

Adversarial Auto-Augmentation for Data-Efficient Single Image Dehazing

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Abstract

Supervised learning-based image dehazing algorithms are sensitive to degradation and training distribution, making them ill-suited for out-of-domain non-uniform restoration. We propose an adversarial auto-augmentation approach to address this limitation without explicitly collecting paired training data. Specifically, we generate images with a broad distribution representative of multiple domains by varying the degradation and color profiles achieved by leveraging new augmentation techniques, including mean-variance transfer, physically accurate atmospheric scattering model, and localized degradation generation. These techniques effectively account for non-homogeneous degradations, enhancing the robustness of the underlying degradation model. Apart from utilizing these synthetic negative images to train the underlying network, these also provide diverse image representations for enabling more effective contrastive regularization. In addition to the training modifications, we propose a frequency-based feature fusion mechanism that prioritizes semantic and structural information from the decoder and encoder. Finally, we incorporate depth and color attenuation priors to ensure perceptually pleasing and physically accurate restoration quality. To evaluate the efficacy of the proposed mechanism, we perform comprehensive experiments and obtain state-of-the-art (SoTA) results while achieving high fidelity and improving the performance of perception-based algorithms without fine tuning.

1. Introduction

Image dehazing has emerged as a widely researched field, driven by enhancing scene visibility and recovering regions affected by the haze. Such algorithms play a vital role in improving the perceptual fidelity of images [61, 60, 68, 25, 42, 56], benefiting human vision and facilitating high-level perception tasks such as semantic segmentation [53, 54, 57, 33], depth estimation [7] and object detection [28, 12, 34]. SoTA techniques in image dehazing have made significant strides by utilizing paired datasets to train restoration networks in an end-to-end mechanism. Despite their advancements, the performance of supervised



Figure 1. Demonstration of dehazing on images (top) from training distribution and (bottom) outside training distribution using AECRNet [68] as the baseline on Images from NH-Haze2 [5] and ACDC [55] datasets, respectively.

learning algorithms relies heavily on specific training distributions, making them susceptible to poor performance when applied to images outside training distribution, as shown in Fig. 1. This limitation necessitates exploring more robust and adaptable approaches to overcome the sensitivity to training distributions and achieve better generalization capabilities.

Since such algorithms rely on large paired training datasets, which can be time-consuming and resource-intensive to gather, alternatively synthetic datasets have been employed to mitigate this limitation by leveraging the atmospheric scattering model [48] (ASM) to generate synthetic hazy images using clean images. This generates paired training data for the underlying neural network to learn the restoration process. The ASM establishes a relationship between the hazy image (I) and the haze-free image (J) using parameters such as atmospheric light ($A \in [0, 1]$), scene depth ($d(x)$), and atmospheric scattering coefficient ($\beta \in [0, 1]$), as outlined in Eq. 1. However, algorithms trained on synthetic datasets tend to exhibit poor generalization on real hazy images due to domain gaps arising from diverse levels of haze density and distribution [60].

$$I(x) = J(x) * t(x) + A(1 - t(x)) \text{ where } t(x) = e^{-\beta * d(x)} \quad (1)$$

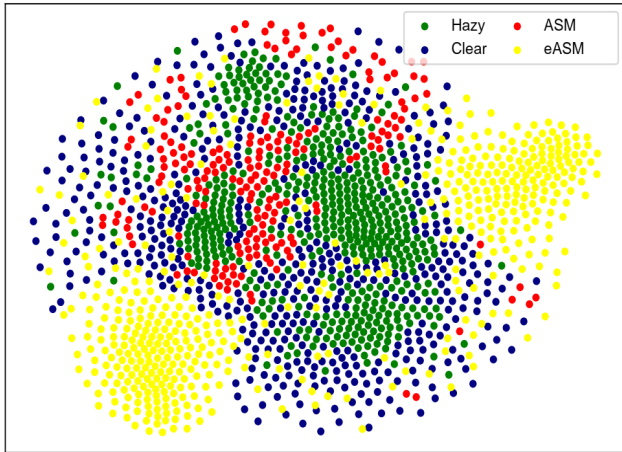


Figure 2. t-SNE plot of images captured in clear, hazy from NH-Dehaze [4] along with haze generated by atmospheric scattering model and proposed extension to qualitatively demonstrate non-overlapping and minimal overlap of feature distributions.

Specifically we attribute the performance gap to arise due to diverse chromatic differences in real-world datasets and the sub-optimal representation of the ASM in synthetic datasets. Addressing the former, real-world haze datasets can exhibit distinct tone curves from different cameras leading to a significant color distribution shift. As illustrated in the t-sne plot [63] shown in Fig. 2, these diverse distributions result in either non-or minimally overlapping feature spaces. This is counter-intuitive as one would expect a higher overlap in distribution, given the objective to model similar degradation characteristics. Hence, while combining multiple datasets improves domain-invariant performance compared to single-domain training, it may still yield sub-optimal results. For the latter part, i.e., synthetic dataset generation, we observe that prior approaches often adopt a simplified gray-scale uniform particle representation of atmospheric light (A) and scattering coefficient (β), overlooking the effects of different particle sizes on different wavelengths of light. We base this conclusion on observing a single-channel representation of atmospheric light with a fixed global value for the scattering coefficient. This is unrealistic in natural conditions, wherein particles of varying sizes can be non-homogeneously dispersed throughout natural scenes, introducing additional non-linearities in the haze generation process.

