SCSNet: An Efficient Paradigm for Learning Simultaneously Image Colorization and Super-resolution

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Abstract

In the practical application of restoring low-resolution grayscale images, we generally need to run three separate processes of image colorization, super-resolution, and down-sampling operation for the target device. However, this pipeline is redundant and inefficient for the independent processes, and some inner features could have been shared. Therefore, we present an efficient paradigm to perform Simultaneously Image Colorization and Super-resolution (SCS) and propose an end-to-end SCSNet to achieve this goal. The proposed method consists of two parts: colorization branch for learning color information that employs the proposed plug-and-play Pyramid Valve Cross Attention (PV-CAttn) module to aggregate feature maps between source and reference images; and super-resolution branch for integrating color and texture information to predict target images, which uses the designed Continuous Pixel Mapping (CPM) module to predict high-resolution images at continuous magnification. Furthermore, our SCSNet supports both automatic and referential modes that is more flexible for practical application. Abundant experiments demonstrate the superiority of our method for generating authentic images over state-of-the-art methods, e.g., averagely decreasing FID by 1.8 † and 5.1 † compared with current best scores for automatic and referential modes, respectively, while owning fewer parameters (more than ×2 †) and faster running speed (more than ×3 †).

1 Introduction

In some practical scenarios, e.g., restoration of old photos and artistic creation of gray-scale draft, we can only obtain Low-Resolution (LR) gray-scale images and hope to get more attractive High-Resolution (HR) colorful images. As shown in the top part of Figure 1, the current solution pipeline cascades different methods by mainly three stages: 1) Using automatic or referential colorization model to color the grayscale image for obtaining visually appealing RGB images. 2) Leveraging Single Image Super-Resolution (SISR) method for learning a nonlinear mapping to reconstruct HR images from LR inputs. 3) Down-sampling the generated HR images to the appropriate resolution for the

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Figure 1. Current automatic and referential pipelines require three stages: 1) image colorization; 2) image super-resolution; and 3) down-sampling for target devices in different scenarios. Our end-to-end SCSNet supports both automatic and referential modes.

target device. However, this pipeline is redundant and inefficient for practical use, where image colorization and super-resolution could have shared some common features by one unified network. Also, the device-adapted down-sampling operation in the last stage means that there is redundancy calculation in the SISR stage, which generates HR images at a fixed magnification (usually higher than needed) rather than device-required magnification. As shown in the bottom part of Figure 1, we focus on solving the above problems and designing an efficient paradigm to achieve Simultaneously Image Colorization and Super-resolution (SCS) task by one unified network. Figure 2 shows our authentic and diversified generation results in both automatic and referential modes, as well as the qualitative and quantitative comparison results with State-Of-The-Art (SOTA) pipelines. Concretely, we propose a novel efficient SCSNet that contains colorization and super-resolution branches.

For colorization branch, it learns how to predict two missing channels information from the given gray-scale image. Image colorization mainly falls into automatic and referential modes depending on the availability of the reference image. The automatic mode only requires LR gray-scale image that seems intuitive but suffers from poor chromaticity of the generated images, because each semantic object can have various colors and the network tends to average output
if applying inappropriate training strategy (Zhang, Isola, and Efros 2016). The referential mode requires an additional reference image for providing semantic color information that is more controllable. A key point in the referential process is how to reasonably merge color information from the referential image into the source image. Some works (He et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2019a) propose to calculate the correlation matrix to characterize bidirectional similarity between source and reference images, and approaches (Zhao et al. 2019; Xu et al. 2020; Kumar, Weissenborn, and Kalchbrenner 2021) use direct concatenation, AdaIN operation (Huang and Belongie 2017), or transformer module to aggregate information. However, the information interaction of current methods can be error-prone and may lack visual interpretation. Inspired by self-attention (Zhang et al. 2019b), we redesign a plug-and-play Pyramid Valve Cross Attention (PVCAttn) module that applies interpretable valves to control the information flow and fuses features at multiple scales. Also, our SCS paradigm supports both modes controlled by a reference switch in the PVCAttn module.

