Multimodal EmotionLines: A Multimodal Multi-Party Dataset for Emotion Recognition in Conversation

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Abstract

Emotion recognition in conversation is a challenging AI task. Recently, it has gained popularity due to its potential applications in many interesting artificial intelligence problems such as empathetic dialogue generation, user behavior understanding etc. To the best of our knowledge, there is no multimodal multiparty conversational dataset available, which contains more than two speakers in a dialogue. On the other hand, although EmotionLines dataset consists of multi-party conversations, it only has dialogues in textual form. To this end, we propose Multimodal EmotionLines Dataset (MELD), which we created by enhancing and extending the EmotionLines dataset. MELD contains the same dialogue instances available in EmotionLines, but it also encompasses audio and visual modality along with the text. We have also addressed several problems in EmotionLines and proposed a strong multimodal baseline.

1 Introduction

Multimodal data analysis exploits information from multiple-parallel data channels for decision making. With the rapid growth of AI, multimodal emotion recognition has gained a major research interest, primarily due to its potential applications in many challenging tasks, such as dialogue generation, multimodal interaction etc. A conversational emotion recognition system can be used to generate appropriate responses by analyzing user emotions (Zhou et al., 2017).

Although there are numerous works carried out on multimodal emotion recognition (Poria et al., 2017a; Zadeh et al., 2016a; Wollmer et al., 2013), only a very few actually focus on understanding emotions in conversations. Recently, Hazarika et al. (2018) proposed a multimodal memory

network which can recognize emotion in dyadic dialogues. However, their work is limited only to dyadic conversation understanding and thus not scalable to emotion recognition in multi-party conversations having more than two participants. EmotionLines (Chen et al., 2018) is a dataset which contains dialogues from Friends TV series where more than two speakers participate in a dialogue. EmotionLines can be used as a resource for emotion recognition for text only, as it does not include data from other modalities such as visual and audio. At the same time, it should be noted that there is no multimodal multi-party conversational dataset available for emotion recognition research. In this work, we have extended, improved, and further developed EmotionLines dataset for the multimodal scenario. In our dataset, not only each dialogue is present in the textual form, but also their corresponding visual and audio counterpart are available.

Emotion recognition in sequential turns has several challenges and context understanding is one of them. Utterances like "yeah", "okay", "no" can express different emotions depending on the context and discourse of the dialogue. The emotion change and emotion flow in the sequence of turns in a dialogue make accurate context modeling a difficult task. In this dataset, as we have access to the multimodal data sources for each dialogue, we hypothesize that it will improve the context modeling thus benefiting the overall emotion recognition performance. Access to multiple modalities is also useful in classifying utterances such as "yeah", "okay", "I'll". These utterances do not express any explicit emotion by themselves, but the speaker's facial expressions or intonation in speech could carry important clues for classifying such utterances as non-neutral. This dataset can

also be used to develop a multimodal affective dialogue system.

IEMOCAP (Busso et al., 2008), SE-MAINE (Schuller et al., 2012) are multimodal conversational datasets which contain emotion label for each utterance. However, these datasets are dyadic in nature, which justifies the importance of our *Multimodal-EmotionLines* dataset. The other publicly available multimodal emotion and sentiment recognition datasets are MOSEI (Zadeh et al., 2018b), MOSI (Zadeh et al., 2016b), MOUD (Pérez-Rosas et al., 2013). However, none of those datasets is conversational.

2 Related Datasets

Most of the available datasets in multimodal sentiment analysis and emotion recognition are not conversational. MOSI (Hazarika et al., 2018; Zadeh et al., 2017), MOSEI (Zadeh et al., 2018a,b), MOUD (Poria et al., 2016) are such nonconversational datasets which have drawn major research interests. On the other hand, IEMO-CAP and SEMAINE are the dyadic conversational datasets where each utterance in a dialogue is labeled by emotion. As these two datasets are similar to MELD, we limit the scope of this section to only IEMOCAP and SEMAINE.

