Neural Compression-Based Feature Learning for Video Restoration

Cong Huang\textsuperscript{1*} Jiahao Li\textsuperscript{2} Bin Li\textsuperscript{2} Dong Liu\textsuperscript{1} Yan Lu\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{1} University of Science and Technology of China \textsuperscript{2} Microsoft Research Asia

hcy96@mail.ustc.edu.cn, dongeliu@ustc.edu.cn, \{li.jiahao, libin, yanlu\}@microsoft.com

Abstract

How to efficiently utilize the temporal features is crucial, yet challenging, for video restoration. The temporal features usually contain various noisy and uncorrelated information, and they may interfere with the restoration of the current frame. This paper proposes learning noise-robust feature representations to help video restoration. We are inspired by that the neural codec is a natural denoiser. In neural codec, the noisy and uncorrelated contents which are hard to predict but cost lots of bits are more inclined to be discarded for bitrate saving. Therefore, we design a neural compression module to filter the noise and keep the most useful information in features for video restoration. To achieve robustness to noise, our compression module adopts a spatial-channel-wise quantization mechanism to adaptively determine the quantization step size for each position in the latent. Experiments show that our method can significantly boost the performance on video denoising, where we obtain 0.13 dB improvement over BasicVSR++ with only 0.23x FLOPs. Meanwhile, our method also obtains SOTA results on video deraining and dehazing.

1. Introduction

Video restoration aims to recover the high-quality video from the degraded input. Typical degradation includes various noises, rain, haze, etc. It has a wide range of applications, but this problem is still under-explored. Different from image restoration that focuses on the intrinsic proprieties in single image [44], video restoration relies more on extracting and utilizing temporal features for better quality.

Recent video restoration methods mainly focus on network structure design for better extracting temporal features. For example, RViDeNet [43] and EDVR [36] use deformable convolution to align the features of neighboring frames. BasicVSR [7] designs a bi-directional feature propagation network. BasicVSR++ [8] introduces the second-order grid propagation network structure and flow-guided deformable alignment network. However, these methods directly use the extracted temporal features without any refinement. The temporal features usually contain lots of noisy and irrelevant information, which interferes with the restoration of the current frame. In this paper, we take video denoising as a case study and explore how to utilize the extracted temporal features efficiently.

We propose a novel neural compression-based solution to refine the features and learn noise-robust feature repre-
sentations. From the perspective of neural codec, the noisy data usually contains lots of high-frequency and is hard to predict. To save the bitrate, codec prefers to discard these noisy and uncorrelated contents. This motivates us to design a neural compression module to purify the temporal features and filter the noisy information therein for video restoration. To achieve robustness to noise, namely let the representations of the noise-perturbed data be mapped to the same quantized representation with the clean data with high probability, the quantization step needs to be properly set. However, most existing neural compression frameworks only support fixed quantization step size. This cannot meet our purpose and even harms the inherent textures. To solve this problem, we design an adaptive quantization mechanism at spatial-channel-wise for our compression module, where the quantization step is learned by our prior model. Our quantization mechanism can adaptively purify the features with different content characteristics. During the training, the cross-entropy loss is used to guide the learning of the compression module and helps preserve the most useful information.

Fig. 1 shows the framework comparison. From the t-SNE [35] visualization shown in Fig. 1 (c), we find, via our neural compression-based feature learning, the features are more robust to noise and get closer to the features generated from the clean video. Fig. 1 (d) is the performance comparison. We observe that, empowered by the noise-robust feature representations, our framework significantly improves the restoration quality, when compared with prior state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods. The major contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- We propose a novel neural compression-based feature learning for video restoration. After processed by our compression module, the features are more robust to noise and then improve the restoration quality.
- To achieve robustness to noise and adaptively purify the features with different content characteristics, we design a learnable quantization mechanism at spatial-channel-wise.
- To further boost the performance, we also design an attention module to help the feature learning, and a motion vector refinement module to improve the discontinuous motion vector estimated from noisy video.
- We propose a lightweight framework. Compared with previous SOTA methods, our method achieves a better quality-complexity trade-off on video denoising, deraining, and dehazing.

