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*Intituled*

***A Comparative Study of Conventional Interpolation Image Super Resolution Algorithms***

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### Abstract

This master thesis deals with image super resolution (ISR) problem. We focus on the differences between conventional image interpolation algorithms and deep learning-based algorithms. The considered SR algorithms are applied on the most used datasets in this field. Many simulation experiments are conducted to highlight the efficiency of deep learning SR algorithms. The original images are considered as High resolution (HR) images. Low resolution (LR) images are generated from HR ones, by simple downsampling. Performance assessment of the different SR algorithms is in terms of Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR) and Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) in addition to the visual quality of the obtained SR image. From the obtained results, deep learning SR algorithms allow a significant enhancement of the LR images and are the best algorithms in terms of PSNR and SSIM.

### Résumé :

Ce mémoire de maîtrise traite le problème de la super résolution d'image (ISR). Nous nous concentrons sur les différences entre les algorithmes d'interpolation d'images conventionnels et les algorithmes basés sur l'apprentissage profond. Les algorithmes SR considérés sont appliqués sur les ensembles de données les plus utilisés dans ce domaine. De nombreuses expériences de simulation sont menées pour évaluer l'efficacité des algorithmes SR d'apprentissage profond. Les images originales sont considérées comme des images haute résolution (HR). Les images basse résolution (LR) sont générées à partir des images HR, par simple échantillonnage. L'évaluation des performances des différents algorithmes SR se fait en termes de Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR) et Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) en plus de la qualité visuelle de l'image SR obtenue. A partir des résultats obtenus, les algorithmes SR de deep learning permettent une amélioration significative des images LR et sont les meilleurs algorithmes en termes de PSNR et SSIM..

### ملخص:

تتناول هذه الرسالة الرئيسية مشكلة الدقة الفائقة للصورة (ISR). نركز على الاختلافات بين خوارزميات استيفاء الصور التقليدية والخوارزميات القائمة على التعلم العميق. يتم تطبيق خوارزميات SR المدروسة على مجموعات البيانات الأكثر استخدامًا في هذا المجال. يتم إجراء العديد من تجارب المحاكاة لتسليط الضوء على كفاءة خوارزميات التعلم العميق SR.

تعتبر الصور الأصلية صورًا عالية الدقة (HR). يتم إنشاء صور منخفضة الدقة (LR) من صور الموارد البشرية، عن طريق التقليل البسيط. يتم تقييم أداء خوارزميات SR المختلفة من حيث نسبة إشارة الضوضاء إلى الضوضاء (PSNR) ومؤشر التشابه الهيكلي (SSIM) بالإضافة إلى الجودة المرئية لصورة SR التي تم الحصول عليها. من النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها، تسمح خوارزميات التعلم العميق SR بتحسين كبير لصور LR وهي أفضل الخوارزميات من حيث PSNR و SSIM..

## *List of Figures*

<b>Figure 1.1</b> Nearest Neighbor Interpolation [10].....	6
<b>Figure 1.2:</b> Architecture of VDSR .....	8
<b>Figure 1.3:</b> Architecture of EDSR.....	9
<b>Figure 1.4:</b> Training Objectives (Objective Function).....	10
<b>Figure 1.5:</b> Architecture of CAR algorithm [16] .....	11
<b>Figure 1.6:</b> CAR architecture based on EDSR network.....	11
<b>Figure 2.1:</b> Diagram representing the relationships of AI-related domains.	18
<b>Figure 2.2:</b> The dissimilarity between the two forms of learning.	19
<b>Figure 2.3:</b> The architecture of neural networks	20
<b>Figure 2.4:</b> Typical Artificial Neural Network	21
<b>Figure 2.5:</b> Block diagram of artificial neuron.	22
<b>Figure 2.6:</b> Demonstration of Layer Neural Network	23
<b>Figure 2.7:</b> Training procedure of neural networks	24
<b>Figure 2.8 :</b> Conventional architecture of a convolutional neural network	26
<b>Figure 3.1 :</b> Original HR images of the used datasets	33
<b>Figure 3.2 :</b> Flowchart of interpolation algorithms	34
<b>Figure 3.3:</b> Bicubic interpolation	35
<b>Figure 3.4:</b> Nearest Neighbor	36
<b>Figure 3.5:</b> Bilinear Interpolation	37
<b>Figure 3.6:</b> Flowchart of VDSR and EDSR algorithms	38
<b>Figure 3.7:</b> EDSR	40
<b>Figure 3.8:</b> VDSR	40
<b>Figure 3.9:</b> Flowchart of CAR	41
<b>Figure 3.10:</b> First results of CAR	43
<b>Figure 3.11:</b> CAR results Set 5, scale factor=2	44

<b>Figure 3.12:</b> CAR results Set 5, scale factor x4	45
<b>Figure 3.13:</b> CAR results Set 14, scale factor x2	46
<b>Figure 3.14:</b> CAR results Set 14, scale factor x4	47
<b>Figure 3.15:</b> CAR results for LIVE 1, s=x2	48
<b>Figure 3.16:</b> CAR results, LIVE 1, scale=x4	49



## List of Tables

<b>Table 3.1</b> Used Datasets .....	30
<b>Table 3.2</b> Dataset Set5.....	31
<b>Table 3.3</b> Dataset Set14 .....	31
<b>Table 3.4:</b> LIVE1 .....	31
<b>Table 3.5</b> PSNR & SSIM of Bicubic Interpolation.....	34
<b>Table 3.6:</b> PSNR & SSIM Nearest Neighbor.....	35
<b>Table 3.7:</b> Bilinear Interpolation.....	36
<b>Table 3.8:</b> PSNR & SSIM of VDSR .....	38
<b>Table 3.9:</b> PSNR & SSIM of EDSR .....	39
<b>Table 3.10:</b> meanPSNR & meanSSIM values of CAR.....	42
<b>Table 3.11:</b> PSNR & SSIM by CAR, for each image .....	42

## **List of Abbreviations**

<b>AI</b>	<b>Artificial intelligence</b>
<b>BCI</b>	<b>Cubic Interpolation</b>
<b>BLI</b>	<b>Bilinear Interpolation</b>
<b>CAR</b>	<b>Content Adaptive Resample</b>
<b>CNN</b>	<b>Convolutional Neural Network</b>
<b>DL</b>	<b>Deep Learning</b>
<b>EDSR</b>	<b>Enhanced Deep Super Resolution</b>
<b>HR</b>	<b>High Resolution</b>
<b>LR</b>	<b>Low Resolution</b>
<b>MSE</b>	<b>Mean Square Error</b>
<b>ML</b>	<b>Machine Learning</b>
<b>MOS</b>	<b>Mean Opinion Score</b>
<b>NN's</b>	<b>Neural Networks</b>
<b>NIQE</b>	<b>Naturalness Image Quality Evaluator</b>
<b>PSNR</b>	<b>Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio</b>
<b>ReLU</b>	<b>Rectified Linear Unit</b>
<b>SR</b>	<b>Super Resolution</b>
<b>SSIM</b>	<b>Similarity Structural Index Metric</b>
<b>VDSR</b>	<b>Very Deep Super Resolution</b>

## Table of Contents

Table of Contents ..... ii

### Chapter 1: Basic Concepts of Super-Resolution

1.1 Introduction : .....3  
1.2 Problem formulation of image super-resolution process :.....3  
1.3 Conventional SR Algorithms:.....4  
    1.3.1 Bilinear interpolation :.....5  
    1.3.2 Linear interpolation .....6  
    1.3.3 Spline interpolation.....7  
1.4 Super-Resolution (SR) Algorithms Based on Deep Neural Networks.....7  
    1.4.1 Very Deep Super Resolution VDSR.....8  
    1.4.2 Enhanced Deep Super-Resolution Network Algorithm (EDSR).....8  
    1.4.3 CAR Algorithm: Content Adaptive Resampler .....10  
1.5 Performance Assessment .....11  
1.6 Conclusion .....13

### Chapter 2: Principles of Deep Learning

2.1 Introduction.....18  
2.2 Machine Learning (ML) .....18  
    2.2.1 Supervised learning .....19  
    2.2.2 Unsupervised learning .....19  
2.3 Deep Learning (DL) .....19  
2.4 Neural Networks (NNs).....20  
    2.4.1 The architecture of neural networks .....20  
    2.4.2 Basic Principles of Neural Networks.....20  
    2.4.3 Forward propagation.....22  
    2.4.4 Loss function .....23  
    2.4.5 Training the neural network.....24  
2.5 Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) .....25  
    2.5.1 CNN Components.....26

## Summary

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2.6 Conclusion .....	28
<b>Chapter 3: Implementation of Image Super-Resolution Algorithms based on Conventional and Deep Learning SR Algorithms</b>	
3.1 Introduction: .....	30
3.2 Used material: .....	30
3.3 Used data sets:.....	30
3.4 Original Images:.....	32
3.5 Implementation of SR Algorithms .....	33
3.5.1 Conventional SR Algorithms .....	33
3.5.1.1 Bicubic Interpolation: .....	34
3.5.2 Implementation of SR Deep Neural Networks: .....	37
3.5.2.1 VDSR.....	
3.5.2.2 EDSR.....	;;;;
3.5.2.3 CAR.....	;;;;;
3.6 Conclusion .....	50
<b>General Conclusion</b> .....	;;;;

### General introduction

In recent years [1], the demand for high-resolution images has significantly increased due to the rapid advancement of imaging devices and the proliferation of multimedia applications. However, capturing high-resolution images can be challenging and costly. This challenge has led to the development of image super-resolution (SR) techniques, which aim to enhance the resolution of low-resolution images and provide visually appealing and detailed results.

Interpolation-based algorithms have long been used as conventional approaches for SR [1] as they are computationally efficient and easy to implement. These methods rely on interpolation techniques to estimate the missing high-frequency information in low-resolution images. However, their performance is often limited in preserving fine details and generating realistic textures.

Deep learning-based approaches [2] on the other hand, have revolutionized various computer vision tasks, including image super-resolution. By leveraging the power of deep neural networks, these algorithms have demonstrated remarkable performance improvements in terms of reconstructing high-resolution details and producing visually enhanced results. They learn from large-scale datasets (big data) and exploit the inherent patterns within images to generate high-resolution outputs (estimated version of Low Resolution (LR) images).

The objective of this End of our Study Project is to conduct a comparative study between conventional interpolation-based algorithms and deep learning-based algorithms for image super-resolution. By evaluating and analyzing the performance of these techniques, we aim to gain insights into their strengths, weaknesses, and areas of applicability.

The manuscript is organized on this general introduction and three chapters in addition to a general conclusion.

In chapter one: we present the basic concepts of the field of Image super resolution

In chapter two: we give the most used terminology of the field of deep learning;

In chapter three: we explain our implementation to three deep learning image super resolution networks, namely: very deep learning SR VDSR, Enhanced SR EDSR and Content adaptive resampler (CAR networks in addition to three conventional SR algorithms: bicubic, bilinear and nearest neighbor. We give the global remarks in the general conclusion.

# *Chapter 1*

## **Basic Concepts of Super-Resolution**

---

### **Abstract**

This chapter focuses on the process of image super-resolution (SR) enhancement. Initially, we will provide an introduction to the key concepts underlying the SR process.

Subsequently, we will delve into the explanation of three SR algorithms that are rooted in deep learning principles.

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### *Summary*

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1.1 Introduction : .....	3
1.2 Problem formulation of image super-resolution process :.....	3
1.3 Conventional SR Algorithms:.....	4
1.4 Super-Resolution (SR) Algorithms Based on Deep Neural Networks .....	7
1.5 Performance Assessment .....	11
1.6 Conclusion .....	13

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## 1.1 Introduction :

Image super-resolution (SR) is an important task in image processing methods that improve the resolution of input images. In the last two decades [3] significant progress has been made in the super-resolution (SR) field [3], especially by using deep learning methods. So, Super-resolution is a challenging problem in image processing that involves increasing the spatial resolution of an image beyond the original resolution. There are many applications of super-resolution, including medical imaging, surveillance, and video processing. Recent advances in deep learning have led to the development of powerful super-resolution methods based on different deep learning networks such as: Very deep Learning Network (VDSR) [4], Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) [5], Enhanced deep learning SR (EDSR) [6] and Content Adaptive Resolution (CAR) [7] networks. Overall, Super-Resolution is an important and active area of research with many practical applications. While there is no one-size-fits-all solution to the super-resolution problem, a combination of different methods can be used to achieve high-quality and efficient super-resolution for various applications.

In our work, we have first implemented the conventional interpolation algorithms, namely: bicubic, bilinear and nearest neighbor algorithms. Then, we have implemented VDSR, EDSR and CAR networks as we will detailed in the next sections.

So, this chapter describes the basic concepts of image super-resolution. We first present problem formulation and the conventional Image super-resolution algorithms. A focus on the Bicubic SR algorithm will be discussed. The SR conventional algorithms will be classified into three categories, conventional algorithms, supervised learning-based algorithms, and unsupervised learning-based algorithms. Finally, we introduce the mostly used metrics in image super-resolution, namely: Mean square error (MSE), Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR), Similarity structural Index Metric (SSIM). and Naturelness Image Quality Evaluation (NIQE). PSNR and SSIM will be used in our simulation study to establish a quantitative qualitative comparison of the considered SR algorithms.

