

Learning Image Demoiréing from Unpaired Real Data

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Abstract

This paper focuses on addressing the issue of image demoiréing. Unlike the large volume of existing studies that rely on learning from paired real data, we attempt to learn a demoiréing model from unpaired real data, i.e., moiré images associated with irrelevant clean images. The proposed method, referred to as Unpaired Demoiréing (UnDeM), synthesizes pseudo moiré images from unpaired datasets, generating pairs with clean images for training demoiréing models. To achieve this, we divide real moiré images into patches and group them in compliance with their moiré complexity. We introduce a novel moiré generation framework to synthesize moiré images with diverse moiré features, resembling real moiré patches, and details akin to real moiré-free images. Additionally, we introduce an adaptive denoise method to eliminate the low-quality pseudo moiré images that adversely impact the learning of demoiréing models. We conduct extensive experiments on the commonly-used FHDMi and UHDM datasets. Results manifest that our UnDeM performs better than existing methods when using existing demoiréing models such as MBCNN and ESDNet-L. Code: <https://github.com/zysxmu/UnDeM>.

Introduction

Contemporary society is awash with electronic screens for presenting images, text, video, *etc.* With the widespread availability of portable camera devices such as smartphones, people have grown accustomed to using them for quick information recording. Unfortunately, a common issue arises from the intrinsic interference between the camera’s color filter array (CFA) and LCD subpixel layout of the screen (Yu et al. 2022), resulting in captured pictures being contaminated with some rainbow-shape stripes, which are also known as moiré patterns (Sun, Yu, and Wang 2018; Yang et al. 2017b). These moiré patterns involve varying thickness, frequencies, layouts, and colors, which degrade the perceptual quality of captured pictures. Consequently, there has been considerable academic and industrial interest in developing demoiréing algorithms to rectify the issue.

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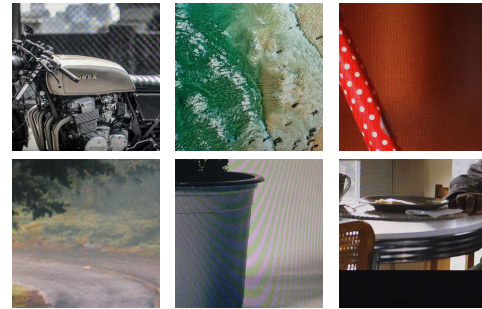


Figure 1: Illustration of image moiré. Natural moiré patterns are complex in varying thicknesses, frequencies, layouts, and colors across images and within an image.

Primitive research on demoiréing are mostly established upon image priors (Dabov et al. 2007; Cho et al. 2011) or traditional machine learning methods (Liu, Yang, and Yue 2015; Yang et al. 2017a), which are demonstrated to be inadequate for tackling moiré patterns of drastic variations (Zheng et al. 2021). Fortunately, the fashionable convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have become a de facto infrastructure for the success of various computer vision tasks including the image demoiréing (He et al. 2020; Cheng, Fu, and Yang 2019; He et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2020; Sun, Yu, and Wang 2018; Yuan et al. 2019; Zheng et al. 2021; Yu et al. 2022; Liu, Shu, and Wu 2018; Gao et al. 2019). These CNN-based methods are typically trained on extensive pairs of moiré-free and moiré images in a supervised manner to model the demoiréing mapping. However, it is challenging to collect paired images given the fact in Fig. 1 that natural moiré patterns are featured with varying thicknesses, frequencies, layouts, and colors (Zheng et al. 2021). We can easily access to the moiré images as well as moiré-free images, but they are mostly unpaired. Although many studies try to capture image pairs from digital screens (He et al. 2020; Yu et al. 2022), their quality is barricaded by three limitations. First, acquiring high-quality image pairs involves professional camera position adjustments and even special hardware (Yu et al. 2022). Second, burdensome manpower is required to select well-aligned moiré-free

and moiré pairs. Third, the captured moiré contents are very unitary under highly-controlled lab environments. However, image pairs full of more diverse moiré patterns are more expected for improving demoiréing models.

Synthesizing moiré images has therefore attracted increasing attention recently. Given Fig. 2a illustrated moiré-free screenshots, shooting simulation methods (Liu, Shu, and Wu 2018; Yuan et al. 2019; Niu, Guo, and Wang 2021) simulate the aliasing between CFA and screen’s LCD subpixel to produce corresponding paired moiré images in Fig. 2b. However, the synthetic images are insufficient to capture characteristics of real moiré patterns, leading to a large domain gap as we analyze from two aspects. First, the synthetic moiré images are much darker and cannot well seize the light quality, destroying the context of the viewing environment and obscuring the image details. Second, the synthetic moiré patterns lack authenticity, as the thicknesses, frequencies, layouts, and colors of moiré stripes are almost the same within an image. In Table 1 and Table 2 of the experimental section, we apply shooting simulated moiré images to train demoiréing CNNs. Our results manifest that the trained models generalize poorly to the natural-world test datasets. In (Park et al. 2022), Park *et al.* introduced a cyclic moiré learning method and we observe a better performance than shooting simulation in Table 1 and Table 2. However, the generated pseudo moiré fails to accurately model real moiré patterns as illustrated in Fig. 2c, leading to limited performance. Therefore, it is desired to develop a better method to improve the synthetic moiré images.

