IMAGE SUPER-RESOLUTION WITH TEXT PROMPT DIFFUSION

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Image super-resolution (SR) methods typically model degradation to improve reconstruction accuracy in complex and unknown degradation scenarios. However, extracting degradation information from low-resolution images is challenging, which limits the model performance. To boost image SR performance, one feasible approach is to introduce additional priors. Inspired by advancements in multimodal methods and text prompt image processing, we introduce text prompts to image SR to provide degradation priors. Specifically, we first design a textimage generation pipeline to integrate text into the SR dataset through the text degradation representation and degradation model. The text representation applies a discretization manner based on the binning method to describe the degradation abstractly. This method maintains the flexibility of the text and is userfriendly. Meanwhile, we propose the PromptSR to realize the text prompt SR. The PromptSR utilizes the pre-trained language model (e.g., T5 or CLIP) to enhance restoration. We train the PromptSR on the generated text-image dataset. Extensive experiments indicate that introducing text prompts into SR, yields excellent results on both synthetic and real-world images. The code will be released.

025 026 027

003 004

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

1 INTRODUCTION

028 029

Single image super-resolution (SR) aims to recover high-resolution (HR) images from their corresponding low-resolution (LR) counterparts. Over recent years, the proliferation of deep learning-based methods (Dong et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2018c; Chen et al., 2023) has significantly advanced this domain. Nevertheless, the majority of these methods are trained with known degradation (*e.g.*, bicubic interpolation), which limits their generalization capabilities (Wang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2023b). Consequently, these methods face challenges when applied to scenarios with complex and diverse degradations, such as real-world applications.

A feasible approach to tackle the diverse SR challenges is blind SR. Blind SR focuses on recon-037 structing LR images with complex and unknown degradation, making it suitable for a wide range of scenarios (Liu et al., 2022). Methods within this realm can roughly be divided into several categories. (1) Explicit methods (Zhang et al., 2018a) typically rely on predefined degradation models. 040 They estimate degradation parameters (e.g., blur kernel or noise) as conditional inputs to the SR 041 model. However, the predefined degradation models exhibit a limited degradation representation 042 scope, restricting the generality of methods. (2) Implicit methods (Cai et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2021) 043 capture underlying degradation models through extensive external datasets. They achieve this by 044 leveraging real-captured HR-LR image pairs, or HR and unpaired LR data, to learn the data distribution. Nevertheless, learning the data distribution is challenging, with unsatisfactory results. (3) Currently, another image SR paradigm (Zhang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021) is popularized: defin-046 ing complex degradation to synthesize a large amount of data for training. To simulate real-world 047 degradation, these approaches set the degradation distribution sufficiently extensive. Nonetheless, 048 this increases the learning difficulty of the SR model and inevitably causes a performance drop. 049

In summary, the modeling of degradation is crucial to image SR, typically in complex application
 scenarios. However, most methods extract degradation information mainly from LR images, which
 is challenging and limits performance. One approach to advance SR performance is to introduce
 additional priors, such as reference priors (Jiang et al., 2021) or generative priors (Chan et al., 2021;
 Yang et al., 2021). Motivated by recent advancements in the multi-modal model (Radford et al.,



• Extensive experiments show that the introduction of text prompts into image SR leads to impressive results on both synthetic and real-world images.

108 2 RELATED WORK

110 2.1 IMAGE SUPER-RESOLUTION

111 Numerous deep networks (Zhang et al., 2018c; Chen et al., 2022b) have been proposed to advance 112 the field of image SR since the pioneering work of SRCNN (Dong et al., 2014). Meanwhile, to enhance the applicability of SR methods in complex (e.g., real-world) applications, blind SR methods 113 have been introduced. To this end, researchers have explored various directions (Liu et al., 2022). 114 First, explicit methods predict the degradation parameters (e.g., blur kernel or noise) as the addi-115 tional condition for SR networks (Gu et al., 2019; Bell-Kligler et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). 116 For instance, SRMD (Zhang et al., 2018a) takes the LR image with an estimated degradation map 117 for SR reconstruction. Second, implicit methods learn underlying degradation models from exter-118 nal datasets (Bulat et al., 2018). These methods include supervised learning using paired HR-LR 119 datasets, such as LP-KPN (Cai et al., 2019). Third, simulate real-world degradation with a complex 120 degradation model and synthesize datasets for supervised training (Zhang et al., 2023b; Chen et al., 121 2022a). For example, Real-ESRGAN (Wang et al., 2021) introduces a high-order degradation, while 122 BSRGAN (Zhang et al., 2021) proposes a random shuffling strategy. However, most methods still 123 face challenges in degradation modeling, thus restricting SR performance.

124 125 2.2 DIFFUSION MODEL

The diffusion model (DM) has shown significant effectiveness in various synthetic tasks, including 126 image (Ho et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020), video (Bar-Tal et al., 2022), audio (Kong et al., 2020), 127 and text (Li et al., 2022b). Concurrently, DM has made notable advancements in image manipula-128 tion and restoration tasks, such as image editing (Avrahami et al., 2022), inpainting (Lugmayr et al., 129 2022), and deblurring (Whang et al., 2022). In the field of SR, exploration has also been under-130 taken. SR3 (Saharia et al., 2022b) conditions DM with LR images to constrain output space and 131 generate HR results. Moreover, some methods, like DDRM (Kawar et al., 2022) and DDNM (Wang 132 et al., 2023), apply degradation priors to guide the reverse process of pre-trained DM. However, 133 these methods are primarily tailored for known degradations (e.g., bicubic interpolation). Currently, 134 some approaches (Wang et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2024) leverage pre-trained DM and fine-tune it on 135 synthetic HR-LR datasets for real-world SR tasks. Nevertheless, these methods still mainly employ 136 LR images, disregarding the utilization of other modalities (e.g., text) to provide priors.

137 138 2.3 TEXT PROMPT IMAGE PROCESSING

This field, which includes image generation and image manipulation, is rapidly evolving. For generation, the large-scale text-to-image (T2I) models are successfully constructed using the diffusion model and CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), *e.g.*, Stable Diffusion (Rombach et al., 2022) and DALL-E-2 (Ramesh et al., 2022). Imagen (Saharia et al., 2022a) further demonstrates the effectiveness of large pre-trained language models, *i.e.*, T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), as text encoders. Moreover, some methods (Zhang et al., 2023a; Qin et al., 2023), like ControlNet (Zhang et al., 2023a), integrate more conditioning controls into text-to-image processes, enabling finer-grained generation.

