

SwiftSketch: A Diffusion Model for Image-to-Vector Sketch Generation

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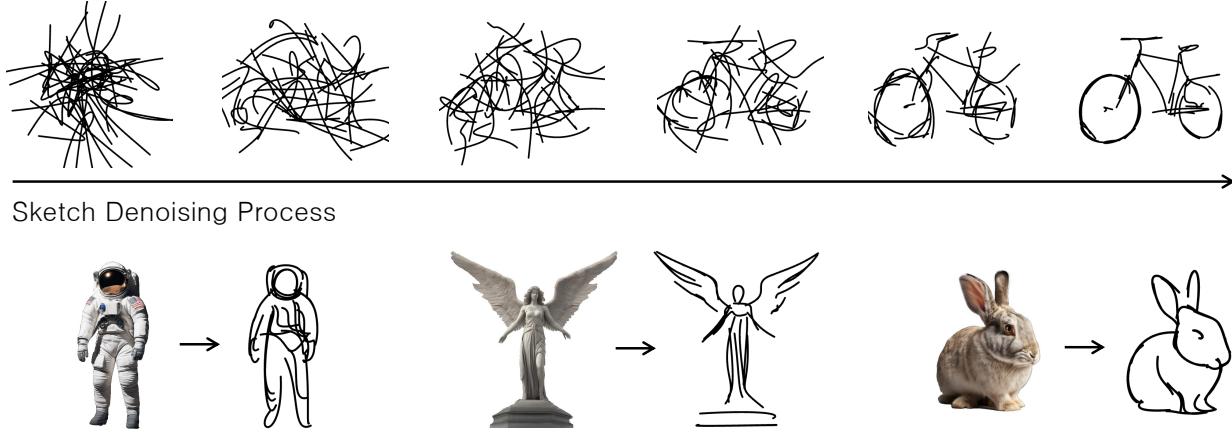


Figure 1. SwiftSketch is a diffusion model that generates vector sketches by denoising a Gaussian in stroke coordinate space (top). It generalizes effectively across diverse classes and takes under a second to produce a single high-quality sketch (bottom). <https://swiftsketch.github.io/>

Abstract

Recent advancements in large vision-language models have enabled highly expressive and diverse vector sketch generation. However, state-of-the-art methods rely on a time-consuming optimization process involving repeated feedback from a pretrained model to determine stroke placement. Consequently, despite producing impressive sketches, these methods are limited in practical applications. In this work, we introduce SwiftSketch, a diffusion model for image-conditioned vector sketch generation that can produce high-quality sketches in less than a second. SwiftSketch operates by progressively denoising stroke control points sampled from a Gaussian distribution. Its transformer-decoder architecture is designed to effectively handle the discrete nature of vector representation and capture the inherent global dependencies between strokes. To train SwiftSketch, we construct a synthetic dataset of image-sketch pairs, addressing the limitations of existing sketch datasets, which are often created by non-artists and lack professional quality. For generating these synthetic sketches, we introduce ControlSketch, a method that enhances SDS-based techniques by incorporating precise spatial control through a depth-aware ControlNet. We demonstrate that SwiftSketch generalizes across diverse concepts, efficiently producing sketches that combine high fidelity with a natural and visually appealing style.

1. Introduction

In recent years, several works have explored the task of generating sketches from images, tackling both scene-level and object-level sketching [6, 46, 47, 55]. This task involves transforming an input image into a line drawing that captures its key features, such as structure, contours, and overall visual essence. Sketches can be represented as pixels or vector graphics, with the latter often preferred for their resolution independence, enhanced editability, and ability to capture sketches' sequential and abstract nature. Existing vector sketch generation methods often involve training a network to learn the distribution of human-drawn sketches [56]. However, collecting human-drawn sketch datasets is labor-intensive, and crowd-sourced contributors often lack artistic expertise, resulting in datasets that primarily feature amateur-style sketches (Fig. 2, left). On the other hand, sketch datasets created by professional designers or artists are typically limited in scale, comprising only a few hundred samples, and are often restricted to specific domains, such as portraits or product design (Fig. 2, right). Therefore, existing data-driven sketch generation methods are often restricted to specific domains or reflect a non-professional style present in the training data.

With recent advancements in Vision-Language Models (VLMs) [57], new approaches have emerged in the sketch domain, shifting sketch generation from reliance on human-drawn datasets to leveraging the priors of pretrained models [11, 46, 47, 54]. These methods generate professional-

looking sketches by optimizing parametric curves to represent an input concept, guided by the pretrained VLM. However, they have a significant drawback: The generation process depends on repeated feedback (backpropagation) from the pretrained model, which is inherently time-consuming – often requiring from several minutes to over an hour to produce a single sketch. This makes these approaches impractical for interactive applications or for tasks that require large-scale sketch data generation.

In this work, we introduce *SwiftSketch*, a diffusion-based object sketching method capable of generating high-quality vector sketches in under a second per sketch. SwiftSketch can generalize across a wide range of concepts and produce sketches with high fidelity to the input image (see Figure 1).

Inspired by recent advancements in diffusion models for non-pixel data [29, 43, 44], we train a diffusion model that learns to map a Gaussian distribution in the space of stroke coordinates to the data distribution (see Figure 1, top). To address the discrete nature of vector graphics and the complex global topological relationships between shapes, we employ a transformer-decoder architecture with self- and cross-attention layers, trained to reconstruct ground truth sketches in both vector and pixel spaces. The image condition is integrated into the generation process through the cross-attention mechanism, where meaningful features are first extracted from the input image using a pretrained CLIP image encoder [36].

With the lack of available professional-quality paired vector sketch datasets, we construct a *synthetic* dataset to train our network. The input images are generated with SDXL [33], and their corresponding vector sketches are produced with a novel optimization-based technique we introduce called *ControlSketch*. ControlSketch enhances the SDS loss [34], commonly used for text-conditioned generation, by integrating a depth ControlNet [58] into the loss, enabling object sketch generation with spatial control. Our dataset comprises over 35,000 high-quality vector sketches across 100 classes and is designed for scalability. We demonstrate SwiftSketch’s capability to generate high-quality vector sketches of diverse concepts, balancing fidelity to input images and the abstract appearance of natural sketches.

