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010 011 ABSTRACT

013 Image compression for machines aims to remove redundancies in images while
014 minimizing degradation in machine vision performance. However, existing meth-
015 ods use identical compression strategies for luma and chroma components, igno-
016 ring their perceptual differences in machine vision. To address this issue, a Chroma
017 Superpixel Aggregation-based Learned Image Compression (CSA-LIC) method is
018 proposed in this paper, which processes luma and chroma components differently
019 according to their perceptual importance, and removes redundancies by exploit-
020 ing intra-chroma and luma-chroma inter-component correlations. Specifically, a
021 chroma adaptive sampling coding strategy is proposed, in which a superpixel-
022 based chroma sampling module is designed to reduce chroma data volume by
023 adaptively aggregating region-level semantic information based on chroma simi-
024 larity, and a chroma generation module is built to enhance color integrity via luma
025 compensation, thereby improving reconstructed chroma quality. To further elimi-
026 nate cross-component redundancies, a cross-component feature transform module
027 is designed to exploit luma-chroma inter-component correlations. Experimental
028 results demonstrate that CSA-LIC outperforms state-of-the-art image compres-
029 sion methods in compression efficiency.

030 1 INTRODUCTION

031 With the rapid advancement of the Internet of Things (IoT) and deep learning technologies,
032 Machine-to-Machine (M2M) communication accounts for a growing proportion of Internet traf-
033 fic in applications such as autonomous driving (Li et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2025; Huang et al., 2025),
034 video surveillance (Liu et al., 2025), and action recognition (Fan et al., 2022; Li et al., 2025a;b).
035 In M2M systems, edge devices continuously collect and transmit large volumes of image data to
036 cloud or edge servers for machine-based analysis, including object detection (Ren et al., 2017; Dang
037 et al., 2023) and instance segmentation (He et al., 2017; Dai et al., 2025). This creates signifi-
038 cant challenges for efficiently transmitting and storing massive image data, especially under limited
039 bandwidth. However, most existing image compression methods are primarily optimized for signal
040 fidelity (Zou et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2025; Feng et al., 2025) or human visual per-
041 ception (He et al., 2022; Pan et al., 2025), and thus fail to meet the demands of machine intelligence.
042 Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop advanced Image Compression for Machines (ICM)
043 tailored to machine intelligence.

044 To compress images for intelligent analysis, traditional ICM methods (Fischer et al., 2021; Kwak
045 et al., 2023) utilize pre-trained task networks (e.g., Faster R-CNN (Ren et al., 2017) and Mask
046 R-CNN (He et al., 2017)) to extract salient spatial regions and adaptively adjust quantization param-
047 eters. Subsequently, these methods apply standard codecs, such as High Efficiency Video Coding
048 (HEVC) (Sullivan et al., 2012; Pan et al., 2020) and Versatile Video Coding (VVC) (Bross et al.,
049 2021; Yuan et al., 2024), to compress the transmitted images. However, these traditional methods
050 cannot optimize the coding framework end-to-end, which hinders further improvements in coding
051 efficiency. To address this limitation, learned ICM methods have been developed, which can be
052 broadly categorized into two types: attention mechanism-based methods (Le et al., 2021b; Fischer
053 et al., 2023; Peng et al., 2024; Li et al., 2025c) and task loss-based methods (Le et al., 2021a; Yang
et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024; Fischer et al., 2025). Attention mechanism-based methods focus

on preserving critical spatial regions for machine vision, while task loss-based methods jointly optimize the framework by integrating predictions or intermediate features into the rate-distortion loss. However, these methods apply identical compression strategies to luma and chroma components, neglecting their perceptual differences in machine vision, thereby limiting coding efficiency.

To solve this problem, a Chroma Superpixel Aggregation-based Learned Image Coding (CSA-LIC) method is proposed in this paper, which performs differentiated processing for luma and chroma components based on their perceptual differences in machine vision. Since chroma components generally exhibit higher redundancies than luma components in machine vision, CSA-LIC eliminates redundancies by exploiting intra-chroma and luma-chroma cross-component correlations. To improve chroma coding efficiency, a Chroma Adaptive Sampling Coding (CASC) strategy is developed, which comprises a Superpixel-based Chroma Sampling Module (SCSM) and a Chroma Generation Module (CGM). The SCSM is designed to reduce chroma data volume via adaptive region-level semantic aggregation, and the CGM is built to enhance reconstructed color integrity through luma compensation. To further eliminate cross-component redundancies between luma and chroma components, a Cross-component Feature Transform Module (CFTM) is designed to bridge spatial structure differences and extract cross-component correlations. Experimental results demonstrate that the proposed CSA-LIC achieves superior compression efficiency compared to state-of-the-art methods. The main contributions of this work are summarized as follows:

- We propose a CSA-LIC method that processes luma and chroma components differently according to their perceptual importance in machine vision, significantly improving coding efficiency.
- To effectively improve the coding efficiency of chroma components, a CASC strategy is developed, in which an SCSM is designed to reduce the chroma data volume via region-level semantic aggregation, and a CGM is built to enhance color fidelity through luma-guided compensation.
- To effectively remove cross-component redundancies, a CFTM is designed to align luma and chroma features and exploit their correlations.
- Experimental results demonstrate that CSA-LIC achieves superior compression efficiency compared to state-of-the-art image compression methods.