For manipulation, numerous methods (Hertz et al., 2022; Kawar et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2022; 146 Avrahami et al., 2022; Brooks et al., 2023) have been proposed. For instance, StyleCLIP (Patashnik 147 et al., 2021) combines StyleGAN (Karras et al., 2019) and CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) to manipulate 148 images using textual descriptions. Meanwhile, several methods are based on pre-trained T2I models, 149 e.g., Stable Diffusion. For example, Prompt-to-Prompt (Hertz et al., 2022) edits synthesis images by 150 modifying text prompts. Imagic (Kawar et al., 2023) achieves manipulation of real images by fine-151 tuning models on given images. InstructPix2Pix (Brooks et al., 2023) employs editing instructions 152 to modify images without requiring a description of image content. However, in image SR, the 153 utilization of text prompts has seldom been explored.

154 155

3 Method

156 157

We introduce text prompts into image SR to enhance the reconstruction results. Our design encompasses two aspects: the dataset and the model. (1) **Dataset:** We propose a text-image generation pipeline integrating text prompts into the SR dataset. Leveraging the binning method, we apply the text to realize simplified representations of degradation, and combine it with a degradation model to generate data. (2) **Model:** We design the PromptSR for image SR conditioned on both text and image. The network is based on the diffusion model and the pre-trained language model. Resize

upsample

Noise

medíum noíse

(a) Text-Image Generation Pipeline

Blur

heavy blur

162 163

164

166

167 168

- 169
- 170

Figure 2: Illustration of the text-image generation pipeline. (a) The pipeline comprises the degradation model (top) and the text representation (bottom). The degradation model comprises five steps, where "Comp" denotes the compression. The text representation describes each degradation operation in a discretized manner, *e.g.*, [*medium noise*] for noise operation. Except for the illustrated aligned prompt-degradation sequence, our pipeline supports more flexible degradation and prompt formats, *e.g.*, random order or simplified. (b) An example to display the dataset.

Comp

light compression

Resize

downsample

Æ

LR x

Text Prompt c

heavy blur, upsamj nedium noise, light

(b) Text-Image Dataset

177

187

209

178 3.1 TEXT-IMAGE GENERATION PIPELINE

To realize effective training, and enhance model performance, a substantial amount of text-image data is required. Current methods (Cai et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021) generate data for image SR by manual collection or through degradation synthesis. However, there is a lack of large-scale multi-modal text-image datasets for the SR task. To address this issue, we design the text-image generate pipeline to produce the datasets (c, [y, x]), as illustrated in Fig. 2, where c is the text prompt describing degradation; [y, x] denotes HR and LR images, respectively. The pipeline comprises two components: a **degradation model** that generates HR-LR image pairs and a **text representation module** that produces text prompts describing the degradation.

188 3.1.1 DEGRADATION MODEL

We aim to reconstruct HR images from LR images with complex and unknown degradation. To encompass the typical degradations while maintaining design simplicity, we develop the degradation model, as depicted in Fig. 2a. Note that while the degradation process in the illustration is applied sequentially, our degradation pipeline supports the more **flexible** format, *e.g.*, random degradation sequences and the omission of certain components. We describe each component in detail.

194 **Blur.** We employ two kinds of blur: isotropic and anisotropic Gaussian blur. The blur is controlled 195 by the kernel with two parameters: kernel width η and standard deviation σ .

Resize. We upsample/downsample images using two resize with scale factors γ_1 and γ_2 , respectively. We employ area, bilinear, and bicubic interpolation. The two-step resizing can broaden the degradation range and enhance the generality of the model. We demonstrate it in Sec. 4.2.2.

Noise. We apply Gaussian and Poisson noise, with noise levels controlled by φ_1 and φ_2 , respectively. Meanwhile, noise is randomly applied in either RGB or gray format.

Compression. We adopt JPEG compression, a widely used compression standard, for image compression. The quality factor q controls the image compression quality.

Given an HR image y, we determine the degradation by randomly selecting the degradation method (*e.g.*, Gaussian noise or Poisson noise), and sampling all parameters (*e.g.*, noise level φ_1) from the uniform distribution. Through the degradation process, we obtain the corresponding LR image x. Compared to other degradation models (*e.g.*, high-order (Wang et al., 2021)), ours maintains flexibility and simplicity while covering broad scenarios.

210 3.1.2 TEXT PROMPT

After generating HR-LR image pairs through the degradation model, we further provide descriptions
 for each pair as text prompts. Consequently, we incorporate text prompts into the dataset. This
 process encompasses two key considerations: (1) The specific content that should be described; (2)
 The user-friendly method for generating corresponding descriptions concisely and effectively. Given
 the characteristics of image SR, we utilize text to represent degradation. Meanwhile, we represent
 the degradation via a discretization manner based on the binning method (Zhang et al., 2023b).

Text prompt for degradation. Typical text prompt image generation and manipulation methods (Ramesh et al., 2022; 2021; Avrahami et al., 2022) apply text prompts to describe the image content. These prompts often require semantic-level interpretation and processing of the image content. However, for the image SR task, it is crucial to prioritize fidelity to the original image. Meanwhile, LR images could provide the majority of the low-frequency information (Zhang et al., 2018c) and semantic information related to the content (Rombach et al., 2022). As shown in Fig. 3, elements like 'building' and 'shutters' in the caption prompt can be obtained from the LR image.

Therefore, we adopt the prompt for 224 degradation, instead of the description of 225 the overall image. This prompt can pro-226 vide degradation priors and thus enhance the capability of methods to model degra-227 dation, which is crucial for image SR. As 228 shown in Fig. 3, utilizing text to depict 229 degradation, instead of the overall image 230 content (Caption), yields restoration that 231 is more aligned with the ground truth. To 232 further demonstrate the effectiveness of 233 text prompts for degradation, we provide 234 more analyses in Sec. 4.2.4. 235



Figure 3: Visual comparison $(\times 4)$ of different text contents. Caption (description of the overall image): [people on a weathered balcony of a building with closed shutters]. Degradation (ours): [light blur, up-sample, light noise, heavy compression, downsample].

Text representation. To facilitate data generation and practical usability, we describe degradation in natural language with the approach illustrated in Fig. 2a. Overall, we describe each degradation component via a discretized binning method, and combine them in a flexible format.

239 First, we discretize the degradation model into several components (e.g., blur) and describe each using qualitative language via a binning method. The sampling distribution of parameters correspond-240 ing to each component is evenly divided into discrete intervals (bins). Each bin is summarized to 241 represent the degradation. For instance, we divide the distribution of noise level φ_1 [0,9] into three 242 uniform intervals ([0,3), [3,6), and [6,9], and describe them as '*light*', '*medium*', and '*heavy*'. 243 Both Gaussian and Poisson noises are summarized as 'noise', leading to the final representation: 244 [medium noise]. Compared to specifying degradation names and their parameters, e.g., [Gaussian 245 *noise with noise level 4.5*], our discretized representation is more intuitive and **user-friendly**. 246

Finally, the overall degradation representation combines all component descriptions, *i.e.*, [deblur description, ..., resize description]. Figure 2b illustrates an example. The content of the prompt directly corresponds to the degradation. Furthermore, it is notable that, in our method, the prompt exhibits good generalization and supports **flexible** description formats. For instance, both arbitrary order or simplified (*e.g.*, only noise description) prompts can still lead to satisfactory restoration outcomes. In Sec. 4.2.3, we conduct a detailed investigation of the prompt format.

