Integrated Framework Design for Intelligent Human Machine Interaction

by

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I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Abstract

Human-computer interaction, sometimes referred to as Man-Machine Interaction, is a concept that emerged simultaneously with computers, or more generally machines. The methods by which humans have been interacting with computers have traveled a long way. New designs and technologies appear every day. However, computer systems and complex machines are often only technically successful, and most of the time users may find them confusing to use; thus, such systems are never used efficiently. Therefore, building sophisticated machines and robots is not the only thing someone has to address; in fact, more effort should be put to make these machines simpler for all kind of users, and generic enough to accommodate different types of environments. Thus, designing intelligent human computer interaction modules come to emerge. In this work, we aim to implement a generic framework (referred to as CIMF framework) that allows the user to control the synchronized and coordinated cooperative type of work that a set of robots can perform. Three robots are involved so far: Two manipulators and one mobile robot. The framework should be generic enough to be hardware independent and to allow the easy integration of new entities and modules. We also aim to implement the different building blocks for the intelligent manufacturing cell that communicates with the framework via the most intelligent and advanced human computer interaction techniques. Three techniques shall be addressed: Interface-, audio-, and visual-based type of interaction.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

The principles for applying human factors into machine interfaces has become the topic of intense research work especially when equipment complexity began to exceed the limits of human ability for right and safe operation. Computer systems and complex machines are often only technically successful, but most of the time users may find them confusing to use, inconsistent, difficult to learn; thus, the systems cannot be used effectively. Utilizing computers has always brought the concept of interfacing to the front. The methods by which human has been interacting with computers has been progressing fast for the last decades. New designs, technologies and systems appear more and more every day affecting, not only the quality of interaction, but also other branches in the history of human computer interaction which have had great focus on the concepts of multimodality rather than unimodality, intelligent adaptive interfaces rather than command/action ones, and finally active rather than passive interfaces [1].

Research in human computer interaction (HCI) has been widely successful and has largely changed computing. The ubiquitous graphical interface used by Microsoft Windows 95 comes to be one of the examples. Another important example emerges from the fact that most of the softwares developed today employ user interface toolkits and some interface builders concepts. The remarkable growth of the World Wide Web is nothing but a direct consequence of HCI research: One is able to traverse a link across the world with a click of the mouse by applying hypertext techniques to browsers [2]. HCI even goes beyond this; the belief that humans will be able to interact with computers in conversational speech has been for a long time a favorite subject in science fiction, but with recent improvements and developments in computer technology and in speech and language processing,
such systems are starting to become more feasible to design. There are significant technical problems that still need to be solved before speech driven interfaces become truly, but many promising results are making this fiction getting closer to become a truth.

1.1 Motivation

Human-computer interaction, sometimes referred to as Man-Machine Interaction or Interfacing, is a concept that emerged simultaneously with computers, or more generally machines. The reason, in fact, is loud and clear: *If the user does not like the introduction of a system and finds it confusing to use, then the system can never be used efficiently*. Increased attention to systems usability is also driven by the need to increase productivity, reduce frustration, and reduce overhead costs such as user training. For these reasons, the design of HCI should always address both terms: functionality and usability [3]. Why a system is actually designed can ultimately be defined by what the system can do i.e., how the functions of a system can help towards the achievement of the purpose of the system. Functionality of a system is defined by the set of actions or services that it provides to its users. However, the value of functionality is visible only when it becomes possible to be efficiently utilized by the user [4]. Usability of a system with a certain functionality is the range and degree by which the system can be used efficiently and adequately to accomplish certain goals for certain users. The actual effectiveness of a system is achieved when there is a proper balance between the functionality and usability of a system [5].

Having these concepts in mind and considering that the terms computer, machine and system are often used interchangeably in this context, HCI is a design that should produce a fit between the user, the machine and the required services in order to achieve a certain performance both in quality and optimality of the services [6].

1.2 Objectives

"Most sophisticated machines are worthless unless they can be used properly by men" [3]. This basic argument simply presents the main terms that should be considered in the design of HCI: functionality and usability. Our principal goal in this research work is to *implement the different building blocks for a generic*
intelligent manufacturing cell that allow the user to easily control a set of robots using the most intelligent and advanced human computer interaction techniques. To achieve this, the following tasks should be completed:

- Build a generic framework that connects the set of robots to one manufacturing cell. The framework must be hardware independent, and must allow for easy addition of new entities. It must also allow for easy implementation of new tasks. Finally, it must allow for easy remote operation and observation by an arbitrary number of operators and observers.

- Implement a friendly computer interface that enables a simple and easy access to the framework.

- Build intelligent speech and gesture recognition based entities that allow the user to control the system with natural speech commands, some predefined hand gestures, or a combination of both.

- Enable remote access to the system.

- Implement a face recognition based authentication system to introduce a higher level of security to our framework.

1.3 Contributions

Building sophisticated machines and robots is definitely not the only thing someone has to address; more effort should be put on making the use of these machines easier for all kinds of end users. Most nowadays systems are too technical and seem to be confusing to use by normal users; besides, they tend to lack the generic aspect that makes them usable under different environments and conditions. In this work, two principal goals are addressed. The first main goal is to implement a framework that is generic enough to accommodate for a number of key issues:

- The framework must be hardware independent.

- The framework must allow for easy addition of new entities.

- The framework must allow for easy implementation of new tasks.

- The framework must allow for easy remote operation and observation by an arbitrary number of operators and observers.
The framework will be called CIMF framework, so keywords ”framework” and ”CIMF framework” will be used interchangeably. The second principal goal is to implement and integrate into the framework the different building blocks for the intelligent manufacturing cell that controls a set of robots using the most intelligent and advanced human computer interaction techniques. Three techniques shall be addressed: Interface based interaction, audio based interaction and visual based interaction.

Human-Computer Interface Design seeks to discover the most efficient way to design understandable work frame. Research in this area is voluminous; a complete branch of computer science is devoted to this topic, with recommendations for the proper design of menus, icons, forms, as well as data display and entry screens. The interface should be friendly enough to allow non professional users to interact with sophisticated machines freely and easily.

The audio based interaction between a computer and a human is another important area of HCI systems. This area deals with information acquired by different audio signals. While the nature of audio signals may not be as variable as visual signals but the information gathered from audio signals can be more trustable, helpful, and in some cases unique providers of information. Speech recognition is used in this work; thus allowing users to provide speech commands to the system. The major problem in speech recognition though, is the inability to predict exactly what a user might say. We can only know the keywords that are needed for a specific speech enabled system. Fortunately, that’s all we need in order to interact adequately with the machine. So a proper design of a system that spots these specific terms in the user utterance (also called as keyword spotting system) can help overcoming this particular problem, and hence allowing users to speak in a more natural way.

Finally, the visual based human computer interaction which is probably the most widespread area in HCI research allows user to interact with the system with some specific visual features. Hand gesture recognition is used for this research work to control our manufacturing cell. And in order to provide the system with a higher level security layer, another visual based interaction module is implemented and integrated to the system in order to authenticate people and hence allowing or preventing them from accessing the system. Face recognition is used for this purpose.

Human machine interaction however does not have to be performed with physical proximity. In fact, the human operators and the target machines can be separated by distances of up to several thousand miles, but the performed actions should yield
anomalous results that are comparable in scale and character to those produced under conditions of physical proximity. For this reason, the framework was implemented to allow remote access to it. Different modules and entities can connect from anywhere to the framework after the user has been properly authenticated.

1.4 Thesis Organization

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 reviews the state of the art of human machine interaction systems and techniques. Chapter 3 gives an overview of the system’s main hardware and software components. Chapter 4 provides a detailed description of the generic implementation of the framework, and of the different building blocks of the intelligent manufacturing cell. The implementation of interface−, audio−, and visual−based type of interaction modules are discussed in this chapter. Chapter 5 presents the structure and implementation of another visual based human computer interaction, the face recognition, that is used to provide a more secure environment by authenticating those who are authorized to access the system. Finally, chapter 6 summarizes the contributions of this thesis and introduces the focus of the future research.
Chapter 2

Background And Literature Review

This chapter reviews the state of the art of what has been achieved in human computer/machine interaction. Both unimodal and multimodal types of interaction are addressed.

2.1 Unimodal Human Computer Interaction

For most people, a wide conceptual gap does exist between the representations that computers will accept when they are programmed, and the representations that they use in their minds when thinking about a problem. People who are not professionally trained programmers find it really difficult to move closer to the system. The biggest issue is in fact that even if they learn the techniques, they tend not to like the results. They just don’t want to think like computers, but they do want to control them. For the past three decades, many attempts has been taking place to enable regular non professional programmers to program computers. Researchers have created many languages such as Smalltalk, Logo, Pascal, BASIC, and HyperTalk. They developed techniques such as structured programming, and approached programming from a pedagogical perspective with technology, such as the goal-plan editor, and from an engineering perspective, with CASE tools. Each of these is a brilliant advance in its own right. Today, however, only a small percentage of people program computers, probably less than 1 percent. The secret to increase this rate is to make programming more like thinking. A research project at Apple Computer has attempted to do this for childrens programming tools. The
The key idea is to use representations in the computer that are similar and analogous to the objects being represented and to allow direct manipulations of these representations during the process of programming. The key to success if to address and explore the fields of HCI, contextual inquiry, Visual Design and Interface techniques.

The methods by which human has been interacting with computers has made a long way. Research in this area has been growing very fast in the last few decades and new designs of technologies and systems appear every day. The journey still continues. The rapid growth of information systems has led to the wide development of research on human computer interaction (HCI) that aims at the designing of human computer interfaces that present ergonomic properties, such as friendliness, usability, and transparency. The growth in Human-Computer Interaction (HCI) field has experienced different branching in its history, and went to focus on the concepts of multimodality rather than just unimodality, intelligent adaptive interfaces rather than command/action ones, and also active rather than passive interfaces.

