
CLODE: Continuous Exposure Learning for Low-light Image Enhancement using Neural ODEs

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Abstract

1 Low-light image enhancement poses a significant challenge due to the limited
2 information captured by image sensors in low-light environments. Despite recent
3 improvements in deep learning models, the lack of paired training datasets remains
4 a significant obstacle. Therefore, unsupervised methods have emerged as a promis-
5 ing solution. In this work, we focus on the strength of curve-adjustment-based
6 approaches to tackle unsupervised methods. The majority of existing unsupervised
7 curve-adjustment approaches iteratively estimate higher order curve parameters
8 to enhance the exposure of images while efficiently preserving the details of the
9 images. However, the convergence of the enhancement procedure cannot be guar-
10 anteed, leading to sensitivity to the number of iterations and limited performance.
11 To address this problem, we consider the iterative curve-adjustment update process
12 as a dynamic system and formulate it as a Neural Ordinary Differential Equations
13 (NODE) for the first time, and this allows us to learn a continuous dynamics of
14 the latent image. The strategy of utilizing NODE to leverage continuous dynamics
15 in iterative methods enhances unsupervised learning and aids in achieving better
16 convergence compared to discrete-space approaches. Consequently, we achieve
17 state-of-the-art performance in unsupervised low-light image enhancement across
18 various benchmark datasets.

19 1 Introduction

20 Images taken in various low-light environments suffer from insufficient light, leading to the capture
21 of limited information by the camera’s image sensor. Therefore, many studies have been conducted
22 to improve the quality of the low-light images and achieve images with optimal exposure levels.
23 In particular, recent supervision-based deep learning approaches [1, 2, 3] have shown remarkable
24 performance in enhancing low-light images. However, the process of collecting pairs of low-light
25 scenes and their corresponding ground-truth images for supervised learning is time consuming and
26 resource intensive. As a result, unsupervised approaches that rely solely on low-light images have
27 been proposed to address this problem.

28 Among many unsupervised low-light image enhancement approaches, curve-adjustment-based meth-
29 ods, conventionally used in photo editing software (*e.g.*, Photoshop), have received much attention.
30 After the introduction of first learning-based curve-adjustment work by Yuan and Sun [7], iter-
31 ative curve-adjustment-based methods have been explored in various subsequent studies. These
32 unsupervised methods achieve enhancement without using the ground-truth images by fitting the
33 brightness values of pixels in the input image to specific curves. In addition, it is advantageous to
34 preserve local structural information adaptively by allowing efficient pixel-by-pixel computations.
35 For example, ZeroDCE [6, 8] introduced a fast and lightweight neural network to predict pixel-wise
36 curve parameter maps within a fixed iteration step. In addition, ReLLIE [9] produced more accurate



Figure 1: (a) Quantitative Evaluation: The average PSNR values on the LSRW [4] and LOL [5], together with the respective parameter numbers for each model. (b) Visual Comparisons with ZeroDCE [6] (*unsupervised*), RetinexFormer [2] (*supervised*) and proposed CLODE (*unsupervised*).

37 image enhancement results by using reinforcement learning to predict the curve parameter map at
 38 each iteration step, with users able to adjust the number of iterations.

39 In general, these curve-adjustment-based methods, which have fewer parameters, offer the advantage
 40 of fast and efficient training and also demonstrate the effectiveness of using higher-order curves
 41 for low-light image adjustment. However, conventional iterative approaches in discrete-space with
 42 fixed update steps do not arrive at the optimal solution and cannot guarantee convergence of the
 43 optimization. Therefore, we alleviate this problem in the discrete-space updating process of existing
 44 methods. In doing so, we bring out the strengths of curve fitting methods by reformulating the
 45 iterative update formula into ordinary differential equations, which allows the iterative approach to be
 46 transformed from discrete-space to continuous-space and find input-specific higher-order curves until
 47 convergence within a specified tolerance. To be specific, we present the Neural Ordinary Differential
 48 Equations (NODE) model for the low-light enhancement task for the first time. By solving the
 49 NODE problem using conventional ODE solvers, we obtain better approximate solutions to the
 50 curve-adjustment problem, producing more accurate results than conventional results from iterative
 51 updates in discrete-space by exploring the continuous exposure dynamics. In this work, we introduce
 52 Continuous exposure learning for Low-light image enhancement using neural Ordinary Differential
 53 Equations (CLODE), which is the first dynamic system for low-light image enhancement. Our main
 54 contributions can be summarized as follows:

- 55 • CLODE is the first approach to formulate the higher-order curve estimation problem as a
 56 NODE problem, enabling effective and accurate solutions with standard ODE solvers.
- 57 • By transforming the discrete update formula into NODE, which is solvable in continuous-
 58 space, we significantly enhance the unsupervised low-light image enhancement results across
 59 various benchmark datasets as shown in Fig. 1. This effectively bridges the performance
 60 gap between supervised and unsupervised approaches.
- 61 • CLODE also offers user controllability without altering the network architecture, enabling
 62 users to manually adjust the desired level of exposure as needed.

63 2 Related works

64 2.1 Unsupervised Low-light Image Enhancement

65 Obtaining well-exposed ground-truth images paired with corresponding low-light images is inherently
 66 challenging, which limits the use of supervised learning in low-light image enhancement. To address
 67 this limitation, many unsupervised methods have been developed to tackle the problem. First, there
 68 are some approaches [10, 11, 12, 13] that utilize the principles of retinex-theory. Among them,
 69 PairLIE [13] utilizes retinex-theory to identify the reflectance and illumination, and employs gamma
 70 correction with user-defined gamma values to enhance the illumination. In addition, UDCN [14] and
 71 HEP [15] use histogram equalization results as a reference for exposure enhancement. Moreover,
 72 recent approaches using GANs have shown remarkable improvements by additionally utilizing
 73 unpaired images of normal exposed [16, 17]. Lastly, there are curve-adjustment-based methods [6, 8,
 74 18, 9] that transform images through tone mapping. These methods have advanced the curve-fitting
 75 techniques from traditional editing tools into deep learning-based approaches, enhancing images by
 76 predicting the fitting curves pixel-by-pixel. By repeating the pixel-wise curve fitting and exposure
 77 enhancement for a fixed number of iterations in discrete-space, these approaches aim to handle locally
 78 varying exposure levels (*i.e.*, single image with both underexposed and overexposed areas) in an
 79 unsupervised manner. Our CLODE also follows this unsupervised curve-adjustment-based method

80 and reformulates the curve-fitting problem into a neural ordinary differential equation (NODE). By
 81 solving the NODE problem using conventional ODE solvers, we increase the accuracy of curve fitting
 82 and thus significantly improve the performance of low-light image enhancement.

83 2.2 Neural Ordinary Differential Equations

84 An ordinary differential equation (ODE) is a fundamental concept in mathematics that describes how
 85 a function changes with respect to a single variable. It captures the relationship between a function
 86 and its derivatives, providing a powerful tool for modeling dynamic systems, such as Newton’s
 87 Second Law of Motion. To effectively apply the strength of ordinary differential equations to the
 88 deep learning model, the concept of neural ordinary differential equations (NODE) is introduced
 89 in [19]. The use of NODE facilitates model definition and evaluation, highlighting its effectiveness in
 90 parameter efficiency, adaptive computation, and modeling continuous data. In order to effectively
 91 capture more complicated functions, the Augmented Neural ODE (ANODE) [20] has been introduced.
 92 Furthermore, for seamless continuous time-series modeling, Latent ODE [21] is proposed and recently,
 93 ClimODE [22] proposed a continuous-time NODE models for numerical weather prediction. To be
 94 specific, in the field of computer vision, the Vid-ODE approach [23] has been introduced to generate
 95 continuous-time videos. NODEO [24] has presented a versatile architecture tailored for deformable
 96 image registration, and a temporal deformation model using the capabilities of NODE has been
 97 developed in [25] to address the challenges associated with future prediction tasks in the context
 98 of 4D reconstruction. With advantages like continuous-space modeling, adaptive computation, and
 99 memory efficiency, NODE [19] is utilized in various deep learning tasks. However, it has not been
 100 extensively explored in the field of image restoration. While NODE-SR [26] has been introduced to
 101 address the arbitrary scale super-resolution problem, our methodology marks the first application in
 102 image exposure enhancement. In contrast to NODE-SR [26], which learns the continuous variation of
 103 the scaling factor for the arbitrary scale super-resolution problem, our CLODE learns the continuous
 104 variation of image exposure through curve-adjustment.

105 3 Proposed Method

106 3.1 Preliminary

107 In photo editing applications, the curve-adjustment method is often used to adjust the tone of
 108 input images and provides effective exposure control. While this method is useful for pixel-wise
 109 manipulation, it is not well suited for images that contain areas of extreme over- or under-exposure.
 110 Additionally, a notable drawback of this approach is its reliance on manual adjustments (*e.g.*, the
 111 number of updates) by the user for each input image. This can be time-consuming and potentially less
 112 accurate in certain scenarios. To address this problem, Yuan and Sun [7] have proposed a solution
 113 that aims to mitigate the limitations of manual adjustments. They introduced an automated approach
 114 that involves estimating an image-specific S -shaped nonlinear tone curve (referred to as an S -curve)
 115 tailored to each input image. Specifically, for a given low-light image I_0 , where each pixel value is in
 116 the range $[0, 1]$, the S -curve formula for the enhanced image I'_0 can be represented as follows:

$$I'_0 = I_0 + \phi_s \cdot P_\Delta(I_0) - \phi_h \cdot P_\Delta(1 - I_0), \quad (1)$$

117 where ϕ_s and ϕ_h represent parameters for the amount of shadow and highlight, respectively. The
 118 function P_Δ serves as an increasing function for the adjustment that manipulates the intensity of
 119 individual pixels within the input of the function.