Real-world application. For real-world images, users can utilize the latest multi-modal large language models (MLLMs) (Liu et al., 2023; OpenAI, 2023; Ye et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2024) to generate professional image quality assessments as prompts. This approach simplifies prompt generation for users. It also provides a pathway for improving image SR using MLLMs. Furthermore, users can fine-tune the MLLM-generated prompts based on the restoration results to achieve more personal-ized enhancements. More details are provided in the supplementary material.

3.2 PROMPTSR

259

260

PromptSR is based on the **general** diffusion model (Ho et al., 2020), commonly utilized for highquality image restoration (Saharia et al., 2022b; Lin et al., 2024). Meanwhile, given the powerful capabilities of pre-trained language models (Radford et al., 2021; Raffel et al., 2020), we integrate them into the model to enhance performance. The architecture of our method is delineated in Fig. 4.

For the diffusion model, to underscore the effectiveness of text prompts, we employ a general textto-image (T2I) diffusion architecture, rather than a meticulously designed structure. Specifically, our method employs a denoising network (DN), operating through a *T*-step reverse process to generate high-resolution (HR) images from Gaussian noise. The DN applies the U-Net structure (Ronneberger et al., 2015). It predicts the noise conditioned on the LR image (upsampled to the target resolution via bicubic interpolation) and text prompt.



Figure 4: The overall architecture of the PromptSR. It comprises a denoising network (DN) and a pre-trained text encoder. The weights of the text encoder are frozen during training. The LR image x is first **upsampled** to the target HR image resolution via bicubic interpolation, then concatenated with the noise image y_t ($t \in [1, T]$) as input to the DN. The text prompt c is embedded by the text encoder. The embeddings are infused into the DN via the cross-attention (CA) module.

Concurrently, the pre-trained language model encodes the text prompts, where the information is integrated into feature maps of U-Net via the cross-attention module. By leveraging the powerful capabilities of the language model, our method can better understand degradation, thereby enhancing the restoration results. For more details on the PromptSR, please refer to the supplementary material.

289 3.2.1 PRE-TRAINED TEXT ENCODER

284

302

Text prompt image models (Patashnik et al., 2021; Avrahami et al., 2022; Rombach et al., 2022)
mainly employ multi-modal embedding models, *e.g.*, CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), as text encoders.
These encoders are capable of generating meaningful representations pertinent to tasks. Besides,
compared to multi-modal embeddings, pre-trained language models (Devlin et al., 2019; Raffel
et al., 2020) exhibit stronger text comprehension capabilities. Therefore, we attempt to apply different pre-trained text encoders to build a series of networks. These models demonstrate varying
restoration performance levels, which we further analyze in Sec. 4.2.5.

297 3.2.2 TRAINING STRATEGY

We train the PromptSR using the text-image (c, [y, x]) dataset generated as described in Sec. 3.1. Given an HR image y, we add noise ϵ through t diffusion steps to obtain a noisy image y_t , where t is randomly sampled from [1, T]. The DN is conditioned on the LR image x, noisy image y_t , and text prompt c to predict the added noise. The training objective is formulated as:

 $\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}, t, \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)} [|\boldsymbol{\epsilon} - \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_{t}, \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\tau}_{\theta}(\mathbf{c}), t)|_{2}^{2}],$ (1)

where ϵ_{θ} is the DN, while τ_{θ} is the text encoder. We freeze the weights of the text encoder and only train the DN. In this way, we can retain the original capabilities of the pre-trained model. Meanwhile, we can reduce training overhead by computing text embedding offline. After completing the training process, the PromptSR can be employed for both synthetic and real-world images. Benefiting from the multi-modal (text and image) design, it demonstrates excellent performance.

308 309 4 EXPERIMENTS

310 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

311 4.1.1 DEGRADATION SETTINGS

312 The degradation model in our proposed pipeline encompasses four operations: blur, resize, noise, 313 and compression. Following previous methods (Wang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021), the param-314 eters for these operations are sampled from the uniform distribution. Blur: We adopt isotropic 315 Gaussian blur and anisotropic Gaussian blur with equal probability. The kernel width η is randomly 316 selected from the set $\{7, 9, \ldots, 21\}$. The standard deviation σ is sampled from a uniform distri-317 bution $\mathcal{U}_{[0,2,3]}$. Resize: We employ area, bilinear, and bicubic interpolation with probabilities of 318 [0.3, 0.4, 0.3]. To expand the scope of degradation, we perform two resize operations at different 319 stages. The first resize spans upsample and downsample, where the scale factor is $\gamma_1 \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0.15,1.5]}$. 320 The second resize operation scales the resolution to $\frac{1}{4}$ of the HR image. Noise: We apply Gaussian 321 and Poisson noise with equal probability. The level of Gaussian noise is $\varphi_1 \sim \mathcal{U}_{[1,30]}$, while the level of Poisson noise is $\varphi_2 \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0.05,3]}$. Compression: We employ JPEG compression with quality 322 factor $q \sim \mathcal{U}_{(30,95]}$. Meanwhile, in all experiments, for simplifying implementation, unless expressly 323 noted, the degradation and text prompt follow the fixed order and correspond one to one.

324 Table 1: Ablation study on the text prompt. We experiment Table 2: Ablation study on the re-325 on ControlNet (Zhang et al., 2023a) and PromptSR. We ap-326 ply an empty string for without (X) the prompt. 327

sizing operation. We compare the degradation with one resizing (keeping the first one) and two resizings

| Method | Text | LSDI | | DIV2 | | ing the n | ist one) | and two | resizings. |
|----------|------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------|--|------------------|------------------|
| memou | ICAU | LPIPS \downarrow | DISTS \downarrow | LPIPS \downarrow | DISTS \downarrow | Method | Metric (| One Resizing | Two Resizings |
| ControlN | et X | 0.3401 0.3347 | 0.2059 0.2054 | 0.3733 0.3515 | 0.2396 0.2306 | LSDIR-Val | LPIPS ↓ DISTS ↓ | 0.3709 0.2254 | 0.3211 0.1820 |
| PromptSF | × × | 0.3473 0.3211 | 0.2009 0.1820 | 0.3384 0.3086 | 0.1941 0.1727 | DIV2K-Va | $\begin{vmatrix} LPIPS \downarrow \\ DISTS \downarrow \end{vmatrix}$ | 0.3570 0.2162 | 0.3086 0.1727 |
| | | [light noise] | | avy noise] | rti | ne r | tn | | tne |

Figure 5: Visual results (\times 4) of different prompts. [...] represents the prompt. Boxes in the figures highlight the differences in details. Please zoom in for a better view.

