Abstract: We present an example-based method for generating non-homogeneous stochastic textures, where the output texture contains elements from two input exemplars. We provide user control over the blend through a blend factor that specifies the degree to which one texture or the other should be favored; the blend factor can vary spatially. Uniquely, we add spatial coherence to the output texture by performing a joint oversegmentation of the two texture inputs, then applying a fixed blend factor within each segment. Our method works with the Laplacian pyramid representation of the textures. We combine the pyramid coefficients using a weighted smooth maximum, ensuring that locally prominent features are preserved through the blending process. Our method is effective for stochastic textures and successfully blends the structures of the two inputs.

1 INTRODUCTION

Texture is a key element in synthetic and modified images, used to add detail and visual interest to a rendered scene. Example-based synthesis algorithms, including modern machine-learning based methods, have been quite successful for stationary textures. However, there has been comparatively less success at non-homogeneous textures, where the texture’s appearance varies over the image plane. In this paper, we describe a method for generating blends between two input textures, where the degree to which one texture is favored over the other changes with spatial location within the image. Our method is best adapted to stochastic, unstructured textures.

Our method can be used directly for texture synthesis, blending between two input exemplars, with the output texture being applied to geometry in a conventional rendering pipeline. However, in many cases, it is not a priori obvious what texture might be intermediate between two textures. Thus, another possible application of our method is in texture design, allowing a texture artist to explore a space of textures generated by mixing different exemplars.

Our method takes as input exemplars of stochastic texture. For generating a large output of required size, we use the method of Heitz and Neyret (Heitz and Neyret, 2018) which employs histogram-preserving blending. We can also use textures as input directly, bypassing the histogram-preserving blending stage.

Once we have two textures of matching size, we blend them within their Laplacian pyramid representations. Enforcing the same size on the two inputs ensures that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the coefficients in the two Laplacian pyramids. We mix the pyramid coefficients using a weighted smooth maximum; the smooth maximum ensures that strong features, manifesting as large coefficient magnitudes, are preserved. By weighting the inputs according to a user-controllable local blend factor, we can control the degree of blending spatially.

As an optional final step, we can further increase the heterogeneity of the texture blend by preserving larger texture chunks. We conduct an oversegmentation of the image plane using Simple Linear Iterative Clustering (SLIC), and then for each segment, we merge the inputs with a blend factor weighted towards one or the other texture. The result has distinct fragments of texture, as opposed to the more continuous blend we would otherwise see.

This paper presents a framework for merging stochastic textures with local control over the degree to which one texture or the other is more prominent. The outputs have features from both inputs, with strong features being preserved in a perceptually appealing way. Supporting this work, this paper makes the following technical contributions:

- Structural texture blending of stochastic textures, using the smooth maximum to mix coefficients of the Laplacian pyramid.
• Adding texture heterogeneity through a joint
  SLIC segmentation of both input textures.
• Use of a weighted smooth maximum for controllable and spatially varying texture mixing.
• An overall framework for synthesizing non-homogeneous stochastic textures from exemplars. Given exemplars, we use histogram-preserving blending to generate full-size textures, then blend them in a Laplacian pyramid representation.

In the remainder of the paper, we first discuss background and related work, then move on to describing our algorithm in detail. We show results and discuss some specific features of our output in Section 4. We close in Section 5 and give some suggestions for future work.

2 BACKGROUND

Early texture synthesis methods were based on manipulating structured noise, such as Perlin noise or Worley noise. Such methods were ad hoc and difficult to generalize. Later example-based synthesis methods were considered easier to control: example-based texture synthesis aims at creating new texture images from an input sample, with both pixel-based (Efros and Leung, 1999; Ashikhmin, 2001) and patch-based (Efros and Freeman, 2001) methods proposed. An early effort at example-based synthesis by Heeger and Bergen made use of image pyramids (Heeger and Bergen, 1995). More recently, methods based on machine learning have received considerable attention (Gatys et al., 2015; Sendik and Cohen-Or, 2017).

Early work on non-homogeneous textures was conducted by Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 2003), who blended binary texton maps from two inputs to create a progression from one texture to the other. More recently, both Zhou et al. (Zhou et al., 2017) and Lockerman et al. (Lockerman et al., 2016) gave methods to construct a label map from a non-homogeneous exemplar. Zhou et al. (Zhou et al., 2018) used generative adversarial networks to synthesize non-stationary textures from a guidance map.

Heitz and Neyret proposed texture synthesis through histogram-preserving blending (Heitz and Neyret, 2018). We discuss this method in more detail as it forms one stage of our own synthesis process.

