UNIINR: UNIFYING SPATIAL-TEMPORAL INR FOR RS VIDEO CORRECTION, DEBLUR, AND INTERPOLATION WITH AN EVENT CAMERA

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Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

1	Images captured by rolling shutter (RS) cameras under fast camera motion often
2	contain obvious image distortions and blur, which can be modeled as a row-wise
3	combination of a sequence of global shutter (GS) frames within the exposure time.
4	Naturally, recovering high-frame-rate GS sharp frames from an RS blur image
5	needs to simultaneously consider RS correction, deblur, and frame interpolation.
6	Tacking this task is nontrivial, and to the best of our knowledge, no feasible solu-
7	tions exist by far. A naive way is to decompose the whole process into separate tasks
8	and simply cascade existing methods; however, this results in cumulative errors
9	and noticeable artifacts. Event cameras enjoy many advantages, <i>e.g.</i> , high temporal
10	resolution, making them potential for our problem. To this end, we propose the
11	first and novel approach, named UniINR, to recover arbitrary frame-rate sharp
12	GS frames from an RS blur image and paired event data. Our key idea is unifying
13	spatial-temporal implicit neural representation (INR) to directly map the position
14	and time coordinates to RGB values to address the interlocking degradations in
15	the image restoration process. Specifically, we introduce spatial-temporal implicit
16	encoding (STE) to convert an RS blur image and events into a spatial-temporal
17	representation (STR). To query a specific sharp frame (GS or RS), we embed
18	the exposure time into STR and decode the embedded features pixel-by-pixel to
19	recover a sharp frame. Our method features a lightweight model with only $0.379M$
20	parameters, and it also enjoys high inference efficiency, achieving 2.83ms/frame
21	in $31 \times$ frame interpolation of an RS blur frame. Extensive experiments show that
22	our method significantly outperforms prior methods.

23 1 INTRODUCTION

Most consumer-level cameras based on CMOS sensors rely on a rolling shutter (RS) mechanism. 24 These cameras dominate the market owing to their benefits, e.g., low power consumption (Janesick 25 et al., 2009). In contrast to the global shutter (GS) cameras, RS cameras capture pixels row by row; 26 thus, the captured images often suffer from obvious spatial distortions (e.g., stretch) and blur under 27 fast camera/scene motion. It has been shown that naively neglecting the RS effect often hampers the 28 performance in many real-world applications (Hedborg et al., 2012; Lao & Ait-Aider, 2020; Zhong 29 et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2022). In theory, an RS image can be formulated as a row-wise combination 30 of sequential GS frames within the exposure time (Fan & Dai, 2021; Fan et al., 2023). 31

In this regard, it is meaningful to recover high-frame-rate sharp GS frames from a single RS blur 32 33 *image* as the restored high-frame-rate sharp GS frames can directly facilitate many downstream tasks in practice. Intuitively, achieving this goal often requires simultaneously considering RS correction, 34 deblurring, and frame interpolation. However, tackling this task is nontrivial because multiple 35 degradations, such as RS distortion, motion blur, and temporal discontinuity (Meilland et al., 2013; 36 Su & Heidrich, 2015), often co-exist for CMOS cameras (Zhong et al., 2021). The co-existence of 37 various image degradations complicates the whole GS frame restoration process. To the best of our 38 knowledge, no practical solutions exist in the literature to date. A naive way is to decompose the 39 whole process as separate tasks and simply cascading existing image enhancement networks can 40 result in cumulative errors and noticeable artifacts. For example, a simple consideration of cascading 41 a frame interpolation network (Bao et al., 2019) with an RS correction network produces degraded 42 results, as previously verified in (Naor et al., 2022). 43



Figure 1: Inputs and the outputs of our method, EvUnRoll, and EvUnRoll+TimeLens. Inputs are shown in (a), which includes an RS blur image and events. t_s and t_e are the start and end timestamps of RS, and t_{exp} is the exposure time. Our outputs are shown in (b), which is a sequence of GS sharp frames during the whole exposure time of the RS blur image. (c) shows outputs of EvUnRoll, which can only recover the GS sharp frames in a limited time instead of the whole exposure time of the RS blur frame. (d) shows outputs of EvUnRoll+TimeLens. *More details are in Sec. C7 in Supp. Mat.*

Event cameras offer several advantages, such as high-temporal resolution, which make them suitable 44 for various image restoration tasks (Wang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2022; Tulyakov et al., 2021; Song 45 et al., 2023; 2022). eSL-Net (Wang et al., 2020) proposes an event-guided sparse learning framework 46 to simultaneously achieve image super-resolution, denoising, and deblurring. TimeLens (Tulyakov 47 et al., 2021) integrates a synthesis-based branch with a warp-based branch to boost the performance 48 of the video frame interpolation. DeblurSR (Song et al., 2023) and E-CIR (Song et al., 2022) take ad-49 vantage of the high temporal resolution of events by converting a blurry frame into a time-to-intensity 50 function, using spike representation and Lagrange polynomials, respectively. EvUnRoll (Zhou et al., 51 2022) leverages events as guidance to enhance RS correction by accounting for nonlinear motion 52 during the desired timestamp. However, these methods focus on either deburring or RS correction 53 and can not recover arbitrary frame-rate sharp GS frames from a single RS blur image. An 54 example is depicted in Fig. 1 (h), showing that simply cascading event-guided RS correction model 55

