# NEGATIVE BINOMIAL OPTIMIZATION FOR LOW-COUNT OVERDISPERSED SPARSE SIGNAL RECONSTRUCTION 

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#### Abstract

Low-photon count imaging has been typically modeled by Poisson statistics. This discrete probability distribution model assumes that the mean and variance of a signal are equal. In the presence of greater variability in a dataset than what is expected, the negative binomial distribution is a suitable overdispersed alternative to the Poisson distribution. In this work, we present a framework for reconstructing sparse signals in these low-count overdispersed settings. Specifically, we describe a gradient-based sequential quadratic optimization approach that minimizes the negative log-likelihood corresponding to the negative binomial distribution coupled with a sparsity-promoting regularization term. Numerical experiments on 1D and 2D sparse/compressible signals are presented.


Index Terms- Negative binomial distribution, sparse data recovery, nonconvex optimization, total variation

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Compressed sensing and sparse signal recovery are active areas of research [1, 2, 3], for which many algorithms have been proposed (e.g., $[4,5,6])$ for efficiently solving these problems, including those in photon-limited settings (e.g., [7, 8, 9]). The discrete low-count data from a detector appears in many settings, such as medical image processing [10], structural variations prediction [11], and network traffic analysis [12]. Discrete low-photon data reconstruction typically use a Poisson process model, whose application to imaging has been well-developed (see e.g., [13, 14, 15]). The Poisson model assumes that the mean and variance are equal. This paper proposes a sparse reconstruction algorithm for low-count settings where there is greater variability in a dataset than what is expected.

The negative binomial distribution is a discrete distribution returning the probability that $y$ successful events happen in a sequence of independent and identically distributed Bernoulli trials until the $r^{\text {th }}$ failure event and the probability of failure event is $p$. The probability mass function is given

[^0]by
$$
P(y \mid r, p)=\binom{r+y-1}{r-1}(1-p)^{y} p^{r}
$$

Under this negative binomial assumption, we write our observation model as

$$
y \sim \mathrm{NB}(r, p)
$$

The expectation $\mu$ and the variance $\sigma^{2}$ are given by the following formulas:

$$
\mu=r \frac{1-p}{p} \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma^{2}=r \frac{1-p}{p^{2}}
$$

These formulas give rise to the expressions

$$
\sigma^{2}=\mu+\frac{\mu^{2}}{r} \quad \text { and } \quad p=\frac{\mu}{\sigma^{2}}=\frac{r}{r+\mu} .
$$

Note that as $r$ goes to infinity, the variance $\sigma^{2}$ will tend to the expectation $\mu$, and it can be demonstrated that the Poisson distribution is a special case of the negative binomial distribution.

Let $f^{*} \in \mathbf{R}_{+}^{n}$ be the true signal of interest and $A \in \mathbf{R}_{+}^{m \times n}$ be the measurement matrix that maps $f^{*}$ to the vector of observations. Therefore, the expected measurement at the detector is $A f^{*} \in \mathbf{R}_{+}^{m}$. Thus, the mean $\mu$ is given by the vector $\mu=A f^{*}$. The observation vector $y \in \mathbf{R}_{+}^{m}$ drawn from a negative binomial distribution model is given by

$$
y_{i} \sim \mathrm{NB}\left(r_{i}, \frac{\mu_{i}}{\sigma_{i}^{2}}\right)=\mathrm{NB}\left(r_{i}, \frac{r_{i}}{r_{i}+\left(A f^{*}\right)_{i}}\right)
$$

where $r_{i}$ is often referred to as the "dispersion parameter" associated with the $i$ th observation. In this work, we assume that $r$ is constant for each component of the measurement vector $y$. Our goal is to reconstruct the true sparse/compressible signal of interest $f^{*}$ from the observed data $y$. For illustration, see Fig. 1. We note that the negative binomial distribution has been used previously in applications such as matrix factorization [16] and data regression [17].