Apart from distribution gaps, the performance gap is also caused when using fixed synthetic datasets that only capture specific configurations of haze. This creates bias since complex training samples are not sufficiently represented and sampled. Consequently, the neural network’s performance becomes bound by the limited diversity of haze samples during training. To address these issues, we propose an adversarial auto-augmentation pipeline that generates synthetic haze samples, varying their difficulty based on the

restoration capability of the underlying network. This approach enriches the training data, enabling the network to handle a broader range of challenging scenarios and enhancing its generalization capacity. To ensure robustness to multiple tone curves from real-world datasets, we utilize a large data bank encompassing mean and variance information, facilitating the transfer of color profiles from multiple cameras without significant computational overhead. Extending the atmospheric scattering model (extended-ASM), we account for non-homogeneous particle distribution effects across wavelengths in the visible spectrum, integrating it into the auto-augmentation pipeline. This mechanism generates training images and provides an alternative view for computing contrastive loss, thereby improving perceptual fidelity. Finally, we propose depth and color attenuation-based loss optimizations to guarantee physical accuracy and color consistency in the restored images. By comprehensively addressing these challenges, our proposed approach advances image dehazing by bridging performance gaps, capturing diverse haze conditions, and improving perceptual quality and physical accuracy. We summarize our contributions as,

- We identify performance gaps caused by fixed synthetic datasets and real-world hazy datasets leading to sub-optimal optimization.
- We propose the integration of a data-bank for tone-transfer of real-world hazy images to ensure robustness towards camera sensors.
- We propose an adversarial auto-augmentation pipeline that generates synthetic haze samples of varying difficulty based on the restoration capability of the network by expanding the ASM.
- We utilize depth and color attenuation-based loss optimizations to guarantee physical accuracy and color consistency in the restored images.

2. Related Works

2.1. Single Image Dehazing

Early works focusing on image dehazing leveraged empirical statistics to construct prior-based dehazing mechanisms such as dark channel prior [26], non-local prior [6], color attenuation prior [78] and contrast maximization [62]. However, such simplistic approaches were found to be inadequate in representing complex haze models and subsequently restoring them. To alleviate the performance limitation, the atmospheric scattering model [48] was proposed, and different works [21, 70, 65, 44, 64] focused on estimating its components to restore a haze-affected image. However, such methods faced challenges due to error accumulation when estimating different properties. Recently learning-based approaches were developed [61, 15, 25, 42, 49, 56] that model image dehazing as an

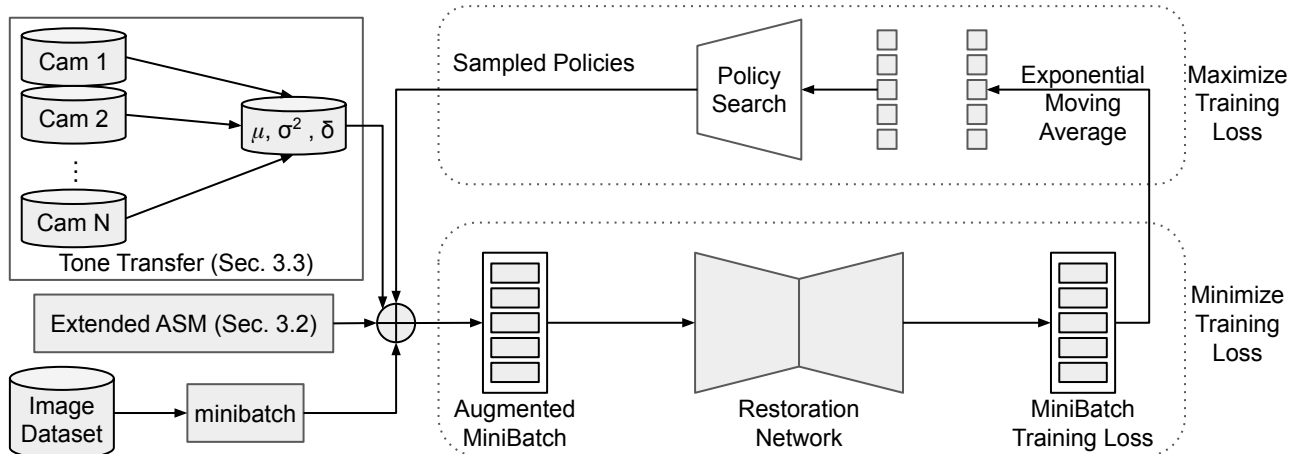


Figure 3. Overview of the proposed Adversarial Auto-Augmentation Approach for training robust single image dehazing algorithms.

end-to-end objective wherein an underlying neural network learned the representation space between a given pair of hazy and clean images. While these works focused on designing robust learning architectures, another line of work [30, 68] focused on improving the perceptual quality without making any architectural changes. Specifically, [68] demonstrated that it is possible to create compact dehazing algorithms while constraining the latent space to generate perceptually pleasant images using contrastive loss [11]. However, the reliance on a large amount of paired training data resulted in the network performing consistently when the distribution of the test set and training set matched. To overcome this limitation, an alternative mechanism leveraging unpaired-image translation [22], combining real and synthetic datasets [60], semi-supervised image translation [77] with additional focus on ensuring consistent performance on the synthetic dataset as well [71, 56].