2 RELATED WORKS

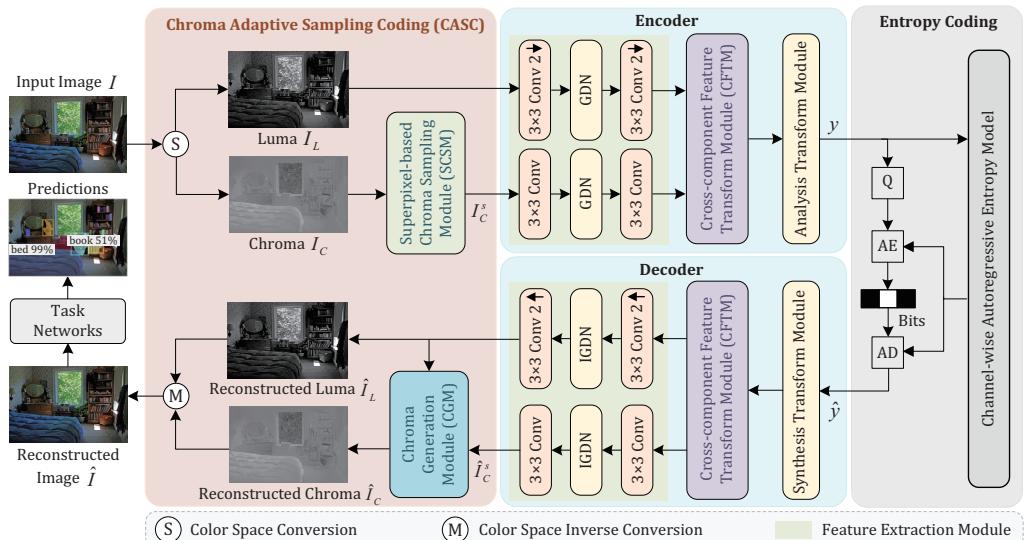
2.1 TRADITIONAL ICM METHODS

To compress images for machine analysis, numerous traditional ICM methods (Shi & Chen, 2020; Fischer et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021; Kwak et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2023) have been developed, demonstrating impressive compression performance. Shi & Chen (2020) transformed the bit allocation problem into a Markovian decision process, and introduced reinforcement learning to determine the quantization parameter of each Coding Tree Unit (CTU). Fischer et al. (2021) proposed a saliency-driven versatile video coding framework, in which a decision criterion based on salient regions is designed to identify salient CTUs for adaptive quantization parameter adjustment. Huang et al. (2021) introduced a visual analysis-motivated rate-distortion model, in which a CTU-level bit allocation strategy is developed according to the region of interest for machine, and a multi-scale feature distortion is designed to provide spatial context information. Kwak et al. (2023) developed a feature-guided machine-centric image compression method, which employs gradient maps between the original and reconstructed images to preserve task-relevant regions. Kim et al. (2023) introduced a machine-attention-based video compression method, which allocates higher bitrates to task-relevant regions through a maximum a posteriori-based bit allocation strategy. However, these methods fail to optimize the coding framework in an end-to-end manner, which limits compression efficiency.

2.2 LEARNED ICM METHODS

Learned ICM methods (Le et al., 2021a;b; Chen et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023; Qi et al., 2023; Ahonen et al., 2023; Shindo et al., 2024a;b; Peng et al., 2024; Li et al., 2025c; Yin et al., 2025) optimize the compression framework in an end-to-end manner. Wang et al. (2023) developed a multi-task

108 collaborative optimization strategy that employs task loss to preserve critical semantic information.
 109 Qi et al. (2023) designed a saliency-guided bit allocation strategy, which allocates higher bitrates
 110 to key regions for improving semantic fidelity and task performance. Ahonen et al. (2023) intro-
 111 duced a region-of-interest image compression method, which employs a pre-trained task network to
 112 extract salient regions and refines feature representation via spatial attention. Shindo et al. (2024a)
 113 designed a region-guided mechanism to extract task-relevant features and incorporated a feature dis-
 114 tortion loss for rate-distortion optimization. Shindo et al. (2024b) presented an edge structure-aware
 115 compression method, in which a segment-anything model is used to extract object edges, and an
 116 edge guidance mechanism is designed to preserve structure information. Peng et al. (2024) devel-
 117 oped a saliency map-guided learned image compression method, in which a saliency map-guided
 118 mean square error loss is used to prioritize key spatial regions. Li et al. (2025c) implemented a spa-
 119 tial mask mechanism and a channel attention module to enhance task-relevant features across spatial
 120 and channel dimensions. Yin et al. (2025) developed a unified compression method for both human
 121 perception and machine vision, which introduces a contrastive language-image pre-training model
 122 to alleviate reliance on task networks. However, these methods fail to differentiate coding strategies
 123 between luma and chroma components according to their perceptual importance in machine vision,
 thereby limiting coding efficiency.



