A Hybrid $\ell_1$-$\ell_0$ Layer Decomposition Model for Tone Mapping

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Abstract

Tone mapping aims to reproduce a standard dynamic range image from a high dynamic range image with visual information preserved. State-of-the-art tone mapping algorithms mostly decompose an image into a base layer and a detail layer, and process them accordingly. These methods may have problems of halo artifacts and over-enhancement, due to the lack of proper priors imposed on the two layers. In this paper, we propose a hybrid $\ell_1$-$\ell_0$ decomposition model to address these problems. Specifically, an $\ell_1$ sparsity term is imposed on the base layer to model its piecewise smoothness property. An $\ell_0$ sparsity term is imposed on the detail layer as a structural prior, which leads to piecewise constant effect. We further propose a multiscale tone mapping scheme based on our layer decomposition model. Experiments show that our tone mapping algorithm achieves visually compelling results with little halo artifacts, outperforming the state-of-the-art tone mapping algorithms in both subjective and objective evaluations.

1. Introduction

The real-world scenes could span a luminance dynamic range that significantly exceeds the response range of most imaging devices [4]. Thanks to the rapid development of high dynamic range (HDR) techniques in the past decade, the intact information of the scene can be recorded in a radiance map by bracketed exposure fusion technique [2, 7]. However, most of the display devices have a limited dynamic range and are not able to reproduce the information in the radiance map faithfully. Therefore, an effective tone mapping algorithm is needed to transform the HDR radiance map into a standard dynamic range (SDR) image without sacrificing the main visual information.

In the past two decades, a large number of tone mapping methods have been proposed in the literature. Despite the diversity in the design methodology, a large part of these tone mapping methods are based on layer decomposition [8]. Specifically, an image is decomposed into a base layer and a detail layer and then processed separately. The detail layer with fine-grain details is preserved or boosted [8, 14], and the base layer with large spatial smoothness and high range variations is compressed. Although most layer-decomposition-based tone mapping algorithms could increase the visual interpretability of a radiance map to some extent, they still have limitations in obtaining natural and visually pleasing results. A typical problem is the over-enhancement of small scale textural details. This is because the existing works commonly ignore the spatial property of the detail layer, which has a significant impact on the tone mapped image. In addition, halo artifacts are also a problem in some tone mapping algorithms due to the lack of edge-preserving property for the base layer [14]. In order to obtain a natural and artifact-free reproduction of the radiance map, some proper priors must be incorporated into the layer decomposition framework.

Given the fact that a tremendous amount of information is recorded in an HDR radiance map, which part of the information should be assigned a high priority for visual perception is an important question for tone mapping. In psychology, it was found that human vision is more sensitive to edges [1, 13]. This visual mechanism facilitates the capturing of the main semantic information of the scene. In the research of intrinsic decomposition [3, 6], it is commonly assumed that the edges in the reflectance layer (a concept similar to the detail layer) is sparse, which also indicates the high importance of the structural information in an image. In view of the above observations, a tone mapping operator should address the structural reproduction in the first place. Since the spatial property of the detail layer in the layer decomposition framework largely affects the visual appearance of the tone mapped image, we consider to impose a structural sparsity prior on the detail layer.

While the use of spatial prior for detail layer has rarely been reported in tone mapping research, the $\ell_1$ sparsity prior has long been adopted in Retinex decomposition [12, 25] to model the structural sparsity of the reflectance layer. Although the $\ell_1$ term preserves edges in an image, its piecewise
smoothness nature leads to a weak structural prior. On the other hand, the \( \ell_0 \) sparsity term has shown great piecewise flattening property \[34\], and it seems to be a better choice for the structural prior.

