

**ABSTRACT:**

A variety of super-resolution algorithms have been described till today. Most of them are based on the same source of information however that the super-resolution image should generate the lower resolution input images when appropriately warped and down-sampled to model image formation. (This information is usually incorporated into super-resolution algorithms in the form of reconstruction constraints which are frequently combined with smoothness prior to regularize their solution.) In this paper, how much extra information is actually added by having more than one image for super-resolution is discussed. This paper also reviews single image super-resolution methods considering drawbacks associated with multi-frame/image super resolution methods. Keyword: Super-resolution, High-resolution, Multi-frame, Hallucination Algorithm, Polygon Based Interpolation. INTRODUCTION Super-resolution (SR) is an inverse process of producing a high-resolution (HR) image from a single or multiple low resolution (LR) inputs. Conventional reconstruction-based SR methods require alignment and registration of several LR images in sub-pixel accuracy [1, 2]; however, ill-conditioned registration and inappropriate blurring operator assumptions limit the scalability of this type of approach. While methods which introduce additional regularization alleviate the above problems [1, 2, 3], their performance will still be limited by the number of LR images/patches available.

As pointed out in [4, 5], the magnification factor is typically limited to be less than 2 for this type of approach. Single-image SR is more practical for real-world applications, since it only requires one LR input to determine its HR version. The nonlocal-means (NLM) is a representative single-image SR technique, which utilizes the reoccurrence (i.e. self-similarity) of image patches for synthesizing its HR version. Much attention has also been directed to example or learning-based single-image SR approaches (e.g., [6, 7]). For a LR input, example-based methods search for similar image patches from training LR image data, and use their corresponding HR versions to produce the final SR output. Learning-based approaches, on the other hand, focus on modeling the relationship between the images with different resolutions by observing priors of specific images [8, 9, 10, 11]. For example, Ma et al. [9] applied sparse coding techniques [12] and proposed to learn sparse image representation for SR; Yang et al. [11] further extended this idea by introducing group sparsity constraints when

learning sparse image representation for SR. Recently, Irani et al. [13] advanced an image pyramid structure which downsamples an input image into several lower-resolution versions, and they integrate both classical and example-based approaches for SR. This method overcomes the limitation of example/learning-based approaches which require the collection of training image data in advance. Although promising SR results were reported in [13], the assumption of image patch self-similarity within or across image scales might not be practical. Motivated by [13], Min-Chun Yang Chang-Heng Wang proposed a novel self-learning SR framework which does not require the reoccurrence of image patches, nor the collection of training LR/HR image data needed in advance. They applied the image pyramid in [13] and learn context-aware sparse representation for SR. The organization of this article is as follows. In Section II we study Super-Resolution as an inverse problem and address related regularization issues. In Section III we describe three recent trends in super-resolution. Finally, we conclude with a list of challenges to be addressed in future work on Super-Resolution. Journal of Engineering, Computing and

**II. SUPER-RESOLUTION AS AN INVERSE PROBLEM**

Super-resolution algorithms attempt to extract the high-resolution image corrupted by the limitations of the optical imaging system. This type of problem is an example of an inverse problem, wherein the source of information (high-resolution image) is estimated from the observed data (low-resolution image or images). Solving an inverse problem in general requires first constructing a forward model. By far, the most common forward model for the problem of Super-Resolution is linear in form:  $Y(t) = M(t)X(t) + V(t)$  where  $Y$  is the measured data (single or collection of images),  $M$  represents the imaging system,  $X$  is the unknown high-resolution image or images,  $V$  is the random noise inherent to any imaging system, and  $t$  represents the time of image acquisition. An inherent difficulty with inverse problems is the challenge of inverting the forward model without amplifying the effect of noise in the measured data. In the linear model, this results from the very high, possibly infinite, condition number for the model matrix  $M$ . Solving the inverse problem, as the name suggests, requires inverting the effects of the system matrix  $M$ . At best, this system matrix is ill conditioned, presenting the challenge of inverting the matrix in a numerically stable fashion (Golub and Loan, 1994. In many real scenarios,

