

Activating More Pixels in Image Super-Resolution Transformer

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<https://github.com/XPixelGroup/HAT>

Abstract

Transformer-based methods have shown impressive performance in low-level vision tasks, such as image super-resolution. However, we find that these networks can only utilize a limited spatial range of input information through attribution analysis. This implies that the potential of Transformer is still not fully exploited in existing networks. In order to activate more input pixels for better reconstruction, we propose a novel Hybrid Attention Transformer (HAT). It combines both channel attention and window-based self-attention schemes, thus making use of their complementary advantages of being able to utilize global statistics and strong local fitting capability. Moreover, to better aggregate the cross-window information, we introduce an overlapping cross-attention module to enhance the interaction between neighboring window features. In the training stage, we additionally adopt a same-task pre-training strategy to exploit the potential of the model for further improvement. Extensive experiments show the effectiveness of the proposed modules, and we further scale up the model to demonstrate that the performance of this task can be greatly improved. Our overall method significantly outperforms the state-of-the-art methods by more than 1dB.

1. Introduction

Single image super-resolution (SR) is a classic problem in computer vision and image processing. It aims to reconstruct a high-resolution image from a given low-resolution input. Since deep learning has been successfully applied to the SR task [10], numerous methods based on the convolutional neural network (CNN) have been proposed [8, 11, 12, 24, 29, 32, 68, 70] and almost dominate this field in the past few years. Recently, due to the success in natural language processing, Transformer [53] has attracted the attention of the computer vision community. After mak-

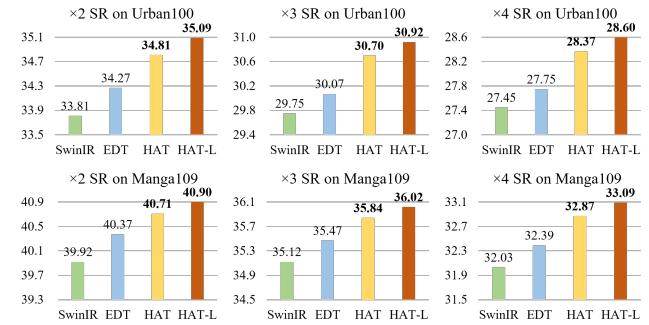


Figure 1. Performance comparison on PSNR(dB) of the proposed HAT with the state-of-the-art methods SwinIR [31] and EDT [27]. HAT-L represents a larger variant of HAT. Our approach can surpass the state-of-the-art methods by 0.3dB~1.2dB.

ing rapid progress on high-level vision tasks [14, 39, 54], Transformer-based methods are also developed for low-level vision tasks [6, 57, 65], as well as for SR [27, 31]. Especially, a newly designed network, SwinIR [31], obtains a breakthrough improvement in this task.

Despite the success, “why Transformer is better than CNN” remains a mystery. An intuitive explanation is that this kind of network can benefit from the self-attention mechanism and utilize long-range information. Thus, we employ the attribution analysis method LAM [15] to examine the involved range of utilized information for reconstruction in SwinIR. Interestingly, we find that SwinIR does NOT exploit more input pixels than CNN-based methods (*e.g.*, RCAN [68]) in super-resolution, as shown in Fig. 2. Besides, although SwinIR obtains higher quantitative performance on average, it produces inferior results to RCAN in some samples, due to the limited range of utilized information. These phenomena illustrate that Transformer has a stronger ability to model local information, but the range of its utilized information needs to be expanded. In addition, we also find that blocking artifacts would appear in the intermediate features of SwinIR, as depicted in Fig. 3. It demonstrates that the shift window mechanism cannot perfectly realize cross-window information interaction.

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To address the above-mentioned limitations and further develop the potential of Transformer for SR, we propose a Hybrid Attention Transformer, namely HAT. Our HAT combines channel attention and self-attention schemes, in order to take advantage of the former’s capability in using global information and the powerful representative ability of the latter. Besides, we introduce an overlapping cross-attention module to achieve more direct interaction of adjacent window features. Benefiting from these designs, our model can activate more pixels for reconstruction and thus obtains significant performance improvement.

Since Transformers do not have an inductive bias like CNNs, large-scale data pre-training is important to unlock the potential of such models. In this work, we provide an effective *same-task pre-training* strategy. Different from IPT [6] using multiple restoration tasks for pre-training and EDT [27] using multiple degradation levels for pre-training, we directly perform pre-training using large-scale dataset on the same task. We believe that large-scale data is what really matters for pre-training, and experimental results also show the superiority of our strategy. Equipped with the above designs, HAT can surpass the state-of-the-art methods by a huge margin (0.3dB~1.2dB), as shown in Fig. 1.

Contributions: 1) We design a novel Hybrid Attention Transformer (HAT) that combines self-attention, channel attention and a new overlapping cross-attention to activate more pixels for better reconstruction. 2) We propose an effective same-task pre-training strategy to further exploit the potential of SR Transformer and show the importance of large-scale data pre-training for the task. 3) Our method achieves state-of-the-art performance. By further scaling up HAT to build a big model, we greatly extend the performance upper bound of the SR task.

2. Related Work

2.1. Deep Networks for Image SR

Since SRCNN [10] first introduces deep convolution neural networks (CNNs) to the image SR task and obtains superior performance over conventional SR methods, numerous deep networks [8, 11, 12, 21, 27, 31, 32, 42, 43, 47, 68, 70] have been proposed for SR to further improve the reconstruction quality. For instance, many methods apply more elaborate convolution module designs, such as residual block [25, 32] and dense block [56, 70], to enhance the model representation ability. Several works explore more different frameworks like recursive neural network [22, 48] and graph neural network [72]. To improve perceptual quality, [25, 55, 56, 67] introduce adversarial learning to generate more realistic results. By using attention mechanism, [8, 35, 42, 43, 68, 69] achieve further improvement in terms of reconstruction fidelity. Recently, a series of Transformer-based networks [6, 27, 31] are proposed and constantly re-

fresh the state-of-the-art of SR task, showing the powerful representation ability of Transformer.

To better understand the working mechanisms of SR networks, several works are proposed to analyze and interpret the SR networks. LAM [15] adopts the integral gradient method to explore which input pixels contribute most to the final performance. DDR [37] reveals the deep semantic representations in SR networks based on deep feature dimensionality reduction and visualization. FAIG [62] aims to find discriminative filters for specific degradations in blind SR. RDSR [23] introduces channel saliency map to demonstrate that Dropout can help prevent co-adapting for real-SR networks. SRGA [38] aims to evaluate the generalization ability of SR methods. In this work, we exploit LAM [15] to analyse and understand the behavior of SR networks.