Despite these efforts, we observe a significant performance gap when the distribution of the test set differs from the training set. Specifically, haze distribution and tone curves differ for synthetic and real datasets. Combining these datasets naively can result in multiple partially overlapping distributions, as observed in Fig. 2. Thus for an underlying restoration network to be domain invariant, the network should be able to generalize for all distributions, which is not guaranteed when using a fixed configuration synthetic dataset.

2.2. Data Efficient Training

In order to increase the diversity of training samples, data augmentation techniques are proposed that synthetically increase dataset size, given a fixed dataset. This approach has demonstrated effectiveness for both low [59, 8] and high-level vision tasks [74, 23]. These techniques can be categorized either as transformation-based (Flipping, Cropping), Region-based (Cut-Mix [72], Cut-Out [20], Copy-Blend [59]) and Color-based (Brightness, Contrast, Jit-

ter). However, such simplistic approaches do not consider the model performance and are randomly applied. Thus these approaches cannot restrict training dataset bias to flow into the trained network resulting in sub-optimal performance. To overcome this limitation, composite augmentations [37, 69, 76, 18, 38] that can improve the performance and generalization of the network automatically were proposed. The key idea is to generate synthetic samples with varying difficulty levels via augmentation policies, taking into account the performance of the underlying network. These augmentation policies are generated by a separate policy network jointly trained with the target network in an adversarial framework [24]. The objective for the target network is to minimize the loss, while for the policy network is to design augmentation policies that maximize network loss. These approaches have shown promising results in high-level vision tasks such as classification [18, 46, 19], detection [13, 19] and segmentation [43] but are relatively unexplored for image restoration. We attribute this to the change in problem scope, wherein for high-level vision tasks, the objective is to ensure robust performance in changes in object appearance, lighting conditions, and scene complexity. However, for low-level tasks, the objective is to recover image details and improve perceptual quality. Hence for each restoration task, tailored augmentation policies are required. Nevertheless, given a physically accurate degradation model, the haze density and distribution can be adjusted using such an approach to ensure a robust and data-efficient image dehazing.

3. Methodology

3.1. Frequency based Feature Fusion

We highlight data-driven image dehazing algorithms to be constructed in a UNet [52] based manner with an encoder-decoder architecture and skip connections to facilitate edge information transfer. The encoder extracts fea-

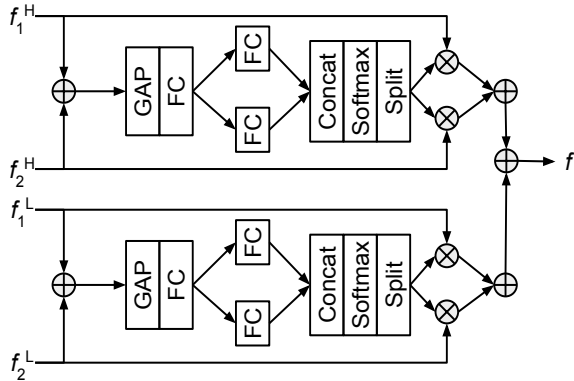


Figure 4. Overview of the proposed Frequency based Feature Fusion mechanism.

tures rich in semantic information, emphasizing high-level semantic details as the encoder progresses with increasing receptive field size. On the other hand, the decoder performs the upsampling operation to reconstruct the output image from the encoded features. The decoder also has access to fine-grained details and local information from the prior encoder block, which is available via skip connections. To fuse these complementary features, we introduce a gating mechanism that selectively adjusts the information concatenation between the skip connection and decoder block to reduce computational complexity. Distinct from previous works [61, 73, 36] that focused on enhancing feature representation within the fusion layer, we investigate the fusion operation from a frequency domain perspective. Our motivation stems from the observation that the frequency spectrum effectively demarcates low and high-frequency components, enabling selective sub-band information recovery. To realize this, we construct a low-pass filter using batch normalization, convolutional filters, and average pooling operations, as inspired by [?]. Dynamically adapting the cut-off frequency, we divide the input feature map into groups of four, facilitating the derivation of the corresponding high-pass filter by subtracting the low-pass filter from the identity kernel. To illustrate the efficacy of our proposed frequency-based feature fusion, we provide a visual illustration in Fig. 4.

3.2. extended Atmospheric Scattering Model

In the context of atmospheric scattering modeling, current approaches commonly assume a uniform scattering coefficient and a gray-world scenario, treating particles’ impact on all visible spectrum wavelengths equally across the red, green, and blue channels within an image. However, this assumption overlooks the non-uniform nature of particle distribution and the varying impacts on different wavelengths in real-world settings. This discrepancy between the assumed and actual conditions creates limitations in synthetic datasets, contributing to the performance gap ob-

served between real and synthetic datasets in image dehazing. To address this issue, we propose breaking these constraints by introducing a non-uniform scattering coefficient distribution. We sample the scattering coefficient from a Gaussian distribution, resulting in a scattering coefficient tensor of dimensions $(\beta \in R^{H \times W \times 1})$ for an image with height (H) and width (W). Furthermore, we expand the atmospheric light from a single coefficient to a multi-channel representation to simulate the implications of different particle sizes. Each channel is independently sampled from a Gaussian distribution, yielding an atmospheric light tensor of dimensions $(A \in R^{H \times W \times 3})$. To ensure a wide variety of degradation landscapes, we employ a randomized mean and variance process for both the scattering coefficient and atmospheric light sampling. This approach allows us to capture diverse degradation scenarios and generate qualitative samples showcasing the extended atmospheric scattering model. By introducing non-uniformity in the scattering coefficient and accounting for multiple particle sizes in the atmospheric light, our approach expands the scope of degradations covered by synthetic datasets with qualitative samples provided in Fig. 5.

