

# UNSUPERVISED HANDWRITTEN GRAPHICAL SYMBOL LEARNING

## *Using Minimum Description Length Principle on Relational Graph*

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**Keywords:** Unsupervised graphical symbol learning, Graph mining, Minimum description length principle, Online handwriting.

**Abstract:** Generally, the approaches encountered in the field of handwriting recognition require the knowledge of the symbol set, and of as many as possible ground-truthed samples, so that machine learning based approaches can be implemented. In this work, we propose the discovery of the symbol set that is used in the context of a graphical language produced by on-line handwriting. We consider the case of a two-dimensional graphical language such as mathematical expression composition, where not only left to right layouts have to be considered. Firstly, we select relevant graphemes using hierarchical clustering. Secondly, we build a relational graph between the strokes defining an handwritten expression. Thirdly, we extract the lexicon which is a set of graph substructures using the minimum description length principle. For the assessment of the extracted lexicon, a hierarchical segmentation task is introduced. From the experiments we conducted, a recall rate of 84.2% is reported on the test part of our database produced by 100 writers.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In different physical aspects of language (textual language, graphical language, etc.) the knowledge of the symbol set is of paramount importance. In this paper, we are working on an online handwritten graphical language. Most of the existing recognition systems dedicated to graphical languages, if not all, need the definition of the character or symbol set. Then, they require a training dataset which defines the ground-truth at the symbol level so that a machine learning algorithm can be trained on this task to recognize symbols from handwritten information. Many recognition systems take advantage from the creation of large, realistic corpora of ground-truthed data. Such datasets are valuable for the training, evaluation, and testing stages of the recognition systems in different domains. They also allow comparison between state-of-the-art recognizers. However, collecting all the ink samples and labelling them at the stroke level is a very long and tedious task. Hence, it would be very interesting to be able to assist this process, so that most of the tedious work can be done automatically, and that only a high level supervision need to be defined to conclude the labelling process.

In this respect, we propose to extract automati-

cally the relevant patterns which will define the lexical units of the language. This process is carried out from the redundancy in appearance of basic regular shapes and regular layout of these shapes in a large collection of handwritten scripts.

These handwritten scripts derive from a language. In other words, a language, which uses a set of rules, generates some handwritten scripts (observations). For the terminology, we use the word “evidences” for the observations from a language (Marcken, 1996b). A language could be Context Free Grammar (CFG) generator (Solan et al., 2005), but certainly the human natural language is more complex than CFG (Chomsky, 1956). On textual corpora, which can be considered as a subform of simple graphical languages, unsupervised learning of CFG has been discussed and considered as a non-trivial task (Alexander Clark and Lappin, 2010; Carroll et al., 1992; Gold, 1967). We propose to extend this kind of approach on real graphical languages where not only left to right layouts have to be considered.

To tackle this problem, most of the works are using heuristic approaches (Alexander Clark and Lappin, 2010). One of the famous approaches is the Minimum Description Length (MDL) principle (Rissanen, 1978) which assumes that the best lexicon minimizes

the description length of lexicon and of evidences using the extracted lexicon. Using this MDL principle, a recall rate of 90.5% for symbols is reported (Marcken, 1996a) on the Brown English corpus, (Francis and Kučera, 1982). In fact, (Marcken, 1996a) extracted a hierarchical lexicon which could be considered as a CFG where the symbols are the elements in lexicon.

In this paper, the application domain is online handwriting. On a online graphical corpus, the units (strokes) are composed in evidences with two-dimensional spatial relations. In this case, the search space for the combination of units which makes up possible lexical units is much more complex since it is no longer a linear one. We can describe these two-dimensional spatial relations with a graph. Thus a graph mining technique is required to extract the repetitive pattern on the graph. Such a task is performed with the SUBDUE (SUBstructure Discovery Using Examples) system (Cook and Holder, 2011). It is a graph based knowledge discovery method which extracts the substructures in a graph using MDL principle.

This paper proposes a solution for the modelling of a two-dimensional graphical language with a graph. Then, using SUBDUE, the lexicon is extracted, we also study how to evaluate the extracted lexicon in terms of symbol-based ground-truths. We give an overview of the proposed system in section 2. Then, the design of the relational graph from the evidences produced by a given graphical language, the extraction of lexicon using the system SUBDUE based on the relational graph and the evaluation of the extracted lexicon are discussed in section 3, before presenting the experimental results in section 4.