2. Related Work

Sketch Datasets Existing sketch datasets are primarily composed of human-drawn sketches, and are designed to accomplish different sketching tasks. Class-conditioned datasets [10, 16] are particularly common, with the largest being the QuickDraw dataset [16], containing 50 million sketches spanning 345 categories. Datasets of image-referenced sketches cover a spectrum of styles, including image trace and contours [1, 10, 25, 50], or more abstract but still fine-grained depictions [14, 40], and very abstract

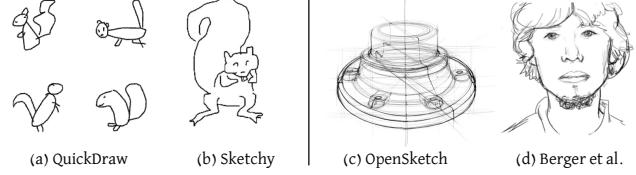


Figure 2. Amateur vs. Professional Sketches. (a) QuickDraw [16] and (b) Sketchy [40] are large-scale datasets, with Sketchy offering more fine-grained sketches, though both exhibit non-professional style. (c) OpenSketch [15] and (d) Berger *et al.* [3] contain professional sketches but are limited in scale and focus on specific domains.

sketches [31]. These large-scale datasets are often created by non-artists. Efforts have been made to collect sketches from professionals [3, 15, 17, 53], but these datasets are often smaller in scale, and are limited to specific domains like portraits [3] or household items [15]. These constraints make them unsuitable for training generative models that can generalize broadly to diverse concepts.

Data-Driven Sketch Generation These datasets have facilitated data-driven approaches for various sketch-related tasks [56]. Multiple generative frameworks and architectures have been explored for vector sketch generation, including RNNs [16], BERT [27], Transformers [4, 37], CNNs [8, 23, 42], LSTMs [35, 42], GANs [45], reinforcement learning [30, 60], and diffusion models [49]. However, these methods are fundamentally designed to operate in a class-conditioned manner, restricting their ability to generate sketches to only the classes included in the training data. Additionally, they rely on crowd-sourced datasets which contain non-professional sketches, restricting their ability to handle more complex or artistic styles. On the other hand, existing works for generating more professionally looking sketches are either restricted to specific domains [28] or can only generate sketches in pixel space [6, 25]. Note that image-to-sketch generating can be formulated as a style transfer task, with recent works that employ the text-to-image diffusion priors achieving highly artistic results with high fidelity [12, 18, 48], however, all of these works also operate only in pixel space. In contrast, we focus on vector sketches due to their resolution independence, smooth and clean appearance, control over abstraction, and editable nature.

VLMs for Vector Sketches To reduce reliance on existing vector datasets, recent research leverages the rich priors of large pre-trained vision-language models (VLMs) in a zero-shot manner. Early methods [11, 46, 47] utilize CLIP [36] as the backbone for image- and text-conditioned generation. These approaches iteratively optimize a randomly initialized set of strokes using a differentiable renderer [26]

to bridge the gap between vector and pixel representations. More recently, text-to-image diffusion models [38] have been employed as backbones, with the SDS loss [34] used to guide the optimization process, achieving superior results [22, 54, 55]. However, the use of the SDS loss has so far been limited to text-conditioned generation. While these approaches yield highly artistic results across diverse concepts, they are computationally expensive, relying on iterative backpropagation.

Diffusion Models for Non-Pixel Data Diffusion models have emerged as a powerful generative framework, extending their impact beyond traditional pixel-based data. Recent research demonstrates their versatility across diverse domains, including tasks such as human motion synthesis [43], 3D point cloud generation [21, 29], and object detection reframed as a generative process [7]. Some prior works have explored diffusion models for vector graphics synthesis. VecFusion [44] uses a two-stage diffusion process for vector font generation but its architecture and vector representation are highly complex and specialized for fonts, limiting adaptability to other vector tasks. SketchKnitter [49] and Ashcroft *et al.* [2] generate vector sketches using a diffusion-based model trained on the QuickDraw and Anime-Vec10k dataset, but without conditioning on images or text inputs.

3. Preliminaries

Diffusion Models Diffusion models [20, 41] are a class of generative models that learn a distribution by gradually denoising a Gaussian. Diffusion models consist of a forward process $q(x_t|x_{t-1})$ that progressively noises data samples $x_0 \sim p_{data}$ at different timesteps $t \in [1, T]$, and a backward or reverse process $p(x_{t-1}|x_t)$ that progressively cleans the noised signal. The reverse process is the generative process and is approximate with a neural network $\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t)$. During training, a noised signal at different timesteps is derived from a sample x_0 as follows:

$$x_t = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}x_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}\epsilon, \quad (1)$$

where $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, and $\bar{\alpha}_t = \prod_{s=1}^t \alpha_s$ is called the noise scheduler. The common approach for training the model is with the following simplified objective:

$$L_{\text{simple}} = \mathbb{E}_{x_0 \sim q(x_0), \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I}), t \sim \mathcal{U}(1, T)} \|\epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(x_t, t)\|^2. \quad (2)$$

At inference, to generate a new sample, the process starts with a Gaussian noise $x_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ and the denoising network is applied iteratively for T steps, yielding a final sample x_0 .

SDS Loss The Score Distillation Sampling (SDS) loss [34] is used to extract signals from a pretrained text-to-

image diffusion model to optimize a parametric representation. For vector graphics, the parameters ϕ defining an SVG can be optimized using the SDS loss to represent a desired textual concept. A differentiable rasterizer [26] rasterize ϕ into a pixel image x , which is then noised to produce x_t at a sampled timestep t . This noised image, conditioned on a text prompt c , is passed through the pretrained diffusion model, $\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t, c)$. The deviation of the diffusion loss in Eq. (2) is used to approximate the gradients of the initial image synthesis model’s parameters, ϕ , to better align its outputs with the conditioning prompt. Specifically, the gradient of the SDS loss is defined as:

$$\nabla_\phi \mathcal{L}_{\text{SDS}} = \left[w(t)(\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t, y) - \epsilon) \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \right], \quad (3)$$

where $w(t)$ is a constant that depends on α_t . This optimization process iteratively adjusts the parametric model.

