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# Progressive Image Denoising Algorithm

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# **Progressive Image Denoising Algorithm**

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## 渐进式图像去噪算法

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摘要:目前绝大多数的图像去噪算法只通过单纯处理原始噪声图本身来实现,并没有考虑将原始噪 声图和去噪图相结合来进一步提升去噪性能。针对该问题,我们提出一种渐进式图像去噪算法框架。 该框架基于目前去噪效果最为显著的三维块匹配算法,采用三层两次融合的设计结构,每层均采用 三维块匹配算法,且每层在之前去噪声进工通过进一步融合再次去噪。充分的统计实验结果表明, 在同样噪声条件下,我们的方法和另外一个最新改进算法在峰值信噪比方面相对于原始三维块匹配 算法都有不同程度地提升,并且新提出的算法较传统三维块匹配算法有更好的去噪性能;随噪声程 度的加大,算法性能提高的幅度愈加明显,在改善 CT 成像质量方面获得较好的成像效果。

关键词:三维块匹配;非局部相似性;图像融合;渐进式 中图分类号: TP391.9 文献标识码: A 文章编号: 1004-731X (2017) 02-0282-13

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#### **Introduction**

In the actual image acquisition process, the



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obtained image could not get rid of noise caused by defects of the equipment, interference of the external environment and human factors. The image noise not only affects our subjective experience, but may mislead our cognition. Image denoising is a classical problem in image processing. It plays an important role in other image processing techniques, such as

image segmentation, analysis, recognition and so on. There are many different types of noises. Gaussian noise, uniformly distributed noise and Poisson noise are familiar to us. In this paper, we pay attention to the most common noise, additive Gaussian white noise (AWGN). This kind of noisy image can be modeled as  $y = z + n$ , where *y* is the observed noisy image, *z* is the true image and *n* is AWGN with zero mean and variance  $\sigma$ . The purpose of image denoising is to get an estimate of  $z$  from  $y$ , denoted by *z*ˆ . Similar to image deblurring and image restoration, this is an ill posed problem actually.

Various methods have been proposed to remove AWGN. The common ground of those algorithms is to smooth images and preserve the fine details as much as possible. Early algorithms focused on the local region of images: Susan filter<sup>[1]</sup>, bilateral filter(BF)  $^{[2]}$  and so on. In the literatures<sup>[3-4]</sup>, authors presented some practical and accessible frameworks to understand the basic underpinnings of those methods. The frameworks give us a new perspective and unify several state-of-the-art nonlocal algorithms to a certain degree. Local algorithms are mainly based on averaging nearby pixels and have not exploited the image content fully. Since non-local means (NLM) algorithm based on similar patches was proposed by Buades et al.<sup>[5-6]</sup>, nonlocality undergoes an unprecedented development in denoising $^{[7]}$  and other image processing techniques, such as deblurring<sup>[8]</sup>, super resolution<sup>[9-10]</sup> and volume reconstruction[11].

It has been proved that there are many similar patches in natural images $[10]$ . These similarities could provide certain prior knowledge to restore images. NLM compares not only the intensity of pixels but the geometrical configuration in a whole neighborhood or image. The feature based on a

non-local averaging of all pixels in the image makes NLM more robust than those local filters. Intuitively, more effective measurement criteria for similarity and more similar patches could bring better denoising performance. Based on this, some improved NLM algorithms have been put forward. Using principal component analysis (PCA) to achieve higher accuracy similarity weights was proposed by Tasdizen<sup>[12]</sup>. Both the accuracy and computational cost of NLM can be improved after the PCA projection. Inspired by the human visual system (HVS), Foi et al*.* introduced a patch foveation operator and a foveated distance to measure patch similarity<sup>[13]</sup>. The foveated self-similarity achieved a substantial improvement due to better contrast and sharpness. As a nice image quality assessment method, structural similarity (SSIM) may be a good choice too. Motivated by this, Rehaman et al*.* designed a two-stage SSIM-based approach  $^{[14]}$ . In order to find more similar patches, Ji et al*.* introduced the Zernike moments into NLM, and got much more pixels or patches with translation-invariant and rotation-invariant[15]. Grewenig et al*.* used Hu moment invariants and Zernike moment invariants to handle rotationally invariant similarity and proposed a rotationally invariant block matching (RIBM) algorithm[16]. Then Yan et al*.* integrated Gaussian blur, clustering and RIBM into the NLM framework, and achieved improved performance $[17]$ . Due to the invariants have different magnitudes, Ji and Grewenig suggested different normalization techniques respectively. Unfortunately, these techniques aren't applicable for other invariants. The main disadvantage of a rotationally invariant similarity measure using moment invariants is that invariants have different magnitude. Without any normalization, the moments with a relative large