2. Related Work

2.1. Video Restoration

Existing video restoration methods leveraging temporal correlation can be divided into two categories: the sliding window-based methods and the recurrent methods.

The sliding window-based methods take several adjacent frames as input for each frame. Some methods [10, 34] do not depend on explicit motion alignments. VNLNet [10] uses the non-local module to search similar patches across frames. FastDVDNet [34] uses stacked U-Net [32] to progressively fuse the unaligned neighboring frames. By contrast, ToFlow [39] and DVDNet [33] use a motion estimation component to explicitly align neighboring frames. To explore more temporal correlation, RViDeN [43] and EDVR [36] propose feature domain alignment. They align the features of neighboring frames rather than raw pixels and this mechanism is adopted by most recent methods.

The sliding window-based methods suffer from a narrow temporal scope and cannot leverage the information outside the sliding window. By contrast, the recurrent methods learn the temporal features within a long temporal range, and achieve better performance. EMVD [25] recurrently combines all past frames as auxiliary information. Yan et al. [40] proposed a recurrent feature propagation framework without explicit alignment. The feature propagation in BasicVSR [7] uses the explicit alignment. Recently, BasicVSR++ [8] achieves excellent performance by using a second-order grid propagation structure and a flow-guided deformable alignment module.

2.2. Video Compression

Traditional video codecs, e.g., H.264 and H.265, adopt the hybrid framework which consists of prediction, transform, quantization, entropy coding, and loop-filter. Benefiting from the progress of neural image compression [3, 4, 27], neural video compression [2, 17, 19, 20, 24] recently also has a great development. For example, Lu et al. [24] designed the DVC model, which follows the framework of traditional video codec but uses neural networks to implement all modules therein. Following DVC, Agustsson et al. [2] designed a more advanced optical flow estimation in scale space. Recently Li et al. [17] proposed a conditional coding-based framework which achieves better performance.

3. Motivation

Our motivation comes from that video compression can filter the noise. Video compression aims at using the least bitrate cost to represent the video. For traditional codec, the residuals of noisy contents are usually large as they are hard to predict from reference frames. These residuals contain lots of high-frequency and will consume many bits. To achieve the bitrate saving, traditional codec uses the quantization to discard the residuals of noisy contents, especially for the high-frequency therein, which is like a low-pass filter. We use the traditional codec x265 [1] to conduct an analysis experiment, as shown in Fig. 2. From Fig. 2 (c), we find that the traditional codec x265 can filter the noise in a
large degree. Fig. 2 (d) shows, when allocated more bits, x265 will encode the noise but in a much smoother way.

Different from traditional codec using linear DCT (discrete cosine transform), neural codec will learn a neural encoder to transform video from pixel domain to latent feature domain. The latent feature is then quantized, and its distribution is estimated to perform arithmetic coding. The distribution is predicted more accurately, more bitrate saving is achieved. However, the distributions of the noisy and uncorrelated contents are hard to predict well. Thus, to save the bitrate, these contents are more inclined to be discarded guided by the cross-entropy loss. Fig. 2 (e) shows the effectiveness of neural codec [17] (model weights are provided by authors of [17]). In particular, the neural codec can much better remove the noise therein and keep more semantic information when compared with x265.

Inspired by this analysis, we propose utilizing a neural codec to help video restoration. The neural codec is used to filter the noisy information in features via the quantization. If the quantization step and data distribution are properly learned, the representations of the noise-perturbed data will be mapped to the same quantized representation with the clean data with high probability. The noise-robust feature representations will improve the final restoration quality.

Another advantage of using neural codec rather than traditional codec is that the neural codec can be end-to-end trainable and will have better performance when jointly trained with other restoration modules.

4. Proposed Method

4.1. Framework Overview

We design a neural compression-based framework for video restoration. Our framework contains three parts: feature alignment, feature refinement for learning noise-robust feature representations, and feature fusion. The framework is illustrated in Fig. 3.