## 2 OVERVIEW

In this section, we give an overview of the proposed method for extracting graphical symbols (lexicon) from a handwriting corpus as shown in Figure 1. We use three principal steps: i) quantization of strokes into grapheme prototypes, ii) construction of relational graphs between strokes and, iii) extraction of the lexicon composed of graphemes and spatial relations.

As shown in Figure 1, given a new graphical language, we are firstly interested in finding the graphemes, which represent the different possible shapes of strokes. A clustering technique is used for generating a finite set of these graphemes (codebook). Then, the quantization step consists of using this codebook to tag all the strokes. Secondly, the spatial relations between strokes are extracted for or-

ganizing a relational graph inspired by the Symbol Relation Tree approach (SRT) (Rhee and Kim, 2009). Thirdly, we extract the repetitive patterns as lexical units in the relational graph using Minimum Description Length (MDL) principle (Rissanen, 1978; Cook and Holder, 1994). We could consider these lexical units as the symbols.

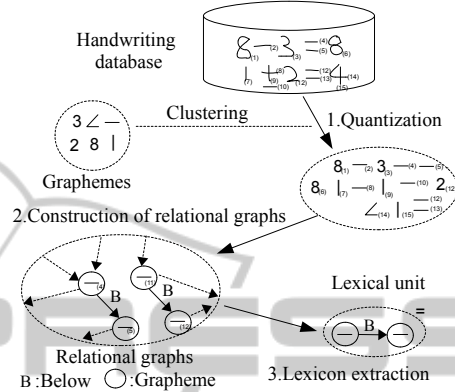


Figure 1: Overview for unsupervised graphical symbol learning.

As an example in Figure 1, we assume a handwriting database containing two handwritten expressions “ $8-3=8$ ” and “ $1\pm 2=4$ ”. Each stroke is marked by the index ( $\cdot$ ) to avoid ambiguity. The following set of graphemes  $\{ '3', '\angle', '-', '2', '8', '|' \}$  defining the codebook may be found. To obtain it, an unsupervised clustering algorithm is used. Then, we code each stroke using this codebook. This is the quantization step. Afterwards, we analyse the spatial relations between two different strokes to organize a relational graph. There are many spatial relations between two different strokes in the database. As a simple example, the frequent substructure  $( '-', \overset{B}{\rightarrow} '-', )$  could be discovered from the relational graph. This substructure means that a stroke represented by a grapheme ‘-’ is found below another stroke coded by the same grapheme ‘-’. We could consider this substructure as a lexical unit. In that case, this lexical unit represents the operator equal (‘=’).

We mainly focus in this work on the problem of building a relational graph with a reasonable complexity, then extracting a lexicon from this graph and evaluating our lexicon using a hierarchical segmentation task.

## 3 UNSUPERVISED GRAPHICAL SYMBOL LEARNING

To discover graphical symbols, we firstly extract the

graphemes from strokes using a hierarchical clustering. After the quantization of each stroke, a relational graph is then generated for modelling spatial relations between strokes. To minimize the description length of the relational graph, an algorithm (Cook and Holder, 1994) is applied to discover the repetitive substructures which are probably the lexical units.

### 3.1 Quantization of Strokes

The data that we are interested in are online handwriting, available as sequences of strokes, which are themselves sequences of 2D points. Because of the variability of shapes produced by handwriting, we need to quantify the strokes into a finite set of graphemes (codebook). We measure the dissimilarity between two shapes of strokes using a Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) algorithm (Vuori, 2002). Clustering techniques are used for producing the codebook. Instead of using a traditional *k-means* algorithm which is prone to initialisation problems, we prefer an agglomerative hierarchical clustering since the tree topology is favourable to tune easily the number of prototypes. Once the number of  $n_p$  graphemes (the final prototypes of hierarchical clustering) is selected, all the strokes are tagged with the virtual label of the closest grapheme. This procedure is the quantization of strokes. Afterwards, we build relational graphs between strokes.

