# FlexIR: Towards Flexible and Manipulable Image Restoration

# Anonymous Authors

# ABSTRACT

The domain of image restoration encompasses a wide array of highly effective models (e.g., SwinIR, CODE, DnCNN), each exhibiting distinct advantages in either efficiency or performance. Selecting and deploying these models necessitate careful consideration of resource limitations. While some studies have explored dynamic restoration through the integration of an auxiliary network within a unified framework, these approaches often fall short in practical applications due to the complexities involved in training, retraining, and hyperparameter adjustment, as well as limitations as being totally controlled by auxiliary network and biased by training data. To address these challenges, we introduce FlexIR: a flexible and manipulable framework for image restoration. FlexIR is distinguished by three components: a meticulously designed hierarchical branch network enabling dynamic output, an innovative progressive selfdistillation process, and a channel-wise evaluation method to enhance knowledge distillation efficiency. Additionally, we propose two novel inference methodologies to fully leverage FlexIR, catering to diverse user needs and deployment contexts. Through this framework, FlexIR achieves unparalleled performance across all branches, allowing users to navigate the trade-offs between quality, cost, and efficiency during the inference phase. Crucially, FlexIR employs a dynamic mechanism powered by a non-learning metric independent of training data, ensuring that FlexIR is entirely under the direct control of the user. Comprehensive experimental evaluations validate FlexIR's flexibility, manipulability, and cost-effectiveness, showcasing its potential for straightforward adjustments and quick adaptations across a range of scenarios. Codes will be available at [URL].

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

Image restoration, a longstanding challenge, seeks to recover pristine images from degraded counterparts, has been applied in a wide range of industrial fields [16, 29, 44, 45]. The vast computational resources available and large amount of data have driven researchers to build powerful image restoration models with strong performance. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have dominantly addressed restoration tasks [20, 22, 41, 47, 56], yet their efficacy is curtailed by the basic convolution layer's limitations in capturing long-range dependencies. With the proposal of self-attention mechanism, transformer-based models have yielded impressive results [5, 21, 37, 46, 57] and become preferred choice for restoration problems.

Unpublished working draft. Not for distribution.

for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than the author(s) must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and (or a fee Bequeet permissions from permissions) or a

ACM MM, 2024, Melbourne, Australia

- ACM ISBN 978-x-xxxx-xxxx-x/YY/MM
- 57 https://doi.org/10.1145/nnnnnnnnnnn

Calculate score Split region 4 2 7 8 6 Gradient map Output region Regular Union or k + +P = 4Adantive IInior P = 2P = 3 $k \uparrow cost \uparrow speed \downarrow psnr/ssim \uparrow h \uparrow cost \uparrow speed \downarrow psnr/ssim \uparrow$ Pointer Move

Figure 1: Regular Branch Inference (left) and Adaptive Inference (right). In Regular Branch Inference, image regions are recovered and integrated by setting pointer P. For Adaptive Inference, the pointer P is initially set to 1. Utilizing a gradient map, a score independent of the dataset is calculated for each recovered region. Here, h denotes the threshold, enabling regions with scores exceeding this threshold to be promptly outputted. If the score does not surpass the threshold, the pointer activates the next B-RSTB (k + +), optimizing the inference process for enhanced performance.

Despite the abundance of models available for image restoration tasks, the current landscape predominantly offers models that cater to a coarse level of complexity and performance, each designed for a specific resource allocation (e.g., FLOPs, GPU memory cost). Although certain models [21, 51, 57] exhibit remarkable capabilities, showcasing efficiency or performance orientation, they are inherently static and tailored, lacking the flexibility to adapt to varying resource limitations. In practice, the deployment of models across diverse platforms necessitates adaptability to distinct resource constraints, such as energy, latency, and on-chip memory. Recent efforts in developing dynamic restoration networks [18, 36, 43] aim to address these challenges by enabling automatic trade-offs. However, these solutions fall short in scalable real-world deployment. Their telepathic designs are employing an auxiliary network to aid unified networks in identifying patch-level difficulties, facilitating adaptive outputs post-training to minimize computational expenses. Yet, this methodology demands intricate training processes, and the output heavily depends on the model's predetermined behavior. Moreover, the auxiliary network's decision-making process is significantly influenced by the training dataset, posing generalization challenges in practical scenarios, which often require extensive retraining and hyperparameter tuning. A promising direction is the exploration of non-learning metrics that do not depend on training data [25], proposing a framework that allows human oversight over model behavior and resource consumption. In summary, while dynamic frameworks offer potential, their practical application remains limited by these constraints.

In this work, we introduce FlexIR, a flexible and manipulable framework designed for image restoration tasks. FlexIR maintains

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

54 55

<sup>56 © 2024</sup> Copyright held by the owner/author(s). Publication rights licensed to ACM

the capability for dynamic outputs while eliminating the need for 117 joint training with an auxiliary network. This approach renders 118 119 the framework fully adaptable by users and suitable for a broad spectrum of deployment scenarios. At the core of FlexIR is a hier-120 121 archical network architecture, enhanced by our newly proposed Branch Residual Swin Transformer Blocks (B-RSTB), which supports dynamic output generation. This branched network design 123 allows for straightforward manipulation during the inference stage 124 125 to meet varying resource requirements, eliminating the need for 126 retraining. To efficiently train the network, we devise a novel progressive self-distillation mechanism. This mechanism leverages a 127 128 pointer system to sequentially activate B-RSTBs, aiming for theoretically optimal restoration quality at each step. Our investigations 129 reveal that the knowledge (features) derived from the preceding 130 B-RSTB affects subsequent blocks in unique ways. This insight has 131 132 led us to introduce a channel-wise scoring mechanism for feature distillation, enhancing the training process. We detail two technical 133 approaches for model inference: 1. Regular Branch Inference and 2. 134 135 Adaptive Inference wherein a dataset-irrelevant and gradient-based scoring method is introduced. These approaches enable FlexIR to 136 cater to diverse application needs, as illustrated in Fig. 1 and will 137 138 be further discussed in methodology section. The primary contri-139 butions of our paper are summarized as follows:

- We introduce FlexIR, a Flexible and Manipulable Image Restoration Framework which stands out as a versatile, cost-effective solution tailored to meet varying user demands, capable of seamless deployment across a broad spectrum of platforms with distinct resource limitations.
- We present a novel progressive self-distillation mechanism alongside a channel-wise scoring mechanism to enhance model training, fostering greater efficiency and improved convergence results. Additionally, we detail two innovative approaches for model inference, incorporating adaptive inference facilitated by a dataset-independent scoring method. Two approaches amplifies FlexIR's utility across diverse application scenarios.
- Comprehensive experimental validations demonstrate our method's superiority. Specifically, the fully-equipped FlexIR model rivals state-of-the-art alternatives, while its compact variant outperforms other small-scale methods. Significantly, FlexIR's operational parameters during inference are manually adjustable, negating the need for complex retraining or adjustment of auxiliary networks characteristic of existing dynamic frameworks. This attribute underscores FlexIR's enhanced adaptability and capability to negotiate qualitycost-efficiency trade-offs effectively.