## 1.2 Problem formulation of image super-resolution process :

Image super-resolution (SR) refers to the process of reconstructing a high-resolution (HR) image from a low-resolution (LR) image input [8]. The LR image, denoted as  $I_{xLR}$ , is typically the output of a degradation function, as demonstrated in the equation 1.1:

$$I_{xLR} = \mathbf{d}(I_{yHR}, \boldsymbol{\delta}) \quad 1.1$$

$\mathbf{d}$  Is the degradation function in image super-resolution (SR), represents the operator for converting a high-resolution (HR) image to a low-resolution (LR) image. The input HR image, or reference image, is denoted as  $I_{yHR}$ , while  $\boldsymbol{\delta}$  represents the input parameters of the degradation function, such as scaling factor, blur, or noise. In practice, the degradation process and its parameters are typically unknown [1], and only LR images are available to obtain SR images through HR algorithms. The SR process aims to predict the inverse of the degradation function,  $\mathbf{d}$ , to reconstruct the HR image from the LR input.

$$\mathbf{g}(I_{xLR}, \boldsymbol{\delta}) = \mathbf{d}^{-1}(I_{xLR}) = I_{yE} \approx I_{ySR} \quad 1.2$$

The function  $\mathbf{g}$  represents the SR function (or the super resolution algorithm), where  $\mathbf{d}$  represents the input parameters of the function  $\mathbf{g}$ , and  $I_{yE}$  denotes the estimated HR value corresponding to the input  $I_{xLR}$  image.

The degradation process of the input LR images is influenced by various factors like sensor-induced noise, loss compression-induced artifacts Gaussian or, speckle noise, motion blur (in video frames), and misfocused images, and the exact process is unknown. In our study only, a single downsampling function is considered as the image degradation function, such that:

$$\mathbf{d}(I_{yHR}, \boldsymbol{\vartheta}) = (I_{yHR}) \downarrow \mathbf{s}_f, \{\mathbf{s}\} \subseteq \boldsymbol{\vartheta} \quad 1.2$$

$\downarrow$ : denotes the downsampling operator by a scalar factor  $\mathbf{s}_f$  ( $\mathbf{s}_f = 2$  or  $4$ ).

### 1.3 Conventional SR Algorithms:

Image interpolation, also known as image upscaling, is a commonly used technique in various image-related applications. Interpolation methods, such as nearest neighbor interpolation, linear interpolation, and cubic interpolation, are conventional methods used for this purpose.

Bicubic interpolation (BCI) is another form of cubic interpolation that takes into account  $4 \times 4$  pixels on both axes, resulting in smoother results with fewer artifacts than bilinear interpolation (BLI). However, BCI is slower due to its increased computation complexity [1].



### 1.3.1 Bilinear interpolation :

Bilinear interpolation is a conventional interpolation method commonly used in image processing to increase the resolution of an image. It is a relatively simple method that estimates the color value of a missing pixel by using the color values of the four closest pixels to the missing pixel.

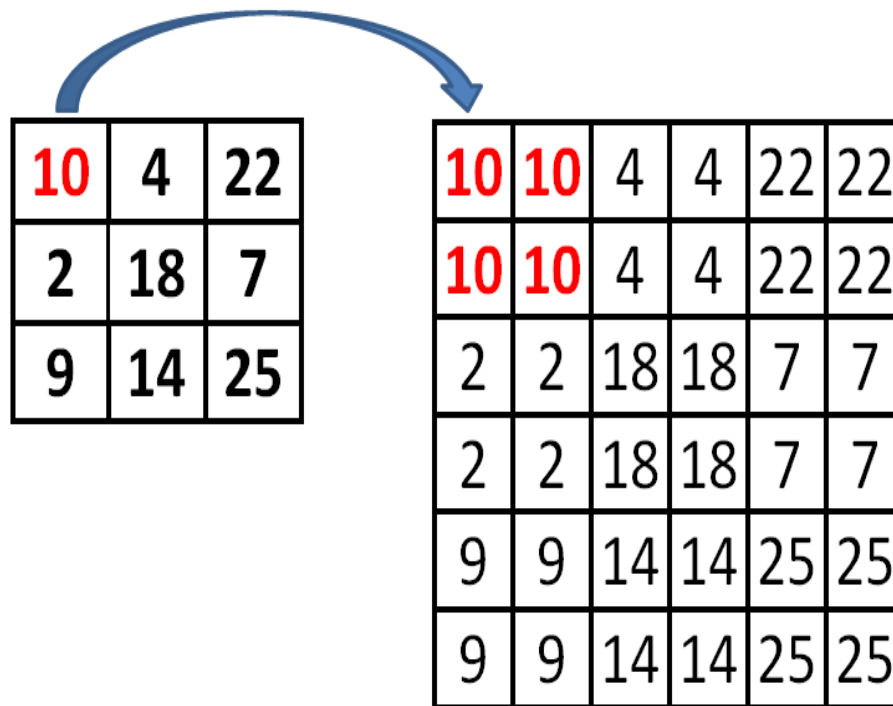
To perform bilinear interpolation, the color values of the two closest pixels in each direction (horizontal and vertical) are first averaged. The resulting two averages are then averaged again to produce the estimated color value for the missing pixel. This technique works well for images with smooth color gradients or transitions.

While bilinear interpolation can produce smoother images than nearest-neighbor interpolation, it can result in blurred edges or loss of details. This is because bilinear interpolation assumes that the color values change linearly between pixels, which may not always be the case in real-world images.

However, modern super-resolution techniques based on, deep learning-based methods, have surpassed conventional interpolation algorithm in terms of generating high-quality images with enhanced details

Nearest neighbor interpolation, as shown on Figure 1.1, is a simple and fast method of interpolation used in image processing and super-resolution. In this method, the value of a new pixel in the high-resolution image is assigned to be the value of the nearest pixel in the low-resolution image. While nearest neighbor interpolation is fast and easy to implement, it can result in a blocky or pixelated appearance, especially when the scale factor is high. This is because the high-resolution image is simply a replication of the low-resolution image, resulting in a loss of detail and resolution [9].

Therefore, nearest neighbor interpolation is generally not recommended for super-resolution tasks where high image quality is desired. However, it may be suitable for certain applications where speed is more important than image quality, such as real-time video processing. Figure 1.1 shows an example of nearest neighbor interpolation



**Figure 1.1** Nearest Neighbor Interpolation [10]

### 1.3.2 Linear interpolation

Linear interpolation is a common method of interpolation used in image processing and super-resolution. In this method, a new pixel in the high-resolution image is estimated as a weighted average of the surrounding pixels in the low-resolution image.

Linear interpolation is a simple and computationally efficient method of interpolation that can provide good results when the scale factor is small. However, it can result in a loss of detail and resolution when the scale factor is large, as it does not take into account higher-order information such as texture or patterns in the image [11]. Equation 1.5 describes the rule of computing the new pixel:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_1 + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_1) \frac{(\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{y}_1)}{(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1)} \quad 1.3$$

Where

- $x_1$  and  $y_1$  are the first coordinates
- $x_2$  and  $y_2$  are the second coordinates

- 
- $x$  is the point to perform the interpolation
  - $y$  is the interpolated value

### 1.3.3 Spline interpolation

Spline interpolation is a method of interpolation used in image processing and super-resolution that involves fitting a piecewise polynomial curve through the image pixels to estimate the missing values.

In spline interpolation, a set of control points is selected from the low-resolution image, and a piecewise polynomial curve is fitted through these points. The resulting curve is then used to estimate the missing pixel values in the high-resolution image. It can provide smoother and more accurate results than linear or cubic interpolation, especially when the scale factor is large. This is because the piecewise polynomial curve which can capture higher-order information such as texture and patterns in the image, resulting in a more realistic and detailed super-resolved image.

However, spline interpolation can be computationally intensive and may require a larger number of control points than other methods. It can also introduce artifacts and noise in the image if the control points are not well chosen [12].

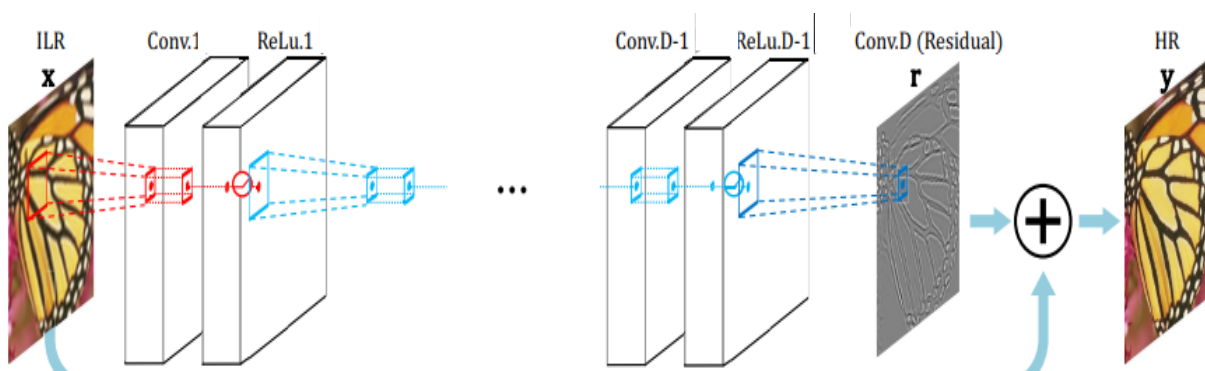
## 1.4 Super-Resolution (SR) Algorithms Based on Deep Neural Networks

Deep learning has numerous advantages when it comes to super-resolution (SR) image processing [2]. It enables the learning of complex features at various levels of abstraction, can handle large datasets, can handle non-linear relationships, and can be optimized end-to-end. These advantages allow deep learning models to produce more accurate, visually appealing, and natural-looking super-resolved images. Consequently, deep learning has significantly improved the accuracy and speed of SR algorithms and has revolutionized the field of SR image processing [13].

In the following, we will describe three of deep SR algorithms, namely: the Enhanced deep learning SR (EDSR) network, its improved version Content adaptive resampler (CAR) and the basic very deep learning SR network (VDSR). These networks have been implemented in our simulation experiments, in order to extract the limitations and advantages of each one.

### 1.4.1 Very Deep Super Resolution VDSR

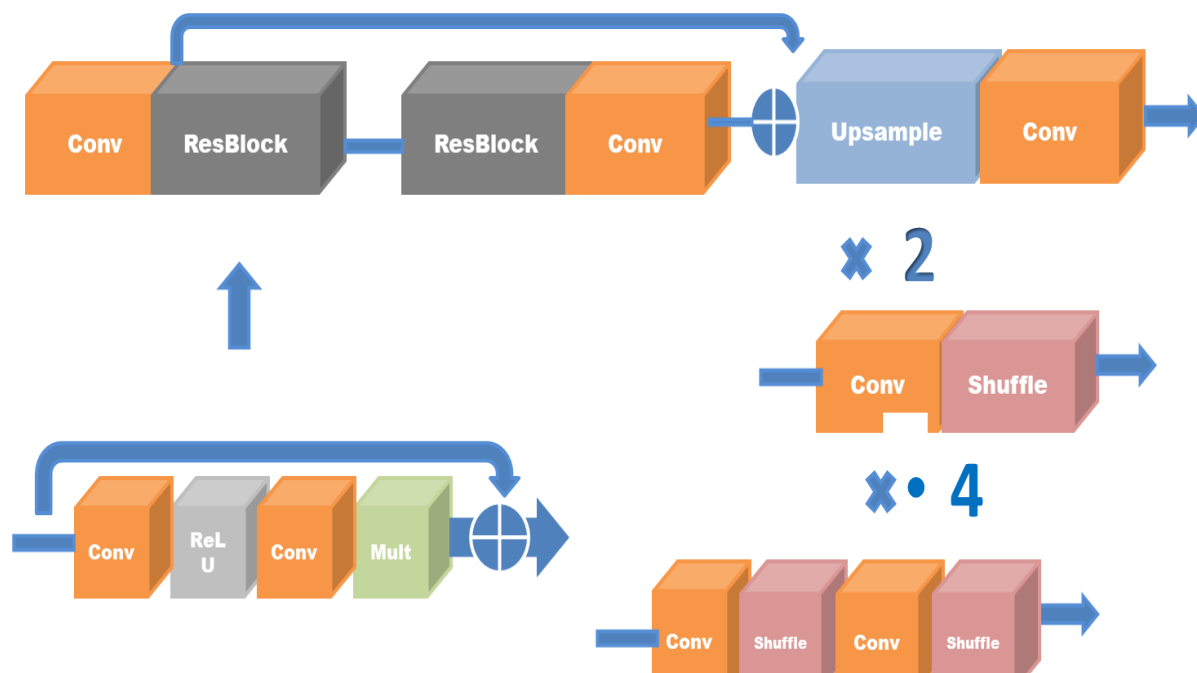
VDSR is a deep learning-based method for image super-resolution based on Convolutional Neural network architecture (CNN). It uses deep convolutional neural networks to generate high-resolution images from low-resolution inputs. By stacking numerous convolutional layers, VDSR captures complex relationships between LR and HR images, enhancing fine textures and sharp edges. During training, it minimizes the difference between predicted and ground truth images. VDSR is versatile, handles various upscaling factors, and benefits from parallel computing for faster processing. It has shown exceptional performance, making it valuable for tasks like digital photography, medical imaging, and video processing [4]. Figure 1.2 shows the architecture of VDSR network, where  $x$ ,  $r$  and  $y$  are LR, residual and SR image respectively. It consists on a consecutive layers of convolution (Conv) and Non linear layers (activation function ReLU). LR image is added to the extracted residual image to obtain the SR image.