4.1.2 DATASETS AND METRICS

We use the LSDIR (Li et al., 2023) as the training dataset. The LSDIR contains 84,991 high-341 resolution images. We generate the corresponding text-image dataset using our proposed pipeline. 342 We evaluate our method on both synthetic and real-world datasets. For synthetic datasets, we employ 343 Urban100 (Huang et al., 2015), Manga109 (Matsui et al., 2017), and the validation (Val) datasets of 344 LSDIR and DIV2K (Timofte et al., 2017). For real-world datasets, we utilize RealSR (Cai et al., 345 2019). We also employ 45 real images directly captured from the internet, denoted as Real45. We 346 conduct all experiments with a scale factor of $\times 4$. To quantitatively evaluate our method, we adopt 347 two traditional metrics: PSNR and SSIM (Wang et al., 2004), which are calculated on the Y channel 348 of the YCbCr color space. We also utilize several perceptual metrics: LPIPS (Zhang et al., 2018b), 349 ST-LPIPS (Ghildyal & Liu, 2022), DISTS (Ding et al., 2020), and CNNIQA (Kang et al., 2014). 350 We further adopt an aesthetic metric: NIMA (Talebi & Milanfar, 2018).

351

328

337

338 339

340

352 4.1.3 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

353 The proposed PromptSR consists of two components: the denoising network (DN) and the pre-354 trained text encoder. The DN employs a U-Net architecture with a 4-level encoder-decoder. Each 355 level contains two ResNet (He et al., 2016; Ho et al., 2020) blocks and one cross-attention block. For more detailed information about the DN model structure, please refer to the supplementary material. 356 For the text encoder, we apply the pre-trained multi-modal model, CLIP (Radford et al., 2021). 357 Additionally, we discuss other large language models, e.g., T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), in Sec. 4.2.5. 358

359 We train our model on the generated text-image dataset with a batch size of 16 for a total of 1,000,000 360 iterations. The input image is randomly cropped to 64×64. We adopt the Adam optimizer (Kingma 361 & Ba, 2015) with $\beta_1=0.9$ and $\beta_2=0.99$ to minimize the training objective (Eq. 1). The learning rate is 2×10^{-4} and is reduced by half at the 500,000-iteration mark. For DM, we set the total time step 362 T as 2,000. For inference, we employ the DDIM sampling (Song et al., 2020) with 50 steps. We use 363 PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) to implement our method with 4 Nvidia A100 GPUs. 364

4.2 Ablation Study 366

367 We investigate the effects of our proposed method at SR (\times 4) task. We train all models on the 368 LSDIR dataset with 500,000 iterations. We apply the validation datasets of LSDIR (Li et al., 2023) 369 and DIV2K (Timofte et al., 2017) for testing. Results are shown in Fig. 5 and Tabs. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

370

365

371 4.2.1 IMPACT OF TEXT PROMPT

372 We conduct an ablation to show the influence of introducing the text prompt into image SR. The 373 results are listed in Tab. 1. To validate the effectiveness of the text prompts, rather than benefiting 374 from the specialized network, we conduct experiments on ControlNet (Zhang et al., 2023a) and 375 proposed PropmtSR. We take the LR image as the condition to ControlNet to realize SR. All four compared models are trained on LSDIR. For models that are without text prompts, we train and test 376 using empty string. The comparison reveals that text prompts significantly enhance SR performance. 377 It also demonstrates the universality of text prompts, applicable to various models.

378 Table 3: Ablation study on the format. (a) Random Order: shuffled degradation sequence. Fixed 379 Order: fixed degradation sequence. (b) Random Order: mismatched prompt-degradation order. 380 Simplified: randomly omitting 50% prompt contents. Original: aligned prompt-degradation order.

| 1 | (a) D | (a) Different degradation formats. (b) Different prompt formats. | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------|--|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--|-----------|--------|--------------------|--------|------------------|--------|-----------------|
| 2 | Method | | n Order DISTS ↓ | Fixed LPIPS↓ | Order DISTS↓ | | Method | | n Order DISTS ↓ | | lified DISTS↓ | | ginal DISTS↓ |
| 5 | LSDIR-Val | 0.3243 | 0.1860 | 0.3211 | 0.1820 | | LSDIR-Val | 0.3231 | 0.1835 | 0.3268 | 0.1871 | 0.3211 | 0.1820 |
| - | DIV2K-Val | 0.3193 | 0.1722 | 0.3086 | 0.1727 | | DIV2K-Val | 0.3095 | 0.1730 | 0.3131 | 0.1767 | 0.3086 | 0.1727 |

Caption: image content generated by BLIP (Li process. Both: the combination of two.

381 382

384 385

386

387

388

Table 4: Ablation study on the text content. Table 5: Ablation study on the pre-trained text encoder. We adopt different pre-trained language et al., 2022a). Degradation (ours): degradation models as text encoders in our PromptSR. Params: the parameters of each text encoder.

| Method | LSDIR-Val | | DIV2K-Val | | Method | Params | LSDIR-Val | | DIV2K-Val | |
|-------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------|
| Method | LPIPS \downarrow | DISTS \downarrow | LPIPS \downarrow | DISTS \downarrow | Method | r ai ains | LPIPS \downarrow | DISTS \downarrow | LPIPS \downarrow | DIST |
| Caption | 0.3403 | 0.1931 | 0.3237 | 0.1840 | T5-small | 60M | 0.3260 | 0.1911 | 0.3218 | 0.18 |
| Degradation | 0.3211 | 0.1820 | 0.3086 | 0.1727 | CLIP | 428M | 0.3211 | 0.1820 | 0.3086 | 0.17 |
| Both | 0.3247 | 0.1884 | 0.3104 | 0.1770 | T5-xl | 3B | 0.3151 | 0.1753 | 0.3056 | 0.16 |

394 Moreover, we visualize the impact of different prompts on the SR results in Fig. 5. We observe that 395 the method can remove part of the noise for the image with severe noise when the prompt indicates 396 *[light noise]* in the left instance. Conversely, a suitable prompt, *i.e.*, *[heavy noise]*, can restore a 397 more realistic result. Meanwhile, for images at the right, a simplified prompt, *i.e.*, [medium noise], can yield a relatively **satisfactory result**. Further refining the prompt, *i.e.*, [+*light blur*], can further 398 improve the restoration outcome. These results demonstrate the flexibility of our prompts. 399

