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A review of image and video colorization: From analogies to deep learning

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Abstract

Image colorization is a classic and important topic in computer graphics, where the aim is to add color to a monochromatic input image to produce a colorful result. In this survey, we present the history of colorization research in chronological order and summarize popular algorithms in this field. Early works on colorization mostly focused on developing techniques to improve the colorization quality. In the last few years, researchers have considered more possibilities such as combining colorization with NLP (natural language processing) and focused more on industrial applications. To better control the color, various types of color control are designed, such as providing reference images or color scribbles. We have created a taxonomy of the colorization methods according to the input type, divided into grayscale, sketch-based and hybrid. The pros and cons are discussed for each algorithm, and they are compared according to their main characteristics. Finally, we discuss how deep learning, and in particular Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), has changed this field.

Keywords: Image Colorization, Sketch Colorization, Manga Colorization

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1. Introduction

Color plays a very important role in the process of human cognition of the world, and rich colors can not only express more information, but also enhance the human visual experience. Image colorization has been a very active research topic in the field of digital image processing, and is an inter-disciplinary area involving disciplines such as Computer Vision, Computer Graphics, Pattern Recognition and Human Computer Interaction. Colorization has been widely used in many fields, such as grayscale photo colorization, old film color restoration, cartoon automatic colorization, etc.

Based on different types of input to be colorized, colorization methods can be divided into two broad categories, one is colorization of grayscale images and black-and-white videos which are ordinary photos without color, and the other is colorization of monochrome art forms, including sketch images (or line art images), manga (or comics) and black-and-white cartoons (or line-art video). See Figure 1 for some examples. We can see that grayscale images contain rich intensity details, while sketch images (or other art forms) only contain relatively sparse details.

Therefore, when processing input images of different categories, researchers usually use different processing methods. For colorization of grayscale images, most methods convert the image in YUV or Lab color space [1, 2], and restore the value of the chrominance channels of the image to be colored based on the similarity of the luminance channel [3]. For black-and-white videos, most models use unsupervised or self-supervised learning from the visual tracking process to track the location of an object in different frames, and link corresponding pixels together, to colorize them based on a user-provided reference photo or based on data-driven deep learning technologies. The colorization of sketch images often involves segmenting it into different regions [4], and based on a learning model a color is assigned to each segment where the color information can come from reference images, users’ color scribbles or input text hints. Although grayscale-based colorization methods can be directly used to predict the color value of each pixel in sketch images, they usually do not have good performance due to the lack of texture information. Therefore sketch-based colorization methods are required to propose new solutions for line feature extraction and re-
dition boundary determination, such as studying the temporal and semantic relationships between lines [5, 6, 7].

Generally speaking, traditional colorization methods require a lot of manual interaction and are often sensitive to the parameter settings of the methods. As a result, adding manual interaction and parameter optimization will take a lot of time and effort. Especially in grayscale videos or cartoon film colorization, even a short film usually has thousands of images to process. To improve efficiency, using a DCNN (Deep Convolutional Neural Network) [8] to build up the model or a GAN (Generative Adversarial Network) [9] for training is the most common approach used in recent methods. Both the image colorization effect and efficiency have been greatly improved. There exist both opportunities and challenges, and the development of deep learning technology has brought new directions to the work of image colorization.

Several major challenges remain. Some methods can only be used under certain restrictions, and moreover have some defects. For example, the colorization method can only handle gray-scale images, or the model needs to provide suitable reference colors. Some models need to identify different objects in the image, and then work out appropriate colors, but in particular for sketch image colorization, it is very difficult for the model to understand the sketch image and learn different artistic styles. The existing survey [31] mainly summarizes works performing colorization of grayscale images and the datasets for colorization. However, the task of colorization is not restricted to grayscale images, but also includes manga and sketches. In this paper, we will summa-

Figure 1: Typical categories of images suitable for colorization.
Figure 2: The timeline of image colorization methods. Different line colors represent methods with different types of control, as shown in the upper-right. Different line types represent the different types of input, as indicated in the upper-left. From this timeline, it can be seen that there can be a wide variety in the type of input data, from grayscale image to manga to sketch, which shows the difficulty of data processing. Compared with grayscale images, sketch images are sparse and the information available from just lines can be ambiguous. Early approaches were based on reference images, then user interaction was introduced, and finally fully automatic colorization.

rize and discuss different colorization methods from three categories, including their advantages and drawbacks, to give an overview that should be useful for researchers and practitioners.

2. Overview

This survey paper divides existing colorization research work into the following three sections based on the different types of input images to be colored. In Section 3, we mainly introduce the colorization methods for grayscale images, which are further grouped into three subcategories: fully automatic colorization methods, semi-automatic colorization methods based on color strokes or reference images, and text-driven image colorization methods. In Section 4, we focus on methods related to colorization of line-art or sketch images, which are further classified into four subcategories: colorization methods based on color strokes, colorization methods based on reference images, text-driven colorization methods, and synthesis methods from line-art images to real images. In Section 5, we discuss the colorization work of comic or manga images. Finally, we summarize the colorization methods and discuss a possible
area for future colorization work in Section 7. Figure 2 shows a timeline of representative methods for image colorization.

3. Grayscale Image Colorization

The color value of each pixel on a grayscale image is between black and white. The grayscale channel can be extracted from color images, but images such as photos taken in the past and much comic art only have grayscale information, and can benefit from colorization. Colorization methods for grayscale images can be divided into two groups according to whether interaction is used, namely automatic colorization methods and semi-automatic colorization methods. In the former group, researchers have used data-driven deep learning technology to automatically colorize grayscale images based on training data [1, 11, 32]. For instance, there is an open source automatic model DeOldify [33] which is free to use. For the second group, colorization methods often take some guidance information from users, e.g., by drawing color strokes [3], providing reference color images [10] or giving an specific color theme [34]. Incorporating user guidance usually increases the efficiency and correctness of the colorization model. It also helps resolve inherent ambiguities for the ill-posed colorization problem (such as tree leaves could be green in spring and yellow in autumn). In addition, in some recent studies, researchers have also studied the use of semantic information to guide image colorization, such as grayscale colorization based on text scripts [35], which is introduced in the last subsection.

3.1. Automatic Grayscale Image Colorization

Different from colorization methods based on guidance, in automatic image colorization methods, researchers can design the model to provide multiple colors for the same pixel to solve the problem of multi-modal colorization of monochrome images. For example, colorization models will generate green or yellow leaf images. In this subsection, we divide the automatic coloring method into two categories based on the diversity of the generated results; one is unimodal colorization in which methods can only generate one result, and the other is multi-modal colorization where methods can generate multiple diverse results, and introduce them respectively.
3.1.1. Unimodal Colorization

To reduce user interaction, Cheng et al. [1] first propose a fully-automatic colorization method using deep learning with the SUN dataset [36]. Instead of directly taking the grayscale image as input, they take a combination of multi-level features to predict the U and V channels. However, the performance drops when similar reference images are not included in the training data set. Concurrently, Deshpande et al. [37] improved the learning model for image colorization and learned from examples. This learning model is built upon the LEARCH (Learning to Search) framework [38], and is able to minimize the quadratic objective function defined on the chromaticity maps, comparable to a Gaussian random field.