### 3.2 Construction of Relational Graphs

This section presents the construction of the relational graph inspired by SRT (Rhee and Kim, 2009). We define the nodes as the strokes labelled with its grapheme prototype (one of the codebook element) and the edges as a spatial relation. We define a spatial relation as a relationship from a reference stroke to an argument stroke. In other words, the relational graph is directed. This allows for instance to distinguish between the two following horizontal layout of two graphemes: “-|” or “|-”, which are two different symbols. Concerning the complexity, suppose we have  $n_r$  different spatial relations and  $n_{str}$  different strokes, to create a complete directed graph for all the vertices (strokes), the number of directed edges is

$$2 \cdot n_r C_{n_{str}}^2 = n_r n_{str} (n_{str} - 1) \quad (1)$$

where  $C_n^m = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-m+1)}{m(m-1)\dots 2 \cdot 1}$  (Chartrand, 1985). In that case, the search space would be far more too complex to search patterns in the complete directed graph. Therefore, the number of out-directed edges from a reference stroke should be limited to  $n_c$  closest strokes where  $n_c \leq n_{str} - 1$  since we, human, have a limited

perceived visual angle (Baird, 1970); we prefer some symbols composed of the closest strokes. Therefore, the reduced number of directed edges is:

$$n_r \cdot n_{str} \cdot n_c. \quad (2)$$

However, if  $n_c$  is too small, we could lose some symbols. In our work, we select three spatial relations  $n_r = 3$ , namely, right (*R*), below (*B*) and intersection (*I*). We consider relation *I* having a higher priority than directional relations, *R* and *B*. In other words, *I* is exclusive with *R* and *B*. This constraint means that if two strokes are intersected, we do not consider the directional relationships but only the topological relationships between two spatial objects (Schneider and Behr, 2006). It turns out that the maximum number of directed edges is:

$$2 \cdot n_{str} \cdot n_c \quad (3)$$

since the maximum outdegree of reference stroke is two. To reduce even more the number of edges of this relational graph, we constrain the graph construction to obtain a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG). We start with the top-left stroke to initiate the DAG. Then from a reference stroke, we explore the three possible spatial relations (*R*, *B* and *I*) to find the next possible strokes but without considering the strokes already used from the starting stroke to the reference stroke. At the end, since *I* is a symmetric spatial relation, we add one more edge from the argument stroke to the reference stroke for *I*. Considering Eq.(2), the maximum  $n_r$  is still 2 since *I* is symmetric and is exclusive with *R* and *B*. Therefore, we reduced the search space significantly.

As an example, Figure 2 illustrates a simple mathematical expression “1 ± 2 = 4”. When we consider the stroke (6) coded by the grapheme ‘-’ as the reference stroke, the search for the  $n_c = 2$  closest strokes to create the relational graph is shown in Figure 2. Right and below projection areas of ‘-(6)’ (see the shadow areas in Figure 2) are applied for detecting the next strokes.

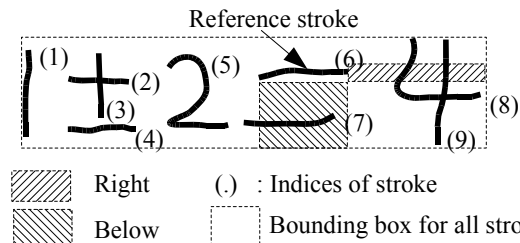


Figure 2: Two directional relations (right and below) in terms of the reference stroke  $-(6)$ .

The corresponding sub-graph with reference node ‘-(6)’ is shown in Figure 3 using  $n_c = 2$  closest next

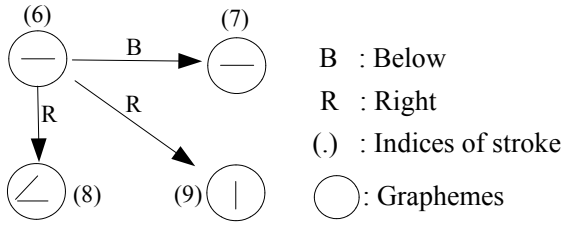


Figure 3: Search spatial relations using  $n_c = 2$  closest strokes from the reference stroke (6) with grapheme ‘-’.

strokes. ‘ $\angle_{(8)}$ ’ and ‘ $|_{(9)}$ ’ are right of ‘ $-_{(6)}$ ’, and ‘ $-_{(7)}$ ’ is found below ‘ $-_{(6)}$ ’.

