

BAYESIAN IMAGE RESTORATION UNDER POISSON NOISE AND LOG-CONCAVE PRIOR

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, much research has been devoted to the restoration of Poissonian images using optimization-based methods. On the other hand, the derivation of efficient and general fully Bayesian approaches is still an active area of research and especially if standard regularization functions are used, e.g. the total variation (TV) norm. This paper proposes to use the recent split-and-augmented Gibbs sampler (SPA) to sample efficiently from an approximation of the initial target distribution when log-concave prior distributions are used. SPA embeds proximal Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithms to sample from possibly non-smooth log-concave full conditionals. The benefit of the proposed approach is illustrated on several experiments including different regularizers, intensity levels and with both analysis and synthesis approaches.

Index Terms— Bayesian inference, image restoration, Poisson noise, split-and-augmented Gibbs sampler.

1. INTRODUCTION

Poisson noise can appear in a lot of image processing problems where observations are obtained through a count of particles (e.g. photons) emitted by the object of interest and arriving in the image plane where a detector (e.g. a charged coupled device (CCD) camera) is located [1]. For instance, this statistical property of the noise occurs in emission tomography (ET) [2], fluorescence microscopy [3] or astronomy [4, 5]. In particular, a growing interest in restoring astronomical Poissonian images can be traced back at least to the Hubble Space Telescope optical aberration in the early 90's. Methods to tackle such image restoration problems in these years were mainly based on Tikhonov-Miller inverse filter and maximum likelihood (ML) estimation via the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm [2, 6, 7]. This is for instance the case for the classical Richardson-Lucy algorithm [8, 9] used and revisited in a lot of applications [10, 11] since noise amplification tended to appear. We refer the interested reader to [12] for a review of Poissonian image restoration methods up to 2006. Since then, much research has been devoted to these problems and a lot of advances have been made in optimization-based methods. Among other works, [13] considered a forward-backward splitting algorithm using the Anscombe variance stabilizing transform (VST) [14] while [15–17] used alternate minimization schemes in order to tackle the exact Poissonian likelihood function. The optimization-based algorithms derived by the aforementioned authors appear to be efficient in various scenarios ranging from analysis to synthesis approaches [18] with different regularization functions (e.g. total variation (TV) [19] or ℓ_1 norm) in low or high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) cases.

On the other hand, although variational Bayes methods have been also considered, Poissonian image restoration with fully Bayesian approaches, such as Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

methods, has not benefited from these recent advances in optimization making them less attractive. In particular, their high computational cost compared to variational methods can be prohibitive in high-dimensional applications (e.g. in astronomy) where the size of the observations can be of the order of the megapixel (resp. megavoxel). As a result, few efficient simulation-based methods exist to tackle image restoration under Poisson noise. For instance, [20, 21] dealt with the Poissonian likelihood by using a Taylor series expansion leading to a quadratic approximation of the former. In a similar vein, [22] used a Metropolis-within-Gibbs algorithm with a Gaussian proposal while the Riemannian manifold Hamiltonian Monte Carlo method [23] has been proposed in [24]. Finally, a recent MCMC approach has been proposed in [25] exploiting the Poisson-Gamma conjugacy which appears to compete with standard regularization functions such as TV.

However, up to our knowledge, no fully Bayesian approach considered the sampling from a posterior distribution built on a Poissonian likelihood and standard convex and possibly non-smooth regularizers. This paper proposes an approach relying on the recent split-and-augmented Gibbs sampler (SPA) [26] to tackle this problem. In particular, the log-concave property of the prior permits to derive log-concave full conditionals that can be sampled by proximal MCMC algorithms [27, 28] which rely on proximity operators of convex functions. This approach permits to fulfill a number of important criteria for the practitioner. It yields good and reliable reconstruction results, a moderate computational time compared to optimization-based methods, the computation of credibility intervals and the ability to approximate several Bayesian estimators in a single run.

