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On the Difficulty of Unpaired Infrared-to-Visible Video Translation: Fine-Grained Content-Rich Patches Transfer

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Abstract

Explicit visible videos can provide sufficient visual information and facilitate vision applications. Unfortunately, the image sensors of visible cameras are sensitive to light conditions like darkness or overexposure. To make up for this, recently, infrared sensors capable of stable imaging have received increasing attention in autonomous driving and monitoring. However, most prosperous vision models are still trained on massive clear visible data, facing huge visual gaps when deploying to infrared imaging scenarios. In such cases, transferring the infrared video to a distinct visible one with fine-grained semantic patterns is a worthwhile endeavor. Previous works improve the outputs by equally optimizing each patch on the translated visible results, which is unfair for enhancing the details on content-rich patches due to the long-tail effect of pixel distribution. Here we propose a novel **CPTrans** framework to tackle the challenge via balancing gradients of different patches, achieving the fine-grained Content-rich Patches **Trans**ferring. Specifically, the content-aware optimization module encourages model optimization along gradients of target patches, ensuring the improvement of visual details. Additionally, the content-aware temporal normalization module enforces the generator to be robust to the motions of target patches. Moreover, we extend the existing dataset InfraredCity to more challenging adverse weather conditions (rain and snow), dubbed as InfraredCity-Adverse¹. Extensive experiments show that the proposed CPTrans achieves state-of-the-art performance under diverse scenes while requiring less training time than competitive methods.

1. Introduction

Visible light cameras have broad applicability in computer vision algorithms for the sufficient visual informa-



Figure 1. (a) Visualization of pixel category distribution on dataset IRVI [25] and semantic examples in random selected frames. We conduct semantic segmentation via a pre-trained SegFormer [47] on all visible video frames of IRVI and predict all pixels according to the predefined categories in ADE20K [52]. (b) Outputs and GradCAM++ results of different methods. ROMA pays equal attention on the whole output, and the long-tail effect of training data leads to the generation optimization along prejudiced gradients caused by the large proportion of pixels (e.g., sky and road). We can generate more vivid details for content-rich patches (e.g., cars and road signs) than other methods.

tion (e.g., structure, texture, and color) of their captured results. Most state-of-the-art vision algorithms have been observed to show admirable performance under clear visibility conditions [10, 16, 50]. Unfortunately, in most cases, the real-world weather is unpredictable and diverse, leading to complex and variable light conditions like overexposure on snowing days. While image sensors of visible cameras are sensitive to light conditions, their imaging results are ambiguous in adverse weather. Under such circumstances, people take infrared sensors to make up for the deficiencies of visible cameras. These infrared sensors can capture stable structural information in diverse environments due to the thermal imaging principle. In emergency avoidance or hazard detection, they could be applied in autonomous driving and monitoring scenarios [28, 30]. However, most computer vision models are trained under visible data. Although infrared videos outline surrounding objects all the time, the existing huge gaps and semantic lacking problems hinder

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¹The code and dataset are available at https://github.com/BIT-DA/I2V-Processing

the applications in infrared imaging scenarios. Therefore, it is worth translating stable and accessible infrared videos into clear visible ones. The translated visible results may provide visual information for supporting visual applications like object detection and semantic segmentation.

To tackle the unpaired infrared-to-visible translation challenge, previous methods [12, 13, 33, 37] mainly focus on learning color mapping functions with complex manual coloring. The high costs and inevitable human bias limit the application of such approaches. Inspired by GANs [11], unpaired image translation methods have emerged. For instance, cycle-based methods [17,21,22,48] preserve content during the translation via the cycle consistency [19]. Furthermore, one-sided methods [20, 31, 51] maintain the content through hand-designed feature-level restraints. However, substantial visual gaps between infrared and visible data lead to difficulties in generating fine-grained visible results. Additionally, continuous infrared video signals are more challenging to transfer because of the need to ensure temporal consistency. Thus, taking long-term information into account, [3, 7, 25] propose their temporal consistency losses to refine frameworks based on unpaired image translation methods. Besides, I2V-GAN [25] and ROMA [49] are tailored approaches for unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation. Especially, ROMA has achieved state-of-art performance, illustrating the importance of retaining structural information and proposing cross-similarity consistency for structure. Despite its success, experiments indicate that crosssimilarity still faces challenges in accurately transferring fine-grained (i.e., realistic and delicate) details, especially for the content-rich patches.