Larson et al. [39] proposed an automatic colorization method based on a self-supervised visual representation learning process. The network is built upon the fully convolutional network of VGG-16 [40] with the classification layer removed and a filter layer added. In addition, the model uses skip-layer connections to concatenate the features of different convolutional layers, to provide input to the classification layer which predicts the color histogram of each pixel. Izuka et al. [11] proposed to learn the global and local features separately from an image and then combine them together for the final colorization process. However, for objects with multiple different colors, the result will most likely produce dominant colors which are learnt in training, like the leaves in green.
Ablations. We validate our design choices by comparing with several alternative options.

(b) Different Bounding Box Selection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Box Selection</th>
<th>COCOSuff validation split</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PSNR ↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select top 8</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Random select 8</td>
<td>0.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select by threshold</td>
<td>0.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.T. bounding box</td>
<td>0.111</td>
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</tbody>
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(c) Different Weighted Sum

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Weighted Sum</th>
<th>COCOSuff validation split</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PSNR ↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box mask</td>
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<td>G.T. mask</td>
<td>0.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fusion module</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6. Colorizing legacy black and white photos

We apply our colorization model to colorize legacy black and white photographs. Figure 7 shows sample results along with manual colorization results by human expert.

5.7. Failure modes

We show 2 examples of failure cases in Figure 8. When the instances were not detected, our model reverts back to the full-image colorization network. As a result, our method may produce visible artifacts such as washed-out colors or bleeding across object boundaries.

6. Conclusions

We present an novel instance-aware image colorization. By leveraging an off-the-shelf object detection model to crop out the images, our architecture extracts the feature from our instance branch and full images branch, then we fuse them with our newly proposed fusion module and obtain a better feature map to predict the better results. Through extensive experiments, we show that our work compares favorably against existing methods on three benchmark datasets.

Acknowledgements. The project was funded in part by the Ministry of Science and Technology of Taiwan (108-2218-E-007-050- and 107-2221-E-007-088-MY3).
3.1.2. Multi-Modal Colorization

Aiming at solving the problem that colorization requires a lot of user interaction and that the color saturation of colorized images tends to be low, Zhang et al. [2] proposed a fully automatic colorization method that can generate rich and realistic colorization images. This method transforms the colorization task into a self-supervised expression learning task by learning the semantic and texture mapping between the grayscale image and the color image. At the same time, the colorization problem is transformed in a novel manner into a classification task, and a color distribution is predicted for each pixel to solve the multi-modal colorization problem of the image, which maintains the diversity of the colorization results. Zhang et al. [2] were inspired by the simulated annealing method [41] and proposed the operation that works out the annealed mean of a distribution, to estimate the color value of the ab space from the color distribution of each pixel. The value of each pixel in the grayscale image colorization task is not fixed, and the same object in the real world can be colored in different ways.

Unlike [2], Deshpande et al. [42] not only considers the estimation of the color value of each pixel, but also considers the overall spatial continuity of the colorization results. This method uses a variational autoencoder (VAE) to learn the low-dimensional latent variable embedding of the color field, and uses a Mixed Density Network (MDN) to learn a multi-modal model conditioned on the grayscale image. Finally, multiple samples are taken from MDN, and combined with the VAE decoder to obtain multiple colorization results for each sample, so as to provide a rich set of colorization results.

Although the classification model based on color distribution and the generative model based on variational autoencoders can obtain a variety of colorization schemes, the colorization results lack the consistency of the spatial structure and the user controllability of color. Sometimes in the same semantic area, spots of different colors appear in the colorization results. In order to ensure global colorization consistency and user controllability, Messaoud et al. [32] proposed a conditional random field based on VAE and use a Gaussian Conditional Markov Random Field (G-CRF) to capture global image statistics, modeling the output space of the VAE decoder and the encoding of user editing information.
When an image colorization method is directly applied to video colorization, discontinuity will appear. Lei et al. [43] proposed an automatic colorization model for black-and-white video without any user interaction or reference image. This method designs a self-regularization and diversity loss function in order to achieve the consistency and diversity of the grayscale video colorization. The self-regularization loss is mainly composed of a bilateral regularization term and a temporal regularization term, which adds color consistency constraints in the bilateral space of adjacent pixels and corresponding pixels of adjacent frames. Diversity Loss to constrain the multiple generated results to be consistent with real color images. Although the method achieves the generation of multiple colorization results, there are no rich colorization results between different results.

With the rapid development of Transformer [44] in the field of computer vision, Kumar et al. [45] proposed a grayscale colorization network architecture (Colorization Transformer, ColTran) based on Transformer blocks. ColTran is mainly composed of a autoregressive Colonizer, a color upsampler and spatial upsampler. Autoregressive Colorizer enabled color information to be matched to input grayscale images at low resolution, and then the color upsampler and spatial upsampler sampled low resolution color images into high-resolution images in a completely parallel way. Based on transformer’s better matching ability, this method can provide a variety of colored gray images according to different reference color images.

Compared with the unimodal colorization, multi-modal colorization methods can generate multiple color results for a given grayscale input. Although those automatic methods do not require user interaction, the generated results rely on pretrained network models. The user cannot adjust the generated results, such as the overall colorization style or detail colors, making it difficult to generate the results the user expects.

3.2. Color Strokes based Colorization

In order to solve the problem that automatic methods cannot control the color of the details, some work attempt to take user color strokes and provide an intuitive approach for user control.
3.2.1. Optimization Colorization

Levin et al. [3] were one of the most important pioneers in the colorization area. In this method, the user needs to mark a grayscale image with color strokes to colorize the image in YUV color space. Then, based on the rule that adjacent pixels have similar intensities and their colors are similar, the method spreads the color of the strokes to the entire image. But when different object colors are diffused and mixed together, there are color bleeding problems in [3]. To solve it, Huang et al. [46] modified the weighting function and proposed an adaptive edge detection algorithm to improve the accuracy of the edges. They use Sobel filters and iterative optimization to improve the edge detection. Further, the colorization method will be more accurate, while at the same time reducing color bleeding issues, and making the image color effect more realistic.

Previous colorization methods based on color strokes, such as Levin’s method [3], usually require a lot of manual interaction for a complex scene. To reduce it, Luan et al. [14] proposed a new interactive system that can quickly and easily color grayscale images. This method consists of two stages, the color labeling stage and the color mapping stage. The color labeling stage spreads the marked colors to similar areas by constraining the intensity smoothness and texture similarity of all pixels. The color mapping stage establishes a piece-wise linear mapping in luminance (Y) space according to the scribble’s luminance (Y) and chroma (UV) values, and finally the chromatic-
such as color (Ghosh et al. 2013) and scene recognition (Budhathoki et al. 2014). Recently, there has been an increased interest in using geometric structure for image enhancement (Zhang et al. 2013). Volumetric data can be extracted to represent the intensity structure of an image, and this information can be used to enhance the image (Zeng et al. 2013). The proposed approach is based on a combination of geometric structure and color information (Budhathoki et al. 2014).}