400 4.2.2 TWO RESIZING OPERATIONS

401 We investigate the different number of resizing operations in the degradation. The results are pre-402 sented in Tab. 2. We can find that the model with two resizings performs better. This is because one 403 single resizing is fixed at $\frac{1}{4}$ in the $\times 4$ SR task. Introducing an additional resizing allows for variable 404 scales, expands the degradation scope, and enhances the generality of the model. 405

4.2.3 FLEXIBLE FORMAT 406

407 We investigate the different formats of the degradation and prompt. The results are revealed in Tab. 3. Firstly, in Tab. 3a, we compare fixed and random degradation orders. The results indicate 408 that random order slightly lowers performance. It may be because random order expands the degra-409 dation space (generalization), thus increasing training complexity and diminishing performance. To 410 balance performance and generalization, we opt for the fixed order shown in Fig. 2. 411

412 Secondly, in Tab. 3b, we compare three prompt formats. The comparison shows that complete prompts (Original) reveal the best performance. Meanwhile, prompt order has little effect. More-413 over, the simplified prompt can yield relatively good results due to the model generalization. Overall, 414 our method exhibits fine generalization, supporting a flexible variety of degradation and prompt. 415

416 4.2.4 TEXT PROMPT FOR DEGRADATION

417 We study the effects of different content of text prompts. The results are presented in Tab. 4. 418 We compare three types of text prompt content. All experiments are conducted on our proposed 419 PromptSR. The comparison shows that descriptions of degradation (Degradation) are more suitable 420 for the SR task than image content descriptions (Caption). This is consistent with our analysis in 421 Sec. 3.1.2. Additionally, combining both descriptions results in a slight performance drop compared 422 to using degradation prompts alone. This could be due to the disparity between the two descriptions, which hinders the utilization of degradation information provided by text prompts. 423

424 4.2.5 PRE-TRAINED TEXT ENCODER 425

We further explore the impact of different text encoders, with the results detailed in Tab. 5. We 426 utilize several pre-trained text encoders: CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) (clip-vit-large) and T5 (Raffel 427 et al., 2020) (T5-small and T5-xl). We discover that models employing different text encoders 428 display varied performance. Applying more powerful language models as text encoders enhances 429 model performance. For instance, T5-xl, compared to T5-small, reduces the LPIPS on the LSDIR 430 and DIV2K validation sets by 0.0109 and 0.0162, respectively. Moreover, it is also notable that 431 the performance of the model is not entirely proportional to the parameter size of the text encoder. Considering both model performance and parameter size, we select CLIP as the text encoder.

| Dataset | Metric | DAN | Real-ESRGAN+ | BSRGAN | SwinIR-GAN | FeMaSR | Stable Diffusion | DiffBIR | PromptSR (ours |
|-----------|-----------------------|--------|--------------|--------|------------|--------|------------------|---------|----------------|
| | PSNR ↑ | 21.12 | 20.89 | 21.66 | 20.91 | 20.37 | 20.201 | 21.73 | 21.39 |
| | SSIM ↑ | 0.5240 | 0.5997 | 0.6014 | 0.6013 | 0.5573 | 0.4852 | 0.5896 | 0.6130 |
| | LPIPS \downarrow | 0.5835 | 0.2621 | 0.2835 | 0.2547 | 0.2725 | 0.4589 | 0.2586 | 0.2500 |
| Urban100 | ST-LPIPS \downarrow | 0.4457 | 0.2494 | 0.2748 | 0.2376 | 0.2442 | 0.3845 | 0.2686 | 0.2262 |
| | DISTS \downarrow | 0.3125 | 0.1762 | 0.1857 | 0.1676 | 0.1877 | 0.2505 | 0.1857 | 0.1857 |
| | | 0.4033 | 0.6635 | 0.6247 | 0.6614 | 0.6781 | 0.5870 | 0.6517 | 0.6732 |
| | NIMA ↑ | 4.1485 | 5.3135 | 5.3671 | 5.3622 | 5.4161 | 4.6368 | 5.4010 | 5.5059 |
| | PSNR ↑ | 21.78 | 21.62 | 22.26 | 21.81 | 21.46 | 18.76 | 21.37 | 20.82 |
| | SSIM ↑ | 0.6138 | 0.7217 | 0.7218 | 0.7258 | 0.6891 | 0.5412 | 0.6738 | 0.7048 |
| | LPIPS \downarrow | 0.4238 | 0.2051 | 0.2194 | 0.2047 | 0.2145 | 0.3699 | 0.2198 | 0.1856 |
| Manga109 | ST-LPIPS \downarrow | | 0.1649 | 0.1789 | 0.1590 | 0.1520 | 0.2750 | 0.1679 | 0.1205 |
| | DISTS \downarrow | 0.2101 | 0.1252 | 0.1396 | 0.1185 | 0.1418 | 0.1638 | 0.1380 | 0.1373 |
| | CNNIQA ↑ | 0.4172 | 0.6651 | 0.6550 | 0.6673 | 0.6735 | 0.6691 | 0.6988 | 0.6929 |
| | NIMA \uparrow | 4.1478 | 4.9825 | 5.1913 | 4.8784 | 5.0625 | 4.6493 | 5.1738 | 5.4211 |
| | PSNR ↑ | 22.71 | 22.40 | 22.95 | 22.34 | 21.19 | 19.91 | 22.63 | 22.44 |
| | SSIM ↑ | 0.5578 | 0.6115 | 0.6067 | 0.6067 | 0.5542 | 0.4487 | 0.5725 | 0.6070 |
| | LPIPS \downarrow | 0.6038 | 0.2932 | 0.3103 | 0.2911 | 0.2917 | 0.4489 | 0.3104 | 0.2810 |
| LSDIR-Val | ST-LPIPS \downarrow | | 0.2502 | 0.2727 | 0.2440 | 0.2362 | 0.3521 | 0.2827 | 0.2258 |
| | DISTS \downarrow | 0.2760 | 0.1627 | 0.1713 | 0.1598 | 0.1533 | 0.2240 | 0.1758 | 0.1548 |
| | | 0.3924 | 0.6417 | 0.5960 | 0.6277 | 0.6716 | 0.6563 | 0.5339 | 0.6726 |
| | NIMA ↑ | 4.0724 | 4.9878 | 5.0790 | 4.9551 | 5.1998 | 4.4452 | 5.1883 | 5.2538 |
| | PSNR ↑ | 24.98 | 25.24 | 25.73 | 25.73 | 23.80 | 21.47 | 25.56 | 25.14 |
| | SSIM ↑ | 0.6052 | 0.7017 | 0.6925 | 0.6932 | 0.6310 | 0.5120 | 0.6653 | 0.6813 |
| | LPIPS \downarrow | 0.6315 | 0.2896 | 0.3006 | 0.2854 | 0.2899 | 0.4709 | 0.2973 | 0.2753 |
| DIV2K-Val | | 0.4487 | 0.2186 | 0.2259 | 0.2090 | 0.2061 | 0.2307 | 0.3717 | 0.1913 |
| | DISTS \downarrow | 0.2668 | 0.1548 | 0.1632 | 0.1497 | 0.1451 | 0.2239 | 0.1809 | 0.1484 |
| | | 0.3897 | 0.6238 | 0.5908 | 0.6125 | 0.6617 | 0.5814 | 0.6380 | 0.6748 |
| | NIMA ↑ | 4.0737 | 4.8202 | 4.9330 | 4.8015 | 5.0451 | 4.3881 | 5.0213 | 5.0834 |

Table 6: Quantitative comparison (\times 4) on synthetic datasets with state-of-the-art methods. The best and second-best results are colored red and blue.