Their method works as follows. They take in an exemplar of a stochastic texture. They apply a histogram transformation so that the resulting texture’s color distribution is a Gaussian. They then generate a new texture sample by blending patches from the Gaussianized exemplar; the key insight is that since the patches have Gaussian histograms, the blending can incorporate a function that preserves the same Gaussian histogram in the output. Once the blended texture is computed, the inverse histogram transformation can be applied to restore the original texture distribution.

Their method then restores the original color distribution, computing an optimal transport matching (Bonneel et al., 2016) between the original texture colors and the Gaussianized colors. The overall method is fast and effective, creating new texture that resembles the exemplar. The method does not work on structured textures, a drawback that our method shares due to (a) our use of HPB in an early stage, and (b) our use of Laplacian pyramid coefficient mixing, ill-suited to merging dissimilar structured images.

We will make use of the smooth maximum function (Cook, 2010). The smooth maximum of two variables $x$ and $y$ is given by

$$g(x, y) = \log(\exp(x) + \exp(y)).$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

When one of the inputs is much larger than the other, the smooth maximum converges to the regular maximum. When the inputs are closer to equal, however, the smooth maximum produces an output larger than either. The function is designed to avoid any sudden discontinuity in behaviour as the values of the inputs change. We use a variant of the smooth maximum for mixing coefficients in the Laplacian pyramid representation of the textures.

3 ALGORITHM

We present an algorithm for blending two input textures. The process follows these steps:

• We establish our inputs, often synthesized from exemplars using histogram-preserving blending.
• We compute the Laplacian pyramid of each texture. We then compute a merged pyramid by mixing the corresponding coefficients at every level in the input pyramids, using a weighted smooth maximum to find the output coefficient. The output pyramid is then collapsed to create an output texture.
• Optionally, we oversegment the output plane, then blend with a fixed blend factor within each segment. This step creates macroscopic regions that strongly favor one texture or the other, increasing the texture heterogeneity.
• The Laplacian pyramid is done in greyscale only. We determine a color for each pixel, choosing one
Given Equation 2, we need to decide on suitable weights. It would be natural to simply use the blend factor as the weight: texture A would have weight \((1-t)\) and texture B would have weight \(t\). However, suppose one texture had greater variability than the other, hence generally larger coefficients. This texture would dominate and its features would show through the relatively lower-amplitude texture, even when the blend factor indicated otherwise.

We normalize the coefficients of each pyramid level according to their root mean square. Let \(g_l\) and \(h_l\) be the RMS of level \(l\)’s coefficients for \(A\) and \(B\) respectively. The normalization factor \(a\) is then computed as follows:

\[
a_l = (1 - t) \cdot g_l + t \cdot h_l.
\]  
(3)

The value \(a_l\) is the average of the two input RMS values, weighted by the blend factor \(t\). Consider \(a\) to be a target amplitude, governing the amplitude of the output texture. We then assign coefficient weights based on the ratio of \(a\) to each texture’s RMS, as follows:

\[
p_l = a_l / g_l
\]  
(4)

\[
q_l = a_l / h_l
\]  
(5)

We calculate final weights \(p_l’\) and \(q_l’\) in Eqn. 6 and Eqn. 7. Notice that \(t\) is in effect included twice: once to compute the local normalization factor in Eqn. 3 and once to blend between the normalized coefficients. The weights \(p_l’\) and \(q_l’\) will be used to do our final coefficient mixing.

\[
p_l’ = p_l \cdot (1 - t)
\]  
(6)

\[
q_l’ = q_l \cdot t
\]  
(7)

Finally, we compute each output coefficient \(L^R_l(x,y)\) at level \(l\) as follows. Each level of the resultant Laplacian pyramid \(L^R\) will be constructed with the resultant merged coefficients.

\[
L^R_l(x,y) = \Psi \times SM \left( \left| L^A_l(x,y) \right|, \left| L^B_l(x,y) \right|, p_l’, q_l’ \right)
\]  
(8)

In the preceding, the variable \(\Psi \in \{-1, 1\}\) is the sign of the coefficient which has the larger absolute value after weighting. Combining all the levels of \(L^R\), we form an output image merging the textures \(A\) and \(B\). The blended greyscale image exhibits features of both inputs, distributed depending on the map of blend factor values \(t\).

