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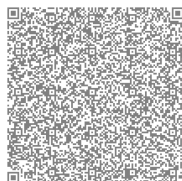
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● Similarité forte

● Similarité proche

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General Introduction

The recognition of handwritten digits is an important field in artificial intelligence and computer vision that has played a significant role in converting traditional paper-based archives to electronic archives. Earlier, archives relied heavily on paper documents, which were difficult to maintain and organized and required a large amount of storage space. The advent of digital technology has enabled documents to be stored electronically, making them more accessible, searchable, and manageable.

Individual writing styles present a significant challenge in this field. Unlike printed characters, handwritten digits exhibit considerable variation in shape, size, slant, and stroke thickness. A variety of factors contribute

to this variability, including the rate at which the writer writes, the situation at the time of writing,

as well as cultural differences in the formation of digits. It is particularly challenging to recognize digits with fine or delicate handwriting, as these subtle strokes can be mistaken for background noise or incorrectly identified as different digits.

To address these challenges, the project explored Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) optimized using techniques such as Genetic Algorithms (GA) and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO). These methods aim to improve the model's ability to generalize from diverse training data and provide high performance on test datasets.

Additionally, our experiments were enhanced by using Julia, a programming language

that is less common but promising in the field of machine learning and scientific computing. Julia is known for its high performance and ease of use. Our aim with Julia is not

only to take advantage of these strengths, but also to explore new ways of optimising and

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Introduction

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improving handwritten digit recognition.

This project is more than just developing a robust model for handwritten digit recognition. It aims to identify and overcome specific obstacles associated with fine handwriting

while experimenting with Julia for model building. This will not only contribute to the advancement of handwritten character recognition technology, but also accelerate its implementation.

The structure of this work is divided into four chapters :

- The first chapter introduces optical character recognition (OCR) and covers its definition, historical background, applications, and challenges. We also review existing OCR tools and outline the various stages of OCR.
- Our second chapter focuses on form recognition and discusses preprocessing techniques, deep learning methods, and their applications in computer vision.
- The third chapter describes our experimental setup in detail, including the use of Julia and Google Colab, and introduces CNN models trained using genetic algorithms (GA) and particle swarm optimization (PSO) on the MNIST dataset. We compare

the results and present our proposed

preprocessing methods.

- The final chapter details the development and

testing of our platform, encompassing the construction of a RESTful API that links multiple servers with the client interface. We conclude with a comprehensive overview of the project's success.

2

Chapitre 1

OCR

1.1 Introduction

Ever wondered how the human brain is able to process and analyze images so

effortlessly ? As soon as we come into contact with a picture, our brains instinctively break it

down into recognizable chunks, allowing us to identify its various components effortlessly.

But have you ever wondered if computers could perform similar tasks ? If you are aware that image processing is a branch of computer science that attempts to do the same thing with computers. How does OCR work, and what are its challenges and phases ?

1.2

Optical Character Recognition

1.2.1 definition

Optical Character Recognition (OCR) is a sub-field of image processing that deals with

the process of recognizing characters from an image (OCR)

. This approach examines an image containing scanned text or handwritten characters and attempts to recall

them

using a variety of algorithms[?].

the format of the handwritten text :

the format of the handwritten text can be :

Isolated

characters :This task involves the straightforward classification of individual characters or numbers, independent of their context. It's a relatively simple task focused on identifying single characters without considering their surrounding context.

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Continuous characters : In contrast, recognition of continuous characters involves identifying and interpreting sequences of characters or numbers within a larger context, such

as words, sentences, or paragraphs. It's a more complex task that requires algorithms and techniques to handle factors like variable spacing, font styles, and contextual dependencies.

1.2.2 Historical

The development of retina scanners originates from early character recognition concepts, which involved a framework for image transmission utilizing a mosaic of photocells. A significant breakthrough occurred in 1890 with Nipkow's invention of the sequential scanner, laying the groundwork for modern television and reading machines. Initially, OCR technology was considered an aid for visually impaired individuals, but it soon evolved into a vast field of research and development.

In 1929, a patent filed by Tauschek in Germany marks the first documented evidence of an optical character recognition system. This innovation led to a US patent granted to Tauschek in 1935, following an earlier public disclosure by Handel in 1933. Both early machines employed template symbols on a circular disc, allowing light to pass through specific cutouts. The image to be recognized was placed in front of the disc and illuminated. Reflected light passing through the template holes was focused onto a photosens or for detection.

The commercially available OCR systems can be categorized into four generations based on their robustness, efficiency, and flexibility. The first generation OCRs, which emerged in the mid-1960s, could read only specific fonts

and character shapes. The IBM 1418 was the first widely marketed OCR of this generation, employing logical template

matching

techniques.

The second generation of OCRs, available from the mid-1960s to mid-1970s, showed significant improvements. These systems could recognize both machine-printed and handwritten characters, although initially limited to numerals. The IBM 1287 exemplifies this

generation, incorporating both analog and digital technologies.

Subsequent advancements led to the development of third-generation OCRs between 1975 and 1985. These systems could handle a broader range of handwritten characters and poor-quality prints, enhancing their utility for diverse applications.

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The fourth generation OCRs are capable of processing complex documents with interspersed text, mathematical symbols, and tables. They can recognize

spontaneous handwritten characters and handle low-quality noisy documents, such as photocopies, faxes, and color documents.

Modern OCR systems are now sophisticated enough to support multiple languages, including Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Roman scripts.[?].

1.2.3 domain of application OCR

Many applications of handwritten digit recognition and classification exist, including :

- Processing of checks and other financial documents using handwritten digit recognition is becoming increasingly popular with banks and corporations.
- The technology can also be used to read and recognize license plate numbers on vehicles, which is particularly useful for law enforcement agencies and highway toll companies.
- Systems of security use handwritten digit recognition to protect assets and sensitive information, such as combination locks and PIN-based authentication systems.
- Automatic reading of handwritten digits using character recognition : Addresses on envelopes, postal codes, telephone numbers on application forms are often read automatically using character recognition. In this way, large volumes of administrative documents can be processed more efficiently and quickly.

1.2.4 impact on society and industry

Optical Character Recognition (OCR) is a transformative technology that has significantly influenced both society and industry. Let's delve into its impact :[?] Efficiency and Automation :

- OCR automates the process of extracting text from printed documents, reducing the need for manual data entry. This efficiency boost saves time and minimizes errors compared to manual typing.
- Businesses can digitize vast amounts of paper-based information swiftly, making it accessible for further analysis and processing.

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Cost Reduction :

- By streamlining data extraction and storage, OCR reduces costs associated with manual data entry.
- Small businesses benefit from faster data processing and efficient data utilization, as OCR eliminates the need for extensive human involvement.

Consistency and Accuracy :

- OCR ensures consistent results across multiple users and projects. Unlike humans, it doesn't suffer from fatigue or variations in performance.
- Improved data accuracy leads to better decision-making and reliable information.

Data Security and Storage :

- Digitized documents are easier to store, search, and retrieve. OCR contributes to efficient data management.
- Enhanced security measures can be applied to digital records, safeguarding sensitive information.

Industry-Specific Applications :

- Healthcare : OCR assists in digitizing patient records, prescriptions, and medical reports, enabling efficient data sharing and analysis.
- Automotive : OCR streamlines paperwork related to vehicle registration, insurance claims, and maintenance records.
- Finance : OCR automates invoice processing, expense management, and financial document handling.
- Legal : Legal professionals use OCR to convert paper-based contracts, court documents, and case files into digital formats.

1.2.5 challenges

OCR is a challenging task due to multiple problems that complicate the process of re-knowledge, among which are [?] :

- Document quality : a document that is faxed or photocopied multiple times is more difficult to process than the original copy. Writing may become thinner or other

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wise thicker, degraded with missing parts of text or tasks that appear, openings or

closures of loops . . .

- Printing : a composite document is better than a document typed which, in turn, is clearer than text from a printer dot matrix. An inkjet printer can introduce ink stains and a spread of characters, a laser printer can generate lines or funds. . .
- The discrimination

of form : depending on the style of the

font used, its body and

fatness, the character changes its graphics. The number of shapes is all the more important as the number of writing

characters styles is high. In addition, several have strong

similarities, such as :

- for Arabic : W and 7, / and 3, 0 and [
- for Latin : U and V, 0 and 0, S and 5, Z and 2.
- The medium of information, such as paper,

also plays on performance recognition by its quality : its grammage, granulation and color.

- • Acquisition : real-time

scanning often introduces distortions in the image. In the offline case, the quality of the scanned text is a compromise between the variations of the position (tilt, translation, shrinkage, etc.), the cleanliness of the glass of the scanning device

and its resolution.

1.3 existing applications

1.3.1 iScanner

The iScanner app is yet another example of cleverly leveraging an always-connected camera to do more than just intelligently make photos look prettier. The app's actually designed to turn a smartphone's camera into a document scanner by automating the process of color-correcting and straightening documents snapped at an angle as well as converting a page's content to editable text using optical character recognition[?].

1.3.2 Google Lens

Google Lens is a visual search tool developed by Google that uses machine

learning

to understand and analyze images and videos. It can be used to :

- Identify objects.

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- Translate text.
- Shop for product.
- Copy text.
- Get help with homework[?].

1.3.3 Pen To Print

Pen to Print is an application that utilizes Optical Character Recognition (OCR) technology to convert handwritten text in images and PDFs into digital, editable format. Available as a mobile app on Android and iOS, as well as an online OCR tool on the Pen to Print website, this versatile tool offers the ability to convert handwritten material into digital text with ease. With Pen to Print, users can store the scanned handwriting on any digital platform or cloud service, making it accessible from anywhere [?].

1.3.4 Microsoft Lens

microsoft Lens (formerly Microsoft Office Lens) is a free mobile app available on Android and iOS designed to enhance and make pictures of whiteboards and documents readable. This versatile app offers features to trim images, enhance their quality, and convert them into various digital formats. With Microsoft Lens, users can capture text, images, documents, and whiteboards, utilizing Optical Character Recognition (OCR) and other technologies to digitize printed or handwritten text. The app allows users to convert captured content into PDF, Word, PowerPoint, and Excel files, offering flexibility in how information is utilized. Additionally, Microsoft Lens provides options to save content to OneNote, OneDrive, or the local device, ensuring accessibility and easy sharing of digitized materials. [?]

1.3.5 comparative

The table below presents a comparison between the existing OCR platforms.