143 Figure 1: The overall architecture of the proposed CSA-LIC.
 144
 145

146 3 PROPOSED CSA-LIC

147 3.1 OVERALL ARCHITECTURE

148 To efficiently compress images for machine vision, we propose a CSA-LIC method, which employs
 149 differentiated processing strategies for luma and chroma components based on their perception dif-
 150 ferences in machine vision. The overall architecture of the proposed CSA-LIC is shown in Figure 1,
 151 which consists of four components: a CASC strategy, an encoder, an entropy coding, and a decoder.
 152 The CASC strategy is developed to effectively remove redundancies within chroma components,
 153 which contains an SCSM and a CGM. The SCSM is designed to reduce chroma data volume by
 154 aggregating region-level semantic information, and the CGM is built to enhance the quality of re-
 155 constructed chroma components by adaptively compensating chroma components with luma compo-
 156 nents. The encoder removes cross-component redundancies between luma and chroma components,
 157 in which a CFTM is designed to eliminate co-located spatial structure gaps and extract luma-chroma
 158 feature correlations. The entropy coding (Minnen & Singh, 2020) estimates latent feature distribu-
 159 tions, while the decoder reconstructs the compressed luma and chroma components. The workflow
 160 of the proposed CSA-LIC is summarized as follows.
 161

The input image I is first transformed into luma components I_L and chroma components I_C via color space conversion (Cheng et al., 2001). To reduce chroma data volume, I_C is processed by the SCSM to generate sampled chroma components I_C^s . The encoder jointly compresses I_L and I_C^s to learn compact latent features y . Specifically, a feature extraction module extracts luma features from I_L and chroma features from I_C^s . These features are transformed by the CFTM to remove cross-component redundancies. The fused features are fed to an analysis transform module (Zou et al., 2022) to generate y . Next, y are quantized to \hat{y} and compressed using a channel-wise autoregressive entropy model (Minnen & Singh, 2020). The decoder reconstructs luma components \hat{I}_L and chroma components \hat{I}_C^s from \hat{y} . To improve the quality of reconstructed chroma components, \hat{I}_C^s is enhanced by the CGM to obtain the final reconstructed chroma components \hat{I}_C . Finally, the reconstructed image \hat{I} is obtained through color space inverse conversion of \hat{I}_L and \hat{I}_C for machine vision tasks.

3.2 CHROMA ADAPTIVE SAMPLING CODING (CASC)

Machine vision is particularly sensitive to structure properties present in luma components. The critical structure properties can effectively support machine intelligence even with constrained color information (Hou et al., 2020), indicating that chroma components contain higher redundancies than luma components. However, existing ICM methods (Chen et al., 2023; Peng et al., 2024; Yin et al., 2025; Fischer et al., 2025) generally adopt identical compression strategies for both luma and chroma components, neglecting their differential perceptual importance in machine vision, which consequently limits compression efficiency. To address this issue, we propose a CASC strategy to effectively remove chroma redundancies. The overall architecture of the proposed CASC is illustrated in Figure 1, which consists of an SCSM and a CGM. The SCSM aims to reduce chroma data volume via adaptive sampling, while the CGM enhances reconstruction quality through luma compensation.

3.2.1 SUPERPIXEL-BASED CHROMA SAMPLING MODULE (SCSM)

To reduce chroma data volume, an SCSM is proposed, which adaptively aggregates local regions based on chroma content similarity. The SCSM leverages a superpixel sampling network (Jampani et al., 2018) to merge chroma regions with consistent colors into unified superpixel representations, thereby effectively eliminating intra-region redundancies. Specifically, initial superpixel representations \mathcal{S}^0 are generated by averaging pixel values within regular grid regions. The module then computes associations between each chroma pixel and its neighboring superpixels to produce an association matrix. This matrix serves as pixel weights for iteratively updating the superpixel representations. After n refinement iterations, the final superpixel representations \mathcal{S} are obtained. The working process of the proposed SCSM is described as,

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{S}^0 = \text{Avg}(I_C), \\ Q^t = \delta \left(\frac{I_C \otimes (\mathcal{S}^{t-1})^\top}{\sqrt{d}} \right), \\ \mathcal{S}^t = (Q^t)^\top \otimes I_C, \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where $\text{Avg}(\cdot)$ represents the 4×4 average pooling; $\delta(\cdot)$ denotes the *softmax* function; \otimes indicates the matrix multiplication; Q^t represents the association matrix at the t^{th} iteration; \top denotes the matrix transposition; and d indicates the channel dimension of chroma components.