**Feature alignment.** Given the noisy frames \(x_{t-1}\) and \(x_t\), we first use motion estimation to estimate the motion vector (MV) \(\hat{mv}_t\). Then we design an MV refinement module to improve the discontinuous MV \(mv_t\) estimated from noisy video. With the refined MV \(\tilde{mv}_t\), the coarse features \(\hat{c}_t\) are obtained via a bilinear warping function.

**Feature refinement.** As \(\hat{c}_t\) contains some noisy and uncorrelated information, we propose a neural compression-based feature refinement to purify the features. It is noted that, our feature refinement part consists of two modules. One is the attention module and the other is the neural compression module used for noise-robust feature learning.

**Feature fusion.** With the noise-robust features \(\tilde{c}_t\) and the current frame \(x_t\), the final output frame \(y_t\) is generated through the restoration module. Besides \(y_t\), the restoration module part will also generate the temporal features \(c_t\) used for next step.

4.2. Feature Alignment

To align the temporal features from last step to the current frame, we need to predict the MV. In our paper, we use the pre-trained optical flow estimation network SPyNet [30] as our motion estimation module.

However, estimating accurate MV from the degraded frames is quite difficult. As shown in Fig. 4 (a), the MV without any processing suffers from corruption and discontinuity, which is not accurate compared with the MV estimated from clean frames in Fig. 4 (c). To solve this problem, we propose using an MV refinement module to improve the MV. The MV refinement module adopts a lightweight auto-encoder structure. It encodes the corrupted MV into compact representations and then decodes them to the refined MV. The detailed network structure can be found in the supplementary materials. As Fig. 4 (b) shows, with our MV refinement, the MV is cleaner and more similar to the MV from the clean frames.

4.3. Feature Refinement via Neural Compression

Previous recurrent methods directly fuse the current frame and the aligned temporal features without any refinement. Actually, the temporal features may still contain some noisy and uncorrelated information, which disturbs the restoration of the current frame.
many papers [14, 26, 28, 46] have studied it and proved the neural compression module. For the attention mechanism, the process consists of two modules, i.e. attention module and quantization process to learn noise-robust feature representations. This supplementary materials.

Figure 3. The overall framework of our method. The detailed network structures of each module can be found in supplemental materials.

Figure 4. Example of MV comparison. We find MV is more accurate and more similar to the MV from clean frames after ME refinement. Zoom in for a better view.

To solve this problem, we propose a feature refinement process to learn noise-robust feature representations. This process consists of two modules, i.e. attention module and neural compression module. For the attention mechanism, many papers [14, 26, 28, 46] have studied it and proved its effectiveness. Thus, we design an attention module to scale the temporal features to help the feature learning. To achieve a good trade-off between performance and complexity, we design an auto-encoder-based attention network whose detailed network structure can be found in the supplementary materials.

After the attention module, the temporal features \( \tilde{c}_t \) will be purified by the proposed neural compression module. Following the design in neural image/video compression [4, 17, 24], our neural compression module consists of feature encoder-decoder, quantization process, and a prior model.

First, the temporal features \( \tilde{c}_t \) are encoded to be compact latent codes \( e_t \) through the feature encoder:

\[
e_t = Encoder(\tilde{c}_t). \tag{1}
\]

To achieve the robustness to noise, the quantization is applied to \( e_t \). The \( e_t \in [s_k, s_{k+1}) \) is quantized to value \( \frac{s_k+s_{k+1}}{2} \), where \( s_k \) and \( s_{k+1} \) indicate the numerical range. Let \( \tilde{c}_t + \epsilon \) be the noisy feature with noise \( \epsilon \). Under the assumption that \( Encoder \) is Lipschitz continuous, \( \tilde{c}_t = Encoder(\tilde{c}_t) \) and \( e_t = Encoder(\tilde{c}_t) \) will be located in the same region \( [s_k, s_{k+1}) \) with high probability if the quantization step \( s_{k+1} - s_k \) is relatively large, then they have the same quantized value. That means, the quantized representation is robust to noisy input. However, the robustness is determined by a prerequisite that the data distribution and quantization step are properly learned.