For super-resolution branch, it learns how to reconstruct HR images from LR images. In general, SISR technology is employed to post-process the generated images for better visualization, and almost all current SISR methods only carry out fixed magnification (Wang et al. 2018; Guo et al. 2020), which goes against the natural world with a continuous visual expression. Unlike recent Meta-SR (Hu et al. 2019) that attempts continuous magnification by predicting convolutional weights for each pixel, we propose a more efficient Continuous Pixel Mapping (CPM) module to realize arbitrary magnification in a continuous space. Specifically, we make the following three contributions:

- We propose an efficient SCSNet paradigm to perform the SCS task in an end-to-end manner firstly, and abundant experiments demonstrate the superiority of our approach for generating authentic and colorful images.
- A novel plug-and-play PVCAttn module is proposed to effectively aggregate color information between source and reference images in an explicable way.
- An elaborate CPM module is designed to realize continuous magnification, which is more computation-friendly and suitable for practical application.

2 Related Work

2.1 Image Colorization

Before the advent of CNN-based approaches, Li et al. (Deshpande, Rock, and Forsyth 2015) train a quadratic objective function in the chromaticity maps to colorize images. Subsequently, learning-based approaches almost dominate the automatic image colorization (Anwar et al. 2020; Cheng, Yang, and Sheng 2015; Zhang, Isola, and Efros 2016; Larsson, Maire, and Shakhnarovich 2016; Iizuka, Simo-Serra, and Ishikawa 2016). Cheng et al. (Cheng, Yang, and Sheng 2015) propose to extract multiple-level feature descriptors to regress pixel values, while Zhang et al. (Zhang, Isola, and Efros 2016) quantize the chrominance space into bins. Later works (Deshpande et al. 2017; Mescheder, Schwing, and Schuster 2018) leverage VAE to learn a low dimensional embedding of color fields, while GAN-based methods (Cao et al. 2017; Vitoria, Raad, and Ballester 2020) introduce adversarial training to generate diverse and authentic colorful images. Moreover, I2C (Su, Chu, and Huang 2020) uses an off-the-shelf object detector to obtain extra object-level features, while Lei et al. (Lei and Chen 2019) design a two-stage network successively for colorization and refinement. Even though the above automatic methods perform well, they are uncontrollable and cannot generate various images once trained. This work also considers diversity and controllability when designing the network while retaining the benefits of automatic image colorization.

Differently, referential image colorization requires additional information to guide the generation process. Zou et al. (Zou et al. 2019) propose a SECat network that inputs a gray-scale line art and color tag information to produce a quality colored image. Some GAN-based methods (Furusawa et al. 2017; Xian et al. 2018; Sun et al. 2019) use adversarial training to improve the rationality of generated images, while works (Huang, Liao, and Kwong 2020; Lee et al. 2020; Xian et al. 2018) take gray sketch image as input and color it with the aid of the reference image condition. He et al. (Iizuka and Simo-Serra 2019) propose a similarity sub-net to compute the bidirectional similarity map between source and reference images. Considering the limitation of one-stage network, methods (Xu et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2019a) design the coarse-to-fine net-
work to improve the performance. Nevertheless, how to reasonably aggregate the referential feature is still a big challenge (Zhao et al. 2019; Xu et al. 2020). Works (Zhang et al. 2019a; Huang, Liao, and Kwong 2020) propose to obtain the correlation matrix whose elements characterize the similarity between the source and reference images. Recently, Gray2ColorNet (Lu et al. 2020) design an attention gating mechanism-based color fusion network, and Kumar et al. (Kumar, Weissenborn, and Kalchbrenner 2021) firstly introduce the transformer (Vaswani et al. 2017) structure. However, the above methods are effortless to select incorrect referential information prone to produce visual artifacts, e.g., color shift and color patch. To alleviate the problems, we propose a novel PVCAttn module to more effectively aggregate information between source and reference images.