The SEMAINE Database was developed by McKeown et al. (2012). It is a large audiovisual database created for building agents that can engage a person in a sustained and emotional conversation using Sensitive Artificial Listener (SAL) (Douglas-Cowie et al., 2008) paradigm. SAL is an interaction involving two parties: a 'human' and an 'operator' (either a machine or a person simulating a machine). The interaction is based on two qualities: one is low sensitivity to preceding verbal context (the words the user used that do not dictate whether to continue the conversation) and the second is conduciveness (response to a phrase by continuing the conversation). There were 150 participants, 959 conversations, each lasting 5 minutes. There were 6-8 annotators per clip, who eventually traced 5 affective dimensions and 27 associated categories. For the recordings, the participants were asked to talk in turn to four emotionally stereotyped characters. The characters are Prudence, who is even-tempered and sensible; Poppy, who is happy and outgoing; Spike, who is angry and confrontational; and Obadiah, who is sad and depressive. Videos were recorded at 49.979 frames per second at a spatial resolution of 780 x 580 pixels and 8 bits per sample, while audio was recorded at 48 kHz with 24 bits per sample. To accommodate research in audio-visual fusion, the audio and video signals were synchronized with an accuracy of 25 micro-seconds.

Interactive Emotional Dyadic Motion Capture Database (IEMOCAP) IEMOCAP dataset was developed by Busso et al. (2008). in the year of 2008. 10 actors were asked to record their facial expressions in front of cameras. Facial markers, head and hand gesture trackers were placed in order to collect the facial expressions, head and hand gestures. In particular, the dataset contains a total 10 hours of recording of dyadic sessions. Each recording of the dataset expresses either of these emotions - happiness, anger, sadness, frustration and neutral state. The recorded dyadic sessions were later manually segmented at the utterance level which is defined as continuous segments when one of the actors was actively speaking. The acting was based on some scripts, hence it was easy to segment the dialogs for utterance detection in the textual part of the recordings. Busso et al. (2008) used two famous emotion taxonomies in order to manually label the dataset in utterance level: discrete categorical based annotations (i.e., labels such as happiness, anger, and sadness), and continuous attribute based annotations (i.e., activation, valence, and dominance). To assess the emotion categories of the recordings, six human annotators were appointed. Having two different annotation schemes can provide complementary information in human-machine interaction system. The evaluation sessions were organized so that three different annotators assessed each utterance. Self-assessment manikins (SAMs) were also employed to evaluate the corpus in terms of the attributes valence [1-negative, 5-positive], activation [1-calm, 5-excited], and dominance [1-weak, 5strong]. Two more human annotators were asked to estimate the emotional content in recordings using the SAM system. These two types of emotional descriptors facilitate the complementary insights about the emotional expressions of humans, emotional communications between people which can further potentially help to develop a better human-machine interfaces by automatically recognizing and synthesizing the emotional cues expressed by humans.

MELD is superior to these two datasets in terms

of both complexity and quantity. Both IEMO-CAP and SEMAINE contain only dyadic conversations wherein the dialogues in MELD are multiparty. Multiparty conversations are more challenging in comparison to dyadic. MELD has more than 13000 emotion labeled utterances which is almost double of the annotated utterances present in both IEMOCAP and SEMAINE. In Table 9 we present a comparison among MELD, IEMO-CAP and SEMAINE. We discuss this comparison in more detail in *Comparison with the Related Datasets* section.

3 EmotionLines Dataset

EmotionLines dataset was developed by Chen et al. (2018). This dataset contains dialogues from sitcom Friends, where each dialogue contains utterances from multiple speakers who participated. Chen et al. (2018) crawled the dialogues from each episode and grouped the them into four groups ([5, 9], [10, 14], [15, 19], and [20, 24]) based on the number of utterances present in the dialogues. Finally, 250 dialogues were sampled randomly from each of these groups which finally contributed to a dataset consisting of 1000 dialogues.

3.1 Annotation

The utterances in each dialogue were annotated with the most appropriate emotion category. Chen et al. (2018) considered Ekman's six emotions, i.e., Joy, Sadness, Fear, Anger, Surprise, and Disgust as annotation labels. This annotation list was extended with an extra emotion label Neutral. Chen et al. (2018) used Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) to annotate the utterances. The authors used five Mturkers for the annotation. Majority voting scheme was applied in order to select a final emotion label for each utterance. The overall kappa score of this annotation process was 0.34.