⁵⁶ (*e.g.*, EvUnroll (Zhou et al., 2022)) and interpolation model (*e.g.*, TimeLens (Tulyakov et al., 2021))

57 to recover high-frame-rate sharp GS frames results in obvious artifacts.

In this paper, we make the **first** attempt to propose a novel yet efficient learning framework, dubbed 58 UniINR, that can recover arbitrary frame-rate sharp GS frames from an RS blur image and events. 59 Our key idea is to learn a spatial-temporal implicit neural representation (INR) to directly map the 60 position and time coordinates to RGB values to address the co-existence of degradations in the image 61 *restoration process.* This makes it possible to exploit the spatial-temporal relationships from the 62 inputs to achieve RS correction, deblur, and interpolation simultaneously. One distinct advantage 63 of our method is that it is relatively lightweight with only 0.379M parameters. We formulate 64 the task —recovering high-frame-rate sharp GS frames from an RS blur image and paired event 65 data —as a novel *estimation* problem, defined as a function, $F(x, t, \theta)$. Here, x denotes the pixel 66 position (x, y) of an image, t denotes the timestamp during the exposure time, and θ denotes the 67 function's parameters. Our proposed framework consists of three parts: spatial-temporal implicit 68 69 encoding (STE), exposure time embedding (ETE), and pixel-by-pixel decoding (PPD). Specifically, STE first utilizes sparse learning-based techniques (Wang et al., 2020) to extract a spatial-temporal 70 representation (STR) θ from events and an RS blur image (Sec. 3.2.1). To query a specific sharp 71 frame of RS or GS pattern, we then model the exposure information as a temporal tensor T in 72 ETE (Sec. 3.2.2). Finally, PPD leverages an MLP to decode sharp frames from the STR and the 73 temporal tensor T (Sec. 3.2.3), allowing for the generation of a sharp frame at any given exposure 74 pattern (e.g., RS or GS). One notable advantage of our approach is its *high efficiency*, as it only 75 requires using the STE once, regardless of the number of interpolation frames. In practice, as frame 76 interpolation multiples rise from $1 \times$ to $31 \times$, the time taken increases from 31ms to 86ms. Thus, at 77 $31 \times$ interpolation, each frame's processing time is merely 2.8ms, whereas the cascading approach 78 (EvUnRoll + TimeLens) requires more than 177ms (Sec. 4.2). 79

80 We conduct a thorough evaluation of our proposed method, including both quantitative and qualitative

analyses, using a higher resolution (256×256) dataset than that of the previous methods ($180 \times$

⁸² 240) (Song et al., 2023; 2022). Extensive experimental results demonstrate that our approach

⁸³ outperforms existing methods in RS correction, deblur, and interpolation (An example can be found ⁸⁴ in Fig. 1 (h)).

85 2 RELATED WORKS

86 2.1 Event-guided Image/Video Restoration

Event-guided Deblurring Owing to the high temporal resolution afforded by events, prior studies (Sun et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2020; Shang et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2022) have incorporated events into the task of deblurring. These works focus on the reconstruction of a single GS sharp frame from the GS blur frame, guided by event data. The work most analogous to ours is EvUnroll (Zhou et al., 2022), which first leverages event cameras for RS correction, leveraging their low latency benefits. Nonetheless, EvUnroll primarily focuses on RS correction, with its optional deblurring module equipped to handle minor motion blur and reconstruct a sharp frame at the midpoint of the avposure time.

94 exposure time.

95 Event-guided Deblurring + Interpolation These studies can be bifurcated based on the quantity

- of input GS blur frames: single GS frame (Xu et al., 2021; Song et al., 2022; 2023; Haoyu et al.,
- ⁹⁷ 2020) or multiple GS frames (Pan et al., 2019; Zhang & Yu, 2022; Lin et al., 2020). The former,
- such as E-CIR (Song et al., 2022) and DeblurSR (Song et al., 2023), convert a GS blur frame into a
- time-to-intensity function while the latter, *e.g.*, EDI (Pan et al., 2019), LEDVDI (Lin et al., 2020),
 and EVDI (Zhang & Yu, 2022) are both built upon the event-based double integral model (Pan et al., 2019). However, these methods primarily target GS frames affected by motion blur, leading to

performance degradation when dealing with spatially distorted and RS blur frames.