2.2. Vision Transformer

Recently, Transformer [53] has attracted the attention of computer vision community due to its success in the field of natural language processing. A series of Transformer-based methods [7, 13, 14, 20, 26, 28, 39, 44, 54, 59, 60, 63] have been developed for high-level vision tasks, including image classification [14, 28, 39, 46, 52], object detection [5, 7, 36, 39, 50], segmentation [3, 18, 54, 58], etc. Although vision Transformer has shown its superiority on modeling long-range dependency [14, 45], there are still many works demonstrating that the convolution can help Transformer achieve better visual representation [26, 59, 61, 63, 64]. Due to the impressive performance, Transformer has also been introduced for low-level vision tasks [4, 6, 27, 30, 31, 51, 57, 65]. Specifically, IPT [6] develops a ViT-style network and introduces multi-task pre-training for image processing. SwinIR [31] proposes an image restoration Transformer based on [39]. VRT [30] introduces Transformer-based networks to video restoration. EDT [27] adopts self-attention mechanism and multi-related-task pre-training strategy to further refresh the state-of-the-art of SR. However, existing works still cannot fully exploit the potential of Transformer, while our method can activate more input pixels for better reconstruction.

3. Methodology

3.1. Motivation

Swin Transformer [39] has already presented excellent performance in image super-resolution [31]. Then we are eager to know what makes it work better than CNN-based methods. To reveal its working mechanisms, we resort to a diagnostic tool – LAM [15], which is an attribution method designed for SR. With LAM, we could tell which input pixels contribute most to the selected region. As shown in Fig. 2, the red marked points are informative pixels that contribute to the reconstruction. Intuitively, the more information is utilized, the better performance can be ob-

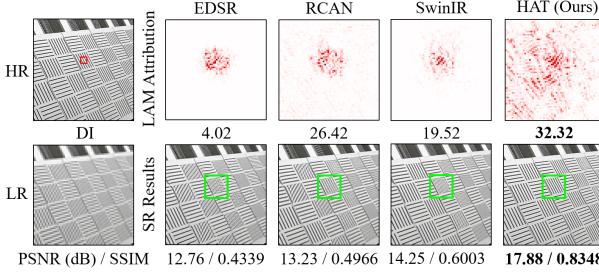


Figure 2. LAM [15] results for different networks. The LAM attribution reflects the importance of each pixel in the input LR image when reconstructing the patch marked with a box. Diffusion index (DI) [15] reflects the range of involved pixels. A higher DI represents a wider range of utilized pixels. The results indicate that SwinIR utilizes less information compared to RCAN, while HAT uses the most pixels for reconstruction.

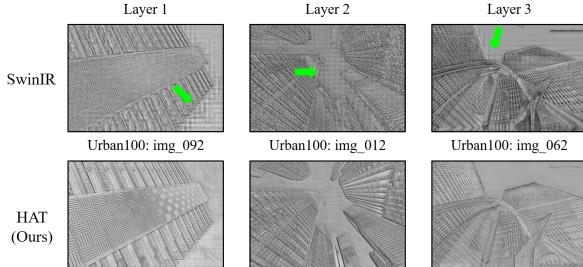


Figure 3. The blocking artifacts appear in the intermediate features of SwinIR [31]. “Layer N” represents the intermediate features after the N_{th} layer (*i.e.*, RSTB in SwinIR and RHAG in HAT.)

tained. This is true for CNN-based methods, as comparing RCAN [68] and EDSR [32]. However, for the Transformer-based method – SwinIR, its LAM does not show a larger range than RCAN. This is in contradiction with our common sense, but could also provide us with additional insights. First, it implies that SwinIR has a much stronger mapping ability than CNN, and thus could use less information to achieve better performance. Second, SwinIR may restore wrong textures due to the limited range of utilized pixels, and we think it can be further improved if it could exploit more input pixels. Therefore, we aim to design a network that can take advantage of similar self-attention while activating more pixels for reconstruction. As depicted in Fig. 2, our HAT can see pixels almost all over the image and restore correct and clear textures.

Besides, we can observe obvious blocking artifacts in the intermediate features of SwinIR, as shown in Fig. 3. These artifacts are caused by the window partition mechanism, which suggests that the shifted window mechanism is inefficient to build the cross-window connection. Some works for high-level vision tasks [13, 20, 44, 60] also point out that enhancing the connection among windows can improve the window-based self-attention methods. Thus, we strengthen cross-window information interactions when designing our approach and the blocking artifacts in the intermediate features obtained by HAT are significantly alleviated.

3.2. Network Architecture

3.2.1 The Overall Structure

As shown in Fig. 4, the overall network consists of three parts, including shallow feature extraction, deep feature extraction and image reconstruction. The architecture design is widely used in previous works [31, 68]. Specifically, for a given low-resolution (LR) input $I_{LR} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C_{in}}$, we first exploit one convolution layer to extract the shallow feature $F_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$, where C_{in} and C denote the channel number of the input and the intermediate feature. Then, a series of residual hybrid attention groups (RHAG) and one 3×3 convolution layer $H_{Conv}(\cdot)$ are utilized to perform the deep feature extraction. After that, we add a global residual connection to fuse shallow features F_0 and deep features $F_D \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$, and then reconstruct the high-resolution result via a reconstruction module. As depicted in Fig. 4, each RHAG contains several hybrid attention blocks (HAB), an overlapping cross-attention block (OCAB) and a 3×3 convolution layer with a residual connection. For the reconstruction module, the pixel-shuffle method [47] is adopted to up-sample the fused feature. We simply use L_1 loss to optimize the network parameters.

