

Local Implicit Normalizing Flow for Arbitrary-Scale Image Super-Resolution

Jie-En Yao^{*1}, Li-Yuan Tsao^{*1}, Yi-Chen Lo^{†2}, Roy Tseng^{†2}, Chia-Che Chang^{†2}, and Chun-Yi Lee¹

¹ElsaLab, National Tsing Hua University, ²MediaTek Inc.

{matt1129yao, lytsao}@gapp.nthu.edu.tw, {yichen.lo, roy.tseng, chia-che.chang}@mediatek.com
 cylee@cs.nthu.edu.tw

Abstract

Flow-based methods have demonstrated promising results in addressing the ill-posed nature of super-resolution (SR) by learning the distribution of high-resolution (HR) images with the normalizing flow. However, these methods can only perform a predefined fixed-scale SR, limiting their potential in real-world applications. Meanwhile, arbitrary-scale SR has gained more attention and achieved great progress. Nonetheless, previous arbitrary-scale SR methods ignore the ill-posed problem and train the model with per-pixel L1 loss, leading to blurry SR outputs. In this work, we propose “Local Implicit Normalizing Flow” (LINF) as a unified solution to the above problems. LINF models the distribution of texture details under different scaling factors with normalizing flow. Thus, LINF can generate photo-realistic HR images with rich texture details in arbitrary scale factors. We evaluate LINF with extensive experiments and show that LINF achieves the state-of-the-art perceptual quality compared with prior arbitrary-scale SR methods.

1. Introduction

Arbitrary-scale image super-resolution (SR) has gained increasing attention recently due to its tremendous application potential. However, this field of study suffers from two major challenges. First, SR aims to reconstruct high-resolution (HR) image from a low-resolution (LR) counterpart by recovering the missing high-frequency information. This process is inherently ill-posed since the same LR image can yield many plausible HR solutions. Second, prior deep learning based SR approaches typically apply upsampling with a pre-defined scale in their network architectures, such as squeeze layer [1], transposed convolution [2], and sub-pixel convolution [3]. Once the upsampling scale is determined, they are unable to further adjust the output resolutions without modifying their model architecture. This causes inflexibility in real-world applications. As a result,

* and † indicate equal contribution. This work was developed during the internship of Jie-En Yao and Li-Yuan Tsao at MediaTek Inc.

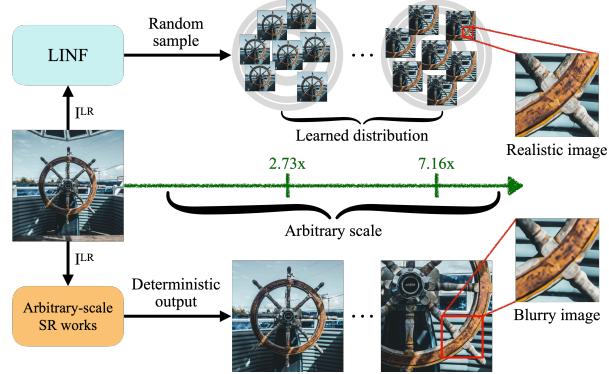


Figure 1. A comparison of the previous arbitrary-scale SR approaches and LINF. LINF models the distribution of texture details in HR images at arbitrary scales. Therefore, unlike the prior methods that tend to produce blurry images, LINF is able to generate arbitrary-scale HR images with rich and photo-realistic textures.

discovering a way to perform arbitrary-scale SR and produce photo-realistic HR images from an LR image with a single model has become a crucial research direction.

A natural approach to addressing the one-to-many inverse problem in SR is to consider the solution as a distribution. Consequently, a number of generative-based SR methods [1, 4–8] have been proposed to tackle this ill-posed problem. Among them, flow-based SR methods show promise, as normalizing flow [9–12] offers several advantages over other generative models. For instance, flow does not suffer from the training instability and mode collapse issues present in generative adversarial networks (GANs) [13]. Moreover, flow-based methods are computationally efficient compared to diffusion [14] and autoregressive (AR) [15, 16] models. Representative flow-based models, such as SRFflow [1] and HCFflow [7], are able to generate high-quality SR images and achieve state-of-the-art results on the benchmarks. However, these methods are restricted to fixed-scale SR, limiting their applicability.

Another line of research focuses on arbitrary-scale SR. LIIF [17] employs local implicit neural representation to represent images in a continuous domain. It achieves arbitrary-scale SR by replacing fixed-scale upsample mod-

ules with an MLP to query the pixel value at any coordinate. LTE [18] further estimates the Fourier information at a given coordinate to make MLP focus on learning high-frequency details. However, these works did not explicitly account for the ill-posed nature of SR. They adopt a per-pixel L_1 loss to train the model in a regression fashion. The reconstruction error favors the averaged output of all possible HR images, leading the model to generate blurry results.

Based on the observation above, combining flow-based SR model with the local implicit module is a promising direction in which flow can account for the ill-posed nature of SR, and the local implicit module can serve as a solution to the arbitrary-scale challenge. Recently, LAR-SR [8] claimed that details in natural images are locally correlated without long-range dependency. Inspired by this insight, we formulated SR as a problem of learning the distribution of local texture patch. With the learned distribution, we perform super-resolution by generating the local texture separately for each non-overlapping patch in the HR image.

With the new problem formulation, we present Local Implicit Normalizing Flow (LINF) as the solution. Specifically, a coordinate conditional normalizing flow models the local texture patch distribution, which is conditioned on the LR image, the central coordinate of local patch, and the scaling factor. To provide the conditional signal for the flow model, we use the local implicit module to estimate Fourier information at each local patch. LINF excels the previous flow-based SR methods with the capability to upscale images with arbitrary scale factors. Different from prior arbitrary-scale SR methods, LINF explicitly addresses the ill-posed issue by learning the distribution of local texture patch. As shown in Fig 1, hence, LINF can generate HR images with rich and reasonable details instead of the over-smoothed ones. Furthermore, LINF can address the issue of unpleasant generative artifacts, a common drawback of generative models, by controlling the sampling temperature. Specifically, the sampling temperature in normalizing flow controls the trade-off between PSNR (fidelity-oriented metric) and LPIPS [19] (perceptual-oriented metric). The contributions of this work can be summarized as follows:

- We proposed a novel LINF framework that leverages the advantages of a local implicit module and normalizing flow. To the best of our knowledge, LINF is the first framework that employs normalizing flow to generate photo-realistic HR images at arbitrary scales.
- We validate the effectiveness of LINF to serve as a unified solution for the ill-posed and arbitrary-scale challenges in SR via quantitative and qualitative evidences.
- We examine the trade-offs between the fidelity- and perceptual-oriented metrics, and show that LINF does yield a better trade-off than the prior SR approaches.

2. Related Work

In this section, we briefly review the previous deep learning based fixed-scale and arbitrary-scale SR methodologies.

2.1. Fixed-Scale Super-Resolution

A number of previous approaches have been proposed in the literature with an aim to learn mapping functions from given LR images to fixed-scale HR ones. These approaches can be broadly categorized into PSNR-oriented methods [2, 3, 20–23] and generative model based methods [1, 4–8, 24–28]. The former category deterministically maps an LR image to an HR one using the standard L_1 or L_2 losses as the learning objectives. Despite the promising performance on the PSNR metric, the L_1 or L_2 losses adopted by such methods usually drives the models to predict the average of all plausible HR images [1, 24, 29, 30], leading to an over-smoothed one. On the other hand, the latter category seeks to address the ill-posed nature of the SR problem by learning the distribution of possible HR images. Such methods include GAN-based SR, diffusion-based SR, flow-based SR, and AR-based SR. GAN-based SR methods [4, 5, 24, 25] train their SR models with adversarial loss, and are able to generate sharp and natural SR images. However, they sometimes suffer from training instability, mode collapse, and over-sharpen artifacts. Diffusion-based SR methods [6, 26] generate an HR image by iteratively refining a Gaussian noise using a denoising model conditioned on the corresponding LR image. These methods are promising and effective, nevertheless, the slow iterative denoise processes limit their practical applications. Flow-based SR methods [1, 7, 27, 28] utilize invertible normalizing flow models to parameterize a distribution. They are promising and achieve state-of-the-art results on the benchmark as they possess several advantages over other generative models, as discussed in Section 1. Among these methods, SRFLOW [1] first pioneered the flow-based SR domain. It was then followed by HCFlow [7], which designed a hierarchical conditional mechanism in the flow framework and achieved better performance than SRFLOW. Recently, LAR-SR [8] introduced the first AR-based SR model. It divides an image into non-overlapping patches, and learns to generate local textures in these patches using a local autoregressive model.

