

České vysoké učení technické v Praze
Fakulta jaderná a fyzikálně inženýrská

Katedra softwarového inženýrství

Obor: Aplikace informatiky v přírodních vědách



**Optické rozpoznávání znaků
na naskenovaných historických
plakátech pomocí
nejmodernějších metod**

**Optical Character Recognition
on Scanned Historical Posters
Using the State-of-the-Art
Methods**

VÝZKUMNÝ ÚKOL

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Název práce anglicky:	Optical Character Recognition on Scanned Historical Posters Using the State-of-the-Art Methods

Pokyny pro vypracování:

1. Seznamte se s problematikou optického rozpoznávání znaků. Na základě rešerše vyberte několik metod, se kterými budete dále pracovat a vyhodnocovat úspěšnost jejich detekce.
2. Stáhněte několik volně dostupných datasetů, které jsou využívány v literatuře k porovnání jednotlivých metod na OCR. Dále vytvořte svůj vlastní dataset z obdržených dat.
3. Nastudujte techniky porovnání OCR výstupů s ground-truth.
4. U vybraných metod prostudujte jejich chování na jednotlivých datasetech při různém nastavení parametrů.
5. Navrhněte také možnosti filtrování výstupů jednotlivých metod za účelem snížení falešných detekcí.

Doporučená literatura:

- [1] R. C. Gonzalez, R. E. Woods, Digital Image Processing (4th ed.). Pearson, 2018. ISBN 9353062985.
- [2] GOODFELLOW, Ian, Yoshua BENGIO a Aaron COURVILLE. Deep learning. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press, [2016]. ISBN 0262035618.
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- [4] CHEN, Xiaoxue, et al. Text Recognition in the Wild. ACM Computing Surveys [online]. 2021, 54(2), 1-35 [cit. 2021-10-2]. ISSN 0360-0300. Dostupné z: doi:10.1145/3440756

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Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že jsem svou bakalářskou práci vypracovala samostatně a použila jsem pouze podklady (literaturu, projekty, SW atd.) uvedené v přiloženém seznamu.

V Praze dne

Anna Gruberová

Poděkování

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Chapter 2

Optical Character Recognition

Optical character recognition (OCR) is a branch of digital image processing. Its aim is to detect and convert a text on an image into a machine-readable text. This discipline can be divided into three similar, yet different tasks: reading text on scanned printed documents, reading of handwritten texts and scene text recognition (also called text in the wild). The first task is very well developed, first successful results date back to the second half twentieth and were used in commercial sector [24]. If we assume the handwritten text is on scanned single colored paper or created using a digital pen and that it was written legibly and without omitting letters in words due to fast writing, then recognition is similar to printed documents. The last task – scene text recognition (STR) is the most challenging one. The main factors that make STR a more difficult task are listed below.[6, 26]

- Complex background: in scanned documents background is white and without a distinctive pattern (omitting lines is an easy preprocessing task), while in scene images there are objects that can be mistaken for letters.
- Text diversity: text can appear in various colors, fonts, sizes or orientations.
- Distortions: photographs often suffer from noise due to bad illumination, also from motion or out-of-focus blurring, perspective distortion due to the capturing angle. Other problems come from the insufficient resolution that might be set on the camera.

Apart from these main categories of image text data there exist born-digital images (e. g. web advertisements or any cases where text was digitally added on images or videos) and poster/newspaper images. These share with scene images the diversity of text but are free from visual distortions caused by cameras. Examples of different image data are in sections 2.3 and 5.1.

Digital reading of a text on an image consists of two main tasks – text detection and text recognition. Both processes are described in the next sections.

2.1 Text Detection

The first phase of digital text processing is to detect the text regions on the image. The goal is to determine a bounding box surrounding a group of letters – usually one word, but it can be also a text line consisting of few words. This box may be a bounding rectangle or a polygon which is more accurate for curved or skewed text. It is ideal when the bounding box contains the letters with as little background as possible. The methods store this information as a set of coordinates which unambiguously define the box, some methods produce cropped images based on the coordinates or a binary image with highlighted detected area. Methods used for text detection can be categorized into formerly used classical machine learning methods and deep learning methods.

Classical Methods

Classical methods include connected component methods and sliding window methods. In the latter method an image is scanned with a moving window of certain size. In each position of the window features are computed, for example, standard deviation or histogram of oriented gradients and are compared with values known from training images with text. This approach does not have a good response for scene images, because many objects can be misunderstood as letters and vice versa. Connected component based methods extract from the image features like color, texture, edges or corners. Then they are classified either as text or non-text by a traditional classifier such as support vector machines, nearest neighbor or random forest. Detected letters are then combined into words or text lines if desired [26]. Classical methods are generally not very successful with scene images where most of the observed values are negatively influenced by distorting factors listed above. In recent years the development of neural networks enabled a new, efficient way of detecting text in images.

Deep Learning Methods

Deep learning methods are faster, more precise than the classical methods. They are automated and need less of human assistance therefore they can process bigger amounts of data. Another advantage is that algorithms can be generalized and used for other image detection tasks. Most of the state-of-the-art methods utilize convolutional neural network (CNN). Deep learning methods can be split into bounding-box regression based, segmentation based and hybrid methods according to the survey of Raisi et al.[26].

Bounding-box regression based methods treat text as an object and predict directly the bounding box around text. However, the bounding boxes have different aspect ratio than typical objects, because text is usually long and thin. Some methods decompose the text on smaller units and concentrate on distances between the units. These methods are hard to tune during training and usually fail on distinctly curved

text. Examples of bounding-box methods are TextBoxes [20], TextBoxes++ [19] or EAST [39]. Segmentation based methods investigate the image at pixel level. The image data are processed by a CNN which produces a segmentation map from which a bounding box is generated. An example of this method is PSENet [37]. Hybrid methods combine the features obtained by regression and the segmentation map from CNN. The segmentation methods tend to return false positive detection. They select pixels that are not text at the borders of letters or when there is a complicated background. Hybrid methods further process the results from segmentation and precisely detect text. Example methods are PMTD [21].

A popular method in recent years is Character Region Awareness for Text Detection – CRAFT. This method in contrast to the previously mentioned methods detects text based on character level rather than word (group of characters) level. CRAFT trains a CNN which produces two results for a character – a region score and an affinity score. Because this method goes over individual characters it performs very well on curved and deformed text and outperforms 15 popular detection methods according to the authors of CRAFT in their paper [4].

2.2 Text Recognition

Text recognition converts a detected text on an image to a string. Analogous to detection methods again recognition methods can be divided to classical methods and deep learning methods. Traditional methods work with image features such as histogram of gradients, features from SIFT¹, which are then classified by SVM or nearest neighbor algorithms. Moreover methods can be divided on segmentation-based and segmentation free methods. The former classify single characters gradually and then connect them into a word. The latter examine the text line as a whole, so it can use word neighborhood for contextual information. In the following subsection four stages of segmentation free methods are described.[6, 26]

Segmentation Free Methods

Segmentation free methods follow a pipeline with four stages: image preprocessing, feature representation, sequence modeling and prediction.

1. **Image Preprocessing Stage:** during this phase visual quality of the image is improved as much as possible. Because in scene images background is usually not a plain color, but a complex mixture of colors in various shape, the effort is to replace it and create optimally a binary image with one color for the foreground text and another for the background. It can be achieved by using neural networks. If complete background removal is not easily achievable, basic image preprocessing such as noise removal are performed at least. Optional enhancement for scene images is to increase readability via superresolution,

¹Scale-Invariant Feature Transform

this removes noise caused by low resolution of the original image. If the text is perspectively distorted or curved there is an effort to straighten the text, this process is called rectification. It is a computationally expensive process, therefore it is not used very often.[6]

2. **Feature Representation Stage:** now it is necessary to extract features from the image data that are used as a representation of objects (text) in the images. For this purpose CNNs are widely used. For example namely these types VGGNet, ResNet, DenseNet, recurrent CNN (RCNN).
3. **Sequence Modeling Stage:** An optional step between final prediction and features. A contextual information is obtained via a recurrent neural network. Mostly one of two types called long short-term memory (LSTM) and bidirectional long short-term memory (BLSTM) is applied. The information is utilized during the last stage for predicting subsequent characters rather than predicting each character individually.
4. **Prediction:** in this last stage the model returns a target word or text line that was recognized. Two major technologies are connectionist temporal classification (CTC) and the attention mechanism. Because some letters span more than others it may happen that the letter is classified multiple times, to avoid this CTC introduces a blank symbol and inserts it among characters in various locations and creates character sequences. CTC then trains the network to maximize the probability distribution over all possible sequences. This approach is to a great extent dependent on a lexicon or language information about word formation. Attention-based methods utilizes RNNs [18]. "The attention mechanism learns the alignment between the input instance image and the output text sequences by referring to the history of the target characters and the encoded feature vectors" [6, page 12].

2.3 Datasets

Optical Character Recognition requires data as any other machine learning task. Data are usually divided in two main types - scene and synthetic. Scene datasets contains photographs of real world objects and sceneries where some text occurs, for example shop signs, road signs or car plates. Synthetic dataset are automatically generated images where words are chosen from a extensive dictionary, a font is picked for each word and some sort of deformation is applied. It can be a text distortion to make the text curved or projectively altered, as well as blurring or lighting changes that make the text less obvious for the detector.

Synthetic datasets are usually used for training the models, because it is easier to generate millions of synthetic images rather than to take even one hundredth of a such number of photographs. Needless to say that when generating an image, the ground truth is known and can be saved during the generation process while photographs have to be manually labeled which takes time and might be inaccurate

or automatically labeled which also often leads to many mistakes. Scene datasets are then used for testing purposes or for fine tuning a pretrained model.