magnitude will dominate the similarity measure. Up to now, there is no universal normalization which is optimal for all moment invariants.

Different from NLM, the block matching 3D collaborative filtering (BM3D) algorithm is another state-of-the-art denoising algorithm proposed by Dabov et al.<sup>[18]</sup>. NLM makes use of the similarity in the image, while BM3D combines similarity and sparsity. This novel denoising strategy is realized by several successive steps: 3D transformation of a group consisted of similar 2D image patches, shrinkage of the transform spectrum, and inverse 3D transformation. The collaborative filtering can reveal the finest details shared by the grouped patches and preserve the essential unique features of each patches at the same time. Because the patches' order in the group is random, Ram *et al.* reordered them such that they were chained in the "shortest possible path" and gained a better performance under high noiselevel ( $\sigma \ge 50$ ), but worse performance under low noise level<sup>[19]</sup>. Talebi et al. developed a paradigm for truly global filtering where each pixel is estimated from all pixels in the image  $[20]$ . Both global NLM and global BM3D have some improvement. Similar to BM3D, patch-based locally optimal Wiener (PLOW) algorithm is another denoising method based on group filtering  $[21]$ . In addition, sparsity can be also analyzed by dictionaries, such as PCA, DCT, Wavelet and so on. In the literatures<sup>[22-25]</sup>, approaches based on appropriate dictionaries which have sparse and redundant representations are proposed.

All these algorithms obtain good performance by using more effective measurement criterial for similarity and mining more similar patches. Different from them, this paper presents a novel framework of progressive image denoising. The framework is based on the block matching and 3D collaborative filtering

(BM3D) algorithm which has the most remarkable denoising effect. It includes three layers and two fusions. Each layer is implemented by BM3D and denoises the fused image generated from the previous layers. This kind of progressive image denoising can improve signal to noise ratio further.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 1 reviews the whole process of BM3D and proposes our framework based on it. Then we design the corresponding experiment based on a natural image database to verify its effectiveness and apply the method to improve CT imaging quality in Section 2. Finally, we make a summary of the whole paper in Section 3.

### **1 Progressive Image Denoising**

In this section, we first review the basic process of BM3D briefly. Then our improved framework will be designed and analyzed in detail.

#### **1.1 BM3D Overview**

BM3D is a denoising algorithm based on the fact that an image has a locally sparse representation in the transform domain. This sparsity can be enhanced by grouping similar 2D image patches into 3D groups. Collaborative filtering is a key technique for the algorithm. Generally there are four steps for collaborative filtering: a) finding patches similar to a given patch and then grouping them into a 3D block; b) 3D linear transformation of the block; c) shrinkage of the transform spectrum coefficients; d) inverse 3D transformation. In order to filter the noise effectively, the algorithm showed in Figure 1 is divided into two major steps: a) the first step estimates the initial denoised image by using hard thresholding during the collaborative filtering; b) the second step is based on the basic estimate obtained in the first step. This step adopts the Wiener filtering.