In fact, most GAN-based methods utilize the PatchGAN discriminator [19] for style optimization. Similar to the classification task, the discriminator outputs $w \times h$ predictions (True or False) for corresponding patches. To analyze the optimizing behavior of discriminators in the training process, we visualize the gradients via GradCAM++ [6] and pixel category distribution as shown in Fig. 1. Grad-CAM++ utilizes the gradients of the classification score to identify the parts of interest. The left part (a) shows that a few majority categories occupy most of the pixels while most minority categories contain a limited number of pixels. Additionally, content-rich patches (including rich visual details like patches of cars) are mostly the minority categories, while those content-lacking patches (including lacking visual details like patches of the sky) are mostly the majority. Upon exposure to new data, gradient-based optimization methods, without any constraint, change the learned encoding to minimize the objective function with global respect [36]. Thus, equal optimization for each patch (GradCAM++ of ROMA on Fig. 1 (b)) faces prejudiced gradients to content-lacking patches (i.e., major pixels) when

applied to the generation. Moreover, it will lead to the inability of discriminators to improve the qualities of contentrich patches. An approach is needed to break the prejudice on optimization caused by the usually exhibiting long-tail distribution in real-world training data [24,45,54].

In this paper, we start with the analysis of difficulty for fine-grained Content-rich Patches Transfer on unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation and propose the CP-Trans framework To improve the results of content-rich patches, we introduce two novel modules: Content-aware Optimization (CO), balancing the gradients of patches for improving generated content-rich patches, and Contentaware Temporal Normalization (CTN), which enforces the generator to be robust to the motion of content. Besides, we extend the InfraredCity dataset to adverse weather conditions (i.e., raining and snowing scenes), noted as InfraredCity-Adverse, for promoting infrared-related research. Our extensive evaluations of diverse datasets show that our approach improves upon the previous ROMA method, setting new state-of-the-art performances on unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation. Remarkably, further applications validate our task's value and confirm our approach's admirable performance. Contributions are:

- We focus on the difficulty of fine-grained unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation and point out the existing problem that models are optimized along prejudiced gradients due to the long-tail effect.
- We propose a novel *CPTrans* framework consisting of content-aware optimization and temporal normalization, which benefits the generation of content-rich patches.
- We extend the InfraredCity to more challenging adverse weather conditions (rain and snow), noted as *InfraredCity-Adverse* for infrared-related study and validate the remarkable success of CPTrans through sufficient experiments (including further applications, i.e., object detection, video fusion, and semantic segmentation).

2. Related Work

2.1. Image and Video Translation

Image-to-Image translation intends to render an image with another style guided by reference images while maintaining the content information. [32, 44] explore the possibility of deep models on this task with manual labels. Then, to enhance the applicability, CycleGAN [19] proposes a cycle consistency module, which removes labeled data but requires another pair of generators and discriminators for reverse mapping. This simple yet effective module has incubated many translation approaches [17, 21, 22, 48]. In contrast, CUT [31] adopts contrastive loss to maintain the content, eliminating the extra computational resources. Following approaches [1, 4, 18, 20, 51] explore the superiority of



Figure 2. An illustration of *CPTrans* framework. The translation is performed firstly to obtain the output frame via the generator G. We utilize the discriminator D to predict the output and obtain the gradients of binary classification score for each patch with respect to the model parameters. Then, according to the gradients, we design the weight map to encourage generation optimization along gradients of content-rich patches. Additionally, we access the content-aware optical flows via weight maps. Such pixel-level guidance on content-rich patches the generator to be robust for continuity signals.

one-sided frameworks, designing diverse content/structure consistency losses with respect to feature.