120 While Eq.1 allows for adjusting the brightness of an entire image using a single global curve parameter,
 121 existing iterative curve-adjustments approaches [6, 8, 9, 27] operate on a pixel-wise basis of the input
 122 images. Furthermore, they introduce the necessity of higher-order curves, which enhances images by
 123 fitting higher-order curves for fixed iteration steps while using a deep learning model to predict curve
 124 parameters on a pixel-by-pixel basis. Specifically the update formula enhances an image I_n at the
 125 n -th step to an image I_{n+1} at the next step as follows:

$$I_{n+1} = I_n + \mathcal{A}_n \otimes I_n \otimes (1 - I_n), \quad (2)$$

126 where $\mathcal{A}_n \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H \times W}$ represents a pixel-wise varying curve parameter map and C , H , and W
 127 represent the number of channels, height, and width of the image I_n , and \otimes operation denotes element-
 128 wise multiplication. Note that, the elements of \mathcal{A}_n corresponding to the curve parameters at each

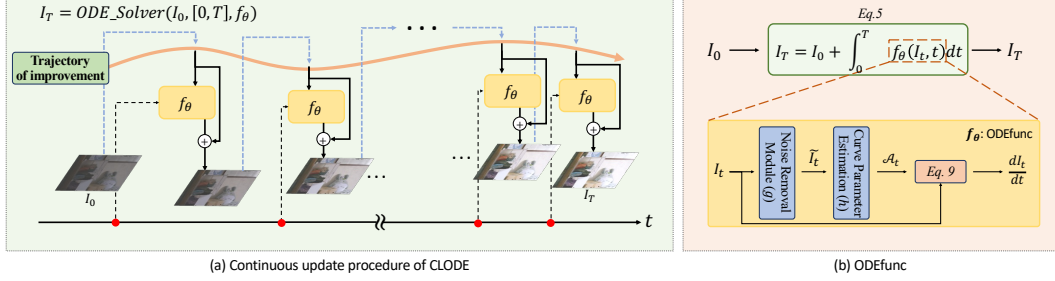


Figure 2: **(a)** Illustration of continuous update procedure of CLODE. Optimal iterative update can be achieved through the ODE equation. **(b)** Illustration of our ODEfunc f_θ . ODEfunc contains the Noise Removal (g), Curve Parameter Estimation (h) module, and Eq. 9 to obtain the derivative value. Please refer to Appendix A.1.2 for more details.

129 pixel location are in the range $[-1, 1]$ and determine the quadratic curve for the pixel-wise exposure
 130 adjustment during the enhancement process. Conventional curve-adjustment methods [6, 8, 9, 18]
 131 iteratively follow this process for N times, fitting an appropriate higher-order curve to produce
 132 the final well-exposed output image. On the contrary, our CLODE performs curve adjustment for
 133 image enhancement by reformulating Eq. 2 as an ordinary differential equation. This approach
 134 facilitates memory-efficient training and yields more accurate results through adaptive computation
 135 using modern ODE solvers.

136 3.2 Continuous Exposure Learning for Low-light Image Enhancement using Neural ODEs

137 Although conventional curve-adjustment-based iterative methods offer advantages in terms of
 138 lightweight network architecture and local robustness, these approaches cannot guarantee conver-
 139 gence of the update process. ZeroDCE [6] empirically determines the iteration number N and
 140 enhances low-light images by iterating the curve-adjustment formula 8 ($=N$) times. While ReL-
 141 LIE [9] provides users with optional flexibility, it requires manual selection of the value of N for
 142 each input image to further improve image quality. To tackle this challenge in optimization, we
 143 reformulate the curve-adjustment-based formula outlined in Eq. 2 as a Neural Ordinary Differential
 144 Equations (NODE). Then, we can solve the NODE with conventional ODE solvers (*e.g.*, Euler, RK4,
 145 dopri5) which guarantees the convergence of loss within tolerances. Specifically, we reformulate
 146 the original curve-adjustment-based formula by introducing a continuous state t instead of using the
 147 discrete state n as follows:

$$I_{t+1} = I_t + f_\theta(I_t, t), \quad (3)$$

148 where f_θ is a neural network with trainable parameters θ that satisfies $f_\theta(I_t, t) = \mathcal{A}_t \otimes I_t \otimes (1 - I_t)$.
 149 Then, we can parameterize the derivative of the enhanced image during the update using the network
 150 f_θ if the continuous update step is very small, and it is given by,

$$\frac{dI_t}{dt} = f_\theta(I_t, t). \quad (4)$$

151 By transforming the original curve fitting problem into a NODE problem with an initial condition I_0 ,
 152 we can estimate not only the derivative value of each state but also recover the enhanced image by
 153 solving the problem, and the initial value problem is given by,

$$I_T = I_0 + \int_0^T f_\theta(I_t, t) dt, \quad (5)$$

154 where I_T denotes the well-exposed image at the final state T . Finally, the low-light image enhance-
 155 ment process to output I_T is accomplished by using the ODE solver as:

$$I_T = \text{ODE_Solver}(I_0, [0, T], f_\theta), \quad (6)$$

156 where **ODE_Solver** denotes a conventional algorithm for solving the ordinary differential equations.
 157 In our experiments, CLODE adopts the well-known dopri5 (Dormand-Prince 5th order Runge-Kutta)
 158 as an adaptive ODE solver, that determines an input-specific number of iterations for each input and
 159 dynamically adjusts the step size. Using the adaptive solver, we can adaptively compute the optimal
 160 state for different exposure levels, thereby enabling a more accurate approximation of the solution.
 161 This is in contrast to conventional methods, which use the same fixed number of iterations for all
 162 input images and cannot guarantee optimality and convergence. To the best of our knowledge, our
 163 approach is the first to define the low-light image enhancement problem as a novel NODE problem
 164 with an initial condition.

165 **3.2.1 ODE function (ODEfunc)**

166 We can solve the NODE problem in Eq. 5 by integrating f_θ over the time interval $[0, T]$ with the given
 167 initial value I_0 (e.g., a low-light image). In practice, conventional ODE solvers are used to address
 168 this problem, iteratively enhancing the low-light images using Eq. 3. In Fig. 2(a), we illustrate the
 169 continuous update procedure of our CLODE approach. Notably, the ODE function (ODEfunc) f_θ
 170 computes continuous dynamics of the latent image and is a key element in the update procedure. The
 171 detailed configuration of our ODEfunc f_θ is shown in Fig. 2(b). To be specific, our ODEfunc includes
 172 Noise Removal (g) and the Curve Parameter Estimation (h) modules with trainable parameters, and
 173 outputs $\frac{dI_t}{dt}$, the continuous dynamics of I_t . Please refer to Appendix A.1.2 for more details.

174 **Noise Removal** In the ODEfunc, we first employ a pre-processing step to eliminate the artifacts
 175 from I_t and generate the denoised image \tilde{I}_t in order to produce more accurate curve adjustment
 176 parameters \mathcal{A}_t . To minimize computational costs within the f_θ , we employ a simple and lightweight
 177 three-layer convolutional neural network g as our Noise Removal module, expressed as follows:

$$\tilde{I}_t = g(I_t). \tag{7}$$

178 The refined image \tilde{I}_t is then used as the input to the subsequent Curve Parameter Estimation stage.

179 **Curve Parameter Estimation** Inspired by [7, 28], to enhance both under- and over- exposed
 180 areas, we not only use the denoised image \tilde{I}_t and its inverted version $(1 - \tilde{I}_t)$ as inputs to the Curve
 181 Parameter Estimation module. The formulation is given by:

$$\mathcal{A}_t = h(\tilde{I}_t, 1 - \tilde{I}_t), \tag{8}$$

182 where \mathcal{A}_t represents the curve parameter map at t , and h represents the Curve Parameter Estimation
 183 module. For efficacy, this module is also a lightweight convolutional neural network. In particular,
 184 we apply layer normalization [29] to all intermediate features. Notably, the use of layer normalization
 185 enables CLODE to handle the diverse exposure ranges of input images. Furthermore, all convolutional
 186 layers within the Curve Parameter Estimation module h take the continuous state t as a conditional
 187 input, allowing for time-varying outputs during the integration interval $[0, T]$ as in [19].

188 **Continuous Dynamics** Lastly, the derivative value of the one-step state at t is computed in our
 189 ODEfunc, and it is expressed as follows:

$$\frac{dI_t}{dt} = \mathcal{A}_t \otimes I_t \otimes (1 - I_t). \tag{9}$$

190 Notably, unlike conventional curve-adjustment-based update formulas that discretize update steps,
 191 our continuous dynamics allows the desired level of accuracy and produces more accurate solutions.

192 **3.3 Inference Process of CLODE**

193 **Inference Process** Given a low-light input image I_0 , CLODE undergoes successive image enhance-
 194 ment through f_θ until convergence within the specified tolerance of the ODE solvers, resulting in a
 195 well-exposed image I_T . Note that, the output image I_T may contain some noise that is amplified
 196 during the image enhancement process. Therefore, we use the noise-free image \tilde{I}_T as our final
 197 outcome by applying the Noise Removal module g .

198 **User Controllable Design** CLODE learns the low-light exposure adjustment mechanism in the
 199 continuous-space, and is trained to output I_T by integrating the states from 0 to T in Eq. 5 using a
 200 fixed T . However, as shown in Fig. 3, users can manually adjust the integration interval by changing
 201 the final state value T at the test stage, allowing them to output images with the preferred exposure
 202 level and even produce images darker than the input. In practice, by controlling the final state from
 203 $-(T + \Delta t)$ to $(T + \Delta t)$, the exposure level of the output image can be easily controlled to provide a
 204 more user-friendly exposure level.