### 2 RELATED WORK

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

174

# 2.1 Image Restoration and Vision Transformer

Image restoration has long been dominated by CNN-based models,
demonstrating impressive performance in various tasks such as
image super-resolution [9], image denoising [51], and reducing
JPEG compression artifacts [8]. These CNN models excel at local
feature extraction and efficiently learn mappings between lowquality and high-quality images using large image pairs.

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

Inspired by the remarkable success of transformers in NLP field, researchers have ventured into applying transformer-based models to computer vision tasks, including image classification [10, 26, 31, 40], object detection [3, 23], and segmentation [40, 58]. In the domain of restoration tasks, recent methods have focused on achieving a better trade-off between speed and quality. For instance, Uformer [37] introduced a U-shape transformer-based structure with a window transformer block for image restoration. Restormer [46] adopted a U-shape structure and replaced the original spatial attention with channel attention to reduce computational intensity while performing attention in a lower dimension. SwinIR [21] proposed RSTB (Residual Swin Transformer Block) based on Swin Transformer [26], incorporating a window shift mechanism to reduce complexity and improve efficiency. More recently, Zhao [57] presented an efficient transformer model for image restoration, transferring feature aggregation at the pixel level into a lower-dimensional space of superpixels to avoid computationally expensive global self-attention.

Some of these methods prioritize efficiency, while others focus on effectiveness, nevertheless, they still fall under the category of fixed models and are inflexible at the inference stage and cannot adapt to diverse and dynamic deployment environment.

# 2.2 Dynamic, Flexible and Manipulable

The concept of dynamic neural networks seeks to enhance model flexibility by adapting processing pathways based on the varying complexity of input samples. This paradigm shift toward adaptive inference has spurred innovative approaches, for instance, Branchynet [33] introduced an early exiting strategy for image classification, allowing the model to exit from intermediate layers once it becomes confident enough in its predictions. Similarly, PABEE [59] proposed a Patience-based mechanism, demonstrating the feasibility of enhancing the efficiency of BERT [7] with theoretical analysis. FastBERT [24] further advanced this idea by combining self-distillation with a sample-wise adaptive mechanism, striking a balance between speed and accuracy in response to varying request amounts. MSDNet [14] and its variants [19, 42] develop a multi-classifier architecture for the image classification task. These methodologies, however, predominantly cater to classification problems and do not straightforwardly extend to the domain of image restoration.

Feature\Method	FlexIR	Dynamic Methods [18, 36, 43]	Fixed Methods [21, 49, 51]	
No Joint Training (No Auxiliary Net)	1	×	1	
Dynamic	✓ (Optional)	1	×	
Flexible and Manipulable	1	×	×	
Inference	User-Controlled Dataset-Irrelevant	Model-Determined Dataset-Trapped	Computation Cost Fixed	

In the realm of dynamic image restoration, the conventional approach employs an auxiliary network to gauge task difficulty at a granular level. Classsr [18] introduces a dynamic super-resolution strategy, leveraging a Class-Module for difficulty-based sub-image

227

228

229

230

231



Figure 2: Overview of FlexIR. (a) is the overall architecture of FlexIR, a pointer is utilized to activate B-RSTB step by step, which also enables progressive self-distillation in training stage. (b) is network structure of Branch Residual Swin Transformer Block (B-RSTB). A switch is associated with a pointer to determine whether to enter the branch network. (c) is the channel-wise scoring distillation process. Partial activated network serves as student and full activated network serve as teacher, while a score map  $\phi$  is computed through a learnable channel attention network and student feature map is channel weighted for further feature distillation.

classification followed by an SR-Module for resolution enhancement. Adaptive Patch Exiting [36] offers a scalable solution for super-resolution, employing a regressor to evaluate the incremental utility of each layer for a given patch. Path-Restore [43] pioneers the use of reinforcement learning in training a pathfinder to navigate the optimal processing route for each image, informed by a difficulty-regulated reward mechanism. Despite their innovations, these methods rely on auxiliary networks for functionality, necessitating joint training and model adjustments to refine output behaviors—a process that is both complex and data-dependent, challenging the generalizability [25] of these models in real-world applications.

Contrasting these approaches, our FlexIR framework is distinguished by its independence from auxiliary network-driven adjustments. FlexIR's operational parameters can be dynamically tailored at the inference stage, obviating the need for joint training or complex re-adjustment protocols. This design philosophy not only simplifies the application of FlexIR but also enhances its flexibility and manipulability to navigate quality-cost-efficiency trade-offs more effectively.

### 3 METHOD

# 3.1 Architecture

As shown in Fig. 2 (a), our network is the hierarchical architecture stacked with several Branch Residual Swin Transformer Blocks (B-RSTBs). In general inference manifold, given a degraded image  $I_{LQ}$ , we initially employ a standard feature extraction module to generate a shallow feature representation *e*. Subsequently, we feed the feature representation *e* into first B-RSTB if is activated. As depicted in Fig. 2 (b), a pivotal *switch* is associated with a pointer, determining whether to enter the branch network. If the next B-RSTB is not activated by pointer, residual matrix  $\mathcal{M}$  will be generated and added to original image to obtain restored image  $\hat{I}_{HQ}$ , Conversely, when the switch is off, the B-RSTB acts as an encoder and generates a new feature map, as indicated in Equation (1):

$$utput = \begin{cases} \hat{I}_{HQ} = \mathcal{M} + I_{LQ}, & switch \to \text{on} \end{cases}$$
(1)

$$(F: Feature Map, switch \rightarrow off$$

By progressively activating more B-RSTBs, our model enhances its encoder capability, thereby improving the restoration performance. However, it's essential to note that this also results in increased

Ou

memory and computing costs, but can be efficiently manipulated by adjusting the pointer settings.

# 3.2 Model Training

The objective of FlexIR training is to achieve optimal restoration results across all B-RSTBs. Differing from inference manifold, our training process necessitates the utilization of both the feature map *F* and  $\hat{I}_{HQ}$  for parameter optimization. One simple approach [24] if applied here is to direct activate all B-RSTBs and perform backpropagation collectively, this method may introduce optimization conflicts, particularly between deeper and shallower B-RSTBs. To mitigate this, we propose a progressive self-distillation approach for model training.