By taking a further step based on image-to-image translation, video-to-video translation methods can generate continuous results by considering temporal coherence. [42, 43] firstly explore this task and incorporate long-term information into video translation. These supervised translation methods achieve exceptional results while still requiring expensive video labeling costs. To address unpaired video translation, based on CycleGAN, [3, 7, 40] utilize auxiliary systems (i.e., prediction model, flownet, and random flow) to obtain estimating motion for temporal consistency. However, most of the auxiliary systems fail to accurately estimate the motion of the content under infrared scenes.

2.2. Unpaired Infrared-to-Visible Translation

Generally, infrared sensors can stably work in scenarios where visible cameras are unavailable, e.g., darkness or overexposure, while gray-style representations disappoint human beings and vision applications. In such a case, unpaired infrared-to-visible translation is proposed to obtain detailed visible data via stable infrared data. Previous works [15, 26, 33, 38, 39] simply attempt this translation via learning color mapping functions.

Recently proposed I2V-GAN [25] and ROMA [49] point out the importance of structural information covered under gray appearance. Especially, ROMA has attained state-ofart performance with its cross-similarity, which shows excellent potential for preserving structural consistency. However, experimental results discover the visual details are chaotic in complex scenes like numerous cars appearing concurrently. In contrast, we analyze the observation and raise two content-aware operations for improving the generation of content-rich patches with sufficient details.

3. Proposed Method

In this paper, we devise *CPTrans* framework, depicted in Fig. 2, to achieve fine-grained content-rich patch transferring. We begin with a description of notation and problem formulation. Then we indicate the problem that models are optimized along prejudiced gradients, which is caused by the long-tail effect. To tackle the problem, we introduce two novel modules, *Content-aware Optimization* (CO) and *Content-aware Temporal Normalization* (CTN).

3.1. Problem Formulation

Unpaired Infrared-to-Visible Video Translation. Given infrared video frames collection $\mathcal{X} = \{x\}$ (noted as source domain) from diverse conditions and visible video frames collection $\mathcal{Y} = \{y\}$ (noted as target domain), we intend to render the input videos under the guidance of distinct daytime visible videos, i.e., $\tilde{y} = G(x)$. Here Gis the generator for obtaining visible results $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}} = \{\tilde{y}\}$. In particular, the structure of the output \tilde{y} is enforced to be consistent with corresponding input x while the style is required to be similar to that of visible collection \mathcal{Y} in the unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation.

Structural Consistency Loss. We briefly introduce the main ideas for structural consistency, which shows promising results in style transfer [31,49,51].

In particular, CUT [31] proposes contrastive loss for the maintenance of the structure during training. It encourages



Figure 3. Visualization for the influence of our Content-aware Optimization for gradients. We select the most deviated η_{ratio} patches to display based on the cosine similarity to the final gradient. (a) confirms that *content-rich patches receive less attention* in the optimization process; (b) proves the CO module's ability to encourage the *optimization along gradients of content-rich patches* that are no longer the most deviated part of the optimization.

the mapping of two pair elements to a similar point in a learned feature space, relative to other elements. However, the features conflate structure and appearance attributes, and the different style information in features will hinder the effectiveness of contrastive functions. To reduce the impact of style, F/LSeSim [51] proposes to retain the patterns of self-similarity from the feature aspect in both source and translated results. The proposed self-similarity maps help but continue to be influenced by domain-specific style. Taking a step further, ROMA [49] introduces the crosssimilarity maps to represent the domain-invariant structural information. It accesses the token embeddings $T_s, T_t \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times N \times C}$ from input and output via a pre-trained ViT [8]. L, N, C represent the number of selected layers, patches, and channels, respectively. The loss is formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{cs} = dis(\boldsymbol{T}_s \cdot \boldsymbol{T}_t^{\top}, \boldsymbol{T}_t \cdot \boldsymbol{T}_s^{\top}), \qquad (1)$$

where $dis(\cdot)$ is a function calculating cosine distance. By minimizing the cross-similarity loss, the translation is enforced to be structurally consistent. More details can be found in [49]. Although these relevant methods show remarkable success in maintaining structure knowledge, experimental results show the generated visual details are blurred in complex scenes with many objects. We denote these regions with sufficient visual details as *content-rich patches* for enhancement.