HCI, often called as Man-Machine Interaction or Interfacing, has emerged simultaneously with computers, or more generally machines. The reason, in fact, is clear: Even the most technically successful machines are worthless unless they can be used properly and safely by humans. From this argument, one can simply present the main terms that should be addressed when designing a human computer interaction system: functionality and usability [3]. The design of an HCI system affects the amount of effort that the user has to expend in order to provide inputs for the system and to interpret the outputs of the system, as well as how much effort it takes to learn how to do this. Hence, HCI is a design that should produce a balance and a fit between the user, the machine and the required services in order to achieve a certain performance both in quality and optimality of the services [6].

HCI design should consider many aspects of human behaviors in order to be useful. Therefore, when designing an HCI system, the degree of activity that involves a user with a machine should be continuously considered. This activity happens to occur on three different levels: physical [7], cognitive [8], and affective [9]. The physical aspect addresses the mechanics of interaction between humans and machines. The cognitive aspect, on the other hand, is more about how users can understand and interact with the system. Finally, the affective aspect tries to make the interaction a pleasurable experience for the user, and intend to affect the user in a way that make him continue to use the machine by changing its attitudes and emotions [1]. The existing physical technologies for HCI can be categorized according to the rel-
ative human sense that the device is designed to address. These devices basically rely on three human senses: vision, audition, and touch [3].

Input devices that rely on vision are commonly either switch-based or pointing devices. Such devices are the most commonly used type [10, 11]. The switch-based devices use buttons and switches as in a keyboard [12]. Pointing devices, on the other hand, are more like mice, joysticks, touch screen panels, graphic tablets, trackballs, and pen-based input [13]. Joysticks are in fact the ones that have both switches and pointing abilities. The output devices can be any kind of visual display or printing device [5]. The devices that rely on audition are more advanced devices that aim to facilitate the interaction, and are much more difficult to build [14, 15]. However, output auditory devices are easier to create, where all kind of messages and speech signals are produced by machines as output signals. Beeps, alarms, and turn-by-turn navigation commands of a GPS device are simple examples [1].

The most difficult and costly devices to build are haptic devices [16]. "These kinds of interfaces generate sensations to the skin and muscles through touch, weight and relative rigidity [3]". Haptic technology refers to the technology that interfaces with the user via the sense of touch, by applying forces, vibrations or motions. This mechanical stimulation may be used to assist in creating virtual objects that are only existing in a computer simulation, to control such virtual objects, and to enhance the remote control of machines and devices. This emerging technology promises to have wide reaching applications. For example, haptic technology has made it possible to investigate in detail how the human sense of touch works, by allowing the creation of carefully-controlled haptic virtual objects. These objects are used to systematically probe human haptic capabilities. Haptic devices [17] are generally made for virtual reality [18] or disability assistive applications.

The recent advances and technologies in HCI are now trying to combine former methods of interaction together along with other emerging technologies such as networking and animation [1]. These new advances can be categorized in three sections: wearable devices [19], wireless devices [20], and virtual devices [21]. The technology is improving so fast that even the borders between these new technologies are fading away as it is the case for example when talking about GPS navigation systems [22], military super-soldier enhancing devices (e.g. thermal vision [23], tracking other soldier movements using GPS, and environmental scanning), radio frequency identification (RFID) products, personal digital assistants (PDA), and virtual tour for real estate business [24]. Some of these new devices upgraded and/or integrated previous methods of interaction. Such an example comes to be
Canesta keyboard that has been offered by Compaq’s iPAQ, which is a virtual keyboard that is made by projecting a QWERTY like pattern on a solid surface using a red light. The device tries to track user’s finger movement while typing on the surface with a motion sensor [25].

As mentioned earlier, an interface mainly relies on the number and diversity of its inputs and outputs which are communication channels that enable users to interact with computer via this interface. Each of the different independent single channels is called a modality. A system that is based on only one modality is called unimodal. Based on the nature of different modalities, they can be divided into three categories:

- Visual-Based.
- Audio-Based.
- Sensor-Based.

The next sub-sections describe each category and provide examples and references to each category.

### 2.1.1 Visual-Based HCI

The visual based human computer interaction is probably the most widespread area in HCI research. Face recognition comes to be one of these main aspects due to its high relation to security issues. Scanners come to emerge as an advanced technique used in this field as shown in Figure 2.1. Some of the other main research areas in this section are as follow [1]:

- Facial Expression Analysis (Emotion Recognition).
- Body Movement Tracking (Large-scale).
- Gesture Recognition.
- Gaze Detection (Eyes Movement Tracking).

Facial expression analysis generally deals with recognition of emotions visually [26, 27, 28]. Some proposed an emotion recognition system that uses the major directions of specific facial muscles, while others used parametric models to extract
the shape and movements of the mouse, eye and eyebrows. Body movement tracking [29, 30] and gesture recognition [31, 32, 33] are usually the main focus of this area and can have different purposes but they are mostly used for direct interaction of human and computer in a command and action scenario. Sign language recognition is such a scenario. Just as speech recognition can transcribe speech to text, certain types of gesture recognition software can transcribe the symbols represented through sign language into text. Gesture Recognition can also be used to determine where a person is pointing, which is useful for identifying the context of statements or instructions. Immersive game technology is another important example, where gestures can be used to control interactions within video games to try and make the game player’s experience more interactive or immersive. Gaze detection [34], defined as the direction to which the eyes are pointing in space, is mostly an indirect form of interaction between user and machine which is mostly used for better understanding of user’s attention, intent or focus in context-sensitive situations [35]. Eye tracking systems are widely used in helping disabilities where eye tracking plays a main role in command and action scenario, for example blinking can be related to clicking [36]. It is worth noting that visual approaches are almost used anywhere to assist other types of interactions, as it is the case where lip movement tracking is used as an influential aid for speech recognition error correction [37].
2.1.2 Audio-Based HCI

The audio based interaction between a computer and a human is another important area of HCI systems. This area deals with the information that is acquired by different audio signals. This information may not be as variable as visual signals but can be for most cases more trustable, helpful, and unique providers of information. Research areas in this field can be divided to the following areas [1]:

- Speech Recognition
- Speaker Recognition
- Auditory Emotion Analysis
- Human-Made Noise/Sign Detections (Gasp, Sigh, Laugh, Cry, etc.)
- Musical Interaction

![Figure 2.2: Spectrograph in Voice Recognition](image-url)
Historically, speech recognition [14] and speaker recognition [38] have been the main focus of researchers. Speaker recognition is built based on the extraction and modeling of specific features from speech. This voice authentication process is based on an analysis of the vibrations created in the human vocal tract. The shape of a person’s vocal tract determines the resonance of the voice which is fairly different from one to another due to the fact that everyone has a unique vocal tract in shape and size. Speech recognition, on the other hand, is about converting the speech signal into a readable input. Speech recognition will be addressed in details in chapter 4. Figure 2.2 shows the spectrogram of the word that is used to visualize the acoustics of vowels which counts as one of the most important steps in speech recognition. Recent endeavors to integrate human emotions in intelligent human computer interaction initiated the efforts in analysis of emotions in audio signals [39, 40]. A speech consists of some words spoken in a particular way in which the information about emotions resides. Emotions affect the open/close ratio of the vocal chords, and hence the quality of the voice. Sadness for example influences the voice quality so that creaky voice may be produced. In this case the speech is of low pitch and low intensity [41]. Other than the tone and pitch of speech data, typical human auditory signs such as sigh, gasp, and etc helped emotion analysis for designing more intelligent HCI system [42]. Music generation and interaction is a very new area in HCI that finds its most interesting applications in the art industry. [43].

2.1.3 Sensor-Based HCI

Sensor-based interactions are increasingly becoming an essential part in the design of user experiences. This type of interaction ranges from the activation of controls to providing some context-aware information by delivering relevant information to people at appropriate times. Sensor-based interaction can be considered as a combination of variety of areas with a wide range of applications, where at least one physical sensor is used between the user and machine to provide better interaction. These sensors as shown below can be very primitive or very sophisticated [1].

- Pen-Based Interaction.
- Mouse and Keyboard.
- Joysticks.
- Motion Tracking Sensors and Digitizers.
- Haptic Sensors.
- Pressure Sensors.
- Taste/Smell Sensors.

Pen-Based sensors are specifically of interest in mobile devices and are related to pen gesture [44] and handwriting recognition areas. An interesting application is the Biometric Smart Pen (BiSP), which is a multi-sensor pen that is used for the acquisition of neuro-motor features by measuring the kinematics and dynamics of hand movements during handwriting, i.e. the pressure applied to the pen and the tilt angles. This system is used for the authentication of individuals where query samples are compared against stored references using some matching algorithms [45]. Motion tracking sensors/digitizers are state-of-the-art technology which revolutionized movie, animation, art, and video-game industry. They come in the form of wearable cloth or joint sensors and made computers much more able to interact with reality and human able to create their world virtually. A motion capture session records the movements of the actor as animation data which are later mapped to a 3D model like a human, a giant robot, or any other model created by a computer artist, and then make the model move the same way as recorded. This is comparable to older techniques where the visual appearance of the motion of an actor was filmed and used as a guide for the frame by frame motion of a hand-drawn animated character.

Haptic and pressure sensors are of special interest for applications in robotics and virtual reality as well [16, 17]. New humanoid robots include hundreds of haptic sensors that make the robots sensitive to touch [46, 47]. These types of sensors are also used in medical surgery applications and cell phone designs. Figure 2.3 shows Samsung’s Anycall Haptic cell phone. The phone, launched in South Korea in March, 2008, has a large touch-screen display that also provides haptic feedback when using certain functions on the device. There are 22 kinds of vibration in total built into the phone.

Another important emerging haptic device is a controller developed by Ralph L. Hollis, a research professor and a director of the Microdynamic Systems Laboratory at Carnegie Mellon University. The controller allows computer users to explore virtual environments with three-dimensional images through sight, sound, and most importantly sense of touch [48]. The controller has just one moving part and looks like a joystick with a levitating bar that can be grasped and moved in any direction. The device has six degrees of freedom of movement: forward, backwards, left,
right, up and down, and rests in a bowl that is connected to a computer as shown in Figure 2.4. The device is equipped with magnets that exert feedback forces on the bar in order simulate resistance, weights, and/or friction. The forces are strong enough to make objects resist as much as 40 newtons of force before they shift even a millimetre. "The device can track movements of the bar as small as two microns, a fiftieth the width of a human hair, which is very important for feeling the very subtle effects of friction and texture" [49].