## 2. PROBLEM FORMULATION

Under the assumption that the measurements in $y$ are independent and are identically drawn from a negative binomial


Fig. 1. Example of observation model. (a) True image $f^{*}$. (b) The true detector intensity $\mu=A f^{*}$. Here, $A$ is a blurring operator. (c) Observed measurement $y_{\text {Poisson }}$ drawn from a Poisson distribution. (d) Observed measurement $y_{\mathrm{NB}}$ drawn from a negative binomial distribution with $r=9$.
distribution, the probability of observing the data vector $y$ is given by

$$
P(y \mid f)=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\binom{r+y_{i}-1}{r-1}\left(\frac{r}{r+(A f)_{i}}\right)^{r}\left(\frac{(A f)_{i}}{r+(A f)_{i}}\right)^{y_{i}} .
$$

Applying a maximum likelihood approach to estimate $f^{*}$ yields the following constrained optimization problem:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\underset{f \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\operatorname{maximize}} & P(y \mid f) \\
\text { subject to } & f \geq 0,
\end{array}
$$

which can be formulated equivalently using a negative loglikelihood objective function as
$\underset{f \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\operatorname{minimize}} \quad F(f) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(r+y_{i}\right) \log \left(r+(A f)_{i}\right)-y_{i} \log \left((A f)_{i}\right)$
subject to $f \geq 0$.
We impose the an additional constraint on $f$, namely, that $f$ is structured, e.g., sparse or compressible (see e.g., [1]), which we accomplish by adding a regularization term pen $(f)$ in the objective function. Our negative binomial sparse reconstruction algorithm takes on the form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\underset{f \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\operatorname{minimize}} & F(f)+\tau \operatorname{pen}(f) \\
\text { subject to } & f \geq 0, \tag{2}
\end{array}
$$

where $\tau>0$ is a regularization parameter that balances the data fitting term $F(f)$ with the sparsity-promoting regularization term pen $(f)$. In our experiment, we use three types of penalty terms: (1) the $\ell_{1}$-norm $\|f\|_{1}$, (2) the $\ell_{1}$-norm $\left\|W^{\top} f\right\|_{1}$ for an orthonormal basis $W$, and the total variation (TV) norm $\|f\|_{\mathrm{TV}}$.

## 3. ALGORITHM

Gradient-based approaches are computationally efficient methods for solving optimization problems. Here, the derivatives of $F(f)$ in (2) are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla F(f) & =\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(\frac{r+y_{i}}{r+e_{i}^{\top} A f}-\frac{y_{i}}{e_{i}^{\top} A f}\right) A^{\top} e_{i} \\
\nabla^{2} F(f) & =A^{\top} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left[\left(\frac{r+y_{i}}{\left(r+e_{i}^{\top} A f\right)^{2}}-\frac{y_{i}}{\left(e_{i}^{\top} A f\right)^{2}}\right) e_{i} e_{i}^{\top}\right] A
\end{aligned}
$$

where $e_{i}$ is the $i$ th canonical basis unit vector. To solve (2), we generate and solve a sequence of subproblems of the form

$$
\begin{align*}
f^{j+1}=\underset{f \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\arg \min } & F^{j}(f)+\tau \operatorname{pen}(f) \\
\text { subject to } & f \geq 0, \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

where $F^{j}(f)$ is a quadratic approximation to $F(f)$. Specifically, we use a second-order Taylor series approximation to $F(f)$ around the current iterate $f^{j}$ given by

$$
F^{j}(f)=F\left(f^{j}\right)+\left(f-f^{j}\right)^{\top} \nabla F\left(f^{j}\right)+\frac{\alpha_{j}}{2}\left\|f-f^{j}\right\|_{2}^{2},
$$

where the parameter $\alpha_{j}$ is chosen via Barzilai-Borwein criteria [18] with $\alpha_{j} I \approx \nabla^{2} F\left(f^{j}\right)$. This approach is similar to the framework in [4, 9, 19]. Setting $q^{j}=f^{j}-\frac{1}{\alpha_{j}} \nabla F\left(f^{j}\right)$, then (3) can be written equivalently as

$$
\begin{align*}
f^{j+1}=\underset{f \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\arg \min } & \frac{1}{2}\left\|f-q^{j}\right\|_{2}^{2}+\frac{\tau}{\alpha_{j}} \operatorname{pen}(f) \\
\text { subject to } & f \geq 0 . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

The algorithm terminates when consecutive iterates or the corresponding objective function $F(f)$ values do not change significantly.