4 Multimodal EmotionLines Dataset (MELD)

We further extended the EmotionLines dataset into a multimodal dataset. This process is explained below:

The first step deals with finding the timestamp of every utterance in each of the dialogues present in the EmotionLines dataset.
 To accomplish this, we crawled through the subtitle files of all the episodes which contains the beginning and the end timestamp of

the utterances. This process enabled us to obtain season ID, episode ID, and timestamp of each utterance in the episode. We put two constraints whilst obtaining the timestamps:

- (a) timestamps of the utterances in a dialogue must be in increasing order,
- (b) all the utterances in a dialogue have to belong to the same episode and scene.

Constraining with these two conditions revealed that in EmotionLines, a few dialogues consist of multiple natural dialogues. We filtered out those cases (shown in Table 2) from the dataset. One such example from EmotionLines is shown in Table 2. The dialogue in Table 2 contains two natural dialogues from episode 4 and 20 of season 6 and 5 respectively. Because of this error correction step, in our case, we have the different number of dialogues as compare to the EmotionLines.

After obtaining the timestamp of each utterance, we extracted their corresponding audiovisual clips from the source episode. Separately, we also took out the audio content from those video clips. Finally, the dataset contains visual, audio, and textual modality for each dialogue.

| | #Dialogues | | | | | |
|-------|--------------|------|--|--|--|--|
| | EmotionLines | MELD | | | | |
| Train | 720 | 1039 | | | | |
| Dev | 80 | 114 | | | | |
| Test | 200 | 280 | | | | |

Table 1: Comparison between original EmotionLines and multimodal EmotionLines dataset (MELD).

4.1 Dataset Pruning

The utterances in the original EmotionLines dataset were annotated by only looking at the textual part of the utterances. However, as our target was to develop a multimodal version of the EmotionLines dataset, we re-annotated all the utterances by asking three annotators to also look at the available video clip of the utterances. Majority voting technique was taken to obtain final label out of the three annotations for each utterance. The Fleiss's kappa score of this annotation process was

| Episode | Utterance | Speaker | Emotion | Sentiment |
|---------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| | Hey Estelle, listen | Joey | neutral | neutral |
| | Well! Well! Well! Joey Tribbiani! So you came back huh? They | Estelle | surprise | positive |
| E4 | What are you talkin about? I never left you! Youve always been my agent! | Joey | surprise | negative |
| S6.E4 | Really?! | Estelle | surprise | positive |
| | Yeah! | Joey | joy | positive |
| | Oh well, no harm, no foul. | Estelle | neutral | neutral |
| 0 | Okay, you guys free tonight? | Gary | neutral | neutral |
| S5.E20 | Yeah!! | Ross | joy | positive |
| S2 | Tonight? You-you didn't say it was going to be at nighttime. | Chandler | surprise | negative |

Table 2: An incorrect dialogue in EmotionLines where utterances from different episodes are present. First 6 utterances in this dialogue have been taken from episode 4 of season 6. The last 3 utterances in red color are from episode 20 of season 5.

| | Em | otionLi | nes | MELD | | | |
|----------|-------|---------|------|-------|-----|------|--|
| Emotion | Train | Dev | Test | Train | Dev | Test | |
| anger | 524 | 85 | 163 | 1110 | 154 | 345 | |
| disgust | 244 | 26 | 68 | 271 | 22 | 68 | |
| fear | 190 | 29 | 36 | 268 | 40 | 51 | |
| joy | 1283 | 123 | 304 | 1748 | 163 | 405 | |
| neutral | 4752 | 491 | 1287 | 4726 | 471 | 1261 | |
| sadness | 351 | 62 | 85 | 686 | 111 | 208 | |
| surprise | 1221 | 151 | 286 | 1207 | 150 | 282 | |

Table 3: Emotion distribution in the dataset.

0.43 which is higher than the kappa of the original EmotionLines annotation. Table 3 shows the label wise comparison between the original EmotionLines and re-annotated Multimodal Emotion-Lines dataset i.e., MELD.

There were many utterances in the subtitles which are grouped within identical timestamps in the subtitle flies. In order to find the accurate timestamp for each utterance, we used a transcription alignment tool *Gentle* ¹, which automatically aligns a transcription with the audio by extracting word-level timestamps from the audio (Table 4). In Table 5, we show the format of MELD dataset.