3.2.1 **Progressive Self-Distillation**. The process of progressive self-distillation (PSD) is associated with the movement of pointer. Following a predefined training schedule, pointer progressively activates B-RSTB step by step, while non-activated B-RSTBs do not output residual matrix and acquire gradient for optimization. Additionally, we introduce a teacher model, which is fully activated FlexIR directly loading the pre-trained parameters from SwinIR [21], to generate soft labels for feature distillation. **Algorithm 1** outlines the details of this process, including the loss strategy, which is explained in the next subsection

3.2.2 **Loss Function**. We calculate Charbonnier loss [4] between restored image and ground truth to optimize the parameters of B-RSTB, the loss function  $\mathcal{L}_c$  is formulated as Equation (2):

$$\mathcal{L}_c = \sqrt{||\hat{I}_{HQ} - I_{HQ}||^2 + \epsilon^2} \tag{2}$$

where  $\epsilon$  is a constant that is empirically set to  $10^{-3}$ .

Conducting progressive self-distillation in the early stage with only Charbonnier loss may compromise the upper-bound performance of deeper B-RSTBs. Inspired by prior works [38, 39], we introduce a channel-wise scoring distillation process to regulate parameter optimization, as depicted in Fig. 2 (c). A score map  $\phi$  is computed through a learnable channel attention network and is defined as Equation (3):

$$\phi = \sigma(\Theta(AP(F)) + \Theta(MP(F))) \tag{3}$$

where  $\sigma$  denotes the sigmoid function, F is the feature map and  $F \in \mathcal{R}^{b \times c \times h \times w}$ ,  $\Theta$  is a shared MLP, AP and MP represent average pooling and max pooing respectively. Then, the loss function  $\mathcal{L}_{CA}$  is calculated as Equation (4), in which  $F_t$  is feature map obtained from teacher model.

$$\mathcal{L}_{CA} = ||\sum_{i}^{c} F_{b,i,h,w} \cdot \phi_i - F_t||_1 \tag{4}$$

To further leverage the hierarchical structure and ensure the best restoration quality, we minimize the total loss  $\mathcal{L}$  through a weighted average following [17], indicated as Equation (5):

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} j \cdot (\alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{CA_j} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \mathcal{L}_{c_j})}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} j}$$
(5)

where  $\alpha$  is a hyper-parameter which is empirically set to 1/10.

Anonymous Authors

Algorithm 1 Progressive Self-distillation
<b>Data</b> : $\mathcal{D} = \{I_{LQ_i}, I_{HQ_i}\}_i^N$
<b>Materials</b> : Max Epoch <i>E</i> , Schedule <i>S</i> , Teacher model <i>T</i> ,
Initialized model <i>M</i> , Loss $\mathcal{L}_{CA}$ , $\mathcal{L}_{c}$ and Weight $\alpha$
<b>Result</b> : Self-distilled Model <i>M</i>
1: Let $e \leftarrow 0$ // Initialize epoch
2: Let $P \leftarrow 1$ // Initialize pointer
3: while $e < E$ do
4: Let $d = S(e)$ // Get pointer index $d$ as scheduled
5: <b>if</b> $P < d$ <b>then</b>
6: Activate $P_{th}$ B-RSTB and $P + +$
7: <b>end if</b>
8: <b>Loop</b> $I_{LQ}, I_{HQ} = Next(\mathcal{D})$
9: <b>for</b> $j = 1; j \le d; j + +$ <b>do</b>
10: <b>if</b> $j == 1$ <b>then</b>
11: $\hat{I}_{HQ_j}, F_j = \text{B-RSTB}_j(I_{LQ_j}); F_t = T(I_{LQ})$
12: <b>else</b>
13: $\hat{I}_{HQ_j}, F_j = \text{B-RSTB}_j(F_{j-1}); F_t = T(I_{LQ})$
14: <b>end if</b>
15: $\mathcal{L} = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{CA}(F_j, F_t) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \mathcal{L}_c(\hat{I}_{HQ_j}, I_{HQ})$
16: $M \leftarrow Adam(B-RSTB_j; \mathcal{L} \cdot j / \sum_{j=1}^d)$
17: end for
18: End Loop IF $\mathcal{D}$ is None
19: <b>Do iteration</b> $e + +$
20: end while
21: <b>Return</b> <i>M</i>

# 3.3 Model Inference

In this section, we present two technical inference approaches: 1. Regular Branch Inference and 2. Adaptive Inference. After elucidating the mechanisms of these two approaches, we provide guidance on their application in diverse scenarios.

3.3.1 **Regular Branch Inference**. As previously introduced, a *switch* is associated with pointer to decide determine whether to engage the branch network. This allows us to activate partial FlexIR by controlling the pointer index, thereby achieving a diverse array of trade-offs between GPU cost, speed, and restoration quality within a single well-trained model. We observe that partitioning an image into regions (*e.p.* four regions) can effectively reduce computational costs with only a marginal performance degradation. thus we also seamlessly integrate it into our inference process. Further insights are provided in **Algorithm 2**.

3.3.2 **Adaptive Inference**. FlexIR is adept at performing inference adaptively, automatically activating certain B-RSTB modules and fast outputs based on the characteristics of the input image. The capability of Adaptive Inference is particularly beneficial when handling a wide variety of input categories, we will discuss it in next subsection.

One notable consensus is that, the difficulty of inference varies due to the inherent variations in image content. Therefore, a pivotal objective is to compute uncertainty scores for them. To this end, we introduce a dataset-irrelevant criteria for uncertainty estimation. FlexIR: Towards Flexible and Manipulable Image Restoration

Algo	rithm 2 Inference Approaches
Iı	<b>1put</b> : Image I <sub>LQ</sub> , Pointer P, Threshold h
M	<b>aterials</b> : Partition operation $\mathcal{K}$ , Union operation $\mathcal{U}$ ,
Sc	oring operation $\Omega$
0	<b>utput</b> : Image $\hat{I}_{HQ}$
1:	<b>Do</b> $\{I_1, I_2,, I_n\} = \mathcal{K}(I_{LQ})$ // Default: n=4
2:	Let <i>i</i> = 1 // Initialize region index
3:	while $i \leq n$ do
4:	<pre>if Inference type == Regular then</pre>
5:	<b>for</b> $j = 1; j < P; j + + $ <b>do</b>
6:	$F_j = B$ -RSTB $_j(I_i) // Switch$ on
7:	end for
8:	Let $j == P$ // Output from last B-RSTB
9:	$\hat{I}_i = B\text{-RSTB}_j(F_{j-1})$ // Switch off
10:	<pre>else if Inference type == Adaptive then</pre>
11:	<b>for</b> $j = 1; j \le P; j + + do$
12:	$\hat{I}_i, F_j = B\text{-RSTB}_j(I_i)$
13:	if $\Omega(\hat{I}_i) > h$ then
14:	Break and Fast Output $\hat{I}_i$
15:	end if
16:	end for
17:	end if
18:	Do iteration <i>i</i> + +
19:	end while // Then recover from regions
20:	<b>Do</b> $\vec{I}_{HQ} = \mathcal{U}(\{\vec{I}_1, \vec{I}_2,, \vec{I}_n\})$
21:	Return $\hat{I}_{HQ}$

