

AUTOMATIC IMAGE COLORIZATION USING GENERATIVE ADVERSARIAL NETWORKS

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ABSTRACT

Given the massive amounts of free color images available and the successes of convolutional neural networks (CNNs), image colorization has recently become a very active area. Generative models have also gotten much attention due to recent advances in Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), which have shown to be very powerful generative models. Given a grayscale image as input, we use an adversarial approach towards automatically generating a plausible color output. Despite their success, GANs are notoriously difficult to train. For this reason, we compare the original GAN formation with three recent improvements on adversarial methods applied towards the task of image colorization: Least Squares GANs, Energy-Based GANs, and Wasserstein GANs.

1 INTRODUCTION

Image colorization (Zhang et al. (2016); Cheng et al. (2015); Bugeau et al. (2014)) refers to colorizing a given gray-scale image so that it appears real. A large amount of photographs, videos and movies, mainly antique, lack color; image colorization can provide a modern and vivid view to these images. In addition, surveillance cameras often capture (or store) gray-scale images for convenience. Several underwater inspection and surveillance applications Lu et al. (2013); Torres-Méndez & Dudek (2005) often have to deal with colorless images due to lack of visible light in deep-water. Robust and efficient image colorization techniques can be used in these applications with substantial benefits.

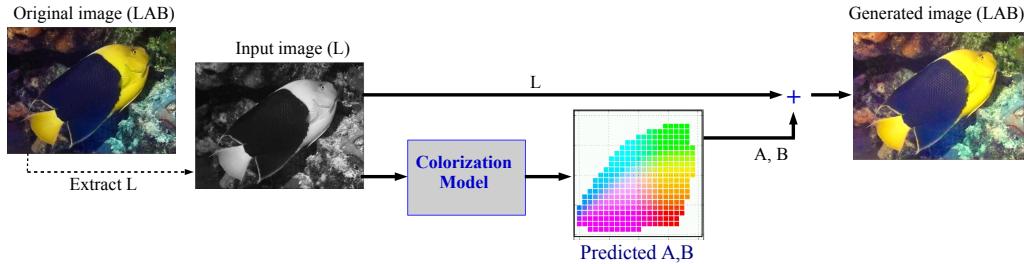


Figure 1: Basic image colorization procedure is shown. LAB color-space is generally used for convenience (*i.e.*, one less unknown dimension); given the lightness channel L , task for the colorization model is to predict A and B channels so that the colorized image appears natural.

Colorizing a grayscale image (*i.e.*, only intensity values are known) is a difficult and ill-posed problem. Computer vision community have approached this problem in different ways over the last few decades Zhang et al. (2016); Cheng et al. (2015); Bugeau et al. (2014); Charpiat et al. (2008); Luan et al. (2007); Konushin & Vezhnevets (2006). Before the advent of deep-learning LeCun et al. (2015), researchers have tried many classical techniques Charpiat et al. (2008); Luan et al. (2007); Konushin & Vezhnevets (2006); Levin et al. (2004); Lagodzinski & Smolka (2008) to capture relationships between color components (*RGB* or *LAB*) and image level features. Due to multi-modality and ill-posed nature of the problem, optimization based techniques Levin et al. (2004); Charpiat et al. (2008) and probabilistic models Lagodzinski & Smolka (2008) were the only ones that achieved decent colorization performance in few specific applications. However, overall per-

formance of these techniques, in general, were still poor due to the high non-linearity and abstract nature of color-feature relationship.

Recently, deep-learning based image colorization techniques Zhang et al. (2016); Cheng et al. (2015); VARGA & Szirányi (2016); Li et al. (2017), trained over millions of images, have shown significantly better performance over the earlier classical methods. For instance, the current state-of-the-art, ‘colorful colorization’ Zhang et al. (2016), can fool a human observer 32% of the time in a *colorization Turing-test* scenario. **Additionally, how use of GANs are likely to improve the performance which why we are going to try?**

In this project, we // need to be added. need to be added.