3.2.2 Hybrid Attention Block (HAB)

As shown in Fig. 2, more pixels are activated when channel attention is adopted, as global information is involved to calculate the channel attention weights. Besides, many works illustrate that convolution can help Transformer get better visual representation or achieve easier optimization [26, 59, 61, 63, 71]. Therefore, we incorporate a channel attention-based convolution block into the standard Transformer block to enhance the representation ability of the network. As demonstrated in Fig. 4, a channel attention block (CAB) is inserted into the standard Swin Transformer block after the first LayerNorm (LN) layer in parallel with the window-based multi-head self-attention (W-MSA) module. Note that shifted window-based self-attention (SW-MSA) is adopted at intervals in consecutive HABs similar to [31, 39]. To avoid the possible conflict of CAB and MSA on optimization and visual representation, a small constant α is multiplied to the output of CAB. For a given input feature X , the whole process of HAB is computed as

$$\begin{aligned} X_N &= \text{LN}(X), \\ X_M &= (\text{S})\text{W-MSA}(X_N) + \alpha \text{CAB}(X_N) + X, \\ Y &= \text{MLP}(\text{LN}(X_M)) + X_M, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where X_N and X_M denote the intermediate features. Y represents the output of HAB. Especially, we treat each pixel as a token for embedding (*i.e.*, set patch size as 1 for patch embedding following [31]). MLP denotes a multi-layer perceptron. For calculation of the self-attention mod-

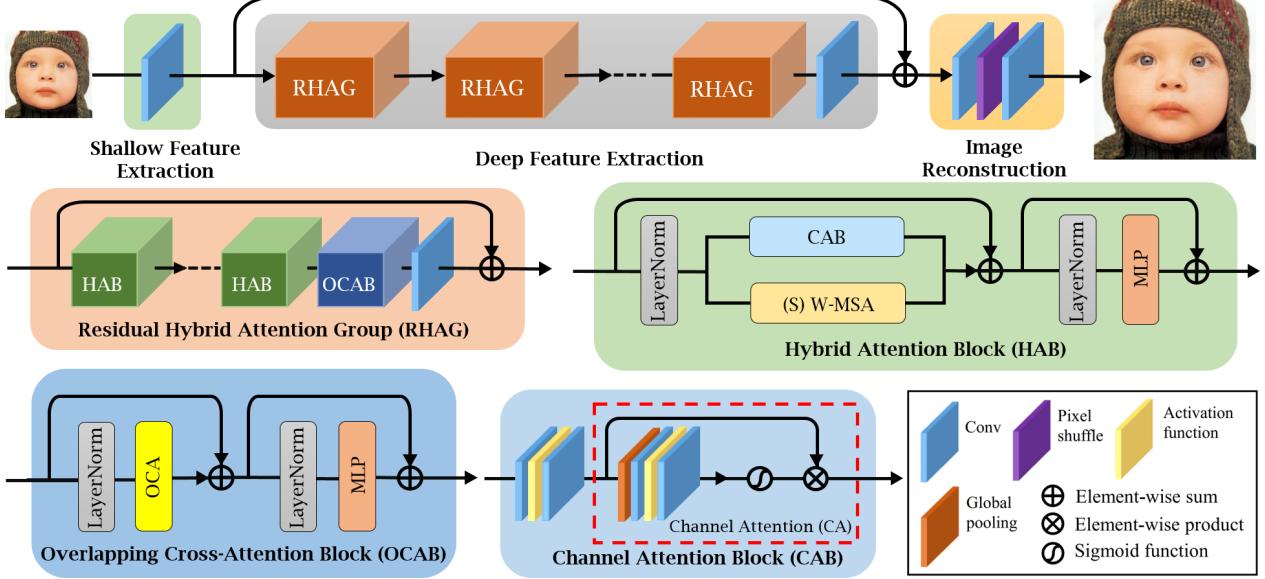


Figure 4. The overall architecture of HAT and the structure of RHAG and HAB.

ule, given an input feature of size $H \times W \times C$, it is first partitioned into $\frac{HW}{M^2}$ local windows of size $M \times M$, then self-attention is calculated inside each window. For a local window feature $X_W \in \mathbb{R}^{M^2 \times C}$, the *query*, *key* and *value* matrices are computed by linear mappings as Q , K and V . Then the window-based self-attention is formulated as

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{SoftMax}(QK^T / \sqrt{d} + B)V, \quad (2)$$

where d represents the dimension of *query/key*. B denotes the relative position encoding and is calculated as [53]. Note that we use a large window size to compute self-attention, since we find it significantly enlarges the range of used pixels, as depicted in Sec.4.2. Besides, to build the connections between neighboring non-overlapping windows, we also utilize the shifted window partitioning approach [39] and set the shift size to half of the window size.

A CAB consists of two standard convolution layers with a GELU activation [17] and a channel attention (CA) module, as shown in Fig. 4. Since the Transformer-based structure often requires a large number of channels for token embedding, directly using convolutions with constant width incurs a large computation cost. Thus, we compress the channel numbers of the two convolution layers by a constant β . For an input feature with C channels, the channel number of the output feature after the first convolution layer is squeezed to $\frac{C}{\beta}$, then the feature is expanded to C channels through the second layer. Next, a standard CA module [68] is exploited to adaptively rescale channel-wise features.

3.2.3 Overlapping Cross-Attention Block (OCAB)

We introduce OCAB to directly establish cross-window connections and enhance the representative ability for the

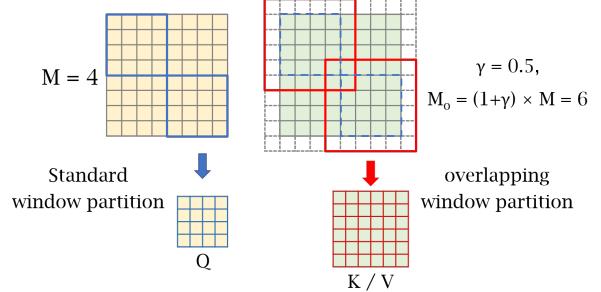


Figure 5. The overlapping window partition for OCA.

window self-attention. Our OCAB consists of an overlapping cross-attention (OCA) layer and an MLP layer similar to the standard Swin Transformer block [39]. But for OCA, as depicted in Fig. 5, we use different window sizes to partition the projected features. Specifically, for the $X_Q, X_K, X_V \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ of the input feature X , X_Q is partitioned into $\frac{HW}{M^2}$ non-overlapping windows of size $M \times M$, while X_K, X_V are unfolded to $\frac{HW}{M^2}$ overlapping windows of size $M_o \times M_o$. It is calculated as

$$M_o = (1 + \gamma) \times M, \quad (3)$$

where γ is a constant to control the overlapping size. To better understand this operation, the standard window partition can be considered as a sliding partition with the kernel size and the stride both equal to the window size M . In contrast, the overlapping window partition can be viewed as a sliding partition with the kernel size equal to M_o , while the stride is equal to M . Zero-padding with size $\frac{\gamma M}{2}$ is used to ensure the size consistency of overlapping windows. The attention matrix is calculated as Equ. 2, and the relative position bias $B \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M_o}$ is also adopted. Unlike WSA whose *query*, *key* and *value* are calculated from the same

window feature, OCA computes *key/value* from a larger field where more useful information can be utilized for the *query*. Note that although Multi-resolution Overlapped Attention (MOA) module in [44] performs similar overlapping window partition, our OCA is fundamentally different from MOA, since MOA calculates global attention using window features as tokens while OCA computes cross-attention inside each window feature using pixel token.

