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Event-guided Low-light Video Semantic Segmentation

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Abstract

Recent video semantic segmentation (VSS) methods have demonstrated promising results in well-lit environments. However, their performance significantly drops in low-light scenarios due to limited visibility and reduced contextual details. In addition, unfavorable low-light conditions make it harder to incorporate temporal consistency across video frames and thus, lead to video flickering effects. Compared with conventional cameras, event cameras can capture motion dynamics, filter out temporal-redundant information, and are robust to lighting conditions. To this end, we propose EVSNet, a lightweight framework that leverages event modality to guide the learning of a unified illuminationinvariant representation. Specifically, we leverage a Motion Extraction Module to extract short-term and long-term temporal motions from event modality and a Motion Fusion Module to integrate image features and motion features adaptively. Furthermore, we use a Temporal Decoder to exploit video contexts and generate segmentation predictions. Such designs in EVSNet result in a lightweight architecture while achieving SOTA performance. Experimental results on 3 large-scale datasets demonstrate our proposed EVS-Net outperforms SOTA methods with up to $11 \times$ higher parameter efficiency.

1. Introduction

Video semantic segmentation, a problem of assigning a category label to each pixel in the video frames, has become a hot research topic in recent years. It plays a fundamental role in a wide range of multimedia and computer vision applications including video parsing [30, 36], video processing [3, 34, 71], and autonomous driving [25, 69, 75, 76].

While video semantic segmentation of normal light scenes has made tremendous achievements [34, 41, 49, 54, 74], low-light scenarios are still challenging due to limited visibility and degraded image quality. In low-light conditions, conventional frame-based cameras have difficulty capturing a wide range of brightness levels, resulting in low contrast and loss of textures. The reduced contrast hinders Mooi Choo Chuah Lehigh University chuah@cse.lehigh.edu



Figure 1. Comparison among (a) normal light frame, (b) lowlight frame, (c) events generated from normal light frames, and (d) events generated from low-light frames. Events demonstrate robustness against lighting changes and effectively capture temporal motion features in low-light environments.

accurate discrimination of object boundaries, ultimately diminishing clarity and fidelity of the captured images. In addition to limited visibility, low-light semantic segmentation is also challenging because of luminance noise. Severe noises caused by constrained photon counts and imperfections in photodetectors manifest as random bright or dark pixels scattered throughout the whole image. Such noises often lead to inaccurate segmentation predictions.

To resolve the above issues, researchers have explored event cameras as an alternate sensing modality. Event sensors asynchronously measure sparse data streams at high temporal resolution (10µs vs 3ms), higher dynamic range (120dB vs 60dB), and significantly lower energy (10mW vs 3W) compared to conventional cameras. In recent years, it has been increasingly utilized in the computer vision [5, 18, 24, 27, 35, 48] and robotics [53, 58] community. Researchers have explored event modality in many tasks such as 3D reconstruction [77], pose estimation [5], and simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) [19].

Instead of capturing an image at a fixed interval, the event cameras, such as the Dynamic Vision Sensor (DVS), only record a single event based on the brightness changes



Figure 2. Different from existing approach which fuse event features in the encoder, our model utilizes event features to learn short-term and long-term motions and leverage these motion features to gain video temporal contexts.

at each pixel. This makes it suitable for edge-case scenarios and video-related tasks. For low-light video semantic segmentation task, event modality offers two advantages: (1) it facilitates the learning of temporal consistency; (2) it provides an alternative perspective through intensity changes. Figure. 1 explains the potential of event modality in lowlight conditions. Although bringing a new paradigm shift, event modality presents two challenges: firstly, it only captures pixels in motion, leading to sparse information; secondly, it demonstrates distinct attributes compared with visual image modality, highlighting the significance of effectively modeling event features.

