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ABLUR: an FPGA-based adaptive deblurring core for real-time applications

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Abstract—If a camera moves while taking a picture, motion blur is induced. There exist mechanical techniques to prevent this effect to occur, but they are cumbersome and expensive. Considering for example an Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) engaged in a save and rescue mission, where recording frames of scene to identify people and animals to rescue is required. In such cases, weight of equipments is of absolute importance, and no extra hardware can be used. In such case, vibrations are unavoidably transmitted to the camera, and recorded frames are affected by blur. It is then necessary to deblur in real-time every frame to allow post-processing algorithms to extract the largest possible amount of information from them. For more than 40 years, numerous researchers have developed theories and algorithms for this purpose, which work quite well but very often require multiple different versions of the input image, huge amount of computational resources, large execution times or intensive parameters tuning.

We propose ABLUR, a novel self-adaptive core, implemented on a single Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) device, that is able to perform the deblurring task of single input images in real-time. The Dynamic Partial Reconfiguration (DPR) feature of modern FPGAs is exploited to enable self-adaptation of the deblurring algorithm parameters to the input images characteristics.

Experimental results show the limited amount of logic and memory resources required by the proposed hardware architecture.

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, computer vision is one of the most evolving areas of Information Technology (IT). In every computer vision application, one or several images are taken from a camera, and processed, in order to extract information, used, for instance, for features identification [1], edge detection [2], or image registration [3]. However, there are cases in which it is not possible to rely on images’ quality, as they may be affected by noise [4] or motion blur [5].

While capturing a frame, the camera must maintain the shutter opened for a finite amount of time, in order to acquire the proper amount of light and take a well defined image; relative movements between the camera and the scene during this interval induce motion blur in the captured image.

It is very difficult to obtain good results by processing blurry frames, and so input images must be firstly enhanced, in order to identify targets or extract information from them.

Restoring the latent image from the input blurry one has long been a challenging problem in digital imaging (e.g., [6], [7], [8]).

Authors have modelled the task as a two dimensional deconvolution process [9]. This simplification holds on when the blur is considered spatially invariant (or shift-invariant), meaning that every point in the original image spreads out the same way in forming the blurry image [10]. In this case, the blurry image is the result of the 2-D convolution of the real scene image with the blur kernel, also known as Point Spread Function (PSF) [11].

However, even in this simplistic case, to accomplish the deblurring task it is necessary to deal with 2-D deconvolution, that is well known to be an ill-conditioned and heavy task [12]. As 2-D convolution cannot be directly inverted, it is necessary to perform complex mathematical operations to retrieve the real image hidden behind the blurry input [13]. For this reason, deblurring algorithms are usually unable to achieve real-time performances.

Researchers in this field have always been more attracted by developing software than hardware accelerated solutions to the problem of deblurring, e.g., proposing interesting but slow solutions as in [14]. Very often, to obtain acceptable output results, a tuning phase is required in order to setup the deblurring algorithm parameters. In addition, a new setup phase is in general required when the input images characteristics change (e.g., due to contrast or brightness variations).

In literature, hardware is usually exploited as a medium to collect more in-depth information about the blurring procedure (e.g., by using sensors to detect the relative camera motion [15] [16]) rather than a way to speed-up mathematical calculations and, thus, software deblurring approaches.

Moreover, when dealing with real-time systems, a software implementation of complex algorithms cannot be used, since it does not meet the required performances. In this context, modern Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) represent a good choice to hardware accelerate computational intensive software algorithms. FPGA-based implementations are often preferred to follow the current trend based on replacing Application Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs) with more flexible FPGA devices, providing lower Non-Recurent Engineering cost and time-to-market, even in mission-critical applications [17].

This paper proposes ABLUR, an adaptive hardware architecture that is able to deblur single input 1024*1024 frames in real-time, using a single reconfigurable FPGA device. The algorithm described in [18] has been choosen to be optimized and implemented on a modern FPGA to achieve high
performances, while obtaining high-quality outcomes. Main contribution of this paper is to exploit the Dynamic Partial Reconfiguration (DPR) feature (i.e., the ability to dynamically change selected portions of a circuit, while the rest of the design is left unchanged and fully functional [19] [20]) to adapt the algorithm parameters to the input images characteristics, that are not always predictable.