3.3. The Same-task Pre-training

Pre-training is proven effective on many high-level vision tasks [1, 14, 16]. Recent works [6, 27] also demonstrate that pre-training is beneficial to low-level vision tasks. IPT [6] emphasizes the use of various low-level tasks, such as denoising, deraining, super-resolution and *etc.*, while EDT [27] utilizes different degradation levels of a specific task to do pre-training. These works focus on investigating the effect of multi-task pre-training for a target task. In contrast, we directly perform pre-training on a larger-scale dataset (*i.e.*, ImageNet [9]) based on the same task, showing that the effectiveness of pre-training depends more on the scale and diversity of data. For example, when we want to train a model for $\times 4$ SR, we first train a $\times 4$ SR model on ImageNet, then fine-tune it on the specific dataset, such as DF2K. The proposed strategy, namely *same-task pre-training*, is simpler while bringing more performance improvements. It is worth mentioning that sufficient training iterations for pre-training and an appropriate small learning rate for fine-tuning are very important for the effectiveness of the pre-training strategy. We think that it is because Transformer requires more data and iterations to learn general knowledge for the task, but needs a small learning rate for fine-tuning to avoid overfitting to the specific dataset.

4. Experiments

4.1. Experimental Setup

We use DF2K (DIV2K [33]+Flicker2K [49]) dataset as the training dataset, since we find that using only DIV2K will lead to overfitting. When utilizing pre-training, we adopt ImageNet [9] following [6, 27]. For the structure of HAT, we keep the depth and width the same as SwinIR. Specifically, the RHAG number and HAB number are both set to 6. The channel number is set to 180. The attention head number and window size are set to 6 and 16 for both (S)W-MSA and OCA. For the hyper-parameters of the proposed modules, we set the weighting factor in HAB (α), the squeeze factor between two convolutions in CAB (β), and the overlapping ratio of OCA (γ) as 0.01, 3 and 0.5. For the large variant HAT-L, we directly double the depth of HAT by increasing the RHAG number from 6 to 12. We also provide a small version HAT-S with fewer parameters and similar computation to SwinIR. In HAT-S, the channel number

Table 1. Quantitative comparison on PSNR(dB) of different window sizes.

Size	Set5	Set14	BSD100	Urban100	Manga109
(8,8)	32.88	29.09	27.92	27.45	32.03
(16,16)	32.97	29.12	27.95	27.81	32.15

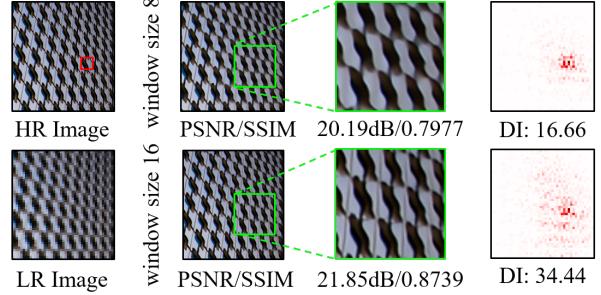


Figure 6. Qualitative comparison of different window sizes.

is set to 144 and the depth-wise convolution is used in CAB. Five benchmark datasets including Set5 [2], Set14 [66], BSD100 [40], Urban100 [19] and Manga109 [41] are used to evaluate the methods. For the quantitative metrics, PSNR and SSIM (calculated on the Y channel) are reported. More training details can refer to the *supp.* file.

4.2. Effects of different window sizes

As discussed in Sec. 3.1, activating more input pixels for SR tends to achieve better performance. Enlarging window size for the window-based self-attention is an intuitive way to realize the goal. In [27], the authors investigate the effects of different window sizes. However, they conduct experiments based on the shifted cross local attention and only explore the window size up to 12×12 . We further explore how the window size of self-attention influences the representation ability. To eliminate the influence of our newly-introduced blocks, we conduct the following experiments directly on SwinIR. As shown in Tab. 1, the model with a large window size of 16×16 obtains better performance, especially on the Urban100. We also provide the qualitative comparison in Fig. 6. For the red marked patch, the model with window size of 16 utilizes much more input pixels than the model with window size of 8. The quantitative performance of the reconstructed results also demonstrates the effectiveness of large window size. Based on this conclusion, we directly use window size 16 as our default setting.

4.3. Ablation Study

Effectiveness of OCAB and CAB. We conduct experiments to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed CAB and OCAB. The quantitative performance reported on the Urban100 dataset for $\times 4$ SR is shown in Tab. 2. Compared with the baseline results, both OCAB and CAB bring the performance gain of 0.1dB. Benefiting from the

Table 2. Ablation study on the proposed OCAB and CAB.

	Baseline			
OCAB	X	✓	X	✓
CAB	X	X	✓	✓
PSNR	27.81dB	27.91dB	27.91dB	27.97dB

HR	DI	Baseline	w/ OCAB	w/ CAB	Ours
		23.78	23.93	25.31	27.06
LR	DI				
		12.91 / 0.5263	16.94 / 0.8488	16.29 / 0.8074	16.53 / 0.8599
PSNR(dB) / SSIM					

Figure 7. Ablation study on the proposed OCAB and CAB.

two modules, the model obtains a further performance improvement of 0.16dB. We also provide qualitative comparison to further illustrate the influence of OCAB and CAB, as presented in Fig. 7. We can observe that the model with OCAB has a larger scope of the utilized pixels and generate better-reconstructed results. When CAB is adopted, the used pixels even expand to almost the full image. Moreover, the result of our method with OCAB and CAB obtains the highest DI [15], which means our method utilizes the most input pixels. Although it obtains a little lower performance than w/OCAB, our method gets the highest SSIM and reconstructs the clearest textures.

Effects of different designs of CAB. We conduct experiments to explore the effects of different designs of CAB. First, we investigate the influence of channel attention. As shown in Tab. 3, the model using CA achieves a performance gain of 0.05dB compared to the model without CA. It demonstrates the effectiveness of the channel attention in our network. We also conduct experiments to explore the effects of the weighting factor α of CAB. As presented in the manuscript Sec. 3.2.2, α is used to control the weight of CAB features for feature fusion. A larger α means a larger weight of features extracted by CAB and $\alpha = 0$ represents CAB is not used. As shown in Tab. 4, the model with α of 0.01 obtains the best performance. It indicates that CAB and self-attention may have potential issue in optimization, while a small weighting factor for the CAB branch can suppress this issue for the better combination.