**Figure 1.2:** Architecture of VDSR

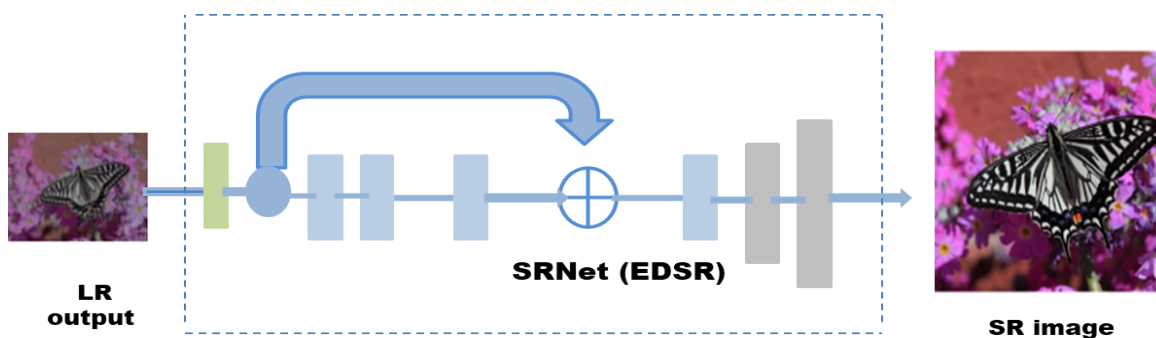
### 1.4.2 Enhanced Deep Super-Resolution Network Algorithm (EDSR)

The EDSR algorithm is a deep learning-based super-resolution network that has achieved notable performance improvements. These enhancements are attributed to the optimization process, which involves removing redundant modules from conventional residual networks. Additionally, the EDSR algorithm benefits from the expansion of its model size, while ensuring stable training procedures, which further improves its performance [14]. Figure 1.3 shows the EDSR network architecture.



**Figure 1.3:** Architecture of EDSR

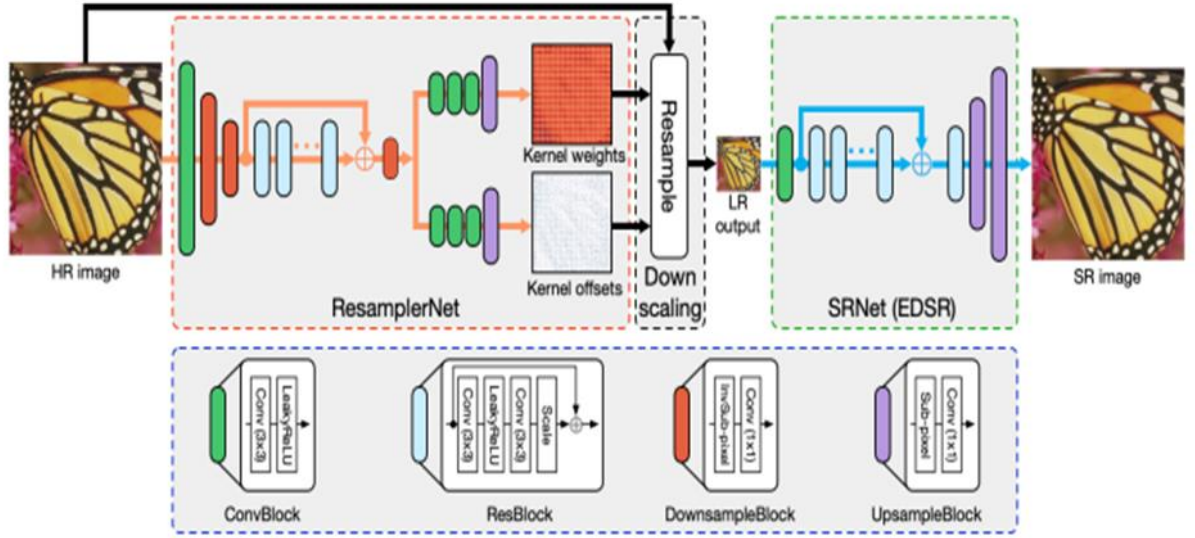
The framework consists of three main components as shown in Figure 1.3: the ResamplerNet, the Downscaling module, and the SRNet. The task of the ResamplerNet is for estimating content-adaptive resampling kernels and corresponding offsets for each pixel in the downsampled image. To train the ResamplerNet, the SRNet, which can be any differentiable upsampling operation, is used to guide the training process by minimizing the SR error (MSE). The entire framework is trained end-to-end by backpropagating error signals through the differentiable downscaling module. The composition of each building block is further detailed within the blue dashed frame [5] in Figure 1.4.



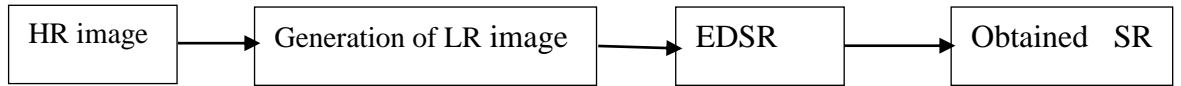
**Figure 1.4:** Training Objectives (Objective Function)

### 1.4.3 CAR Algorithm: Content Adaptive Resampler

In this section, we describe the Enhanced version of EDSR network:-Content Adaptive resampler (CAR) network,-in which the image upscaling module is used to guide the training of the Content Adaptive Resampler (CAR) model. CAR is a learned image downscaling technique that takes into account the upscaling process. The CAR model generates content adaptive resampling kernels for the original high-resolution (HR) input to generate pixels on the downsampled image. Additionally, a differentiable upscaling (SR) module is used to upscale the low-resolution (LR) result to its corresponding HR counterpart. By backpropagating the reconstruction error throughout the framework is used to adjust model parameters. This framework achieves a new state-of-the-art SR performance through upscaling-guided image resamplers, which adaptively preserve detailed information that is essential to the upscaling process [15]. Figure 1.5 shows the CAR network architecture, and Figure 1.6 illustrates the relationship between EDSR and CAR networks.



**Figure 1.5:** Architecture of CAR algorithm [16]



**Figure 1.6:** CAR architecture based on EDSR network

## 1.5 Performance Assessment

- **Mean Squared Error (MSE):** This metric measures the average squared difference between the original image and the processed image. It is a simple and widely used metric but does not always correlate with human perception.

$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{M,N} [I_1(m,n) - I_2(m,n)]^2}{M \times N} \quad 1.4$$

Where  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  denote the originale HR image and the estimated SR image respectively of size  $M \times N$  each.

- **Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR):** This metric measures the ratio between the maximum possible value of a signal and the noise that affects the fidelity of its representation. It is commonly used to compare the quality of compressed images.

$$PSNR (dB) = 10 \times \log_{10} \frac{255^2}{MSE} \quad 1.5$$

- **Structural Similarity Index (SSIM):** This metric measures the structural similarity between the original image and the processed image. It takes into account the luminance, contrast, and structural information of the image and is considered to be a more accurate measure of image quality than MSE.

$$SSIM(x, y) = \frac{(2\mu_x\mu_y + C_1)(2\sigma_{xy} + C_2)}{(\mu_x^2 + \mu_y^2 + C_1)(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + C_2)} \quad 1.6$$

With:

- $\mu_x$  the pixel sample mean of  $x$
  - $\mu_y$  the pixel sample mean of  $y$
  - $\sigma_x^2$  the variance of  $x$
  - $\sigma_y^2$  the variance of  $y$
  - $\sigma_{xy}$  the covariance of  $x$  and  $y$
  - $C_1$ : Constant Correlation coefficient
  - $C_2$ : Constant Correlation coefficient
- 
- **Mean Opinion Score (MOS):** This metric measures the perceived quality of an image by asking human observers to rate the image on a scale from 1 to 5. It is a subjective metric and requires a large number of observers to obtain statistically significant results.
  - **Natural Image Quality Evaluator (NIQE):** This metric is a no-reference metric that measures the quality of an image based on its naturalness and complexity. It is designed to be more correlated with human perception than other no-reference metrics.



## 1.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has covered the basic concepts of Super-Resolution (SR) and provided an overview of different algorithms used in this process. The chapter began with the problem formulation of image super-resolution, highlighting the challenges and goals involved. It then explored conventional SR algorithms, which employ various techniques such as interpolation methods to enhance image resolution.

Furthermore, the chapter delved into the advancements brought about by deep neural networks in SR algorithms. These deep learning-based approaches leverage the power of machine learning to learn complex mappings between low-resolution and high-resolution image pairs. This enables the generation of visually plausible and detailed high-resolution outputs.

Overall, this chapter has laid the foundation for understanding the core principles and techniques used in the field of super-resolution. It has highlighted the importance of image information and machine learning algorithms in achieving high-quality super-resolution results. With further research and advancements in deep learning and computational resources, the field of super-resolution holds great potential for addressing real-world challenges and advancing various applications in computer vision and image processing.

# Chapter 2

## *Principles of Deep Learning*

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### **Abstract**

This chapter serves as an introduction to the fundamental concepts of machine learning and deep learning. Specifically, we will provide clear definitions of the terminology commonly used in these fields.

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### *Summary*

---

2.1 Introduction.....	.....
2.2 Machine Learning (ML) .....	.....
2.3 Deep Learning (DL) .....	.....
2.4 Neural Networks (NNs).....	.....
2.5 Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) .....	.....
2.6 Conclusion .....	.....

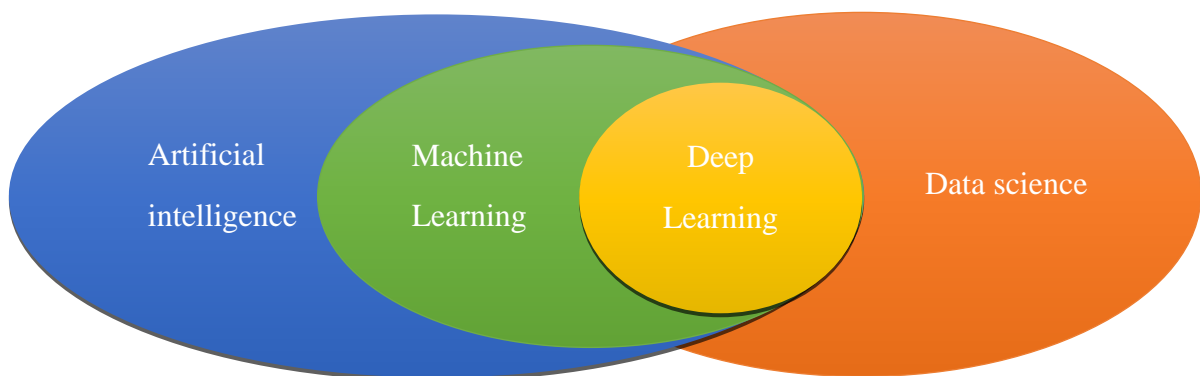
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## 2.1 Introduction

Deep learning is a type of machine learning that uses artificial neural networks to learn from complex data and make predictions. It is especially useful for tasks involving large amounts of data, such as image and speech recognition, natural language processing, autonomous driving, and image super-resolution as we will use in our study. Deep learning models consist of layers of interconnected nodes that automatically learn features from raw data so they can recognize patterns and make accurate predictions. However, developing and optimizing deep learning models requires massive computing power, expertise, and training data [2]. In this Chapter, we will describe the basic concepts of deep learning. For this task, we will first introduce machine learning, then we study the most used architectures of deep learning (DL). We will define the different parameters of a DL network.

## 2.2 Machine Learning (ML)

Machine learning (ML) refers to the process of teaching computers to learn from data using a variety of algorithms that can iteratively improve, explain, and predict outcomes. By absorbing and analyzing training data, machine learning algorithms are able to generate increasingly precise models. The output of this process is a machine learning model, which is the result of training the algorithm on the data [17]. The link between Artificial Intelligence (AI), ML, and DL with data science and computer vision is shown in Figure 2.1.



**Figure 2.1:** Diagram representing the relationships of AI-related domains.

There are two main categories of ML: supervised ML and unsupervised ML.

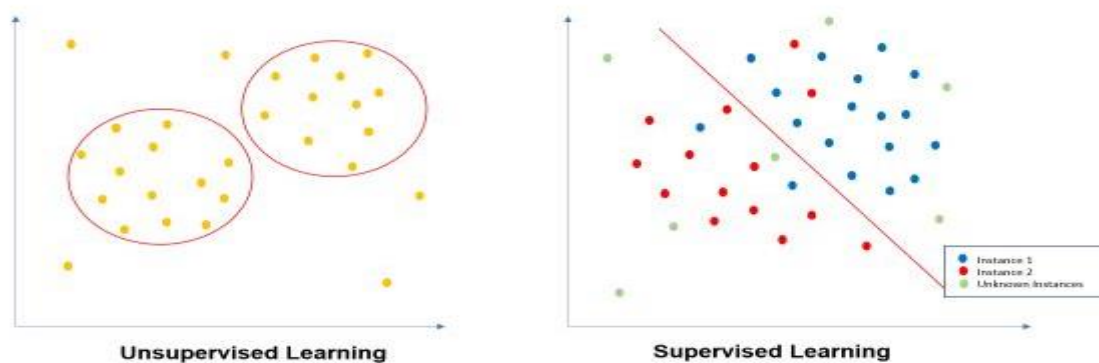
### 2.2.1 Supervised learning

Supervised Learning is the dominant learning paradigm in the fields of Machine Learning (ML) and Deep Learning (DL). This approach involves providing the machine learning algorithm with examples (data) of the task it needs to perform, allowing it to learn from these examples in a supervised manner. Supervised learning has a wide range of applications, including computer vision, regression, classification, and more. The majority of problems in Machine Learning and Deep Learning rely on supervised learning as the primary approach [18]

### 2.2.2 Unsupervised learning

Unsupervised learning is particularly useful when dealing with vast amounts of unlabeled data. This approach is especially well-suited to applications such as social media platforms (e.g. Twitter, Snapchat) that generate massive amounts of unstructured data without pre-existing labels or categories.