According to Ralph L, this device “simulates a hand’s responses to touch because it relies on a part that floats in a magnetic field rather than on mechanical linkages and cables”. It cost much less than 50,000 dollars, and “could enable a would-be surgeon to operate on a virtual human organ and sense the texture of tissue or give a designer the feeling of fitting a part into a virtual jet engine, or might also be used to convey the feeling of wind under the wings of unmanned military planes” [48]. The system was presented at the IEEE Symposium on Haptic Interfaces for Virtual Environments and Teleoperator Systems that was held on March 13, 2008.
2.2 Multi-Modal Human Computer Interaction

The term multimodal refers to combination of multiple modalities, or communication channels [50]. The definition of these channels is inherited from human types of communication: Sight, Hearing, Touch, Smell, and Taste. A multimodal interface acts as a facilitator of human computer interaction via two or more modes of input that go beyond the traditional keyboard and mouse. The exact number of supported input modes, their types and the way in which they work together may vary widely from one multimodal system to another. Multimodal interfaces incorporate different combinations of speech, gesture, gaze, facial expressions and other non-conventional modes of input. One of the most commonly supported combinations of input methods is that of gesture and speech [51]. Figure 2.5 presents the structure of such system.
Although an ideal multimodal HCI system is a combination of single modalities that interact correlatively, the practical boundaries and open problems in each modality introduce limitations on the fusion of different modalities. In spite of all the progress made in MMHCI, in most of existing multimodal systems, the modalities are still treated separately and only at the end, results of different modalities are combined together.

The reason is that the open problems in each area are yet to be perfected; meaning that there is still much work to be done to acquire a reliable tool for each sub-area. Moreover, roles of different modalities and their share in interplay are not scientifically known. "Yet, people convey multimodal communicative signals in a complementary and redundant manner. Therefore, in order to accomplish a human-like multimodal analysis of multiple input signals acquired by different sensors, the signals cannot be considered mutually independently and cannot be combined in a context-free manner at the end of the intended analysis but, on the contrary, the
input data should be processed in a joint feature space and according to a context-dependent model. In practice, however, besides the problems of context sensing and developing context-dependent models for combining multisensory information, one should cope with the size of the required joint feature space. Problems include large dimensionality, differing feature formats, and time-alignment. [50]

An interesting aspect of multimodality is the collaboration of different modalities to assist the recognitions. For example, lip movement tracking (visual-based) can help speech recognition methods (audio-based) and speech recognition methods (audio-based) can assist command acquisition in gesture recognition (visual-based).

An important application of intelligent multimodal systems come to appear in medicine. By the early 1980s, surgeons were beginning to reach their limits based on traditional methods alone. The human hand was infeasible for many tasks and greater magnification and smaller tools were needed. Higher precision was required to localize and manipulate within small and sensitive parts of the human body. Digital robotic neuro-surgery has come as a leading solution to these limitations and emerged fast due to the vast improvements in engineering, computer technology and neuro-imaging techniques. Robotics surgery was introduced into the surgical area [52]. State University of Aerospace Instrumentation, University of Karlsruhe (Germany) and Harvard Medical School (USA) have been working on developing man-machine interfaces, adaptive robots and multi-agent technologies intended for neuro-surgery [53].

The neuro-surgical robot consists of the following main components: An arm, feedback vision sensors, controllers, a localization system and a data processing center. Sensors provide the surgeon with feedbacks from the surgical site with real-time imaging, where the latter one updates the controller with new instructions for the robot by using the computer interface and some joysticks. Neuro-surgical robotics (as shown in Figure 2.6) provide the ability to perform surgeries on a much smaller scale with much higher accuracy and precision, giving access to small corridors which is important in brain surgery [52].

Another important field in which multimodality comes to emerge is the domain of biometric recognition, which refers to automatic recognition of individuals according to some specific physiological and/or behavioral features. It is important to notice that a biometric system that is based on one single biometric metric does not always come to meet the desired performance requirements; thus, multimodal biometric systems come to emerge. Consider, for example, a network logon appli-
cation where a biometric system is used for user authentication. If a user cannot provide good fingerprint image due to a cut or some other sort of temporary or permanent damage in the finger for example, then face and voice or other biometric identifiers can be better relied upon. Voice identification, on the other hand, cannot operate efficiently in a noisy environment, or in the case where the user has some illness affecting his voice. Facial recognition as well is not suitable when the background is cluttered, or when the persons stored information are several years old [54]. For these reasons among others, multimodal biometric systems found their way to emerge in the recent and advanced authentication and security applications.
Chapter 3

System’s Components: Special Software and Hardware Tools

In this chapter, we describe the different systems’ main components. Both software and hardware tools and components are presented. In our framework, different modules and entities are implemented using different computer languages (C++, Java, and Python); thus, the common object request broker architecture (CORBA) was addressed. Three robots are involved so far in the framework: Manipulator F3, manipulator A255, and ATRV mini robot (also called as ground robot). The description of these robots shall be presented in this chapter.

3.1 Common Object Request Broker Architecture (CORBA)

3.1.1 Definition

The Common Object Request Broker Architecture (CORBA), shown in Figure 3.1, is a standard defined by the Object Management Group (OMG) that enables software components written in multiple computer languages and running on multiple computers to work together. CORBA is a mechanism in software for normalizing the method-call semantics between application objects that reside either in the same address space (application) or remote address space (same host, or remote host on a network).
CORBA uses an interface definition language (IDL) to specify the interfaces that objects will present to the outside world. CORBA then specifies a "mapping" from IDL to a specific implementation language like C++ or Java. Standard mappings exist for Ada, C, C++, Lisp, Smalltalk, Java, COBOL, PL/I and Python. There are also non-standard mappings for Perl, Visual Basic, Ruby, Erlang, and Tcl implemented by object request brokers (ORBs) written for those languages.

The CORBA specification dictates that there shall be an ORB (Object Request Broker) through which the application interacts with other objects. In practice, the application simply initializes the ORB, and accesses an internal Object Adapter which maintains such issues as reference counting, object (reference) instantiation policies, object lifetime policies, etc. The Object Adapter is used to register instances of the code classes. Generated code classes are the result of compiling the user IDL code which translates the high-level interface definition into an OS- and language-specific class base for use by the user application. This step is necessary in order to enforce the CORBA semantics and provide a clean user processes for
interfacing with the CORBA infrastructure.

Some IDL language mappings are more hostile than others. For example, due to the very nature of Java, the IDL-Java Mapping is rather trivial and makes usage of CORBA very simple in a Java application. The C++ mapping is not trivial but accounts for all the features of CORBA, i.e. exception handling. The C-mapping is even more strange, but it does make sense and handles the RPC (Remote Procedural Call) semantics just fine.

A "language mapping" requires that the developer ("user" in this case) create some IDL code representing the interfaces to his objects. Typically a CORBA implementation (either an Open Source or commercial product) comes with a tool called an IDL compiler. This compiler will convert the user’s IDL code into some language-specific generated code. The generated code is then compiled using a traditional compiler to create the linkable-object files required by the application.

### 3.1.2 Object Request Broker (ORB)

The ORB is the distributed service that implements the request to the remote object. It locates the remote object on the network, communicates the request to the object, waits for the results and when available communicates those results back to the client.

The ORB implements location transparency. Exactly the same request mechanism is used by the client and the CORBA object regardless of where the object is located. It might be in the same process with the client, down the hall or across the planet. The client cannot tell the difference.

The ORB implements programming language independence for the request. The client issuing the request can be written in a different programming language from the implementation of the CORBA object. The ORB does the necessary translation between programming languages. Language bindings are defined for all popular programming languages.
3.1.3 Naming Service

The naming service is a standard service for CORBA applications, defined in the Object Management Group’s (OMG) CORBA services specification. The naming service allows you to associate abstract names with CORBA objects and allows clients to find those objects by looking up the corresponding names. This service is both simple and useful.

A server that holds a CORBA object binds a name to the object by contacting the naming service. To obtain a reference to the object, a client requests the Naming Service to look up the object associated with a specified name. This is known as resolving the object name. The Naming Service provides interfaces defined in IDL that allow servers to bind names to objects and clients to resolve those names.

Most CORBA applications make some use of the Naming Service. Locating a particular object is a common requirement in distributed systems and the Naming Service provides a simple, standard way to do this.

3.2 Hardware Components

In this section, a general description of the robots involved in the framework will be presented. Two manipulators (manipulator F3 and manipulator A255) and one mobile robot (ATRV mini robot) are so far integrated into the framework. But since our presented framework is hardware independent, more robots and entities can be easily integrated into the system.

3.2.1 Manipulator F3

At its most basic configuration, the F3 robot system, a trademark of Thermo CRC, shown in Figure 3.2, consists of an F3 robot arm, a C500C controller, and an umbilical cable that provides power and communication from the controller to the arm. Commands are issued to the robot system from program applications or terminal commands, or through the teach pendant. End effectors such as grippers and other tools enable the arm to perform specialized tasks [55].
The Arm

The arm transports payloads and performs other motion tasks in space. A mounting plate at its base secures the arm to a fixed platform or track. One can easily mount a variety of end effectors such as grippers, dispensers, or deburring tools on the ISO-standard tool flange.

Articulated joints provide the arm with six degrees of freedom, allowing the user to accurately position the tool flange at any point within the work space, from any orientation.

Absolute encoders in each joint provide continuous information on arm stance and position. When the robot system is turned off, this information is retained in memory, ensuring that the location and orientation of all axes is exactly known at all times. Under normal operation, the F3 arm does not need to be homed.
The F3 track model of the F3 arm is mounted on a track in order to move the entire arm along an additional linear axis [55]. The manipulator’s arm architecture is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

![Arm Architecture](image)

**Figure 3.3: Arm Architecture**

**The C500C Controller**

The C500C controller provides safety circuits, power, and motion control for the arm. It drives the motors in each joint, keeps track of motor position through feedback from the encoders, computes trajectories, and stores robot applications in memory. It also detects potentially damaging conditions such as robot runaway, severe collisions, overttemperature or overcurrent, loss of positional feedback, and errors in communication. If one of these conditions is detected, the controller immediately triggers an emergency stop or shutdown.