To this purpose, Section 2 presents the considered image processing problem and the main sampling issues associated to the derived posterior. Section 3 presents how SPA can handle complicated probability distributions of the form (7) with an approximate but controlled sampling scheme. Then, Section 4 derives SPA for the considered Poissonian image restoration problem where full conditionals are sampled using efficient state-of-the-art MCMC methods. The proposed approach is illustrated on several experiments and compared to its deterministic counterpart described in [16] as well as to the proximal Moreau-Yoshida unadjusted Langevin algorithm (P-MYULA) [28] although its direct application is not straightforward and necessitates approximation schemes. Finally, Section 5 draws concluding remarks.

2. PROBLEM FORMULATION

This section presents the Bayesian inference problem related to Poissonian observations with a log-concave prior distribution. The main properties of the derived posterior distribution are presented before giving a brief review of existing MCMC methods that could be used to sample from this posterior.

2.1. Model

In this section, we consider the observation of some image $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{N}^m$, damaged (e.g. blurred or with missing pixels) and contaminated by Poisson noise. We assume that each individual observation $y_i, i \in \llbracket 1, m \rrbracket$ corresponds to an independent realization of a Poisson random variable, that is for all $i \in \llbracket 1, m \rrbracket$,

$$y_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{P}([\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}]_i), \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d$ stands for an original image to recover, $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ is an operator related to the point spread function (PSF) and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d$ stands for some background noise, e.g. accidental coincidences in positron emission tomography (PET). We assume in the sequel that for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d$, $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d$. In order to make an easier link with the proposed approach, the likelihood distribution is rewritten as follows

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp(-f_1(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y})), \quad (2)$$

where

$$f_1(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^m -y_i \log([\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}]_i) + [\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}]_i. \quad (3)$$

Following a Bayesian approach [29], the prior distribution is defined as follows for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp(-f_2(\mathbf{x}) - f_3(\mathbf{x})), \quad (4)$$

where $f_2(\mathbf{x}) = \tau\psi(\mathbf{x})$ and $f_3(\mathbf{x}) = \iota_{\mathbb{R}_+^d}(\mathbf{x})$, (5)

where $\psi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ stands for a proper, coercive, convex, lower semicontinuous (l.s.c.), possibly non-differentiable function, τ is a positive parameter; $\iota_{\mathcal{C}}$ is the indicator function of set \mathcal{C} , i.e. $\iota_{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ if $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{C}$ and $\iota_{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{x}) = +\infty$ otherwise. The functions f_2 (via ψ) and f_3 being convex, the potential $f_2 + f_3$ is also convex and the prior in (4) is log-concave. The function f_2 stands for some regularization term (e.g. ℓ_1 norm) while the function f_3 guarantees the non-negativity of the original image \mathbf{x} since the latter can be viewed as an intensity. By the application of Bayes' rule, the posterior distribution writes

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp(-f_1(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}) - f_2(\mathbf{x}) - f_3(\mathbf{x})), \quad (6)$$

and has the following properties stated by Proposition 1.

- Proposition 1.** 1. *The posterior distribution π is log-concave.*
 2. *The potential function $f = f_1 + f_2 + f_3$ associated to π is proper, l.s.c, coercive and convex. Additionally, if $y_i \neq 0$ for all $i \in \llbracket 1, m \rrbracket$, f is strictly convex.*
 3. *The negative log-likelihood function f_1 is differentiable but is not gradient-Lipschitz continuous.*