Here we present three types of penalty terms, pen $(f)$, for which the solution to (4) can be computed efficiently using the methods in [9].

1. Canonical basis. If $f$ is sparse, then $\operatorname{pen}(f)=\|f\|_{1}$ is commonly used to promote sparsity [20]. Even though this penalty is not differentiable, the minimizer in (4) is given by the closed-form expression $f^{j+1}=\left[q^{j}-\frac{\tau}{\alpha_{j}} \mathbb{1}\right]_{+}$, where $[\cdot]_{+} \equiv \max \{0, \cdot\}$ (component-wise) and $\mathbb{1}$ is the vector of ones of appropriate length.
2. Orthonormal basis. If $f=W \theta$, where $W$ is an orthogonal matrix and $\theta$ is sparse, then we use the penalty term $\operatorname{pen}(f)=\left\|W^{\top} f\right\|_{1}=\|\theta\|_{1}$. Then, writing $\theta=u-v$, where $u, v \geq 0$, we reformulate (4) as

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{j+1}= & \underset{u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\arg \min } & & \frac{1}{2}\left\|W(u-v)-q^{j}\right\|_{2}^{2}+\frac{\tau}{\alpha_{j}} \mathbb{1}^{\top}(u+v) \\
& \text { subject to } & & u \geq 0, v \geq 0, W(u-v) \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

which has a differentiable objective function and can be solved using alternating minimization [21]. In our numerical experiments, we use the wavelet basis transform.
3. Total variation. The total variation norm measures firstorder vertical and horizontal differences in magnitude of an image. In our experiments, we use the anisotropic total variation (TV) norm of an $n \times n$ image $f$, which is given by

$$
\|f\|_{\mathrm{TV}} \triangleq \sum_{s=1}^{n-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n}\left|f_{s, t}-f_{s+1, t}\right|+\sum_{s=1}^{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n-1}\left|f_{s, t}-f_{s, t+1}\right| .
$$

The subproblem corresponding to (4) with pen $(f)=\|f\|_{\mathrm{TV}}$ is solved using the approach in [22].

## 4. EXPERIMENTS

We conduct three experiments to demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed approach.

- Experiment I consists of reconstructing a one-dimensional signal of length 15,000 , where the number of non-zeros is 1500. The measurement $y$ is drawn from a negative binomial distribution with $r=1$.
- Experiment II consists of reconstructing a 2-dimensional image (the modified Shepp-Logan phantom image in MATLAB) with size $128 \times 128$, where the observation data $y$ is drawn from a Poisson distribution.
- Experiment III is similar to Experiment II, but the observation data $y$ is drawn from a negative binomial distribution with dispersion parameter $r=9$.

In these experiments, we compare our proposed method to SPIRAL-TAP [9]. We use the percentage root-mean-square error $\left(\operatorname{RMSE}(\%)=100\left\|\hat{f}-f^{*}\right\|_{2} /\left\|f^{*}\right\|_{2}\right)$ to measure the distance between the computed solution $\hat{f}$ to the true solution $f^{*}$. At most 100 iterations were used because no significant improvements are observed past this limit. We used the default parameters in [9]. We used the given disperson parameter $r$, but this value can be estimated using cross-validation [23], method-of-moment [24], and maximum quasi-likelihood methods [25].

## Experiment I: 1D data with canonical basis sparsity



Fig. 2. Results for Experiment I: 1D data with canonical basis sparsity. (a) The true signal $f^{*}$, the true detector intensity $A f^{*}$, and the observed photon counts $y$ drawn from a negative binomial (NB) distribution with $r=1$. (b) Reconstruction using a Poisson model with 5015 non-zero components and RMSE $=47.0 \%$ (c) Reconstruction using a NB model with 1527 non-zero components and $\mathrm{RMSE}=15.2 \%$.