Figure 2.2 shows supervised ML vs unsupervised ML.



**Figure 2.2:** The dissimilarity between the two forms of learning.

### 2.3 Deep Learning (DL)

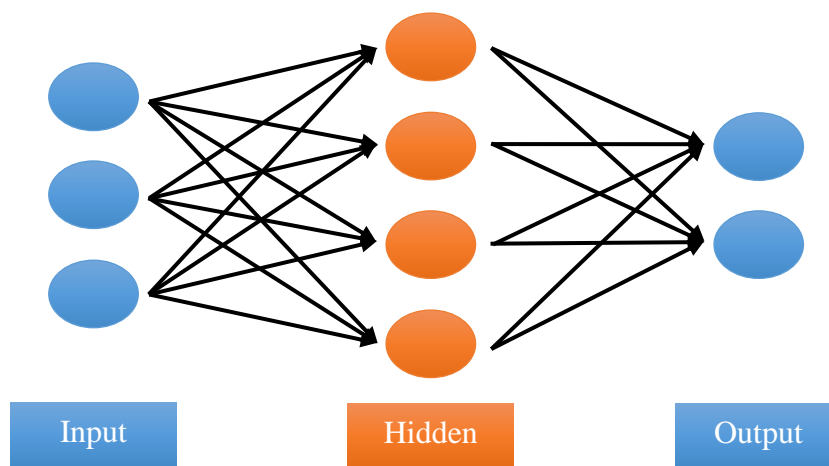
Deep learning is a type of artificial intelligence (AI) [3] that has evolved from machine learning, which is a form of automatic learning. Unlike following predetermined rules to the letter, deep learning allows machines to learn on their own. DL is a subfield of ML.

## 2.4 Neural Networks (NNs)

A neural network is composed of an input layer, one or more hidden layers, and an output layer. The input layer receives data, which is then transformed in the hidden and output layers using weights assigned to the nodes. A standard neural network can have thousands or even millions of interconnected simple processing nodes [19]

### 2.4.1 The architecture of neural networks

The architecture of a neural network refers to its overall structure and how its components are organized and connected. At the most basic level, a neural network is made up of layers of interconnected nodes or neurons. These neurons receive input data, perform mathematical operations on that data, and then pass the results to other neurons in the network [19]. Figure 2.3 shows this architecture with one hidden layer.



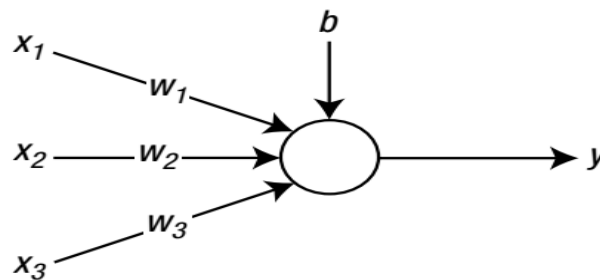
**Figure 2.3:** The architecture of neural networks

### 2.4.2 Basic Principles of Neural Networks

Neural networks are computational models that are inspired by the structure and function of biological neural networks, such as the human brain. At their core, neural networks consist of interconnected nodes or neurons that process and transmit information. As shown in Figure 2.4, the basic principles of neural networks include:

- **Activation function:** The activation function of a neuron determines the output of the neuron based on the weighted sum of its inputs. Common activation functions include the sigmoid and rectified linear unit (ReLU) functions

- **Weight and bias:** The connections between neurons in a neural network are represented by weights, which determine the strength of the connection. A bias term is also added to each neuron to allow for shifting the activation function.
- **Feedforward:** In a feedforward neural network, information flows in one direction, from the input layer through one or more hidden layers to the output layer.
- **Backpropagation:** a learning algorithm used to train neural networks. It involves calculating the error between the predicted output and the actual output and then adjusting the weights and biases of the network to minimize the error [20]
- **Overfitting and regularization:** Overfitting occurs when a neural network is too complex and fits the training data too closely, resulting in poor performance on new data. Regularization techniques, such as L1 and L2 regularization, prevent overfitting.
- **Hyperparameters:** Neural networks have many hyperparameters that need to be set, such as the number of layers, the number of neurons in each layer, the learning rate, and the regularization strength [21].



**Figure 2.4:** Typical Artificial Neural Network

Where:

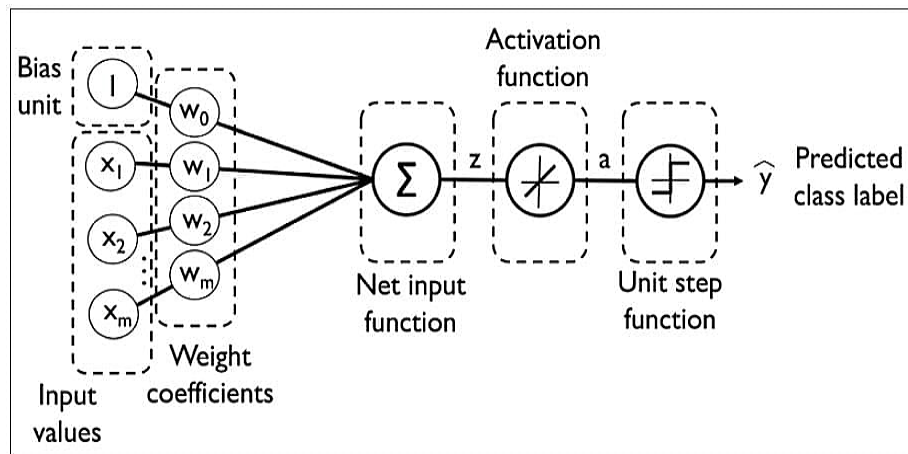
$x_i$ : the inputs of the network

$w_i$  denote the weights to be learned by the network,

$b$ : the bias of the network

$y$  the out put

Figure 2.5 shows the details of the different functions of an artificial neurone.



**Figure 2.5:** Block diagram of artificial neuron.

### 2.4.3 Forward propagation

It is the process by which information flows through a neural network, from the input layer through one or more hidden layers to the output layer. During forward propagation, each neuron in the network receives input from the neurons in the previous layer, processes that input using its activation function, and then passes the output to the neurons in the next layer. The forward propagation process can be summarized as follows [22] as illustrated in Figure 2.6:

- **Input layer:** The input layer of the neural network receives the input data, which is usually represented as a vector [22].
- **Hidden layers:** The input data is then passed through one or more hidden layers, each consisting of multiple neurons. Each neuron in the hidden layer receives input from the neurons in the previous layer, processes that input using its activation function, and then passes the output to the neurons in the next layer.
- **Output layer:** The final layer of the neural network is the output layer, which consists of one or more neurons. Each neuron in the output layer receives input from the neurons in the previous layer, processes that input using its activation function, and produces an output [23].
- **Output:** The output of the neural network is the final output produced by the output layer neurons.

- **Epoch:** The number of epochs is a hyperparameter that specifies how many times the learning algorithm will process the complete training dataset. During an epoch, the internal model parameters are updated for each sample in the training dataset, with an epoch typically consisting of one or multiple batches [24].
- **Batch:** The batch size is a hyperparameter that determines the number of samples to process before updating the internal model parameters. If a single batch contains all training samples, the learning algorithm is known as batch gradient descent. Stochastic gradient descent is the term used when a batch consists of one sample. Mini-batch gradient descent refers to the learning algorithm where the batch size ranges between one sample and the size of the training dataset

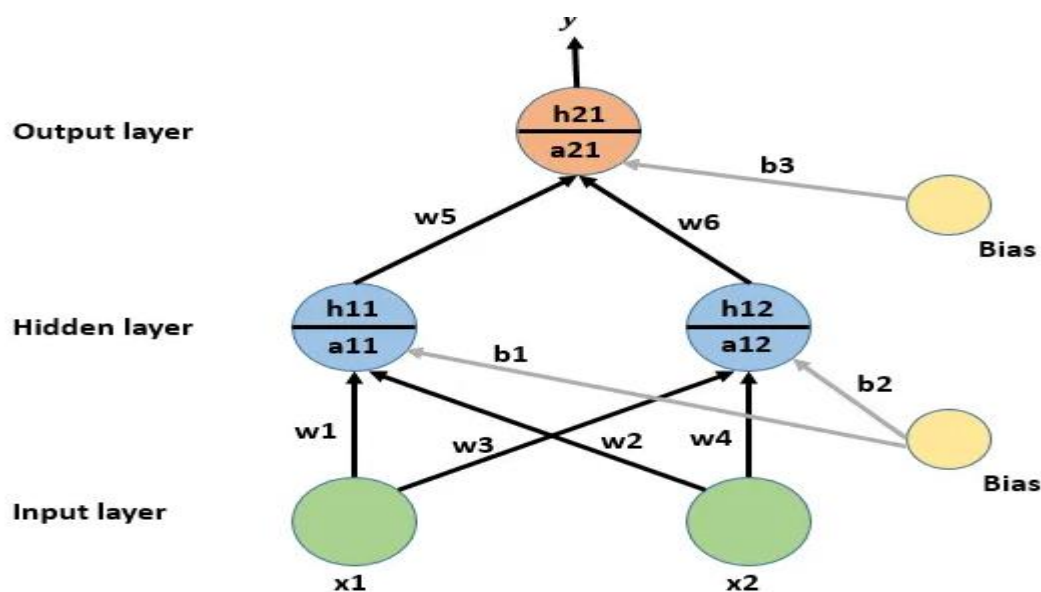


Figure 2.6: Demonstration of Layer Neural Network

#### 2.4.4 Loss function

A loss function is a mathematical function that measures the difference between the predicted output and the actual output in a neural network. It quantifies the error between the predicted output and the actual output for a given input and is used to optimize the weights and biases of the neural network during the training process. The choice of loss function depends on the nature of the problem being solved and the type of output produced by the neural network [14]. The loss function  $\mathcal{L}$  defined based on norm 1 (N1) as follows:



$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p \in \mathbf{P}} |x(p) - y(p)| \quad 2.1$$

Where  $x$  denotes the predicted output.

$y$  Denotes the actual output

Loss function can be defined based on norm2 (N2) as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p \in \mathbf{P}} (x(p) - y(p))^2 \quad 2.2$$

### 2.4.5 Training the neural network

Training a neural network involves adjusting the weights and biases of the network so that it can accurately map inputs to outputs, as shown in Figure 2.7. The process typically involves feeding the network a set of inputs (generally big data sets) and comparing its predicted output to the true output. The difference between the predicted output and the true output is used to adjust the network's weights and biases so that it can make better predictions in the future [25] and then converges.

The goal of training a neural network is to minimize the difference between its predicted output and the true output for a given input. This is achieved by using an optimization algorithm, such as stochastic gradient descent, to adjust the network's weights and biases. During training, the network is typically evaluated on a validation set to ensure that it is not overfitting the training data. Once the network has been trained, it can be used to make predictions on new data [25].

