# Exploring the structure of a real-time, arbitrary neural artistic stylization network

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August 28, 2017

#### Abstract

In this paper, we present a method which combines the flexibility of the neural algorithm of artistic style with the speed of fast style transfer networks to allow real-time stylization using any content/style image pair. We build upon recent work leveraging conditional instance normalization for multi-style transfer networks by learning to predict the conditional instance normalization parameters directly from a style image. The model is successfully trained on a corpus of roughly 80,000 paintings and is able to generalize to paintings previously unobserved. We demonstrate that the learned embedding space is smooth and contains a rich structure and organizes semantic information associated with paintings in an entirely unsupervised manner.

#### 1 Introduction

Elmyr de Hory gained world-wide fame by forging thousands of pieces of artwork and selling them to art dealers and museums [13]. The forger's skill is a testament to the human talent and intelligence required to reproduce the artistic details of a diverse set of paintings. In computer vision, much work has been invested in teaching computers to likewise capture the artistic style of a painting with the goal of conferring this style in arbitrary photographs in a convincing manner.

Early work in this effort in computer vision arose out of visual texture synthesis. Such work focused on building non-parametric techniques for "growing" visual textures one pixel [5, 27] or one patch [4, 17] at a time. Interestingly, Efros et al. (2001) [4] demonstrated that one may transfer a texture to an arbitrary photograph to confer it with the stylism of a drawing. Likewise, Hertzmann et al. (2001) [11] demonstrated a non-parametric technique for imbuing an arbitrary filter to an image based on pairs of unfiltered and filtered images.

In parallel to non-parametric approaches, a second line of research focused on building parametric models of visual textures constrained to match the marginal spatial statistics of visual patterns [15]. Early models focused on matching the marginal statistics of multi-scale linear filter banks [21, 6]. In recent years, spatial image statistics gleaned from intermediate features of state-of-the-art image classifiers [23]



Figure 1: Stylizations produced by our network trained on a large corpus of paintings and textures. The left-most column shows four content images. Left: Stylizations from paintings in training set on paintings (4 left columns) and textures (4 right columns). Right: Stylizations from paintings never previously observed by our network.

proved superior for capturing visual textures [8]. Pairing a secondary constraint to preserve the content of an image – as measured by the higher level layers of the same image classification network – extended this idea to artistic style transfer [9] (see also [10]).

Optimizing an image or photograph to obey these constraints is computationally expensive and contains no learned representation for artistic style. Several research groups addressed this problem by building a secondary network, i.e., *style transfer network*, to explicitly learn the transformation from a photograph a particular painting style [14, 16, 25]. Although this method confers computational speed, much flexibility is lost: a single style transfer network is learned for a single painting style and a separate style transfer network must be built and trained for each new painting style.

Most crucially, by partitioning the style transfer problem customized for a specific style of painting, these methods avoid the critical ability to learn a *shared* representation across paintings. Recent work by Dumoulin et al. [3] demonstrated that the manipulation of the normalization parameters was sufficient to train a single style transfer network across 32 varied painting styles. Such a network distilled the artistic style into a roughly 3000 dimensional space that is regular enough to permit smooth interpolation between these painting styles. Despite the promise, this model can cover only a limited number of styles and cannot generalize well to an unseen style. In this work, we extend these ideas further by building a style transfer network trained on about 80,000 painting and 6,000 visual textures. We demonstrate that this network can generalize to capture and transfer the artistic style of paintings never previously observed by the system (see Figure 1). Our contributions in this paper include:

- 1. Introduce a new algorithm for fast, arbitrary artistic style transfer trained on 80,000 paintings that can operate in real time on never previously observed paintings.
- 2. Represent all painting styles in a compact embedding space that captures features of the semantics of paintings.
- 3. Demonstrate that training with a large number of paintings uniquely affords the model the ability to predict styles never previously observed.
- 4. Embedding space permits novel exploration of artistic range of artist.

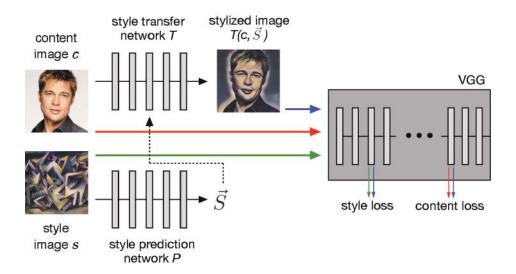


Figure 2: Diagram of model architecture. The style prediction network  $P(\cdot)$  predicts an embedding vector  $\vec{S}$  from an input style image, which supplies a set of normalization constants for the style transfer network. The style transfer network transforms the photograph into a stylized representation. The content and style losses [9] are derived from the distance in representational space of the VGG image classification network [23]. The style transfer network largely follows [3] and the style prediction network largely follows the Inception-v3 architecture [24].

#### 2 Methods

Artistic style transfer may be defined as creating a stylized image x from a content image c and a style image s. Typically, the content image c is a photograph and the style image s is a painting. A neural algorithm of artistic style [9] posits the content and style of an image may be defined as follows:

- Two images are similar in content if their high-level features as extracted by an image recognition system are close in Euclidean distance.
- Two images are similar in style if their low-level features as extracted by an image recognition system share the same spatial statistics.

The first definition is motivated by the observation that higher level features of pretrained image classification systems are tuned to semantic information in an image [28, 14, 19]. The second definition is motivated by the hypothesis that a painting style may be regarded as a visual texture [11, 4, 9]. A rich literature suggests that repeated motifs representative of a visual texture may be characterized by lower-order spatial statistics [15, 21, 6]. Images with identical lower-order spatial statistics appear perceptually identical and capture a visual texture [21, 8, 26, 6]. Assuming that a visual texture is spatially homogeneous implies that the lower-order spatial statistics may be represented by a Gram matrix expressing the spatially-averaged correlations across filters within a given layer's representation [21, 8, 6].

The complete optimization objective for style transfer may be expressed as

$$\min_{x} \mathcal{L}_c(x,c) + \lambda_s \mathcal{L}_s(x,s) \tag{1}$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_c(x,c)$  and  $\mathcal{L}_s(x,s)$  are the content and style losses, respectively and  $\lambda_s$  is a Lagrange multiplier weighting the relative strength of the style loss. We associate lower-level and higher-level features as the

activations within a given set of lower layers S and higher layers C in an image classification network. The content and style losses are defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_s(x,s) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{n_i} || \mathcal{G}[f_i(x)] - \mathcal{G}[f_i(s)] ||_F^2$$
(2)

$$\mathcal{L}_c(x,c) = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{C}} \frac{1}{n_j} || f_j(x) - f_j(c) ||_2^2$$
(3)

where  $f_l(x)$  are the network activations at layer l,  $n_l$  is the total number of units at layer l and  $\mathcal{G}[f_l(x)]$  is the Gram matrix associated with the layer l activations. The Gram matrix is a square, symmetric matrix measuring the spatially averaged correlation structure across the filters within a layer's activations.

