

# A Mixed Quantization Network for Computationally Efficient Mobile Inverse Tone Mapping

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## Abstract

Recovering a high dynamic range (HDR) image from a single low dynamic range (LDR) image, namely inverse tone mapping (ITM), is challenging due to the lack of information in over- and under-exposed regions. Current methods focus exclusively on training high performing but computationally inefficient ITM models, which in turn hinder deployment of the ITM models in resource-constrained environments with limited computing power such as edge and mobile device applications.

To this end, we propose combining efficient operations of deep neural networks with a novel mixed quantization scheme to construct a well performing but computationally efficient mixed quantization network (MQN) which can perform single image ITM on mobile platforms. In the ablation studies, we explore the effect of using different attention mechanisms, quantization schemes and loss functions on the performance of MQN in ITM tasks. In the comparative analyses, ITM models trained using MQN perform on par with the state-of-the-art methods on benchmark datasets. MQN models provide up to 10 times improvement on latency and 25 times improvement on memory consumption.

## 1 Introduction

High dynamic range (HDR) imaging enables capturing, storing, and displaying images and videos that cover the whole range of illuminance values present in natural scenes [1]. In contrast, low dynamic range (LDR) imaging technologies only work with a reduced range of values limited by their channel bit depth, thus producing results of inferior perceived quality [2, 3].

In the last two decades, HDR imaging methods have been applied in different fields and sectors, such as digital games [4, 5] and photography [6, 7], among others. Due to the lack



Figure 1: **Mobile ITM from single LDR images using mixed quantization network (MQN).** Employment of mixed quantization methods and efficient blocks in MQN help reduce computational complexity of HDR image reconstruction (shown at the bottom row) from single LDR images (shown at the top row), and enable its deployment to mobile platforms, achieving a latency of  $\approx 21$ ms on a Samsung Note 20 Exynos 990.

of appropriate HDR displays, HDR content was converted to LDR. This operation, called tone mapping (TM) [8, 9, 10], pursues reproduction of images by reducing the tonal values within the images, which leads to loss of details and inevitable appearance changes in the reproduced images [2, 10]. Recently, there has been a substantial increase in production and commercialization of HDR displays. Sustained by new standards, such as HDR10, the number of HDR TV shipped worldwide has leaped by more than a 10x factor between years 2016-2019 [9]. In contrast, most content to be reproduced is still LDR, thus not attaining the reproduction capabilities of HDR displays.

This situation shows the need for the conversion of LDR images into HDR content. This process is referred to as inverse tone mapping (ITM), and involves recreation of the missing information, and expansion and adaptation of the available information to a higher bit depth. Handcrafted ITM algorithms [12, 13, 14, 15, 16] focused on range expansion to accommodate the LDR content to the new bit depth, as well as the application of tone operators to linearize the content and adjust the missing information. However, such methods did not provide sufficiently appealing results that could match originally produced HDR content [17].

Deep neural networks (DNNs) have been applied to ITM tasks [18, 19, 20] providing state-of-the-art results and products in industrial applications [21]. Nevertheless, current deep-learning-based ITM methods incur high computational costs, both in terms of memory and latency, due to the use of costly operations [22, 23], large models [24, 25] or feedback loops [20, 26], among other factors. Such burdens impede their deployment and usage in resource-constrained environments, such as edge devices and mobile phones.

In the present work, we propose a novel Mixed Quantization Network (MQN) for computationally efficient mobile ITM by integrating different quantization schemes applied to models, deploying efficient convolutions into models, and training models using input data. The proposed MQN enables attaining similar accuracy compared to state-of-the-art methods on a reference ITM dataset and can be deployed to a mobile platform to perform more computationally efficient inference. Further, it can be utilised by different hardware platforms, such as CPU or GPU, due to the flexibility of its components and structure. More precisely,