2.2. Arbitrary-Scale Super-Resolution

Despite the successes, the approaches discussed in Section 2.1 are only able to super-resolve LR images with pre-defined upsampling scales, which are usually restricted to certain integer values (e.g., $2\times\sim 4\times$). Meta-SR [31] first attempted to address this limitation by introducing a meta-learning based method to adaptively predict the weights of the upscaling filters for each scaling factor. This avenue is then explored by a number of follow-up endeav-

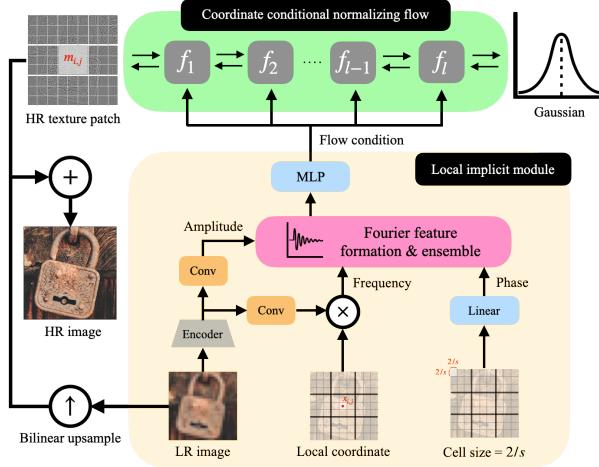


Figure 2. An illustration of the proposed LINF framework. LINF consists of two parts. The local implicit model first encodes an LR image, a local coordinate and a cell into Fourier features, which is followed by an MLP for generating the conditional parameters. The flow model then leverages these parameters to learn a bijective mapping between a local texture patch space and a latent space.

ors [17, 18, 32–37]. RSAN [32] proposed a scale attention module to learn informative features according to the specified scaling factor. ArbSR [33] employed a plug-in module to perform scale-aware feature adaptation and scale-aware upsampling. Recently, LIIF [17] introduced the concept of local implicit neural representation. Given necessary feature embeddings and a coordinate in the real coordinate space \mathbb{R}^2 , LIIF enables the RGB value of that pixel coordinate to be decoded by a multilayer perceptron (MLP). Inspired by [38–41], UltraSR [34] and IPE [35] enhanced LIIF by introducing positional encoding to the framework, allowing it to focus more on high-frequency details. The authors of LTE [18] further introduced the use of Fourier features in their local texture estimator for estimating the dominant frequencies of an image.

3. Methodology

In this section, we first formally define the SR problem concerned by this paper, and provide an overview of the proposed framework. Then, we elaborate on the details of its modules, followed by a discussion of our training scheme.

Problem definition. Given an LR image $I^{LR} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ and an arbitrary scaling factor s , the objective of this work is to generate an HR image $I^{HR} \in \mathbb{R}^{sH \times sW \times 3}$, where H and W represent the height and width of the LR image. Different from previous works, we formulate SR as a problem of learning the distributions of *local texture patches* by normalizing flow, where ‘*texture*’ is defined as the residual between an HR image and the bilinearly upsampled LR counterpart. These local texture patches are constructed by grouping $sH \times sW$ pixels of I^{HR} into

$h \times w$ non-overlapping patches of size $n \times n$ pixels, where $h = \lceil sH/n \rceil$, $w = \lceil sW/n \rceil$. The target distribution of a local texture patch $m_{i,j}$ to be learned can be formulated as a conditional probability distribution $p(m_{i,j}|I^{LR}, x_{i,j}, s)$, where (i, j) represent the patch index, and $x_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ denotes the center coordinate of $m_{i,j}$. The predicted local texture patches are aggregated together to form $I_{\text{texture}}^{HR} \in \mathbb{R}^{sH \times sW \times 3}$, which is then combined with a bilinearly upsampled image $I^{LR} \uparrow \in \mathbb{R}^{sH \times sW \times 3}$ via element-wise addition to derive the final HR image I^{HR} .

Overview. Fig. 2 provides an overview of the LINF framework, which consists of two modules: (1) a local implicit module, and (2) a coordinate conditional normalizing flow (or simply “*the flow model*” hereafter). The former generates the conditional parameters for the latter, enabling LINF to take advantages of both local implicit neural representation and normalizing flow. Specifically, the former first derives the local Fourier features [18] from I^{LR} , $x_{i,j}$, and s . The proposed Fourier feature ensemble is then applied on the extracted features. Finally, given the ensembled feature, the latter utilizes an MLP to generate the parameters for the flow model to approximate $p(m_{i,j}|I^{LR}, x_{i,j}, s)$. We next elaborate on their details and the training strategy.

3.1. Coordinate Conditional Normalizing Flow

Normalizing flow approximates a target distribution by learning a bijective mapping $f_\theta = f_1 \circ f_2 \circ \dots \circ f_l$ between a target space and a latent space, where f_θ denotes a flow model parameterized by θ , and f_1 to f_l represent l invertible flow layers. In LINF, the flow model approximates such a mapping between a local texture patch distribution $p(m_{i,j}|I^{LR}, x_{i,j}, s)$ and a Gaussian distribution $p_z(z)$ as:

$$m_{i,j} = h_0 \xrightarrow[f_1^{-1}]{f_1} h_1 \xrightarrow[f_2^{-1}]{f_2} \dots h_{k-1} \xrightarrow[f_k^{-1}]{f_k} h_k \dots \xrightarrow[f_l^{-1}]{f_l} h_l = z, \quad (1)$$

where $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau)$ is a Gaussian random variable, τ is a temperature coefficient, $h_k = f_k(h_{k-1})$, $k \in [1, \dots, l]$, denotes a latent variable in the transformation process, and f_k^{-1} is the inverse of f_k . By applying the change of variable technique, the mapping of the two distributions $p(m_{i,j}|I^{LR}, x_{i,j}, s)$ and $p_z(z)$ can be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \log p_\theta(m_{i,j}|I^{LR}, x_{i,j}, s) &= \log p_z(z) \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^l \log \left| \det \frac{\partial f_k(h_{k-1})}{\partial h_{k-1}} \right|. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The term $\log \left| \det \frac{\partial f_k(h_{k-1})}{\partial h_{k-1}} \right|$ is the logarithm of the absolute Jacobian determinant of f_k . As I_{texture}^{HR} (and hence, the local texture patches) can be directly derived from I^{HR} , I^{LR} , and s during the training phase, the flow model can be optimized by minimizing the negative log-likelihood loss.

During the inference phase, the flow model is used to infer local texture patches by transforming sampled z 's with f^{-1} . Note that the values of τ are different during the training and the inference phases, which are discussed in Section 4.