3.2. Content-Aware Optimization

In the training process of GANs [11], the visual quality of outputs from the generator is mainly directed by the discriminator via the minimax game, formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{adv} = \mathbb{E}_{y}[\log D(y)] + \mathbb{E}_{x}[\log(1 - D(G(x)))], \qquad (2)$$

where G intends to generate the results $\{G(x)\}$ that look similar to data from target domain \mathcal{Y} , while D tries to distinguish between translated samples $\{G(x)\}$ and real samples {y}. Thus, the ability of the discriminator greatly influences the visual quality of generated results {G(x)}. Most GANbased methods apply the PatchGAN discriminator [19] for style optimization, and it will output N prediction scores ${p_i}_{i=1}^N$ and ${\tilde{p}_j}_{j=1}^N$ from visible video frame y and generated frame G(x), respectively. The $\mathcal{L}_{adv}^{patch}$ and its gradients to model parameter θ_D are formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{adv}^{patch} = \mathbb{E}_{y} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p_{i} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \log(1 - \tilde{p}_{j}) \right],$$
(3)

 $\nabla_{\theta_D} \mathcal{L}_{adv}^{patch}$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{y} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_{\theta_{D}} \log p_{i} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \nabla_{\theta_{D}} \log(1 - \tilde{p}_{j}) \right],$$
(4)

where $N = w \times h$ and w, h represent the size of Patch-GAN's output. Such approach brings global improvement but is unfair for content-rich patches. Since gradients from different content patches tend to vary [2, 34], plus real-world training data usually exhibits long-tailed distribution [24, 45, 54], the optimization can be prejudiced against content-rich patches (i.e., minority pixels). Thus we propose to locate these content-rich patches and perform enhancement on their generation.

The optimization of the model is more favorable to the content-lacking regions and diverges from the optimization of the content-rich regions, so we locate the regions with the most deviated gradient directions as the content-rich ones for enhancement. Taking $\nabla_{\theta_D} \log p_i$ as an example, we can obtain the collection of content-rich patches on y, denoted as $\mathcal{U}_r = \{u\}$, according to the cosine similarity:

$$\delta_i = \cos\left(\nabla_{\theta_D} \log p_i, \nabla_{\theta_D} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \log p_j\right), \quad (5)$$

where $\nabla_{\theta_D} \log p_i$, $\nabla_{\theta_D} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \log p_j$ are obtained by taking the derivative of $\log p_i$, $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \log p_j$ with respect to θ_D , respectively. We identify the most deviated η_{ratio} patches as content-rich areas via the cosine similarity δ . We display the selected content-rich patches \mathcal{U}_r in Fig. 3 (a), with different η_{ratio} . Then, to enhance the optimization of content-rich patches, we design a weight map to amplify their gradients:

$$w_i = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda_{inc}}{\exp(|\delta_i|)}, & u_i \in \mathcal{U}_r, \\ 1.0, & otherwise, \end{cases}$$
(6)

where λ_{inc} is a hyperparameter controlling the increment of attention to content-rich patches. Similarly, we can obtain the weight map \tilde{w} for $\nabla_{\theta} \log(1 - \tilde{p}_j)$. We apply our weight maps w and \tilde{w} to gradients of θ (either θ_G or θ_D) and get: $w_i \nabla_{\theta} \log p_i = \nabla_{\theta} w_i \log p_i$ and $\tilde{w}_i \nabla_{\theta} \log(1 - \tilde{p}_j) = \nabla_{\theta} \tilde{w}_i \log(1 - \tilde{p}_j)$. Therefore, the enhancement can be achieved through a modification to $\mathcal{L}_{adv}^{patch}$ as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{co-adv}^{patch} = \mathbb{E}_{y} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} \log p_{i} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \tilde{w}_{j} \log(1 - \tilde{p}_{j}) \right].$$
(7)

Thus, based on PatchGAN, we utilize the weight maps to enlarge the gradients of content-rich patches via directly augmenting the optimization objective and get the $\mathcal{L}_{co-adv}^{patch}$ for the content-aware optimization. As shown in Fig 3 (b), since we adjust the overall gradients in favor of content-rich patches, our content-aware optimization module could encourage the model to pay more attention to content-rich patches during training.