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Applications	Advantages	Disadvantages
Google Lens	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Convenience : Lens is a quick and easy way to get information about the world around you. - Versatility : Lens can be used for a variety of tasks, from identifying objects to translating text. -Accuracy : Lens is constantly being improved, and its accuracy is impressive. -Offline functionality : Some features can be used offline, which is handy when you don't have an internet connection. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Limited functionality : Lens is not perfect, and it may not always be able to identify objects or translate text accurately. Privacy concerns : Some people are concerned about the privacy implications of using Lens, as it collects data about the things you scan. -Reliance on internet connection : Most of Lens's features require an internet connection[?].
iScanner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Comprehensive Features : iScanner offers a wide range of features including OCR (Optical Character Recognition), document scanning, editing, and sharing functionalities. -Intuitive Interface : The app boasts a user-friendly interface that effectively organizes its multitude of features into easily accessible categories like Scan, Edit, and Share. -Efficient Document Testing : iScanner demonstrates good performance in standard document testing, providing mostly accurate digitized text from various types of documents[?]. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Accuracy : Accuracy can vary depending on camera quality, lighting, and app capabilities. File size : Scanned images can be large, consuming device storage. Security : Pay attention to data privacy policies, as some apps may collect or share data. Limited features : Free versions might have limited features like scan quality, page limits, or file formats. - Internet connection : Some features might require an internet connection for functionality[?].

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<p>chapitre</p> <p>-Unique Functionalities : Apart from basic scanning, iScanner offers unique features such as solving math problems and counting objects, adding value beyond traditional scanning apps.</p> <p>Feature : iScanner allows users to blur out text on documents with the ability to match the background color, offering enhanced privacy and document manipulation options.</p> <p>its combination of features, performance, and user experience, iScanner emerges as one of the strongest choices among OCR apps.</p>	<p>Text Blurring</p> <p>Overall Strength : With</p>

Pen To Print -Readable to everyone, unlike some handwritings that are hard to read conversions, like cursive, scribbles and other illegible writing. - Easy editing capabilities - making changes, adding comments or suggestions, deleting irrelevant parts, reordering sections, spell-checking, and more. -Easily stored, shared, and accessed from various devices, providing unparalleled convenience and flexibility. - Enables simplified searches through large documents, making it easy to locate specific information quickly. - the free version typically poses limitations on file sizes, and supported OCR languages, which may hinder volume conversion needs or vanced usage. - Its to data breaches and malware attacks necessitates the tation of strong sures, particularly when uploading sensitive information - the re's a risk of unauthorized parties accessing or storing your ded data, necessitating hension of the app's licy and restricting its use to trusted content[?].

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Microsoft Lens -Straightforward Interface : Users appreciate the simplicity of Microsoft Lens, as it allows them to start scanning documents without going through sign-up processes or tours. -Minimal Fuss : Unlike other apps that may have introductory processes, Microsoft Lens skips these steps and lets users focus on scanning immediately. -Integration with Microsoft Ecosystem : Users who are already using Microsoft products benefit from seamless integration with apps like OneDrive, OneNote, Word, and PowerPoint, making it easy to save and import documents[?]. -Limited File Management : Microsoft Lens lacks robust file management features, such as the ability to create folders or nize scans through sorting options. -Basic tions : After editing the app directly leads users to export options without providing additional file organization capabilities. -OCR Accuracy : While generally accurate, soft Lens may have slight curacies, such as missing or letters, particularly when ling with complex

books[?].

Table 1.1 – comparison between application of OCR
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1.4 OCR Phases :

In this section we describe the main important phases and architecture of optical character recognition[?].

Figure 1.1 – OCR phases[?]

1.4.1 Pre-processing

The objective of pre-processing is to remove undesired characteristics or noise from an image

while preserving all significant information. Pre-processing

techniques are essential for color, grey-level, or binary document images that contain text and/or graphics.

Given that processing color images is computationally more intensive, most character recognition systems employ binary

or grey-scale images. Pre-processing minimizes inconsistent data and noise, enhancing the image and preparing it for subsequent phases in OCR systems.

These are some important pre-processing operations :

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Processes

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	Description
Binarization	Separates image pixels as text or back ground.
Noise Reduction	Improves image quality
Skew Correction	by reducing noise. Corrects document skew caused by image capture devices.
Morphological Operations	Add or remove pixels to characters,
	correcting imperfections.
Thresholding	Separates information from background in an image.
Thinning and Skeletonisation	Thinning reduces the width

of characters to
one pixel, Skeletonisation regularizes the
text
map.

Table 1.2 – Some important pre-processing operations
Figure 1.2 – binarisation phase[?]

1.4.2

Segmentation Phase

Document segmentation is a critical pre-processing step in the implementation of an

OCR system. It involves classifying a document image into homogeneous zones, where each zone contains only one type of information, such as text, a figure, a table, or a halftone image. The accuracy of OCR systems is significantly influenced by the effectiveness of the page segmentation

algorithm employed.

Document segmentation algorithms can be broadly categorized into three types :

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Top-down methods

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– Bottom-up methods

– Hybrid methods

Top-down methods segment a document by recursively dividing large regions into smaller sub-regions.

This process continues until a specified criterion is met, at which point the segmentation halts, and the resultant sub-regions form the final segmentation. In contrast, bottom-up methods begin by identifying interest pixels within the document. These interest pixels are then grouped into connected components that form characters. These characters are subsequently

combined into words, lines, or text

blocks. Hybrid methods

integrate both top-down and bottom-up approaches to leverage the advantages of both

segmentation accuracy and efficiency. strategies, aiming for improved
Figure

1.3 – segmentation phase[?]

1.4.3 Normalization Phase

As a result of the segmentation process, isolated characters are obtained, which are then ready to proceed to the feature extraction phase. These isolated

characters are typically resized according to

the specific algorithms employed. The segmentation process is crucial as it converts the image into an $m \times n$

matrix. These matrices are commonly normalized by reducing their size and eliminating extraneous information from the image while preserving all essential details.

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Figure 1.4 – normalization phase[?]

1.4.4 Feature Extraction Phase

Feature extraction involves identifying

and extracting relevant features from objects or alphabets to construct feature vectors. These feature vectors are then used by classifiers to match the input unit with the corresponding output unit.

This process simplifies classification, as the classifier can more easily differentiate between distinct classes by

examining these features. According to Suen, there are two primary categories of features : statistical features and structural features. In a character matrix, statistical features are derived from the statistical distribution of each point, such as zoning, moments, crossings, Fourier transforms, and projection histograms.

- Statistical features, also known as global features, are generally averaged and extracted from sub-images, such as meshes. Initially, statistical features were used

to recognize machine-printed

characters.

- Structural or topological features pertain to the geometry of the character set being analyzed. Examples of these features include convexities and concavities in the characters, the number of holes in the characters, and the number of endpoints.

1.4.5 Classification Phase

OCR systems extensively utilize pattern recognition methodologies, which assign each example to a predefined class. Classification is the process of assigning

inputs to their corresponding classes based on detected information, thereby creating groups with homogeneous characteristics and separating different inputs into distinct classes. Classification is

performed using stored features in the feature space, such as structural features, global features, and others.

In essence, classification divides the feature space into

several classes based on a deci

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sion rule. The choice of classifier depends on several factors, including the number of free

parameters and the available training set. Researchers have explored various procedures for OCR to enhance the accuracy and efficiency of classification.

Template Matching

Template matching is the simplest method for character recognition, based on comparing stored templates against the character or word to be recognized. By analyzing shapes,

pixels, curvature, and other features, the matching

operation determines the degree of

similarity between two vectors. A gray-level or binary input character is compared to a standard set of stored templates. The recognition rate of this method is highly sensitive to noise and input distortions.

Statistical Techniques

The theory of statistical decision involves statistical decision functions and a set of optimality criteria, which, for a given model of a specific class, can maximize the likelihood of

the observed pattern. The main statistical methods used in OCR include Nearest Neighbor (NN), Likelihood or Bayes classifier, Clustering Analysis, Hidden Markov Modeling (HMM), Fuzzy Set Reasoning, and Quadratic Classifier.

Neural Networks :

Character classification is a problem that aligns

with heuristic reasoning, as humans

recognize characters and documents through knowledge and experience. Neural networks, which are inherently heuristic, are therefore well-suited for this type of problem. A neural

network is a computational architecture that consists of a massively

parallel interconnection of adaptive node processors. The output from one node influences the next node in the network, and the final decision depends on the complex interactions of all nodes.

Due to its parallel nature, a neural network can perform computations at a higher rate compared to traditional

methods. Neural network architectures can be categorized into feed-forward neural networks and feedback neural networks.

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Figure 1.5 – Neural network[?]

Kernel Methods :

Among the most important kernel methods are Support Vector Machines (SVMs). Techniques such as Kernel Fisher Discriminant Analysis (KFDA) and Kernel Principal Component Analysis (KPCA) also utilize kernel methods. SVMs are one of the most widely used and effective supervised learning techniques, suitable for both binary and multi-class classification. In classification techniques, the data set is conventionally divided

into training and testing sets. The objective of SVM is to develop a model that accurately

predicts the outcomes for the test set. The enhancement rule for SVM is to maximize the width of the margin between classes, which is the empty region around the decision boundary defined by the distance to the nearest training example.

Combination Classifier :

Different classification strategies have their own particular advantages and shortcomings. Thus ordinarily various classifiers are consolidated together to solve a given classification problem. Matei, Oliviu, Petrica C. Pop, and H. Vălean by utilizing neural networks

and k-Nearest Neighbor, proposed Optical character recognition in real environments such as electricitymeters and gas-meters.

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1.5 Conclusion

As a result of the quest to emulate the brain's image processing capabilities, OCR was developed. Even with its challenges, OCR continues to advance, offering promising solutions to tasks such as document digitization and automated data extraction. It is becoming increasingly apparent that the intersection of human cognition and computational intelligence will open up new avenues of exploration and innovation in the field of image processing and optical character recognition.

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FORM RECOGNITION

2.1 Introduction

Form recognition is a critical component in the field of document processing, enabling the automated identification and extraction of structured data from scanned documents, images, and digital forms. This chapter delves into the methodologies and techniques used to preprocess and recognize forms accurately. By leveraging advances in both traditional image preprocessing methods and modern deep learning approaches, we aim to enhance the precision and efficiency of form recognition systems. The chapter begins by exploring the essential preprocessing steps required for form recognition, emphasizing the significance of preparing images for subsequent analysis. Following this, we introduce deep learning techniques, which have revolutionized the field of computer vision, providing robust solutions for form recognition tasks. We discuss the basics of neural networks, various deep learning architectures, and the importance of data preprocessing in training effective models. The chapter concludes with a discussion on

the

evaluation metrics used to measure the performance of form recognition systems, highlighting the advancements

and future directions in this domain.

2.2 Preprocessing for

Form Recognition

2.2.1 Introduction

Image preprocessing is the process of manipulating raw image data into a usable and meaningful format. It allows you to eliminate unwanted distortions and enhance specific

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qualities essential for computer vision applications. Preprocessing is a crucial first step to

prepare your image data before feeding it into machine learning models[?].

2.2.2

The Role of image Preprocessing

let's explore why the image preprocessing is necessary :

- Enhanced Model Performance :By preprocessing images, image analysis algorithms perform better. By mitigating noise, inconsistencies, and outliers present in images, we create a cleaner and more reliable dataset for analysis. This results in improved accuracy of image processing tasks, reduced risk of overfitting to irrelevant details, and enhanced ability to generalize patterns across images.
- Reliable Insights and Interpretability :When images are preprocessed, they yield more reliable insights and make image analysis algorithms more interpretable.