Recently, a contemporaneous study (Zhang et al., 2023) also focused on RS Correction, Deblur, and

VFI. However, this research primarily concentrated on the individual performance of a single model across the three tasks, without extensive experimentation or investigation into handling all three tasks

106 concurrently. This constitutes the most significant distinction from our method.

107 2.2 FRAME-BASED VIDEO RESTORATION FOR RS INPUTS

RS Correction + Interpolation RSSR (Fan & Dai, 2021; Fan et al., 2023) is the first work that generates multiple GS frames from two consecutive RS frames by introducing bi-directional undistortion flows. CVR (Fan et al., 2022) estimates two latent GS frames from two consecutive RS frames, followed by motion enhancement and contextual aggregation before generating final GS frames.

RS Correction + Deblurring JCD (Zhong et al., 2021) proposes the first pipeline that employs

warping and deblurring branches to effectively address the RS distortion and motion blur. However, JCD's motion estimation module, built upon the assumption of linear motion derived from DeepUnrollNet (Liu et al., 2020), encounters a significant performance degradation in real-world

scenarios involving non-linear motion (Zhou et al., 2022). To eliminate the dependence of motion

estimation, (Wang et al., 2022b) proposes a method that turns the RS correction into a rectification

problem, which allows all pixels to start exposure simultaneously and end exposure line by line.

119 Differently, our method can recover arbitrary GS sharp frames during the exposure time of RS blur 120 frames without the assumption of linear motion.

121 2.3 IMPLICIT NEURAL REPRESENTATION (INR)

INR (Wang et al., 2021; Sitzmann et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021; 2022; Lu et al., 2023) is proposed 122 for parameterized signals (images, video or audio) in the coordinate-based representation, inspiring 123 some researchers to explore the potential of INR in low-level vision tasks. LIIF (Chen et al., 2021) 124 represents images as high-dimensional tensors and allows for upsampling at any scale through 125 interpolation and decoding, followed by VideoINR (Chen et al., 2022), which extends LIIF to videos, 126 enabling temporal and spatial upsampling at any scale. EG-VSR (Lu et al., 2023) incorporates 127 events into the learning of INR to achieve random-scale video super-resolution. Differently, we 128 129 propose STE to directly map the position and time coordinates to RGB values to address the coexistence of degradations in the image restoration process. Our STE makes it possible to exploit the 130 spatial-temporal relationships from the inputs to achieve RS correction, deblur, and interpolation 131 simultaneously. 132

133 3 METHODOLOGY

134 3.1 PROBLEM DEFINITION AND ANALYSIS

135 We formulate the task —*recovering arbitrary frame-rate sharp GS frames from an RS blur image and*

paired event data —as a novel estimation problem, defined as a function, $F(x, t, \theta)$. Here, x denotes



Figure 2: An overview of our framework, which consists of three parts, (a) the Spatial-Temporal Implicit Encoding (STE), (b) Exposure Time Embedding (ETE), and (c) Pixel-by-pixel decoding (PPD). Details of STE, ETE, and PPD are described in Sec. 3.2.1, Sec. 3.2.2, and Sec. 3.2.3. The inputs are an RS blur image I_{rsb} and events, and the outputs are a sequence of GS frames and RS frames. RS frames are predicted only in training.

the pixel position (x, y) of an image with a resolution of $H \times W$, t denotes the timestamp during the exposure time, and θ denotes the parameters. The intuition behind this formulation is that there exists

a relationship between the RS blur/sharp frame and the GS blur/sharp frame. We now describe it.

By defining a function $F(x, t, \theta)$ mapping the pixel position x = (x, y) and timestamp t to intensity or RGB value, we can obtain a GS sharp frame by inputting the desired timestamp \hat{t} during the exposure time to the function, which can be formulated as:

$$I_{a,\hat{t}} = F(\boldsymbol{x}, \hat{t}, \theta) \tag{1}$$

As an RS image can be formulated as a row-wise combination of sequential GS frames within the exposure time (Fan & Dai, 2021; Fan et al., 2023), we can assemble an RS sharp frame I_{r,t_s,t_e} from a sequence of GS sharp frames row by row given the RS start time t_s and the end time t_e . That is, the *h*-th row of an RS frame is the same as the *h*-th row of a GS frame at t_s^h , and the exposure start timestamp of the *h*-th row of an RS frame is $t_s^h = t_s + h \times (t_e - t_s)/H$. Therefore, we can formally describe an RS sharp frame as follows:

$$I_{r,t_s,t_e} = \left\{ F\left(\boldsymbol{x}, t_s^h, \theta\right)[h], h \in [0, H) \right\}.$$
(2)

In principle, a blur frame can be regarded as the temporal average of a sequence of sharp frames (Nah et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). Thus, a GS blur frame $I_{g,t_g,t_{exp}}$, where t_g is the exposure start timestamp and t_{exp} is the exposure time, can be expressed as the average of a sequence of GS sharp frames during the exposure time t_{exp} , which can be formulated as:

$$I_{g,t,t_{exp}} = \frac{1}{t_{exp}} \int_{t}^{t+t_{exp}} F(\boldsymbol{x}, t, \theta) dt \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} I_{g,t_0+i \times t_{exp}/N},$$
(3)

