SSR-GNNs: Stroke-based Sketch Representation with Graph Neural Networks

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Abstract

This paper follows cognitive studies to investigate a graph representation for sketches, where the information of strokes, i.e., parts of a sketch, are encoded on vertices and information of inter-stroke on edges. The resultant graph representation facilitates the training of a Graph Neural Networks for classification tasks, and achieves accuracy and robustness comparable to the state-of-the-art against translation and rotation attacks, as well as stronger attacks on graph vertices and topologies, i.e., modifications and addition of strokes, all without resorting to adversarial training. Prior studies on sketches, e.g., graph transformers, encode control points of stroke on vertices, which are not invariant to spatial transformations. In contrary, we encode vertices and edges using pairwise distances among control points to achieve invariance. Compared with existing generative sketch model for one-shot classification, our method does not rely on run-time statistical inference. Lastly, the proposed representation enables generation of novel sketches that are structurally similar to while separable from the existing dataset.

1. Introduction

Unlike the human vision system, it is well acknowledged that end-to-end deep learning methods lack intermediate representations that enable innate invariance to spatial translation and rotation [1, 7, 16, 17, 30, 36, 37, 45].

While such transformation invariance can potentially be achieved through expensive robust (adversarial) training, it is believed that invariance (1) should be an innate property rather than an external model constraint, and (2) should not trade off recognition accuracy significantly. This motivates us to revisit the canonical computer vision perspective (such as object representation by components [3], and local visual representation design [34]) towards an explicit representation design for possessing innate properties.

A commonly sought-after solution is to identify a part-whole structure [17], following the insights of how the human vision system parses scenes into atomic parts for recognition and generation, while both parts and the topologies of parts are invariant to spatial transformations. The part-whole structure is also supported by the Gestalt principles [9] and cognitive science [25–27].

Building on top of existing work and within the context of computer vision for sketch recognition, we present a part-whole representation where strokes, as parts, are connected as a graph to form a sketch. The focus on sketches draws inspiration from studies in biology and cognitive science [14, 24, 29, 41]. For example, [29, 41] show that human vision relies more on shapes than on textures or colors. Studies also show that successful CNNs learn shape representations from natural images [12, 18, 23, 24].

Fig. 1 shows an example of the proposed representation: From an input image of “R”, we adopt unsupervised image processing [26] to first identify fork points that separate strokes, and estimate control points of these strokes to form an undirected graph representation where each vertex contains stroke information, and edges specify interactions between strokes. Specifically, to innately equip our representation with spatial invariance, each vertex encodes pairwise spatial distances between each pair of control points for the corresponding stroke (see $v_3$ in Fig. 1), yielding an $n \times n$ matrix. If two strokes (each with $n$ control points) are connected, we then form an edge in the resulting graph. The edge encodes the pair-wise distance between each control point from one stroke to each of the other stroke (see $e_{1,3}$ in Fig. 1). The distances between control points are invariant to spatial transformations, therefore our graph design is innately spatially-invariant.

To validate this representation, we take sketch-based classification/robust feature learning, and novel pattern generation as the testing tasks. To leverage the graph representation for classification, we train a Graph Neural Network (GNN) [43], which allows variable input graph topologies and preserves spatial invariance.

We claim the following contributions:

- Through extensive experiments on MNIST and two subsets of the Quickdraw dataset [14], we show that the proposed models are innately robust to rotations and translations, while maintaining acceptable classification accuracy.

- In addition, we show that the proposed models are ro-
bust to parametric and topological attacks without robust training, which suggests that stroke-based graphs are robust features for perception.

- Lastly, we show that the proposed models can be used to generate novel sketches distinguishable from the training set. E.g., by learning to classify decimal digits, the model can then be used to generate hypothetical “A”s to “F”s for a hexadecimal system. This shows that models have strongly structured expression capability.

2. Related work

Part-whole representations: Studies in cognitive science suggest the human vision system parse visual inputs into part-whole, which are invariant to spatial transformations and change of viewpoints [17, 42, 44]. For example, structural description models [3, 19, 22, 49] combine the description of the part components. Along the same vein, sketches have been considered as a composition of strokes which are parts and sub-parts representation [26]. Such part-whole representations have been shown to play a critical role in enabling learning with small data. [26] shows that one-shot classification/generation can be achieved on labeled graphs through iterative inference based on statistics of sampled graphs.