Proof. The proof of these properties follows directly from [16]. \square

2.2. Related work

Up to our knowledge, no previous work considered the direct or approximate sampling from the posterior distribution π defined in (6). Following Proposition 1, $-\log \pi$ is convex and possibly not differentiable. In this setting, since $-\log \pi$ is not differentiable, one could not resort to Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) methods [30] to sample from π . These methods were for instance resorted to sample from π with $f_2 = f_3 = 0$ in [24]. Then, one could think

of using proximal MCMC approaches [27, 28] to tackle the non-differentiability of the potential function associated to π thanks to Moreau-Yoshida regularization [31]. However, these approaches require the existence of a smooth gradient-Lipschitz continuous term in the potential function which is not the case in the problem considered, see property 3 in Prop. 1. Note that it is possible to tackle this issue by using the Anscombe variance stabilizing transform [14], see Section 4. Additionally, proximal MCMC algorithms assume that the proximal operator associated to the non-smooth potential, here $f_2 + f_3$, is available. This is not the case for the considered potentials defined in (5) if one considers a synthesis frame-based approach, see Section 4.1. Therefore, one has to resort to a more complicated scheme (e.g. the splitting method of maximal monotone operators [32, 33]) to compute this proximity operator. To avoid the above issues, the considered sampling problem is dealt with by resorting to a variable-splitting inspired MCMC algorithm, namely the split-and-augmented Gibbs sampler (SPA, see Section 3) that we recently proposed in [26]. Then, each full conditional distribution involves a smooth gradient-Lipschitz continuous potential function along with a possibly non-smooth potential enabling the use of proximal MCMC for each of them.

3. SPLIT-AND-AUGMENTED GIBBS SAMPLER

This section presents a particular type of variable splitting-inspired hierarchical Bayes models in order to solve the inference problem presented in Section 2.1. The associated joint distribution, namely the *split-and-augmented* distribution is presented along with its main properties and will be targetted by SPA. In the sequel, the object \mathbf{x} to infer is not necessarily the original image (e.g. \mathbf{x} could be coefficients associated to a frame). Thereby, in order to embed a large number of cases, the variable splitting-based approach is presented below under a general formulation.

3.1. Hierarchical Bayes model

Let us start from the initial target distribution π under the very general form

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^b f_i(\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x})\right), \quad (7)$$

where for all $i \in \{1, \dots, b\}$, $\mathbf{K}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i \times d}$ stands for a possible operator (e.g. blur, decimation, wavelet transform) acting initially on \mathbf{x} . We consider the variable splitting-inspired approach of [26]. We introduce some splitting and auxiliary variables $\mathbf{z}_{1:b} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i}$ and $\mathbf{u}_{1:b} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i}$, respectively. The new joint target distribution $\pi_{\rho, \alpha}$ is defined as follows

$$\pi_{\rho, \alpha}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:b}, \mathbf{u}_{1:b}) \propto \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^b f_i(\mathbf{z}_i) + \varphi_1(\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{u}_i) + \varphi_2(\mathbf{u}_i)\right), \quad (8)$$

where φ_1, φ_2 are two divergence functions such that $\pi_{\rho, \alpha}$ defines a proper probability distribution. In the sequel, we choose the following forms for these two functions for all \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_i and \mathbf{u}_i , $\varphi_1(\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{u}_i) = (2\rho^2)^{-1} \|\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{u}_i)\|_2^2$ and $\varphi_2(\mathbf{u}_i) = (2\alpha^2)^{-1} \|\mathbf{u}_i\|_2^2$, where $\rho, \alpha > 0$. This choice stems from the fact that φ_1 is a convex, lower bounded, continuously differentiable and gradient Lipschitz function precluding the use of

proximal MCMC algorithms to sample from each full conditional distribution of $\pi_{\rho,\alpha}$ within a Gibbs sampling scheme. Additionally, the quadratic form for φ_2 was chosen for conjugacy properties with φ_1 . The properties of the split-augmented distribution $\pi_{\rho,\alpha}$ defined in (8) are presented in Proposition 2.