- where N is the length of the GS frame sequence.
- With the above formulation, an RS blur frame $I_{r,t_s \rightarrow t_e,t_{exp}}$ can thus be described based on the RS
- start time t_s , RS end time t_e , and exposure time of each scan line t_{exp} , as depicted in Fig. 1 (a).
- According to Eq. 2 and Eq. 3, the *h*-th row of an RS blur frame can be described as the temporal average of the *h*-th row in a sequence of GS sharp frames, which can be written as follows:

average of the h-th row in a sequence of GS sharp frames, which can be written as follows:

$$I_{r,t_s \to t_e, t_{exp}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{t_{exp}} \int_{t_h^h}^{t_s^* + t_{exp}} F\left(\boldsymbol{x}, t, \theta\right) [h] dt, h \in [0, H) \right\}$$

$$\approx \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^N I_{g, t_s + i \times t_{exp}/N} [h], h \in [0, H) \right\}.$$
(4)

- An event stream E consists of a set of event e = (x, y, t, p), where each event is triggered and
- recorded with the polarity p when the logarithmic brightness change at pixel (x, y) exceeds a certain

threshold C, which can be approximated as the differential of $F(x, t, \theta)$ with respect to the time dimension. For details about the principle of event cameras, refer to the Suppl. Mat.

To use event data E as guidance, we need to address three challenges to estimate the mapping function

¹⁶³ $F(\boldsymbol{x}, t, \theta)$: 1) how to find a function f_e to encode the input RS blur image and events to θ of the ¹⁶⁴ mapping function $F(\boldsymbol{x}, t, \theta)$; 2) how to find a function f_{te} to represent the exposure information of

desired RS or GS sharp frames as t of the mapping function $F(x, t, \theta)$; 3) how to find a function

 f_d to eliminate the need to input position information of desired RS or GS sharp frames as p of

the mapping function $F(x, t, \theta)$. Therefore, our goal is to estimate f_e , f_{te} , and f_d in order to get a

¹⁶⁸ mapped result, which can be formulated as:

$$I = F(\boldsymbol{x}, t, \theta) = F(\boldsymbol{x}, t, f_e(E, I_{rsb})) = F(\boldsymbol{x}, f_{te}(t), f_e(E, I_{rsb})) = f_d(f_{te}(t), f_e(E, I_{rsb})).$$
(5)

In the following section, we describe our framework based on Eq. 5 by substantiating f_e , f_{te} , and f_d .

170 3.2 PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

An overview of our UniINR framework is depicted in Fig. 2, which takes an RS blur image I_{rsb} 171 and paired events E as inputs and outputs N sharp GS frames $\{I_{gss}\}_{i=0}^N$ with a high-frame-rate. To 172 substantiate the defined functions f_e , f_{te} , and f_d , as mentioned in Sec. 3.1, our proposed framework 173 consists of three components: 1) Spatial-Temporal Implicit Encoding (STE), 2) Exposure Time 174 Embedding (ETE), and 3) Pixel-by-pixel Decoding (PPD). Specifically, we first introduce an STE 175 with deformable convolution (Wang et al., 2022a) to encode the RS blur frame and events into a 176 spatial-temporal representation (STR) (Sec. 3.2.1). To provide exposure temporal information for 177 STR, we embed the exposure start timestamp of each pixel from the GS or RS by ETE. (Sec. 3.2.2). 178 Lastly, the PDD module adds ETE to STR to generate RS or GS sharp frames (Sec. 3.2.3). We now 179 describe these components in detail. 180

181 3.2.1 SPATIAL-TEMPORAL IMPLICIT ENCODING (STE)

Based on the analysis in Sec. 3.1, we conclude that the RS blur frame I_{rsb} and events E collectively encompass the comprehensive spatial-temporal information during the exposure process. In this section, we aim to extract a spatial-temporal implicit representation θ that can effectively capture the spatial-temporal information from the RS blur frame I_{rsb} and events E.

To achieve this, we need to consider two key factors: (1) extracting features for the multi-task 186 purpose and (2) estimating motion information. For the first factor, we draw inspiration from eSL-187 Net (Wang et al., 2020), which effectively utilizes events to simultaneously handle deblur, denoise, 188 and super-resolution tasks. Accordingly, we design a sparse-learning-based backbone for the encoder. 189 Regarding the second factor, previous works (Fan & Dai, 2021; Fan et al., 2022; 2023) commonly 190 use optical flow for motion estimation in RS correction and interpolation tasks. However, optical 191 flow estimation is computationally demanding (Gehrig et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2018), 192 making it challenging to incorporate it into the multiple task framework for RS cameras due to the 193 complex degradation process. As an efficient alternative, we employ deformable convolution (Wang 194 et al., 2022a) in our encoder to replace the optical flow estimation module. We adopt a 3D tensor with 195 a shape of $H \times W \times C$ as the STR θ , which can effectively address the interlocking degradations 196 encountered in the image restoration process with a sparse-learning-based backbone and deformable 197 convolution, as formulated as $\theta = f_e(E, I_{rsb})$ in Eq. 5. More details in the Suppl. Mat. 198