2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

As mentioned in the previous Section, image colorization is an ill-posed problem due to multi-modality and ambiguity. While some natural objects commonly hold the same color (e.g grass is *usually* green), many are left up for interpretation. For example, given a gray-scale image of someone wearing a dark colored shirt, there is no way of figuring out the true color. Instead, the objective is to come up with a colorization that appears real, *i.e.*, natural.

User-based approaches Levin et al. (2004); Konushin & Vezhnevets (2006); Reinhard et al. (2001); Vrhel & Trussell (1992) were popular for being fast and relatively accurate as user can provide a good prior for the inherent color distribution. However, these methods are not applicable for large scale automatic colorization, which led researchers to adopt optimization and probabilistic approaches Charpiat et al. (2008); Bugeau et al. (2014); Lagodzinski & Smolka (2008). These approaches model a likelihood based color approximation for each pixel given the neighborhood information. Few methods introduce additional step for spatial coherency through image based segmentation as well. However, overall colorization performance of these approaches are not very appealing Deshpande et al. (2015) for general usage in a large scale. This is because the prior distribution of color-space is domain-dependant; for instance, face images, underwater images, outdoor and satellite images, all have different color distributions. Besides, it is difficult to capture the highly non-linear and abstract color-feature relationships without large-scale training.

In recent times, deep-learning based approaches Zhang et al. (2016); Cheng et al. (2015); VARGA & Szirányi (2016); Li et al. (2017) have produced significantly better colorization performance as they can extract highly non-linear spatial relationships if trained over large datasets. The convolutional layers learn appropriate filters to produce good feature-space representations from raw images. These feature extraction and filtering is performed over multiple layers to capture complex spatial relationships within the image-space, which is useful for image-to-image translation tasks. **Additionally, Prospects of GANs GANs**

In this project, we // need to be added. need to be added.

3 GENERATIVE APPROACHES

In our project, we tried two classical methods: *colorization using optimization* Levin et al. (2004), *colorization via multimodal predictions* Charpiat et al. (2008). The former is not an automatic approach (user provides color distribution prior), whereas, the later uses a set of reference images to formulate color distribution. Their operations are discussed in our term report; this paper focuses on the third generative approach, *colorful image colorization* Zhang et al. (2016), which is adopted in our project.

3.1 ADOPTED MODEL: COLORFUL IMAGE COLORIZATION

Colorful image colorization Zhang et al. (2016) is considered as a major breakthrough on this problem. Published on 2016, it has managed to set a new benchmark for performance. It is an automatic approach that produces realistic colorizations based on a CNN-based model. It poses the problem as a multi-modal classification problem. The objective function is carefully designed to map the image-to-image translation problem to a classification problem. First, it takes advantage of the fact that A, B color components of LAB colorspace for natural images are concentrated in a small region, which are discretized into finite number of bins (Q). Given the lightness channel (L_p) of a pixel p , its A, B pair corresponds to a particular bin (out of 313 bins in total), which is mapped to a 1-hot vector (Z_p). Consequently, task of the classification model, is to predict which bin each pixel corresponds to. That is, the output is a 313-mode probability distribution (\hat{Z}_p) for each pixel p . The objective function is modelled as a cross entropy loss between Z and \hat{Z} , expressed as follows:

$$L_{col}(Z, \hat{Z}) = - \sum_p Z_p \sum_{q \in Q} Z_p[q] \log(\hat{Z}_p[q])$$

This cross-entropy loss is further augmented with class rebalancing, to encourage rare colors. The detailed model specification, as shown in Fig. 2, is an 8-layer CNN architecture where each conv layer refers to a block of 2 or 3 repeated conv and ReLU layers Nair & Hinton (2010), followed by a BatchNorm layer Ioffe & Szegedy (2015). The network has no pool layers; all changes in resolution are achieved through spatial down-sampling or up-sampling between conv blocks.