We exploit the sharpness estimation method [48] in which maximum gradient and variability of gradients are utilized for scoring. To specify the calculation, a gradient map  $G \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w}$  is first generated by a gradient operator (e.g. Roberts operator), after clipping the gradient map to obtain the center of gradient map  $G_c \in \mathcal{R}^{h-B \times w-B}$ and B = round(min(h, w)/16), the maximum gradient is calculated as Equation (6):

$$MG = max(G_c) \tag{6}$$

to capture content diversity from various regions, the gradient variability is computed as Equation (7):

$$VG = \frac{(max(G_c) - min(G_c))}{\sum_{i,j} G(i,j)/(h \times w)}$$
(7)

Subsequently, the score  $\Omega$  of an input image is obtained as Equation (8):

$$\Omega = MG^{\beta} \cdot VG^{1-\beta} \tag{8}$$

where  $\beta$  is a constant that is empirically set to 0.61 [48].

Since the score is exclusively derived from the image itself, it remains independent of the dataset and exhibits excellent generalization for uncertainty estimation. Moreover, due to the inherent variation in difficulty within individual parts of one image, partitioning images into regions aligns more suitably with Adaptive Inference.



Figure 3: Visual analysis reveals intriguing trends across different tasks (denoising, JPEG artifacts reduction, superresolution). The setting of pointer should follow the real user requirements and the characteristic of executed task.

#### **Real-world Applications Analysis** 3.4

In this section, we explore the practical applications of FlexIR in real-world scenarios, addressing questions such as the choice between Regular Branch Inference and Adaptive Inference, pointer settings, the advantages of these two inference approaches, and the determination of proper thresholds for Adaptive Inference.

### 3.4.1 Regular Branch Inference vs. Adaptive Inference

Regular Branch Inference. In scenarios where instances are homogeneous and share common characteristics, employing Regular Branch Inference, as elucidated earlier, is advisable. For instance, when dealing with similar cases (e.g., images of various fruits, images of various clothes), preemptive trade-offs can be identified.

Adaptive Inference. Conversely, in scenarios characterized by diversity [6], adopting Adaptive Inference is prudent, as strong priors are absent, and the nature of incoming cases is uncertain. Adaptive Inference allows specification of the desired quality of restored images by setting thresholds, with the scoring mechanism relying on inherent image features, ensuring robust generalization capabilities.

#### 3.4.2 Deployment Strategy: Speed or Quality?

As a versatile instance adaptable for a myriad of scenarios, FlexIR can be flexibly manipulated according to specific user requirements in the inference stage, to determine speed-first or quality-first.

The Setting of Pointer. As depicted in Fig. 3, for tasks like image denoising or reducing JPEG compression artifacts, where visual differences are imperceptible, a smaller pointer number can be costeffective while maintaining a fast response speed. However, for tasks like super-resolution, especially with larger scales, discernible differences emerge, necessitating a larger pointer number to ensure the quality of the outputs.

The Setting of Threshold. Threshold influences the efficiency when applying Adaptive Inference. Unfortunately, determining the optimal threshold is nearly unobtainable because we can not predict what kind of images user will upload into the model. Our empirical solution is to use user study methods (e.p. online AB test) with prepared a series of threshold values and adjust the threshold based on user feedback promptly.

Table 1: Quantitative results of <u>color image denoising</u> on benchmark datasets. The best and second-best results (PSNR) are colored by red and <u>blue</u>, respectively. FlexIR P = 4 indicates that four B-RSTBs are activated while all B-RSTBs are activated in *Full Size* FlexIR.  $\sigma$  refers to the noise level, of which a larger value denotes a higher noise level.

Metho	od	DnCNN [51]	IRCNN [52]	FFDNet [56]	DSNet [30]	BRDNet [34]	RNAN [54]	RDN [55]	IPT [5]	DRUNet [49]	CODE [57]	FlexIR $[P = 4]$	FlexIR [ <i>Full Size</i> ]
	$\sigma = 15$	33.90	33.86	33.87	33.91	34.10	-	-	-	34.30	34.33	34.39	34.39
CSBD68	$\sigma = 25$	31.24	31.16	31.21	31.28	31.43	-	-	-	31.69	31.69	31.75	31.75
	$\sigma = 50$	27.95	27.86	27.96	28.05	28.16	28.27	28.31	28.39	28.51	28.47	28.52	28.53
	$\sigma = 15$	34.60	34.69	34.63	34.63	34.88	-	-	-	35.31	35.32	35.32	35.32
Kodak24	$\sigma = 25$	32.14	32.18	32.13	32.16	32.41	-	-	-	32.89	32.88	32.87	32.87
	$\sigma = 50$	28.95	28.93	28.98	29.05	29.22	29.58	29.66	29.64	29.86	29.82	29.76	29.77
	$\sigma = 15$	33.45	34.58	34.66	34.67	35.08	-	-	-	35.40	35.38	35.58	35.59
McMaster	$\sigma = 25$	31.52	32.18	32.35	32.40	32.75	-	-	-	33.14	33.11	33.28	33.28
	$\sigma = 50$	28.62	28.91	29.18	29.28	29.52	29.72	-	29.98	30.08	30.03	30.16	30.16
	σ = 15	32.98	33.78	33.83	-	34.42	-	-	-	34.81	-	35.11	35.12
Urban100	$\sigma$ = 25	30.81	31.20	31.40	-	31.99	-	-	-	32.60	-	32.87	32.88
	$\sigma = 50$	27.59	27.70	28.05	-	28.56	29.08	29.38	29.71	29.61	-	29.78	29.79



Figure 4: Visual comparison of color image denoising (noise level 25) on image "kodim09" from Kodak24. Pointer *P* indicates the number of activated B-RSTB while all B-RSTBs are activated in *Full Size* FlexIR.