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three steps of collaborative filtering

The basic estimate of the first step is given by

$$
u^{\text{basic}}(x) = \frac{\sum_{P} w_{P}^{\text{hard}} \sum_{Q \in \psi(P)} \chi_{Q}(x) u_{Q,P}^{\text{hard}}(x)}{\sum_{P} w_{P}^{\text{hard}} \sum_{Q \in \psi(P)} \chi_{Q}(x)} (1)
$$

$$
\chi_{Q}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in Q \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} (2)
$$

where *P* and *Q* are two patches; *P* is the reference patch;  $\Psi(P)$  is a group of patches similar to *P*;  $\chi_0(x)$  is an indicator function to judge whether pixel *x* belonging to Q;  $u_{Q,P}^{\text{hard}}(x)$  is the estimate of the value of the pixel *x* belonging to the patch *Q* obtained during collaborative filtering of the reference patch *P*;  $w_P^{\text{hard}}$  is the hard-weight of *P* and can be calculated by

$$
w_P^{\text{hard}} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N_P^{\text{hard}}} & N_P^{\text{hard}} \ge 1\\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{3}
$$

where  $N_P^{\text{hard}}$  is the number of non-zero coefficients in the 3*D* block after hard-thresholding.

The final estimate obtained from the second step is given by

$$
u^{\text{final}}(x) = \frac{\sum_{P} w^{\text{wien}}_{P} \sum_{Q \in \psi(P)} \chi_{Q}(x) u^{\text{wien}}_{Q,P}(x)}{\sum_{P} w^{\text{wien}}_{P} \sum_{Q \in \psi(P)} \chi_{Q}(x)} \tag{4}
$$

Where  $w_p^{\text{win}}$  is the wiener-weight of *P* and can

be calculated by

$$
w_P^{\text{wien}} = ||\omega_P||_2^{-2} \tag{5}
$$

Where  $\omega_p$  is Wiener coefficient; other parameters are similar to the basic denoising. More details can be found from  $[26]$ .

#### **1.2 Denoising based on the Fused Image**

Compared to early denoising algorithms, BM3D combines similarity and sparsity skillfully and improves the denoising performance significantly. Figure 2 displays one natural image denoised by BM3D and an average fusion image. The original image is from the standard LIVE database $^{[27]}$ . The corresponding mathematical expressions are as follows:

$$
y = z + n \tag{6}
$$

$$
z_a = BM3D(y, n) = z + n_a \tag{7}
$$

 Where *y* is the observed noisy image; *z* is the true image and *n* is AWGN with zero mean and variance  $\sigma$ ; BM3D( $\cdot$ , $\cdot$ ) is the denoising operator;  $z_a$ is the denoised image;  $n_a$  is the residual noise.



(a) original image *z* (b) noisy image *y*

(PSNR=18.589 2)





(c) image  $z_a$  denoised by BM3D (d) average fusion image  $y_1$ (PSN =27.601 3) (PSNR=23.306 7)





In Figure 2(d), we also show the fusion image  $y_1$ generated by

$$
y_1 = \frac{y + z_a}{2} = z + \frac{n + n_a}{2} = z + n_1 \tag{8}
$$

where  $n_1 = \frac{n + n_a}{2}$  is noise of the fusion image  $y_1$ .

What interests us most is "can we make full use of the noisy image and the denoised image to improve the denoising performance further". Since any algorithm cannot denoise image completely and ensure that each denoised region has the same noise level, we can only approximate that  $n_a$  meets the Gaussian distribution and cannot know the exact value of  $n_1$ . Here we denoise the fusion image  $y_1$  with a serial of noise parameters. From Figure 3, we can find clearly that if we choose a proper  $\sigma$  to denoise the fusion image with BM3D, the PSNR could increase further.



Fig. 3 Denoise the fusion image with different  $\sigma$ . Dash line the result of denoising fusion image Fig. 2(d) with  $\sigma \in [10,20]$ ; Solid line - the result of standard BM3D (for comparison, regardless of the horizontal parameters).

So the key is to determine the noise level of fusion image. In order to ensure the reliability of estimates, we test and analyze 29 images from the standard database LIVE. Algorithm 1 is the way of testing. Figure 4 and Table 1 show the relationship of test results respectively. From Table 1, we can find that  $\sigma_1 \approx \sigma / 2$ . It not only indicates that BM3D has significant denoising performance with small residual noise  $n_a$   $\left(n_1 = (n + n_a)/2 \approx n/2\right)$ , but also demonstrates that  $n_a$  just approximates a Gaussian distribution ( $\sigma_1$  fluctuates around  $\frac{0}{2}$  $\frac{\sigma}{2}$ ).