In this paragraph sample datasets are introduced. To begin with synthetic dataset MJSynth is a very important dataset because it consists of almost 9 million images covering 90,000 English words. It includes data only for recognition which means that one image has only one word and border of the image represents the word bounding rectangle.[23]. Another synthetic dataset is called SynthText and contains 800 thousand images with approximately 8 million word instances written on the images [33]. Three scene text datasets were created for International Conference on Document Analysis and Recognition (ICDAR) competition. Sets ICDAR03, ICDAR13 and ICDAR15 were used in competitions in years 2003, 2013 and 2015, respectively. First two ICDAR datasets include only horizontal text, text of various orientation appears in set from 2015 [26]. Another widely used dataset is The Street View Text (SVT) which contains images with text harvested from Google Street View [32]. SVT and most other scene text datasets offers mainly frontal text with minimal perspective distortion. However, perspective text is frequent in real life applications of OCR for example previously mentioned street photographs, where it is impossible to capture every visible text from frontal view. Thus Phan et. al [25] created a new StreetViewText-Perspective derived from SVT, it shows the same places as SVT but from different perspective. Another dataset CUT80 focuses on curved text as well as CTW1500 dataset. For text recognition there exist for example IIIT5k dataset containing 5000 cropped images harvested from Google image search. It combines both scene text images and born-digital images [14]. One of the most widely used dataset is COCO-Text which includes over 60,000 images with almost 250,000 word instances [7].

Datasets that were used for comparison of detection and recognition methods, namely, SCUT-CTW1500 dataset, Kaist Scene Text Database, Born-Digital Images, are described in more detail in Chapter 5.

2.4 Evaluation

Text Detection

A detection model tries to detect a text regions as precise as possible. It predicts a bounding box around the text and return its coordinates. As said earlier it can be an irregular polygon or a rectangle.

For measuring the performance of a detection model in general object detection a intersection over union (IOU) is used and it can be evenly applied on text detection. The principle is to compute the intersection of a ground truth bounding box and predicted bounding box and divide it by union of those two areas.[28]

$$\text{IOU} = \frac{\text{Area of Overlap}}{\text{Area of Union}} = \frac{\text{Area of Overlap}}{\text{Area of Union}}$$

Figure 2.1: IoU formula with a bounding box visual interpretation.

Text Recognition

To test how much is the recognition model successful various evaluation metrics were created. The simplest that comes to mind is compare the word in the image with the predicted one. We can either compare words strictly and as correct classify only when all characters match and even a small mistake makes the prediction false, or we can use the metric called word error rate (WER). Before we define how it is computed, we must introduce three types of error that are taken into account:

- **substitutions:** words with one or more misspelled characters,
- **insertions:** words that were added (do not appear in original text),
- **deletions:** missing words.

WER is then defined as follows.

$$WER = \frac{(i_w + s_w + d_w)}{n_w}, \quad (2.1)$$

where i_w is the number of inserted words, s_w is the number of altered words, d_w is the number of lost words and n_w is the number of all words in a ground truth text. The chosen value of WER is the one where the sum in numerator is minimal.[5]

This approach is straightforward and it is a useful for long text, for example scanned books or documents. However, used on scene text or generally images with sparse text that does not contain sentences, it has some drawbacks. Scene text images do not have a long contextual information, there are words that belong together (such as names of countries) but mostly there are street signs, telephone numbers, names of people or companies that do not occur in lexicon. In these cases it is often that the recognizer makes mistake in just one character, that can be barely legible due to an extravagant font or lighting conditions or other distortions. Therefore, it is better to focus on characters and validate each letter in a word separately. For this purpose is used, similar to word error rate, a character error rate (CER). There are again three possible error types – substitution, insertion and deletion of a character in a word.

The formula for CER computations is also analogous

$$CER = \frac{(i + s + d)}{n}, \quad (2.2)$$

where i is the number of inserted characters, s is the number of substituted characters, d is the number of deleted characters and n is the number of all characters in a ground truth word.[5]

The sum of the three error operations is called a Levenshtein distance. Let s be the ground truth (source) string and t the predicted (target) string. The steps of the algorithm are [12]:

1. Let n be the length of s and m the length of t . Construct an empty matrix \mathbf{d} with $0, \dots, n$ columns and $0, \dots, m$ rows.
2. Initialize the first row to $0, \dots, n$ and first column to $0, \dots, m$.
3. Go through s ($i = 1, \dots, n$) and t ($j = 1, \dots, m$).
 - Compare $s[i]$ and $t[j]$:
 - if it equals, set $cost = 0$,
 - if it does not, set $cost = 1$.
 - Set $\mathbf{d}[i, j]$ equal to the minimum value of:
 - $\mathbf{d}[i - 1, j] + 1$ (deletion),
 - $\mathbf{d}[i, j - 1] + 1$ (insertion),
 - $\mathbf{d}[i - 1, j - 1] + cost$ (substitution).
4. Repeat step 3 until $\mathbf{d}[m, n]$ value is computed. That is the Levenshtein distance.

It is clear that the number of mistakes can exceed the length of the source word, which leads to error rate larger than one hundred percent. For this purpose sometimes normalized CER is used. To obtain it the sum of errors is divided not by the number of characters in the source word but by the sum $(i + s + d + c)$, where i, s, d are the error operations and c is the number of correct characters the predicted word and can be computed as $c = n - d - s$. This way the denominator is always larger than the numerator (or equal). After modifications we get the following formula:

$$CER = \frac{i + s + d}{n + i} = \frac{\text{Levenshtein distance}}{n + i}. \quad (2.3)$$

Chapter 3

Neural Networks

A perceptron unit is able to find a linear boundary between two separable classes. In n -dimensional space we talk about a separating hyperplane. The following equation

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + w_{n+1} = 0 \quad (3.1)$$

is a vector form of the hyperplane equation, where \mathbf{w} is a weight, n -dimensional column vector, \mathbf{x} is also n -dimensional vector and it contains the coordinates of a point, which is being classified, w_{n+1} is a bias. We can simplify the notation by creating a $n+1$ -dimensional vectors: $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_n, 1]^\top$ and $\mathbf{w} = [w_1, \dots, w_n, w_{n+1}]^\top$. We want to find a weight coefficients that satisfies the following property:

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} > 0 \quad \mathbf{x} \in \text{class}_1 \quad (3.2)$$

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} < 0 \quad \mathbf{x} \in \text{class}_2 \quad (3.3)$$

Then the perceptron learning algorithm can be described as follows:

For any $\mathbf{x}(k)$, at step k :

1. If $\mathbf{x}(k) \in \text{class}_1$ and $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} \leq 0$, let

$$\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + \alpha \mathbf{x}(k) \quad (3.4)$$

2. If $\mathbf{x}(k) \in \text{class}_2$ and $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} \geq 0$, let

$$\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) - \alpha \mathbf{x}(k) \quad (3.5)$$

3. Otherwise, let

$$\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) \quad (3.6)$$

where $\mathbf{w}(1)$ is arbitrary and $\alpha > 0$ is a constant called learning rate. Sum of the products, $\sum_{k=1}^n w_k x_k + w_{n+1}$ is then passed through an activation function. In case of perceptron it is a threshold function returning either 1, when \mathbf{x} belongs to class_1 ,

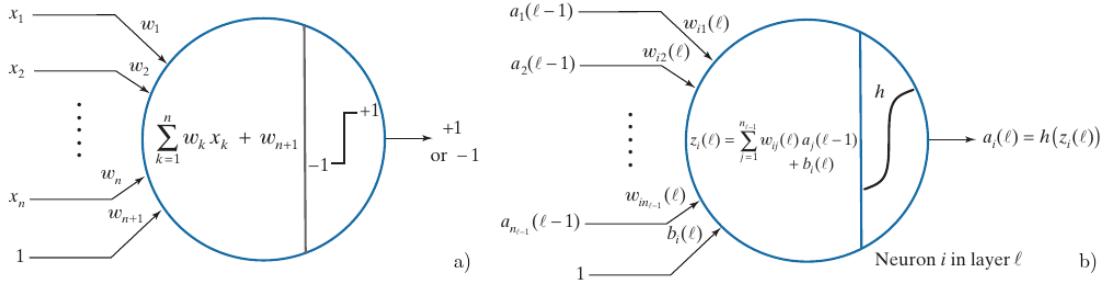


Figure 3.1: Model of a perceptron unit (a), model of an artificial neuron (b) with used operations. The letter h denotes an activation function, l denotes a particular layer in a multilayer network. The element on the right is sometimes called a sigmoid neuron.[11]

or -1 when it belongs to the second class $class_2$. In Figure 3.1.a. is shown a model of a perceptron.[26]

Linearly separable data are rather rare in real life problems. One possibilities is to use more perceptron units, however, the solution comes with neural networks and computing elements called artificial neurons. These elements are similar to perceptrons as they perform the same computations, but have a different attitude to processing the results. Schematics of a perceptron unit and an artificial neuron can be compared in figure 3.1. The perceptron activation function is very insensitive to small signals which can lead to false results. If the activation function is changed from a hard threshold to smooth function, results are then handled more carefully. There are few commonly used smooth activation functions, such as sigmoid, hyperbolic tangent or ReLu (rectifier linear unit) function. In Figure 3.2 are the equations and shapes of the mentioned functions.[11]

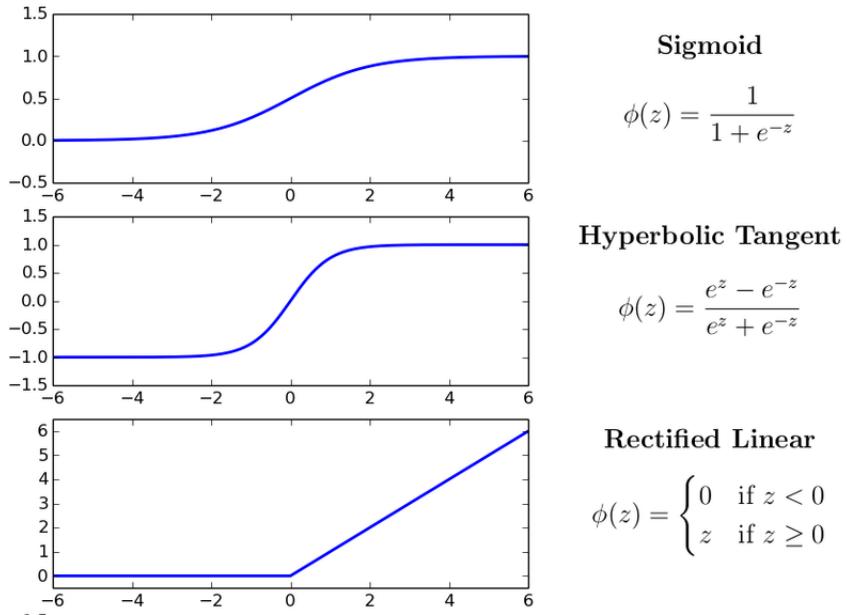


Figure 3.2: Commonly used activation functions in neural networks.[13, altered]

