

1 Article

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Dialectical GAN for SAR Image Translation: From

3

Sentinel-1 to TerraSAR-X

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10

11 **Abstract:** Contrary to optical images, Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) images are in different
12 electromagnetic spectrum where the human visual system is not accustomed to. Thus, with more
13 and more SAR applications, the demand for enhanced high-quality SAR images has increased
14 considerably. However, high-quality SAR images entail high costs due to the limitations of current
15 SAR devices and their image processing resources. To improve the quality of SAR images and to
16 reduce the costs of their generation, we propose a Dialectical Generative Adversarial Network
17 (Dialectical GAN) to generate high-quality SAR images. This method is based on the analysis of
18 hierarchical SAR information and the “dialectical” structure of GAN frameworks. As a
19 demonstration, a typical example will be shown where a low-resolution SAR image (e.g., a
20 Sentinel-1 image) with large ground coverage is translated into a high-resolution SAR image (e.g., a
21 TerraSAR-X image). Three traditional algorithms are compared, and a new algorithm is proposed
22 based on a network framework by combining conditional WGAN-GP (Wasserstein Generative
23 Adversarial Network - Gradient Penalty) loss functions and Spatial Gram matrices under the rule
24 of dialectics. Experimental results show that the SAR image translation works very well when we
25 compare the results of our proposed method with the selected traditional methods.

26 **Keywords:** dialectical generative adversarial network; image translation; Sentinel-1; TerraSAR-X.

27

28

1. Introduction

29 In remote sensing, SAR images are well-known for their all-time and all-weather capabilities.
30 In the 1950s, the first SAR system was invented [1]. However, the design and implementation of a
31 SAR system is a complex system engineering and costs many resources, both in money and
32 intellectual effort. Therefore, most SAR instruments on satellites are supported by government
33 organizations. For example, the German Aerospace Center (DLR) and EADS Astrium had jointly
34 launched TerraSAR-X in 2007 [2] and TanDEM-X in 2010 [3]. The Canadian Space Agency (CSA)
35 had launched in 1995 the RADARSAT-1 and in 2007 the RADARSAT-2 satellites [4], while the
36 Italian Ministry of Research and the Ministry of Defence together with the Italian Space Agency
37 (ASI) had launched the COSMO-SkyMed -1, 2, 3, and 4 satellites in 2007, 2008 and 2010 [5]. The
38 European Space Agency (ESA) had launched the Sentinel-1 SAR satellite in 2014 [6]. In addition,
39 there are many governments and institutions having launched their own SAR satellites [7], [8].
40 Nowadays, SAR has become one of the most valuable tools for remote sensing of the Earth and its
41 environment.

42 In the era of big data, deep learning can accommodate large amount of data and generate
43 promising new applications. With the recent development of deep learning, image translation is an
44 easy way to obtain high-quality SAR images. “Translation” is a word borrowed from the linguistic
45 field which denotes the change from one language to another one. This translation is often applied
46 when one language is hard to understand while another one is more familiar to us. Though the two

47 languages have different vocabularies and grammars, the translation is premised on the identity of
48 the contents. In general for image translation there are two “sides” of the translation, namely the
49 two images coming from different sensors. In this paper, we demonstrate a typical example where a
50 low-resolution SAR image (e.g., a Sentinel-1 image) with large ground coverage is translated using
51 deep learning into a high-resolution SAR image (e.g., a TerraSAR-X image). To some extent, this
52 kind of translation is related to super-resolution and neural style transfer.

53 From 2013, deep learning has become a popular tool for many applications, such as image
54 recognition, classification, semantic segmentation, target detection, etc. The first milestone in deep
55 learning based image translation is Gatys *et al.*’s paper [9]. They introduced the Visual Geometry
56 Group (VGG) networks, a pre-trained neural network used for ImageNet in order to define the
57 content and “style” information of images, which provides a framework for image translation
58 under the background of deep learning. Within a neural network based framework, many
59 researchers have proposed their own methods for their specific purposes [10], [11]. The second
60 milestone is the invention of Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) that was made by
61 Goodfellow *et al.* [12]. As a generative neural network, it seems that a GAN is well-suited for image
62 translation. According to the conception presented in [13], the image translation can be regarded as
63 the “pix2pix” task, and the authors of [13] have utilized a conditional GAN to carry out image
64 translations. Inspired by this paper, we think that we can apply these algorithms to do SAR image
65 translation. In SAR image processing, there are many papers about how to use deep learning for
66 classification, segmentation, etc. [14], [15]. However, little attention has been paid to the translation
67 between different SAR instruments using deep learning.

68 Translation of Sentinel-1 data to high-resolution images like TerraSAR-X has attracted great
69 interest within the remote sensing community. First, the high resolution of TerraSAR-X generates
70 SAR images rich in information that allow innovative applications. Second, the wide area coverage
71 of Sentinel-1 images reduces the need for multiple acquisitions and decreases the demand for
72 high-cost data. Third, it is much easier for researchers to access Sentinel-1 images than TerraSAR-X
73 images because the Sentinel-1 images are freely available, while the TerraSAR-X images are usually
74 commercial. To meet these requirements for high-quality data, we propose a “Dialectical GAN”
75 method based on the analysis of the hierarchical SAR information and the “dialectical” structure of
76 GAN frameworks. The data used for validation is covering urban areas, so we can apply a spatial
77 matrix to extract geometrical arrangement information. By using a GAN, we were able to achieve
78 good results with fine visual effects and our indicators show that our proposed method is better
79 than the existing traditional methods discussed in this paper.

80 This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the data set and the characteristics of
81 both satellites (Sentinel-1 and TerraSAR-X). In Sections 3 and 4, we deeply explain the deep
82 learning methods for SAR image translation, including the development of traditional methods and
83 the creation of the proposed method. Section 5 describes the experiments based on an urban area
84 using the traditional and proposed methods, while Section 6 discusses the advantages of the
85 proposed method compared with the traditional methods. Finally, Section 7 concludes this paper
86 and gives future research perspectives.

87 2. Data set

88 In the field of radar remote sensing, there are many satellites for different applications [16]. In
89 this paper, we chose two typical satellite systems, Sentinel-1 and TerraSAR-X, which serve the same
90 purpose but with different characteristics.

91 Sentinel-1 is a C-band SAR satellite system launched by ESA, whose missions include sea and
92 land monitoring, emergency response after environmental disasters, and commercial applications
93 [17]. In contrast, TerraSAR-X is an X-band Earth observation SAR satellite being operated under a
94 public-private-partnership between the German Aerospace Center (DLR) and EADS Astrium (now
95 Airbus), whose main features are its high resolution with excellent geometrical accuracy [18]. In our
96 opinion, Sentinel-1 is a good option to generate large-scale SAR images, while TerraSAR-X is an
97 adept solution for high resolution. To avoid being influenced by radar configurations, we try to

98 keep the radar system parameters of two products as consistent as possible. A comparison of the
 99 radar parameters of two image products we used in this paper is shown in Table 1.

100 **Table 1.** Selected data set parameters

SAR instrument	TerraSAR-X	Sentinel-1A
Carrier frequency band	X-band	C-band
Product level	Level 1b	Level 1
Instrument mode	High Resolution Spotlight	Interferometric Wide Swath
Polarization	VV	VV
Orbit branch	Descending	Ascending
Incidence angle	39°	30°–46°
Product type	Enhanced Ellipsoid Corrected (EEC) (amplitude data)	Ground Range Detected High Resolution (GRDH) (amplitude data)
Enhancement	Radiometrically enhanced	Multi-looked
Ground range resolution	2.9 m	20 m
Pixel spacing	1.25 m	10 m
Equivalent number of looks (range×azimuth)	$3.2 \times 2.6 = 8.3$	$5 \times 1 = 5$
Map projection	WGS-84	WGS-84
Acquisition date	2013-04-29	2014-10-13
Original full image size (cols×rows)	9200×8000	34,255×18,893
Used image sizes (cols×rows)	6370×4320	1373×936

101 *2.1 Image quantization*

102 The amplitude of SAR image products is usually not in the range of [0, 255] which is the
 103 dynamic range where optical image products stay. The amplitude of SAR images relates with the
 104 radar cross section (RCS) and has a large dynamic range. There are many methods for SAR image
 105 quantization [19]. Because we need to use pre-trained neural networks designed for optical images,
 106 the SAR data should be scaled to the brightness range of optical pixels. In order to generate the SAR
 107 images with good visual effects, an 8-bit uniform quantization is applied in different brightness
 108 range. For Sentinel-1 images, the range is [0, 800] while for TerraSAR-X images it is [0, 570]. These
 109 parameters were defined by the brightness levels of our test data which contain 98% of the pixels in
 110 the pixel brightness histograms.

111

112

113 *2.2 Image co-registration*

114 The image translation between two different products should be done with co-registered image
115 pairs. Fortunately, remote sensing products can be projected the same coordinates by using
116 geo-coding. Geo-coding is a technique that yields every pixel its longitude and latitude on Earth.
117 Thus, for each pixel, once its location is determined, the pixel information from both Sentinel-1 and
118 TerraSAR-X images can be retrieved. In order that the two images have the same content and the
119 same pixel size, the pixel spacing for both images is set to the same value, where the scale is 1:10.
120 Finally, the interpolation and the co-registration are completed automatically in the QGIS software,
121 which is an open source tool. In this software, the interpolation is based on IDW (Inverse Distance
122 Weighted) method [20], and the co-registration relies on the annotation data of the image product
123 resulting the accuracy of a few meters.

