Im2Vec: Synthesizing Vector Graphics without Vector Supervision

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Abstract

Vector graphics are widely used to represent fonts, logos, digital artworks, and graphic designs. But, while a vast body of work has focused on generative algorithms for raster images, only a handful of options exists for vector graphics. One can always rasterize the input graphic and resort to image-based generative approaches, but this negates the advantages of the vector representation. The current alternative is to use specialized models that require explicit supervision on the vector graphics representation at training time. This is not ideal because large-scale high-quality vector-graphics datasets are difficult to obtain. Furthermore, the vector representation for a given design is not unique, so models that supervise on the vector representation are unnecessarily constrained. Instead, we propose a new neural network that can generate complex vector graphics with varying topologies, and only requires indirect supervision from readily-available raster training images (i.e., with no vector counterparts). To enable this, we use a differentiable rasterization pipeline that renders the generated vector shapes and composites them together onto a raster canvas. We demonstrate our method on a range of datasets, and provide comparison with state-of-the-art SVG-VAE and DeepSVG, both of which require explicit vector graphics supervision. Finally, we also demonstrate our approach on the MNIST dataset, for which no groundtruth vector representation is available. Source code, datasets and more results are available at http://geometry.cs.ucl.ac.uk/projects/2021/Im2Vec/.

1. Introduction

In vector graphics, images are represented as collections of parametrised shape primitives rather than a regular raster of pixel values. This makes for a compact, infinitely scalable representation with appearance that may be varied at need simply by modifying stroke or colour parameters. As a result, it is favoured by graphic artists and designers.

Unfortunately, creating vector graphics still remains a difficult task largely limited to manual expert workflows, because the same irregular structure makes it ill-suited for today’s convolution-based generative neural architectures. There is demand for a generative approach suitable for this domain, but it is not yet well served by research because of the difficult design requirements. Suitable approaches should: (i) produce output in vector format; (ii) establish correspondence across elements of the same family; (iii) support reconstruction, sampling, and interpolation; (iv) give user control over accuracy versus compactness of the representation; and finally, (v) be trainable directly using images without the need for vector supervision.

SVG-VAE [24] and DeepSVG [5], the two leading generative algorithms for vector graphics, cast synthesis as a sequence prediction problem, where the graphic is a sequence of drawing instructions, mimicking how common formats actually represent vector art. Training these methods therefore requires supervision from ground truth vector graphics.
sequences, which are difficult to collect in large volumes. Furthermore, the mapping from sequences of parametrised drawing instruction to actual images is highly non-linear with respect to the parameters and also non-injective, allowing a variety of different sequences to produce the same visual result. This makes it difficult to consider appearance as a criterion, and also causes the produced results to inherit any structural bias baked into the training sequences.

An approach aiming to do away with such vector supervision would need to overcome a number of challenges. First, the relationship between the representation and its appearance must be made explicit and differentiable. Second, it must operate on an internal representation that directly maps to a vector graphics representation and is flexible enough to support a large range of topologies and shape complexities. Finally, it should extract correspondences between related shapes, directly from unlabelled images.

In this paper, we propose such a method, called Im2Vec, based on a representation that mimics the compositing behaviour of complex vector graphics. It uses a variable-complexity closed Bézier path as the fundamental primitive, with the capability to composite a variable number of these to create shapes of arbitrary complexity and topology (shown in Figure 2).

![Figure 2: Im2Vec encodes a shape as a layered set of filled curves (or shapes). Each shape is obtained by deformation of a topological disk, differentiably rasterized into images \( L_i \), then differentiably composited back-to-front according to scalar depth variables \( d_i \).](image)

The key insight that allows the handling of arbitrary complexity is that we can treat any primitive closed shape as a deformation of a unit circle, which is modelled as 1D convolution on samples from this circle conditioned on a common latent vector. By recombining these primitive paths through a differentiable rasterizer [22] and differentiable compositing [28], we can natively represent vector art while learning to generate it purely based on appearance, obviating the need for vector supervision.