Early work focused on iteratively updating an image to synthesize a visual texture [21, 6, 8] or transfer an artistic style to an image [9]. This optimization procedure is slow and precludes any opportunity to learn a representation of a painting style. Subsequent work introduced a second network, a *style transfer*  $network \ T(\cdot)$ , to learn a transformation from the content image c to its artistically rendered version  $\hat{x}$  (i.e.,  $\hat{x} = T(c)$ ) [14, 26, 16]. The style transfer network is a convolutional neural network formulated in the structure of an encoder/decoder [14, 26]. The training objective is the combination of style loss and content loss obtained by replacing x in Eq. 1 with the network output T(c). The parameters of the style transfer network are trained by minimizing this objective using a corpus of photographic images as content. The resulting network may artistically render an image dramatically faster, but a separate network must be learned for each painting style.

Training a new network for each painting is wasteful because painting styles share common visual textures, color palettes and semantics for parsing the scene of an image. Building a style transfer network that shares its representation across many paintings would provide a rich vocabulary for representing any painting. A simple trick recognized in [3] is to build a style transfer network as a typical encoder/decoder architecture but specialize the normalization parameters specific to each painting style. This procedure, termed *conditional instance normalization*, proposes normalizing each unit's activation z as

$$\tilde{z} = \gamma_s \left(\frac{z - \mu}{\sigma}\right) + \beta_s \tag{4}$$

where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the mean and standard deviation across the spatial axes in an activation map [26].  $\gamma_s$  and  $\beta_s$  constitute a linear transformation that specify the learned mean  $(\beta_s)$  and learned standard deviation  $(\gamma_s)$  of the unit. This linear transformation is unique to each painting style s. In particular, the concatenation  $\vec{S} = \{\gamma_s, \beta_s\}$  constitutes a roughly 3000-d embedding vector representing the artistic style of a painting. We denote this style transfer network as  $T(\cdot, \vec{S})$ . The set of all  $\{\gamma_s, \beta_s\}$  across N=32 paintings constitute 0.2% of the network parameters. Dumoulin et al. [3] showed that such a network provides a fast stylization of artistic styles and the embedding space is rich and smooth enough to allow users to combine the painting styles by *interpolating* the learned embedding vectors of 32 styles.

Although an important step forward, this "N-style network" is still limited compared to the original optimization-based technique [9] because the network is limited to only work on the styles explicitly trained on. The goal of this work is to extend this model to (1) train on  $N \gg 32$  styles and (2) perform stylizations for unseen painting styles never previously observed. The latter goal is especially important because the degree to which the network generalizes to unseen painting styles measures the degree to which the network (and embedding space) represents the true breadth and diversity of all painting styles.

In this work, we propose a simple extension in the form of a *style prediction network*  $P(\cdot)$  that takes as input an *arbitrary* style image s and *predicts* the embedding vector  $\vec{S}$  of normalization constants, as illustrated in Figure 2. The crucial advantage of this approach is that the model can generalize to

an unseen style image by predicting its proper style embedding at test time. We employ a pretrained Inception-v3 architecture [24] and compute the mean across each activation channel of the Mixed-6e layer which returns a feature vector with the dimension of 768. Then we apply two fully connected layers on top of it to predict the final embedding  $\vec{S}$ . The first fully connected layer is purposefully constructed to contain 100 units which is substantially smaller than the dimensionality of  $\vec{S}$  in order to compress the representation. We find it sufficient to jointly train the style prediction network  $P(\cdot)$  and style transfer network  $T(\cdot)$  on a large corpus of photographs and paintings.

A parallel work has proposed another method for fast, arbitrary style transfer in real-time using deep networks [12]. Briefly, Huang et al (2017) employ the same transformation (Equation 4) to normalize activation channels, however they calculate  $\gamma_s$  and  $\beta_s$  as the mean and standard deviation across the spatial axes of an encoder network applied to a style image. Although the style transformation is simpler, it provides a fixed heuristic mapping from style image to normalization parameters, whereas our method learns the mapping from the style image to style parameters directly. Our experimental results indicate that the increased flexibility achieves better objective values in the optimization.

#### 3 Results

We train the style prediction network  $N(\cdot)$  and style transfer network  $T(\cdot)$  on the ImageNet dataset as a corpus of training content images and the Kaggle *Painter By Numbers* (PBN) dataset<sup>1</sup>, consisting of 79,433 labeled paintings across many genres, as a corpus of training style images. Additionally, we train the model when *Describable Textures Dataset* (DTD) is used as the corpus of training style images. This dataset consists of 5,640 images labeled across 47 categories [2]. In both cases, we agument the training style images. We randomly flip, rescale, crop the images and change the hue and contrast of them. We present our results on both training style dataset.

#### 3.1 Trained network predicts arbitrary painting and texture styles.

Figure 1 (left) shows stylizations from the network trained on the DTD and the PBN datasets. The figure highlights a number of stylizations across a few photographs. We note that the networks were trained jointly and unlike previous work [3, 14], it was unnecessary to select a unique Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda_s$  for each painting style. That is, a single weighting of style loss suffices to produce reasonable results across all painting styles and textures.

Importantly, we employed the trained networks to predict a stylization for paintings and textures never previously observed by the network (Figure 1, right). Qualitatively, the artistic stylizations appear to be indistinguishable from stylizations produced by the network on actual paintings and textures the network was trained against. We took this as an encouraging sign that the network learned a general method for artistic stylization that may be applied for arbitrary paintings and textures. In the following sections we quantify this behavior and measure the limits of this generalization.

#### 3.2 Generalization to unobserved paintings.

Figure 1 indicates that the model is able to predict stylizations for paintings and textures never previously observed that are qualitatively indistinguishable from the stylizations on trained paintings and textures. In order to quantify this observation, we train a model on the PBN dataset and calculate the distribution of style and content losses across 2 photographs for 1024 observed painting styles (Figure 3A, black) and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> https://www.kaggle.com/c/painter-by-numbers

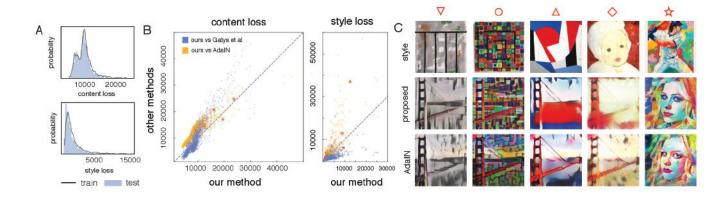


Figure 3: Generalization to unobserved painting styles. A. Distribution of style and content loss for stylization using observed and unobserved paintings from PBN training set. B. Comparison of style and content loss between proposed method, direct optimization [9] (blue) and AdaIN [12] (yellow). C. Sample images demonstrating stylization applied between proposed method and AdaIN [12] for selected points in panel B.

