Applying Genetic Algorithms to Generating Paintings

Alexander Hansen¹ and Mark. C. Lewis¹
¹Department of Computer Science, Trinity University, San Antonio, Texas, USA

Abstract—This project explores the application of genetic algorithms to generating paintings based on photos. We find various combinations of parameters for our genetic algorithm that strike a balance between computational work and visually pleasing and accurate results.

Keywords: Machine learning, genetic algorithms, art, procedural generation

1. Background Information

The subject of generating paintings based on algorithmic operations applied to computers has been studied before in great depth.[1][2][3] These approaches are highly effective and expressive, but some can be stylistically limited due to their deterministic nature of analysis. In the case of both [1] and [2], they analyze features from the original image, such as color or edge location, and abstract them into something that can become a stroke or collection of strokes and represent them in a table. The painting algorithm draws from this table to ensure the feature is represented in the final rendered painting. This is the approach of most painting algorithms that are based on an original image. Those other algorithms which paint images based on no original reference image, such as [3], are a different problem than this project, so they will be referred to sparingly.

As it is hard to say in art whether one approach is better or worse, this project seeks not necessarily to improve upon the previous work but to provide another entirely different tool for generating paintings based on a reference image. We utilize machine learning, specifically a genetic algorithm, to create a large amount of paintings and then evolve them into one, particularly accurate, painting. This accuracy is determined by a fitness function which is discussed later.

The concept of a genetic algorithm was originally proposed by A.S. Fraser with the intent of being able to computerize and simulate evolution.[4] Originally, it was much more focused on the mutation and mating aspects of it, and less on the fitness definition and iteration. In applying genetic algorithms to art, however, a creative use of a fitness function and a mutation function are required.

Much work has been done on genetic algorithms, and they seem to contain an inherent quality that makes them good at optimization problems. This can be seen in the amount of publications across many diverse fields using genetic algorithms to optimize their problems. Some examples are molecular geometry calculations,[5] electromagnetic design tools,[6] and course scheduling.[7] There is much more work out there exemplifying this optimization characteristic.[8][9][10][11][12]

Genetic algorithms are often applied to optimization problems in this way because they are able to find optimal solutions without necessarily knowing why they are optimal. In problems where there are features that can be evaluated and weighted based on how good or bad they are with respect to the final product, genetic algorithms are able to find optimal arrangements of these features. We apply this to paintings, as every stroke can be viewed as a feature and evaluated in this way. Some work has been done on applying genetic algorithms to art and in very interesting ways. Karl Sims has published a paper and created an art exhibit using one.[13] He, too, struggles with large parameter spaces in his work and discusses some ways around them, but his process is not based on a reference image as ours is, so we cannot take advantage of these approaches.

Sims also has an exhibit where there are sixteen different paintings, and visitors to the exhibit can select the most visually appealing ones. Their features are then mixed to create the next generation of paintings. This is a good demonstration of the idea behind genetic algorithms.

Other work on using genetic algorithms with art include Roger Johansson’s implementation in Javascript of a genetic algorithm to approximate the best arrangement of fifty polygons to replicate the Mona Lisa with great success.[14] Other approaches are highly effective and expressive, but some can be stylistically limited due to their deterministic nature of analysis. In the case of both [1] and [2], they analyze features from the original image, such as color or edge location, and abstract them into something that can become a stroke or collection of strokes and represent them in a table. The painting algorithm draws from this table to ensure the feature is represented in the final rendered painting. This is the approach of most painting algorithms that are based on an original image. Those other algorithms which paint images based on no original reference image, such as [3], are a different problem than this project, so they will be referred to sparingly.

2. Implementation

2.1 Applying a Genetic Algorithm to Painting

There are three core parts to this project: the generation function, the genetic algorithm, and the rendering. Paintings are a struct represented by a collection of strokes, which is a struct with a start point, an end point, a width, and a color.

The genetic algorithm itself has five parts: the selector function, which selects which of the population to mate; the crossover function, which combines two paintings to create a child; the mutation function, which randomly mutates a painting; and the simulator, which iterates the genetic algorithm according to some given properties and kills off stochastically.

The structure of the program, from a high level, is as follows:

1It can be viewed here: https://chriscummins.cc/s/genetics/
2.2 The Fitness Function

This paper will frequently refer to the “fitness” of a painting. This is a value determined by the fitness function. It is therefore crucial to explain first, as the rest of the discourse in this paper relies on this concept. The fitness function gives us an integer value for how “good” a painting is with respect to the original photo. This allows the various parts of the simulator to address photos by how fit they are and make decisions accordingly. It also provides us with a quantitative metric with which to compare the effectiveness of various approaches and tweaks to our program.