To address the above challenges, we propose a lightweight framework, namely EVSNet, that exploits both image and event modalities for low-light video semantic segmentation. Figure. 2 illustrates the difference between existing works and our approach. The architecture of EVS-Net is shown in Figure. 3. It consists of three parts: an Image Encoder, a Motion Extraction Module, a Motion Fusion Module, and a Temporal Decoder. Specifically, we first adopt a lightweight backbone as the Image Encoder to extract image features. Inspired by Atkinson-Shiffrin memory model [2] which hypothesizes that the human memory consists of short memory and long memory, we then propose a Motion Extraction Module to extract short-term and long-term motion features and acquire the video contexts to guide semantic understanding through such motions. We apply Event Encoder to extract event features (can be seen as short-term motions between 2 consecutive frames) and leverage the Temporal Convolutional Block to learn longterm motions. Furthermore, we devise a Motion Fusion Module to integrate image and motion features adaptively. It contains a Channel Attention layer and a Spatial Attention Layer to blend cross-channel and spatial information. By leveraging both modalities, EVSNet extracts richer and complementary information, leading to more accurate segmentation compared to the single modality. Finally, we use a Temporal Decoder to exploit video contexts and generate final predictions. Extensive evaluations using three largescale low-light datasets show EVSNet results in better semantic segmentation results.

In summary, our contributions to this paper include:

- We propose EVSNet, a lightweight framework that exploits image and event modality. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to introduce event modality to video semantic segmentation task. Event information focuses on the motion changes and thus can be used to learn better short and long-term temporal consistent representations.
- We propose a Motion Extraction Module (MEM) and a Motion Fusion Module (MFM) for learning temporal motion and adaptively learning the spatial and channel-wise relationship between image and motion features. Unlike existing extraction and fusion modules, our design alleviates misalignment while lowering computational cost.
- We conduct experiments to evaluate our EVSNet model using three large-scale low-light video semantics segmentation datasets and demonstrate its effectiveness using standard segmentation metrics. Compared to SOTA models with similar parameter efficiency and inference cost, our EVSNet achieves superior performance on these 3 datasets.

2. Related Works

2.1. Event-Based Semantic Segmentation

Event cameras have the potential for semantic segmentation and there have been several efforts exploring event modality. Some researchers use knowledge distillation [47] to solve domain shift problems. ESS [51] proposed to leverage unsupervised domain adaptation by aligning event features with image features. EvDistill [55] designed a student network on unlabeled event data to distill knowledge from a teacher network trained with labeled data. Some researchers use other ways to encode event features. Ev-SegNet [1] built an Xception-based CNN to train on event data. HALSIE [4] proposed to use hybrid spiking neural networks [20] and convolution neural networks to extract spatiotemporal features to combine events and frames.

While researchers started to exploit event modality for semantic segmentation, most works [7, 32] didn't explore how to effectively fuse the multimodality and alleviate misalignment. Unlike existing approaches, our design learns longer term motion features from event data, and fuse such features with image features at a later stage. Such a design yields better segmentation results.

2.2. Low-light Semantic Segmentation

Low-light semantic segmentation has been popular in recent years. Due to the absence of a real-world low-light segmentation dataset in early stages, some previous methods [56, 65] utilized domain adaptation to transfer knowledge from the normal light domain to the low-light domain. DANNet [64] designed a domain adaptation network utilizing an annotated normal light dataset as the source domain and an unlabeled dataset that contains coarsely matched image pairs (the target normal light and low-light domains). It used multi-target adaptation and re-weighting strategy to enhance the accuracy. LISU [73] devised a cascade framework to enhance segmentation predictions of low-light scenarios by jointly learning semantic segmentation and reflectance restoration. [16] utilized semantic segmentation as guidance to help the Retinex-based model learn low-light image enhancement based on structural and semantic prior. It reduces noise and color distortion and improves visual quality in low-light environments.

2.3. Video Semantic Segmentation

Video semantic segmentation, compared to image segmentation, exploits temporal information in consecutive frames leveraging motion cues and temporal context. Some researchers [17, 26, 29, 43, 67] utilized optical flow to warp features from frames and then aggregate wrapped features. EVS [45] proposed a novel Refiner to Warp semantic information and IAM focusing on regions where the optical flow is unreliable. Accel [26] proposed to use a reference branch for extracting fine-grained features from keyframes and warping features using optical flow, and an update branch for performing a temporal update on the current frame. DEVA [11] developed bi-directional propagation fusing of segmentation hypotheses and current segmentation results to predict coherent labels. Further works focus on how to model temporal consistency between frames [22, 28, 44, 49, 50]. CFFM [49] proposed coarse-to-fine feature assembling and cross-frame feature mining. The former extracted fine-grain and coarse-grain features while the latter mined temporal relations based on focal features. Video K-Net [34] proposed a unified framework for multiple video segmentation tasks but requires separate training for each task.

