# Using MIRNet for Low Light Image Enhancement

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Abstract: This study explores the application of MIRNet (Multi-scale Image Restoration Network), a deep learning architecture designed for image enhancement. MIRNet uses convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to capture image details and textures at various scales, enabling effective restoration and enhancement of low-quality images. Experiments were conducted using the LoL and SICE datasets to validate and optimize MIRNet's performance. The results were compared with an existing image enhancement tool, demonstrating the superior effectiveness of MIRNet even with architectural modifications or training on different data sets. The research also explains MIRNet's architecture and its approach to processing and enhancing image content. This work highlights MIRNet's potential to advance image enhancement through deep learning techniques.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Deep learning has gained massive popularity due to the widespread access to large amounts of data and computing power. It shares many similarities to the human brain and can perform a wide range of tasks, including natural language processing, weather forecasting, etc. One such application is image analysis, or more specifically, object detection, image segmentation, or image classification. Image analysis has had a profound impact on the modern world, being used particularly often in medical diagnosis and automated driving. For example, image classification can be used on X-rays, CT scans, and MRI scans to identify the type of diseases in a patient. Object detection can be used to detect cars, traffic lights, and pedestrians during automated driving, allowing the AI to drive better and safer. The accuracy and efficiency of machine learning have been integral to the success of these practices.

Image analysis is a powerful tool to solve complex tasks. However, poor image quality such as noisy or unlit photos can lead to inaccurate results, rendering it useless in certain scenarios. This study aims to present a solution to this problem, MIRNet, as well as how it works, and optimizations to its performance. The first half of this paper will be dedicated to explaining the mechanics of deep learning and MIRNet, and the second half will be used to present the research's results.

## 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Overview of Deep Learning in Classification

The basis of deep learning is the neural network, whose structure resembles that of a biological brain in that it consists of neurons which can be activated or deactivated depending on the state of other neurons. Neural networks can be optimized to solve deep learning tasks efficiently and effortlessly.(LeCun et al., 2015)

A neural network typically consists of an input layer, an output layer, and one or more hidden layers, with each layer consisting of multiple neurons. Each neuron is essentially a node which stores a number.

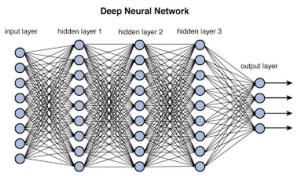


Figure 1: Example structure of a neural network (Source: (Parmar, 2018)).

The number of neurons in the input layer depends on the size of the input. For example, in the MNIST dataset, the input consists of 28 by 28 black and white images of handwritten digits ranging from zero



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through nine. In this case, the input layer would have $28 \times 28 = 784$ neurons. When an image is passed into the input layer, the value of each neuron is multiplied by some weight and added together along with a bias and passed through an activation function to get the value of one particular neuron in the first hidden layer. The weights and biases are different for each neuron in the first hidden layer. This process repeats for each hidden layer and finally passed into the output layer. The number of neurons in the output layer depends on the number of desired outputs. In the case of the MNIST dataset, we want a probability for each digit from zero through nine, thus the output layer would have 10 neurons. In order to determine the exact weights and biases to be used, we must train the neural network. Training typically involves feeding the neural networks lots of labeled inputs and having the neural network adjust its weights and biases accordingly. This process is known as backpropagation (LeCun et al., 2015).

The neural network described above is known as a "fully connected" neural network. It is typically used in classification tasks such as the one described using the MNIST data set. Another type of neural network commonly used in image analysis is the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN). CNNs consist of an input layer, convolutional layers, pooling layers, and an output channel. The input layer can be described as a $H \times W \times C$ tensor, where $W$ and $H$ represent the width and height of the image, and $C$ represents the number of channels. Gray-scaled images have one channel, while RGB images have three. When an image is passed into a CNN, it will likely go through a convolutional layer. In this layer, the image is treated with a smaller matrix called a kernel in a process known as a convolution. This layer produces an output with different dimensions and number of channels, and depending on the kernel, alters the image in one of many different ways, such as blurring, sharpening, highlighting edges, etc. CNNs may also contain pooling layers, where the size of the input tensor is reduced by taking the max or average of a window of numbers. Pooling layers can help the neural network conserve memory and improve efficiency (LeCun et al., 2015).