1024 unobserved painting styles (Figure 3A, blue). The distribution of losses for observed styles (style: mean =  $2.08e4 \pm 2.50e4$ ; content: mean =  $8.92e4 \pm 3.13e4$ ) is largely similar to the distribution across unobserved styles (style: mean =  $1.95e4 \pm 3.73e4$ ; content: mean =  $8.94e4 \pm 3.55e4$ ). This indicates that the method performs stylizations on observed paintings with nearly equal fidelity as measured by the model objectives for unobserved styles. Importantly, if we train the model on a distinct but rich visual textures dataset (DTD) and test the stylizations on unobserved paintings from PBN, we find that the model produces similar artistic stylizations both quantitatively (style: mean =  $2.67e4 \pm 6.49e4$ ; content: mean =  $8.76e4 \pm 3.55e4$ ) and qualitatively (in terms of visual inspection). Due to space constraints, we provide detailed analysis in the supplementary material.

We next asked how well the learned networks perform on unobserved painting styles when compared to the original optimization-based method [9]. Figure 3B plots the content and style loss objectives for our proposed method (x-axis) and [9] (blue points). Note that even though [9] directly optimizes for these two objectives, the proposed method obtains content and style losses that are comparable (style: 1.95e4 vs 1.12e4; content: 8.94e4 vs 9.09e4). These results indicate that the learned representation is able to achieve an objective comparable to one obtained by direct optimization on the image itself.

We additionally compared our proposed method against a parallel work to perform fast, arbitrary stylization termed AdaIN [12]. We found that our proposed method achieved lower content and style loss. Specifically, (style: 1.95e4 vs 2.56e4; content: 8.94e4 vs 12.3e4). In addition, paired t-test showed that these differences are statistically significant (style: p-value of  $1.9 \times 10^{-9}$  with t-statistic of -6.04; content: p-value of 0.0 with t-statistic of -91.9), indicating that our proposed model achieved consistently better dual objectives (Figure 3B, yellow points). See Figure 3C for a comparison of each method.

Figure 4 shows how the generalization ability of the model (measured in terms of style loss) is related to the proximity to training examples. Specifically, we plot style loss on unobserved paintings versus the minimum  $L_2$  distance between the Gram matrix of unobserved painting and the set of all Gram matrices in the training dataset of paintings. The plot shows clear positive correlation ( $r^2 = 0.9$ ), which suggests that our model achieves lower style loss when the unobserved image is similar to some of the training examples in terms of the Gram matrix. More discussion

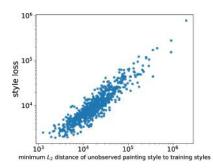


Figure 4: Ability to generalize vs. proximity to training examples

of this figure is found in the supplementary material.

# 3.3 Scaling to large numbers of paintings is critical for generalization.

A critical question we next asked was what endows these networks

with the ability to generalize to paintings not previously observed. We had not observed this ability to generalize in previous work [3]. A simple hypothesis is that the generalization is largely due to the fact that the model is trained with a far larger number of paintings than previously attempted. To test this hypothesis, we trained style transfer and style prediction networks with increasing numbers of example painting styles without data augmentation. Figure 5A reports the distribution of content and style loss on unobserved paintings for increasing numbers of paintings.

First, we asked whether the model is better able to stylize photographs based on paintings in the training set by dint of having trained on larger numbers of paintings. Comparing left-most and right-most points of the dashed curves in Figure 5A for the content and style loss indicate no significant difference. Hence, the quality of the stylizations for paintings in the training set do not improve with increasing numbers of paintings.

We next examined how well the model is able to generalize when trained on increasing numbers of painting styles. Although the content loss is largely preserved in all networks, the distribution of style losses is notably higher for unobserved painting styles and this distribution does not asymptote until roughly 16,000 paintings. Importantly, after roughly 16,000 paintings the distribution of content and style loss roughly match the content and style loss for the trained painting styles. Figure 5B shows three pairings of content and style images that are unobserved in the training data set and the resulting stylization as the model is trained on increasing number of paintings (Figure 5C). Training on a small number of paintings produces poor generalization whereas training on a large number of paintings produces reasonable stylizations on par with a model explicitly trained on this painting style.

#### 3.4 Embedding space captures semantic structure of styles.

The style transfer model represents all paintings and textures in a style embedding vector  $\vec{S}$  that is 2758 dimensional. The style prediction network predicts  $\vec{S}$  from a lower dimensional representation (i.e., bottleneck) containing only 100 dimensions.

Given the compressed representation for all artistic and texture styles, one might suspect that the network would automatically organize the space of artistic styles in a perceptually salient manner. Furthermore, the degree to which this unsupervised representation of artistic style matches our semantic categorization of paintings.

We explore this question by qualitatively examining the low dimensional representation for style internal to the style prediction network. A 100 dimensional space is too large to visualize, thus we employ the t-SNE dimensional reduction technique to reduce the representation to two dimensions [18]. Note that t-SNE will necessarily distort the representation significantly in order compress the representation to small dimensionality, thus we restrict our analysis to qualitative description.

Figure 6A (left) shows a two-dimensional t-SNE representation on a subset of 800 textures across 10 human-labeled categories. One may identify that regions of the embedding space cluster around perceptually similar visual textures: the bottom-right contains a preponderance of waffles; the middle contains many checkerboard patterns; top-center contains many zebra-like patterns. Figure 6B (left) shows the same representation for a subset of 3768 paintings across 20 artists. Similar clustering behavior

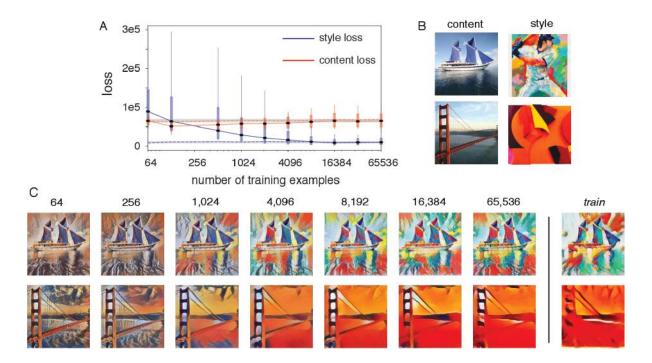


Figure 5: Training on a large corpus of paintings is critical for generalization. A. Distribution of style and content loss for stylizations applied to unseen painting styles for proposed method trained on increasing numbers of painting styles. Solid line indicates median with box showing  $\pm 25\%$  quartiles and whiskers indicating 10% and 90% of the cumulative distributions. Dashed line and gray region indicate the mean and range of the corresponding losses for training images. Three sample pairs of content and style images (B) and the resulting stylization with the proposed method as the method is trained on increasing numbers of paintings (top number). For comparison, final column in (B) highlights stylizations for a model trained explicitly on the these styles.

may be observed across colors and spatial structure as well.