4.2 Dataset Exploration

The number of emotions labels in this dataset is seven, i.e., anger, disgust, fear, joy, neutral, sadness, and surprise. We show the emotion distribution in training, development, and test datasets in Table 6. It can be seen that the emotion distribution in the dataset is not uniform and the majority of the utterances are labeled as *neutral*. The dataset is publicly available for research at https://affective-meld.github.io/.

We have also converted these fine grained emotion labels into more coarse grained sentiment classes by considering *anger*, *disgust*, *fear*, *sadness* as *negative* and *joy* as *positive* and *neutral* as *neutral* sentiment bearing class. *Surprise* is an example of a complex emotion which can be expressed with both positive and negative sentiment. We have asked three annotators to classify the surprise emotion bearing utterances into either positive and negative sentiment classes. This whole sentiment annotation task had an Fleiss' kappa score of 0.91. The distribution of *positive*, *negative*, *neutral* emotion classes is given in Table 7.

Table 8 presents several key statistics of the dataset. We can see that the average utterance length, in terms of the number of words present in an utterance, is almost the same across training, development, and test datasets. On average, three emotions are present in a dialogue of the dataset. The average duration of an utterance is 3.59 seconds. Emotion shift of a speaker in a dialogue makes emotion recognition task very challenging. We observe that the number of such emotion shift in successive utterances of a speaker in a dialogue is very frequent in the dataset – 4003, 427, and 1003 in training, development, and test datasets respectively. Table 1 shows an example where speaker's emotion changes with time in the dialogue.

4.3 Comparison with the Related Datasets

In this section, we compare our proposed MELD dataset with other databases. Particularly, we select two datasets, IEMOCAP² (Busso et al., 2008) and SEMAINE³ (Schuller et al., 2012), that are extensively used in this field of research and con-

Inttps://github.com/lowerquality/
gentle

https://sail.usc.edu/iemocap/

³https://sspnet.eu/avec2012/

| | | | Incorrect Splits | | Correcte | ed Splits |
|----------------------------|--------|---------|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Utterance | Season | Episode | Start Time | End Time | Start Time | End Time |
| Chris says they're closing | | | | | | |
| down the bar. | 3 | 6 | 00:05:57,023 | 00:05:59,691 | 00:05:57,023 | 00:05:58,734 |
| No way! | 3 | 6 | 00:05:57,023 | 00:05:59,691 | 00:05:58,734 | 00:05:59,691 |

Table 4: Example of dataset pruning using Gentle alignment tool.

| Utterance | Speaker | Emotion | U_ID | Season | E_ID | StartTime | EndTime |
|------------------------------------------|---------|----------|------|--------|------|--------------|--------------|
| But then who? The waitress I went out | | | | | | | |
| with last month? | Joey | surprise | 0 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:40,364 | 00:36:42,824 |
| You know? Forget it! | Rachel | sadness | 1 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:44,368 | 00:36:46,578 |
| No-no-no, no! Who, who were | | | | | | | |
| you talking about? | Joey | surprise | 2 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:44,368 | 00:36:49,122 |
| No, I-I-I-I don't, I actually don't know | Rachel | fear | 3 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:49,290 | 00:36:51,791 |
| Ok! | Joey | neutral | 4 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:52,376 | 00:36:53,543 |
| All right, well | Joey | neutral | 5 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:53,545 | 00:36:55,000 |
| I'm gonna see if I can get a room for | | | | | | | |
| the night and I'll | Joey | neutral | 6 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:54,587 | 00:36:58,000 |
| I'll see you later! | Joey | neutral | 7 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:57,506 | 00:36:59,425 |
| Yeah, sure! | Rachel | neutral | 8 | 9 | 23 | 00:36:59,425 | 00:37:01,439 |

Table 5: MELD dataset format. Notations: U_ID = utterance ID, E_ID = episode ID. StartTime and EndTime are in hh:mm:ss,ms format.

tain settings which are aligned to the components of MELD.

Both IEMOCAP and SEMAINE are dyadic conversational databases. IEMOCAP contain annotations in both categorical and continuous dimensions comprising of emotional categories: Anger, Happiness, Sadness, Neutral, Excitement, Fear, Surprise, Disgust, Frustration, and Others and continuous emotional dimensions: valence, arousal, and dominance. Both the annotations are done at utterance level involving multiple annotators. In contrast, SEMAINE database contains annotations only in continuous affective dimensions that include, Valence, Activation/Arousal, Power/Dominance, Anticipation/Expectation, Intensity, Fear, Anger, Happiness, Sadness, Disgust, Contempt, and Amusement. Here, annotations are provided at a finer granularity, where, labels exist at a gap of 0.2 seconds for each conversational video.