124 2.3 Training data and test data

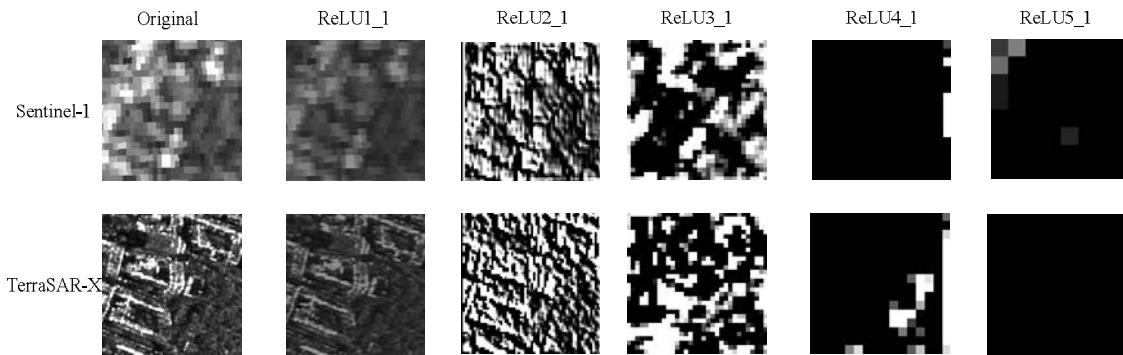
125 The selection of a training data set and a test data set for quality control is a primary task in
126 deep learning. There are several hyper-parameters to be determined and they can finally impact the
127 capabilities of the trained networks. The selected patch size is one of the hyper-parameters that can
128 affect both the final results and the amount of the training data. When the patch size is too large, the
129 number of the training data becomes small, even the data augmentation can be applied. Based on
130 the discoveries in [21], which yielded a best patch size for SAR image classification, we chose for
131 our studies a patch size of 128×128 pixels [21]. Using an overlap of 50% between the tiled patches,
132 we obtained 1860 patches for training and 224 patches for testing.
133

134 3. Related work

135 Deep learning has been widely used in the last years in computer vision, biology, medical
136 imaging, and remote sensing. Although the theory of deep learning is not yet mature, its capabilities
137 shown in numerous applications have attracted the attention of many researchers. Let us simply
138 review the development of image translation with deep learning. In 2016, Gatys *et al.* demonstrated
139 the power of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) in creating fantastic artistic imagery. With a
140 good understanding of the pre-trained VGG networks, they have achieved the style transfer and
141 demonstrated that semantic exchange could be made by using neural networks. Since then, Neural
142 Style Transfer has become a trending topic both in academic literature and industrial applications
143 [22]. To accelerate the speed of Neural Style Transfer, a lot of follow-up studies were conducted. A
144 typical one is Texture networks. With the appearance of GANs, several researchers turned to GANs
145 to find more general methods without defining the texture. In this paper, we examine three typical
146 methods, the method of Gatys *et al.* [9], Texture Networks [10] and Conditional GANs [13]. By
147 analyzing their advantages and disadvantages in SAR image translations, we propose a new
148 GAN-based framework which is the combination of the manifestations of SAR images in the
149 VGG-19 network, the definition of texture content, and the WGAN method.

150 3.1. VGG-19 network

151 VGG-19 is a key tool to conduct style transfers. It is a pre-trained CNN model for large-scale
152 visual recognition developed by Visual Geometry Group at the University of Oxford, which has
153 achieved excellent performances in the ImageNet challenge. Gatys *et al.* [9] firstly introduced this
154 CNN in their work. Then, the next studies were focused on the utilization of the outcomes of
155 VGG-19. However, VGG-19 has been trained on the ImageNet dataset which is the collection of
156 optical images. In order to find the capabilities of VGG-19 for SAR images, we first visualize the
157 content of each layer in VGG-19 when the input is a SAR image and then analyze the meaning of
158 each layer. The input SAR images are in the 8-bit dynamic range without histogram changes for
159 fitting the optical type. There are 19 layers in the VGG-19 network, but the most commonly used
160 layers are the layers after down-sampling, which are called ReLU1_1, ReLU2_1, ReLU3_1, ReLU4_1,
161 and ReLU5_1. A visualization of SAR images via the VGG-19 layers is shown in Figure 1.

162
163164 **Figure 1.** Visualization of Sentinel-1 and TerraSAR-X SAR images in the VGG-19 layers

165 As can be seen from Figure 1, the images in ReLU 1_1, ReLU 2_1, and ReLU 3_1 layers are quite
 166 different, while the images in ReLU 4_1 and ReLU5_1 of both two sensors are similar. According to
 167 the conception of deep learning, the higher layers contain higher semantic information [9], which
 168 supports the results in Figure 1. Therefore, Gatys *et al.* used the shallow (i.e., lower) layers as the
 169 components of texture and took the deep layers as the content information. However, we find that
 170 the ReLU5_1 images in both Sentinel-1 and TerraSAR-X are almost featureless. In another paper
 171 [23], the authors found that ReLU5_1 has real content for optical images. This may be because this
 172 training of VGG-19 is based on optical images. Whatever, we decide to ignore the ReLU5_1 layer in
 173 our algorithm in order to accelerate the computation. It will be discussed in the experiment part.

174 **3.2. Texture definition-Gram matrix**

175 The success of Gatys' paper is to some extent achieved by the introduction of a Gram matrix. If
 176 we regard the pixels of the feature map in each layer as a set of random variables, the Gram matrix
 177 is a kind of second-order moment. The Gram matrix in that paper is computed on the selected
 178 layers as described in Section 3.1. Assuming L layers are selected and their corresponding number
 179 of feature maps is N_l , the Gram matrix of the l^{th} layer is

$$\mathbf{G}^l = \frac{1}{M_l} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}_{1:}^l \\ \mathbf{F}_{2:}^l \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{F}_{N_l:}^l \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}_{1:}^l & \mathbf{F}_{2:}^l & \cdots & \mathbf{F}_{N_l:}^l \end{bmatrix}^T, \quad (1)$$

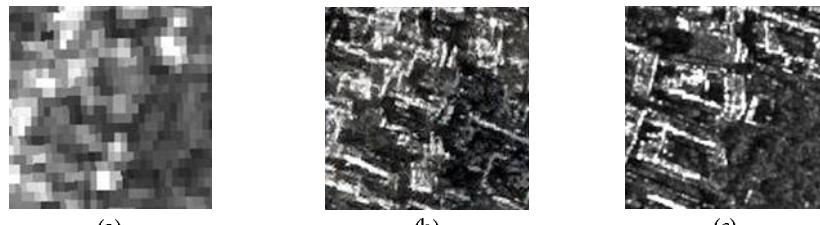
180 where $\mathbf{F}_{i:}^l$ is the column vector generated from the i^{th} feature map of layer l , and M_l is the size
 181 number of each feature map in this layer. An element of the $N^l \times N^l$ Gram matrix is

$$\mathbf{G}_{ij}^l = \frac{1}{M_l} \sum_{k=1}^{M_l} \mathbf{F}_{ik}^l \mathbf{F}_{jk}^l = \frac{1}{M_l} \langle \mathbf{F}_{i:}^l, \mathbf{F}_{j:}^l \rangle, \quad (2)$$

182 where $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes the inner product. When we get the Gram matrices $\{\mathbf{G}^l\}_{l \in L_{selected}}$, where
 183 $L_{selected}$ is the set of the selected layers to define the texture information. Having the Gram matrices,
 184 the definition of the style difference between two images is

$$\mathcal{L}_{style} = \sum_{l \in L_{selected}} w_l \|\hat{\mathbf{G}}^l - \mathbf{G}^l\|_F^2, \quad (3)$$

185 where w_l is a kind of hyper-parameter define the weight of the style in the l^{th} layer, $\hat{\mathbf{G}}^l$ is the
 186 Gram matrix of the being generated image in the l^{th} layer, \mathbf{G}^l is the corresponding term for the
 187 reference image, and $\|\cdot\|_F$ is the Frobenius norm of the matrices. In our case, the style image is no
 188 longer an artistic painting of art, and the Gram matrices did not perform well. Figure 2 shows the
 189 mismatch of utilizing these Gram matrices to translate between SAR images.



190

191 **Figure 2.** Experiment using the Gatys *et al.* method **(a)** content image (Sentinel-1) **(b)** transferred
192 image (Gram matrix) **(c)** style image (TerraSAR-X)193 Figure 2(b) contains many fake targets. For example, there is nothing at the lower right part of
194 both Figure 2(a) and Figure 2(c), but some bright lines, usually from buildings, appear at that part
195 of Figure 2(b). Besides, contrary to Figure 2(c), the layout of buildings in Figure 2(b) is hard to
196 understand. In our experiment, the SAR data are depicting an urban area, where most targets are
197 buildings. The city structure is quite different from the design of artistic works, which means the
198 style definition should vary for different applications. Reflecting upon the Gram matrices, their
199 format should be changed. The vectorization of the feature maps makes the Gram matrices fully
200 blind to the arrangement information inside the maps [24]. To maintain the arrangement
201 information, which is useful for urban area, we should discuss this arrangement information and
202 how to make it suitable for our applications.203 The arrangement most often indicates the placing of items according to a plan, but without
204 necessarily modifying the items themselves. Thus, an image with arrangement information should
205 contain similar items and the similar items are placed in different locations. When we tile the
206 images into small pieces (called patches) according to the scheme they belong to, the small pieces
207 should be similar. Their similarity can be determined by the Gram matrix, while the way to tile the
208 image is the part of our approach. The manifestation of most objects of urban areas in remote
209 sensing images is usually rectangular. Thus, the main outline of urban SAR images should be
210 straight lines.211 The Spatial Gram method is a good way to represent this arrangement texture, which defined
212 by the self-similarity matrices themselves and by applying spatial transformations when generating
213 these matrices. A Gram matrix is a measurement of the relationship of two matrices, and the spatial
214 transformation determines which two. G. Berger *et al.* have proposed a series of CNN-based Spatial
215 Gram matrices to define the texture information. Based on their ideas in [24], we apply a spatial
216 transform tiling the feature map horizontally and vertically in different levels to represent the
217 “straight” texture information.218 As we have several options to tile an image, how to compute their Gram matrices to define the
219 texture is still a question, either to add them or to regard them as parallel structures. When the
220 Spatial Gram computation just has one element, it degenerates into the traditional Gram matrix like
221 the one used by Gatys *et al.* But when it has too many elements, the ultimate configuration is that all
222 the pixels are in the Gram matrix individually and it will lose its capability to generate diverse
223 textures. A line, which is the basic unit of our images, can be determined by two parameters. Thus,
224 we use the two orthogonal dimensions (*row* and *col*), as two rows of the Spatial Gram matrix, and
225 the spatial transform types as the columns. Thus, the Spatial Gram matrix we applied in this paper
226 is

$$\mathbf{S}_{spatial}^l = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{G}_{row,2}^l & \mathbf{G}_{row,4}^l & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_{row,2^{7-l}}^l \\ \mathbf{G}_{col,2}^l & \mathbf{G}_{col,4}^l & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_{col,2^{7-l}}^l \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4)$$