Implementation details. Since the objective of our flow model is to approximate the distributions of local texture patches rather than an entire image, it is implemented with a relatively straightforward model architecture. The flow model is composed of ten flow layers, each of which consists of a linear layer and an affine injector layer proposed in [1]. Each linear layer k is parameterized by a learnable pair of weight matrix \mathcal{W}_k and bias β_k . The forward and inverse operations of the linear layer can be formulated as:

$$h_k = \mathcal{W}_k h_{k-1} + \beta_k, \quad h_{k-1} = \mathcal{W}_k^{-1}(h_k - \beta_k), \quad (3)$$

where \mathcal{W}_k^{-1} is the inverse matrix of \mathcal{W}_k . The Jacobian determinant of a linear layer is simply the determinant of the weight matrix \mathcal{W}_k . Since the dimension of a local texture patch is relatively small (i.e., $n \times n$ pixels), calculating the inverse and determinant of the weight matrix \mathcal{W}_k is feasible.

On the other hand, the affine injector layers are employed to enable two conditional parameters α and ϕ generated from the local implicit module to be fed into the flow model. The incorporation of these layers allows the distribution of a local texture patch $m_{i,j}$ to be conditioned on I^{LR} , $x_{i,j}$, and s . The conditional parameters are utilized to perform element-wise shifting and scaling of latent h , expressed as:

$$h_k = \alpha_k \odot h_{k-1} + \phi_k, \quad h_{k-1} = (h_k - \phi_k)/\alpha_k, \quad (4)$$

where k denotes the index of a certain affine injector layer, and \odot represents element-wise multiplication. The log-determinant of an affine injector layer is computed as $\sum \log(\alpha_k)$, which sums over all dimensions of indices [1].

3.2. Local Implicit Module

The goal of the local implicit module is to generate conditional parameters α and ϕ from the local Fourier features extracted from I^{LR} , x_q , and s . This can be formulated as:

$$\alpha, \phi = g_\Phi(E_\Psi(v^*, x_q - x^*, c)), \quad (5)$$

where g_Φ represents the parameter generation function implemented as an MLP, x_q is the center coordinate of a queried local texture patch in I^{HR} , v^* is the feature vector of the 2D LR coordinate x^* which is nearest to x_q in the continuous image domain [17], $c = 2/s$ denotes the cell size, and $x_q - x^*$ is known as the relative coordinate. Following [18], the local implicit module employs a local texture estimator E_Ψ to extract the Fourier features given any arbitrary x_q . This function can be expressed as follows:

$$E_\Psi(v^*, x_q - x^*, c) : A \odot \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\pi F(x_q - x^*) + P) \\ \sin(\pi F(x_q - x^*) + P) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (6)$$

where \odot denotes element-wise multiplication, and A, F, P are the Fourier features extracted by three distinct functions:

$$A = E_a(v^*), F = E_f(v^*), P = E_p(c), \quad (7)$$

where E_a , E_f , and E_p are the functions for estimating amplitudes, frequencies, and phases, respectively. In this work, the former two are implemented with convolutional layers, while the latter is implemented as an MLP. Given the number of frequencies to be modeled as K , the dimensions of these features are $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2K}$, $F \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times 2}$, and $P \in \mathbb{R}^K$.

Fourier feature ensemble. To avoid color discontinuity when two adjacent pixels select two different feature vectors, a local ensemble method was proposed in [17] to allow RGB values to be queried from the nearest four feature vectors around x_q and fuse them with bilinear interpolation. If this method is employed, the forward and inverse transformation of our flow model f_θ would be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} z &= \sum_{j \in \Upsilon} w_j * f_\theta(\text{patch}; g_\Phi(E_\Psi(v_j, x_q - x_j, c))) \\ \text{patch} &= \sum_{j \in \Upsilon} w_j * f_\theta^{-1}(z; g_\Phi(E_\Psi(v_j, x_q - x_j, c))), \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where Υ is the set of four nearest feature vectors, and w_j is the derived weight for performing bilinear interpolation.

Albeit effective, local ensemble requires four forward passes of the local texture estimator E_Ψ , the parameter generator g_Φ , and the flow model f_θ . To deal with this drawback, our local implicit module employs a different approach named “Fourier feature ensemble” to streamline the computation. Instead of directly generating four RGB samples and then fuse them in the image domain, we propose to ensemble the four nearest feature vectors right after the local texture estimator E_Ψ . More specifically, these feature vectors are concatenated to form an ensemble $\kappa = \text{concat}(\{w_j * E_\Psi(v_j, x_q - x_j, c), \forall j \in \Upsilon\})$, in which each feature vector is weighted by w_j to allow the model to focus more on closer feature vectors. The proposed technique requires g_Φ and f_θ to perform only one forward pass to capture the same amount of information as the local ensemble method and deliver same performance. It is expressed as:

$$z = f_\theta(\text{patch}; g_\Phi(\kappa)); \text{patch} = f_\theta^{-1}(z; g_\Phi(\kappa)). \quad (9)$$

3.3. Training Scheme

LINF employs a two-stage training scheme. In the first stage, it is trained only with the negative log-likelihood loss L_{nll} . In the second stage, it is fine-tuned with an additional L1 loss on predicted pixels L_{pixel} , and the VGG perceptual loss [30] on the patches predicted by the flow model L_{vgg} . The total loss function L can be formulated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \lambda_1 L_{nll}(\text{patch}_{gt}) + \lambda_2 L_{pixel}(\text{patch}_{gt}, \text{patch}_{\tau=0}) \\ &\quad + \lambda_3 L_{vgg}(\text{patch}_{gt}, \text{patch}_{\tau=0.8}), \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are the scaling parameters, $patch_{gt}$ denotes the ground-truth local texture patch, and $(patch_{\tau=0}, patch_{\tau=0.8})$ represent the local texture patches predicted by LINF with temperature $\tau = 0$ and $\tau = 0.8$, respectively.

4. Experimental Results

In this section, we report the experimental results, present the ablation analyses, and discuss the implications.

4.1. Experimental Setups

In this section, we describe the experimental setups. We compare LINF with previous arbitrary-scale SR methods and generative SR models to show that LINF is able to generate photo-realistic HR images for arbitrary scaling factors.

Arbitrary-scale SR. We use the DIV2K [42] dataset for training and evaluate the performance on several widely used SR benchmark datasets, including Set5 [43], Set14 [44], B100 [45], and Urban100 [46]. To compare our LINF with the prior pixel-wise SR methods [17, 18], we set the patch size n to 1×1 , which models the distribution of a single pixel. We use three different encoders, EDSR-baseline [21], RDN [22], and SwinIR [23], to extract features of LR images. In the first training stage, we train the models for 1,000 epochs, with a learning rate of 1×10^{-4} , which is halved at epochs [200, 400, 600, 800] for EDSR-baseline and RDN, and at epochs [500, 800, 900, 950] for SwinIR. In the second stage, we fine-tune EDSR-baseline and RDN for 1,000 epochs, and SwinIR for 1,500 epochs, with a fine-tune learning rate of 5×10^{-5} , which is halved at epochs [200, 400, 600, 800] for EDSR-baseline and RDN, and at epochs [800, 1100, 1300, 1400] for SwinIR. The parameters in Eq. (10) are set by $\lambda_1 = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, $\lambda_2 = 1$, and $\lambda_3 = 0$. The Adam optimizer is used for training. The batch size is 16 for EDSR-baseline and RDN, and 32 for SwinIR.

Generative SR. For generative SR, our models are trained on both the DIV2K [42] and Flickr2K [47] datasets, with performance evaluation conducted using the DIV2K validation set. To effectively capture the underlying texture distribution, we set the patch size n to 3×3 . The RRDB architecture [4] is employed as the encoder. The training parameters, such as epoch, learning rate, batch size, and optimizer settings, are maintained in alignment with RDN. Moreover, we set the loss weighting parameters to be $\lambda_1 = 5 \times 10^{-4}$, $\lambda_2 = 1$, and $\lambda_3 = 2.5 \times 10^{-2}$, respectively.