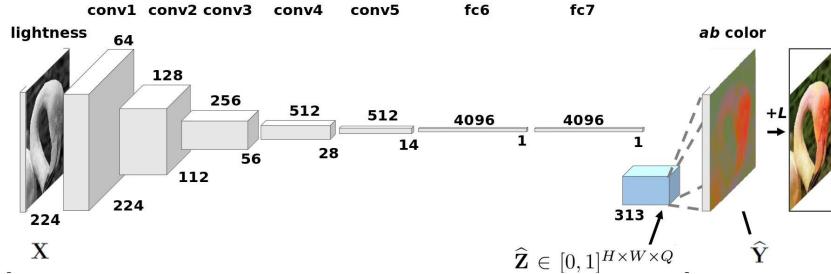


Figure 2: Architecture of colorful image colorization model Zhang et al. (2016) that is adopted in our evaluation

3.2 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS AND MODEL CHANGES

While working on designing a generator for our GAN-based model, we investigated this model with different objective functions (L_1 loss, L_2 loss, least-squared loss, etc.) instead of their cross-entropy based loss function. This is due to the fact that in a GAN-based model, *discriminator* expects an image from the *generator*, and tries to discriminate it as real or fake in order to force the generator to get better. Therefore, rather than adopting their classification model directly, we implemented their architecture using objective functions based on L_1 , L_2 , least-squared loss (so that it outputs an image, not classification probabilities). Additionally, it made our model end-to-end trainable, which can be easily incorporated in a GAN-based architecture.

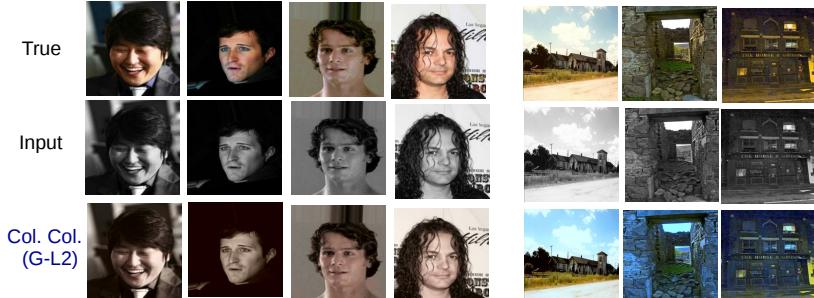
Given an input image I , the network is fed with its L channel (I_L); the output layer of the network is adjusted to predict \hat{I}_{AB} . We have found L_1 and L_2 loss functions perform quite well with this model. These loss functions between true I_{AB} and \hat{I}_{AB} can be expressed as follows:

$$L_1(I_{AB}, \hat{I}_{AB}) = \lambda \sum_p |I_{AB}[p] - \hat{I}_{AB}[p]|$$

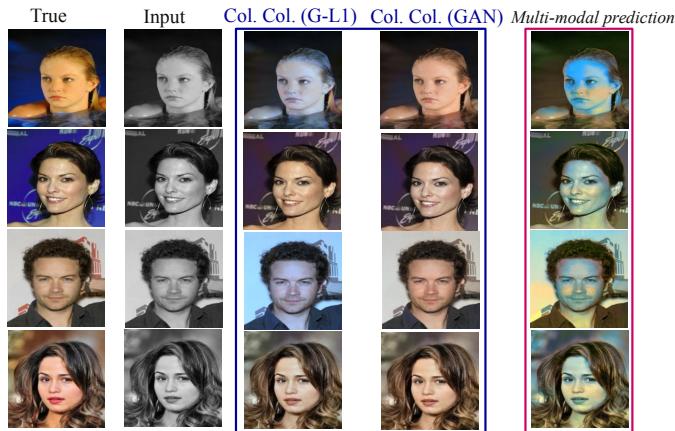
$$L_2(I_{AB}, \hat{I}_{AB}) = \lambda \sum_p (I_{AB}[p] - \hat{I}_{AB}[p])^2$$



(a) Colorful Colorization [1] model with L1 loss



(b) Colorful Colorization [1] model with L2 loss



(c) Results in comparison with different models

Figure 3: Results for the colorful colorization model Zhang et al. (2016) with (a) L1 and (b) L2 loss is shown; First 4 columns show few examples from the test set of CelebA cel dataset, while the rest (3) columns correspond to Places2 pla dataset. Comparison for colorful colorization model used as a generator only (Col. Col. (G)), and as a generator in a GAN (Col. Col. (GAN)), is shown in (c); also, results obtained by colorization via multi-modal prediction Charpiat et al. (2008) is provided in the last column to demonstrate the degree of improvements using colorful colorization model.