Algorithm 1: The method of calculating noise parameter  $\sigma_1$ // Pseudo-code of calculating  $\sigma_1$ 

// Input: the initial noise  $\sigma$ , test set { *img<sub>1</sub>*, *img<sub>2</sub>*,  $\cdots$ , *img<sub>n</sub>*}

// Output: noise parameter  $\sigma_1$ 

*for*  $i=1:n$  /\* read *n* images \*/

 $noisy_i = img_i + noise_{\sigma}$ ; /\* add noise \*/

 $\left[denoised1_i, denoised2_i\right] = BM3D(noisy_i, \sigma)$  ;/\* denoise image with BM3D, the output includes the basic and final denoised images \*/

 $mixed_i = (noisy_i + denoised2_i)/2$  ;/\* construct a fusion image \*/

 $\tau = \sigma_{\text{start}}$ : 0.1:  $\sigma_{\text{end}}$ ; /\* custom search scope \*/

*for j* = 1: *L* /\* *L* is the length of  $\tau$ \*/

 $\left[$  *denoised*  $1_{i,j}$ *, denoised*  $2_{i,j}$   $\right] =$  BM3D $\left($ *mixed<sub>i</sub>*,  $\tau$ <sub>*i*</sub></sub> $\right)$ ;  $p_{i,j} = psnr \left( img_i, denoised 2_{i,j} \right)$ ; /\*calculate PSNR of fusion image denoised by different noise parameters \*/

*end* 

 $D_{i,j} = \max (p_{i,j}) - p_{i,j}$ ; /\* compare with the max value \*/ *end* 

 $SD_{psnr} = sum(D_{i,j})$ ; /\* accumulate the difference under the same  $\tau_i$  \*/

Let *k* is the index of minimum value in  $SD_{\text{asym}}$ , so  $\sigma_1 = \tau_k$ .



Fig. 4 The relationship of  $SD_{psnr}$  and  $\sigma_1$  in Algorithm 1



## **1.3 Design of the Progressive Image Denoising Algorithm**

Inspired by Section 1.2, we design a novel framework of progressive image denoising as Figure 5. The framework includes three layers and two fusions. Each layer is implemented by BM3D and denoises the fused image generated from the previous layers. The first layer is the ordinary BM3D; the second layer denoises the fused image generated from the original noisy image and the final output of the first layer; the last layer denoises the fused image generated from the original noisy image and the final outputs of the first and second layer.



Fig. 5 The framework of progressive image denoising. Dash line - the basic output; Solid line - the final output in Figure 1.

In the second layer, we fuse the two images averagely. While in the third layer, we design a different strategy to fuse images.

$$
z_b = BM3D(y_1, n_1) = z + n_b
$$
(9)  
\n
$$
y_2 = (1 - w_a - w_b) \cdot y + w_a \cdot z_a + w_b \cdot z_b =
$$
  
\n
$$
z + (1 - w_a - w_b) \cdot n + w_a \cdot n_a + w_b \cdot n_b =
$$
  
\n
$$
z + n_2; \quad w_a, w_b \in (0,1)
$$
 (10)

where  $z_a$  and  $z_b$  are denoised images from *y* and  $y_1$  respectively;  $n_a$  and  $n_b$  are residual noises from  $z_a$  and  $z_b$  respectively;  $y_2$  is the second fusion image generated from  $y$ ,  $z_a$  and  $z_b$ ;  $w_a$  and  $w_b$  are the weights of  $z_a$  and  $z_b$  respectively;  $n_2$  is the noise of  $y_2$  and  $n_2 = (1 - w_a - w_b) \cdot n + w_a \cdot n_a + w_b \cdot n_b$ .