3.3. Tone-Transfer

Images captured by different cameras under the same illumination conditions exhibit variations due to differences in imaging sensor properties and image signal processing pipelines. These disparities manifest as imperceptible variations in noise models and result in noticeable color discrepancies that create a distribution shift. Consequently, dehazing algorithms experience performance inconsistencies when applied to images captured by different imaging sensors. To address this challenge and enhance the robustness of the underlying restoration network to different tone curves associated with distinct cameras, we propose a tone transfer mechanism utilizing mean(μ)-variance(σ^2) transfer. Specifically, we utilize multiple datasets to compute the average mean and variance of well-illuminated images and their respective deviations (δ), which are stored in a data bank. We leverage this data bank to sample different combinations of mean and variance values, enabling the conversion of the distribution of a clean image to another camera’s distribution following [51]. This tone transfer mechanism allows us to align the color characteristics of the input image with the target camera’s profile, enhancing the fidelity of the dehazed output. We include qualitative samples in Fig. 6.

3.4. Adversarial-Auto Augmentation

Current data augmentation approaches for image restoration typically rely on randomized intensity selection, which may lead to sub-optimal training of restoration algorithms due to the absence of a feedback mechanism to control

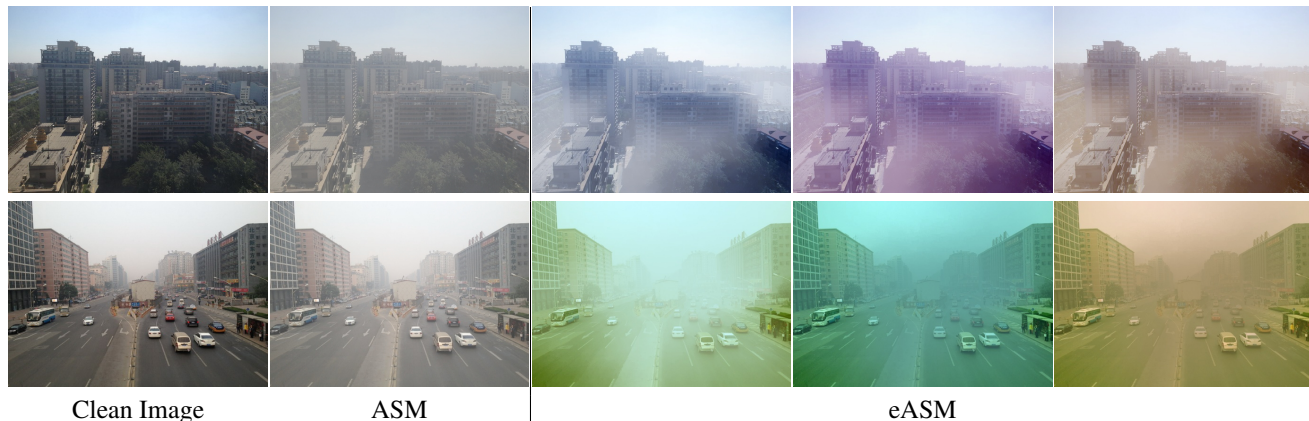


Figure 5. Samples generated using proposed extended atmospheric scattering model using clean images from RESIDE [35] dataset.

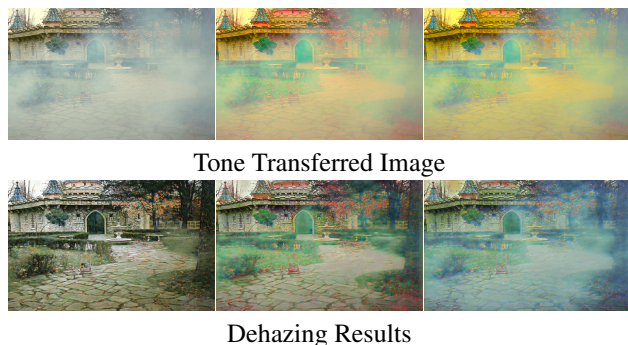


Figure 6. Samples generated using tone-transfer mechanism for a given clean image from NH-Haze [4] dataset in Fig. 7 and corresponding dehazing results from pretrained AECRNet [68].

degradation strength. To address this limitation, we propose a novel approach that enables dynamic degradation intensity adjustment based on the restoration network’s performance. While such techniques have been extensively studied for high-level perception tasks, their applicability to low-level vision tasks still needs to be explored. In line with our proposed approach, we build upon [76] and replace the augmentation functions with proposed extended-ASM, tone-transfer mechanisms and introduce localized degradation using the copy-blend [59] mechanism. This reduced search space of image operations includes rotation, flipping, copy-blend, tone-transfer, and synthetic haze generation. We use a 10-part uniformly distributed magnitude of operation for each augmentation. Hence the search space of policy for each epoch is $(6 \times 10)^{10} \approx 6.04 \times 10^{17}$ possibilities.