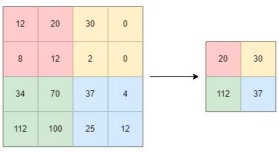


Figure 2: Max pooling (Image source: (Nanos, 2023)).

A CNN usually contains multiple convolutional and pooling layers. The output of the CNN can be fed into a fully connected layer for classification, and the results will be much more accurate than just a fully connected layer alone.

## 2.2 Related Studies and Projects

The original paper for MIRNet by S.W. Zamir et al. describes in depth how each part of MIRNet's architecture functions and can be found here:(Zamir et al., 2003)

Aaryan Agrawal et al. have a paper on using low light image enhancement models to improve object detection under poor lighting conditions. In the paper, they describe the results of three different low light enhancement models, namely, MIRNet, TCN, and MBLLEN, all of which use a convolutional network. The confidence values of each test are shown:(Agrawal et al., 2022)

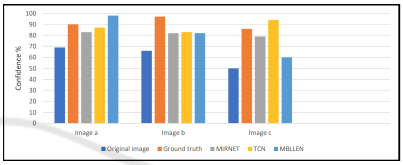


Figure 3: Research Results of Aaryan Agrawal et al.

# 3 METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Dataset Description

The two datasets used throughout this research are the Low Light (LoL) dataset and the Single Image Contrast Enhancement (SICE) dataset.

The LoL dataset consists of 500 image pairs, each of which contains a low-light input image and a normal-light reference image. All images in the dataset have a resolution of 400 by 600 and many contain noise produced during the photo capture process. Most of these images are taken indoors. For training and validation, random crops of 128 by 128 were generated before feeding them to the network. For all experiements, 300 images were used for training, 185 images for validation, and 15 images for testing.

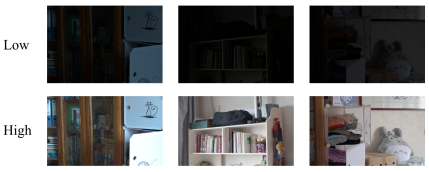


Figure 4: Example Images from LoL Dataset.

The SICE dataset contains 589 high-resolution se-

quences, with each sequence having multiple images each with different levels of exposure. The SICE dataset is split into two parts, the first part containing 360 image sequences, and the second part containing the rest. Due to limited resources, only the lowest level of exposure for each image of the first part of this dataset was used. The training process remains the same as the LoL dataset, with random crops of 128 by 128 generated before feeding the data to the network. Likewise, 300 images were used for training, 185 images for validation, and 15 images for testing.


Figure 5: Example images from SICE Dataset.

## 3.2 Model Selection and Architecture

MIRNet enhances images by utilizing a multi-scale approach to address different levels of details in an image (more on this later). MIRNet also employs a residual design to allow for a much deeper architecture(Zamir et al., 2003).

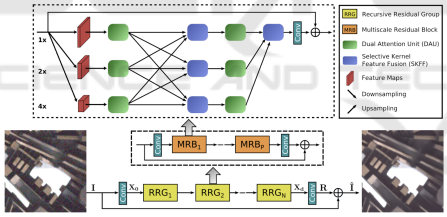


Figure 6: Overall Architecture of MIRNet.

When a colored image $I$ of dimensions $H \times W \times 3$ is passed into MIRNet, it first goes through a convolution layer to extract low level features. The output, $X_0$, a feature map of dimensions $H \times W \times C$ where $C$ is the number of channels, is then passed through $N$ recursive residual groups (RRGs) to obtain a deep feature map $X_d$ of dimensions $H \times W \times C$. Next, $X_d$ is passed through a convolutional layer to obtain a residual image $R$ of dimensions $H \times W \times C$. Finally, the residual image and the original image are concatenated via simple summation to obtain the output image $\hat{I}$. Within each RRG, the incoming feature map $X_i$ is passed through a convolutional layer followed by $P$ multi-scale residual blocks (MRBs) and then another convolutional layer to obtain a feature map, which is then concatenated with the original $X_i$ to obtain feature map $X_{i+1}$. (Zamir et al., 2003)

The MRB can mimic the visual cortex of humans by maintaining multiple fully convolutional parallel streams of different resolutions that exchange information to generate an output which is both spatially and contextually precise (see Figure 6 for detailed architecture). (Zamir et al., 2003)

As can be observed in Figure 6, in the beginning of the MRB and during information exchange, feature maps entering or exiting different streams must be downsampled or upsampled to be consistent with the resolution of each stream. The upsampling and downsampling module used in the MRB can be observed in Figure 7. In summary, in a downsampling module, an incoming feature map $M$ of dimensions $H \times W \times C$ goes through a series of layers and is concatenated with a skip connection to produce an output feature map of dimensions $\frac{H}{2} \times \frac{W}{2} \times 2C$. Similarly, an upsampling module takes in a feature map $M$ of dimensions $H \times W \times C$ and outputs a feature map of dimensions $2H \times 2W \times \frac{C}{2}$ (Zamir et al., 2003).