To create the relational graph for the full expression “ $1 \pm 2 = 4$ ” using  $n_c = 2$ , we start with the top-left stroke ‘ $|_{(1)}$ ’ as shown in Figure 4. We can see that the operator “ $\pm$ ” (‘ $-_{(2)}$ ’, ‘ $|_{(3)}$ ’, ‘ $-_{(4)}$ ’), the operator “ $=$ ” (‘ $-_{(6)}$ ’, ‘ $-_{(7)}$ ’) and the digit “4” (‘ $\angle_{(8)}$ ’, ‘ $|_{(9)}$ ’) are actually present in the relational graph.

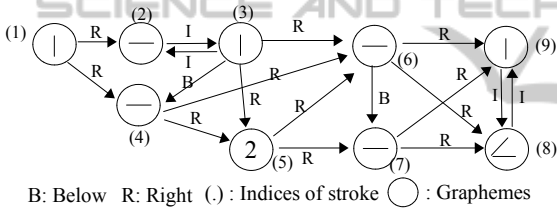


Figure 4: Generated relational graph using  $n_c = 2$  closest strokes for the expression “ $1 \pm 2 = 4$ ” from Figure 2.

If we had created a complete directed relational graph for 9 strokes using 3 different spatial relations, the number of edges would be using Eq. (1)  $3 \cdot 9 \cdot (9 - 1) = 216$ . After pruning, the maximum of number of edges is  $2 \cdot 9 \cdot 2 = 36$  using Eq. (3) where  $n_c = 2$ . The number of edges is much smaller than that of the complete directed graph. With the constraint of DAG and with an additional edge for  $I$ , 18 directed edges are created as shown in Figure 4.

In this section, we have shown how to build a relational graph for a graphical language. As an example, we have used a simple expression to show the creation of this relational graph. In the next section, we will see how to extract the repetitive hierarchical substructures (sub-graphs) from the relational graph. The set of repetitive hierarchical substructures is probably composing the lexicon (i.e. the set of symbols used in the language).

### 3.3 Lexicon Extraction using Minimum Description Length Principle on Relational Graph

In previous section, we get the relational graph for a graphical language. This section presents an algorithm from (Cook and Holder, 1994) using Minimum Description Length (MDL) principle (Rissanen, 1978) to extract repetitive substructures in graph, which will be considered in our context as the lexical units. In unsupervised language learning model, the MDL principle implies that the best lexical unit minimize the description length of both the lexical unit and of the graph using lexical unit (Marcken, 1996b). Formally given a graph  $G$ , we try to choose the lexical unit  $u$  which minimize the description length

$$DL(G, u) = I(u) + I(G|u) \quad (4)$$

where  $I(u)$  is the number of bits to encode the lexical unit  $u$  and  $I(G|u)$  is the number of bits to encode the graph  $G$  using the lexical unit  $u$ . (Cook and Holder, 1994) give the precise definition of  $DL(G, u)$ . The system SUBDUE (SUBstructure Discovery Using Examples) (Cook and Holder, 2011) extracts iteratively the best lexical unit (substructure) using (MDL) principle. A unit could be a hierarchical structure (Jonyer et al., 2000).

For explaining the iterative procedure and the hierarchical structure, we use the same example of expression “ $1 \pm 2 = 4$ ”, which contains a hierarchical structure “ $\pm$ ” shown in Figure 4. Obviously, this expression has to be part of a training expression set which allows to compute frequency of possible lexical units. We assume that there are many instances of “ $=$ ” in the training set. Probably we could discover the lexical unit  $LU\_1$  (“ $=$ ”) in first iteration. Then we could extract another frequent lexical unit  $LU\_2$  (“4”) in the second iteration, and frequent lexical unit  $LU\_3$  (“ $\pm$ ”) in a third iteration.  $LU\_i$  designates a discovered lexical unit in  $i^{th}$  iteration, as shown in Figure 5. A lexical unit corresponds to different instances in the graph. For example,  $LU\_1$  has one instance in the relational graph in Figure 5.

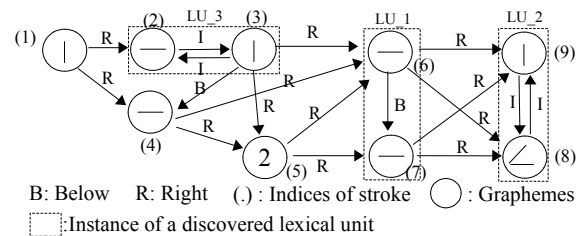


Figure 5: Three discovered lexical units  $LU\_1$ ,  $LU\_2$  and  $LU\_3$  in first, second and third iteration.