The structure of the low dimensional representation does not just contain visual similarity but also reflect semantic similarity. To highlight this aspect, we reproduce the t-SNE plot but replace the individual images with a human label (color coded). For the visual texture embedding (Figure 6A) we display a metadata label associated with each human-described texture. For the painting embedding (Figure 6B) we display the name of the artist for each painting. Interestingly, we find that resides a region of the low-dimensional space that contains a large fraction of Impressionist paintings by Claude Monet (Figure 6B, magnified in inset). These results suggest that the style prediction network has learned a representation for artistic styles that is largely organized based on our perception of visual and semantic similarity without any explicit supervision.

### 3.5 The structure of the embedding space permits novel exploration.

To explore the embedding structure further, we examined whether we can generate reasonable stylizations by varying local style changes for a specific painting style. In detail, we calculate the average embedding of the paintings from a specific artist and vary the embedding vector along along the two principal components of the cluster. Figure 7 shows stylizations from these embedding variations in a 5x5 grid, together with actual paintings of the artist whose embeddings are nearby the grid. The stylizations from the grid captures two axis of style variations and correspond well to the neighboring embeddings of actual paintings. The results suggest that the model might capture a local manifold from an individual artist or

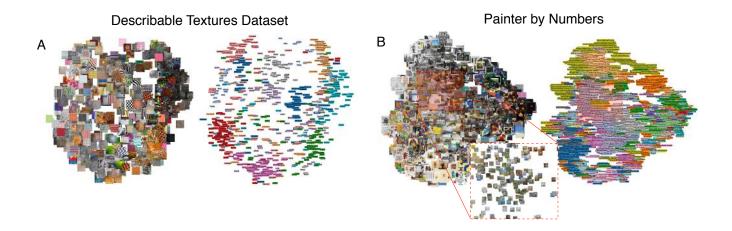


Figure 6: Structure of a low-dimensional representation of the embedding space. A: Two-dimensional representation using t-SNE for 800 textures [2] across 10 human-labeled categories. Right is the same as previous but texture replaced with a human annotated label. B: Same as previous but with Painting by Numbers dataset across for 3768 paintings across 20 labeled artists. Note the zoom-in highlighting a localized region of embedding space representing Monet paintings. Please zoom-in for details.

painting style.

Although we trained the style prediction network on painting images, we find that embedding representation is extremely flexible. In particular, supplying the network with a content image (i.e. photograph) produces an embedding that acts as the identity transformation. Figure 8 highlights the identity transformation on a given content image. Importantly, we can now interpolate between the identity stylization and arbitrary (in this case, unobserved) painting in order to effectively dial in the weight of the painting style.

#### 4 Conclusions

We have presented a new method for performing fast, arbitrary artistic style transfer on images. This model is trained at a large scale and generalizes to perform stylizations based on paintings never previously observed. Importantly, we demonstrate that increasing the corpus of trained painting style confers the system the ability to generalize to unobserved painting styles. We demonstrate that the ability to generalize is largely predictable based on the proximity of the unobserved style to styles trained on by the model.

We find that the model architecture provides a low dimensional embedding space of normalization constants that captures many semantic properties of paintings. We explore this space by demonstrating a low dimensional space that captures the artistic range and vocabulary of a given artist. In addition, we introduce a new form of interpolation that allows a user to arbitrarily to dial in the strength of an artistic stylization.

This work offers several directions for future exploration. In particular, we observe that the embedding representation for paintings only captures a portion of the semantic information available for a painting. One might leverage metadata of paintings in order to refine the embedding representation through a secondary embedding loss [7, 20]. Another direction is to improve the visual quality of the artistic stylization through complementary methods that preserve the color of the original photograph or restrict the stylization to a spatial region of the image [10]. In addition, in a real time video, one could

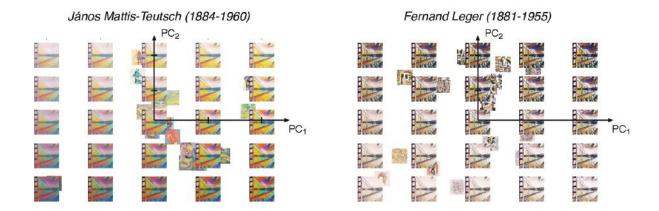


Figure 7: Exploring the artistic range of an artist using the embedding representation. Calculated two-dimensional principal components for a given artist and plotted paintings from artist in this space. The principal component space is graphically depicted by the artistic stylizations rendered on a photograph of the Golden Gate Bridge. The center rendering is the mean and each axis spans  $\pm 4$  standard deviations in along each axis. Each axis tick mark indicates 2 standard deviations. Left: Paintings and principal components of Janos Mattis-Teutsch (1884-1960). Right: Paintings and principal components of Fernand Leger (1881-1955). Please zoom in on electronic version for details.

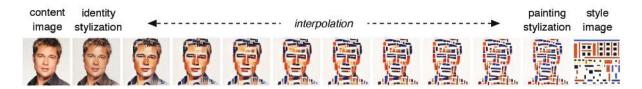


Figure 8: Linear interpolation between identity transformation and unobserved painting. Note that the identity transformation is performed by feeding in the content image as the style image.

train the network to enforce temporal consistency between frames by appending additional loss functions [22].

Aside from providing another tool for manipulating photographs, artistic style transfer offers several applications and opportunities. Much work in robotics has focused on training models in simulated environments with the goal of applying this training in real world environments. Improved stylization techniques may provide an opportunity to improve generalization to real-world domains where data is limited [1]. Furthermore, by building models of paintings with low dimensional representation for painting style, we hope these representation might offer some insights into the complex statistical dependencies in paintings if not images in general to improve our understanding of the structure of natural image statistics.

#### 5 Acknowledgments

We wish to thank Douglas Eck, Fred Bertsch for valuable discussions and support; Xin Pan for technical assistance and advice; the larger Google Brain team for valuable discussion and support.

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## A Supplementary

#### A.1 Variety of stylizations in trained model.

The figure below shows mosaic of stylizations across 2592 paintings using model trained on PBN dataset.