227 where the type of transformation is related to the size of the feature maps in this layer. $\Delta_l =$
228 $\{2, \dots, 2^{7-l}\}$ where the 7 is determined by the input size of patches (128×128), and $L_{selected} = \{1, 2, 3\}$.
229 $\mathbf{G}_{row,\delta}^l$ and $\mathbf{G}_{col,\delta}^l$ are two kinds of spatial transformation which is related to the dimensions *row*
230 and *col*, and the shifted amount δ . Assuming the feature map is \mathbf{F}^l , and its transformations are

231 $T(\mathbf{F}^l)$ where T denotes the function of spatial transformation. For example, the spatial
 232 transformations of feature maps in the row dimension are defined as

$$T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}^l) = \mathbf{F}^l(\delta: M, 1:N), \\ T_{row,-\delta}(\mathbf{F}^l) = \mathbf{F}^l(1: M - \delta, 1:N), \quad (5)$$

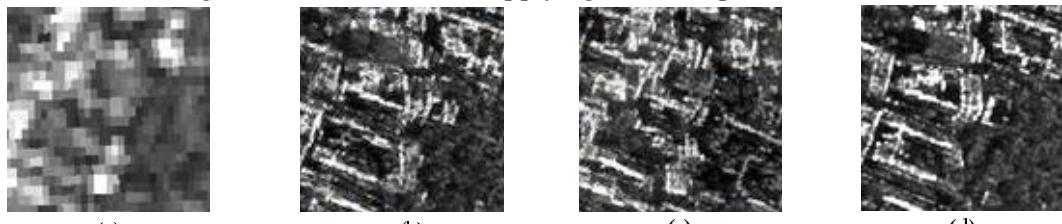
233 where M, N are the height and width of the feature map \mathbf{F}^l . $T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}^l)$ is the transformation on the
 234 row dimension. The vectorization of $T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}^l)$ is written as $T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}^l)$, which is the column vector
 235 Having these definitions, $\mathbf{G}_{row,\delta}^l$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{G}_{row,\delta}^l = \frac{1}{M_l} \begin{bmatrix} T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}_1^l) \\ T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}_2^l) \\ \vdots \\ T_{row,\delta}(\mathbf{F}_{N_l}^l) \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} T_{row,-\delta}(\mathbf{F}_1^l) & T_{row,-\delta}(\mathbf{F}_2^l) & \cdots & T_{row,-\delta}(\mathbf{F}_{N_l}^l) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (6)$$

236 where $\mathbf{G}_{row,\delta}^l$ can be written in the same way but the spatial transformation takes places in the row
 237 direction. Thus, the spatial style loss function is

$$\mathcal{L}_{style} = \sum_{l \in L_{selected}} w_l \|\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{spatial}^l - \mathbf{S}_{spatial}^l\|_F^2. \quad (7)$$

238 where the $\mathbf{S}_{spatial}^l$ if the spatial matrices of the target images and $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{spatial}^l$ is for the generated
 239 image. The style loss function \mathcal{L}_{style} is only dominated by the Spatial Gram matrices, it is not
 240 necessary to add the traditional Gram matrices because when δ is small, it is almost the same as
 241 the traditional one. Figure 3 shows the results applying the new Spatial Gram matrix.



(a)

(b)

(c)

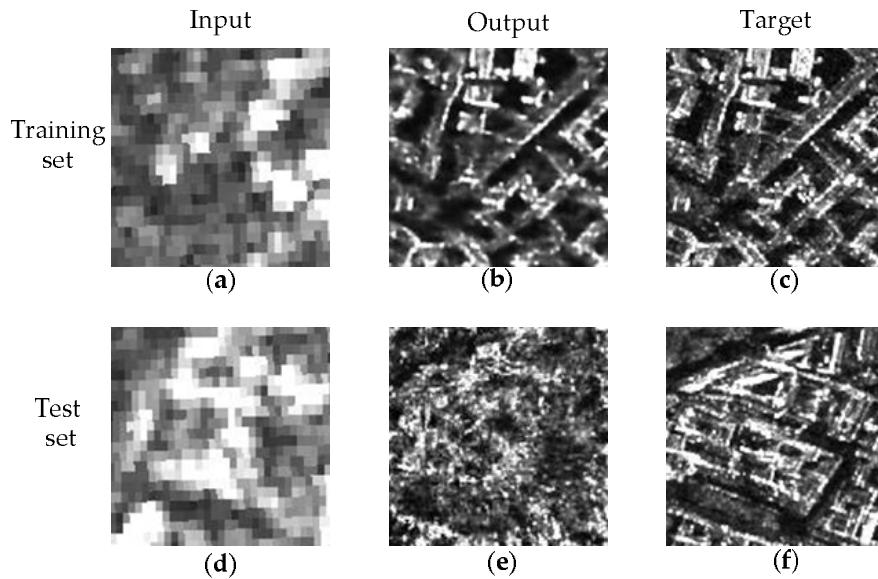
(d)

242

243 **Figure 3.** Experiment using Spatial Gram matrices **(a)** content image (Sentinel-1) **(b)** transferred
 244 image (Spatial Gram matrix) **(c)** transferred image (Gatys *et al.*'s Gram matrix) **(d)** style image
 245 (TerraSAR-X)

246 *3.3 Conditional generative adversarial networks*

247 The introduction of GANs is a milestone in deep learning, and it becomes popular where
 248 hundreds of papers were published under the name of GAN [25]. A conditional GAN makes a
 249 general GAN more useful because the inputs are no longer the noise but the things we can control.
 250 In our case, the conditional inputs are Sentinel-1 images. The conditional GANs have achieved
 251 impressive results on many image processing tasks, such as style transfer [26], supper-resolution
 252 [27], or other tasks [28], [29]. Isola *et al.* [13] summarized the tasks of image translation as “*pix2pix*”
 253 translations and demonstrated the capabilities of conditional GANs in their paper. Inspired by their
 254 works, we modified the “*pix2pix*” framework by adding new discoveries about GANs and specific
 255 features of the SAR images translations. When we used the “*pix2pix*” framework in our application
 256 this failed. Figure 4 shows the overfitting of the “*pix2pix*” conditional GAN because the training set
 257 has good performances while the test set has bad results. Without any modification, we could not
 258 reach our goals. In the next section, we propose a new method to realize Sentinel-1 to TerraSAR-X
 259 image translations.



260

261 **Figure 4.** SAR image translation using the “*pix2pix*” framework in both training and test set (a) input
 262 image in the training set (b) GAN output of image (a) (c) target of image (a) (d) input image in the
 263 test set (e) GAN output of image (d) (f) target of image (d)

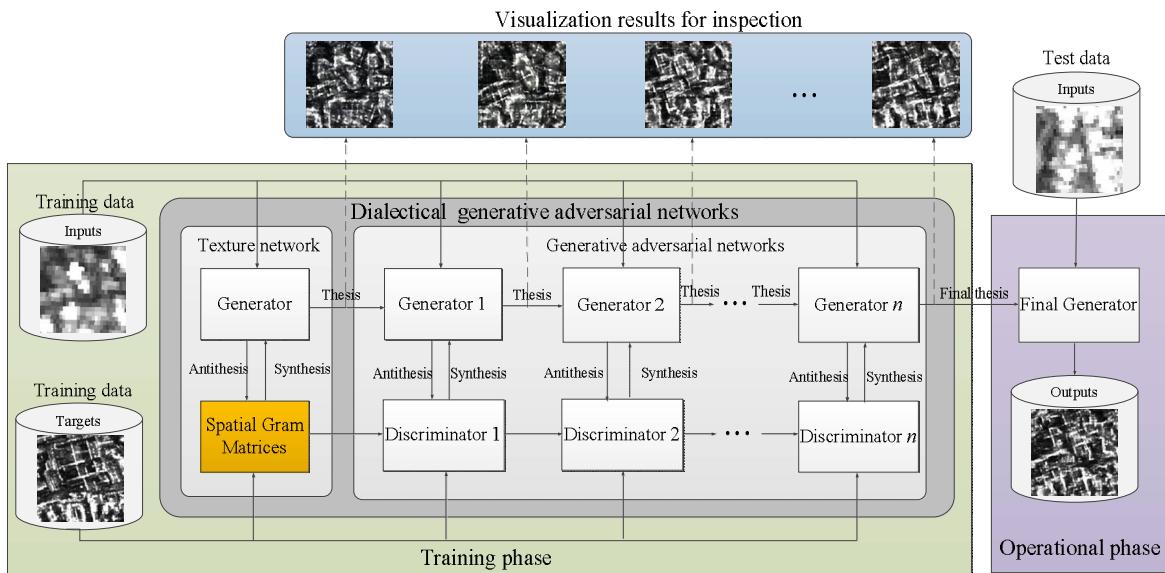
264 **4. Method**

265 Although the conditional GAN is overfitting in our case, it is still a good strategy to complete our
 266 task, which is to have a mapping function from Sentinel-1 to TerraSAR-X. In mathematical notation,
 267 it is

$$G: x \rightarrow y, \quad (8)$$

268 where G is the mapping function, x is a Sentinel-1 image, and y is a TerraSAR-X image.
 269 Actually, this task can be achieved by designing a neural network and by presetting a loss function
 270 like traditional machine learning. Indeed, this idea has already been accomplished in [10] and [11].
 271 However, the preset loss function is not general for all cases. A GAN provided an idea that the loss
 272 function is not preset, and it can be trained through a network which is called “Discriminator”. The
 273 mapping function G is realized through a “Generator” neural network.