To intuitively demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed SCSM, Figure 2 compares original chroma components with their aggregated region-level representations. It can be seen that chroma components with similar characteristics are effectively clustered into coherent regions, such as the tie of the middle person. The visualization results strongly demonstrate that the proposed SCSM can effectively reduce chroma data volume, while significantly enhancing the representation capability of chroma components.

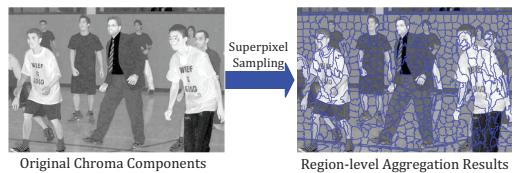


Figure 2: An example of the original chroma components and its corresponding region-level aggregation results.

216 3.2.2 CHROMA GENERATION MODULE (CGM)
217

218 Superpixel-based chroma sampling leads to
219 color information loss, degrading reconstructed
220 image quality and task performance. To re-
221 move chroma redundancies while preserving
222 the color integrity of chroma components, we
223 propose a CGM, which adaptively com-
224 pensates for chroma components using luma com-
225 ponents, thereby improving the quality of re-
226 constructed chroma components. The proposed
227 CGM enhances both structure and content re-
228 presentations by extracting local structure and
229 global semantic correlations between luma and
230 chroma components. Figure 3 illustrates the ar-
231 chitecture of the proposed CGM. To enhance
232 spatial structure consistency between reconstructed luma and chroma components, deformable con-
233 volution (Dai et al., 2017) is applied to adaptively mine local structure correlations. Specifically,
234 luma features are first processed by a convolution layer to generate spatial offsets, which guide the
235 deformable convolution layer to achieve precise spatial alignment. The proposed CGM effectively
236 compensates for chroma spatial details through this adaptive receptive field adjustment guided by
237 luma components. The aligned chroma features are then refined using a convolution layer. In par-
238 allel, luma features are processed through a down-sampling residual block (He et al., 2016) for feature
239 refinement. Additionally, to achieve comprehensive content enhancement, we employ non-local at-
240 tention mechanism (Vaswani et al., 2017) to model global semantic correlations between luma and
241 chroma features. This attention mechanism adaptively extracts salient semantic information, thereby
242 enhancing content integrity. Lastly, two up-sampling residual blocks refine the weighted chroma
243 features to generate high-quality reconstructed chroma components \hat{I}_C . The working process of the
244 proposed CGM is described as follows,

$$\begin{cases} f_c = \text{Conv}_3(\text{DeConv}_3(\hat{I}_C^s, \text{Conv}_4(\hat{I}_L))), \\ f_l = \text{ResB}_{2\downarrow}(\hat{I}_L), \\ f_c^r = \text{Conv}_3(\text{DeConv}_3(f_c, \text{Conv}_2(f_l))), \\ f_l^r = \text{ResB}_{2\downarrow}(f_l), \\ f_w = \text{NonAtten}(\text{Concat}[f_c^r, f_l^r]), \\ \hat{I}_C = \text{ResB}(\text{ResB}_{2\uparrow}(\text{ResB}(\text{ResB}_{2\uparrow}(f_w)))) \end{cases}, \quad (2)$$

252 where $\text{Conv}_k(\cdot)$ and $\text{DeConv}_k(\cdot)$ denote the convolution and deformable convolution layers with
253 a kernel size of $k \times k$, respectively; $\text{ResB}_{2\downarrow}(\cdot)$ and $\text{ResB}_{2\uparrow}(\cdot)$ represent the down-sampling and
254 up-sampling residual blocks with a kernel size of 3×3 and a stride of 2, respectively; $\text{Concat}[\cdot]$ rep-
255 resents the channel-wise concatenation; $\text{NonAtten}(\cdot)$ denotes the non-local attention mechanism.

256 257 3.3 CROSS-COMPONENT FEATURE TRANSFORM MODULE (CFTM)
258

259 Due to the strong spatial and semantic corre-
260 lations between luma and chroma components,
261 their feature representations exhibit substantial
262 cross-component redundancies. While feature
263 fusion through luma-chroma correlation extrac-
264 tion can effectively reduce these redundancies,
265 there exist spatial structure gaps between col-
266 located luma and sampled chroma features.
267 Conventional fusion methods (e.g., channel-
268 wise concatenation) fail to establish effective
269 inter-feature interactions, which severely lim-
its redundancy elimination efficiency. To ad-
dress this problem, a CFTM is designed, which bridges spatial structure gaps via dynamic cross-

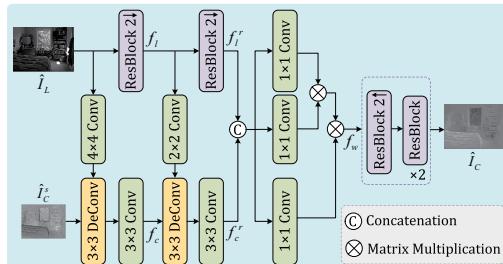


Figure 3: The architecture of the proposed CGM.

