Evolving Imaging Model for Super-Resolution Reconstruction

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ABSTRACT

Super-resolution reconstruction (SRR) allows for enhancing image spatial resolution from low-resolution (LR) observations, which are assumed to have been derived from a hypothetical high-resolution image by applying a certain imaging model (IM). However, if the actual degradation is different from the assumed IM, which is often the case in real-world scenarios, then the reconstruction quality is affected. We introduce a genetic algorithm to optimize the SRR hyper-parameters and to discover the actual IM by evolving the kernels exploited in the IM. The reported experimental results indicate that our approach outperforms the state of the art for a variety of images, including difficult real-life satellite data.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Computing methodologies → Reconstruction; Genetic algorithms; *Image processing*;

KEYWORDS

Super-resolution reconstruction, Genetic algorithm

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1 INTRODUCTION

Multiple-image super-resolution reconstruction (SRR) [7] allows for generating a high-resolution (HR) image from a set of N lowresolution (LR) observations: $I^{(L)} = \{I_i^{(l)} : i \in [1..N]\}$. The majority of the existing approaches employ a parametrized imaging model (IM) to simulate the process of degrading a hypothetical HR image $I'^{(h)}$ into $I^{(l)}$ (such IMs include warping, blurring, downsampling and contamination with the noise). SRR is aimed at inverting the IM to reconstruct $I'^{(h)}$, which is an ill-posed optimization problem.

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In [4], SRR is performed relying on image registration using iterative back-projection (IBP). A hierarchical subpixel displacement estimation is combined with the Bayesian reconstruction in the gradient projection algorithm (GPA) [6]. In [1], the subpixel registration parameters are determined with a genetic algorithm (GA), and regularization is ensured with certain constraints on the genetic operators. Projection onto convex sets [2] consists in updating $\mathcal{I}^{\prime(h)}$ iteratively based on the difference between $\mathcal{I}^{(l)}$ and $\mathcal{I}^{\prime(h)}$ degraded using the IM. Fast and robust super-resolution (FRSR) [3] measures the error in the HR coordinates, thus avoiding the expensive scaling operation. SRR for satellite images was proceeded using adaptive detail enhancement (SR-ADE) [8], which amplifies the high-frequency detail information. Evolutionary methods were used to reconstruct an HR image given a fixed IM, and in our earlier work [5] we optimized the FRSR hyper-parameters (GA-FRSR). However, evolution of the IM itself has not been considered so far.

Our contribution lies in proposing a new GA (EvoIM) to evolve the kernels of the IM exploited in the well-established FRSR method, alongside optimizing its hyper-parameters. This allows for adapting the IM to the actual degradation learned from a training set (T).

2 EVOLVING THE IMAGING MODEL

In FRSR [3], the IM consists in the Gaussian blur (*B*) followed by the decimation to obtain an LR observation. This process is inverted to reconstruct the HR image as a solution (X) of the minimization problem, solved using the gradient descent with the update step:

$$\Delta X = -\beta \left[B' A^T \operatorname{sgn}(ABX_n - AX_0) + \lambda \frac{\delta U(X)}{\delta X}(X_n) \right], \quad (1)$$

where β controls the step length, A is a diagonal matrix of the LR contribution to X_0 and $B' = B^T$ is the deconvolution of the Gaussian blur. U(X) is the regularization term controlled with λ , and configured with two hyper-parameters: the spatial decay α ($0 < \alpha < 1$), and regularization shift size $P \in \{1, 2, 3\}$.

In EvoIM, we substitute the Gaussian blur in *B* and *B'* with two evolvable 5×5 convolution kernels—we assume they are symmetrical, hence each kernel is encoded using 6 numbers in the range (-1; 1). These values, along with α , β , λ and *P*, form a 16-dimensional search space, traversed by our GA.

A population of $N_P = 10$ individuals is evolved using genetic operators (*selection, cross-over* and *mutation* with the probability $P_m = 0.2$), and the elitism is ensured. The fitness η is computed based on a training set T, composed of several scenes—each scene contains an $I^{(L)}$ set coupled with an HR ground-truth image $I^{(h)}$.