The embedded multi-tasking CRS Robot Operating System (CROS) provides process scheduling and interfaces to low-level robot system functions. It also provides
basic application development tools, including the application shell (ash), an integrated environment for developing, compiling, and running robot applications on the controller.

The E-Stop

Emergency stops, or e-stops, are a safety feature designed to stop the arm in case of emergency. The E-Stop buttons provided with the system are large red, palm-cap buttons. One can also add automatic e-stop devices such as pressure-sensitive mats or safety interlocks to the robot system.

When an e-stop is triggered, power is immediately removed from the arm motors and fail-safe brakes automatically engage to prevent the arm from moving due to gravity. To prevent the payload from being dropped, servooperated tools remain powered and pneumatic tools retain their last state. To ensure safety, power cannot be restored to the arm until the E-Stop device that triggered the emergency stop is manually reset.

3.2.2 Manipulator A255

Manipulator A255, another product of Thermo CRS, is very similar in architecture, design and functionality to manipulator F3. The A255 arm however is articulated with five joints or axes (instead of six in the case of F3 arm), providing it with five degrees of freedom as shown in Figure 3.4. This allows the arm to move a gripper or other tool to cartesian spatial coordinates and orientation defined by X, Y, Z, Z-rotation, Y-rotation, and X-rotation [56]. The A255 robot system also consists of a C500C controller that is identical to that of manipulator F3. Since most of the description applied to manipulator F3 also applies to manipulator A255, the detailed technical description of this manipulator is skipped in this section to avoid redundancy.

3.2.3 IRobot ATRV Mini

The ATRV Mini, shown in Figure 3.5, is a ground robot development platform by iRobot. All development should be done under the mobility account. The ATRV connects to the network through a wireless bridge. It is configured as minnie.uwaterloo.ca on the university network. Files can be uploaded to the robot
Figure 3.4: Manipulator A255 Arm Architecture

using ftp. Mobility is the name of the development framework provided by iRobot and used to develop for the ATRV. Its framework is available in C++ and Java. The C++ version is currently installed on the robot. Mobility is comprised of a large number of components that communicate using CORBA. The robot can also connect to the CIM Framework by implementing the CIMFRobot interface. Several features are provided by ATRV mini robots. Some main ones are:

**Emergency Stop Buttons**

The most important safety features on your ATRV-Mini robot are the Emergency Stop Buttons (sometimes referred to as e-stop buttons or kill switches). These large, conspicuous red buttons are mounted on the top of your robot at the two rear corners. Pushing any of the emergency stop buttons at any time will halt the ATRV-Mini [57].
Drive Enable Key

The Drive Enable Key on ATRV-Mini mobile robot enables or disables all activity of the robots motors by activating the e-stop circuit (the brakes cannot be turned off). Simply turning the key to the OFF position (vertical) will disable motion. The drive enable key must be inserted and turned to the ON position (horizontal) to enable the robots motor drive. With the drive enable key removed, one can safely use the integrated computer systems as development and testing platforms for the robot software, without fear that the robot will accidentally move under software control.

Sonar

The ATRV-Mini robot comes with either 16 or 24 sonars. In the 16-sonar configuration, there are 12 on the front and four on the back [57]. In the 24-sonar configuration, there are 12 on the front and 12 on the back. Figure 3.6 shows the 24-sonar configuration of ATRV-Mini robot.
The ATRV mini robot is also supported with a 15-pin Joystick port that is used to connect a standard PC joystick so one can manually drive the mobile robot. ATRV-Mini comes with two BreezeCom antennas for wireless ethernet communication between the user and the robot. The ethernet port allows direct connection to an Ethernet network.

Figure 3.6: 24 Sonars ATRV Mini
Chapter 4

System Architecture and Modules Integration

In this chapter, the framework architecture, among the design and implementation the different interaction modules are presented. Interface-, audio-, and visual-based type of interactions are addressed.

4.1 System Architecture

The Computer Integrated Manufacturing Framework (called CIMF framework) is a software framework designed to interconnect and control a number of robotic entities. It has been designed and tested in the Computer Integrated Manufacturing Lab at the University of Waterloo. The goal of the framework is to address a number of key issues:

- The framework must be hardware independent.
- The framework must allow for easy addition of new entities.
- The framework must allow for easy implementation of new tasks.
- The framework must allow for easy remote operation and observation by an arbitrary number of operators and observers.
4.1.1 CORBA Name Service

A CORBA naming service must be running prior to any other component of the framework. The name server is required to facilitate CORBA communication and to aid the framework components in identifying each other on the network. Any naming service that is compliant with the CORBA standard would work; however, during development the orb naming service as provided with the Java development kit was used exclusively.

4.1.2 CIMF Server

The server is the central entity of the framework that connects the various components to one another. As each of the robotics entities turn on, it contacts the server registering itself along with its capabilities. In this way the server keeps a record of all active robots and their states. This information can then become available to other robots or interfaces by request. The server further acts as a dispatcher, keeping a queue of instructions for each robot. This allows multiple robots to be controlled simultaneously. Figure 4.1 illustrates a simplified data flow view of the server. The main components of the server are: Robot store, task queue, scheduler, dispatcher, and monitor.

Robot Store

The robot store contains records of all currently connected robots, their actions, locations, and various other information. By keeping a record of this on the server rather than retrieve it every time it is requested, a significant amount of network traffic is eliminated.

Task Queue

The task queue contains sequences of task that need to be executed. It consists of a list of parallel tasks, where each parallel task is a collection of tasks that need to be executed in series.

Scheduler

The scheduler is responsible for receiving task requests from interfaces and loading them into the task queue in a specific order. This order is governed by the
scheduling algorithm. This entity is designed to be easily replaced by alternate implementations for testing different scheduling algorithms.

**Dispatcher**

The dispatcher is a separate thread that loads tasks out of the task queue and sends them to individual robots as they become available. The dispatcher can handle numerous parallel tasks simultaneously.
Monitor

The monitor is a separate thread that runs in the background and periodically checks in with every robot to make sure it is still connected and whether any information has been updated. If a change has happened, the robot store will be updated on the server.

4.1.3 CIMF Robot

The robot is any entity that performs work in the system. The framework provides an abstraction layer that provides a standard communication protocol. This allows a number of entities to communicate without knowing the specific nature of each robot. The robot must conform to the defined communications interface. The actual implementation will depend on the nature of the robot. Three robots are involved in our framework so far: ATRV-Mini robot, Manipulator F3, and Manipulator A255. The different robots are shown in Figure 4.2.

4.1.4 CIMF Interface

An interface is any entity that can connect to the server and control the system. Any number of entities may be connected at any given time. It is the job of the server to handle all concurrency issues and to make sure that all tasks are executed in a proper manner. The interface must conform to the defined communications protocol. The actual implementation of the interface differs based on its nature. For instance, an interface may be implemented as a speech recognition system, gesture recognition system, a web interface, etc.

4.1.5 Protocol

A protocol has been devised to facilitate standardized communication between all entities of the framework. Thus, all entities must comply with this protocol to guarantee correct operation. The minimal functionality that must be provided by each robotic entity is defined in CIMFRobot.idl. Likewise the minimal functionality that must be provided by the server is defined in CIMFServer.idl. When adding a new robotic entity, it is the responsibility of the robot developer to make sure the robot is compliant with this protocol.
Prior to use of the framework, the server must be registered with the naming service. As a convention, the server will always be registered under the literal "CIMFServer". This name is a reserved keyword in the framework and cannot be used by any other component. Figure 4.3 illustrates the naming registration.

For a robot to connect to the framework it must register with the CORBA naming service as well as with the CIMFServer. The same unique identifier must be used in both cases. No other entity in the framework can use the same name. Figure 4.4 illustrates the registration sequence. Note that the CIMFServer will not request action information from the robot at the time of registration since the robot is not ready to receive requests, as the CORBA servant is not yet running.
4.2 CIMF Interface Based Interaction

The CIMF interface, shown in Figure 4.5 is an entity that connects to the server and controls the systems. The interface was designed in order to make the use of the system easier and accessible for non professional end users. Since a major goal in this research is to make the framework design generic enough to accommodate for integrating more modules and entities, the interface was designed to also serve this purpose. The user can connect to the server by specifying the port number and the host address. In our case, the port number is 1111, and the server CIMF server is running on the same machine. When a robot that complies to the framework protocol connects to the framework, its definition and functionalities are added to the interface. The user can connect to the server by specifying the port number and the host address. In our case, the port number is 1111, and the server CIMF server is running on the same machine. When a robot that complies to the framework protocol connects to the framework, its definition and functionalities are added to the interface. Figure 4.6 shows how the framework supports both parallel and serial execution. The user can add actions to the action list, where different columns correspond to parallel execution of actions, and different rows in the same column correspond to actions to be executed serially. For the example shown in Figure 4.6, when we press the execute button, Manipulator F3 will start moving to go to location "b" (assuming manipulator F3 is not initially at location "b"), and Manipulator F255 will start moving to go to location "a" at the same time.
Figure 4.4: Registration Sequence

More details about the actions and locations shall be presented in the subsequent sections. Once each manipulator accomplishes this task, the next action located in the next row of each column will start taking place. Both manipulators will close their grips, and the system will be ready for new user inputs and commands.