In this paper, we propose a hybrid \( \ell_1-\ell_0 \) layer decomposition model for tone mapping. Specifically, an \( \ell_0 \) gradient sparsity term is imposed on detail layer to model the structural prior. In this way, the detail layer will mostly contain structural information, which will be enhanced. Meanwhile, to reduce the halo artifacts, an \( \ell_1 \) gradient sparsity term is imposed on the base layer to preserve edges. A multiscale tone mapping scheme is developed based on our decomposition model. Due to the use of proper priors in our layer decomposition, our tone mapper outperforms state-of-the-art algorithms in both subjective and objective evaluations.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews some related work. Section 3 presents the proposed layer decomposition model. Our multiscale tone mapping algorithm is summarized in Section 4. Section 5 and Section 6 are experiments and conclusion, respectively.

2. Related Work

Our work is mainly related to tone mapping, Retinex-based layer decomposition and edge-aware filtering.

**Tone mapping.** Existing tone mapping algorithms can be categorized into global methods and local methods. Global tone mapping methods reproduce an SDR image with a single compressive curve \[28, 32, 33\]. In contrast, local tone mapping methods perform this task in a spatially variant manner and are better in detail enhancement. Local methods are commonly based on layer decomposition, where the base layer is first estimated by an edge-preserving filter and detail layer is the residual between base layer and the original image. Different local tone mapping algorithms mainly differ in the filter design techniques. At early stage, kernel-based filters were adopted. Reinhard et al. proposed to use a Gaussian-based filter with a spatially adaptive scale parameter \[29\]. Durand et al. adopted a bilateral filter to estimate the base layer \[8\]. Although this method can avoid halo artifacts to some extent, it over-enhances the image by boosting the small-scale details. Li et al. proposed a multiscale wavelet scheme for tone mapping \[18\]. Meylan et al. proposed a Retinex-based adaptive filter for tone mapping \[23\]. A weighted guided filter for tone mapping is proposed in \[14\], which also has the over-enhancement problem due to the excessive boosting of small scale details. Global optimization-based filters were also proposed for tone mapping. Farbman et al. proposed a weighted least square (WLS) filter \[10\]. This filter achieves excellent smoothing effect with strong edge-preserving property. Other tone mapping algorithms include globally linear window method \[30\] and PCA-based method \[17\].

While the existing layer-decomposition-based tone mapping methods impose edge-preserving prior on base layer, they show little concern on detail layer. In contrast, our decomposition framework imposes a structural prior on the detail layer to improve the visual quality of the results.

**Retinex-based decomposition.** Though originally derived from visual constancy study \[16\], Retinex decomposition estimates the illumination and reflectance from a single image. Retinex decomposition is usually formulated as a variational model with different priors on reflectance and illumination. In the seminal work \[15\], Kimmel et al. proposed an \( \ell_2 \)-based Retinex decomposition model for contrast enhancement, where the illumination and reflectance are assumed to be globally smooth. Ng et al. assumed that the
reflected layer is piecewise smoothness and replaced the $\ell_2$ norm with a total variation term [25]. Liang et al. assumed that the illumination is piecewise-smooth and proposed a nonlinear diffusion based method for illumination estimation [19]. This method preserves edge in the illumination layer and suppresses the outlier-rejection nature of the hybrid usage of the $\ell_2$ function formulated as an $\ell_2$ close to the original image. The spatial property of the base image. The first term $(\partial_i S_p - B_p)$, the spatial derivative operation along $x$ and $y$ directions. The spatial property of the detail layer is formulated as an $\ell_0$ gradient sparsity term with an indicating function $F(x)$:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}. \quad (2)$$

The merits of our layer decomposition model lie in the hybrid usage of the $\ell_1$ and $\ell_0$ regularizations. On one hand, due to the outlier-rejection nature of $\ell_1$ sparsity term [20], the large gradients of the base layer are preserved. Thus, the base layer is piecewise smooth. On the other hand, it has been shown that the $\ell_0$ sparsity term yields flattening effects [26,34]. Our model applies $\ell_0$ term to force small textural gradients of the detail layer to be zeros, while leaving the main structural gradients intact. This arrangement yields piecewise constant effect and successfully models the structural prior, as demonstrated in Fig. 1(b).