Figure 3: **Illustration of User Controllable Design.** By manually changing the integration interval from $-(T + \Delta t)$ to $+(T + \Delta t)$, ours can produce results with different exposure levels.

205 **3.4 Zero-Reference Loss Functions**

206 To address the challenge posed by the lack of ground truth, we use five zero-reference loss functions
 207 for unsupervised training.

208 **Spatial Consistency Loss** While the given low-light input image I_0 is enhanced during the update
 209 procedure, maintaining spatial consistency in the pixel brightness order is crucial for preserving
 210 image details. Specifically, we measure the difference in spatial consistency between the input image
 211 I_0 and our prediction I_T by comparing the differences in neighboring pixel values. Similar to [6],
 212 we compute the spatial consistency after applying 4-by-4 average pooling to both I_0 and I_T , and the
 213 spatial consistency loss \mathcal{L}_{spa} is expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{spa} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \in \Omega(i)} (|m_4(I_T)_i - m_4(I_T)_j| - |m_4(I_0)_i - m_4(I_0)_j|)^2. \quad (10)$$

214 The 4-by-4 average pooling operation is denoted as $m_4(\cdot)$ and $\Omega(i)$ includes neighboring pixels in
 215 four directions (left, right, top, bottom) centered at position i . The normalization factor K denotes the
 216 number of pixels in the reduced image after the pooling operation, and K is given by $\frac{H}{4} \times \frac{W}{4} \times C$.

217 **Exposure Loss** To enforce a consistent exposure level across pixels, conventional unsupervised
 218 methods incorporate exposure guidance into the loss function [6]. Similarly, we introduce a desired
 219 exposure level parameter E and define the exposure loss \mathcal{L}_{exp} as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{exp} = \|\mathcal{M}_{16}(I_T) - E\|_2^2. \quad (11)$$

220 In our experiments, we set the exposure level E to 0.6, which corresponds to the gray level in the
 221 RGB color space. To maintain the overall exposure level in the results, we minimize the difference
 222 between the pixel values of the predicted image I_T and the desired exposure level E after performing
 223 a 16-by-16 average pooling operation $\mathcal{M}_{16}(\cdot)$ on the output image I_T .

224 **Color Constancy Loss** In conventional zero-reference methods, two main approaches are used to
 225 enforce spatial color constancy: one based on the retinex-theory, and the other based on the Gray-
 226 World hypothesis in [30]. In this work, the color constancy loss \mathcal{L}_{col} is based on the Gray-World
 227 hypothesis as in [6, 15], and the formulation is given by,

$$\mathcal{L}_{col} = (R - B)^2 + (R - G)^2 + (G - B)^2, \quad (12)$$

228 where R , G , and B are the mean pixel values of the red, green, and blue channels in the predicted
 229 image I_T , respectively. We minimize the color constancy loss \mathcal{L}_{col} to correct the potential color
 230 deviations in the enhanced image.

231 **Parameter Regularization Loss** To prevent rapid changes of pixel values in nearby regions, we
 232 employ the spatial regularization to enforce smoothness among neighboring curve parameter values
 233 in \mathcal{A}_t , and the formulation is given by,

$$\mathcal{L}_{param} = (|\nabla_x \mathcal{A}_0| + |\nabla_y \mathcal{A}_0|)^2 + \dots + (|\nabla_x \mathcal{A}_{T-1}| + |\nabla_y \mathcal{A}_{T-1}|)^2, \quad (13)$$

234 where the linear operations ∇_x and ∇_y compute the horizontal and vertical gradients from the
 235 parameter map \mathcal{A}_t , respectively. For better understanding, we represent $T - 1$ as the stage before the
 236 final enhancement. We employ the parameter regularization loss at each update step (e.g., red points
 237 in Fig. 2 (a)) and accumulate the loss while solving the NODE problem.

238 **Noise Removal Loss** To estimate a spatially smooth \mathcal{A}_t regardless of the noise in the image I_t , we
 239 use the Noise Removal module (g) to remove the noise. To train the Noise Removal module, we
 240 utilize a self-supervision-based loss \mathcal{L}_{noise} that follows the Noise2Noise approaches [31, 32, 33].
 241 Specifically, we employ the loss introduced in Zeroshot-N2N [33]. Our \mathcal{L}_{noise} has two components
 242 at state t : the residual loss \mathcal{L}_{res}^t and the consistency loss \mathcal{L}_{cons}^t . We minimize these losses using two
 243 different down-samplers; D_1 and D_2 . Notably, D_1 and D_2 represent fixed 2D convolutional kernels:
 244 $\begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively. Notably, these kernels are used for downsampling through
 245 convolutions with a stride of two. First, our \mathcal{L}_{res}^t fits the noise within I_t through a symmetric loss
 246 function similar to the approach in [34] and it yields:

$$\mathcal{L}_{res}^t = \frac{1}{2} (\|D_1(I_t) - g(D_1(I_t)) - D_2(I_t)\|_2^2 + \|D_2(I_t) - g(D_2(I_t)) - D_1(I_t)\|_2^2). \quad (14)$$

247 Next, as in [33], \mathcal{L}_{cons}^t ensures spatial consistency by maintaining similarity in noise distributions,
 248 even if the order of denoising and downsampling is altered. Specifically, \mathcal{L}_{cons}^t also adopts a
 249 symmetric loss and is defined as at each update step (e.g., red points in Fig. 2 (a)):

$$\mathcal{L}_{cons}^t = \frac{1}{2}(\|D_1(I_t) - g(D_1(I_t)) - D_1(I_t - g(I_t))\|_2^2 + \|D_2(I_t) - g(D_2(I_t)) - D_2(I_t - g(I_t))\|_2^2). \quad (15)$$

250 Therefore, our final noise removal loss \mathcal{L}_{noise} can be represented accumulating during the update
 251 procedure as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{noise} = (\mathcal{L}_{res}^0 + \mathcal{L}_{cons}^0) + \dots + (\mathcal{L}_{res}^{T-1} + \mathcal{L}_{cons}^{T-1}). \quad (16)$$

252 As with Eq. 13, we represent $T - 1$ as the stage before the final enhancement. A more detailed
 253 description of the noise removal loss is provided in Appendix A.4.

254 **Final Objective Function** The final objective function to optimize is given as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{total} = w_{spa} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{spa} + w_{exp} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{exp} + w_{col} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{col} + w_{param} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{param} + w_{noise} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{noise}, \quad (17)$$

255 where w_{spa} , w_{exp} , w_{col} , w_{param} , and w_{noise} are hyper-parameters used to control the relative
 256 significance of each associated loss during the training process.

257 4 Experiments

258 4.1 Implementation Details

259 Please refer to Appendix A.1 for more implementation details and training scheme. The code will be
 260 available upon acceptance.

261 4.2 Experimental Setup

262 In this work, we use the LOL [5] and SICE [35] Part1 datasets for training. The results of low-light
 263 image enhancement are evaluated on the LOL and LSRW [4] benchmark datasets. In addition,
 264 the SICE [35] Part2 dataset is used as a benchmark dataset for evaluation under various exposure
 265 conditions. SICE Part2 contains 229 image sequences with different exposure levels, and we use
 266 the entire sequences as the evaluation dataset. By default, each comparison model uses its official
 267 network weights. In cases where the official code is available but weights are not provided, the
 268 models are retrained using the official code and settings, except for ReLLIE [9]. We present the
 269 performance of ReLLIE on the LOL dataset as reported in their original manuscript.

270 4.3 Quantitative Comparisons

271 First, we quantitatively compare the performance of low-light image enhancement on different
 272 datasets. Notably, in the experimental results, CLODE represents our proposed method without
 273 requiring additional user input (by default), while CLODE \dagger represents the result of adjusting the final
 274 state T to the user’s preferred level, as introduced in Sec. 3.3.

275 In Table 1, we compare the low-light image enhancement performance on the LSRW [4] and LOL [5]
 276 benchmark datasets in terms of peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR) and structural similarity (SSIM).
 277 The term "*GT Mean*" refers to the evaluation method used by KinD [36] and LLFlow [1], which
 278 matches the average value of the output pixels to that of the ground truth pixels. CLODE and CLODE \dagger
 279 outperform other unsupervised learning methods. Notably, CLODE \dagger even surpasses the PSNR of
 280 state-of-the-art supervised learning methods by 0.73 dB, when averaging the results from the LSRW
 281 and LOL datasets in the rightmost columns, without using *GT Mean*. Moreover, two notable points
 282 can be highlighted in Table 1. First, the effectiveness of using NODE to compute accurate higher
 283 order curves is evident, as demonstrated by its superiority over curve-adjustment-based methods;
 284 ZeroDCE [6] and ReLLIE [9]. Second, unlike other models trained on the same training dataset
 285 (LOL), our model shows robust performance on both the LSRW and LOL test datasets, indicating
 286 that our model generalizes better than conventional approaches.

287 In Table 2, we demonstrate the robustness under various exposure conditions including both under-
 288 and over- exposures, and evaluate the performance on SICE Part2 [35]. The results show that CLODE
 289 exhibits robust performance compared to other models, even under various exposure conditions. It
 290 outperforms other unsupervised learning methods, and even when compared to supervised learning

Table 1: **Quantitative results on LSRW [4] and LOL [5] datasets.** For a fair comparison, we re-trained some models on LOL and marked them with *. Among the unsupervised approaches, the best score is displayed in **red**, the second best in **blue**, and the third best in **black**. For more comparison results in terms of non-reference metrics, please refer to Appendix A.4.3.