We evaluate Im2Vec on a variety of examples with varying complexity and topology including fonts, emojis, and icons. We demonstrate that Im2Vec, even without any vector supervision, consistently performs better reconstruction compared to SVG-VAE and DeepSVG when trained on the same dataset. We also compare our approach to a purely raster-based autoencoder, which we dub ImageVAE. While ImageVAE and Im2Vec produce comparable reconstruction quality, Im2Vec outputs vector graphics and hence enjoys the associated editability and compactness benefits. Finally, we quantify the compactness versus approximation power of our method, and demonstrate Im2Vec can be used to vectorize the MNIST dataset for which no groundtruth vector representation is available.

2. Related Work

Deep learning techniques for parametric vector shapes have recently garnered significant interest from the machine learning community [19, 11, 13, 40, 27].

**Learning-based image vectorization.** Our autoencoder encodes raster images. It can therefore address the single-image vectorization problem [3, 9, 31, 20, 1, 17], for which learning-based solutions have been proposed. Egiazarian et al. [7] vectorize technical line drawings. They predict the parameters of vector primitives using a transformer-based network, and refine them by optimization. DeepSpline [11] produces parametric curves of variable lengths from images using a pre-trained VGG network [33] for feature extraction followed by a hierarchical recurrent network. Guo et al. [14] use neural networks sub-divide line drawings and reconstruct the local topology at line junctions. The network predictions are used in a least squares curve fitting step to estimate Bézier curve parameters. Liu et al. [25] focus on vectorization of rasterized floorplans. They use a network to extract and label wall junctions, and use this information to solve an integer program that outputs the vectorized floor plans as a set of architectural primitives. These works produce high-quality vectorizations but, unlike ours, focus on the single image case. In contrast, our objective is to train a latent representation which can serve both for vectorization of existing raster images, and for generating new graphics by sampling with no post-processing.

**Parametric shape estimation.** Deep learning methods for parametric shape estimation typically encode shapes as an assembly of primitives, often with fixed topology and cardinality [13]. Smirnov et al. [36] fit rasterized fonts using quadratic Bézier curves, and 3D signed distance fields using cuboids. Their outputs have predetermined, fixed topologies that are specified as class-dependent templates. Zou et al. [41] train a recurrent network that predict shapes as a collection of cuboids from depth maps; they supervise directly on the shape parameters. Tulsiani et al. [39] also use hierarchies of cuboids, but from occupancy volumes. Similar techniques have explored other primitives like superquadrics [27] and Coon patches [35] as primitives. Sinha et al. [34] represents watertight 3D shapes as continuous deformation of a sphere. This is analogous to our representation of closed 2D curves.
3. Method

Our goal is to build a generative model for vector graphics that does not require vector supervision, i.e., that only requires raster images at training time. Our model follows an encoder–decoder architecture (Fig. 3). The encoder has a standard design [16]; it maps a raster image I to a latent variable $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$, which is then decoded into a vector graphic. Our decoder has been carefully designed so that it can generate complex graphics, made of a variable number $T$ of paths, with varying lengths and no predetermined topology ($§$ 3.1). We also train an auxiliary model to predict the optimal number of control points for each path ($§$ 3.2). Finally, each vector shape is rasterized using a differentiable rasterizer [22] and composited into a final rendering [28], which we compared to a raster ground truth for training ($§$ 3.3).

3.1. Vector Graphics Decoder

We choose to represent a vector graphic as a depth-ordered set of $T$ closed Bézier paths, or equivalently, a set of $T$ simply connected solid 2D shapes. The first operator in our decoder is a recurrent neural network (RNN) that consumes the global latent code $z$ representing the graphic as a whole ($§$ 3.1.3). At each time step $t$, the RNN outputs a per-path latent code $z_t$. This mechanism lets us generate graphics with arbitrary numbers of paths, and arbitrary topology (using fill rules to combine the shapes). The path-specific codes are then individually processed by a path decoder module ($§$ 3.1.1) which outputs the parameters of a closed path of arbitrary length using cubic Bézier segments.

3.1.1 Single path decoder with circular convolutions

To ensure the individual paths are closed, we obtain them by continuous deformation of the unit circle. Specifically, for each shape, we sample $3k$ points along the circle, corresponding to the control points of $k$ cubic Bézier segments. We compute the 2D cartesian coordinates $p_i$ of each of these points, and annotate them with a 1-hot binary variable $c_i$ to distinguish between the segment endpoints — every third point, which the Bézier path interpolates — and the other control points.