Figure 6: Visual comparison (\times 4) on synthetic datasets with state-of-the-art methods. Our method restores images with high realism and fidelity. Please zoom in for a better view.

4.3 EVALUATION ON SYNTHETIC DATASETS

We compare our method with several recent state-of-the-art methods: DAN (Huang et al., 2020),
Real-ESRGAN+ (Wang et al., 2021), BSRGAN (Zhang et al., 2021), SwinIR-GAN (Liang et al., 2021), FeMaSR (Chen et al., 2022a), Stable Diffusion (Rombach et al., 2022), and DiffBIR (Lin et al., 2024). We show quantitative results in Tab. 6 and visual results in Fig. 6.

478 4.3.1 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

We evaluate our method on some synthetic test datasets: Urban100 (Huang et al., 2015), Manga109 (Matsui et al., 2017), LSDIR-Val (Li et al., 2023), and DIV2K-Val (Timofte et al., 2017) in Tab. 6. Our method outperforms others on most perceptual metrics. For instance, compared to the suboptimal model SwinIR-GAN (Liang et al., 2021), our method reduces the LPIPS by 0.0101 on the DIV2K-Val dataset. Meanwhile, compared with DiffBIR (Lin et al., 2024), our PromptSR achieves a reduction in LPIPS by 0.0294 and 0.0220 on LSDIR-Val and DIV2K-Val, respectively. Moreover, for PSNR and SSIM, the two metrics are only used as references, since they do not consistently align well with the image quality (Saharia et al., 2022b). These quantitative results demonstrate that introducing text prompts into image SR can effectively improve performance.

| Dataset | Metric | DAN | Real-ESRGAN+ | BSRGAN | SwinIR-GAN | FeMaSR | Stable Diffusion | DiffBIR | PromptSR (ours) |
|---------|------------|--------|--------------|--------|------------|--------|------------------|---------|-----------------|
| | PSNR ↑ | 27.82 | 25.62 | 27.04 | 26.54 | 25.74 | 24.11 | 27.42 | 26.71 |
| | SSIM ↑ | 0.7978 | 0.7582 | 0.7911 | 0.7918 | 0.7643 | 0.6980 | 0.7790 | 0.7821 |
| | LPIPS ↓ | 0.4041 | 0.2843 | 0.2657 | 0.2765 | 0.2938 | 0.5035 | 0.3434 | 0.2702 |
| | ST-LPIPS ↓ | 0.3798 | 0.2165 | 0.1978 | 0.2078 | 0.1990 | 0.4122 | 0.2506 | 0.1937 |
| | DISTS ↓ | 0.2362 | 0.1732 | 0.1730 | 0.1672 | 0.1927 | 0.2441 | 0.2140 | 0.1820 |
| | CNNIQA ↑ | 0.2583 | 0.5755 | 0.5626 | 0.5208 | 0.5916 | 0.4465 | 0.5544 | 0.6376 |
| | NIMÂ ↑ | 3.9388 | 4.7673 | 4.8896 | 4.7338 | 4.8745 | 4.1598 | 4.8295 | 4.8917 |

Table 7: Quantitative comparison (\times 4) on the real-world dataset with state-of-the-art methods. The best and second-best results are colored red and blue.





Figure 7: Visual comparison (\times 4) on real-world datasets with state-of-the-art methods. Our method can generate more realistic images. Please zoom in for a better view.

4.3.2 VISUAL RESULTS

We show some visual comparisons in Fig. 6. We can observe that our proposed PromptSR is capable of restoring clearer and more realistic images, in some challenging cases. This is consistent with the quantitative results. Furthermore, we provide more visual results in the supplementary material.

4.4 EVALUATION ON REAL-WORLD DATASETS

We further evaluate our method on real-world datasets. We apply our PromptSR for real image SR by MLLM-generated prompts as depicted in Sec. 3.1.2. For instance, the prompt for the first case in Fig. 7: [light blur, unchange, light noise, heavy compression, downsample]. More prompts on real-world images are provided in the supplementary material.

4.4.1 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

We present the quantitative comparison on RealSR (Cai et al., 2019) in Tab. 7. Our PromptSR achieves the best performance on most perceptual and aesthetic metrics, including ST-LPIPS, CN-NIQA, and NIMA. Meanwhile, it also scores well on LPIPS. These results further demonstrate the superiority of introducing text prompts into image SR tasks.

4.4.2 VISUAL RESULTS

We present some visual results in Fig. 7. Except for the RealSR dataset, we also conduct an evalua-tion on the Real45 dataset, collected from the internet. Our proposed method also outperforms other methods on real-world datasets. More comparison are provided in the supplementary material.

CONCLUSION

In this work, we introduce the text prompts to provide degradation priors for enhancing image SR. Specifically, we develop a text-image generation pipeline to integrate text into the SR dataset, via text degradation representation and degradation model. The text representation is flexible and user-friendly. Meanwhile, we propose the PromptSR to realize the text prompt SR. The PromptSR applies the pre-trained language model to enhance text guidance and improve performance. We train our PromptSR on the generated text-image dataset and evaluate it on both synthetic and real-world datasets. Extensive experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of introducing text into SR.

