

Multi-Image Super-Resolution for Remote Sensing using Deep Recurrent Networks

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Abstract

High-resolution satellite imagery is critical for various earth observation applications related to environment monitoring, geoscience, forecasting, and land use analysis. However, the acquisition cost of such high-quality imagery due to the scarcity of providers and needs for highfrequency revisits restricts its accessibility in many fields. In this work, we present a data-driven, multi-image super resolution approach to alleviate these problems. Our approach is based on an end-to-end deep neural network that consists of an encoder, a fusion module, and a decoder. The encoder extracts co-registered highly efficient feature representations from low-resolution images of a scene. A Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)-based module acts as the fusion module, aggregating features into a combined representation. Finally, a decoder reconstructs the super-resolved image. The proposed model is evaluated on the PROBA-V dataset released in a recent competition held by the European Space Agency. Our results show that it performs among the top contenders and offers a new practical solution for realworld applications.

1. Introduction

Enhancing the quality of aerial and satellite imagery is one of the most prominent and challenging problems in remote sensing. The processes behind the acquisition pipelines that determine the quality of the imagery rely heavily on the quality of the sensors themselves, whether electro-optical, radar, or laser-based. High-precision sensors which can observe the earth with high resolution have historically been very expensive despite regular advances in technology over the past few decades. Recently, the availability of low-cost, low-resolution imagery provided by commercial space industries is exploding due to the deployment of new satellite constellations [39]. While these offer very interesting perspectives in terms of revisit frequency and coverage, there is a detachment between their capabilities and the current need for high-resolution imagery.

In this work, we present a super-resolution method based on a neural architecture to enhance the quality of satellite imagery. Our data-driven technique can potentially help bridge the gap between the needs for low-cost and high-resolution data using already existing acquisition capabilities. We approach the super-resolution problem from the image reconstruction perspective which aims at generating a high-resolution image based on one or more low-resolution images. Super-resolution in the special case of remote sensing has two important particularities that we can highlight:

 Variety of data sources. Although high-resolution data sources are expensive, these can still be used in parsimony for the validation of enhancement methods. On the other hand, low-resolution data are plentiful and sometimes even publicly available at no cost. However, these may involve different acquisition sources, locations, or times, and may thus require special care in the way they are combined for superresolution purposes.

2. Data misalignment and pixel-level inconsistencies. Satellite imaging systems typically orbit the earth with pre-defined speeds and paths. Pixel-level inconsistencies can however still occur even with a well-calibrated system, and sub-pixel registration is often a necessary processing step for applications using several images at once. On the other hand, evolving land use and climate phenomena can have an impact on the similarity between images of the same region even if calibration issues are taken into account.

Modern super-resolution solutions have to take these considerations into account in order to achieve practical results.

Recent advances in deep learning have offered numerous new avenues for the single-image super-resolution (SISR) problem [8, 9, 37, 41, 26]. Most works related to SISR rely on neural networks to learn complex hierarchical representations for different versions of an observed region at varying resolutions. These representations are used to reconstruct high-quality images from low-quality ones based on the high-level understanding of the observed scene's underlying phenomena. The one-to-one mapping (in terms of inputs-to-ouputs) of the SISR approach may however hinder the quality of the reconstruction due to the low amount of information present in the original image. As a result, SISR solutions may lead to the "hallucination" of high-resolution details based on their training bias. In such cases, fake patterns with no discernible link to the input image may appear in the observed scene depending on the requested output resolution. This possibility may be cause for concern in applications that could lead to the misguidance of scientists or decision makers. A simple solution to this problem is to increase the amount of input information by instead using multiple low-resolution images at once. This technique is called multi-image super-resolution (MISR). The challenge for MISR approaches then becomes information fusion (or registration) due to the noisy nature of the imaging process. In general, MISR is capable of more accurate high-resolution reconstructions than SISR as it aggregates more information extracted from multiple views of the target region [22].

Image enhancement with the MISR approach is especially well suited for remote sensing for two major reasons. First, as mentioned earlier, it is fairly easy to obtain multiple low-resolution satellite images and a handful of high-resolution ones for the proper evaluation of the reconstruction of specific regions. Second, the use of multiple low-resolution images can alleviate some of the issues caused by misalignments and pixel-level inconsistencies through information fusion. In reality, atmospheric turbulence and sensor noise may even help regularize the information fusion process in a natural way.