11

Fig. 5: Network architecture. We introduce two variants of the same network: (a) the Local Haze Network only and (b) the Global Haze Network only. The comparison between them is shown in Fig. 5. It can be seen that (a) is faster and less accurate than (b), as the Local Haze Network only relies on short-range spatial relationships between neighboring pixels. However, (b) is more accurate and provides a more realistic estimation of the original haze-free image.}

... relationship between two points on the surface and the distances between them in the color space (Budhathoki et al. 2014).}

The network architecture is based on a combination of geometric structure and color information. The proposed approach is shown in Fig. 5. It can be seen that (a) is faster and less accurate than (b), as the Local Haze Network only relies on short-range spatial relationships between neighboring pixels. However, (b) is more accurate and provides a more realistic estimation of the original haze-free image.
4.2 Deep Neural Network Based Colorization

In the recent work on colorization of grayscale images based on user guidance, a Deep Neural Network (DNN) is used to fill in missing color information by attempting to register an image in the target scene to the reference image. The model is mainly divided into three main layers: feature matching, color distribution, and global network. The features are extracted from the input image and then matched to the corresponding features in the reference image. Following this, the network is used to estimate the color distribution. Finally, the output image is synthesized based on the estimated color distribution and the input image. The network is trained end-to-end to achieve real-time colorization without a single forward propagation, which requires a large amount of color information.

Neural network-based methods effectively improve the speed and quality of image colorization. However, the network training adopts an end-to-end training strategy. As a result, when the input and output are given, the output result cannot be controlled, and the result can only be optimized by editing the input. At the same time, this approach needs to specify the color of the area for each image, which cannot achieve batch col-
orization work. Therefore, some researchers study the colorization based on reference images.

3.3. Reference Color Image based Colorization

Another approach that balances controllability with user effort is reference based colorization where the user provides reference images with desired color distribution to guide the colorization process. The reference images may be specified directly by the user, retrieved from the Internet or obtained from a large dataset [20]. By referring to the reference image, the colorization results can better satisfy the user’s expectations. Although there are substantial overall differences between the images, similarities between the images can still be found in local areas. For example, areas with similar color or texture often also have similarities in structure or lines. Therefore, we can guide the generation of images by finding similarities between the grayscale image and the reference image.

3.3.1. Similarity with Luminance Features

To colorize a grayscale image, these methods need to have one or more reference images, and then use luminance channel mapping with the input image. Hertmann et al. [21] transferred color information into the input image from analogous regions of the reference. In the work by Welsh et al. [16], the grayscale image only contains one dimensional information, and for a color reference image, its luminance channel can be used to match the grayscale input. So the algorithm converts the reference image into Lab color space, and selects a small subset of pixels as a sample. Then the pixels in the grayscale image are scanned in raster order and the best matching part is selected using neighborhood statistics. Welsh et al. [16] described how their model could be applied to a single frame in a video sequence. They used the same colorized target swatch that was used in the first frame to colorize the remainder of the video. This process can effectively solve the problem of color inconsistency. After finding the corresponding pixel, they use the swatch model to produce a vivid colorization effect. In the equation, the error distance $E(N_p, N_s)$ uses the $L_2$ distance metric between neighborhood $N_p$ in the grayscale image and neighborhood $N_s$ in the colorized image.
Figure 1: Overview of our colorization method. We work at the level of superpixels to extract different types of image features from the reference image and the target image. These features are then used to infer the color assignments, which is refined by an image space voting step to yield the final colorized result.

Gonzalez et al. [17] proposed SIFT features [18] and Wetzel's method [16] and we use a new method that allows the transfer of color information from a reference image using multiple image features. Gonz et al. [17] use SIFT features to obtain the cooccurrence of the reference image and the target image for color transfer. The main idea of the proposed method is to use the reference image to identify the color characteristics of the target image. The proposed method works as follows: (a) superpixel extraction, (b) feature extraction, (c) feature matching, and (d) image space voting.

Our primary focus is to refine uniform color values, to achieve higher spatial consistency.

• Irony uses the Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) coefficients to extract a texture description. While DCT is a well-known technique for texture extraction and retrieval, it is often used as an additional feature. Gonz et al. [17] propose a method that is more efficient and allows for a more accurate extraction of color information.

3. COLORIZATION METHOD

The proposed algorithm colorizes gray input images by extracting superpixels from the reference and target images. The superpixels are then used to compute color assignments for each pixel in the target image. The algorithm uses a combination of superpixels and color histograms to compute the final colorized image.
automatically place color scribbles, and then use color optimization in [3]. Specifically, the method is mainly divided into four stages. They first train a supervised learning algorithm to build a low-dimensional feature space to discriminate which label the pixel belongs to. Then, they reliably determine the reference color value of each pixel by voting for the nearest neighbors in the feature space. Finally, the color is transferred to neighboring pixels in other spaces and the method of Levin et al. [3] is used for global optimization. Compared with scribbles, this method saves time, and adopts the spatial voting scheme to strengthen the spatial consistency, and has more robust color results than Welsh's method [16].

Li et al. [50] proposed a new location-aware cross-scale texture matching method to achieve grayscale colorization based on reference images. This method first uses the multi-label graph-cut algorithm to minimize global matching errors and spatial scale variations, and then uses the statistics of up-down relationships in the reference image to correct unreasonable color matches, and finally applies an optimization framework to propagate the high-confidence micro-scribbles to entire image. In the grayscale
colorization method based on the reference image, it is very common that the provided
reference image and the target image scale are inconsistent, and this method can handle
this situation well, and performs well among methods based on texture matching.

The total variation (TV) minimizing denoising model proposed by Rudin et al. [51]
is used for image colorization. Kang et al. [52] proposed to use the total variation
minimizing colorization model to deal with the problem of image color restoration.
This method first minimizes the total variation, and then implements image colorization
through weighted harmonic maps. However, this method requires a large number of
color scribbles to process complex images. Further, Bugeau et al. [53] proposed a
minimization variational formulation modeling which could colorize using a reference
image. At the same time, a specific energy function is designed for modeling color
selection and spatial consistency constraints. However, this method will produce a
halo effect on edges with obvious texture contrast.

Fang et al. [19] proposed a grayscale colorization method based on a reference im-
age, which novelly takes the result of image superpixel segmentation as the target to
be processed. The method first uses the Vcels [54] algorithm to segment an image,
extracts the features of the segmented blocks, and then uses the method proposed by
Gupta et al. [17] to match the reference segmented feature and the target segmented fea-
ture. Different from Gupta’s method [17], Fang et al. [19] do not use the matched colors
as micro-scribbles for color propagation, but instead select a set of candidate colors for
each target superpixel. Finally, they used the TV based spatial consistency regularization
and non-local self-similarity regularization to determine the most suitable color for
each target superpixel from the color candidates. As the comparison shows in Fig. 9,
with the same reference image, Welsh et al. [16](c) and Pierre et al. [49](d) are limited
by the set of color candidates and cannot match enough correct colors. He et al. [20](e)
and Gupta et al. [17](b) obtained more reliable color assignment results, but the results
of (b) contain color inconsistency artifacts and those of (e) contain color blurring and
color bleeding that appear in tiny objects. Although (a) achieves better colorization
results than other methods, there are still incorrect color matching results, such as the
hair edges of the characters in the second row.