The paper is organized as follows: Section II presents an overview about existing deblurring approaches, Section III details the chosen deblurring algorithm and the proposed self-adaptive architecture, Section IV discusses the experimental results and, finally, Section V summarizes the contributions and obtained results.

II. DEBLURRING ALGORITHMS OVERVIEW

The problem of developing an algorithm to recover latent images from blurry input ones has thrilled the scientific community during the last four decades; one of the very first works on this topic is presented in [21], where an iterative procedure is used for recovering a latent image that has been blurred by a known PSF.

Some of the most important contributions given to the state-of-the-art are here listed.

Classical deblurring approaches can be classified in blind and non-blind algorithms. While the former approach does not need any information about the blur kernel, the latter requires at least an estimated value. In any case, the problem is severely unconstrained [22].

Early works on deblurring usually model the blur kernel using simple shapes and priors, as in [23]. On the other hand, these exemplifications may lead to poor results when applied to natural images [18].

Linear motion blur kernel model used in many works is very often overly simplified for true motion blurring [24]. Authors in [25] state that the contents of real-world images can vary significantly across different frames or different patches in the same image. So, it is possible to learn various sets of bases from a pre-collected dataset of sample image patches and then, for a given patch to be processed, adapt one set of bases to characterize the local sparse domain.

During the last years, to consider more complex blurring models, several multi-image based approaches have been proposed. These methods estimate the blur kernel by analysing multiple images of the same scene [26], [27]. Although these approaches have the advantage of discarding too simplistic (and often unrealistic) assumptions, they cannot be applied when it is necessary to work on single input images. For example, [28] presents a hybrid camera system equipped with two imaging sensors. It can simultaneously captures high-resolution video together with a low-resolution one that has denser temporal sampling. Frames captured with higher temporal frequency are less affected by blur, since the smaller camera occlusion time is, the fewer relative movements between camera and scene are. Using the different information retrievable at the same moment from the two sensors, it is possible to deblur frames in the high resolution video and to contemporaneously estimate new high-resolution video frames from the low-resolution input ones.

Super-resolution (SR) is an imaging technique that leverages multiple low-resolution frames to construct a high-resolution frame [29]. It involves an exchange of information from frames basing on the assumption that the target has remained invariant. The majority of the work published on SR focuses on the mathematical algorithms behind SR and the ability to overcome inherent obstacles such as non-uniform blur [30], and motion estimation errors [31]. However, SR approaches are not suitable when a single standard camera is employed. An interesting single-image deblurring approach based on Hyper-Laplacian priors is presented in [18]. Theoretical basis behind this method rely on the fact that typical gradients distributions in real-world scene images have been proven to be well modelled by a Hyper-Laplacian distribution ($p(x) \propto e^{k|\alpha|^\gamma}$), with $0 < \alpha < 1$. However, the usage of such sparse distributions makes the problem more complex, thus slow to solve.

To speed-up the algorithm, authors in [18] present a method that splits the deblurring task into two separated sub-problems. Both these two phases aim at minimizing a cost function to retrieve the most probable latent image. This method proved to be very fast since the most time-consuming computations can be avoided by using a Look-Up-Table-based approach. However, it requires a heavy tuning phase before providing good quality outcomes.

For what concerns deblurring approaches, hardware acceleration has been mainly used for SR [32], [33]. To the best of our knowledge, we present for the first time a hardware implemented FPGA-based core, here called ABLUR, able to perform single-image deblurring in real-time. It exploits the algorithm presented in [18], avoiding human interaction during the algorithm parameters tuning phase, by self-adapting to the input images characteristics at run-time.

III. ABLUR ARCHITECTURE

The aforementioned approach presented in [18] has been chosen because it has proven to be very fast and accurate; moreover, it is based on the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT), an operation that is easily implementable in hardware [34]. We have developed a hardware architecture that is able to deblur single 1024x1024 pixels images in real-time (i.e., 25 frames-per-second, fps).