A generic neural network is depicted in Figure 3.3. By layer we understand a group of neurons, usually symbolized in a column. First layer contains the input vector \mathbf{x} , then every other layer contains the activation values of neurons in this layer. The connecting lines between each two neurons signifies a fully connected neural network, where output of every neuron from one layer is used as input for neurons in the following layer. Values of initial layer are known and also are the last output values, all neurons (and layers) between first and last layer are therefore called hidden. When there are more than one hidden layer we talk about deep neural network. Usually the number of output neurons is equal to the number of observed classes. For the rest of this chapter we will assume that there are no loops in the network.[11]

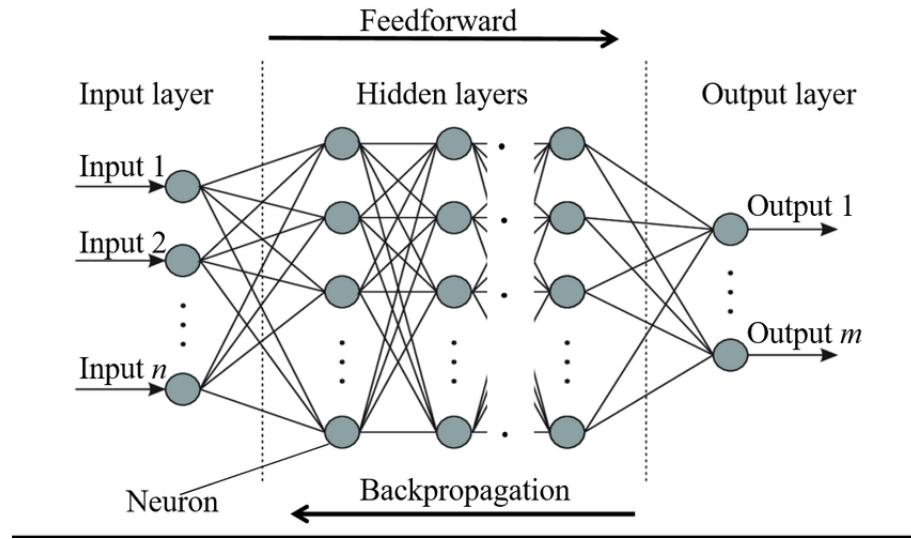


Figure 3.3: Fully connected neural network with processes.[1]

A forward pass through neural network maps the values of vector \mathbf{x} (the input layer) to the output layer, thus to determine the class of the vector \mathbf{x} . Steps of a forward pass can be written in matrix notation. This approach is good for computing simultaneously with multiple input vectors and all neurons in one layer. The forward pass can be described in three steps:

1. Input

$$\mathbf{A}(1) = \mathbf{X} \quad (3.7)$$

2. Feedforward step

$$\text{For } l = 2, \dots, L \quad \mathbf{Z}(l) = \mathbf{W}(l)\mathbf{A}(l-1) + \mathbf{B}(l), \quad \mathbf{A}(l) = h(\mathbf{Z}(l)) \quad (3.8)$$

3. Output

$$\mathbf{A}(L) = h(\mathbf{Z}(L)) \quad (3.9)$$

Matrix $\mathbf{W}(l)$ contains all weight vectors of all nodes in one layer l , \mathbf{X} contains input vectors, $\mathbf{A}(l)$ contains output values from layer l , \mathbf{B} is the matrix of biases,

$\mathbf{Z}(l)$ contains the net inputs to neurons in layer l , h is an activation function. This process of predicting works when we know the right values of weights and biases. These can be obtained by training a neural network via backpropagation.[11]

During training of neural network we work with data where it is known for each sample to which class it belongs. This means that we know the values of all output neurons in the net. However, we do not know the values of outputs of hidden neurons. A process called backpropagation is used to obtain information about hidden neurons. It can be divided into four steps. These steps are repeated until the value of cost function is reduced to a desired level. One repetition is called an epoch, thus the number of iterations is the number of epochs used for training the network.[11]

1. Input of data from training set.

$$\mathbf{A}(1) = \mathbf{X} \quad (3.10)$$

2. A forward pass to classify the data into class and determine the error of misidentified classes (sometimes this error function is called cost function) based on ground truth from the training data.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } l = 2, \dots, L \quad & \mathbf{Z}(l) = \mathbf{W}(l)\mathbf{A}(l-1) + \mathbf{B}(l), \\ & \mathbf{A}(l) = h(\mathbf{Z}(l)), \\ & \mathbf{D}(L) = (\mathbf{A}(L) - \mathbf{R}) \odot h'(\mathbf{Z}(L)) \end{aligned} \quad (3.11)$$

3. A backward pass that sends the output error back through the network, where changes to update neuron parameters are computed.

$$\text{For } l = L-1, L-2, \dots, 2 \quad \mathbf{D}(l) = (\mathbf{W}^\top(l+1)\mathbf{D}(l+1) \odot h'(\mathbf{Z}(l))) \quad (3.12)$$

4. An update of weights and biases of neurons.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } l = 2, \dots, L \quad & \mathbf{W}(l) = \mathbf{W}(l) - \alpha \mathbf{D}(l) \mathbf{A}^t(l-1), \\ & \mathbf{b}(l) = \mathbf{b}(l) - \alpha \sum_{k=1}^{n_p} \delta_k(l), \\ & \mathbf{D}(L) = (\mathbf{A}(L) - \mathbf{R}) \odot h'(\mathbf{Z}(L)), \\ & \mathbf{B}(l) \text{ consist of horizontally stacked vectors } \mathbf{b}(l) \\ & \text{for } n_p \text{ times,} \\ & \boldsymbol{\delta}_k(l) \text{ are the columns of matrix } \mathbf{D}(l), \end{aligned} \quad (3.13)$$

where $\mathbf{W}(l)$ is the matrix of weights of all nodes in one layer l for the inputs from \mathbf{X} , which contains multiple input vectors, $\mathbf{A}(l)$ contains output activation values from layer l , \mathbf{B} are the biases, $\mathbf{Z}(l)$ contains the net inputs to neurons in layer l , $\boldsymbol{\delta}(l)$ tells us the rate of error change with respect to a change in the net input to any neuron in the network $\delta_k(l) =$, α is the learning rate used in training, h is an activation

function. $\mathbf{W}(1)$ and $\mathbf{B}(1)$ are set as random small numbers when initializing the process.[11]

The error function for all output neurons for a single input \mathbf{x} is defined as

$$E = \sum_{j=1}^{n_L} E_j = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_L} (r_j - a_j(L))^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{a}(L)\|^2 \quad (3.14)$$

where \mathbf{r} is a desired response for a given input \mathbf{x} , $\mathbf{a}(L)$ is the output of last layer in the network, in the last term is used the notation of the Euclidean vector norm. The error for all input vectors¹ is equal to the sum of the individual errors.[11]

3.1 Convolutional Neural Networks

The procedures described in the previous part dealt only with the case where the input data are in the form of a vector. In optical character recognition we work with image data that are not primarily represented as vector but as a matrix of pixel values. The matrix can be linearized from 2D to 1D when indices are mapped gradually. However, this approach does not consider spatial relationships that may be present among specific pixels. For example edge or color similarities which are significant in text detection. Convolutional neural network (CNN) accepts 2D matrix as input and extracts features from the given image, these features are then fed to a classic fully connected neural network. A diagram describing a simple CNN is in Figure 3.4. We will discuss individual steps visible in this figure below.[11]

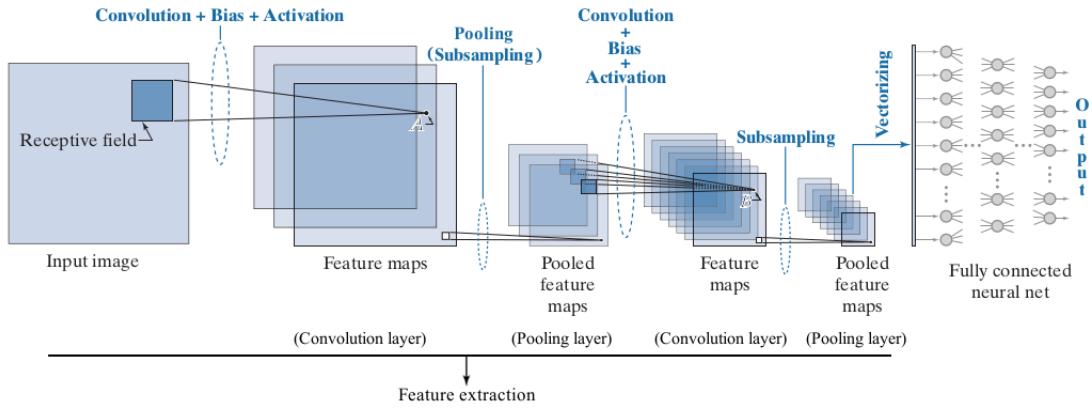


Figure 3.4: A simple CNN with LeNet architecture.[11, altered]

First, a region of pixels of the input image, a receptive field, is selected. This field is moved over the image with a certain step. At each position a convolution is performed and values are stored in a 2D matrix. The size of the step determines the size of the resulting matrix (for example step of size two reduces the resolution of the image by one half). A mathematical definition of convolution operation is written in Definition 1. To each value obtained by convolution a bias is added and then

¹a total network output error

is passed through an activation function. The new matrix thus obtained is called feature map. A single feature map is generated with same weights in convolution kernel and same bias, because this way a same feature is detected through the image. For another feature map different weight and bias is used. A group of feature maps in a CNN are called a convolutional layer. After the convolution step pooling is performed (sometimes called subsampling).[11]

Definition 1 Let $f(x, y)$ be in image and w a kernel of size $m \times n$. Convolution with kernel w is denoted as $(w \star f)$ and defined as

$$(w \star f)(x, y) = \sum_{u=-k}^k \sum_{v=-l}^l w(u, v)f(x - u, y - v). \quad (3.15)$$

Pooling is responsible for reduction of output dimension and causes a translational invariance. It is done by dividing a feature map into 2×2 adjacent (non-overlapping) regions, the four values in this region are replaced by only one value. Common pooling methods are: average pooling, the values in region are replaced by the average of the values; max pooling, the values are replaced by the maximal value from the region; L_2 pooling, the final value is obtained by computing the Euclidean norm of the four values. We obtain one matrix for each feature map from the convolution step. The bunch of matrices from the pooling step is called a pooling layer. The result of the last pooling layer is vectorized and sent to the fully connected neural network. The training procedure of the CNN is analogical to the training of a fully connected neural network. However, convolution is used instead of matrix multiplication and the output from fully connected network has to be converted into 2D matrix.[11]

VGG16 is an example of a CNN used in OCR. The basic configuration consists of 16 weight layers and uses a 3×3 receptive field for convolution. The output dimension is reduced by max pooling.[35]

3.2 Recurrent Neural Networks

Recurrent neural networks (RNN) same as feedforward networks has an input, hidden and output layer. Unlike the classic networks RNNs share parameters (weights and biases) across each layer of the network and they remember results of computations. This approach is very useful in contextual tasks such as language problems (speech and written text recognition) where the position of a word in a sentence and surrounding words can help predict text.