Instead of specifying reference images by users, these methods achieve automatic
2.1. Spectral based colorization

The colorization algorithm automatically searches for similar color images on the Internet. These images are then captured with different poses and illuminations, and their color reference images are extracted.

2.2. Image based illumination difference

The illumination difference between the grayscale image and the color reference image is used to assign colors. These methods provide a more natural way to assign colors to the grayscale image.

2.3. Learning based colorization

The colorization algorithm is learned by using a robust learning framework. The common object detection and recognition tasks are successfully performed on the grayscale image.

2.4. Hybrid colorization

The colorization algorithm integrates the advantages of both spectral and image based methods. This hybrid approach allows for more accurate color assignments.

Morimoto et al. [56] also used the Internet to colorize grayscale images. They developed an algorithm that can automatically colorize a grayscale image by transferring the color of a similar image found on the Internet.

Once the color features have been identified, they can be used to transfer the color of the objects in the target image. This method is called the Internet-based color transfer (IBCT) method.

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3.3.2. Similarity with CNN Features

He et al. [20] proposed for the first time a fully automatic colorization method based on reference images, allowing users to use different reference images to achieve different colorization styles. Its network structure is mainly divided into a similarity sub-network and colorization sub-network, which is shown in Fig. 10. The similarity sub-network helps find the similarity maps between the reference image and the target image. Then the colorization sub-network mainly aligns pixels in the luminance channel based on the similarity sub-network, and then uses the big data learning ability of the colorization sub-network to refine misaligned pixel colors.

Inspired by He et al. [20], Zhang et al. [57] applied the method of deep exemplar-based colorization to grayscale video colorization. Similar to [20], Zhang et al. [57] obtained the dense correspondence between the target image feature and the reference image feature through computing a correlation matrix, and then feed it to a colorization sub-network. In this sub-network, the colorization result of the previous frame will be used as the condition for the current frame colorization. To reduce accumulated propagation errors, reference images are added. Through this recurrent framework, they achieved temporal consistency of video colorization. They further introduced a temporal consistency loss [58] to reduce the color change along the flow trajectory during the video colorization process. Further, Wu et al. [59] propose a method that can generate results with vivid colors by retrieving the matched features. Different from colorization based on reference images, they designed a GAN encoder to generate the color prior in colorization, which allows smooth interpolation between different colors and generates more diverse results.

Vondrick et al. [60] proposed video colorization with self-supervision learning of visual tracking. This method copies colors from a reference frame, and the model needs to use the appropriate region in order to obtain the correct color. And it can also be applied to track people's movement through the video. This model uses a pointing mechanism to solve the problem of inconsistencies in video colorization to a large extent, and maintain the color stability of the frame. However, the pointing mechanism is still not precise enough, and the color edges of the colorization result are sometimes
Image Analogies

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Abstract

Composing Machinery, Inc. 2001.

This paper describes a new framework for processing images by
exemplar, called "image analogies." The framework involves two
phases: a design phase, in which a set of parameters is chosen
for the image, and an application phase, in which the chosen
parameters are applied to the target image to produce the
analogy image. The design phase involves selecting the type of
target image features to perform matrix operations on to obtain
non-local similarities. The method we use to calculate the non-local
features is a 2D correlation method (see Figure 11).

Using the extracted features, we can find a new image $B'$ that
resembles $B$ in the same way that $A'$ resembles $A$.

In other words, we want to find an "analogue" image $B'$ that
resembles $B$ in "the same way" as $A'$ resembles $A$. In general, this
is a very difficult problem to solve, but we describe an
algorithm that works fairly well. The main idea is to use a
"source-reference" attention to guide the color
distribution in the target image, while an "analogue" attention
maps the target image onto the source image. The attention
maps are computed by a correlation algorithm, which
computes a weighted average of the source and reference
distributions.

An additional advantage of our algorithm is that it provides a
visual indication of the source-reference attention, which can
be used to improve the quality of the generated image.

For more information, see the paper "Image Analogies" by
Aaron Hertzmann et al. (2001).
is as follows:

\[ r^* = \arg \min_{r \in N(q)} \| F_l(s(r) + (q - r)) - F_l(q) \|^2 \]  

(1) 

where \( r \) represents a pixel that has been synthesized in the neighborhood of pixel \( q \) in \( B' \), \( s(r) \) represents the pixel corresponding to \( r \) in \( A' \), \( N(q) \) represents a pixel synthesized in the neighborhood of pixel \( q \), and \( F_l(\cdot) \) represents a neighborhood feature vector of pixel in layer \( l \).

Although the algorithm proposed by Hertzmann et al. [21] can get good results, the algorithm requires pixel-by-pixel matching, which is particularly slow. Later, Liao et al. [22] proposed a new image analogy method using deep learning technology, which has greatly improved the matching speed and effect. The method uses the pre-trained image feature extraction network VGG-19 [40] to extract the 5-layer high-dimensional features of images \( A \) and \( B' \). Then the method uses Nearest-Neighbor Field Search (NNFs) to find dense correspondences with bidirectional constraints in each feature layer. Finally, the image features are gradually reconstructed from the roughly corresponding fifth layer to the finely corresponding first layer, and the final generated images \( A' \) and \( B \) are obtained. The specific pipeline of the method system is shown in Fig. 12.

There are other researchers who use the idea of image analogy. For example, Bénard et al. [66] realized the stylization of animation by extending the image analogy method to create a time-continuous animation sequence. Using the image analogy method, Jamnik et al. [67] used image color, foreground object binary mask, position of SIFT Flow (Scale-invariant feature transform Flow) [48], and foreground object edge information as guidance information, and achieved video stylization.

Affected by the structure of the image and the color range of the image, when the pose and appearance of objects in the image change greatly, it is impossible to obtain good results by using the image analogy method, even if the two images to be compared are images from the same video at different times. In addition, if the color of a part of the new image does not appear in the original image, the algorithm cannot automatically fill this part of the color. At the same time, when the method is
together with feature maps, are used to reconstruct features of latent images \( A' \) at the next CNN layer (Section 4.3). The NNFs obtained at the current layer are further upsampled to the next layer as their initialization (Section 4.4). These three steps (NNF search, latent image reconstruction, and NNF upsampling) are repeated at each layer, updating correspondences from coarse to fine.

By analyzing the semantic information of color contained in the text, it can be used as a constraint in many text-based coloring tasks. Using color semantics can effectively improve the color selection in the colorization process. The study by [68] establishes that color perception is strongly influenced by semantic cues which can be used to guide the coloring process.

Fig. 5. Benefits of bidirectional ages (a) bidirectional + deconv (d) bidirectional + resampling. T by Demeter Attila / Pexels, hah

4.1 Preprocessing

Our algorithm starts with precomputing feature maps by a VGG-19 network [Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014] that is trained on the ImageNet database [Russakovsky et al., 2015] for object recognition. We obtain the pyramid of feature maps \( F_A \) and \( F_B \) for the input images \( A \) and \( B \). The feature map of each layer is extracted from the \textit{relu} \(_1\) layer. It is a 3D tensor with width \( \times \) heights \( \times \) channel, and its spatial resolution increases from \( L = 5 \) to 1, as shown on Fig. 4(left). The features of \( A \) and \( B \) are unknown. We estimate them in a coarse-to-fine manner, which needs a good initialization at the coarsest layer \((L = 5)\). Here, we let \( F_A^5 = F_B^5 \) and \( F_B^5 = F_B^5 \) initially, that is, we view \( A \) and \( A' \) (also \( B \) and \( B' \)) to be very similar at the top layer where the images have been transformed by the CNN into representations with the actual content, but being invariant to precise appearance (as shown in Fig. 3).