An example result is give in Figure 1, showing blending between two textures for different fixed blend factors. In this example, the blend factor \(t\) is fixed at a single value over the entire image plane. For small \(t\), the output resembles the first input; as \(t\) approaches 1, the output resembles the second input.
Intermediate values of \( t \) show elements from both inputs, without the unappealing blurring of features that is characteristic of alpha blending.

Figure 1: Texture blending with fixed \( t \). Above: \( t = 0.0, t = 0.2, t = 0.4 \). Below: \( t = 0.6, t = 0.8, t = 1.0 \).

3.3 Recoloring

Above, we compute the Laplacian coefficients of the greyscale image. Attempting to merge three sets of coefficients in a 3D colorspace yields unsatisfactory results. In this step, we finalize our texture by adding color.

Each output pixel is governed by \( h \) coefficients, where \( h \) is the height of the Laplacian pyramid. We compare each coefficient in the output pyramid with the corresponding coefficients in the pyramids of the two inputs. We assign a score of +1 if the output coefficient is nearer to the first input’s coefficient, and −1 otherwise. For each output pixel, we take the sum of the scores of the relevant coefficients. This can be thought of as a voting mechanism: if the final score is positive, the first input has greater influence, and if the score is negative, the second input has greater influence. Then, maintaining its intensity, we assign to this pixel the color of the higher-influence input. Repeating over all pixels, we can color the entire output texture. Note that individual coefficient scores need not be calculated repeatedly, but can be computed once and saved in a data structure paralleling the Laplacian pyramid, with the coloring being implemented as a specialized form of pyramid collapse.

3.4 Additional Heterogeneity

We close by describing an optional step to increase output heterogeneity. With the above, we are able to create gradual blends between textures. However, intermediate texture structures may not be desirable; in many natural examples of mixed textures, there are distinct regions where one texture type or the other is dominant. Consider, for example, a stone face with occasional plant growth, or a pavement partly covered by snow, or an old car door with peeling paint. In these cases, there are areas where one texture is prevalent and areas that favor the other.

Accordingly, we suggest creating a spatial structure that helps assign values to the local blend factor. We apply an oversegmentation to the image plane, and within a given segment, we will favor one texture or the other. We will still interpolate between our two inputs; now, the choice of which texture to favor will be determined by the location of the region, such that the majority of regions on the left will be assigned to the first input, and the regions on the right will be predominantly assigned to the second input. More formally, for a normalized distance \( t \) across the horizontal dimension of the image plane, we assign a segment the probability 1 − \( t \) of favoring the first input, and probability \( t \) of favoring the second.

The oversegmentation itself is computed taking into account both inputs. We perform a joint SLIC segmentation (Achanta et al., 2012) of the two inputs: recall that SLIC operates in a distance+color 5D space, and we amend it now to use two color distances, one for each input, weighted by the local blend factor. Formally, the SLIC distance is given by

\[
D(x, y) = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2} + (1 - t)||C_1(x, y) - C_1(x_0, y_0)|| + t||C_2(x, y) - C_2(x_0, y_0)||
\]

for input color textures \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) and a region centroid located at \( x_0, y_0 \). The choice of SLIC for the segmentation ensures approximately equal-sized regions throughout the image plane. Incorporating the color distance for both input textures allows the region boundaries to take into account texton shapes. Figure 3 provides a visual example of the region boundaries obtained for two sample inputs.

Once the coefficients are blended, we keep only the blended coefficients within the original SLIC segmentation boundary from the bounded square. We discard the rest since the bounded square was created only for generating the Laplacian pyramid. The coefficients that were not discarded form a temporary pyramid that can be collapsed to produce pixel values within the segment. Once the pixel values within the segment have been computed, we discard the temporary pyramid. This is done for all \( K \) of the SLIC segments. The treatment of the Laplacian coefficients is akin to that given by Paris et al. (Paris et al., 2011).

Figure 3 shows the region map with SLIC segments, showing how the input textures will distributed. The regions shown in blue will be populated primarily with the first input and the white regions
Figure 2: Comparison of results with and without oversegmentation-based heterogeneity. First and last images: input textures. Centre left: continuous blend. Centre right: blend with oversegmentation controlling blend factor.

Figure 3: Oversegmentation map. Blue regions will be predominantly one texture, white regions the other.

will be populated with the second.

Through this optional additional step we can add further heterogeneity to the texture, giving a scattered and irregular distribution of texture contents from both inputs throughout the output image. While not needed in all cases, this simple label map provides an additional tool for creating a desired effect.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Here, we discuss some results. Figure 4 shows results from our full pipeline, including histogram-preserving blending. Figure 5 shows results on arbitrary inputs, omitting the histogram-preserving blending step in favor of using the exemplars directly. Figure 6 shows a result from blending two textures with a hand-drawn map. Finally, Figure 7 shows a failure case from applying our technique on highly structured brick texture. We discuss each of these figures in more detail below.