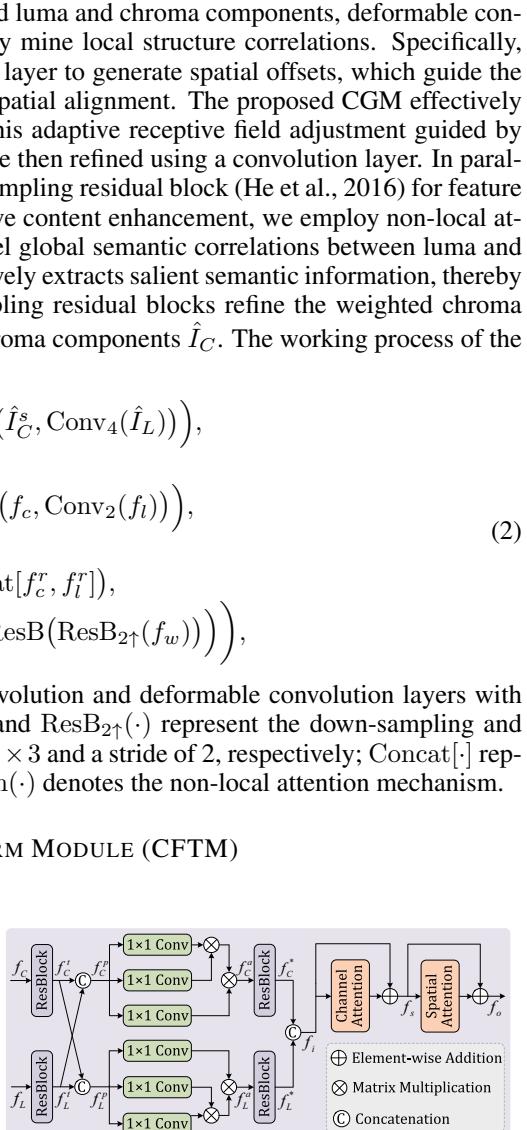


Figure 4: The architecture of the proposed CFTM.

270 component interaction and performs robust feature fusion through channel-spatial attention. The
 271 architecture of the proposed CFTM is illustrated in Figure 4.
 272

273 To eliminate spatial structure gaps, a dynamic cross-component interaction is proposed to achieve
 274 co-located spatial structure alignment. Specifically, two residual blocks are first applied to enhance
 275 luma and chroma features through local receptive fields. Then, the enhanced luma and chroma
 276 features are concatenated in a channel-wise manner, and subsequently fed into three convolution
 277 layers to dynamically generate spatial mapping relationships through non-local interactions. Finally,
 278 two residual blocks are used to refine the aligned luma and chroma features. This progressive method
 279 effectively eliminates spatial structure gaps between luma and chroma components, while preserving
 280 their component-specific characteristics. Moreover, to effectively fuse the aligned luma and chroma
 281 features, a channel-spatial attention mechanism (Woo et al., 2018) is employed to extract luma-
 282 chroma correlations through channel and spatial attention, thereby eliminating cross-component
 283 redundancies. The working process of the proposed CFTM is formulated as follows,
 284

$$\begin{cases} f_L^t = \text{ResB}(f_L), f_C^t = \text{ResB}(f_C), \\ f_L^p = \text{Concat}[f_L^t, f_C^t], f_C^p = \text{Concat}[f_C^t, f_L^t], \\ f_L^a = \delta(\text{Conv}_1(f_L^p) \otimes \text{Conv}_1(f_L^p)^\top) \otimes \text{Conv}_1(f_L^p), \\ f_C^a = \delta(\text{Conv}_1(f_C^p) \otimes \text{Conv}_1(f_C^p)^\top) \otimes \text{Conv}_1(f_C^p), \\ f_L^* = \text{ResB}(f_L^a), f_C^* = \text{ResB}(f_C^a), \\ f_i = \text{Concat}[f_L^*, f_C^*], \\ f_s = \text{ChanAtten}(f_i) + f_i, \\ f_o = \text{SpatAtten}(f_s) + f_s, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

293 where f_L and f_C denote the luma and chroma features, respectively; $\text{ResB}(\cdot)$ indicates a residual
 294 block with a kernel size of 3×3 ; f_C^* and f_L^* represent the aligned chroma and luma features,
 295 respectively; $\text{ChanAtten}(\cdot)$ and $\text{SpatAtten}(\cdot)$ mean the channel and spatial attention modules, re-
 296 spectively.