During training of RNN errors from output to input layer are calculated but unlike in standard backpropagation the errors are summed up because of the shared parameters. This process makes RNNs prone to two problems called exploding and vanishing gradients. The former one happens when gradients are large and by summing they enlarge too much to be represented as undefined (NaN) value, which leads

to instability of the model. The latter refers to the case when gradients are contrarily too small, they continue to decrease and the weights become insignificant.[9]

Long short-term memory

Long short-term memory (LSTM) is a type of RNN. It contains so-called memory blocks, which are memory blocks (cells) located in the hidden recurrent layer. Each memory block contains three gates – input, output and forget gate. The input one controls the flow of information in to the cell. The output gate controls what information is to be passed to the rest of the network. The forget gate was added later and it manages the amount of information stored in cell before new information is received. Generally the cell input and cell output activation functions is tanh and the network activation function is softmax. A scheme of LSTM is in Figure 3.5.[29]

LSTM network has some variations. It is possible to stack LSTM layers on top of each other between the input and output layer and create a deep LSTM. Another type is a bidirectional LSTM (BLSTM) which differs from normal LSTM that it remembers not only information from the past but also from the future (e. g. when the model wants to predict a word in a sentence, it knows all the words behind the currently predicted word and also all the following words). It enables better usage of contextual information which is crucial in language processing.[29, 40]

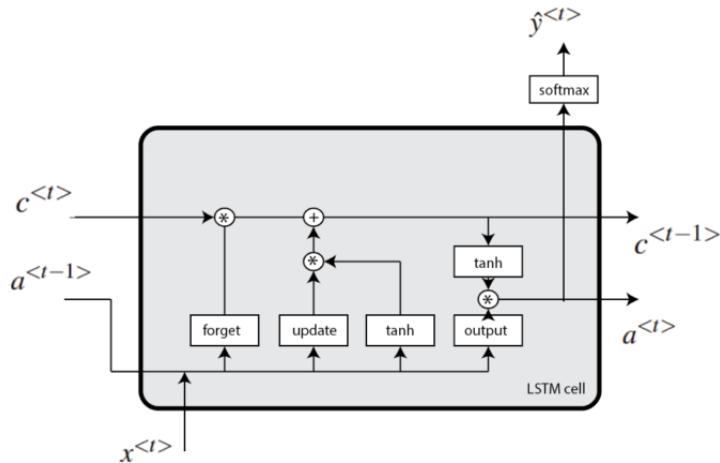


Figure 3.5: Scheme of a LSTM recurrent neural network.[40]

3.3 Convolutional Recurrent Neural Networks

Convolutional recurrent neural network is a type of a neural network designed for the purposes of image object recognition. It was introduced by Shi and al. [30] in the year 2015. It combines the advantages of a deep CNN and RNN. It reads directly features from image data without prior feature extraction or image preprocessing such as binarization as CNN does. It produces a sequence of labels as RNN. Further it has no restriction on the length of an object (texts are rather long and flat), it

can learn from words so there is no need to segment text to individual characters. CRNN also has a smaller amount of parameters than a deep CNN thus it requires less storage space.[30]

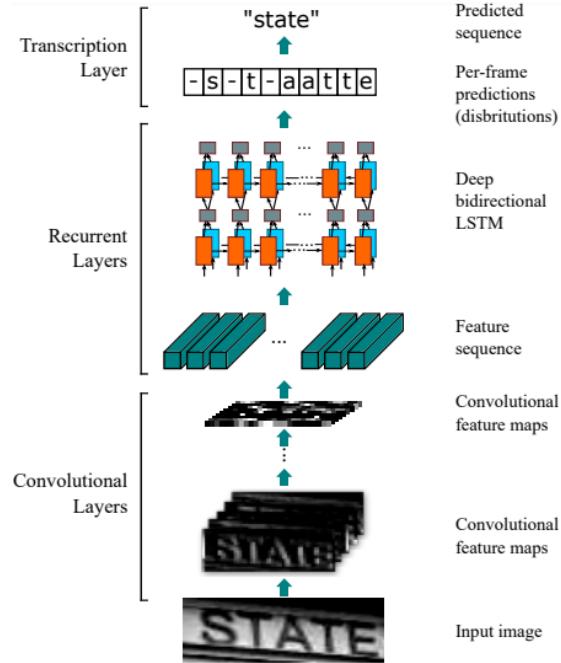


Figure 3.6: An architecture of CRNN for recognizing objects in images.[30]

First CNN with max pooling extracts features directly from the image input. The convolutional layers are followed by recurrent ones, which take the frame output of CNN and predict labels for each frame, then a transcription layer translates the segmented labels into a continuous text. This architecture is visible in Figure 3.6.

The images, that are to be recognized, are scaled to the same height and then feature map is obtained by CNN. Feature vectors are extracted from each column of the feature map, so a vector covers a rectangle area of the input image. This are is called a receptive field. CRNN uses then a deep bidirectional LSTM network to predict labels. During transcription the model picks the label of a frame which has the highest probability. This can be made either with a help of a lexicon or without it.[30]

Chapter 4

OCR tools

OCR software can be divided in four main types by its functionality - text detector, text recognizer and full OCR engine. The last one can either be an end-to-end system, which does both detection and recognition together which means that these two processes influence each other, or a tool that combines a separate detector and recognizer. For an end user who needs to convert text from an image into a computer readable format. The supply of such tools is wide, ranging from open source libraries for various programming languages to commercial softwares with modern GUI. New methods are still being developed as there is always space for improvement. New methods can come from commercial background or are developed for international OCR competitions. In the next sections a selection of the free available tools is described.

4.1 CRAFT

Character Region Awareness for Text Detection (CRAFT) is framework for scene text detection introduced by Clova AI research group. It uses a Convolutional Neural Network. It performs well also on curved or differently deformed texts. Its methodology is to localize individual characters then characters belonging to the same word (based on distance) can be connected into word box or polygon. After that bounding box is created around it and output contains the rectangle coordinates.[4]

CRAFT uses a fully convolutional neural network based on VGG-16. The network returns two values – an affinity and region score. "The region score represents the probability that the given pixel is the center of the character and the affinity score represents the center probability of the space between adjacent characters" [4, page 3]. Because CRAFT detect individual characters it was necessary for the authors to create ground truth with bounding boxes for each character. Both scores, thus the probabilities they represent, are encoded with a Gaussian heatmap which is often used were ground truth regions are not strictly bounded. The model was trained on a synthetic dataset SynthText for 50k iterations, further weakly-supervised training was performed on ICDAR datasets.[4]

This method has similarly successful performance as other state-of-the-art methods and in last years it is often used as a detection tool in systems that recognize text from unsegmented images. There exists an official Pytorch implementation of CRAFT for python which can be cloned from Clova AI GitHub repository¹, however it is not a python package. A package for python of CRAFT detector exists under the name `craft-text-detector`.

4.1.1 Tesseract

Tesseract is an open source text recognition engine. It supports over 160 languages can be trained to recognize new ones. Originally Tesseract was created by Hewlett-Packard in late 1980s, from 2006 it is developed and maintained by Google. As it does not have a built-in GUI direct use is via command line. However, there exist a significant number of GUIs for Linux, Windows, Mac for computer usage and also for Android and iOS to use on mobile phones and few online OCR services. Another way how to use the engine is via libraries for computer languages, namely for example they exist for Java called tess4j, python called pytesseract, R, Ruby and others. [34]

Tesseract is mainly used as tool for recognizing documents (with both computer font text or handwritten text). Best results are obtained on preprocessed images. The preprocessing includes noise reduction, horizontal alignment of text, elimination of dark borders around text region, conversion to binary black and white picture and other adjustments depending on the nature of the picture. The ideal image for Tesseract is a legible, typed, black text on plain white. Thus when used on scene text images it gives generally worse results than other OCR softwares.

Computations with Tesseract are supported for GPU and also CPU. Since version 4, that was announced in 2018, Tesseract uses for recognition Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) model (kind of RNN). A simple pipeline of Tesseract is in Figure 4.1. First a binary image is created from the input one, then characters are found with the connected components algorithm. Joined characters are then chopped and broken ones are connected, now each character should be separate. Then characters are recognized and further joined into words. The words are verified in a lexicon and a word with the smallest distance is selected.[31]

By default Tesseract expects a page of text – black letters on white background grouped in horizontal lines, where font type and font size vary only slightly. To deal with differently distributed text over an image Tesseract provides thirteen page segmentation models (PSM). When selecting the right model Tesseract performance can increase from zero up to almost perfect results. Description of all the PSMs can be find directly via Tesseract help command in console application. Thanks to the various PSM Tesseract works also as a detection tool but often happens that during a search for text in scene images it mistakes objects and structures for text. Such example can be seen in Figure 4.2. Besides the PSM parameter user can set also

¹<https://github.com/clovaai/CRAFT-pytorch>

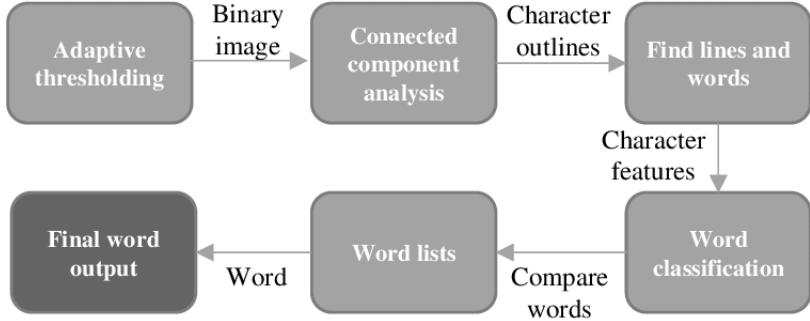


Figure 4.1: Pipeline architecture of Tesseract OCR engine. [10]

OCR engine modes (OEM). There are four settings differing in whether a LSTM network should be used.