When images are cleaned, enhanced, and standardized through preprocessing techniques, underlying patterns and structures become more discernible. This facilitates better decision-making in image interpretation and aids in understanding the factors

influencing the algorithm's predictions.

- Robustness to Real-World Scenarios :Preprocessing images contributes to the robustness of image analysis algorithms in real-world scenarios. Often, real-world

images have variations in lighting, perspective, and quality, which require preprocessing techniques. By preparing images through preprocessing, we ensure that algorithms can cope with diverse environmental conditions encountered during deployment, leading to more reliable and consistent performance[?].

2.2.3 Exploring Image Preprocessing Methods

There are several techniques used in image preprocessing

1. Thresholding : Thresholding is a method that transforms a grayscale image into a binary image (black and white) by selecting a threshold value. Pixels darker than the threshold are assigned

to black, while pixels lighter than the threshold are assigned to white. This technique is effective for images characterized by high contrast and uniform lighting conditions.[?].

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Figure 2.1 –

Thresholding image[?]

2. Resizing : Resizing images to a consistent size is important for machine learning algorithms to work properly. You'll want all your images to be the same height and width, usually a small size like 28x28 or 64x64 pixels[?].

Figure 2.2 – Resizing image[?]

3. Grayscale : Converting color images to grayscale can simplify your image data and reduce computational needs for some algorithms[?]. (b)

4. Binarization : Binarization converts grayscale images to black and white by thresholding[?].(c)

5. Noise reduction : Techniques like Gaussian blurring, median blurring, and bilateral filtering can reduce noise and smooth images.

Normalizing pixel values to a standard range like 0 to 1 or -1 to 1 helps algorithms

work better[?].(e)

Figure 2.3 – (a) Original

Image. (b) Converted to Grayscale. (c)

Binarized image. (d)

Thinning and Skeletonization are done. (e) Noise Removed[?]

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6. Thinning and Skeletonization : This step is performed for the handwritten text, as different writers use different stroke widths to write. This step makes the width of strokes uniform.(d)

7. Skew Correction : While scanning or taking a picture of any document, it is possible that the scanned or captured image might be slightly skewed sometimes. For the better performance of the OCR, it is good to determine the skewness in image and correct it[?].

Figure 2.4 – Skew Correction image[?]

8. Lines Straightening : When the lines are curvy as in the case of the above image, it may result in OCR issues and can cause issues with line segmentation and text re arrangement. Hence, detecting the curved lines and straightening them will improve our OCR results[?].

Figure 2.5

– Lines Straighteningimage[?]

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2.3 Deep

Learning Approaches for Form

Recognition

2.3.1 Introduction to Deep Learning

– What is Deep Learning ?

Deep learning is the branch of machine learning which is based on artificial neural network architecture. An artificial neural network or ANN uses layers of interconnected nodes called neurons that work together to process and learn from the input data.

In a fully connected Deep neural network, there is an input layer and one or more

hidden layers connected one after the other. Each neuron receives input from the previous layer neurons or the input layer. The output of one neuron becomes the input to other neurons in the next layer of the network, and this process continues until the final layer produces the output of the network. The layers of the neural network transform the input data through a series of nonlinear transformations, allowing the network to learn complex representations of the input data[?].

– The using of Deep Learning :

Deep learning can be used for supervised, unsupervised as well as reinforcement machine learning. it uses a variety of ways to process these[?].

– Supervised Learning : Neural networks learn

from labeled datasets to make predictions or classifications, minimizing errors through backpropagation. Common tasks include image classification, sentiment analysis, and

language translation using algorithms like Convolutional and Recurrent Neural Networks.

– Unsupervised Learning : Neural networks uncover patterns or

Autoencoders and cluster unlabeled data.

generative models are utilized for tasks such as clustering, dimensionality reduction, and anomaly detection.

– Reinforcement

Learning : Agents learn to maximize rewards by interacting with

environments. Deep reinforcement learning algorithms like Deep Q Net works and Deep Deterministic Policy

Gradient (DDPG) excel in

tasks such as

robotics and game playing.

– A Comparative Analysis : AI, Machine

Learning, and Deep Learning :

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Aspect	Artificial Intelligence (AI)	Machine Learning (ML)	Deep Learning (DL)
Definition	A broad field	A	

neural many	encompassing the	subset of AI that enables systems to	A subset of ML focused on
	simulation of human intelligence by machines.	learn from data.	networks with layers.
Scope for feature	Includes ML, DL, and other techniques like rule-based systems.	Involves algorithms that improve over time with data.	Involves complex neural networks high-level
Techniques Used Neural	Rule-based systems, search algorithms, ML, DL, expert systems.	Regression, classification, clustering, decision trees.	extraction. Convolutional Networks (CNNs), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), Transformers.
Data Dependency labeled training.	Can operate with less data or predefined rules.	Requires large datasets to improve performance.	Requires massive amounts of data for

Computational computational Power	Varies widely ; generally less intensive than DL.	Moderate computational requirements.	High power required (GPUs, TPUs).
Training Time due networks sets.	Generally shorter than DL but varies.	Moderate training time.	Can be very long to complex and large data
Applications and recognition	Robotics, game playing, expert systems, natural language processing (NLP).	Spam detection, recommendation systems, image recognition, predictive analytics.	Advanced image speech

Table 2.1 – Comparative Analysis of AI, Machine Learning, and Deep Learning[?]

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2.3.2 Neural Networks Basics

1. Introduction to Neural Networks :The term "deep learning" refers to a class of neural network models characterized by their multilayered architecture, consisting of interconnected units called neurons. This chapter aims to deliver a precise and exhaustive introduction to the functioning of these neurons and all their components[?].

2. Neuron Structure : Neural networks consist

of layers of similar neurons. Most have at least an input layer and an output layer. The program presents the input pattern to the input layer. Then the output pattern is returned from the output layer. What happens between the input and an output layer is a black

box. By

black box, we mean that you do not know exactly why a neural network outputs what it does. At this point, we are not yet concerned with the internal structure of

the neural network, or the black box.

Many different architectures define the

interaction between the input and output layer[?].

(a) Input Layer :Receives the input values[?].

(b) Hidden Layer(s) :A set of neurons between the input and output layers. There can

be a single or multiple layers.Usually,

it has one neuron, and its output

ranges between 0 and 1, that is, greater than 0 and less than 1.

(c) Output Layer :Usually, it has one neuron, and its output ranges between 0 and 1, that is, greater than 0 and less than

1[?].

(d) Weights :The weights of the neuron allow you to adjust the slope or shape of the activation function[?].

(e)

Bias :Programmers add bias neurons to

neural networks to help them learn

patterns. Bias neurons function like an input neuron that always produces the value of 1. Because the bias neurons have a constant output of 1, they are

not connected to the previous layer.

The value of 1, which is called the bias activation, can be

set to values other than 1. However,1

is the most common

bias activation. Not all neural networks have bias neurons[?].

Figure 2.6 –

Lines Straighteningimage[?]

Y : The final value of the node.

W : Represents the weights between the nodes in the previous layer and the output node.

X : Represents the values of the nodes of the previous layer. B : Represents bias, which

is an additional value present for each neuron. Bias is essentially a weight without an input term. It's useful for having an extra bit of adjustability which is not dependent on the previous

layer.

H : Represents the intermediate node value. This is not the final value of the

node.

$f()$: Called an Activation Function, it is something we can choose. We will go through its importance later.

3. Activation Functions : In neural network programming, activation or transfer functions establish bounds for the output of neurons. Neural networks can use many different activation functions. We will discuss the most common activation functions in this section.

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Choosing an activation function for your neural network is an important consideration because it can affect how you must

format input data [?].

- Linear Activation Function : The most basic activation function is the linear function because it does

not change the neuron output at all.

Equation

2.1 shows how the program typically implements a linear activation function :

$$f(x) = x$$

(2.1)

- Hyperbolic Tangent Activation Function : The hyperbolic tangent function is also a very common activation function for neural networks that must output values in the range between -1 and 1. This activation function is

simply

the hyperbolic tangent (tanh) function2.2 :

$$e^x - e^{-x}$$

$$f(x) = \tanh(x) =$$

(2.2)

$$e^x + e^{-x}$$

- Sigmoid Activation Function

: The sigmoid or logistic activation

function

is a very common choice for feedforward neural networks that need to output only positive numbers2.3 :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 +$$

(2.3)

$$e^{-x}}$$

e-x

- The Softmax Function : Softmax is usually found in the output layer of a neural network. The softmax function is used in classification neural networks.

The neuron

input as a member of its class. Because that has the highest value claims the

it is a preferable method, the softmax activation function forces the output of the neural network to represent the probability that the input falls into each of

$$(2.4) \quad \text{softmax}(x)_i = \frac{e^{x_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^K e^{x_j}}$$

- The ReLU Function : Introduced in 2000 by Teh Hinton, the rectified linear unit (ReLU) has seen very rapid adoption over the past few years. Prior

to the ReLU activation function, the hyperbolic tangent was generally accepted as the activation function

of choice. Most current research now recommends the ReLU due to superior training results. As a result, most neural networks should utilize the ReLU on hidden layers and either softmax or linear on the output layer. Equation 2.5 shows the very simple ReLU function :

$$(2.5) \quad f(x) = \max(0, x)$$

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4. Forward Propagation : Forward propagation is the process in a neural network where the input data is passed through the network's layers to generate an output. Forward propagation is essential for making predictions in neural networks. It calculates the output of the network for a given input based on the current values of the weights and biases. The output is then compared to the actual target value to calculate the loss, which is used to update the weights and biases during the training process.

5. Backpropagation : Backpropagation is one of the

most common methods for training a neural network. Rumelhart, Hinton, Williams (1986) introduced backpropagation, and it remains popular today. Programmers frequently train deep neural networks with backpropagation because it scales really well when run on graphical processing units (GPUs). To understand this algorithm for neural networks, we must examine how to train it as well as how it processes a pattern. Classic backpropagation has been extended and modified to give rise to many different training algorithms. In this chapter, we will discuss the most commonly used training algorithms for neural networks. We begin with classic backpropagation and then end the chapter with stochastic gradient descent (SGD).

2.3.3 Deep Learning Architectures

Deep learning architectures offer promising solutions. By leveraging neural networks, these architectures can handle complex object detection tasks efficiently. They allow for better training and yield superior results compared to traditional methods. In the following sections, we delve into various deep learning architectures tailored for object detection, exploring their designs and functionalities to address the challenges posed by real-world scenarios.[?].

1. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)

Convolutional networks (,), also known as LeCun 1989 convolutional neural networks or CNNs, are a specialized kind of neural network for processing data that has a known, grid-like topology. Examples include time-series data, which can be thought of as a 1D grid taking samples at regular time intervals, and image data, which can be thought of as a 2D grid of pixels. Convolutional networks have been tremendously successful in practical applications. The name "convolutional neural network" indicates that the network

employs a mathematical operation called convolution. Convolution is a specialized kind of linear operation. Convolutional networks are simply neural networks that use convolution in place of general matrix multiplication in at least one of their layers [?].