199 3.2.2 EXPOSURE TIME EMBEDDING (ETE)

As depicted in Fig. 2 (b), the primary objective of the ETE module is to incorporate the exposure 200 time of either a rolling shutter (RS) frame (t_s, t_e) or a global shutter (GS) frame (t_a) by employing 201 an MLP layer, resulting in the generation of a temporal tensor T. To achieve this, we design an ETE 202 module, denoted as f_{te} , which takes the GS exposure time t_g as input and produces the GS temporal tensor $T_g = f_{te}(t_g)$. Similarly, for RS frames, $T_r = f_{te}(t_{r_s}, t_{r_e})$ represents the RS temporal tensor, 203 204 which is only used in training. The process begins by converting the exposure process information 205 into a timestamp map, with a shape of $H \times W \times 1$. Subsequently, the timestamp map is embedded 206 by increasing its dimensionality to match the shape of the STR. This embedding procedure allows 207 for the integration of the exposure time information into the STR representation. We now explain 208 the construction of timestamp maps for both GS and RS frames and describe the embedding method 209 employed in our approach. 210

GS Timestamp Map: In GS sharp frames, all pixels are exposed simultaneously, resulting in the same exposure timestamps for pixels in different positions. Given a GS exposure timestamp t_g , the GS timestamp map M_g can be represented as $M_g[h][w] = t_g$, where h and w denote the row and column indices, respectively. **RS Timestamp Map:** According to the analysis in Sec. 3.1, pixels in RS frames are exposed line by line, and pixels in different rows have different exposure start timestamps. Given RS exposure information with start time t_s and RS end time t_e , the RS timestamp map can be represented as $M_r[h][w] = t_s + (t_e - t_s) \times h/H$, where h, w, H denote the row and column indices and height of the image, respectively.

Time Embedding: The timestamp maps, M_r and M_q , represent the timestamps of each pixel in 220 a specific frame (RS or GS) with a shape of $H \times W \times 1$. However, the timestamp map is a high-221 frequency variable and can pose challenges for learning neural networks (Vaswani et al., 2017). Some 222 approaches (Vaswani et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2021) propose a combination function of sine and 223 cosine to encode the positional embedding. Nonetheless, calculating the derivative of the positional 224 embedding is difficult, limiting its practical application to image enhancement tasks. In this paper, 225 we utilize a one-layer MLP to increase the dimension for embedding. The whole embedding process 226 is formulated as $T_q = f_{te}(t_q)$ for GS frames, and $T_r = f_{te}(t_{r_s}, t_{r_e})$ for RS frames, as depicted in 227 Fig. 2(b). The MLP consists of a single layer that maps the timestamp map M_r or M_q to the same 228 dimension $H \times W \times C$ as the spatial-temporal representation (STR) θ , as described in Sec. 3.2.1. 229

230 3.2.3 PIXEL-BY-PIXEL DECODING (PPD)

As shown in Fig. 2 (c), the goal of PPD is to efficiently query a sharp frame from STR θ by the 231 temporal tensor T. It is important that the encoder is invoked only once for N times interpolation, 232 while the decoder is called N times. Therefore, the efficiency of this query is crucial for the overall 233 performance. The query's inputs θ capture the global spatial-temporal information, and T captures 234 the temporal information of the sharp frame (GS or RS). Inspired by previous works (Mildenhall 235 et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021), we directly incorporate the temporal tensor T into the STR θ to obtain 236 an embedded feature with a shape of $H \times W \times C$ for each query. This additional embedded feature 237 combines the global spatial-temporal information with the local exposure information, enabling 238 straightforward decoding to obtain a sharp frame. To avoid the need for explicit positional queries, 239 we employ a pixel-by-pixel decoder. The decoder, denoted as f_d in Eq. 5, employs a simple 5-layer 240 MLP $f_{mlp}^{O^5}$ architecture. The reconstructed output I after decoding can be described in Eq. 6, where 241 means element-wise addition. 242

$$I = f_d(f_{te}(t), f_e(E, I_{rsb})) = f_d(T, \theta) = f_{mlp}^{O^5}(T \oplus \theta).$$
(6)

243 3.2.4 Loss Function

RS Blur Image-guided Integral Loss: Inspired by EVDI (Zhang & Yu, 2022), we formulate the relationship between RS blur frames and RS sharp frames. Given a sequence of RS sharp frames generated from the decoder, the input RS blur frame $I_{rsb} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (\hat{I}_{rss}^{i})$, where *M* represents the length of the RS image sequence. In this way, we can formulate the blur frame guidance integral loss between the reconstructed RS blur frame and the original RS blur frame as $\mathcal{L}_b = \mathcal{L}_c(\hat{I}_{rsb}, I_{rsb})$, where \mathcal{L}_c indicates *Charbonnier loss* (Lai et al., 2018).

