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Benchmarking on offline Handwritten Tamil Character Recognition using convolutional neural networks

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ABSTRACT

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) are playing a vital role nowadays in every aspect of computer vision applications. In this paper we have used the state of the art CNN in recognizing handwritten Tamil characters in offline mode. CNNs differ from traditional approach of Handwritten Tamil Character Recognition (HTCR) in extracting the features automatically. We have used an isolated handwritten Tamil character dataset developed by HP Labs India. We have developed a CNN model from scratch by training the model with the Tamil characters in offline mode and have achieved good recognition results on both the training and testing datasets. This work is an attempt to set a benchmark for offline HTCR using deep learning techniques. This work have produced a training accuracy of 95.16% which is far better compared to the traditional approaches.

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1. Introduction

Tamil is one of the ancient Indian languages which is predominantly used in Southern India, Srilanka and Malaysia. The speciality of Tamil language is every sound pronounced has a syllable in Tamil. The economy of characters to represent a word is minimal in Tamil language. The smallest unit of Tamil script is syllable. These syllabic units of Tamil script has 12 vowels, 18 consonants and a special character (Ayudha Ezhuthu, \therefore). The combination of vowels and consonants (Table 1) make a total of 216 compound characters, thus a total of 247 characters. There are 5 borrowed consonants from Sanskrit, which when combined with vowels would yield another 60 compound characters so as to make a total of 307 characters. The complete Tamil character set (Table 2) can be represented by combinations of 156 distinct characters (Table 3). For example, $\# Q_{\text{eff}}$ (pronounced as *kow*) can be represented by combining Q_i , '#, ' \oplus T'.

Handwritten Character Recognition (HCR) is of two forms: online and offline. Online method converts the tip movements

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(strokes) of digital pen to a list of coordinates, whereas offline method uses characters as scanned images. The challenging part of handwritten character recognition is the variations in the writing patterns of individuals. Even the same person handwriting can vary at different times. Traditional machine learning approaches were used for an offline HCR for a long time. A typical machine learning way of handwritten character recognition would be preprocessing, segmenting, extracting the features and classifying. An offline HCR system is first trained with the set of characters (as scanned images) and later when a new character image is given as input, the system should be able to recognize it accurately. HCR has shown its usefulness in many applications such as sorting of mails in post offices, bank check reading, digitization of legacy documents and legal documents and handwritten document/form conversions.

Digitization of a handwritten document involves various operations such as conversion of color or grayscale image to binary image, extraction of the foreground text from background texture (if any), noise removal, separation of the individual lines, segmentation of words in each line, segmentation of the characters in every word and recognition of the isolated characters. However, this work involves only the isolated offline handwritten Tamil characters recognition using deep learning approach.

Other languages like Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, Hangul have several standard datasets and researchers have set benchmark for the same. Chinese have National Laboratory of Pattern Recognition (NLPR) and Institute of Automation of Chinese Academy

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Table 1

Table 2

Combination of Vowels and Consonants in Tamil. First column has 12 vowels. Second column represents 18 consonants. Third column is the combination of a consonant with all the vowels resulting in the fourth column which are compound characters. Every consonant is combined with all the vowels to produce 216 compound characters.

Vowels	Consonants	Consonant + vowels	Compound Characters
Vowels এ শু জু দ হ গ্র ব	Consonants க் ச் ஞ் ட் ண் த் ந்	Consonant + vowels க்+அ க்+ஆ க்+ரே க்+ா க்+உ க்+ஊ க்+எ க்+ஏ	Compound Characters க கி கி கீ சு சு க கெ க
ଥି ଡ ଡି	ப் ம் ய் ர் ல் வ் ழ் எர் ற் ன்	க்+ஐ க்+ஒ க்+ஒ க்+ஒ	கன கரொ கரோ களெ

Sciences (CASIA) for promoting the research activities in Chinese character recognition with datasets such as CASIA-OLHWDB and CASIA-HWDB of 3755 classes. Arabic have datasets OIHADB and AHCD for 28 classes. Japanese have the Electrotechnical Laboratory (ETL) Character Database with the latest dataset ETL9B having 3036 classes. For Tamil, HPLabs, India have developed a dataset named 'hpl-tamil-iso-char' for 156 classes of Tamil characters which was used by very few. In (Vijayaraghavan and Sra, 2014), only 34 classes were used. In (Bhattacharya et al., 2007) though all the classes were used, they used a grouping method. Shanthi and Duraiswamy (2010) created their own dataset and was able to recognize only 34 classes. This work will set the benchmark for HTCR for all the 156 classes using deep learning methods. Chinese and Japanese languages have proven best results with the state of the art CNNs which was the motivation behind this work. The objective of our work is to set a benchmark for Tamil character dataset of HPLabs.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses about the related work in the literature. Section 3 presents the general convolutional neural network framework. Section 4 explains the proposed architecture for HTCR and steps