The critical advantage of auto-adversarial augmentation lies in its ability to generate diverse and realistic training samples, thereby enhancing the robustness and generalization of the underlying model. By exposing the model to a wide range of challenging samples, it can effectively learn to handle various variations and improve its performance on unseen data. In constructing the policy search network, we follow the adversarial auto-augmentation approach [76], leveraging its effectiveness in generating augmented sam-

ples and optimizing the training process for image restoration.

3.5. Physical and Perceptual Accuracy

Our approach incorporates depth and color consistency losses to ensure physically accurate and visually pleasing restored images. We leverage the zero-shot depth estimation network MiDAS [50] (ϕ) to generate depth maps for clear images (I_C) in both synthetic and real datasets. Furthermore, the restored images (I_R) are passed through the depth estimation network to obtain corresponding depth. Subsequently, depth loss is computed using mean squared error (Eq. 2) between restored and clear images. This ensures that the restored images are physically accurate compared to their clean counterpart.

$$L_D = \|\phi(I_R) - \phi(I_C)\| \quad (2)$$

We employ contrastive loss and color consistency loss to enhance perceptual accuracy. In the case of contrastive loss, positive and negative samples directly influence wherein image fidelity improves in the presence of mini-batch hard positives and negatives. Herein, images generated by the adversarial auto-augmentation can serve as hard negative synthetic samples apart from being used for training the restoration network without complex sampling mechanisms. Furthermore, we employ a color attenuation loss (L_C) (Eq. 3) that considers saturation (S) and luminance (L) differences between the restored and clean images. This loss ensures that the colors in the restored images are consistent and visually appealing. We extract luminance and saturation values by converting the clean and restored image into LAB color space and extract L and A channels respectively. By leveraging saturation and luminance as measures of color differences, we encourage the network to generate images that maintain coherent color distributions while preserving the overall brightness and vividness.

$$L_C = \|S(I_R) - S(I_C)\| + \|L(I_R) - L(I_C)\| \quad (3)$$

4. Experimental Evaluation

4.1. Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

For our experiments, we create a training set constructed from real-world paired dehazing datasets such as IHaze [2], OHaze [3], NH-Haze [4], NH-Haze2[5] and Dense-haze [1] datasets resulting in a total of 120 image pairs. We further create the tone-transfer data bank from well-illuminated images selected manually from outdoor datasets such as SID [9], ELD [67], GOPRO [47], Cityscapes [17], ACDC [55], IS2R [58] resulting in a total of 30 camera tone-maps. Furthermore, we also utilize clear daylight images from ACDC, GOPRO, and Cityscapes datasets for synthetic datasets, as these contain diverse object densities. For quantitative evaluation, we utilize pixel and feature-based metrics such as PSNR, [66], LPIPS [75], and NIQE [45]. Furthermore, since we generate relative depth using MiDAS, we utilize root mean squared error (RSME) to compute the accuracy of depth estimation on the restored image, following [50]. For our baseline network, we choose AECR [68] and DIDH [60] due to their high performance to compute ratio.

4.2. Implementation Details

We use a single layer LSTM [27] based RNN controller to construct the policy network. The hidden size of the LSTM layer is set to 100, with the projection size set to 32. The restoration network is used as the target network, and the loss function is composed of L1, contrastive, and proposed Depth and Color Attenuation Loss following,

$$L = L1 + 0.1 * L_{Contra} + 1.0 * L_D + 1.0 * L_C \quad (4)$$

We train the proposed pipeline with one RTX 4090 GPU using 256 x 256 crop size, ADAM [32] optimizer with β_1 and β_2 set to 0.9 and 0.99. Furthermore we set the controller learning rate to $3.5e^{-4}$ and target learning rate to $2e^{-4}$. Finally, an entropy penalty of $1e^{-5}$ is applied to the controller weights to avoid unexpected rapid convergence.

4.3. Comparison with SoTA

We summarize the quantitative performance of the SoTA algorithms such as DuRN-US [41], GridDehazenet [40], FFA-Net [49], TridentNet [39], DA-Dehaze [56], DIDH [60], AECR-Net [68], DeHamer [16], D4 [71], FogRemoval [29], DEANet [14], DehazeFormer-B [61] on NH-Haze and Dense-Haze in Tab. 2 with qualitative results in Fig. 7. Furthermore, we include qualitative results on foggy images from the ACDC dataset in Fig. 9. We observe that the proposed mechanism of including depth as auxiliary optimization loss results in more physically accurate restoration, compared to prior works D4 and DeHamer that consider depth information during data augmentation or position embedding, respectively. The qualitative and quantitative results show that the proposed training mechanism

improves performance. Specifically, we observe a performance improvement across all datasets for both AECRNet [68] and DIDH [60]. We also observe current SoTA algorithms to result in reduced depth estimation performance, highlighting these algorithms to be inaccurate in their ability to generate physically accurate restoration. In comparison, when included in training, AECRNet [68] and DIDH [60], the proposed modifications result in higher depth accuracy in restored images.