### 2.2 Single Image Super-Resolution

Since Dong et al. (Dong et al. 2015) propose SRCNN for SISR, many CNN-based methods (Lim et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2018a,b; Ledig et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2018; Guo et al. 2020) with good effects have been proposed. EDSR (Lim et al. 2017) improves performance significantly by removing unnecessary batch normalization in conventional residual networks and designing a new multi-scale deep super-resolution system. Later RCAN (Zhang et al. 2018a) and RDN (Zhang et al. 2018b) improve the residual block, and works (Ledig et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2018) further introduce adversarial loss during the training phase that greatly improves the model’s performance. To solve the problem of real-world image matching, works (Cai et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2019c) contribute new datasets where paired real-world LR-HR images on the same scene are captured. Recently, Guo et al. (Guo et al. 2020) propose a novel dual regression scheme for paired and unpaired data, which forms a closed-loop to provide additional supervision. The above methods have achieved good results, but they can only carry out fixed factors for SISR, not producing a continuous display for practical application. Different fromMeta-SR(29,296),(975,994) that attempts continuous magnification by predicting convolutional weights for each pixel, we design a more efficient Continuous Pixel Mapping head to directly regress pixel value with local relative coordinate in a continuous space.

### 3 Approach

In this paper, a novel efficient paradigm is proposed to complete both automatic and referential image colorization along with SISR simultaneously by one end-to-end network. As depicted in Figure 3, the proposed SCSNet consists of a PVCAttn-based colorization branch for restoring the color information, as well as a CPM-based super-resolution branch for generating high-resolution target image in a continuous space. An initial convolution firstly increases the channel dimension of the low-resolution gray-scale source image: $I^l_s \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times H_s \times W_s} \rightarrow \hat{F}_s^{init} \in \mathbb{R}^{C_s \times H_s \times W_s}$, where $H_s$ and $W_s$ are the height and width of the input image.

**For the colorization branch**, encoders $\phi^c_E$ and $\phi^c_R$ are employed to extract corresponding deep features:
Figure 4. Schematic diagram of VCAttn. The module takes the source feature \( F_s \) and the reference feature \( F_r \) as input and outputs the aggregated target feature map \( F_t \) that has the same dimension with \( F_s \).

\[
\begin{align*}
F_s &= \phi_E^s(F_s^{init}) \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times H_s/4 \times W_s/4}, \\
F_r &= \phi_E^r(F_r^{lab}) \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times H_s/4 \times W_s/4}.
\end{align*}
\] (1)

We design the branch with two patterns: the automatic mode that directly maps source image feature to output (i.e., \( F_s \rightarrow F_{int} \)), and the referential mode that employs the proposed plug-and-play PVCAttn module to aggregate both source and reference image features:

\[
F_{int} = \text{PVCAttn}(F_s, F_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times H_s/4 \times W_s/4}.
\] (2)

Subsequently, decoder \( \phi_D \) restores the color information \( F_{int} \) to the original resolution \( F_{color} \in \mathbb{R}^{64 \times H_r \times W_r} \) via a self-attention layer and several convolution layers.

For super-resolution branch, encoder \( \psi_E \) extracts the residual texture feature \( F_{tex} \in \mathbb{R}^{64 \times H_s \times W_s} \) from the initial feature map \( F_s^{init} \) via concatenated basic blocks. Each basic block contains two convolution layers along with a skip operation. A subsequent \( 3 \times 3 \) convolution is used to aggregate \( F_{tex} \) and \( F_{color} \), indicated as \( F_{cs} \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times H_s \times W_s} \). Finally, the CPM module employs mapping function \( F(\cdot) \) to regress target HR image \( \hat{I}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times H_s \times p \times W_s \times p} \), and \( p \) represents any magnification that can be a decimal, while \( F_{cs} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times H_s \times p \times W_s \times p} \) is obtained according to \( F_{cs} \).