Our solution tackles the MISR problem in an end-toend fashion using a neural network-based model which we call MISR-GRU. Our processing pipeline is composed of three stages: we first encode the input low-resolution images into a set of low-resolution feature maps. Then, these are fused using a recurrent structure to obtain a combined scene representation. Finally, we decode this scene representation into a single high-resolution image. In the first stage, we choose a reference image to implicitly co-register the low-resolution information in the encoding space. In the second stage, we use a Convolutional Gated Recurrent Unit (ConvGRU) [1] model to fuse multiple low-resolution feature maps by capturing within-and-across-view relationships. In the third stage, we employ deconvolution layers [48] to reconstruct a high-resolution image from the fused feature maps. Our contributions mainly lie in the unified end-to-end architecture we propose. More specifically:

- We formulate a feature encoding strategy which extracts effective features and acts as an implicit coregistration of low-resolution (LR) views in the embedding space.
- We propose an efficient information fusion approach based on a Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) architecture: ConvGRU. This architecture can examine correlations between features within-and-across views obtained from a variable-length sequence of input lowresolution images.
- 3. We evaluate our solution on real-world imagery collected by the European Space Agency (ESA)'s PROBA-V satellite. Our results demonstrate the proposed architecture's competitive performance on the ESA's Advanced Concepts Competition portal, Kelvins¹, in comparison with other state-of-the-art solutions.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews relevant works and image super-resolution techniques, Section 3 describes the proposed *MISR-GRU* model architecture, Section 4 presents our results as obtained from the Kelvins portal, and Section 5 concludes with an overview.

2. Related Work

Single Image Super Resolution. The recent advances in deep learning have provided a considerable number of new ideas to tackle the super-resolution problem. One of the early models for SISR was proposed by Dong et al. [8]: they proposed using an approximate mapping from low-resolution features to high-resolution ones based on three-layer Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs). Motivated

¹https://kelvins.esa.int/

by this work, several other authors proposed to adapt other deep learning architectures like RNNs [40, 10, 28], Residual CNNs [17], and GANs [15] to tackle SISR. Among them, Ledig et al. [26] introduced a ResNet-inspired architecture, "SRResNet", which preserves batch normalization inside the original residual blocks. This allows their model to require significantly less memory and allows the adaptation of several ideas introduced for image de-blurring [33]. Similarly, Lim et al. [29] proposed a new type of residual block by removing batch normalization and proposing their own type of residual (or "skip") connection. Skip connections in general are quite beneficial for CNNs as they constrain a layer to only learn the residual between its input and output [17]. The DenseNet architecture proposed by Huang et al. [18] is also based on this idea, and was adapted for SISR by Tong et al. [42]. More recently, Gao et al. [14] proposed Multi-scale Deep Neural Networks (Ms-DNNs) to tackle high-resolution image reconstruction when the up-scaling factors of image pairs are unknown and different from each other. In their solution, they reconstruct the details of an image by employing Multi-scale Residual Networks (MsRNs) in the downscaling spaces based on the residual blocks.

Multi Image Super Resolution. As detailed earlier, MISR approaches aim to reconstruct hidden high-resolution details using multiple low-resolution observations of the same scene. In contrast with SISR which has been extensively studied in the deep learning literature, MISR has seen slower progress due to the need to address the additional challenges of co-registration and information fusion. MISR faces the fundamental problem of de-aliasing, i.e. disentangling high-frequency artifacts caused by low-resolution sampling under varying phases [43]. The seminal work of Tsai et al. [43] reformulated this task through the coregistration of low-resolution images in the frequency domain. Over the years, other image registration and data fusion techniques [20, 12, 2] were introduced that also focused on the reconstruction of high-frequency details lost in the image acquisition process. In addition to these problems, MISR approaches must often address almost-random inconsistencies in images that increase the complexity of their registration. These inconsistencies include, for example, geometric distortions, blur, and pixel noise. Results can be improved by assuming that prior knowledge on these issues are being used at evaluation time [36]. Many modern optimization-based approaches to MISR build a generative model that, given a high-resolution image, simulates the acquisition of low-resolution images. An initial guess for the high-resolution image is then improved by minimization of the error between simulated and groundtruth low-resolution images. To reduce the parameter search space and to derive objective functions, these methods commonly model additive noise and prior knowledge about the acquisition process explicitly, using e.g. Tikhonov regularization [34], Huber potential [36] or Total Variation [11, 45]. When image degradation processes are too complex or unknown, non-parametric strategies become more interesting. High-resolution details can be for example reconstructed using a patch-based approach. These details can be inferred using sparse coding or sparse dictionary methods [23, 49, 47], or simply using k-nearest neighbor search [13, 3].