As explained in [18], the problem of restoring a latent image $x$, starting from the input blurry one $y$, can be solved in the frequency domain, exploiting Eq. 1.

$$x = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left( \frac{\mathcal{F}(-f^1 \oplus u^1 - f^2 \oplus u^2) + \lambda \cdot \mathcal{F}(K)^* \cdot \mathcal{F}(y)}{||\mathcal{F}(F^1)|| + ||\mathcal{F}(F^2)|| + \lambda \cdot ||\mathcal{F}(K)||} \right),$$

where $\mathcal{F}(Z)$ and $\mathcal{F}^{-1}(Z)$ denote the two-dimensional direct and inverse DFT of a matrix $Z$, respectively [35], and $||Z||$ represents the matrix obtained by applying the modulus operator to each element of $Z$.

In Eq. 1, $*$ is the complex conjugate, $\oplus$ denotes component-wise multiplication (the division is also performed component-wise), while $\lambda$ is a weighting constant, chosen equal to 2000 in authors’ MATLAB implementation. Moreover, since this method belongs to the family of non-blind deblurring algorithms, it requires in input the blur kernel, represented with its Optical Transfer Function (OTF) $K$. The OTF models the transfer function of an optical system, and is represented as a matrix as big as the

1http://dilipkay.wordpress.com/fast-deconvolution/
input image [36]. Instead, $F^1$ and $F^2$ are the OTFs of $f^1$ and $f^2$, that are the two first-order derivative filters in the x and y axis, respectively ($f^1 = [1 \ -1]$ and $f^2 = [1 \ -1]^T$).

Finally, $w^1$ and $w^2$ are computed as:

$$w^1 = \arg \min_w |w|^\alpha + \frac{1}{2} (w - v^1)^2$$
$$w^2 = \arg \min_w |w|^\alpha + \frac{1}{2} (w - v^2)^2,$$

where

$$v^1 = y \oplus f^1$$
$$v^2 = y \oplus f^2.$$

In Eq. 2, $\alpha$ is a parameters related to the distribution of the gradients in the input image, and in general it is between $0 < \alpha < 1$ for real-world images, denoting a Hyper-Laplacian distribution [18], while $\arg \min_f f(z)$ represents the values of $z$ that minimize the function $f(z)$.

Authors propose to solve Eq. 2 by using a Look-Up Table (LUT), which, for a fixed $\alpha$, stores pre-computed data (i.e., $w^1$ and $w^2$), for each possible $v^i$. Obviously, data are discretized, in order to limit the LUT size. In addition, they propose to compute off-line $F(K)^*$ and the whole denominator from Eq. 1 as they do not depend on the input image $y$.

However, this algorithm presents two main limitations:

1) it is a non-blind deblurring algorithm, which implies that the exact blur kernel should be provided as an input parameter to correctly restore an image;
2) it requires a tuning phase that has major impacts on the final produced outcomes, as the value of $\alpha$ has to be fixed, for each input image.

To effectively implement this algorithm on an FPGA device, some considerations and optimizations have been done. Concerning the first problem, from the knowledge of the system (e.g., vibrations induced to the camera or expected relative motion between camera and the scene), a generic estimation of the blur kernel can be employed as input. Tests have demonstrated that this algorithm is quite robust to errors in the initial kernel estimation, which can be fixed a-priori, and applied on each image at run-time (see Section IV).

To solve the second problem, we propose to estimate at run-time the distribution of the input image gradients, characterized by $\alpha$, thus adapting the computations to the actual image scene characteristics.

It is worth noting that, with respect to Eq. (1), since the OTFs $K$, $F^1$ and $F^2$ are fixed a-priori, the denominator is fully off-line pre-computable thus, at run-time, it can be retrieved from an external memory.