Training strategy. In the proposed LINF methodology, the model is trained utilizing scaling factors within a continuous range from $\times 1$ to $\times 4$. In practice, for each data sample within a mini-batch, a scale denoted as s is obtained by sampling from a uniform distribution $U(1, 4)$. The LR image dimensions are set to 48×48 pixels. As a result, this configuration necessitates the cropping of HR images

of $48s \times 48s$ pixels from the original training images. Subsequently, these HR images are down-sampled to their corresponding 48×48 pixel LR counterparts using bicubic interpolation. The dimensions of each HR image can be interpreted as a set of coordinate-patch pairs, with a total count of $(48s)^2$. From this set, a fixed number of 48^2 pairs are selected as the training data to ensure consistency in the quantity of training data samples across different patches.

Evaluation metrics. In our experiments, fidelity-oriented metrics, such as Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) and Structural Similarity Index (SSIM), are reported to facilitate a fair comparison with existing methods. However, PSNR and SSIM are known to be insufficient in reflecting perceptual quality for SR tasks. Therefore, an alternative metric, referred to as LPIPS [19], is employed to evaluate perceptual quality. Moreover, a Diversity metric, defined as the pixel value standard deviation of five samples, is utilized when comparing LINF with generative SR models to highlight the diversity of the SR images generated by LINF.

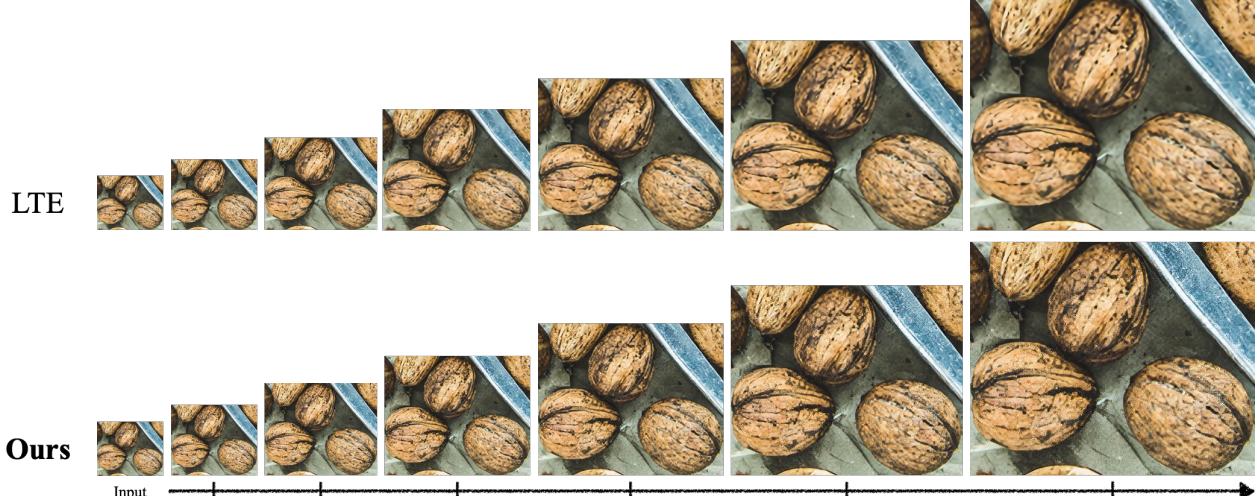
Inference temperature. While the flow model maps the target distribution to a standard normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ during the training phase, temperature can be adjusted in the testing phase. In the deterministic setting ($\tau = 0$), the flow model operates similarly to PSNR-oriented SR models by generating the mean of the learned distribution. In contrast, when employing random samples with $\tau > 0$, the flow model generates diverse and photo-realistic results. We report both deterministic and random sample outcomes to demonstrate the distinct characteristics of our flow model.

4.2. Arbitrary-Scale SR

Table 1 presents a quantitative comparison between our LINF and the previous arbitrary-scale SR models [17, 18, 31]. Unlike previous arbitrary-scale SR methods, which only report PSNR, we take LPIPS into consideration to reflect the perceptual quality. We report results under deterministic and random sampling settings to validate the effectiveness of our model. In the random sample setting, we set τ_0 to 0.5 for $\times 2 \times 4$ SR. As the SR scale increases, we decrease the sampling temperature to obtain more stable outputs by setting $\tau_0 = 0.4$ for $\times 6$ SR and $\tau_0 = 0.2$ for $\times 8$ SR. Our observations reveal that LINF significantly outperforms the prior methods in terms of the LPIPS metric when utilizing random sampling, indicating its ability to generate images with enhanced perceptual quality. The qualitative results depicted in Fig. 3 support the above findings, indicating that LINF can generate rich texture under arbitrary scales, while the previous PSNR-oriented method generates blurrier outcomes. Moreover, LINF maintains competitive performance in terms of PSNR under the deterministic setting, validating that the learned distribution is centered around the average of all plausible HR images.