Here, λ is a normalization constant. CelebA datasets cel is used for training primarily, that has $195K$ training examples (a total of $202K$ images); In a separate training, a set of $200K$ images from Places2 dataset pla were also used for training¹. Training was performed using two 1080 gpus (in a core-i7 machine having 64GB RAM); training time for $100K$ iterations with a batch size 32 was about 2-3 days for each trial. The implementation is done using TensorFlow Abadi et al. (2016) in python.

¹Larger datasets like ImageNet Deng et al. (2009) and full Places2 challenge dataset were not used for the project due to time constraint; however, we are planning to train our final GAN-based model over these datasets during the summer.

3.3 RESULTS

We found that this model performs better with L_1 loss function compared to L_2 loss. This might be because of the averaging effect of 2-norm which causes a blurry colorization (similar phenomena is discussed in Zhang et al. (2016)). The results on few test cases are shown in Fig. 3.

In the results state above, colorful colorization model is used as a generator only (**Col. Col. (G)**); we also used this model as a generator in a GAN (**Col. Col. (GAN)**) to investigate its performance. As illustrated in Fig. 3(c), images colorized by Col. Col. (GAN) are more realistic and consistent than Col. Col. (G). In addition, we provided results obtained by colorization via multi-modal prediction Charpiat et al. (2008) to demonstrate the degree of improvements using colorful colorization model.

The colorful colorization model, as a generator alone, and as a generator in a GAN, achieve decent colorization performance. Next, we discuss other GAN based models for image colorization, which we investigated in our project.

4 ADVERSARIAL APPROACHES

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [REF] are a recent class of generative models based on game theory in which a generator network is pitted against an adversary. The adversary, or discriminator, D , is a neural network trained to discriminate between real samples and samples generated by the generator. The generator, G , is trained to fool the adversary. Due to the difficulty in training them in practice, there have been several theoretical approaches towards stabilizing their training by providing better gradients for the generator in terms of changing the loss function for the discriminator. Regular GANs modeled the discriminator as a classifier with the sigmoid cross entropy loss function, which has been shown to suffer from the vanishing gradient problem [REF]. In addition to regular GANs, we experimented with three different variations: Least Squares GANs (LSGAN), Energy-Based GANs (EBGAN), and Wasserstein GAN (WGAN). There has been little work in using GANs for the task of image colorization. Most notable is the Pix2Pix model which uses the original GANs loss, but also show that often their generator fails to generate any color at all. We hypothesize that in comparison to the common task in which GANs are trained to generate an image from a noise prior, the discriminator for the task of colorization has a much more difficult job due to the visual similarity between images. For this reason, a much stronger discriminator is needed, but as shown in [REF], with the original GANs loss, as the discriminator gets better, the gradients passed to the generator, and therefore the generator itself, become worse. This leaves us with both the need for a better discriminator, and proof that a better discriminator may in fact hurt performance. For this reason we chose to explore other options for the discriminator loss. Our model is set up as a conditional GAN (cGAN), in which the generator is conditioned on the grayscale image. The rest of this section compares the different GAN formulations, and ends with our architecture designs. We combine the GAN objective with L_1 and L_2 in order to provide some sense of ground truth. These can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{L_1}(G) &= \mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p_{data}(x,y)}[||y - G(x)||_1] \\ \mathcal{L}_{L_2}(G) &= \mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p_{data}(x,y)}[(y - G(x))^2]\end{aligned}$$

where x is the grayscale image, y is the true corresponding ab color channels, and $G(x)$ is the generated ab color channels. These are able to capture low frequencies, but have been shown to lack in capturing high frequencies, resulting in blurry images in the case of autoencoders, or saturated colors in the case of colorization. These imperfections should in theory be rejected by the discriminator, which results in successfully capturing high frequencies in images such as sharp edges and bright colors. Note that using these losses along with the GAN loss does not change the discriminator's objective, it is the generator that is required to fool the discriminator as well as be near the ground truth.