In this paper, we present one novel method, dubbed as UnDeM, to learn demoiréing from unpaired real moiré and clean images that are fairly easy to collect, for example, by performing random screenshots and taking random photos from the digital screen. As displayed in Fig. 2d, the basic objective of our UnDeM is to synthesize moiré images that possess moiré features as the real moiré images and details as the real moiré-free images. The synthesized pseudo moiré images then form pairs with the real moiré-free images for training demoiréing networks. To this end, as shown in Fig. 3, we first split images into patches. These moiré patches are further grouped using a moiré prior that takes into consideration frequency and color information in each patch (Zhang et al. 2023). Consequently, moiré patches within each group fall into similar complexity such that they can be better processed by the individual moiré synthesis network. Specifically, the introduced synthesis network contains four modules including a moiré feature encoder to extract moiré features of real moiré patches, a generator to synthesize pseudo moiré patches, a discriminator to identify real or pseudo moiré patches, and a content encoder to retain content information of real clean patches in synthesized pseudo moiré patches. The whole framework is conducted in an adversarial training manner (Goodfellow et al. 2014) for a better moiré image generation.

Before paired with real moiré-free images for training demoiréing networks, the synthesized moiré patches further undergo an adaptive denoise process to rule out these low-quality moiré patterns that bear image detail loss. Concretely, we find low-quality pseudo moiré leads to a large

structure difference from its moiré-free counterpart, which therefore can be removed if the difference score is beyond a threshold adaptive to a particular percentile of the overall structure differences. Experiments in Table 1 and Table 2 demonstrate that, the proposed UnDeM improves the compared baseline by a large margin, on the real moiré image dataset. For example, when trained with a size of 384, MBCNN (Zheng et al. 2020) trained on the synthetic images from our UnDeM achieves 19.89 dB in PSNR on FHD_{Mi} (He et al. 2020), while obtaining 19.36 dB from cyclic moiré learning (Park et al. 2022) and only 9.32 dB from shooting simulation. Such results not only demonstrate our efficacy, but also enlighten a new moiré generation method for the demoiréing community.

Related Work

Image Demoiréing

Image demoiréing target at cleansing moiré patterns in taken photos. Earlier studies resort to some property presumptions of moiré patterns, such as space-variant filters (Siddiqui, Boutin, and Bouman 2009; Sun, Li, and Sun 2014), a low-rank constrained sparse matrix decomposition (Liu, Yang, and Yue 2015; Yang et al. 2017a), and layer decomposition (Yang et al. 2017b). Along with the surge of deep learning on many computer vision tasks, demoiréing also benefits from the convolutional neural networks (CNNs) recently. As the pioneering study, Sun *et al.* (Sun, Yu, and Wang 2018) developed DMCNN, a multi-scale CNN, to remove moiré patterns at different frequencies and scales. He *et al.* (He et al. 2019) proposed MopNet that is specially designed for unique properties of moiré patterns including frequencies, colors, and appearances. Zheng *et al.* (Zheng et al. 2020) introduced a multi-scale bandpass convolutional neural network (MBCNN) that consists of a learnable bandpass filter and a two-step tone mapping strategy to respectively deal with frequency prior and color shift. Liu *et al.* (Liu et al. 2020) designed WNet that removes moiré patterns in the wavelet domain to effectively separate moiré patterns from image details. In (He et al. 2020), a multi-stage framework FHDe²Net is proposed. FHDe²Net employs a global to local cascaded removal branch to erase multi-scale moiré patterns and a frequency-based branch to reserve fine details. Yu *et al.* (Yu et al. 2022) designed the ESDNet that utilizes the computationally-efficient semantic-aligned scale-aware module to enhance the network’s capability. However, all these mentioned approaches require large amounts of moiré and moiré-free pairs. To solve this limitation, a cycle loss is further constructed to simultaneously train a pseudo moiré generator and a demoiréing network (Park et al. 2022; Yue et al. 2021). Very differently, our proposed UnDeM does not involve demoiréed network in the moiré synthesis stage.