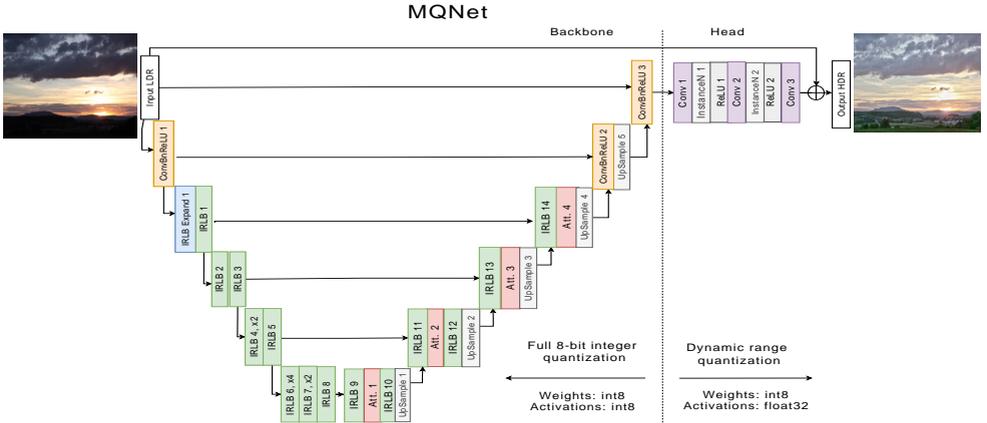


Figure 2: Illustration of the base backbone and high precision head that comprise the MQN. IRLB is used for fast inference and gated attention mechanisms [27] for improvement of feature representation learning accuracy. The dotted line indicates the separation between the fully quantized architecture and the dynamically quantized head. Input is added to output of the head to produce the overall output. Hyperparameters are given in the supp. mat.

our models can perform 10x to 100x times faster inference than competing methods (sample results are given in Figure 1). As far as the authors are aware, this is the first work devoted to constructing computationally efficient DNN-based ITM methods for mobile ITM tasks.

## 2 Related Work

**Vanilla ITM Methods.** Vanilla ITM methods have been implemented using tone operators [12], expansion algorithms [12, 16, 28], such as gamma curve expansion and over-exposed region enhancement [13], among other techniques [9, 15]. A great benefit, in general, of such methods is their low computing power requirement. However, they struggle in generation of high quality image content on over- and under-exposed image regions [22].

**DNN-based ITM methods.** Recently, DNNs have been employed on ITM tasks. Although most of these methods blatantly differ regarding network architectures and model training components, they can be categorized into three main groups.

The methods in the first group [9, 23, 24, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38] suffer from the problem of not accurately processing over- and under-exposed regions, but provide more compact systems. Methods in the second group use a group of bracketed over- and under-exposed images as input to directly learn to generate HDR output [39, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46], as similarly utilized in photographic HDR generation. Methods belonging to these two groups differ mainly according to their network components, such as non-local blocks [47] and attention mechanisms [40]. Methods in the third group train models to generate over- and under-exposed images from an LDR input, and merge them to obtain an HDR image [40, 42, 45, 47]. Their main distinction from the other groups lies in the methods used to generate different exposures, such as deconvolution [22], sequential generation [25, 47], or recurrency [40].

**Single Image HDR Reconstruction.** In this work, we focus on single image HDR reconstruction. The task is substantially more challenging than multi-input HDR imaging.

Among the first works on this task, [19] propose using a U-Net type DNN to learn only representations of the over-exposed regions, while the rest of the image is only linearized through a default function. [23] use a three-branch network with different dilation ratios and sizes. Recently, [24] achieved the state-of-the-art by developing a model that reverses and unravels the camera pipeline to reproduce the final HDR, using a different DNN for each step, thus resulting in a computationally heavy system.

**Computationally Efficient ITM Methods.** Most DNN-based methods use heuristics which make them unsuitable for deployment in resource-constrained platforms. A common trick to enhance training that burdens inference is using feedback loops [20, 26, 47], which are commonly used to generate differently exposed bracketed images. Another case is when different DNNs are stacked sequentially and/or in parallel [24, 25, 43]. There are also studies that make use of custom network blocks, such as non-local blocks [42] or 3D convolutions [27], which would hinder their deployment to mobile platforms [48].