### 3.1 Pyramid Valve Cross Attention

In order to more effectively aggregate feature information between source and reference images, we propose a novel Valley Cross Attention (VCAttn) module. As illustrated in Figure 4, the purpose of VCAttn is to select the reference feature \( F_r \in \mathbb{R}^{C_r \times H_r \times W_r} \) reasonably to the source feature \( F_s \in \mathbb{R}^{C_s \times H_s \times W_s} \). Similar to SAttn (Zhang et al. 2019b), three convolution operations are used to extract query features \( Q_s \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H_s \times W_s} \), key features \( K_r \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H_r \times W_r} \), and value features \( V_r \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H_r \times W_r} \), respectively. Then, \( Q_s \) and \( K_r \) are employed to calculate the correlation matrix \( \text{CorrMat} \), which further multiplies \( V_r \) to obtain \( F_{r-s} \). Subsequently, concatenated \( F_s \) and \( F_{r-s} \) go through cascaded \( 1 \times 1 \) Convolution and Sigmoid to obtain valve maps \( V_1 \) and \( V_2 \), which are used to control the information flux of \( F_s \) and \( F_{r-s} \). To further improve the representation, we design a pyramid VCAttn module (PVCAttn) in Figure 5: pyramid feature maps are sent into corresponding VCAttn modules after pre-convolving, and the concatenated feature map goes through a post-convolution to obtain the final output.

### 3.2 Continuous Pixel Mapping

In order to generate target images at any magnification, we model the discrete feature mapping in continuous pixel space and propose an efficient super-resolution head named Continuous Pixel Mapping. As shown in Figure 6, we model the feature \( F^{x,y} \) of each point \( x, y \) with two parts: main feature \( F^{x,y}_{cs} \) obtained by bilinear interpolation around the neighborhood four points, as well as the local coordinate feature \( Z^{x,y}_{rel} \) that describes continuous local spatial information. We model each point in the target image by its local relative coordinate to the nearest point in the original resolution image. The \( F^{x,y} \) can be modeled in a continuous space. Note that we align the corner when obtaining the main feature of each point. As for local coordinate feature \( Z^{x,y}_{rel} \), we look for its corresponding anchor point in the original feature \( F_{cs} \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times H_s \times W_s} \) and calculate local co-
ordinate feature $Z_{r_{	ext{rel}}}^{x,y}$ in the following formula:
\[
Z_{r_{	ext{rel}}}^{x,y} = \text{mod}(x,x_{\text{unit}}) / x_{\text{unit}} * 2 - 1, \\
Z_{y_{\text{rel}}}^{y} = \text{mod}(y,y_{\text{unit}}) / y_{\text{unit}} * 2 - 1,
\]
where $x_{\text{unit}} = 1 / W_s$, $y_{\text{unit}} = 1 / H_s$, mod is remainder operation, and $Z_{r_{	ext{rel}}}^{x,y}$ and $Z_{y_{\text{rel}}}^{y}$ are in range $-1$ to $+1$, i.e., $(-1,1)$ for the upper left corner while $(+1,+1)$ for the lower right corner. Finally, continuous pix mapping function $\mathcal{F}$(·) that contains four linear layers maps the feature to target image $\hat{I}_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}$.

3.3 Objective Functions

During the training stage of SCSNet, we only adopt three losses: Content Loss $L_C$ to monitor image quality at the pixel level, Perceptual Loss $L_P$ to ensure semantic similarity, and Adversarial Loss $L_{\text{Adv}}$ to improve image quality and authenticity. The full loss $L_{\text{all}}$ is defined as follow:
\[
L_{\text{all}} = \lambda_C L_C + \lambda_P L_P + \lambda_{\text{Adv}} L_{\text{Adv}},
\]
where $\lambda_C = 10$, $\lambda_P = 5$, and $\lambda_{\text{Adv}} = 1$ represent weight parameters to balance different terms.