Figure 1 shows the overall architecture of ABLUR. ABLUR processes a stream of 8-bit packets representing a sequence of 1024x1024 grey scale frames, with 8 bit per pixel (bpp) resolution. It is assumed that the image pixels are received in a raster format, line-by-line from left to right and from top to bottom. ABLUR outputs a stream representing the deblurred input frames, with the same bpp resolution.

Several interfaces to external memories are also needed in order to store temporary data, that cannot be efficiently kept in the FPGA internal memory resources.

The following subsections detail all the main modules composing ABLUR.

A. Input Image Fast Fourier Transform module (FFT(y))

This module computes the two-dimensional Fast-Fourier Transform of the input image. Since the input image is 1024x1024 pixels, it outputs a matrix of 1024x1024 64-bit complex values (both the real and the complex parts of each value are represented on 32-bits).

In literature, many real-time FFT hardware modules have been presented (e.g., [37], [38]). Since the focus of this paper is not to present an architecture that implements the Fast Fourier Transform, this module has been implemented resorting to the Xilinx LogiCore Fast Fourier Transform core [39]. However, to compute a two-dimensional fourier transform, two phases must be performed. First, the FFT is computed for each row of the image, and stored in External Memory 1. Then, the final FFT results are computed by retrieving the temporary FFT data in a column order [40]. This module is also in charge of computing the Inverse FFT in Eq. 1, to extract the deblurred image results.

B. Gradient calculator

This module computes the gradients (i.e., $v^1$ and $v^2$) of the input image by convolving it with the filters $f^1$ and $f^2$ (see Eq. 3). Figure 2 shows the internal architecture of the Gradients calculator module.

For each pixel composing the input image, it outputs the associated gradients in the x and y axis (i.e., $v^1$ and $v^2$). Since the input images are received in a row-by-row raster
format, and the convolution with the filters \( f^1 \) and \( f^2 \) operates on adjacent pixels in the x and y axis, a First-In-First-Out (FIFO) buffer is needed to store a single 1024 pixels row of the input image (i.e., Row Buffer in Figure 2). This buffer has been implemented using a single FPGA internal Block-RAM (BRAM) memory resource [41]. At startup, the FIFO buffer is filled with all the pixels associated to the first row of the image. Then, whenever a new input pixels is received, it is stored inside the buffer. Leveraging the dual-port feature of the BRAMs, in the same clock cycle, the oldest stored pixel is read-out. The new read-out pixel is used, in conjunction with the last read-out one, stored in the register FF in Figure 2, to compute \( v^1 \). Simultaneously, the read-out pixel is subtracted to the actual received pixel to compute \( v^2 \).

C. \( \alpha \) estimator

The \( \alpha \) estimator module computes the \( \alpha \) parameter (see Eq. 2) that best fits the characteristics of the input images. The resulting value of \( \alpha \) is used to select the right configuration of the \( w \) calculator LUT, to be applied to the following image. This is acceptable since, at real-time frame rate (i.e., 25 fps), the image characteristics are very similar between the actual frame and the following one.

In particular, \( \alpha \) characterizes the gradients distribution of the input image, that, for real-world image, follow a hyper-laplacian distribution (i.e., \( p(x) \propto e^{\alpha|x|^\alpha} \) where \( 0 < \alpha < 1 \)) [18]. The distribution of the gradients can be computed by extracting the gradients histograms.

As shown in Figure 3, the \( \alpha \) estimator is composed by two main sub-modules: (i) the Histogram Calculator, and (ii) the \( \alpha \) selector.

The Histogram Calculator computes the histogram of the input image gradients. Its internal architecture, shown in Figure 4, is based on two dual-port BRAM buffers (i.e., \( \text{BRAM}_x \) and \( \text{BRAM}_y \)), each one associated to a 20-bit counters.

The values of \( v^1 \) and \( v^2 \), received from the Gradients calculator, are used to address the two buffers. Within the same clock cycle, the two read-out values are incremented by one, and stored in the same address location of the respective buffer. During this phase the \( \alpha \) read signal is set to 0 by the Controller. When all \( v^1 \) and \( v^2 \) values are received, the Controller sets the HD signal, indicating that the two buffers contain the complete histograms associated to the gradients in the x and y directions.