3.3. Content-Aware Temporal Normalization

Additionally, temporal coherence is required for videorelated translation methods. Previous works for temporal normalization are mostly based on motion or optical flow estimation between adjacent frames [3, 7], formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_t = \|G(x_t) - T(G(x_{t-1}))\|_2, \tag{8}$$

where $T(\cdot)$ is an auxiliary system like a prediction model and flownet. However, most auxiliary systems $T(\cdot)$ cannot bring pixel-level precise guidance to the infrared-to-visible video translation task. [9,41] suggest normalizing the generator via fake flows. They randomly warp arbitrary areas on the frame but add an additional motion gap with realworld scenes. To address this issue, we propose a novel content-aware temporal normalization for pixel-level temporal consistency. Instead of directly obtaining a random fake flow, we first locate the content-rich patches as introduced in § 3.2. Generally, the content-rich patches (e.g., cars) tend to be more mobile than the content-lacking ones (e.g., sky). Thus, the optical flow utilized for temporal normalization should take this fact into consideration. We apply the weight map \tilde{w} to generate the content-aware optical flow, which is described as:

$$F_{content} = Smooth(Normalize(\tilde{w}) \cdot \gamma_{stride} \cdot z), \quad (9)$$

where $z \in \mathbb{R}^{W \times H \times 2}$ is a noise from the standard Gaussian distribution $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ and γ_{stride} is the hyperparameter for controlling the size of the overall motion. $Smooth(\cdot)$ is an image smoothing operation utilized to maintain the structure of objects. We normalize the \tilde{w} to reduce the offset of the content-lacking patches. In Fig. 2, our $F_{content}$ is more relevant to real-world scenarios. We formulate the content-aware temporal normalization as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ctn} = \mathbb{E}_x \| W(G(x), F_{content}) - G(W(x, F_{content})) \|_2,$$
(10)

where $W(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the warping function. This temporal constraint ensures the pixel-level consistency between synthetic frame and the warped version, especially for content-rich patches, which enforces the generator to be robust to the motions of content-rich patches.

3.4. Full Objective

We train the networks θ_G and θ_D by optimizing the following objective:

$$\min_{\theta_G} \max_{\theta_D} \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{co-adv}^{patch} + \lambda_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_{cs} + \lambda_2 \cdot \mathcal{L}_{ctn}.$$
 (11)

where λ_1 and λ_2 are tradeoff parameters that control the impact of \mathcal{L}_{cs} and \mathcal{L}_{ctn} , respectively. Additionally, our CO module optimizes the models through $\mathcal{L}_{co-adv}^{patch}$. The algorithm *CPTrans* can be found in the *Supplementary Material*.

4. Experiments

4.1. Settings

Datasets. InfraredCity-Lite [49] is released for nighttime infrared to daytime visible video translation, containing around 40K video frames. Besides, the IRVI [25] dataset contains around 20K infrared and visible video frames. All videos of IRVI are captured during the day, including traffic and monitoring scenes.

We extend the InfraredCity dataset to adverse scenes (i.e., rain and snow), dubbed as *InfraredCity-Adverse*, which can evaluate the performance of different methods under adverse weather scenes. Compared with other datasets, there is noise in the infrared data (e.g., raindrops), which is more challenging to generate fine-grained visual details. We detail it in the *Supplementary Material*.

Baselines. We choose the eight related translation methods, including CycleGAN [19], CUT [31], F/LSeSim [51], Recycle-GAN [3], Mocycle-GAN [7], UnsupRecycle [40], I2V-GAN [25] and ROMA [49]. Baseline models are officially released and trained with the official implementation. We show more details in *Supplementary Material*.

Implementation Details. Our CPTrans consists of a generator and a discriminator. For a fair comparison, we adopt the *resnet_9blocks* as the backbone of the generator following [19] and apply the setting for all competitive methods. We utilize the PatchGAN discriminator following [49] while removing its multiscale operation. Besides, the η_{ratio} for content-rich patches selection is set as 40%. λ_1 and λ_2 in Eq. (11) are 6.0 and 10.0, respectively. We train our method for 100 epochs with the learning oo rate of 2×10^{-6} , using the batch size of 1. More details can be obtained in *Supplementary Material* and released codes.