297 4 EXPERIMENTS

300 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

302 4.1.1 DATASETS

304 The proposed CSA-LIC is trained on the COCO2017 training dataset (Lin et al., 2014). The original
 305 dataset contains 118,287 images, of which 117,465 with resolutions exceeding 256×256 pixels
 306 are retained for training. For each image, a 256×256 patch is randomly cropped as input to the
 307 CSA-LIC. We evaluate compression efficiency on the COCO2017 and OpenImagesV6 validation
 308 datasets (Kuznetsova et al., 2020), comparing the proposed method with other state-of-the-art image
 309 compression methods.

310 4.1.2 TRAINING SETTINGS

312 We use object detection and instance segmentation as machine vision tasks, employing Detectron2’s
 313 Faster/Mask R-CNN X101-FPN (Wu et al., 2019) as the task network. CSA-LIC is optimized using
 314 rate-distortion loss, defined as,

$$315 \quad L = R + \lambda(D_i + D_f), \quad (4)$$

316 where R represents the rate loss; D_i denotes the pixel-level reconstruction loss between the recon-
 317 structed image \hat{I} and original image I using the Mean Squared Error (MSE) function; D_f indicates
 318 the feature-level reconstruction loss from the task network’s intermediate features using the MSE
 319 function; $\lambda \in \{0.001, 0.0025, 0.005, 0.01\}$ serves as the Lagrangian multiplier controlling the rate-
 320 distortion trade-off. We minimize this loss using the Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2015) with
 321 a batch size of 8 for 200 epochs. The learning rate follows a staged decay strategy: initially fixed
 322 at 1×10^{-4} for the first 50 epochs, then halved every 30 epochs until reaching below 5×10^{-6} . The
 323 proposed CSA-LIC is implemented in PyTorch on an Ubuntu 20.04 platform with NVIDIA RTX
 324 4090 GPUs.

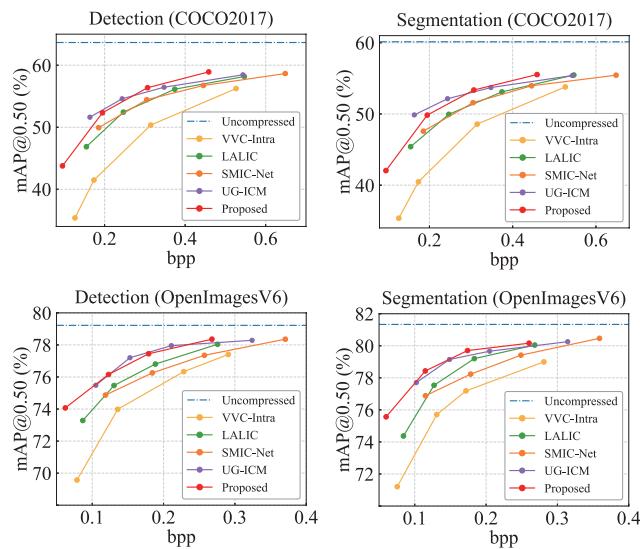
324 4.2 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS
325326 4.2.1 OBJECTIVE QUALITY ANALYSIS
327

328 To validate the effectiveness of the proposed CSA-LIC, we compare it with four state-of-the-art
329 image compression methods: VVC-Intra (Zhang et al., 2021), LALIC (Feng et al., 2025), SMIC-
330 Net (Peng et al., 2024), and UG-ICM (Yin et al., 2025). Compression efficiency is quantified using
331 two metrics: Bjøntegaard Delta bitrate (BD-rate, η_1) for bitrate savings and Bjøntegaard Delta
332 mean Average Precision (BD-mAP, η_2) at IoU threshold 0.5 for task performance improvements,
333 both measured against the VVC-Intra anchor. As shown in Tables 1, CSA-LIC demonstrates super-
334 ior performance across both object detection and instance segmentation tasks. On the COCO2017
335 dataset, it achieves average (BD-rate, BD-mAP) of (-16.068%, +3.781%), (-19.602%, +4.443%),
336 and (-4.920%, +2.970%) against LALIC, SMIC-Net, and UG-ICM, respectively. Corresponding re-
337 sults on OpenImagesV6 are (-20.493%, +1.843%), (-30.548%, +2.682%), and (-3.460%, +1.257%).
338 This advantage of the proposed CSA-LIC stems from two key innovations: (1) The SCSM re-
339 duces chroma data volume through region-level semantic aggregation, while the CGM enhances
340 reconstruction quality via luma compensation. (2) The CFTM effectively removes cross-component
341 redundancies to boost compression efficiency.