Another possible choice for the detail layer is $\ell_1$ gradient sparsity prior, which has been reported in Retinex research [12,25]. In [12], the $\ell_1$ term is imposed on the reflectance/detail layer to gain piecewise constant effect. However, the $\ell_1$ term has two drawbacks. First, its nature of piecewise smoothness [21] is not effective enough to produce piecewise constant result, as depicted in Fig. 1(c). Second, under the same parameter setting, the $\ell_1$ term cannot strongly regularize the detail layer, which could lead to over-enhancement of the tone mapped image, as shown in Fig. 1(e). To show the difference between the $\ell_1$ term and $\ell_0$ term, the 1-D profile signals extracted from their resultant detail layers are shown in Fig. 1(f). The position of the signal is indicated by the yellow line in Fig. 1(a). We can see that the $\ell_0$ term flattens the small trivial variations and preserves visually important edges, whereas the $\ell_1$ term is not effective on this. As a result, the use of $\ell_0$ term avoids the over-enhancement problem and increases the visual interpretability of an image, as demonstrated in Fig. 1(d).

3. Layer Decomposition Method

We first propose a hybrid $\ell_1$-$\ell_0$ layer decomposition model and give the solver. Then, we extend this decomposition method to a multiscale framework, where different components of an image can be manipulated for tone mapping.

3.1. Hybrid $\ell_1$-$\ell_0$ Layer Decomposition Model

To devise a suitable layer decomposition framework, we propose to impose the structural prior on the detail layer and the edge-preserving prior on the base layer. Denote by $S$, $B$ and $S - B$ the original image, the base layer, and the detail layer, respectively. The proposed layer decomposition optimization model is given as follows:

$$\min_B \sum_{p=1}^{N} \left\{ (S_p - B_p)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{i=|x,y|} |\partial_i B_p| + \lambda_2 \sum_{i=|x,y|} F(\partial_i (S_p - B_p)) \right\}, \quad (1)$$

where $p$ is the pixel index, $N$ is the number of pixels in the image. The first term $(S_p - B_p)^2$ forces the base layer to be close to the original image. The spatial property of the base layer is formulated as an $\ell_1$ gradient sparsity term $|\partial_i B_p|$, $i = x, y$, where $\partial_i$ is the partial derivative operation along $x$ or $y$ direction. The spatial property of the detail layer is formulated as an $\ell_0$ gradient sparsity term with an indicating function $F(x)$:

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3.2. Model Solver

The objective function (1) is nonconvex due to the $\ell_0$ norm regularization. We adopt the Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers (ADMM) framework [5] to solve this optimization model. Due to the limited space, we only briefly the solving of each subproblem. Please refer to the supplementary material for more detailed description.

For the sake of clarity, we firstly rewrite the objective function (1) in a matrix-vector form as:

$$\min_b \frac{1}{2} \| s - b \|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \| \nabla b \|_1 + \lambda_2 \| F(\nabla (s - b)) \|_2^2, \quad (3)$$

where $s, b \in \mathbb{R}^N$ are the concatenated vector form of $S, B$ in (1), respectively, and $1 \in \mathbb{R}^{2N}$ is a vector of all ones. $\nabla$ denotes the concatenation of two gradient operator matrices $\nabla = [\nabla^T_x, \nabla^T_y] \in \mathbb{R}^{2N \times N}$. $F(\nabla (s - b))$ performs elementwise non-zero indication and outputs a binary vector. Now two auxiliary variables $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{2N}$ are introduced to replace $\nabla b, \nabla (s - b)$, respectively. The resultant augmented Lagrangian function of our model is

$$\mathcal{L}(b, c_1, c_2, y_1, y_2) = \frac{1}{2} \| s - b \|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \| c_1 \|_1$$

$$+ \lambda_2 \| F(c_2) + (c_1 - \nabla b) \|_2^2$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \| (c_1 - \nabla b) \|_2^2$$

$$+ \lambda_3 \| c_2 - \nabla (s - b) \|_2^2; \quad (4)$$

where $y_i, i = 1, 2$ are the Lagrangian dual variables. At iteration $k$, the function (4) is optimized by minimizing several primal sub-problems and maximizing the dual problems alternatively.