Content Loss. The first term $L_C$ calculates the $\ell_1$ error between the generated target image $\hat{I}_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}$ and ground truth $I_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}$:
\[
L_C = ||\hat{I}_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y} - I_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}||_1.
\]

Perceptual Loss. The second term $L_P$ calculates semantic errors between the generated target image $\hat{I}_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}$ and the ground truth image $I_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}$:
\[
L_P = \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{l=1}^{5} w_l \cdot ||\phi_l(I_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y}) - \phi_l(I_{t_{\text{lab}}}^{x,y})||_1 \right],
\]
where $\phi_l(·)$ represents the activation map extracted at the $l$th layer from the pre-trained VGG16 network, and $w_l$ is the weight for layer $l$.

Adversarial Loss. The third term $L_{\text{Adv}}$ employs the standard relativistic discriminator (Jolicoeur-Martineau 2018) for adversarial training in order to ensure the authenticity of the generated images. Since the SCS task is typically a one-to-many problem, the adversarial loss greatly improves the model performance.

4 Experiments

4.1 Datasets and Implementation Details

ImageNet-C. Considering the high requirement for both image colorization and super-resolution, we filtered out some of the low-quality images from ImageNet (Deng et al. 2009) to build a colorful and high-resolution dataset named ImageNet-C. It ends up with 407,041 training images and 16,216 validation images. In detail, we remove images with file sizes smaller than 80K and less color variation.

Other Datasets. CelebA-HQ (Karras et al. 2018) (30,000 images), Flowers (Nilsback and Zisserman 2008) (8,189 images), Bird (Yu et al. 2015) (479,548 images), and COCO (Lin et al. 2014) (98,246 images) datasets are used to assess different colorization methods (for testing), and they go through the same pre-selection process as ImageNet-C.

Evaluation Metrics. We use Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) and Structural Similarity (SSIM) (Wang et al. 2004) to assess the generated images at pixel level, while Fréchet Inception Distance (FID) (Heusel et al. 2017) and Image ColorfulNess (CN) (Zerman, Rana, and Smolic 2019) to assess image distribution and colorfulness at semantic level. In order to fully evaluate various methods, we hire real people to score authenticity of images for human study.

Implementation Details. The images are processed in LAB color space, and the input resolution of source and reference images is 128×128. Consistent with DRN, the bicubic kernel is used to produce LR-HR pairs. We train the SCSNet with two modes alternately and apply random horizontal flip and elastic distortion (Simard et al. 2003) to reference images. Perceptual weights $w_{1−5}$ in Eq. 6 are set as 1.0/32, 1.0/16, 1.0/8, 1.0/4, and 1.0, respectively. We use Adam (Kingma and Ba 2015) optimizer and set $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$, weight-decay=1e$−4$, and learning rate=1e$−4$. SCSNet is trained for 50 epochs with batch-size=4 and output-resolution=512 (default $\times 4\uparrow$ setting). Resolution of the referential image for all experiments is set to 128, and all experiments run with 8 Tesla V100 GPUs.

4.2 Comparison with SOTAs

We conduct and discuss a series of qualitative and quantitative comparison experiments on several datasets. At present, there is no end-to-end model to perform image colorization and super-resolution simultaneously, so we choose some SOTA colorization methods (i.e., AutoColor (Lei and Chen 2019), DRemaster (Iizuka and Simo-Serra 2019) (DR), InstColor (Su, Chu, and Huang 2020) (IC), DEVCo (Zhang et al. 2019a), ColTran (Kumar, Weissenborn, and Kalchbrenner 2019), DRemaster (Iizuka and Simo-Serra 2019) (DR), InstColor (Su, Chu, and Huang 2020) (IC), DEVCo (Zhang et al. 2019a), ColTran (Kumar, Weissenborn, and Kalchbrenner 2019)) along with concatenated super-resolution approaches (ESRGAN (Wang et al. 2018), DRN (Guo et al. 2020)) as our comparison methods. Concretely, we divide the above colorization methods into automatic and referential modes.