### 3 A Mixed Quantization Network for Mobile ITM

The purpose of this work is to develop a learning-based ITM system with fast inference, especially devoted to the deployment to platforms with limited computational power. To this end, we propose a Mixed Quantization Network (MQN) by designing its architecture and components with state-of-the-art fast inference techniques such as quantization and efficient convolutions. To be able to accelerate inference while maintaining the required high precision output needed for ITM, we implement a mixed quantization (MQ) scheme as depicted in Figure 2. Moreover, we train models to learn multi-scale feature representations of HDR content over the input using a backbone network. The proposed MQN has two components: (1) a feature learning backbone network, endowed with full integer post-training quantization, and (2) a smaller network equipped with a head utilizing dynamic quantization to obtain a target precision for ITM.

#### 3.1 Backbone and High Precision Head of MQN

In order to learn multi-scale feature representations, we implement the backbone using a U-Net architecture with skip connections which is also utilized in other single image ITM methods [19, 22, 24] due to its strong accuracy to speed trade-off compared to single-scale (resolution) networks [23]. As the encoder of the backbone, we use a MobileNetV2 (MBV2) [49] to obtain fast inference. We extensively use IRLB blocks [50], which have a reduced computation cost<sup>1</sup> compared to vanilla convolutions, and can be used in different hardware platforms (GPU [51, 52], TPU [52], CPU [49, 50], NPU [53, 54]) with improvements in latency. To implement the decoder of the backbone, we favor upsampling in contrast to transposed convolutions, since the former is faster and does not produce artifacts [24]. To construct the decoder, after each upsampling we concatenate the upsampled feature maps and selected intermediate outputs of the encoder with skip connections. Following the concatenation, we add several IRLB blocks operating on the same resolution. Instead of IRLB blocks, the last two blocks of the decoder are composed of pointwise convolutions followed by batch normalization and ReLU activations. We design the whole network to have a reduced number of filters and convolutions compared to other U-Net structures (U-Net [55])

<sup>1</sup>The computational cost reduction from a vanilla convolution to a depthwise separable is of  $\frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{D_k^2}$ , where  $N$  is the number of output channels and  $D_k$  is the size of the convolution kernel.

has 7.76M parameters, U-Net++ [56] has 9.04M parameters and our model has about 1M parameters), thus reducing latency and memory consumption.

We employ a gated attention mechanism (depicted by Att. in Figure 2) after IRLB blocks to improve performance. In the analyses, we explore three methods to implement attention. First, we implement Spatial Attention (SA) [57] gated blocks. Second, we add channel information through a depthwise convolution in parallel to the SA mechanism, which define the channel spatial attention (CSA) mechanism at a given layer by

$$O_f = ((\sigma \circ D_f)(I_f)) \odot (((\sigma \circ C_1)(I_f)) \odot I_f) \quad (1)$$

where  $I_f$  and  $O_f$  are the input and output of the layer with  $f$  channels respectively.  $C_1$  denotes a convolution with a  $1 \times 1$  kernel,  $\sigma$  is a sigmoid activation,  $D_f$  is a depthwise convolution, and  $\odot$  indicates function composition. Finally, we also examine channel attention (CA) blocks [27], although these have a higher computational cost due to pooling mechanisms. In the analyses (Section 4.2), CA provides higher accuracy compared to SA and CSA. All such attention mechanisms can be seen as reduced one-head attention models without dense connections, thus being faster but also less powerful than those employed in, for example, transformer networks [58]. More details about the structure of the attention mechanisms can be found in the supplementary material.

The head is in charge of recovering both the required detail and style of the input LDR image in the output HDR image. For this reason, the head is composed of three layers (convolution, instance normalization (IN) [59] and ReLU) and a residual connection with the original input of the model. Then, the head produces the final HDR prediction by  $\hat{H} = \sigma(I + \phi(O))$ , where  $\phi$  denotes a hyperbolic tangent activation function,  $I$  is the input LDR image and  $O$  is the output HDR image of the system. We use  $\phi$  to learn the nonlinear transformation between pixel values of the LDR and HDR images, and the purpose of using  $\sigma$  is to map to relative illuminance values, i.e.  $[0, 1]$  interval [23]. The entire MQN architecture is illustrated in Figure 2.