(1) Solving $b^{k+1}$:
Two scales

This amounts to solving via soft shrinkage

\[ T\]"}{\(T\)c} can be solved efficiently via FFT transformation (Place refer to our supplementary material).

(2) Solving \(c_1^{k+1}\):

The objective function with respect to \(c_1^{k+1}\) can be solved via soft shrinkage

\[ c_1^{k+1} = T_{\lambda_1}/\rho^k (\nabla b^{k+1} - y_1^{k}/\rho^k), \]  \(_(5)\)

where \(T_\alpha(x) = \text{sign}(x) \cdot \max(|x| - \alpha, 0)\) is the soft-thresholding function.

(3) Solving \(c_2^{k+1}\):

According to the analysis of \[34\], the objective function with respect to \(c_2^{k+1}\) can be solved in a per-entry manner. This amounts to solving \(N\) independent scalar functions. Denote by subscript \(j\) the \(j\)th entry of a vector. The solution of \(c_2^{k+1}\) at entry \(j\) is

\[ c_2^{k+1,j} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } (f_j^{k})^2 \leq \frac{\lambda_2}{\rho^k} \\ f_j^{k}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \]  \(_(6)\)

denote \(f_j^{k} = (\nabla (s - b^{k+1} - y_2^{k}/\rho^k))_j, j = 1, ..., 2N\).

(4) Dual ascent for Lagrangian multipliers.

(5) Update \(\rho^{k+1}\) as \(\rho^{k+1} = 2\rho^k\).

The ADMM is efficient to find the approximate solution for the base layer \(B\) variable within a few iterations (15 in our case). After \(B\) is obtained, the detail layer can be calculated by \(S - B\).

3.3. Extension to Multiscale Decomposition

By applying the hybrid \(\ell_1-\ell_0\) decomposition model \([1]\) to the radiance map, we can produce a piecewise constant detail layer and a piecewise smooth base layer. While this single-scale scheme endows a standard framework for tone mapping, applying the decomposition to the base layer repeatedly leads to a multiscale decomposition, which can further improve the tone mapping results. In this way, different attributes of an image, represented by different scale layers, can be differentially manipulated, which leads to a more flexible and effective tone reproduction. By leveraging the efficiency and effectiveness, we adopt a two-scale decomposition scheme for tone mapping, as depicted in Fig. 2. It will produce a scale-1 detail layer \(D_1\), a scale-2 detail layer \(D_2\) and a scale-2 base layer \(B_2\).

As discussed in Section 3.1, the spatial property of \(D_1\) largely affects the tone mapped image. We apply the proposed \(\ell_1-\ell_0\) model \([1]\) to the first scale decomposition:

\[ B_1 = \text{model}_{\ell_1, \ell_0} (S), \]  \(_(8a)\)

\[ D_1 = S - B_1, \]  \(_(8b)\)

where \(\text{model}_{\ell_1, \ell_0} (\cdot)\) is the optimization model in \([1]\). After the first level decomposition, the structural information remains in the detail layer \(D_1\) and the main textural information is transferred to the base layer \(B_1\).

For the second scale decomposition, a simplified model \([1]\) is applied to \(B_1\), where the weight \(\lambda_2\) of the \(\ell_0\) term is set to 0, leading to a total variation problem:

\[ \lambda_2 \]"}{\(\lambda_2\)} is fixed to 0.3. The MLE values of \(\lambda_2\) are 2.33, 1.55, and 0.97, respectively.
\[ B_2 = \arg \min_B \sum_{p=1}^N \left\{ (B_{1,p} - B_p)^2 + \lambda_3 \sum_{i=(x,y)} |\partial_i B_p| \right\}, \]
\[ D_2 = B_1 - B_2. \]

This simplification is based on the fact that we aim to preserve the textural information of the image in the scale-2 detail layer \( D_2 \). Thus, the \( \ell_0 \)-based structural prior is not applicable in this scale of decomposition. As a result, the layer \( D_2 \) stores the majority of the textural information, and the layer \( B_2 \) contains local mean brightness.