| 540 541 | ETHICS STATEMENT |
|-------------------|---|
| 542 543 | The research conducted in the paper conforms, in every respect, with the ICLR Code of Ethics. |
| 544 545 | Reproducibility Statement |
| 546 547 548 | We have provided implementation details in Sec. 4.1. We will also release all the code and models. |
| 549 | References |
| 550 551 552 | Omri Avrahami, Dani Lischinski, and Ohad Fried. Blended diffusion for text-driven editing of natural images. In CVPR, 2022. |
| 553 554 | Omer Bar-Tal, Dolev Ofri-Amar, Rafail Fridman, Yoni Kasten, and Tali Dekel. Text2live: Text- driven layered image and video editing. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2022. |
| 555 556 557 | Sefi Bell-Kligler, Assaf Shocher, and Michal Irani. Blind super-resolution kernel estimation using an internal-gan. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2019. |
| 558 559 | Tim Brooks, Aleksander Holynski, and Alexei A Efros. Instructpix2pix: Learning to follow image editing instructions. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2023. |
| 560 561 562 | Adrian Bulat, Jing Yang, and Georgios Tzimiropoulos. To learn image super-resolution, use a gan to learn how to do image degradation first. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2018. |
| 563 564 | Jianrui Cai, Hui Zeng, Hongwei Yong, Zisheng Cao, and Lei Zhang. Toward real-world single image super-resolution: A new benchmark and a new model. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2019. |
| 565 566 567 | Kelvin CK Chan, Xintao Wang, Xiangyu Xu, Jinwei Gu, and Chen Change Loy. Glean: Generative latent bank for large-factor image super-resolution. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2021. |
| 568 569 570 | Chaofeng Chen, Xinyu Shi, Yipeng Qin, Xiaoming Li, Xiaoguang Han, Tao Yang, and Shihui Guo. Real-world blind super-resolution via feature matching with implicit high-resolution priors. In <i>ACM MM</i> , 2022a. |
| 571 572 573 | Zheng Chen, Yulun Zhang, Jinjin Gu, Yongbing Zhang, Linghe Kong, and Xin Yuan. Cross aggre- gation transformer for image restoration. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022b. |
| 574 575 | Zheng Chen, Yulun Zhang, Jinjin Gu, Linghe Kong, Xiaokang Yang, and Fisher Yu. Dual aggregation transformer for image super-resolution. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2023. |
| 576 577 578 | Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In <i>NAACL</i> , 2019. |
| 579 580 | Keyan Ding, Kede Ma, Shiqi Wang, and Eero P Simoncelli. Image quality assessment: Unifying structure and texture similarity. <i>TPAMI</i> , 2020. |
| 581 582 583 | Chao Dong, Chen Change Loy, Kaiming He, and Xiaoou Tang. Learning a deep convolutional network for image super-resolution. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2014. |
| 584 | Abhijay Ghildyal and Feng Liu. Shift-tolerant perceptual similarity metric. In ECCV, 2022. |
| 585 586 587 | Jinjin Gu, Hannan Lu, Wangmeng Zuo, and Chao Dong. Blind super-resolution with iterative kernel correction. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2019. |
| 588 589 | Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recog- nition. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2016. |
| 590 591 | Amir Hertz, Ron Mokady, Jay Tenenbaum, Kfir Aberman, Yael Pritch, and Daniel Cohen-Or. Prompt-to-prompt image editing with cross attention control. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022. |
| 592 593 | Jonathan Ho, Ajay Jain, and Pieter Abbeel. Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2020. |

| 594 595 596 | Jia-Bin Huang, Abhishek Singh, and Narendra Ahuja. Single image super-resolution from trans- formed self-exemplars. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2015. |
|--------------------------|--|
| 597 598 | Yan Huang, Shang Li, Liang Wang, Tieniu Tan, et al. Unfolding the alternating optimization for blind super resolution. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2020. |
| 599 600 601 | Yuming Jiang, Kelvin CK Chan, Xintao Wang, Chen Change Loy, and Ziwei Liu. Robust reference- based super-resolution via c2-matching. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2021. |
| 602 603 | Le Kang, Peng Ye, Yi Li, and David Doermann. Convolutional neural networks for no-reference image quality assessment. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2014. |
| 604 605 606 | Tero Karras, Samuli Laine, and Timo Aila. A style-based generator architecture for generative adversarial networks. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2019. |
| 607 608 609 | Bahjat Kawar, Michael Elad, Stefano Ermon, and Jiaming Song. Denoising diffusion restoration models. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022. |
| 610 611 | Bahjat Kawar, Shiran Zada, Oran Lang, Omer Tov, Huiwen Chang, Tali Dekel, Inbar Mosseri, and Michal Irani. Imagic: Text-based real image editing with diffusion models. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2023. |
| 612 613 614 | Gwanghyun Kim, Taesung Kwon, and Jong Chul Ye. Diffusionclip: Text-guided diffusion models for robust image manipulation. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2022. |
| 615 | Diederik Kingma and Jimmy Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In ICLR, 2015. |
| 616 617 618 | Zhifeng Kong, Wei Ping, Jiaji Huang, Kexin Zhao, and Bryan Catanzaro. Diffwave: A versatile diffusion model for audio synthesis. In <i>ICLR</i> , 2020. |
| 619 620 621 | Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Caiming Xiong, and Steven Hoi. Blip: Bootstrapping language-image pre- training for unified vision-language understanding and generation. In <i>ICML</i> , 2022a. |
| 622 623 | Xiang Li, John Thickstun, Ishaan Gulrajani, Percy S Liang, and Tatsunori B Hashimoto. Diffusion- lm improves controllable text generation. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022b. |
| 624 625 626 627 | Yawei Li, Kai Zhang, Jingyun Liang, Jiezhang Cao, Ce Liu, Rui Gong, Yulun Zhang, Hao Tang, Yun Liu, Denis Demandolx, et al. Lsdir: A large scale dataset for image restoration. In <i>CVPRW</i> , 2023. |
| 628 629 | Jingyun Liang, Jiezhang Cao, Guolei Sun, Kai Zhang, Luc Van Gool, and Radu Timofte. Swinir: Image restoration using swin transformer. In <i>ICCVW</i> , 2021. |
| 630 631 632 633 | Xinqi Lin, Jingwen He, Ziyan Chen, Zhaoyang Lyu, Ben Fei, Bo Dai, Wanli Ouyang, Yu Qiao, and Chao Dong. Diffbir: Towards blind image restoration with generative diffusion prior. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2024. |
| 634 635 | Anran Liu, Yihao Liu, Jinjin Gu, Yu Qiao, and Chao Dong. Blind image super-resolution: A survey and beyond. <i>TPAMI</i> , 2022. |
| 636 637 638 | Haotian Liu, Chunyuan Li, Qingyang Wu, and Yong Jae Lee. Visual instruction tuning. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2023. |
| 639 640 | Andreas Lugmayr, Martin Danelljan, Andres Romero, Fisher Yu, Radu Timofte, and Luc Van Gool. Repaint: Inpainting using denoising diffusion probabilistic models. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2022. |
| 641 642 643 | Yusuke Matsui, Kota Ito, Yuji Aramaki, Azuma Fujimoto, Toru Ogawa, Toshihiko Yamasaki, and Kiyoharu Aizawa. Sketch-based manga retrieval using manga109 dataset. <i>MTAP</i> , 2017. |
| 644 | OpenAI. Gpt-4 technical report. arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774, 2023. |
| 645 646 647 | Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Francisco Massa, Adam Lerer, James Bradbury, Gregory Chanan, Trevor Killeen, Zeming Lin, Natalia Gimelshein, Luca Antiga, et al. Pytorch: An imperative style, high-performance deep learning library. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2019. |