4. Method

Our method consists of three key components: (1) ControlSketch, an optimization-based technique for generating high-quality vector sketches of input objects; (2) a synthetic paired image-sketch dataset, created using ControlSketch; and (3) SwiftSketch, a diffusion model trained on our dataset for efficient sketch generation.

4.1. ControlSketch

Given an input image I depicting an object, our goal is to generate a corresponding sketch S that maintains high fidelity to the input while preserving a natural sketch-like appearance. Following common practice in the field, we define S as a set of n strokes $\{s_i\}_{i=1}^n$, where each stroke is a two-dimensional cubic Bézier curve: $s_i = \{p_j^i\}_{j=1}^4 = \{(x_j, y_j)^i\}_{j=1}^4$. We optimize the set of strokes using the standard SDS-based optimization pipeline, as described in Section 3, with two key enhancements: an improved stroke initialization process and the introduction of spatial control. Our process rely on the image’s attention map I_{attn} , depth map I_{depth} , and caption y , extracted using DDIM inversion [41], MiDaS [5], and BLIP2 [24] respectively. While previous approaches [47, 54] sample initial stroke locations based on the image’s attention map, we observe that this method often results in missing areas in the output sketch, especially when spatial control is applied. To address this, we propose an enhanced initialization method (see Fig. 3, left) that ensures better coverage. We divide the object area into $k = 6$ equal-area regions (Fig. 3c), using a weighted K-Means method that accounts for both attention weights and pixel locations. We distribute $\frac{n}{2}$ points equally across the regions, while the remaining $\frac{n}{2}$ points are allocated proportionally to the average attention value in each region. This means that more points are assigned to regions with higher

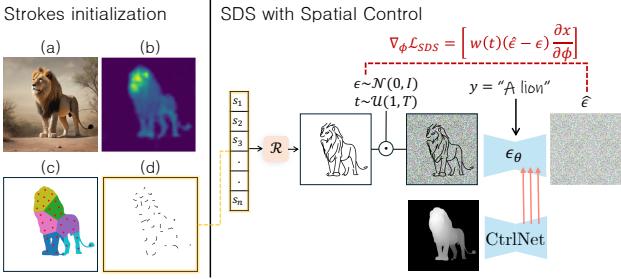


Figure 3. ControlSketch Pipeline. Left: The object area is divided into k regions (c), with n points distributed based on attention values from (b) while ensuring a minimum allocation per region. (d) The initial strokes are derived from these points. Right: The initial strokes are iteratively optimized to form the sketch. At each iteration, the rasterized sketch is noised based on t and ϵ and fed into a diffusion model with a depth ControlNet conditioned on the image’s depth and caption y . The predicted noise $\hat{\epsilon}$ is used for the SDS loss.

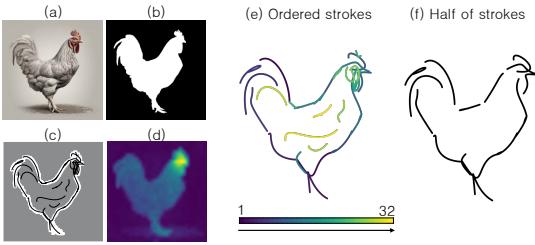


Figure 4. (a) Input image. (b) Object mask. (c) The object’s contour is extracted from the mask using morphological operations, and sketch pixels that intersect with the contour are given higher weight. (d) Attention map. (e) We sort the strokes based on a combination of contour intersection count and attention score. (f) A visualization of the first 16 strokes in the ordered sketch, demonstrating the effectiveness of our sorting scheme.

attention. Within each region, the points are evenly spaced to further ensure good coverage. This process determines the location of the initial set of strokes’ control points to be optimized, as demonstrated in Figure 3d.

The stroke optimization process is depicted in Figure 3, right. At each optimization step, the rasterized sketch $\mathcal{R}(\{s_i\}_{i=1}^n)$ is noised based on t and ϵ , then fed into a depth ControlNet text-to-image diffusion model [58]. The model predicts the noise $\hat{\epsilon}$ conditioned on the caption y and the depth map I_{depth} . We balance the weighting between the spatial and textual conditions to achieve an optimal trade-off between “semantic” fidelity, derived from y (ensuring the sketch is recognizable), and “geometric” fidelity, derived from I_{depth} , which governs the accuracy of the spatial structure.

4.2. The ControlSketch Dataset

We utilize ControlSketch to generate a paired image-vector sketch dataset. Each data sample comprises the set $\{I, I_{attn}, I_{depth}, I_{mask}, S, c, y\}$, which includes, respectively, the image, its attention map, depth map, and object mask, along with the corresponding vector sketch of the object, class label, and caption. To generate the images, we utilize SDXL [33], along with a prompt template designed to produce images for each desired class c (an example of a generated image for the class “lion” is shown in Figure 3a). We then apply ControlSketch on the masked images to generate the corresponding vector sketches. Additional details are provided in the supplementary. Optimization-based methods, such as ControlSketch, do not impose an inherent stroke ordering. Learning an internal stroke order enables the generation of sketches with varying levels of abstraction by controlling the number of strokes generated. Thus, we propose a heuristic stroke-sorting scheme that prioritizes contour strokes and those depicting salient regions (illustrated in Figure 4). Consequently, each vector sketch S is represented as an ordered sequence of strokes (s_1, \dots, s_n) .

4.3. SwiftSketch

We utilize the ControlSketch dataset to train a generative model M_θ that learns to efficiently produce a vector sketch from an input image I . We define M_θ as a transformer decoder to account for the discrete and long-range dependencies inherent in vector sketches. The training of M_θ follows the standard conditional diffusion framework, as outlined in Section 3, with task-specific modifications to address the characteristics of vector data and the image-to-sketch task. In our case, the model learns to denoise the set of (x, y) coordinates that define the strokes in the sketch.