341 Table 1: Compression performance comparison in terms of BD-rate (η_1 , %) and BD-mAP (η_2 , %)
342 on the COCO2017 and OpenImagesV6 datasets (anchor: VVC-Intra)
343

Dataset	COCO2017			OpenImagesV6			
	Task	Detction	Segmentation	Average	Task	Detction	Segmentation
Method	η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2	Method	η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2
LALIC	-32.370/4.417	-28.942/3.623	-30.656/4.020	-24.147/1.402	-28.698/1.821	-26.423/1.612	
SMIC-Net	-29.121/3.732	-25.122/2.983	-27.122/3.358	-14.476/0.555	-18.259/0.990	-16.368/0.773	
UG-ICM	-42.238/6.123	-41.369/3.538	-41.804/4.831	-40.513/2.237	-46.398/2.158	-43.456/2.198	
Proposed	-48.526/8.119	-44.922/7.482	-46.724/7.801	-43.345/3.221	-50.488/3.688	-46.916/3.455	

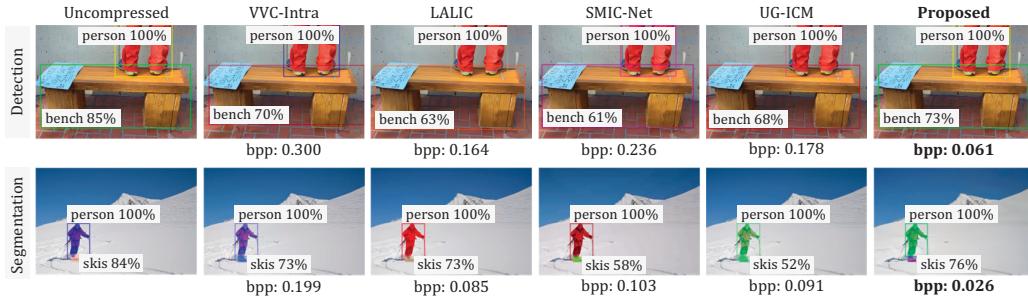
351 For intuitive comparison of compression efficiency, Figure 5 presents the rate-accuracy curves of
352 CSA-LIC versus other methods on both object detection and instance segmentation tasks. The
353 results demonstrate that CSA-LIC consistently outperforms compared methods across these tasks.
354 These findings indicate that the proposed method effectively minimizes performance degradation in
355 machine vision tasks while achieving superior redundancy reduction. Furthermore, the consistent
356 performance gains across diverse datasets validate the robustness and generalization capability of
357 CSA-LIC.



358 359 360 361 362 363 364 365 366 367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 Figure 5: Rate-accuracy curves of each image compression method.

378 4.2.2 SUBJECTIVE QUALITY ANALYSIS
379

380 To visually verify the superiority of CSA-LIC, we select two representative samples from the
381 COCO2017 dataset for qualitative analysis. Figure 6 compares the visual results of different meth-
382 ods on object detection and instance segmentation tasks. Notably, CSA-LIC achieves significantly
383 higher accuracy while maintaining better bitrate efficiency (lower bpp) than other methods. These
384 visual comparisons conclusively validate the dual-function capability of CSA-LIC, which achieves
385 significant redundancy reduction while maintaining task performance without noticeable degra-
386 dation.

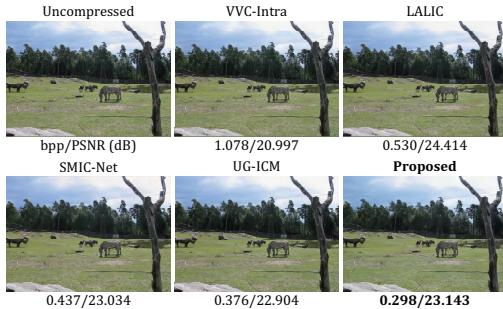


397 Figure 6: Qualitative comparison of object detection and instance segmentation performance on the
398 COCO2017 dataset.

400 To further evaluate the reconstructed image
401 quality for human perception, we select one
402 representative image from the COCO2017
403 dataset for quality comparison. Figure 7 shows
404 the reconstructed image quality of each im-
405 age compression method. We can see that the
406 proposed method achieves the lowest bpp of
407 0.298, significantly outperforming other meth-
408 ods in terms of compression efficiency. In
409 terms of image quality, the proposed method
410 achieves a PSNR of 23.143 dB, which is the
411 second-highest among all the methods, closely
412 following the LALIC method, which achieves
413 the highest PSNR of 24.414 dB. However, the
414 bpp of the proposed method is nearly half of
415 LALIC’s 0.530, illustrating its superior com-
416 pression performance without compromising image quality significantly. Overall, the proposed
417 method offers an excellent balance between compression efficiency and reconstructed image quality,
418 demonstrating a favorable trade-off compared to other image compression methods.