| Method | PSNR / SSIM | NIQE / LPIPS | RMSE |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------|------|
| DuRN-US [41] | 13.63 / 0.57 | 3.51 / 0.64 | 3.54 |
| GridDehazenet [40] | 12.96 / 0.50 | 4.16 / 0.84 | 4.15 |
| FFA-Net [49] | 14.01 / 0.56 | 3.71 / 0.87 | 3.47 |
| TridentNet [39] | 16.48 / 0.54 | 5.36 / 1.57 | 3.05 |
| DA-Dehaze [56] | 13.98 / 0.37 | 4.01 / 0.77 | 3.91 |
| DIDH [60] | 19.47 / 0.75 | 2.58 / 0.65 | 3.84 |
| AECR-Net [68] | 15.80 / 0.46 | 2.94 / 1.09 | 3.78 |
| DeHamer [16] | 16.62 / 0.56 | 3.55 / 0.94 | 3.99 |
| D4 [71] | 13.12 / 0.53 | 2.87 / 1.07 | 3.56 |
| FogRemoval [29] | 16.67 / 0.50 | 3.57 / 1.02 | 3.64 |
| DEANet [14] | 12.01 / 0.32 | 4.69 / 1.38 | 4.11 |
| DehazeFormer-B [61] | 11.68 / 0.32 | 3.58 / 1.14 | 4.96 |
| Ours (DIDH) | 19.93 / 0.71 | 2.55 / 0.63 | 2.45 |
| Ours (AECRNet) | 17.10 / 0.57 | 2.34 / 0.58 | 2.32 |

Table 1. Quantitative Evaluation of SoTA Image Dehazing algorithms on Dense-haze datasets

| Method | PSNR / SSIM | NIQE / LPIPS | RMSE |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------|------|
| DuRN-US [41] | 15.27 / 0.50 | 4.21 / 1.42 | 5.89 |
| GridDehazenet [40] | 15.32 / 0.60 | 3.06 / 0.65 | 4.88 |
| FFA-Net [49] | 18.11 / 0.66 | 2.94 / 0.67 | 4.16 |
| TridentNet [39] | 21.41 / 0.71 | 3.66 / 1.20 | 2.69 |
| DA-Dehaze [56] | 11.42 / 0.31 | 3.91 / 1.13 | 4.55 |
| DIDH [60] | 21.17 / 0.78 | 2.98 / 0.56 | 3.64 |
| AECR-Net [68] | 20.68 / 0.82 | 3.48 / 0.84 | 3.72 |
| DeHamer [16] | 19.18 / 0.79 | 3.20 / 0.92 | 3.47 |
| D4 [71] | 12.65 / 0.37 | 4.92 / 0.90 | 5.17 |
| FogRemoval [29] | 20.99 / 0.61 | 3.45 / 0.65 | 4.58 |
| DEANet [14] | 10.98 / 0.25 | 2.99 / 1.40 | 4.42 |
| DehazeFormer-B [61] | 12.84 / 0.35 | 3.22 / 0.46 | 4.19 |
| Ours (DIDH) | 21.44 / 0.79 | 2.57 / 0.49 | 2.07 |
| Ours (AECRNet) | 21.70 / 0.68 | 3.08 / 0.34 | 1.98 |

Table 2. Quantitative Evaluation of SoTA Image Dehazing algorithms on Dense-haze and NH-Hazedatasets. We measure PSNR, SSIM, LPIPS using [31] and NIQE using [10].

4.4. Ablation Studies

For our ablation, we consider AECRNet [68] as the reference network evaluated on the Dense-haze dataset when trained using RESIDE [35] dataset. This setting allows us to evaluate the generalization between synthetic hazy samples vis-a-vis the proposed extended atmospheric scattering model. Finally, we summarize performance results for different scenarios in Tab. 3.

Based on empirical results, the proposed Frequency-based Feature Fusion (FFF) demonstrates a significant im-