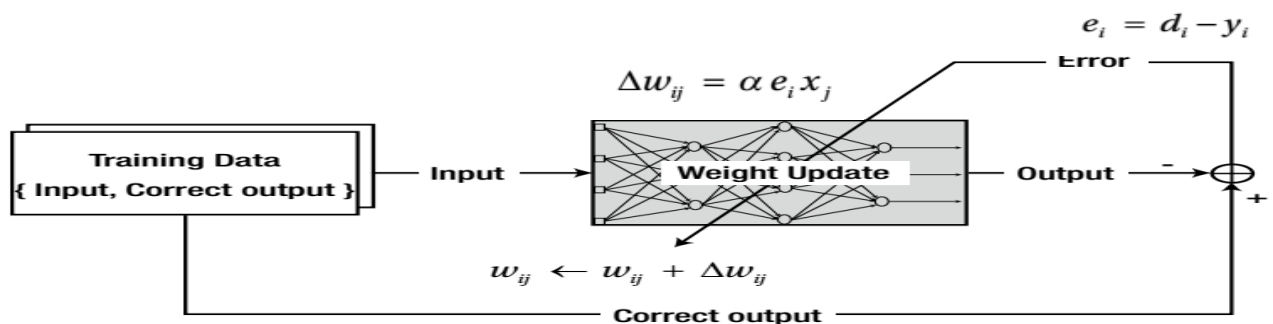


Figure 2.7: Training procedure of neural networks [25]

Where:

$x_j$ : the  $j$ th input vector,

$e_i$ : the error between the  $i$ th predicted and the true output

$w_{ij}$ : the weights to be determined

$\Delta w_{ij}$  the term of correction to update the weights

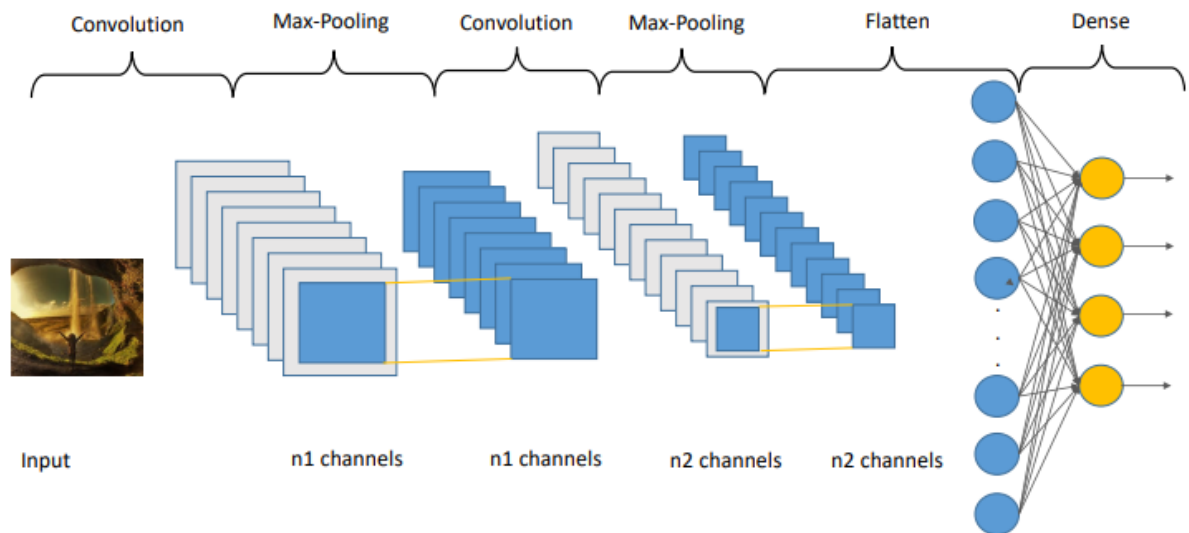
$\alpha$ : the learning rate (generally chosen very small)

- **Gradient descent:** is a popular optimization algorithm used in machine learning to find the optimal weights or parameters of a model by minimizing a loss function. It works by iteratively adjusting the weights in the direction of the steepest descent of the loss function until it reaches a minimum.
- **Regression:** is a type of supervised learning where the goal is to predict a continuous numerical output variable based on a set of input variables or features. Examples of regression problems include predicting housing prices, stock prices, or the amount of rainfall.

## 2.5 Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)

A Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) is a type of neural network that is designed to process data with a grid-like structure, such as images or time-series data. The key feature of a CNN, as illustrated in Figure 2.8 is the convolutional layer, which applies a set of learnable filters to the input data to extract features. The filters are learned during the training process and are optimized to detect specific patterns in the data [26].

CNNs are typically composed of several layers, including convolutional layers, pooling layers, and fully connected layers, as shown in Figure 2.8. The convolutional layers are responsible for extracting features from the input data (giving feature maps as the number of filters), while the pooling layers downsample the output of the convolutional layers to reduce the dimensionality of the feature maps. The fully connected layers are used to classify the input data on the considered output, based on the features extracted by the convolutional layers.



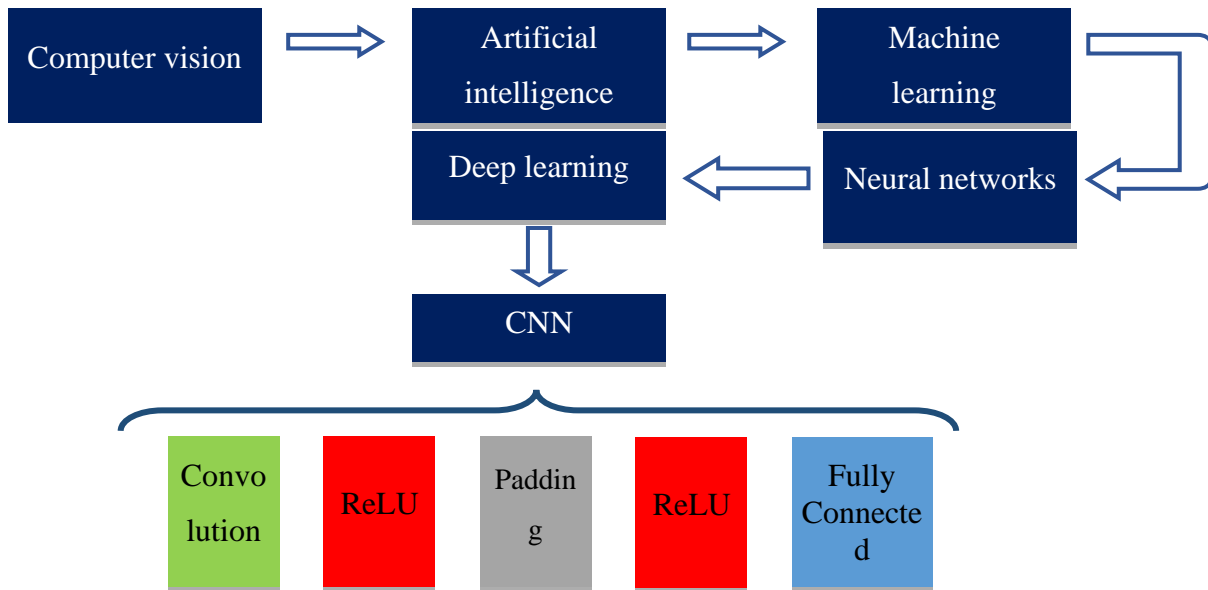
**Figure 2.8** :Conventional architecture of a convolutional neural network

The hidden layers after filtering and Maxpooling processes are represented by  $n1$  channels and  $n2$  channels, respectively. The Dense layer consists of a simple network, followed by four outputs.

The architecture of a CNN is highly flexible, and there are many variations on the basic architecture that have been developed over the years. The choice of architecture depends on the specific task being solved, the size and complexity of the input images, and the available computational resources [27].

### 2.5.1 CNN Components

The key components of a CNN include the input layer, convolutional layers, activation layers, pooling layers, fully connected layers, and output layers.



**Figure 2.9:** CNN architecture

- **Fully connected layer:** This layer takes the output of the pooling layer and assigns it to a specific class. A fully connected layer is similar to a layer in a traditional neural network, where each neuron in the layer is connected to every neuron in the previous layer.
- **The convolutional layer:** Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are very effective at recognizing the spatial and temporal relationships between pixels in images. They do this by using a convolutional layer that applies a series of filters to the input image. These filters create feature maps by convolving a small weight matrix with the input image, thereby extracting important features such as edges, lines, textures, and shapes. Each feature map represents a specific feature or pattern that the CNN has learned to recognize in the input image. Multiple filters generate multiple feature maps, each representing a unique set of learned features. The output of the convolutional layer undergoes a ReLU-like activation to introduce nonlinearity into the training process and then enters the pooling layer. The pooling layer downsamples the feature map to reduce its size while preserving the most important information [27].
- **Pooling layers:** CNNs typically include pooling layers that downsample the feature maps generated by convolutional layers. This helps reduce the dimensionality of

feature maps, making them more computationally efficient to process and reducing the risk of overfitting. Max pooling works by dividing the feature map into non-overlapping regions and taking the maximum value of each region. This operation preserves the most salient features of the feature map and discards the rest, resulting in a compressed representation of the input image. The pooling operation also helps enforce a degree of translation invariance in the features, meaning the network can recognize an object regardless of its position in the input image. Convolutional layers are used for feature detection and max pooling layers are used for feature selection [27].

- **Activation layers:** These layers introduce non-linearity into the model by applying an activation function to the output of the convolutional layer. The most commonly used activation function is ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit).

## 2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have introduced the fundamental concepts of machine learning and deep learning. We have explored the basics of neural networks, including their structure and the role of activation functions. Additionally, we have discussed the application of convolutional neural networks in image processing tasks. By understanding these concepts, we gained insight into the foundations of deep learning and its potential for solving complex problems in various fields.

# Chapter 3

## *Implementation of Image Super-Resolution Algorithms based on Conventional and Deep Learning SR Algorithms: a quantitative comparative study*

### **Abstract**

In this chapter, we first implement the conventional image super resolution algorithms; namely: Bicubic, Nearest Neighbor, and Bilinear interpolation. Then we implement the deep learning SR algorithms: VDSR, EDSR, and CAR. The comparative study is in terms of Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) and Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) in addition to the visual quality. We have performed many simulation experiments with the most used datasets in this field.

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### *Summary*

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3.1 Introduction: .....	30
3.2 Used material: .....	30
3.3 Used data sets:.....	30
3.4 Original Images:.....	32
3.5 Implementation of SR Algorithms .....	33
3.6 Conclusion .....	50

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### 3.1 Introduction:

In this chapter, we focus on presenting all our simulation results obtained in this study. Our experiments involved implementing various super-resolution (SR) algorithms, including conventional SR algorithms: bicubic, bilinear, and nearest neighbor. Then, we implement SR algorithms based on deep learning process: Very Deep Learning SR (VDSR), EDSR, and CAR. The quantitative comparative study is in terms of two well known metrics: PSNR and SSIM, in addition to evaluating the visual quality of the recovered images. Note that these two metrics are computed for each obtained test image. The mean values of PSNR and SSIM are computed at the end of all the simulation experiments. For the sake of objective comparison, we use the same datasets for all the considered SR algorithms

### 3.2 Used material:

The code sources were developed and executed in Python 3.9.13 using Spyder Navigator in Anaconda environment on a TOSHIBA PC with an i7-5600 vPro processor running Windows 10 Professional. PyTorch was the main programming package used in Python, specifically designed for deep learning implementations, in addition to the packages of image processing such as scikit-image. The primary code sources were run on Google Colab and MATLAB R2022a. The big datasets are processed thanks to the use of GPU online in Google Colab.

### 3.3 Used data sets:

The developed SR algorithms are tested on the datasets used in the recent literature; namely: **LIVE1**, **Set5** and **Set14** as summarized in Table 3.1

**Table 3.1** Used Datasets

Data sets	Quantity (nbr of images)	Format	Resolution
<b>Set5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>PNG</b>	<b>313.548</b>
<b>Set14</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>PNG</b>	<b>497.409</b>
<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>BMP</b>	<b>688.548</b>

For the sake of clarity, we give in Tables 3.2-3.4 the content of each base.

Table 3.2 Dataset Set5

Image	Resolution
Butterfly	(256x256)
Head	(280x280)
Woman	(228x344)
Baby	(512x512)
Bird	(288x288)

Table 3.3 Dataset Set14

Image	Resolution
Flowers	(500x362)
Coastguard	(352x288)
Bridge	(512x512)
Zebra	(586x391)
Foreman	(352x288)
Pepper	(512x512)
Lenna	(512x512)
Face	(276x276)
Ppt3	(529x656)
Barbara	(720x576)
Monarch	(768x512)
Comic	(250x361)
Baboon	(500x480)
Man	(512x512)

Table 3.4: LIVE1

IMAGE	Resolution
Caps	(768x512)
Manfishing	(634x438)
Sailing	(768x512)



<b>Carnivaldolls</b>	<b>(610x488)</b>
<b>Coinsinfountain</b>	<b>(640x512)</b>
<b>Rapids</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Ocean</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Churhandcapitol</b>	<b>(634x505)</b>
<b>Woman</b>	<b>(480x720)</b>
<b>Womanhat</b>	<b>(480x720)</b>
<b>Buildings</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Statue</b>	<b>(480x720)</b>
<b>Sailing3</b>	<b>(480x720)</b>
<b>Building2</b>	<b>(640x512)</b>
<b>Plan</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Bikes</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Sailing4</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Stream</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Dancers</b>	<b>(618x453)</b>
<b>Lighthouse3</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Cemetry</b>	<b>(627x482)</b>
<b>Parrots</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>House</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Flowersonih35</b>	<b>(640x512)</b>
<b>Studentsculpture</b>	<b>(632x505)</b>
<b>Monarch</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Lighthous2</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>
<b>Sailing2</b>	<b>(480x720)</b>
<b>Paintedhouse</b>	<b>(768x512)</b>

### 3.4 Original Images:

In our study, the original images are considered as High resolution (HR). The corresponding original images are shown in Figure 3.1. Many simulation experiments have been conducted. however due to limitation space, we show few of the obtained results.