4.1 DCGANS

Because of the high dimensionality and spacial structure of images, we chose to use Deep Convolutional GANs (DCGANs), which take advantage of the recent successes of CNNs as part of

their architecture, as opposed to the simple neural networks used in [GAN PAPER]. The objective function is given as:

$$\min_G \max_D \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data(x)}} [\log D(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z(z)} [\log(1 - D(G(z)))]$$

where p_{data} represents the true data, and p_z represents some noise prior, e.g. $z \sim \mathcal{N}$. for our conditional DCGAN can be expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{DCGAN}(G, D) = \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim p_{data}} \log D(x, y) + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} \log(1 - D(x, G(x)))$$

where x represents the grayscale image, and y represents the ab color values associated with x . Combining this with our L_1 and L_2 loss functions gives us our final objective:

$$G^* = \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{DCGAN} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{L_1} + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{L_2}$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are hyperparameters. One should note that z is discarded in this formulation, resulting in a deterministic model. Because of the high volume of information given in the grayscale image in comparison to something like conditioning on a class label, we believe the model would simply learn to discard z as noise (because that's quite literally what it is). Instead, we provide noise in the form of dropout in the generator, but have not seen much difference in the output. We evaluated our method on the CelebA dataset. Some results can be seen in Figure X.

4.2 LSGANs

Least Squares GANs (LSGANs) provide a least squares loss for the discriminator in order to penalize samples that may have fooled the discriminator but do not lie close to the true data distribution. The objectives for conditional LSGANs are defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_D V_{cLSGAN}(D) &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim p_{data(x, y)}} [(D(x, y) - b)^2] + \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} [(D(G(x)) - a)^2] \\ \min_G V_{cLSGAN}(G) &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data(x)}} [(D(G(x)) - c)^2] \end{aligned}$$

where $a = 0$ to denote the fake data, $b = 1$ to denote the true data, and $c = 1$ in order to try and fool D .

where p_{data} represents the true data, x represents the grayscale image, y represents the corresponding ab color channels for x . We combine the LSGAN objective with L_1 and L_2 to give our final objective:

$$G^* = \lambda_1 V_{cLSGAN} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{L_1} + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{L_2}$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are hyperparameters. We evaluated LSGANs on the CelebA dataset. Some results can be seen in Figure X.

Figure 4: Results of DCGANs evaluated on CelebA

4.3 EBGANs

Energy-Based GANs (EBGANs) model the discriminator as an energy function that attributes low energies to the regions near the data manifold and higher energies to other regions. Unlike the other GAN variations mentioned, the EBGANs discriminator is modeled as an autoencoder, which aims to provide a more diverse set of outputs as opposed to the binary logistic loss. The objectives for conditional EBGANs are defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{cEBGAN}D(x, y) &= D(x, y) + \max(0, (m - D(G(z)))) \\ \mathcal{L}_{cEBGAN}G(x) &= D(G(x))\end{aligned}$$

where m is some margin, x represents the grayscale image, y represents the corresponding ab color channels for x . We combine the EBGAN objective with L_1 and L_2 to give our final objective:

$$G^* = \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{cEBGAN} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{L_1} + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{L_2}$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are hyperparameters. We evaluated EBGANs on the CelebA dataset. Some results can be seen in Figure X.

4.4 WGAN

The Wasserstein GAN (WGAN) approximates the Earth Mover (EM) distance given a set of K -Lipschitz functions f . In order to have the parameters w lie in a compact space and ensure f is K -Lipschitz, the weights of the network are clamped to some range. Because the EM distance is continuous and differentiable, the discriminator (critic) should be trained to optimality, which offers better gradients to the generator. This offers stable training at the expense of slow training, because the critic must be updated multiple times for one update of the generator. Our conditional WGAN objective function is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{cWGAN} = \max_{w \in W} \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mathbb{P}_{data}} [f_w(x, y)] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} [f_w(G(x))]$$

where x represents the grayscale image and y represents the corresponding ab color channels for x . We combine the WGAN objective with L_1 and L_2 to give our final objective:

$$G^* = \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{cWGAN} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{L_1} + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{L_2}$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are hyperparameters. We evaluated WGAN on the CelebA dataset. Some results can be seen in Figure X.

5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

Conclusion

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