Training	Method	#Params (M)	Train dataset	LSRW				LOL				Average			
				Normal		GT Mean		Normal		GT Mean		Normal		GT Mean	
				PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow
Supervised	RetinexNet [5]	0.4446	LOL	15.49	0.355	16.55	0.371	16.77	0.419	17.65	0.648	16.13	0.387	17.10	0.510
	URetinexNet [37]	0.3069	LOL, SICE	17.63	0.516	18.10	0.523	19.84	0.826	21.33	0.835	18.74	0.671	19.71	0.679
	DRBN [38]	0.5556	LOL	16.15	0.542	17.68	0.548	16.29	0.617	19.55	0.746	16.22	0.580	18.62	0.647
	Kind [36]	8.0160	LOL	16.47	0.493	19.86	0.504	17.65	0.775	20.87	0.802	17.06	0.634	20.36	0.653
	LLFlow [1]	38.859	LOL	17.52	0.509	18.68	0.518	21.15	0.854	24.99	0.871	19.34	0.681	21.84	0.694
	RetinexFormer [2]	1.6057	LOL	17.76	0.517	19.15	0.529	25.15	0.845	27.18	0.850	21.45	0.681	23.17	0.690
Unsupervised	SCI-easy [11]	0.0003	MIT-5K [39]	11.79	0.317	16.97	0.426	9.58	0.369	18.55	0.501	10.69	0.343	17.76	0.464
	SCI-medium [11]	0.0003	LOL, LSRW	15.24	0.424	17.84	0.439	14.78	0.521	19.11	0.504	15.01	0.473	18.47	0.472
	SCI-difficult [11]	0.0003	DARKFace [40]	15.16	0.408	18.04	0.424	13.81	0.526	19.64	0.510	14.48	0.467	18.84	0.467
	SCI* [11]	0.0003	LOL	14.82	0.413	17.65	0.437	13.84	0.507	19.02	0.499	14.33	0.460	18.34	0.468
	RUAS [10]	0.0034	LOL	14.27	0.470	17.10	0.509	16.41	0.500	18.65	0.520	15.34	0.485	17.88	0.514
	ZeroDCE* [6]	0.0794	LOL	14.50	0.403	18.87	0.467	16.49	0.522	20.99	0.596	15.50	0.463	19.93	0.532
	RelLIE [9]	-	LOL	-	-	-	-	18.37	0.641	-	-	-	-	-	-
	PairLIE [13]	0.3417	LOL, SICE	16.97	0.498	18.82	0.523	19.51	0.736	23.10	0.752	18.24	0.617	20.96	0.637
	Night-Enhancement [17]	67.011	LOL	14.24	0.472	19.19	0.554	21.52	0.763	24.25	0.781	17.88	0.618	21.72	0.668
	CLODE	0.2167	LOL	17.28	0.533	20.60	0.557	19.61	0.718	23.16	0.752	18.44	0.625	21.88	0.655
	CLODE \dagger	0.2167	LOL	20.77	0.562	20.94	0.568	23.58	0.754	24.47	0.759	22.18	0.658	22.71	0.664

Table 2: **Quantitative results on SICE [35] Part2.** For a fair comparison, we re-trained some models on SICE Part 1 and marked them with *. Within the unsupervised approaches, the best score is displayed in **red**, the second in **blue** and the third in **black**.

Training	Method	Train dataset	Normal							GT Mean	
			PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow	NIQE \downarrow	BRISQUE \downarrow	PI \downarrow	Entropy \uparrow	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow
Supervised	URetinexNet [37]	LOL, SICE	12.15	0.708	0.393	4.250	15.633	3.372	6.926	17.81	0.686
	LLFlow* [1]	SICE	14.34	0.608	0.279	3.643	17.011	3.481	6.566	19.59	0.658
	ECLNet [41]	SICE	13.99	0.562	0.290	4.279	24.570	3.520	6.919	16.66	0.690
	FECNet [42]	SICE	14.25	0.600	0.291	3.786	17.454	3.025	7.035	16.47	0.639
	RetinexFormer* [2]	SICE	19.12	0.570	0.369	4.452	24.768	4.573	7.025	20.97	0.578
	RetinexFormer [2]	MIT-5K [39]	13.23	0.564	0.263	3.848	17.350	2.863	6.881	16.35	0.609
Unsupervised	SCI-easy [11]	MIT-5K [39]	9.87	0.486	0.372	4.276	21.850	3.226	6.113	16.44	0.622
	SCI-medium [11]	LOL, LSRW	9.77	0.510	0.454	5.727	33.200	4.392	5.212	15.83	0.574
	SCI-difficult [11]	DarkFace [40]	11.13	0.577	0.324	4.636	23.620	3.107	6.386	16.85	0.647
	SCI* [11]	SICE	10.67	0.478	0.331	4.289	23.449	3.570	6.213	17.99	0.675
	RUAS* [10]	SICE	9.12	0.408	0.539	8.097	52.923	6.004	5.101	15.52	0.531
	ZeroDCE [6]	SICE	12.67	0.635	0.244	3.886	21.630	2.821	6.516	18.85	0.686
	PairLIE [13]	LOL, SICE	13.39	0.619	0.305	5.268	36.536	3.548	6.376	19.22	0.663
	Night-Enhancement* [17]	SICE	13.18	0.581	0.360	4.728	33.883	4.133	6.661	19.43	0.660
	CLODE	SICE	15.01	0.687	0.239	4.050	18.663	3.005	7.006	19.64	0.706
	CLODE \dagger	SICE	16.18	0.707	0.200	4.026	18.210	2.970	7.045	21.55	0.813

291 methods, CLODE \dagger and CLODE achieve the best and second best results, respectively. Despite being
 292 an unsupervised method, CLODE narrows the performance gap with state-of-the-art supervised
 293 methods. Additionally, it operates robustly under challenging conditions such as various exposure
 294 conditions in SICE Part2, surpassing supervised approaches. These strengths distinguish CLODE
 295 from other unsupervised learning methods.



Figure 4: **Visual comparisons.** From top to bottom: LOL [5], under- and over-exposed image of the SICE [35] Part2. For more visual results, please refer to Fig. 10 in the Appendix.

296 4.4 Perceptual and Visual Comparisons

297 In Table 2, we also provide a perceptual comparison of the results with other methods. The evaluation
 298 is conducted on SICE Part2, which includes a combination of underexposed and overexposed images.
 299 To measure the perceptual quality, we adopt Learned Perceptual Image Patch Similarity (LPIPS) [43],
 300 and non-reference metrics; natural image quality evaluator (NIQE) [44], blind/referenceless image
 301 spatial quality evaluator (BRISQUE) [45], perception index (PI) [46], and Entropy [47]. In these
 302 four aspects, both CLODE and CLODE \dagger show outstanding performance compared to existing
 303 unsupervised methods. The visual results are compared in Fig. 4. CLODE shows robust and natural
 304 image enhancement results compared to other comparison methods, regardless of the exposure
 305 conditions of the input image.

Table 3: Comparative experiments according to using NODE on LSRW [4]/LOL [5]. The "Discrete" refers to performing curve adjustment in discrete steps, similar to the conventional methods [6, 9], and "Continuous" refers to the reformulation of NODE.

Method	Case	Step (N)	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	BRISQUE \downarrow
Discrete	(a1)	1	11.19/9.236	0.297/0.362	41.137/41.169
	(b1)	5	16.12/17.47	0.419/0.716	31.421/33.042
	(c1)	10	13.94/16.18	0.395/0.520	32.267/32.243
	(d1)	20	12.95/14.94	0.373/0.506	33.537/34.941
	(e1)	30	12.87/14.97	0.375/0.509	33.537/35.342
Continuous	(f1)	≤ 30 (adaptive)	17.28/19.61	0.533/0.718	18.426/8.220

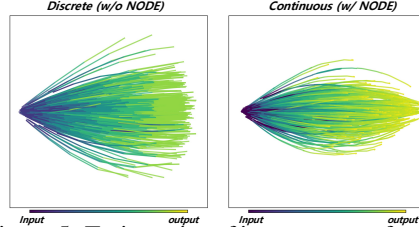


Figure 5: Trajectories of improvement for (e1) and (f1) in Table 3. PCA dimension reduction is used to visualize the trajectories.

306 4.5 Ablation Study

307 **Effectiveness of NODE** To validate the impact of NODE, we adjust the curves using the architecture
 308 of CLODE in both discrete (w/o NODE) and continuous (w/ NODE) spaces, and we compare the
 309 results in Table 3. In the discrete setting, similar to [6], curve parameters for fixed update steps [1, 5,
 310 10, 20, 30] are estimated in parallel ((a1) - (e1)). In the continuous setting, however, curve parameters
 311 are estimated sequentially for non-fixed adaptive steps, up to a maximum of 30 steps ((f1)). Results
 312 in Table 3 demonstrate that the curve parameters produced during the sequential continuous update
 313 procedure are more accurate and verify superior performance of the proposed method over the update
 314 procedure in the conventional discrete setting. In addition, in Fig. 5, we visualize the trajectories
 315 of improvement by plotting PCA dimension reduction results of latent images during updates. We
 316 observe that when curve adjustments are made in continuous space by (f1), the trajectories converge
 317 more accurately at the final states compared to (e1). This demonstrates that using NODE to find the
 318 optimal state certainly contributes to image enhancement.

Table 4: Impact of the modules in f_θ . Noise Removal and the layer normalization (LN) significantly improve performance.