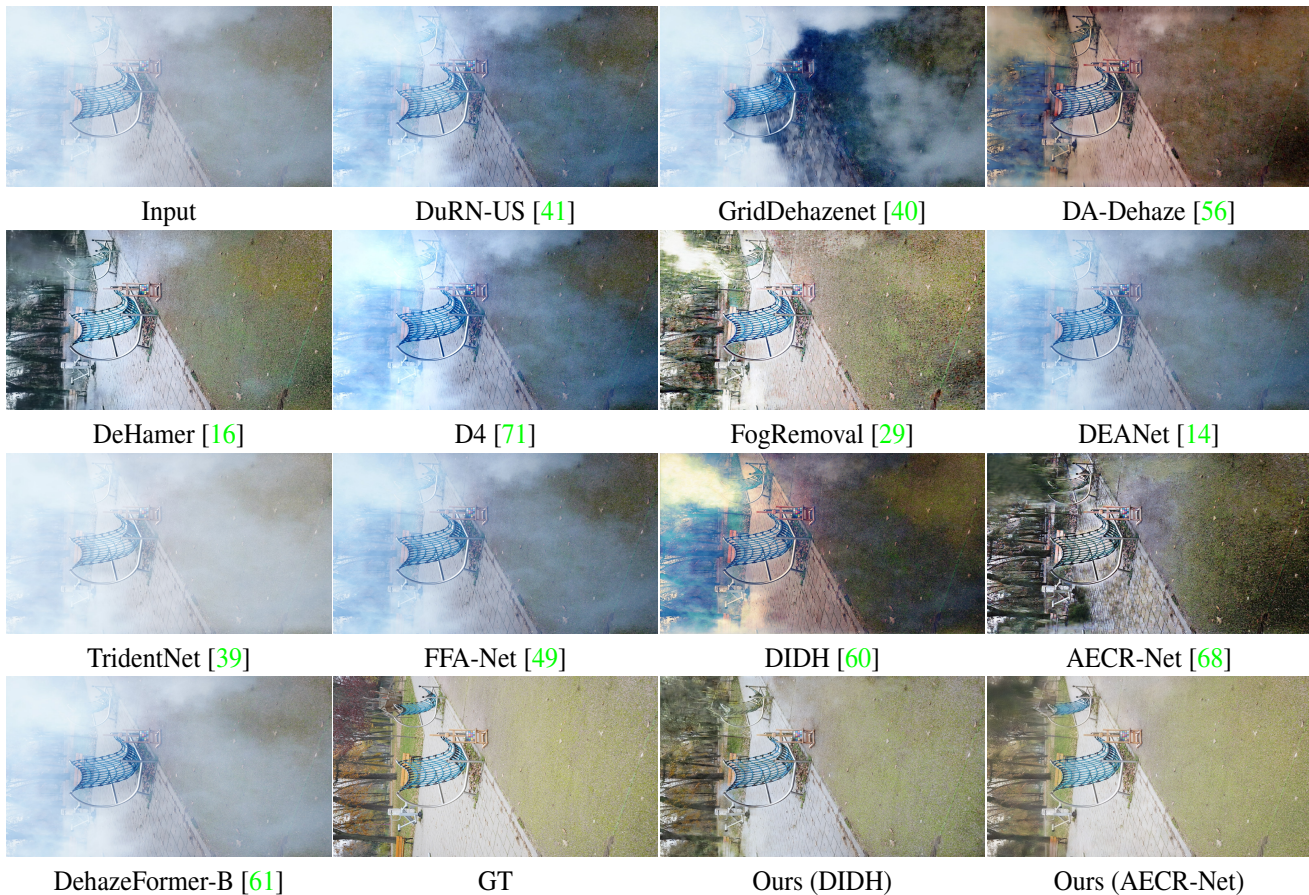


Figure 7. Impact of weather variation (fog) on the performance of SoTA segmentation network. In comparison, we demonstrate performance improvement powered by latent representation alignment and data augmentation, as this work proposes.

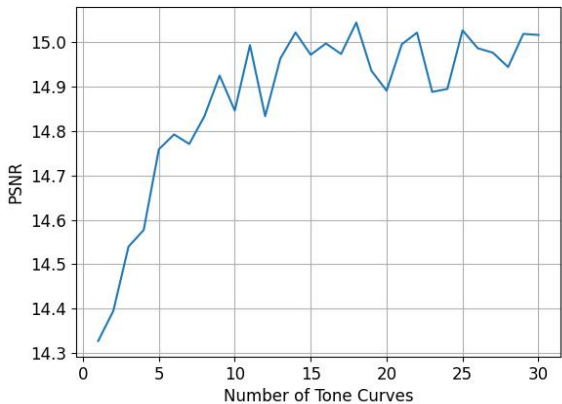


Figure 8. Overview of utilizing different tone-curves when trained with configuration (i) presented in Tab. 3.

provement of +0.51 dB in both pixel and perceptual performance of the restoration network (cf. (b)). To further investigate the implications of using the enhanced Atmospheric Scattering Model (ASM) compared to the traditional ASM, we evaluate the performance using clear images from the

RESIDE dataset and generate synthetic samples on the fly without further modifications (cf. Figures (c, d)). The results show a substantial increase in performance, further boosted when the proposed Frequency-based Feature Fusion is utilized. This confirms the efficacy of the eASM in modeling haze, surpassing prior approaches (cf. (d)).

To enable a feedback mechanism that adjusts the difficulty of training samples based on restoration performance, we train the complete framework using Automatic Adversarial Augmentation (AAA). This leads to a performance improvement of +0.35 dB (cf. (e)). We expand the scope of utilization of adversarial images to contrastive loss during training results in an additional boost of +0.38 dB (cf. (f)). While the restoration quality improves, depth estimation accuracy remains limited. This highlights the trade-off between perceptually pleasant images and physical accuracy. To address this, we sequentially integrate depth and color attenuation losses to improve the physical accuracy of the restored images while ensuring color consistency.

Expanding our evaluation, we explore the influence of tone transfer and identify the optimal number of tone curves for achieving peak performance (Fig. 8). By linearly in-