Figure 2.7

– CNN [?]

- (a) Input : The input to the CNN is an image with dimensions 28×28 and one channel (grayscale).
- (b) Conv 1 Convolution (5×5) kernel valid padding : In this phase, the image is convolved with a 5×5 kernel, producing feature maps. "Valid padding"

means that the convolution operation is performed only where the input and the filter fully overlap, resulting in an output feature map size of

24×24 with

n_1 channels.

- (c) Max-Pooling (2×2) : After convolution, max-pooling is applied

with a 2×2

filter, reducing the spatial dimensions of the feature maps by half. This results in feature maps of

size 12×12 with n_1 channels.

- (d) Conv 2 Convolution (5×5) kernel valid padding : Another convolutional layer is applied similarly to the first one, resulting in a feature map size of 8×8

with n_2 channels.

- (e) Max-Pooling (2×2) : Max-pooling is applied again, reducing the spatial dimensions to 4×4 with n_2 channels.

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- (f) Flattening : The feature maps are flattened into a one-dimensional vector, which serves as the input to the fully connected layers.

- (g) fc 3 Fully-Connected Neural Network ReLU activation : The flattened vector is fed into a fully connected layer (fc 3) with ReLU activation. This layer performs transformations to learn complex patterns from the flattened features.

- (h) fc 4 Fully-Connected Neural Network (with dropout) : Another fully connected layer (fc 4) is employed, which further learns complex

relationships

in the data. Dropout, a regularization technique, is applied to prevent

overfitting by randomly dropping some connections during training.

- (i) n_3 units (Output) : Finally, the output layer consists of n_3 units, representing

the predicted classes or values. This phase generates the final output of

the

CNN

model.

2. Feedforward Neural Networks : Deep feedforward networks, also known as feed forward neural networks

or multilayer perceptrons (MLPs), are fundamental models

in deep learning. The goal of a feedforward network is to approximate a function

f^* . For instance, in a classifier, $y = f^*(x)$ maps an input x to a category y . A

feed forward network defines a mapping $y = f(x; \theta)$ and learns the parameters θ

that

yield the best function approximation [?].

3. Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) : Recurrent neural networks (RNNs) are

a family of neural networks designed for processing sequential data. Similar to

how convolutional networks are specialized

for processing grids of values, such as images, RNNs are specialized for processing sequences of values $x(1), \dots, x(\tau)$. Just

as convolutional networks can scale to images with large dimensions and variable sizes, RNNs can scale to much longer sequences than would be practical for networks without sequence-based specialization. Most recurrent networks can also handle sequences of variable length[?].

4. Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) GANs are at the forefront of disruptions in DL and have been an active research topic recently. In a nutshell, a GAN allows a network to learn from images that represent a real-world entity (say, a cat or dog ; when we simply develop a DL model to classify between a cat and a dog) and then generate a new image using the same features it has learned in

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the process ; that is, it can generate a new image of a cat that looks (almost) authentic and is completely different from the set of images you provided for training.

We can simplify the entire explanation for GAN into one simple task (i.e., image generation). If the training time and the sample images provided during train are sufficiently large, it can learn a network that can generate new images that are not

identical to the ones you provided while training ; it generates new images[?].

2.3.4 Data Preprocessing for Deep

Learning

Data preprocessing is a crucial step in preparing data

for deep learning models. It involves various techniques to clean, transform, and enhance the raw data to improve the model's performance. Here's an overview

of key steps in data preprocessing for

deep

learning :

1. Data Cleaning :Data cleaning involves fixing systematic problems or errors in messy data. The most useful data cleaning involves deep domain expertise and could involve identifying and addressing specific observations that may be incorrect.

There are many reasons data may have incorrect values, such as being mistyped, corrupted, duplicated, and so on. Domain expertise may allow obviously erroneous observations to be identified as they are different from what is expected, such as

a

person's height of 200 feet[?].

2. Photo

Resize :The photos will have to be

reshaped prior to modeling so that all

images have the same shape. This is often a small square image. There are many ways to achieve this, although the most common is a simple resize operation that will stretch and deform the aspect ratio of each image and force it into the new shape. We could load all photos and look at the distribution of the photo widths and heights, then design a new photo size that best reflects what we are most

likely

to see in practice. Smaller inputs mean a model that is faster to train, and typically

this concern dominates the choice of image size. In this case, we will follow this approach and choose a fixed size of 200 × 200 pixels[?].

3. Image augmentation : Once we have collected the images, many times we do not have big enough dataset to train the algorithm. It also allows us to add the generalization ability to the network and prevent it from overfitting. For Neural Networks, we require more and more data, and image augmentation can help in

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the training dataset by creating

versions of images. It enhances

the ability of the models as the augmented images provide different

variations along

with the original training dataset[?].

2.3.5 Training Deep Learning Models

1. Loss Functions : Loss is a measure of a model's accuracy, representing

the difference between actual and predicted values. The function used to calculate this loss is called the loss function. Different loss functions can

yield different values for the same loss, affecting the respective model's performance[?].

2. Optimization Algorithms : Here are concise definitions for some common optimization

algorithms :

(a) Genetic Algorithms :

Figure 2.8 – Life cycle of a Genetic Algorithm[?]

Genetic Algorithms (GAs) are searching processes based on the principles of natural selection and genetics.

Typically, a simple GA consists of three operations : Selection, Genetic Operation, and Replacement. Initially, a population is generated randomly. The fitness values of all chromosomes are evaluated by calculating the objective function in a decoded form (phenotype). A group of chromosomes (parents) is selected to generate offspring via genetic operations.

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The offspring's fitness is evaluated similarly to their parents. The chromosomes

in the current population are then replaced by their offspring based on a certain replacement strategy. This GA cycle repeats until a desired termination

criterion is reached, such as a predefined number of generations. If successful, the best chromosome in the final population becomes a highly evolved solution to the problem [?].

Figure 2.9 – Steps of

a Genetic Algorithm[?]

(b) Ant Colony Optimization : Ant System is the first Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) algorithm proposed. Its main characteristic is that, at each iteration, the pheromone values are updated by all the m ants that have built a solution in the iteration itself. The pheromone τ_{ij} , associated with the edge joining cities

i and j , is updated as follows [?] :

$$\tau_{ij} \leftarrow (1 - \rho) \cdot \tau_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^m \tau_{ijk}, \quad (2.6)$$

where ρ is the evaporation rate, m is the number of ants, and τ_{ijk} is the quantity of pheromone laid on edge (i, j) by ant k :

$$\tau_{ijk} = \begin{cases} Q & \text{if ant } k \text{ used edge } (i, j) \text{ in its tour,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (2.7)$$

where Q is a constant, and L_k is the length of the tour constructed by ant k . In the construction of a solution, ants select the next city to visit through a

stochastic mechanism. When ant k is in city i and has so far constructed the

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partial solution sp , the probability of going to city j is given by :

$$P_{ij} = \frac{\tau_{ij}^\alpha \cdot \eta_{ij}^\beta}{\sum_{j \in N(sp)} \tau_{ij}^\alpha \cdot \eta_{ij}^\beta}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{where } p_{kij} = \frac{1}{N(sp)} \quad \text{if } l \in N(sp) \\
 & \text{otherwise, } p_{kij} = 0
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2.8}$$

where $N(sp)$ is the set of feasible components, i.e., edges (i, l) where l is a city not yet visited by ant k . The parameters α and β control the relative importance of the pheromone versus the heuristic information η_{ij} , which is given by :

$$\eta_{ij} = \frac{1}{d_{ij}}
 \tag{2.9}$$

where d_{ij} is the distance between cities i and j .

(c) Fuzzy Logic

Fuzzy logic is a branch of mathematics that allows for approximate reasoning rather than fixed and exact reasoning. In a fuzzy logic control system, three main modules are involved [?]:

- Fuzzification module : Converts crisp inputs into fuzzy sets.
- Inference module : Applies a set of rules to the fuzzy sets to derive fuzzy outputs.
- Defuzzification module : Converts the fuzzy outputs back into crisp values.

3. Regularization : is a technique that reduces overfitting, which occurs when neural networks attempt to memorize training data, rather than learn from it. Humans are capable of overfitting as well. Before we examine the ways that a machine accidentally overfits, we will first explore how humans can suffer from it[?].

4. Hyperparameter Tuning : Hyper-parameters, are the numerous settings for models such as neural networks. Activation functions, hidden neuron counts, layer structure, convolution, max-pooling and dropout are all examples of neural network hyper-parameters. Finding the optimal set of hyper-parameters can seem a daunting task, and, indeed, it is one of the most time-consuming tasks for the AI programmer. However, do not fear, we will provide you with a summary of the current research on neural network architecture in this chapter. We will also show you how to conduct experiments to help determine the optimal architecture for your own networks[?].

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2.3.6 Evaluation and Performance Metrics

1. Accuracy :is another measurement defined as the proportion of true instances retrieved, both positive and negative, among all

instances retrieved. Accuracy is a weighted arithmetic mean of precision and inverse precision. Accuracy can also be high

but precision low, meaning the system performs well but the results produced are slightly spread, compare this with hitting the bulls eye meaning both high accuracy and high precision, see Formula 2.10 [?].

$$TP + TN$$

$$\text{Accuracy} =$$

(2.10)

$$TP + TN + FP + FN$$

2. Precision, Recall, F1-Score :Two metrics used

for measuring the performance of a retrieval system are precision and recall. Precision measures the number of cor

rect instances retrieved divided by all retrieved instances, see Formula 2.11. Recall measures the number of correct instances retrieved divided by all correct instances, see Formula 2.12. Instances can be entities in a text, or a whole document in a document collection (corpus), that were retrieved. A confusion matrix, see Table 2.11 is often used for explaining the different entities. Here follow the definitions of precision and recall, see Formulas 2.11 and

2.12 respectively [?].

TP

P precision =

(2.11)

TP + FP

TP

Recall =

(2.12)

TP + FN

The F-score is defined as the weighted average of both precision and recall depending

on the weight function β ,

see Formula 2.13. The F1-score means

the harmonic mean

between precision and recall, see Formula 2.14, when it

is written F-score it usually

means F1-score. The F-score is also called the F-measure. The F1-score can have different indices giving different weights to precision and recall [?].

$$(1 + \beta^2)$$

$$) \times P \times R$$

$$F_\beta =$$

(2.13)

$$\beta^2 \times P +$$

R

With $\beta = 1$, the standard F-score is obtained, which is equivalent to the F1-score :

$$2 \times P \times R$$

F1

$$= F =$$

(2.14)

$$P + R$$

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3. ROC Curve and AUC :A ROC curve is a two-dimensional plot that illustrates how well a classifier system works as

the discrimination cut-off value is changed over the range of the predictor variable. The x axis or independent variable is the false positive rate

for the predictive test. The y axis or dependent variable is the true positive rate for the predictive test. Each point in ROC space is a true positive false positive data pair for a discrimination cut-off value of the

predictive test. If the probability distributions for the true positive and false positive are both known, a ROC curve can be

plotted from the cumulative distribution function [?].