In order to find the optimal  $w_a$  and  $w_b$ , we generate fusion images with different  $w_a$  and  $w_b$ , then denoise them with BM3D. After comparing the output performance, we find  $w_a = 0.25, w_b = 0.5$ . Similar to the computational method in Algorithm 1, the relationship of  $SD_{psnr}$  and  $\sigma_2$  is calculated and displayed in Figure 6. The whole relationship of  $\sigma$ ,  $\sigma_1$ , and  $\sigma_2$  is showed in Table 2 and Figure 7.



Fig. 6 The relationship of  $SD_{psnr}$  and  $\sigma_2$ 

The relationship of $\sigma$ , $\sigma$ <sub>1</sub> , and $\sigma$ <sub>2</sub> Table 2						
Initial noise $\sigma$	$10\,$	20	30	40	50	
Noise parameter $\sigma_1$	5.5	10.1	15	20.4	24.5	
Noise parameter $\sigma_2$	3.1	5.7	8.4	11.2	13.5	
25 20 15 10 5				$\sigma_1$ $\sigma$		
$\boldsymbol{0}$ 10 20	30		40		50	
	$\sigma$					

Fig. 7 The relationship of noise parameters in our framework

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It clearly shows that  $\sigma_2 \approx \sigma / 4$ . In addition, the final output has a better PSNR than the basic output generally, while Figure 8 shows an anomaly in the third layer. The reason is that the noise in the second fusion image no longer conforms with an absolute Gaussian distribution. In this case, the final output is not always better than the basic output. Based on the analysis of experiments, we choose the basic output in the third layer.



Fig. 8 Denoise the second fusion image with different  $\sigma_2$ .

### **2 Performance Evaluations**

In this section, we do some experiments on a standard image database to validate our denoising framework and apply the algorithm to improve CT imaging quality.

#### **2.1 Experiment on Natural Image Database**

In the last section, we do experiments on LIVE database to determine the noise parameters. To prove the universality of the parameters, we are going to test these parameters with another famous database TID2008[28]. Like LIVE database, TID2008 is intended for evaluation of full-reference image visual quality assessment metrics, which contains 25 standard reference images  $(I_{01}, I_{02}, \cdots, I_{025})$ .

Table 3 and Figure 9 show detailed lists of PSNR comparison in our framework's each layer respectively. It's clear that as follows, when  $\sigma=10$ , layer 2 has the best performance; when  $\sigma$ =20, layer 3 is better than layer 2 slightly; when  $\sigma \geq 30$ , layer 3 will be superior. We calculate the increase of layer 2 and layer 3 with respect to layer 1 by following expression:

$$
T_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{25} (p_{i,k} - p_{i,1})}{25}; \quad k = 2,3 \tag{11}
$$

where  $p_{i,k}$  is the PSNR,  $k$  is the layer index,  $i$  is the image index.

Based on the analysis, we make the following strategy to optimize the final output of the framework. If  $\sigma$  < 20, choose the 2<sup>nd</sup> layer's output as the framework's output; if  $\sigma \ge 20$ , choose the 3<sup>rd</sup> layer's output as the framework's output. In Table 3,  $T_2$  is the final increase after taking the above strategy. We can find that, as the noise increases, the performance improvement is more obvious. In addition, we compare our method with G-BM3D proposed by Talebi<sup>[21]</sup>. The  $T_{G-RM3D}$  in Table 3 is the improved PSNR of G-BM3D with respect to the traditional BM3D. Since BM3D has an excellent denoising performance, almost all improved algorithms based on it just have small improvements. Compared with G-BM3D, our algorithm is slightly better in each noise level. In Figure 10, we display some comparisons of performance. They demonstrate that our algorithm focuses on repairing some details.

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Table 3 Tests on TID2008. The comparison of PSNR in each layer. The odd rows – PSNR of input image in each layer, the even rows – PSNR of the output image in each layer



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Fig. 10 Comparisons of performance. 1<sup>st</sup> row – the original true images,  $2^{nd}$  row – the noisy images  $\sigma=40$ ,  $3^{rd}$  row – the denoised images (original BM3D),  $4^{\text{th}}$  row – our denoising algorithm,  $5^{\text{th}}$  row – the difference between the 3rd and 4th row.