The training process is depicted in Figure 5. At each iteration, a pair (I, S^0) is sampled from the dataset, where $S^0 \in R^{2 \times 4 \times n}$ is the clean sketch in vector representation, and $\mathcal{R}(S^0)$ denotes the corresponding rasterized sketch in pixel space, with \mathcal{R} being a differentiable rasterizer [26]. The image I is processed using a pretrained CLIP ResNet model [36], where features are extracted from its fourth layer, recognized for effectively capturing both geometric and semantic information [47]. These features are then refined through a lightweight CNN to enhance learning and align dimensions for compatibility with M_θ . This process yields the image embedding I_e . At each iteration, we sample a timestep $t \sim \mathcal{U}(1, T)$ and noise $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ to define S^t :

$$S^t = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} S^0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon, \quad (4)$$

where $\bar{\alpha}_t$ is the noise scheduler as a function of t . As illustrated in Figure 5, S^t represents a noised version of S^0 in vector space, with the level of noise determined by the timestep t . The control points $\{s_1^t, \dots, s_n^t\}$ are fed into

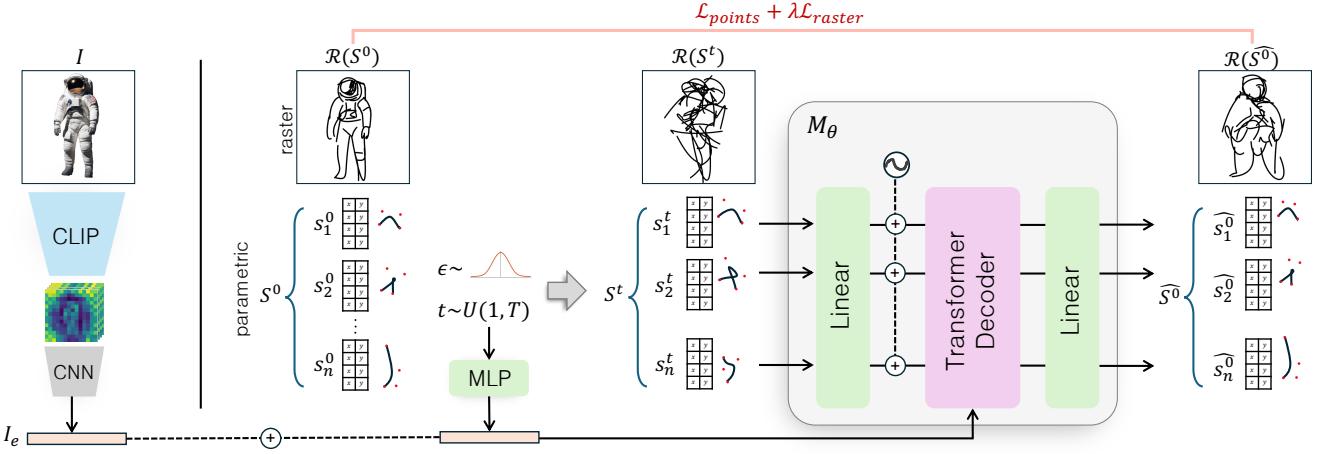


Figure 5. SwiftSketch Training Pipeline. At each training iteration, an image I is passed through a frozen CLIP image encoder, followed by a lightweight CNN, to produce the image embedding I_e . The corresponding vector sketch S^0 is noised based on the sampled timestep t and noise ϵ , forming S^t (with $\mathcal{R}(S^t)$ illustrating the rasterized noised sketch, which is not used in training). The network M_θ , a transformer decoder, receives the noised signal S^t and is tasked with predicting the clean signal \hat{S}^0 , conditioned on the image embedding I_e and the timestep t (fed through the cross-attention mechanism). The network is trained with two loss functions: one based on the distance between the control points and the other on the similarity of the rasterized sketches.

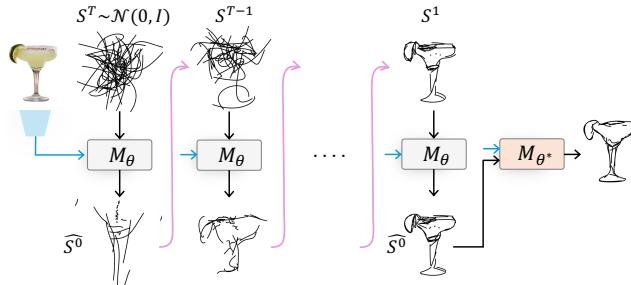


Figure 6. Inference Process. Starting with randomly sampled Gaussian noise $S^T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, the model M_θ predicts the clean sketch $\hat{S}^0 = M_\theta(S^t, t, I_e)$ at each step t , which is then re-noised to S^{t-1} . This iterative process is repeated for T steps and is followed by a final feed-forward pass through a refinement network, M_{θ^*} , which is a trainable copy of M_θ , specifically trained to correct very small residual noise.

the network M_θ , where they are first encoded via a linear layer (depicted in green), and combined with a standard positional embedding before being passed through the transformer decoder (in pink), which consists of 8 layers of cross-attention and self-attention. The encoded timestep t and image features I_e are fed into the transformer through the cross-attention mechanism. The decoder output is projected back to the original points dimension through a linear layer, yielding the prediction $M_\theta(S_t, t, I_e) = \hat{S}^0$.

We train M_θ with two training objectives $\mathcal{L}_{\text{points}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{raster}}$, applied on both the vector and raster representation of the sketch:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{\text{points}} &= \|S^0 - \hat{S}^0\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|s_i^0 - \hat{s}_i^0\|_1, \\ \mathcal{L}_{\text{raster}} &= \text{LPIPS}(\mathcal{R}(S^0), \mathcal{R}(\hat{S}^0)),\end{aligned}\quad (5)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{points}}$ is defined by the L_1 distance between the sorted control points of the ground truth sketch S^0 and the predicted sketch \hat{S}^0 , and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{raster}}$ is the LPIPS distance [59] between the rasterized sketches. $\mathcal{L}_{\text{points}}$ encourages per-stroke precision, while $\mathcal{L}_{\text{raster}}$ encourages the generated sketch to align well with the overall structure of the ground truth sketch. Together, our training loss is: $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{points}} + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{raster}}$, with $\lambda = 0.2$.