Despite the promising results, existing approaches do not learn temporal motion features well. NetWarp [17] wraps previous frame to learn temporal motions, but it fails to consider long-term motion contexts. MRCFA [50] models cross-frame temporal relations, but it fails to model relation between short-term and long-term temporal motions. In addition, SOTA methods [21, 33, 44, 46] learn temporal motions from image modality. It is suboptimal because of the complexity of capturing and interpreting dynamic changes from static images over time. Requiring the model to effectively differentiate between spatial and temporal information in low-light conditions is extremely challenging due to both low image contrast and ambiguity of object boundaries. This paper highlights a new direction of mining both short and long-term motions from the event modality and is compatible with most of the encoder-decoder architecture in Video Semantic Segmentation task.

3. Methodology

3.1. Motivation

In low-light scenarios, where visibility is severely compromised, conventional cameras often fail to provide adequate information for robust segmentation due to the low contrast between objects. Furthermore, noise and blur introduced by RGB cameras in low-light environments cause image quality degradation. Video semantic segmentation models designed for normal light scenarios thus cannot clearly capture low-level and high-level features in each video frame and have difficulty acquiring scene understanding capabilities [6]. Adding extra denoising/restoration steps or modules brings excessive computational cost and exacerbates the overall latency of the pipeline.

The event modality, characterized by its ability to capture dynamic changes (such as motion and sudden illumination alterations) in the scene, offers valuable structural and motional information that is not captured by conventional cameras. It naturally responds to motion and is especially suitable for video-related tasks. By integrating the event modality alongside image modality, the model exploits complementary sources of richer semantic information, understands more comprehensively about the environment, and ultimately enhances segmentation accuracy and robustness. Hence, the model can better adapt to challenging low-light conditions and offer a promising avenue for improving performance and applicability in real-world scenarios.

3.2. Problem Formulation

Assuming there is an input video clip containing l + 1video frames $\{I_t, I_{t-k_1}, ..., I_{t-k_l}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ with corresponding per-frame ground-truth segmentation label $\{S_t, S_{t-k_1}, ..., S_{t-k_l}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 1}$. Note that I_t is referred as current frame and $\{I_{t-k_1}, ..., I_{t-k_l}\}$ are l previous frames which are $\{k_1, ..., k_l\}$ frames away from I_t . They are defined as reference frames. Our objective is to make pixel-wise segmentation on I_t .

Event cameras capture the changes in intensities for each pixel and output a stream of events. One event e_i is represented as the 4-tuple: $e_i = [x_i, y_i, p_i, t_i]$ where x_i, y_i indicates the spatial coordinates of the pixel where the brightness changes at timestamp t_i and polarity $p_i \in \{0, 1\}$ denotes either increasing or decreasing of the local brightness. Event simulators [23] usually transform the asyn-



Figure 3. Overview of EVSNet: Given a set of input RGB images $I_{t:t-k_3}$, the Image Encoder extracts image features at each scale and multi-scale features are aggregated in the Multi-scale Mixer. The Motion Extraction (MEM) Module is applied to extract short-term and long-term motions from event features generated by event simulator. The Motion Fusion (MFM) Module further aggregates both features adaptively. Finally, the Temporal Decoder combines fused features from all frames to learn the temporal consistency and predicts the final segmentation results.

chronous event flows into synchronous event image by stacking the events in a fixed time interval Δt . Similar to [42], we encode the event information as a one-channel grey-scale image to facilitate the learning of event modality. Event images of the given video clip are referred as $\{E_t, E_{t-k_1}, ..., E_{t-k_l}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 1}$ for each corresponding frame.