Most existing quantization solutions in neural image/video compression only use fixed quantization step. Actually, the content characteristics spatially vary in a large degree. A fixed quantization step cannot handle various and complex contents well. For example, a fixed small quantization step fails to remove the noisy information. A fixed large quantization step instead causes large information loss (i.e., the intrinsic quantization noise). Thus, we propose an adaptive quantization mechanism, where the quantization step is learned. The illustration is shown in Fig. 5. First, \( e_t \) are divided by the learned quantization step \( q_t \) after subtracting the learned mean value \( \mu_t \). The quotients are then rounded to the closest integers. At last, the quantized latent codes \( \hat{e}_t \) are obtained via the opposite operations. The formulation is:

\[
\hat{e}_t = \left\lfloor \frac{e_t - \mu_t}{q_t} \right\rfloor * q_t + \mu_t. \tag{2}
\]

\( \lfloor \cdot \rfloor \) is the integer rounding operation. With the quantized latent codes \( \hat{e}_t \), the noise-robust temporal features \( \tilde{c}_t \) are then decoded through the feature decoder:

\[
\tilde{c}_t = Decoder(\hat{e}_t). \tag{3}
\]

As aforementioned, the data distribution and quantization step need to be properly learned to achieve noise robustness. In practice, we do not know the data distribution, thus we use the prior model to estimate it, and then use the
cross-entropy loss to guide the learning of data distribution and quantization step. The cross-entropy loss is formulated as:

$$
L_{\text{CE}} = E_{\hat{e}_t}[\log p_{\hat{e}_t}(\hat{e}_t)],
$$

where $p_{\hat{e}_t}(\hat{e}_t)$ is the estimated probability mass function of the latent codes $\hat{e}_t$. In this paper, we follow \cite{15,17} and assume that $p_{\hat{e}_t}(\hat{e}_t)$ follows the Laplace distribution. The prior model composed by neural network is used for estimating the distribution parameters. Detailed structures of the prior model can be found in supplemental materials. But different from \cite{15,17} that only estimate the distribution parameters $(\mu_t, \sigma_t)$, our prior model also learns the quantization step size $q_t$. With $(\mu_t, \sigma_t, q_t)$, the probability estimation of $p_{\hat{e}_t}(\hat{e}_t)$ is calculated as:

$$
p_{\hat{e}_t}(\hat{e}_t) = \prod_i \left( \mathcal{L}(\mu_{t,i}, \sigma_{t,i}^2) \ast \mathcal{U}\left(-\frac{q_{t,i}}{2}, \frac{q_{t,i}}{2}\right) \right) \left(\hat{e}_{t,i}\right),
$$

where $i$ specifies the spatial position of each element in $\hat{e}_t$. According the probability mass function in Eq. 5, we can calculate the cross-entropy loss via Eq. 4. The cross-entropy loss guides the compression module to learn proper data distribution and quantization step, and then achieves the robustness to noise.

In our framework, the quantization step $q_t$ is learnable at spatial-channel-wise. It can be adaptive to regions with different content characteristics. We visualize one channel example of quantization step map in Fig. 6. The pixel intensity represents the size of quantization step. The larger pixel intensity represents the more noisy information that should be eliminated. As Fig. 6 shows, the quantization step size of the smooth region is usually larger because the noisy information therein is easier to remove. By contrast, the quantization step size of texture region (e.g., the table in the background poster, and there actually exist many details) is usually smaller.

4.4. Feature Fusion

The feature fusion part contains a restoration module. It will fuse the noise-robust temporal features $\hat{c}_t$ with the current frame $x_t$, and then generates the final output frame $\tilde{y}_t$.

4.5. Loss Function

In our method, the loss function includes two items:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{loss}} = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}(y_t, \tilde{y}_t) + \lambda \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}(\hat{e}_t).
$$

$y_t$ and $\tilde{y}_t$ are the clean and estimated frames, respectively. $\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}(y_t, \tilde{y}_t)$ is the L2 loss and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}(\hat{e}_t)$ is the cross-entropy loss. To learn noise-robust feature representation and then let it help the final reconstruction, we adopt a two-stage training scheme and the details are in the supplementary materials.

5. Experiment

We evaluate our method on several video restoration tasks, including denoising, deraining, and dehazing.