As is often common, to apply classifier-free guidance [19] at inference, we train M_θ to learn both the conditioned and the unconditioned distributions by randomly setting $I = \emptyset$ for 10% of the training steps.

The inference process is illustrated in Figure 6. The model, M_θ , generates a new sketch by progressively de-noising randomly sampled Gaussian noise, $S^T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. At each step t , M_θ predicts the clean sketch $\hat{S}^0 = M_\theta(S^t, t, I_e)$, conditioned on the image embedding I_e and time step t . The next intermediate sketch, S^{t-1} , is derived from \hat{S}^0 using Equation (4). This process is repeated for T steps. We observe that the final output sketches from the denoising process may retain slight noise. This is likely because the network prioritizes learning to clean heavily noised signals during training, while small inaccuracies in control point locations have a smaller impact on the loss function, leading to reduced precision at finer timesteps. To address this, we introduce a refinement stage, where

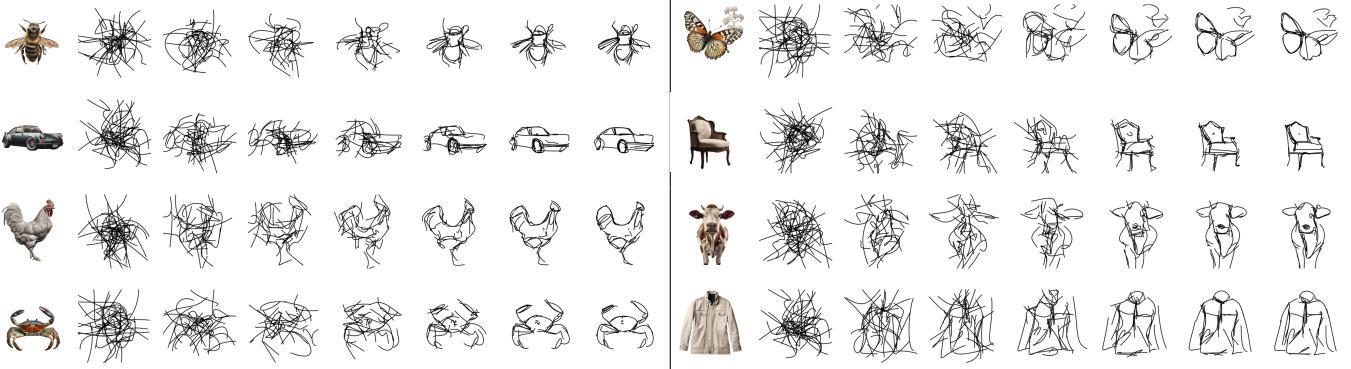


Figure 7. Examples of the denoising process. From left to right: strokes’ control points are sampled from a Gaussian distribution, and our network progressively refines the signal to generate a sketch.

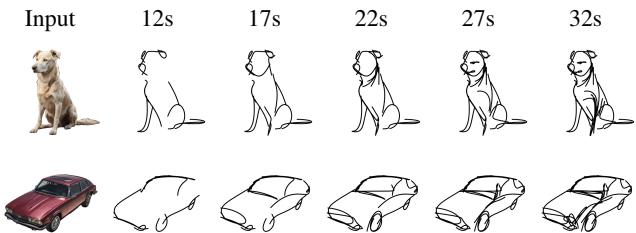


Figure 8. Stroke Order Visualization. Generated sketches are visualized progressively, with the stroke count shown on top. Early strokes capture the object’s contour and key features, while later strokes add finer details.

a learned copy of our network, M_{θ^*} , is fine-tuned to perform an additional cleaning step. This refinement network is trained in a manner similar to the original model, with the objective of denoising a slightly noised sketch, conditioned on the same input image features, while the timestep condition is fixed at 0. More details are provided in the supplementary. This refinement stage is inspired by similar strategies employed in the pixel domain [33, 39], where additional processing steps are used to improve the quality and resolution of generated images. As illustrated in Figure 6, after the final denoising step of M_θ is applied, \hat{S}^0 is passed through M_{θ^*} to perform the additional refinement.

4.4. Implementation Details

ControlSketch requires approximately 2,000 steps to converge, taking around 10 minutes on a standard RTX3090 GPU. SwiftSketch is trained with $T = 50$ noising steps, to support fast generation. To encourage the model to focus on fine details, we adjust the noise scheduler to perturb the signal more subtly for small timesteps compared to the cosine noise schedule proposed in [32]. The model is trained on images from 15 classes, with 1,000 samples per class. The training process spans 400K steps, requiring approxi-

mately six days on a single A100 GPU. At inference, we use a guidance scale of 2.5. Our synthetic dataset includes an additional 200 test samples for the 15 training classes, as well as 85 additional object categories, each with 200 samples. Additional implementation details, as well as detailed class labels and dataset visualizations are provided in the supplementary material.

5. Results

We begin by showcasing SwiftSketch’s ability to generate high-quality vector sketches for a diverse set of input images. SwiftSketch successfully generalizes to unseen images within the training categories (Figure 11), creating sketches that depict the input images well while demonstrating a plausible and detailed appearance. On images of unseen categories that pose greater challenges, SwiftSketch effectively captures the essential features of the input images, producing abstract yet faithful representations (Figure 12). Notably, all sketches are provided in vector format, and are generated in just 50 diffusion steps, followed by a single refinement step, with the entire process taking less than one second. In Figure 7, we illustrate the denoising steps of the generation process, starting from a Gaussian distribution and progressively refining towards the data distribution. In Figure 8, we demonstrate the ability of our method to create level-of-abstraction using our ordered stroke technique. We visualize the progressive addition of strokes in the sequence they appear in the output SVG file. Note how the first strokes already convey the intended concept effectively. Additional results of both SwiftSketch and ControlSketch are available in the supplementary.