We replicate the path’s latent code $z_t$ and concatenate it with the sample position and point type label, so that each sample on the circle is represented as a vector $[p_i, c_i, z_t]$, $i \in \{1, \ldots, 3k\}$, which we call a fused latent vector. These
Figure 3: Architecture overview. We train an end-to-end variational autoencoder that encodes a raster image to a latent code $z$, which is then decoded to a set of ordered closed vector paths (top). We then rasterize the paths using DiffVG [22] and composite them together using DiffComp to obtain a rasterized output, which we compare to the ground truth raster target for supervision at training time. Our model can handle graphics with multiple component paths. It uses an RNN to produce a latent code $z_t$ for each path, from the global latent code $z$ representing the graphic as a whole. Our path decoder (bottom) decodes the path codes into closed Bézier paths. Our representation ensures the paths are closed by sampling the path control points uniformly on the unit circle. These control positions are then deformed using a 1D convolutional network with circular boundary conditions to enable adaptive control over the point density. Finally, another 1D circular CNN processes the adjusted points on the circle to output the final path control points in the absolute coordinate system of the drawing canvas.

The auxiliary network that predicts the optimal number of control points per path is trained independently from our main model; it is not shown here.

are then arranged into a cyclic buffer, which is then processed by a neural network performing 1D convolutions with cyclic boundary conditions (along the sample dimension) to obtain the final spatial locations of the path’s control points: $x_1, \ldots, x_{3k}$. The cyclic convolution along the sample axis corresponds to convolution along the perimeter of the unit circle. It is a crucial component of our method because it enables information sharing between neighbouring samples, while respecting the closed topology of the shape. We use 3-tap filters for all convolutions and ReLU activations.

Sampling the unit circle rather than using a fixed-length input array allows us to adjust the complexity (i.e., the number of segments $k$) of the Bézier path by simply changing the sampling density. In Section 3.2, we show this sampling density can be determined automatically, based on complexity of the shape to match, using an auxiliary network. Figure 4 shows the impact of the number of segments on the reconstruction quality.

3.1.2 Adaptive control point density

The most natural choice for our control point parameterization would be to choose equally spaced sample points along the unit circle (in angle). We found this uniform control points allocation was often sub-optimal. Ideally, more control points should be allocated to sections of the path with higher complexity (e.g., sharp creases or serifs for fonts). To address this, we propose an adaptive sampling mechanism, which we call the sample deformation subnetwork. This module is a 1D convolutional network with cyclic boundary condition acting on the fused latent vectors $[p_i, c_i, z_t]$, where the $p_i$ are uniformly spaced along the circle. It outputs a displacement $\delta p_i$ for each sample point. We parameterize this output in polar coordinates so that $p_i + \delta p_i$ remains on the circle.

With our adaptive sampling mechanism turned on, the path decoder now operates on the fused latent vector with sample deformation, $[p_i + \delta p_i, c_i, z_t]$, instead of the regularly-spaced positions. In Figure 4b, we show the sample deformation module improves the reconstruction accuracy, especially when few segments are used. The benefit over the uniform sampling distribution diminishes as more curve segments are added.
raster input reconstructions

(a) visual fidelity vs. number of segments

(b) error vs. number of segments

Figure 4: Uniform vs. adaptive sampling. Our decoder provides a natural control over the complexity of the vector graphics it produces. By adjusting the sampling density on the unit circle, we can increase the number of Bézier segments and obtain a finer or vector representation of a target raster image (a). Our adaptive sampling mechanism (§ 3.1.2) improves reconstruction accuracy, compared to a uniform distribution of the control points with the same number of segments (b). This adaptive scheme achieves good reconstructions with as few as 7–8 segments, while uniform sampling requires 12–14.

3.1.3 Decoding multi-part shapes using an RNN

So far, we have discussed a decoder architecture for a single shape, but our model can represent vector graphics made of multiple parts. This is achieved using a bidirectional LSTM [30] that acts on the graphic’s latent code $z$. To synthesize a graphic with multiple component shapes, we run the recurrent network for $T$ steps, in order to obtain shape latent codes for each shape: $z_1, \ldots, z_T$. We set $T$ to a fixed value, computed before training, equal to the maximum number of components a graphic in our training dataset can have. When a graphic requires fewer than $T$ shapes, the extra paths produced by the RNN are degenerate and collapse to a single point; we discard them before rendering.