the problem is worsened by the fact that the system matrix  $M$  is singular. For a singular model matrix  $M$ , there is an infinite space of solutions. Thus, for the problem of Super-Resolution, some form of regularization must be included in the cost function to stabilize the problem or constrain the space of solutions. Tikhonov regularization, is a widely employed form of regularization, where  $T$  is a matrix capturing some aspect of the image such as its general smoothness. This form of regularization has been motivated from an analytic standpoint to justify certain mathematical properties of the estimated solution. For instance, a minimal energy regularization easily leads to a provably unique and stable solution. Often, however, little attention is given to the effects of such simple regularization on the super-resolution results. For instance, the regularization often penalizes energy in the higher frequencies of the solution, opting for a smooth and hence blurry solution. From a statistical perspective, regularization is incorporated as a priori knowledge about the solution. Thus, using the maximum a-posteriori (MAP) estimator, a much richer class of regularization functions emerges, enabling us to capture the specifics of the particular application [e.g., Schultz and Stevenson (1996) captured the piecewise-constant property of natural images by modeling them as Huber-Markov random field data]. Unlike the traditional Tikhonov penalty terms, robust methods are capable of performing adaptive smoothing based on the local structure of the image. In recent years there has also been a growing number of learning-based MAP methods, where the regularization-like penalty terms are derived from collections of training samples (Atkins et al., 1999; Baker and Kanade, 2002; Haber and Tenorio, 2003; Zhu and Muford, 1997). For example, in Baker and Kanade (2003) an explicit relationship between low-resolution images of faces and their known high-resolution image is learned from a face database.

This learned information is later used in reconstructing face images from low-resolution images. Because of the need to gather a vast amount of examples, often these methods are effective when applied to very specific scenarios, such as faces or text. Needless to say, the choice of regularization plays a vital role in the performance of any Super-Resolution algorithm.

### RECENT TRENDS IN SUPERRESOLUTION

Various techniques used for super resolution in use are discussed in this section.

#### A. Hallucination Algorithm:

A variety of super-resolution algorithms have been described till the date. Most of these are based on the same source of information however; that the super-resolution image should generate the lower resolution input images when appropriately warped and down-sampled to model image formation. (This information is usually incorporated into super-resolution algorithms in the form of

reconstruction constraints which are frequently combined with Journal of Engineering, Computing and smoothness prior to regularize their solution.) There is need to find how much extra information is actually added by having more than one image for super-resolution. It is derived from a sequence of analytical results by Simon Baker and Takeo Kanade that the reconstruction constraints provide far less useful information as the decimation ratio increases they proposed a super-resolution algorithm which uses a completely different source of information, in addition to the reconstruction constraints. The algorithm recognizes local "features" in the low resolution images and then enhances their resolution in an appropriate manner, based on a collection of high and low-resolution training samples. Such an algorithm is a hallucination algorithm.

#### B. Polygon Based Interpolation

In [14] a polygon intersection scheme is presented as a linear interpolator. Formulating polygon intersection as a linear operator proves to be fundamental in its application to super-resolution reconstruction. A low-resolution output image can be expressed as  $b = Ax$  (2) The motivation for the polygon interpolation operator is as follows: A camera sensor is a grid of photo-sensitive cells (think of them as photon buckets, each representing a pixel). Due to micro-lenses, the gaps between the cells are negligible. During imaging, the sensor irradiance is integrated over each cell for the duration of exposure, after which the values are read out as a matrix. Now, imagine two sensors, one with large cells (low-resolution) and the other with small cells (high-resolution), rotated relative to one another. How are the cell values for the different sensors related? Stefan Johann van der.

Walt proposed solution to measure the overlap between the larger and smaller cells, The value of a (large) low-resolution cell is set to a weighted sum of all (small) high-resolution cells; the weights depend on their overlap. A linear interpolation operator that models the individual pixels of the camera sensor using polygons, a new model matrix is constructed at low cost; unlike other approaches, no parameters need to be specified. Using one of several least-squares techniques, the over-determined system is solved using regularization.