## 3.2 Mixed Quantization and Fusion

Full *8-bit* integer quantization [60] cannot be used directly in ITM, since a higher precision output (HDR image) is required. Hence, direct ITM methods [19, 23, 24, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32] cannot use full *8-bit* quantization and benefit from size and latency reduction on devices supporting only integer valued operations. To address this problem, we define a mixed quantization scheme. The backbone of MQN is quantized to full *8-bit* integer quantization of both weights and activations, to obtain the most acceleration at inference time, thus opening the door to deployment in integer only hardware accelerators, such as NPUs, but without restricting the application in other platforms, such as FPGAs [61] or GPUs [62]. Meanwhile, the remaining part of the network, the head, which produces output with equivalent resolution to that of the input, is quantized by dynamic range post-training quantization [60]. That is, *8-bit* integer quantization is applied to the weights and 32-bit float activations are used in order to obtain the required high precision output for the mobile ITM tasks.

## 3.3 Loss functions

We train MQN models using the following loss functions of ground-truth and predicted HDR images  $H$  and  $\hat{H}$ :

- $\ell_1$  loss function  $\mathcal{L}_1(H, \hat{H}) = \|\hat{H} - H\|_1$ , where  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is the  $\ell_1$  norm.
- $\ell_2$  loss function  $\mathcal{L}_2(H, \hat{H}) = \|\hat{H} - H\|_2$ , where  $\|\cdot\|_2$  is the  $\ell_2$  norm.
- Cosine loss function  $\mathcal{L}_{CS}(H, \hat{H}) = 1 - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{\langle \hat{\mathbf{h}}_k, \mathbf{h}_k \rangle}{\|\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k\|_2 \|\mathbf{h}_k\|_2}$ , where  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  denotes the inner product, and  $\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k \in \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\mathbf{h}_k \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is the  $k$ -th pixel vector of the image  $\hat{H}$  and  $H$ .
- As part of the problem is content generation, we include a perceptual loss in the form of a variant of the feature reconstruction (FR) loss function as in [63] to force the network to match the feature traits of the original HDR images. In this case, we use a VGG16 to produce the necessary feature maps to compute the FR loss by  $\mathcal{L}_{FR}(\hat{H}, H) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^K |F_i(h_k) - F_i(\hat{h}_k)|$ , where  $F_i$  denotes the output feature map obtained from the  $i^{\text{th}}$  pooling block of the VGG16 and  $|\cdot|$  is the absolute value function.

Thus, the overall loss function used for training the MQN model is defined by

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MQN}}(\hat{H}, H) = \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_1(\hat{H}, H) + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_2(\hat{H}, H) + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{CS}(\hat{H}, H) + \lambda_4 \mathcal{L}_{FR}(\hat{H}, H), \quad (2)$$

where  $\lambda_i > 0, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$  are parameters used to balance range of loss functions.

## 4 Experimental Analyses

We first describe the experimental setup and evaluation methodologies, Next, we present the results from the architecture alternatives defined in Section 3. Finally, we compare our model with state-of-the-art methods. In the supplemental material, we provide implementation details such as further information on datasets, training, and evaluation procedures. We also provide a more extensive comparison with state-of-the-art models, extended and additional analyses, and a video that shows prediction results on a video game. The code is available at <https://github.com/BCJuan/ITMMQNet>.

### 4.1 Experimental Setup

**Datasets.** We build our training data from a collection of HDR image datasets [64, 65, 66, 67], consisting of 3768 HDR images, split into a training set of 3580 images and a validation set of 188 images. Most of these datasets do not contain unprocessed LDR images which can be used as input. We opt then for creating the LDR images through TM [23], that is, we apply a tone mapping operator (TMO) [8, 9, 10] to the original HDR images to produce LDR images. For testing and comparing with state-of-the-art methods, we use publicly available datasets, HDR-Eye [68], HDR-Real [24], and RAISE-1K [69]. These datasets contain LDR and HDR images, enabling a fair evaluation between methods.

**Accuracy measures.** We measure the accuracy of methods using Peak Signal Noise Ratio (PSNR), Structural Similarity (SSIM) and HDRVDP-2 [70]. To measure latency, we perform inference on the CPU on a Samsung Note 20 Exynos 990 (SN20E990).

**Training parameters.** We use the Adam optimizer with an initial learning rate of  $5 \times 10^{-5}$ , a decreasing learning schedule with a decay factor of 0.99 applied at every 4 epochs and a batch size of 4. In the analyses, the best results are obtained using  $\lambda_1 = 1$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 1$ ,  $\lambda_3 = 0.1$  and  $\lambda_4 = 0.05$  for integrating loss functions.