Graph neural network: In graph neural networks (GNNs) [4, 10], vertex and edge information evolve through neighborhood aggregation. By sharing pairwise aggregation models, such as in message passing neural networks (MPNNs) [13, 31], GNNs are often shown to be generalizable to input graphs with arbitrary sizes. They are widely used in the area of sketches [60], handwriting [39] and math formula recognition [35]. In this work, we adopt an MPNNs architecture to handle sketches with variable number of strokes and topologies. Graph-based representation [6, 51] or graph neural network [13, 31] are also invariant to permutation. In this work, the high level representations are inputs transformation invariant because both stroke representation and graph neural network are invariant to transformation.

Sketch-based learning: Sketch is an abstract visual input without the information of texture and color [53]. Cognitive science research shows that human beings are able to grasp the major semantic meaning from an image directly from its sketch form [23]. Current studies typically primarily investigate sketch classification using existing deep neural networks. CNNs based methods [46, 61] are applied on raster sketch image. RNNs based methods [14, 15, 21, 54, 55], as well as textual convolution network (TCN) [53], transformer (Sketchformer) [40], model sketch as sequence of control points or strokes. Graph based methods [56, 58–60] explore the topological information for sketch. Graph transformer [56] encodes the control point as vertex and 1-hop, 2-hop, global hop connection as edge. SketchAA [58] learns the abstraction and hierarchy of the grid blocks of sketch image by encoding them as graph. SketchGNN [59] learns the semantic segmentation of sketch. The vertex of SketchGNN is the single point on sketch and the edge is the single stroke that connecting two adjacent points. Furthermore, current studies of sketch are extended to multimodality, such as sketch with video [8, 57], sketch with word, text, cartoon and natural image [52]. In this work, unlike the previous works which only focus on improving the classification accuracy only, we take sketch based classification as a testing task to validate that the newly proposed representation design is spatially robust. Especially in adversarial cases, our sketch classification maintains a high level of performance.

3. Methods

Our method contains the following elements: (1) A pre-process step where an input image $x$ is converted to a set of strokes $S(x)$. (2) The strokes and their connections are
then encoded as a graph \( g(x) \). Node and edge features are designed to achieve rotation and translation invariance. (3) A GNN is learned based on a labeled dataset \( \{(g(x), y)\} \). Fig. 1 summarizes the learning pipeline. Details are explained as follows.

### 3.1. Acquiring Strokes from an Image

We decompose an input image \( x \in \mathbb{R}^{d_x} \) into a set of strokes, denoted by \( S(x) \), where \( |S(x)| \) varies by image. We follow the preprocess procedures of [26], which include thinning the image [28], detecting fork points [33], and finally merging the noisy and redundant fork points by the maximum circle criterion [32]. The ordering of the strokes, i.e., the definition of the start and end points of strokes, is then derived from a walk throughout the fork points which follows the rules moving from left to right and from top to bottom. Fig. 1 demonstrates the procedure for “R”.

Building upon [26], each stroke is first approximated as a uniform cubic b-spline parameterized by the control points, the offset, and the scaling factor. We then sample \( n \) control points on stroke by re-fitting the uniform cubic b-spline. The number of control points are set to be the same for all strokes and tuned for each experiment. Unlike [26] which takes a set of uniform cubic b-spline control points, we set aside the offset for enforcing boundary constraints, and the scale factor for accurately computing the pairwise distances. We represent a stroke \( s_i \) using its \( n \) control points:

\[
s_i = [c_i^p]_{p=1}^{n}.
\]

### 3.2. Stroke-based Graph Representation

We further convert the set of strokes into a graph \( g(x) = (V, E) \), where each vertex \( v_i \in V \) corresponds to a stroke \( s_i \in S(x) \), and an edge \( e_{i,j} \in E \) exists when the start (end) point of \( s_i \) is the end (start) point of \( s_j \). To achieve rotation and translation invariance, we assign each vertex \( v_i \) the set of pairwise Euclidean distances between all sample points from \( s_i \). In particular, \( v_i = [\phi(c_i^p, c_j^q)]_{p=1, q=1}^{n,n} \) where \( c_i^p \) is the \( p \)th control point of the \( i \)th stroke and \( \phi(\cdot, \cdot) \) is the Euclidean distance. Similarly, we assign each edge \( e_{i,j} \) the set of pairwise Euclidean distances from all control points from \( s_i \) to those from \( s_j \):

\[
e_{i,j} = [\phi(c_i^p, c_j^q)]_{p=1, q=1}^{n,n}.
\]

We note that the ordering of elements in \( v_i \) and \( e_{i,j} \) is defined based on the start and end points of \( s_i \) and \( s_j \), i.e., switching the start and end points of \( s_i \) will change \( v_i \) and \( e_{i,j} \).