Table 2: Quantitative results of JPEG compression artifact reduction on benchmark datasets. The best and second-best result
(PSNR/SSIM/PSNRB) are colored by red and blue, respectively. FlexIR P = 4 indicates that four B-RSTBs are activated while al
B-RSTBs are activated in Full Size FlexIR. q refers to compression level, a smaller value denotes a higher compression level.

Meth	iod	DnCNN-3 [51]	RNAN [54]	RDN [55]	DRUNet [49]	CODE [57]	FlexIR $[P = 4]$	FlexIR [ <i>Full Size</i> ]
	<i>q</i> = 10	29.40/0.8026/29.13	3 29.96/0.8178/29.62	30.00/0.8188/-	30.16/0.8234/29.81	30.13/0.8225/-	30.11/0.8219/29.81	30.25/0.8249/29.95
Classic5	<i>q</i> = 20	31.63/0.8610/31.19	9 32.11/0.8693/31.57	32.15/0.8699/-	32.39/0.8734/31.80	32.36/0.8731/-	32.33/0.8702/31.80	32.50/0.8746/31.98
Classics	<i>q</i> = 30	32.91/0.8861/32.38	8 33.38/0.8924/32.68	33.43/0.8930/-	33.59/0.8949/32.82	33.61/0.8951/-	33.61/0.8948/32.94	33.72/0.8959/33.05
	<i>q</i> = 40	33.77/0.9003/33.20	0 34.27/0.9061/33.4	34.27/0.9061/-	34.41/0.9075/33.51	34.43/0.9078/-	34.43/0.9073/33.65	34.52/0.9081/33.72
	<i>q</i> = 10	29.19/0.8123/28.90	0 29.63/0.8239/29.25	29.67/0.8247/-	29.79/0.8278/29.48	29.79/0.8281/-	29.75/0.8262/29.39	29.84/0.8282/29.50
I IVE 1	<i>q</i> = 20	31.59/0.8802/31.07	7 32.03/0.8877/31.44	32.07/0.8882/-	32.17/0.8899/31.69	32.16/0.8901/-	32.13/0.8891/31.59	32.23/0.8905/31.71
LIVEI	<i>q</i> = 30	32.98/0.9090/32.34	4 33.45/0.9149/32.71	33.51/0.9153/-	33.59/0.9166/32.99	33.59/0.9168/-	33.57/0.9160/32.88	33.66/0.9171/33.00
	<i>q</i> = 40	33.96/0.9247/33.28	8 34.47/0.9299/33.66	34.51/0.9302/-	34.58/0.9312/33.93	34.58/0.9313/-	34.56/0.9307/33.80	34.65/0.9314/33.91

# 4 EXPERIMENT

# 4.1 Experiment Setup

**Implementation.** For all our experiments, we maintain uniform settings. Specifically, the B-RSTB number, STB number, window

size, channel number and attention head number are generally set to 6, 6, 8, 180 and 6, respectively. B-RSTB consists of branch network and RSTB network, therefore we use RSTB parameters in SwinIR [21] to pre-train our FlexIR. **In this context, SwinIR can be regarded as a specific embodiment within the FlexIR** 

framework, distinguished primarily by its static model architecture. All experiments are conducted in PyTorch framework with RTX 4090 GPU. For training, we use the Adam optimizer with  $\beta_1 = 0.9$  and  $\beta_2 = 0.999$ . The learning rate is initialized to  $1e^{-5}$ , first increase then decrease through a linear warm-up strategy. For data augmentation, we use horizontal and vertical flips and obtain random 128 × 128 patches.

Evaluation. In our assessment of FlexIR's adaptability and user-directed manipulability, we undertake evaluations across three dis-tinctive restoration tasks, training a singular model for each while demonstrating various performance trade-offs through the adjustment of pointer. Our evaluation involves two primary steps: initially, we benchmark the peak capabilities of the FlexIR model against various leading-edge methods by selecting a high pointer index. Subsequently, we detail FlexIR's performance met-rics (#Params, MACs) at different pointer settings. This allows for a nuanced comparison with commonly employed models of equiv-alent scale or computational demand, including SwinIR, thereby illustrating FlexIR's efficiency and versatility in a comprehensive manner.

## 4.2 Color Image Denoising

For color image denoising, we train FlexIR on a composite dataset encompassing DIV2K [1], Flickr2k [35], BSD400 [2], and WED [27], we test the performance on CBSD68 [28], Kodak24 [13], McMaster [53] and Urban100 [15]. Consistent with existing methods [5, 30, 34, 49, 51, 52, 54–57], noise levels 15, 25 and 50 are used to test the PSNR performance on several benchmarks. Tab. 1 shows the quantitative results of color image denoising comparing with existing method while visual comparison is presented in Fig. 4.

# 4.3 JPEG Compression Artifact Reduction

To evaluate our method on JPEG compression artifact reduction, we train it on the same training datasets as color image denoising, and same with existing work [11, 49, 51, 54, 55, 57], we apply JPEG compression algorithm to images with quality factor of 10, 20, 30, 40 and test on two benchmark datasets: Classic5 [12] and LIVE1 [32]. Tab. 2 shows the comparisons of FlexIR with existing methods. visual comparison is presented in Fig. 5.

# 4.4 Real-world Image Super-Resolution

We also conduct experiments on Real-world image Super-Resolution, which is the ultimate goal of image SR for real-world applications. We test FlexIR on the real-world SR benchmark dataset RealSRSet [50]. In view of no ground-truth, we provide visual comparison with basic LR (×2 and ×4), and present visual images from FlexIR under different size, which is shown in Fig. 6. More visual results will will be presented in the supplementary material.

# 4.5 Analysis Experiments

In this section, we conduct experiments on individual components of FlexIR to better understand their effects. Our analysis consists of two aspects: model training and model inference.

Analysis on Model Inference. We present performance and cost
 comparisons of FlexIR under different settings against commonly
 used methods on McMaster (noise 25) and Classic5 (quality factor



Figure 5: Visual comparison of JPEG compression artifact reduction (quality factor 10) on image "monarch" from LIVE1. Pointer *P* indicates the number of activated B-RSTB while all B-RSTBs are activated in *Full Size* FlexIR.