3.3. Method Overview

The proposed framework of EVSNet, as illustrated in Figure. 3, consists of an Image Encoder for feature extraction from image modality, a Motion Extraction Module (MEM) for extracting temporal motions from event modality, a Motion Fusion Module (MFM) for feature integration, and a Temporal Decoder for modeling temporal relations between frames and generating pixel-wise predictions.

Image Encoder. Given a current video frame $I_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$, the Image Encoder utilizes a lightweight pretrained backbone to extract multi-scale features and reduce the computational overhead. Specifically, we adopt two efficient architectures: Afformer (Base and Tiny) [15] and MiT (B0 and B1) [66]. In addition, the low-pass filter design in the backbone can help suppress noise generated in low-light conditions [6]. Note that the Image Encoder extracts feature maps from the current frame $I_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ and reference frames $\{I_{t-k_1}, ..., I_{t-k_l}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$, respectively. Finally, we leverage the MLP decoder in SegFormer [66] as the Multi-scale Mixer to aggregate multi-scale features $F_t^I \in \mathbb{R}^{H/4 \times W/4 \times C}$ where local features from earlier layers can be combined well with global features from the latter layers.

Motion Extraction Module. Similar to the Image Encoder, the Motion Extraction Module (MEM) uses a pretrained backbone on the event images $\{E_t, ..., E_{t-k_l}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 1}$ to generate event features $\{F_t^E, ..., F_{t-k_l}^E\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$. Subsequently, we pass event features through the Temporal Convolutional block to learn the long-term temporal relations. The Temporal Convolutional block extracts motion feature maps from the current and past l event frames to generate motion features F_t^m . For instance, for the current frame t, it outputs long-term motion features $F_t^m \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ based on $\{E_t, ..., E_{t-k_l}\}$. More details of the Motion Extraction Module are described in Section 3.4.

Motion Fusion Module. The output of the Image Encoder and Motion Extraction Module are passed through a Motion Fusion Module (MFM). Specifically, we apply a Channel Attention Layer to learn inter-channel dependencies of both features and then a Spatial Attention Layer to learn spatial structural details. It then feeds the updated features to the decoder. The MFM is lightweight and efficient while yielding a powerful representation, incorporating the



Figure 4. Illustration of Motion Fusion Module (MFM): From left to right, the components are Channel Attention Layer and Spatial Attention Layer.

short-term and long-term temporal contexts. More details of the Motion Fusion Module are described in Section 3.5.

Temporal Decoder. The Temporal Decoder takes the fused features from the image and motion features as input. The Temporal Decoder consists of several focal blocks from Focal Transformer [68]. It is applied to learn the temporal consistency of consecutive frames and further predicts the segmentation results $\hat{Y}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 1}$. More details of Temporal Decoder selections are elaborated in Section 4.7.

3.4. Motion Extraction Module

The image features contain more semantic and categoryaware information while the event features contain more structural and category-agnostic information [38]. There is a significant domain gap in the two modalities and how to alleviate the domain shift problem is important [8, 31, 57, 59–62, 78]. Some prior works directly fuse features from multiple scales or streams [4, 9], and other researchers introduce atrous spatial pyramid pooling or pyramid feature fusion modules to encode spatial dependencies [70]. However, pixels corresponding to the same scene points in the event and RGB images are recorded in different temporal resolutions, leading to severe misalignment, and this misalignment cannot be easily solved by multimodality fusion.

Based on the analysis of existing fusion modules above, we summarize the following design principles for our model: (1) The event modality is mainly used to extract temporal motions. Given that the event records brightness changes between two consecutive frames, it can be seen as short-term temporal motions. Inspired by Atkinson-Shiffrin memory model [2], we also leverage event modality to learn long-term temporal motions. (2) Directly integrating event features in RGB Image Encoder introduces misalignment and may affect the semantic understanding. Instead, we extract motion features and utilize such information to gain video contexts.