### 4.2 Ablation Studies

In this section, we study ablations with regard to various attention mechanisms, the quantization schemes, loss functions and deployment of MQN to hardware platforms for efficient

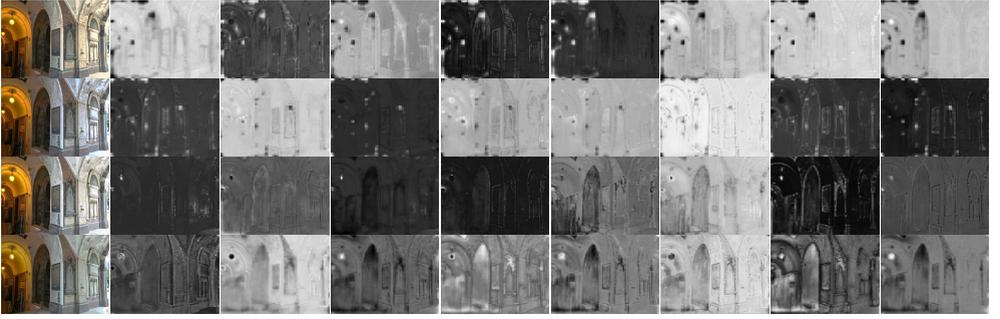


Figure 3: Illustration of feature maps learned at the Att. 4 layer of the MQN depicted in Figure 2. The rows show in order results obtained without using an attention mechanism, followed by using SA, CSA and CA. The first column shows the predicted HDR image  $\hat{H}$  and the rest show the feature maps learned at different channels of the Att. 4 layer.

Table 1: (Left) Analyses of accuracy and latency measurements (on the SN20E990) for different attention mechanisms. None indicates that no attention mechanism is used and B indicates backbone. (Right) Analyses of accuracy for different loss combinations. Blue and red indicate the best and the second best accuracy, respectively.

Attention	Latency B (ms)	PSNR-TM	SSIM-TM
None	11.55 ± 0.27	20.76 ± 3.21	0.8440 ± 0.0741
SA	11.68 ± 0.49	21.12 ± 3.03	0.8333 ± 0.0800
CSA	12.17 ± 0.25	20.75 ± 3.06	0.8559 ± 0.0597
CAB	12.40 ± 0.32	21.25 ± 3.11	0.8782 ± 0.0520

Loss	PSNR-TM	SSIM-TM
(i) $\mathcal{L}_1$	20.00 ± 3.10	0.8295 ± 0.0646
(ii) $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2$	19.96 ± 3.05	0.8281 ± 0.0656
(iii) $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2, \mathcal{L}_{CS}$	20.22 ± 3.02	0.8268 ± 0.0625
(iv) $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2, \mathcal{L}_{CS}, \mathcal{L}_{FR}$	21.25 ± 3.11	0.8782 ± 0.0520
(v) $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_{FR}$	21.19 ± 2.85	0.8261 ± 0.0832
(vi) $\mathcal{L}_2, \mathcal{L}_{FR}$	21.53 ± 2.92	0.8343 ± 0.0675
(vii) $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2, \mathcal{L}_{FR}$	21.54 ± 2.85	0.8538 ± 0.0597

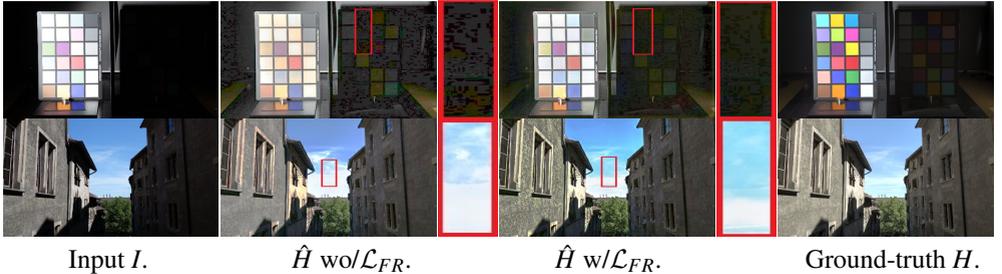


Figure 4: Visual analyses of the effect of training models with and without using  $\mathcal{L}_{FR}$  on predictions  $\hat{H}$ . It helps models gain structural coherency and improve color details.