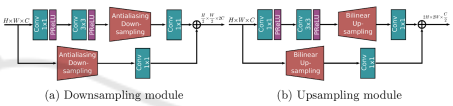


Figure 7: Detailed image of up/down sampling modules.

In order to share information across streams, the MRB uses a Dual Attention Unit (DAU). The DAU can filter irrelevant features, sharing only the useful information. The DAU consists of two parts: a Spatial Attention (SA) branch and a Channel Attention (CA) branch. In the end, the output of each branch is concatenated and passed on (Zamir et al., 2003).

The SA branch can determine the inter-spatial relationships in the incoming feature map $M$ and recalibrate features in $M$. It does this by applying a Global Average Pooling (GAP) layer and a Global Max Pooling (GMP) layer to $M$ and then concatenating the results to get a feature map $f$, with dimensions $H \times W \times 2$. Next, $f$ is passed through a convolution and a sigmoid activation function to get a spacial attention map $\hat{f}$. Finally, $M$ is rescaled using $\hat{f}$ and outputted from the SA branch (Zamir et al., 2003).

The goal of the CA branch is to determine the inter-channel relationships and recalibrate M accordingly. It uses a squeeze and excitation mechanism to determine which channels are more important, and which ones can be disregarded (a more detailed explanation can be found here: (Pröve, 2017)). It does this by passing the incoming feature map $M$ through a GAP layer and then two convolution layers followed by a sigmoid activation function to get channel activations $d$. $M$ is then rescaled using $d$ and outputted from the CA branch (Zamir et al., 2003).

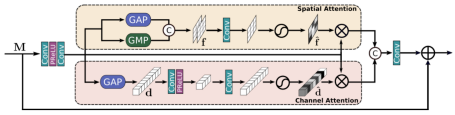


Figure 8: Detailed image of DAU block.

The last component of the MRB is the Selective Kernel Feature Fusion (SKFF), which is responsible for fusing features from multiple streams. It is able to mimic a human's visual cortex in that it can change its receptive field depending on the stimulus, by using feature aggregation and selection. The SKFF can be divided into two parts: Fuse and Select. In the Fuse section, the three incoming feature maps $L_1$, $L_2$, and $L_3$ are concatenated via element-wise summation to get the feature map $L = L1 + L2 + L3$. Next, $L$ is passed through a GAP layer to get channel wise statistics of dimensions $1 \times 1 \times C$, which is then passed through a convolution layer to get compact channel wise statistics $z$ of dimensions $1 \times 1 \times \frac{C}{8}$. Finally, $z$ is passed through three parallel convolution layers to get 3 channel descriptions $v_1$, $v_2$, and $v_3$ each of dimensions $1 \times 1 \times C$. In the Select section, $v_1$, $v_2$, and $v_3$ undergo a softmax activation to get attention activations $s_1$, $s_2$, and $s_3$. Lastly, the output feature map $U$ is given by $U = s_1L_1 + s_2L_2 + s_3L_3$ (Zamir et al., 2003).

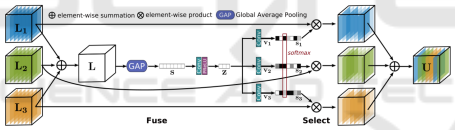


Figure 9: Detailed image of SKFF block.

## 3.3 Model Training Process

The model uses the Charbonnier Loss function and the Adam Optimizer during the training process. By default, the model runs with a batch size of four and starts at a learning rate of 1e-4. It uses three RRGs, with each RRG containing two MRBs, and the number of channels $C$ of $X_0$ is set to 64. In each experiment, only a few if not one hyper parameter were modified to test its impact on the model's performance.