#### **2.2 Application in CT Imaging**

In this section, we will apply our algorithm to the CT simulation platform. CT is a significant milestone in human history of science and technology. This revolutionary NDT (Nondestructive Testing) method improves the development of industry, health care and life science research. We develop a CT platform *iCTSim* based on Geant4 to simulate X-ray imaging[29-30]. There are four effects involved in X-ray absorption: the Compton scattering, the photoelectric effect, the Rayleigh scattering, and the pair production. Each of them contributes to the absorption cross section  $\sigma_{Total}$ 

$$
\sigma_{Total} = \sigma_{Com} + \sigma_{Pho} + \sigma_{Ray} + \sigma_{Pair}
$$
 (12)

These four effects can bring noise artifacts to degrade the imaging quality.

In Table 4, some parameters are listed. We design a model including 9 materials: Carbon-C, Sulfur-S,Silicon -Si, Sodium-Na, Magnesium-Mg, Aluminum-Al, Polyethylene- $(C_2H_4)$ , Teflon- $(C_2F_4)$ <sub>n</sub>, Polyoxymethylene- $(CH_2O)$ <sub>n</sub>. The X-ray gun emits 500 particles at each position. We undertake a parallel implementation on Sugon Server I950r-G provided by our institute.

Table 4 Parameters of parallel CT simulated

Energy	$25.0$ /keV		
Detector Row/Col	1 000		
Detector Unit Size	0.0/mm		
Each Material			
Height/Width	15/mm		
Each Material Thickness	0.5/mm		

Figure 11 is the image generated on the detector. Each point denotes the intensity of X-ray. A narrow beam of monoenergetic photons with an incident intensity  $I_0$ , penetrating a layer of material with thickness  $L$  and density  $\rho$ , emerges with intensity *I* given by the exponential attenuation law

$$
I = I_0 \cdot e^{-uL} \tag{13}
$$

The mass attenuation coefficient  $\mu / \rho$  can be obtained from measured values of  $I_0$ , *I* and *L*.

$$
\mu / \rho = (\rho L)^{-1} \ln (I_0 / I) \tag{14}
$$

Since the existence of scattering, the noise on the detector is inevitable. First we should adopt the statistical method to validate the mass attenuation coefficients of the 9 materials by the formula (14). From the comparisons in Table 5 and Figure 12, we can find that the simulated results agree well with the standard data from  $NIST^{[31]}$ .



Fig. 11 Image on detector.Each pixel denotes the intensity of X-ray









Fig. 12 The graphs of mass attenuation coefficients in the Table 5

Based on the reasonability of the platform, we need to analyze the noise distribution on the detector. Figure 13 shows the intensity histograms of the 9 materials in Figure 11. They almost obey approximate Gaussian distributions which is the basic condition of our denoising algorithm. Before denoising, the initial noise level must be estimated. We use a patch-based noise level estimation algorithm proposed in [32] to solve the problem, then calculate the noise parameters in Layer 2 and Layer 3 according to the curves in Figure 7.



Fig. 13 Intensity histograms of 9 materials in Figure 11

Figure 14 and Figure 15 display the comparisons of the Mg on the detector and Mg denoised by our progressive image denoising algorithm. The variance of the denoised image are far less than the original

noisy image. This fully proves the effectiveness of our algorithm.



the detector our method

Fig. 14 The comparison of noisy Mg and denoised Mg



Figure 14 (the center profile)

## **3 Conclusions**

BM3D is a state-of-the-art algorithm with the most remarkable denoising effect. The paper proposes a progressive image denoising algorithm based on BM3D, which includes three layers and two fusions. We verify the superiority by doing experiments on LIVE and TID2008 database and apply the method to improve the imaging quality of our CT simulation platform. Through the experiments, the proposed algorithm has better performance than BM3D. As the noise increases, the performance improvement is more remarkable.

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