Complete	Tamil Cha	racter set.												
					தமிழ்	் மொழ	ி எழுத்	துக்கள்	(Tamil Cha	racters)				
						உயி	ர் எழுத்	துக்கள்	(Vowels)					
	ঞ	ஆ	@	न	೨	ഉണ	ត	ஏ	ജ	ଜ	ନ୍ତ	ஒள	%	
	க	கா	க	£	க	ዀ	கெ	கே	கை	கொ	கோ	கௌ	க்	
	ங	ஙா	ஙி	ஙீ	ष्व	দ্র্য	ஙெ	ஙே	ஙை	ஙொ	ஙோ	ஙௌ	ங்	
	ச	சா	ନ	£	சு	சூ	செ	சே	சை	சொ	சோ	சௌ	ச்	
ters)	ଜ	ஞா	ஞி	ஞீ	ஞு	ஞா	ആ	ஞே	തஞ	ஞொ	ஞோ	ஞௌ	ஞ்	
aract	L	LΠ	ц	ല	டு	G	െ	டே	തட	டொ	டோ	டௌ	Ļ	
nd ch	ண	ணா	ணி	ഞ്	ഞ	ணா	ணெ	ഞ	ഞ്ഞ	ணொ	ணோ	ணௌ	ண்	ints)
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(Con	ந	நா	நி	நீ	நு	நூ	நெ	நே	நை	நொ	நோ	நௌ	ந்	l(Cor
கள்	Ш	ШΠ	பி	பீ	Ц	IJ	പെ	பே	ബ	பொ	போ	பௌ	ப்	ងេតាំ
<u>क</u> ुस्	ம	மா	மி	மீ	மு	ഗ്ര	மெ	மே	மை	மொ	மோ	மௌ	ம்	ट्यासं
₽ġ	ш	шп	ധി	ധ്	щ	띬	யெ	யே	யை	யொ	யோ	யௌ	ய்	th it.
। व(Л	ŢП	ரி	ரீ	ரு	ரூ	ரெ	ரே	ரை	ரொ	ரோ	ரௌ	Γ <u></u>	ப்
juai	ഖ	லா	കി	ര്	ଡ୍ରା	லூ	ରେ	ഡേ	തல	லொ	லோ	லௌ	ல்) UDIC
lý G	ഖ	வா	ഖി	ഖ്	୍ୟ	ୟ	ରେ	ഖേ	തഖ	வொ	வோ	வௌ	ഖ്	
Ju	ழ	ழா	ழி	ழீ	ழ	ழ	ழெ	ழே	ழை	ழொ	ழோ	ழௌ	ழ்	
	ள	ளா	ണി	ണ്	ണ	ளூ	ளெ	ണേ	ளை	ளொ	ளோ	ளைள	ள்	
	ற	றா	றி	றீ	று	றா	൱	൱	றை	றொ	றோ	றௌ	ற்	
	ன	னா	னி	ത്	னு	னா	തെ	തേ	തെ	னொ	னோ	னௌ	ன்	
		வடபெ	்பழி எ	ழுத்து	க்கள்(B	orrowed C	onsonants	;)		சிறப்	பு எழுத்த	ற. ஜ	•	
	ß	ஜா	ജി	зğ	జా	ஜூ	ജെ	ജേ	തജ	ஜொ	ஜோ	ஜௌ	ġ	
	ର୍ୟ	ஷா	ഖി	ഫ്	പ്പെ	ஷூ	ഖെ	ସ୍ଟେ	ഞ്ഞ	ஷொ	ஷோ	ஷௌ	कं	
	സ	ஸா	സി	സ്	സൗ	൜ൕ	സെ	സേ	തസ	ஸொ	ஸோ	ஸௌ	ஸ்	
	ബ	ஹா	ണി	ണ്	ഈ	ഈ	ബ്രെ	ബ്രോ	ഞ്ഞ	ஹா	ஹோ	ஹௌ	ஹ்	
	স্ক্র্ব	கூரா	கூரி	கூரீ	ዀሞ	চ্চ্ৰক	க	கூடி	ഞെക്കു	கூரா	கூரா	க்ஷைள	சுர்	

 Table 3

 The 'hpl-tamil-iso-char' dataset with their class labels.