5.1. Dataset

Video denoising. Both synthetic dataset and real-world dataset are tested. For the synthetic dataset, we follow the setting in FastDVDNet \cite{34}. DAVIS2017 train-val set containing 90 videos is used for training. Set8 is used for testing. We add the additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) to the clean video to synthesize the noisy video. Five noise levels, i.e., $\sigma=10, 20, 30, 40, 50$ are tested. For the real-world dataset, we follow the setting in EMVD \cite{25} and use the dataset from RviDeNet \cite{43}. It consists of a captured raw video dataset (CRVD) and a synthetic raw video dataset (SRVD). Following EMVD and RviDeNet, we use CRVD scene 1~6 plus SRVD for training and CRVD scene 7~11 for testing.

Video deraining. Following \cite{42}, we test our method on RainSynComplex25 \cite{21} and RainSynAll100 \cite{42} datasets. RainSynComplex25 contains 190 videos for training and 25 videos for testing. RainSynAll100 contains 900 videos for training and 100 videos for testing.
that our method with default setting currently cannot
outperform BasicVSR and BasicVSR++ in terms of PSNR
but is better than them in terms of SSIM. When compared
with low-complexity method FastDVDNet and EMVD-L,
our method can achieve the best quality. Besides, if we
change our U-Net-like [32] restoration network to a W-Net-
like [38] restoration network with more complexity (more
details are in supplemental materials), denoted as ‘Our-L’
in Table 2, we can achieve the best PSNR and SSIM at the
same time, but the complexity is still much less than that of
BasicVSR and BasicVSR++.

**Qualitative Comparison.** Fig. 7 shows the visual qual-
ity comparison. As Fig. 7 shows, FastDVDNet without feature
alignment suffers from serious distortion in the text re-
gion. The results of BasicVSR++ are quite blurry caused by
the propagated noise in temporal features. By contrast, our
neural compression-based method can learn noise-robust
features and is able to restore much clearer textures. More
visual comparisons are in the supplementary materials.

**5.3. Result on Video Deraining**

We compare our method with prior SOTA video de-
 raining methods, including MS-CSC [18], SE [37], Spac-
CNN [9], FastDerain [16], J4RNet-P [21], FCRVD [41],
RMFD [42], and BasicVSR++ [8]. Since RainSynAll100
uses the rain accumulation degradation to generate the rainy
video, parts of the baseline methods including SE,
MS-CSC, SpacCNN, and FastDerain could not handle this
deradagation thus MRF [6] is used as post-processing. More
details could be found in [42]. FCRVD, RMFD, Ba-
sicVSR++, and our method could handle this degradation
without extra post-processing. As Table 3 shows, Bas-
icVSR++ beats RMFD in terms of PSNR and SSIM on
RainSynComplex25 but is slightly worse than RMFD in
terms of SSIM on RainSynAll100. By contrast, with the ro-
 bust temporal features, our method achieves the best PSNR
and SSIM on both datasets. Our method brings PSNR gain
of 0.44 dB and SSIM gain of 0.0063 on RainSynAll100.
We also test RainSynLight25 [21] and NTURain [9]. Their

| σ   | VNLnet [10] | DVDNet [33] | FastDVDNet [34] | EMVD-L [25] | EMVD-S [25] | EDVR [36] | BasicVSR [7] | BasicVSR++ [8] | Ours | FLOPs (G) |
|-----|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|--------------|----------------|-----|-----------|
| 10  | 37.10/0.9807 | 36.08/0.9952 | 36.44/0.9624    | 36.56/0.9624 | 35.01/0.9442 | 37.16/0.9678 | 37.12/0.9674 | 37.27/0.9682 | 37.17/0.9684 | 665 |
| 20  | 33.80/0.9507 | 33.40/0.9307 | 33.40/0.9334    | 33.27/0.9320 | 31.65/0.8927 | 34.09/0.9197 | 34.13/0.9097 | 34.25/0.9411 | 34.22/0.9437 | 1254 |
| 30  | 31.95/0.9096 | 31.79/0.9023 | 31.68/0.9066    | 31.40/0.9032 | 29.94/0.8678 | 32.31/0.9125 | 32.33/0.9157 | 32.55/0.9168 | 32.57/0.9184 | 246 |
| 40  | 30.55/0.8814 | 30.55/0.8745 | 30.46/0.8812    | 30.05/0.8761 | 28.64/0.8328 | 31.02/0.8887 | 31.05/0.8929 | 31.28/0.8936 | 31.39/0.8970 | 95 |
| 50  | 29.47/0.8561 | 29.56/0.8480 | 29.53/0.8573    | 29.15/0.8528 | 27.83/0.8082 | 30.60/0.8660 | 30.11/0.8690 | 30.32/0.8696 | 30.45/0.8770 | 66 |
|     | -            | -            | -               | 665          | 1106        | 3089      | 2947         | 3402            | 771 |