Table 9 provides information on the number of available dialogues and their constituent utterances for all three datasets, i.e., IEMOCAP, SEMAINE, and MELD. As seen in the table, MELD contains the largest size of dialogues (and utterances) which is significantly more than the other two. Figure 2 also indicates this trend for common emotions between IEMOCAP and MELD. Except for *sadness*, MELD contains a higher amount of instances pertaining to the respective emotional

categories. The extremeness of available *neutral* utterances in MELD emulates real-life conversation trends where the prevailing emotion is generally *neutral*. Another key difference for MELD is that it contains multi-party dialogues whereas IEMOCAP and SEMAINE are datasets comprising dyadic interactions only. This provides a natural setting for dialogues where multiple speakers can engage and demands proposed dialogue models to be scalable towards multiple speakers.

5 Strong Baseline

5.1 Unimodal Feature Extraction

In this section, we discuss the method of feature extraction for three different modalities: audio, video, and text. We have followed the contextual multimodal sentiment analysis approach, proposed by Poria et al. (2017b) to get the baseline results on MELD.

5.1.1 Textual Feature Extraction

The textual data is obtained from the transcripts of the videos. We apply a deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) (Karpathy et al., 2014) on each utterance to extract textual features. Each utterance in the text is represented as an array of pre-trained 300-dimensional word2vec vectors (Mikolov et al., 2013). Further, the utterances are truncated or padded with null vectors to have exactly 50 words.

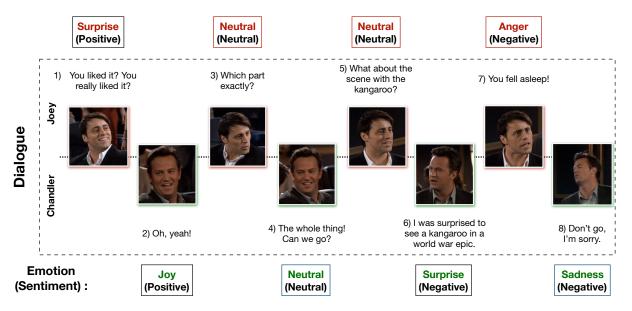


Figure 1: Emotion shift of speakers in a dialogue in comparison with speaker's previous emotion. Red and blue colors are used to show the emotion shift of Chandler and Monica respectively.

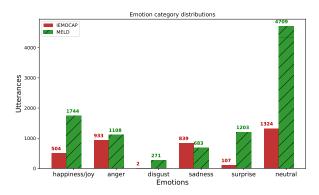


Figure 2: Comparison between the distribution of common emotions between training splits of IEMOCAP and MELD dataset.

Next, these utterances as an array of vectors are passed through two different convolutional layers; the first layer having two filters of size 3 and 4 respectively with 50 feature maps, each and the second layer has a filter of size 2 with 100 feature maps. Each convolutional layer is followed by a max-pooling layer with window 2×2 .

The output of the second max-pooling layer is fed to a fully-connected layer with 500 neurons with a rectified linear unit (ReLU) (Teh and Hinton, 2001) activation, followed by softmax output. The output of the penultimate fully-connected layer is used as the textual feature. The translation of convolution filter over makes the CNN learn abstract features and with each subsequent layer, the context of the features expands further.

5.1.2 Audio Feature Extraction

The audio feature extraction process is performed at 30 Hz frame rate with 100 ms sliding window. We use openSMILE (Eyben et al., 2010), which is capable of automatic pitch and voice intensity extraction, for audio feature extraction. Prior to feature extraction, audio signals are processed with voice intensity thresholding and voice normalization. Specifically, we use Z-standardization for voice normalization. In order to filter out audio segments without the voice, we threshold voice intensity. OpenSMILE is used to perform both these steps. Using openSMILE we extract several Low-Level Descriptors (LLD) (e.g., pitch, voice intensity) and various statistical functionals of them (e.g., amplitude mean, arithmetic mean, root quadratic mean, standard deviation, flatness, skewness, kurtosis, quartiles, inter-quartile ranges, and linear regression slope). "IS13-ComParE" configuration file of openSMILE is used to for our purposes. Finally, we extracted total 6373 features from each input audio segment.