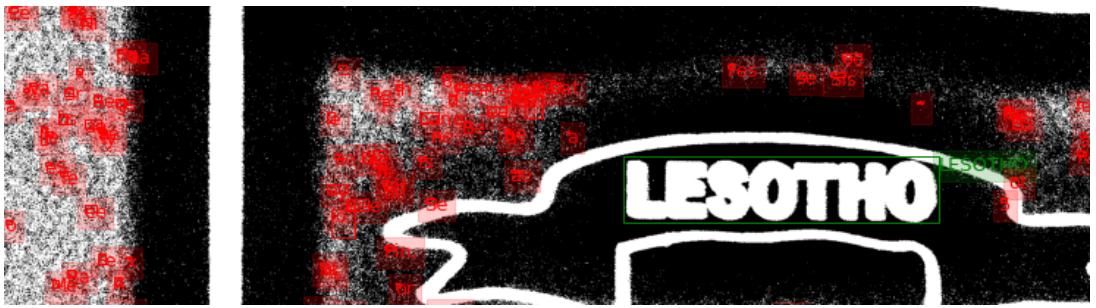


Figure 4.2: Tesseract mistakes background texture for text. Red rectangles and characters denotes predicted words. Part of an preprocessed image from CTW1500 dataset.

4.1.2 EasyOCR

EasyOCR is a product of Jaded AI for both image text detection and recognition. it supports over 80 languages and various scripts such as Latin, Chinese, Arabic etc. The company offers software with web interface for free and also prepaid version which enables usage of a new model for custom data. However, in addition to the web interface, the company also created a python package under the same name.[2]

The product is still in development and aims for wider functionality. A future idea of EasyOCR package is to provide an easy-to-use tool where one can plug-in already created state-of-the-art models and use them for annotating. Pipeline of EasyOCR behavior is shown in the image 4.3. As it can be seen in this image, default detection model is CRAFT and for recognition is used CRNN (Convolutional Recurrent Neural Network)². The implementation of this network is composed of following components: feature extraction (Resnet is used) and VGG (Convolutional Neural Network), sequence labeling (BLSTM is used) and decoding (CTC is used).[3]

²The description of this network is in Chapter 3.3.

EasyOCR package by default computes annotation on GPU, however there is a possibility for CPU computations (provided that the selected model supports it).

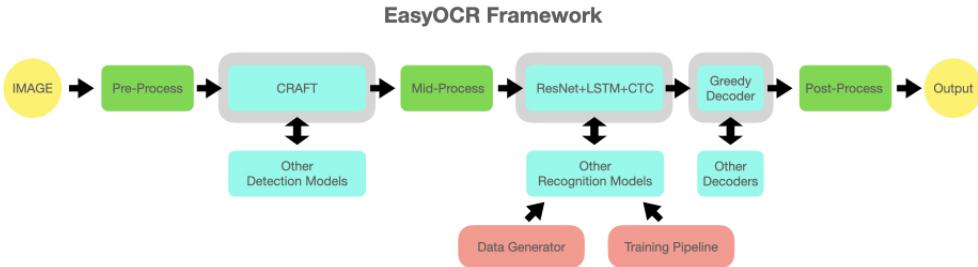


Figure 4.3: Diagram of EasyOCR pipeline. Grey slots are placeholders for models. The mentioned models are the ones used as default. [3]

4.1.3 Keras-ocr

keras-ocr is a python library used for detecting and recognizing text in images created by Fausto Morales. It works with variety of languages and with different writing scripts. It allows computing on CPU as well as on GPU. It unites the CRAFT text detection model and an implementation in Keras python library of CRNN for recognizing text, worth mentioning this is a different implementation of CRNN than in EasyOCR.[17]

On the official website³ of the package there is a comparison of this method with two other OCR APIs – Google Cloud Vision and AWS Rekognition. Their performance was tested on 1,000 images from the COCO-Text validation set using a basic pre-trained model of each method. None of the investigated methods performed poorly; however, AWS Rekognition had the worst precision and recall results. Google’s method and keras-ocr has similar results. It is important to mention that no tuning parameters were used in any of these methods. Another candidate for comparison was Tesseract but it performed on very badly on given data, most likely due to the fact that Tesseract is suitable for scanned documents rather than for photos of real life scenery and objects with text. [17]

CRAFT already provides a pretrained model which can be used directly without modification for text detection or it is used as initial model for training a new model on new data. This model was trained on three datasets (SynthText, IC13, IC17) and supports English and multi language text detection.[27] Similarly for recognition, CRNN also has a pretrained model. This model was trained on the synthetic word dataset which consists of 9 million images with vocabulary of 90K English words.[?] To use these models in the keras-ocr library one either doesn’t specify anything and use the defaults, or pass the value `clovaai-general` for the CRAFT pretrained model or `kurapan` for the CRNN model.

³<https://pypi.org/project/keras-ocr/>

Keras-ocr offers preprocessing for four public datasets though any text image dataset can be examined using this tool. These four datasets are: BornDigital dataset, COCO-Text dataset, ICDAR 2013 dataset, ICDAR 2019 dataset (only Latin-only scripts).[16]

4.1.4 Google Cloud Vision

Google Cloud Vision is software from Google which consist of two products: AutoML Vision and Vision API. Vision API detects objects, faces and text from images with already pretrained model. With AutoML Vision user can train custom model from own data. It has free and paid version with a GUI.[36] API for python

Chapter 5

Experiments

I wrote all testing scripts and auxiliary functions in Python programming language. The scripts were written as Jupyter Notebook environment and saved in the corresponding file format `.ipynb`, lately these notebooks were saved as `.py` Python scripts. The set of utility functions is located in a file called `utils.py`. All experiments were run within Google Colaboratory¹ which provides a 12 GB RAM and a GPU Nvidia K80 with 12 GB memory.

In the experiments I chose three methods to be tested, namely, Tesseract, EasyOCR and keras-ocr. Each of them has corresponding Python package. For Tesseract I tried two approaches, one with pure Tesseract and another with CRAFT detection tool followed by Tesseract recognizer. I used four datasets that are described below in the following section. The three freely available datasets were chosen as representatives of OCR datasets.

5.1 Datasets

5.1.1 SCUT-CTW1500 dataset

SCUT-CTW1500 dataset contains exactly 1500 images of real-world, scene text in English language. Sample images can be seen in Figure 5.1. The key feature of this dataset is that each image contains horizontally aligned text, multioriented text and curved text. There are cases where the curvature is only slight and cases where text forms a circle with letter upside down. Recognizing multi-oriented and curved text is more of a challenge than pure horizontal text. This dataset is split to train and test data. Two thirds of dataset thus one thousand images for training and five hundred for testing. According to the description of this dataset on relevant GitHub repository dataset was manually labeled and lately corrected, therefore labels seem

¹Google Colaboratory (Colab for short) is a product from Google Research. It allows Google users to write and execute python code within a web browser using a remote computer and its computing power. In the free version of Colab the computational resources are limited and vary over time due to the demands of other users. The product is available at <https://colab.research.google.com/>.

to be very accurate. However for example ground truth for image 1313.jpg misses all occurrences of letter I, as the depicted font was probably misread.[38, 22]

The ground truth for train data are in XML format and each file carries information about the file name of respective image file, text information – i.e., words in a text line, 14 coordinates of a bounding polygon and coordinates, height and width of a circumscribed rectangle. Later the authors added coordinates of center point of each English letter to be used as detection ground truth. The ground truth of test data is in simple text file (TXT) and contains only 14 coordinates of the bounding polygon and a text which is within that region. There is a minor issue with labels that it usually contains a full text line with multiple words and coordinates are not assigned to individual words but to text region as whole. Most end-to-end system detect words rather than groups of corresponding words. This fact needs to be taken into account when evaluating results.



Figure 5.1: Sample images of SCUT-CTW1500 dataset.

5.1.2 KAIST Scene Text Database

This dataset contains 3000 images of photographed text. It can be divided into three major categories – text of Korean language, English language and mixed languages. As I concentrate on text in latin script in this paper further information relates to the English language dataset. The number of images is then reduced to less than four hundred images. Figure 5.2 shows few samples of this dataset. Photographed objects are mostly shop banners or parts of magazine front pages. Photographs were either taken by a high-resolution digital camera or a low-resolution mobile phone camera.[15] Each photography has a ground truth description and a bitmap image. In the bitmap file only text is highlighted (by white or red color) and everything else apart from text is set as black. Ground truth files are in XML format and includes a name of an image, its resolution and bounding box for each word and also a bounding box for each letter of the word.

To use this dataset for testing and training the XML ground truth needed to be converted to string and int values. I wrote a parser, that combines letters to form

a word that is within a given bounding box. I changed the notation of bounding boxes from one coordinate, width and height attributes to two top left and bottom right coordinates. The name of the parsing function is `read_gt_kaist`.

Unfortunately this dataset has few errors in filenames of corresponding files or in the content of XML files. Usually these are only typos, however they prevent automatic preprocessing of dataset. Due to this problem these mistakes need to be found and manually corrected. Also there is a small number of ground truth XML file with fully missing data. Despite these shortcomings this dataset is useful because of the bitmap files. This allows to compare results of both images affected by shooting conditions and images dependent only on font and position.



Figure 5.2: Sample images of KAIST Scene Text Database dataset.