4.2 Nearest-neighbor Field Search

At layer \( L \), we estimate a forward NNF and a reverse NNF; they are represented by mapping functions \( \phi^L_{a\rightarrow b} \) and \( \phi^L_{b\rightarrow a} \), respectively.

pixel \( p \) in the source \( A \) (or \( A' \))

\[
q = \phi^L_{a\rightarrow b}(p) \text{ in the target } B \text{ is similarly computed.}
\]

\( F(x) \) in Equation (2) is a 3D tensor with \( F(x) \) values. In our path, the values are more meaningful.

Equation (2) does not require smoothness is implicitly achieving patches. Such a unary constraint is optimized with the P. We adapt this approach of reporting two pairs of multi-char.

Our NNF search considers reverse NNFs in the fol

them, the reconstruction of \( \phi^L_{b\rightarrow a} \) which words, \( \phi^L_{a\rightarrow b} \) is constrained to \( \phi^L_{b\rightarrow a} \) is constrained by the \( \phi^L_{a\rightarrow b} \) and \( \phi^L_{b\rightarrow a} \) usually will 1-to-n mapping. In contrast, mapping. Equation (2) beco
then the recurrent attentive model combines the image and language features. Finally, get the colorized results from this feature.

Unlike Chen et al. [23] who directly combine the extracted language features and visual features to control the colorization results, Manjunatha et al. [69] apply the feature-wise linear modulation (FILM) [70] structure to language-based colorization with fewer parameters. Since FILM performs feature affine transformation on the output of each convolutional block, only two additional weight matrix parameters are required for each feature map. Instead of putting a specific object into the color form, they use semantic text input to generate the color palette to achieve color palette based on user’s text input.

Bahng et al. [35] have a similar focus on this area, instead of putting a specific object into the color form, they use semantic text input to generate the color palette to achieve color palette based on user’s text input. This is based on previous related work on color palette design and image editing such as research by Heer et al. [71]. Based on Bahng’s model, the user can use both single and multi-word descriptions to create a color palette and colorize the grayscale image. Like Hu’s method [68], the network is based on conditional generative adversarial networks (cGANs). Bahng used the palette-and-text (PAT) data set to train the model for predicting color palette parts.

The data set contains 10,183 text and five-color palette pairs. The data set is refined by harvesting user-custom-made color palettes from community websites. To process raw data from the data set, they use four annotators to vote whether the semantic word matches the color palette.

Text2Color can be divided into two parts, a Text-to-Palette Generation Network (TPN) and Palette-based Colorization Network (PCN). TPN generates a reasonable color palette based on the text input. The objective for the first cGAN is expressed as:

\[
L_{D_0} = E_{\tilde{y} \sim p_{\text{data}}} \log D_0(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) + E_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} \log (1 - D_0(x, \hat{y})) \]

(2)

\[
L_{G_0} = E_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} \log (1 - D_0(x, \hat{y}))
\]

(3)
For the discriminator $D_0$ wants to maximize $\mathbb{L}_{D_0}$ in opposition to $G_0$ which wants to minimize $\mathbb{L}_{G_0}$. Vector $x$ and real color palette $y$ are from the data distribution $P_{\text{data}}$.

Balah found that the Hubor loss is the most effective way to increase color diversity in the color palette. They decide to use Hubor loss to make the generated image closer to ground truth, and they added a Kullback-Leibler divergence regulation term. In this part, they use a conditioning augmentation technique.

$$\hat{y}_i = f(s_i) \quad \text{where} \quad s_i = g(\hat{y}_{i-1}, c_i, s_{i-1}) \quad (4)$$

where $s_i$ is a GRU (Gated Recurrent Unit) hidden state, and $i$ is a time vector, previous generated colors are stored in $\hat{y}_{i-1}$ and the content vector $c_i$ and the previous state stored in $s_{i-1}$ are provided as input. This state is used as input to a fully-connected layer to output the $i$th color into the palette, and results are the combination of five colors to form a single palette output $\hat{y}$.

The text-based method only needs to use the text description to realize the image colorization work, which can be used not only for the colorization of a single image, but also for the colorization of multiple images or videos. However, the text description has certain limitations on the specification of details and the selection of the color range, so it is more suitable for controlling the color palette of the whole image and the color of single object. The enhancement of detail colors can increase the control of detail by introducing color strokes, and researchers can conduct research on multi-modal colorization methods to integrate the advantages of different models.

4. Colorization based on Sketch Images

Sketch images consist of sparse lines, and the information in the images is sparse compared to grayscale images. Colorization of grayscale images tends to use grayscale information from the $L$ channel in Lab space, and it is easier to judge the same semantic area by pixel values, so it is difficult to directly apply to sketch images. Usually, sketch colorization methods are mostly sample-based or need users to provide guidance information, and contain both automatic colorization option and an interactive user mode, since the input images do not carry texture information. In early research, color
hints provided by the user are spread to the entire image, but these colorization methods are limited by the quality of sketch images, the richness of color information, and values of method parameters. In the last five years, most popular models are based on neural networks, such as CNN [8], GANs [9] and U-net architecture [72], which can replace the manual effort of carrying out colorization and can make monochrome images more attractive. In addition, we introduce a special sketch colorization method in the last subsection, which directly generates pictures based on the input sketch images.

4.1. Color Hints or Strokes based Colorization

In an early paper in 2009, Sýkora et al. [24] described the LazyBrush colorization model which needs users to carefully make color scribbles. They transform the coloring problem of sketch images into an optimization problem, and design an energy function which consists of two main terms: smoothness and data. The smoothness term mainly ensures to hide color discontinuity, and the data term mainly considers the color prompt information added by the user. Although the LazyBrush algorithm performs well in interactive colorization, a long time is needed to calculate the iteration. In order to reduce the algorithmic complexity, Sébastien et al. [73] focus on line art images and do not process black-and-white cartoon or manga, and performs fine analysis on the local geometry of stroke contours. Compared with LazyBrush, their CPU calculation time is reduced by more than 70% in different sizes of test images. Although the algorithm based on optimization is robust and has a high success rate for colorization, methods based on deep networks have natural advantages in reducing user interaction and colorization speed.

In the method based on deep networks, the GAN usually is used a generative model to colorize sketch images, and U-net [72] are instead of the traditional encoder-decoder structure as the GAN’s generator. Liu et al. [74] used conditional generative adversarial networks (cGANs) to train the automatic painter model to produce compatible colors for a sketch. Moreover, their architecture allows users to control the color of generated images, which is based on [75] to add color strokes to the input sketch image.

Ci et al. [76] proposed a novel conditional adversarial synthesis architecture, which combined with a local feature network. The main branch of the generator is developed
based on U-net [72] and four sub-networks, each containing a convolution block to fuse features from skip connection. And the local feature extracted from local feature network as an additional input of generator and discriminator, to avoid overfitting characteristic of the line art, to help the generator to produce vivid colorful color outputs.