663

668

679

684

- Or Patashnik, Zongze Wu, Eli Shechtman, Daniel Cohen-Or, and Dani Lischinski. Styleclip: Text-driven manipulation of stylegan imagery. In *ICCV*, 2021.
- Can Qin, Shu Zhang, Ning Yu, Yihao Feng, Xinyi Yang, Yingbo Zhou, Huan Wang, Juan Carlos Niebles, Caiming Xiong, Silvio Savarese, et al. Unicontrol: A unified diffusion model for controllable visual generation in the wild. In *NeurIPS*, 2023.
- Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Aditya Ramesh, Gabriel Goh, Sandhini Agarwal,
 Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Pamela Mishkin, Jack Clark, et al. Learning transferable visual
 models from natural language supervision. In *ICML*, 2021.
- Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi
 Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text
 transformer. *JMLR*, 2020.
- Aditya Ramesh, Mikhail Pavlov, Gabriel Goh, Scott Gray, Chelsea Voss, Alec Radford, Mark Chen,
 and Ilya Sutskever. Zero-shot text-to-image generation. In *ICML*, 2021.
- Aditya Ramesh, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alex Nichol, Casey Chu, and Mark Chen. Hierarchical textconditional image generation with clip latents. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.06125*, 2022.
- Robin Rombach, Andreas Blattmann, Dominik Lorenz, Patrick Esser, and Björn Ommer. High resolution image synthesis with latent diffusion models. In *CVPR*, 2022.
- Olaf Ronneberger, Philipp Fischer, and Thomas Brox. U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation. In *MICCAI*, 2015.
- ⁶⁷¹ Chitwan Saharia, William Chan, Saurabh Saxena, Lala Li, Jay Whang, Emily L Denton, Kamyar
 ⁶⁷² Ghasemipour, Raphael Gontijo Lopes, Burcu Karagol Ayan, Tim Salimans, et al. Photorealistic
 ⁶⁷³ text-to-image diffusion models with deep language understanding. In *NeurIPS*, 2022a.
- 674
 675 Chitwan Saharia, Jonathan Ho, William Chan, Tim Salimans, David J Fleet, and Mohammad Norouzi. Image super-resolution via iterative refinement. *TPAMI*, 2022b.
- Jiaming Song, Chenlin Meng, and Stefano Ermon. Denoising diffusion implicit models. In *ICLR*, 2020.
- Hossein Talebi and Peyman Milanfar. Nima: Neural image assessment. *TIP*, 2018.
- Radu Timofte, Eirikur Agustsson, Luc Van Gool, Ming-Hsuan Yang, Lei Zhang, Bee Lim, Sanghyun
 Son, Heewon Kim, Seungjun Nah, Kyoung Mu Lee, et al. Ntire 2017 challenge on single image
 super-resolution: Methods and results. In *CVPRW*, 2017.
- Jianyi Wang, Zongsheng Yue, Shangchen Zhou, Kelvin CK Chan, and Chen Change Loy. Exploiting
 diffusion prior for real-world image super-resolution. *IJCV*, 2024.
- Kintao Wang, Liangbin Xie, Chao Dong, and Ying Shan. Real-esrgan: Training real-world blind super-resolution with pure synthetic data. In *ICCVW*, 2021.
- Yinhuai Wang, Jiwen Yu, and Jian Zhang. Zero-shot image restoration using denoising diffusion
 null-space model. In *ICLR*, 2023.
- ⁶⁹² Zhou Wang, Alan C Bovik, Hamid R Sheikh, and Eero P Simoncelli. Image quality assessment: from error visibility to structural similarity. *TIP*, 2004.
- Yunxuan Wei, Shuhang Gu, Yawei Li, Radu Timofte, Longcun Jin, and Hengjie Song. Unsupervised
 real-world image super resolution via domain-distance aware training. In *CVPR*, 2021.
- Jay Whang, Mauricio Delbracio, Hossein Talebi, Chitwan Saharia, Alexandros G Dimakis, and
 Peyman Milanfar. Deblurring via stochastic refinement. In *CVPR*, 2022.
- Haoning Wu, Zicheng Zhang, Erli Zhang, Chaofeng Chen, Liang Liao, Annan Wang, Kaixin Xu,
 Chunyi Li, Jingwen Hou, Guangtao Zhai, et al. Q-instruct: Improving low-level visual abilities for multi-modality foundation models. In *CVPR*, 2024.

| 702 703 704 | Tao Yang, Peiran Ren, Xuansong Xie, and Lei Zhang. Gan prior embedded network for blind face restoration in the wild. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2021. |
|-------------------|---|
| 705 706 707 | Qinghao Ye, Haiyang Xu, Jiabo Ye, Ming Yan, Anwen Hu, Haowei Liu, Qi Qian, Ji Zhang, and Fei Huang. mplug-owl2: Revolutionizing multi-modal large language model with modality collaboration. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024. |
| 708 709 710 | Kai Zhang, Wangmeng Zuo, and Lei Zhang. Learning a single convolutional super-resolution net- work for multiple degradations. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2018a. |
| 711 712 | Kai Zhang, Luc Van Gool, and Radu Timofte. Deep unfolding network for image super-resolution. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2020. |
| 713 714 715 | Kai Zhang, Jingyun Liang, Luc Van Gool, and Radu Timofte. Designing a practical degradation model for deep blind image super-resolution. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2021. |
| 716 717 | Lvmin Zhang, Anyi Rao, and Maneesh Agrawala. Adding conditional control to text-to-image diffusion models. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2023a. |
| 718 719 720 | Richard Zhang, Phillip Isola, Alexei A Efros, Eli Shechtman, and Oliver Wang. The unreasonable effectiveness of deep features as a perceptual metric. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2018b. |
| 721 722 723 | Ruofan Zhang, Jinjin Gu, Haoyu Chen, Chao Dong, Yulun Zhang, and Wenming Yang. Crafting training degradation distribution for the accuracy-generalization trade-off in real-world super-resolution. In <i>ICML</i> , 2023b. |
| 724 725 726 | Yulun Zhang, Kunpeng Li, Kai Li, Lichen Wang, Bineng Zhong, and Yun Fu. Image super- resolution using very deep residual channel attention networks. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2018c. |
| 727 | |
| 728 | |
| 729 730 | |
| 731 | |
| 732 | |
| 733 | |
| 734 | |
| 735 | |
| 736 | |
| 737 | |
| 738 | |
| 739 | |
| 740 | |
| 741 | |
| 742 | |
| 743 | |
| 744 | |
| 745 | |
| 746 747 | |
| 747 | |
| 740 | |
| 749 | |
| 751 | |
| 752 | |
| 753 | |
| 754 | |
| 755 | |