For this experiment, the one-dimensional signal $f^{*}$ is sparse in the canonical basis. Consequently, we choose the $\ell_{1}$-norm as the penalty term. The measurement data is drawn from a negative binomial distribution with dispersion parameter $r=$ 1, which represents a highly overdispersed dataset. The true signal $f^{*}$, the true detector intensity $A f^{*}$, and the observed photon counts $y$ are shown in Fig. 2(a). The reconstruction using SPIRAL-TAP is shown in Fig. 2(b), which has 5015 nonzero components and an RMSE of $47.0 \%$. The reconstruction using our proposed method is shown in Fig. 2(c), which, in contrast, has 1527 non-zero components and a lower RMSE of $27.2 \%$.

## Experiment II: 2D data drawn from a Poisson distribution

For this experiment, we use the $128 \times 128$ modified SheppLogan phantom image in Matlab. The observation data $y$ is drawn from a Poisson distribution. We consider both spar-


Fig. 3. Results for Experiment II: 2D data drawn from a Poisson distribution. (a) The Poisson reconstruction using the orthonormal basis (ONB) penalty with $\mathrm{RMSE}=24.7 \%$. (b) The negative binomial (NB) reconstruction using the ONB penalty with RMSE $=24.6 \%$. (c) The Poisson reconstruction using a total variation (TV) penalty with $\mathrm{RMSE}=24.6 \%$. (d) The NB reconstruction using a TV penalty with $\mathrm{RMSE}=22.9 \%$.
sifying orthonormal basis (ONB) and the total variation (TV) to promote sparsity in the reconstruction. The reconstructions using the Poisson and negative binomial models are presented in Fig. 3. The RMSE for the Poisson reconstructions using the ONB and TV penalties are similar ( $24.7 \%$ and $24.6 \%$, respectively). These values are comparable to the RMSE for the NB reconstruction using the ONB penalty (24.6\%). However, the RMSE for the NB reconstruction using the TV penalty is significantly lower ( $22.9 \%$ ). For the NB reconstructions, we used a dispersion parameter value of $r=1,000$ to mimic the Poisson model used to generate the data.

## Experiment III: 2D data drawn from an NB distribution

This experiment is similar to Experiment II, but here, the observations are drawn from a negative binomial distribution (with dispersion parameter $r=9$ ) instead of a Poisson distribution. The reconstructions using the Poisson and negative binomial models are presented in Fig. 4. Because the measurement data are much noisier (see Fig. 1), we expect the reconstruction RMSEs for both models to be higher than those in Experiment II. However, unlike the results for Experiment II, the RMSE for the Poisson reconstructions using the ONB and TV penalties are not similar ( $37.7 \%$ and $34.8 \%$,


Fig. 4. Results for Experiment III: 2D data drawn from a negative binomial distribution with dispersion parameter $r=9$. (a) The Poisson reconstruction using the ONB penalty with RMSE $=37.7 \%$. (b) The NB reconstruction using the ONB penalty with $\mathrm{RMSE}=34.9 \%$. (c) The Poisson reconstruction using a TV penalty with $\mathrm{RMSE}=34.8 \%$. (d) The NB reconstruction using a TV penalty with RMSE $=32.7 \%$.
respectively). The TV penalty RMSE value is comparable to the RMSE for the NB reconstruction using the ONB penalty (34.9\%). However, the RMSE for the NB reconstruction using the TV penalty is significantly lower (32.7\%).

## 5. CONCLUSION

Low-count observations arise in many practical applications of interest, including medical imaging and night imaging. In this work, we presented an alternative to Poisson statistics for modeling low-photon count measurements in the presence of greater variability in a dataset than what is expected. For sparse signal recovery, we proposed a sequential quadratic optimization approach that uses the negative binomial loglikelihood with a sparsifying penalty term to promote sparsity in the reconstruction. We considered three types of penalties (the widely used $\ell_{1}$-norm, the $\ell_{1}$-norm in conjunction with a sparsifying basis, and the total variation norm), whose corresponding quadratic subproblems are efficiently solved. We conducted numerical experiments in 1D and 2D where the measurements are drawn from both Poisson and negative binomial distributions, and in all cases, using a negative binomial model improve the accuracy of the reconstructed signals.

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