#### C. Context Aware Sparse Representation for Single Image Super Resolution:

Given an input low-resolution image and its image pyramid, Min-Chun Yang, Chang-Heng Wang, Ting-Yao Hu, and Yu-Chiang Frank Wang proposed to perform context constrained image segmentation and construct an image segment dataset with different context categories. By learning context-specific image sparse representation, their method aims to model the relationship between the interpolated image patches and their ground truth pixel values from different context categories via support vector regression (SVR). To synthesize the final SR output, we upsample the input

image by bicubic interpolation, followed by the refinement of each image patch using the SVR model learned from the associated context category. Unlike prior learning-based SR methods, their approach does not require the reoccurrence of similar image patches (within or across image scales), and they do not need to collect training low and high-resolution image data in advance either. Empirical results show that their proposed method is quantitatively and qualitatively more effective than existing interpolation or learning-based SR approaches. IV.

**SUMMARY AND FURTHER CHALLENGES** In Section III we presented only a few methods and insights for specific scenarios of single image super-resolution. Many questions still persist in developing a generic Super-Resolution algorithm capable of producing high-quality results on general image sequences. In this section, we outline a few areas of research in Super-Resolution that remain open. The types of questions to be addressed fall into mainly two categories. The first concerns analysis of the performance limits associated with Super-Resolution. The second is that of Super-Resolution system level design and understanding. A thorough study of Super-Resolution performance limits will have a great effect on the practical and theoretical activities of the image reconstruction community. In deriving such performance limits, one gains insight into the difficulties inherent to super resolution. One example of recent work addressing the limitations Journal of Engineering, Computing and Architecture of optical systems is given by Sharam and Milanfar (2004), where the objective is to study how far beyond the classical Rayleigh resolution limit one can reach at a given signal to noise ratio. Another recent study (Baker and Kanade, 2002), shows that, for a large enough resolution enhancement factor, any smoothness prior will result in reconstructions with very little high-frequency content. Lin and Shum (2004), for the case of translational motion, studied limits based on a numerical perturbation model of reconstruction-based algorithms. However, the question of an optimal resolution factor ( $r$ ) for an arbitrary set of images is still wide open. Also, the role of regularization has never been studied as part of the analysis is proposed.

Given that it is the regularization that enables the reconstruction in practice, any future contribution of worth on this matter must take it into effect. Systematic study of the performance limits of Super-Resolution would reveal the true information bottlenecks, hopefully motivating focused research to address these issues. Furthermore, analysis of this sort could possibly provide understanding of the fundamental limits to the Super-Resolution imaging, thereby helping practitioners to find the correct balance between expensive optical imaging system and image reconstruction algorithms.

Such analysis may also be phrased as general guidelines when developing practical super resolution systems. In building a practical Super-Resolution system, many important challenges lay ahead. For instance, in many of the optimization routines used in this and other articles, the task of tuning the necessary parameters is often left up to the user. Parameters such as regularization weighting can play an important role in the performance of the Super-Resolution algorithms. Although the cross validation method can be used to determine the parameter values for the nonrobust Super-Resolution method (Nguyen et al., 2001a), a computationally efficient way of implementing such method for the robust Super-Resolution case has not yet been addressed. Although some work has addressed the joint task of motion estimation and Super-Resolution (Hardie et al., 1997; Schultz et al., 1998; Tom and Katsaggelos, 2001), the problems related to this still remain largely open. Another open challenge is that of blind super-resolution wherein the unknown parameters of the imaging system's PSF must be estimated from the measured data. Many single-frame blind deconvolution algorithms have been suggested in the last 30 years (Kondur and Hatzinakos, 1996), and recently (Nguyen et al., 2001a) incorporated a single parameter blur identification algorithm in their Super-Resolution method, but there remains a need for more research to provide a Super-Resolution method along with a more general blur estimation algorithm from aliased images. Also, recently the challenge of simultaneous resolution enhancement in time as well as space has received growing attention (Robertson and Stevenson 2001; Shechtman et al., 2002). Finally, it is the case that the low-resolution images are often, if not always, available in compressed format. Although a few articles have addressed resolution enhancement of DCT-based compressed video sequences (Segall et al., 2001; Altunbasak et al., 2002), the more recent advent and utilization of wavelet-based compression methods requires novel adaptive Super-Resolution methods. Adding features such as robustness, memory and computation efficiency, color consideration, and automatic selection of parameters in super resolution methods will be the ultimate goal for the Super-Resolution researchers and practitioners in the future. V.

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