The Motion Extraction Module consists of 2 parts:

Event Encoder and Temporal Convolutional block. Given the input event frames $\{E_t, ..., E_{t-k_l}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 1}$, the Event Encoder extracts multi-scale high-level features $\{F_t^E, ..., F_{t-k_l}^E\} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$. The event features F^E are then fed to the Temporal Convolutional block. The block consists of a $2 \times 3 \times 3$ 3D Convolution layer, a $1 \times 3 \times 3$ 3D Convolution layer, a $2 \times H \times W$ 3D average pooling layer layer, and skip connections. Each operation above is preceded by a feature compression layer, which is a $1 \times 1 \times 1$ 3D Convolutional layer. For a specific frame t, the final output motion features F_t^m are the fused features after concatenation of short-term event features F_t^E and long-term motion features F_t^M as follows:

$$F_t^M = \text{ReLU}(\tau(AvgPool(\tau(f_2(\tau(f_1(F_t^E)))) + F_t^E)))$$
(1)

$$\boldsymbol{F_t^m} = \tau(\boldsymbol{F_t^E} \oplus \boldsymbol{F_t^M}) \tag{2}$$

where f_1 and f_2 represents $2 \times 3 \times 3$ and a $1 \times 3 \times 3$ 3D Convolution layer, τ represents $1 \times 1 \times 1$ 3D Convolution layer and $F_t^m \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 2C}$ represents the concatenated motion features.

3.5. Motion Fusion Module

Based on the two principles in Section 3.4, we propose a lightweight Motion Fusion Module (MFM) to adaptively aggregate image and event features from spatial and channel aspects and improve cross-modal generalization. Specifically, the MFM consists of one Channel Attention layer and one Spatial Attention layer.

Channel Attention Layer. The Channel Attention layer is based on the channel-wise attention mechanism [72] with two key modifications in Figure. 4. (1) Instead of using the image to query and focusing solely on each pixel to learn which channel is more important, we use the event image to query and compute cross-covariance across feature channels. It updates image features with the guide from the event information and focuses on more important channels based on the event modality's motional and structural perspective. (2) We add an additional 5×5 depth-wise convolution layer in parallel and remove the Feed Forward Networks (FFN) in the original attention blocks. Replacing FFN with the extra depth-wise convolution layer can greatly reduce the computational cost and potential feature misalignment between the two modalities.

Given the image F^{I} and motion feature maps F^{m} , the Channel Attention Layer first uses two parallel depth-wise convolution layers (3 × 3 and 5 × 5) and one 1 × 1 convolution layer for both inputs. Our design has two advantages: (1) it implicitly models contextual relationships between surrounding pixels; (2) it needs fewer computations than the standard convolutional layer. Afterward, it generates a query vector from the motion features and key/value vectors from image features:

$$Q = W_Q(f_3(F^m) \oplus f_4(F^m))$$
(3)

$$\boldsymbol{K} = \boldsymbol{W}_{\boldsymbol{K}}(\boldsymbol{f_3}(\boldsymbol{F^I}) \oplus \boldsymbol{f_4}(\boldsymbol{F^I})) \tag{4}$$

$$\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{W}_{\boldsymbol{V}}(\boldsymbol{f_3}(\boldsymbol{F^I}) \oplus \boldsymbol{f_4}(\boldsymbol{F^I})) \tag{5}$$

where \oplus denotes concatenation and f_3 and f_4 are 3×3 and 5×5 depth-wise convolution layer, respectively. The spatial resolution of input F^I and F^m is $\mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times \hat{C}}$.

We then reshape query and key projections such that their dot-product can be multiplied with the reshaped value projections. The updated image features F'_I after the Channel Attention Layer are:

$$\boldsymbol{F}^{\boldsymbol{I}\boldsymbol{\prime}} = \boldsymbol{V} \cdot \operatorname{softmax}((\boldsymbol{K} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q})/\alpha)$$
(6)

where $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{HW \times \hat{C}}$, $K \in \mathbb{R}^{\hat{C} \times HW}$ and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{HW \times \hat{C}}$ are reshaped tensors originally from the size $\mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times \hat{C}}$ and α is a learnable temperature parameter to adjust the magnitude of inner products.