The "Pick and Place" button is a bit trickier. As a matter of fact, this command will make the system perform a cooperative type of work. Manipulator F3, Manipulator A255, and the ground mini robot will be all involved performing this
task as needed. Scheduling the concurrency in the execution of the actions will be all taken care of by the server. More detailed description of ”Pick And Place” command will be also presented in subsequent sections.
4.3 Speech Recognition Module

4.3.1 Introduction

The increasing need for more natural human machine interfaces has generated intensive research work directed toward designing and implementing natural speech enabled systems. The design of speech applications is no more restricted to only speech recognition and understanding simple commands, but it goes beyond that.
to getting all the information in the speech signal such as words, meaning and emo-
tional state of the user. In fact, emotion recognition that is based on a speech signal
is becoming one of the most intensively studied research topics in the domains of
human-computer interaction and affective computing as well. Due to many pot-
etential benefits that may result from correct identification of subjects emotional
condition, recognition of emotional state is becoming an emerging important area
in automated speech analysis. Correct evaluation of human emotion increases the
efficiency and friendliness of human-machine interfaces, and allows for monitoring
of psychophysiological condition of individuals in many work environments, thus
adjusting the type of interaction with the user. However, only speech recognition
will addressed in this work.

The major problem in speech recognition is that it is very hard to constrain a
speaker when expressing a voice-based request. Therefore, speech recognition sys-
tems have to be able to filter out the out of vocabulary words in the users speech
utterance, and only extract the necessary information (keywords) related to the ap-
lication. The system that spots such specific terms in the user utterance is called
a keyword spotting system. Most state of the art of the keyword spotting systems
rely on a filler model (garbage model) in order to filter out the out of vocabulary uttered words [58, 59]. However, up till now, there is no universal optimal filler
model that can be used with any automatic speech recognizer (ASR) and handle
natural language. Several researchers have attempted to build reliable and robust
models, but when using these kind of garbage models, the search space of the speech
recognizer becomes big and the search process takes considerable time.

4.3.2 Overview

Phoneme Recognition

Sounds are made when the breath passes through the vocal cords in our voice
box and causes them to vibrate. The vocal anatomy, shown in Figure 4.7, of
every speaker is unique; thus making the unique vocalizations of speech sounds.
Communication however, is based on commonality of form at the perceptual level.
Fortunately, researchers found some characteristics in the speech sounds that can
be efficiently used for the description and classification of words in. They adopted
various types of notation to represent the subset of phonetic phenomena that are
crucial for meaning [60].

In human language, a phoneme is the smallest structural unit that distinguishes
meaning. They are the primary units that must be first recognized in the speech recognition process. In fact, the most promising approach to the problem of large vocabulary automatic speech recognition comes to be by implementing a speech recognizer that works at the phoneme level [61].

In most of the world's languages, the inventory of phonemes can be split in two basic classes:

- **Consonants**: A consonant is a speech sound that is articulated with a complete or partial closure of the upper vocal tract that lies above the larynx as shown in Figure 4.7.

- **Vowels**: In contrast to a consonant that is characterized by constrictions or closures at some points along the vocal tract, a vowel is a speech sound that is articulated with a complete open configuration of the vocal tract, thus preventing any build-up of air pressure above the glottis.

![Vocal Tract Anatomy](image)

**Figure 4.7: Vocal Tract Anatomy**

The tongue shape and positioning in the oral cavity do not form a major constriction of air flow during vowel articulation. However, variations of tongue placement give each vowel its distinct character by changing the resonance. The vowel height represents the vertical position of the tongue with respect to either the aperture of
the jaw or the roof of the mouth. High vowels, as ”i” and ”u” have tongue positioned high in the mouth, while low vowels, as ”a”, have the tongue positioned low in the mouth. On the other hand, the horizontal tongue position during the articulation of a vowel relative to the back of the mouth is referred as the vowel backness. Front vowels, such as ”i”, have the tongue positioned forward in the mouth, while back vowels, as ”u”, have it positioned towards the back of the mouth. Other articulatory features are also involved in distinguishing different vowels in a language, such as the roundness of the lips, and whether the air escapes through the nose or not. The major resonances of the oral and pharyngeal cavities for vowels are called F1 and F2 - the first and second formants[60], respectively. The acoustics of vowels can be visualized using spectrograms, which display the acoustic energy at each frequency, and how this changes with time [61].

On the other hand, the word consonant comes from Latin and means *sounding with* or *sounding together*. The idea behind the name comes from the fact that in Latin consonants don’t sound on their own, but occur only with a nearby vowel. This conception of consonants, however, does not reflect the modern linguistic understanding which defines consonants in terms of vocal tract constriction. Consonants, as opposed to vowels, are characterized by significant constriction or obstruction in the pharyngeal and/or oral cavities. When the vocal folds vibrate during phoneme articulation, the phoneme is considered voiced, otherwise it is unvoiced. Vowels are voiced throughout their duration. Some consonants are voiced, others are not [61]. Each consonant can be distinguished by several features:

- The manner of articulation is the method that the consonant is articulated, such as nasal (through the nose), stop (complete obstruction of air), or approximant (vowel like).
- The place of articulation is where in the vocal tract the obstruction of the consonant occurs, and which speech organs are involved.
- The phonation of a consonant is how the vocal cords vibrate during the articulation.
- The voice onset time (VOT) indicates the timing of the phonation. Aspiration is a feature of VOT.
- The airstream mechanism is how the air moving through the vocal tract is powered.
- The length is how long the obstruction of a consonant lasts.
• The articulatory force is how much muscular energy is involved.

Confidence Measure

When designing a speech application, one has to keep in mind the specific keywords that we expect the ASR to spot. Hence a speech grammar package has to be generated. However, this does not mean that the ASR will only spot these keywords and get rid of everything else. In fact, when the ASR finds a word that is not included and defined in the speech grammar, it will automatically wrongly map it to a grammar keyword. In this case, an out of vocabulary word is false mapped to a keyword. Thus, introducing words that are not present in the speech grammar causes the ASR to stretch to the limit and hence leading it to cause a lot of false mapping. For this reason, when we try to speak naturally to the system, the ASR output will be containing the correct uttered keywords and also other falsely mapped words. So the aim now reduces to finding a way to filter out all these falsely mapped keywords. To do that, we will have to rely on a confidence metric to evaluate the degree of correctness for each recognized word. Fortunately, this can be done by using the ASR confidence values.

A confidence measure (CM) is a number between 0 and 1 that is applied to speech recognition output that gives an indication of how confident the ASR is about the correctness of the keyword being recognized. A low value of CM (closer to 0 than 1) means that the recognized word is most probably an out of vocabulary word that was false mapped to a keyword, and hence should be discarded, and a high value of CM (closer to 1 than 0) is a good indication that the word being recognized is indeed an uttered word, and hence should be conserved. Confidence measures are extremely useful in any speech application that involves a dialogue, because they can guide the system towards a more intelligent flow that is faster, easier and less frustrating for the user. In fact, a low degree of confidence is assigned to the outputs of a recognizer when facing an out-of-vocabulary (OOV) word or some unclear acoustics that are caused by some background noise that represent a major source of recognizer error. Nowadays, much more research work is being dedicated to finding more reliable measures that are capable to evaluate to a high degree the correctness of the speech recognition process, thus increasing the usefulness and intelligence of an automatic speech recognition system in many practical applications [61].
4.3.3 Application Design

Speech synthesis is the artificial production of human speech. A computer system used for this purpose is called a speech synthesizer, and can be implemented in software or hardware. A text-to-speech (TTS) system converts normal language text into speech; other systems render symbolic linguistic representations like phonetic transcriptions into speech.

Synthesized speech can be created by concatenating pieces of recorded speech that are stored in a database. Systems differ in the size of the stored speech units; a system that stores phones or diphones provides the largest output range, but may lack clarity. For specific usage domains, the storage of entire words or sentences allows for high-quality output. Alternatively, a synthesizer can incorporate a model of the vocal tract and other human voice characteristics to create a completely "synthetic" voice output.

In the designed speech application, AT&T TTS [62] was used for speech synthesis; and Nuance engine [63] was used in the recognition process. The speech application is designed to allow the user to specify the name of the robot and the task he would like the robot to perform in more natural way. The user might decide to specify the robot name and the task name at the same time as in "I would like manipulator F3 to go to open the grip please"; or he might just choose to specify them into two different steps instead of only one as shown in Figure 4.8. The user can for example say first "i would like to use manipulator F3 please", and after "manipulator F3" being recognized, the user specifies the task name as in "i would like it to open the grip if that is feasible".

When the application start running, the user is prompt to specify the robot name and the task name. If both of them were specified and successfully recognized with high confidence, the user is prompted to confirm what has been recognized. If a positive confirmation is detected, then the system has all the information it needs and is ready to communicate with the CIMF server; if a negative confirmation is obtained, the system ignores what has been recognized and reset itself and go back to the main node. However, if only the robot name or the task name gets recognized, the user is asked to confirm what has been recognized. Negative confirmation takes the system to the initial state. In the case of a positive confirmation, the user is asked to specify the missing information. Once being specified and positively confirmed, the system will be ready with all the information needed, and the communication between the speech application and the CIMF server starts taking place. This high
level architecture of this process is illustrated in Figure 4.9. "Robot Name = 0" means that the robot name has not been recognized or confirmed yet, and a value of one means that successful recognition and confirmation have taken place. Same applies to "Robot Task".

The three robots described in the previous chapter are involved in this process. The two manipulators and the ground mobile robot. The manipulators are originally called Manipulator F3 and Manipulator A255. Each manipulator has the alias "Arm". So when either "Manipulator F3" or "Arm F3" gets recognized, the system will know that "Manipulator F3" is the meant robot. On the other hand, the ground robot has more aliases. These aliases are "IRobot", "Mini Robot", "Ground Robot", "Mobile Robot", "ATRV Robot", and "Red Robot". Each robot can perform a set of specific actions:
Figure 4.9: Flow Diagram of the Speech Application

**Manipulator F3:**

- "Pick" action: The manipulator picks an object from locations "A", "B", or "D"
- "Place" action: The manipulator places an object at location "A", "B", or "D"
- "Go To Location" action: The manipulator simply goes to location "A", "B", or "D", then wait for another command.
- "Open Grip" action: The manipulator opens the grip.
- "Close Grip" action: The manipulator closes the grip.

where the locations map is described in Figure 4.10.
Manipulator A255:

- "Pick" action: The manipulator picks an object from locations "B" or "C"
- "Place" action: The manipulator places an object at location "B" or "C"
- "Go To Location" action: The manipulator simply goes to location "B" or "C", then wait for another command.
- "Open Grip" action: The manipulator opens the grip.
- "Close Grip" action: The manipulator closes the grip.