### 3.3. GNN architecture

We adopt MPNNs to handle the variable graph sizes encountered in MNIST and QuickDraw datasets. The MPNN contains three components: (M) message passing, (U) update, and (R) readout [2], which are defined as:

\[
\begin{align*}
(M) & \quad m_{vi}^{(t+1)} = \sum_{s_i, s_j \text{ are connected}} M_t(v_i^{(t)}, v_j^{(t)}, e_{i,j}), \\
(U) & \quad v_i^{(t+1)} = U_t(v_i^{(t)}, m_{vi}^{(t+1)}), \\
(R) & \quad z = R(v_i^{(T)} | v_i^{(T)} \in v).
\end{align*}
\]

The message passing and update phase execute \( T \) times. The message at phase \( t+1 \), \( m_{vi}^{(t+1)} \), is encoded by vertex \( v_i^{(t)} \), adjacent vertices \( v_j^{(t)} \)'s and edges \( e_{i,j}^{(t)} \) at step \( t \). The new vertex \( v_i^{(t+1)} \) is updated by current vertex \( v_i^{(t)} \) and message \( m_{vi}^{(t+1)} \). After \( T \) steps, the feature \( z \) is computed from a readout function. \( M_t(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot), U_t(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot), R(\cdot, \cdot) \) are learnable functions. \( z \) is input to a linear classifier with softmax outputs. To simplify the notation, we define the MPNN as \( f(\cdot) \) and linear classifier as \( f_\theta(\cdot) \).

### 3.4. Learning Objectives

Here we introduce the formulations of the learning problems for the two experiments to be discussed in Sec. 4.

**Classification** We use a standard cross-entropy loss for learning a classifier \( f_\theta \circ f \). Given a dataset \( D := \{(x, y)\} \), the loss is:

\[
\min_{f, f_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim D} [\psi(y, f_\theta \circ f(g(x)))] \tag{1},
\]

where \( \psi(\cdot, \cdot) \) is the cross-entropy.

**Sketch modification and generation** In experiments, we will demonstrate the robustness of the classifier \( f \circ f_\theta \) against targeted attacks via vertex-wise and topology-wise perturbations. For topology-wise attacks, we specifically consider adding a stroke \( s \) to an existing sketch. In both cases, we let the target label be a one-hot vector \( y \), the set of control points of the stroke of interest be \( \mathcal{C} \) and the resultant graph be \( g(\mathcal{C}) \). The attacks solve:

\[
\min_{\mathcal{C}} \psi(y, f_\theta \circ f(g(\mathcal{C}))) + L(g(\mathcal{C})), \tag{2}
\]

where \( L(\cdot) \), as explained below, constrains the control points to be structurally similar to the training data. In addition, we also incorporate boundary constraints on \( \mathcal{C} \) to limit the generated sketches within the boundaries of the image.

**Penalty on sketch structure**: We consider two types of penalties on a generated graph \( g = (V, E) \) to regulate its structure. First, the generated sketches should have pairwise distances between control points similar to those from the training data. Second, the angles between neighbouring pairs of control points, denoted by \( r \in \mathcal{R} \), should also
be similar to those from the data. We incorporate these requirements through the following penalty:

$$L(g) = \mathbb{E}_{(v,e,r) \in (V,E,R)} \left[ -\lambda_1 \log p(v;D) - \lambda_2 \log p(e;D) - \lambda_3 \log p(r;D) \right],$$

where $p(v;D)$ and $p(e;D)$ are the empirical distributions of the pairwise distances among control points within a stroke and between strokes from the dataset, respectively, and, $p(r;D)$ is that of the angles between neighbouring pairs of control points. $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 10^{-5}$ and $\lambda_3 = 0.1$ are tuned to allow the attack loss to dominate.