5.2 Context Modeling

Utterances in the videos are semantically dependent on each other. In other words, the complete meaning of an utterance may be determined by taking preceding utterances into consideration. We call this the context of an utterance. Following (Poria et al., 2017b), we use RNN, specifically,

GRU⁴ to model semantic dependency among the utterances in a video. Let the following items represent unimodal features:

$$f_A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d_A}$$
 (acoustic features),
 $f_T \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d_T}$ (textual features),

where N = maximum number of utterances in a video. We pad the shorter videos with dummy utterances represented by null vectors of corresponding length. For each modality, we feed the unimodal utterance features f_m (where $m \in \{A, T\}$) (discussed in 5.1) of a video to GRU_m with output size D_m , which is defined as

$$z_{m} = \sigma(f_{mt}U^{mz} + s_{m(t-1)}W^{mz}),$$

$$r_{m} = \sigma(f_{mt}U^{mr} + s_{m(t-1)}W^{mr}),$$

$$h_{mt} = \tanh(f_{mt}U^{mh} + (s_{m(t-1)} * r_{m})W^{mh}),$$

$$F_{mt} = \tanh(h_{mt}U^{mx} + u^{mx}),$$

$$s_{mt} = (1 - z_{m}) * F_{mt} + z_{m} * s_{m(t-1)},$$

where $U^{mz} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_m \times D_m}$, $W^{mz} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m \times D_m}$, $U^{mr} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_m \times D_m}$, $W^{mr} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m \times D_m}$, $U^{mh} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_m \times D_m}$, $W^{mh} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m \times D_m}$, $U^{mx} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_m \times D_m}$, $u^{mx} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m}$, $z_m \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m}$, $r_m \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m}$, $h_{mt} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m}$, $F_{mt} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m}$, and $s_{mt} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_m}$. This yields hidden outputs F_{mt} as context-aware unimodal features for each modality. Hence, we define $F_m = GRU_m(f_m)$, where $F_m \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D_m}$. Thus, the context-aware multimodal features can be defined as

$$F_A = GRU_A(f_A),$$

 $F_T = GRU_T(f_T).$

5.3 Fusion

We then fuse F_A, F_T to a multimodal feature space. Since, the unimodal features may have dif-

⁴LSTM does not perform well

| | No. of Utterances | | | | | | |
|----------|-------------------|-----|------|--|--|--|--|
| Emotion | Train | Dev | Test | | | | |
| anger | 1110 | 154 | 345 | | | | |
| disgust | 271 | 22 | 68 | | | | |
| fear | 268 | 40 | 51 | | | | |
| joy | 1748 | 163 | 405 | | | | |
| neutral | 4726 | 471 | 1261 | | | | |
| sadness | 686 | 111 | 208 | | | | |
| surprise | 1207 | 150 | 282 | | | | |

Table 6: Emotion distribution in the dataset.

| | No. of Utterances | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|-----|------|--|--|
| Sentiment Category | Train | Dev | Test | | |
| negative | 2950 | 407 | 835 | | |
| neutral | 4726 | 471 | 1261 | | |
| positive | 2340 | 233 | 524 | | |

Table 7: Coarse sentiment distribution in the dataset.

| Statistics | Train | Dev | Test |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| # of modalities | $\{a,v,t\}$ | $\{a,v,t\}$ | $\{a,v,t\}$ |
| # of unique words | 10,643 | 2,384 | 4,361 |
| Avg. utterance length | 8.03 | 7.99 | 8.28 |
| Max. utterance length | 69 | 37 | 45 |
| Avg. # of emotions per dialogue | 3.30 | 3.35 | 3.24 |
| # of dialogues | 1039 | 114 | 280 |
| # of utterances | 10016 | 1111 | 2620 |
| # of speakers | 260 | 47 | 100 |
| # of emotion shift | 4003 | 427 | 1003 |
| Avg. duration of an utterance | 3.59s | 3.59s | 3.58s |

Table 8: Dataset Statistics. $\{a,v,t\} = \{audio, visual, text\}$

ferent dimensions, we first equalize their dimensions and transform the features to dimensions D using a fully connected network.