In our problem, we want to take an image and turn it into a painting. One of the most basic concepts of how accurate a painting is to a given reference photo is how far off the color is of every pixel. For example, given the RGB values of original photo pixel located at (1,1) as (255, 254, 255) and the corresponding painting pixel located at (1,1) as (255, 255, 255), we can see that the $G$ value is one pixel off from the original. This gives it an “unfitness” of 1. We can take the inverse of this to get the fitness. The inverse is the maximum possible difference ($255 + 255 + 255 = 765$) minus the actual difference (1), so $765 - 1 = 764$. Therefore, this particular pixel in the painting has a fitness of 764. The fitness value of a painting is the sum of the fitness of every rendered pixel in comparison to the original photo.

Note that the fitness function does not rely on mutating any data, only referencing the two images. This means that it is easily implemented in parallel, a feature that is important in executing genetic algorithms in a timely manner.

2.3 The Rendering Function

Rendering a painting is as minimalist and intuitive. From the start point to the end point of every stroke, a line is drawn with the stroke’s color. This line has the width of the stroke’s width. There is no actual paint simulation or anything particularly advanced happening here. This is because the discoloration of paint or lighting could interfere with the fitness function’s ability to accurately compare the color of a stroke to the original photo.

The rendering function is important to this project because it is used in the calculation of the fitness and therefore the assessment of the genetic algorithm’s progress and quantitative results.

Figure 2 shows an example of a rendered painting with its original reference image to the left of it.
Informed random final result.
Random final result.

Fig. 4: The maximum fitness of every iteration’s population using the informed random generation approach versus the non-informed approach, and their respective final results from the genetic algorithm after 5000 iterations.

There are different kinds of selectors that are used in genetic algorithms. There is stochastic, which is random and is effectively useless for this application; there is tournament selection, which chooses \( x \) members of the population at a time to participate in a tournament and picks the top 2 most fit participants from that tournament (multiple tournaments can be run per iteration); fitness maximal selection, which selects the absolute most fit members to mate; and some other more obscure types.

The amount parents being selected to "mate" each iteration is an input to these selector functions. So, the maximize selector picks the top \( x \) to mate, producing \( x^2 \) children. This is a parameter that we fixed to \( n^3 \), where \( n \) is the total population size, producing \( n^6 \) of the population size children every iteration, and killing off \( n^6 \) as well. We tested a few other values, but ultimately fixed it to \( n^3 \) as it seemed optimal. This is discussed more in the results section. Fixing this value, although semi-arbitrary, provided consistency as we tested the other elements of the genetic algorithm’s parameter space, which was already far too large.

The maximize selector was our primary choice as it picks the most fit paintings and then uses them to create children. This can cause a phenomenon of a local maxima, but it still resulted in the highest fitness. That is, the local maxima level is higher in the maximize function than the highest fitness able to be achieved by other selectors in the same amount of time. This will be discussed more in the results section.

The tournament selector was the other selector we experimented with. It takes two parameters: the number of tournaments and the number of participants in the tournament. We fixed these values, again somewhat arbitrarily, to \( n^6 \) tournaments of size \( n^0 \). For a population size of 1000, this would be 166 tournaments of size 10. This results in 1600 fitness calculations per iteration, which is more than the maximize selector, but is often more efficient as it will select the same population member multiple times and access the cached fitness value. The scaling of the tournament selector is independent of the fitness increase, meaning it is not just a slower maximize selector.[15] This means it could be resistant to the local maxima that the maximize selector can sometimes experience.

2.6 The Crossover Function

After a subset of the population has been selected to become "parents", they are passed into a crossover function. In the original definition of a genetic algorithm, this was a function that took the two parents’ binary string representations and split them, combining part from one parent and part from the other.[4]

We approximate this process; instead of using a binary representation, we take half of the strokes from one painting and half of the strokes from the other.

To maximize the increase in fitness, we compare the two potential combinations (parent one’s first half, and then parent two’s, or vice versa), and pick the best combination. This worked, but also made us more susceptible to local maxima, also known as Hamming walls. This will be discussed later in the results section. Because of this, this feature was removed. Some other versions of the crossover function exist, such as not taking exactly half from each painting and instead taking a random percentage from each that totals one hundred percent, but no major improvement in performance was shown using this method. This new set of child paintings are then added into the total population.