In addition to the end-to-end colorization network, Zhang et al. [26] proposed a two-stage line art colorization network based on color hints (known as style to paint version V3). Each stage of the network consists of a generator based on the U-Net structure and a discriminator, where the color hints marked by the user in the two stages are directly inputted into the network together with the line art image. It is worth noting that the second-stage network uses Inception V1 [77] to extract the features of the simulated color draft generated by the first-stage network and merge them into the intermediate features of the generator. This method can get a good colorization result by adding color hints, but each image requires a lot of user input as color hints.

Moreover, a commercial website PaintsChainer [25] also colorizes sketches based on color hints, which is an automatic colorization model for sketch images. The model provides three different painting styles for the user to choose from, and will produce different results based on the same sketch image. This product is user-friendly for the non-programmer artist and can process sketch images through their online web page without the need to download any software.

Color hints and strokes provide a more convenient interactive tool to support the user to specify the color of the local details of the image. For the colorization of a single image, such methods allow the user to iteratively optimize and produce the desired result. If used on multiple images and videos, there is still a lot of interaction. However, when artists color comics, they often design the clothing and color matching of the characters in advance, and color the content according to the preset image, which has inspired some colorization work based on reference images.

4.2. Reference Color Image based Colorization

Different from color hints based colorization methods, reference based colorization methods match segment shapes or even semantic similarity between reference images and input images to colorize different positions. We divide reference based colorization
methods into deep networks and graph correspondence. In the deep network based colorization methods, the color of result only takes the reference image as conditional information, and does not completely depend on it. However, the method based on graph correspondence usually copies the color value of reference images, and color value of result images completely depends on the reference image.

4.2.1. Colorization by Deep Networks

A series of research work of Style to Paint is an important work of applying deep network to color line art images. In style to paint version V1 [78], the model can color sketch images based on the input reference images. The main idea is to use U-net and AC-GAN [79] in a generator for the style image. They redesigned the new network residual U-net [72], and initialized the network with a Gaussian random number. The network shows a stable gradient in the training process and to solve potential noise he adds two additional losses to avoid the vanishing gradient problem. In style to paint version V3 [26], as introduced in Section 4.1, they proposed a two-stage CNN-based colorization framework. Instead of using the reference image, in this model users use the color hint mark to provide colors for the sketch image. In the same year, Sun et al. [80] designed a dual conditional generative adversarial network for the colorization problem in icon design. The model can get a good colorization result on simple strokes such as icons, but color bleeding still appears sometimes, and it cannot handle complex sketch images well.

In the work of colorizing line art videos, the videos are usually divided into multiple video sequences. Researchers usually provide one or more reference color images for each video sequence to color the remaining line art frames. Thasarathan et al. [81] proposed a line art video colorization model called automatic Temporally Coherent Video Colorization (TCVC), which extends the image-to-image translation model based on the conditional GAN [82]. They input the line art image and the color image of the previous frame into the generator network for providing color prior information. The discriminator network uses the patch GAN structure proposed by Isola et al. [82], and inputs the line art image and the corresponding color image at the same time to ensure the temporal color consistency.
Fig. 1: This figure demonstrates the overview of our approach. We first automatically segment the sketched image before extracting each region's BGC feature. Taking these features as input, we then apply the active learning algorithm (Algorithm 1). Many more details are shown in a more detailed figure to clarify the core concepts involved. The proposed active learning framework (Algorithm 1) is implemented in Python using the PyTorch library. We evaluate our framework on a set of manually annotated images. Using this approach, we obtain high-quality results and significant improvements in terms of both accuracy and efficiency compared to existing methods.

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The shape information in regions of interest is maintained, and the color information is maintained, serious

In this section, we evaluate our active learning framework on a set of manually annotated images. Using this approach, we obtain high-quality results and significant improvements in terms of both accuracy and efficiency compared to existing methods.
et al. [64] first extract contours which are filled with the "trapped-ball" algorithm [85] to generate color patches, and then are fed into the VGG-19 model to generate color patches features. In addition, after obtaining the bidirectional optical flow correspondence, a recurrent flow refinement network are proposed to optimize the final optical flow through multiple iterations of learning.

Given an arbitrary reference image, such methods can generate color images. Obvious artifacts such as color matching errors and color mixing are prone to occur, especially when the fill is a pure color, as shown in Fig. 14(b). Researchers can consider adding region segmentation information to optimize the colorization results.

4.2.2. Colorization by Graph Correspondence

Since a line art image can be divided into different regions according to lines, the researcher can quickly transfer color from the reference image using the image matching method. Sato et al. [4] proposed a colorization method for line art images based on image matching. First, the method uses the super-pixel method [87] to divide the reference image and the target image into different regions, and then the different regions are used as nodes to compose the graph structure. Then the method uses the area of the node and the length/angle of the vector composed of the centroid of different nodes
to calculate the similarity between the two nodes. Finally, according to the reference image and the target image represented by the graph structure, they obtained the final matching result by solving a Quadratic Programming problem, and transferred the color of the reference image to the target image.

The method proposed by Sato et al. [4] needs to specify the number of segmentation regions, and when the lines of the line art image are very complicated, the user needs to manually adjust the segmentation results. In addition, the method calculates the pairwise similarity of nodes, and does not make full use of the shape features of the segmented regions themselves. Chen et al. [27] proposed a colorization method combined with active learning [88]. The overall pipeline of the method is shown in Fig. 13. First, the trapped-ball segmentation [85] was used to automatically segment the line art image, and inner-distance shape context (IDSC) [89] is used to extract the features of the segmented regions. And then, the features of the segmented regions of the reference image and the adjacency relationship between the regions are expressed as a graph structure, and finally the mixed-integer quadratic programming method (MIQP) is used to solve the graph matching problem. As the comparison shows in Figs. 14(d)(e), with the same reference image, Sato et al. [4](d) failed when the number and structure of regions changed. Chen et al. [27](e) produce better results, however, there are still colorization errors in smaller segmented regions (such as the left side of the face).

The colorization method based on the graph correspondence needs to segment the image into sub-regions in advance, and construct the graph structure according to the adjacency relationship between sub-regions. Some methods introduce constraints such as shape similarity during optimization. But such methods suffer from segmentation mistakes and are only suitable for some simple-structured images. When the number of image areas is too large and the structure changes, the effect is slightly worse, such as the case where there are too many lines in the hair area.

4.3. **Text Hints based Method**

Text based colorization methods not only learn the correspondence between the color and the semantic regions of images, but also the correspondence between the text and the color needs to be determined. Kim [90] purposed using text tags to colorize
sketch images. Users can easily color line art images based on their input color variant tag (CVT) from which the generator produces a color result. The CVT module first extracts the features of input text information, and then merges the features to the output features through the SECA2 (Squeeze and Excitation with Concatenation) module.