Effects of the overlapping ratio. In OCAB, we set a constant γ to control the overlapping size for the overlapping cross-attention. To explore the effects of different overlapping ratios, we set a group of γ from 0 to 0.75 to examine the performance change, as shown in Tab. 5. Note that $\gamma = 0$ means a standard Transformer block. It can be found that the model with $\gamma = 0.5$ performs best. In contrast, when γ is set to 0.25 or 0.75, the model has no obvious performance gain or even has a performance drop. It illus-

Table 3. Effects of the channel attention (CA) module in CAB.

Structure	w/o CA	w/ CA
PSNR / SSIM	27.92dB / 0.8362	27.97dB / 0.8367

Table 4. Effects of the weighting factor α in CAB.

α	0	1	0.1	0.01
PSNR	27.81dB	27.86dB	27.90dB	27.97dB

Table 5. Ablation study on the overlapping ratio of OCAB.

γ	0	0.25	0.5	0.75
PSNR	27.85dB	27.81dB	27.91dB	27.86dB

brates that inappropriate overlapping size cannot benefit the interaction of neighboring windows.

4.4. Comparison with State-of-the-Art Methods

Quantitative results. Tab. 6 shows the quantitative comparison of our approach and the state-of-the-art methods: EDSR [32], RCAN [68], SAN [8], IGNN [72], HAN [43], NLSN [42], RCAN-it [34], as well as approaches using ImageNet pre-training, *i.e.*, IPT [6] and EDT [27]. We can see that our method outperforms the other methods significantly on all benchmark datasets. Concretely, HAT surpasses SwinIR by 0.48dB~0.64dB on Urban100 and 0.34dB~0.45dB on Manga109. When compared with the approaches using pre-training, HAT also has large performance gains of more than 0.5dB against EDT on Urban100 for all three scales. Besides, HAT with pre-training outperforms SwinIR by a huge margin of up to 1dB on Urban100 for $\times 2$ SR. Moreover, the large model HAT-L can even bring further improvement and greatly expands the performance upper bound of this task. HAT-S with fewer parameters and similar computation can also significantly outperforms the state-of-the-art method SwinIR. (Detailed computational complexity comparison can be found in the *supp.* file.) Note that the performance gaps are much larger on Urban100, as it contains more structured and self-repeated patterns that can provide more useful pixels for reconstruction when the utilized range of information is enlarged. All these results show the effectiveness of our method.

Visual comparison. We provide the visual comparison in Fig. 8. For the images “img_002”, “img_011”, “img_030”, “img_044” and “img_073” in Urban100, HAT successfully recovers the clear lattice content. In contrast, the other approaches all suffer from severe blurry effects. We can also observe similar behaviors on “PrayerHaNemurenai” in Manga109. When recovering the characters, HAT obtains significantly clearer textures than other methods. The visual results also demonstrate the superiority of our approach.

4.5. Study on the pre-training strategy

In Tab. 6, we can see that HAT can benefit greatly from the pre-training strategy, by comparing the performance of

Table 6. Quantitative comparison with state-of-the-art methods on benchmark datasets. The top three results are marked in red, blue and green. “ \dagger ” indicates that methods adopt pre-training strategy on ImageNet.