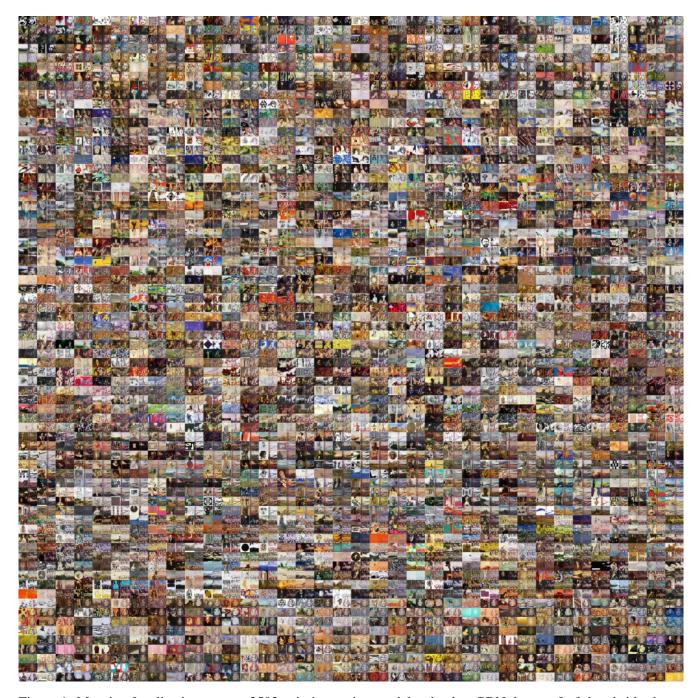


Figure 1: Mosaic of stylizations across 2592 paintings using model trained on PBN dataset. Left-hand side shows painting and right-hand side shows stylization across an assortment of 8 content images. Please zoom in on a digital copy to examine the details of the individual paintings.

### A.2 Structure of a low-dimensional representation of the embedding space

In Figure 2 and Figure 3, we provide high-resolution version of the t-SNE embeddings learned from the painting and texture datasets, respectively.



Figure 2: Top: Expanded view of t-SNE representation for low-dimensional style embedding space for PBN dataset of paintings across 20 painters. Bottom: Same as above but replacing the painting with metadata indicating the artist. Please zoom in on a digital copy to examine the details of the individual paintings.

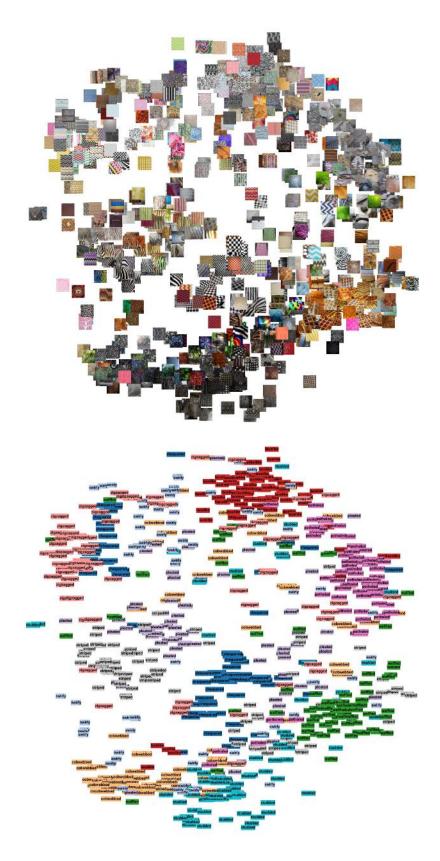
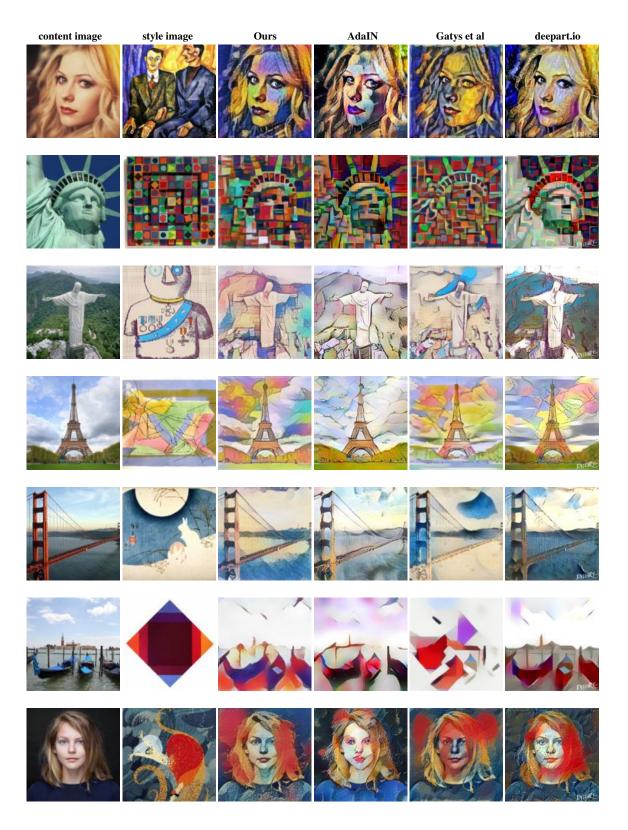
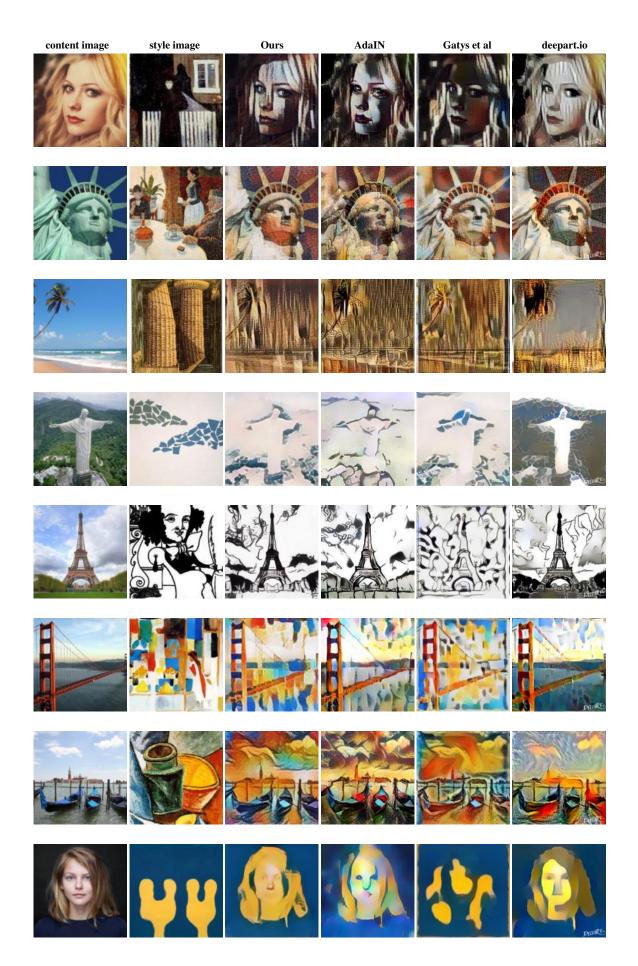