For the first time, Zou et al. [28] proposed a language-based interactive colorization system for scene sketches. Users can color the foreground objects and background sequentially through text scripts. They proposed a new instance matching model, which uses the DeepLab-v2 [91] network to extract sketch features, and the interactive model mLSTM (multimodal Long Short-Term Memory) [92] is also added to the generator network, which can achieve the joint modeling of text script and images. Zou et al. [28] also designed a foreground colorization network and a background colorization network to facilitate the processing of foreground objects and background areas with different image characteristics. It is worth noting that since the current research on semantic understanding in natural language processing is still in the preliminary stage, the input text of text based colorization methods is more similar to a text control instruction, and more accurate text understanding and color matching are still need further research.

4.4. Sketch to Image Synthesis

The synthesis of sketch to image is a kind of research related to the colorization of line art images. Different from the line art colorization, the sketch to image synthesis method does not strictly provide color values at different positions, but extracts the semantic features of the lines in sketch image and compares them with the existing images in the data set. After that, a new image is synthesized by fusing different matching results. Therefore, the method of sketch to image usually requires an amount of data to be matched.

4.4.1. Image synthesis by Internet Search

Chen et al. [93] proposed a system Sketch2Photo that can automatically synthesize realistic images from sketches with text labels. Sketches will be divided into background and multiple scene items, and then match the initial set of candidate images
on the Internet based on text labels and lines. For the background image, the candidate images with inconsistent content and cluttered regions are removed. Inspired by Ben-Haim et al. [94], they used a clustering algorithm to filter the content consistency of the image, and count the number of regions covered by the convex hull of all scene items to determine whether the image is uncluttered or not. And then, after discarding candidate background images with salient areas and complex backgrounds, they use the grab-cut algorithm [95] to segment the expanded areas of the target object from the image. According to the shape feature and the clustering algorithm, the images with inconsistent shapes and inconsistent content are eliminated. Finally, they used the proposed hybrid method to fuse the background and scene item candidate images.

Later, Chen et al. [96] proposed a method that can quickly build a large-scale human image database. Inspired by Sketch2Photo [93], they use a human detection algorithm [97] to extract images containing humans from the Internet. Then they filter out the algorithm-unfriendly images, and segment the foreground and background of the image. The final human image is organized by action semantics and clothes attributes, and the user can retrieve images of the corresponding posture through the outline. In addition, Chen et al. [96] demonstrated the use of this data to generate multi-frame personalized content image synthesis programs.

By extracting and assembling content from existing data, reasonable image results can be obtained. However, since the generated results depend on the existing data content, the image content outside the dataset cannot be generated. The emergence of generative networks solves this problem, training on existing datasets to generate new results in addition to existing ones. Therefore, the methods based on generative networks for image synthesis have become more popular.

4.4.2. Image synthesis by Generative Networks

Sangkloy et al. [75] proposed a sketch-to-photo architecture, similar to an image-to-image translation network [98]. They are the first to use a feed-forward architecture model that can generate realistic images based on imperfect sketches. The architecture presented colonization in three different domains: faces, bedrooms and cars. Chen et al. [99] proposed a fully automatic model to synthesize realistic images from human-
drawn sketches. The model takes the GAN model as the basic structure and proposes the Mask Residual Unit (MRU). The convolutional features of the previous layer and an additional image are fed into the MRU, then the MRU dynamically determines the final output features of the network by calculating an internal mask. This is conducive to generating results that are similar in content information to the input image and generating higher quality results.

Different from the previous image synthesis methods based on sketches and colors [93, 98], Xian et al. [100] proposed an image synthesis method based on sketches and textures. This method realizes the fine-grained control of the synthesized image based on the texture image. For this purpose, they mainly design two GAN network structures to produce preliminary synthesis results and fine-tuned textures of synthesized images respectively. In addition, a novel local texture loss $L_{t}$ was proposed. The loss function first randomly samples $n$ patches of $s \times s$ size from the generated result $G(x)$ and the input texture image $I_{i}$, and then calculates its Local Adversarial Loss $L_{adv}$, Local Style Loss $L_{s}$, and Pixel Loss $L_{p}$. The specific calculation is as follows:

$$L_{t} = L_{s} + w_{p}L_{p} + w_{adv}L_{adv} \tag{5}$$

where $L_{s}$ use Gram matrix-based style loss and $L_{p}$ use L2 pixel loss. $L_{adv}$ is defined as follows:

$$L_{adv} = - \sum_{i} (D_{adv}(h(G(x), R_{i}), h(I_{i}, R_{i})) - 1)^2 \tag{6}$$

where $D_{adv}$ is a local texture discriminator, $h(x, R)$ represents cropping a patch from the segmentation mask $R$ of image $x$.

Inspired by [101], Chen et al. [102] proposed a local-global network for sketch-based image synthesis. They take the facial structure into consideration and design a manifold projection to deal with rough/incomplete sketch. For easier use by ordinary users with little drawing skill, they design an interface with shadow-guided on the drawing board like ShadowDraw [103]. They further proposed a disentanglement framework [104] which could disentangle the geometry and the appearance features from facial images. With this framework, it is possible to edit the appearance by
a typical 205 hues by 6 hue. The relevant color histogram for each hue is 56 different. We further enhance the language by generating the mean color from each hue and adding the 314-dimensional history vector to it. Compared to the color image, this is the color of the average color of all the pixels in the image.

**Question 2:** How does the color model improve the representation of the image's color information?

We calculate the color distribution of each hue and store it in a table. Then, we can use this table to generate the color of the image at a specific location. For example, the color of the image at coordinate (x, y) is calculated as the mean color of all the pixels in the image.

**Question 3:** What is the role of the color histogram in the image representation?

The color histogram is used to represent the color distribution of the image. By using the histogram, we can easily see the distribution of colors in the image. This information is useful for various tasks such as image classification and object detection.

**Question 4:** How is the color model applied to the image reconstruction process?

We use the color model to reconstruct the image from the color information. This is done by generating the image pixel by pixel based on the color distribution of the image. The result is a more realistic image that is similar to the original image.
parts, they used the Laplacian-of-Gaussian mask to detect outlines. When realizing continuous frame colorization, they used a probabilistic reasoning scheme to calculate the similar region and neighborhood relationship to process more video frames. Finally, to improve the quality they added color modulation, composition, and a technique to remove dust spots in order to improve the appearance of the final image. In this way, the image edges are sharp and can adapt to complicated drawing. The whole process is semi-automatic.

For manga colorization, Qu et al. [29] proposed a manga colorization method based on user scribbles. In this model, they use a novel texture-based level set method for segmentation. The model provides two modes of propagation for segmentation, pattern-continuous and intensity continuous propagation. Users can easily alter those two methods in different steps. The model can identify the hatching and screening effects that are used in traditional paper comics. After confirming the segment region, they use three different colorization methods for various conditions, such as color replacement, stroke-preserving colorization, and pattern to shading.

Hensman et al. [86] used cGAN and post-processing to colorize manga images, reducing the degree of user interaction and producing better results. This method can be divided into the following steps: screen tone removal, segmentation, color selection, saturation increase, color quantization, and generation of shading. Model training is based on the corresponding grey-scale image and colorized reference image as a single image pair. Based on the model parameters obtained from the training of a single image pair, the model can colorize manga images similar to the reference image. However, when the character's clothing becomes complex, the model cannot achieve the correct correspondences between different frames. The results will not only contain artifacts, but also are not as colorful as the reference image, as shown in Fig. 14(c).