Table 2: Results obtained using different quantization schemes. Latency (L.) is measured on the deployment platform (SN20E990).

Backbone	Head	L. Backbone (ms)	L. Head (ms)	PSNR-T	SSIM-T
Quant.	Dynamic	11.52 ± 0.82	9.63 ± 0.12	21.25 ± 3.11	0.8782 ± 0.05
Quant.	Float32	11.52 ± 0.82	20.95 ± 0.99	21.34 ± 3.08	0.8793 ± 0.05
Float32	Float32	21.13 ± 0.42	20.95 ± 0.99	21.58 ± 3.14	0.8727 ± 0.05

mobile ITM.

**Attention Mechanisms.** We explore different attention mechanisms specified in Section 3.1. Results given in Table 1 show that accuracy increases when moving from SA to CAB, which provides the best accuracy with an increase of 3% on SSIM, albeit with an

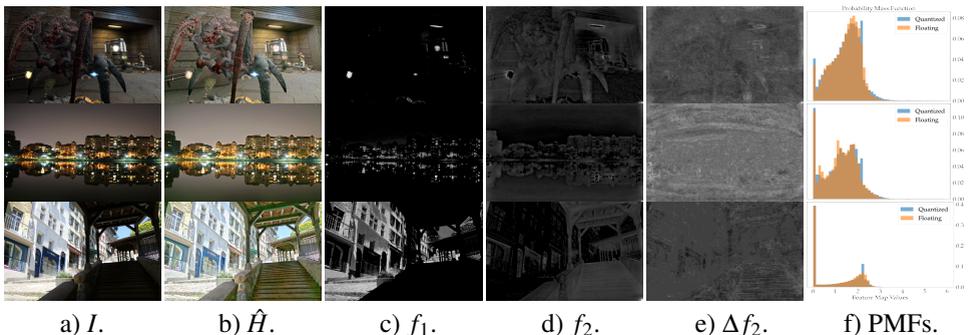


Figure 5: Analyses of the quantized  $Q(\mathbf{f})$  and floating point  $F(\mathbf{f})$  features  $\mathbf{f}$  learned by the MQN at the ConvBnReLU3 layer at Figure 2 using a) three sample input images with b) predictions  $\hat{H}$ . Visualization of (c) the first channel  $f_1$  and (d) the second channel  $f_2$  of  $\mathbf{f}$ , (e) the difference map  $\Delta f_2 = \|Q(f_2) - F(f_2)\|_1$ . We show the probability mass function (PMF) of  $Q(f_2)$  and  $F(f_2)$  in (f).

increase in latency of  $\approx 1$  ms. We examine the features learned using different attention mechanisms in Figure 3. We observe that better feature representations of edges and surfaces are learned when models are trained using CSA and CA. For instance, in both cases, the lamp is well captured with large feature activation values, enabling the dimming effect in the prediction.

**Quantization Schemes.** Next, we study the behavior of features  $\mathbf{f}$  learned at the interface between the backbone and the head (i.e., at the ConvBnReLU 3 layer depicted in Figure 2), as well as how quantization affects the interface and the head. In Table 2, we analyze how the performance and latency of models change for different quantization methods. The results show that the proposed quantization scheme enables to obtain similar PSNR/SSIM accuracy whilst showing improvements in latency.

In order to analyze the effect of quantization on statistical properties of features, we compute histograms approximating probability mass functions (PMFs) of features and their quantized versions. The results given in Figure 5.e show that distributions of quantized features  $Q(\mathbf{f})$  and features with floating point values  $F(\mathbf{f})$  have similar distributions. This result suggests that the quantization scheme preserves statistical information of features.

We also study what is learned in the interface as well as the effect of the network on a computer graphics image. In Figure 5 (c and d), we present two feature maps  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  corresponding to two channels of  $\mathbf{f}$ . The maps show that two very different representations are learned in these channels: in (c) light sources are identified, striking its relevancy for the ITM task, while in (d) general edge structures are learned. Moreover, we can see in the first row, as well as in Figure 1, that the network can be applied to computer graphics images without having special artifacts or distortions, opening the door for employment of MQN in computer graphics.