4. Confusion MatrixA neural network trained for the MNIST data set should be able to take a handwritten digit and predict what digit was actually written. Some digits are more easily confused for others. Any classification neural network has the possibility of misclassifying data. A confusion matrix can measure these misclassifications [?]. You can create a confusion matrix with the

following steps [?] :

- (a) Separate the dataset into training and validation sets.
- (b) Train a neural network on the training set.

(c) Initialize the confusion

matrix with all zeros.

(d) Loop over every element in the validation set.

(e) For every element, increase

the cell corresponding to the expected

class (row)

and the predicted class (column) in the confusion matrix.

(f) Report the confusion

matrix.

2.3.7 Deep Learning for Computer Vision

Computer vision is a field of study focused on the problem of helping computers

to

see.

1. Image Classification : Predict the type or class of an object in an image [?].

– Input : An image with a single object, such as a photograph.

– Output : A class label (e.g., one or more integers that are mapped to class labels).

2. Object Localization : Locate the presence of objects in an image and indicate their location with a bounding box [?].

– Input : An image with one or more objects, such as a photograph.

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– Output : One or more bounding boxes (e.g., defined by a point, width, and height).

3. Object Detection : Locate the presence of objects with a bounding box and types or classes of the located objects in an image [?].

– Input : An image with one or more objects, such as a photograph.

– Output : One or more bounding boxes (e.g., defined by a point, width, and height), and a class label for each bounding box.

4. Image Segmentation : Image segmentation is a computer vision technique that

partitions a digital image into discrete groups of pixels—image segments—to inform object detection and related tasks. By parsing an image’s complex visual data into specifically shaped segments, image segmentation enables faster, more advanced image processing [?].

5. Face Recognition

: Face recognition is nothing new. We are born with a natural capability to differentiate and recognize faces. It is a trivial task for us. We can recognize people we know in any kind of background, different lights, hair color.. [?].

2.4 Conclusion

Form recognition combines traditional image processing and advanced deep learning techniques to enhance document processing accuracy. Preprocessing improves input data quality, while deep learning offers robust solutions for complex tasks. This chapter outlined the essential methods, from preprocessing to deep learning models, demonstrating their integration for efficient form recognition. Future advancements will continue to refine these approaches, further automating and optimizing document processing workflows.

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Chapitre 3

Model Development and Performance

Evaluation

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present our Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) models, their performance, datasets, and a novel

preprocessing technique. We describe the structure of the CNN models and discuss the use of the MNIST dataset, enhanced through a

skeletonization preprocessing step. In this preprocessing, handwritten digits are converted into skeletal forms, which can improve the accuracy of recognition. We compare model performance using Genetic Algorithm (GA) and Particle Swarm Optimization

(PSO). Performance metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score demonstrate significant improvements with our preprocessing method. A comprehensive overview of our models, datasets, and proposed preprocessing technique is provided in this chapter.

3.2 Setup and Training Procedure

For our handwritten digit recognition project, we used the Google Colab platform, leveraging only the CPU for our experiments. We implemented two approaches to generate convolutional neural network (CNN) architectures : one model using a genetic algorithm and another model using the particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm. Each approach was run for 10 iterations. Each generated CNN architecture was trained for 20 epochs, using the Adam optimizer and a batch size of 128. These experiments were designed

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to develop a CNN architecture that could correctly classify handwritten digits from our dataset.

3.3 Dataset

In our work, we

use the MNIST dataset, which consists of 70,000 28x28 black-and-white images of handwritten digits extracted

from two NIST databases. The training dataset consists of 60,000 images, while the testing dataset comprises 10,000 images. The dataset contains 10 classes, one for each digit from zero to nine. Additionally, we

use 20% of the training data as validation data.

The following table provides the distribution of images across the classes in the training and test sets :

Classes

		Training image	Test image
0	5923	980	
1	6742	1135	
2	5958	1032	

3	6131	1010
4	5842	982
5	5421	892
6	5918	958
7	6265	1028
8	5851	974
9	5949	1009
Total	60 000	10 000

Table 3.1 – Distribution

of images in the MNIST dataset across training and test sets

The performance of different algorithms and models in the field

of image classification can be evaluated by using the MNIST dataset, which is a widely used benchmark. The uniform distribution of images across classes ensures that the dataset provides a comprehensive evaluation of a model’s ability to recognize handwritten digits. Our experimentation and analysis of CNN models optimized using Genetic Algorithm and PSO is

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Figure 3.1 – Random samples of each image class in dataset based on this dataset.

3.3.1 Our Proposed Preprocessing for MNIST dataset

As part of our project, we applied a preprocessing technique to the MNIST dataset in order to enhance the dataset used for training. Specifically, we used a skeletonization function from Python to transform the handwritten digits into their thinned, skeletal forms. This preprocessing step modifies the original dataset to a thin-line representation, potentially improving the model’s ability to recognize and differentiate between different digits.

Purpose and Rationale :

The skeletonization process is designed to strip away extraneous pixel data, leaving only the essential structure of each digit. This could prove especially advantageous

for

the field of machine learning models, as it reduces noise and focuses on the

most critical

features of the input data. By converting each digit to its skeleton form, we aim to make it easier for the CNN model to identify and classify digits based on their core shapes and patterns. Furthermore, this technology improves the model's ability to detect thin numbers. The preprocessed version makes the numbers look smaller and more concise.

This may result in the loss of some pixels, resulting in thinning or even disappearance of

parts of numbers. With this transformation, the model must learn and recognize numbers even when they are reduced to their basic structure. As a result, the model will be more durable and accurate in classifying accurate and complex numbers.

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Implementation Details :

We implemented the skeletonization using the skimage library in Python, which provides robust tools for image processing. The skeletonization function works by iteratively thinning the image until only the skeletal structure remains. Here's a brief outline of the

steps involved :

- Image Loading : Load the original MNIST images.
- Thresholding : Convert the images to binary

format where the pixel values are

either

0 or 1.

- Skeletonization : Apply the skeletonization algorithm to produce the thinned, skeletal version of each digit.
- Dataset Expansion : Increase the dataset size by augmenting the skeletonized images with slight variations to improve model robustness.

Dataset Overview :

After preprocessing, the new dataset contains 140,000 images, 120,000 for training and 20,000 for testing. This expansion and transformation of the dataset aim to provide a more robust training set, helping the model to generalize better. Additionally, we use

20% of the 120,000 training images as validation data.

Visual Comparison :

Below are examples of the dataset before and after the proposed preprocessing :

Figure 3.2 – Example of the dataset before and after the proposed preprocessing

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3.4 CNN models presentation

In this work, we utilized two optimization algorithms : Genetic Algorithm

and Particle

Swarm Optimization (PSO). These algorithms were employed to optimize the performance of our

model, ensuring efficient and effective training. We present these algorithms in detail to highlight their roles in improving the model's performance.

3.4.1 Genetic Algorithm (GA)

The concept of genetic algorithms is based on natural selection, and

is used to find optimal solutions to complex problems. Here's a precis of the way it works :

- Population Initialization : We start by generating an initial population of hyper parameters randomly. A unique combination

of hyperparameter values characterizes

every individual in the population.

- Fitness Evaluation : Each individual in the population is evaluated using a fitness function. Our fitness measure is the accuracy of the CNN model using the test data.
- Parent Selection : The individuals in the population with the highest accuracy are selected to become the parents of the next generation.
- Crossover : The selected parents are combined to create a

new generation of individuals.

Crossover involves taking the average of the hyperparameters of two parents to produce a child.

- Mutation : A small percentage of the new population is subjected to mutation, where minor random changes are made to the hyperparameters. This helps maintain genetic diversity within the population and avoids local minima.
- Iterations : The steps of selection, crossover, and mutation are repeated over several generations. With each generation, the population evolves towards the optimal combination of hyperparameters.
- Final Result : After a certain number of generations,

the algorithm returns the best individual from the last generation, which is the combination of

hyperparameters that yielded the fine outcomes in phrases of accuracy.

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3.4.2 The Particle Swarm Optimization Algorithm (PSO)

In PSO, the optimal population size is determined by the social behavior of birds flocking or fish schooling. Here's a summary of how it works :

- Initialization : A swarm of particles is initialized, with each particle representing a potential solution (learning rate,

regularization parameter, and dropout rates).

- Objective Function : In our case, the CNN model's negative accuracy on the test data is used to evaluate each particle's position. The goal is to minimize this

objective function, thereby maximizing the model accuracy.

- Velocity and Position Update : Every particle adjusts its position in the search space by updating its velocity. The update is influenced by its own best-known position and the best-known positions of its neighbors. This process mimics the social aspect of swarming behavior.

This step is implicitly handled by the ParticleSwarm() optimizer in the Optimal library, which updates the particles' positions and velocities based on the objective function evaluations.

- Iterative Optimization : Iteratively updating positions and velocities, the particles gradually achieve the optimal

hyperparameter set. During each iteration, the fitness of the new positions is evaluated, and the particles' personal best and the global best positions are updated accordingly.

- Convergence

: After a specified

number of iterations, the algorithm converges on the set of hyperparameters that yield the highest accuracy. The best

hyperparameters found by the swarm are then used to train the final model.

3.4.3 Models Architecture

CNN models in this study consist of several convolutions, pooling, and fully connected layers. The architecture of the model is designed to efficiently extract features from the input images and perform classification. Below is a detailed description of each layer in the model :

- Input Layer : 28x28 grayscale images.

Figure 3.3 – CNN architecture optimezed by GA

- First Convolutional Layer : 6 filters, each of size 5x5, followed by ReLU activation.
- First MaxPooling Layer : 2x2 pooling size.
- Second Convolutional Layer : 16 filters, each of size 5x5, followed by ReLU activation.
- Second MaxPooling Layer : 2x2 pooling size.
- Flatten Layer : Converts the 2D matrix information to a vector.
- First Dense Layer : 120 units, followed by ReLU activation.
- Dropout Layer : In our models, the Dropout rate typically ranges between 0 and 0.5, depending on the hyperparameters of each specific model.
- Second Dense Layer : 84 units, followed by ReLU activation.
- Second Dropout Layer : In our models, the Dropout rate typically ranges between 0 and 0.5, depending on the hyperparameters of each specific model.
- Output Layer : 10 units (one for each class)

This model consists of 44,426 parameters, all of which are trained to recognize handwritten numbers.

3.4.4 Hyperparameters for each model

We present in this section the hyperparameters obtained from GA and PSO for our CNN models. The key hyperparameters identified include learning rate, weight decay, and dropout.

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Chapter 3 Model Development and Performance Evaluation CNN models with traditional MNIST dataset

1. CNN model optimized by GA

Here, we present the CNN model hyperparameters optimized by genetic algorithm. The table below (table 3.2)lists the hyperparameters, their respective ranges, and the best values identified during the optimization process.