Ground Robot:

- "Go To Location" action: The mobile robot can move to locations "D" or "E".
Note that manipulator F3 and manipulator A255 share the same set of actions except that they both work on different locations. Manipulator F3 covers locations "A", "B", and "D" while manipulator "A255" covers locations "B", and "C". Finally, the ground robot covers locations "D" and "E". As we notice, the three robots have their own specific actions to perform; so when the user perform the action "Go To Location" on manipulator F3, and he specifies the location to be "D", only manipulator F3 will perform this action and the remaining robots stay in their positions. On the other hand, the framework supports also some sort of cooperative work that can involve as many robots as needed to perform the action. One action that requires such cooperation is the "Pick And Place" command.

Imagine the scenario where we need to "Pick and Place" an object from location "C" to location "F". The system will automatically perform the following actions. First, manipulator A255 will "Go To Location" "C", "Open Grip", "Pick" the object, and then "Go To Location" "B". At the same time, manipulator F3 will "Go To Location" "B", and the ground robot will "Go To Location" "D". Once the manipulator A255 reaches location "B", it shall "Place" the object, then immediately afterward, manipulator F3 will "Open Grip", "Pick" the object, and "Go To Location" "D". Figure 4.11 shows the cooperative work between the two manipulator at this stage. Once location "D" is reached, the manipulator F3 shall

![Figure 4.11: Cooperation Between Manipulator A255 and Manipulator F3](image)

"Place" the object on top of the mobile robot which is already waiting at location
If the mobile robot is not there yet, the manipulator keeps waiting for it, and then place the load on it. Then, the mobile robot shall "Go To Location E".

### 4.3.4 Confidence Threshold Design

The choice of confidence threshold in the voice application is very critical. As we mentioned before, all recognition with a confidence value lower than this threshold will be rejected, and considered to be garbage words falsely mapped to in grammar keywords. Underestimating this threshold will increase the false accept rate, and allow background noise and garbage words to be falsely mapped to keywords. Overestimating this threshold, on the other hand, will increase the false reject rate; thus a proper design of this threshold is crucial.

Another thing that one has to keep in mind, is that different keywords can have different confidence values when being recognized by the ASR, even when played by the same TTS. This is because the length of the keyword largely affect its confidence value. In fact, longer keywords tend to have a higher confidence values than short ones. It is also important to note that each node has its own set of keywords, and it is important to generate a threshold for each one of them independently of the others.

In our application, the system retrieve all the keywords that correspond to a specific node, and then the TTS plays these keywords and saves the confidence value that corresponds to the recognition of each one of them. Then the lowest value is recorded as "Temp1". In addition, and in order to accommodate for the background noises and garbage words, another set of prerecorded noises and out of vocabulary words are also played to the ASR, and the confidence values are saved. the highest value is recorded as "Temp2". Now, two situation arise. If "Temp1" is greater than "Temp2", then a middle way between the two values is chosen as a threshold as shown in 4.1.

\[ Temp1 > Temp2 \Rightarrow \text{Threshold} = (\text{Temp1} + \text{Temp2})/2 \quad (4.1) \]

On the other hand, if "Temp1" is smaller or equal to "Temp2", then the system gives a warning message to the user, asking him/her to remove or modify the keyword that is causing this problem (which is the keyword that got the lowest confidence value), and a threshold value equal to "Temp1" is temporarily chosen as illustrated in 4.2.
Note that without implementing this confidence threshold mechanism, every single garbage words or noise will be falsemapped to a keywords. So imagine the scenario where we test the system with 10 in grammar words, and 90 out of vocabulary words, a recognition accuracy of 10% at most will be obtained; but with our threshold mechanism, accuracies can reach 90's very easily for small and medium sized set of keywords.

4.4 Gesture Recognition and Fusion Modules

In this section, the implementation of a gesture recognition module is illustrated. Then a fusion module that combines both the speech recognition module and the gesture recognition module is presented. This type of gesture-speech multimodal system is the most common type of multimodal systems, and is used to remove the ambiguity that may result when one of the fused modules provides missing information or no information at all.

4.4.1 Introduction

Gestures are expressive, meaningful body motions. They represent physical movements of the fingers, hands, arms, head, face, or body that have the intent to convey information or interact with the environment. Gesture recognition is the process by which gestures made by the user are made known to the system. Messages can be expressed through gesture in many ways. For example, an emotion such as sadness can be communicated through facial expression, a lowered head position, relaxed muscles, and lethargic movement. Similarly, a gesture to indicate Stop! can be simply a raised hand with the palm facing forward, or an exaggerated waving of both hands above the head. In general, there exists a many-to-one mapping from gesture to concept.

Gestures can be static, where the user assumes a certain pose or configuration, or dynamic, defined by movement. McNeill [64] defines three phases of a dynamic gesture: pre-stroke, stroke, and post-stroke. Some gestures have both static and dynamic elements, where the pose is important in one or more of the gesture phases;
this is particularly relevant in sign languages. When gestures are produced continuously, each gesture is affected by the gesture that preceded it, and possibly by the gesture that follows it. Static gesture, or pose, recognition can be accomplished by a straightforward implementation using template matching, geometric feature classification, neural networks, or other standard pattern recognition techniques to classify pose. Dynamic gesture recognition, however, requires consideration of temporal events. This is typically accomplished through the use of techniques such as time-compressing templates, dynamic time warping, hidden Markov models (HMMs), and Bayesian networks.

4.4.2 Gesture Recognition Module

The Gesture Recognition Module (GRM) used is based on the HandVu package [65]. The implemented system depends on HandVu Beta3.

HandVu can use the input of a typical webcam. First, it attempts to detect a hand, then it tries to track it and recognize one of a limited set of basic gestures. The recognized gestures are referred to as: closed, Lback, open, victory, Lpalm, and sidepoint. These sets of gestures are illustrated in Figure 4.12 and 4.13. HandVu provides the convenient functionality of making its recognition results available on a TCP/IP port.

When the program is started, it starts the server and opens up a window showing the webcam’s real time capture accompanied with gesture recognition information. The gesture server runs on port 7045 and outputs lines that follow a specific gesture event protocol.

4.4.3 Type Feature Structures

Typed Feature Structures (TFSes) are a key construct in the implemented multimodal interaction system. The architecture of our speech-gesture multimodal system is illustrated in Figure 4.14. The Gesture Interpretation Module and the Speech Interpretation Module, both produce TFSes to represent their interpretation of any useful recognized gesture or speech. The structure of the TFSes then makes it possible for the Fusion Module to take TFSes from multiple sources and attempt to combine them together to produce TFSes that fully specify certain method invokations to send to the Centralized Robot Server.
Each TFS represents an invokable function or some part of it. A distinction is made between an ExecutableTFS which specifies what function to invoke, and a SupportiveTFS which specifies only possible parameter values. To explain this concept, let’s imagine that there is a function Move that takes one parameter to specify which direction to move in. A TFS $t_1$ may be defined as follows:

$$t_1 = \text{ExecutableTFS}(\text{Move}, [\text{OperationArg}(\text{"Direction"}, \text{"Forward"})])$$

What this means is that $t_1$ represents an invocation of Move, where the first parameter is set to "Forward". One could also define a TFS $t_2$ as follows:

$$t_2 = \text{ExecutableTFS}(\text{Move}, [\text{OperationArg}(\text{"Direction"})])$$

This TFS is referring to the function Move that takes one parameter of the type Direction. However, it does not provide a value for the parameter. This means
that we do not have all the necessary information to actually make the function call. Lastly, one could define a SupportiveTFS $t_3$ as follows:

\[ t_3 = \text{SupportiveTFS}([\text{OperationArg("Direction", "Forward")}]) \]

Note that this TFS simply specifies a possible function argument and its value. Clearly, based on this TFS alone, one cannot invoke any functions as none are specified. The critical point to see here is that although $t_2$ and $t_3$, on their own, may not fully specify all the necessary information to invoke Move, together they do provide a full specification of a Move invocation. That is, $t_2$ provides the fact that a Move method is to be invoked, whereas $t_3$ provides the value for the Direction parameter. This unification between two TFSes can be carried out by the unifyWith method supported by the ExecutableTFS and SupportiveTFS classes. Any number of TFSes could be unified together.
4.4.4 Gesture Interpretation Module

The Gesture Interpretation Module (GIM) listens to the port where the Gesture Recognition Module writes its gesture recognition results. It interprets the output of Gesture Recognition Module and produces corresponding Typed Feature Structures when appropriate. Any produced TFSes are sent to the Fusion Module, which
The meat of the GIM is in the method "run". Essentially, "run" just continuously listens to the TCP/IP port and parses every line that it receives. Each line follows the gesture event protocol [HV4] and so "run" can extract from each line what posture was recognized if any. Then, if a posture, such as 'victory' is detected, "run" calls a corresponding method specified by a mapping in the dictionary variable posture2tfs. The called method will be either toggleTracking or cancelTracking. toggleTracking starts or ends the tracking of the hand. If the toggling ends the tracking, then the hand’s current location is compared to its location upon start of tracking. The result of this comparison may determine that the user has moved his/her hand up, down, left, right, or not moved it at all. Each one of those results may have a corresponding TFS specified as parameters to toggleTracking. The GIM sends the identified TFS as an argument to the Fusion Module’s "accept" method. Thus, effectively, one can specify a certain TFS by making a certain sign, such as 'victory', making a fist, moving the hand in some direction, then making the same sign again ('victory' in this case). The first 'victory' starts the tracking. The second 'victory' ends the tracking. If the hand is moved in a different direction or a different sign is used to toggle the tracking then a different TFS will result. cancelTracking simply cancels the tracking if it had started but not toggled again to end it.