Case	Noise Removal g	LN in h	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow
(a2)			14.72	0.538
(b2)	✓		15.19	0.489
(c2)		✓	18.67	0.577
(d2)	✓	✓	19.61	0.718

Table 5: Execution time and performance.

Training	Method	PSNR/SSIM	#Params (M)	Time (S)
Supervised	RetinexNet [5]	15.49/0.355	0.4446	0.337
	LLFlow [1]	17.52/0.509	38.859	0.144
	RetinexFormer [2]	17.76/0.517	1.6057	0.072
Unsupervised	SCI-medium [11]	15.24/0.424	0.0003	0.001
	RUAS [10]	14.27/0.470	0.0034	0.006
	ZeroDCE [6]	15.81/0.449	0.0794	0.004
	PairLIE [13]	16.97/0.498	0.3417	0.008
	CLODE	17.28/0.533	0.2167	0.056
	CLODE-S	16.97/0.457	0.0004	0.005

319 **Effect of the Modules** In Table 4, we conduct ablation experiments on the modules used in
 320 ODEfunc f_θ . We verify the effects of the Noise Removal module g and the layer normalization
 321 (LN) in the Curve Parameter Estimation module h . Each module shows performance improvements
 322 compared to the baseline (a2). In particular, our final model (d2) achieves the largest performance
 323 gain in terms of PSNR/SSIM. Furthermore, case (c2), which includes layer normalization, has about
 324 a 4dB gain in PSNR compared to (a2), which does not include layer normalization. This shows
 325 that during the image enhancement process in NODE, it is essential to use layer normalization to
 326 normalize each state. The visual results can be seen in Fig. 8 of the Appendix.

327 5 Limitations

328 Table 5 shows the performance of PSNR/SSIM, number of parameters, and execution time measured
 329 in LSRW [4] using an NVIDIA RTX 4090. CLODE shows the advantage in model size compared to
 330 supervised methods. The iterative ODE solving process of CLODE takes longer than lightweight
 331 unsupervised models, but it exhibits faster speed and performance comparable to supervised meth-
 332 ods. Additionally, a smaller version, CLODE-S in Appendix A.1.2 shows promising enhancement
 333 performance with competitive inference time comparable to those of unsupervised models.

334 6 Conclusions

335 In this work, we address the unsupervised low-light image enhancement problem by formulating
 336 it as a NODE problem. We introduce a novel iterative curve-adjustment approach with NODE,
 337 transforming discrete iterative problems into continuous ones. CLODE exhibits superior convergence
 338 compared to other unsupervised iterative methods, especially in diverse low-light and multi-exposure
 339 scenarios. In conclusion, our method effectively narrows the performance gap between unsupervised
 340 and supervised methods across various datasets.

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455 A Appendix

456 A.1 Implement Details

457 The training set of images is resized to 128x128, we employ the *Pytorch* framework on NVIDIA
 458 A6000 GPU with a batch size of 8. The ADAM optimizer is used with default parameters and a fixed
 459 learning rate of $1e^{-5}$ to optimize the parameters of our network. The weights for the loss function
 460 w_{col} , w_{param} , w_{spa} , w_{exp} and w_{noise} are set to 20, 200, 1, 10 and 1 respectively, to balance the scale
 461 of losses. Furthermore, we adopt *torchdiffeq* [48] for Neural ODEs implementation. The training
 462 process is conducted for 100 epochs.

463 A.1.1 Implementation details of NODE

464 We utilize the adaptive ODE solver, *dopri5* (Dormand-Prince Runge-Kutta of Order 5) for our work.
 465 The maximum allowed step for the adaptive solver is set to 30. The relative and absolute tolerances
 466 for the error rate calculation are set uniformly to $1e^{-5}$. The adaptive solver uses the error rate to
 467 determine the steps. Also, the adaptive solver estimates an error rate for the current step t , and if
 468 the error exceeds the allowable tolerances, the step is re-done with a smaller step size. This process
 469 continues until the error becomes smaller than the provided tolerance. The error rate Γ_t at the t -th
 470 step is computed as follows:

$$\Gamma_t = atol \times rtol \times norm(I_t), \quad (18)$$

471 where $atol$ is absolute tolerance, and $rtol$ is relative tolerate, and the norm being used is a mixed
 472 L-infinity/RMS norm. We set both $atol$ and $rtol$ to $1e-5$.

473 A.1.2 Details of the CLODE architecture

474 This section presents the architectural details of the CLODE network architecture, with a particular
 475 focus on the ODEfunc module. The Noise Removal module g employs a simple and lightweight
 476 three-layer convolutional network. In Curve Parameter Estimation module h , a shallow network
 477 with two branches is utilized, wherein filters of varying sizes are employed at each branch to capture
 478 image features across different filter scales. We also provide architectural details of CLODE-S as
 479 mentioned in Sec. 5 of the main manuscript. This version omits the Noise Removal module for speed
 and uses a 2-layer network with 1x1 convolutions.

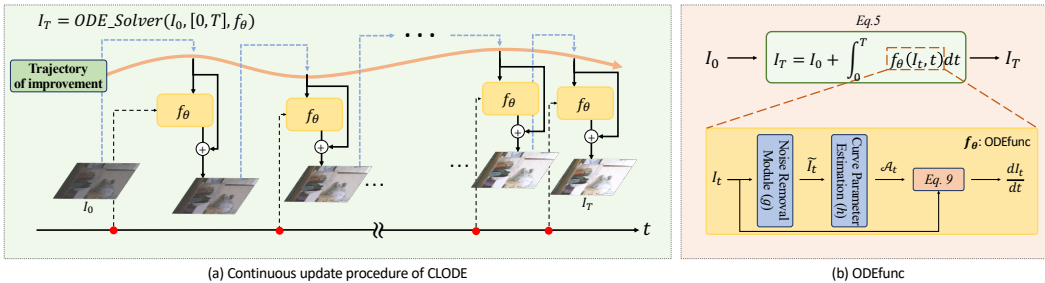


Figure 6: Illustration of architecture details of (a) modules of ODEfunc in CLODE and (b) ODEfunc of CLODE-S.

480

481 A.2 Impact of Each Loss Functions

482 CLODE combines five non-reference loss functions to train NODE, producing optimal improvements.
 483 We present ablation experiments for each loss function, and the results are presented in Table 6 and
 484 Fig. 7. The results of each image ablation experiment demonstrate that appropriate improvement
 485 results can only be obtained when using CLODE with all loss functions. The characteristics of the
 486 loss function as observed in each ablation are as follows: **((a3) w/o \mathcal{L}_{exp})**: Brightness improvement
 487 is not achieved in low-exposure enhancement. **((b3) w/o \mathcal{L}_{col})**: Severe color distortion occurs in
 488 over-exposure enhancement, damaging structural details. **((c3) w/o \mathcal{L}_{param})**: Structural distortion
 489 occurs, creating artifacts. **((d3) w/o \mathcal{L}_{spa})**: While showing better results than other experiments, it

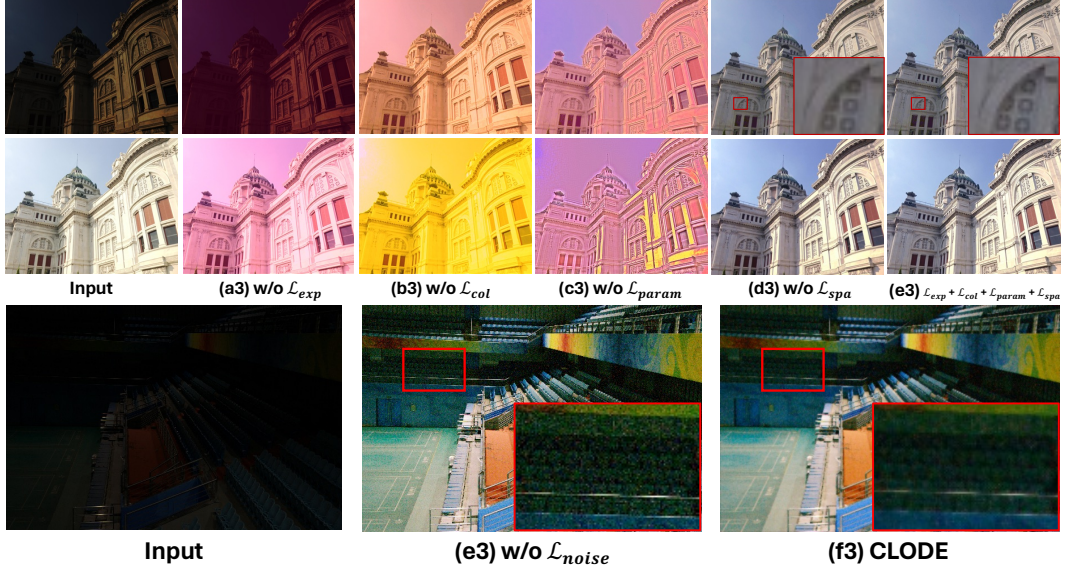


Figure 7: Visual results for the ablation study of each loss function. CLODE combines five non-reference loss functions in training for producing optimal enhancement results.

Table 6: Ablation study on each non-reference losses. The experiment is evaluated on LOL [5].

Case	\mathcal{L}_{spa}	\mathcal{L}_{exp}	\mathcal{L}_{col}	\mathcal{L}_{param}	\mathcal{L}_{noise}	PSNR	SSIM
(a3)	✓		✓	✓		8.84	0.323
(b3)	✓	✓		✓		14.72	0.566
(c3)	✓	✓	✓			14.76	0.535
(d3)		✓	✓	✓		18.76	0.580
(e3)	✓	✓	✓	✓		18.92	0.582
(f3)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	19.61	0.718

490 occurs loss of structural details compared to (e3). ((e3) w/o \mathcal{L}_{Noise}): Compared to the proposed
 491 version (f3), it produces improved results with noise present.