# 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

## 4.1 Experimental Setup

All experiments were run on Google Colab, which runs on a Ubuntu OS and uses an Intel Xeon CPU with 2 vCPUs and 13 GB of RAM, and a NVIDIA Tesla K80 GPU with 12GB of VRAM.(Anonymous, 2023) The MIRNet code is written primarily using the TensorFlow framework. TensorFlow provides many useful features such as reading images and resizing tensors. In addition, it allows the use of the Keras API, which allows the user to easily build neural network architectures with their built-in layers, such as Convolution (Conv) 2d, Global Average Pooling 2d, Global Max Pooling 2d, etc. The code also uses the auto contrast feature from the PIL library as a baseline to compare low light enhancement results of MIRNet and this existing feature.

## 4.2 Performance Evaluation and Analysis

The model is evaluated quantitatively using two main methods: the loss function and the PSNR of the output image. For each experiment, the minimum validation loss and maximum validation PSNR at any point in the training process will be shared in this paper. In addition, this paper also contains the overall trend of the loss and PSNR during training, including both the test and validation datasets. Finally, it also includes two sample images from the LoL Dataset test set, which can be interpreted qualitatively by the reader.

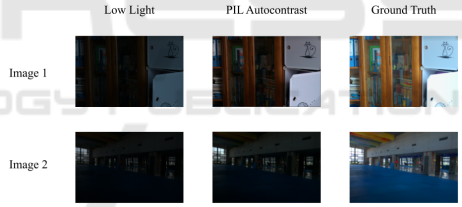


Figure 10: Two test images.

To start, here are the two images used throughout the paper. PSNR of the PIL autocontrasted version of each test image by comparing it with its corresponding ground-truth image. The average PSNR of all 15 PIL autocontrasted images is about 11.2416.

### 4.2.1 Experiment 1

The first experiment involves training the model with the default hyper parameters, which, unsurprisingly, yielded great results from the LoL dataset, as the model has already been optimized greatly for the LoL dataset. The minimum loss is 0.0983, and the maximum PSNR is 67.5981.

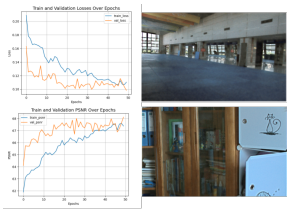

Figure 11: Experiment 1 Results.

#### 4.2.2 Experiment 2

To test whether the model has completely plateaued, the second experiment ran for 70 epochs. The results are almost identical, with a minimum loss of 0.1016, and a maximum PSNR of 67.8371, just marginally greater than the previous, indicating that the model has likely reached its full potential in just 50 epochs. Judging by how little has changed, the rest of my experiments on the LoL dataset were run on 50 epochs to save resources.

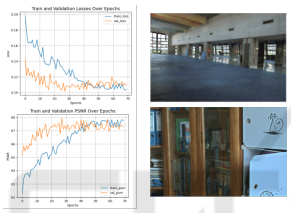

Figure 12: Experiment 2 Results.

#### 4.2.3 Experiment 3

Increasing the batch size from 4 to 8 caused the model to crash during training due to a lack of memory.

#### 4.2.4 Experiment 4

Increasing the random crop size from 128 by 128 to 256 by 256 caused the model to crash during training due to a lack of memory.

#### 4.2.5 Experiment 5

The Charbonnier loss function is really similar to the root mean square error function, except it adds a small constant to stabilize the training process. In this experiment, the root mean square function is used instead. The maximum PSNR for this experiment is 68.2198. Since the loss function is different compared to the other experiments, it is unsuitable to use it as a metric to evaluate the model's performance in this experiment compared to the other experiments.

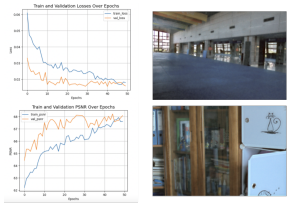

Figure 13: Experiment 5 Results.

#### 4.2.6 Experiment 6

An initial learning rate of 1e-3, yielded a minimum loss of 0.1269 and a maximum PSNR of 65.4208. However, these values are not representative of the overall training curve. When excluding the first two epochs, a minimum loss of 2678.81 and maximum PSNR of -20.8327 is the best the model can do.