Set5



Set14



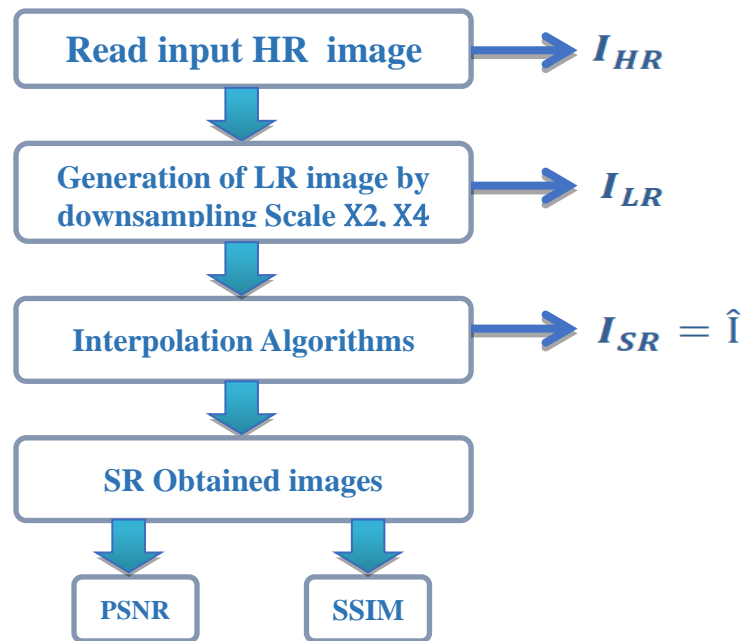
LIVE1

Figure 3.1 : Original HR images of the used datasets

### 3.5 Implementation of SR Algorithms

#### 3.5.1 Conventional SR Algorithms

The flowchart shown in Figure 3.2 summarizes the main steps of our implementation. First, we generate the low-resolution images (LR) from the HR ones. Note that we have only considered the downsampling as image degradation in our study. Both noise and blur are not considered. The two values of the scale factor  $s_f$  are X2, X4.



**Figure 3.2 :** Flowchart of interpolation algorithms

### 3.5.1.1 Bicubic Interpolation:

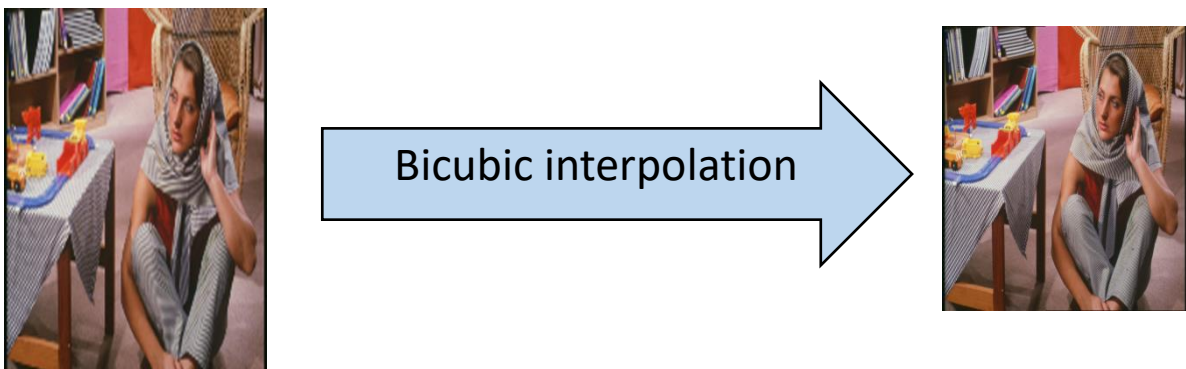
Tables 3.5-3.7 show the obtained PSNR and SSIM. Test images are from the different data sets.

**Table 3.5** PSNR & SSIM of Bicubic Interpolation

Image	Datasets	Scale	PSNR(dB)	SSIM
Butterfly	Set5	2	32.1329	0.9178
		4	30.1263	0.7294
Baby	Set5	2	37.0088	0.9556
		4	33.1127	0.9406
Barbara	Set14	2	32.5425	0.8546
		4	31.0359	0.7039
		2	33.0060	0.9219

<b>Zebra</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>30.2537</b>	<b>0.7053</b>
		<b>2</b>	<b>36.4164</b>	<b>0.9316</b>
<b>Caps</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>34.3064</b>	<b>0.8421</b>
	<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>31.5294</b>	<b>0.8635</b>
<b>Bikes</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>30.0087</b>	<b>0.6158</b>

one corresponding obtained image is shown in Figure 3.3



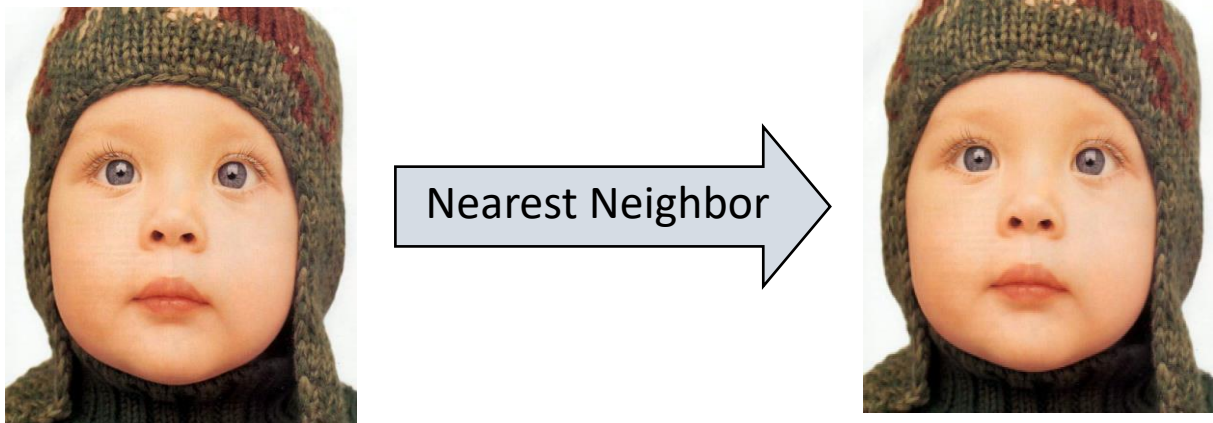
**Figure 3.3:** Bicubic interpolation

**Table 3.6:** PSNR & SSIM Nearest Neighbor

<b>Image</b>	<b>Datasets</b>	<b>Scale</b>	<b>PSNR(dB)</b>	<b>SSIM</b>
<b>Butterfly</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>32.7210</b>	<b>0.8768</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>31.5540</b>	<b>0.6587</b>
<b>Baby</b>	<b>Set5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>35.1127</b>	<b>0.9306</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>32.7996</b>	<b>0.6491</b>
<b>Zebra</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>31.4953</b>	<b>0.8185</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>30.0531</b>	<b>0.5945</b>
<b>Barbara</b>	<b>Set14</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>31.9785</b>	<b>0.8422</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>30.8719</b>	<b>0.6491</b>
		<b>2</b>	<b>36.2172</b>	<b>0.9227</b>

<b>Caps</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>34.4064</b>	<b>0.8219</b>
	<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>31.5210</b>	<b>0.8305</b>
<b>Bikes</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>30.2379</b>	<b>0.5712</b>

One corresponding SR image (baby) is shown on Figure 3.4;



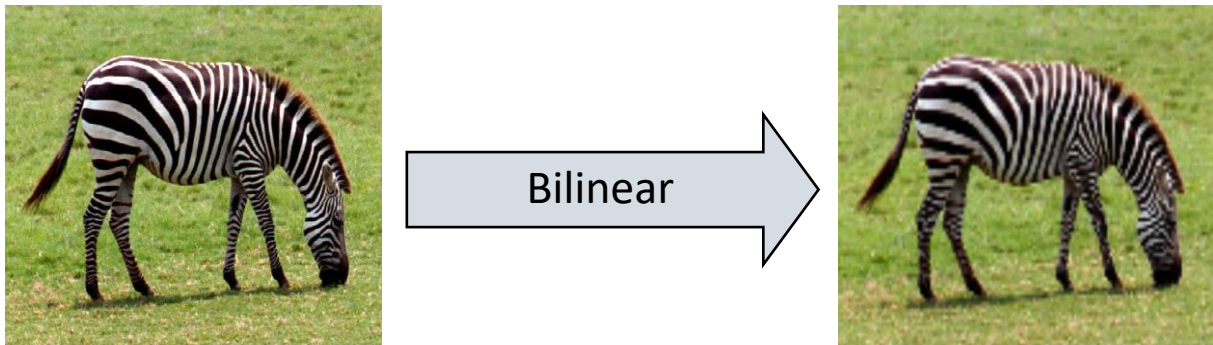
**Figure 3.4:** Nearest Neighbor

**Table 3.7:** Bilinear Interpolation

Image	Datasets	Scale	PSNR(dB)	SSIM
<b>Butterfly</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>32.0372</b>	<b>0.8849</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>30.4777</b>	<b>0.7212</b>
<b>Baby</b>	<b>Set5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>35.7198</b>	<b>0.9378</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>33.2417</b>	<b>0.8527</b>
<b>Barbara</b>	<b>Set14</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>31.9668</b>	<b>0.8221</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>30.9543</b>	<b>0.6941</b>
<b>Zebra</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>31.9825</b>	<b>0.8845</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>30.1066</b>	<b>0.6815</b>
		<b>2</b>	<b>35.9810</b>	<b>0.9146</b>

<b>Caps</b>	<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>34.3632</b>	<b>0.8432</b>
		<b>2</b>	<b>31.1710</b>	<b>0.8106</b>
<b>Bikes</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>30.0225</b>	<b>0.6002</b>

One corresponding SR image (Zebra) is shown on Figure 3.5.



**Figure 3.5:** Bilinear Interpolation

From the obtained results, we easily observe that bicubic highlights the nearest and bilinear in terms of PSNR and SSIM. However, the resolution in bicubic is reduced. These remarks are reproduced for all the images.

### 3.5.2 Implementation of SR Deep Neural Networks:

Note that VDSR is the first SR deep learning network. For both VDSR and EDSR, we first generate the LR image by downsampling. The flowchart shown in Figure 3.6 summarizes the main steps of the implementation.



**Figure 3.6:** Flowchart of VDSR and EDSR algorithms

Tables 3.8-3.9 show the obtained PSNR & SSIM of VDSR and EDSR respectively.

### VDSR

**Table 3.8:** PSNR & SSIM of VDSR

image	Datasets	Scale	PSNR(dB)	SSIM	
<b>Butterfly</b>	Set5	2	34.1875	0.7808	
		4	26.5469	0.7835	
<b>Baby</b>		2	38.6875	0.7080	
		4	33.3750	0.7254	
<b>Zebra</b>		2	34.2188	0.6012	
		4	26.7344	0.6137	
<b>Barbara</b>		Set14	2	28.1875	0.8987
			4	25.7500	0.7968
2	30.8438		0.9495		

<b>Caps</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>33.1562</b>	<b>0.7773</b>
	<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>38.1250</b>	<b>0.3471</b>
<b>Bikes</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>24.5625</b>	<b>0.1522</b>