Recently, deep learning techniques have been applied to address the MISR problem in an end-to-end learning framework. Kawulok et al. [22] proposed a deep learning method for video image super-resolution for natural images which apply shift-and-add strategy for fusion without any image registration. For satellite image MISR of PROBA-V competition, DeepSUM [30] method is proposed which uses a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture to register and fuse multiple unregistered LR images from the same scene. Moreover, another solution named HighResnet [7] from the same competition uses a CNN-based model to solve registration problem implicitly and merge the LR view in a recursive way. We briefly summarize some methods of interest that we compare our results to in Section 4.2.

3. Model

We formulate our proposed architecture and model around the task of MISR for satellite imagery for applications related to land cover and vegetation growth monitoring. Our primary goal is to offer a solution to the issue of the multiple-to-one mapping of MISR and support a variable number of LR images as input. We also wish to offer an intelligent end-to-end design that can tackle various types of pixel-level inconsistencies automatically. Accordingly, this section introduces our *MISR-GRU* architecture.

3.1. Problem Formulation

Let us denote by θ , α , and β the parameters of our Encoder, Fusion, and Decoder modules (respectively), and γ is the (up-)scaling factor. We define the i^{th} LR image of a scene as $l_i \in R^{c \times h \times w}$. Here, c, h, and w are the (channelwise) depth, height, and width of the input LR image, respectively. For our evaluation, c is 1 and γ is 3. We denote the ground-truth high-resolution (HR) image for the same scene as $H \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times \gamma h \times \gamma w}$. The predicted output of our model is denoted by $\hat{H} = F_{(\theta,\alpha,\beta)}^{\gamma}(\{l_1,\ldots,l_K\})$, where K is the number of LR views of a scene.

An overview of our model is shown in Figure 1. It can be split into three modules (left to right): 1) *Encoder*, which encodes relevant features from the low-resolution images into latent representations; 2) *Fusion Module*, which merges the latent representations across the set of input images; and 3) *Decoder*, which reconstructs the target high-resolution

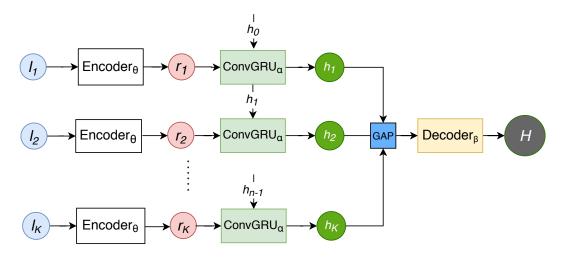


Figure 1. Architectural overview of the proposed MISR-GRU.

image. Each module is described in the following subsections.

3.2. Encoder

MISR approaches assume that the low-resolution image sets that are provided as input contain more information than any of such image alone. To exploit this information, the model has to be robust against uncontrolled factors such as blurriness or distortions. In our specific problem formulation, we do not assume that the images of a common scene are already co-registered. Deep learning approaches have been introduced already to tackle the generic image registration problem with respect to a reference image [27]. We follow a similar strategy and use a reference image, noted $q \in R^{c \times h \times w}$, as an auxiliary representation of our inputs. This reference image is obtained by computing the pixelwise median value of several input images in a way similar to the technique of [7]. We concatenate the intermediate feature representations of reference image with the feature representations of each of the LR images so that the network figures out the co-registration implicitly with respect to the *reference* image representations.

We show in Figure 2 a symbolic view of our *Encoder* module.