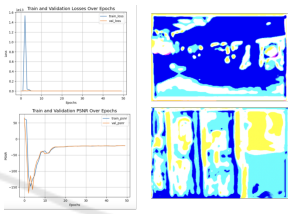

Figure 14: Experiment 6 Results.

#### 4.2.7 Experiment 7

An initial learning rate of 1e-5, yielded a minimum loss of 0.1049 and a maximum PSNR of 67.083.

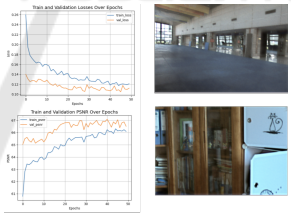

Figure 15: Experiment 7 Results.

#### 4.2.8 Experiment 8 - 11

For each of these experiments, a change was made to the model's architecture. Since all 4 experiments yielded similar results, the results are presented in a table. Figure 16 is what the best performing experiment looks like.

Table 1: Experiment 8 - 11 Results.

| Change | Minimum Loss | Maximum PSNR |
|---|---|---|
| 8. Increased the number of MRBs per RRG by 1. | 0.0965 | 68.3952 |
| 9. Changed the number of channels of X0 to 32. | 0.0977 | 68.1555 |
| 10. Changed the number of channels of X0 to 96. | 0.1009 | 67.8281 |
| 11. Added 1 parallel stream to the SKFF | 0.099 | 67.8437 |

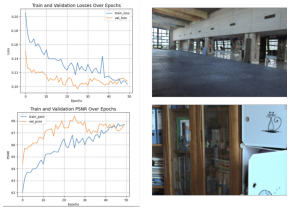

Figure 16: Experiment 8 Results.

#### 4.2.9 Experiment 12

Decreasing the number of RRGs and MRBs to 1 yielded a minimum loss of 0.1049 and maximum PSNR of 67.083.

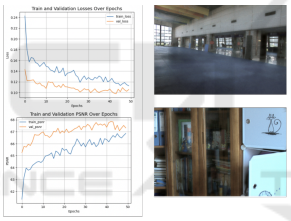

Figure 17: Experiment 12 Results.

#### 4.2.10 Experiment 13

Moving on to the SICE Dataset, this experiment ran for 70 epochs on the default values. The result of this run shows a minimum loss of 0.1217 and a maximum PSNR of 66.0102. Since the graph does not show an obvious sign of a plateau, all subsequent experiments were trained for 70 epochs.

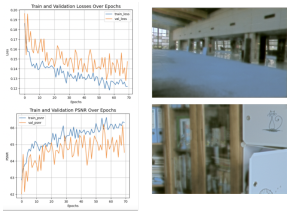

Figure 18: Experiment 13 Results.

#### 4.2.11 Experiment 14

An initial learning rate of 1e-5 yielded a minimum loss of 0.1244 and a maximum PSNR of 66.3333.

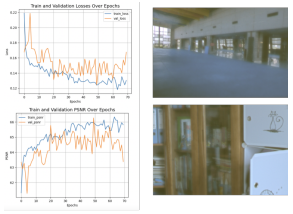

Figure 19: Experiment 14 Results.

#### 4.2.12 Experiment 15

Using root mean square loss, yielded a minimum loss of 0.1217 and a maximum PSNR of 66.0102.

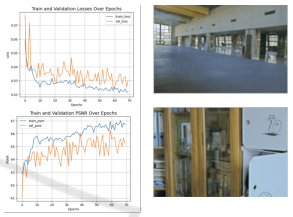

Figure 20: Experiment 15 Results.

#### 4.2.13 Experiment 16

4 RRGs with 3 MRBs per, yielded a minimum loss of 0.1217 and a maximum PSNR of 66.3105.

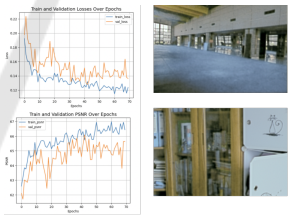

Figure 21: Experiment 16 Results.

#### 4.2.14 Experiment 17 - 19

The results of these three experiments are presented in a table, as they are very similar. Figure 22 shows the best performing run out of the three.