274 In this paper, we use the concept of dialectics to unify the GANs and traditional neural
 275 networks. There is a triad in the system of dialectics, thesis, antithesis and synthesis, and they are
 276 regarded as a formula for the explanation of change. The formula is summarized as (1) a beginning
 277 proposition called a thesis, (2) a negation of that thesis called the antithesis, and (3) a synthesis
 278 whereby the two conflicting ideas are reconciled to form a new proposition [30]. We apply this
 279 formula to describe the change of image translation. The “Generator” network is regarded as thesis
 280 and it can be inherit the parameters from the previous thesis. In our case, the “Generator” inherits
 281 from the texture network. The “Discriminator” network acts as a negation of the “Generator”. The
 282 synthesis is based on the law of the Negation of the Negation. Thus, we can generate a new
 283 “Generator” through the dialectical method. When the new data comes, it will enter the next state
 284 of changing and development. The global flowchart of our method is shown in Figure 5. There are
 285 two phrases, training phrase and operational phrase. The training phrase is the processing to
 286 generate a final generator, and the operational phrase applies the final generator to conduct the
 287 image translation task. In the following, we discuss the “Generator” network, the “Discriminator”
 288 network and the details to train them.



289

290 **Figure 5** Global flowchart of Dialectical GAN291 **4.1 “Generotor” network – thesis**

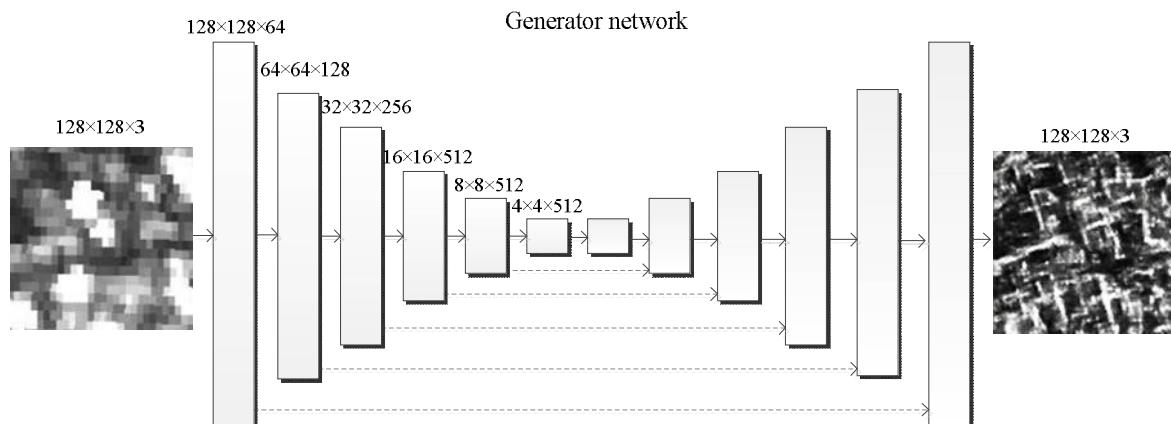
292 The purpose of the generator is to generate an image $G(x)$ has the content of image x and the
 293 style of image y . Thus, the loss function has two parts, content loss and texture loss, which is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{Generator}} &= \mathcal{L}_{\text{content}} + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{style}} \\ &= \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{content}}} \|\mathbf{F}^l(G(x)) - \mathbf{F}^l(x)\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{style}}} w_l \|\mathbf{S}_{\text{spatial}}^l(G(x)) - \mathbf{S}_{\text{spatial}}^l(y)\|_F^2, \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

294 where λ is a regularization parameter, $\mathbf{F}^l(\cdot)$ are the feature maps of the l^{th} layer of an image,
 295 $\mathbf{S}_{\text{spatial}}^l(\cdot)$ are the Spatial Gram matrices that were defined in Section 3.2. According to the
 296 discussion in Section 3.1, there is no information in “ReLU5_1”. Therefore, we chose “ReLU4_1” as
 297 the content layer, and “ReLU1_1”, “ReLU2_1” and “ReLU3_1” as the style layers. Consequently,
 298 $\mathcal{L}_{\text{content}} = \{4\}$, and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{style}} = \{1, 2, 3\}$.

299 G can be any kind of functions, it can be as simple as a linear function or as complex as a
 300 multiple composition of non-linear functions. As a powerful tool to approximate functions [31] [32],
 301 deep neural networks are used as our notation of G in this paper. The input and the target images,
 302 x and y , are from different SAR sensors, but they are observing the same test site. The properties of
 303 SAR systems result in their own characteristics of image representation, such as final resolution,
 304 polarization response, and the dynamic ranges. But the same observed area makes them share
 305 identical compounds. Regardless of the changes in time, x and y are generated from identical
 306 objects. For the analysis of our input and target images, there are plenty of network structures that
 307 solve this problem.

308 Previous related works [28] [33] have used an encoder-decoder network [34] where the input
 309 image is compressed in down-sampled layers and then be expanded again in up-sampled layers
 310 where the process is reversed. The main problem of this structure is whether the information is
 311 preserved in the down-sampled layers. Based on the discussion in [13], we chose the “U-Net”
 312 network to execute our tasks. The “U-Net” is very well known for its skip connections which are a
 313 way to protect the information from loss during transport in neural networks. According to the
 314 behavior of our SAR images in the VGG-19 network, we set the “U-Net” to 6 layers. The structure
 315 of the network we used is shown in Figure 5.

316
317318 **Figure 6.** Architecture of the “U-Net” Generator network

319 Although the network in Figure 5 has too many elements and is hard to be trained, we think it is
 320 necessary to use a deep network because the architecture of a network can affect its expressiveness
 321 of complex functions. Maybe there will be more efficient methods to approximate the mapping
 322 function, but this is not the topic of this paper. Our goal is a powerful tool to describe the mapping
 323 from Sentinel-1 to TerraSAR-X where the solution is a deep neural network.

324 *4.2 “Discriminator” network – antithesis*

325 A deep neural network is a suitable solution, but on the other hand, it can also easily generate
 326 non-target results. Based on the concept of dialectics, when the appearance is not fit for the
 327 conception, it is needed to deny the existence of this thing. In this case, it is the negation of the
 328 generated images. In other words, we need a loss function yielding a small value when the output
 329 equals the target while yielding a high value when the two are different. Usually, the loss function
 330 is predefined. For example, the most common loss function, Mean Squared Error (MSE), is a
 331 preinstalled function which is defined as

$$MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{Y}^i - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}^i)^2, \quad (10)$$

332 where $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ is the generated vector of \mathbf{Y} whose elements are \mathbf{Y}^i . When computing the MSE function, it
 333 outputs a scalar value to describe the similarity of the input and the target. But it is predefined, and
 334 the only freedom are the input data. How it relates to the negation of the generated images is still a
 335 question. There are three steps to solve the problem. First, the loss function should criticize the
 336 existence of $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$, so it has a term $-\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$. Second, it should approve the subsistence of \mathbf{Y} , the target; thus,
 337 the term \mathbf{Y} shall appear. Third, the square operator makes sure the function is a kind of distance.
 338 Through these three steps, the MSE has accomplished the negation of the generated vectors or
 339 images. When the generated image differs from the target image, the distance is large. When the
 340 generated image is the target image itself, their distance shall be zero. In contrast, a large distance
 341 shall be generated when the input is markedly different from the target to lead to better negation.

342 It is reasonable to expect that the loss function is a kind of distance function because the
 343 distance space is a weak assumption for the space of generated images. For instance, the loss
 344 function in (9) is another kind of distance compared with the MSE that directly computes pixel
 345 values. However, it is hard to find a unique common distance because our tasks differ while the
 346 distance remains invariant. Using a neural network scheme to train a distance is a good choice.
 347 Fortunately, the appearance of GANs has supported us solutions to find the proper distances. In
 348 GAN systems, the negation of generated images is processed in the loss function of the
 349 “Discriminator”. The discriminator is a mapping function, or a neural network to describe the

350 existence of the input image. However, the properties of the discriminator have been little
 351 discussed. In this paper, we try to use the theory of metric spaces to discuss this question.