এ	ತ್ರ	Q	Ŧ	ഉ_	<u>261</u>	ត	ត្	ഇ	ତ	ଌ	ஒள			
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
க	Б	æ	ஞ	L	ண	த	ந	Ц	ம	ш	σ	ഖ	ഖ	ម្
12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
ണ	ወ	൵	സ	ക്	ഇ	ஹ	க்ஷ	கி	ஙி	சி	ஞி	പി	ഞി	தி
27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41
நி	പി	மி	யி	ரி	രി	ഖി	ழி	ണി	றி	ണി	ബി	ஷி	ഇി	ஹി
42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
க்ஷி	கீ	ច្រាំ	ਦੰ	ஞ	டீ	ഞ്	தீ	நீ	பீ	மீ	யீ	ரீ	ഖ്	ഖ്
57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71
ស្រឹ	ണ്	றீ	ത്	സ്	ഷ്	ഇ്	ബ്	க்ஷீ	ዳ	Б	ዋ	ஞ	Ц	ഞ
72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86
	ធ្វ	Ч	ц	щ	प्	ഖു	ഖ	អ្ន	ണ്ട	Д	൵	து	ក្ស	<u>문</u>
87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101
ஞ	L,	ങ്ങ്	5	ந	Ц	ហិ	Щ	፲	ഖ്പ	ഖ്പ	ழ	ണ്ട്	<u>n</u>	ങ്ങ്
102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116
П	ର	G	ഞ	ஸ்ரீ	ബ്	ക്ടു	ള	ஹ	க்ஷ	ബ്പ	ക്ട്ര	Э Э	ബ്ബ	க்ஷூ
117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131
க்	ங்	÷	ஞ்	ட்	ண்	த்	ந்	ப்	ம்	ய்	τ	ல்	வ்	цġ
132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	144	145	146
नां	ற்	ன்	ஸ்	ஷ்	ஐ	ஹ்	க்ஷ்							
147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155						

involved in it. Section 5 describes the dataset used, experimental setup and training and testing procedures. Section 6 presents the result analysis and discussion. The last section gives the conclusion of the paper.

2. Related work

Though deep learning approaches were widely used in Handwritten Character Recognition in many languages such as Chinese, Arabic, English etc., in Tamil most of the work done till date were using traditional approaches. A typical approach for HTCR using traditional machine learning techniques would follow preprocessing, segmentation of characters, feature extraction, classification and then predicting the new characters. Shanthi and Duraiswamy (2010) proposed a model in which features extracted are pixel densities and SVM classifier is used for classification of 106 classes. They achieved an accuracy of 82.04% for 34 characters. Jose and Wahi (2013) used wavelet transform for feature extraction and for classification used a Backpropagation neural network with which have achieved 89% recognition accuracy. Sureshkumar and Ravichandran (2010) have extracted features from each character glyphs with various attributes and classified using Support Vector Machines (SVM), Self Organizing Maps (SOM), Fuzzy network, RCS algorithm and Radial basis function. Bhattacharya et al. (2007) have proposed a two stage recognition method in which an unsupervised clustering is used in first stage for grouping the character classes and a supervised classifier is used in second stage for recognizing the characters, thereby an accuracy of 89.66% was achieved. Using convolutional neural networks, a recent work has been done by Vijayaraghavan and Sra (2014), reporting an accuracy of 94.4% with 35 classes.

Deep convolutional neural networks have been successful in handwritten Chinese character recognition. Ciregan et al. (2012) have tested the Chinese character dataset, CASIA (Institute of Automation of Chinese Academy of Sciences) composed of 300 samples of 3755 characters as one of the experiments using Multi Column Deep Neural Network. Cireşan and Meier (2015) have worked on the same dataset with eight different network architectures and have achieved near human accuracy. Several benchmarked datasets are available for Chinese characters with over million characters (Liu et al., 2013). Zhang et al. (2017) have proposed a new benchmark by combining CNN with normalization, direction decomposed feature map and adaptation layer with which achieved an accuracy of 97.37% on offline task. Tsai (2016) have used CNNs to recognize three types of handwritten Japanese scripts namely, hiragana, katakana and kanji. The overall classification accuracy recorded 99.53% for 1004 classes.