Total Loss: Apart from RS blur image-guided integral loss \mathcal{L}_b , we incorporate a reconstruction loss \mathcal{L}_{re} to supervise the reconstructed GS sharp frames. Our method consists of two losses: RS blur image-guided integral loss and the reconstruction loss, where λ_b, λ_{re} denote the weights of each loss:

$$\mathcal{L} = \lambda_b \mathcal{L}_b + \lambda_{re} \mathcal{L}_{re} = \lambda_b \mathcal{L}_c(\hat{I}_{rsb}, I_{rsb}) + \lambda_{re} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \mathcal{L}_c(\hat{I}_{gss}^k, I_{gss}^k).$$
(7)

253 4 EXPERIMENTS

Implementation Details: We utilize the Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2014) for all experiments, with learning rates of 1e - 4 for both Gev-RS (Zhou et al., 2022) and Fastec-RS (Liu et al., 2020) datasets. Using two NVIDIA RTX A5000 GPU cards, we train our framework across 400 epochs with a batch size of two. In addition, we use the mixed precision (Micikevicius et al., 2017) training tool provided by PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2017), which can speed up our training and reduce memory usage. PSNR and SSIM (Wang et al., 2004) are used to evaluate the reconstructed results.

Datasets: 1) Gev-RS dataset (Zhou et al., 2022) features GS videos at 1280 × 720, 5700 fps. We reconstruct such frames and events from the original videos, downsampling to 260 × 346 (Scheerlinck et al., 2019). Events and RS blur frames are synthesized using vid2e (Gehrig et al., 2020). We adopt EvUnroll's (Zhou et al., 2022) 20/9 train/test split. 2) Fastec-RS dataset (Liu et al., 2020) offers GS videos at 640 × 480, 2400 fps. We apply identical settings for resizing, event creation, and RS blur. The dataset is split into 56 training and 20 testing sequences. 3) Real-world dataset (Zhou et al., 2022) is the only available real dataset, containing four videos with paired RS frames and events.

²⁶⁷ Due to the lack of ground truth, it offers only quantitative visualizations. *More details in Suppl. Mat.*.



Figure 3: Visual Comparisons on RS correction and deblurring on Gev-RS (Zhou et al., 2022) dataset. The image resolution of DeblurSR (Song et al., 2023) is 180×240 .

268 4.1 COMPARISON WITH SOTA METHODS

²⁶⁹ Our experiments are conducted on both simulated and real datasets. While the simulated dataset

enables us to obtain accurate quantitative results, evaluating on the real dataset offers insights into the generation ability of our method.

We compare our methods with recent methods with two different settings in these two datasets: (I) 272 the experiment with a single GS sharp frame result, including JCD (Zhong et al., 2021) (frame-273 based RS correction and deblurring), EvUnroll (Zhou et al., 2022) (event-guided RS correction) 274 and eSL-Net (Wang et al., 2020) (event-guided deblurring). (II) the experiment with a sequence of 275 GS sharp frames result, which includes DeblurSR (Song et al., 2023) (event-guided deblurring and 276 interpolation), and the combination of EvUnroll (Zhou et al., 2022) and TimeLens (Tulyakov et al., 277 2021) (event-guided video frame interpolation). In addition, we test our model's generation ability by 278 comparing it with EvUnRoll (Zhou et al., 2022) using real data. While this real data is solely reserved 279 for testing, both our model and EvUnRoll are trained on the simulation dataset. More explanations of 280 281 setting (II) are in Supp. Mat..

We evaluate JCD, EvUnroll, TimeLens, and DeblurSR with the released code. We modified eSL-Net by adjusting its parameterization initialization method and removing the up-sampling module, allowing it to be well trained on our datasets. The outputs of eSL-Net and DeblurSR are grayscale frames, and the outputs of JCD, EvUnroll, and the combination of EvUnroll and TimeLens are RGB frames. For fairness, our network is trained with the input of grayscale and RGB images, respectively.