Moiréing Dataset

Since data-driven CNN-based algorithms require large amount of paired moiré and moiré-free images to complete the training, many efforts have been devoted to constructing large-scale image pairs. Sun *et al.* (Sun, Yu, and Wang 2018) built the first real-world moiré image dataset from

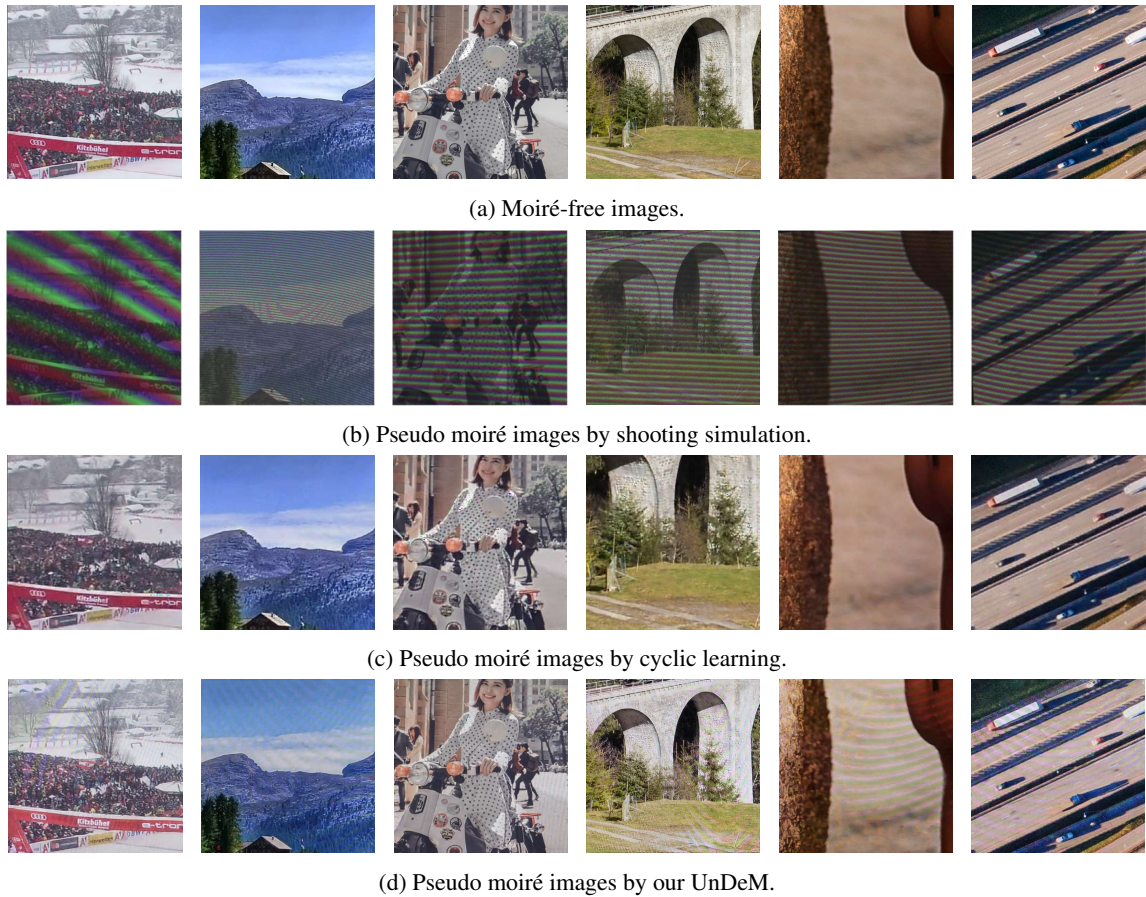


Figure 2: Visual examples of (a) real moiré-free images; (b) pseudo moiré images by shooting simulation (Niu, Guo, and Wang 2021); (c) pseudo moiré images by cyclic learning (Park et al. 2022); (d) pseudo moiré images by our UnDeM. Compared with details-missing and inauthentic pseudo moiré images by shooting simulation and (Park et al. 2022), ours result in more diverse moiré patterns and preserve more details of the moiré-free images. Best view by zooming in.

ImageNet (Russakovsky et al. 2015). He *et al.* (He et al. 2020) proposed the first high-resolution moiré image dataset FHDMi to satisfy the practical application in the real world. Yu *et al.* (Yu et al. 2022) further proposed the ultra-high-definition demoiréing dataset UHDM containing 4K images. Nevertheless, the data preparation process requires huge human efforts, and the resulting datasets are confined to limited scenes. To avoid the drudgery of collecting real-world paired moiré and moiré-free images, shooting simulation that simulates the camera imaging process becomes a more valuable approach (Liu, Shu, and Wu 2018; Yuan et al. 2019). However, the synthetic data fails to model the real imaging process and leads to a large domain gap between synthetic data and real data. As a result, demoiréing models trained on synthetic data are incapable of handling real-world scenarios.

Methodology

Our UnDeM contains image preprocessing, moiré synthesis network, and adaptive denoise, which are detailed one by one in the following.