352 Assuming that the distance in the image domain M_1 is $d_1(\cdot)$ and the distance in the
 353 discriminator domain M_2 is $d_2(\cdot)$, the discriminator is the map $D: M_1 \rightarrow M_1$ [35]. The distance of
 354 the conditional case, which is also the contradiction between two images, can be defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{contradiction}} = d_2(D(y|x), D(G(x)|x)), \quad (11)$$

355 where $D(\cdot|x)$ is the discriminator of an image under the condition that the input is x . If $D(\cdot)$ is a
 356 map to map the image to itself, and $d_2(\cdot)$ is the Frobenius norm, the contradiction becomes

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{contradiction}} = \|y - G(x)\|_F, \quad (12)$$

357 which is the L_1 norm that usually acts as a loss function in machine learning. This is one case of a
 358 determined map. As for a training map function, the most important thing is to design its format. If
 359 we still set $d_2(\cdot)$ as the Frobenius norm, the distance of the discriminator becomes

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{contradiction}} = \|D(y|x) - D(G(x)|x)\|_F, \quad (13)$$

360 when the discriminator is a predefined network such as the Spatial Gram matrix, we conclude that
 361 the loss function in (9) can be regarded as a specific case of (13).

362 If the range of $d_2(\cdot)$ is $[0,1]$, it is considered that the output is the possibility of being real.
 363 There are many concepts to re-unite the formats of different loss functions. In f -GAN [36], the loss
 364 functions are regarded as f -divergences, which are the measurements for the similarity of two
 365 distributions. However, the drawback of divergences is that they don't satisfy the triangle
 366 inequality and the symmetry which are requirements of distance functions [37]. In LSGAN [38], the
 367 least squares method is used to measure the output of the discriminator. In this method, the
 368 generated images are in an inner product space which is also a metric space. Therefore, we infer
 369 that the contradiction of the real image and the generated image should be contained in a function
 370 that can define the distance of some metric space, and the map D should be constrained. One
 371 constraint of D is that the range of D should be bounded because we compute it in a computer. Or
 372 it will become an infinite number. Second, D should be continuous, even uniformly continuous,
 373 because the gradient descent algorithms may fail when the loss function is not continuous. In
 374 WGAN, the Wasserstein distance is used, where the Lipschitz-continuous map ensures the property
 375 of uniformly continuous. In this paper, we focus on the WGAN framework.

376 When $d_2(\cdot)$ is the Wasserstein distance [39], the loss function of the discriminator becomes

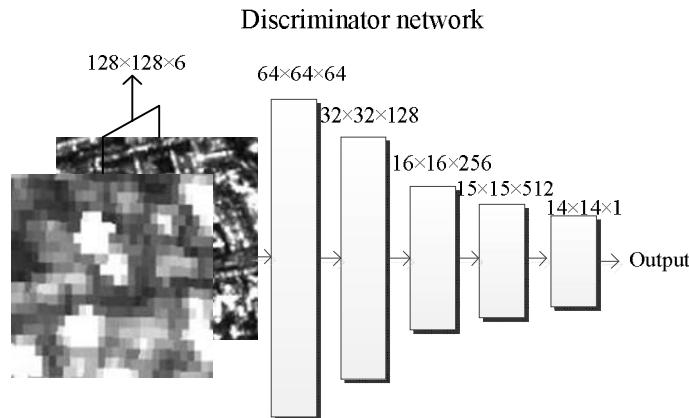
$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{discriminator}} = W(D(y|x), D(G(x)|x)), \quad (14)$$

377 where $W(\cdot)$ is the Wasserstein distance function which behaves better than the f -divergence
 378 being used in traditional GANs. The realization of the Wasserstein distance enforces a Lipschitz
 379 constraint on the Discriminator. In the WGAN-GP framework [40], the Lipschitz constraint is
 380 realized by enforcing a soft version of the constraint with a penalty on the gradient norm for random
 381 samples $\hat{x} \sim \mathbb{P}_{\hat{x}}$, where $\hat{x} = \epsilon y + (1 - \epsilon)G(x)$. Based on the conclusions in WGAN [40], the
 382 maximum of the Wasserstein distance between $\mathbb{P}_{r,y|x}$ and $\mathbb{P}_{g,x}$ becomes

$$D^* = \max_D(\mathcal{L}_{\text{discriminator}}) = \min_D \left(\begin{array}{l} \mathbb{E}_{G(x) \sim \mathbb{P}_{g,x}, x \sim \mathbb{P}_{r,x}} [D(G(x)|x)] - \mathbb{E}_{y \sim \mathbb{P}_{r,y}, x \sim \mathbb{P}_{r,x}} [D(y|x)] \\ + \lambda_{gp} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{x} \sim \mathbb{P}_{\hat{x}}} [(\|\nabla_{\hat{x}} D(\hat{x}|x)\|_2 - 1)^2] \end{array} \right), \quad (15)$$

383 where D^* is the best discriminator, $\mathbb{P}_{r,y|x}$ is the distribution of given real images, $\mathbb{P}_{g,x}$ is the
 384 distribution of generated images and $\nabla_{\hat{x}} D(\hat{x}|x)$ is the gradient of the discriminator $D(\cdot|x)$. When
 385 adding the penalty of the distance between the normal of $\nabla_{\hat{x}} D(\hat{x}|x)$ and 1 in the loss function, the
 386 Discriminator is forced to become a $1 - \text{Lipschitz}$ function. λ_{gp} is usually set to 10 according to the
 387 experiments conducted in [40]. Intuitively, the removal of the absolute operator ensures the
 388 continuity of the derivation of the loss function at the origin. The $1 - \text{Lipschitz}$ constraint limits the
 389 normal of the derivation from growing too large, which is a way to increase the distance but not in
 390 the way we want.

391 Once the loss function is determined, the next step is to design the architecture of $D(\cdot | x)$ that
 392 can be easily trained for computers. Considering the ready-made function already discussed in the
 393 previous section, the loss function of style defined by Gram matrices is a good choice because it can
 394 be regarded as processing on a Markov random field [13] [26]. The “pix2pix” summarized it as the
 395 “PatchGAN” whose input is the combination of x and y . The architecture of the discriminator is
 396 shown in Figure 7.



397
 398

Figure 7. Architecture of PatchGAN Discriminator network

399 *4.3 Dialectical Generative adversarial network–synthesis*

400 According to the dialectic, the third step is the negation of the negation. The negation of the
 401 generated image is described by the loss function of the discriminator. Thus, the negation of
 402 negation should be the negation of the loss function of the discriminator. The negation is trying to
 403 make the distance defined by the discriminator to become larger, while the negation of negation
 404 should make the distance smaller. In our WGAN framework, the negation is defined by equation
 405 (15). Thus, the negation of negation can be realized by maximizing it. Therefore, the maximization of
 406 the loss function in (15) is the negation of negation. At the last step of the dialectic, the negation of
 407 negation should be combined with the thesis to form a synthesis.

408 The thesis can be regarded as a synthesis from the former dialectics. For example, the “pix2pix”
 409 used the L_1 norm as their thesis, and the SRGAN used the Gram matrices on layer 5 of the VGG-19
 410 network as their thesis. These initial loss functions are distance functions and contain the negation of
 411 the generated images. In this paper, we start from the thesis defined by a Spatial Gram matrix. In
 412 other words, we set the initial loss function as defined in (9). The negation of negation is the
 413 maximization of (15). Therefore, the synthesis of our “Dialectical GAN” is the combination of (9) and
 414 (15). Reducing the terms in (15) that independent of “Generator” networks, the loss function of the
 415 “Dialectical GAN” becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{Generator}}^{\text{GAN}} &= \mathcal{L}_{\text{Generator}} - \lambda_{\text{GAN}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{critical}} \\ &= \mathcal{L}_{\text{content}} + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{style}} - \lambda_{\text{GAN}} \mathbb{E}_{G(x) \sim \mathbb{P}_{g,x}, x \sim \mathbb{P}_{r,x}} [D(G(x)|x)] \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

416 To optimize this new loss function, we need four steps: set up the generator, update the
 417 discriminator, update the generator and iterate.

- 418 • *Step 1*, having a Generator $G(\cdot)$ and an input image x , use the to generate $G(x)$, and then run
 419 the Discriminator $D(\cdot | \cdot)$.
- 420 • *Step 2*, use gradient descent methods to update $D(\cdot | \cdot)$ following (16)
- 421 • *Step 3*, use gradient descent methods to update $G(\cdot)$ following (15).
- 422 • *Step 4*, repeat *Step 1* and *Step 3* until the stopping condition is met.

423 Then the training of the Dialectical GAN is completed. Every loop can be considered as a
 424 realization of the dialectics. The basic framework is based on the WGAN-GP. As for the
 425 mathematical analysis of the GANs and deep learnings, please refer to [41], [42], [43]. Although the

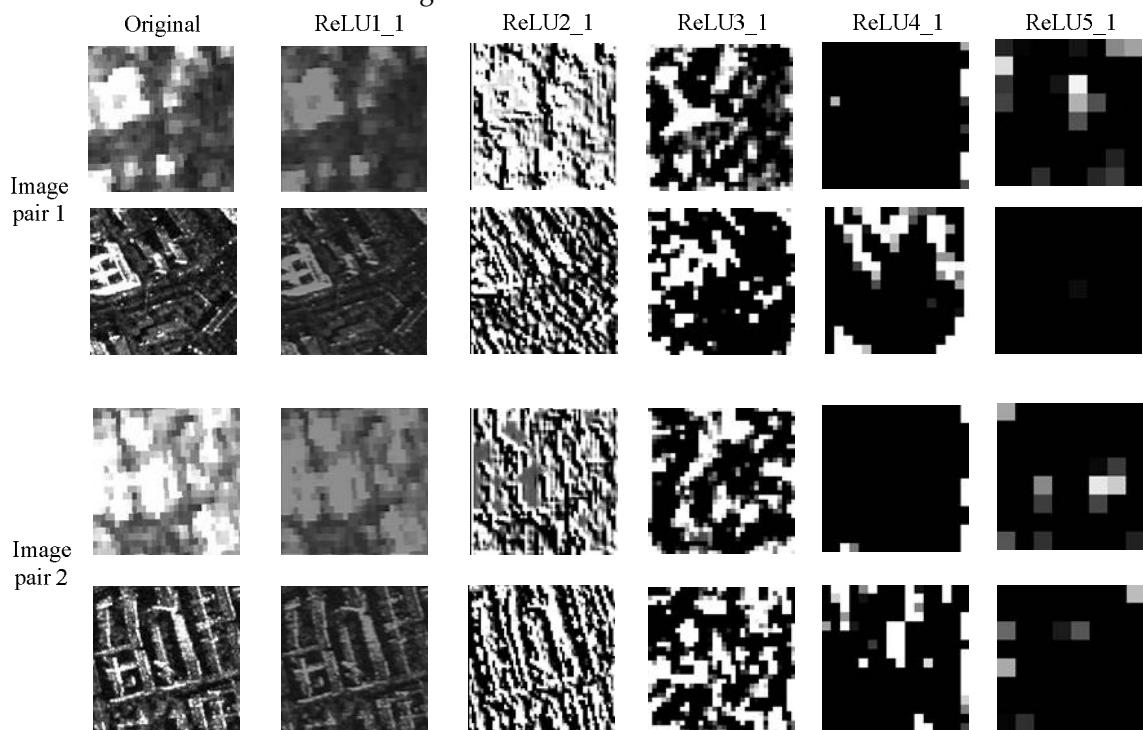
426 Deep Learning still looks like a “black box”, we tried to provide a logical analysis of it and attempted
 427 to achieve “real” artificial intelligence with the capabilities of dialectics.