Hyperparameter	Range	Best Value
Learning Rate	[0.0001 : 0.001]	0.0004
Weight Decay	[0 : 0.001]	0
Dropout 1	[0 : 0.5]	0.1
Dropout 2	[0 : 0.5]	0.1

Table 3.2 – Optimized Hyperparameters with the Genetic Algorithm and Their Best Values

2. CNN model optimized by PSO

Here, we present the CNN model hyperparameters optimized by PSO algorithm. The table below (table 3.3)lists the hyperparameters, their respective ranges, and the best values identified during the optimization process.

Hyperparameter	Range	Best Value
Learning Rate	[0.0001 : 0.001]	0.0001
Weight Decay	[0 : 0.001]	0

Dropout 1	[0 : 0.5]	0.2
Dropout 2	[0 : 0.5]	0.1

Table 3.3 – Optimized Hyperparameters with PSO and Their Best Values

CNN models with enhanced MNIST dataset

1. CNN model optimized by GA

Here, we present the CNN model hyperparameters optimized by GA. The table

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below (table 3.4)lists the hyperparameters, their respective ranges, and the best values identified during the optimization process.

Hyperparameter	Range	Best Value
Learning Rate	[0.0001 : 0.001]	0.0003
Weight Decay	[0 : 0.001]	0
Dropout 1	[0 : 0.5]	0.14
Dropout 2	[0 : 0.5]	0.1

Table 3.4 – Optimized Hyperparameters with the Genetic algorithm and Their Best Values

2. CNN model optimized by PSO

Here, we present the CNN model hyperparameters optimized by PSO algorithm.

The table below (table 3.5)lists the hyperparameters, their respective ranges, and the best values identified during the optimization process.

Hyperparameter	Range	Best Value
Learning Rate	[0.0001 : 0.001]	0.0001
Weight Decay	[0 : 0.001]	0
Dropout 1	[0 : 0.5]	0.2
Dropout 2	[0 : 0.5]	0.15

Table 3.5 – Optimized Hyperparameters with the PSO algorithm and Their Best Values

3.5 Experimental material and platforms

3.5.1 Julia

Julia is an open source high-level, high-performance dynamic programming language designed at MIT for large-scale, partial-differential equation simulations and distributed

linear algebra.

Julia's ability to support scientific computing makes it a good choice for designing machine learning models and AI simulations.

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Compared to other platforms, Julia is known for being easy to use. Additionally, it is acknowledged for its speed comparable to C, dynamic nature akin to Ruby, general capabilities like Python, statistical friendliness similar to R, powerful performance in linear

algebra like Matlab, and natural proficiency in string processing like Perl.

3.5.2 google colab

Google Colab is a cloud-based platform provided by Google for collaborative coding, where users can write, execute, and share code. It offers access to various computing resources such as CPU, GPU, and TPU. Users can run machine learning models, analyze data, and perform computational tasks using Jupyter notebooks without the need for local setup or

installation.

3.5.3 Flux

Flux.jl is a powerful and flexible machine learning library in Julia, known for its simplicity

and high performance. It offers an intuitive API for model building and training, utilizing Julia's JIT compilation for efficient execution. Flux.jl integrates well with other Julia packages like CUDA.jl for GPU acceleration, making it suitable for both research and production.

3.5.4 Plots

The Plots package in Julia is a versatile, high-level plotting tool designed to work seamlessly with multiple plotting backends. Its goal is to provide powerful functionality while remaining intuitive, allowing users to create sophisticated visualizations with minimal code.

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3.5.5 Images

Julia's Images package offers a complete framework for image processing and computer vision tasks. It offers a rich set of tools for loading, manipulating, and analyzing images with ease and efficiency. The package supports a wide variety of image formats and integrates seamlessly with Julia's ecosystem for scientific computing. Images.jl is highly extensible, allowing users to implement custom algorithms and pipelines for their specific needs. Both academic research and practical applications in image analysis can benefit from its powerful combination of performance and flexibility.

3.6 Results and discussion

3.6.1 CNN models with traditional MNIST dataset

We discuss the results achieved using these

hyperparameters, including the accuracy and loss curves, the ROC curve, the confusion matrix, and the

classification report.

CNN model with GA

First of all, we achieved an impressive test accuracy of 98.92%. The results clearly indicate that the CNN model trained with optimized hyperparameters is effective.

To provide

a comprehensive evaluation of the model's performance, we present the following results :

1. Accuracy and

Loss Curves

In the figure 3.4 , both training and test sets have accuracy curves over 20 epochs.

The training accuracy represented

by the blue line, while the red line represents

the test accuracy. There is a

slight dip in accuracy at first, which is normal as the

model learns and adjusts its weights. The training accuracy quickly improves and stabilizes around 99.8%, indicating that the model is learning well from the training

data. The test accuracy shows some fluctuations but generally remains high, around 98.9%, demonstrating good generalization to unseen data.

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Figure 3.4 – Accuracy Curve of the Genetic Algorithm

Figure 3.5 – Loss Curve of the Genetic Algorithm

Figure 3.5

shows the loss curves for both the training and validation sets over 20 epochs. The blue line represents the training loss, while the red line represents the

validation loss. Initially, both training and test loss are relatively high, with the validation loss showing more variability. As training progresses,

the training loss decreases steadily, reaching a low value of 0.004 at the end of the 20 epochs. The validation loss

also decreases but shows more fluctuations compared to the training loss, ending at a value of 0.05. Overall, the model demonstrates strong performance, with both training and test losses significantly reduced by the end of the training period.

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2. Confusion Matrix

The confusion matrix for the model is shown

in Figure 3.6.

The diagonal elements of the confusion matrix represent the instances that were

Figure 3.6 – Confusion matrix

correctly classified by the model.

The off-diagonal elements represent the misclassified instances, providing insight into specific classes where the model may have difficulty distinguishing between similar digits.

In general,

the confusion matrix substantiates the

high performance of the CNN

model optimized with the genetic

algorithm in accurately classifying

handwritten

digits.

3. ROC curve

The provided ROC curve graphically represents

the performance of a classification

model, with the x-axis denoting the False Positive Rate (FPR) and the y-axis representing the True Positive Rate (TPR). This blue

ROC curve illustrates a high

TPR over various thresholds and a low FPR over lower thresholds, as indicated by a vertical ascent at the beginning and a horizontal run at the top. This signifies exceptional model performance, close to the top left corner of the plot, which is characteristic of a nearly perfect classifier. The dashed diagonal line serves as a baseline, representing random guessing where TPR equals FPR. In comparison to a

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random guess classifier, the model shows excellent discriminatory power because the ROC curve lies near the top left corner. Show figure 3.7 for a visual representation

of the ROC curve, which clearly demonstrates the model's high performance and excellent ability to distinguish between positive and negative classes.

Figure 3.7 – ROC Curve of the Genetic Algorithm

4. Classification Report

The classification report gives a comprehensive analysis of performance metrics for every class in the digit recognition

task. These metrics include precision, recall, and F1-score, which are essential for evaluating the accuracy and effectiveness of the model. The figure below shown the results :

Figure 3.8 – Classification report of the Genetic Algorithm

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The model performs

exceptionally well across all classes, as indicated by the overall

precision, recall, and F1-score values of 0.9892. Specifically, the presicion is 0.9893.

The report indicates that the model maintains a high level of performance consistently across all digit classes, with slight variations. For instance, class 4 has the highest precision (0.9990), while class 9 has the lowest precision (0.9783). Nevertheless, all classes exhibit strong performance metrics, demonstrating the model's robustness and accuracy in recognizing handwritten digits.

CNN model with PSO

First of all, we achieved an impressive test accuracy of 98.98%. It is clear from these results

that the CNN model trained with the optimized hyperparameters is effective.

For the purpose of providing a comprehensive evaluation of the performance of the model, we present the following results :

1. Accuracy and Loss Curves

The graph provided shows the accuracy of a CNN model optimized using the

PSO

algorithm over 20 epochs, with separate lines representing training and test accuracy. The training accuracy starts at approximately 98% and consistently increases, reaching around 99.8% by the 20th epoch. The model improves its performance with each epoch as it learns from the training data. The validation accuracy also shows a positive trend, starting near 97.7% and reaching approximately

98.95% by the

20th epoch. The results demonstrate that the PSO algorithm effectively optimizes the

CNN model, achieving high accuracy on

both training and validation datasets.

The final accuracies of 99.8% for training and 98.95% for validation data reflect the

model's strong learning. Show figure 3.9 to visualize the accuracy trends.

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Figure 3.9 – Accuracy curve of PSO algorithm

Initially, both training and validation loss values start relatively high, around 0.05

and 0.07 respectively. By the 20th epoch, the training loss has decreased steadily, reaching approximately 0.005, indicating that the model is effectively minimizing error. The validation loss also shows a significant reduction, reaching around 0.03 by the 20th epoch. Overall, the graph shows that the PSO algorithm effectively reduces both training and validation losses, with the final values indicating a strong

learning capability and good generalization performance of the CNN model. Show figure 3.10

Figure 3.10 – Loss curve of PSO algorithm

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2. Confusion Matrix

The confusion matrix shows the model's performance in classifying handwritten digits from the MNIST dataset when optimized using the Particle Swarm Opti

mization (PSO) algorithm. Classification accuracy is high across all classes, with diagonal values close to 100%. For instance, the correct classifications for digit '0' are 977 out of 980, and for digit '1', they are 1130 out of 1135. Misclassifications are minimal, as indicated by the low off-diagonal values. For example, digit '3' is misclassified as digit '5' only 4 times, and digit '8' as digit '3' 3 times. Some specific misclassification trends are observed, such as digit '5' being confused with digit '3' 9 times and with digit '6' 1 time. Digit '4' is misclassified as '9' 14 times, which is slightly higher compared to other classes. Despite these minor misclassifications, the overall performance is highly consistent, with the majority of predictions being correct. Show figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11 – Confusion Matrix of PSO algorithm

3.

ROC Curve

The ROC curve for the PSO-optimized model demonstrates excellent performance, with the curve

and the top border closely following the left-hand border

of the plot,

indicating a high true positive rate and a low false positive rate.

Its near-perfect classification ability is evident in an AUC (area under the ROC curve) close to 1.0, demonstrating high precision, recall, and overall performance. Show figure 3.12.

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Figure 3.12 – ROC Curve of PSO algorithm

4. Classification Report

The classification report for the PSO-optimized CNN model demonstrates exceptio

nal performance in classifying handwritten digits from the MNIST dataset. In all classes, the model achieves high precision, recall, and F1-scores, with overall metrics

of 0.9898. This indicates the model's accuracy in making correct predictions and its effectiveness in identifying positive instances. The consistently high scores across all digit classes reflect the model's robustness and reliability in distinguishing between different handwritten digits with minimal errors. Figure 3.13 provides detailed

values for each class.

Figure 3.13 – Classification Report of PSO algorithm

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Evaluation

3.6.2 Comparision of results

To compare the performance of the two CNN models,

one optimized using a genetic algorithm (GA) and the other using particle swarm optimization (PSO), we examine the provided metrics and the accompanying bar chart. As depicted in the chart, both optimization techniques yield extremely high accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 scores. Specifically, the accuracy for the GA-optimized model is 98.92%, while the PSO-optimized model achieves a slightly higher accuracy of 98.98%.