Given the input tensors $(l_i)_{i=1}^K$, and q, the network is trained to produce feature representations, denoted by $(r_i)_{i=1}^K$. To obtain these representations, we first embed l_i and q using Unit1. This produces two feature maps, $l_i' \in R^{64 \times h \times w}$ and $q' \in R^{64 \times h \times w}$ respectively. Then l_i' is concatenated with q' and passed through Unit2. The result is a co-registered feature map $r_i \in R^{64 \times h \times w}$. The Unit1 and Unit2 consist of two convolutional layers and two residual blocks [17] each. This type of block layout is inspired by [21] and combines two convolutional layers and activation functions without any batch-normalization layer. For

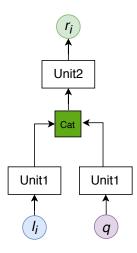


Figure 2. Overview of an encoder module.

all the convolutions, we use 3x3 kernels with feature map of 64, and for the activations, we use Parametric ReLU [16]. Formally, the feature representations $(r_i)_{i=1}^K$ are computed using

$$q' = \text{Unit1}(q),\tag{1}$$

$$l_i' = \text{Unit1}(l_i), \tag{2}$$

$$r_i = \text{Unit2}([l_i', q']), \tag{3}$$

where we represent the concatenation operation between two tensors A and B as [A, B].

3.3. Fusion Module

As mentioned earlier, many image fusion techniques for MISR rely on weighted average [4, 25] or directly apply CNNs on the stacked images [19]. In contrast, RNNs are

generally designed for modeling sequential data. Although our problem is not truly sequential in nature, we can still consider the set of input low-resolution images as a sequence. A direct advantage of this strategy is the possibility of processing sets of any size, while still being able to model within-and-across-view relationships between images of the input set. The ConvGRU model [1] is an extension of the GRU block introduced in [5] in which fully-connected layers are replaced with convolutional layers both in the input-to-state and state-to-state connections. The hidden state \mathbf{h}_t of the ConvGRU is recurrently connected to its sequential neighbors. It is updated by convolution from the input feature map \mathbf{x}_t and the previous hidden state \mathbf{h}_{t-1} as follows:

$$\begin{split} u_t &= \sigma(W_i * [x_t, h_{t-1}] + b_i) \\ r_t &= \sigma(W_j * [x_t, h_{t-1}] + b_j) \\ c_t &= tanh(W_h * [x_t, r_t \odot h_{t-1}] + b_h \\ h_t &= (1 - u_t) \odot h_{t-1} + u_t \odot c_t \end{split}$$

Here, W_{\cdot} and b_{\cdot} are convolution kernels and biases respectively. * and \odot are the convolution and element-wise multiplication operators, respectively.

Each convolutional transition is defined using 2-D kernels that represent the receptive fields of h_t 's hidden units in the input x_t and in the previous hidden state h_{t-1} .

In formal terms, ConvGRU acts as the fusion network $f_{\alpha}: \mathbb{R}^{K \times 64 \times h \times w} \to \mathbb{R}^{K \times C_{h^{\text{GRU}}} \times h \times w}$ that converts K input representations $(r_i)_{i=1}^K$ to K hidden representations $(\mathbf{h_i^{\text{GRU}}})_{i=1}^K$. Then, global average pooling (GAP) is used on the sequence dimension to return a fixed-size representation $\mathbf{h_{avg}} \in \mathbb{R}^{C_{h^{\text{GRU}}} \times W \times H}$. The fusion network f_{α} can be stacked as necessary to obtain more complex features that cover a wider receptive field in the input images. In that case, we denote the embeddings for L levels of convolution layers as $\mathbf{h^{\text{GRU}}}^{(l)}$ with $l=1,\cdots,L$. In any case, the K different representations $(r_i)_{i=1}^K$ obtained from the encoder are used to initialize the first level of the fusion network. More specifically,

$$(\mathbf{h_i})_{i=1}^{\mathbf{K}} = (\mathbf{h_i^{GRU^{(L)}}})_{i=1}^{\mathbf{K}} = f_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{r}_K)$$
(4)
$$\mathbf{h}_{avg} = GAP(h_1, \dots, h_K)$$
(5)

For our own experiments, we set L to 2 and $C_{h^{GRU}}$ to 64.

3.4. Decoder

The role of the decoder is simply to upsample the combined representations \mathbf{h}_{avg} obtained by averaging the Conv-GRU hidden states into a tensor \hat{H} the size of the target high-resolution image H. Formally, \hat{H} is computed via

$$\hat{H} = \operatorname{decoder}_{\beta}^{\gamma}(\mathbf{h}_{\operatorname{avg}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times \gamma h \times \gamma w}.$$
 (6)

The decoding network itself consists of a deconvolution layer [48] and a 1×1 convolution layer. The deconvolution layer is useful here as it increases the accuracy and the training speed of this final stage of our proposed architecture, as reported in [9, 38, 44]. We used 3×3 kernels, 64 features maps, a stride of 3, and Parametric ReLU as the activation function.