Evaluation Metrics. Features can effectively represent the visual information for the input, especially for contentrich patches. *Fréchet Inception Distance* (FID) [14] is the



Figure 4. Qualitative comparisons with different methods on diverse scenes, including clearday, overcast, rain, and snow, respectively, from top to bottom. Our outputs show cleaner and sufficient visual information compared with other results, especially on the adverse scenes. Additionally, our CPTrans dramatically improves the quality of content-rich patches. Best view when zoom in.



Figure 5. Quality comparisons for continuous video frames from different methods. In the complex scene, we achieve the superior performance in terms of continuity and correctness. We highlight key error-prone regions via red bounding boxes.

most common feature-wise metric, measuring the difference in mean and slope variance. Following [29], we additionally access the *Kernel Inception Distance* (KID) [5] score, which utilizes the *maximum mean discrepancy* (MMD) to appraise the difference between feature representations of real and generated images. Additionally, KID has an unbiased estimator, which makes it more reliable. While KID is not bounded, the lower its value, the more shared visual similarities there are between real and generated images. For a more detailed comparison, we set the hyperparameter *degree* in MMD to 21 to enhance the ability of the polynomial kernel.

To evaluate the generated results comprehensively, we employ the *YOLO score* described in [49] in this work. Specifically, we perform the object detection task with a

pre-trained YOLOv3 [35] model on the visible results of different methods on a specific scene. The scene is a subset with manual labels from InfraredCity-Lite, containing 4320 video frames. The setting of the YOLOv3 model remains unchanged for fairness. Thus, the calculated YOLO scores represent the quality of generated vehicles from different methods. Higher is better.

4.2. Main Results

Comparison with Baseline Methods. Tab. 1 and Tab. 2 report the FID and KID results on IRVI, InfraredCity-Lite, and InfraredCity-Adverse, which are progressively more difficult in fine-grained unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation. We achieve the state-of-the-art performance of FID and KID on all datasets. Especially, CPTrans indicates remarkable improvement compared with ROMA on the InfraredCity-Adverse dataset, demonstrating that our method can still provide sufficient visual information when existing huge domian gaps and noise (e.g., raindrops).

Ablation Study. We quantitatively evaluate the improvement introduced by different components of CPTrans. Results in Tab. 1 and Tab. 2 confirm the advancement of both modules. The baseline in the tables shows the result of our method when both the CO and CTN modules are removed. CO module is designed to increase the attention on content-rich patches. We can observe a noticeable drop in performance without CO, especially for the adverse scenes. Additionally, applying the CTN module improves the results in all cases, strengthening the framework in temporal respect. In summary, we can observe the effectiveness of both components in our model. The best performance is achieved with a combination of both CO and CTN.

Quality Comparison. We display the qualitative comparisons in Fig. 4. Our CPTrans achieves the best visual quality compared with others. Notably, our visual information on outputs maintains clear and correct in diverse