In addition to the shape latent codes $z_t$, the recurrent network outputs an unbounded scalar depth value $d_t$ for each path which is used by our differentiable compositing module when rasterizing the shapes onto the canvas.

3.2. Predicting the number of path control points

Each path (shape) in our vector output can be made of a variable number of segments. Figure 4a shows how the reconstruction loss decreases as we increase the number of curve segments from 6-25, for multiple designs. It also shows that, depending on the design’s complexity, not all paths need many segments to be represented accurately. We train an auxiliary network conditioned on a path latent variable $z_t$ to model the complexity–fidelity trade-off and automatically determine the optimal number of segments for a path. This auxiliary network has 3 fully connected layers. It outputs 3 parameters $a$, $b$, and $c$ of a parametric curve $x \mapsto ae^{-bx} + c$ that approximates the loss graph of a given shape, with respect to the number of segments. Given this parametric approximation, we allow the user to set the quality trade-off as a threshold on the derivative of the parametric curve. Specifically, we solve for $x$ in the derivative expression and round up to obtain the number of segments to sample. This threshold defines what improvement in the reconstruction error is worth the added complexity of an additional Bézier segment. Please refer to our supplementary for more information on the auxiliary network.

3.3. Multi-resolution raster loss

Given a raster input image $I$, our model encodes the design into a global latent code $z$, which the RNN decomposes into path latent codes $z_1, \ldots, z_T$. Our path decoder maps each path latent code to a closed Bézier path. We rasterize each path individually, as a solid shape using the differentiable rasterizer of Li et al. [22], and composite them together into a final raster image $O$ using the differentiable compositing algorithm of Reddy et al [28]. Since every step of the pipeline is differentiable, we can compute a loss between input image $I$ and rastertized generated vector graphic $O$, and backpropagate the error to train our model using gradient descent.

When we differentiate $O$ with respect to the Bézier parameters, the gradients have a small area of influence, corresponding to the support of the rasterization prefiltering kernel. This adversely affects convergence especially when the mismatch between $I$ and $O$ is high (e.g., at the early stages
of the training. We alleviate this issue by rasterizing our graphics at multiple resolutions. That is, we render an image pyramid instead of a single image, and aggregate the loss at each pyramid level. We obtain the ground truth supervision for each level by decomposing the target image into a Gaussian pyramid, where each level is downsampled by a factor 2 along each dimension from the previous level. The gradients at the coarsest level are more stable and provide a crucial signal when the images differ significantly, while the fine-scale gradients are key to obtaining high spatial accuracy. The loss we minimize is given by:

$$E_{I \sim D} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \| \text{pyr}_l(I) - O_l \|^2,$$

where $L$ is the number of pyramid levels, $\text{pyr}_l(I)$ the $l$-th pyramid level, $O_l$ our output rasterized at the corresponding spatial resolution, and $D$ the training dataset.

### 3.4. Shape correspondences by segmentation

When specializing a generative models to a single class, e.g., the same glyph or digit across multiple fonts, it is often desirable that the model’s latent space capture correspondences between parts of the instance, like the opening in the capital letter ‘A’, or the eyes and mouth of an emoji face. To enable this, we segment our raster training dataset using an automatic off-the-shelf tool [20]. We cluster these segments across the dataset based on spatial position, and assign to each cluster a unique RGB colour. This consistent labeling helps learn a more interpretable latent space for purposes of interpolation, but is not itself critical; we show in supplementary material that our reconstruction is robust to inconsistent labeling thanks to the differentiable compositing step.

### 3.5. Training details

We train our model end-to-end for 100 – 1000 epochs, using a batch size between 2 – 256 and the Ranger optimizer [38] with learning rate between $10^{-3}$ and $10^{-4}$, depending on the dataset. To evaluate path decoder’s generalization to variable number of segments, we randomly chose the number of segments $k \in \{7, \ldots, 25\}$ at every iteration.

### 4. Evaluation

We demonstrate Im2Vec’s quantitative performance in 3 tasks: reconstruction, generation, and interpolation. We compare it with raster based ImageVAE and vector based SVG-VAE, DeepSVG on all the tasks.

**Reconstruction** We measure the reconstruction performance of the baselines and Im2Vec using $L_2$ loss in image space. This quantifies how accurately the latent space of the different methods captures the training dataset. Since SVG-VAE and DeepSVG work in vector domain, we rasterize their vector estimates using CairoSVG [4].