5.1.3 Born-Digital Images

Born-Digital Images contains data of images with text that can be found on various websites. Samples of this dataset can be found in Figure 5.3. There are mostly advertisements, company logos or website headers. Such pictures cannot be classified neither as real scene dataset, neither as synthetic one. On one hand this dataset shares with scene datasets the variability in font styles and sizes, different text orientations and complex colour placement. On the other hand it differs in size because low resolution is significant in smooth and fast loading on websites. Also no noise is present due to lighting conditions. Geometrical deformations that result when capturing a real scene with camera also do not appear here. However compression to lower resolution can lead to artifacts and aliasing. In general we can say that letters are more clearly visible than in photographed text as easy readability is crucial in successful advertising.[8]

The dataset is available for download from the website of Robust Reading Competition. First version was published in 2011 and revised two years later, it contains separate dataset for text localization, segmentation and then for word recognition. In 2015 they published an end-to-end dataset with ground truth for all tasks. The dataset is split in training and testing data. However, ground truth for testing data

contains only a possible vocabulary of words in images and no coordinates. This might be due to the fact that the competition might be still ongoing or there was not a sufficient demand for complete ground truth. As for training data, each image has a corresponding TXT file with coordinates of four vertices of bounding rectangle and a word. Text lines are separated and the text within rectangle is always one word. Extracting ground truth is done in the function `read_gt_bd` and unlike preceding datasets there was no parsing needed, only read the desired values from a file. Unfortunately, there are quite a few missing words, usually words that have two or less characters. This can affect the evaluation when the model finds such a short, missing word.[8]



Figure 5.3: Sample images of Born-Digital Images dataset.

5.1.4 Vienna City Poster Dataset

The Vienna City Library possesses a collection of 350,000 poster images.

5.2 Results

I have split the experiments by the four datasets and made comparisons. Prediction methods were examined with a different setting of parameters where possible.

The pipeline of each testing script is as follows.

1. Installation of packages that are not in the default Google Colab setting.
2. Importing dependencies for the project including custom utility functions from `utils.py`.
3. Google Drive of the user that runs Google Colab is mounted. (Authentication is needed)
4. Image files and ground truth files are loaded. Ground truth is converted from files to tuple of string and integer coordinates.

5. If desired a short preprocessing of images is done (grayscale, Otsu thresholding).
6. Setup of parameters for OCR.
7. Model loading.
8. Prediction.
9. Conversion of prediction to a unified format (List of tuples of string and integer coordinates for each image, then joined to a list, which contains prediction for all images.)
10. Computation of evaluation metrics IOU an CER.
11. Saving and visualizing results.

Next I will shortly described possible setups of each of the three methods I used in the experiments. It will be followed by discussion of the results of test divided into sections by the four datasets.

EasyOCR

I used the version 1.5.0 of the EasyOCR python package. The experiments were run using a GPU. I used two different settings for EasyOCR engine – the basic one which tends to detect and recognize text as single word objects and the second setting merges close words together creating text lines of words that belong together.

Keras-OCR

The keras_ocr-0.9.1 package for Python was used in experiments. It was necessary to compute the predictions on GPU, due to the limited GPU on Google Colab and the size of the images needed to be processed one by one although Keras allows to process images in batches. Keras-OCR predictions are case insensitive, because the default model does not support uppercase letters. I trained the Keras recognition model on SCUT-CTW1500 dataset (on the one thousand training images), first I trained the default model with lower case alphabet, then with the same alphabet and a space character and finally with uppercase letters and a set of special characters. In the results discussion it will be shown that after training the model does not offer better results than the original model. The original model is already very successful and was well trained on much larger datasets.

Each of the training took about an hour on Google Colab GPU. I set 100 epochs and an early stopping based on the value of validation loss. The validation data were taken from the train data as 20% of the whole training part. First I used early stopping after 10 non decreasing values, then after 30, but in both cases the model could not get any better than 14% validation loss.

Tesseract

The version of Tesseract installed on Google Colab is tesseract 4.0.0-beta.1 with leptonica-1.75.3, which means that the LSTM network is available. For testing I used the OCR Engine mode (OEM) 3, that is Legacy + LSTM engines. As for Page segmentation modes (PSM) I used numbers 3, 4, 6, 8 and 11, which are "Fully automatic page segmentation, but no OSD. (Default)", "Assume a single column of text of variable sizes.", "Assume a single uniform block of text.", "Treat the image as a single word." and "Sparse text. Find as much text as possible in no particular order." respectively. I used PSM 3 only initially and dropped it because prediction was strongly inefficient, so it is not included in result statistics. PSM 8 was used for testing Tesseract with CRAFT, because CRAFT crops an image into segments where there is only one word (or a short text line), therefore Tesseract needed to treat the image as a single word. The rest of mentioned PSMs were applied for examining the behavior of pure Tesseract engine.

Born-Digital

First, the Born-Digital Images dataset was tested with images in predictions and ground truth were set to be in lowercase and all special characters except for space were removed. There were 13 different testing runs with three tested methods. In Figure 5.4 are the results of this testing and in Table 5.1 is corresponding information about each run.

The best CER value was achieved by tuned EasyOCR engine, where no split was done on predicted text (letter D in Fig. 5.4). We can see from the graph and table, that EasyOCR and keras-OCR had significantly better results than Tesseract. Also it can be said that tuning of EasyOCR model results in higher both IOU and CER of approximately 20% more than with basic EasyOCR setup of parameters. Keras-OCR performs similarly with split and no split option and in both cases gives satisfactory results.

When we compare Tesseract with its own detection model and Tesseract with CRAFT tool, we can see that CRAFT increases the CER metric by more than 12%, however the IOU metric fluctuates for all cases around 50%. Whether the image is in RGB color scheme or in grayscale has only a little impact on the results, generally it differed only by about 2%. Same minor difference is when split or no split option is set. If the Otsu thresholding was performed and the image was then binarized, results were worse than when Tesseract itself performs the binarization. Better results were when PSM tesseract parameter was set to 11 rather than PSM 4.

Next I performed tests with case sensitive option and with special characters included.

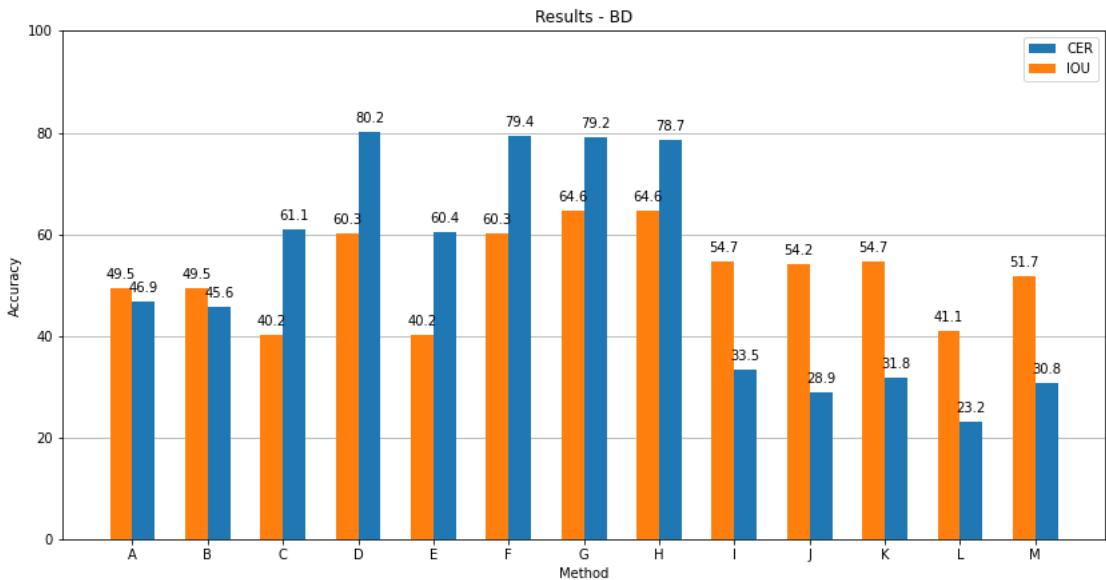


Figure 5.4: Results of experiments performed on Born-Digital Images dataset. Information about each method is in Table 5.1.

Key	Method	Properties
A	tesseract+CRAFT	no split, psm8
B	tesseract+CRAFT	split, psm8
C	easyOCR	no split, no tuning
D	easyOCR	no split, tuning
E	easyOCR	split, no tuning
F	easyOCR	split, tuning
G	keras-OCR	no split
H	keras-OCR	split
I	tesseract	colored, no split, psm11
J	tesseract	binary, split, psm11
K	tesseract	colored, split, psm11
L	tesseract	binary, split, psm4
M	tesseract	colored, split, psm4

Table 5.1: A table of keys for methods and parameters of experiments performed on Born-Digital Images dataset for Figure 5.4.

SCUT-CTW1500 dataset

The SCUT-CTW1500 dataset was again first tested with predictions and ground truth were set to be in lowercase and all special characters except for space were removed. 14 different testing were run. In Figure 5.5 are the results of the testing and the corresponding information about each run is in Table 5.2.

This time the best CER value (76.4%) was achieved by keras-OCR model, where split was performed on predicted text (letter H in Fig. 5.5). It can be seen from the graph and table, that EasyOCR and keras-OCR had again significantly better results than Tesseract. In testing of CTW1500 dataset this time keras-OCR generally performed better than EasyOCR in CER metric by roughly 10%. The tuning of EasyOCR model results in lower both IOU and CER of approximately 2% less than with basic EasyOCR setup of parameters. This might be probably due to the fact that EasyOCR model was trained on data similar to CTW1500 dataset rather than Born-Digital Images dataset Keras-OCR performs similarly with split and no split option and in both cases gives satisfactory results.

The Comparison of Tesseract with its own detection model and Tesseract with CRAFT tool shows that with CRAFT the CER metric increased by almost than 20% as well as the IOU metric that increased by more than 30%. Plain Tesseract results are again the worst and are not heavily influenced by color scheme or slight scaling changes.