Boufenar et al. (2017) have developed a CNN model from scratch for the Arabic character set, OIHACDB-28 and have achieved 97.32% accuracy. They also presented another work which had used transfer learning and achieved an accuracy of 100% for the model developed from scratch. Earlier, in the same year, El-Sawy et al. (2017) have developed a CNN from scratch with an accuracy of 94.9% and Elleuch et al. (2017) have used Deep Belief Network (DBN) architecture along with the regularization techniques, dropout and dropconnect to produce an error classification rate of 2.73% and 2.27% respectively.

3. Background

CNNs are the widely used deep learning models in handling image related tasks like image recognition, image classification, image captioning etc. These networks are generally a combination of convolution layers, pooling layers and fully connected layers (Fig. 1). These three blocks are used to construct a CNN model by varying the number of blocks, adding or deleting a block. Various architectures have been developed since 2012 Imagenet competition which had reduced the misclassification rate from 15.6% to 3.7% over 4 years (Krizhevsky et al., 2012, Zeiler and Fergus, 2014, Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014, Szegedy et al., 2015, He et al., 2016, Canziani et al., 2016, Russakovsky et al., 2015). Each architecture had varying hyperparameters or had used new methods like Drop out (Srivastava et al., 2014), Batch normalization (loffe and Szegedy, 2015) etc.

3.1. Convolution layer

Convolution layer differ with a neural network in a way that, not every pixel (a neuron) is connected to the next layer with a weight and bias, but the entire image is split as small regions (say a *nxn* matrix) and weights and bias are applied over it. These weights and bias are referred to as filters or kernels which when convoluted with every small region in the input image would yield feature maps. These filters are the simple 'features' that is searched

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Fig. 1. Convolution Neural Network.

4.1. Pre-processing

in the input image in the convolution layer. The number of parameters required for this convolution operation would be minimal as the same filter is traversed over the entire image for a single feature. The number of filters, size of the local region, stride, and padding are the hyper parameters of convolution layer. Based on the size and genre of the input image, these hyper parameters could be tuned to achieve better results.

3.2. Pooling layer

In order to reduce the spatial dimension of the image as well as the number of parameters, thereby to reduce the computation, this pooling layer is used. This layer performs a fixed function over the input, hence no parameters are introduced. Different types of pooling are available such as average pooling, stochastic pooling, max pooling. Max pooling is the most commonly used pooling algorithm, in which an *nxn* window is slid across and down the input with a stride value *s* and for each position the maximum value in the *nxn* region is taken, thereby reducing the size of the input. This layer provides translational invariance such that even with a slight variation in the position would still be able to recognize the image. But the location information is lost as the size is reduced.

3.3. Fully connected layer

In this layer the flattened output of the last pooling layer is fed as input to a fully connected layer. This layer behaves like a traditional neural network layer where every neuron of the previous layer is connected to the present layer. Hence, the number of parameters in this layer are higher compared to the convolution layer. This fully connected layer is connected to an output layer which is generally a classifier.

3.4. Activation function

Different activation functions have been used across various architectures of convolution neural networks. Nonlinear activation functions such as ReLU, LReLU, PReLU, and Swish have proven better results when compared to the classic sigmoid or tangent functions. These nonlinear functions have helped in speeding up the training. In this work we have tried different activation functions and found ReLU to be more effective than others.

4. Proposed method

The proposed model consists of 2 parts: training part and recognition part. Training part involves data pre-processing, building the network architecture and training the network with the preprocessed data. The recognition part involves pre-processing of data and recognizing the character using the trained model.

Convolution Laver 1 ReLU **16** Filters Convolution Layer 2 16 Filters ReLU Dropout(0.1) Max Pooling (stride 2x2) Convolution Laver 3 32 Filters ReLU Dropout(0.2) Convolution Layer 4 32 Filters Dropout(0.3) ReLU Max Pooling (stride 2x2) **Convolution** Layer 5 64 Filters Dropout(0.4) ReLU Fully connected Layer 500 neurons Dropout (0.5) Fully connected Laver 200 neurons Softmax Classifier

The dataset contains 82,929 images in tiff or png format. These

images are obtained from the online version using simple piece-

wise linear interpolation and a constant thickening factor. The

images are bi-level images with background being white (255)

and the foreground in black (0). The images are of varying sizes

Fig. 2. Architecture of the proposed model.

which were size normalized to 64×64 using bilinear interpolation technique and scaled to 0, 1 range. We performed training on two set of inputs, one with the original images and another with inverted images (foreground as 1 and background as 255). However, there was no significant differences in terms of accuracy or training time.