Proposition 2. *Assume that the potential function associated to π in (7) is proper, convex, l.s.c and coercive. Then*

1. *the full conditional distributions under $\pi_{\rho,\alpha}$ are log-concave with a lower-bounded, smooth gradient Lipschitz continuous potential term along with a proper and l.s.c term.*
2. *in the limiting case $\rho \rightarrow 0$, the marginal distribution associated to \mathbf{x} under $\pi_{\rho,\alpha}$ coincides with π .*

Proof. The proofs corresponding to each property can be easily derived using the fact that a l.s.c and coercive function is lower-bounded and by using the proof of [26, Theorem 1]. \square

3.2. Gibbs sampler

Since sampling from π could be not straightforward with the existing MCMC approaches (see Section 2.2), the sampling from $\pi_{\rho,\alpha}$ is considered through the SPA Gibbs sampler [26] which samples alternatively according to each full conditional distribution, namely for all $i \in \llbracket 1, b \rrbracket$

$$\pi_{\rho,\alpha}(\mathbf{z}_i | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_i) \propto \exp \left(-f_i(\mathbf{z}_i) - \frac{\|\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{u}_i)\|_2^2}{2\rho^2} \right) \quad (9)$$

$$\pi_{\rho,\alpha}(\mathbf{u}_i | \mathbf{x}) \propto \exp \left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{u}_i\|_2^2}{2\alpha^2} - \frac{\|\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{u}_i)\|_2^2}{2\rho^2} \right) \quad (10)$$

$$\pi_{\rho,\alpha}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{u}_i) \propto \exp \left(-\sum_{i=1}^b \frac{\|\mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{u}_i)\|_2^2}{2\rho^2} \right). \quad (11)$$

The associated sampling details are presented hereafter depending on the form of each full conditional.

Log-concave full conditionals – To begin with, the full conditionals associated to the splitting variables $\mathbf{z}_{1:b}$ are log-concave with a smooth gradient Lipschitz term (related to φ_1) and can be efficiently sampled using the proximal Moreau-Yoshida unadjusted Langevin algorithm (P-MYULA) if the proximity operators of $f_{1:b}$ are available or can be approximated.

Gaussian full conditionals – On the other hand, the full conditional distribution associated with the variable of interest \mathbf{x} is now Gaussian due to φ_1 with a possibly non-diagonal covariance matrix. However, in cases where the matrices \mathbf{K}_i are either diagonal or block-circulant, one can resort to the Fourier domain and to the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula to re-write this covariance matrix with diagonal matrices. Then, the exact perturbation-optimization (E-PO) algorithm [34] can be used to sample efficiently the full conditional distribution associated to \mathbf{x} . Additionally, the full conditionals associated to the auxiliary variables $\mathbf{u}_{1:b}$ are Gaussian with diagonal covariance matrices and can be sampled efficiently even in high dimension.

4. APPLICATION TO POISSONIAN IMAGE RESTORATION

This section illustrates the proposed approach on Poissonian image restoration problems with either an analysis or a synthesis approach.

4.1. Applying SPA

Two image processing problems under Poisson noise without background emission (i.e. $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}_d$) are considered, namely image deblurring with total variation (TV) prior and Laplacian prior combined with a frame-based approach. However, note that the proposed approach can be generalized to other log-concave prior distributions.

Image deblurring with TV prior – In this approach (denoted TV in table 1), the operators defined in Section 3.1 are $\mathbf{K}_1 = \mathbf{P}$, $\mathbf{K}_2 = \mathbf{K}_3 = \mathbf{I}_d$ and the object to recover is the original image $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^d$. The matrix \mathbf{P} is related to a Gaussian blurring kernel, hence is block-circulant and diagonalizable in the Fourier domain. The potential functions $f_{1:3}$ are those defined in Section 2.1 with ψ corresponding to the TV regularization function.