	Traffic																
Method	City					Highway						911		Monitoring			
Wieniou	cle	ear	over	cast	al	1	cl	ear	over	cast	a	11		an			
	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	
CUT [31]	0.5809	5.9174	0.5607	5.2185	0.6086	7.6174	0.4544	4.4742	0.5133	5.6331	0.4739	6.2903	0.4089	1.8202	0.9785	1.9126	
CycleGAN [19]	0.6299	6.1114	0.5879	5.9409	0.7125	6.3001	0.4787	4.6475	0.5489	5.4571	0.4920	4.6128	0.4204	2.0781	0.8129	0.8728	
F/LSeSim [51]	0.4984	3.9748	0.5369	6.1659	0.4834	4.3672	0.5108	5.9615	0.5288	5.2294	0.4809	4.9801	0.2724	1.9895	0.8984	0.8283	
Recycle-GAN [3]	0.5942	5.3031	0.5974	6.2001	0.5969	5.3129	0.5173	6.1773	0.5998	8.2207	0.5101	5.2925	0.3431	3.0240	0.9433	0.9928	
Mocycle-GAN [7]	0.5117	4.5128	0.5346	5.2772	0.5011	4.0732	0.5029	5.5982	0.5976	7.4907	0.4791	6.1446	0.3163	3.1973	0.7298	1.4637	
UnsupRecycle [40]	0.7519	5.7289	0.9816	7.5554	0.8050	5.7288	0.4907	6.3411	0.5328	6.1268	0.4307	5.9160	0.3206	2.9047	0.8142	0.9785	
I2V-GAN [25]	0.5052	4.2976	0.5574	5.9438	0.4649	4.1209	0.5064	5.9077	0.5105	6.3017	0.4515	4.7805	0.2872	2.4127	0.7039	1.8313	
ROMA [49]	0.4018	3.8081	0.5149	5.7762	0.3929	3.3665	0.3325	3.9694	0.3823	4.9334	0.3444	4.3441	0.2002	0.6787	0.5488	0.7058	
baseline	0.4332	4.0315	0.5258	5.8336	0.4038	3.5282	0.3474	4.3295	0.4245	5.3277	0.3916	4.5129	0.2324	1.0197	0.5731	0.8114	
Ours w/o co	0.3890	3.2683	0.4762	5.0883	0.3891	3.3113	0.3453	3.3077	0.3712	4.3453	0.3389	3.7821	0.1835	0.4210	0.5303	0.6828	
Ours w/o CTN	0.3824	3.3423	0.4779	4.9855	0.3867	3.5157	0.3267	3.3171	0.3642	3.9793	0.3343	3.8776	0.1816	0.2665	0.4949	0.6308	
Ours	0.3728	2.7573	0.4393	4.4034	0.3632	3.1693	0.3208	2.9591	0.3475	3.0938	0.3234	3.4399	0.1738	0.1826	0.4742	0.4570	

Table 1. Comparison on InfraredCity-Lite. Our method achieve state-of-the-art scores with respect to both FID and KID on all scenes.

		IF	RVI		InfraredCity-Adverse					
Method	Tra	ffic	Monit	toring	Ra	un	Snow			
	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓	FID↓	KID↓		
CUT [31]	0.5739	5.7356	1.0893	6.2651	0.5236	5.9084	0.5244	7.8449		
CycleGAN [19]	0.6714	6.8587	0.8792	6.9381	0.5723	6.1525	0.5557	6.8426		
F/LSeSim [51]	0.4321	5.3427	0.9232	5.0691	0.5775	6.0347	0.5926	6.4179		
Recycle-GAN [3]	0.5255	4.9063	1.0609	5.0650	0.6133	5.8008	0.5730	5.9962		
Mocycle-GAN [7]	0.7911	7.1380	1.0515	6.8002	0.8872	8.1459	0.6650	6.5410		
UnsupRecycle [40]	0.6831	6.2315	0.9821	6.5123	0.7041	8.1372	0.5822	5.8795		
I2V-GAN [25]	0.4425	4.5102	0.8715	4.6178	0.5917	5.6455	0.5693	5.5491		
ROMA [49]	0.3467	3.0880	0.7334	3.3972	0.5577	2.5185	0.5393	4.9271		
baseline	0.3652	3.6835	0.7689	3.5101	0.5751	2.9861	0.5520	5.1179		
Ours w/o co	0.3193	2.7356	0.7250	2.8762	0.5056	1.9855	0.5174	3.6446		
Ours w/o CTN	0.3211	2.5720	0.7131	2.5886	0.4981	2.3112	0.4962	4.6301		
Ours	0.2936	1.9178	0.7004	2.3760	0.4760	1.7907	0.4952	2.6382		

Table 2. Comparison on IRVI and InfraredCity-Adverse.

Scenes	Nighttime Infrared	Nighttime Visible	I2V-GAN	ROMA	CPTrans (Ours)		
AP	25.0	26.1	32.2	50.1	58.1		

Table 3. Comparison of YOLO score for vehicle detection. CPTrans shows the best fine-grained performance of generation in supporting detection.

scenes. Other methods preserve the structural information well in clearday and overcast scenes, but semantic errors exist in some objects like trucks and road signs. Moreover, all related methods generate vehicles with seriously wrong semantics in the raining scene, except our CPTrans. Also, our method stands out from the rest in snowy scenes where snow noise is present, generating correct visual information.