Method	Scale	Training Dataset	Set5		Set14		BSD100		Urban100		Manga109	
			PSNR	SSIM								
EDSR	$\times 2$	DIV2K	38.11	0.9602	33.92	0.9195	32.32	0.9013	32.93	0.9351	39.10	0.9773
RCAN	$\times 2$	DIV2K	38.27	0.9614	34.12	0.9216	32.41	0.9027	33.34	0.9384	39.44	0.9786
SAN	$\times 2$	DIV2K	38.31	0.9620	34.07	0.9213	32.42	0.9028	33.10	0.9370	39.32	0.9792
IGNN	$\times 2$	DIV2K	38.24	0.9613	34.07	0.9217	32.41	0.9025	33.23	0.9383	39.35	0.9786
HAN	$\times 2$	DIV2K	38.27	0.9614	34.16	0.9217	32.41	0.9027	33.35	0.9385	39.46	0.9785
NLSN	$\times 2$	DIV2K	38.34	0.9618	34.08	0.9231	32.43	0.9027	33.42	0.9394	39.59	0.9789
RCAN-it	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.37	0.9620	34.49	0.9250	32.48	0.9034	33.62	0.9410	39.88	0.9799
SwinIR	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.42	0.9623	34.46	0.9250	32.53	0.9041	33.81	0.9427	39.92	0.9797
EDT	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.45	0.9624	34.57	0.9258	32.52	0.9041	33.80	0.9425	39.93	0.9800
HAT-S (ours)	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.58	0.9628	34.70	0.9261	32.59	0.9050	34.31	0.9459	40.14	0.9805
HAT (ours)	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.63	0.9630	34.86	0.9274	32.62	0.9053	34.45	0.9466	40.26	0.9809
IPT \dagger	$\times 2$	ImageNet	38.37	-	34.43	-	32.48	-	33.76	-	-	-
EDT \dagger	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.63	0.9632	34.80	0.9273	32.62	0.9052	34.27	0.9456	40.37	0.9811
HAT\dagger (ours)	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.73	0.9637	35.13	0.9282	32.69	0.9060	34.81	0.9489	40.71	0.9819
HAT-L\dagger (ours)	$\times 2$	DF2K	38.91	0.9646	35.29	0.9293	32.74	0.9066	35.09	0.9505	41.01	0.9831
EDSR	$\times 3$	DIV2K	34.65	0.9280	30.52	0.8462	29.25	0.8093	28.80	0.8653	34.17	0.9476
RCAN	$\times 3$	DIV2K	34.74	0.9299	30.65	0.8482	29.32	0.8111	29.09	0.8702	34.44	0.9499
SAN	$\times 3$	DIV2K	34.75	0.9300	30.59	0.8476	29.33	0.8112	28.93	0.8671	34.30	0.9494
IGNN	$\times 3$	DIV2K	34.72	0.9298	30.66	0.8484	29.31	0.8105	29.03	0.8696	34.39	0.9496
HAN	$\times 3$	DIV2K	34.75	0.9299	30.67	0.8483	29.32	0.8110	29.10	0.8705	34.48	0.9500
NLSN	$\times 3$	DIV2K	34.85	0.9306	30.70	0.8485	29.34	0.8117	29.25	0.8726	34.57	0.9508
RCAN-it	$\times 3$	DF2K	34.86	0.9308	30.76	0.8505	29.39	0.8125	29.38	0.8755	34.92	0.9520
SwinIR	$\times 3$	DF2K	34.97	0.9318	30.93	0.8534	29.46	0.8145	29.75	0.8826	35.12	0.9537
EDT	$\times 3$	DF2K	34.97	0.9316	30.89	0.8527	29.44	0.8142	29.72	0.8814	35.13	0.9534
HAT-S (ours)	$\times 3$	DF2K	35.01	0.9325	31.05	0.8550	29.50	0.8158	30.15	0.8879	35.40	0.9547
HAT (ours)	$\times 3$	DF2K	35.07	0.9329	31.08	0.8555	29.54	0.8167	30.23	0.8896	35.53	0.9552
IPT \dagger	$\times 3$	ImageNet	34.81	-	30.85	-	29.38	-	29.49	-	-	-
EDT \dagger	$\times 3$	DF2K	35.13	0.9328	31.09	0.8553	29.53	0.8165	30.07	0.8863	35.47	0.9550
HAT\dagger (ours)	$\times 3$	DF2K	35.16	0.9335	31.33	0.8576	29.59	0.8177	30.70	0.8949	35.84	0.9567
HAT-L\dagger (ours)	$\times 3$	DF2K	35.28	0.9345	31.47	0.8584	29.63	0.8191	30.92	0.8981	36.02	0.9576
EDSR	$\times 4$	DIV2K	32.46	0.8968	28.80	0.7876	27.71	0.7420	26.64	0.8033	31.02	0.9148
RCAN	$\times 4$	DIV2K	32.63	0.9002	28.87	0.7889	27.77	0.7436	26.82	0.8087	31.22	0.9173
SAN	$\times 4$	DIV2K	32.64	0.9003	28.92	0.7888	27.78	0.7436	26.79	0.8068	31.18	0.9169
IGNN	$\times 4$	DIV2K	32.57	0.8998	28.85	0.7891	27.77	0.7434	26.84	0.8090	31.28	0.9182
HAN	$\times 4$	DIV2K	32.64	0.9002	28.90	0.7890	27.80	0.7442	26.85	0.8094	31.42	0.9177
NLSN	$\times 4$	DIV2K	32.59	0.9000	28.87	0.7891	27.78	0.7444	26.96	0.8109	31.27	0.9184
RRDB	$\times 4$	DF2K	32.73	0.9011	28.99	0.7917	27.85	0.7455	27.03	0.8153	31.66	0.9196
RCAN-it	$\times 4$	DF2K	32.69	0.9007	28.99	0.7922	27.87	0.7459	27.16	0.8168	31.78	0.9217
SwinIR	$\times 4$	DF2K	32.92	0.9044	29.09	0.7950	27.92	0.7489	27.45	0.8254	32.03	0.9260
EDT	$\times 4$	DF2K	32.82	0.9031	29.09	0.7939	27.91	0.7483	27.46	0.8246	32.05	0.9254
HAT-S (ours)	$\times 4$	DF2K	32.92	0.9047	29.15	0.7958	27.97	0.7505	27.87	0.8346	32.35	0.9283
HAT (ours)	$\times 4$	DF2K	33.04	0.9056	29.23	0.7973	28.00	0.7517	27.97	0.8368	32.48	0.9292
IPT \dagger	$\times 4$	ImageNet	32.64	-	29.01	-	27.82	-	27.26	-	-	-
EDT \dagger	$\times 4$	DF2K	33.06	0.9055	29.23	0.7971	27.99	0.7510	27.75	0.8317	32.39	0.9283
HAT\dagger (ours)	$\times 4$	DF2K	33.18	0.9073	29.38	0.8001	28.05	0.7534	28.37	0.8447	32.87	0.9319
HAT-L\dagger (ours)	$\times 4$	DF2K	33.30	0.9083	29.47	0.8015	28.09	0.7551	28.60	0.8498	33.09	0.9335

HAT and HAT \dagger . To show the superiority of the proposed same-task pre-training, we also apply the multi-related-task pre-training [27] to HAT for comparison using full ImageNet, under the same training settings as [27]. As depicted as Tab. 7, the same-task pre-training performs better, not only in the pre-training stage but also in the fine-tuning pro-

cess. From this perspective, multi-task pre-training probably impairs the restoration performance of the network on a specific degradation, while the same-task pre-training can maximize the performance gain brought by large-scale data. To further investigate the influences of our pre-training strategy for different networks, we apply our pre-training