We will also demonstrate the utility of the proposed model at generating new sketches that are structurally similar to the training data, yet semantically different. To do so, we first train a one-class classifier $f_1(\cdot)$ so that all training data belongs to the same group, i.e., $f_1(f(g(x))) > 0$ for all $x \in D$. Given a sketch $g(C)$ parameterized by the set of control points to be tuned, we solve the following problem

$$\min_C \{ \max\{0, 1 + f_1(f(g(C)))\} + L(g(C)) \},$$

The hinge loss used here aims to push the generated sketch out of the training set.

4. Experiments

We conduct two sets of experiments. First, we empirically show that the proposed model is robust to rotation and translation on classification tasks for MNIST and a subset for QuickDraw, while maintaining accuracy comparable to the SOTA, all without adversarial training. We also evaluate model robustness against vertex-wise and topology-wise attacks specific to graph inputs. Second, we show that our model is capable of generating novel sketches that are semantically different from the training set. Specifically, we demonstrate the generation of hypothetical digits that are separable from MNIST digits in the feature space.

4.1. Classification and Robustness

Dataset and pre-processing We use two standard datasets: MNIST and Google Quickdraw [14]. MNIST is a hand-written digit dataset containing numerical digits from 0-9. Google Quickdraw is a human hand-drawn sketch dataset with 345 different categories, ranging from The Great Wall, airplane, to hands, squares, and dogs. For both datasets, we consider each sketch as an image, shifted to the top-left corner and normalized to $224 \times 224$ pixels. It should be noted that the Quickdraw dataset also stores key points of simplified strokes in temporal order [54, 56], computed by the Ramer-Douglas-Peucker algorithm [38]. This format has been used by existing graph-based classifiers [56] and recurrent neural networks [54]. However, this format represents sketches as graphs with a large variance of sizes, e.g., some sketches have multiple strokes with negligible lengths. To this end, we preprocess the data by extracting strokes from the pixelated sketches using the method introduced in Sec. 3.1, while preserving the information about the start and end points of the extracted strokes. During this process, we delete strokes with negligible lengths less than 5 pixels.

We also note that due to the abstract nature of sketches in some categories of Quickdraw, we only adopt two subsets of the dataset for our experiments. The first subset contains all shape categories including circle, hexagon, line, octagon, square, triangle, zigzag (see Fig. 2(b)), and the second contains all body categories including arm, ear, elbow, face, finger, foot, hand, nose, toe, tooth (see Fig. 2(c)). For both subsets, we select 1000, 100, 100 samples per category for training, validation and testing, respectively. To avoid strokes being moved out of the image through transformations during robustness evaluation, we zero-pad the image with 40 pixels on each side. Since the strokes in the sketch image are mostly short ones, we set the number of control points on each stroke to $n = 10$ for all experiments. We also notice the existence of complicated fork points, i.e., a small cluster of connected strokes in place of a single fork point, due to the use of the maximum circle criterion. To this end, we dilate the sketch with 4 pixels which addresses this issue.

Network architecture and training details We adopt MPNN from Sec. 3.3 following the same architecture as the
gated graph neural networks (GG-NNs) [31]. The message passing function is
\[ M_i(v_i^{(t)}, v_j^{(t)}, e_{i,j}^{(t)}) = \Phi_1(e_{i,j}^{(t)}), \]  
where \( M_i \) is the message from node \( i \) to node \( j \). The update function is a Gated recurrent unit [5], where \( U_t = \text{GRU}(v_i^{(t)}, m_{v_i(t+1)}) \). The readout function is
\[ R = \sum_{v_i^{(T)} \in v} \sigma(\Phi_2(v_i^{(T)}, v_i^{(0)})) \odot (\Phi_3(v_i^{(T)})). \]

For MNIST, \( \Phi_1, \Phi_2, \Phi_3 \) each is a linear four-layer fully-connected network, with the intermediate feature sizes as 128, 256, and 128. The message passing iterations \( T \) is set to 1 and the final feature vector size is set to 10. We use the batch size 128, with an initial learning rate = 1e^{-4}. To handle the complex images in Quickdraw, we increase the depth of our architecture to 8 layers and the dimensions of the intermediate features are 128, 256, 512, 2048, 521, 256, 128. The message passing iterations is set to 3 and the dimension of the final feature vector is 1024. We set the the batch size as eight with an initial learning rate 2e^{-4} using the SGD optimizer. The objective function follows Eq. 1.