Image Preprocessing

Moiré patterns vary significantly even within one single image. It is challenging for one single network to learn all cases. To better learn from these different moiré patterns, we apply an isolated moiré synthesis network to deal with moiré patterns with similar complexity. We first split images in moiré set \mathcal{I}^m into non-overlapping patches, leading to a moiré patch set $\mathcal{P}^m = \{p_i^m\}_{i=1}^N$, where N is the number of patches for the whole moiré patch set. Similarly, we can have an M -size moiré-free patch set $\mathcal{P}^f = \{p_i^f\}_{i=1}^M$ for \mathcal{I}^f . As illustrated in Fig. 3, we divide the moiré set \mathcal{P}^m into K subsets $\mathcal{P}^m = \mathcal{P}_1^m \cup \mathcal{P}_2^m \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{P}_K^m$. Each \mathcal{P}_j^m contains moiré patches with similar complexity and any two subsets are disjoint. Zhang *et al.* (Zhang et al. 2023) showed that a perceptible moiré pattern is highlighted by either high frequency or rich color information. Following (Zhang et al. 2023), given a moiré patch $p^m \in \mathcal{P}$, whose frequency is measured by a Laplacian edge detection operator $\mathcal{F}(p^m)$ with kernel size of 3 (Marr and Hildreth 1980). In addition, the colorfulness, denoted as $\mathcal{C}(p^m)$, is the linear combination of the mean and standard deviation of the pixel cloud in the color plane of

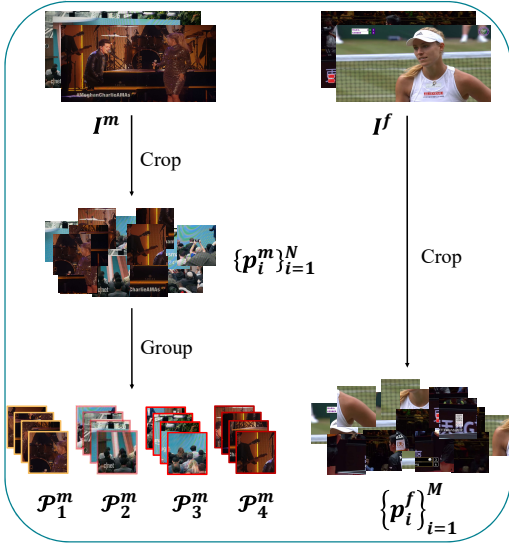


Figure 3: Image preprocessing. Both moiré images I^m and unpaired moiré-free images I^f are split into patches. Patches from moiré images are further grouped in compliance with the complexity of moiré patterns.

RGB colour space (Hasler and Suesstrunk 2003):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C}(p^m) &= \sqrt{\sigma^2(p_R^m - p_G^m) + \sigma^2(0.5(p_R^m + p_G^m) - p_B^m)} \\ &+ 0.3\sqrt{\mu^2(p_R^m - p_G^m) + \mu^2(0.5(p_R^m + p_G^m) - p_B^m)}, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where $\sigma(\cdot)$ and $\mu(\cdot)$ return standard deviation and mean value of inputs, the p_R^m , p_G^m , and p_B^m denote the red, green, and blue color channels of p^m .

We set $K = 4$ and obtain four evenly-sized subsets of moiré patches, each of which has distinctive moiré features. The first group \mathcal{P}_1^m contains patches with the first $N/4$ smallest $\mathcal{F}(p^m) \cdot \mathcal{C}(p^m)$, thus it has moiré patterns of low frequency and less color. We sort the remaining patches from the smallest to the largest with a new metric $\mathcal{F}(p^m)/\mathcal{C}(p^m)$. Then \mathcal{P}_2^m consists of the first $N/4$ patches highlighted by low frequency but rich color. The middle $N/4$ patches form \mathcal{P}_3^m featured with high frequency and rich color. The $N/4$ smallest scored patches with high frequency but less color make up with \mathcal{P}_4^m . Fig. 4 gives some visual examples.

Moiré Synthesis Network

Fig. 5 depicts an overall framework of our moiré synthesis network \mathcal{T}_i to learn moiré patterns from the group \mathcal{P}_i^m . It consists of a moiré feature encoder E^m , a generator G^m , a discriminator D^m , and a content encoder E^c . Given an unpaired moiré patch $p^m \in \mathcal{P}_i^m$ and a moiré-free patch $p^f \in \mathcal{P}^f$, our motivation is to produce a pseudo moiré \tilde{p}^m that possesses the moiré pattern of p^m while still retaining image details of p^f , such that (\tilde{p}^m, p^f) forms moiré and moiré-free pairs to guide the learning of existing demoiré networks.