Table 3: Comparison of Params, MACs, PSNR under different settings for color image denoising, P is the pointer number. PSNR is tested on McMaster (noise level 25), threshold for adaptive inference is  $1.1 \times .$ 

Method	#Params↓	MACs↓	PSNR↑	
Full Size	11.46M	188.03G	33.28	
P = 5	9.60M	157.52G	33.28	
P = 4	7.74M	127.01G	33.28	
P = 3	5.88M	96.50G	33.25	
P = 2	4.02M	65.98G	33.12	
P = 1	2.16M	35.47G	32.81	
Adaptive*	11.46M	-	33.27	
SwinIR [21]	11.46M	188.03G	33.20	
DnCNN [51]	0.56M	9.12G	31.52	
DRUNet [49] 32.64M		35.90G	33.14	

40) in Tab. 3 and Tab. 4 respectively. The analysis reveals that while the full size FlexIR delivers superior performance, it also necessitates increased computational resources. Modifying the pointer to activate fewer B-RSTB layers results in notable savings in resource

#### ACM MM, 2024, Melbourne, Australia

Anonymous Authors



Figure 6: Visual comparison of real-world image SR (×2: first row, ×4: second row) on RealSRSet. Compared images are derived from [50]. Pointer *P* indicates the number of activated B-RSTB while all B-RSTBs are activated in "Full Size" FlexIR.

Table 4: Comparison of Params, MACs, PSNR under different settings for JPEG compression artifact reduction, P is the pointer number. Performance (PSNR/SSIM/PSNRB) is tested on Classic5 (quality factor 40), threshold for adaptive inference is 1.1×. FlexIR surpass SwinIR on flexibility and upper-bound PSNRB performance.

Method	#Params↓	$MACs \downarrow$	Performance↑
Full Size	11.45M	202.72G	34.52/0.9081/33.72
P = 5	9.59M	169.81G	34.48/0.9078/33.70
P = 4	7.73M	136.90G	34.43/0.9073/33.65
P = 3	5.87M	103.98G	34.33/0.9064/33.52
P = 2	4.01M	71.07G	34.16/0.9045/33.42
P = 1	2.15M	38.15G	33.91/0.9013/33.41
Adaptive*	11.45M	-	34.51/0.9081/33.70
SwinIR [21]	11.45M	202.72G	34.52/0.9082/33.66
DRUNet [49]	32.64M	35.90G	34.41/0.9075/33.51
RDN [55]	22.12M	362.46G	34.27/0.9061/-
RNAN [54]	8.96M	124.06G	34.27/0.9061/33.40

consumption, though at a slight compromise in performance metrics. Despite this, FlexIR demonstrates competitive advantages in terms of PSNR/SSIM/PSNR-B, or exhibits lower memory requirements (#Params) when compared against analogous models, such as when setting P = 3 for FlexIR against RNAN [54] and DRUNet [49]. These comparative advantages are highlighted in the tables with purple and pink shading. In our adaptive inference assessment, we progressively adjust the inference threshold and evaluate the impact on PSNR/SSIM and average time cost, as shown in Tab. 5. Analysis on Model Training. We experiment with training FlexIR while systematically abating the effects of Progressive Self-Distillation (PSD) and Channel-Wise Scoring distillation (C-WS). We follow a three-phase approach: initially training a pure FlexIR model using self-distillation (SD), then substituting SD with PSD, and finally incorporating the C-WS mechanism. As detailed in Tab. 6, by summing the average PSNR values obtained from all branches, we

observe an enhancement of **0.187 dB** as a result of employing both PSD and C-WS in the training process.

Table 5: Performance and cost under different threshold. Increasing threshold lead to a more cautious decision-making by the model. PSNR/SSIM is computed on McMaster with noise level 25.

Threshold	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	Time Cost
1.00×	33.158	0.9023	14.25s
$1.05 \times$	33.259	0.9044	21.18s
1.10×	33.266	0.9045	22.34s
1.15×	33.270	0.9046	22.46s

Table 6: Ablation experiments for the components in FlexIR. PSNR is computed on McMaster with noise level 25.

1				
Method	SD	PSD	C-WS	PSNR↑
	✓	-	-	32.982
FlexIR	-	$\checkmark$	-	33.059
	-	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	33.169 ( <b>+0.187</b> )

# CONCLUSION

In this work, we present FlexIR, a novel framework designed for image restoration, which integrates a hierarchical branch network, employs progressive self-distillation techniques, and utilizes channelwise evaluation to achieve superior adaptability and efficiency. Distinctively, FlexIR empowers users to effectively manage the tradeoffs between quality, cost, and efficiency, addressing the limitations inherent in existing models that depend excessively on auxiliary networks and are restricted by the biases present in their training datasets. Through rigorous experimentation, FlexIR has exhibited unparalleled flexibility and enhanced performance across a variety of conditions, signifying a considerable progression in fulfilling the complex demands of real-world applications. This framework not only advances the state-of-the-art in image restoration but also opens new avenues for user-centric model development.