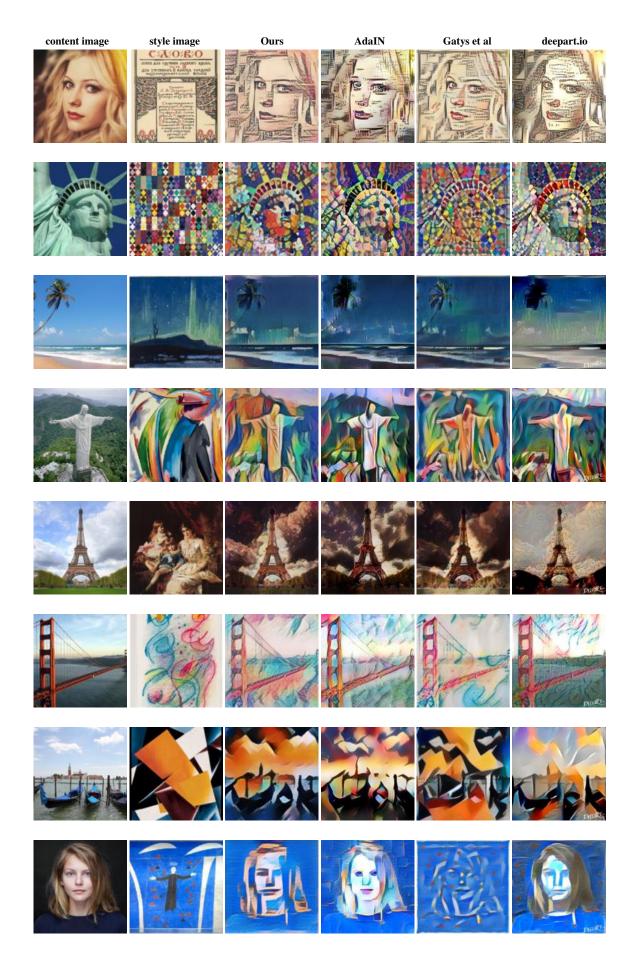
Figure 3: Top: Expanded view of t-SNE representation for low-dimensional style embedding space for DTD visual textures dataset across 10 categories. Bottom: Same as above but replacing the visual texture with metadata describing the texture. Please zoom in on a digital copy to examine the details of the individual textures.

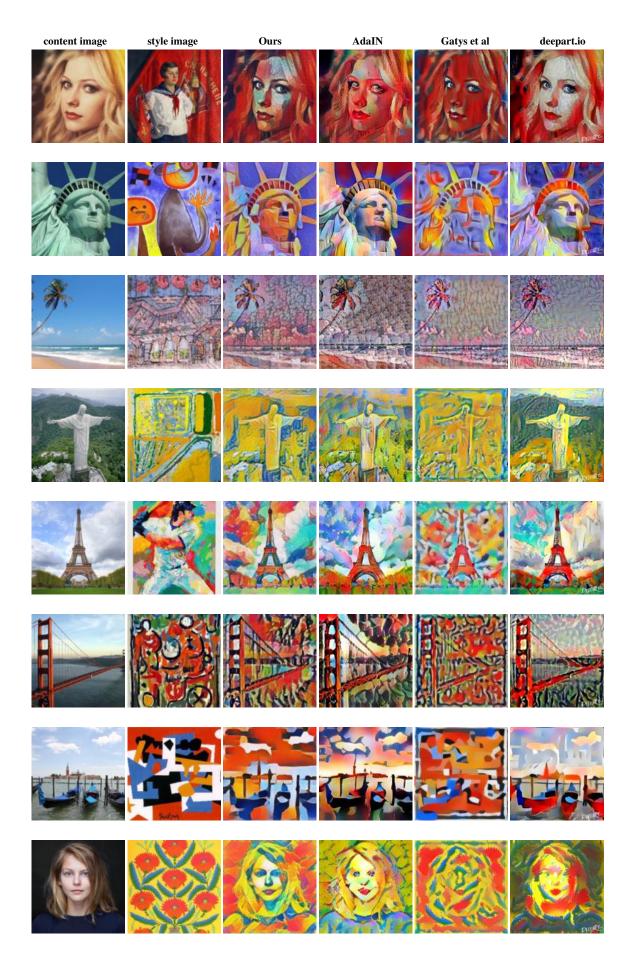
### A.3 Qualitative comparison with other methods

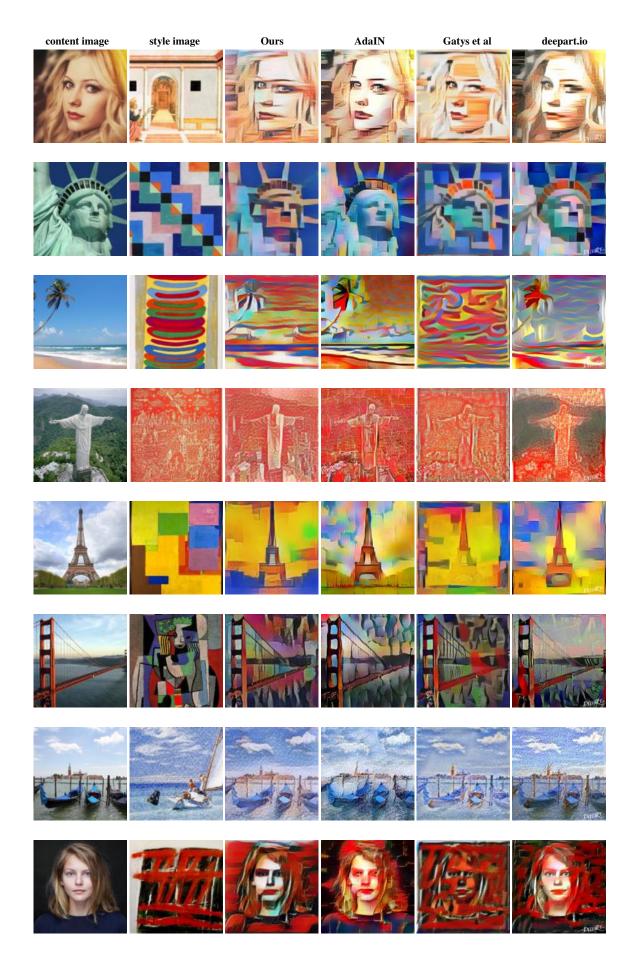
In this section, we provide comparison of our method trained on PBN training images, AdaIN[12], Gatys[9] (using the same set of parameters for all the images) and deepart (https://deepart.io) across many style and content images.