The quantitative results for experiments generating a single GS sharp frame $(1 \times)$ and those producing 287 a sequence of GS sharp frames $(3\times, 5\times, 9\times)$ are presented in Tab. 1. In comparison to methods 288 that yield a single GS sharp frame, our approach exhibits remarkable performance in both gray and 289 RGB frames, surpassing the best-performing methods (eSL-Net (Wang et al., 2020) in gray and 290 EvUnroll (Zhou et al., 2022) in RGB) by 1.48dB and 4.17dB on the Gev-RS (Zhou et al., 2022) 291 dataset, respectively. In scenarios where a sequence of GS sharp frames is produced, our method 292 attains optimal performance for both gray and RGB frames, achieving an increase of up to 13.47dB 293 and 8.49dB compared to DeblurSR (Song et al., 2023) and EvUnroll (Zhou et al., 2022)+Time-294 Lens (Tulyakov et al., 2021) on the Gev-RS (Zhou et al., 2022) dataset, respectively. The substantial 295 performance decline of DeblurSR (Song et al., 2023) can be ascribed to the interdependence between 296 RS correction and deblur. The performance reduction of EvUnroll+TimeLens can be accounted for 297 by the accumulation of errors arising from this cascading network, as shown in Fig. 1(h). 298

The qualitative results, as depicted in Fig. 11, showcase the effectiveness of our proposed method on both grayscale and RGB inputs. These results demonstrate our approach's ability to generate

	Inputs			Gev	-RS	Fastec-RS		
	Methods	Frame	Event	$Params(M) \downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM \uparrow	$PSNR \uparrow$	SSIM ↑
1×	eSL-Net*	1 gray	1	0.1360	31.64	0.9614	32.45	0.9186
	UniINR (Ours)	1 gray	1	0.3790	33.12	0.9881	34.62	0.9390
	JCD	3 color	X	7.1659	18.59	0.5781	21.31	0.6150
	EU	1 color	1	20.83	26.18	0.8606	29.76	0.8693
	UniINR (Ours)	1 color	1	0.3792	30.35	0.9714	33.64	0.9299
	DeblurSR	1 gray	1	21.2954	17.64	0.554	21.17	0.5816
$3 \times$	UniINR (Ours)	1 gray	1	0.3790	31.11	0.9738	33.23	0.9210
	EU + TL	2 color	1	93.03	21.86	0.7057	24.81	0.7179
	UniINR (Ours)	1 color	1	0.3792	28.36	0.9348	32.72	0.9147
-	DeblurSR	1 gray	1	21.2954	18.35	0.6107	22.86	0.6562
$5 \times$	UniINR (Ours)	1 gray	1	0.3790	30.84	0.9673	32.82	0.9147
	EU + TL	2 color	✓	93.03	21.59	0.6964	24.46	0.7140
	UniINR (Ours)	1 color	1	0.3792	28.41	0.9062	32.13	0.9053
9× -	DeblurSR	1 gray	1	21.2954	18.86	0.6502	23.96	0.7049
	UniINR (Ours)	1 gray	1	0.3790	30.54	0.9579	32.21	0.9051
	EU + TL	2 color	1	93.03	21.24	0.6869	23.99	0.7029
	UniINR (Ours)	1 color	1	0.3792	27.21	0.8869	29.31	0.8590

Table 1: Quantitative results for RS correction, deblurring, and frame interpolation. TL refers to TimeLens Tulyakov et al. (2021). EU refers to EvUnroll Zhou et al. (2022). eSL-Net* represents a modified model based on eSL-Net Wang et al. (2020).

Table 2: Quantitative comparison in PSNR, SSIM, and LPIPS on EvUnRoll simulation dataset (Zhou et al., 2022). The numerical results of DSUN, JCD, and EvUnRoll are provided by (Zhou et al., 2022).

Method	Frames	Event	$Params(M) \downarrow$	PSNR ↑	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow
DSUN (Liu et al., 2020)	2	X	3.91	23.10	0.70	0.166
JCD (Zhong et al., 2021)	3	X	7.16	24.90	0.82	0.105
EvUnRoll (Zhou et al., 2022)	1	1	20.83	30.14	0.91	0.061
UniINR(Ours)	1	1	0.38	30.61	0.9285	0.048

sharp frames devoid of RS distortion, yielding the most visually pleasing outcomes in challenging 301 scenarios involving a fast-moving train with motion blur and RS distortion. Comparatively, the results 302 of eSL-Net and EvUnroll exhibit discernible noise, particularly evident around the train door within 303 the red region of Fig. 11. Another approach, JCD, falls short in recovering sharp frames within 304 such complex scenes. This failure can be attributed to the insufficient availability of frame-based 305 methods which rely on the assumption of linear motion. Furthermore, the results obtained using 306 DebluSR (Song et al., 2023) display noticeable artifacts, particularly in the context of the moving 307 train. These artifacts hinder satisfactory frame reconstruction in such dynamic environments. 308

Bad case analysis: The color distortion in Fig. 11 (j) can be attributed to the insufficient color information in the challenging scene of a fast-moving train. From the input (Fig. 11 (h)), it can be noticed that the degree of motion blur is extremely severe and the blurry frame cannot provide valid color information. Furthermore, according to the principle of the generation of the event, the event is triggered by intensity change and it cannot provide color information.