Method	Set5								Set14										
	In-Scale				Out-of-scale				In-Scale				Out-of-scale						
	$\times 2$	$\times 3$	$\times 4$	$\times 6$	$\times 8$	$\times 2$	$\times 3$	$\times 4$	$\times 6$	$\times 8$	$\times 2$	$\times 3$	$\times 4$	$\times 6$	$\times 8$				
EDSR-baseline-MetaSR	37.96 / 0.057	34.38 / 0.125	32.07 / 0.175	28.67 / 0.253	26.73 / 0.326	33.60 / 0.094	30.29 / 0.207	28.52 / 0.286	26.31 / 0.395	24.81 / 0.460	EDSR-baseline-LIIF	EDSR-baseline-LITE	EDSR-baseline-Ours $\tau = 0$	EDSR-baseline-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	26.45 / 0.390	24.94 / 0.449			
	37.99 / 0.056	34.40 / 0.124	32.24 / 0.173	28.96 / 0.248	26.98 / 0.307	33.66 / 0.093	30.34 / 0.205	28.62 / 0.284	26.45 / 0.390	24.94 / 0.449					24.94 / 0.449				
	38.04 / 0.056	34.43 / 0.123	32.24 / 0.174	28.97 / 0.257	27.04 / 0.326	33.72 / 0.092	30.37 / 0.203	28.65 / 0.283	26.50 / 0.396	24.99 / 0.463					24.93 / 0.457				
	38.00 / 0.058	34.45 / 0.125	32.26 / 0.176	28.91 / 0.251	26.96 / 0.312	33.62 / 0.096	30.33 / 0.207	28.63 / 0.286	26.46 / 0.395	24.93 / 0.457					24.93 / 0.457				
	37.06 / 0.039	33.39 / 0.067	31.00 / 0.087	27.88 / 0.173	26.69 / 0.254	32.73 / 0.071	29.26 / 0.129	27.54 / 0.189	25.71 / 0.314	24.74 / 0.396					24.74 / 0.396				
RDN-MetaSR	38.22 / 0.055	34.65 / 0.124	32.40 / 0.173	28.99 / 0.246	26.93 / 0.316	34.15 / 0.086	30.55 / 0.200	28.80 / 0.279	26.50 / 0.381	24.95 / 0.445	RDN-LIIF	RDN-LITE	RDN-Ours $\tau = 0$	RDN-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	24.95 / 0.445				
RDN-LIIF	38.17 / 0.055	34.68 / 0.122	32.50 / 0.170	29.15 / 0.240	27.14 / 0.299	33.97 / 0.088	30.53 / 0.197	28.80 / 0.277	26.64 / 0.379	25.15 / 0.438					25.15 / 0.438				
RDN-LITE	38.23 / 0.055	34.72 / 0.122	32.61 / 0.171	29.32 / 0.253	27.26 / 0.316	34.09 / 0.087	30.58 / 0.198	28.88 / 0.277	26.71 / 0.389	25.16 / 0.455					25.16 / 0.455				
RDN-Ours $\tau = 0$	38.21 / 0.056	34.71 / 0.122	32.50 / 0.172	29.21 / 0.244	27.23 / 0.304	33.91 / 0.089	30.56 / 0.199	28.83 / 0.277	26.65 / 0.386	25.14 / 0.445					25.14 / 0.445				
RDN-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	37.36 / 0.038	33.76 / 0.065	31.38 / 0.081	28.32 / 0.160	27.00 / 0.246	33.09 / 0.068	29.60 / 0.125	27.77 / 0.179	25.95 / 0.300	24.95 / 0.381					24.95 / 0.381				
SwinIR-MetaSR	38.26 / 0.055	34.77 / 0.120	32.47 / 0.168	29.09 / 0.237	27.02 / 0.314	34.14 / 0.086	30.66 / 0.195	28.85 / 0.272	26.58 / 0.379	25.09 / 0.446	SwinIR-LIIF	SwinIR-LITE	SwinIR-Ours $\tau = 0$	SwinIR-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	25.09 / 0.446				
SwinIR-LIIF	38.28 / 0.055	34.87 / 0.118	32.73 / 0.168	29.46 / 0.234	27.36 / 0.293	34.14 / 0.087	30.75 / 0.194	28.98 / 0.273	26.82 / 0.377	25.34 / 0.435					25.34 / 0.435				
SwinIR-LITE	38.33 / 0.055	34.89 / 0.120	32.81 / 0.170	29.50 / 0.243	27.35 / 0.308	34.25 / 0.086	30.80 / 0.194	29.06 / 0.270	26.86 / 0.382	25.42 / 0.449					25.42 / 0.449				
SwinIR-Ours $\tau = 0$	38.28 / 0.056	34.85 / 0.121	32.74 / 0.170	29.40 / 0.238	27.45 / 0.294	34.13 / 0.087	30.71 / 0.195	28.95 / 0.273	26.84 / 0.376	25.30 / 0.436					25.30 / 0.436				
SwinIR-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	37.49 / 0.038	33.94 / 0.066	31.70 / 0.084	28.49 / 0.153	27.19 / 0.236	33.38 / 0.067	29.84 / 0.127	27.98 / 0.176	26.15 / 0.286	25.09 / 0.370					25.09 / 0.370				
B100																			
Method	In-Scale				Out-of-scale				In-Scale				Out-of-scale						
	$\times 2$	$\times 3$	$\times 4$	$\times 6$	$\times 8$	$\times 2$	$\times 3$	$\times 4$	$\times 6$	$\times 8$	$\times 2$	$\times 3$	$\times 4$	$\times 6$	$\times 8$				
	32.17 / 0.147	29.09 / 0.285	27.55 / 0.376	25.76 / 0.492	24.70 / 0.565	28.12 / 0.065	25.96 / 0.233	23.59 / 0.352	22.30 / 0.446	SwinIR-MetaSR	SwinIR-LIIF	SwinIR-LITE	SwinIR-Ours $\tau = 0$	SwinIR-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	22.45 / 0.422				
EDSR-baseline-LIIF	32.17 / 0.147	29.10 / 0.282	27.60 / 0.372	25.84 / 0.486	24.79 / 0.556	32.15 / 0.064	28.22 / 0.155	26.15 / 0.228	23.79 / 0.338						23.79 / 0.338				
EDSR-baseline-LITE	32.21 / 0.146	29.14 / 0.280	27.62 / 0.371	25.87 / 0.495	24.82 / 0.570	32.29 / 0.063	28.32 / 0.152	26.24 / 0.224	23.85 / 0.345						22.53 / 0.436				
EDSR-baseline-Ours $\tau = 0$	32.16 / 0.151	29.12 / 0.286	27.61 / 0.374	25.85 / 0.492	24.80 / 0.563	32.11 / 0.066	28.21 / 0.157	26.15 / 0.232	23.79 / 0.344						22.45 / 0.431				
EDSR-baseline-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	31.39 / 0.114	28.21 / 0.174	26.62 / 0.238	25.21 / 0.382	24.64 / 0.488	31.22 / 0.052	27.26 / 0.115	25.15 / 0.184	23.11 / 0.331						22.27 / 0.415				
RDN-MetaSR	32.34 / 0.143	29.26 / 0.282	27.71 / 0.369	25.89 / 0.477	24.82 / 0.549	32.96 / 0.055	28.87 / 0.140	26.60 / 0.211	24.00 / 0.317	22.59 / 0.408	RDN-LIIF	RDN-LITE	RDN-Ours $\tau = 0$	RDN-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	22.59 / 0.408				
RDN-LIIF	32.32 / 0.145	29.26 / 0.278	27.74 / 0.365	25.98 / 0.475	24.91 / 0.544	32.87 / 0.057	28.82 / 0.139	26.68 / 0.209	24.20 / 0.312	22.79 / 0.392					22.79 / 0.392				
RDN-LITE	32.36 / 0.142	29.30 / 0.275	27.77 / 0.363	26.01 / 0.485	24.95 / 0.561	33.04 / 0.055	28.97 / 0.138	26.81 / 0.206	24.28 / 0.324	22.88 / 0.412					22.88 / 0.412				
RDN-Ours $\tau = 0$	32.31 / 0.145	29.26 / 0.279	27.75 / 0.366	26.00 / 0.482	24.93 / 0.555	32.86 / 0.057	28.81 / 0.140	26.69 / 0.210	24.19 / 0.317	22.77 / 0.403					22.77 / 0.403				
RDN-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	31.60 / 0.111	28.46 / 0.173	26.84 / 0.229	25.40 / 0.365	24.78 / 0.470	32.06 / 0.044	27.97 / 0.099	25.79 / 0.155	23.55 / 0.288	22.60 / 0.376					22.60 / 0.376				
SwinIR-MetaSR	32.39 / 0.141	29.31 / 0.280	27.75 / 0.365	25.94 / 0.472	24.87 / 0.549	32.29 / 0.052	29.12 / 0.132	26.76 / 0.200	24.16 / 0.315	22.75 / 0.403	SwinIR-LIIF	SwinIR-LITE	SwinIR-Ours $\tau = 0$	SwinIR-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	22.75 / 0.403				
SwinIR-LIIF	32.39 / 0.143	29.34 / 0.277	27.84 / 0.362	26.07 / 0.469	25.01 / 0.539	33.36 / 0.054	29.33 / 0.133	27.15 / 0.201	24.59 / 0.299	23.14 / 0.377					23.14 / 0.377				
SwinIR-LITE	32.44 / 0.139	29.39 / 0.270	27.86 / 0.357	26.09 / 0.476	25.03 / 0.553	33.50 / 0.052	29.41 / 0.130	27.24 / 0.194	24.62 / 0.309	23.17 / 0.396					23.17 / 0.396				
SwinIR-Ours $\tau = 0$	32.39 / 0.142	29.34 / 0.273	27.83 / 0.361	26.09 / 0.470	25.02 / 0.542	33.27 / 0.053	29.23 / 0.133	27.06 / 0.200	24.54 / 0.299	23.08 / 0.379					23.08 / 0.379				
SwinIR-Ours $\tau = \tau_0$	31.72 / 0.110	28.55 / 0.170	26.96 / 0.223	25.46 / 0.352	24.85 / 0.457	32.49 / 0.042	28.39 / 0.093	26.16 / 0.144	23.78 / 0.267	22.85 / 0.351					22.85 / 0.351				

Table 1. The arbitrary-scale SR results of the baselines and LINF (denoted as “Ours”) evaluated on the widely used SR benchmark datasets [43–46]. Note that PSNR is evaluated on the Y channel of the YCbCr space. The best results are denoted in bold and underlined.