Table 1. PSNR/SSIM comparison with SOTA video denoising methods on synthetic dataset Set8. The best performance is highlighted in red (1st best) and blue (2nd best). Our method achieves the best SSIM on all noise levels.

Table 2. Comparison with SOTA video denoising methods on real-world dataset CRVD [43]. Our method with default setting outperforms other fast methods and gets close to the slow method. With a more powerful restoration module (i.e. 'Ours-L'), we can achieve SOTA performance in terms of both PSNR and SSIM. The runtime is the average frame runtime for the whole dataset on a P100 GPU.

**Video dehazing.** We use REVIDE [45] dataset which captures the pairs of hazy and corresponding haze-free videos in the same scene by an acquisition system. It contains 42 videos for training and 6 videos for testing.

**5.2. Result on Video Denoising**

We compare our method with these baselines: VNL-
Net [10], DVDNet [33], FastDVDNet [34], EMVD [25],
EDVR [36], BasicVSR [7], BasicVSR++ [8], and RVI-
DeNet [43]. EMVD has several network structure config-
urations with different complexities. The large (EDVR-L)
and small (EMVD-S) models are tested (more details about
configurations are in supplementary materials), denoted as ‘Our-L’
in Table 2, we can achieve the best PSNR and SSIM at the
same time, but the complexity is still much less than that of
BasicVSR and BasicVSR++.

**Quantitative Comparison.** We use peak signal-to-
noise ratio (PSNR) and structural similarity index mea-
sure (SSIM) as quantitative evaluation metrics. We present
the results on synthetic noise video in Table 1 and the res-
ults on real-world noisy video in Table 2. For the syn-
thetic video, as Table 1 shows, our method achieves the
best SSIM on all noise levels. For PSNR, our method out-
performs the second-best method BasicVSR++ [8] with at
least 0.11dB gain when the noise level is high (σ = 40 or
50). In addition, we find the quality improvement over Ba-
sicVSR++ is larger when the noise level is higher. It ver-
fies that our proposed neural compression module can ef-
ectively filter the noise. It is also worth noting that the
FLOPs of our method is only 0.23 times of BasicVSR++,
which shows that our method achieves a much better trade-
off between quality and complexity. Compared with the
low-complexity methods FastDVDNet [34] and EMVD-
L [25], our method achieves significant quality improve-
ment. For the real-world noisy video, it should be admis-
ted that our method with default setting currently cannot
based feature learning (NCFL) incorporated with adaptive quantization, and feature attention (FA). We study the effect of these modules and report the results in Table 5. Without MVR, NCFL, and FA, the baseline model only contains a motion estimation module, bilinear warping, and a restoration module.

**MV refinement (MVR).** As Table 5 shows, the baseline model $M_a$ only achieves PSNR 29.75 dB. It suffers from the discontinuous MV estimated from noisy video. When enabling our MVR, the MV is refined and $M_b$ reaches PSNR 29.87 dB. Our MVR brings 0.12 dB PSNR improvement.