2.7 The Mutation Function

After the child paintings are added to the population, a stochastic selector function selects a predetermined amount of paintings to mutate. We decided that we would pick a random parameter of a stroke and modify it by a predetermined “mutation strength”. You will notice that in the end, this function, like the original crossover function, also makes a comparison to ensure a better fitness. The painting compares itself to its pre-mutated state and picks the more fit painting to return. This also made us more susceptible to Hamming walls, and was removed. The mutation strength is better as a relatively large value to help avoid Hamming walls.

After the mutation occurs, a number of paintings equivalent to the amount of child paintings that were just added are stochastically selected to be “killed”, or removed from the population.
3. Results

To see more results generated by an implementation of this algorithm, read [16].

3.1 Maximizing Fitness

Some of the most fit images generated based on the original reference image are below:

3.1.1 Stroke Properties

These two paintings ran for the same number of iterations. They show the increase in “difficulty” of arranging longer strokes versus shorter strokes. Through many tests, it has become apparent that a feature in a painting only shows up if the stroke length is less than that feature itself. The longer strokes tend to obscure the smaller details, like the moon in the background and some shrubbery in the foreground. In a much shorter time, a shorter-stroke painting is able to achieve a much higher fitness than another painting of longer strokes. So, one way to maximize fitness is to just have shorter strokes. Thinner strokes also have this effect but it is not as dramatically as shorter strokes. This “impressionist” style of painting strikes a great balance of computational work to good results, requiring much less computation for much more fit results. For the sake of exploring other styles, we then chose to move on to the more challenging longer-stroke version and see how much improvement can be made.

3.1.2 Selectors

When trying to maximize fitness, it is intuitive to use the maximize selector. This is the selector that selects the most fit members of the population to mate for the next generation. It does increase the run-time dramatically, as at every iteration it must find the most fit members to mate, but the increase in fitness makes this trade-off worth it. Using the maximize selector to run a genetic algorithm for some amount of time hours will result in a higher fitness than using a tournament selector for the same amount of time. Technically, the tournament selector can get through many more iterations in the same time, but each individual iteration has a lesser positive impact on the fitness.

3.2 Hamming Walls

When looking at the fitness graph of an execution of our genetic algorithm, it takes a logarithm, or inverse-exponential, shape. This can be seen in Figure 5. We postulate that this is due to a local maxima, or Hamming wall as they are called in genetic algorithms. This postulated maxima can be seen in Figure 6. This is a place where an increase in fitness would require many changes to happen simultaneously,[17] It could also be due to approaching the most optimal arrangement of strokes, but as a perfect fitness value is much higher than those values these lines are asymptotically approaching, this seems unlikely.

More evidence for the existence of a Hamming wall can be seen in Figure 7. If the posited hamming wall was actually an optimal arrangement of strokes, then the fitness graph for the random generator execution should approach the same optimal arrangement as the informed random generator execution, around 368,000,000, and then start to flatten out. Instead, it reaches its own Hamming wall around 351,000,000.

If one is familiar with Hamming walls, they may have heard of Gray coding. Hamming walls can be combated with something called Gray coding[17] when using binary strings to represent members of the population. As our approach to using genetic algorithms on paintings does not use a binary-based representation, these methods of Gray coding are unfortunately not applicable. There may be ways to apply the strategies of Gray coding to our application, but they are not useful in our case.
Hamming walls, or local maxima in general, occur when an algorithm cannot see far enough in the future to make a change that will temporarily distance itself from its goal but eventually get it closer. When thinking about them in this sense, any part of our algorithm that greedily grabs the best option could be causing this phenomenon. The most obvious candidate is the maximize selector, which always grabs the most fit members of the population. For many iterations, that most fit member may not actually change at all, resulting in a lot of children with the same or extremely similar characteristics being added over and over again. Over a longer time, it is theoretically possible that a sudden mutation and more fit child could cause a spike and an overcoming of a Hamming wall.

Increasing the previously mentioned mutation strength would increase the probability of being able to overcome a Hamming wall. We tested raising the mutation strength until it was detrimental to the overall fitness and it never was able to overcome Hamming walls.