419 4.3 ABLATION ANALYSIS
420

421 The proposed CSA-LIC comprises two core
422 components: CASC and CFTM. The CASC en-
423 hances chroma coding efficiency through two
424 novel mechanisms: (1) an SCSM that re-
425 duces chroma data volume via adaptive region-
426 level semantic aggregation, and (2) a CGM that
427 improves reconstructed chroma quality
428 through luma compensation. The CFTM elim-
429 inates cross-component redundancies by bridg-
430 ing spatial structure gaps and exploiting luma-
431 chroma correlations. Ablation studies on the
432 COCO2017 dataset (Table 2) validate each
433 component’s contribution: removing CASC degrades (BD-rate, BD-mAP) performance by (5.340%,



500 Figure 7: Reconstructed image quality for human
501 perception.

502 Table 2: Ablation study of CSA-LIC components:
503 BD-rate (η_1 , %) and BD-mAP (η_2 , %), anchor:
504 VVC-Intra

SCSM	CFTM	CGM	Detection		Segmentation	
			η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2	η_1/η_2
✗	✗	✗	-14.226/1.915	-9.810/1.243		
✗	✓	✗	-43.186/7.338	-40.165/5.873		
✓	✗	✓	-44.267/7.648	-41.256/6.026		
✓	✓	✓	-48.526/8.119	-44.922/7.482		

432 0.781%) and (4.757%, 1.609%) for object detection and instance segmentation tasks, respectively,
 433 while replacing CFTM with channel-wise concatenation causes reductions of (4.259%, 0.471%)
 434 and (3.666%, 1.456%). These results conclusively validate the contributions of all components to
 435 CSA-LIC’s superior coding efficiency.

436 To intuitively verify the effectiveness of the
 437 proposed CASC, we select one representative
 438 image from the COCO2017 dataset for quality
 439 comparison. The reconstructed images of the
 440 proposed CASC are presented in Figure 8. We
 441 can observe that the proposed CASC achieves
 442 bpp saving of 0.059, while yielding higher
 443 PSNR of 24.696 dB. These results strongly ver-
 444 ify that its SCSM effectively removes chroma
 445 redundancies, and its CGM can improve the
 446 quality of reconstructed chroma components.

447 To further validate the effectiveness of the pro-
 448 posed CFTM, Figure 9 compares feature vi-
 449 sualization maps between channel-wise con-
 450 catenation and CFTM. The results demon-
 451 strate that the proposed CFTM effectively eli-
 452 minates cross-component redundancies while pres-
 453 serving salient spatial regions. This improve-
 454 ment stems from CFTM’s dynamic cross-component
 455 interaction, which bridges spatial structure gaps
 456 between luma and chroma features. Addi-
 457 tionally, it leverages robust feature fusion through
 458 channel-spatial attention mechanisms.

460 4.4 COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

461 We evaluate the computational complexity of
 462 CSA-LIC and other learned image compres-
 463 sion methods by analyzing FLOPs, parameter
 464 counts, encoding time, and decoding time. As
 465 shown in Table 3, CSA-LIC achieves lower
 466 computational costs than compared methods:
 467 (1) Compared to LALIC and UG-ICM, it re-
 468 quires fewer FLOPs and parameters; (2) While
 469 SMIC-Net has reduced parameters and FLOPs,
 470 its compression performance is substantially
 471 worse; (3) Both encoding and decoding times
 472 are significantly shorter than other methods. These results demonstrate that CSA-LIC provides su-
 473 perior compression efficiency with lower computational overhead across all metrics.

475 5 CONCLUSION

476 In this paper, we propose a CSA-LIC method that implements differentiated processing for both
 477 luma and chroma components to remove redundancies. The proposed CSA-LIC consists of two key
 478 components: CASC and CFTM. The CASC improves chroma redundancy elimination efficiency
 479 through an SCSM and a CGM. Specifically, the SCSM reduces chroma data volume through region-
 480 level semantic information aggregation, whereas the CGM enhances reconstructed chroma quality
 481 with luma compensation. The CFTM addresses spatial structure gaps between luma and chroma fea-
 482 tures by extracting luma-chroma correlations for eliminating cross-component redundancies. Exten-
 483 sive experiments demonstrate that CSA-LIC outperforms other state-of-the-art image compression
 484 methods.



Figure 8: Reconstructed image quality of CASC.

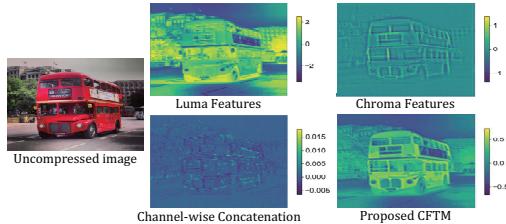


Figure 9: Feature visualization of the proposed CFTM.

Table 3: Computational complexity comparison on the COCO dataset

Method	FLOPs (G)	Parameters (M)	Encoding Time (s)	Decoding Time (s)
LALIC	620.31	116.48	0.29	0.16
SMIC-Net	173.26	12.43	3.36	7.55
UG-ICM	360.34	117.78	0.22	0.28
Proposed	258.36	77.93	0.12	0.15

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