Finally, an ultimate 1×1 convolution layer is used to project the decoder's output feature map of dimensions $\mathbb{R}^{64 \times \gamma h \times \gamma w}$ into the target image space of dimension $\mathbb{R}^{c \times \gamma h \times \gamma w}$.

3.5. Target Image Registration

The super-resolution image \hat{H} generated by the proposed MISR-GRU model may be shifted with respect to the ground-truth high-resolution image H due to misalignments in the image calibration process. Training without trying to account for this issue results in blurry reconstructions. To compensate for this issue, we rely on the ShiftNet strategy of [7] which is inspired by the idea of Deep Homog-raphyNet[6]. In short, ShiftNet warps the predicted image based on deep learning based estimation of translation parameters so that it fits with the target high-resolution image during training. At evaluation time, the direct output of the MISR-GRU model is reconstructed as-is without warping.

3.6. Loss Function

The typical way to formulate the super-resolution training objective is to minimize the reconstruction error between the target high-resolution image and the model's prediction. In this spirit, the Mean Squared Error (MSE) is commonly used in practice due to its interpretability and effectiveness [45]. Measuring the Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) can also give a good idea of a model's performance. However, both the PSNR and MSE are sensitive to biases in brightness. In concordance with the evaluation guidelines of the challenge dataset (detailed in the next section), we opt to use a corrected metric for our loss function. We settle on a variant of the MSE called the corrected MSE (cMSE) which equalizes the brightness in both predicted and target images. The cMSE is defined by the following equations

$$b = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum \left((H - \hat{H}) \cdot S \right), \tag{7}$$

cMSE
$$(H, \hat{H}) = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum (H - \hat{H} + b)^2,$$
 (8)

where b is the brightness bias (a scalar), S is the binary map which indicates clear pixels in H, and where the images H and \hat{H} are both normalized to the [0,1] range. We can then calculate the corrected PSNR (cPSNR) from the cMSE using

$$cPSNR(H, \hat{H}) = -10 \times \log_{10}(cMSE(H, \hat{H})). \quad (9)$$

Finally, to define a loss function to minimize, we use the negative cPSNR:

$$loss(H, \hat{H}) = -cPSNR(H, \hat{H})$$
 (10)

4. Results

Our training and evaluation dataset is composed of images collected by the PROBA-V earth observation satellite. The dataset was released as part of a super-resolution competition held by ESA's Advanced Concepts Team in 2019 [31]. The imagery consists of red and Near InfraRed (NIR) spectral bands with 14-bit depth. The low-resolution images were prepared with a shape of 128×128 pixels while the high-resolution (target) images contained 384×384 pixels, meaning the (up-)scaling factor γ is exactly 3. In terms of ground resolution, each pixel corresponds to 300m and 100m in the low-resolution and high-resolution images, respectively. The image patches are provided with a binary mask that indicates the quality/status of each pixel. This mask identifies areas with clouds, water, shadows, or other uncontrolled pixel-wise inconsistencies. The dataset contains a total of 1450 target regions; of these, 1160 were preselected for training and 290 were reserved for testing. Each region is covered with an average of 19 low-resolution images, with a minimum of 9. An example of low-resolution patches, reconstructed SR image by MISR-GRU, and a highresolution crop is shown in Figure 3.

4.1. Performance Score Calculation

The full methodology for the calculation of a method's performance score is detailed on the Kelvins portal². This methodology slightly compensates for image misalignments by looking for the best super-resolution results under a set of limited 2D pixel shifts $\langle u,v\rangle\in\mathcal{C}$. The methodology also returns a normalized score that relates how well a method performs in comparison to a simple baseline (based on bi-cubic interpolation). Formally, given cPSNR*(H) the cPSNR obtained by the baseline for a high-resolution image H, the score of a method is given as

$$z(\hat{H}) = \max_{\langle u, v \rangle \in \mathcal{C}} \frac{\text{cPSNR}^*(H)}{\text{cPSNR}(H_{\langle u, v \rangle}, \hat{H})}, \tag{11}$$

where $H_{\langle u,v\rangle}$ is the target high-resolution image H shifted in 2D space by $\langle u,v\rangle$ pixels. Lastly, the overall score of a submission is obtained by averaging all its $z(\hat{H})$ scores over all test regions.