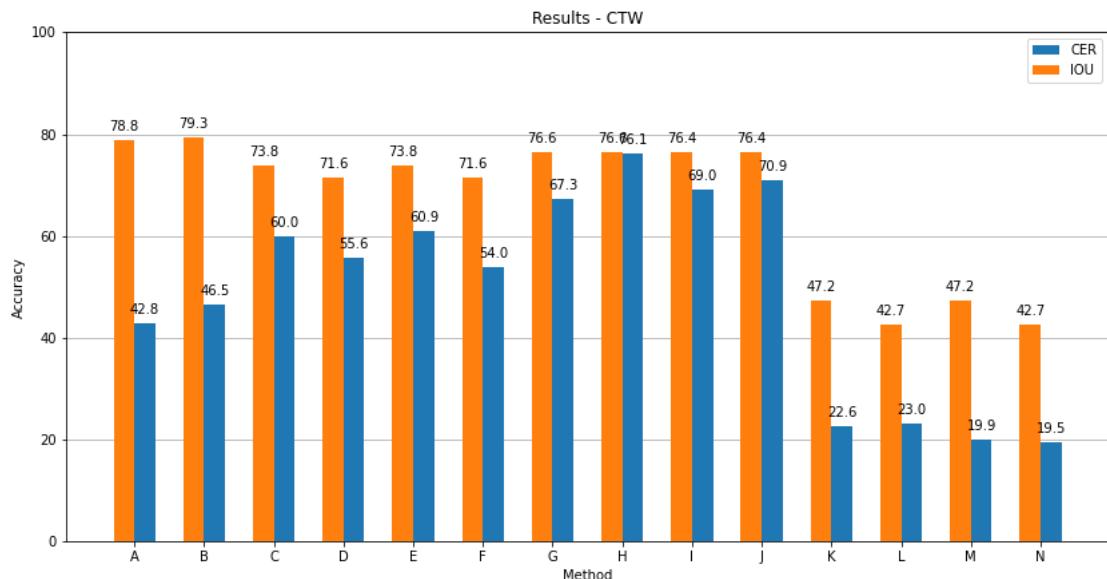


Figure 5.5: Results of experiments performed on CTW dataset. Information about each method is in Table 5.2.

KAIST Scene Text Database

Testing of performance of the three methods on KAIST dataset with case insensitivity and no special characters was done in 22 different runs. Eight of them were on KAIST bitmap images, as these images do not have a misleading background the results are significantly better than on original photographs. The results can be seen in Figure 5.6 and the corresponding information is in Table 5.3. The best results on the bitmap images part of KAIST dataset were performed by EasyOCR dataset with no splitting and CER value is 82.2% high (letter B in Fig. 5.6). This method

Key	Method	Properties
A	tesseract+CRAFT	no split
B	tesseract+CRAFT	split
C	easyOCR	nosplit, notuning
D	easyOCR	no split, tuning
E	easyOCR	split, notuning
F	easyOCR	split, tuning
G	keras-OCR	original image width, no split
H	keras-OCR	original image width, split
I	keras-OCR	original image width, split, trained spaces
J	keras-OCR	original image width, split, trained
K	tesseract	3000px image width, no split
L	tesseract	color, no split, psm11
M	tesseract	split, psm11
N	tesseract	color, split, psm11

Table 5.2: A table of keys for methods and parameters of experiments performed on SCUT-CTW1500 dataset for Figure 5.5.

with the same setup is also best with KAIST dataset unedited photographs. Due to the character of the dataset for all cases the no split option is distinctly better.

Keras-OCR had slightly lower values of CER than EasyOCR and IOU values are even lower by generally 15%. Still it is by 20% higher than results of plain Tesseract and comparable with Tesseract and CRAFT combination. Tesseract had this time best but still way too low results with PSM 6. PSM 4 led to CER value as low as 18%. Color scheme did not have a distinguishable impact on the results.

Case sensitivity

when default model is used and special characters and case sensitivity of ground truth labels is observed CER accuracy reaches only less than thirty percent.

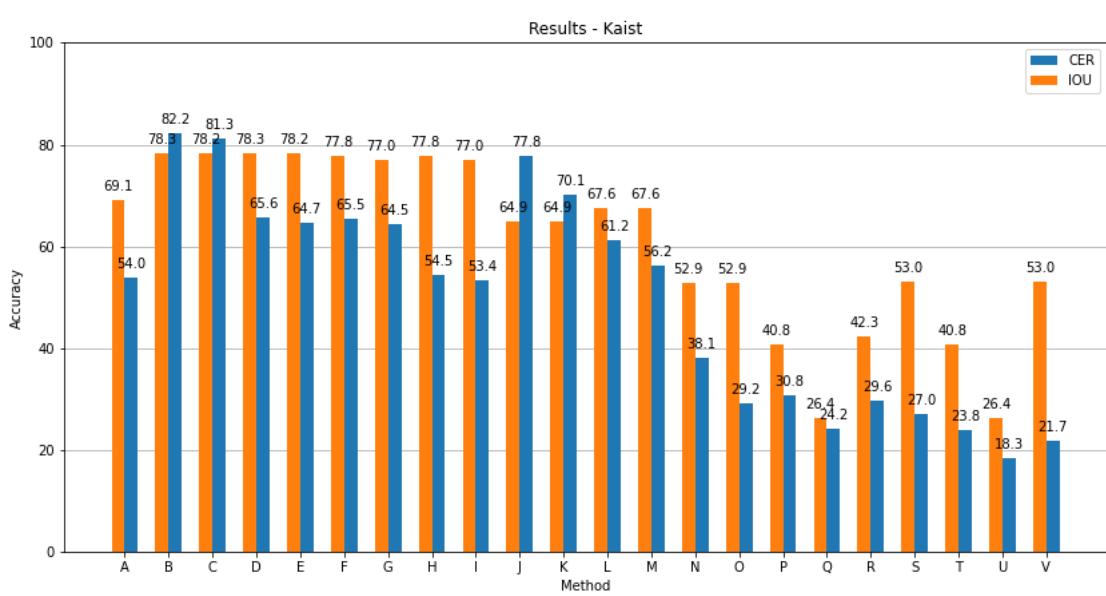


Figure 5.6: Results of experiments performed on KAIST Scene Text Database. Information about each method is in Table 5.3.

Key	Method	Properties
A	tesseract+CRAFT	no split
B	easyOCR	bmp, no split, no tuning
C	easyOCR	bmp, no split, tuning
D	easyOCR	bmp, split, no tuning
E	easyOCR	bmp, split, tuning
F	easyOCR	no split, no tuning
G	easyOCR	no split, tuning
H	easyOCR	split, no tuning
I	easyOCR	split, tuning
J	keras-OCR	bmp, no split
K	keras-OCR	bmp, split
L	keras-OCR	no split
M	keras-OCR	split
N	tesseract	bmp, no split, psm11
O	tesseract	bmp, split, psm11
P	tesseract	colored, no split, psm11
Q	tesseract	colored, no split, psm4
R	tesseract	colored, no split, psm6
S	tesseract	no split, psm11
T	tesseract	colored, split, psm11
U	tesseract	colored, split, psm4
V	tesseract	split, psm11

Table 5.3: A table of keys for methods and parameters of experiments performed on KAIST Scene Text Database for Figure 5.6.

Chapter 6

Functions description

In this chapter functions used in testing scripts are shown and briefly described. Note that docstrings of functions were omitted as they provide similar information as the descriptions, but in a shorter version.

The function

Functions for extracting ground truth

I created the following functions in order to extract ground truth information from text files – in most cases XML files. Each dataset unfortunately uses a different form of annotations. The styles differ in order of data, tag names, even in type of the recorded data (sometimes individual characters and their position is written or information about curvature). For XML parsing I utilized the The ElementTree XML API, which is imported as `xml.etree.ElementTree`.

Function 6.1: `read_gt_ctw_test`

```
1 def read_gt_ctw_test(data, scaling_ratio=1):
2     """
3         SCUT-CTW1500 dataset (test labels parser)
4         Returns ground truth in a tuple - first contains word (string),
5         second coordinates (array with left top xy coordinate and right
6         bottom coor).
7         If image was previously scaled, one might need to scale also gt
8         coordinates by given ratio.
9         """
10
11
12     # one line = one bounding polygon : list of coordinates, each
13     # separated by commas, last is the text inside
14     # there are ##### before each text, two additional ## no text
15     # recognized
16
17     annotations = []
18     with open(data, "r") as file:
19         for line in file:
20             line = line.rstrip('\n')
```

```

16     text = line.split("#####")
17     label = text[-1]
18     coordinates = text[0].split(",")[:-1]
19     c = [int(i) for i in coordinates]
20     minX = min(c[::2])*scaling_ratio
21     maxX = max(c[::2])*scaling_ratio
22     minY = min(c[1::2])*scaling_ratio
23     maxY = max(c[1::2])*scaling_ratio
24
25     bbox_coords = np.array( [[minX, minY], [maxX, maxY]] )
26     annotations.append((label, bbox_coords))
27
28 return annotations

```

The function `read_gt_ctw_test` reads

Function 6.2: `image_text_crop`

```

1 def image_text_crop(images, filenames, ground_truth, one_file=True,
2     result_folder='./results', skip_longer_than=40):
3     # test if there are not more gts than images
4     # else the for loop will never get to those exceeding image
5     # count
6     gt_length = len(ground_truth)
7     if len(images) > gt_length:
8         images = images[:gt_length]
9
10    if not os.path.isdir(result_folder):
11        os.mkdir(result_folder)
12
13    all_texts = []
14    for i, img in tqdm(enumerate(images)):
15        name, ext = os.path.splitext(filenames[i])
16
17        # count regions in one image - used for file naming
18        # purposes
19        region = 1
20
21        for text, bbox in ground_truth[i]:
22            if len(text) > skip_longer_than:
23                continue
24            # select image within coordinates (bbox)
25            cropped = img[bbox[0,1]:bbox[1,1], bbox[0,0]:bbox[1,0]]
26
27            # create image file:
28            # name in format "original-00region.ext"
29            new_name = name + '-' + str(region).zfill(3)
30
31            cv.imwrite(os.path.join(result_folder, new_name + ext),
32            cropped)
33            # create text annotation file(s)
34            if one_file:
35                all_texts.append(new_name + ext + '\t' + text)
36            else:
37                # one file for each image with word
38                with open(os.path.join(result_folder, new_name + '.'
39                gt.txt'), 'w') as f:

```

```

35             f.write(text)
36             region += 1
37
38     if one_file:
39         with open(os.path.join(result_folder, 'gt.txt'), 'w') as f:
40             for line in all_texts:
41                 f.writelines(line+'\n')
42
43     return all_texts

```

The function `image_text_crop` crops and saves images based on bounding boxes provided in ground truth for each text region in an image. This is done for all images in `images` list. Also a text file is created with a corresponding text annotation. The name of the resulted file bears the original image name and a number is attached for each text region. The boolean parameter `one_file` allows to save ground truths only to a single file. Each line consists then of the name of the cropped image and its annotation. The parameter `skip_longer_than` skips ground truths that have more characters than stated, because some OCR tools (such as keras-OCR) does not support long strings.