### 3.2.1 Overcoming Hamming Walls with Selector Choice

Discouraged by this Hamming wall, we turned to the tournament selector. It was touched on before, but for the sake of detail: the tournament selector works by selecting tournaments out of the total population. These tournaments each have $x$ participants, where $x$ is less than half of the population. It then picks the most fit two participants to make a child for the next iteration. This selector can sometimes be quicker than the maximize selector as you will only need to calculate the fitness of the tournament participants, not the entire genetic algorithm. This can also help avoid Hamming walls, as it will often not select the most fit or most optimal path for the next iteration. This results in a more flat, but perhaps more consistent, slope.

Figure 8 shows the maximal fitness of every iteration using the tournament selector. Notice that it is more linear shaped, and less logarithmic, which is good when hoping to avoid asymptotically approaching a Hamming wall.

This optimistically linear slope is immediately overshadowed when the tournament selector graph is plotted along with the maximize selector graph. This can be seen in Figure 9. Clearly, the maximize selector is far more effective. The postulated Hamming wall is so far above anything the tournament selector achieved in the same number of iterations. The genetic algorithm with a tournament selector would have to run for approximately 190,503 iterations in order to overcome the one using a maximize selector’s fitness. As the maximize selector took about 17 hours to run 5000 iterations and the tournament selector took about 13 hours to do 5000 iterations. The tournament selector would have to run for roughly 494 hours, or 41 days straight on our systems to even approach the Hamming wall of the maximize selector, assuming the linear slope would continue and it would not encounter its own Hamming wall at an earlier point. In that same time, the maximize selector would still be either slowly approaching the Hamming wall, or could be even higher than it. The amount of time required to achieve a comparable result with the tournament selector makes this approach not worth it unless running the genetic algorithm for a very long time. Lowering the tournament selector’s parameters to do less tournaments or less participants in the tournaments does make it run faster but has a dramatically negative impact on the its slope. The increase in speed is not big enough to compensate for this negative impact on the slope. This can be seen in Figure 10. The parameters of these two executions can be seen in Table 1.

From this test and similar ones, we deduced that it is not worth it to pursue smaller tournament parameters for more quick execution. The better balance of computational work and fitness is therefore in the larger tournament selector, but the best balance is still found in the maximize selector.
Table 1: Parameters of the tournament selector executions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tournament</th>
<th>Number of Tournaments</th>
<th>Tournament Size</th>
<th>Runtime</th>
<th>Final Fitness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tournament</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13:12:52</td>
<td>351646879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smaller Tournament</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11:47:50</td>
<td>351554728</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 10: The fitness graphs of our tournament size and a smaller tournament size.

Fig. 11: The fitness graph of two executions of the genetic algorithm: one with the population set to $n = 30$ and one with the population set to $n = 60$.

Due to these above factors, we moved on from tournament selection and used maximize selection for all tests after that.

### 3.3 The Impact of Population Size

The size of the population in each iteration turns out to have a significant impact on the shape of the fitness graph. Unfortunately, it also increases the time it takes to execute one iteration greatly.

For all executions mentioned up until this point, the population value has been set to $n = 30$. Figure 11 shows what happens when we increased the population size to $n = 60$, using our maximize selector. Unfortunately, it took so long to run, we were only able to run it out to a thousand iterations. But clearly the impact is massive. The slope at every point is higher and the initial fitness is higher.

This makes sense from a conceptual perspective, with more population being generated in the beginning, there are more combinations of strokes and therefore a higher likelihood of more fit paintings being generated. Unfortunately, to run these 1000 iterations took 69.18 hours. Recall that running 5000 iterations with $n = 30$ took only around 17 hours. We found that doubling the population size increases the amount of time required to run one iteration by a factor of 20.347, on average. This means that increasing the population size is not as efficient as running a lower population for a longer time.

### 3.4 The Impact of Iterations

The amount of iterations that an execution is allowed to run to before being stopped has a predictable impact on the fitness graph. These fitness graphs in general have the shape of a logarithmic curve to them. The amount of iterations completed simply determines how far out on (how far on the x-axis) the simulation will go. Even when a random generator is used, giving a lower fitness to start with, the logarithmic pattern persists and the number of iterations simply controls how far along the line of the fitness graph the execution ends.

### 4. Future Work

In the future, we hope to look into how to implement Gray coding for a project like this to avoid Hamming walls. New methods of combating Hamming walls may be needed in order to solve the problem in this context. We also hope to test more parameter configurations for our selectors, finding more optimal configurations. Lastly, we feel that implementing a more intelligent fitness function, maybe something that uses edge detection or something along those lines, could result in a more accurate evolution.

### References