428 **5. Experiments**

429 The data used for demonstration has already been described in Section 2. Based on the method
 430 proposed in Section 4, the GAN network used in this paper has two neural networks, Generator and
 431 Discriminator. The Generator is a “U-Net” with 6 layers, and the Discriminator is a “PatchGAN”
 432 convolutional neural network with 4 layers. In total, we had 1860 image pair-patches in the training
 433 data set and 224 image pair-patches in the test data set. With these data sets, the training took two
 434 days on a laptop with Intel Xeon CPU E3, an NVidia Q2000M GPU and 64 GB of memory. We
 435 conducted three experiments with respect to the following networks further presented below.

436 *5.1. SAR images in VGG-19 networks*

437 VGG-19 has an essential role in this paper because its layers are the components of the texture
 438 information determined by a Gram matrix. Besides, the selection of the content layer is a new
 439 problem for SAR images. First, we compared the differences between Sentinel-1 and TerraSAR-X
 440 images in each layer. Two image patch-pairs are the inputs in the VGG-19 networks and their
 441 intermediate results are shown in Figure 8.



442
 443 **Figure 8.** Two image patch-pairs input to in the VGG-19 networks and their intermediate results

444 Visually, the images of the ReLU4_1 layer have common parts. But this is not sufficient, and we
 445 decided to introduce the MSE and the Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) [44] in order to compare
 446 the image in different layers. The MSE is defined as:
 447

$$MSE^l = \frac{1}{(M^l)^2 N^l} \sum_{k=0}^{N^l-1} \sum_{i=0}^{M^l-1} \sum_{j=0}^{M^l-1} [x_k^l(i,j) - y_k^l(i,j)]^2, \quad (17)$$

448 where M^l is the size of the feature maps in l^{th} layer, N^l is the number of the feature maps in l^{th}
 449 layer, $x_k^l(i,j)$ is the pixel value of (i,j) in the k^{th} feature map of the l^{th} layer of a Sentinel-1
 450 image, and $y_k^l(i,j)$ is the counterpart of a TerraSAR-X image. In order to overcome the drawbacks
 451 of the MSE, we applied the SSIM whose definition is

$$SSIM(x, y) = \frac{(2\mu_x\mu_y + c_1)(2\sigma_{xy} + c_2)}{(\mu_x^2 + \mu_y^2 + c_1)(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + c_2)}, \quad (18)$$

452 where μ_x and σ_x are the mean value and the standard deviation of image x ; the same to applies
 453 to y . c_1 and c_2 are two constants related with the dynamic range of the pixel values. For more
 454 details, we refer the reader to [44]. The SSIM values range between -1 and 1, where 1 indicates
 455 perfect similarity. The evaluation results with the two indicators are shown in Table 2.

456 **Table 2.** Evaluation results with MSE and SSIM

Layers	MSE	SSIM
ReLU1_1	0.1616	0.4269
ReLU2_1	0.5553	0.0566
ReLU3_1	0.5786	0.2115
ReLU4_1	0.3803	0.7515
ReLU5_1	0.2273	0.7637

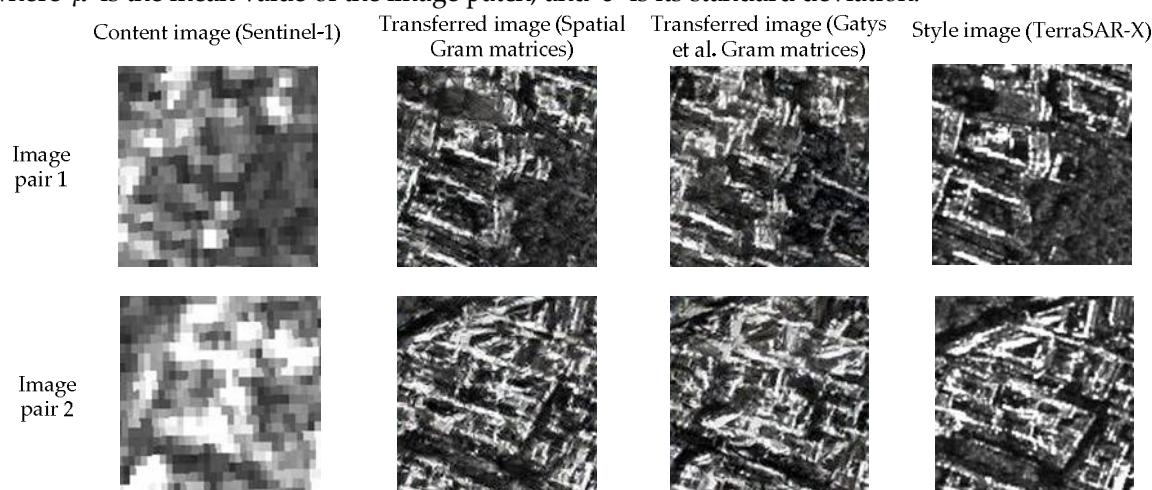
457 Although ReLU5_1 has the best performance with two indicators, we still ignore this layer due to
 458 the poor diversity in this layer. Excluding ReLU5_1, the ReLU4_1 layer gives us the best result.
 459 Therefore, the ReLU4_1 is chosen as the content layer, and the first three layers are used to define
 460 texture information.

461 *5.2. Gram martrices vs. Sptatial Gram martrices*

462 A Spatial Gram matrix is an extension of a Gram matrix, which is used to describe the texture
 463 information and is good at representing arrangement information. In Section 3.2, we have shown the
 464 visual difference between two style definitions. In this experiment, we used the quantity indicators
 465 to evaluate the two methods. Two image patch-pairs were chosen to conduct the comparison, whose
 466 results are shown in Figure 9. In order to evaluate the image quality of the SAR images, we introduce
 467 the equivalent numbers of looks (ENL), which act as a contrast factor to represent the image
 468 resolutions approximately. A higher ENL value indicates that the image is smooth while a lower
 469 value means that the image is in high resolution [45]. For our case, we need high-resolution images
 470 and as a result, the lower their ENL value, the better. The definition of ENL is

$$ENL = \frac{\mu^2}{\sigma^2}, \quad (19)$$

471 where μ is the mean value of the image patch, and σ is its standard deviation.



472
 473

474 **Figure 9.** Comparison between a Spatial Gram matrix and a Gatys et al. Gram matrix in two
 475 patch-pairs

476

Table 3. Evaluation of two methods for both image pairs 1 and 2

Image pairs	Methods	MSE	SSIM	ENL
1	Gatys <i>et al.</i> Gram	0.3182	0.0925	1.8286
	Spatial Gram	0.2762	0.1888	2.0951
2	Gatys <i>et al.</i> Gram	0.3795	0.0569	2.0389
	Spatial Gram	0.3642	0.0700	1.9055

477

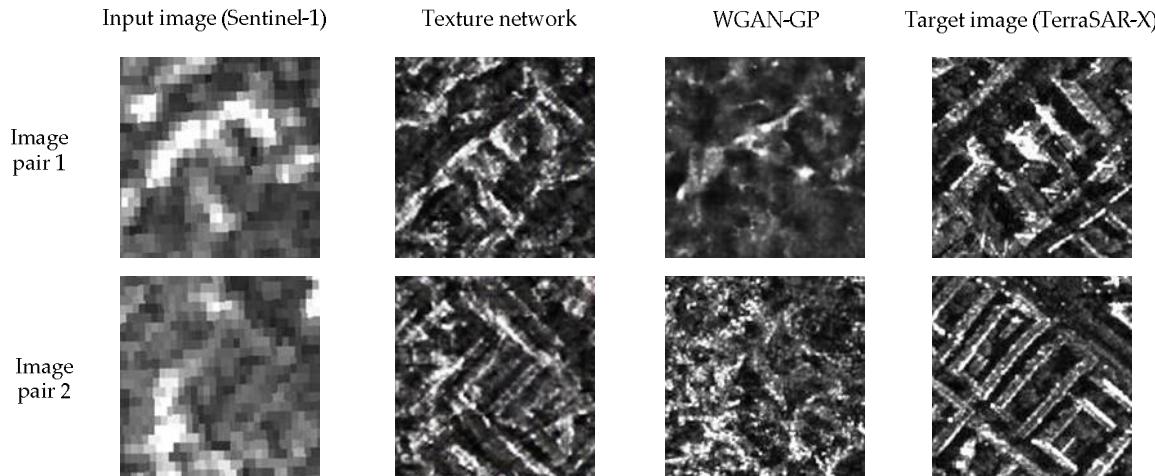
478 As can be seen from Figure 9 and Table 3, the Spatial Gram method performs better than Gatys *et*
 479 *al.*'s method, both visually and according to evaluation indicators. However, the ENL of image pair
 480 1 indicates that Gatys *et al.*'s method is better. To solve this problem, we need more experiments.
 481 Because the traditional generative model regards every pixel as a random pixel and ignores the
 482 relationships among neighboring pixels, its computing efficiency is limited. Nevertheless, a Spatial
 483 Gram matrix is a good tool to determine the image style for our cases. In the next subsection, we
 484 abandon the Gatys *et al.*'s method and replaced it with a "U-net" network to generate the enhanced
 485 images. This method is called "Texture network".