Additionally, Fig. 5 further confirms our translated results' semantic correctness and continuity. Our details of content-rich patches like buildings and cars outperform all of the rest methods. Notably, the coherent lane lines in our results prove the validity of the CTN module. We display more video comparisons in the *Supplementary Material*.

Time Efficiency. The time efficiency metric is essential for choosing from different approaches when running for research and even for practical industrial applications. As shown in Fig. 6, our approach has the fastest optimization while achieving the best results. For each method, we se-



Figure 6. Line chart of KID scores on training process from different methods. We apply 100 epochs for all approaches and provide the same dataset setting for fairness. Our CP-Trans achieves the best scores on any time node and is about five times faster than ROMA (detailed in the red box).

lected six epoch time nodes, which are 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, and 100, respectively. Specifically, our method is about 5 *times faster* than ROMA. What makes CPTrans so remarkable is that we are not adding complex operations for improvement but breaking the prejudice on optimization during training. Meanwhile, our method in the figure performs better than other methods at every moment, proving that performing content-aware operations (CO and CTN) at each stage of training is beneficial for the optimization.

4.3. Further Applications

Object Detection. Object detection has long been a vision task of interest. Its significant value drives the application in various scenarios (e.g., autonomous driving, monitoring). Most appliable detection models are trained on visible light data. However, image sensors of the visible camera are sensitive to light conditions like darkness and overexposure. Thus, obtaining precise visible data via sta-



Figure 7. Comparisons of vehicle detection results. We perform the pre-trained YOLOv3 model on different results with the same setting. The higher confidence score, the more vivid generated results are. Best view when zoom in.



Figure 8. Comparison of video fusions. For enhancing environmental perception, fusing the translated visible results from CP-Trans with the infrared inputs is more helpful than directly fusing nighttime visible videos and corresponding infrared ones.

ble infrared data would be worthwhile, and we can perform object detection on translated visible results.

In Fig. 7, we display the detection results from different methods. Notably, the settings of the detection model remain unchanged for fairness. Our methods exceed in both correctness and confidence of detection compared with others. Additionally, the YOLO scores shown in Tab. 3 confirm our excellence in vehicle generation.

Video Fusion. The fusion of infrared and visible video is utilized for context enhancement in diverse environments [23, 27, 53]. It aims to combine visible visual details with infrared structural information. However, the visible visual details are blurred under darkness and overexposure conditions. Here we fuse the visible results generated by CPTrans with the infrared videos, as shown in Fig. 8. Compared with the original fusion, the new fusion results can bring better context enhancement, further validating the value of the unpaired infrared-to-visible translation task.



Figure 9. Comparison of semantic segmentation. The generated results should be correct at the pixel level to support the semantic segmentation task. Our approach achieves the best performance in terms of detail, especially in rainy scenes (the bottom one).

Semantic Segmentation. Semantic segmentation, the task of comprehending an image at the pixel level, is the foundation for numerous application [46] such as autonomous driving and robot manipulation. Our unpaired infrared-to-visible translation could be the foundation for supporting semantic segmentation in adverse scenes. This requires that our translated results are correct at the pixel level. We perform the pre-trained SegFormer [47] model on translated results from different methods, displayed in Fig. 9. Compared with the state-of-the-art translation method, ROMA [49], we achieve better performance in both the Output and Segmentation. Our approach validates the applicability of infrared-to-visible video trainslation.

5. Conclusion

In this manuscript, we propose the *CPTrans* framework to address the fine-grained unpaired infrared-to-visible video translation. To break the prejudice on optimization due to the long-tail effect, we introduce the Content-aware Optimization (CO) and Content-aware Temporal Normalization (CTN) modules, which collaboratively enhance the generation of content-rich patches to obtain sufficient visual details on translated visible results. Additionally, we provide a more challenging extended dataset, *InfraredCity-Adverse* collected on raining and snowing scenes to promote infrared-related research. Our method achieves stateof-the-art performance under all scenes while requiring less training time than other methods. Moreover, the further application results validate the task's value and confirm our superior performance on generated visual details.

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