Table 2: Experiment 17 - 19 Results.

| Change | Minimum Loss | Maximum PSNR |
|---|---|---|
| 17. Decreased the number of RRGs to 2. | 0.1217 | 66.0889 |
| 18. Increased the number of RRGs to 4. | 0.1262 | 66.5826 |
| 19. Changed the number of channels of X0 to 32. | 0.1223 | 66.3105 |

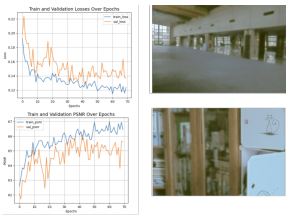

Figure 22: Experiment 18 Results.

### 4.3 Discussion of Findings

The experiments yielded four key observations. First, the loss and PSNR graphs for both training and validation were less stable for the SICE Dataset compared to the LoL Dataset. This instability is likely due to the higher resolution of images in the SICE Dataset, where a $128 \times 128$ crop may not be as representative of the entire image as it would be for a lower-resolution image. Second, the model's learning rate must be carefully balanced; a rate too high can cause overshooting, while a rate too low can result in the model getting stuck. Third, increasing the complexity of the network does not necessarily lead to better performance. This was unexpected, as it was initially assumed that a more complex network, with an increased number of weights, would yield superior results. Lastly, architectural changes that have minimal impact on the model's performance on the LoL Dataset can significantly affect its performance on the SICE Dataset, particularly changes in the total number of MRBs and channels.

Overall, the model performed well on both datasets. Achieving a PSNR value above 40, which is generally considered good, demonstrates the model's strong performance.

## 5 CONCLUSION

### 5.1 Summary of Findings

Based on the quantitative and qualitative data, several conclusions were drawn for both the LoL and SICE Datasets.

For the LoL Dataset, it was observed that training for more than 50 epochs does not improve performance, and doubling the batch size or increasing the random crop size makes the model too resource-intensive. Additionally, changing the loss function from root mean square error to mean square error does not enhance performance. The optimal initial learning rate was determined to be 1e-4. While increasing the number of MRBs slightly improved performance, other changes to the model's architecture did not yield significant benefits. However, decreasing the number of MRBs did worsen performance, though not as much as initially expected.

For the SICE Dataset, training for more epochs led to better performance, with the optimal initial learning rate also being 1e-4. Similar to the LoL Dataset, changing the loss function had no impact on performance. Increasing the number of MRBs provided a slight improvement, but other architectural changes tended to decrease performance.

### 5.2 Implications and Applications

Given MIRNet's strong performance on the SICE dataset, it has demonstrated versatility with numerous potential real-world applications.

In photography and videography, MIRNet offers a promising solution for improving image quality under poor lighting conditions or low exposure. In the domain of low light object detection, MIRNet could enhance accuracy in settings such as nighttime environments, which is crucial for automated driving and surveillance. The results from the paper "Improving the Accuracy of Object Detection in Low Light Conditions using Multiple Retinex Theory-based Image Enhancement Algorithms" by Aaryan Agrawal et al. suggest MIRNet as a viable option for this task.

In archaeology and geology, MIRNet can address the challenge of gathering prehistoric data in low light environments, such as underground caves or man-made tunnels, through low light image enhancement. Similarly, MIRNet can be employed in underwater exploration, where lighting conditions at great depths are often poor, resulting in low-quality images. By enhancing these images, MIRNet could enable scientists to explore previously unreachable areas of the ocean.

Lastly, in astrology, where celestial images may be noisy or low quality due to the challenges of capturing images from vast distances, MIRNet can provide higher quality images, aiding researchers in better understanding the universe.

Note that data from each of these were not experimented with in the research, but judging by the promising performance of the model on the SICE dataset, it is reasonable to conclude that this performance would not change given other low light datasets.

### 5.3 Limitations and Future Work

The findings and observations in this article are not exhaustive and much more remains to be explored. However, due to time constraints and limited compu-

tational resources, only a limited number of experiments were conducted for each parameter, which may not be sufficient to draw conclusions. Therefore, the conclusions in this paper should be viewed as a general guide for optimizing MIRNet's architecture.

Several aspects could not be tested due to resource and time limitations. These include exploring every combination of four or fewer RRGs, four or fewer MRBs, and two to four parallel streams; testing more intermediate values for parameters such as batch size, crop size, and number of channels; and experimenting with additional low-exposure datasets focused on specific tasks, such as underwater images, security footage, celestial objects, or human faces.

Despite these limitations, MIRNet's strong performance on alternative datasets suggests it could be a powerful tool in the future of AI technology, with significant potential for real-world applications.

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