To summarize, our two-scale decomposition scheme produces three layers \( D_1 \), \( D_2 \) and \( B_2 \), which satisfies:
\[ S = D_1 + D_2 + B_2. \] (10)

Fig. 3 shows the tone mapping results of our model with 1 scale and 2 scales (The details of our tone mapping algorithm will be discussed in Section 4). It can be seen that while the one-scale result is acceptable, the two-scale result preserves better the medium frequency component of an image and achieves more natural appearance.

**Acceleration.** The accuracy of the second scale decomposition (9) is not strictly required. Thus, we adopt an acceleration scheme. First, we linearly downsample the \( B_1 \) layer by a factor of 4. Then the decomposition model in (7) is performed to get a low resolution image of \( B_2 \), followed by a linear upsampling to the original resolution. Because the boundary regions in the image are slightly blurred due to the sampling scheme, we finally perform a fast joint bilateral filtering of \( B_2 \) with the original \( B_1 \) as the guidance image to recover the sharp boundary information [27].

## 4. Tone Mapping

Based on the outputs of the proposed layer decomposition, a tone mapping algorithm is developed, whose major steps include color transformation, multiscale decomposition, detail layer boosting, base layer compression, and recombination of the layers. While this framework is common in the tone mapping research, our approach differs in two aspects. First, our suit of layer decomposition models is discriminative in the spatial attributes of an image. As described in Section 3.3, our multiscale decomposition deploys the structural information, textural information and local mean brightness separately into different layers, whereas existing multiscale models merely perform progressive smoothing [10][14]. Second, in our multiscale manipulation approach, we perform a layer-selective nonlinear processing, whereas other works only perform linear intensity scaling [10].

Since the dynamic range of an image is mostly embedded in the brightness domain, our core algorithm only processes the luminance channel and preserves the chromaticity components. Specifically, the input RGB radiance map is transformed to HSV space and only the V channel is tone mapped. At the reverse transformation stage, the saturation channel is multiplied by 0.6 to prevent from oversaturation.

Our tone mapping algorithm on the luminance channel of an radiance map is depicted in Fig. [2]. The channel \( V_b \) of the radiance map is firstly converted to log domain and normalized to the range of (0, 1). This step mimics the response of human vision to the luminance and preliminarily reduces the dynamic range. Then our two-scale decomposition model using (8) and (9) is applied, yielding three layers \( D_1 \), \( D_2 \) and \( B_2 \). Since the base layer \( B_2 \) can be considered as the local brightness level of the image, we compress it by a gamma function:
\[ V'_b = L \cdot \left( \frac{B_b}{L} \right)^{\gamma}, \]
where \( L \) is the largest brightness level (\( L = 1 \) in our case, due to the normalization). For the first-scale detail layer \( D_1 \), we use a nonlinear stretching function to boost it:
\[ D'_1 = \text{sign} \cdot D_1 \cdot \left( \frac{|D_1|}{\max(|D_1|)} \right)^{\alpha} \cdot \max(|D_1|). \]
This function with the parameter \( \alpha \) has a stretching effect for signals centering at 0. Smaller \( \alpha \) yields larger stretching degree and vice versa. Since the structural prior is imposed on \( D_1 \) by the decomposition model [1], the structural residual of the original image is boosted by the stretching function. This arrangement would result in a more visually appealing image. Then, a luminance SDR image is reconstructed by
\[ V_s = 1.2D'_1 + D_2 + 0.8B_2. \] (13)
Finally, the values of \( V_s \) at 0.5% and 99.5% intensity level are mapped to 0 and 1, respectively. Values out of this range are clipped.

## 5. Experiments and Analysis

This section presents several experiments to verify the performance of our hybrid \( \ell_1-\ell_0 \) layer decomposition model [1] and the proposed tone mapping algorithm. A HDR database with 40 radiance maps is collected from various sources [1] for evaluation. These 40 images cover both indoor and outdoor scenes, with different types of objects, including plants, cars, sky and buildings.