5.1. Comparisons

We evaluate the performance of SwiftSketch and ControlSketch with respect to state-of-the-art methods for image-to-sketch generation, including Photo-Sketching [25], Chan *et al.* [6], InstantStyle [48], and CLIPasso [47]. InstantStyle

	XDoG	Chan et al.	Instant-Style	Photo-Sketching	CLIPasso	ControlSketch	SwiftSketch
Time P / V	≈ 0.1 sec. P	≈ 0.04 sec. P	≈ 1 min. P	≈ 0.6 sec. P	≈ 5 min. V	≈ 10 min. V	≈ 0.5 sec. V

Figure 9. Qualitative Comparison. Input images are shown on the left, with the time required to produce a single sketch and whether the sketches are in **P**ixel or **V**ector format indicated at the top. From left to right, the sketches are generated using XDoG [52], PhotoSketching [25], Chan et al. [6] (in anime style), InstantStyle [48], and CLIPasso [47]. On the right are the resulting sketches from our proposed methods, ControlSketch and SwiftSketch.

is applied with a sketch image as the style reference. Figure 9 shows representative results from each method, with XDoG [52], a classic edge detection technique, shown on the left as a baseline. The sketches of Chan *et al.* and InstantStyle are detailed and align well with the overall structure of the input images. However note that they closely follow the edge maps shown on the left. The sketches of Photo-Sketching (fifth column) are more abstract, but can fail to effectively capture the images’ content in a natural way. While these approaches are efficient, producing sketches in less than a minute, they focus on generating *raster* sketches. In contrast, our method produces vector sketches, which are resolution-independent, easily editable, and exhibit a smooth, clean style. CLIPasso (sixth column) generates vector sketches that achieve a good balance between fidelity and semantics. However, it is significantly slower, requiring 5 minutes to produce a single sketch, and it may introduce artifacts, such as the noisy overlapping strokes observed in the robot example. ControlSketch (seventh column) produces high-fidelity sketches that remain abstract, smooth, and natural, effectively depicting the input images while avoiding artifacts. However, it is even slower than CLIPasso, as SDS-based methods generally require more time to converge, making it impractical for interactive applications. SwiftSketch, shown in the rightmost column, successfully learns the data distribution from ControlSketch samples, enabling it to produce sketches that approach the quality of optimization-based techniques but in real time. Additional results are available in the supplementary material.

Quantitative Evaluation We sample 4,000 images from our dataset (2,000 from our test set of categories seen during training and 2,000 from unseen categories) and additional 2,000 images from the SketchyCOCO [14] dataset to assess generalization on external data. Each set consists of 10 randomly selected categories with 200 images per category. Following common practice in the field, we use the CLIP zero-shot classifier [36] to assess class-level recognition, MS-SSIM [51] for image-sketch fidelity following the settings proposed in CLIPascene [46], and DreamSim [13]. The results are presented in Table 1, where scores for each data type are reported separately, with human sketches from the SketchyCOCO dataset included as a baseline. Chan *et al.* and InstantStyle achieve the highest scores across most metrics due to their highly detailed sketches, which closely resemble the image’s edge map. This level of detail ensures that their sketches are both easily recognizable as depicting the correct class (as indicated by the CLIP score) and exhibit high fidelity (as reflected in other measurements). The results show that SwiftSketch generalizes well to test set images from seen categories, as evidenced by its similar scores to ControlSketch (which serves as the ground truth in our case). However, its performances decrease for unseen categories, particularly in class-based recognition. This is especially apparent on the SketchyCOCO dataset, which is highly challenging due to its low-resolution images and difficult lighting conditions. It is important to note that SwiftSketch is trained on only 15 image categories due to limited resources, suggesting that more extensive training could improve its generalization capabilities.

The results demonstrate that ControlSketch produces

Table 1. Quantitative Comparison of Sketch Generation Methods. The scores for Top-1 and Top-3 CLIP recognition accuracy, MS-SSIM, and DreamSim are presented. Results are based on 6,000 random samples: 2,000 from our dataset’s test set, 2,000 from unseen categories in our dataset, and 2,000 from the external SketchyCOCO dataset [14]. The best scores in each column are marked in bold.

	Time	CLIP Top-1 ↑			CLIP Top-3 ↑			MS-SSIM ↑			DreamSim ↓		
		Seen	Unseen	Exter.	Seen	Unseen	Exter.	Seen	Unseen	Exter.	Seen	Unseen	Exter.
Human [14]	—	—	—	0.85	—	—	0.93	—	—	0.16	—	—	0.66
Chan <i>et al.</i> (Anime) [6]	≈ 0.04 sec.	0.94	0.99	0.87	0.99	0.99	0.96	0.79	0.77	0.45	0.32	0.43	0.45
Chan <i>et al.</i> (Contour) [6]	≈ 0.04 sec.	0.96	0.92	0.80	0.98	0.95	0.91	0.77	0.73	0.49	0.51	0.59	0.54
InstantStyle [48]	≈ 1 min.	0.97	0.99	—	0.99	0.99	—	0.89	0.90	—	0.36	0.44	—
Photo-Sketching [25]	≈ 0.6 sec.	0.90	0.81	0.65	0.95	0.87	0.78	0.61	0.55	0.40	0.58	0.65	0.63
CLIPasso [47]	≈ 5 min.	0.98	0.97	0.88	0.99	0.99	0.95	0.65	0.60	0.52	0.48	0.57	0.57
ControlSketch	≈ 10 min.	0.97	0.97	0.91	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.68	0.63	0.53	0.52	0.59	0.60
SwiftSketch	≈ 0.5 sec.	0.95	0.70	0.56	0.98	0.82	0.70	0.62	0.56	0.47	0.53	0.66	0.64

sketches that are both highly recognizable and of high fidelity, outperforming alternative methods, particularly on the SketchyCOCO dataset. To further highlight the advantages of ControlSketch over CLIPasso, we conduct a two-alternative forced-choice (2AFC) perceptual study with 40 participants. Each participant was shown pairs of sketches generated by the two methods (presented in random order) alongside the input image and asked to choose the sketch they perceived to be of higher quality. The study included 24 randomly selected sketches from both our dataset and SketchyCOCO, spanning 24 object classes. Participants rated sketches generated by ControlSketch as higher quality in 89% of cases. Examples of sketches presented in the user study are shown in Figure 13.