$$g_A = \tanh(F_A W_A + b_A),$$

 $g_T = \tanh(F_T W_T + b_T),$

where $W_A \in \mathbb{R}^{D_A \times D}$, $b_A \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $W_T \in \mathbb{R}^{D_T \times D}$, and $b_T \in \mathbb{R}^D$. We can represent the mapping for each dimension as

$$g_x = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11}^x & c_{21}^x & c_{31}^x & \cdots & c_{D1}^x \\ c_{12}^x & c_{22}^x & c_{32}^x & \cdots & c_{D2}^x \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ c_{1N}^x & c_{2N}^x & c_{3N}^x & \cdots & c_{DN}^x \end{bmatrix},$$

where $x \in \{A, T\}$ and c_{lt}^x are scalars for all l = 1, 2, ..., D and t = 1, 2, ..., N.

 g_A, g_T were fused as follows -

$$f_{AT} = (f_{AT1}, f_{AT2}, \dots, f_{AT(N)}),$$

where $f_{ATt} = (i_{1t}^{AT}, i_{2t}^{AT}, \dots, i_{Dt}^{AT}),$

Finally f_{AT} was fed to contextual GRU i.e., GRU_{AT} which incorporates the contextual information contributed by the utterances.

5.4 Classification and Training

The training of this network is performed using categorical cross-entropy on each utterance's soft-

| Dataset | # dialogues | | | # utterances | | | |
|---------|-------------|-----|------|--------------|------|------|--|
| Dataset | train | dev | test | train | dev | test | |
| IEMOCAP | 120 | | 31 | 5810 | | 1623 | |
| SEMAINE | 63 | | 32 | 4368 | | 1430 | |
| MELD | 1039 | 114 | 280 | 10463 | 2384 | 4361 | |

Table 9: Comparison among MELD, IEMOCAP and SEMAINE datasets

Algorithm 1 Contextual Multomodal Emotion Classification Algorithm

1: **procedure** TrainAndTestModel(U, V)

 $\triangleright U$ = train set, V = test set

```
Unimodal feature extraction:
 3:
           for i:[1, N] do
                                          4:
                f_A^i \leftarrow AudioFeatures(u_i)
 5:
                f_T^i \leftarrow TextFeatures(u_i)
           for m \in \{A, T\} do
 6:
                F_m = GRU_m(f_m)
 7:
           Fusion:
 8:
           g_A \leftarrow MapToSpace(F_A)
                                                       equalization
10:
           g_T \leftarrow MapToSpace(F_T)
            f_{AT} \leftarrow \hat{Fusion}(g_A, g_T)

    bimodal fusion

11:
12:
           for i:[1,N] do

⊳ softmax classification

13:
                \hat{y}^i = \operatorname{argmax}(softmax(F_{AT}^i)[j])
14:
           TestModel(V)
15: procedure MAPTOSPACE(x_z)
                                                        \triangleright for modality z
          g_z \leftarrow \tanh(W_z x_z + b_z)
16:
17:
          return g_z
18: procedure FUSION(g_{z_1}, g_{z_2})
                                                 \triangleright for modality z_1 and
     z_2, where z_1 \neq z_2
          for i: [1, D] do
          f_{z_{1}z_{2}}^{i} \leftarrow \tanh(w_{i}^{z_{1}z_{2}}.[g_{z_{1}}^{i}, g_{z_{2}}^{i}]^{\mathsf{T}} + b_{i}^{z_{1}z_{2}})
f_{z_{1}z_{2}} \leftarrow (f_{z_{1}z_{2}}^{1}, f_{z_{1}z_{2}}^{2}, \dots, f_{z_{1}z_{2}}^{D})
20:
21:
22:
          return f_{z_1 z_2}
23: procedure TESTMODEL(V)
          Similarly to training phase, V is passed through the
     learnt models to get the features and classification out-
```

max output per dialogue, i.e.,

$$loss = -\frac{1}{(\sum_{i=1}^{M} L_i)} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{L_i} \sum_{c=1}^{C} y_{i,c}^j \log_2(\hat{y}_{i,c}^j),$$

where M= total number of dialogues in the dataset, $L_i=$ number of utterances for i^{th} dialogue, $y_{i,c}^j=$ original output of class c, and $\hat{y}_{i,c}^j=$ predicted output for j^{th} utterance of i^{th} dialogue.