### Baselines

**Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs):** On MNIST, we train a CNN with two convolutional layers and two linear layers maintaining comparable learnable parameters to our model for fair comparisons. On Quickdraw, we choose the Inception network [47] as the baseline.

**Recurrent neural networks (RNNs)** [14] encodes a sketch as a sequence of key points and flag bits, indicating the start or end of the strokes. SketchMate [54] fuses the CNN encoding with the RNN encoding. In our experiment, We use a bi-directional GRU as a baseline.

**Graph based networks** [56], including graph convolution network (GCN), graph attention network (GAT) and graph transformer, encode a sketch as graph. We choose graph transformer as our baseline since it shows better performance than GCN and GAT. This method is different from ours: Each vertex is a key point of a stroke, represented by the corresponding coordinates. Therefore, this representation is not invariant to spatial transformations. In addition, Graph Transformer based methods need information about the start or end points of the strokes as inputs. In our method, we extract this information from fork point detection.

**Evaluation** To evaluate the spatial robustness of the model, we apply rotation \( \theta \) and translation \((\delta_x, \delta_y)\) attacks on the input images following [11]:
\[ \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \delta_x \\ \delta_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}, \]
for pixel coordinates \((x, y)\). For MNIST, we rotate within \(\pm 30^\circ\) and translate within \(\pm 3\) pixels. For Quickdraw, since the image size increases, we increase the maximum translation to 10 pixels. To generate the transformed images, we discretize the parameters to grids of rotations and translations (as shown in Fig. 2). We sample 5 values per translation direction and 31 values for rotations. Together, the procedure yields 775 transformed samples per image. If one of the transformed images has incorrect predicted label through \(f_\theta \circ f\), the model is not considered robust against the transformation with respect to that particular image [11].

### Classification and spatial robustness results

Table 1 summarizes the experimental results. (1) For accuracy, CNNs achieve the best results. Our method achieves comparable accuracy on MNIST and slightly inferior ones on Quickdraw subsets. The accuracy gaps between ours and other baselines, i.e., RNNs and graph transformers, are

| Method         | Evaluation | MNIST | Quickdraw (Shape) | Quickdraw (Body) |
|----------------|------------|-------|------------------|-----------------|
| CNNs [11, 56]  | Accuracy   | 99.31%| 87.14%           | 80.10%          |
|                | Spatial Robustness | 26.02%| 21.90%           | 31.10%          |
|                | Parameter Size   | 600,810| 25,315,474      | 25,315,474      |
| RNNs [56]      | Accuracy   | -     | 75.43%          | 68.30%          |
|                | Spatial Robustness | -     | 0.00%           | 0.00%           |
|                | Parameter Size   | -     | 5,724,249       | 5,724,249       |
| Graph Transformer [56] | Accuracy   | -     | 80.71%          | 75.4%           |
|                | Spatial Robustness | -     | 0.10%           | 6.57%           |
|                | Parameter Size   | -     | 39,984,729      | 39,984,729      |
| Ours           | Accuracy   | 93.01%| 73.00%          | 64.20%          |
|                | Spatial Robustness | 93.01%| 73.00%          | 64.20%          |
|                | Parameter Size   | 546,634| 8,707,868      | 8,707,868       |

Table 1. The accuracy and spatial robustness on three dataset (MNIST, Quickdraw (Shape), Quickdraw (Body)). We compare our method with CNNs (Inception-V3 for Quickdraw), RNNs, and graph transformer. Our evaluation metrics are accuracy, spatial robustness and the parameter size.
In this experiment, we consider adding/deleting vertices to alter the graph topology. We conduct the experiment by adding one stroke, denoted by \(s_2\), on digit “1”s with a single stroke \(s_1\). We optimize \(s_2\) using Eq. (2) by targeting the resultant graph to be classified as digit “7”. Since our representation is spatially invariant, the start point of \(s_2\) is fixed and connected to either side of \(s_1\) and all other trainable \(n - 1\) control points of \(s_2\) are initialized with the same values as the start point. The procedure to get \(s_2\) follows the setting described in Sec. 3.4: We apply penalties on angles and pairwise distances, where \(\mathcal{D}\) in Eq. 3 denotes the set of two-stroke “7”s.