492 A.3 Visualization of curve parameter map \mathcal{A}

493 We provide visual comparison results for the module ablation experiments in Sec. 4.5 of the main
 494 manuscript. In the visual results without noise removal module (c2), we can observe the noise in
 495 \mathcal{A} . The enhanced result of (c2) using \mathcal{A} with noise shows overall color discrepancy compared to
 496 the ground-truth, in contrast to the enhanced result of (d2) where the noise removal module are
 497 applied. The enhanced result of (d2) shows robust color similarity with the ground-truth image. We
 498 can confirm that removing noise for \mathcal{A} is important for curve-adjustment-based method.

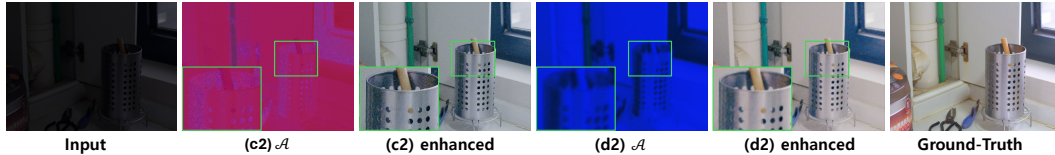


Figure 8: A visual comparison of the results for (c2) and (d2) from Table 4 in the main manuscript. The enhanced result (d2) using \mathcal{A} with noise removal module demonstrates improvement more similar to the ground-truth.

499 **A.4 Background of Noise Removal Loss**

500 In Sec.3.4 we provide information about the zero-reference loss functions that we used. Unlike the
 501 others, the Noise Removal Loss (\mathcal{L}_{noise}) requires more explanation due to its unfamiliarity in the
 502 field of low-light enhancement, so we provide additional explanation for it.

503 **A.4.1 Noise2Noise background**

504 In supervised denoising studies, neural networks are aimed at denoising the noisy image \mathbf{y} to the
 505 clean image \mathbf{x} . Since the noisy \mathbf{y} is an addition of the clean image \mathbf{x} and the noise \mathbf{e} , the network is
 506 trained to map the noise \mathbf{e} which is called Noise2Clean (N2C) method. If the network parameter is
 507 ϕ_{N2C} , the object function of the supervised denoising method with the network g_ϕ can be written as:

$$\phi_{N2C} = \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \mathbf{x}\|_2^2]. \quad (19)$$

508 Denoising networks can also be trained to output the noisy image \mathbf{y}_2 from the noisy input image \mathbf{y}_1
 509 that comes from the same clean image \mathbf{x} . This noise-to-noise manner can be achieved by assuming
 510 that the noise has a mean of zero as introduced in Noise2Noise (N2N) [31]. This is the objective
 511 function for the N2N network parameter ϕ_{N2N} :

$$\phi_{N2N} = \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) - \mathbf{y}_1\|_2^2]. \quad (20)$$

512 The N2N manner shows close performance compare to N2C manner with sufficient training data since
 513 the objective functions of N2C and N2N are aimed on the same network parameter. If $\mathbf{y}_a = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_a$,
 514 $\mathbf{y}_b = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_b$, and the mean value of \mathbf{e}_a and \mathbf{e}_b are zero, the proof is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{N2C} &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) - \mathbf{x}\|_2^2] \\ &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{x}^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) + \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2] \\ &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{x}^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)] \\ \phi_{N2N} &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) - \mathbf{y}_1\|_2^2] \\ &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) - (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1)\|_2^2] \\ &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{x}^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) - 2\mathbf{e}_1^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) + \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_1\|_2^2] \\ &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{x}^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2) - 2\mathbf{e}_1^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)] \\ &= \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}[\|g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{x}^\top g_\phi(\mathbf{y}_2)]. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

515 By Eq. 21 we can confirm that the object of ϕ_{N2C} and ϕ_{N2N} is the identical one.

516 **A.4.2 Zeroshot Noise2Noise method**

517 In spite of N2N approaches, it is hard to obtain two different noisy images from the same clean
 518 scene. To address this hurdle, the Neighbor2Neighbor [32] method is proposed. This allows a pair
 519 of noisy images to be augmented from a single noisy image coming from the same clean image. In
 520 Zeroshot-N2N [33], which is adopted in our proposed method, Neighbor2Neighbor is achieved by
 521 using two different 2D convolutional kernels (D_1 and D_2) on noisy images. If the noisy image is \mathbf{y} , a
 522 pair of down-sampled images $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2$ can be represented as:

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = D_1(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{y}_2 = D_2(\mathbf{y}). \quad (22)$$

523 For a noisy image \mathbf{y} with a size of $H \times W \times C$, the size of \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 is $\frac{H}{2} \times \frac{W}{2} \times C$. With
 524 downsampled images \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 , the loss optimizes g_ϕ to fit the noise as:

$$\arg \min_{\phi} \|g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1) - \mathbf{y}_2\|_2^2. \quad (23)$$

525 Zeroshot-N2N [33] emphasizes that residual learning, a symmetry loss, and an additional coherence-
 526 enhancing term are critical for good performance. Zeroshot-N2N proposes two different loss functions,
 527 the residual loss \mathcal{L}_{res} and the consistency loss \mathcal{L}_{cons} . First, the residual loss optimizes the network
 528 g_{ϕ} to fit the noise instead of image. The loss then becomes as:

$$\arg \min_{\phi} \|\mathbf{y}_1 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1) - \mathbf{y}_2\|_2^2. \quad (24)$$

529 To fit the noise in \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 both, a symmetric loss [34] is applied as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{res}(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} (\|\mathbf{y}_1 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1) - \mathbf{y}_2\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{y}_2 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_2) - \mathbf{y}_1\|_2^2). \quad (25)$$

530 Second, the method constrain consistency by making denoised output of the downsampled image and
 531 downsampled result of the denoised image like:

$$\arg \min_{\phi} \|\mathbf{y}_1 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1) - D_1(\mathbf{y}_1 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1))\|_2^2. \quad (26)$$

532 Same as Eq. 25, with the adoption of a symmetric manner, the consistency loss is represented as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{cons}(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} (\|\mathbf{y}_1 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1) - D_1(\mathbf{y}_1 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_1))\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{y}_2 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_2) - D_2(\mathbf{y}_2 - g_{\phi}(\mathbf{y}_2))\|_2^2). \quad (27)$$

533 The noise removal loss function \mathcal{L}_{noise} in Zeroshot-N2N becomes the sum of Eq. 25 and Eq. 27,
 534 expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{noise} = \mathcal{L}_{res} + \mathcal{L}_{cons}. \quad (28)$$

535 A.4.3 More Quantitative Results

536 We present the comparison results for non-reference metrics, which we did not include in Table 1.
 537 Table 7 demonstrates that CLODE outperforms other unsupervised methods in terms of perceptual
 538 quality. Notably, it demonstrates competitive results in terms of BRISQUE and PI, even when
 539 compared to state-of-the-art supervised methods.

Table 7: Comparison results on LSRW [4] and LOL [5] in terms of NIQE [44], BRISQUE [45], PI [46] and Entropy [47]. Within the unsupervised approaches, the best score is displayed in **Red**. LLNODE performs better than all other methods, including supervised methods, in terms of PI (Perceptual Index).

Training	Method	LSRW				LOL			
		NIQE↓	BRISQUE↓	PI↓	Entropy↑	NIQE↓	BRISQUE↓	PI↓	Entropy↑
Supervised	Afifi et al. [49]	6.655	46.645	6.470	7.065	4.966	33.546	5.741	7.173
	RetinexNet [5]	-	-	-	-	8.871	51.813	4.955	6.835
	URetinexNet [37]	4.154	23.614	3.495	6.762	4.250	15.633	3.372	6.926
	LLFlow [1]	3.756	26.671	3.176	7.369	5.709	35.022	4.530	7.141
	RetinexFormer [2]	3.549	15.951	3.208	7.131	3.478	17.101	3.102	7.074
Unsupervised	SCI-easy [11]	3.847	25.859	3.259	6.388	7.153	12.424	5.437	5.825
	SCI-medium [11]	3.917	22.416	3.159	6.494	7.861	25.870	4.583	6.842
	SCI-difficult [11]	4.368	20.692	3.851	5.975	8.060	26.823	4.664	6.675
	RUAS [10]	5.426	38.854	4.939	6.442	6.303	11.977	4.571	7.194
	ZeroDCE [6]	3.776	23.867	3.156	6.526	7.777	27.301	4.459	6.608
	Night-Enhancement [17]	7.208	51.356	6.801	6.544	4.491	27.122	4.436	7.139
	PairLIE [13]	3.684	29.816	3.426	6.923	4.083	20.592	3.052	6.823
	CLODE	3.827	18.426	3.115	7.025	4.516	8.220	2.914	7.053

540 A.4.4 Comparison with other iterative methods

541 Fig. 9 shows the changes in performance over steps of each curve-adjustment-based method. Each
 542 comparison method is retrained for 10 steps in the official code provided by the author. To fix the
 543 number of steps in CLODE to 10, we replace CLODE’s ODE solver with the Euler method, and

544 referred to it as *CLODE-Euler*. The results show that even within the same number of steps, *CLODE-Euler*
 545 *Euler* performs better than other curve adjustment-based methods. Furthermore, the proposed version,
 546 *CLODE*, demonstrates higher performance compared to other methods in most iterative steps.

547 In case of ReLLIE [9], it exhibits a decline in performance after 7 steps, emphasizing the need
 548 for careful selection of the number of iterative steps itself to achieve optimal result, this makes the
 549 method impractical to use.