**Neural compression-based feature learning (NCFL).** If we further combine NCFL and MVR, $M_c$ reaches PSNR 30.29 dB and improves 0.42 dB compared with $M_b$. The significant improvement verifies that the effectiveness of NCFL. In addition, we also study two variants of NCFL. As Table 6 shows, the PSNR of a vanilla auto-encoder without quantization (i.e. NCFL-NoQ) drops to 29.98 dB. This denotes that the improvement brought by NCFL mainly comes from the adaptive quantization mechanism rather than the increase of model parameters. In addition, we also test NCFL-FixedQ where a fixed quantization step is used as many existing neural video codecs do. The PSNR of NCFL-FixedQ drops to 29.89 dB. Its performance is even worse than NCFL-NoQ. This shows that a fixed quantization step instead loses some useful information and fails at learning noise-robust representations. By contrast, a learnable quantization step at spatial-channel-wise can adaptively filter the noise and purify the temporal features with different content characteristics, which is quite important.

**Feature attention (FA).** In this paper, we also propose a FA module to further help the feature learning. As Table 5 shows, $M_d$ achieves PSNR 30.45 dB. FA boosts the PSNR by 0.16 dB, which shows its effectiveness.

### 5.6. NCFL on Different Degradations

Table 5 and Table 6 investigate NCFL under AWGN degradation. However, our NCFL is not confined to AWGN. It is also very effective for other complex degradations, such as real-word denoising, deraining, and dehazing. Table 7 shows the comprehensive study on multiple degradations. For example, the comparison between $M_1$ and $M_3$
shows that NCFL can achieve 0.81 dB gain for deraining. These substantial improvements verify the effectiveness of our NCFL. In addition, the comparison between $M_2$ and $M_3$ shows that cross-entropy loss can effectively guide the learning of NCFL under multiple degradations.

5.7. Bi-directional Video Denoising

In previous experiments, we focus on the uni-directional setting where the temporal features only come from the past time. For the bi-directional setting, both the temporal features come from the past and the future time can be used. One advantage of our method is that our method can be extended to bi-directional setting easily. We test the bi-directional model of BasicVSR [7], BasicVSR++ [8], and our bi-directional model. The PSNR and complexity comparison is shown in Table 8. As Table 8 shows, the bi-directional setting brings BasicVSR 0.59 dB gain, BasicVSR++ 0.78 dB gain, and our method 0.76 dB gain with about 2x complexity. Under bi-directional setting, our method still outperforms BasicVSR++ by 0.11 dB with only 0.21x FLOPs.

### Table 7. Study on NCFL under different degradation types. CE means the cross-entropy loss. RWD means real-world denoising. AWGN indicates additive white Gaussian noise.

| Method                  | Deraining | Dehazing | RWD | AWGN |
|-------------------------|-----------|----------|-----|------|
| $M_1$: w/o NCFL         | 27.30     | 23.07    | 44.48 | 29.99 |
| $M_2$: w/ NCFL (w/o CE) | 27.64     | 23.30    | 44.56 | 30.20 |
| $M_3$: w/ NCFL          | 28.11     | 23.63    | 44.72 | 30.45 |

### Table 8. Bidirectional video denoising on Set8 with $\sigma = 50$.

| Direction | Method     | PSNR | FLOPs (G) |
|-----------|------------|------|-----------|
| Uni-direction | BasicVSR  | 30.11 | 2947      |
| Uni-direction | BasicVSR++ | 30.32 | 3402      |
| Uni-direction | Ours      | 30.45 | 771       |
| Bi-direction | BasicVSR  | 30.68 | 5855      |
| Bi-direction | BasicVSR++ | 31.10 | 7097      |
| Bi-direction | Ours      | 31.21 | 1522      |

### 5. Conclusion and Limitation

In this paper, we have designed a neural compression-based video restoration framework. We are inspired by the fact that neural video codec can naturally filter the noise, and then propose using neural compression to purify the temporal features and learn noise-robust feature representations. To solve the problem that the fixed quantization step harms the inherent textures, we propose a learnable quantization mechanism at spatial-channel-wise to achieve robustness to noise. At the same time, an attention module and an MV refinement module are proposed to further boost the performance. Experimental results show that the proposed method achieves a much better quality-complexity trade-off than previous SOTA methods.

Although our method is faster than most previous SOTA methods, the inference speed of our method still does not meet the requirements of real-time scenarios. In the future, we will continue to improve the efficiency of our method for real-time video restoration.
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