We visualize in Fig. 3(a) the evolution of the added stroke during the optimization of Eq. (2). Part of the new stroke evolves towards being flat at step 100, while the converged stroke becomes flat. Similar experiments are shown in Fig. 3(b,c) on modifying “1” to “7”, and “7” to “2”. Considering that our model is rotation (and mirror) invariant, the results suggest that the graph representation is robust in that when the attacks are successful, the contents of the images have to be changed semantically towards the target labels.

It should also be noted that while a rotated “7”, as in Fig. 3(b), should not be considered as a “7” from human perspective, this only happens because the added stroke is considered to move from right to left (as the first stroke of the connected two). The stroke extraction procedure described in Sec. 3.1 considers strokes to move from left to right and top to down, and therefore will avoid classify-

Robustness against graph attacks Previous studies have explored the connection between model robustness and the learning of robust features, i.e., features that are invariant to attacks [20, 48]. The above experiments show that our model is robust to attacks in the form of global transformations. In addition, the procedure of stroke extraction is robust to conventional pixel-wise attacks due to its thinning and merging steps. Here, we further investigate the robustness of our model under graph-specific attacks. If successful, our study provides evidence that the proposed graph representation contains robust features that enable model robustness without adversarial training.

Altering the graph topology: In this experiment, we consider adding/deleting vertices to alter the graph topology. We conduct the experiment by adding one stroke, denoted by \(s_2\), on digit “1”s with a single stroke \(s_1\). We optimize \(s_2\) using Eq. (2) by targeting the resultant graph to be classified as digit “7”. Since our representation is spatially invariant, the start point of \(s_2\) is fixed and connected to either side of \(s_1\) and all other trainable \(n - 1\) control points of \(s_2\) are initialized with the same values as the start point. The procedure to get \(s_2\) follows the setting described in Sec. 3.4: We apply penalties on angles and pairwise distances, where \(\mathcal{D}\) in Eq. 3 denotes the set of two-stroke “7”s.

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Figure 3. Exploring the robust feature by altering the graph topology and modifying the control points. (a)(b)(c) The robust feature by altering the graph topology. The first image is the original image. The last step image is the image after adding one stroke. The middle ones are intermediate steps. (a)(b) from a single-stroke digit 1 to a two-strokes digit 7. (c) from a single-stroke 7 to a two-strokes 2. In (a)(b), the red block on the step 0 image indicates the ZOOM in windows. (d)(e)(f) show the robust feature by modifying the control points. (c)(d) from a single-stroke 6 to a single-stroke 0. (f) from a single-stroke 7 to a single-stroke 1.

Figure 4. The samples of rotation of digit “9”. On the right of the image, we show the confidence score for rotated image predicted as 6 or 9. The prediction with higher confidence is marked in red.
ing the outcome of Fig. 3(b) as “7” (since the added stroke will be considered as the second stroke of the sequence and moves from left to right). This also explains why our model can correctly classify “6” and “9” even with its invariance property in Fig. 4: We set the strokes of the two to have different start and end control points.

Lastly, the results in Fig. 3(a) reveals that our model is in fact invariant to mirroring (here the added stroke will be considered as moving from right to left through the stroke extraction procedure, and thus its graph representation is equivalent to its mirrored version). While this invariance is undesirable, it is in fact commonly observed as a property of human vision system during its early phase (e.g., among children). For example, when start learning to write, children may consider “b” and “d”, “p” and “q”, “J” and “L” the same, as well as writing mirrored digits 1. Removing the mirror invariance property through representation design or learning, will be deferred to a future study.

Modifying control points  In addition to robustness against changes in graph topologies, we show that our model is also robust against changes to control points of strokes (and therefore the graph representation). To this end, we tune the coordinates of the control points of a “6” towards label “0” using Eq. (2). D in the attack loss is set to the set of all “0”’s with a single stroke. Fig. 3(d) shows evolution of the sketch during the attack. At step 0, the image is recognized as “6” with a high confidence. While altering the control points at step 100, it is recognized as “9” with a confidence score 0.4573 (while “0” and “6” receive scores of only 0.2552 and 0.2710. For the final step, the model recognizes the altered image as “0”, with a high confidence. We show experimental results on other input samples in Fig. 3(e,f). Again, results suggest that the graph representation is robust as successful attacks need to alter the semantic meaning of the sketches.