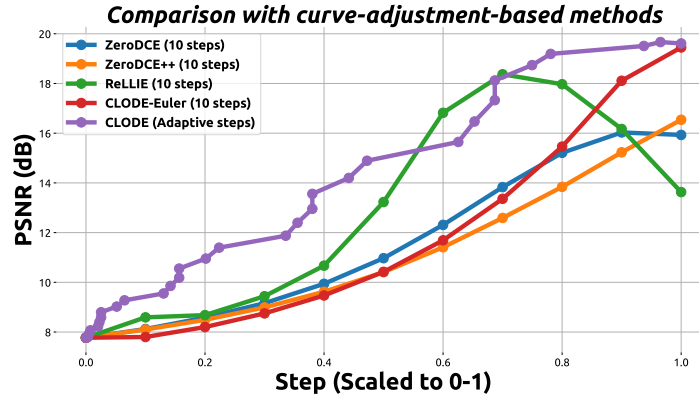


Figure 9: Changes in PSNR (Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio) over steps of *CLODE*, *CLODE-Euler*, ReLLIE [9], ZeroDCE++ [8], and ZeroDCE [6]. As *CLODE* employs a continuous adaptive step according to the input image, we represent the steps by scaling them from 0 to 1. *CLODE* demonstrates superior performance compared to other methods at almost every step.

550 A.5 More visual results

551 We show additional results for *CLODE* enhancement that we did not show in the main manuscript
 552 due to lack of space. We present additional visual comparison results for PairLIE [13] and Night-
 553 Enhancement [17], which demonstrated the best quantitative performance among the unsupervised
 554 methods in Table 1 of the main manuscript, except for our proposed method (*CLODE*), in Fig. 10.
 555 *CLODE* shows the most robust enhancement results across various image exposure conditions.

556 Fig. 11, Fig. 12, Fig. 13 and Fig. 14 show the results for *CLODE* and *CLODE*[†] on LOL [5] and
 557 SICE [35] validation dataset. Additionally, Fig. 15 shows the visual results with different exposures
 558 for photos extracted from MSEC [49] and the internet (Flickr: CC BY-NC 2.0).

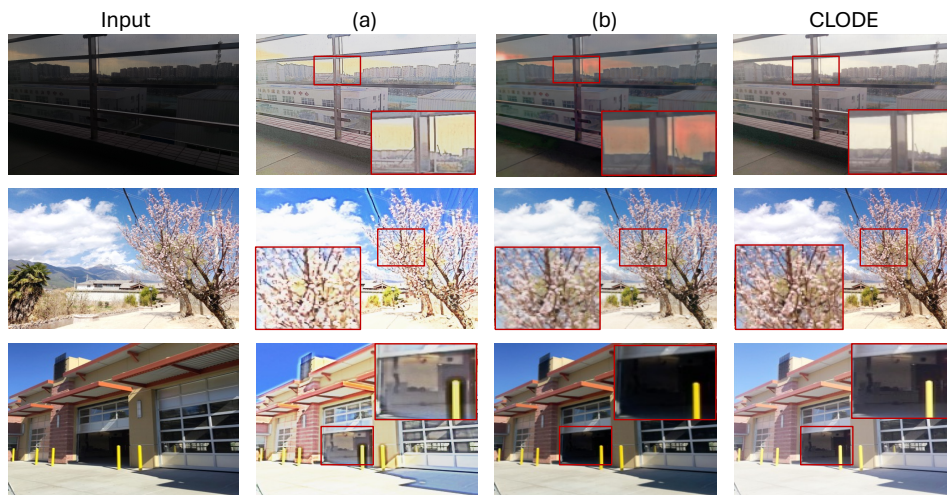


Figure 10: Comparative visualization results with (a) PairLIE [13] and (b) night-enhancement [17] on LOL [5] and SICE [35]. Images are taken from LSRW [4] and SICE [35] Part2.

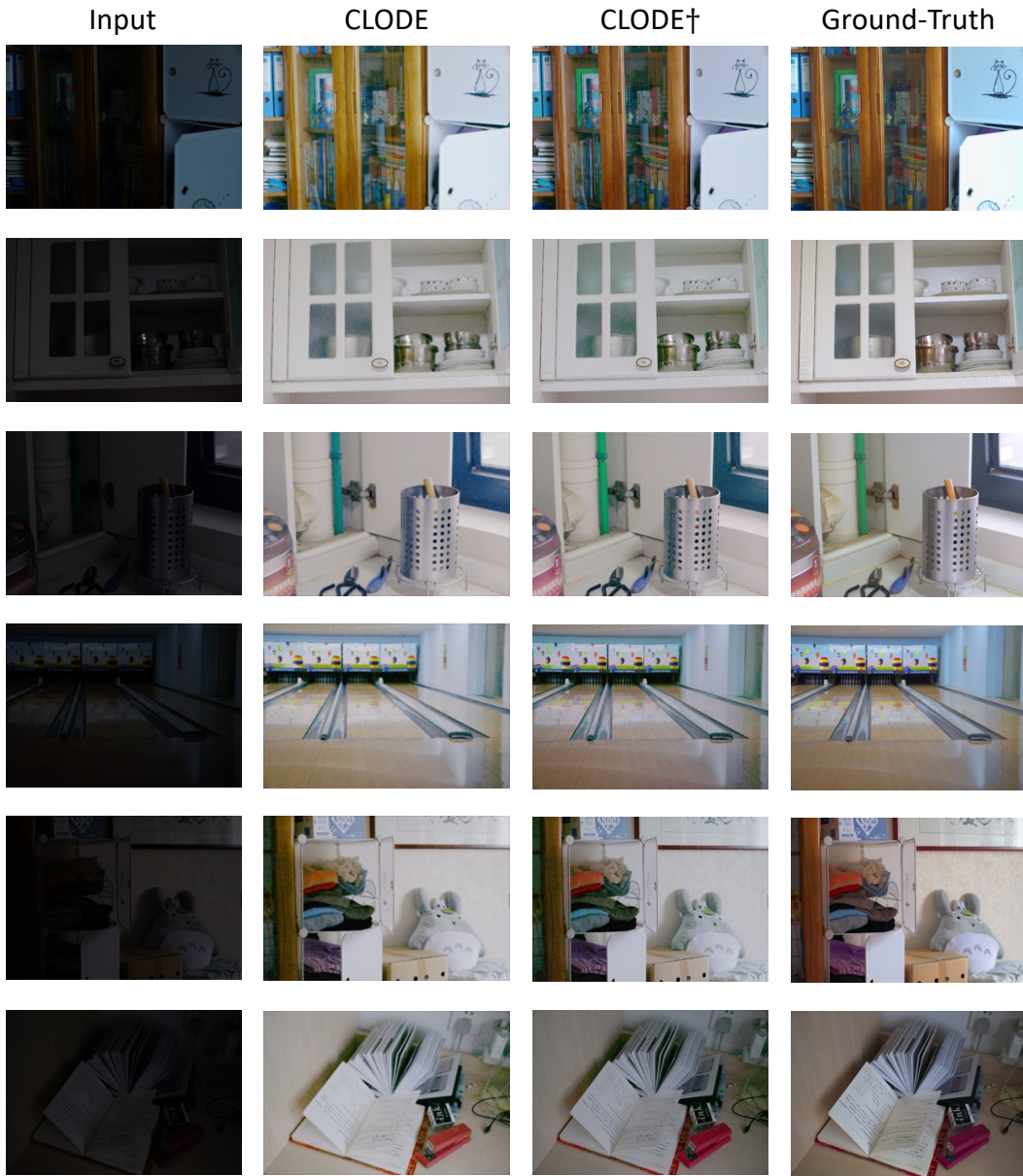


Figure 11: Visualization results on LOL [5]. While CLODE demonstrates superior enhancement results, user control with CLODE† produces images that more closely resemble the ground-truth image.