**Loss functions.** We analyze the effect of using different loss functions defined in Section 3.3 in Table 1. The results show that employing  $\mathcal{L}_{FR}$  with  $\mathcal{L}_{CS}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_2$  increases accuracy substantially. Meanwhile,  $\mathcal{L}_{CS}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_2$  seem to provide a slightly negative effect on their own. Moreover, as observed in Figure 4, adding the FR loss to  $\mathcal{L}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_2$ , and  $\mathcal{L}_{CS}$  helps improve color details and structural coherency.

**Deployment Platforms.** In the experimental analyses, we used CPU as our main deployment hardware platform. However, as our objective has been to develop a well performing

Table 3: Comparison with other state-of-the-art single image HDR reconstruction methods. Performance metric and latency values reproduced with the same evaluation criteria and original codes. Blue and red indicates the best and second best accuracy. P. indicates number of parameters, L. M. indicates latency for mobile, M. RAM the maximum RAM memory consumed by the model, and O. the numer of operations in multiply-accumulate units. Performance values are given in HDRVDP-Q score. \*FHDR[27] uses recurrence: the present value is computed taking into account two iterations.

Model	P. (M)	L. GPU (ms)	L. M. (ms)	O. (GMAC)	M. RAM (MB)	HDR-Eye	Raise-1K	HDR-Real
HDRCNN [19]	29.44	247	-	30.35	-	51.16 ± 4.43	51.89 ± 2.77	45.56 ± 8.18
SingleHDR [24]	29.01	976	-	112.75	-	53.05 ± 5.08	51.69 ± 2.56	48.72 ± 4.03
FHDR [23]	0.571	54	4970 ± 434	72.34*	832.40	51.41 ± 6.72	53.13 ± 1.71	45.82 ± 8.67
HDRUnet [25]	1.651	17	808 ± 22	23.42	353.46	50.32 ± 4.07	51.42 ± 3.35	44.60 ± 7.30
ExpandNet [23]	0.45	21	474 ± 7	13.66	262.77	50.52 ± 3.94	51.83 ± 1.68	44.86 ± 8.21
DeepHDR [23]	51.545	17	238 ± 4	18.94	251.17	51.11 ± 4.45	51.66 ± 2.79	45.81 ± 8.34
TwoStage [23]	1.088	32	3338 ± 456	54.91	397.41	49.68 ± 3.7	52.95 ± 2.36	43.46 ± 7.55
Ours (best)	0.928	11	21 ± 1	0.5	9.45	51.59 ± 4.61	51.81 ± 1.56	45.15 ± 8.15