Therefore, we replace all the instances of lexical unit with the lexical unit's name in the relational graph. Figure 6 shows the new relational graph using  $LU\_1$ ,  $LU\_2$  and  $LU\_3$  ready for the fourth iteration. In the fourth iteration, the lexical unit  $LU\_4$  would be probably extracted.  $LU\_4$  contains  $LU\_3$  which means that  $LU\_4$  is a hierarchical structure. The index (.) of  $LU\_1$ ,  $LU\_2$ , and  $LU\_3$  for strokes are deleted since there are many strokes corresponding to only one lexical unit in Figure 6.

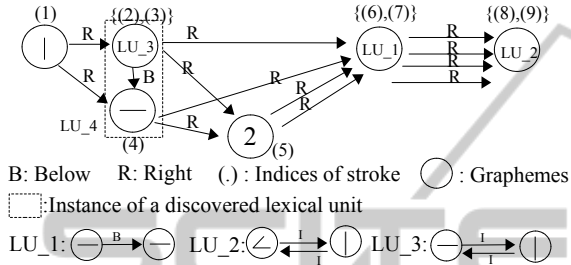


Figure 6: A discovered lexical unit  $LU\_4$  are extracted in fourth iteration.

Figure 7 shows the extracted hierarchical lexicon (extracted substructures) when no more lexical unit can reduce the description length. In other words, the lexicon are the list of lexical units  $L=(LU\_1, LU\_2, LU\_3, \dots)$  in terms of  $DL(G, u)$ .

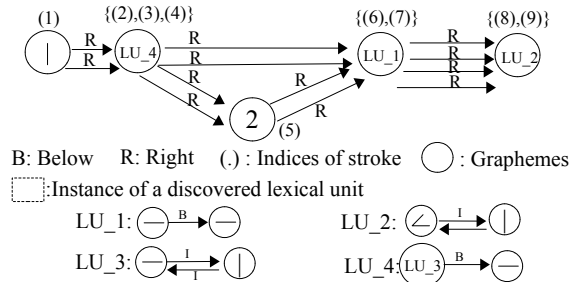


Figure 7: A hierarchical extracted lexicon at the end of iteration.

At the end, we extract a sorted list of lexical units from the relational graphs using MDL principle. We call this list of lexical units as lexicon. In next section, we evaluate the extracted lexicon using a task of hierarchical segmentation of new graphical evidences from the same graphical language.

### 3.4 Evaluation

We extracted the lexicon which is a sorted list of substructures  $L=(LU\_1, LU\_2, LU\_3, \dots)$ . Given some new graphical evidences  $e$  from the same graphical language which has generated the lexicon, we interpret these evidences by a simple task of bottom-up

combination which produces a hierarchical segmentation by SUBDUE (Cook and Holder, 2011). Firstly, we build the relational graph for the evidences. Secondly, SUBDUE replaces all the instances in the relational graph with lexical units from  $LU\_1$  to the end of the sorted list since the lexical units are sorted using description length. Finally, we can get a hierarchical segmentation  $S(e, L)$ .

In order to evaluate the segmentation, we use four measures (LI et al., 2011; Marcken, 1996b) which are applied in graphical language learning:  $R_{Recall}$ ,  $R_{CB}$ ,  $R_{Top}$ , and  $R_{CB}$ . The recall rate  $R_{Recall}$  evaluates the percentage of right segmentation which are found in ground-truths. On the contrary the second measure  $R_{CB}$  reveals the error of the segmentation compared with ground-truths. The third measure is defined by  $R_{Lost} = 1 - R_{Recall} - R_{CB}$ . Moreover  $R_{Top}$  evaluates the performance of longest possible segments of the hierarchical segmentation.  $R_{Top}$  is the same definition of  $R_{Good}$  in (LI et al., 2011). In next section, we create an artificial database to evaluate the method.

## 4 SEGMENTATION EXPERIMENTS

We firstly introduce a handwriting database to evaluate our approach. Using the hierarchical segmentation and the presented measures, the extracted lexicon is secondly evaluated in terms of different numbers of prototypes.