Frame-based synthesis approach – In this synthesis approach (denoted WT for wavelet transform in table 1), the operators defined in Section 3.1 are $\mathbf{K}_1 = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{W}$, $\mathbf{K}_2 = \mathbf{I}_d$, $\mathbf{K}_3 = \mathbf{W}$ and the object to recover is the coefficients vector β associated to a frame such that $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}\beta$. The matrix \mathbf{P} is related to a Gaussian blurring kernel and the columns of \mathbf{W} are the elements of the considered frame (e.g. wavelets or curvelets). In the sequel, the Haar wavelet frame with four levels is used. Obviously, depending on the image processing problem, one can consider more sophisticated frames. The potential functions $f_{1:3}$ are those defined in Section 2.1 with ψ corresponding to the ℓ_1 norm applied on β .

For these two approaches, the proximity operators associated to $f_{1:3}$ can be computed using the closed-form expressions or approximations detailed in [16].

4.2. Experimental setup

The proposed approach is illustrated on three blurred and Poisson contaminated images depicted on fig. 1. These images are of different sizes, have a different maximum intensity level M and are restored using either the TV prior (TV) or using a synthesis approach with wavelets (WT), see table 1. The proposed approach is compared with the Poisson image deconvolution by augmented Lagrangian (PIDAL) algorithm [16] which stands for a particular instance of the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM). Note that the latter can be viewed as a deterministic counterpart of the proposed approach. Although it cannot be directly applied to sample from (7) (see Section 2.2), the proximal MCMC algorithm P-MYULA has also been implemented by using the Anscombe VST and Douglas-Rachford splitting method to compute the proximity operator of $f_2 + f_3$ when a frame-based synthesis approach is used. Note that we consider this as an interesting side contribution of this paper. We ran each MCMC algorithm with $T_{MC} = 10^5$ for SPA (resp. 10^6 for P-MYULA due to slower mixing properties) iterations and 10^4 samples were used in both cases to approximate Bayesian estimators. SPA parameters have been set to $(\rho, \alpha) = (1, 1)$ as a trade-off between good reconstruction results and mixing properties, see [26] for more details on the choice of these two parameters. Since the ground-truth is known in the considered experiments, the performance of each method has been assessed using the mean absolute error ($\text{MAE} = d^{-1} \|\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}\|_1$) and its normalized version (norm. MAE) with respect to (w.r.t.) the intensity level M . Note that the MAE is particularly relevant for Poissonian restoration since it is related to other distances [13, 35]. For each method, these criteria have been averaged on 10 independent runs.

Table 1. Poissonian image restoration with log-concave priors. Performance results for both optimization and simulation-based algorithms averaged over 10 runs. For the MCMC algorithms, the MMSE estimate has been used to compute the relative and normalized MAE criteria.

image	size	approach	M	τ	PIDAL [16]		P-MYULA [28]		SPA [26]	
					MAE	norm. MAE	MAE	norm. MAE	MAE	norm. MAE
Saturn	256×256	TV	300 (Fig. 1)	0.1	2.42	0.01	3.37	0.01	3.06	0.01
neuron	128×128	TV	30 (Fig. 1)	1	0.89	0.03	0.99	0.03	1.45	0.05
			100	1	2.83	0.03	3.10	0.03	3.35	0.03
cameraman	128×128	WT	30	0.1	2.25	0.08	2.11	0.07	2.93	0.10
			100	0.1	6.97	0.07	5.82	0.06	6.57	0.07
			255 (Fig. 1)	0.1	17.40	0.07	14.51	0.06	16.14	0.06

4.3. Results

Performance results – Table 1 shows the performance of each method on six different experiments. The standard deviation associated to each tuple (experiment/norm. MAE) is roughly of the order of 0.005. For MCMC algorithms, the minimum mean square error (MMSE) estimate has been used to compute MAE criteria. The results of the proposed approach are close to the two other approaches although each method has a different target. Indeed, PIDAL derives the maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate associated to (7) while P-MYULA and SPA were resorted here to compute MMSE estimates (obviously, other Bayesian estimates can be computed). In addition, we would like to emphasize that although SPA targets an approximate probability distribution, the approximation is controlled with a single parameter ρ that can be made arbitrarily small, see Proposition 2. On the contrary, P-MYULA suffers here from a lot of approximations namely the absence of accept/reject step, the use of the Anscombe VST and the Douglas-Rachford splitting scheme to compute the proximity operator of $f_2 + f_3$ for frame-based approaches. Although the first approximation can be controlled with a single parameter [28], the second one is not justified in all scenarios and the last one implies an additional computational cost since it is iterative. For information, SPA was in average at least 6 times faster in terms of computational time than P-MYULA in the considered experiments.