4.2. Architecture

The proposed architecture for HTCR consists of nine layers: five convolutional layers, two max pooling layers and two fully connected layers. The network architecture can be described as

 Table 4

 Hyper parameters used in our architecture.

InitializationXavierBatch Size64OptimizerAdamEpochs100Learning rate0.001Activation functionReLU	Hyper parameters	Values
Batch Size64OptimizerAdamEpochs100Learning rate0.001Activation functionReLU	Initialization	Xavier
OptimizerAdamEpochs100Learning rate0.001Activation functionReLU	Batch Size	64
Epochs100Learning rate0.001Activation functionReLU	Optimizer	Adam
Learning rate0.001Activation functionReLU	Epochs	100
Activation function ReLU	Learning rate	0.001
	Activation function	ReLU

follows: 16C3-16C3-MP2-32C3-32C3-MP2-64C3-500N-200N, where nC_i represents a convolution layer with *n* feature maps and $i \times i$ filters, MP_j represents a max pooling layer with $j \times j$ kernel and kN represents a fully connected layer with *k* neurons (Fig. 2). Each convolution layer includes an activation function. This model used ReLU, a non-linear activation function. The input layer consists of images of 64x64 size and the output layer is a softmax classifier with 156 classes.

4.3. Hyper parameters

Several hyper parameters are required to run the network, some of them are architecture specific while some are needed for the effective training of the network. Different hyper parameters such as stride, padding, and depth are used at each of the layers which could be tuned to build a better model. We have used a stride value of 1 to slide one pixel over the input image in the convolutional layer and pooling layer. We used zero padding to maintain the same input shape in the output such that no information is lost at the borders.

We have used Xavier initialization (Glorot and Bengio, 2010) for weights. We made all the experimental runs up to 30 epochs as the convergence generally happened in 20 to 30 epochs. However, we



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Fig. 4. Training and validation accuracy of the proposed model.

Table 5

Comparison of our approach with previous work.

Authors	Dataset	No. of classes	Method	Training Accuracy (%)	Test Accuracy (%)
Bhattacharya et al. (2007) Shorthi and Durringer (2010)	HPLabs dataset	156	Clustering and groupwise classification	92.77	89.66
Vijayaraghavan and Sra (2014)	Own dataset HPLabs dataset	34 35	SVM CNN	- 99	82.04 94.4
Our work	HPLabs dataset	156	CNN	95.16	97.7

have run the best result model up to 100 epochs. The input images of size 64x64 were fed to the network in batches of size 64. Different batch sizes were experimented, but a nominal size of 64 was used due to memory constraints. Different hyper parameters are presented in Table 4.

5. Experimental setup

5.1. Dataset

This work uses the Isolated Handwritten Tamil Character dataset developed by HP Labs India. This dataset consists of 156 different Tamil characters (hpl-tamil-iso-char) written by native Tamil writers from various cities of Southern India using HP TabletPC¹. The dataset contains approximately 500 samples for each class (with very few classes having around 300 samples) with a total of 82,928 samples and is freely available. The entire Tamil character set can be represented with these 156 unique characters (Table 3).

5.2. Training and testing process

In this experimental setup, all the 156 classes are used, where each class has around 500 samples. A total of 82,928 images were present in the dataset which was split into training and validation images during run time on 80:20 ratio. For training and testing the neural networks, Keras was used as deep learning framework with Tensorflow (Abadi et al., 2016) as backend. The entire training and testing was performed on a Windows 64-bit desktop personal computer with an Intel Core i5 Processor (CPU) and 8 GB RAM. Fig. 3 shows the complete training and testing process of our HTCR system.

A CNN model is created with the architecture specified in previous section. The model is compiled after setting few attributes such

¹ http://lipitk.sourceforge.net/datasets/tamilchardata.htm

as optimizers, batch size. We have used Adam optimizer with a learning rate of 0.001(Table 4). After many trails of different batch sizes, we have fixed batch size to 64. Higher values of batch size could not be run as the entire set up is on a CPU. Once the model is compiled, the pre-processed dataset is loaded to the model. The training was done for 100 epochs, after each epoch validation is done on the validation part. We have used early stopping method to avoid over training of the network. After tuning the parameters for various number of filters, kernel size, the final model with optimum accuracy is saved. The saved model is used for testing a completely new data (test dataset is available in HPLabs dataset) which was not seen in training or validation. The test set consists of 26,926 samples with 170 samples per class and the ground truth is also available.