4.4.5 Speech Interpretation Module

The Speech Interpretation Module (SIM) works very similarly to the Gesture Interpretation Module and thus its high level description is almost identical. The SIM listens to the port where the Speech Recognition Module writes its speech recognition results. It interprets the output of Speech Recognition Module and produces corresponding Typed Feature Structures when appropriate. Any produced TFSes are sent to the Fusion Module, which also gets the TFSes produced by the Gesture Interpretation Modules.

The meat of the SIM is in the method "run". Essentially, "run" just continuously listens to the TCP/IP port written to by the Speech Recognition Module. It parses every line that it receives. Each new received line is expected to simply have a string identifying a particular operation. If the string is from a predefined list, such as "performAction Manipulator F3 Pick", is detected, "run" determines a corresponding TFS and sends it as an argument to the Fusion Module’s "accept" method. The specification of the Typed Feature Structures corresponding to
each string are specified in a dictionary stored as an instance variable kw2tfs for a SpeechInterpreter object.

4.4.6 Fusion Module

The Fusion Module has only one public method, ”accept”. As mentioned earlier, ”accept” accompanied by its TFS parameter is invoked by the Gesture Interpretation Module and the Speech Interpretation Module. Thus, all interpreted TFSes ultimately go to the Fusion Module via the ”accept” method.

Each time a new TFS arrives, ”accept” stores its arrival time. The ”accept” method inserts the input TFSes into a queue. However, upon each invocation, ”accept” removes from the queue any TFSes that had been in it for some predefined period of time STALENESSTIME or longer.

Upon receiving a new TFS, ”accept” checks whether the given TFS specifies a function as well as a value for all of its parameters. If this is the case, then ”accept” has all the necessary information to invoke the TFS’ corresponding function and does in fact do so. Note that since the TFS can be executed immediately upon arrival, there is no need to add it to the TFS queue.

The other case is when the given TFS does not provide all the necessary invocation information, such as what function to call or the parameter values. In this case, accept first attempts to find another TFS in the queue that can be unified with the new one. Unification was explained in the Typed Feature Structure section earlier. If the given TFS can be unified with another one in the queue, then the two are unified. The result of the unification may be a fully specified TFS in which case the corresponding function invocation is made and neither of the unified TFSes are left in the queue. However, a unification of two TFSes may produce a still underspecified TFS. In such a case, only the TFS resulting from the unification is left in the queue and another iteration is made through the queue to see if this new TFS can go through further unification. Lastly, in the case that the given TFS does not have all the necessary information for invocation, nor can be unified with another TFS in the queue, then nothing is done beyond inserting it into the queue. Of course, the inserted TFS may later be involved in a unification with another TFS. The overall system architecture is summarized in Figure 4.14
4.5 Framework Evaluation

Quality attributes of large software and hardware systems are determined by the system architecture. In fact, the achievement of these attributes such as performance, sensitivity, availability and modifiability tend to depend more on the overall system’s architecture rather than on code specifics such as the programming language, algorithms, data structures, testing, and so on, that are less crucial to a systems success. Thus, it is in our interest to try and determine, whether a system/framework is destined to satisfy its desired qualities. In reality, the attributes of a system interact, meaning that "performance sometimes affect modifiability. Availability impacts safety. Security affects performance. Everything affects cost. And so forth. Therefore, every design, in any discipline, involves tradeoffs that arise from architectural elements that are affected by multiple attributes" [66].

Our presented framework was implemented and evaluated based on the Architecture Tradeoff Analysis Method (ATAM) [67]. This method involves the following main steps: scenarios collection, requirement/constraints/environment collection, architectural views description, attribute analysis, sensitivities identification, and tradeoffs identification as shown in Figure 4.15.

First, an initial set of scenarios and requirements are collected. These requirements and design principles generate tentative candidate architectures and constrain the design possibilities which are also affected by previous successes and failures of other designed projects and architectures. In fact, an essential task of a designer is to choose the architecture that will make the system behavior as close as possible to the proposed requirements within the present constraints and limitations [66]. Then, each quality attribute must be analyzed individually and independently with respect to each candidate architecture. Thus, statements that describe the system behavior with respect to each particular attribute will be produced. Examples of such statement are: "the system’s processing time on average is 600 ms", "the hardware cost is around 30,000 dollars", "the system requires at least five servers, hence increasing the risk of being attack", and so on.

After such evaluations take place, the critique step arises: tradeoff points and elements that affect more than one attributes are recorded and well studied to refine or change the models, architectures, or even the requirements, and then re-evaluate the system again [66].

In our proposed framework, quality attributes such as cost, security, reliability,
flexibility, maintainability, speed and safety are highly addressed. The framework is intended to be flexible enough to allow all kind of users to manipulate it locally and remotely. It is intended to allow easy integration of multiple modules such as a speech recognition application, web application, gesture recognition application, and so on, and easy addition of new hardware and tasks that are supported by these hardware. For these reasons, two IDL files (CIMFRobot.idl and CIMFServer.idl) were implemented to define some protocol to facilitate communication between entities, and to also define the minimal functionality that must be provided by different entities and modules in order to be able to integrate into the framework.

The framework was tested on three hardware entities (2 manipulators and one ground robot as described in previous chapters), and three major interfaces (standard computer interface, speech recognition based application, and gesture recognition based application). Each interface had its own server to handle its requests, and process its inputs. Doing this is important because one server would decrease the speed of the system and causes more delays especially when speech, gesture, or gesture-speech recognition takes place. On the other hand, increasing the number of servers was also a tradeoff point with respect to our architecture, as security might vary inversely to the number of servers because the system might contain more potential points of attack.

The framework is implemented to support multiple number of robotics entities, but that does not mean that we can add infinite number of hardware, and expect the system to behave perfectly. So far, only three robots successfully connects to the system; more hardware entities shall be added in the future, but that is also another tradeoff point between both cost and extensive testing, as each of these entities cost tens of thousands of dollars.

Safety was also addressed especially that we allow remote control of the system and hardware connected to the system. This is why the lab is equipped with a surveillance camera that can be accessed remotely, and allows users to see what is in reality happening in the lab. Each interface is equipped with the potential of enabling the emergency stops in each of the involved robotics entities to further improve the safety feature.

Another tradeoff emerges between increasing the number of integrated modules and hardware in the system and the required number of people needed to maintain the system. More people will be needed to maintain the system as more entities get integrated into the framework.
Figure 4.15: Architecture Tradeoff Analysis Method

More work is still taking place on this framework, and further enhancement features shall be added in the near future. Some modifications and adjustments on the framework architecture shall occur depending on future requirements, change of environment, and available funds. However, our proposed framework forms indeed a good foundation ground for any further development of this system.
Chapter 5

Face Recognition and Security

5.1 Overview on Biometrics

Biometric recognition refers to automatic recognition of individuals based on some specific physiological and/or behavioral features. The use of biometrics has grown very fast for the last decade; they are mostly used for identification systems implemented to provide a more secure environment, and authenticate the identity of all who can pass, minimizing the chance of letting unauthorized persons through (false accept), or of stopping people who are authorized to pass (false reject). At the same time, the system should be fast enough to deal with possible real time traffics, as at physical checkpoints.

Photographs and fingerprints have been used for a century, and recently some more advanced biometrics have been used, such as measuring the geometry of the palm or hand; recognizing the pattern of blood vessels in a retina or the flecks of color in an iris; or making the pattern in a person’s DNA; as well as recognizing voices or faces, or the way people walk. Biometrics systems are usually used to accomplish one of two related objectives: identification or verification [68]. Identification refers to the process of trying to find a match between a query biometric sample and one stored in the database. For instance, to obtain access to a restricted area, one may go through an iris scan. A corresponding template describing the discriminating features is built for the scanned iris. Then the new template is compared to all those stored in the database. One is then granted or denied access depending on the existence of a database template similar to the query template. Verification, on the other hand, refers to the process of checking whether a query biometric sample belongs to a claimed identity. For instance, one may have to enter an ID number
or use a particular card, then have one’s iris scanned. The biometric system then has to only check whether the constructed query template is similar enough to the database template associated with the given ID number or card.

There are a wide variety of applications for biometrics in existence today. Of course, these applications have sprung up because of the benefits biometrics provides as an identification solution. Depending on the application, a particular benefit is usually emphasized, such as security, convenience, or privacy.

**Security**

The uniqueness of biometric signals and the difficulty in forging them makes biometrics an attractive solution for enhancing security. The Republic of the Maldives, with the support of BioLink, introduced passports that come with microchips storing fingerprint and face templates. This technology allows for quick and reliable identification of citizens [69]. Mexico City International Airport installed Bioscrypt’s V-Smart authentication system to provide access control to high-security areas of its terminals. The system requires use of a smart card that stores one’s fingerprint template [70].

**Convenience**

Biometrics provide a very convenient solution that allows one to quickly authenticate into a system without necessarily having to carry anything, take the time to type anything, nor remember any secret strings. This convenience factor has attracted many manufacturers. Axxis Biometrics makes fingerprint-based door locks, such as their 1Touch [71]. Also, mainstream Lenovo notebooks, such as the R Series come with an integrated fingerprint reader that lets users simply swipe their finger, rather than enter passwords to log in [72]. NCR, on the other hand, provides point-of-sale biometric terminals used to quickly authenticate sports bar employees to enter orders. Columbia’s Bancafe Bank incorporated NCR’s fingerprint readers across all of its ATM network, so that users no longer need to carry an ATM card to make transactions [73].

**Privacy Enhancement**

Biometrics can be used as unique identifiers without revealing any personal information about the person they are identifying. Opposite to what many believe,
biometrics could in fact enhance privacy. Thus, biometrics could be the ideal solution for social benefit programs where it is important to keep track of usage; but privacy is a major concern. On the Pakistan-Afghanistan border, the United Nations High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR) uses an iris recognition solution to ensure that each Afghani refugee obtains only one refugee package. To obtain a package, refugees have to authenticate via the iris recognition system. If they are already in the database, then they are identified as having already received their package. If they are not in the database, then they are added to it and are given a package. The biometric database stores nothing but iris templates that are not linked with any personal information to the refugees [74].

In this research, Face recognition was used for user identification due to its effectiveness and ease of implementation.