The \( \alpha \) selector, using a Look-Up Table (LUT) approach, outputs the \( \alpha \) value that best fits the computed histogram distribution. In particular, it contains the \( \alpha \) LUT, as shown in Figure 5, which stores 12 \( \alpha \) values in the range \((0.40, 0.95)\), discretized with a step of 0.05. Figure 6 plots the hyper-laplacian distributions associated to some \( \alpha \) stored in the \( \alpha \) LUT and their average slopes in the ranges \([-30, -20]\) and \([20, 30]\).

As can be noted from Figure 6, looking to the slopes of the functions in the ranges \([-30, -20]\), or \([20, 30]\), is sufficient to discriminate between hyper-laplacian functions with different \( \alpha \) values. Thus, the \( \alpha \) selector reads from both histogram buffers the values of the histogram bars, associated to the gradient values 20, -20, 30, and -30, only. To accomplish this task, the Controller of the Histogram Calculator sets \( \alpha \) read to 1, while the HIST Address signal is used by the \( \alpha \) selector to extract the histogram bar values \( HB_x \) and \( HB_y \), associated to the aforementioned gradient values.

Then, the average slope of the hyper-laplacian function in the selected range is computed and used to address the \( \alpha \) LUT in order to extract the \( \alpha \) parameter (Figure 5).

It is worth noting that, although only few values are used, we have chosen to compute the whole gradients histograms since these information are often exploited by subsequent image processing algorithms (e.g., for edge detection [42]), thus they can be an additional output of ABLUR. In any case, this computation does not affect the overall performances, and it requires very few resources.

D. Reconfiguration Manager

The Reconfiguration Manager receives in input the \( \alpha \), computed by the \( \alpha \) estimator, and retrieves, from an external memory the partial configuration bitstream associated to the new chosen configuration for the LUT in the \( w \) calculator. The
configuration bitstream is then written to the internal configuration port (i.e., ICAP in Xilinx FPGAs [43], or Configuration Control Block in Altera ones [20]), located inside the FPGA device, and directly connected to its configuration memory. At the end of the reconfiguration process the \( w \) calculator LUT contains the updated values, corresponding to the selected \( \alpha \), that can be used to compute \( w \) during the next image cycle.

**E. \( w \) calculator**

The \( w \) calculator module operates in two consecutive steps. First, it solves Eq. 2 using a LUT approach. Basically, it receives \( v^1 \) and \( v^2 \); as the LUT stores the corresponding values of \( w \) for discretized \( v \) values, it is possible to compute \( w^1 \) and \( w^2 \) very fast. For each different value of \( \alpha \) a different LUT is required (as Eq. 2 depends on \( \alpha \)). To ensure a good approximation, for a fixed \( \alpha \), the LUT contains \( 10^2 \) \( w^1 \) and \( w^2 \) 32-bits values, as proposed in [18], leading to the usage of two 312.5 Kbits memories (each one used to compute \( w^1 \) and \( w^2 \), respectively).

In order to save FPGA internal memory resources, at runtime, only the LUT associated with the actual estimated value of \( \alpha \) is instantiated inside the FPGA device. Run-time partial reconfiguration is then exploited to change the LUT configuration when the \( \alpha \) value changes.

Afterwards, \( w^1 \) and \( w^2 \) are convolved with the negated values of the filters \( f^1 \) and \( f^2 \), using the same architecture as in Fig. 2. Finally, the two convolved values are added together (see Eq. 1) to calculate the value of the \( w \) that is the output of this module.

**F. \( w \) Fast Fourier Transform module (FFT(\( w \)))**

This module computes the two-dimensional Fast-Fourier Transform of the values received from the \( w \) calculator. It is important to note that the received values represent a 1024x1024 elements matrix.

As the FFT(\( y \)) module, the FFT(\( w \)) has been implemented resorting to the Xilinx LogiCore Fast Fourier Transform core [39].