486 *5.3. Spatial Gram matrices vs. traditional GANs*

487 The texture network moves the computational burden to a learning stage and no longer needs
 488 the style images as an aide to produce an image because the style information is already mapped in
 489 the network through the learning steps. Although the feed-forward network supersedes the solution
 490 of random matrices, the loss function is still the same. According to the above experiments, the
 491 Spatial Gram matrix is the winner of the determinate loss function.

492 In contrast to the determinate one, other researchers found that the loss function can also be
 493 learned, though the Spatial Gram matrix is also learned from the VGG-19 network. Nonetheless, the
 494 learning of the loss function enables the definition of image style to become more optional. We use
 495 the WGAN-GP framework to represent this kind of idea, which is the most stable one among the
 496 GAN family. The results of the texture network and the WGAN-GP are compared in Figure 10 and
 497 the evaluation results are listed in Table 4. The test set components in Table 4 are the average
 498 performances of images in whole test set.

499 The texture network and the WGAN-GP are fast ways to conduct style transfer. According to
 500 the values in Table 4, we conclude that the WGAN-GP has a better performance than the texture
 501 network method with the given indicators. However, the WGAN-GP is not able to preserve the
 502 content information of Sentinel-1 and its output images are muddled without obvious structures
 503 like the texture network. Although texture network has no good performance in the evaluation
 504 system, it has preferable visual effect in contrast to the WGAN-GP. How to balance the indicator
 505 values and the visual performance is a crucial problem. The texture information is defined by the
 506 VGG-19 network which has been trained by optical images. Thus, we have grounds to believe that
 507 there is texture information that cannot be described by Spatial Gram matrices. In a following
 508 experiment, we will compare the texture network with the proposed Dialectical GAN.

509
510511 **Figure 10.** Comparison between Texture network and WGAN-GP for two patch-pairs

512

Table 4. Evaluation of Texture network and WGAN-GP in both image pair 1 and 2

Image pairs	Methods	MSE	SSIM	ENL
1	Texture network	0.3265	0.0614	1.3932
	WGAN-GP	0.2464	0.1993	2.8725
2	Texture network	0.3396	0.0766	1.6269
	WGAN-GP	0.2515	0.2058	3.5205
Test set	Texture network	0.3544	0.0596	1.7005
	WGAN-GP	0.2632	0.2117	3.3299

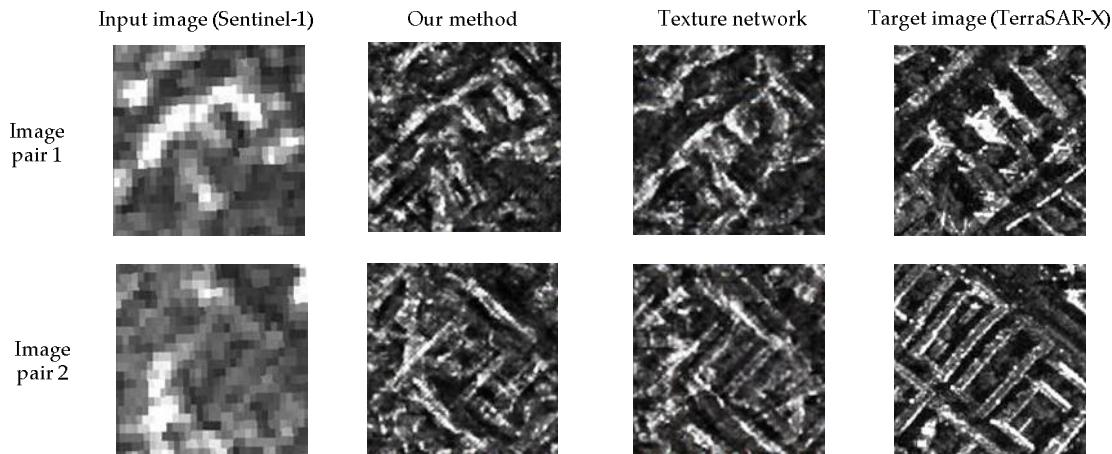
513

514

5.4. Dialectical GAN vs. Spatial Gram matrices

515 The texture network defined the texture information in a determinate way while the
 516 WGAN-GP uses a flexible method to describe the difference between generative images and target
 517 images. In this paper, we proposed a new method that combines a determinate way and a flexible
 518 way to enhance the generative images, and we called it “Dialectical-GAN” because the idea is
 519 enlightened by the dialectical logic. The Dialectical-AN initializes its loss function with the Spatial
 520 Gram matrix that was found a good way to describe the texture information of urban area and the
 521 content loss defined by the ReLU4_1 layer of the VGG-19 network. Through the training of the
 522 Dialectical GAN, new texture information can be learned and represented in the “Discriminator”
 523 network. The comparison between a “Dialectical-GAN” and the texture network with a Spatial
 524 Gram loss function are shown in Figure 11 and Table 5.

525 Both visual performance (Figure 11) and the indicator analysis (Table 5) proved that our
 526 method is better than the texture network. However, these experiments all remained limited to the
 527 patch level, and the figures of a whole scene have not yet been considered. Therefore, we show the
 528 entire image composed with every path to check the overall performance and to estimate the
 529 relationship between neighboring patches.



530

531

Figure 11. Comparison between Dialectical GAN and Texture network for two image patch-pairs

532

Table 5. Evaluation of Texture network and Dialectical GAN for both image pairs 1 and 2

Image pairs	Methods	MSE	SSIM	ENL
1	Texture network	0.3264	0.0614	1.3933
	Dialectical GAN	0.3291	0.0884	1.5885
2	Texture network	0.3396	0.0766	1.6270
	Dialectical GAN	0.3310	0.0505	1.8147
Test set	Texture network	0.3544	0.0596	1.7005
	Dialectical GAN	0.3383	0.0769	1.8804

533

534

5.5. Overall visual performance

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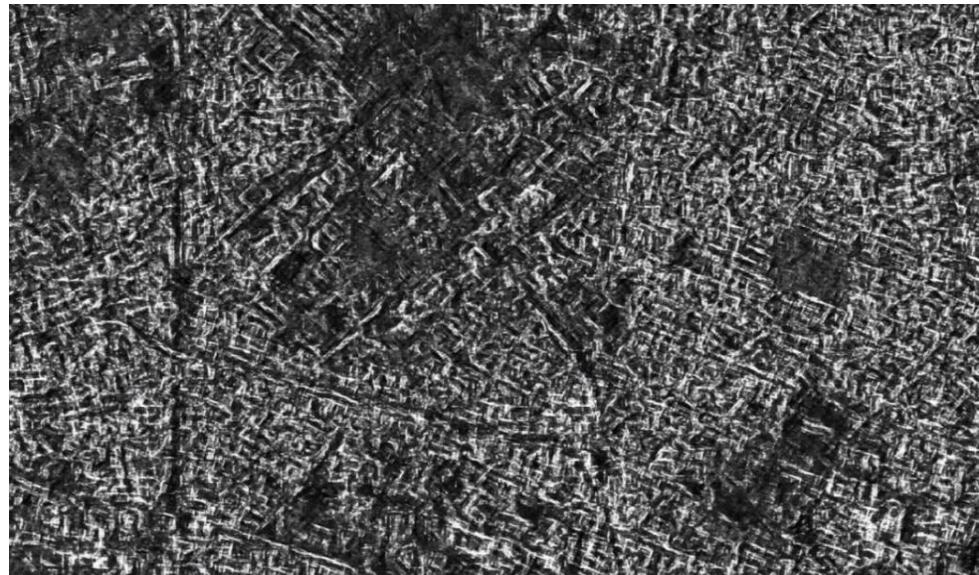
One of the most important merits of remote sensing images are their large-scale observations. In this section, we are discussing how a remote sensing image looks when its patches are processed by the selected neural networks. A full image is generated by concatenating the small processed patches to produce a final image. In this paper, we focus on three networks, the texture network with a Spatial Gram matrix, the WGAN-GP method, and our “Dialectical GAN” method. They are shown in Figure 12, Figure 13, and Figure 14, respectively. As for the overall visual performance, we consider that the Dialectical GAN has the best subjective visual performances.