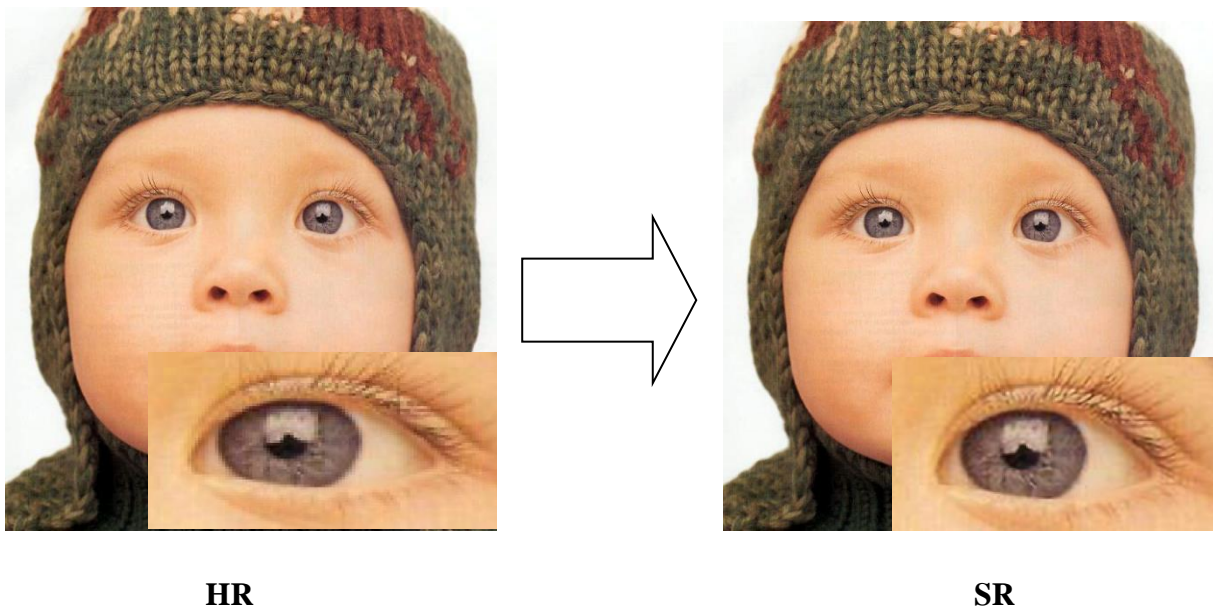
EDSR

**Table 3.9:** PSNR & SSIM of EDSR

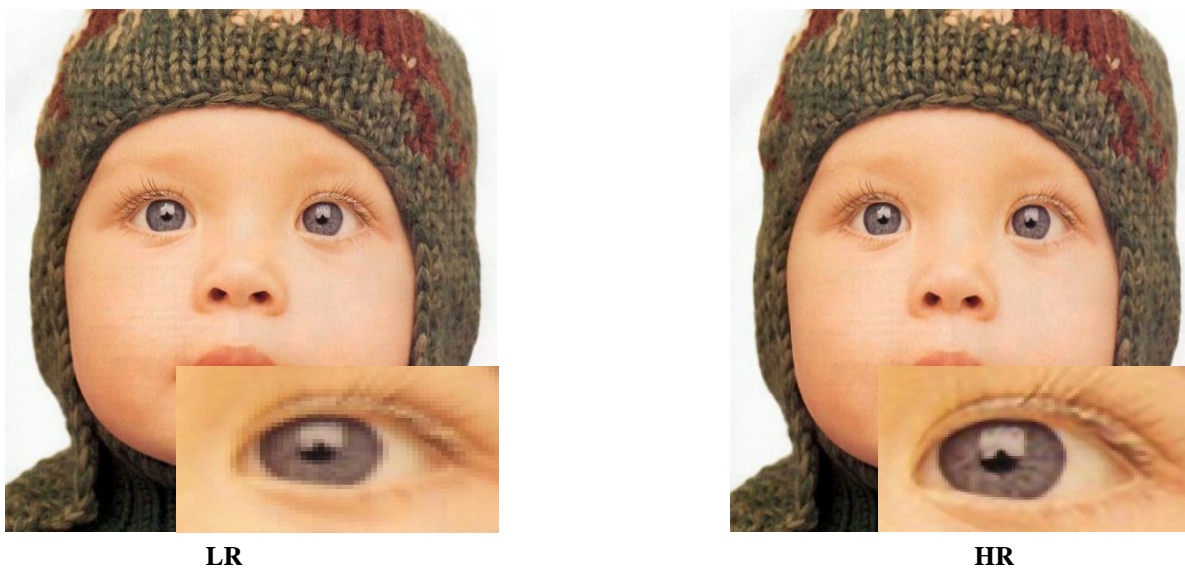
<b>image</b>	<b>Datasets</b>	<b>Scale</b>	<b>PSNR(dB)</b>	<b>SSIM</b>
<b>Butterfly</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>31.3049</b>	<b>0.9826</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>30.2462</b>	<b>0.9826</b>
<b>Baby</b>	<b>Set5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>42.1512</b>	<b>0.9909</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>42.1021</b>	<b>0.9828</b>
<b>Zebra</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>36.7189</b>	<b>0.9885</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>36.3591</b>	<b>0.9790</b>
<b>Barbara</b>	<b>Set14</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>32.132</b>	<b>0.9681</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>31.5598</b>	<b>0.9583</b>
<b>Caps</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>37.0144</b>	<b>0.9759</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>36.5893</b>	<b>0.9736</b>
<b>Bikes</b>	<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>31.98</b>	<b>0.9643</b>
		<b>4</b>	<b>31.7855</b>	<b>0.9494</b>

The corresponding obtained SR images ‘baby of VDSR and EDSR are shown on Figure 3.7-3.8 respectively. Furthermore, we show the region of interest (ROI) to more view the difference between HR and SR images. We easily seen, that the visual quality of HR and SR images are approximately the same, either in ROI. However, EDSR results is slightly better in terms of visual quality.





**Figure 3.7: EDSR**



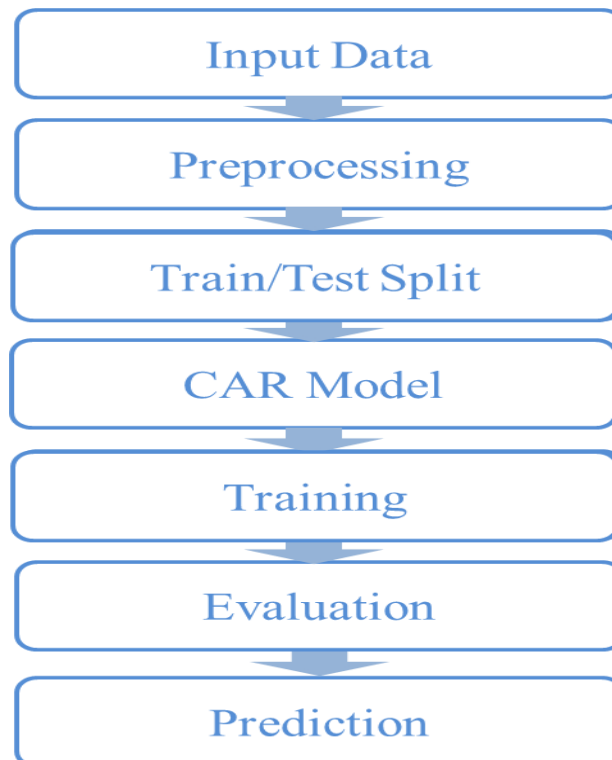
**Figure 3.8: VDSR**

**CAR(Content-Adaptive Resampled):**

As outlined in Chapter 1, the content-adaptive resampled (CAR) model comprises two main components: the ResamplerNet and SRNet blocks. This framework consists of the following primary elements.

The ResamplerNet is responsible for predicting content-adaptive resampling kernels based on the input high-resolution (HR) image. These kernels are then applied to the HR image to generate a downsampled image.

On the other hand, the SRNet accepts the downsampled image as input and aims to reconstruct the original HR image. Recall that in CAR, there isn't need to generate the LR images from the HR ones, because this step is including in the CAR network, in fact this increases the accuracy of CAR. We summarize our implementation of CAR in the the flowchart shown in Figure 3.9.



**Figure 3.9:** Flowchart of CAR

For the sake of objective comparison , we use the same datasets as before.

Table 3.10 displays the computed average values of the two metrics PSNR and SSIM, after computing PSNR and SSIM of each image as summarized in Table 3.11. We fixe the scale factor to two values: x2 and x4 It showcases the original images, the generated downsampling images, and the resulting SR images. The corresponding obtained SR images are shown on Figures 3.10-3.11 (where we show: the original image, generated LR version with two values of the scale factor and SR reconstructed image respectively. To more highlight the difference between the tthree versions, we zoom region of interest (ROI) which contains more details. It is evident that the quality of the SR images has significantly improved and is close to that of

the original images. We have included one image of our faculty (Figure 3.10 (b)). We can easily see that CAR allows us to significantly enhance the quality of the reconstructed image and increase the values of PSNR and SSIM. The obtained results are satisfactory and promising.

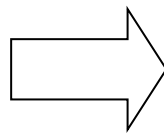
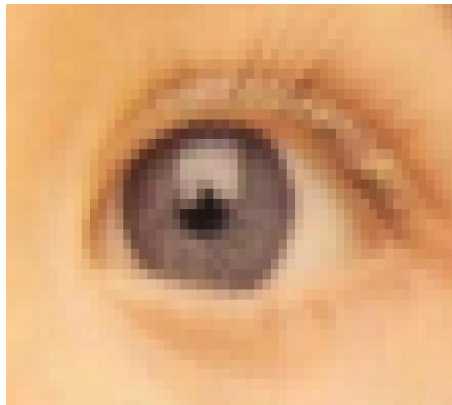
**Table 3.10:** meanPSNR & meanSSIM values of CAR

Datasets	Scale	MEAN PSNR(dB)	MEAN SSIM
Set5	2	38.96	0.9643
	4	34.17	0.9196
Set14	2	35.84	0.9394
	4	30.61	0.8427
LIVE1	2	34.90	0.9446
	4	29.71	0.8393

**Table 3.11:** PSNR & SSIM by CAR, for each image

image	Datasets	Scale	PSNR(dB)	SSIM
Butterfly		2	36.8531	0.9808
		4	30.9527	0.9434
Baby	Set5	2	39.6441	0.9725
		4	35.2766	0.9230
Zebra		2	35.9430	0.9558
		4	30.6106	0.8597
Barbara	Set14	2	36.6782	0.9648
		4	27.9461	0.8404
Caps		2	35.4539	0.9194
		4	40.9641	0.9761

	<b>LIVE1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>27.7551</b>	<b>0.8254</b>
<b>Bikes</b>		<b>4</b>	<b>34.5244</b>	<b>0.9592</b>



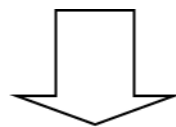
ROI LR image

SR image

(a)



LR



(b) SR

Figure 3.10: First results of CAR



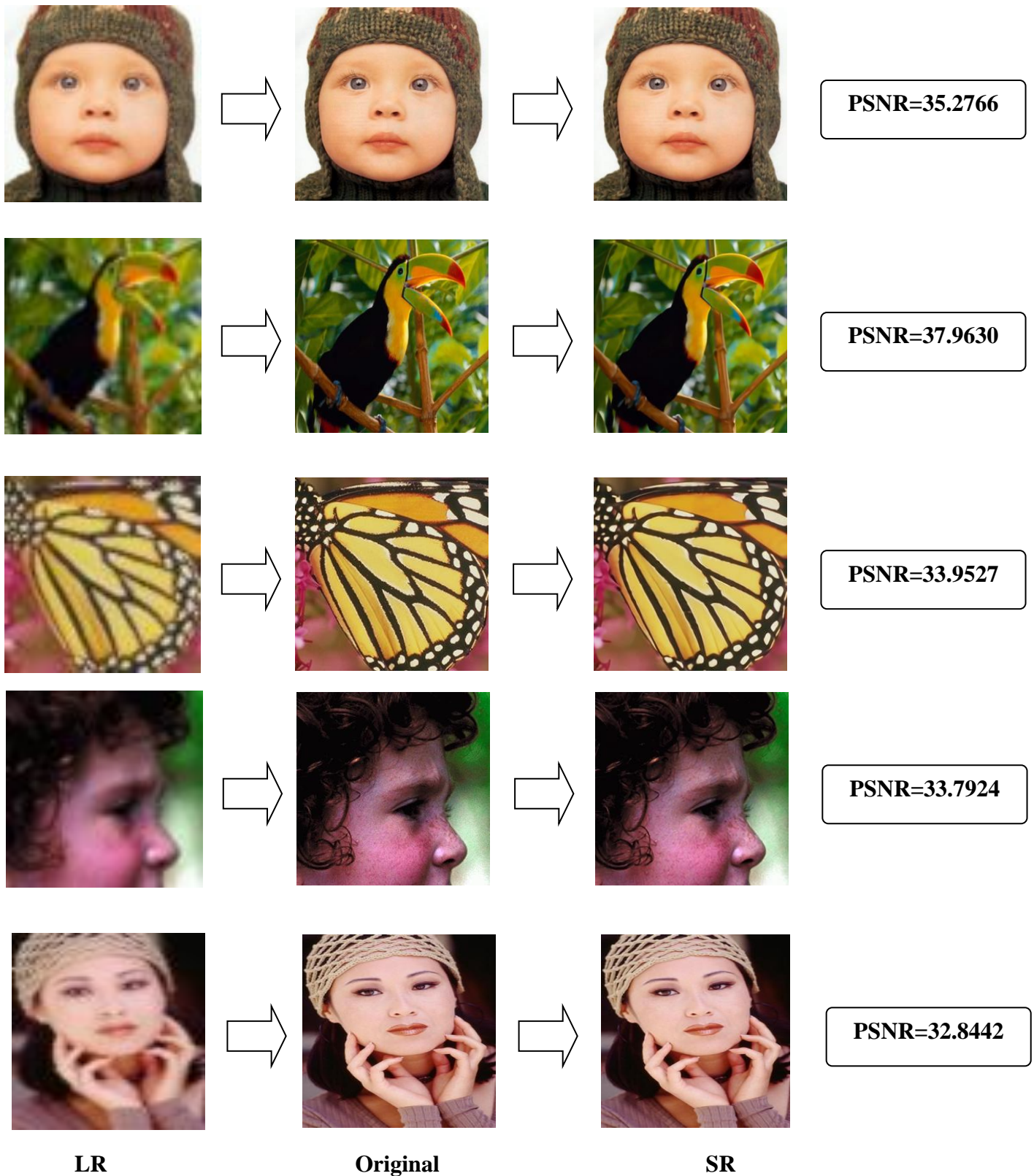


Figure 3.12: CAR results Set 5, scale factor x4

The results of Set14, scale factor fixed at 2 are shown on Figure 3.13.