4.2. New digits generation

Here we demonstrate that the graph representation enables generation of novel sketches that are separable in the feature space from the training data, while maintaining structural similarity. The underlying rationale is that if our stroke-based graph representation is with strongly structured expression capability, the underlying feature space after supervised training on existing categories could guide a generation process to come up with new categorical patterns.

The formulation of the generation problem follows Eq. 4. To initialize a solution, we draw the control points of a new digit from a normal distribution \( T \sim N(t, \sigma^2) \), where the mean \( t \) is randomly sampled in a uniform distribution ranging from 4 to 24, and \( \sigma \) is initially set to 4. We consider cases where the graph topology is fixed. Alg. 1 explains the procedure for solving Eq. 4, with two alternating steps. In the first step, we focus on separating the new set \( T \) from the existing dataset \( D \). Fixing the feature extractor MPNN \( f \), the binary classification objective function is given as:

\[
\min_{f_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim D} \left[ \log(f_\theta \circ f(g(x))) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim T} \left[ \log(1 - f_\theta \circ f(g(x))) \right].
\]

In the second step, we update the distribution of \( T \) through \( t \) and \( \sigma \) following Eq. 4. The dataset \( D \) here in the loss function is the entire MNIST training set.

In our experiment, we generate a sequence of novel digits with a single stroke that are separable from the MNIST digits in the feature space, as illustrated in Fig. 5(a). It is worth noting that the newly generated digits share a similar visual style to MNIST hand-written digits (although a

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1This is observed from one of the authors’ 5yr old, and confirmed by her teacher.
(a) Generated 6 new digits
(b) The generated image’s high level distribution

Figure 5. The generation of new sketch images. (a) The new generated digits replacing A-F in hexadecimal system. (b) Projecting each digit’s distribution to a 2-dimensional space for visualization by t-SNE [50].

Figure 6. The samples that our model struggles to handle. We list 4 samples from 4 categories (blueberry, broom, paintbrush, toaster) that our method is not able to predict correctly. For each pair of the failure example, the left image is the input sketch image with a dilation of 4 pixels, and the right image illustrates the strokes (green lines) and fork points (red dots).

Quantitative analysis will require a Turing test [26], and at the same time visually distinguishable from them. Fig. 5(b) further confirms our claim, as we can see that on the space formed by the final MPNN network, all novel digits are separable from each other, and are distinguishable from the original set. The new digits generation experiment validates that our model has a strong structured expression capability.

5. Limitations

End-to-end stroke extraction The major limitation in our method is in the preprocessing step. As shown in Fig. 6, many data points from the Quickdraw dataset contain strokes that form detailed parts of a whole or textures of parts, some of which can be quite abstract (see “blueberry” for example). Our stroke extraction procedure currently cannot correctly infer the stroke sequences of such sketches or produce abstraction of clustered strokes, e.g., those that represent a part with texture. To achieve this, we hypothesize that it is necessary to express the stroke extraction procedure as a differentiable program, so that it can be learned in an end-to-end fashion along with the GNN. Even so, it would still be questionable whether such strong extraction capabilities can be learned through static images.

One idea that under our current investigate is to consider the ability of the extracted graph at predicting visual changes in dynamical environments during the learning of the stroke extraction program.

Explainability of GNN Apart from stroke extraction, we suspect that the observed limitation in accuracy (and thus robustness) is also due to the design of the mapping between the graph representation and its label. Specifically, there is a lack of connection between existing message passing architectures and the first-principal methods for classification through inference [26].

Graph representations The last source that accounts to the limited accuracy could be the graph representation. In this paper, we tested pairwise distances, which are invariant to rotation, translation, mirroring, and scaling (if all inputs are normalized). We are currently testing other potential representations with the same invariance properties, e.g., stroke curvature, and their combinations. However, a more systematic understanding of why some of these representations could work better is still missing.

6. Conclusion and future work

We present a stroke-based sketch representation with graph neural networks. We show that the proposed model is spatially robust (through robust classification and robust feature exploration experiments on MNIST and QuickDraw) with a strongly structured expression capability (through novel digits generation experiments).

The promising properties of the model pave the way for a series of exciting future research, including but not limited to 1) stroke-based representation learning in an unsupervised manner; 2) augmenting the model’s generalization capability by forming analogies between the graph representations. 3) forming representation of a complicated visual pattern with hierarchical graphs, further enhancing the structured expression capability of the model.

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