#### A.4 Generalization of the model across training datasets

In this section, we provide additional experiments demonstrating the degree of generalization of the model trained from two different training datasets (i.e., painting vs texture). More specifically, we investigated the following questions. (1) How well does the model generalize from the training data to the test data within the same domain? (2) How similar is the stylization performance when learned from one domain (e.g., painting images) to the stylization performance when learned from a different domain (e.g., texture images)?

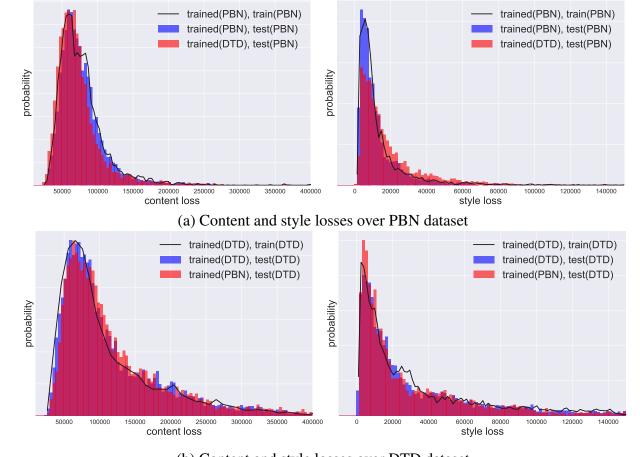
In response to the first question, we showed in Section 3.2 that the distribution of the style loss for the training style images and test style images closely matches (Figure 3 of the main paper), suggesting that the model generalizes well within the same domain. For the second question, we measured the distribution of style loss and content loss when a model is trained and tested on different datasets (i.e., training from painting images and testing on texture images and vice versa). Figure 4 shows the summary histograms. For this experiment we calculate the distribution of style and content losses across 8 photographs for 1024 unobserved painting styles. (Statistics in section 3.2 are calculated acrross 2 photographs). Surprisingly, we found that the distribution of style loss is very similar regardless of which dataset of style images the model was trained from. For example, Figure 4(a) shows that the model trained from the painting dataset and the model trained from the texture dataset produce similar style loss and content loss distributions when evaluated on the same test painting images. Similar result is shown when using the texture dataset for evaluation, as shown in Figure 4(b). The summary statistics in Table 1 and Table 2 also support this conclusion. Furthermore, the stylizations of the two different models are perceptually similar, as shown in the figure panels below. These results suggest that when we train from a sufficiently large corpus of style images (which covers a rich variety of color and texture), the learned model might be able to generalize even to unseen types of images.

	content loss			style loss		
	mean	median	std	mean	median	std
trained(DTD), train(DTD)	117230	86840	90640	56840	22230	152870
trained(DTD), test(DTD)	117710	90380	79430	56420	19780	133350
trained(PBN), test(DTD)	123270	96110	83760	75940	18320	285110

Table 1: Summary statistics of content and style loss over DTD dataset.

	content loss			style loss		
	mean	median	std	mean	median	std
trained(PBN), train(PBN)	77750	70650	34290	14000	8420	19000
trained(PBN), test(PBN)	79070	71310	36700	14730	8593	30750
trained(DTD), test(PBN)	73620	66030	35690	24360	12810	57350

Table 2: Summary statistics of content and style loss over PBN dataset.



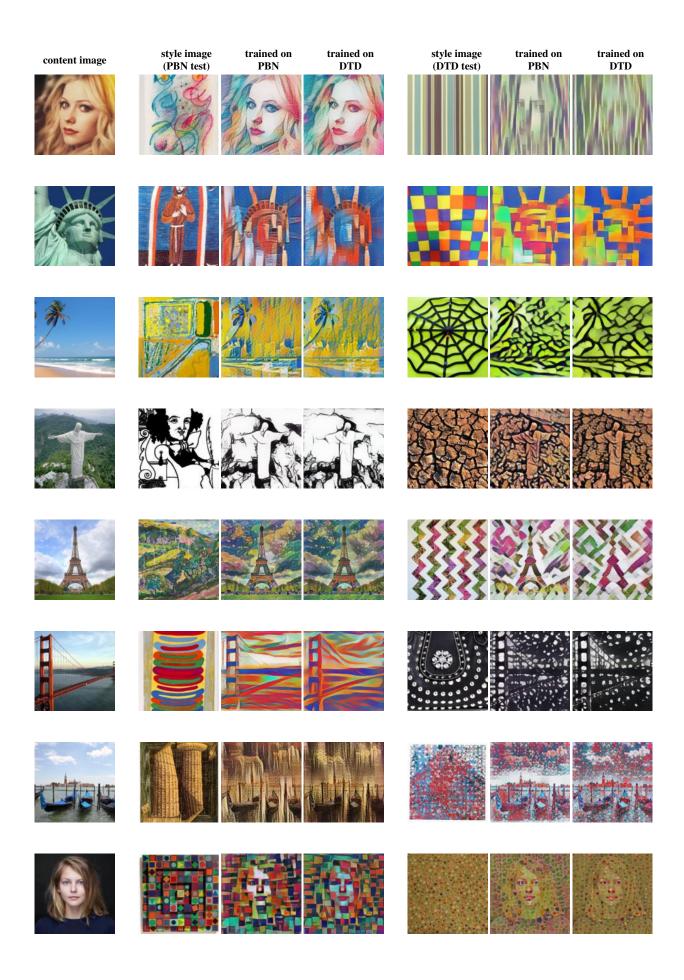
(b) Content and style losses over DTD dataset