Credibility intervals – Additionally to compute pointwise Bayesian estimates (e.g. MMSE estimate, see fig. 1), the proposed approach has the benefit of proposing credibility intervals by exploring the whole posterior distribution of the variable of interest \mathbf{x} .

Thus, fig. 1 shows the 95% credibility intervals computed by SPA for a couple of experiments. For the cameraman and Saturn images, one can remark that the credibility intervals associated to highly Poisson contaminated regions appear to have a noise structure. On the other hand, the range of credibility intervals associated to the neuron image are roughly piecewise constants. This difference is mainly due to the amount of regularization (via the parameter τ) set for each image. Indeed, for the cameraman and Saturn image, τ was smaller since more details were present in the image. As pointed out by [28], we believe that simulation and optimization-based algorithms should be considered together to conduct image processing and analysis tasks. Indeed, first a quick MAP estimation can be performed by optimization techniques with standard regularizers. Then, the proposed approach can be used to conduct uncertainty quantification, hypothesis testing or even model selection by comparing model evidences since the potential of the target $\pi_{\rho, \alpha}$ in (8) corresponds to an arbitrarily small approximation of the initial potential function.

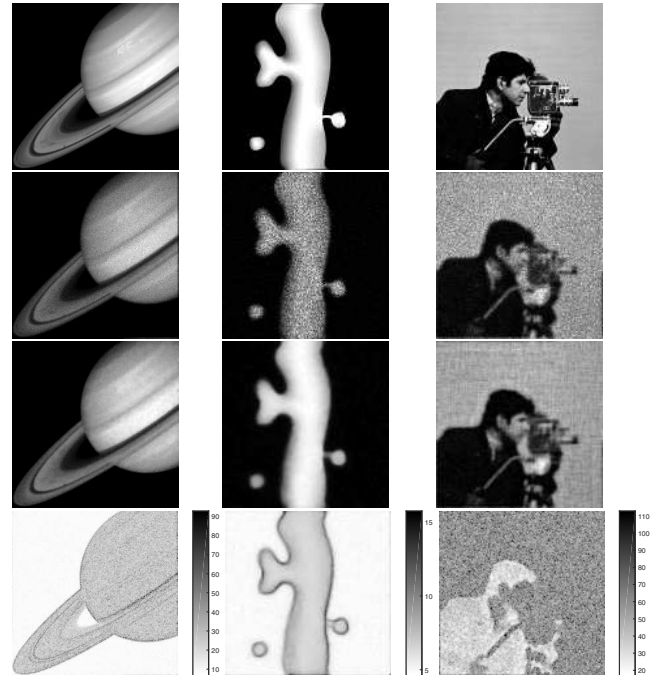


Fig. 1. Original images (1st row), noisy and blurred observations (2nd row), MMSE estimates computed with SPA (3rd row) and associated 95% credibility intervals (4th row).

5. CONCLUSION

This paper derives a novel MCMC approach to restore Poissonian images under a log-concave prior distribution. Along with efficient optimization-based algorithms, the proposed approach has the benefit of completing the inference task by providing uncertainty quantification or by performing model selection. Moreover, the proposed approach has reasonable computation time w.r.t. optimization-based methods thanks to the embedding of efficient proximal MCMC algorithms. This work paves the way toward efficient fully Bayesian approaches for even more complicated models (e.g. Poisson-Gaussian noise) or richer models using sophisticated regularization functions (e.g. total generalized variation).

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