Qualitative Results. We conduct a series of qualitative experiments on ImageNet-C and COCO validation datasets to visually show the superiority of our approach for generating authentic and colorful images for the SCS problem. As shown in Figure 7, the left part shows automatic SCS results of different methods that use the low-resolution grayscale images (first column) as input. All methods can distinguish semantic targets and color them, but our generated images look better in colorfulness and detail than other approaches. The right part shows results for various methods under the condition of an elastic reference image in resolution 128×128, which provides the color information that the real image should contain. All methods could transfer referential color well except ColTran, but our method can produce clearer and authentic images while maintaining color transfer. Note that ColTran inputs an extra HR grayscale image for better clarity that is unfair for the SCS task. We reduce its input grayscale image to the same resolution as other methods, and the output images get a little blurry (c.f., ColTran-LR in the penultimate column).

Quantitative Results. We choose image-level metrics to evaluate the effectiveness of different SOTA methods on several datasets: FID for assessing image distribution while
visual-friendly CN for colorfulness. Our approach is trained only on ImageNet-C without extra datasets, while other methods use corresponding pre-trained models that may use extra datasets for training. We randomly choose 5,000 images of each method for assessment (2,500 under automatic mode; 500 by self-referential elastic images; while 2,000 by randomly selecting other elastic images as reference images). Table 1 shows the results of different methods for several datasets on two modes, and we can summarize the following conclusions: 1) The middle part illustrates that different SR methods have little difference in the results, so we choose SOTA DRN for SISR in the following experiments. 2) Referential mode tends to get better results than automatic mode. 3) Different datasets are slightly different in CN metric and our method obtains the highest CN score (i.e., ColTran+DRN; ×4 with batch size equaling one), which is more efficient for practical application. Furthermore, we use pixel-level PSNR and SSIM to evaluate generated images under automatic and self-referential modes. As shown in Table 2, our method consistently obtains better evaluation scores, meaning that the predicted images by our method have a more consistent distribution of the real images. 5) We further evaluate the parameter and running speed of all approaches, and our SC-SNet has the fewest parameters (×4) than InstColor+DRN; ×130 higher than ColTran; and fastest running speed (×8) than InstColor+DRN; ×3276 faster than ColTran+DRN; ×4, i.e., ColTran and fast) and InstColor+DRN; ×130 than ColTran; with batch size equaling one), which is more efficient for practical application. Furthermore, we use pixel-level PSNR and SSIM to evaluate generated images under automatic and self-referential modes. As shown in Table 2, our method consistently obtains better evaluation scores, meaning that the predicted images by SC-SNet are more consistent with real images. Interestingly, the aforementioned ColTran inability to integrate referential image colors (c.f. Figure 7) is also reflected here, where it obtains worse pixel-level metric scores.