FlexIR: Towards Flexible and Manipulable Image Restoration

#### ACM MM, 2024, Melbourne, Australia

987

988

989

990

991

992

993

994

995

996

997

998

999

1000

1001

1002

1003

1004

1005

1006

1007

1008

1009

1010

1011

1012

1013

1014

1015

1016

1017

1018

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025

1026

1027

1028

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

929 **REFERENCES** 

930

931

932

933

934

935

936

937

938

939

940

941

942

943

944

945

946

947

948

949

950

951

952

953

954

955

956

957

958

959

960

961

962

963

964

965

966

967

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

980

981

982

983

984

985

- Agustsson et al. 2017. NTIRE 2017 Challenge on Single Image Super-Resolution: Dataset and Study. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR) Workshops.
- [2] Pablo Arbeláez, Michael Maire, Charless Fowlkes, and Jitendra Malik. 2011. Contour Detection and Hierarchical Image Segmentation. *IEEE Transactions* on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence 33, 5 (2011), 898–916. https: //doi.org/10.1109/TPAMI.2010.161
- [3] Nicolas Carion, Francisco Massa, Gabriel Synnaeve, Nicolas Usunier, Alexander Kirillov, and Sergey Zagoruyko. 2020. End-to-end object detection with transformers. In European conference on computer vision. Springer, 213–229.
- [4] P. Charbonnier, L. Blanc-Feraud, G. Aubert, and M. Barlaud. 1994. Two deterministic half-quadratic regularization algorithms for computed imaging. In *Proceedings of 1st International Conference on Image Processing*, Vol. 2. 168–172 vol.2. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICIP.1994.413553
- [5] Hanting Chen, Yunhe Wang, Tianyu Guo, Chang Xu, Yiping Deng, Zhenhua Liu, Siwei Ma, Chunjing Xu, Chao Xu, and Wen Gao. 2021. Pre-trained image processing transformer. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 12299–12310.
- [6] Yunjey Choi, Youngjung Uh, Jaejun Yoo, and Jung-Woo Ha. 2020. Stargan v2: Diverse image synthesis for multiple domains. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 8188-8197.
- [7] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2018. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805 (2018).
- [8] Chao Dong, Yubin Deng, Chen Change Loy, and Xiaoou Tang. 2015. Compression artifacts reduction by a deep convolutional network. In Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision. 576–584.
- [9] Chao Dong, Chen Change Loy, Kaiming He, and Xiaoou Tang. 2014. Learning a deep convolutional network for image super-resolution. In Computer Vision– ECCV 2014: 13th European Conference, Zurich, Switzerland, September 6-12, 2014, Proceedings, Part IV 13. Springer, 184–199.
- [10] Alexey Dosovitskiy, Lucas Beyer, Alexander Kolesnikov, Dirk Weissenborn, Xiaohua Zhai, Thomas Unterthiner, Mostafa Dehghani, Matthias Minderer, Georg Heigold, Sylvain Gelly, et al. 2020. An image is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale. arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11929 (2020).
- [11] Max Ehrlich, Larry Davis, Ser-Nam Lim, and Abhinav Shrivastava. 2020. Quantization Guided JPEG Artifact Correction. In *Computer Vision – ECCV 2020*, Andrea Vedaldi, Horst Bischof, Thomas Brox, and Jan-Michael Frahm (Eds.). Springer International Publishing, Cham, 293–309.
- [12] Foi et al. 2007. Pointwise Shape-Adaptive DCT for High-Quality Denoising and Deblocking of Grayscale and Color Images. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing* 16, 5 (2007), 1395–1411. https://doi.org/10.1109/TIP.2007.891788
- [13] Rich Franzen. 1999. Kodak lossless true color image suite. source: http://r0k. us/graphics/kodak 4, 2 (1999), 9.
- [14] Gao Huang, Danlu Chen, Tianhong Li, Felix Wu, Laurens Van Der Maaten, and Kilian Q Weinberger. 2017. Multi-scale dense networks for resource efficient image classification. arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.09844 (2017).
- [15] Huang et al. 2015. Single Image Super-Resolution From Transformed Self-Exemplars. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR).
- [16] Muwei Jian, Xiangyu Liu, Hanjiang Luo, Xiangwei Lu, Hui Yu, and Junyu Dong. 2021. Underwater image processing and analysis: A review. Signal Processing: Image Communication 91 (2021), 116088.
- [17] Kaya et al. 2019. Shallow-Deep Networks: Understanding and Mitigating Network Overthinking. In Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning (Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, Vol. 97), Kamalika Chaudhuri and Ruslan Salakhutdinov (Eds.). PMLR, 3301–3310. https://proceedings.mlr. press/v97/kaya19a.html
- [18] Xiangtao Kong, Hengyuan Zhao, Yu Qiao, and Chao Dong. 2021. Classsr: A general framework to accelerate super-resolution networks by data characteristic. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 12016–12025.
- [19] Hao Li, Hong Zhang, Xiaojuan Qi, Ruigang Yang, and Gao Huang. 2019. Improved techniques for training adaptive deep networks. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision. 1891–1900.
- [20] Zhen Li, Jinglei Yang, Zheng Liu, Xiaomin Yang, Gwanggil Jeon, and Wei Wu. 2019. Feedback network for image super-resolution. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 3867–3876.
- [21] Jingyun Liang, Jiezhang Cao, Guolei Sun, Kai Zhang, Luc Van Gool, and Radu Timofte. 2021. Swinir: Image restoration using swin transformer. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision. 1833–1844.
- [22] Jiaying Liu, Dong Liu, Wenhan Yang, Sifeng Xia, Xiaoshuai Zhang, and Yuanying Dai. 2020. A comprehensive benchmark for single image compression artifact reduction. *IEEE Transactions on image processing* 29 (2020), 7845–7860.
- [23] Li Liu, Wanli Ouyang, Xiaogang Wang, Paul Fieguth, Jie Chen, Xinwang Liu, and Matti Pietikäinen. 2020. Deep learning for generic object detection: A survey.