As a regularization method, dropout between the GRU cell and dense layer is introduced to avoid overfitting.

5.5 Baseline Results

In Table 10 and 11, we show the baseline results following the method explained in Section *Strong Baseline*. As it can be seen, multimodality slightly

outperforms the text and audio modality. This suggests the need for a better fusion mechanism. Overall, the audio modality performs the worst. For positive sentiment category, audio modality could only give 6.33% accuracy. In future, we will use more advance state-of-the-art audio feature extractor in order to improve the classification performance.

| Modality | Sentiments | | | | | |
|------------|------------|----------|---------|--------|--|--|
| Wiodanty | positive | negative | neutral | w-avg. | | |
| text | 50.27 | 58.25 | 77.91 | 66.02 | | |
| audio | 6.33 | 13.25 | 66.12 | 39.72 | | |
| text+audio | 56.15 | 57.23 | 75.89 | 66.92 | | |

Table 10: Test-set F-score results of contextual biLSTM for sentiment classification in MELD. Note: *w-avg* denotes weighted-average.

In the case of emotion classification, the performance is poor to classify disgust, fear and sadness emotions. We think, this has happened as the number of training instances for disgust, fear and sadness are very low as shown in Table 7. Nevertheless, this performance acts as a baseline and future works should aim at outperforming this baseline. We observed high misclassification rate for anger, disgust and fear emotion categories since these emotions have a very subtle difference among them which causing harder disambiguation. As a part of the dataset, we have released the raw videos and audios which will facilitate the feature extraction process.

6 Future Directions

There are a number of interesting future directions of this work. First, the proposed baseline does not consider the presence of multiple speakers in a conversation. We think that the consideration of speaker modeling can improve the performance of emotion recognition. The other future directions include extraction of visual features and use of this dataset for empathetic dialogue generation.

6.1 Applications of this dataset

The other use cases of this dataset are as follows:

As we discussed above, this dataset is useful to train a conversational emotion recognition classifier which can be plugged into any dialogue system to generate empathetic responses similar to Zhou et al. (2017). For

| Modality | | | | | motions | | | |
|------------|-------|---------|------|-------|---------|---------|----------|--------|
| Wiodanty | anger | disgust | fear | joy | neutral | sadness | surprise | w-avg. |
| text | 43.22 | 0.23 | 0.56 | 52.73 | 75.37 | 21.47 | 49.47 | 56.72 |
| audio | 26.34 | 0.13 | 0.57 | 9.78 | 67.58 | 0.87 | 15.58 | 39.23 |
| text+audio | 43.12 | 0.34 | 0.55 | 52.47 | 77.37 | 20.58 | 51.32 | 57.34 |

Table 11: Test-set F-score results of contextual biLSTM for emotion classification in MELD. Note: *w-avg* denotes weighted-average.

example, this dataset can be used for emotion modeling of the users in Twitter persona dataset Li et al. (2016). As this dataset is multimodal, it is also possible to integrate it with a multimodal dialogue system.

• This dataset should not be used to train an end-to-end dialogue system because of its size (see Table 1). The training set of this dataset contains only 10,643 utterances, which is not enough to train a well performing dialogue system. However, the mechanism of constructing this dataset can be easily applied to develop a multimodal dialogue dataset based on Friends or any other TV series such as Breaking Bad. We define multimodal dialogue system as a platform where the system has access to the speaker's voice, the facial expression which it exploits to generate responses. Multimodal dialogue systems can be very useful for real time personal assistants such as Siri, Google Assistant where the users can use both voice and text to communicate with the assistant.

7 Conclusion

In this work, we propose a multimodal multiparty conversational emotion recognition dataset called MELD. MELD has been developed based on the original EmotionLines dataset. We also provide solid baseline results on MELD. This dataset is publicly available ⁵ and contains the raw videos and audios which will be useful to extract new audio and visual features. Along with these, we have also released the features used in our baseline experiments. We think this dataset will also be useful as a training corpus for multimodal emphatic response generation. MELD has a strong potential to help conversation understanding research. Future works on this dataset should focus on extracting new features and outperforming the baseline

results as presented in this paper.

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