To fulfill this objective, the moiré feature encoder E^m extracts the moiré features of the real moiré patch p^m , denoted

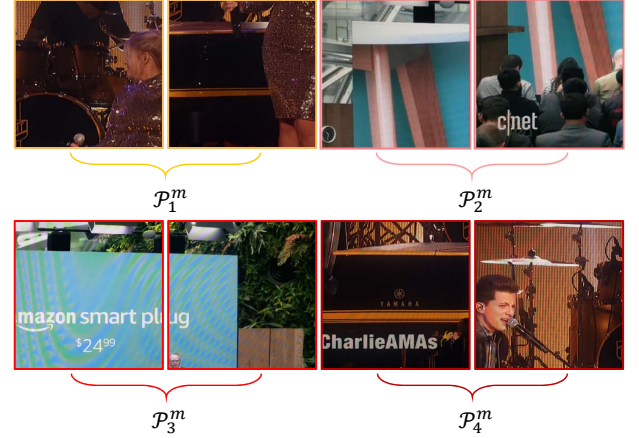


Figure 4: An illustration of moiré images of each group. Each group has its own moiré patterns complexity.

as F^m :

$$F^m = E^m(p^m). \quad (2)$$

Then, the generator G^m is to synthesize a pseudo moiré patch \tilde{p}^m with F^m and p^f as its inputs:

$$\tilde{p}^m = G^m(\text{Con}(F^m, p^f)), \quad (3)$$

where $\text{Con}(\cdot, \cdot)$ indicates the concatenation operation.

The discriminator D^m cooperates with the generator G^m for a better pseudo moiré patch in an adversarial training manner (Goodfellow et al. 2014). The generator G^m is trained to trick the discriminator D^m by:

$$\mathcal{L}^{\text{dis-G}} = (D^m(\tilde{p}^m) - 1)^2. \quad (4)$$

The least squares loss function (Mao et al. 2017) is used for a better training stability. Also, D^m is trained to distinguish the pseudo moiré patch \tilde{p}^m from the real p^m :

$$\mathcal{L}^{\text{dis-D}} = (D^m(\tilde{p}^m))^2 + (D^m(p^m) - 1)^2. \quad (5)$$

The loss functions of Eq. (4) and Eq. (5) are optimized in a min-max game manner. As a result, D^m learns to distinguish the pseudo moiré and the real moiré images, while the moiré feature encoder E^m is forced to learn to extract the moiré feature appropriately and the generator G^m learns to synthesize real-like and in-distribution pseudo moiré images. In addition, we also require moiré feature of synthesized \tilde{p}^m to follow that of real p^m by:

$$\tilde{F}^m = E^m(\tilde{p}^m), \quad (6)$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{\text{fea}} = \|\tilde{F}^m - F^m\|_1, \quad (7)$$

where $\|\cdot\|_1$ denotes the ℓ_1 loss. To well pair \tilde{p}^m and p^f , \tilde{p}^m is also expected to have contents details of p^f . An additional content encoder E^c is introduced to align content features between \tilde{p}^m and p^f as:

$$\mathcal{L}^{\text{con}} = \|E^c(\tilde{p}^m) - E^c(p^f)\|_1. \quad (8)$$

Combining Eq. (4), Eq. (5), Eq. (7), and Eq. (8) leads to our final loss function as:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^{\text{dis-G}} + \mathcal{L}^{\text{dis-D}} + \mathcal{L}^{\text{fea}} + \mathcal{L}^{\text{con}}. \quad (9)$$

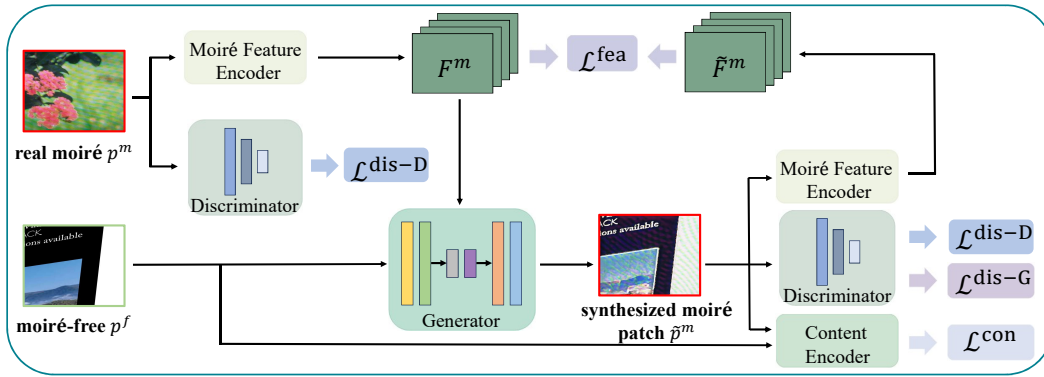


Figure 5: Framework of our moiré synthesis network.

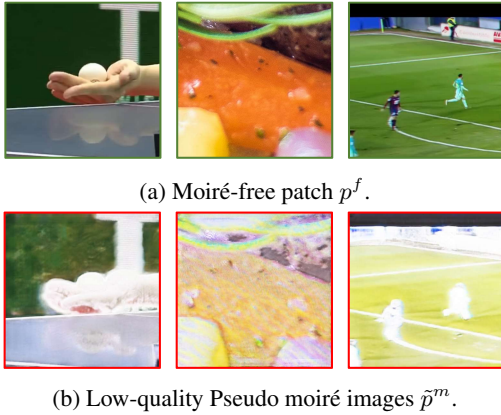


Figure 6: Examples of low-quality pseudo moiré images.