**G. Formula Solver**

The Formula Solver module is in charge of computing the sums and the component-wise division required by Eq. 1. This module receives \( F(y) \) and \( F(w) \) as inputs, and reads an external memory to retrieve both \( F(K)^* \) and the whole denominator \( D \), which are pre-computed off-line (see Section III).

This module outputs a 1024x1024 complex matrix on which will be applied the inverse Fourier Transform to retrieve the deblurred output image.

**H. Control Unit**

This module coordinates the operations of all the aforementioned modules. In fact, ABLUR operations can be grouped in four phases. During the first phase, while the input image is received, the FFT(\( y \)), the Gradients Calculator, the \( w \) calculator, the FFT(\( w \)), and the \( \alpha \) estimator modules are activated. In particular, FFT(\( y \)) and FFT(\( w \)) compute the first part of the two-dimensional Fourier Transform, on the rows of the respective input matrices (as mentioned in Section III-A and Section III-F), while \( \alpha \) estimator computes the gradients histograms. In the second phase, when the image is completely received, FFT(\( y \)) and FFT(\( w \)) computes the second part of the Fourier Transforms, retrieving the data computed during the first phase. In the meanwhile, \( \alpha \) estimator outputs the \( \alpha \) value. During this phase, the Formula Solver receives in input all the data needed to compute the sums and the division in Eq. 1.

In the third phase the FFT(\( y \)) module is used to compute the first part of the inverse Fourier Transform of the values extracted by the formula solver, while the Reconfiguration Controller reconfigures the \( w \) calculator LUT with the chosen configuration, reading the estimated \( \alpha \) value.

Finally, in the fourth phase, the same module computes the second part of the inverse Fourier Transform and outputs the deblurred image values.

**IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

To evaluate the hardware resources usage and the timing performances of the proposed architecture, ABLUR has been synthesized and implemented, resorting to Xilinx ISE Design Suite 14.6, on a Xilinx Virtex 7 VX485T FPGA device. Post place-and-route simulations have been done using Modelsim SE 10.0c to annotate the switching activities of internal nodes, and Xilinx XPower Analyzer has been exploited to estimate the overall power consumption.

Table I reports the FPGA resources usage of each internal module, along with the percentages of consumed resources with respect to the ones available in the selected device. From Table I it is possible to note the limited hardware resources consumption, in terms of both logic (i.e., LUTs and Digital Signal Processors (DSPs)) and memory resources (i.e. BRAMs), for the selected device.

The 37 internal memory resources consumed by the \( w \) calculator are needed to store the Reconfigurable LUT associated to the run-time selected \( \alpha \) value. The reconfiguration of this Look-Up Table requires 0.2 ms, since the configuration bit-stream is about 80 KBytes, and the maximum bandwidth of the internal reconfiguration port (called ICAP in Xilinx devices) is equal to 3.2 Gbit/s [43]. This reconfiguration time does
not influence the overall throughput, since the reconfiguration process can be performed while carrying out the final inverse Fourier transform, that is more time consuming.

At the maximum operating frequency of 255 MHz, ABLUR is able to process 29 1024x1024 frames per second, thus achieving real-time performances. This working frequency leads to a power consumption of about 664 mW, where the major contribution is given by the clock generation and distribution circuitry (1 Digital Clock Manager FPGA internal resource is used to generate the system clocks [44]) and by the internal Digital Signal Processors (DSPs) modules [45].

To demonstrate the effectiveness and to quantify the accuracy of the proposed self-adapting approach, a test environment has been developed to read sharp natural-world images and injecting motion blur. The proposed architecture has been modeled as a Matlab script resorting to a fixed-point algebra to emulate the actual hardware precision. The Matlab model has been used also to perform functional verification of the implemented hardware architecture. During the test phase, a motion blur kernel was used to simulate relative movements between camera and scene that are 7-pixel long and with an angle of 3 degrees with the x axis. The test environment is based on Matlab R2012b, running on Windows 7 x64 on a Notebook PC equipped with an Intel Core i5-2450M @2.50GHz CPU and 8 GB of RAM. After injecting blur in the original images, the test environment invokes the deblurring function, implementing in software the algorithm executed by ABLUR. The blur kernel k passed to the algorithm is a minor perturbation of the true kernel, to mimic kernel estimation errors, as done in [18]. Tests have been performed on 100 1024x1024 pixels images. For each image, a software routine finds the \( \alpha \) value that best fits the image gradients distribution. This value is also the one that minimizes the error between the reconstructed latent image, and the original input one. In particular, to quantify the quality of the reconstructed images, we used the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), computed as:

\[
\text{RMSE}(L, O) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{1024} \sum_{j=1}^{1024} \left( L_{i,j} - O_{i,j} \right)^2 / 1024 \cdot 1024}
\]  

(4)

where \( L_{i,j} \) and \( O_{i,j} \) represent a pixel in position \((i, j)\) in the latent and original images, respectively.

Figure 7 shows two images examples along with their hyper-laplacian gradients distributions, characterized by two different \( \alpha \) values. Instead, the graph in Figure 8 shows the RMSE results while applying the algorithm implemented in ABLUR, with different \( \alpha \) values.

It can be noted that the optimal \( \alpha \) value is different between the two images, and correspond to the ones that characterize their Hyper-Laplacian gradients distribution. During simulations ABLUR was able to identify the optimal \( \alpha \) value, with a 0.05 resolution, thus ensuring equals, or even better outcomes w.r.t using a static \( \alpha \) input. In addition, since the hardware implementation of ABLUR uses fixed-point data representation, we evaluated the error introduced w.r.t. using a software implemented double precision version of the same algorithm. Figure 9 shows the visual results and the RMSE values of ABLUR and software double precision version outputs.

For the sake of completeness, the output results of ABLUR have been compared with the ones obtained by other single-
image deblurring approaches (i.e., [18] and two MATLAB built-in functions Deconvlucy and Deconvblind, both based on the algorithm discussed in [21]). Results are summarized in Table II, and show that ABLUR achieves real-time performances while still providing high quality outcomes. Slight worsening in RMSE are due to approximations of the considered fixed-point algebra. The average elapsed time and the average RMSE are computed over 100 runs.

Table II. Comparison among deblurring approaches in terms of execution time and RMSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Avg Elapsed Time (s)</th>
<th>AVG RMSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABLUR (HW)</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.0574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[18]</td>
<td>2.094</td>
<td>0.0409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deconvlucy</td>
<td>3.126</td>
<td>0.0454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deconvblind</td>
<td>6.396</td>
<td>0.0455</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ABLUR ensures a speed-up of about 60x with respect to the Matlab version of the algorithm proposed in [18], while providing still acceptable results. Deconvlucy and Deconvblind provide similar results in terms of RMSE, while being more time consuming w.r.t. the approach exploited by ABLUR [18].

Finally, we briefly discuss a possible example of usage of ABLUR. Consider an Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) engaged in a save and rescue mission, recording frames of scene to identify people to rescue while flying. To automatically detect people in difficulties, it could be useful to detect edges in every frames; such edges may be compared to typical human shapes, so that an alarm is triggered when possible human target is found. However, in such case, vibrations are unavoidably transmitted to the camera, and recorded frames are affected by blur, so that small edges are confused (or even totally hidden) by blur and impossible to detect. It is then necessary to deblur in real-time every frame to allow post-processing algorithms to extract the largest possible amount of sharp edges from them. Figure 10 shows the outcome of an edge-detection algorithm applied on the original image, its blurry version and the the latent image recovered by ABLUR. As is highlighted in this example, edges are definitely more sharp and detailed when extracted from the deblurred image, and very similar to the ones extracted from the original image.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper presented ABLUR, a high performance FPGA-based adaptive deblurring core for real-time applications. ABLUR is able to self-adapt the deblurring parameters to the characteristics of the input image, resulting in more accurate outcomes. Experimental results show the limited FPGA hardware resources consumption and an improvement of the quality of the recovered latent image w.r.t. the one obtained from a static deblurring approach. These enhancements allow better precision of all the following image processing modules (e.g., edge detector), that receive in input the deblurred image.

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