Spatial Attention Layer. Our Spatial Attention Layer (SAL) is employed to capture spatially local and global contexts from both image and motion features. It is inspired by the spatial attention module in CBAM [63] because their design is more lightweight as a convolution-based attention module and provides fine-grained spatial relationships between pixels. Specifically, we first use max and average pooling operations across the channel on both feature inputs. These generated 4 feature maps are concatenated and fed into a multilayer perceptron block (MLP) to generate a spatial attention map A. The final output $F^{II'}$ after the Spatial Attention Layer is element-wise multiplication of A and input image features $F^{II'}$:

$$A(F^{I\prime}, F^{m}) = \sigma(f(MaxPool(F^{I\prime}) \oplus AvgPool(F^{I\prime}) \oplus MaxPool(F^{m}) \oplus AvgPool(F^{m})))$$
(7)

$$\boldsymbol{F}^{\boldsymbol{I}\boldsymbol{\prime\prime}} = \boldsymbol{F}^{\boldsymbol{I}\boldsymbol{\prime}} \odot \boldsymbol{A}(\boldsymbol{F}^{\boldsymbol{I}\boldsymbol{\prime}}, \boldsymbol{F}^{\boldsymbol{m}}) \tag{8}$$

where \oplus denotes concatenation, σ represents the activation function and f denotes a 7 × 7 convolution layer.

4. Experiments

4.1. Implementation Details

We implement our model using MMSegmentation [12] framework and run all experiments on 2 NVIDIA RTX A5000 GPUs. For training, we use 160000 iterations with a batch size of 2. For the backbone, we adopt the Afformer (Base and Tiny) [15] and MiT (B0 and B1) [66] pre-trained

on ImageNet-1K dataset [14]. We train the entire model using AdamW optimizer [40] and poly learning rate schedule with the initial learning rate 6e-5. The data augmentation used in our work includes random crop, random flipping, photometric distortion, and gamma correction distortion. During training, we crop size the RGB images and event images to size 480×480 for the low-light VSPW dataset [41], 512×1024 for the low-light Cityscapes dataset [13] and 512×512 for the NightCity dataset [52].

When selecting AFFormer-Tiny and AFFormer-Base as the backbone, we set the four scales as $\{1/4, 1/8, 1/8, 1/8\}$ of the input image spatial resolution. When using MiT-B0 and MiT-B1 as the backbone, the four scales are $\{1/4, 1/8, 1/16, 1/32\}$ of the input image spatial resolution.

Follow [49], our model uses l = 3 reference frames unless otherwise specified, and $\{k_1, k_2, k_3\} = \{3, 6, 9\}$.

4.2. Data Preparation

Following previous work [37], we synthesize a specific low-light video frame I_t from a normal light frame X_t using linear scaling and gamma correction:

$$\boldsymbol{I_t} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \times (\boldsymbol{\alpha} \times \boldsymbol{X_t})^{\gamma} \tag{9}$$

where α , β , γ are sampled from a uniform distribution U(0.9, 1), U(0.5, 1), U(2, 3.5), respectively.

To generate events based on the low-light videos, we use a popular video-to-event simulator v2e [23]. The event images have the same spatial resolution as video frames.

4.3. Datasets

Our experiments are mainly conducted on 2 synthetic (low-light VSPW dataset [41] and low-light Cityscapes dataset [13]) and 1 real-world datasets (NightCity dataset [52]). Details of how to generate synthetic low-light dataset are described in the supplementary material.

Low-light VSPW. It has 2806 videos (198244 frames) for the training set, 343 videos (24502 frames) for the validation set, and 387 videos (28887 frames) for the test set. It selects 231 indoor and outdoor scenes and contains 124 object categories. VSPW provides the per-frame pixel-level annotations at 15 FPS which allows video scene parsing models learn the temporal information.

Low-light Cityscapes. It is a large dataset for scene understanding of urban street scenarios. Cityscapes provides pixel-level annotations per 30 frames, containing 30 object categories. Overall, it has 3475 annotated images for train/val split and 1525 annotated images for test split from collected video sequences.

NightCity. It is a large dataset with urban driving scenes at nighttime designed for supervised semantic segmentation and contains 19 categories. Overall, it consists of 4,297 real night-time images with ground truth pixel-level semantic annotations from collected video sequences.