6. Results and discussion

The baseline architecture of ours gave 99.37% training accuracy and 89% validation accuracy which clearly denotes the overfitting. So we implemented few methods to overcome the same. One such method is dropout, a kind of regularization technique which was introduced in each of the convolution layer present in the network starting with a probability of 0.1 and increasing by 0.1 in each layer (Fig. 2). With dropout, we were able to reduce the overfitting with a trade-off in bias which corresponds to a training accuracy of 95.16% and validation accuracy of 92.74%. The total time taken for training is 37 h in a CPU system with 8 GB RAM. The training and validation accuracy are displayed in Fig. 4. The test set was feed into the trained model which gave a recognition accuracy of 97.7%

As specified in Table 5, the results are compared with previous work. In the work done by Bhattacharya et al., k-means clustering was used to form groups of character classes and a MLP classifier was used which did classification as whether the character belonged to the group or not. So, we cannot compare these results

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Fig. 5. Some of the wrongly recognized characters from the test set.

directly with our work. But still, their overall recognition accuracy is far less than ours. Shanti et al. used SVM classifier and trained the model for 106 classes and in testing phase only 34 classes' individual recognition of characters was presented. Vijayaragavan and Sra used CNN to classify 35 classes and have achieved 99% training accuracy and 94.4% test accuracy. However it was only for 34 classes. When compared to all these work, our work have used all the 156 classes and have achieved a training accuracy of 95.16% and a testing accuracy of 97.7%. We have also compared our work with a simple neural network constructed with seven dense layers. This network was trained with nearly 7,500,000 parameters which produced a training accuracy of 82.61% and testing accuracy of 79%.

When compared with the ground truth, we have identified the following with the wrongly recognized characters. Fig. 5 shows some of the wrongly recognized characters.

Most of them are similar characters, for example class 9 (ஒ, pronounced as 0) and class 10 (@, pronounced as 00) are almost similar except for a curve at the end. Similarly class 8 (g, pronounced as I) and class 32 (g, pronounced as Jha) are similar. Also, the writing of the characters of class triplets (76,122,127) (സ്,സ്, ബ്ബ), (77,123,128) (ച്ച്,ബ്ല,ബ്ല), (78,124,129) (ഇ,ഇ,ഇ), (79,125,130) (ஹ்,ஹ,ஹ), (80,126,131) (க்ஷீ,க்ஷ,க்ஷ) by the individuals were almost same as these characters were borrowed from other language and it doesn't come as part of the standard Tamil character set. Hence, these characters are often misrecognized by our system with any one of the class in the triplets.

Since we have 156 classes, we were not able to present the confusion matrix for all the classes. Hence, we have trained a smaller subset of 13 classes (12 vowels and one special character, ...) and the confusion matrix for the same is displayed in Fig. 6.

7. Conclusion

This paper has presented a deep learning approach for offline Handwritten Tamil Character Recognition. The results have proven that this approach have fetched good performance when compared

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							Confu	Ision	Matrix					
	p2	Þ	20	42	422	32	لالل	1e	tee	>	0	°°	POU	14
Aa	- 47		0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Aaa	. 0	4	47	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
E	e - 0		0	44	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0
Eee	e - 0		1	0	47	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
16	. 0		0	0	0	48	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0.	1													
Uuu	u - 0		2	0	0	1	46	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
e v	4		0	0	0	0	0	44	1	0	1	0	0	0
Ę	•1 '		°.	Ŭ	Ŭ	0			-	Ŭ	-			Ū
Yee	e - 0		2	0	0	0	1	1	45	0	0	1	0	0
			0	0	0	1	0	0	0	AG	2	0	1	0
	'1 '		0	0	0	1	0	0	U	40	2	Ů	1	U
0	0 0		1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	40	7	0	0
			~							2		41	2	
Oc	° † °		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	41	2	0
Αοι	, - o		1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	47	0
A	k - 0		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	48
	L_,			'		'	' P	redicte	ed '	'				-

Fig. 6. Confusion matrix for a subset of 13 classes of Tamil characters, 12 vowels and one special character (...).

to the traditional methods. This testing accuracy of 97.7% could even be improved by tuning the hyper parameters. Also, most of the errors were due to writing ambiguities of similar characters. The results presented here can be used as standard benchmark for HTCR research. We would like to thank HP Labs, India for having provided with a dataset that is free to use for research community.

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