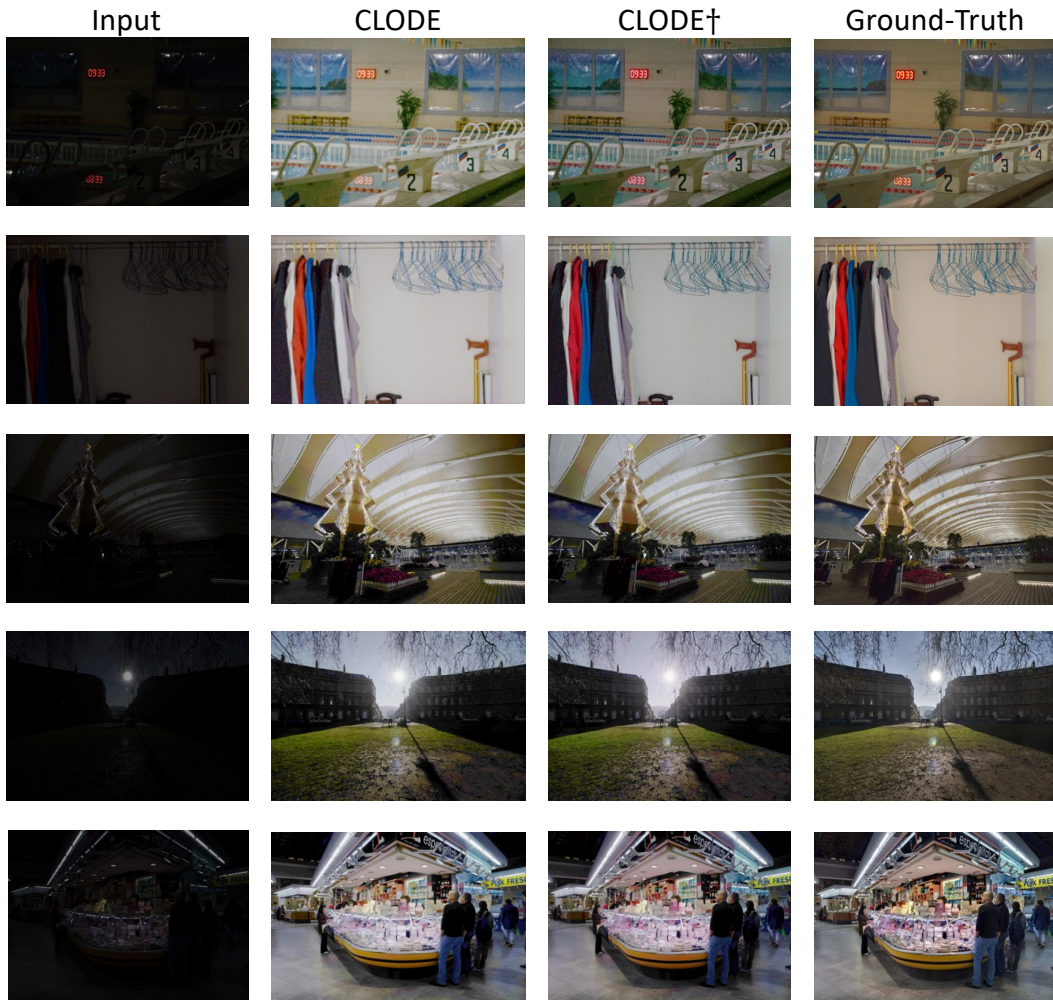


Figure 12: Visualization results on LOL [5] and SICE [35]. While CLODE demonstrates superior enhancement results, user control with CLODE† produces images that more closely resemble the ground-truth image.



Figure 13: Visualization results on SICE [35]. While CLODE demonstrates superior enhancement results, user control with CLODE† produces images that more closely resemble the ground-truth image.

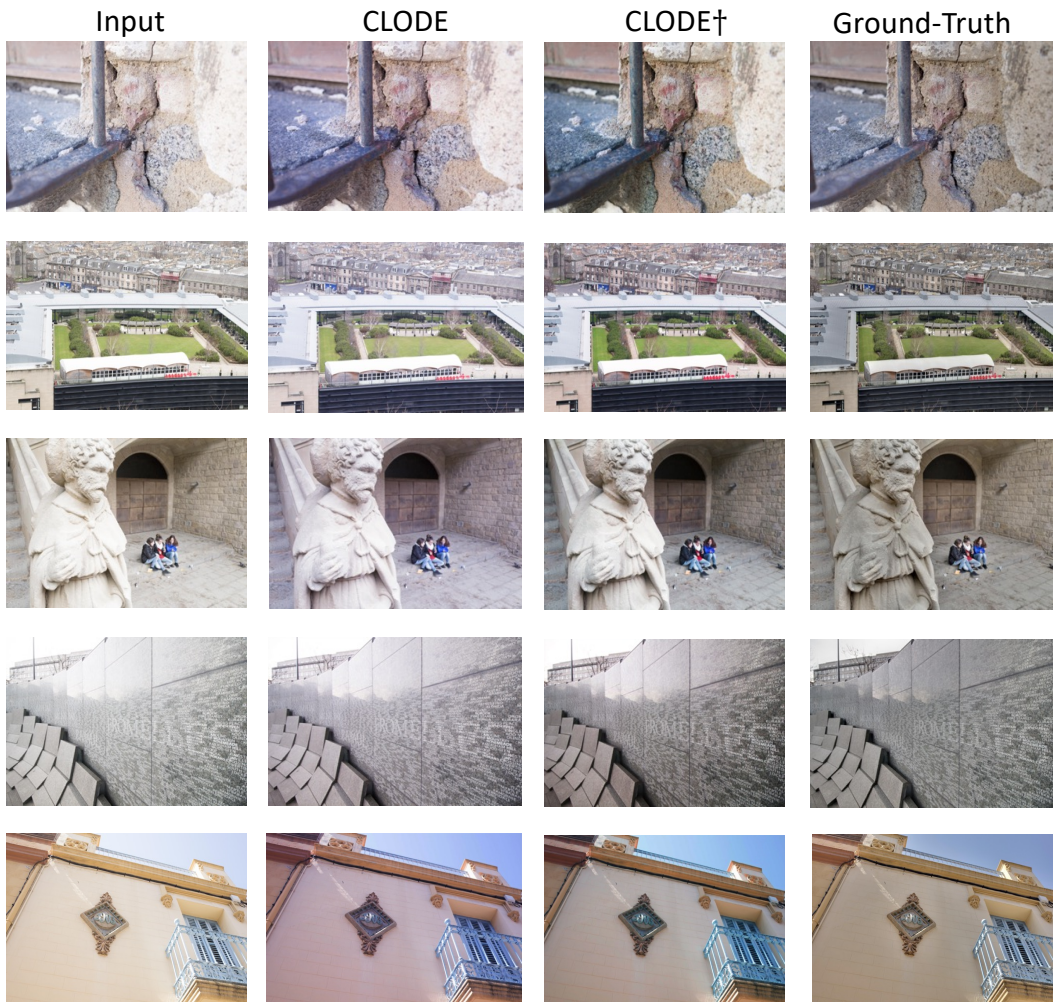


Figure 14: Visualization results on SICE [35]. While CLODE demonstrates superior enhancement results, user control with CLODE† produces images that more closely resemble the ground-truth image.

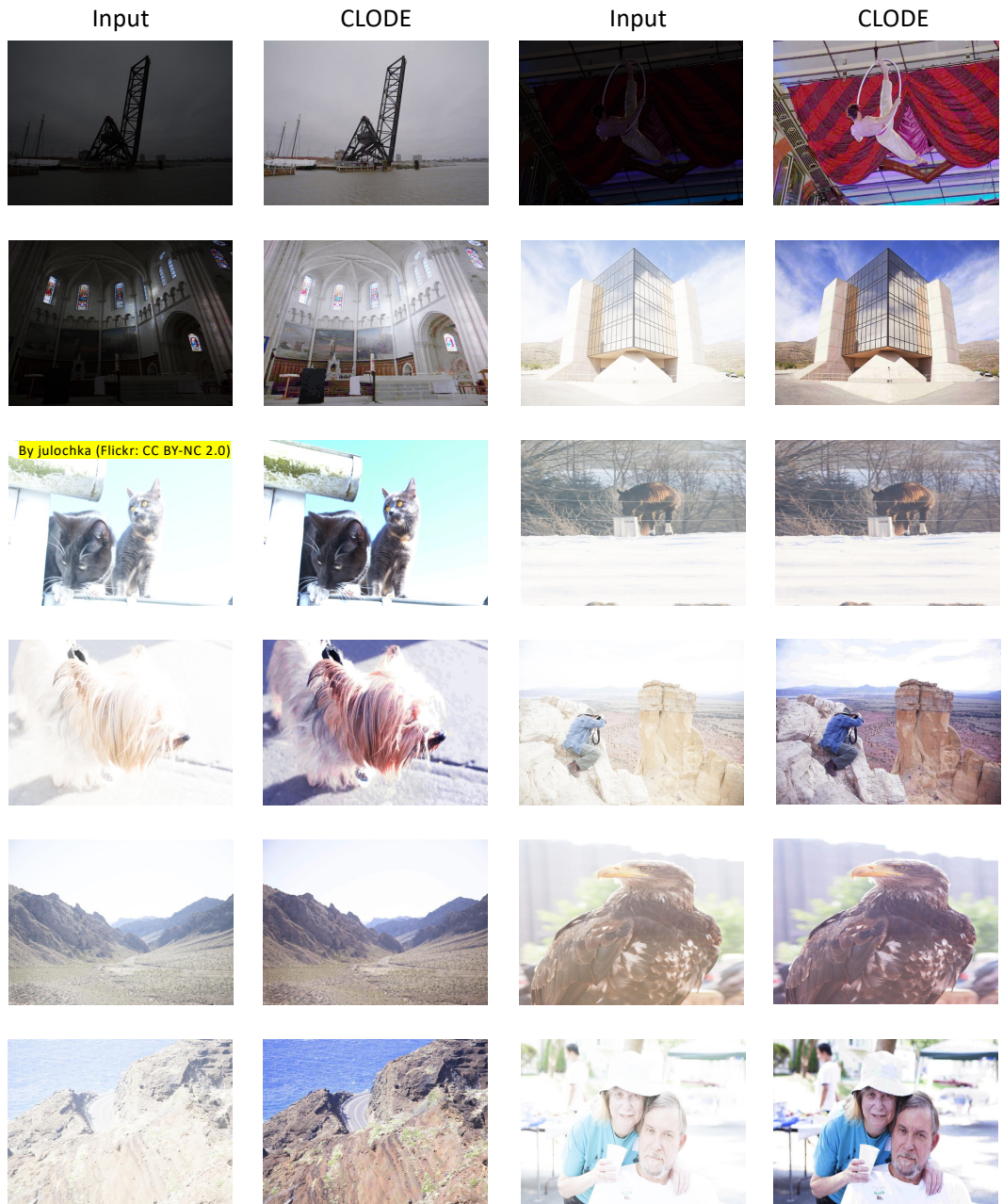


Figure 15: Visualization results on MSEC [49] and extracted from internet (Flickr by julochka). Even with diverse inputs of various exposures, CLODE show robust result in an unsupervised manner.

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665 Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instruc-
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669 Justification: In our paper, we include the rationale behind NODE reformulation along
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