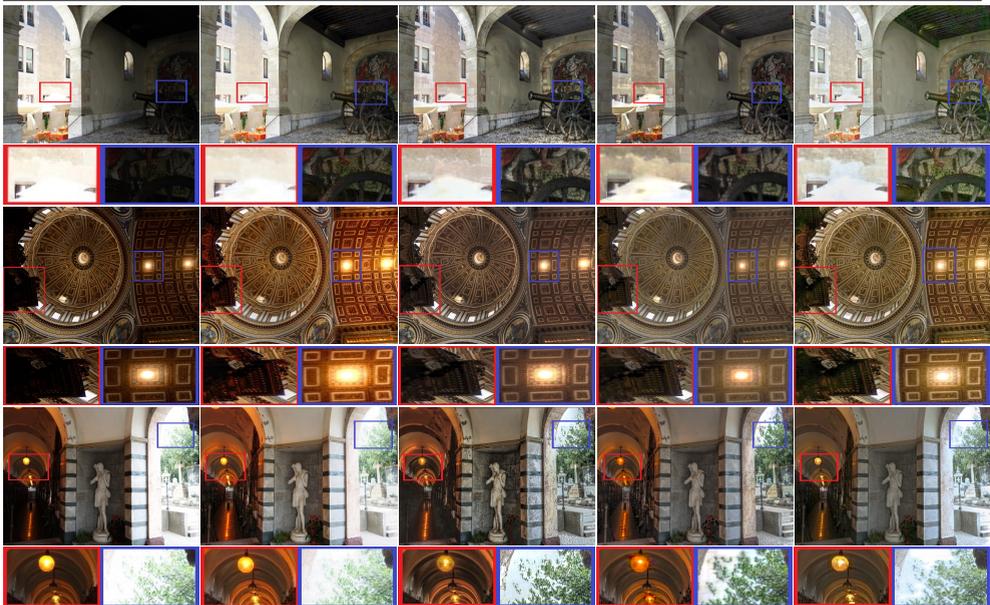


Figure 6: Visual comparison of results obtained using, from left to right; input LDR images, HDRCNN [19], ExpandNet [23], SingleHDR [24] and our proposed MQN. All images are produced with Balanced TMO from the suite Photomatix [23], similarly to [24].

but efficient model employing mixed quantization, attention, and efficient operations, our model can also be extended to other hardware platforms. For this reason, we also deploy our model to the GPU (Arm *Mali*<sup>TM</sup>-G77 MP11) of SN20E990, elucidating the flexibility of our model with regards to deployment of MQN models on platforms with different hardware configurations. We obtained a latency of 10.5 ms for our backbone and 9.3 ms for our high precision head, improving our results even further and showcasing the hardware flexibility for implementation of our MQN.

### 4.3 Comparison with State-of-the-art Methods

In Table 3, we compare accuracy, latency, and size of models trained using MQN and state-of-the-art methods. We selected competing methods according to two criteria: (1) We con-

sidered methods that promised a reasonable accuracy-latency trade-off [14, 12] due to their simplicity, to evaluate the efficiency gain introduced with our method. (2) To estimate the cost of adding efficiency as a factor in network design, we compared MQN to state-of-the-art or baseline methods [19, 24] that did not take accuracy-efficiency trade-off into account. The results show that MQN models provide accuracy (HDRVDP-Q score) on par with the larger state-of-the-art models and with a notable reduction in latency and RAM consumption.

In terms of latency, our MQN provides the fastest model, both in experiments conducted on GPU and mobile deployment platforms. Comparison of the latency of the models on the GPU platform is not fair, since our MQN model uses *8-bit* integer quantization and employs depthwise convolutions which are not suited for GPU platforms [49]. To obtain a fair comparison on the mobile deployment platform, we adapt the four methods HDRUNet [7], ExpandNet [23], DeepHDR [7] and TwoStage [35] that perform the fastest inference on the GPU. The results show that the difference between the latency of our MQN models and these four models increases further on the mobile platform. More precisely, our MQN model is running in real-time (21ms) while others run from a quarter of a second (DeepHDR with 238ms) to more than 3 seconds (TwoStage with 3338ms). The same trend is observed with memory consumption (maximum RAM MB) where our model stands as the most efficient with a reduction of a factor of x26 or more. The main factor for such differences is employment of our MQ scheme with computationally efficient components, such as IRLB blocks. These facts, along with learning representations of HDR content over the input, enables us to obtain a faster model with similar accuracy. However, other models use methods that hinder efficient deployment, such as by utilising images with same resolution [23, 35], inefficient network composition [24], convolution operations and special blocks [7, 7].

In Figure 6, we compare the ITM models visually. In the analyses, our MQN model performs well with good quality in under-exposed regions. For instance, our MQN model recovers details better than others as seen in the detail of the image in row one. In the case of over-exposed regions, our model can recover details better than HDRCNN [19] and similarly to ExpandNet [23] as seen in the lamp, tree and tent details. Although SingleHDR [24] performs slightly better on over-exposed regions, the SingleHDR model has 29 M parameters and takes almost a second to perform inference on a desktop GPU, while our model is 29x times smaller and almost 100x faster.

## 5 Conclusion

In this work, we proposed a novel DNN-based method called Mixed Quantization Network (MQN), for computationally efficient ITM. The proposed MQN has produced competitive accuracy with better computational efficiency compared to the state-of-the-art, being the first DNN-based single image ITM method targeting computationally efficient mobile ITM. Moreover, we have proven the flexibility of our framework by deploying it to both CPU and GPU platforms. Future work could consider addressing optimization of latency and accuracy trade-off for mobile ITM using additional network design and search methods, such as structured pruning and neural architecture search.

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