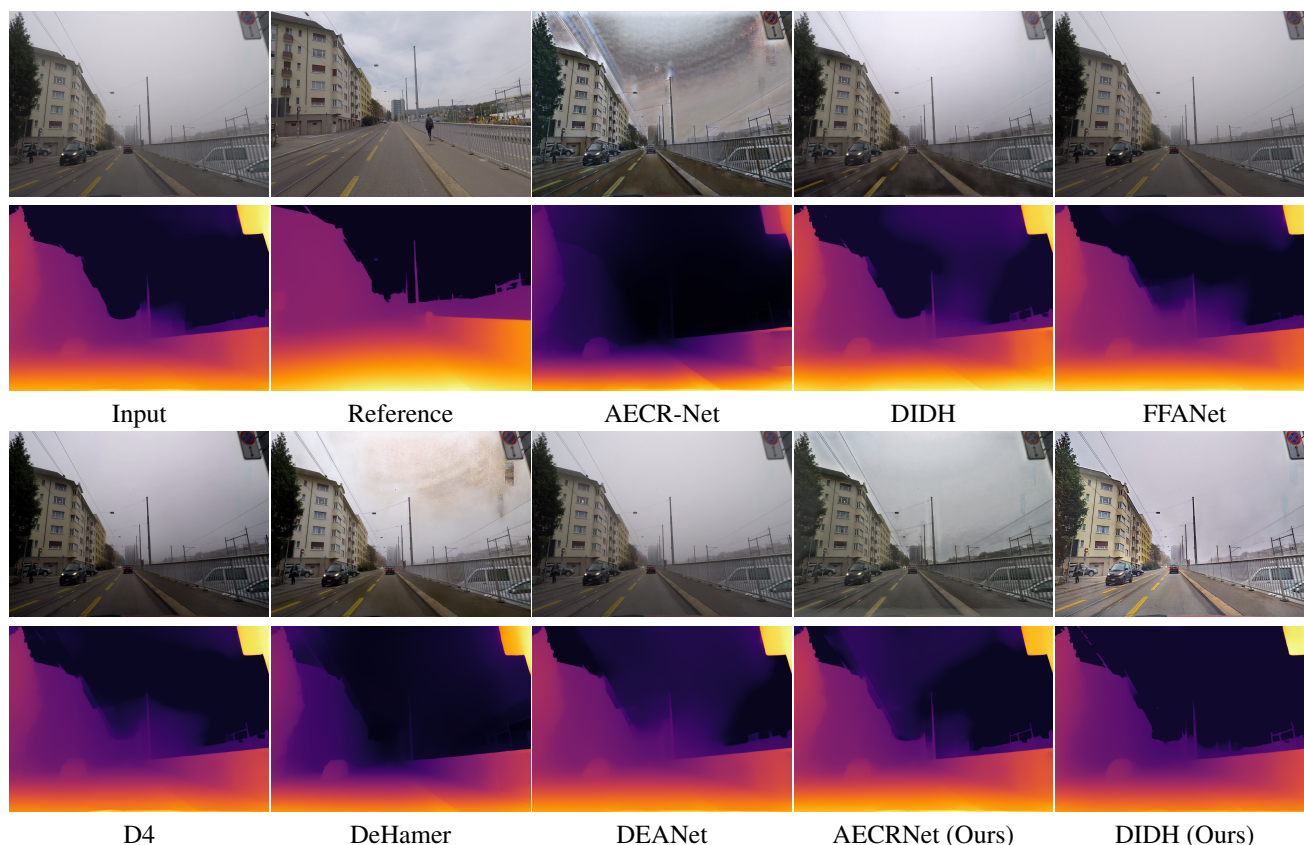


Figure 9. Impact of weather variation (fog) on the performance of SoTA segmentation network. In comparison, we demonstrate performance improvement powered by latent representation alignment and data augmentation, as this work proposes.

creasing the number of tone curves for tone transfer, we observe consistent performance improvements up to 12 tone curves, with minor improvements as the number increases. However, we caution that the optimal number of tone-transfer mechanisms should not be considered a hard threshold, as the learning capacity of the underlying restoration algorithm may also influence it. Identifying the optimal number of tone curves for a given restoration mechanism remains an open area for future research.

| Ref. | FFF | ASM | AAA | Loss | PSNR / SSIM | NIQE / LPIPS | RMSE |
|------|-----|------|-----|------------------------|--------------|--------------|-------|
| (a) | | ASM | | | 8.59 / 0.11 | 5.83 / 1.84 | 12.58 |
| (b) | ✓ | | | | 9.10 / 0.17 | 5.83 / 1.80 | 12.51 |
| (c) | | eASM | | | 10.29 / 0.26 | 4.29 / 1.19 | 8.42 |
| (d) | ✓ | eASM | | | 10.55 / 0.27 | 4.25 / 0.98 | 6.84 |
| (e) | ✓ | eASM | ✓ | | 10.90 / 0.32 | 3.98 / 0.87 | 6.01 |
| (f) | ✓ | eASM | ✓ | L_{Contra} | 11.28 / 0.40 | 3.59 / 0.82 | 5.99 |
| (g) | ✓ | eASM | ✓ | L_D | 11.03 / 0.38 | 3.99 / 0.85 | 2.91 |
| (h) | ✓ | eASM | ✓ | L_C | 11.89 / 0.42 | 3.29 / 0.81 | 5.49 |
| (i) | ✓ | eASM | ✓ | L_{Contra}, L_D, L_C | 14.89 / 0.52 | 3.04 / 0.84 | 2.45 |

Table 3. Quantitative Evaluation of SoTA Image Dehazing algorithms on Dense-haze datasets.

5. Conclusion

In this work, we propose insights to improve image dehazing techniques. Our contributions include a frequency-based feature fusion mechanism that combines low and

high-frequency details, preserving semantic and edge information. Additionally, we introduce an extended atmospheric scattering model that accurately represents diverse haze degradations by considering non-homogeneous particle distribution and its impact on different wavelengths. To enhance generalization, we incorporate a tone-transfer mechanism capturing various camera properties. Integration into an automatic adversarial augmentation pipeline enables dynamic adjustment of degradation intensity based on network performance. We ensure physically accurate and visually pleasing results through depth and color attenuation losses. Synthetic adversarial images are leveraged within the contrastive loss framework to improve restoration quality. Extensive experiments validate our proposed mechanisms, yielding significant improvements in image dehazing. Our approach bridges the gap between physical accuracy and perceptual fidelity, contributing to advancements in the field.

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