According to the confusion matrices for both models, the GA model underperforms in some classes compared to the PSO model, which has fewer misclassifications. For instance, in class 2, the GA model misclassifies more samples compared to the PSO model. This trend is consistent across other classes, indicating that the PSO model might be better at distinguishing between different digits, especially in challenging cases.

The precision, recall, and F1 scores for both models are also extremely close, with the PSO model having marginally better scores across these metrics. This suggests that while both models perform exceptionally well, the PSO model has a slight edge in terms of generalizing better to the test data.

Overall, the comparison highlights that while both optimization algorithms are effective, PSO provides a marginal improvement in performance metrics. The provided image further visualizes this comparison, showing the detailed breakdown of these metrics for each model. Here is figure 3.14 presenting the detailed breakdown of these metrics :

Figure 3.14 – Comparison of CNN Model Performance with different optimization algorithms

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3.6.3 CNN models with enhanced MNIST dataset

CNN model with GA

1. Accuracy and Loss Curves

Graph showing in figure 3.15 CNN accuracy over 20 epochs for training and validation datasets. The training accuracy, depicted by the blue line, starts at approximately 97.66%, steadily increasing to around 99.5% by the 20th epoch, indicating that the model is effectively learning from the training data. The validation accuracy, shown by the orange line, begins at about 96.6% steadily increasing to around 98.4%. This demonstrates that the model is not only learning well from the training data but also generalizing effectively to the validation data.

Figure 3.15 – Accuracy curve of Genetec Algorithm

In Figure 3.16, we show the CNN's loss values over 20 epochs for both the training and validation datasets. The training loss, represented by the blue line, starts at a low value and continues to decrease, with minor fluctuations, ending around 0.008 at the 20th epoch.

Based on this consistent decline, the model is effectively minimizing the training data error. The

validation loss, shown by the orange line, begins at a higher value (0.1), reaching approximately 0.06 by the 20th epoch. Overall, the model demonstrates strong performance, with both training and test losses significantly reduced by the end of the training period.

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Figure 3.16 – Loss curve of Genetec Algorithm

2. Confusion matrix

Overall, the confusion matrix of this model indicates that the model is performing well, with most samples correctly classified. However, there are classes, particularly classes 3, 5, and 9, where classification errors are slightly more pronounced. This could indicate similarities between these classes or shared features that make the distinction more challenging for the model. The figure 3.17 represents the detailed

confusion matrix.

Figure 3.17 – Confusion matrix of Genetec Algorithm

3. ROC curve

Based on the ROC curve(show figure 3.18), the blue line shows

the performance of

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the classification model, while the dashed line shows the results of random guessing.

It plots the True Positive Rate (TPR) towards the False Positive Rate (FPR). The curve begins at (0,0)

, sharply rises to (0,1), then runs parallel to the y-axis to (1,1), indicating perfect performance where TPR equals

1 and FPR equals 0. The

Area Under the Curve (AUC) measures the model's ability to differentiate between positive and negative classes, with 1 representing perfect classification.

As the ROC

curve closely hugs the top-left corner, its AUC is nearly 1, indicating near-perfect performance. The dashed line acts as a baseline for random guessing, which the blue curve significantly surpasses. According to the ROC curve, the classification model performs exceptionally well, nearly perfectly differentiating positive from negative classes with a high level of accuracy.

Figure 3.18 – ROC curve of Genetec Algorithm

4. Classification report

In the classification report represented by the figure 3.19, each class has its precision,

recall, and F1-score calculated, reflecting how well the model predicts each specific

class. For most classes, the precision and recall values are very high, typically above

0.98, indicating that the model is highly accurate in its

predictions and correctly identifies true positives while minimizing false positives and false negatives. Class 0 through Class 9

show minor variations in their scores, with Class 5 and Class 9 having slightly lower precision and recall compared to the other classes. Despite these minor discrepancies, the overall precision, recall, and F1-score for the model stand at 0.9845, showcasing the model's robust performance and generalization ca

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Chapter 3 Model Development and Performance Evaluation capabilities across the dataset. This high overall performance metric suggests that the

model is reliable and performs consistently well across different classes.

Figure 3.19 – Classification report of Genetec Algorithm

CNN model with PSO

1. Accuracy and Loss Curves

The graph illustrates the accuracy of a CNN model

over 20 epochs, depicting both training and validation accuracy. The training accuracy, represented by the blue line, starts around 97.9% and shows a steep increase during the first few epochs, leveling off around 99.5% by the 20th epoch, suggesting effective learning from the training data. The orange line, which represents the validation accuracy, begins close to 97.6% and gradually increases to around 98.6% by the 20th epoch. Despite showing minor fluctuations, this suggests some variability in the model's performance when dealing with unseen data. These accuracy curves demonstrate that the CNN model achieves high accuracy on both training and validation datasets. The final accuracies of 99.5% for training and 98.6% for validation data reflect the model's strong

learning

and generalization capabilities. Show figure 3.20 to visualize the model's learning process and performance trends over the epochs.

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Figure 3.20 – Accuracy curve of PSO algorithm

The "Loss vs Epoch" graph (figure 3.21) shows the training and validation loss of a CNN model over 20 epochs. The training loss, depicted by the blue line, decreases significantly from approximately 0.06 at the first epoch to around 0.01 by the 20th epoch, indicating effective learning

and reduction of errors on the training

data. The

validation loss, represented by the orange

line, also decreases initially but

shows some

fluctuations between epochs 10 and 20, settling at approximately 0.045 by the final epoch. These fluctuations suggest variability in the model's performance on unseen data. Despite this, the overall trend of decreasing validation loss indicates that

the

model is generalizing well, although not as smoothly as on the training data. The final epoch shows a validation loss of 0.045 and a training loss of 0.01.

Figure 3.21 – Loss curve of PSO algorithm

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2. Confusion matrix

The confusion matrix shows the model's performance in classifying handwritten digits from a dataset. Classification accuracy is high across all classes, with most values along the diagonal indicating correct classifications. For instance, digit

'0' is

correctly classified 1952 times out of 1960, digit '1' is correctly classified 2247 times

out of 2270, and digit '2' is correctly classified 2028 times out of 2064.

Misclassifications are minimal, with off-diagonal values indicating errors. For example, digit '4'

is misclassified as digit '9' 13 times. Overall, the model shows strong performance,

with the majority of predictions being accurate and only a few misclassifications present. Show figure 3.22 to visualize the distribution of predictions

Figure 3.22 – Confusion matrix of PSO

algorithm

3. ROC curve

A high true positive rate and a low false positive rate are evidenced by the ROC curve of the PSO-optimized model, which is closely tracing the top and left

borders

of the plot. Its near-perfect classification capability is evident with an AUC (Area

Under the ROC Curve) approaching 1.0. Show figure 3.23

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Figure 3.23 – ROC curve of PSO algorithm

4. Classification report

We note from the classification report shown in

the figure 3.24, the precision values ranging from 0.9669 to 0.9951, indicate the proportion of

true positive predictions

among all positive predictions made for each class. Recall values, ranging from 0.9757

to 0.9959,

reflect the proportion of true

positives correctly identified out of all actual

positives for each class. The

F1-scores, combining precision and recall, range from 0.9781 to 0.9931, providing a balanced measure of the model's accuracy for each class. The overall metrics show an excellent performance with precision, recall, and F1-score all at 0.9852. Figure 3.25 presents the detailed breakdown of these metrics for each class.

Figure 3.24 – Classification report of PSO algorithm

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3.6.4 Comparision of results

As shown in the provided results and chart, there is a subtle but notable difference between

the two models optimized with Genetic Algorithm (GA) and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO). The PSO-optimized CNN model slightly

outperforms the GA-optimized model across all evaluated metrics. Specifically, the PSO model achieves an accuracy of 98.52%, marginally

higher than the GA model's 98.46%. Similarly, the precision, recall, and F1 score for the

PSO model all stand at 98.5%, compared to 98.4% for the GA model. These consistent improvements suggest that the PSO model handles certain classes better, as evidenced by fewer misclassifications in the confusion matrices. The bar graph visually corroborates this, showing nearly identical performance with the PSO model having a slight edge in all metrics. As a result, while both optimization techniques are effective, the PSO-optimized model shows marginally superior performance, suggesting that PSO might be a more effective optimization algorithm for this particular CNN model and

dataset.Show figure 3.25.

Figure 3.25 – Comparison of CNN Model Performance with Genetic Algorithm and Particle Swarm Optimization

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3.7 Comparision of models

On the chart (figure 3.26), four models are compared based on their accuracy and loss : PSO+MNIST, GA+MNIST, PSO+newMNIST, and GA+newMNIST. The first two models use the standard MNIST dataset, while the latter two use an enhanced dataset with preprocessing through skeletonization, resulting in a new dataset of 140,000 samples.

Observing the chart, we see that PSO+MNIST has an accuracy of 0.9900

and a loss of

0.0371, GA+MNIST has an accuracy of 0.9892 and a loss of

0.0478, PSO+newMNIST has

an accuracy of 0.9851 and a loss of

0.0518, and GA+newMNIST has an accuracy of 0.9812

and a loss of 0.0783. The models trained

on the enhanced dataset (PSO+newMNIST and GA+newMNIST) show a slight decrease in accuracy but are trained on a more diverse set of shapes due to the preprocessing. This means they can recognize a wider variety of patterns and are more robust to variations in the data. In practical terms, although the losses are slightly higher, these models are better because they generalize more effectively and recognize a broader range of patterns. This makes them particularly suited to applications where varied pattern recognition is crucial.

In conclusion, despite a slight increase in loss, the PSO+newMNIST and GA+newMNIST models are better because they benefit from the diversity and richness of the enhanced dataset, improving their generalization ability and performance in varied real-world scenarios.

Figure 3.26 – Comparision of models

Chapter 3Model Development and Performance Evaluation

3.8Comparison with other works

The following table (3.6) presents a comparison with other works in the field

Reference	dataset	model	accuracy
[?]			
	MNIST		
CNN+KNN	98.80		
[?]	MNIST	CNN	99.2
[?]	MNIST	CNN+gabor	
98.78			
[?]	MNIST	CNN	
98.16			
[?]	MNIST	MLP	
97.32			
[?]	MNIST	CNN	
98.86			
Our proposed method	MNIST	CNN+GA	98.92
	MNIST	CNN+PSO	
98.98			

MNIST+preprocessing	CNN+GA	98.45	
	MNIST+preprocessing		CNN+PSO
98.51			

Table 3.6 – Comparison with other works

3.9Conclusion

The conclusion of this chapter highlights the successful implementation and evaluation of CNN models. By comparing Genetic Algorithm (GA) and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), we demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach and the significant potential of these optimization methods to enhance CNN-based recognition systems. This comprehensive overview provides valuable insights into the benefits of our preprocessing method and the strengths of different optimization techniques in the context of handwritten digit

recognition. Furthermore, for our platform presented in the upcoming chapter, we have chosen the CNN model optimized with PSO and the new dataset.