4.2. Experimental Setup

Our model was implemented in PyTorch [35] and made publicly available³. The model was optimized end-to-end using Adam [24] starting with an initial learning rate of 0.0007 and gradual learning rate decay with a factor of 0.97 whenever the validation score plateaued for more than 2 epochs. We trained the model for 400 epochs with a batch size of 16. The training process took roughly 13 hours on a NVIDIA Titan RTX with memory of 24GB. During inference our model can super-resolve around 14 scenes per second in the same GPU if each scene is processed individually without batching. Because of the memory constraint and to improve generalization by data augmentation, we trained our model with randomly cropped 64×64 LR and corresponding 192 × 192 HR patches. As our model is fully convolutional, at test time we feed full LR images of spatial size 128×128 as input. MISR-GRU has around 0.9M parameters. Table 2 gives an overview of the architecture.

We compare our results with those of numerous methods taken from the literature or proposed by the ESA for the competition. These are briefly summarized below:

- **ESA Baseline:** computes the average of most clear low-resolution images and upsamples the result using bicubic interpolation.
- FSRCNN-8 [9]: independently computes a highresolution version of 8 low-resolution inputs using FS-RCNN and averages them into a final prediction.
- **SRResNet-1** [26]: finds the most clear low-resolution input image based on binary status map which indicates the clear pixels and upsamples it using the *SR-ResNet* based SISR approach.
- **SRResNet-1** + **ShiftNet**: same as above, but registers the most clear low-resolution image with the ground-truth during training using *ShiftNet*.
- SRResNet-6 + ShiftNet: same as above, but applied to six independent low-resolution images. The results are also averaged into a final prediction.
- **DeepSUM** [32]: this is actually a variant of the *SRResNet-6* + *ShiftNet* approach where several low-resolution images are independently upsampled and gradually merged back into the final prediction.
- ACT [30]: concatenates 5 low-resolution images channel-wise as input and uses a CNN to upsample them directly.
- **HighResNet** [7]: co-registers up-to 32 low-resolution images with a reference image and learns feature representations that are recursively fused together. The

 $^{^{2} \}verb|https://kelvins.esa.int/proba-v-super-resolution/scoring/$

³https://github.com/rarefin/MISR-GRU

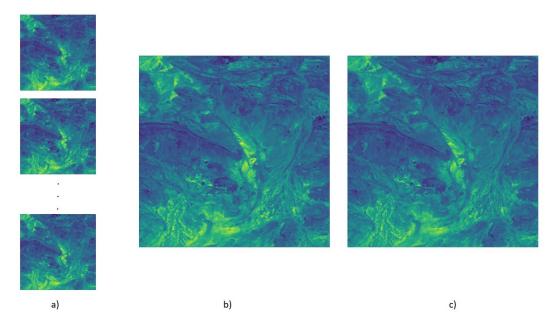


Figure 3. Example of a candidate region for super-resolution: a) overlapping low-resolution input images, b) reconstructed super resolution image by *MISR-GRU*, c) target high-resolution image.

Table 1. PROBA-V super-resolution evaluation scores

Method	Public score	
SRResNet-1 [26]	1.0095	
SRResNet-1 + ShiftNet	1.0002	
ESA Baseline	1.0000	
FSRCNN-8 [9]	0.9927	
ACT [30]	0.9874	
SRResNet-6 + ShiftNet [46]	0.9808	
ConvGRU-24 (ours)	0.9808	
ConvGRU-9 + ShiftNet (ours)	0.9776	
ConvGRU-13 + ShiftNet (ours)	0.9757	
ConvGRU-24 + ShiftNet (ours)	0.9581	
ConvGRU-24★ + ShiftNet (ours)	0.9502	
HighResNet [7]	0.9496	
DeepSUM [32]	0.9488	
MISR-GRU (ours)	0.9484	

high-resolution image is generated and aligned using *ShiftNet*.

