTokers try to pose based on the emoji but emoticons are not equal to emotions. Still, it is possible to glean useful information about a diverse number of emotions with this data.

Dataset	F1(macro)	Accuracy
<i>Tiktok-validation (all 15 expressions)</i>	0.47	0.52
Tiktok-validation	0.78	0.79
Affwild2-validation [33–40, 59]	0.20	0.29
CK+ [43]	0.65	0.73
CAFE [41]	0.50	0.499

Table 3. Predictive performances on 5 Ekman emotions

Challenge	Videos	Frames	Distinct Face	Distinct Individuals
Face challenge	3,981	74,922	37,181	3,571
Best Emoji Face	2,447	139,578	54,567	5,875
Total	6,482	214,500	92,389	9,392

Table 4. TikTokFER dataset

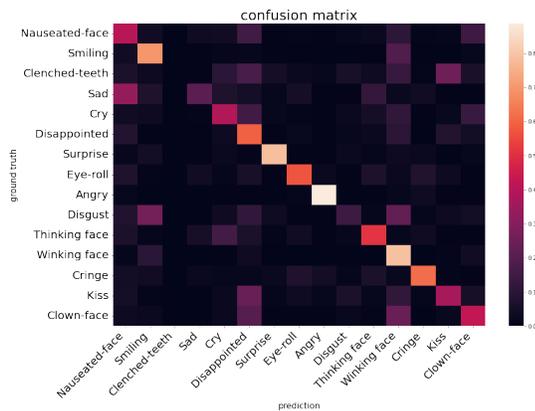


Figure 9. Confusion matrix for all emotions on validation set

6. Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all members of the community who provided valuable feedback throughout the process of defining and collecting the dataset. The work was supported in part by funds to DPW from the National Institutes of Health (1R01EB02502501, 1R01LM013364-01, 1R21HD09150001, 1R01LM013083), the National Science Foundation (Award 2014232), The Hartwell Foundation, Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Coulter Foundation, Lucile Packard Foundation, Auxiliaries Endowment, the ISDB Transform Fund, the Weston Havens Foundation, and program grants from Stanford’s Human Centered Artificial Intelligence Program, Precision Health and Integrated Diagnostics Center, Beckman Center, Bio-X Center, Predictives and Diagnostics Accelerator, Spectrum, Spark Pro-

gram in Translational Research, MediaX, and from the Wu Tsai Neurosciences Institute’s Neuroscience:Translate Program. We also acknowledge generous support from David Orr, Imma Calvo, Bobby Dekesyer and Peter Sullivan. PW would like to acknowledge support from Mr. Schroeder and the Stanford Interdisciplinary Graduate Fellowship (SIGF) as the Schroeder Family Goldman Sachs Graduate Fellow.

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