Hiroshiwa et al. [30] connected the common manga colorization problem and was able to color the same character at once. The overall pipeline of the semi-automatic manga colorization method is shown in Fig. 15. Users need to provide the reference image and the corresponding color image together as input. A segmentation step is based on [106], and semi-automatic colorization is based on the CNN architecture, using an encoder-decoder network with some refinement to improve the performance.
After the palette model, the model produces the draft colorization result, and the user needs to carry out interactive revision of the details to ensure the correctness of the output result. During revision users can choose either color dots or a histogram to adjust the image.

Sketch images contain sparse lines, and grayscale images represent image information such as shading and texture. The manga image may contain one or more styles, such as region boundary, narrow structure, specific region representations, etc. This leads to a conflict in the understanding of image content. Distinguishing the texture of an object or the specific representation in the image is the key to improving the colorization of the manga.

6. Assessment of Colorization

Researchers typically evaluate different colorization methods based on quantitative and qualitative aspects. In quantitative evaluation, researchers assume the existence of unique ground truth and provide unique ground truth, which facilitates simple analysis of colorization results. Then researchers typically use root mean square error (RMSE) [37, 39], peak signal to noise ratio (PSNR) [39, 1, 32], or structural similarity index measurement (SSIM) [32, 27, 62] image evaluation indicators, comparing the results of different colorization methods.

However, the widely used indicators such as PSNR and SSIM do not fully match human perception. In recent years, researchers have generally extracted the deep features of images to compare the perception similarity between images. A common measurement is to use the Inception Score (IS) [107] to evaluate the quality of the generated images. Given a desired image set, we could use the Frechet Inception Distance score (FID) [108, 45] to measure the difference between the distribution of the real images and the distribution of the generated images. Zhang et al. [109] systematically analyzed the unreasonable effectiveness of deep features as a perceptual metric, and proposed the Learned Perceptual Image Patch Similarity (LPIPS) metric which better captures image perception similarity. LPIPS has been used to evaluate colorization by Yoo et al. [13], and this has been shown to be an effective colorization evaluation mea-
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Table 1. Summary for different categories of image colorization method. A marks fully-automatic colorization, R, S, H, and T marks various types of color control, which are reference images, color scribbles, color hints and text hints. Methods with a light blue background are neural network-based approaches.
sure by Žeger et al. [110]. In addition, researchers will also compare the colorization time of different methods for different resolution images [10, 11] and the computing resources, such as network parameter size [2, 99].

In the qualitative comparison of different colorization methods, researchers usually use user study to evaluate, and then use box plots, radar plots, or bar graphs to display the results in the paper. Specifically, in the user study design scheme, the researcher will design multiple questions for different colorization results for users to score and evaluate. These questions mainly include: 1. The authenticity of the colored image [17]: They will mix colored images with real (natural) color images, allowing users to score the authenticity of the image; 2. Whether the colored result obeys the hint color or reference image color [35, 50, 13]: participants will be asked to evaluate the color consistency between the coloring result and the reference image or palette; 3. Color segmentation [26, 90]: Whether the coloring method can accurately identify the colors that should be used in different areas to prevent color bleeding and fusing problems; 4. Coloring time [26]: In interactive colorization methods the researcher will compare the interactive coloring time needed for users to complete the colorization tasks; 5. Quality of the coloring results: Whether the coloring method can produce reasonable results [50, 90]. In addition, researchers not only display user evaluation results, but also use analysis of variance to determine whether there are significant differences between different evaluation indicators, and perform statistical analysis on user survey results [80, 50, 102].

Moreover, existing indicators for quantitative evaluation of colorization results are inaccurate, including PSNR, SSIM, LPIPS, and qualitative comparison can better evaluate the pros and cons of different methods. However, due to the lack of a unified public dataset, especially in the field of line art colorization task, qualitative evaluation cannot fairly compare the capabilities of different colorization methods. Researchers should be committed to open datasets of different coloring tasks, and then use multiple quantitative indicators and qualitative comparisons to evaluate different methods under the same dataset, so as to evaluate the pros and cons of different methods more reasonably.
7. Conclusions

In this survey, we summarize many different methods in image colorization and related areas. Based on the user interaction, we divided grayscale colorization methods into three categories: fully-automatic colorization, semi-automatic colorization and language based colorization. For sketch images, most methods combine the fully-automatic colorization models with user guidance together, as simple editing can improve the result and make it closer to their expectations. For each area, they are pursuing different goals to meet the different demands, and with deep learning, huge progress has been made in recent years.

Exploring the connection between colorization for grayscale images and for sketch images, we found that there are many similarities, and the color processing techniques are the same. The common goal of grayscale colorization is to achieve the most realistic color which should be the same as the ground truth, so there are many methods that focus on how to fill in the one or more right colors for each pixel in the image. Usually some object colors are not fixed to one color in the real-world such as balloons and the color of a dress. And for sketch image colorization, the methods require accuracy which is achieved by image segmentation, and prevents the color bleeding issue. Most anime and manga character colors are unknown, so using the ‘wrong’ color will not be a big issue in sketch colorization. We summarize the models in Table 1, which list the grayscale image and sketch image colorization methods based on the publication year respectively. It can be seen from Table. 1 that before 2016 most research was carried out on grayscale images, and thereafter research has increased on sketch images. Moreover, with the development of neural networks, the latest methods tend to be more automatic and less interactive. The two main problems of the current research are how to further improve the quality of generation while also reducing interactions, and how to accurately control the boundaries of colorization areas in a convenient way, such as text or sketch.

Developments in this area are closely connected with segmentation, semantic and style transfer study. Regardless of whether it is to improve the quality of image colorization or interactively control image colorization, researchers need to propose more
accurate image region segmentation and semantic matching methods to determine the boundaries of coloring regions, so as to avoid color overflow and cross-coloring in colorized images. The current research trend is to use machine learning to solve problems instead of determining everything by hand. However, the parameters of the network are hard to determine based on lack of information, and they still do not provide a good solution for all cases. At the same time, the current deep learning-based methods cannot precisely control the colorization result regardless of whether it is processing grayscale images or line art images, and lacks an effective and precise method to control interaction. This is mainly reflected in the fact that the interactive colorization methods based on hints, sketch or text can only provide color prior information for the region, but cannot control the region boundary or the propagation of color prior information.

In the existing methods, interactive control methods include simple color feature fusion, intermediate network output feature normalization, and color palette control after quantization of the reference image. These feature control methods need to be further improved. In the future, researchers may consider using the feature fusion method of the transformer model [44] or the CLIP (Contrastive Language-Image Pre-training) model [111]. In addition, the information contained in the sketch is sparse and ambiguous. The semantic analysis of the lines in the sketch can effectively reduce the ambiguity of the lines and further improve the quality of the image. To reach it, we need to refocus on the interpretability of the neural network structure, and have a deeper understanding of how color is formed in the colorization process. There are many commercial applications of colorization, and these can be further extended by exploring new formulations and solutions.

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49


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Lin Gao      Writing - Review & Editing and Project administration
Declaration of Interest Statement

Declaration of interests

☐ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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