Adaptive Denoise

After training our moiré synthesis networks $\{\mathcal{T}_i\}_{i=1}^4$, the pseudo moiré patch \tilde{p}^m , paired with corresponding moiré-free patch p^f , sets the dataset to train demoiréing network. Unfortunately, we find some pseudo moiré patches occasionally suffer from low-quality issues. Some examples are manifested in Fig. 6, where the contents and details of p^f are destroyed in \tilde{p}^m . Such noisy data hinders the learning of demoiréing models.

Fortunately, we observe in Fig. 6 that the ruined structure mostly attributes to the edge information. Therefore, we calculate the edge map of each patch by the Laplacian edge detection operator, and the structure difference is computed by summing up the absolute value of the edge difference between each pseudo pair. Low-quality pseudo moiré leads to a large score of structure difference, and we can rule out these pairs as long as the score is beyond a threshold that is adaptive to the γ -th percentile of structure differences in a total of N pseudo pairs. We conduct the above process for each synthesis network \mathcal{T}_i and set a corresponding γ_i to remove low-quality pseudo moiré. We find $N = 6,400$ performs well already. Consequently, we obtain a better performance.

In summary, our UnDeM consists of 1) training a moiré synthesis network for synthesizing pseudo moiré images; 2)

training a demoiréing model based on the trained moiré synthesis network. This paper focuses on addressing moiré image generation. As for demoiréing models, we directly borrow from existing studies. Details of training algorithms are listed in the supplementary materials.

Experiment

Implementation Details

Datasets. Public demoiréing datasets used in this paper include the FHDMi (He et al. 2020) dataset and UHDM (Yu et al. 2022) dataset. The FHDMi dataset consists of 9,981 image pairs for training and 2,019 image pairs for testing with 1920×1080 resolution. The UHDM dataset contains 5,000 image pairs with 4K resolution in total, of which 4,500 are used for training and 500 for testing. We use the training set to train the proposed moiré synthesis network. For image preprocessing, we crop the training images of FHDMi into 8 patches. For UHDM involving images with higher resolution, we crop the training images into 6 patches. During training, the moiré patch p^m and moiré-free patch p^f are selected from different original images (before image preprocessing) to ensure they are unpaired.

Networks. We implement our UnDeM using the Pytorch framework (Paszke et al. 2019). The architecture of moiré synthesis network is largely based on (Hu et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2021). E^m and E^c contain one convolutional layer and two residual blocks. G^m contains three convolutional layers, nine residual blocks, and two deconvolutional layers, and ends with a convolutional layer to produce the final output. The residual blocks constitute two convolutional layers that are followed by instance normalization and ReLU function (Ulyanov, Vedaldi, and Lempitsky 2016). The convolutional layer has 16 channels for E^m and E^c and 128 for G^m . D^m is borrowed from PatchGAN (Isola et al. 2017) and consists of three convolutional layers with a stride of 2, two convolutional layers with a stride of 1, and ends with an average pooling layer. For demoiréing models, we utilize MBCNN (Zheng et al. 2020) and ESDNet-L (Yu et al. 2022) (A large version of ESDNet).

The moiré synthesis network is trained using the Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba 2014), where the first momentum and second momentum are set to 0.9 and 0.999, respec-

Model	C.S.	Method	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow
MBCNN	192	Paired	22.49	0.815	0.191
		Shooting	10.66	0.477	0.570
		Cyclic	19.15	0.722	0.257
	384	UnDeM	19.45	0.732	0.230
		Paired	22.73	0.819	0.182
		Shooting	9.32	0.513	0.572
ESDNet-L	192	Cyclic	19.36	0.733	0.265
		UnDeM	19.89	0.735	0.226
		Paired	22.86	0.823	0.143
	384	Shooting	10.06	0.558	0.487
		Cyclic	19.09	0.738	0.241
		UnDeM	19.38	0.749	0.228
ESDNet-L	192	Paired	23.45	0.834	0.134
		Shooting	9.81	0.553	0.512
		Cyclic	19.05	0.715	0.273
	384	UnDeM	19.66	0.747	0.205
		Paired	22.86	0.823	0.143
		Shooting	10.06	0.558	0.487

Table 1: Quantitative results on the FHDMi dataset. The ‘‘C.S.’’ denotes size in the random crop and the ‘‘Paired’’ denotes real paired data.

tively. We use 100 epochs for training with a batch size of 4 and an initial learning rate of 2×10^{-4} , which is linearly decayed to 0 in the last 50 epochs. Besides, we perform different random crop sizes on the image patches after image preprocessing to validate the flexibility of our method for synthesizing pseudo moiré images. The crop sizes are set to 192×192 and 384×384 for FHDMi, and 192×192 , 384×384 , and 768×768 for UHDM, respectively. As for the demoiré models, we retain the same training configurations as the original paper except that all models are trained for 150 epochs for a fair comparison. All networks are initialized using a Gaussian distribution with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 0.02. The γ_1 , γ_2 , γ_3 , and γ_4 for adaptive denoise are empirically set to 50, 40, 30, and 20, respectively¹. All experiments are run on NVIDIA A100 GPUs.