4.3. Generative SR

Quantitative and qualitative results. We compare LINF with GAN-based [4, 5], Diffusion-based [6], AR-based [8], and flow-based [1, 7] SR models in Table 2 and Fig. 4. HCFFlow+ and HCFFlow++ are two versions of HCFFlow [7]. The former employs fine-tuning with an L1 loss to enhance its PSNR performance, while the latter incorporates a VGG loss [30] and an adversarial loss to improve visual quality and LPIPS scores. In the random sampling setting, LINF outperforms all the baselines in terms of both PSNR and LPIPS, except for SRDiff and HCFFlow++. Although LINF exhibits a marginally lower PSNR than SRDiff, it significantly surpasses SRDiff in LPIPS. Moreover, LINF outperforms HCFFlow++ in PSNR with a comparable LPIPS score. These results suggest that LINF is a balanced model

excelling in both PSNR and LPIPS, and are further corroborated by Fig 4. In the first row, SRFflow yields blurry results, while HCFflow and GAN-based models generate over-sharpened artifacts. On the other hand, LINF generates rich textures and achieves high fidelity when compared to the ground truth image. This evidence validates the effectiveness of LINF as a versatile and balanced model for achieving optimal performance in both PSNR and LPIPS metrics.

Fidelity-perception trade-off. Since SR presents an ill-posed problem, achieving optimal fidelity (i.e., the discrepancy between reconstructed and ground truth images) and perceptual quality simultaneously presents a considerable challenge [48]. As a result, the trade-off between fidelity and perceptual quality necessitates an in-depth ex-

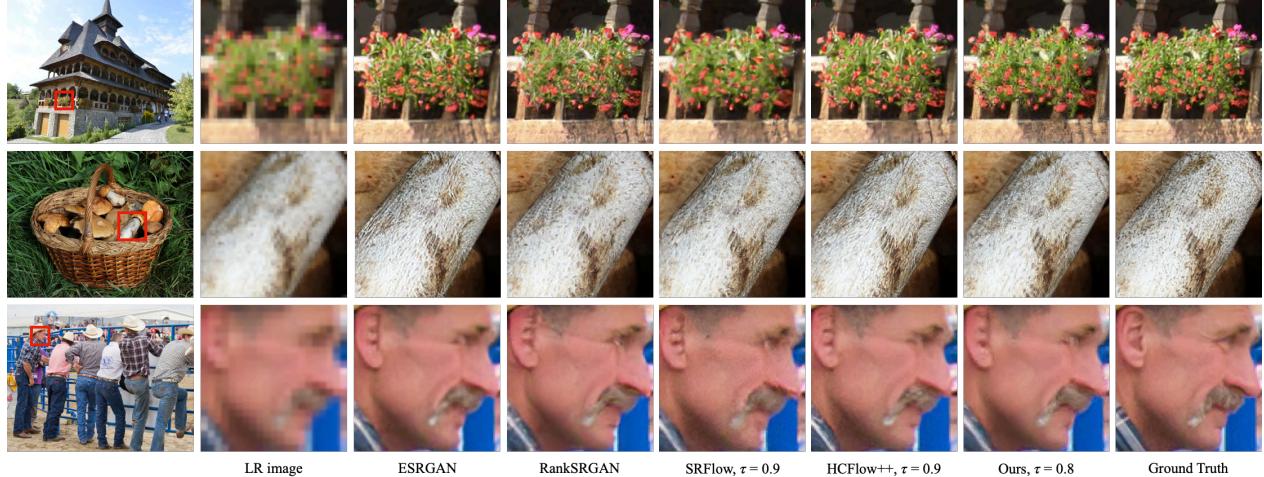


Figure 4. The $\times 4$ SR qualitative results of generative SR methods on the DIV2K [42] validation set.

Method	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow	Diversity \uparrow
ESRGAN [4]	26.22	0.75	0.124	0
RankSRGAN [5]	26.55	0.75	0.128	0
SRDiff [6]	27.41	0.79	0.136	6.1
LAR-SR [8]	27.03	0.77	0.114	-
SRFlow $\tau = 0.9$ [1]	27.08	0.76	0.121	5.6
HCFlow+ $\tau = 0.9$ [7]	27.11	0.76	0.127	4.7
HCFlow++ $\tau = 0.9$ [7]	26.61	0.74	0.111	5.4
Ours $\tau = 0.8$	27.33	0.76	0.112	5.1
SRFlow $\tau = 0$ [1]	29.05	0.83	0.251	0
HCFlow+ $\tau = 0$ [7]	29.25	0.83	0.262	0
HCFlow++ $\tau = 0$ [7]	29.04	0.82	0.258	0
Ours $\tau = 0$	29.14	0.83	0.248	0

Table 2. The $\times 4$ SR results on the DIV2K [42] validation set. Note that PSNR and SSIM are evaluated on the RGB space. The best and second best results are marked in red and blue, respectively.

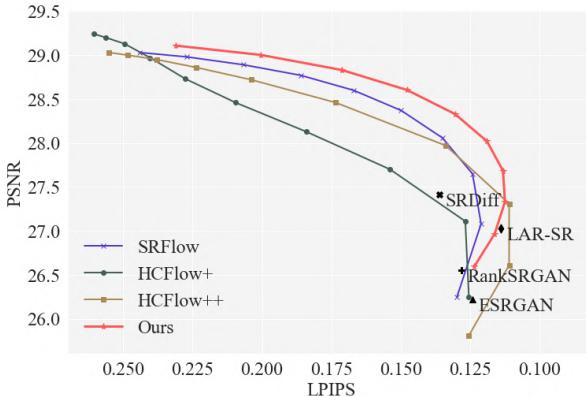


Figure 5. An illustration of the trade-off between PSNR and LPIPS with varying sampling temperatures τ . The sampling temperature increases from the top left corner ($t = 0.0$) to the bottom right corner ($t = 1.0$). The x-axis is reversed for improved visualization.

ploration. By leveraging the inherent sampling property of normalizing flow, it is feasible to plot the trade-off curve between PSNR (fidelity) and LPIPS (perception) for flow-

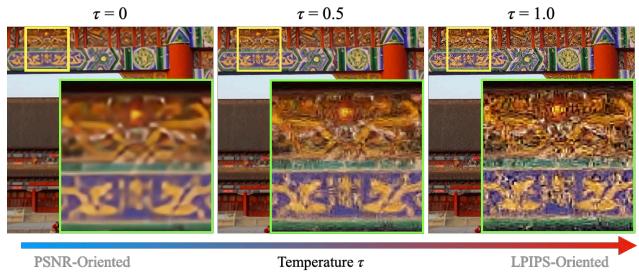


Figure 6. An example for depicting the trade-off between fidelity- and perceptual-oriented results using different temperature τ .

based models by adjusting temperatures, as depicted in Fig 5. This trade-off curve reveals two distinct insights. First, when the sampling temperature escalates from low to high (i.e., from the top left corner to the bottom right corner), the flow models tend to exhibit lower PSNR but improved LPIPS. However, beyond a specific temperature threshold, both PSNR and LPIPS degrade as the temperature increase. This suggests that a higher temperature does not guarantee enhanced perceptual quality, as flow models may generate noisy artifacts. Nevertheless, through appropriate control of the sampling temperature, it is possible to select the preferred trade-off between fidelity and visual quality to produce photo-realistic images, as demonstrated in Fig 6. Second, Fig 5 illustrates that the trade-off Pareto front of LINF consistently outperforms those of the prior flow-based methods except at the two extreme ends. This reveals that given an equal PSNR, LINF exhibits superior LPIPS. Conversely, when LPIPS values are identical, LINF demonstrates improved PSNR. This finding underscores that LINF attains a more favorable balance between PSNR and LPIPS in comparison to preceding techniques.