Table 1. Baseline comparisons on the low-light VSPW dataset [41]

Meth	nod	Backbone	mIoU ↑	Weighted IoU ↑	$mVC_8 \uparrow$	$mVC_{16}\uparrow$	$Params(M) \downarrow$	GFLOPs \downarrow
Event	EV-SegNet [1]	Xception	18.9	41.2	78.9	74.4	29.1	188.6
Event	ESS [51]	E2ViD	22.4	45.8	82.7	75.6	12.9	36.4
Event + Image-based	ESS [51]	E2ViD	21.6	43.6	81.5	74.7	12.9	36.4
Image-based	Mask2Former [10]	R50	18.1	42.0	78.3	73.4	44.0	110.6
Image-based	Mask2Former [10]	Swin-T	19.5	45.5	79.2	74.2	47.4	114.4
Video-based	TCB [41]	PSPNet	21.5	44.0	81.3	75.0	70.5	_
Video-based	TCB [41]	OCRNet	21.8	44.4	82.4	76.1	58.1	_
Video-based	MRCFA [50]	MiT-B0	16.1	36.1	74.2	68.9	5.3	48.2
Video-based	MRCFA [50]	MiT-B1	16.3	37.7	76.3	71.4	16.3	91.5
Video-based	CFFM [49]	MiT-B0	19.9	46.3	83.0	75.9	4.7	26.4
Video-based	CFFM [49]	MiT-B1	22.2	47.8	83.6	77.9	15.5	49.9
Video-based	EVSNet (Ours)	AFFormer-T	23.6	52.0	84.9	79.4	7.4	30.8
Video-based	EVSNet (Ours)	AFFormer-B	26.7	53.5	85.1	80.0	8.2	37.8
Video-based	EVSNet (Ours)	MiT-B0	28.2	55.7	87.0	82.1	9.0	30.1
Video-based	EVSNet (Ours)	MiT-B1	34.1	59.0	87.7	83.0	19.9	64.1

 Table 2. Baseline comparisons on Low-light Cityscapes dataset

 [13]

Method	Backbone	mIoU ↑	Params(M) \downarrow	GFLOPs \downarrow
ESS [51]	E2ViD	49.6	12.9	46.9
EV-SegNet [1]	Xception	41.1	29.1	245.2
MRCFA [50]	MiT-B0	42.1	5.3	77.5
MRCFA [50]	MiT-B1	45.7	16.3	145.0
CFFM [49]	MiT-B0	46.0	4.7	62.4
CFFM [49]	MiT-B1	50.3	15.5	118.3
EVSNet (Ours)	AFFormer-T	57.9	7.4	70.2
EVSNet (Ours)	AFFormer-B	60.9	8.2	86.0
EVSNet (Ours)	MiT-B0	59.6	9.0	70.9
EVSNet (Ours)	MiT-B1	63.2	19.9	150.1

4.4. Evaluation Metrics

We use mean Intersection over Union (mIoU) and Weighted IoU (WIoU) to measure the per-frame segmentation performance. Weighted IoU refers to the IoU weighted by total pixel ratio of each category [39]. Following [41], we also use Video Consistency (VC) to evaluate the temporal consistency across long-range adjacent frames category. Specifically, given a video clip with t frames, ground-truth labels are $S_{1:t}$. Assume the predicted segmentation masks are $\hat{Y}_{1:t}$, the video consistency of is defined as:

$$VC_t = \frac{(\boldsymbol{S_1} \cap \dots \cap \boldsymbol{S_t}) \cap (\hat{\boldsymbol{Y_1}} \cap \dots \cap \hat{\boldsymbol{Y_t}})}{(\hat{\boldsymbol{Y_1}} \cap \dots \cap \hat{\boldsymbol{Y_t}})} \qquad (10)$$

We use a sliding window to scan all videos with a stride of 1 and calculate the corresponding mean value mVC_8 and mVC_{16}

To evaluate the model size and computational efficiency, we compare the number of parameters of the model and Giga Floating-Point Operations per Second (GFLOPS).