6. Ablation

We evaluate the contribution of SwiftSketch’s main components by systematically removing each one and retraining the network. Specifically, we examine the impact of excluding the LPIPS loss, the L1 loss, and the sorting technique, as well as the effect of incorporating the refinement network. The results are summarized in Table 2, where “Full” represents our complete diffusion pipeline prior to refinement, and “+Refine” denotes the inclusion of the refinement stage. Notably, removing the L1 loss results in a significant drop in performance, highlighting its essential role in the training process. Excluding the LPIPS loss negatively impacts performance, particularly in unseen classes. The metrics indicate comparable performance in the absence of the sorting stage. While the resulting sketches may appear visually similar, the sorting stage is crucial for supporting varying levels of abstraction. Although the network can be trained without this stage and still achieve reasonable results, learning an internal stroke order provides a foundation for training across abstraction levels, where sketches implicitly encode the importance of strokes. The refinement stage enhances recognizability, especially in unseen cate-

Table 2. Ablation Study. We systematically remove each component in our pipeline and retrain our network. Scores are computed on 4000 sketches in total: 2000 from seen categories and 2000 from unseen categories.

	CLIP Top-1 ↑		CLIP Top-3 ↑		MS-SSIM ↑		DreamSim ↓	
	Seen	Unseen	Seen	Unseen	Seen	Unseen	Seen	Unseen
w/o LPIPS	0.88	0.36	0.94	0.49	0.58	0.52	0.58	0.72
w/o L1	0.03	0.01	0.06	0.03	0.24	0.22	0.80	0.84
w/o Sort	0.93	0.63	0.97	0.76	0.62	0.57	0.55	0.68
Full	0.94	0.61	0.97	0.73	0.62	0.57	0.54	0.68
+Refine	0.95	0.70	0.98	0.82	0.62	0.56	0.53	0.66

gories where the output sketches from the diffusion process are noisier. We further illustrate the impact of the refinement network in Figure 14, with additional results provided in the supplementary.

7. Limitations and Future Work

While SwiftSketch can generate vector sketches from images efficiently, it comes with limitations. First, although SwiftSketch performs well on seen categories, as evidenced by our evaluation, its performance decreases for unseen categories. This is particularly apparent in categories that differ significantly from those seen during training (e.g., non-human or non-animal objects). Failure cases often exhibit a noisy appearance or are entirely unrecognizable, such as the carrot in Figure 10. Expanding the number of training categories in future work could enhance the model’s generalization. Second, our refinement stage, which is meant to fix the noisy appearance, might over-simplify the sketches, resulting in lost details such as the nose and eyes of the cow in Fig. 10. Lastly, in the scope of this paper, we trained SwiftSketch on sketches with a fixed number of strokes (32). Extending the training to sketches with varying numbers of strokes, spanning multiple levels of ab-

straction, presents an exciting direction for future research. Our transformer-decoder architecture is inherently suited for such an extension, and our results show that the network can capture essential features from sorted sketches, highlighting its potential to effectively handle more challenging levels of abstraction.

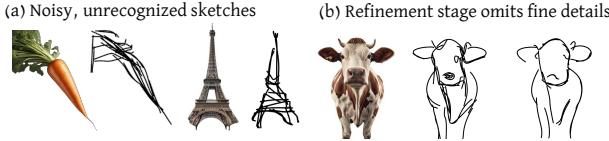


Figure 10. Limitations. (a) Sketches may appear unrecognizable (e.g., carrot) or noisy (e.g., Eiffel Tower). (b) The refinement stage can lead to the loss of fine details, such as the cow’s nose and eye.

8. Conclusions

We introduced SwiftSketch, a method for object sketching capable of generating plausible *vector* sketches in under a second. SwiftSketch employs a diffusion model with a transformer-decoder architecture, generating sketches by progressively denoising a Gaussian distribution in the space of stroke control points. To address the scarcity of professional-quality paired vector sketch datasets, we constructed a synthetic dataset spanning 100 classes and over 35,000 sketches. This dataset was generated using ControlSketch, an improved SDS-based sketch generation method enhanced with a depth ControlNet for better spatial control. We demonstrated both visually and numerically that ControlSketch produces high-quality, high-fidelity sketches and that SwiftSketch effectively learns the data distribution of ControlSketch, achieving high-quality sketch generation while reducing generation time from approximately 10 minutes to 0.5 seconds. We believe this work represents a meaningful step toward real-time, high-quality vector sketch generation with the potential to enable more interactive processes. Additionally, our extensible dataset construction process will be made publicly available to support future research in this field.