Computation time. To demonstrate the advantages of the proposed Fourier feature ensemble and local texture patch

Method	LPIPS \downarrow	Time (s) \downarrow	#Param
LAR-SR [8]	0.114	14.70	62.1M
SRFlow $\tau = 0.9$ [1]	0.121	1.43	39.5M
HCFlow++ $\tau = 0.9$ [7]	0.111	1.46	23.2M
Ours $\tau = 0.8$	0.112	0.54	17.5M

Table 3. The average $\times 4$ SR inference time of a single DIV2K [42] image. The computation time is evaluated on an NVIDIA Tesla V100. The best results are denoted in bold and underlined.

Method	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow	Time (s) \downarrow
Local ensemble	29.04	0.82	0.270	2.16
Fourier ensemble	29.04	0.82	0.270	1.44
Fourier ensemble (-W)	29.03	0.82	0.271	1.39
Fourier ensemble (+P) $\tau = 0$	28.85	0.82	0.273	0.33
Fourier ensemble (+P) $\tau = 0.6$	27.43	0.77	0.158	

Table 4. The $\times 4$ SR results on the DIV2K [42] validation set. EDSR-baseline [21] is used as the encoder, -W refers to removing the amplitude scaling, and +P indicates the usage of 3×3 patch-based model. The computation time is evaluated on an NVIDIA TITAN X. The best results are denoted in bold and underlined.

based generative approach in enhancing the inference speed of LINF, we compare the average inference time for a single DIV2K image with that of the contemporary generative SR models [1, 7, 8]. As shown in Table 3, the inference time of LINF is approximately 27.2 times faster than the autoregressive (AR)-based SR models [8] and 2.6 times faster than the flow-based SR models [1, 7], while concurrently achieving competitive performance in terms of the LPIPS metric.

4.4. Ablation Study

Fourier feature ensemble. As discussed in Section 3.2, LINF employs a Fourier feature ensemble mechanism to replace the local ensemble mechanism. To validate its effectiveness, we compare the two mechanisms in Table 4. The results show that the former reduces the inference time by approximately 33% compared to the latter, while maintaining a competitive performance on the SR metrics. Moreover, neglecting to scale the amplitude of the Fourier features with ensemble weights results in a slightly worse performance. This validates that scaling the amplitude of the Fourier features with ensemble weights is effective, and enables LINF to focus on the more important information.

Analysis of the impact of local region size. As described in Section 3, our proposed framework aims to learn the texture distribution of an $n \times n$ local region, where n governs the region size. As a result, our model can be categorized as either pixel-based and patch-based by setting $n = 1$ and $n > 1$, respectively. Table 4 also presents a quantitative comparison between pixel-based and patch-based models. The results reveal that a pixel-based model can generate high-fidelity images with a superior PSNR compared to a patch-based one when the temperature is set to

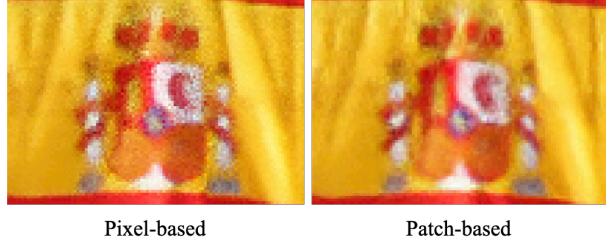


Figure 7. The local incoherence issue of the pixel-based method. Note that both images are sampled with a temperature of $\tau = 0.6$.

zero. However, in the random sample setting, a patch-based model can generate higher perceptual quality images with a lower LPIPS. This phenomenon is attributed to the local-incoherent issue when sampling with pixel-based method. Specifically, pixel-wise random sampling can occasionally result in incoherent color, as illustrated in Fig 7. In contrast, a patch-based model preserves local coherency by considering the distribution of a patch, thereby achieving enhanced visual quality. In addition, while a pixel-based model requires $H \times W$ forward passes to generate an image of shape $H \times W$, a patch-based model necessitates only $(\lceil H/n \rceil) \times (\lceil W/n \rceil)$ forward passes, yielding greater efficiency in inference, particularly for larger values of n .

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced a novel framework called LINF for arbitrary-scale SR. To the best of our knowledge, LINF is the first approach to employ normalizing flow for arbitrary-scale SR. Specifically, we formulated SR as a problem of learning the distributions of local texture patches. We utilized coordinate conditional normalizing flow to learn the distribution and a local implicit module to generate conditional signals. Through our quantitative and qualitative experiments, we demonstrated that LINF can produce photo-realistic high-resolution images at arbitrary upscaling scales while achieving the optimal balance between fidelity and perceptual quality among all methods.

Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the support from the National Science and Technology Council (NSTC) in Taiwan under grant numbers MOST 111-2223-E-007-004-MY3 and MOST 111-2628-E-007-010, as well as the financial support from MediaTek Inc., Taiwan. The authors would also like to express their appreciation for the donation of the GPUs from NVIDIA Corporation and NVIDIA AI Technology Center (NVAITC) used in this work. Furthermore, the authors extend their gratitude to the National Center for High-Performance Computing (NCHC) for providing the necessary computational and storage resources.