Table 1 shows reconstruction quality of the Im2Vec and other baselines on **FONTS** [24], **MNIST** [21], **EMOJIS** [26], and **ICONS** [6]. While vector based methods have the advantage of being able reproduce the exact intended vector parametrization, they are adversely effected by the non-linear relationship between vector parameters and image appearance. Therefore what seems like a small error in the vector parameters estimated by SVG-VAE and DeepSVG may result in dramatic changes in appearance. Unlike vector domain methods, Im2Vec is not affected by the objective mismatch between the vector parameter and pixel spaces, thereby achieving significant improvement in the reconstruction task.

Refer to our supplementary for a chamfer distance based reconstruction comparison between SVG-VAE, DeepSVG and our method.

We show qualitative comparisons of input shape re-
Figure 7: MNIST results. The MNIST dataset only provides raster data. Since no vector graphics ground truth is available, neither SVG-VAE nor DeepSVG can be trained on this dataset. We trained both ImageVAE and Im2Vec on the full dataset, with no digit class specialization or conditioning. Our model produces vector outputs, while ImageVAE is limited to low-resolution raster images (top). Both models produce convincing interpolation (bottom).

Figure 8: Reconstructions. Results on the EMOJIS and the ICONS datasets. In each case, we show the input image (128 × 128) and the corresponding vector graphics output, which can be rasterized at arbitrary resolutions.

Table 2: Generation and Interpolation quality. Results on the FONTS and the MNIST are more accurate than both previous techniques that require vector supervision, and an image-based baseline autoencoder.

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>Interpolation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FONTS</td>
<td>MNIST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ImageVAE</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVG VAE</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DeepSVG</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Im2Vec (Ours)</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.069</td>
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To quantitatively evaluate our generation results with others, we quantify how realistic the intermediate shapes in the latent shape as the average closest distance between the intermediate shapes to any sample in the training dataset:

\[
\sum_{O \in O_G} \min_{I \in \text{dataset}} (\|I, O\|^2),
\]

where \(O_G\) is the set of all generated shapes. We variationally sample 1000 shapes from all the methods and present the quality of the generated shapes in Table 2.

We perform similar evaluation to quantify the quality of our interpolations. For comparison we sample 4 evenly spaced interpolations between 250 random pairs of images from the training dataset to create interpolation samples. The results of the quality of interpolation between different methods is presented in Table 2.

5. Limitations

The raster-based nature of the training imposes the principal limitations of our method (see Figure 11). It is possible for some very fine features to underflow the training resolution, in which case they may be lost. This could be addressed by increasing the resolution at the expense of computational efficiency, or perhaps by developing a more involved image-space loss. Secondly, in particularly difficult cases it is possible for the generated shape to go to a local optimum that contains degenerate features or semanti-
Figure 9: **Interpolations.** Our learned latent space enables plausible interpolation between samples. In (a), we show interpolations between source–target pairs on the EMOJIS and ICONS datasets. In (b) we show interpolations on the Fonts dataset. Unlike previous work, Im2Vec enables plausible interpolation even across significant changes in shape. For instance, the stem of the digit ‘9’ naturally curls along the interpolation path.

Figure 10: **Random samples.** We show a random selection of digits generated by Im2Vec. The latent space was trained on the full Fonts dataset. Our model is capable of generating samples with significant topological variations across the different font types. In the supplemental material, we include 1000 random samples from the latent space. Please use digital zoom to better evaluate the quality.

Figure 11: **Limitations.** Im2Vec is only supervised by an image-space loss, so it can sometimes miss small topological features (Left), or produce semantically meaningless or degenerate geometries (Right). While the former can be resolved by providing higher resolution supervision, the latter could be mitigated by using local geometric priors.

6. Conclusion

We presented Im2Vec as a generative network that can be trained to produce vector graphics output of varying complexity and topology using only image supervision, without requiring vector sequence guidance. Our generative setup supports projection (i.e., converting images to vector sequences), sampling (i.e., generating new shape variations directly in vector form), as well as interpolation (i.e., morphing from one vector sequence to another, even with topological variations). Our evaluations show that Im2Vec achieves better reconstruction fidelity compared to methods requiring vector supervision.

We hope that this method can become the fundamental building block for neural processing of vector graphics and similar parametric shapes.

References