- International journal of computer vision 128 (2020), 261-318.
- [24] Weijie Liu, Peng Zhou, Zhe Zhao, Zhiruo Wang, Haotang Deng, and Qi Ju. 2020. Fastbert: a self-distilling bert with adaptive inference time. arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.02178 (2020).
- [25] Yihao Liu, Hengyuan Zhao, Jinjin Gu, Yu Qiao, and Chao Dong. 2023. Evaluating the generalization ability of super-resolution networks. *IEEE Transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence* (2023).
- [26] Ze Liu, Yutong Lin, Yue Cao, Han Hu, Yixuan Wei, Zheng Zhang, Stephen Lin, and Baining Guo. 2021. Swin transformer: Hierarchical vision transformer using shifted windows. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision. 10012–10022.
- [27] Kede Ma, Zhengfang Duanmu, Qingbo Wu, Zhou Wang, Hongwei Yong, Hongliang Li, and Lei Zhang. 2017. Waterloo Exploration Database: New Challenges for Image Quality Assessment Models. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing* 26, 2 (2017), 1004–1016. https://doi.org/10.1109/TIP.2016.2631888
- [28] D. Martin, C. Fowlkes, D. Tal, and J. Malik. 2001. A database of human segmented natural images and its application to evaluating segmentation algorithms and measuring ecological statistics. In *Proceedings Eighth IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision. ICCV 2001*, Vol. 2. 416–423 vol.2. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCV.2001.937655
- [29] Andreas S Panayides, Amir Amini, Nenad D Filipovic, Ashish Sharma, Sotirios A Tsaftaris, Alistair Young, David Foran, Nhan Do, Spyretta Golemati, Tahsin Kurc, et al. 2020. AI in medical imaging informatics: current challenges and future directions. *IEEE journal of biomedical and health informatics* 24, 7 (2020), 1837– 1857.
- [30] Yali Peng, Lu Zhang, Shigang Liu, Xiaojun Wu, Yu Zhang, and Xili Wang. 2019. Dilated Residual Networks with Symmetric Skip Connection for image denoising. *Neurocomputing* 345 (2019), 67–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2018.12.075 Deep Learning for Intelligent Sensing, Decision-Making and Control.
- [31] Prajit Ramachandran, Niki Parmar, Ashish Vaswani, Irwan Bello, Anselm Levskaya, and Jon Shlens. 2019. Stand-alone self-attention in vision models. Advances in neural information processing systems 32 (2019).
- [32] H Sheikh. 2005. LIVE image quality assessment database release 2. http://live. ece. utexas. edu/research/quality (2005).
- [33] Teerapittayanon et al. 2016. Branchynet: Fast inference via early exiting from deep neural networks. In 2016 23rd international conference on pattern recognition (ICPR). IEEE, 2464–2469.
- [34] Chunwei Tian, Yong Xu, and Wangmeng Zuo. 2020. Image denoising using deep CNN with batch renormalization. *Neural Networks* 121 (2020), 461–473. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neunet.2019.08.022
- [35] Radu Timofte, Eirikur Agustsson, Luc Van Gool, Ming-Hsuan Yang, and Lei Zhang. 2017. NTIRE 2017 Challenge on Single Image Super-Resolution: Methods and Results. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR) Workshops.
- [36] Shizun Wang, Jiaming Liu, Kaixin Chen, Xiaoqi Li, Ming Lu, and Yandong Guo. 2022. Adaptive patch exiting for scalable single image super-resolution. In European Conference on Computer Vision. Springer, 292–307.
- [37] Zhendong Wang, Xiaodong Cun, Jianmin Bao, Wengang Zhou, Jianzhuang Liu, and Houqiang Li. 2022. Uformer: A general u-shaped transformer for image restoration. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 17683–17693.
- [38] Wang et al. 2023. YOLOV7: Trainable Bag-of-Freebies Sets New State-of-the-Art for Real-Time Object Detectors. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). 7464–7475.
- [39] Sanghyun Woo, Jongchan Park, Joon-Young Lee, and In So Kweon. 2018. CBAM: Convolutional Block Attention Module. In Proceedings of the European Conference on Computer Vision (ECCV).
- [40] Bichen Wu, Chenfeng Xu, Xiaoliang Dai, Alvin Wan, Peizhao Zhang, Zhicheng Yan, Masayoshi Tomizuka, Joseph Gonzalez, Kurt Keutzer, and Peter Vajda. 2020. Visual transformers: Token-based image representation and processing for computer vision. arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.03677 (2020).
- [41] Yanyang Yan, Wenqi Ren, Yuanfang Guo, Rui Wang, and Xiaochun Cao. 2017. Image deblurring via extreme channels prior. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 4003–4011.
- [42] Le Yang, Yizeng Han, Xi Chen, Shiji Song, Jifeng Dai, and Gao Huang. 2020. Resolution Adaptive Networks for Efficient Inference. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR).
- [43] Ke Yu, Xintao Wang, Chao Dong, Xiaoou Tang, and Chen Change Loy. 2021. Pathrestore: Learning network path selection for image restoration. *IEEE Transactions* on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence 44, 10 (2021), 7078–7092.
- [44] Qiangqiang Yuan, Huanfeng Shen, Tongwen Li, Zhiwei Li, Shuwen Li, Yun Jiang, Hongzhang Xu, Weiwei Tan, Qianqian Yang, Jiwen Wang, et al. 2020. Deep learning in environmental remote sensing: Achievements and challenges. *Remote Sensing of Environment* 241 (2020), 111716.
- [45] Ekim Yurtsever, Jacob Lambert, Alexander Carballo, and Kazuya Takeda. 2020. A survey of autonomous driving: Common practices and emerging technologies. *IEEE access* 8 (2020), 58443–58469.
- 1042 1043 1044

Anonymous Authors

- [46] Syed Waqas Zamir, Aditya Arora, Salman Khan, Munawar Hayat, Fahad Shahbaz Khan, and Ming-Hsuan Yang. 2022. Restormer: Efficient transformer for high-resolution image restoration. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*. 5728–5739.
- [47] Syed Waqas Zamir, Aditya Arora, Salman Khan, Munawar Hayat, Fahad Shahbaz Khan, Ming-Hsuan Yang, and Ling Shao. 2021. Multi-stage progressive image restoration. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 14821–14831.
- [48] Zhan et al. 2018. No-Reference Image Sharpness Assessment Based on Maximum Gradient and Variability of Gradients. *IEEE Transactions on Multimedia* 20, 7 (2018), 1796–1808. https://doi.org/10.1109/TMM.2017.2780770
- [49] Kai Zhang, Yawei Li, Wangmeng Zuo, Lei Zhang, Luc Van Gool, and Radu Timofte. 2022. Plug-and-Play Image Restoration With Deep Denoiser Prior. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence* 44, 10 (2022), 6360–6376. https://doi.org/10.1109/TPAMI.2021.3088914
- [50] Kai Zhang, Jingyun Liang, Luc Van Gool, and Radu Timofte. 2021. Designing a Practical Degradation Model for Deep Blind Image Super-Resolution. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV).
   4791-4800.
- [51] Kai Zhang, Wangmeng Zuo, Yunjin Chen, Deyu Meng, and Lei Zhang. 2017.
   Beyond a gaussian denoiser: Residual learning of deep cnn for image denoising. *IEEE transactions on image processing* 26, 7 (2017), 3142–3155.
- [52] Kai Zhang, Wangmeng Zuo, Shuhang Gu, and Lei Zhang. 2017. Learning Deep CNN Denoiser Prior for Image Restoration. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference* on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR).

- [53] Lei Zhang, Xiaolin Wu, Antoni Buades, and Xin Li. 2011. Color demosaicking by local directional interpolation and nonlocal adaptive thresholding. *J. Electronic Imaging* 20 (2011), 023016.
- [54] Yulun Zhang, Kunpeng Li, Kai Li, Bineng Zhong, and Yun Raymond Fu. 2019. Residual Non-local Attention Networks for Image Restoration. ArXiv abs/1903.10082 (2019).
- [55] Yulun Zhang, Yapeng Tian, Yu Kong, Bineng Zhong, and Yun Fu. 2021. Residual Dense Network for Image Restoration. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis* and Machine Intelligence 43, 7 (2021), 2480–2495. https://doi.org/10.1109/TPAMI. 2020.2968521
- [56] Zhang et al. 2018. FFDNet: Toward a fast and flexible solution for CNN-based image denoising. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing* 27, 9 (2018), 4608–4622.
- [57] Haiyu Zhao, Yuanbiao Gou, Boyun Li, Dezhong Peng, Jiancheng Lv, and Xi Peng. 2023. Comprehensive and Delicate: An Efficient Transformer for Image Restoration. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 14122–14132.
- [58] Sixiao Zheng, Jiachen Lu, Hengshuang Zhao, Xiatian Zhu, Zekun Luo, Yabiao Wang, Yanwei Fu, Jianfeng Feng, Tao Xiang, Philip HS Torr, et al. 2021. Re-thinking semantic segmentation from a sequence-to-sequence perspective with transformers. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 6881–6890.
- [59] Wangchunshu Zhou, Canwen Xu, Tao Ge, Julian McAuley, Ke Xu, and Furu Wei. 2020. Bert loses patience: Fast and robust inference with early exit. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 33 (2020), 18330–18341.