References

- [1] A. Lugmayr, M. Danelljan, L. Van Gool, and R. Timofte. SR-Flow: Learning the super-resolution space with normalizing flow. In *Proc. European Conf. on Computer Vision (ECCV)*, 2020. 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8
- [2] C. Dong, C. C. Loy, and X. Tang. Accelerating the super-resolution convolutional neural network. In *Proc. European Conf. on Computer Vision (ECCV)*, pages 391–407, 2016. 1, 2
- [3] W. Shi, J. Caballero, F. Huszar, J. Totz, A. P. Aitken, R. Bishop, D. Rueckert, and Z. Wang. Real-time single image and video super-resolution using an efficient sub-pixel convolutional neural network. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 1874–1883, 2016. 1, 2
- [4] X. Wang, K. Yu, S. Wu, J. Gu, Y. Liu, C. Dong, Y. Qiao, and C. C. Loy. Esrgan: Enhanced super-resolution generative adversarial networks. In *Proc. European Conf. on Computer Vision Workshop (ECCVW)*, pages 63–79, 2018. 1, 2, 5, 6, 7
- [5] W. Zhang, Y. Liu, C. Dong, and Y. Qiao. Ranksrgan: Generative adversarial networks with ranker for image super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pages 3096–3105, 2019. 1, 2, 6, 7
- [6] H. Li, Y. Yang, M. Chang, H. Feng, Z. Xu, Q. Li, and Y. Chen. Srdiff: Single image super-resolution with diffusion probabilistic models. *Neurocomputing*, 479:47–59, 2022. 1, 2, 6, 7
- [7] J. Liang, A. Lugmayr, K. Zhang, M. Danelljan, L. Van Gool, and R. Timofte. Hierarchical conditional flow: A unified framework for image super-resolution and image rescaling. In *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pages 4056–4065, 2021. 1, 2, 6, 7, 8
- [8] B. Guo, X. Zhang, H. Wu, Y. Wang, Y. Zhang, and Y.-F. Wang. Lar-sr: A local autoregressive model for image super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 1899–1908, 2022. 1, 2, 6, 7, 8
- [9] D. J. Rezende and S. Mohamed. Variational inference with normalizing flows. In *Proc. Int. Conf. on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2015. 1
- [10] L. Dinh, D. Krueger, and Y. Bengio. Nice: Non-linear independent components estimation. *CoRR*, abs/1410.8516, 2015. 1
- [11] L. Dinh, J. Sohl-Dickstein, and S. Bengio. Density estimation using real nvp. *ArXiv*, abs/1605.08803, 2017. 1
- [12] D. P. Kingma and P. Dhariwal. Glow: Generative flow with invertible 1x1 convolutions. In *Proc. Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, page 10236–10245, 2018. 1
- [13] I. Goodfellow, J. Pouget-Abadie, M. Mirza, B. Xu, D. Warde-Farley, S. Ozair, A. Courville, and Y. Bengio. Generative adversarial nets. In *Proc. Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, volume 27, 2014. 1
- [14] J. Ho, A. Jain, and P. Abbeel. Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. *arXiv preprint arxiv:2006.11239*, 2020. 1
- [15] A. van den Oord, N. Kalchbrenner, and K. Kavukcuoglu. Pixel recurrent neural networks. *ArXiv*, abs/1601.06759, 2016. 1
- [16] A. van den Oord, N. Kalchbrenner, O. Vinyals, L. Espeholt, A. Graves, and K. Kavukcuoglu. Conditional image generation with pixelcnn decoders. *ArXiv*, abs/1606.05328, 2016. 1
- [17] Y. Chen, S. Liu, and X. Wang. Learning continuous image representation with local implicit image function. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 8628–8638, 2021. 1, 3, 4, 5
- [18] J. Lee and K. H. Jin. Local texture estimator for implicit representation function. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 1929–1938, 2022. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
- [19] R. Zhang, P. Isola, A. A. Efros, E. Shechtman, and O. Wang. The unreasonable effectiveness of deep features as a perceptual metric. pages 586–595, 2018. 2, 5
- [20] C. Dong, C. C. Loy, K. He, and X. Tang. Image super-resolution using deep convolutional networks. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence (TPAMI)*, 38(2):295–307, 2016. 2
- [21] B. Lim, S. Son, H. Kim, S. Nah, and K. M. Lee. Enhanced deep residual networks for single image super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshop (CVPRW)*, pages 1132–1140, 2017. 2, 5, 8
- [22] Y. Zhang, Y. Tian, Y. Kong, B. Zhong, and Y. Fu. Residual dense network for image super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 2472–2481, 2018. 2, 5
- [23] J. Liang, J. Cao, G. Sun, K. Zhang, L. Van Gool, and R. Timofte. Swinir: Image restoration using swin transformer. In *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. on Computer Vision Workshop (ICCVW)*, pages 1833–1844, 2021. 2, 5
- [24] C. Ledig, L. Theis, F. Huszar, J. Caballero, A. Cunningham, A. Acosta, A. Aitken, A. Tejani, J. Totz, Z. Wang, and W. Shi. Photo-realistic single image super-resolution using a generative adversarial network. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 105–114, 2017. 2
- [25] X. Wang, K. Yu, C. Dong, and C. C. Loy. Recovering realistic texture in image super-resolution by deep spatial feature transform. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 606–615, 2018. 2
- [26] C. Saharia, J. Ho, W. Chan, T. Salimans, D. J. Fleet, and M. Norouzi. Image super-resolution via iterative refinement. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence (TPAMI)*, PP, 2022. 2
- [27] C. Winkler, D. E. Worrall, E. Hoogeboom, and M. Welling. Learning likelihoods with conditional normalizing flows. *ArXiv*, abs/1912.00042, 2019. 2
- [28] A. Lugmayr, M. Danelljan, F. Yu, L. Van Gool, and R. Timofte. Normalizing flow as a flexible fidelity objective for photo-realistic super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Winter Conf. on Applications of Computer Vision (WACV)*, pages 874–883, 2022. 2

- [29] J. Bruna, P. Sprechmann, and Y. LeCun. Super-resolution with deep convolutional sufficient statistics. *CoRR*, abs/1511.05666, 2016. 2
- [30] J. Johnson, A. Alahi, and Li F.-F. Perceptual losses for real-time style transfer and super-resolution. In *Proc. European Conf. on Computer Vision (ECCV)*, pages 694–711, 2016. 2, 4, 6
- [31] X. Hu, H. Mu, X. Zhang, Z. Wang, T. Tan, and J. Sun. Metasr: A magnification-arbitrary network for super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 1575–1584, 2019. 2, 5
- [32] Y. Fu, J. Chen, T. Zhang, and Y. Lin. Residual scale attention network for arbitrary scale image super-resolution. *Neurocomputing*, 427:201–211, 2021. 3
- [33] L. Wang, Y. Wang, Z. Lin, J. Yang, W. An, and Y. Guo. Learning a single network for scale-arbitrary super-resolution. In *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pages 4781–4790, 2021. 3
- [34] X. Xu, Z. Wang, and H. Shi. Ultrasr: Spatial encoding is a missing key for implicit image function-based arbitrary-scale super-resolution. *CoRR*, abs/2103.12716, 2021. 3
- [35] Y.-T. Liu, Y.-C. Guo, and S.-H. Zhang. Enhancing multi-scale implicit learning in image super-resolution with integrated positional encoding. *CoRR*, abs/2112.05756, 2021. 3
- [36] J. Yang, S. Shen, H. Yue, and K. Li. Implicit transformer network for screen content image continuous super-resolution. In *Proc. Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, pages 13304–13315, 2021. 3
- [37] S. Shen, H. Yue, J. Yang, and K. Li. Itsrn++: Stronger and better implicit transformer network for continuous screen content image super-resolution. *ArXiv*, abs/2210.08812, 2022. 3
- [38] N. Rahaman, A. Baratin, D. Arpit, F. Draxler, M. Lin, F. A. Hamprecht, Y. Bengio, and A. Courville. On the spectral bias of neural networks. In *Proc. Int. Conf. on Machine Learning (ICML)*, pages 5301–5310, 2019. 3
- [39] V. Sitzmann, J. N. P. Martel Martel, A. W. Bergman, D. B. Lindell, and G. Wetzstein. Implicit neural representations with periodic activation functions. In *Proc. Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2020. 3
- [40] B. Mildenhall, P. P. Srinivasan, M. Tancik, J. T. Barron, R. Ramamoorthi, and R. Ng. Nerf: Representing scenes as neural radiance fields for view synthesis. In *Proc. European Conf. on Computer Vision (ECCV)*, 2020. 3
- [41] M. Tancik, P. P. Srinivasan, B. Mildenhall, S. Fridovich-Keil, N. Raghavan, U. Singhal, R. Ramamoorthi, J. T. Barron, and R. Ng. Fourier features let networks learn high frequency functions in low dimensional domains. In *Proc. Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2020. 3
- [42] E. Agustsson and R. Timofte. NTIRE 2017 challenge on single image super-resolution: Dataset and study. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshop (CVPRW)*, pages 1122–1131, 2017. 5, 7, 8
- [43] M. Bevilacqua, A. Roumy, C. Guillemot, and M.-L. Alberi Morel. Low-complexity single-image super-resolution based on nonnegative neighbor embedding. In *Proc. British Machine Vision Conf. (BMVC)*, pages 1–10, 2012. 5, 6
- [44] R. Zeyde, M. Elad, and M. Protter. On single image scale-up using sparse-representations. In *Curves and Surfaces*, volume 6920 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 711–730, 2010. 5, 6
- [45] D. Martin, C. Fowlkes, D. Tal, and J. Malik. A database of human segmented natural images and its application to evaluating segmentation algorithms and measuring ecological statistics. In *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pages 416–425, 2001. 5, 6
- [46] J.-B. Huang, A. Singh, and N. Ahuja. Single image super-resolution from transformed self-exemplars. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 5197–5206, 2015. 5, 6
- [47] R. Timofte, E. Agustsson, L. Van Gool, M.-H. Yang, and L. Zhang. NTIRE 2017 challenge on single image super-resolution: Methods and results. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshop (CVPRW)*, pages 1110–1121, 2017. 5
- [48] Y. Blau and T. Michaeli. The perception-distortion tradeoff. In *Proc. IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2018. 6