4.5. Quantitative Results

We evaluate the performance of our proposed EVS-Net and other SOTA models on the low-light VSPW

Method	Backbone	mIoU↑	$Params(M) \downarrow$
DLV3P [51]	Res101	54.7	60.1
MRCFA [50]	MiT-B0	45.5	5.3
MRCFA [50]	MiT-B1	47.8	16.3
CFFM [49]	MiT-B0	47.2	4.7
CFFM [49]	MiT-B1	49.1	15.5
EVSNet (Ours)	MiT-B0	53.9	9.0
EVSNet (Ours)	MiT-B1	55.2	19.9

dataset in Table 1. SOTA models evaluated include Eventbased models (EV-SegNet [1]), Event+image-based models (ESS [51]), image-based models (Mask2Former [10]), and Video-based models (TCB [41], CFFM [49], MRCFA [50]) using their default settings. We train these SOTA models using the training set of the low-light VSPW dataset from scratch.

From the table, we see that EVSNet achieves an mIoU of 23.6, 26.7, 28.2, and 34.1 using the AFFormer-Tiny, AFFormer-Base, MiT-B0, and MiT-B1 backbone. It outperforms SOTA methods by a large margin on the low-light VSPW dataset. The mIoU increases by 54% and mVC_{16} increases by 7% with similar model size.

We additionally compare the performance of all models using the low-light Cityscapes dataset in Table 2. From the table, we found that EVSNet achieves a mIoU of 57.9, 60.9, 59.6, and 63.2 using the AFFormer-Tiny, AFFormer-Base, MiT-B0, and MiT-B1 backbone, which also outperforms other SOTA models. The mIoU increases by 26% with similar model size.

Similar gain is observed for NightCity in Table 3. EVS-Net achieves a mIoU of 53.9 & 55.2 using the MiT-B0 and MiT-B1 backbone, which shows significant improvement. The mIoU increases by 1% with only 1/3 model size.



Figure 5. Qualitative results on low-light VSPW dataset [41]. From left to right: the normal light video frames, low-light video frames, the ground truth, predictions of EVSNet (ours), and predictions of CFFM [49]. It shows that our model generates more robust and temporal consistent results, compared to the SOTA method. Best viewed in color.

Table 4. Ablation study of the arrangement of Motion Fusion Module

Methods	mIOU↑	$mVC_8\uparrow$	$mVC_{16}\uparrow$
No fusion (CFFM)	19.9	83.0	75.9
Channel	22.5	84.1	76.3
Spatial	21.2	83.7	75.9
Spatial + Channel	24.5	86.3	79.4
Channel & Spatial in parallel	27.3	85.2	80.7
Channel + Spatial (ours)	28.2	87.0	82.1

4.6. Qualitative Results

We visualize segmentation predictions on several video frames from the low-light VSPW dataset to better evaluate our proposed model, as shown in Figure. 5. We compare the qualitative results of our method with one SOTA model, CFFM [49] using its default settings. In CFFM's predictions, the category "ground" is mistakenly labeled as "stone" at the bottom, and "sky" around the person's arm is inaccurately identified as "tree", showing its struggle to recognize the object boundaries. EVSNet generates more accurate boundaries and resolves the temporal inconsistency issues of existing SOTA approaches, demonstrating the effectiveness of EVSNet.

4.7. Ablation Study

Design Choices for Motion Fusion Module: In our proposed Motion Fusion (MFM) Module, the Channel Attention Layer and Spatial Attention Layer can be placed in parallel or sequentially. We show the ablation study results of different arrangements in Table 4 using MiT-B0 backbone on the low-light VSPW dataset. Note that the no fusion option is the baseline (CFFM [49]) results without using any event data. From our observations, both the Channel Attention Layer and Spatial Attention Layer are valuable for the proposed EVSNet. We also found that the sequential arrangement gives better result than a parallel arrangement. Further experiments also show that moving the Channel Attention Layer ahead is slightly better than having the Spatial Attention Layer first.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel lightweight eventguided low-light video semantic framework, EVSNet. Inspired by Atkinson-Shiffrin memory model [2], we leverage event modality to estimate short-term and long-term motions and further solve the video temporal inconsistency issue in low-light environments. We validate our framework using 3 large-scale datasets, low-light VSPW, lowlight Cityscapes, and NightCity, and our design demonstrates significant improvements. Our results highlight the importance of effectively incorporating event features to capture motion and structural details.

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