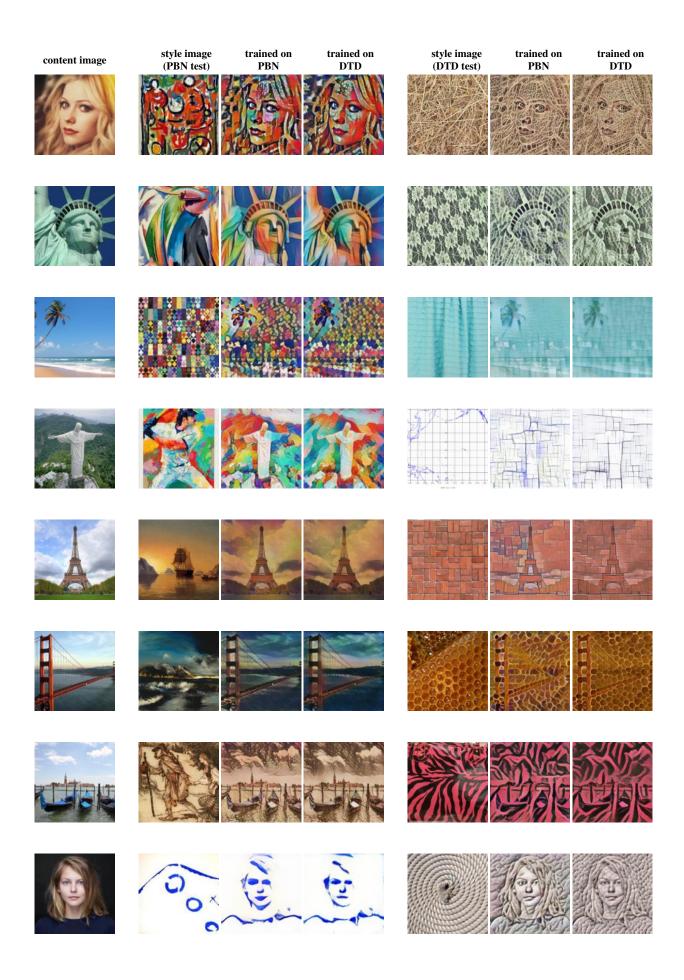
Figure 4: Measuring the ability of the model to generalize across datasets. Black curves represent the distribution of style and content losses for the training images in the DTD and PBN datasets, respectively. Blue histograms represent the distributions for testing images for a model trained on the training images of the same dataset. Red histograms represent the distributions for testing images for a model trained on a training set of a different dataset. The two models trained on DTD and PBN are trained with the exact same parameters except the content weight for the model trained on DTD dataset is larger.

#### A.4.1 Qualitative comparisons of generalization across datasets.

Qualitative comparisons of our method trained on the PBN training images and our method trained on the DTD training images on some style images from PBN test data and DTD test data are included in the following pages.







#### A.5 Expanded analysis on the generalization to unobserved paintings

In Section 3.2 of the main paper (Figure 4), we discussed how the generalization ability of the model (measured in terms of style loss) is related to the proximity of training examples. In this section, we provide more detailed analysis with qualitative results.

For better visualization, we show the scatter plot in log-log scale in Figure 5. Each point in the scatter corresponds to a different test style image. As described in the main paper, we find a clear correlation between the style loss on unobserved paintings and the minimum L2 distance between the Gram matrix of unobserved painting and the set of all Gram matrices in the training dataset of paintings. This suggests that the generalization performance (as measured by the style loss) is positively correlated to the proximity of the test style image to the corpus of training style images.

To gain further insights, we provide example stylization results in Figure 6 for two groups. In other words, the yellow points represent "easy examples" where the corresponding test style image is similar to the nearby training style images in the Gram matrix space and the resulting style loss tends to be relatively small. Conversely, the red points represent "difficult examples" where the corresponding test style image is relatively far away from the training style images in the Gram matrix space and the style loss tends to be relatively large. For each case, we also show stylizations using the nearest training style image side by side. In our preliminary examinations, we found that the larger style loss seem to correspond to a slightly worse stylizations in the perceptual sense. Furthermore, the two stylizations using the test style image and the closest training style image seem to be more perceptually different (in terms of color and texture) for the difficult cases (red points) than the easy cases (yellow points). We hypothesize that the difficult cases (red points) may lie around the low-density region in the embedding space, but we leave further analysis as future work.

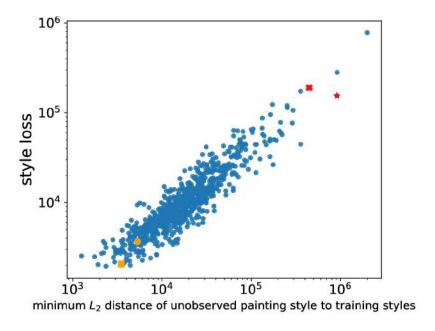


Figure 5: Style loss vs. proximity to training examples

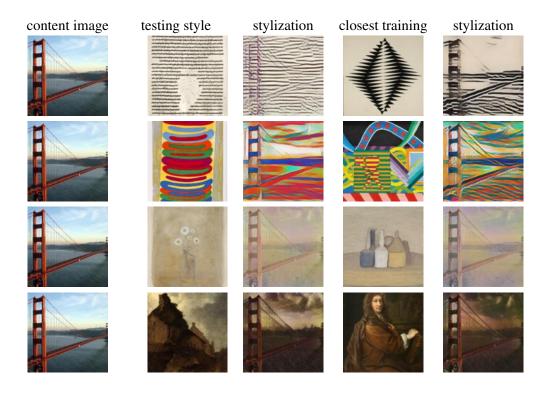


Figure 6: Some qualitive examples for the points in figure 5. First two rows are corresponded to red points and second two rows are corresponded to yellow points.

#### A.6 Summary of model and training hyperparameters

In this section, we provide our model hyperparameters in Table 3 and Table 4.

Operation	spatial dimensions	filter depth
style image	$256 \times 256$	3
Inception-v3 (mixed 6e)	$17 \times 17$	768
Reduce mean	$1 \times 1$	768
Bottleneck (matrix multiply)	$1 \times 1$	100
Matrix multiply	$1 \times 1$	2758
Optimizer	Adam ( $\alpha = 0.001$ , $\beta$	$_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.999$
Parameter updates	4M	
Batch size	8	
Weight initialization	Isotropic gaussian ( $\mu$	$\sigma = 0,  \sigma = 0.01$

Table 3: Style prediction network hyperparameters.

Operation	Kernel size	Stride	Feature maps	Padding	Nonlinearity
<b>Network</b> – $256 \times 256 \times 3$ input					
Convolution	9	1	32	SAME	ReLU
Convolution	3	2	64	SAME	ReLU
Convolution	3	2	128	SAME	ReLU
Residual block			128		
Residual block			128		
Residual block			128		
Residual block			128		
Residual block			128		
Upsampling			64		
Upsampling			32		
Convolution	9	1	3	SAME	Sigmoid
<b>Residual block</b> – $C$ feature maps					
Convolution	3	1	C	SAME	ReLU
Convolution	3	1	C	SAME	Linear
	Add the input	and the	output		
<b>Upsampling</b> – $C$ feature maps					
	Nearest-neighbor interpolation, factor 2				
Convolution	3	1	C	SAME	ReLU
Padding mode	REFLECT				
Normalization	Conditional in	nstance r	ormalization af	ter every co	onvolution
Optimizer	Adam ( $\alpha = 0$	.001, $\beta_1$	$=0.9, \beta_2=0.9$	99)	
Parameter updates	4M				
Batch size	8				
Weight initialization	Isotropic gaus	ssian ( $\mu$	$=0, \sigma=0.01)$		

Table 4: Style transfer network hyperparameters.