### 5.1. Parameter Selection

The major parameters that affect our \( \ell_1-\ell_0 \) decomposition model [1] are \( \lambda_1 \), and \( \lambda_2 \), which control the smoothness degree on the base layer and the detail layer, respectively. In the following, along with visual inspection we use mean local entropy (MLE) [1] to objectively measure the smoothness of the two layers. Larger MLE indicates lower smoothness degree, i.e., more textures in the image, and vice versa.

Fig. 4 shows the effect of \( \lambda_2 \) on the detail layer when \( \lambda_1 \) is fixed. It can be seen from the graph that different values of \( \lambda_2 \) lead to different degrees of flattening/smoothness effect

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1http://pfstools.sourceforge.net/hdr_gallery.html
2http://rit-mcsl.org/fairchild/HDR.html
3We first calculate the local entropy in each 9 \( \times \) 9 window and then average these entropy values.
on $D_1$. When $\lambda_2$ is excessively large (0.008), some structures are totally flattened, resulting in a low MLE (0.97). In contrast, when $\lambda_2$ is too small (0.0008), some small texture gradients appear in $D_1$ with a large MLE (2.33), and the structural prior is less represented. We performed extensive experiments with our database and found that when $\lambda_2$ is set to $0.01\lambda_1$, the decomposition is consistently satisfactory. Fig. 5 presents the effect of parameter $\lambda_1$ when $\lambda_2$ is fixed to $0.01\lambda_1$. It can be seen that $\lambda_2$ controls mainly the signal magnitude of $D_1$, but slightly the degree of piecewise smoothness of $B_1$. We fix $\lambda_1$ to a moderate value of 0.3.

Other parameters to be determined are $\lambda_3$ in (9), $\gamma$ in (11) and $\alpha$ in (12). $\lambda_3$ controls the degree of smoothness in the final base layer $B_2$. We found that except some extreme settings, $\lambda_3$ does not affect much the tone mapped images. Hence $\lambda_3$ is fixed to 0.1. $\alpha$ mainly controls the stretching degree of the first detail layer $D_1$. To avoid over-boosting effect, we set it to a moderate value of 0.8. Finally, the $\gamma$ is set to 2.2 as a common practice in Retinex decomposition research [12, 15, 25].

5.2. The Decomposed Layers

To verify the multiscale decomposition performance of our tone mapping algorithm, we compare with Gu’s multiscale tone mapper [14]. In Gu’s model, a local guided filter weighted by gradient function is repeatedly applied to the original image to obtain a 2-scale decomposition (3 layers). Note that although Gu’s model is claimed to have 3 scales (4 layers), the last scale base layer is a constant image. Thus the valid scale number is two. Gu’s model enforces the edge-preserving property on the base layer without imposing any prior on the detail layer.

In Fig. 6 the multiscale decomposition results by Gu’s model and our model are compared. A 1-D auxiliary analysis is shown in Fig. 7 where a piece of 1-D profile signal (the position is indicated by the white line in Fig. 7(a)) is extracted from the decomposed layers of each method. It can be seen from Fig. 7(b) that Gu’s model performs progressive smoothing without considering the spatial property of the detail layer. Thus, the first detail layer (the red curve in Fig. 7(b)) is full of small fluctuations and the tone mapped image is over-enhanced, as depicted in Fig. 6(d). In addition, Gu’s model does not strictly preserve edges due to the nature of local filtering. Thus the tone mapped result has halo artifact (see the zoom-in in Fig. 6(d)). In contrast, owe to the structural prior, our method distributes the small-scale variations in the second layer $D_2$, and enforces the first layer $D_1$ to be piecewise constant, as shown in Fig. 7(c). Meanwhile, our method is also edge-preserving. It not only avoids halo artifacts but also achieves visually compelling results, as
5.3. Comparison of Tone Mapping

We compare our tone mapper with the state-of-the-art tone mappers \cite{10, 11, 14, 22, 30, 31} on the collected database. These tone mappers include WLS-filter-based method (WLS) \cite{10}, globally linear-window method (GLW) \cite{30}, visual adaptation method (VAD) \cite{11}, backward-compatible method (BWC) \cite{22}, guided filter method (GF) \cite{14}, and gradient reconstruction method (GR) \cite{31}. More comparison results can be found in the supplementary file.