The performance of the model depends on the number of LR views, co-registration of them with respect to the reference view, and registration of reconstructed super-resolved image. The model should also ideally be permutation invariant, i.e. the fusion result should not depend on the order in which LR images are processed. To prevent overfitting and to encourage permutation invariance, we randomly select a subset of LR images. For configurations

ConvGRU-24 + ShiftNet, ConvGRU-24★ + ShiftNet and MISR-GRU we use the random selection introduced in [7], which prefers those views with low amounts of occlusion. For other configurations, all LR views are equally likely to be drawn. We summarize the different network architecture configurations used in our experiments below:

- ConvGRU-24: uses a sequence of up-to 24 low-resolution images as input and reconstructs a high-resolution image from the last hidden state representation of the ConvGRU.
- ConvGRU-9 + ShiftNet: same as ConvGRU-24 using 9 input images, but also registers the reconstructed output with the target image during training using ShiftNet.
- ConvGRU-13 + ShiftNet: same as ConvGRU-9 + ShiftNet using 13 input images.
- ConvGRU-24 + ShiftNet: same as *ConvGRU-24* except that it also uses *ShiftNet* for registration of the output with the target and the random selection of LR views as in [7].
- ConvGRU-24* + ShiftNet: same as ConvGRU-24 + ShiftNet, but in addition using the co-registration with a reference image described in Section 3.2.
- MISR-GRU: described in Section 3 uses up-to 24 LR images.

Table 2. MISR-GRU Configuration & Parameters

Modules	Sub- modules	Blocks	Layers	Input Channels	Output Configuration (kernel, filters, stride, padding)	Number of Parameters
Encoder			Conv2d PReLU	1	3×3, 64, s1, p1	640 1
	Unit1	ResidualBlocks	Conv2d PReLU Conv2d PReLU × 2	$\begin{bmatrix} 64 \\ 64 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \\ 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 36928 \\ 1 \\ 36928 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$
			Conv2d	64	3×3, 64, s1, p1	36928
			Conv2d	128	3×3,64,s1,p1	73792
	Unit2		PReLU			1
		ResidualBlocks	Conv2d PReLU Conv2d PReLU × 2	$\begin{bmatrix} 64 \\ 64 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \\ 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 36928 \\ 1 \\ 36928 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$
			Conv2d	64	3×3, 64, s1, p1	36928
Fusion Module	ConvGRU Levels		Conv2d Conv2d Conv2d × 2	$\begin{bmatrix} 128\\128\\128 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \\ 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \\ 3 \times 3, 64, s1, p1 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 73792 \\ 73792 \\ 73792 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$
Decoder			ConvTranspose2d	64	3×3, 64, s3, p0	36928
			PReLU			1
			Conv2d	64	1×1, 1, s1, p0	65
						923468 (total)

4.3. Discussion

Table 1 lists the PROBA-V super-resolution challenge performance scores for our different configurations as well as the competing and baseline solutions.

We can first observe that the use of a registration technique in the super-resolution process is quite beneficial across the views. The co-registration of LR images implicitly with respect to a reference image and registration of reconstructed super resolved images with respect to the ground-truths before calculating loss significantly improves overall performance. We also found that use of more LR images is beneficial (but we observed that the images need to generally be as clear as possible). For example, using 13 images as input seemed to beat the configuration that used 9 in combination with ShiftNet, however, more LR images don't help, if the super resolved image is not registered (ConvGRU-24). MISR-GRU make use of up-to 24 low-resolution images and implicitly co-register them, ConvGRU based fusion strategy and registration of superresolution image using ShiftNet and performs as one of the top scorers.

We also observed in that if images were affected by unmasked inconsistencies such as clouds, smoke, or shadows, the reconstruction process was often misdirected. Incorporating metadata in the form of acquisition parameters (view angle, latitude, longitude, etc.) could help learn more invariant feature representations. In the future, we will work on addressing these issues.

5. Conclusion

We introduced a new deep learning-based MISR technique that relies on the implicit co-registration of feature maps of low-resolution images to produce high-quality output images in an end-to-end fashion. Our approach is based on a convolutional RNN fusion architecture that can aggregate an arbitrary number of low-resolution images into a combined representation for decoding. We also employed *ShiftNet* during the training process to bootstrap our model's registration capabilities. We believe this approach offers a good practical solution to address the trade-off problem between image quality and acquisition cost/complexity in remote sensing applications.

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