Figure 4 shows several results of structural texture blending. Consider first the topmost blend in Figure 4. The textures are dissimilar: the rock is largely isotropic, while the fur exhibits strong directionality. However, the texture structures merge effectively, with fur structures giving way to higher-frequency roughness and vice versa. The reader is invited to look closely at the blended region near the lower left of the image, where elements of both textures integrate particularly harmoniously.

For more similar inputs, the results are even more convincing. Consider the blend in the second row in Figure 4, showing a transition between two rock textures. The small-scale structures flow seamlessly into one another; at some locations one texture dominates, and at some locations another, but the continuity between structures is excellent. The use of smooth maximum ensures that a strong feature is not lost unless it is covered by an even stronger feature. Examples of good local transitions abound.

The third row shows a blend between two distinctive colors. Here, we did not use oversegmentation; the blend factor changes linearly from left to right. The textures merge seamlessly, with features from each integrating nicely. There is no ghosting as would have been produced by alpha blending.

The fourth row shows an oversegmentation-based blend between granite and lava textures with dissimilar structures and similar colors. The result is good structurally. The color mixing is plausible, partially due to the compatibility of the inputs.

The fifth row shows a blend between two textures dissimilar both in structure and in color. The oversegmentation produces islands of one color or the other. Although the colors do not blend neatly here, the result admits a semantic interpretation of water sinking into sand. This result shows the limitation of our color blending process in the oversegmentation context and points the way towards future work.

Figure 5 shows two results from blending inputs directly, without the step of histogram-preserving blending to create new texture. None of the textures shown could have been recreated with histogram-preserving blending. In the top row, we see a mix of stone and grass textures. The result scatters small patches of greenery across the grey stone. The texture suggests a rough surface throughout, occasionally covered but not concealed by a veneer of plant life. In the bottom row, we see a complex stone face merge with lichens. Again, the structural preservation...
Figure 4: Texture blending results using histogram-preserving blending to generate inputs. Left column: input 1; middle column: blended output; right column: input 2.
is good, with the lichens seeming to conform to the shapes in the stone. In both examples, we use over-segmentation, with a blend factor favoring the left input on the left side of the output, and favoring the right input towards the right.

We typically blended textures with a blend factor that varied smoothly from left to right. This was done for consistency and for convenience of interpretation rather than any technical limitation. Figure 6 shows a result from blending two textures with a hand-drawn map of blend factors. Despite the low level of similarity between the input textures, we obtain a merged texture with structural consistency across the texture boundary.

In general, our method is effective within the domain for which it was intended: blending between two stochastic textures, with local variation of the blend factor. However, the features of regular textures are blended less plausibly. The bricks in Figure 7 provide an example. Of course, the brick textures could not have been recreated by histogram-preserving blending in the first place.

Our method has other limitations. Our efforts at normalizing the texture intensity were only partially successful: when two textures with radically different contrasts are blended, the results are not entirely satisfactory. Future work will further investigate tex-
tures with very different levels of intensity variation. Color restoration could also be improved. Compatible palettes yield convincing results, but dissimilar palettes are integrated less well. Better color blending, especially in conjunction with oversegmentation, is a direction for future work. The sign of the output coefficient (positive or negative) is decided separately from the magnitude and is a binary outcome. While generally effective for static textures, the process has a discontinuity as the two input values become similar in magnitude, which could be a problem for future efforts on dynamic textures.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We presented a method for synthesizing textures intermediate between two exemplars. The degree of blending can vary spatially, yielding inhomogeneous textures if desired. Using the SLIC segments we were able increase heterogeneity, preserving small coherent regions of each texture. Our process is applicable only for textures lacking well-defined structures. It also has difficulty preserving long continuous features. However, for stochastic textures with small features, our output textures look realistic and natural. In future work, we would like to consider additional factors, including local contrast and directionality. We would like to extend the method to work well for more structured textures. We would also like to use time as a factor in order to create dynamic textures.

In this work, we treated all levels of the Laplacian pyramid the same way. However, it might make sense to investigate different treatments for different levels. Depending on the texture, one level or another may contain more of the structural content, and accounting for this in the merging could produce still better blends. The example of Doyle and Mould (Doyle and Mould, 2018) is instructive, albeit not in a texture blending context.

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