Evaluation Protocols. We adopt the Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR), Structure Similarity (SSIM) (Wang et al. 2004), and LPIPS (Zhang et al. 2018) to quantitatively evaluate the performance of demoiré models.

Quantitative Results

FHDMi. We first analyze the performance on the FHDMi dataset by comparing our UnDeM against the baseline, *i.e.*, the results of the shooting simulation (Niu, Guo, and Wang 2021) and cyclic learning (Park et al. 2022). Table 1 shows that the performance of demoiré models trained on data produced by shooting simulation is extremely poor. For example, MBCNN obtains only 10.66 dB of PSNR when trained with 192×192 crop size, which indicates the existence of a large domain gap between the pseudo and real data. Both the cyclic learning method (Park et al. 2022) and our UnDeM exhibit much better results. Moreover, compared with (Park et al. 2022), our UnDeM successfully mod-

¹Ablations on γ_i and each component in UnDeM are provided in the supplementary materials.

Model	C.S.	Method	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow
MBCNN	192	Paired	20.14	0.760	0.346
		Shooting	8.99	0.528	0.632
		Cyclic	17.42	0.663	0.464
	384	UnDeM	17.96	0.673	0.425
		Paired	20.14	0.759	0.356
		Shooting	9.27	0.538	0.603
ESDNet-L	384	Cyclic	17.68	0.665	0.476
		UnDeM	17.78	0.668	0.401
		Paired \dagger	21.41	0.793	0.332
	768	Shooting	9.33	0.543	0.605
		Cyclic	17.98	0.719	0.503
		UnDeM	18.13	0.723	0.360
ESDNet-L	192	Paired	21.30	0.786	0.258
		Shooting	9.80	0.606	0.544
		Cyclic	18.02	0.659	0.371
	384	UnDeM	18.30	0.662	0.365
		Paired	21.18	0.785	0.257
		Shooting	10.27	0.604	0.522
ESDNet-L	384	Cyclic	17.75	0.679	0.404
		UnDeM	18.18	0.688	0.361
		Paired \dagger	22.12	0.799	0.245
	768	Shooting	9.80	0.599	0.542
		Cyclic	18.00	0.697	0.423
		UnDeM	18.40	0.713	0.344

Table 2: Quantitative results on the UHDM dataset. The ‘‘C.S.’’ denotes size in the random crop and the ‘‘Paired’’ denotes real paired data. The ‘‘ \dagger ’’ indicates results directly copied from (Yu et al. 2022).

els the moiré patterns and thus presents the highest performance. For instance, MBCNN respectively obtains 19.45 dB and 19.89 dB of PSNR when trained with crop sizes of 192 and 384. For ESDNet-L, the PSNR results are 19.38 dB and 19.66 dB, respectively. Correspondingly, the SSIM and LPIPS of our UnDeM also exhibit much better performance than shooting simulation and cyclic learning.

UHDM. The results on the UHDM dataset are provided in Table 2. Demoiré models trained on shooting simulation still fail to deal with the real data, and cyclic learning provides better results. More importantly, our UnDeM surpasses these two methods over different networks and training sizes. Specifically, the UnDeM increases the PSNR by 0.54 dB, 0.10 dB, and 0.15 dB when training MBCNN with crop sizes of 192, 384, and 768, respectively. For ESDNet-L, the PSNR gains are 0.28 dB, 0.43 dB, and 0.40, respectively. To summarize from Table 1 and Table 2, we can conclude that the transferability of our produced moiré images to the downstream demoiré tasks and the efficacy of our UnDeM over existing methods have therefore been well demonstrated.

Qualitative Results

Qualitative comparisons of demoiré images on UHDM dataset are presented in Fig. 7, with additional results provided in the supplementary materials. As shown in Figure