Function 6.3: `shrink_all`

```

1 def shrink_all(images, width):
2     scaled = []
3
4     for image in images:
5         if image.shape[1] > width:
6             ratio = width / image.shape[1]
7             height = int(image.shape[0] * ratio)
8             new_size = (width, height)
9             scaled.append(cv.resize(image, new_size, interpolation=
cv.INTER_AREA))
10        else:
11            scaled.append(image)
12    return scaled

```

The function `shrink_all` returns a list of resized images to a given width. Images already smaller than width are kept unaffected. The resizing aspects ratio.

Function 6.4: `bounding_rectangle`

```

1 def bounding_rectangle(coordinates):
2     x, y = zip(*coordinates)
3
4     return np.array([[int(min(x)), int(min(y))], [int(max(x)), int(
max(y))]])

```

The function `bounding_rectangle` Returns top left and bottom right coordinates of a rectangle, that is circumscribed to a polygon defined by coordinates. These are obtained from predictions for each text region.

Function 6.5: `iou`

```

1 def iou(pred_box, gt_box):
2     # find intersection rectangle coordinates

```

```

3     x_left = max(pred_box[0][0], gt_box[0][0])
4     x_right = min(pred_box[1][0], gt_box[1][0])
5     y_top = max(pred_box[0][1], gt_box[0][1])
6     y_bottom = min(pred_box[1][1], gt_box[1][1])
7
8     if x_right < x_left or y_bottom < y_top:
9         return 0
10
11    # compute intersection area
12    intersection = (x_right - x_left) * (y_bottom - y_top)
13
14    # compute union area
15    pred_area = (pred_box[1][0] - pred_box[0][0]) * (pred_box[1][1]
16    - pred_box[0][1])
17    gt_area = (gt_box[1][0] - gt_box[0][0]) * (gt_box[1][1] -
18    gt_box[0][1])
19    union = pred_area + gt_area - intersection
20
21    # return iou
22    return intersection/union

```

The function `iou` computes intersection over union of two bounding boxes, as defined in 2.4. Both input parameters have to contain top left and bottom right coordinates of a bounding box rectangle.

Function 6.6: `iou_image`

```

1 def iou_image(pred_boxes, gt_boxes):
2     ious = []
3
4     # have to determine which prediction bounding box contains same
5     # (similar)
6     # text region as ground truth bounding box
7     # find and save the best iou for a prediction box and gt box
8     for pred_ind, pred in enumerate(pred_boxes):
9         max_iou = 0
10        max_ind = 0
11        for gt_ind, gt in enumerate(gt_boxes):
12            iou_value = iou(pred, gt)
13            if (iou_value > max_iou):
14                max_iou = iou_value
15                max_ind = gt_ind
16
17        # match words from prediction and ground thruth (indeces)
18        ious.append((max_iou, pred_ind, max_ind))
19
20    return ious

```

The function `iou_image` computes intersection over union for all text regions in one image. Each parameter shall contain a list of two coordinates - (top left, bottom right) of a bounding box rectangle. Returns a list of tuples - each tuple consists of the highest iou value (thus having the biggest overlap), the index of predicted bounding box and the index of ground truth bounding box. The indeces are taken from the given lists of bounding boxes or ground truths belonging to one particular image.

Function 6.7: group_text

```

1 def group_text(lst):
2     grouped = []
3     key = lambda x: x[2]
4
5     for k, g in itertools.groupby(sorted(lst, key=key), key):
6         list_data = list(zip(*g))
7         grouped.append((sum(list_data[0]), list_data[1], k))
8
9     return grouped

```

The function `group_text` is a utility function for matching corresponding strings in a list. The list that is passed as an argument is a list of tuples of IOUs returned from the function `iou_image`. First for each ground truth bounding box, which is determined by the ground truth index (in this case the third element of the tuple) and it is used as a key. The returned tuple consists of a sum of IOUs, a list of indeces of predicted bounding boxes and ground truth index.

Function 6.8: compare_text_cer

```

1 def compare_text_cer(text, special_characters=False, case_sensitive=False,
2                      spaces=True, split=True):
3     text_gt, text_pred = text
4     # remove special characters and case sensitivity if necessary
5     if not spaces:
6         text_gt = "".join(char for char in text_gt if (char.isalnum()))
7         text_pred = "".join(char for char in text_pred if (char.
8                           isalnum()))
9     elif not special_characters:
10        text_gt = "".join(char for char in text_gt if (char.isalnum()
11                           or char.isspace()))
12        text_pred = "".join(char for char in text_pred if (char.
13                           isalnum() or char.isspace()))
14     if not case_sensitive:
15        text_gt = text_gt.lower()
16        text_pred = text_pred.lower()
17
18     corresponding_words = []
19
20     if split:
21         words_gt = text_gt.split(" ")
22         words_pred = text_pred.split(" ")
23
24         # list of words that are corresponding (based on
25         # levenshtein distance)
26         # and cer value. (=tuple of three elements)
27         # for every predicted word find its corresponding gt wordle
28         for word_pred in words_pred:
29             min_dist = (1000, (0, 0))
30             min_gt_word = ""
31             for word_gt in words_gt:
32                 l_dist = levenshtein_distance(word_gt, word_pred)
33                 if l_dist[0] < min_dist[0]:
34                     min_dist = l_dist
35                     min_gt_word = word_gt

```

```

31             # count normalized cer (the result will be from 0 to 1)
32             , 1 is the worst
33             # for computation we devide Levenshtein dist. by sum
34             # of the length of the word and count of insertions
35             performed
36             if len(min_gt_word) > 0 and len(word_pred) > 0:
37                 cer = min_dist[0] / (len(min_gt_word) + min_dist
38 [1][2])
39             else:
40                 cer = 1
41             corresponding_words.append((min_gt_word, word_pred, cer
42 ))
43
44             # no split of words
45         else:
46             l_dist = levenshtein_distance(text_gt, text_pred)
47
48             if len(text_gt) > 0 and len(text_pred) > 0:
49                 cer = l_dist[0] / (len(text_gt) + l_dist[1][2])
50             else:
51                 cer = 1
52             corresponding_words.append((text_gt, text_pred, cer))
53
54     return sorted(corresponding_words)

```

The function `compare_text_cer` returns a sorted list of corresponding words. Each pair of corresponding words is represented as a tuple of ground truth string, predicted string and a CER value. The first parameter have to be a tuple of a single ground truth string and a predicted string. The argument `special_characters` ignores all characters except alphanumeric characters and space when `False`. This is applied to both predicted and ground truth strings. When the argument `case_sensitive` is `False` then all texts are set to lowercase. The `spaces` parameter allows only alphanumeric characters and all spaces are removed. The last one of arguments is `split` and it is used optionally depending on the OCR engine and on dataset. When `True`, strings from ground truth and prediction are split with space used as a separator. Then the Levenshtein distance is computed for each pair of ground truth and predicted word. The best one is chosen for each predicted word and returned together with the two closest words. In case of no split, the Levenshtein distance is computed directly for the strings in the original tuple `text`. It is recommended to use `split` when the OCR model tends to detect words that belongs to each other as separate words and ground truth marks them as a text line with multiple words. Or when ground truth is one-word and model predicts strings with multiple words together.

The function `levenshtein_distance` computes the Levenshtein distance (definition can be found in section 2.4). The implementation is taken from a console application called `xer`. The code is available from <https://github.com/jpuigcerver/xer/blob/master/xer>. It returns a tuple of counts of the three performed operations – substitution, deletion, insertion.

Function 6.9: plot_results

```

1 def plot_results(image, ground_truth, predicted, size=15):

```

```

2     # Create figure and axes
3     figure, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(size, size))
4
5     # Display the image
6     ax.imshow(cv.cvtColor(image, cv.COLOR_BGR2RGB), cmap=plt.
7         get_cmap('gray'))
8     ax.axis('off')
9
10    for label, bbox in ground_truth:
11        topleft = bbox[0]
12        height = bbox[1,1] - bbox[0,1]
13        width = bbox[1,0] - bbox[0,0]
14
15        # create and add rectangle
16        rect = patches.Rectangle((topleft), width, height,
17            linewidth=1, edgecolor='g', facecolor='none')
18        ax.add_patch(rect)
19
20        # add labels
21        ax.text(topleft[0]+width, topleft[1],label,
22            verticalalignment='top', color='g', fontsize=13, bbox=dict(
23                facecolor='g', alpha=0.2, edgecolor='g'))
24
25    for label, bbox in predicted:
26        topleft = bbox[0]
27        height = bbox[1,1] - bbox[0,1]
28        width = bbox[1,0] - bbox[0,0]
29
30        # create and add rectangle
31        rect = patches.Rectangle((topleft), width, height,
32            linewidth=1, edgecolor='r', facecolor='none')
33        ax.add_patch(rect)
34
35        # add labels
36        ax.text(topleft[0]-2, topleft[1]-5,label,verticalalignment=
37            'top', color='r', fontsize=13, bbox=dict(facecolor='r', alpha
38            =0.2, edgecolor='r'))
39
40    # smaller white borders
41    plt.subplots_adjust(left=0, bottom=0.1, right=1, top=0.9,
42        wspace=0, hspace=0)
43
44    return plt

```

The function `plot_results` returns a plot with an image and both predicted and ground truth bounding boxes and corresponding labels. The ground truths are marked with green color and predictions with red. Objects are drawn using the package matplotlib.

The function

Chapter 7

Conclusion

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