EvUnRoll Simulation Dataset: To achieve a more equitable comparison with EvUnRoll, we evaluate our method on the simulated dataset employed by EvUnRoll, shown in Tab. 2. It's important to emphasize that the dataset includes paired data consisting of RS blur, RS sharp, and GS sharp. For our model's training, we specifically utilize the paired images of RS blur and GS sharp. As a one-stage approach, our method directly transforms an RS-blurred image into a GS-sharp image avoiding accumulated error, and thus has better performance.

Real-world Dataset: Fig. 4 shows real-world results. The input frame exhibits rolling shutter distortions, such as curved palette edges. In contrast, events show global shutter traits. Both our method and EvUnRoll correct these distortions effectively. Due to the lack of ground truth, quantitative analysis is not possible. Notably, our method avoids artifacts and errors, outperforming EvUnRoll in palette scenarios. *For further discussion please refer to the Supp. Mat.*.

325 4.2 ABLATION AND ANALYTICAL STUDIES

Importance of Exposure Time Embedding: We conduct the experiments to evaluate the impact of learning-based position embedding, with a comparative analysis to sinusoid position embed-



Figure 4: Visualization results in a real-world dataset (Zhou et al., 2022). (a) is the events visualization results. (b) are the input RGB images that have clear rolling shutter distortions. (c) is the output of EvUnRoll. (d) are the outputs of our method. The red circle in (c) has color distortion.



Figure 5: Comparison of inference time of our method with EvUnroll + TimeLens. t_{EU} and t_{TL} represent the respective inference times of EvUnRoll and TimeLens. The axes represent frame interpolation multiples (1× to 31×) and time. $2T_{EU}$ and $2t_{TL}$ means calling EvUnRoll twice and TimeLens twice.

ding (Vaswani et al., 2017). As indicated in Tab. 3, learning-based position embedding outperforms
 sinusoid position embedding, with advancements of up to 1.11dB on average. This superior efficacy
 is attributable to the intrinsic adaptability of the learning-based position embedding.

Importance of RS Blur Image-guided Integral Loss: The effectiveness of the RS blur image-guided 331 integral Loss across diverse interpolation settings is depicted in Tab. 4. The findings point towards 332 the enhancement in PSNR for high interpolation configurations $(e.g., 9\times)$ upon employing this loss. 333 **Inference Speed:** Fig. 5 shows our method's inference time across $1 \times$ to $31 \times$ interpolation. The 334 335 total time rises modestly, e.g., from 30.8 ms at $1 \times$ to 86.9 ms at $31 \times$, a 2.8-fold increase for a 31-fold interpolation. The average frame time even decreases at higher multiples, reaching 2.8 ms at 336 31×. Compared to EvUnRoll (Zhou et al., 2022) and TimeLens (Tulyakov et al., 2021), our method 337 is more computationally efficient, requiring only 72% of EvUnRoll's 42.3 ms for RS correction and 338 deblurring. For N-fold frame insertion using EvUnRoll + TimeLens, EvUnRoll is counted twice, 339 and TimeLens N-2 times. This advantage is amplified in high-magnification scenarios, where 340 TimeLens costs 186.76 ms per call. Our calculations focus on GPU time, excluding data I/O, which 341 342 further increases EvUnRoll and TimeLens' time consumption. More discussions are in Supp. Mat..

Table 5.	Adiation for learning-b	ased posi	tion embedd	ung.	<u>able</u> ²	F: AD	fation for t	ne loss function
	Position Embedding	PSNR	SSIM			\mathcal{L}_b	PSNR	SSIM
$1 \times$	Sinusoid Learning	32.46 33.12	0.9851 0.9881		$1 \times$	× ✓	33.12 33.14	0.9881 0.9844
$3 \times$	Sinusoid Learning	30.83 31.11	0.9723 0.9738		$3 \times$	×	31.11 31.09	0.9738 0.9768
$5\times$	Sinusoid Learning	30.70 30.84	0.9678 0.9673		$5 \times$	× ✓	30.84 30.83	0.9673 0.9784
$9 \times$	Sinusoid Learning	30.51 30.54	0.9560 0.9579		$9 \times$	× ✓	30.54 30.61	0.9579 0.9538
		+1.11	+0.0059				+0.060	+0.0063

344 5 CONCLUSION

343

This paper presented a novel approach that simultaneously uses events to guide rolling shutter frame correction, deblur, and interpolation. Unlike previous network structures that can only address one or two image enhancement tasks, our method incorporated all three tasks concurrently, providing potential for future expansion into areas such as image and video super-resolution and denoising. Furthermore, our approach demonstrated high efficiency in computational complexity and model size. Regardless of the number of frames involved in interpolation, our method only requires a single call to the encoder, and the model size is a mere 0.379M.

Limitations Our analysis utilizes simulated data and real-world datasets, the latter of which lacks ground truth. Acquiring real data with ground truth is challenging. In future work, we aim to address this limitation by employing optical instruments, such as spectroscopes, to obtain real-world data

³⁵⁵ with ground truth for quantitative evaluation.

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