**Table 1. Image-level evaluation for SOTA methods on several datasets.** Since the SCS task is an ill-conditioned problem that each pixel has various semantic colors, more reasonable image-level FID and CN are used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>ImageNet-C</th>
<th>CelebA-HQ</th>
<th>COCO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FID</td>
<td>CN</td>
<td>FID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRemaster + DRN</td>
<td>33.993</td>
<td>2.996</td>
<td>34.842</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Pixel-level evaluation for SOTAs.** Top and bottom parts are for automatic and referential modes, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>ImageNet-C</th>
<th>CelebA-HQ</th>
<th>COCO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PSNR</td>
<td>SSIM</td>
<td>PSNR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DR + DRN</td>
<td>19.343</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>25.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC + DRN</td>
<td>22.126</td>
<td>0.842</td>
<td>26.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours-Auto</td>
<td>22.807</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>27.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ColTran</td>
<td>20.734</td>
<td>0.845</td>
<td>24.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DR + DRN</td>
<td>24.671</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>28.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours-Ref</td>
<td>27.694</td>
<td>0.929</td>
<td>30.741</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 7. Qualitative comparisons with SOTA methods on ImageNet-C and COCO datasets.** The left and right parts are simultaneously image colorization and super-resolution results in automatic and referential modes, respectively. The upper left number is the inference FPS speed of the corresponding method. Note that ColTran inputs an extra HR gray-scale image that is unfair for other approaches, so we reduce its input gray-scale image to the same resolution as other methods, i.e., ColTran-LR.
Table 3. Human study about the authenticity of images with different methods in automatic and referential modes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison Methods</th>
<th>Authenticity (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ours v.s. AutoColor + DRN</td>
<td>77.3 v.s. 22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours v.s. DEmaster + DRN</td>
<td>90.6 v.s. 9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours v.s. InstColor + DRN</td>
<td>59.4 v.s. 40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours v.s. DEmaster + DRN</td>
<td>82.7 v.s. 17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours v.s. DEVC + DRN</td>
<td>95.1 v.s. 4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours v.s. CoTran</td>
<td>68.6 v.s. 31.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Quantitative ablation study for different loss terms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\mathcal{L}_C$</th>
<th>$\mathcal{L}_P$</th>
<th>$\mathcal{L}_{Adv}$</th>
<th>FID</th>
<th>CN</th>
<th>PSNR</th>
<th>SSIM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.290</td>
<td>4.128</td>
<td>26.172</td>
<td>0.898</td>
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<tr>
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<td>✓</td>
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<td>15.068</td>
<td>4.196</td>
<td>27.456</td>
<td>0.918</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.616</td>
<td>5.171</td>
<td>26.536</td>
<td>0.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.632</td>
<td>5.288</td>
<td>27.694</td>
<td>0.923</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Quantitative ablation study of our approach with different components on the ImageNet-C dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>BCAttn</th>
<th>PVCAttn</th>
<th>CPM</th>
<th>FID</th>
<th>CN</th>
<th>PSNR</th>
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4.3 Ablation Study and Further Assessment

**Loss Functions.** Following the aforementioned procedure for generating the validation images (under referential mode), we quantitatively evaluate the effectiveness of each loss function in Table 4 and draw a conclusion: Each loss function contributes to the model performance, and the model obtains the best score when all loss terms are applied.

**Network Components.** We perform quantitative experiments to evaluate each component of our approach. Specifically, we modify a simple version of PVCAttn as Basic Cross-Attention (BCAttn) that removes pyramid structure and valves, which is used for a fair comparison with our PVCAttn. Results in Table 5 demonstrate the effectiveness of each component, and our approach obtains the highest metric scores when both proposed components are used. Moreover, the CPM module obtains competitive results even though it is designed for continuous magnification.

**CPM Efficiency.** We compare CPM module with Meta-SR (Hu et al. 2019) that also achieves continuous magnification, and results indicate that CPM is more efficient as it has fewer parameters and a ×2 faster running speed, i.e., 0.35M vs. 0.45M and 178FPS vs. 92 FPS.

**Interpretability of PVCAttn.** In Figure 8, we visualize the attention maps of PVCAttn, focusing on a few points in the source image. Visualized attention maps indicate that each location pays more attention to semantically similar areas, and the location in the low-resolution feature map focuses on more average areas (c.f., right-bottom attention map).

**Multi-Magnification Generation.** Benefit from the CPM module, SCSNet can generate target images at continuous magnification. As shown in Figure 9, the generated results have consistent color stability for different resolutions and smooth transitions for adjacent images. Dynamic video can be seen in the supplementary material.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose an efficient paradigm to address SCS task and design an end-to-end SCSNet to complete this goal. Concretely, a PVCAttn module is designed to aggregate feature information between source and reference images effectively, while the CPM efficiently models the discrete pixel mapping in a continuous space to generate target images at arbitrary magnification. Extensive experiments demonstrate our approach’s superiority for achieving the SCS task well and generating high-quality images. In the future, we will combine general detection and segmentation methods with current colorization branch to provide more semantic-knowability information.
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