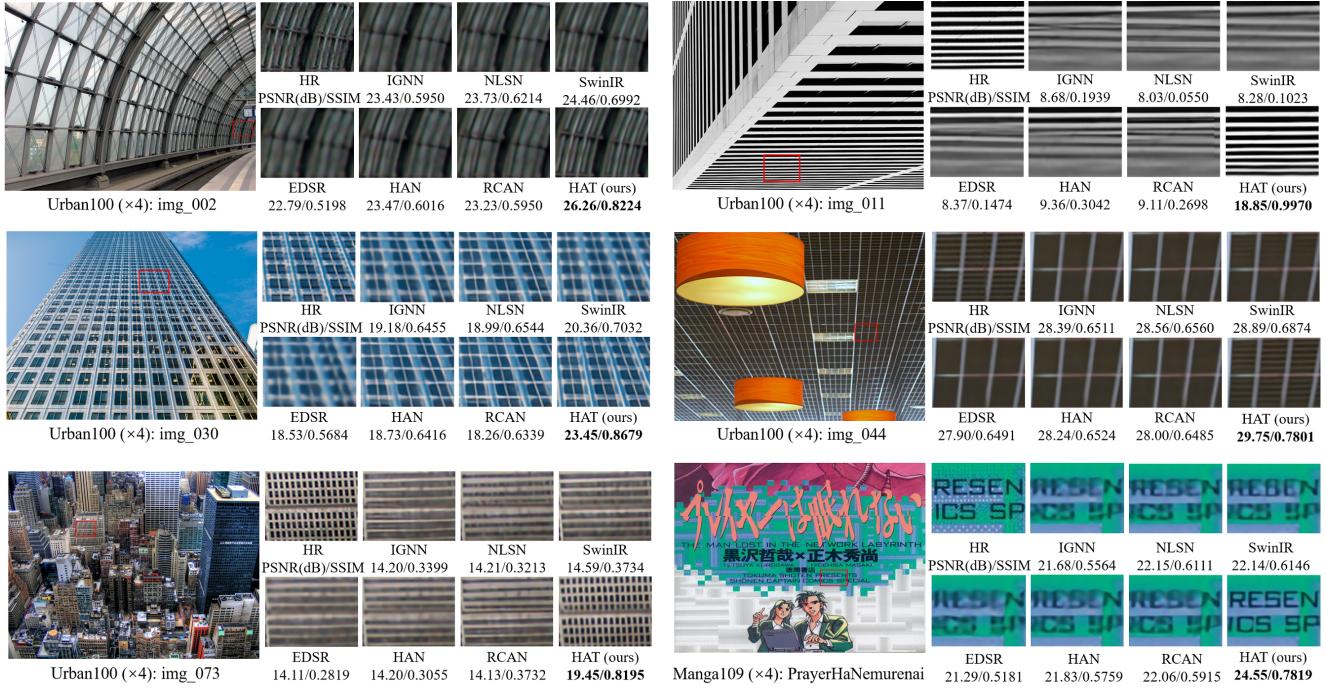


Figure 8. Visual comparison on ×4 SR. The patches for comparison are marked with red boxes in the original images. PSNR/SSIM is calculated based on the patches to better reflect the performance difference.

to four networks: SRRResNet (1.5M), RRDBNet (16.7M), SwinIR (11.9M) and HAT (20.8M), as shown in Fig. 9. First, we can see that all four networks can benefit from pre-training, showing the effectiveness of the proposed same-task pre-training strategy. Second, for the same type of network (*i.e.*, CNN or Transformer), the larger the network capacity, the more performance gain from pre-training. Third, although with less parameters, SwinIR obtains greater performance improvement from the pre-training compared to RRDBNet. It suggests that Transformer needs more data to exploit the potential of the model. Finally, HAT obtains the largest gain from pre-training, indicating the necessity of the pre-training strategy for such large models. Equipped with big models and large-scale data, we show the performance upper bound of this task is significantly extended.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel Hybrid Attention Transformer, HAT, for single image super-resolution. Our model combines channel attention and self-attention to activate more pixels for high-resolution reconstruction. Besides, we propose an overlapping cross-attention module to enhance the interaction of cross-window information. Moreover, we introduce a same-task pre-training strategy to further exploit the potential of HAT. Extensive experiments show the effectiveness of the proposed modules and the pre-training strategy. Our approach significantly outperforms the state-of-the-art methods quantitatively and qualitatively.

Table 7. Quantitative results on PSNR(dB) of HAT using two kinds of pre-training strategies on ×4 SR under the same training setting. The full ImageNet dataset is adopted to perform pre-training and DF2K dataset is used for fine-tuning.

Strategy	Stage	Set5	Set14	Urban100
Multi-related-task pre-training	pre-training	32.94	29.17	28.05
	fine-tuning	33.06	29.33	28.21
Same-task pre-training(ours)	pre-training	33.02	29.20	28.11
	fine-tuning	33.07	29.34	28.28

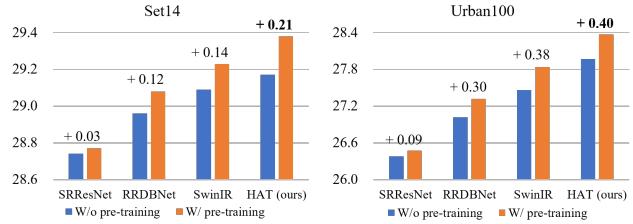


Figure 9. Quantitative comparison on PSNR(dB) of four different networks without and with the same-task pre-training on ×4 SR.

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Activating More Pixels in Image Super-Resolution Transformer

Supplementary Material

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<https://github.com/XPixelGroup/HAT>

A. Training Details

We use DF2K (DIV2K+Flicker2K) with 3450 images as the training dataset when training from scratch. The low-resolution images are generated from the ground truth images by the “bicubic” down-sampling in MATLAB. We set the input patch size to 64×64 and use random rotation and horizontally flipping for data augmentation. The mini-batch size is set to 32 and total training iterations are set to 500K. The learning rate is initialized as $2e-4$ and reduced by half at [250K,400K,450K,475K]. For $\times 4$ SR, we initialize the model with pre-trained $\times 2$ SR weights and halve the iterations for each learning rate decay as well as total iterations. We adopt Adam optimizer with $\beta_1 = 0.9$ and $\beta_2 = 0.99$ to train the model. For the same-task pre-training, the full ImageNet dataset with 1.28 million images is first exploited to pre-train the model for 800K iterations. The initial learning rate is also set to $2e-4$ but reduced by half at [300K,500K,650K,700K,750k]. Then, we adopt DF2K dataset to fine-tune the pre-trained model. For finetuning, we set the initial learning rate to $1e-5$ and halve it at [125K,200K,230K,240K] for total 250K training iterations.

B. Analysis of Model Complexity

We conduct experiments to analyze the computational complexity of our method from three aspects: window size for calculation of self-attention, overlapping cross-attention block (OCAB) and channel attention block (CAB). We also compare our method with the Transformer-based method SwinIR. The $\times 4$ SR performance on Urban100 are reported and the number of Multiply-Add operations is counted at the input size of 64×64 . Note that pre-training techniques (including $\times 2$ pre-training) are **NOT** used for all the models in this section. The experimental setup is completely fair.

First, we use the standard Swin Transformer block as the backbone to explore the influence on different window sizes. As shown in Tab. 8, enlarging window size can bring a large performance gain (+0.36dB) with a little increase in parameters and $\sim\%19$ increase in Multi-Adds.

Table 8. Model complexity comparison of window sizes.

window size	#Params.	#Multi-Adds.	PSNR
(8, 8)	11.9M	53.6G	27.45dB
(16, 16)	12.1M	63.8G	27.81dB

Table 9. Model complexity comparison of OCAB and CAB.

Method	#Params.	#Multi-Adds.	PSNR
Baseline	12.1M	63.8G	27.81dB
w/ OCAB	13.7M	74.7G	27.91dB
w/ CAB	19.2M	92.8G	27.91dB
Ours	20.8M	103.7G	27.97dB

Table 10. Model complexity comparison of CAB sizes.

β in CAB	#Params.	#Multi-Adds.	PSNR
1	33.2M	150.1G	27.97dB
2	22.7M	107.1G	27.92dB
3 (default)	19.2M	92.8G	27.91dB
6	15.7M	78.5G	27.88dB
w/o CAB	12.1M	63.8G	27.81dB

Table 11. Model complexity comparison of SwinIR and HAT.