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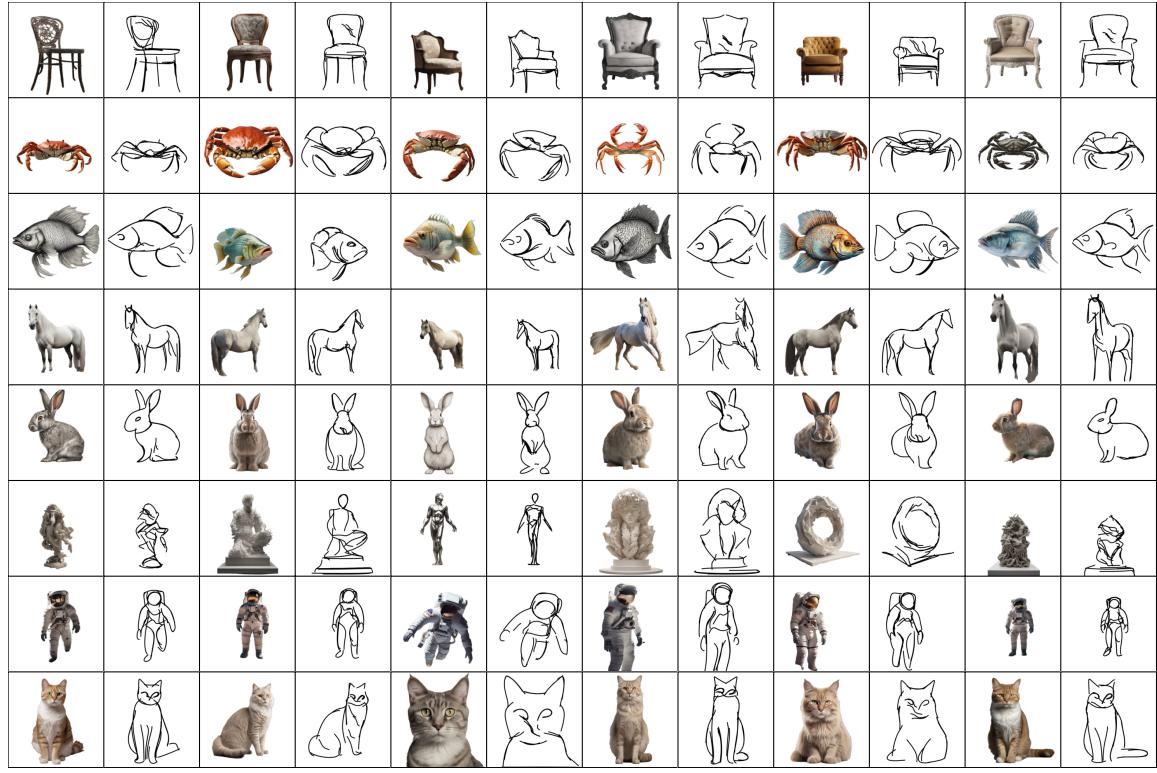


Figure 11. Sketches generated by SwiftSketch for seen categories, using input images not included in the training data.



Figure 12. Sketches generated by SwiftSketch for unseen categories.

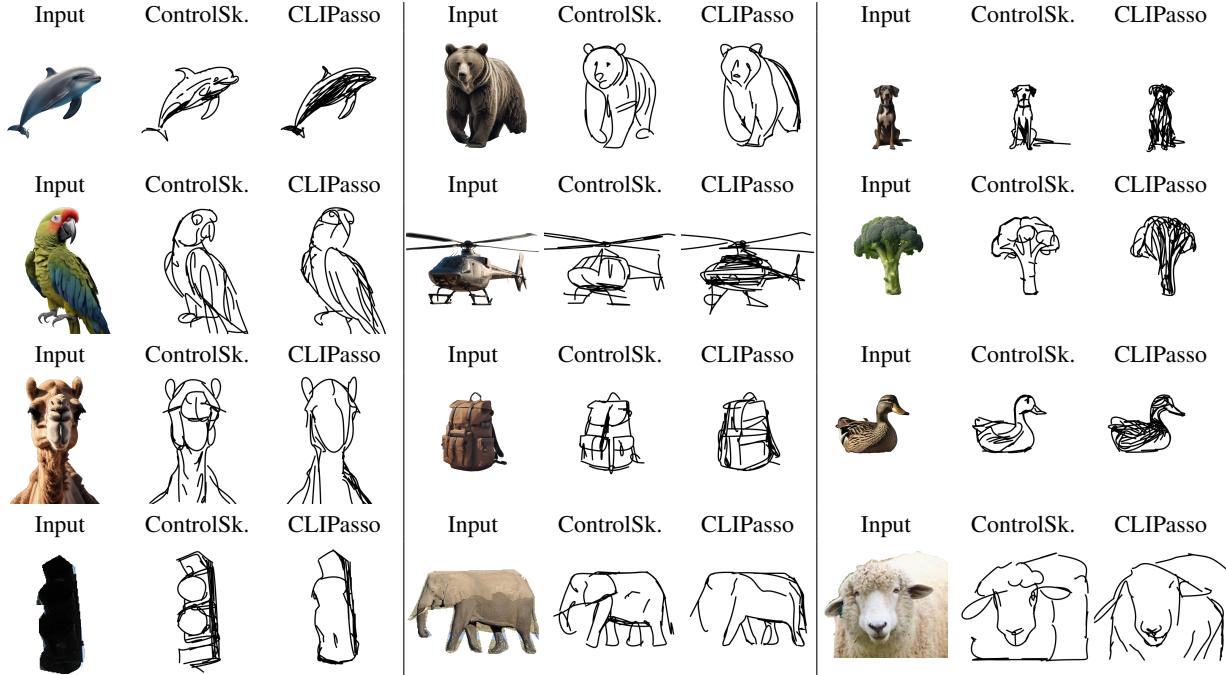


Figure 13. Comparison of ControlSketch with CLIPasso [47]. ControlSketch captures fine details (e.g., camel and bear), avoids artifacts in small objects (e.g., dog and duck), and handles challenging inputs effectively (last row).

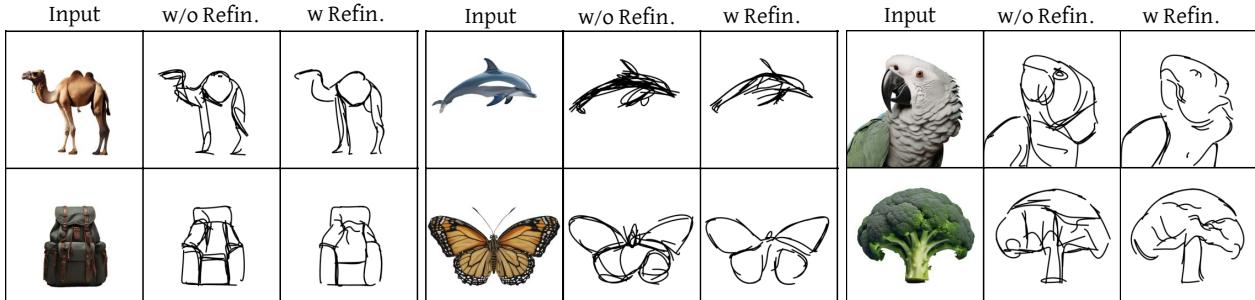


Figure 14. Effect of the refinement network. The output sketches from the diffusion model may contain slight noise, which the refinement network addresses by performing an additional cleaning step. However, this process can sometimes reduce details in the sketch (see Limitations).

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