To test the performance of our approach, we created an artificial database named Calculate (LI et al., 2011; Awal, 2010) of realistic handwritten expressions from isolated symbols. Firstly the expressions in Calculate are generated in terms of the grammar  $N_1 op N_2 = N_3$  where  $N_1, N_2$  and  $N_3$  are numbers composed of 1, 2 or 3 digits from  $\{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$ . The distribution of number of digits for  $N_{i=\{1,2,3\}}$  is 70% of 1 digit, 20% of 2 digits and 10% of 3 digits randomly. In addition,  $op$  represents the operators  $\{+, -, \times, \div\}$ . Figure 8 shows an example in Calculate with  $N_1, N_2, N_3$  and  $op$  containing 3 digits, 1 digit, 2 digits and “ $\times$ ” respectively. Secondly Calculate is separated into a training part and a test part. The training part contains 897 expressions from 180 writers for the unsupervised learning. On this part we computed the graphemes by clustering and extracted the lexicon by the iterative search algorithm. The test part contains 497 expressions written by another 100 writers. Learned graphemes and lexicon are tested on this part.

We extract the lexicon on the training part of Calculate in terms of different numbers of prototypes on the training part using  $n_c = 2$  and evaluate the ex-

$$\underbrace{3}_{N_1} \underbrace{98}_{op} \underbrace{\times}_{N_2} = \underbrace{14}_{N_3}$$

Figure 8: A synthetic expression from the Calculate database.

tracted lexicon on the test part shown in Figure 9. We obtain the best  $R_{Recall} = 84.2\%$  ( $R_{CB} = 11.3\%$ ,  $R_{Lost} = 4.5\%$  and  $R_{Top} = 38.3\%$ ) using  $n_p = 120$  on the test part. The increasing number of prototypes increases the performance of  $R_{Top}$  while  $R_{Recall}$  almost remains unchanged starting from  $n_p = 30$  since it exists many symbols composed of only one stroke. Comparing with the recall rate of 90.5% using MDL principle in (Marcken, 1996a; Marcken, 1996b) on Brown corpus (sequences of ASCII characters)(Francis and Kučera, 1982), our recall rate of 84.2% on test part is fair.

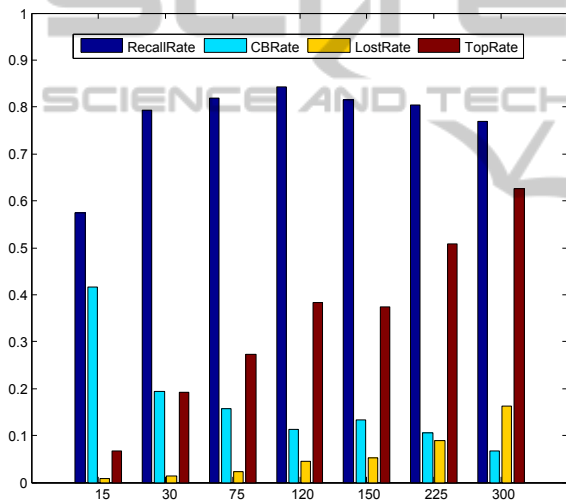


Figure 9: Extraction of the lexicon in terms of different numbers of prototypes using  $n_c = 2$  on training part and its evaluation of extracted lexicon on test part.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we study an unsupervised learning problem to extract the graphical symbols in a graphical language. Firstly, we extract the graphemes using hierarchical clustering and quantify the strokes using the extracted graphemes. Secondly, we discuss how to create a relational graph to simplify the complexity of learning. Thirdly, using the system SUBDUE, we extract the lexicon with MDL principle. To evaluate the extracted lexicon, several measures are introduced. At the end, we get a recall rate of 84.2% on the test part of our synthetic database. However, this database only contains one-line mathematical ex-

pressions whose spatial relations are relative simple. Some more complex graphical languages, e.g. flowcharts or complex mathematical expressions, are still needed to be studied. More complex spatial relations would be our future work. Furthermore, some criteria to stop earlier the iterative learning algorithm and to find the right number of prototypes should be explored.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is supported by the French Région Pays de la Loire in the context of the DEPART project [www.projet-depart.org](http://www.projet-depart.org).

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