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4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will discuss the final part, which represents the implementation of

our project, based on the mechanisms mentioned above in the Third chapter (CNN model optimized with PSO and the new dataset). This chapter consists of two parts : the

first

presents the environment of our program, as well as the results of the tests

that were

conducted.

4.2 Platform Overview

In the following illustration, we show how our system predicts an image by showing each layer it must pass through 4.1. Beginning with image acquisition followed by preprocessing steps such as binarization and skeletonization. The preprocessed image undergoes

segmentation into lines, words, and digits, which are then subjected to prediction and location identification. Finally, the prediction results and digit locations are concatenated

to generate the final recognized output.

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Figure 4.1 – General diagram of our platform system

4.3 Development Tools

VS Code : Visual Studio Code is a source code editor and an integrated development environment (IDE) of Microsoft. It is open-source and cross-platform, meaning it runs on Windows, Linux and Mac. It was designed for web developers, but it supports many other programming languages such as C++, C#, Python, Java, etc. It offers many features

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like syntax highlighting, auto-completion, error highlighting, code navigation, debugging, versioning, integration with Git, and many more. It is also extensible using a wide variety of extensions developed by the community, allowing developers to customize the editor according to their needs.

4.4 Configuration Used in the implementation :

The configuration of the hardware used in our implementation is :

- ASUS VivoBook Core i7-8550U CPU @ 1.80GHz 1.99 GHz.
- RAM size 16 GB.
- 500GB Hard Drive Size.
- Windows 64-bit Exploitation System.

4.5 Server-Side Development

To ensure that our platform works effectively, we use a range of techniques and technologies,

including

4.5.1 RESTful API

A REST API (also known as RESTful API) is an application programming interface (API

or web API) that conforms to the constraints of REST architectural style and allows for interaction with RESTful web services.

We use RESTful APIs to integrate all the components of our application. Our platform utilizes multiple programming languages, including Julia, Python, and JavaScript. RESTful APIs provide a standardized and efficient way to enable communication and data exchange between these diverse components. This approach allows us to maintain flexibility and scalability while ensuring seamless interoperability across different parts of our system.

4.5.2 RESTful APIs in Julia

This language is fast, dynamic, and fits the needs of a wide variety of platforms, paradigms, and programming paradigms. Visit its website for details on its science, vi
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source ecosystem.

In our application, Julia is employed primarily for server-side functionalities, model management, image preprocessing, and prediction tasks. Specifically, we use :

1. Genie.jl :

We utilize Genie.jl to ensure that our data transfers correctly and efficiently when

communicating with our Python API. By employing RESTful APIs, we facilitate seamless and reliable data exchange between Genie.jl and Python.

2. BSON : Used to load our pre-trained machine learning model (our CNNs model) stored in a BSON file.

3. Images and related libraries :These are used for loading, converting, and pre processing images to prepare them for prediction.

4. Flux : This

library facilitates the prediction

process using the loaded model.

5. JSON : Used for encoding the

prediction results into JSON format,

making it easy

to return responses from the server.

4.5.3

RESTful APIs in Python

Python is an interpreted, object-oriented, high-level programming language with dynamic semantics. Its high-level built in data structures, combined with dynamic typing and dynamic binding, make it very attractive for Rapid Application Development, as well as for use as a scripting or glue language to connect existing components together. Python is utilized extensively in

our FastAPI application for various

tasks,

including :

1. FastApi is a modern, fast (high-performance), web framework for building APIs

with Python based on standard Python type hints.

2. Image Processing

: Python's OpenCV library (cv2) is employed for image processing tasks such as resizing, rotating, converting to grayscale, and applying various filters. These operations are crucial for extracting text from images and enhancing image quality.

3. HTTP Requests : Python's requests library is used to make HTTP requests to an external server endpoint (julia server) to obtain predictions for processed images.

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4. Server Configuration and Deployment : Python is used to configure the server settings and start the FastAPI application using the uvicorn ASGI server. Additionally, the application is designed to run on the specified host and port for deployment.

4.6 Client-Side Development

In our application, the client-side development focuses on creating an intuitive, responsive, and dynamic user interface. We leverage modern frontend technologies to ensure

a seamless user experience. Below are the key technologies and techniques we employ :

4.6.1 React.js for the Frontend

1. Introduction to React.js : React.js is a popular JavaScript library for building user interfaces, particularly for single-page applications where data dynamically changes over time. React.js allows developers to create large web applications that can update and render efficiently in response to data changes.

In our application, we use React.js to build an intuitive and responsive user interface.

Specifically, React.js enables us to Handle API Responses and Display Prediction Results.

2. Integration with RESTful APIs Making HTTP calls to the backend server and changing the user interface based on the result is how a React app consumes a RESTful API. The fundamental procedures for using a RESTful API in React are as follows :

- Install an HTTP request library, such as Axios.
- Specify the RESTful API endpoint URLs that you want to use.
- In your React project, create a component that will make the API call. This can be a class-based component or a hook-based functional component.
- Make a request to the relevant endpoint using the HTTP request library, handling in any necessary parameters or data.

—

Process the API response by changing the state of the component with the obtained data.

If an error occurs, respond correctly

to the error status.

– Render the changed state in the user interface of the component.

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4.6.2 Tailwind Css

Tailwind CSS is a CSS framework that provides a set of utility classes, enabling developers to create a wide range of styles without writing custom CSS. Instead of defining CSS rules, you apply utility classes directly to your HTML elements. This approach streamlines the development process and offers great flexibility for customization. In our application, we use Tailwind CSS to Rapidly Develop Styles, Customize Easily, Reduce CSS Overhead.

4.7 Platform components

The image below 4.2 shows the interface of the OCR Platform. It consists of various components that play a specific role in facilitating OCR (Optical Character Recognition) and enhancing user interaction.

Figure 4.2 – Platform Components

1. Header

– Title : “THE OCR PLATFORM”

2. Options Panel (Left Sidebar)

– Crop all : A button to crop all selected images.

– Right rotation : A button to rotate the selected area to the right with 8 ° .

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- Left rotation : A button to rotate the selected area to the left with 8° .
- Smart Erase : A button to intelligently erase parts where the user select in the image.

3. Main Workspace (Center)

- Image Upload Area : A central area where users can drop images or click to upload them. This is where the image to be processed will be displayed.
- Predict it : A button to run the OCR prediction on

the selected area from

the image.

- Show Output Image : A button to run the image after the preprocessing and the segmentation.

- Fetch Predictions : A

button to fetch text predictions from

the OCR process.

4. Filters Panel (Right Sidebar)

- Remove Shadows : A button to remove shadows from the image.
- Lighten : A slider to adjust the lightness of the image.
- Magic Color :

A slider to enhance the colors in the

image.

- Binarize : Convert the image to black

and white by specifying a brightness

level cutoff.

5. Bottom Action Bar

- Save the coordinates : A button to save the coordinates of the processed image area in .txt file.

4.8 Test and Implementation

We design our platform to be simple and easy to use and in this section we will explain

the steps to get the prediction of an image with handwritten numbers. The flowchart below 4.3 illustrates the HDR process : starting from opening the platform, optionally adjusting image settings, selecting the area, predicting, and finally fetching predictions or displaying the output image.

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Figure 4.3 – Steps to the HDR

Step 1 : Open the HDR Platform Load the image with handwritten numbers into the HDR platform. You will see the initial screen as shown in Figure 4.4

Figure 4.4 – First step to the HDR

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Step 2 : Adjust Image Settings (Optional)

–

Use the filter options on the right to remove shadows, lighten the image, adjust the

magic color, or echo if needed (Figure 4.5) in our test we use the Binrize slider to make the image black and white.

Figure 4.5 – Second step to the HDR

Step 3 : Select the Area

- Draw a box around the area containing the handwritten numbers to select it. This area should encompass all the digits you want the OCR to recognize. In our test we used Crop all button to select the full image from the options on the left (Crop all, Right rotation, Left rotation, Smart Erase) they are used

if

any adjustments to the selected area or image are needed.e (Figure 4.6).

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Figure 4.6 – Theerd step to the HDR

Step 4 : Fetch Predictions and Show Output Image

– Click the "Predict it" button to process the selected area and click the "Fetch Prediction" button to get the HDR predictions for the handwritten numbers, and click on the "Show Output Image" button to show the image after the segmentation and the preprocessing (Figure 4.7).

Figure 4.7 – Forth step to the HDR

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4.9 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the implementation of our project in detail, detailing the various components and technologies used. A brief overview of the platform was presented,

as

well as a discussion of the development tools and configurations employed, as well as

a clarification of its operational mechanisms. As a result of the tests conducted, our implementation has proven to be effective and robust, demonstrating that our project has practical applications.

In future work, we propose the development of a new feature that will allow users to input a template that recognizes only variable characters and integrates them into PDF documents. As a result of this enhancement, our platform will be able to provide even greater functionality and applicability.

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General Conclusion

As a conclusion, this report presents a comprehensive evaluation of different Convolutional Neural

Network (CNN) models for the recognition of handwritten digits using the MNIST dataset. Results demonstrate that optimization and preprocessing techniques can improve the performance of models. On the standard MNIST dataset, the CNN model using Genetic Algorithm (GA) achieved 98.92% accuracy, while the Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) model achieved 98.98% accuracy. Moreover, our novel preprocessing technique, involving skeletonization, resulted in 98.45% accuracy for CNN models with GA, and 98.51% accuracy for CNN models with PSO. Although traditional MNIST dataset models produce slightly higher accuracy scores, enhanced MNIST dataset models with skeletonization are considered superior due to the diversity and richness of the enhanced dataset. As a result of this improvement, they are now more capable of generalizing and performing in a variety of real-world situations. Integrated analyses of GA and PSO demonstrate that both have potential in optimizing CNN-based recognition systems, with PSO demonstrating a marginal advantage. The incorporation of skeletonization as a preprocessing step, despite its benefits, suggests that further refinement and additional preprocessing strategies could lead to even greater improvements. Looking ahead, future work on this application should focus on several key areas for the purpose of improving its robustness and versatility. Among the important directions is the implementation of new preprocessing functions, such as rotations and scalings, to enrich the dataset and improve the model's generalization capabilities. Additionally, expanding

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the dataset to include letters and other characters will broaden the application's scope

and utility. On the client side, users will be able to enter a template that will recognize only variable characters and incorporate them into a PDF document. As an example, when a postal

only the variable columns, simplifying the process of numbering the check

check is numbered, the user will scan

As well, addressing the diversity of handwriting styles remains a key challenge. Future iterations should aim to incorporate samples from a wider range of individuals to better capture the variability in handwriting. The goal is to develop a method for seamlessly integrating new handwriting samples into the training dataset, ensuring that the model can accurately recognize characters written in different styles.

By further developing these aspects, the application can be further developed to support a wider range of handwritten characters and styles. This will ultimately lead to a more robust and adaptable recognition system that can effectively handle real-world handwriting variations.