Method	#Params.	#Multi-Adds.	PSNR
SwinIR	11.9M	53.6G	27.45dB
HAT-S (ours)	9.6M	54.9G	27.80dB
SwinIR-L1	24.0M	104.4G	27.53dB
SwinIR-L2	23.1M	102.4G	27.58dB
HAT (ours)	20.8M	103.7G	27.97dB

Then, we use window size 16 as the baseline to investigate the computational complexity of the proposed OCAB and CAB. As illustrated in Tab. 9, our OCAB obtains a performance gain with a limited increase of parameters and Multi-Adds. It demonstrates that the effectiveness and efficiency of the proposed OCAB. Besides, adding CAB to the baseline model also achieves better performance.

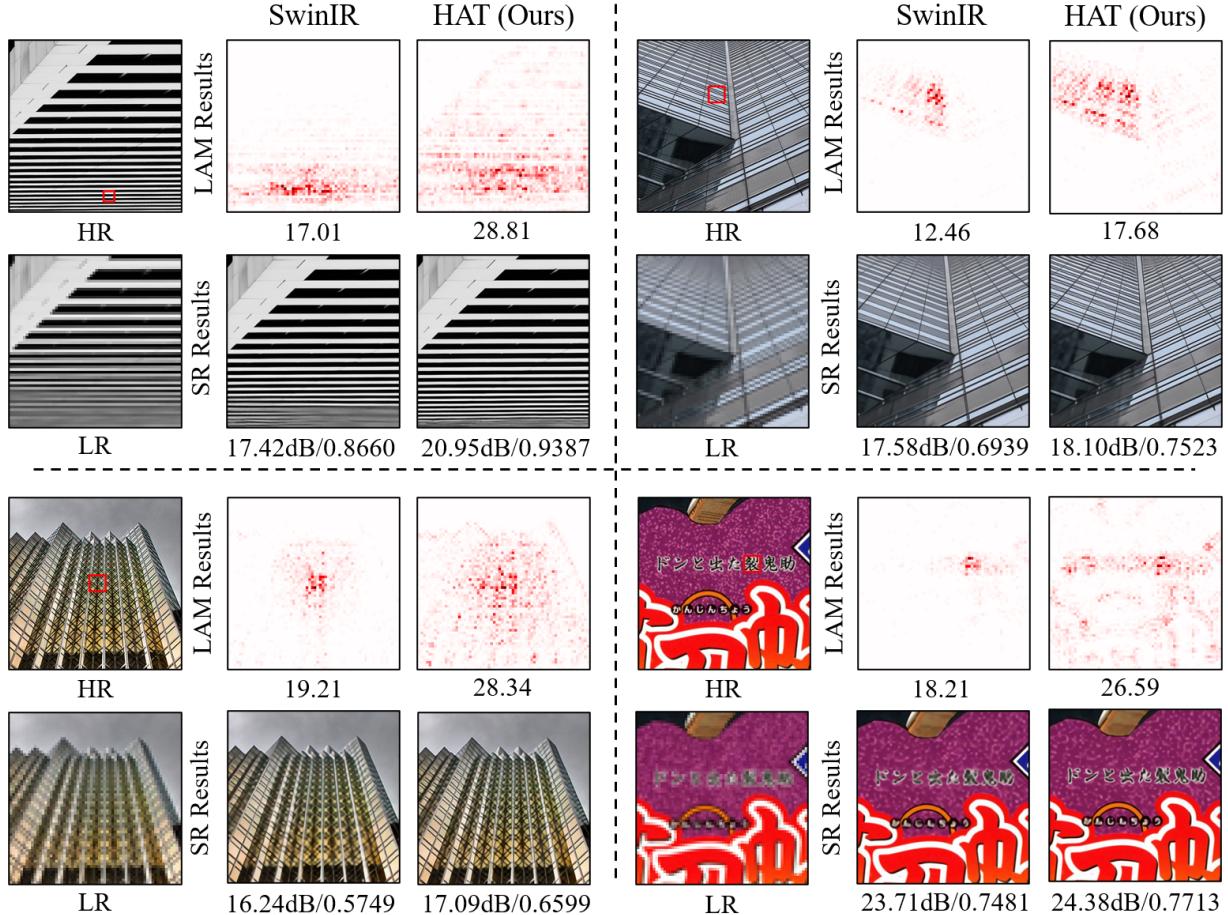


Figure 10. Comparison of LAM results between SwinIR and HAT.

Since CAB seems to be computationally expensive, we further explore the influence on CAB sizes by modulating the squeeze factor β (mentioned in Sec.3.2.2 in the main paper). As shown in Tab. 10, adding a small CAB whose β equals 6 can bring considerable performance improvement. When we continuously reduce β , the performance increases but with larger model sizes. To balance the performance and computations, we set β to 3 as the default setting.

Furthermore, we compare HAT and SwinIR with the similar numbers of parameters and Multi-Adds in two settings, as presented in Tab. 11. 1) We compare HAT-S with the original version of SwinIR. With less parameters and comparable computations, HAT-S significantly outperforms SwinIR. 2) We enlarge SwinIR by increasing the width and depth of SwinIR to achieve similar computations as HAT, denoted as SwinIR-L1 and SwinIR-L2. HAT achieves the best performance at the lowest computational cost.

Overall, we find that enlarging the window size for the calculation of self-attention is a very cost-effective way to improve the Transformer model. Moreover, the proposed OCAB can bring an obvious performance gain with limited increase of computations. Although CAB is not as efficient

as above two schemes, it can also bring stable and considerable performance improvement. Benefiting from the three designs, HAT can substantially outperforms the state-of-the-art method SwinIR with comparable computations.

C. More Visual Comparisons with LAM

We provide more visual comparisons with LAM results to compare SwinIR and our HAT. The red points in LAM results represent the used pixels for reconstructing the patch marked with a red box in the HR image, and Diffusion Index (DI) is computed to reflect the range of involved pixels. The more pixels are utilized to recover the specific input patch, the wider the distribution of red points is in LAM and the higher DI is. As shown in Fig. 10, the LAM attribution of HAT expands to the almost full image, while that of SwinIR only gathers in a limited range. For the quantitative metric, HAT also obtains a much higher DI value than SwinIR. All these results demonstrate that our method activates more pixels to reconstruct the low-resolution input image. As a result, SR results generated by our method have higher PSNR/SSIM and better visual quality.