5.2 Face Recognition: Definition

Facial recognition is usually thought of as the primary way in which people recognize one another. After all, given a search through one’s wallet, it becomes clear that identification based on facial recognition is used by many organizations, such as universities, government agencies, and banks, although the recognition is usually carried out by a human. Many of these organizations will, of course, have these photos stored in large databases making many commercial and law-enforcement applications feasible given a reliable facial recognition system. Additionally, facial images of a person can usually be collected without necessarily requiring much cooperation from that person. Thus, it is no surprise that facial recognition is a key part of the DARPA-funded Human ID at a Distance Project aimed at developing the technology to identify terrorists from a distance [13].

There are many approaches that exist for tackling face recognition. Some of these approaches use the whole face as raw input, such as eigenfaces and fisherfaces, which are based on principal component analysis. Other approaches depend on extracting and matching certain features from the face, such the mouth and eyes. Lastly, some approaches are a mix of the two using data from the whole face as well as specific features to carry out the recognition. In the following section, the implementation of our face recognition module is presented.
5.3 System Architecture

As shown in Figure 5.1, the face authentication module consists of three major components: Preprocessing, Recognition and Voting. Its inputs are \( n \) images (frames) captured by the camera (\( n \) is currently set to 10). Preprocessing and Recognition are performed on each image to produce a recognition result. Eventually, all the recognition results are combined to give an authentication decision using a voting scheme.

![System Architecture Diagram](image)

Figure 5.1: System Architecture

5.4 Image Preprocessing

Image preprocessing is used to get rid of the background from the input images and make them more comparable. It is performed in three steps:

- Histogram equalization
5.4.1 Histogram Equalization

Histogram equalization enhances the contrast of images by transforming the values in an intensity image so that the histogram of the output image approximately matches a specified histogram. More precisely, this method usually increases the local contrast of many images, especially when the usable data of the image is represented by close contrast values. Through this adjustment, the intensities can be better distributed on the histogram. This allows for areas of lower local contrast to gain a higher contrast without affecting the global contrast. Histogram equalization accomplishes this by effectively spreading out the most frequent intensity values. This method is useful in images with backgrounds and foregrounds that are both bright or both dark. Its input and output are compared in Figure 5.2.

![Figure 5.2: Histogram Equalization](image)

5.4.2 Face Alignment

The aim of Face Alignment is to find the location and orientation of face area in the image. Here we implemented it using template matching algorithm, namely we first train an eye-nose template and then search for the best match in a new image.
Template Training

To extract the template, we first manually label the landmark points on a set of training images, as shown in Figure 5.3. According to these three landmarks, the eye-nose areas in the training images are extracted, and we use their average as the template as shown in Figure 5.4.

![Figure 5.3: Histogram Equalization](image1.png)

![Figure 5.4: Eye-Nose Template](image2.png)

Template Matching

Given a new image, the algorithm searches though different location \((x,y)\) and orientation \(\theta\) to minimize the cost function 5.1

\[
D(x, y, \theta) = D_{\text{match}}(x, y, \theta) + w.D_{\text{sym}}(x, y, \theta) \tag{5.1}
\]

where the first term of the equation represents the difference between the current area and the template, and the second term represents the asymmetry of the current area, namely the difference between the left half and the right half. Here both differences are defined as the variance. \(w\) is the weight of asymmetry penalty, here
we set it to be 0.2. Typical input and output are shown in Figure 5.5. We can see, the face in the input is not upright and the algorithm fixes this by rotating it for approximately 15 degrees counterclockwise.

![Figure 5.5: Template Matching Results](image)

### 5.4.3 Normalization

To make the images more comparable and also to reduce their size, normalization is performed based on the alignment result. The aligned face areas are chopped to have the same size as shown in Figure 5.6, and these will be used for the input for recognition.

### 5.5 Recognition

Face recognition is the core of this module. It gives the name of person in the image, or "No Match" if it can not recognize it. In this system, face recognition is implemented using Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) [75]. A canonical correlation is the correlation of two canonical (latent) variables, one representing a set of independent variables, the other a set of dependent variables. Each set may be considered a latent variable based on measured indicator variables in its set. The canonical correlation is optimized such that the linear correlation between the two latent variables is maximized. Whereas multiple regression is used for many-to-one relationships, canonical correlation is used for many-to-many relationships. There may be more than one such linear correlation relating the two sets of variables, with each such correlation representing a different dimension by which the independent
set of variables is related to the dependent set. The purpose of canonical correlation is to explain the relation of the two sets of variables, not to model the individual variables. For each canonical variate we can also assess how strongly it is related to measured variables in its own set, or the set for the other canonical variate. Wilks’s lambda is commonly used to test the significance of canonical correlation.

CCA attempts to represent a face by a lower dimensional vector, known as CCA coefficient, which is highly related to the identity of the person. To do this, it tries to maximize the correlation between the variance of the faces $a = w_x^T x$ and the variance of the identity label $b = w_y^T y$ in the training set as shown in equation 5.2.

$$p(x; y; w_x, w_y) = \frac{w_x^T X Y^T w_y}{\sqrt{w_x^T X X^T w_x} \cdot \sqrt{w_y^T Y Y^T w_y}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.2)
To handle the nonlinear cases, Kernel technique is employed. The optimization can be formalized as shown in equation 5.3.

$$\rho(\phi(x), y; w_{\phi(x)}, w_y) = \frac{w_{\phi(x)}^T \phi(x) Y^T w_y}{\sqrt{w_{\phi(x)}^T \phi(x) \phi(x)^T w_{\phi(x)} \cdot \sqrt{w_y^T Y Y^T w_y}}} \quad (5.3)$$

It has been shown [1] this can be converted into a generalized eigen problem as shown in equation 5.4

$$KY^T (Y Y^T)^{-1} Y K \alpha_{\phi(x)} = \lambda^2 K K \alpha_{\phi(x)} \quad (5.4)$$

Solving equation 5.3 gives the CCA coefficient, which is a lower dimensional representation of the face image shown in 5.5. The red circles represent the three known members respectively. When a new image is given, the algorithm finds its corresponding point in the CCA space (the blue cross in Figure 5.7), and recognition is performed according to the distances in the CCA space: the distances between the new point and the red circles are computed (as shown in Figure 5.8), if the distance to the nearest circle, d, is smaller than a preset threshold, D, the new image is considered to belong to this member; otherwise output ”No Match”. For example, for the image shown in 5.8, its nearest is member 1 (Jamil), and the distance is small so we recognize it as Jamil.

### 5.6 Voting and Threshold Decisions

In real-time recognition, due to the influence of other factors, such as illumination, head pose, facial expression and so on, the recognition result on a single image is not very robust. To overcome this problem, face recognition is performed on n snapshots of the video input, and the authentication result is generated by combining the recognition outputs. Here we use a voting scheme: each frame either votes to a member or abstains according to its recognition output; a member wins if he gets more than $kn$ votes, if no one wins the system outputs ”No Match” as the final result. In general, using large n gives better accuracy, but longer execution time, therefore a tradeoff must take place in here as well; k controls the working position on the ROC curve: small k gives small False Negative Rate but large False Positive Rate and vice versa.

In our system, n is set to 10 and k is set to 0.6. The reason we decided to take more than just one or two frames is to benefit from the advantage of multimodality to
Figure 5.7: CCA Coefficients

Figure 5.8: Input Image and Distances in CCA Space
overcome the problem that illumination, head pose, facial expression, among other factors, might create, and largely affect the recognition result. Add to this, the fact that the camera used for this research is a standard low resolution webcam. Therefore, face recognition is performed on n snapshots of the video input. Results shows that for n = 1; recognition accuracy was 78 %. For n=5, it went up to 87%, and for n = 10, accuracy achieved a 93%. Higher number of frames achieved slightly higher accuracy (95% for 20 frames). Therefore, a threshold of 10 frames was chosen as a tradeoff point between the accuracy on one hand, and keeping the head of the user being authenticated steady for longer time, along with the processing time, on the other hand. Note that results were obtained on only a small set of 5 people which are the graduate students that have current access to the CIM lab at University of Waterloo.
Chapter 6

Conclusion and Future Work

Human-Computer/Machine Interaction is a sociotechnological discipline that brings the power of computer and communication systems to people in ways and forms that are both accessible and useful in our working, learning, communicating, and recreational lives with the mean of technologies such as the graphical user interface, virtual environments, speech recognition, gesture recognition, multimedia presentation, and cognitive models of human learning and understanding.

The main objective of this research was to implement an intelligent generic framework for our manufacturing cell that allows users to integrate easily different modules and robots into the framework. For this purpose, a protocol has been devised to facilitate standardized communication between all entities of the framework. Thus, all entities must comply with this protocol to guarantee correct operation. A speech recognition module, and a gesture recognition modules were separately implemented and integrated into the framework, hence enabling system control using natural language commands and/or some predefined gestures. The system can also be accessed remotely. Safety features were also added by allowing only authenticated people to access the framework. Face recognition was used for this purpose, and depending on the identity of the person, different levels of access to system are enabled, and different features are provided.

Future work can take place on the framework and its integrated modules. The gesture recognition module can be further enhanced by enlarging the set of gestures that can be recognized. Further work can even focus on 3D recognition of gestures, and hence someone can recognize if a hand is pointing to something at some time. This might be very helpful in removing ”ambiguity” when the user says
for example ”I want this to go to to location b”. ”This” is very ambiguous, but the user could have been pointing to one of the manipulators when he said ”this”, and hence advanced gesture recognition techniques can be used to recognize the object being pointed to when ”this” was uttered, and therefore removing fuzziness from the expression.

Further improvements can be also applied to the speech recognition module. Instead of only relying on the confidence measure technique, keyword spotting systems that rely on advanced filler models (garbage models) in order to filter out the out of vocabulary uttered words can be addressed. Unfortunately, up to now, there is no universal optimal filler model that can be used with any automatic speech recognizer (ASR) and handle natural language. Several researchers have attempted to build reliable and robust models, but when using these kind of garbage models, the search space of the speech recognizer becomes big and the search process takes considerable time.
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