GF is implemented by us since the source code is not available. BWC is implemented with pfstool\footnote{http://pfstools.sourceforge.net/}. The others are implemented by the authors’ source codes. All the tone mapping methods use the default parameters as provided in the original papers.

Subjective evaluation. Figs. 8 and 9 show the comparison of tone mapping results on two images. We can see that our method achieves a good balance between detail enhancement and naturalness preservation. In contrast, other tone mappers suffer from different types of distortions. WLS loses local contrast and GLW suffers from brightness distortion. VAD has the color shift problem and BWC overly softens the image.
images. GR and GF have the over-enhancement problem and halo artifacts. In Fig. 10, our tone mapper is compared with the default tone mapper of Photomatix. We can see that both the methods can obtain satisfactory results, while our method achieves higher visual interpretability due to the highlighting of structural information.

To further verify the performance of our tone mapper, we perform a subjective experiment on our HDR database. Specifically, 6 subjects, 3 males and 3 females, are requested to rate all the tone-mapped results of 40 HDR images by the 5 methods. The score ranges from 1 (the worst) to 8 (the best) spaced with 0.5. 2 of the 6 subjects are researchers in computer vision, while the others major in other fields. The tone mapped images are shown on a PA328 display with 32 inch (7680×4320), controlled by a Mac Pro PC with 2.9 GHz CPU. The mean opinion score statistics are illustrated in Fig. 11. Our tone mapper achieves the highest mean scores (6.43) and a tolerable standard deviation (1.20). The mean scores and standard deviations for other tone mappers are WLS (4.91, 1.02), GLW (4.24, 1.62), VAD (4.68, 1.48), BWC (5.11, 1.21), GF (5.31, 1.45), and GR (4.60, 1.60).

**Objective evaluation.** Aside from subjective evaluation, we use the Tone Mapped Image Quality Index (TMQI)[35] to perform an objective evaluation on the tone mappers. TMQI first evaluates the structural fidelity and naturalness of the tone mapped images. Then the two measures are adjusted by power function and averaged to give a final score ranging from 0 to 1. Larger values of TMQI indicate better quality of the tone mapped image, and vice versa. Table 1 illustrates the mean TMQI score of each tone mapper performed on our database with 40 HDR images. We can see that our method achieves not only the highest TMQI score (0.8851), but also the highest naturalness measure (0.5547). These excellent marks objectively indicate the high visual quality obtained by our algorithm. On the other hand, our tone mapper does not achieve a high fidelity score. This is because the fidelity measure computes the standard deviation in a local window on different scales. Our algorithm, however, regularizes the small scale details to avoid over-enhancement, which lowers the fidelity score.

**Efficiency.** The proposed tone mapper has a moderate computational complexity. The most complicated part is the FFT operation in the ADMM-based solver, which costs $O(N \log(N))$. Table 2 compares the running time of the 5 tone mappers on a 1333×2000 sized image (Fig. 8(a)). The testing environment is a PC with i7 6850k CPU, 16G RAM. It can be seen that our tone mapper has a moderate running time compared with other methods.

### 6. Conclusion

In this paper, a novel hybrid $\ell_1$-$\ell_0$ layer decomposition model was proposed to address the over-enhancement and halo artifact problems of tone mapping. This decomposition model effectively enforces a structural prior to the detail layer and the edge-preserving prior to the base layer. The ADMM algorithm was adopted to solve the decomposition model efficiently. Based on the $\ell_1$-$\ell_0$ layer decomposition outputs, a multiscale tone mapping algorithm was proposed. It performs dynamic range reduction in the base layer and structure boosting in the detail layer. Due to the proper use of the two priors, our multiscale tone mapping algorithm not only avoids halo artifact but also achieves more visually compelling tone mapping results than existing works.

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3https://www.hdrsoft.com/
References