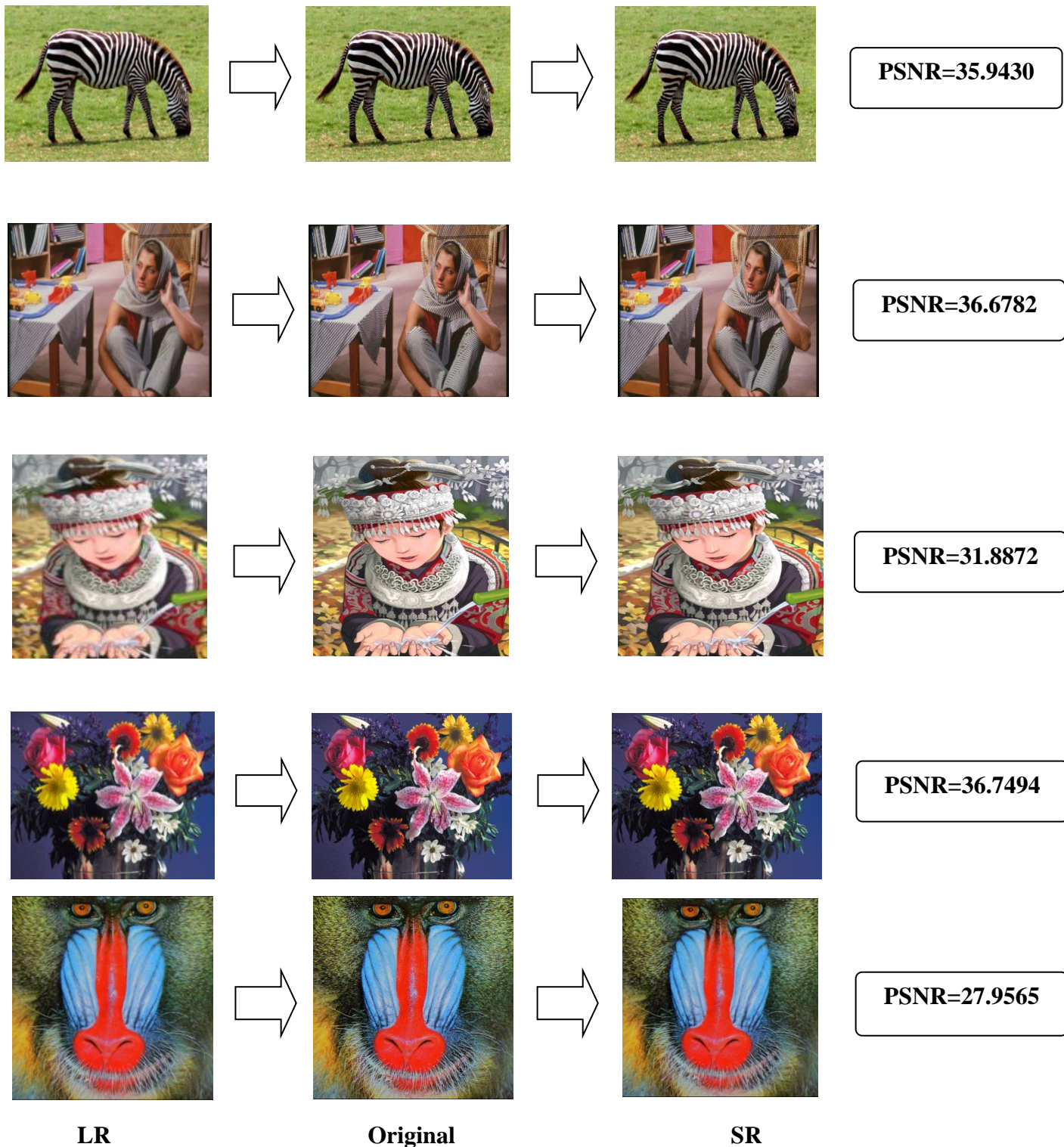


Figure 3.13: CAR results Set 14, scale factor x2

For  $s_f = 4$ , we show the obtained results on Figure 3.15.



Figure 3.14: CAR results Set 14, scale factor x4



We can observe, from the obtained values of PSNR, that PSNR is inversely proportioned to the scale factor. PSNR decreases, when  $s$  increases., i.e when the deterioration is significant.

Figure 3.15 and 3.16 show the obtained CAR results for Live 1 with  $s = x2, x4$ , respectively.

The corresponding value of PSNR is indicated at the right of the figures.

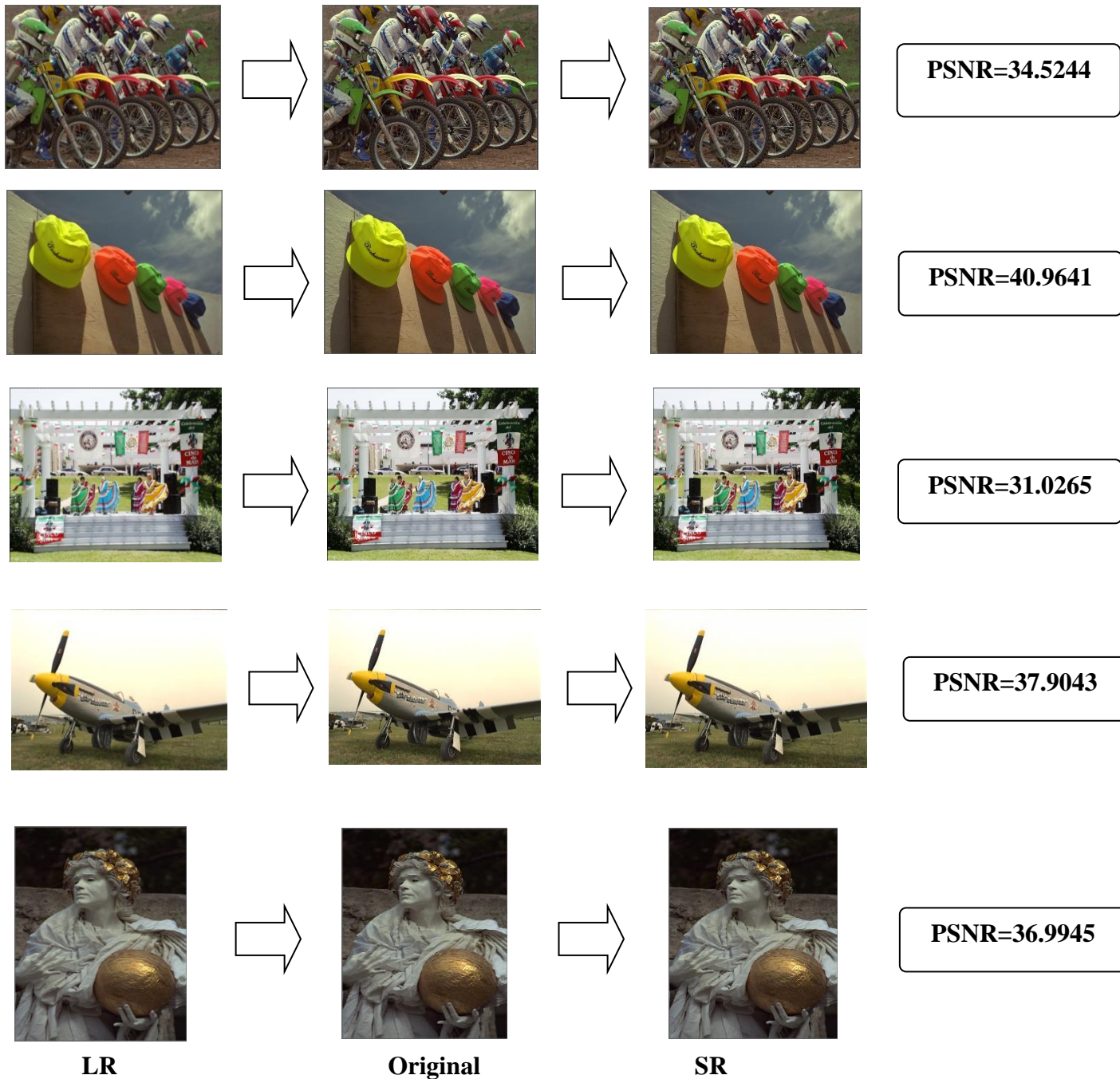
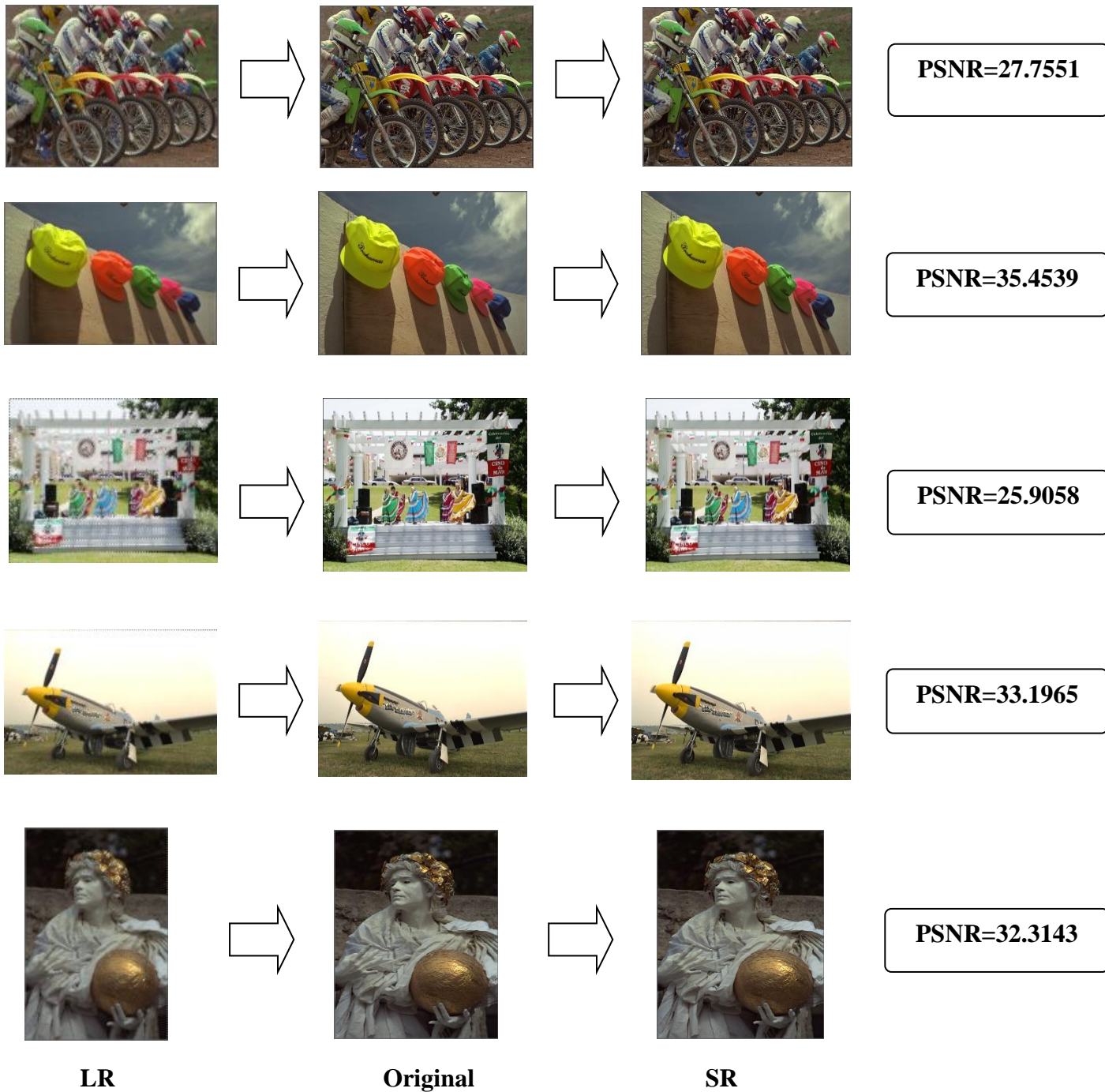


Figure 3.15: CAR results for LIVE 1,  $s=x2$



**Figure 3.16:** CAR results, LIVE 1, scale= $\times 4$

both two values of the scale factor. This is justified by the satisfactory values of PSNR. From many simulation experiments, CAR is better than EDSR and VDSR. This enhancement is done thanks to the generation of LR images by the network it self.

### 3.6 Conclusion

In our study, we examined three deep learning-based super-resolution (SR) image algorithms: VDSR, EDSR and CAR which is an enhanced version of EDSR. We have also applied conventional interpolation algorithms: Bicubic, bilinear and nearest neighbor. We have used the well known datasets in the field of SR problem: Set5, Set14, and LIVE1. Our assessment focused on two metrics, PSNR and SSIM, as well as the visual quality of the SR reconstructed images.

To conduct each experiment, we initially generated low-resolution (LR) images from the original ones. This step resulted in either X2 or X4 scaled images. Based on the results obtained, it is evident that the CAR algorithm outperforms the other SR algorithms in terms of visual quality and computed metrics. However, it is worth noting that deep learning SR algorithms allow the process of big data and large amount of images in short time, thanks to the use of GPU and the network architecture. Finally, our goals have been successfully achieved.

### General conclusion

The thesis titled "A Comparative Study of Conventional and Deep Learning Interpolation Image Super Resolution Algorithms" focuses on comparing two approaches for enhancing the resolution of images: conventional interpolation algorithms and deep learning-based interpolation algorithms. After conducting a comprehensive study, several key conclusions can be drawn from this thesis.

Firstly, the thesis highlights that conventional interpolation algorithms, such as bicubic interpolation, have been widely used for image super resolution tasks. These algorithms are based on mathematical principles and are relatively straightforward to implement. However, the results obtained from conventional interpolation algorithms may lack fine details and fail to produce high-quality super-resolved images.

Secondly, the thesis emphasizes the emergence of deep learning-based interpolation algorithms, which utilize neural networks to learn complex mappings between low-resolution and high-resolution image pairs. These algorithms have shown remarkable performance in generating visually appealing and highly detailed super-resolved images. They can capture intricate patterns and textures that conventional algorithms struggle to reproduce.

Furthermore, the thesis concludes that deep learning-based interpolation algorithms generally outperform conventional interpolation algorithms in terms of perceptual quality and objective metrics. The ability of deep learning models to learn from large-scale datasets enables them to capture intricate image features, leading to superior super-resolution results.

However, the thesis also acknowledges that deep learning-based approaches may have some limitations. They often require significant computational resources and extensive training data to achieve optimal performance. Additionally, the selection of appropriate network architectures, loss functions, and training strategies significantly affects the final results.

In conclusion, the thesis provides valuable insights into the comparative study of conventional and deep learning interpolation image super-resolution algorithms. It highlights the advantages of deep learning approaches in generating high-quality super-resolved images, while acknowledging the challenges and considerations involved in their implementation.

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