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Figure 1: Examples of the optimized *B* and *B'* kernels (left) and the hyper-parameters values for different *T*'s (right).

 $I'^{(h)}$ is reconstructed from $I^{(L)}$ using FRSR (configured by the chromosome of the evaluated individual), and η is obtained as the structural similarity index (SSIM) between $I^{(h)}$ and $I'^{(h)}$, averaged for all the scenes in *T*. We regenerate the population, if the average η does not increase in 3 generations.

3 EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

For validation, we used SPOT satellite images (100×100 pixels, 5 different scenes in *T* and the test set Ψ), without (DSB^-) and with (DSB^+) Gaussian blur applied, each HR downscaled by a factor of 2 to obtain 4 different LR images. In a real-life scenario (RSat), we matched pairs of SPOT (HR) and Sentinel-2 (LR) images (*T* and Ψ include 10 HR images each of 317×317 and 211×211 pixels, matched with 5 LR 75 × 75 and 50 × 50 images). Every randomized method was run $30 \times$ on an Intel Xeon 3.2 GHz computer with 16 GB RAM (we implemented the algorithms in C++). Each test was given a time budget of 3600 seconds. We employed the two-tailed Wilcoxon test to verify whether the scores are significantly different.

In Figure 1, we show examples of the kernels (black: -1, white: 1) adapted to different variants of T, and the obtained hyper-parameter values. For *RSat*, the values of α are significantly different from DSB^- and DSB^+ (p < 0.001), while they are not different between DSB^- and DSB^+ ($0.05). The values of <math>\beta$ are significantly different in all cases (p < 0.001), while λ 's are different only between DSB^- and DSB^+ (p < 0.05). Overall, each degradation variant leads to a different set of kernels and hyper-parameter values.

The quantitative results are reported in Table 1 (for *RSat*, LR and HR images are acquired with different sensors, hence low SSIM scores). For EvoIM, we run a cross test between different variants of T and Ψ (the corresponding pairs are grayed). The scores for Ψ are very sensitive to the T used for training and EvoIM adapts well to the degradation model, much better than GA-FRSR which optimizes only hyper-parameters (we report the scores for the same variant of T and Ψ). While there are no differences for DSB^- , the scores are significantly different for DSB^+ (p < 0.001) and RSat (p < 0.005). For each of 3 variants of Ψ , EvoIM outperforms the state of the art (for GA-SRR, p < 0.001). From an example of the qualitative results in Figure 2, it can be seen that EvoIM delivers visually best outcome and there is a noteworthy difference compared with GA-FRSR.

4 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we report our initial study on evolving the kernels for the IM used within a well-established FRSR technique. The reported experiments indicate that the proposed EvoIM algorithm

Table 1: SSIM scores for different variants of T and Ψ , obtained using EvoIM and other SRR methods.

EvoIM		Variant of Ψ		
$T\downarrow$	η	DSB ⁻	DSB^+	RSat
DSB^{-}	$.984 \pm .001$.977 ± .002	$.655 \pm .005$	$.364 \pm .019$
DSB^+	$.836 \pm .002$	$.869 \pm .015$.818 ± .003	$.333 \pm .024$
RSat	$.459 \pm .002$	$.825 \pm .020$	$.606 \pm .021$.428 ± .012
GA-FRSR [5]		$.977 \pm .002$	$.746 \pm .002$	$-418 \pm .012$
GA-SRR [1]		$.875 \pm .002$	$.621 \pm .003$	$.410 \pm .013$
GPA [6]		.937	.583	.404
IBP [4]		.911	.614	.424
SR-ADE [8]		.848	.603	.388

successfully adapts the IM to the actual degradation (simulated or real), outperforming the investigated state-of-the-art methods.

Our ongoing work is on evolving larger kernels and other elements of the IM. We will also enhance the evaluation procedure to embrace several categories of real-world images, to verify whether and how the optimal kernels depend on the sensor type.



Figure 2: SRR outcome obtained with different techniques.

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