542

543

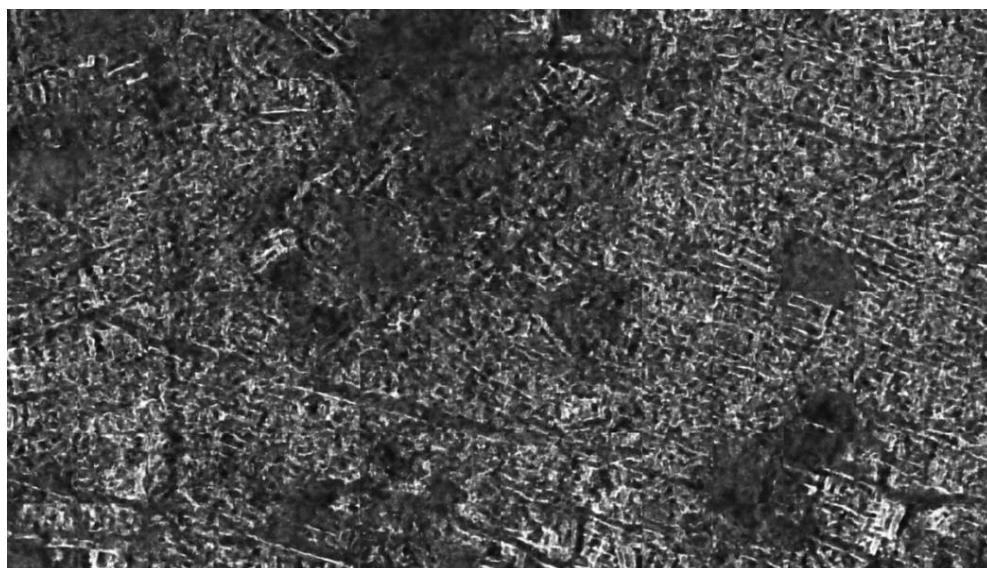
Figure 12. The overall results of a Dialectical-GAN



544

545

Figure 13. The overall results of a texture network



546

547

Figure 14. The overall results of a WGAN-GP (L1 +WGAN-GP)

548

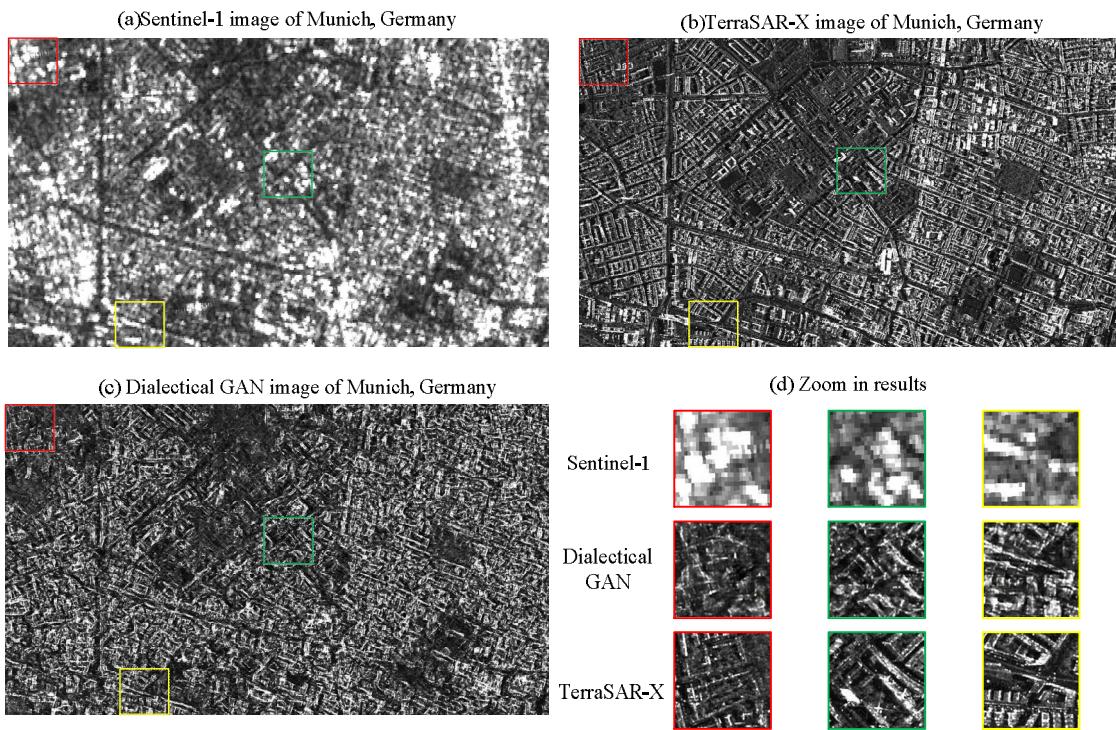
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The SAR image translation results compared with inputs and outputs image are shown in Figure 15. First, we can see the entire effect of the image translation.in the Munich urban area. To display detail results, we have three bounding box with different colors (Red, Green and Yellow) to extract the patches from the full image. They are in Figure 15(d).

552



553

554 **Figure 15** Overall visual performance of Dialectical GAN compared with Sentinel-1 and TerraSAR-X images (a)
 555 (b) TerraSAR-X image (c) Dialectical GAN image (d) Zoom in results

556 6. Discussion

557 Compared with traditional image enhancement methods, deep learning is an end-to-end
 558 method that is quite easy to be implemented. Deep learning has excellent performances and is
 559 standing out among the machine learning algorithms, especially in the case of big data. Solutions
 560 for remote sensing applications were discovered by the advent of deep learning. More importantly,
 561 deep learning is now playing a crucial part in transferring the style of images.

562 Concerning SAR image translation, little attention has been focused on it and the performances
 563 of deep learning on this topic are still unknown. The task that this paper addresses is related with
 564 super-resolution tasks, but our image pairs are not of the same appearances due to the differences
 565 in incidence angles, radar polarization, and acquisition times. From this aspect, our task belongs to
 566 style transfer to some extent, like generating a piece of artistic painting without the constraint that
 567 two images should be focused on same objects. Therefore, the SAR image translation is a mix of
 568 super-resolution and style transfer and has never been focused in the conception of deep learning.

569 From Gatys *et al.*'s method to GAN frameworks, we have tested the capabilities of deep
 570 learning in translating Sentinel-1 images to TerraSAR-X images. The resulting images of Gatys *et*
 571 *al.*'s method are of high quality but they don't preserve well the structure information, which is an
 572 essential characteristic of remote sensing SAR images, especially for urban areas. The improvement
 573 can be accomplished by introducing Spatial Gram matrices instead of the traditional ones in the loss
 574 function. A Spatial Gram matrix is a compromise between the arrangement structure and the
 575 freedom of style. In this paper, we compose Gram matrices computed in spatial shifting mode as a
 576 new matrix-vector for each layer. The spatial matrix is a good indicator to describe arrangement
 577 structures such as buildings and roads. However, our loss function modifications can only solve the
 578 style presentation problem, but the high computation effort still limits the applications of image
 579 translation for remote sensing. Fortunately, deep neural networks are a powerful tool for fitting
 580 complicated functions that provides solutions to speed up the image translation. Instead of taking
 581 every pixel as a random variable, a deep neural network regards an image as an input of the system,
 582 and the only thing the deep learning can do is to approximate the mapping function. That is to say,

583 the deep neural network is a generator, and the Spatial Gram matrix is used to define the loss
584 function.

585 The GAN framework gives us a new concept of a loss function which can also be defined by a
586 neural network called discriminator. We assume that the GAN framework has a dialectical logical
587 structure and explained it in a triad. However, due to the arbitrariness of a neural work and the
588 limitation of the training data, a GAN is hard to train and cannot achieve good performances for
589 our applications. Considering the diversity of GANs and the determinacy of Spatial Gram matrices,
590 we proposed a new method that combines their advantages together. With the initial loss function
591 defined by Spatial Gram matrices, our GAN system updates its discriminator and generator to
592 make the output image as “true” as possible. The Spatial Gram loss function works well, but we
593 still believe that there are other functions to determine the style of a given image. Using a
594 combination framework, our system is able to generate high-quality SAR images and to improve
595 the resolutions of Sentinel-1 images without the need for large amounts of data.

596 To appraise the generated images, we used three indicators, MSE, SSIM and ENL. The
597 comparison experiments show that the Spatial Gram matrix is better than the traditional Gram
598 matrix. A WGAN-GP without any initial loss function didn’t perform well in contrast to the Spatial
599 Gram matrix method. With the support of Spatial Gram matrices, the new WGAN-GP that we
600 proposed is the best of these three methods, both in visual performance and by quantitative
601 measurements (using the three indicators). Besides, we have tested the overall visual performance
602 rather than to stay on image patch level. It is a new attempt for deep learning to perform the image
603 transfer task in this way. The same results occurred when full images are considered and the new
604 proposed method outperforms the existing ones.

605 7. Conclusions

606 In this paper, a “Dialectical GAN” based on Spatial Gram matrices and a WGAN-GP
607 framework is proposed to conduct the SAR image transfer task from Sentinel-1 to TerraSAR-X
608 images. By analyzing the behavior of SAR image in the VGG-19 pre-trained network, we have
609 found that the relationship between two source images is maintained in the higher layers of the
610 VGG-19 network, which is the foundation of changing the “style” of images. In remote sensing
611 usually the urban areas are dominated by buildings and roads and, based on this observation, the
612 Spatial Gram matrixes are a very good metric to describe the “style” information of these areas,
613 including their arrangement structure.

614 In order to explain the idea of a GAN, we introduced the dialectical way and adapted each part
615 of the proposed frame to fit with this logical structure. The proposed method is combining the loss
616 functions of Spatial Gram and WGAN-GP methods in order to fulfil our requirements. The results
617 of the translation show promising capabilities, especially for urban areas. The networks learn an
618 adaptive loss from image pairs at hand, and regularized by the prescribed image style, which make
619 it applicable for the task of SAR image translation.

620 As future works, we plan to go into deeper mathematic details and explanations of the
621 Dialectical GAN. The combination of radar signal theory and deep learning needs to be
622 investigated in order to describe the change of the basic unit (e.g., point spread function). In
623 addition, this paper is limited to the application of SAR images translations, now we are trying to
624 understand the translation of SAR and optical images. In future, we would like to apply our
625 techniques to other target areas and other sensors.

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631 wrote the paper.”

632 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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