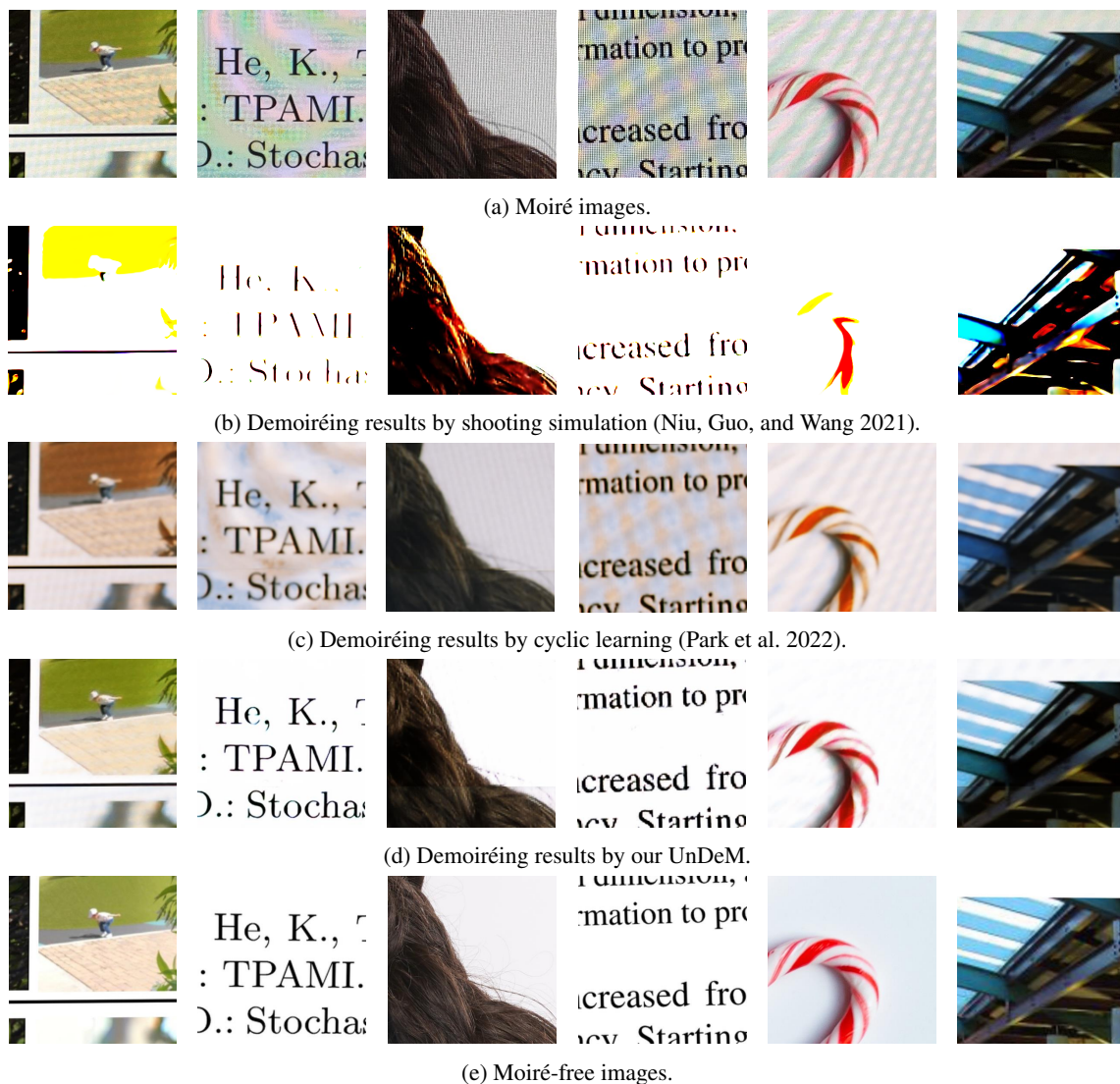


Figure 7: Visualization of demoiré results of MBCNN (Crop Size: 768) on the UHDM dataset. For the convenience of demonstration, we crop the patch from the test image.

7b, the demoiréing results of shooting simulation exhibit unnaturally high brightness, leading to a loss of image detail. This decrease in visual quality can be blamed on the generally darker brightness of shooting simulation as shown in Fig. 2b, which makes the demoiréing model learning incorrect brightness relationship between the moiré and moiré-free images. As presented in Fig. 7c, the demoiréing model fails to remove moiré due to cyclic learning cannot model the moiré patterns as illustrated in Fig. 2c. Results in Fig. 7d demonstrate the efficacy of UnDeM in removing moiré patterns, reflecting the fact that UnDeM has the ability to successfully model the moiré patterns.

Conclusion

In this paper, we present UnDeM that performs real image demoiréing using unpaired real data in a learning-based

manner. We synthesize pseudo moiré images to form paired data for training off-the-shelf demoiréing models. The proposed UnDeM contains three steps including image preprocessing, a moiré generation network, and adaptive denoise. The image preprocessing crops the real moiré images into multiple sub-image patches and groups them into four groups according to the moiré patterns complexity. A moiré generation network is applied to synthesize a pseudo moiré image that has the moiré feature as its input real moiré image and the image detail as its input moiré-free image. The adaptive denoise is introduced to rule out the low-quality synthetic moiré images for avoiding their adverse effects on the learning of demoiréing models. UnDeM is demonstrated to improve the quality of synthetic images and the demoiréing models trained on these images are experimentally shown to be superior in performance.

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