Generalized Hessian-Schatten norm regularization for image reconstruction

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ABSTRACT

Regularization plays a crucial role in reliably utilizing imaging systems for scientific and medical investigations. It helps to stabilize the process of computationally undoing any degradation caused by physical limitations of the imaging process. In the past decades, total variation regularization played a dominant role in the literature. Two forms of total variation regularizations, namely the first-order and the second-order total variation (TV-1 and TV-2) have been widely used. TV-1 has a disadvantage: it reconstructs images in the form of piece-wise constants when the noise and/or under-sampling is severe, while TV-2 reconstructs natural-looking images under such scenarios. On the other hand, TV-1 can recover sharp jumps better than TV-2. Two forms of generalizations, namely Hessian-Schatten norm (HSN) regularization, and total generalized variation (TGV) regularization, have been proposed and have become significant developments in the area of regularization for imaging inverse problems owing to their performance. While the strength of TGV is that it can combine the advantages of TV-1 and TV-2, HSN has better structure-preserving property. Here, we develop a novel regularization for image recovery that combines the strengths of TGV and HSN. We achieve this by restricting the maximization space in the dual form of HSN in the same way that TGV is obtained from TV-2. We call the new regularization the generalized Hessian-Schatten norm regularization (GHSN). We develop a novel computational method for image reconstruction using the new form of regularization based on the well-known framework called the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM). We demonstrate the strength of the GHSN using some reconstruction examples.

INDEX TERMS

Regularization, Total Variation, Total Generalized Variation, Hessian-Schatten Norm, Inverse Problems, MRI Reconstruction.

I. INTRODUCTION

Images acquired using different imaging devices are inevitably corrupted due to the physical limitations of the image formation model. An estimation scheme that employs knowledge of the image formation forward model to generate a better quality estimate is known as image restoration/reconstruction [1]. The relative improvement in the image quality obtained by image restoration/reconstruction is typically significant in most modalities in general, and in particular, in modalities such as MRI imaging [2], [3], computed tomography [4], [5], confocal microscopy [6] and widefield microscopy [7]. One of the classical approaches to image restoration is the regularized approach [8]. It formulates the required reconstruction as the solution to the optimization problem as given below:

\[ g_{opt} = \arg\min_{g} J(g) = [G(m, g) + \lambda R(g)], \]  

(1)

where \(G(m, g)\) is the data fitting functional that measures the goodness of fit of the candidate image \(g\) to the measured image \(m\), and \(R(g)\) is the regularization functional that measures some kind of roughness of the image. The structure of the data-fitting term is dependent on the forward model of the imaging device and the assumed statistical model of the noise. The regularization functional \(R\) represents the prior information we have about the class of images we are trying to restore. The constant term \(\lambda\) is a user parameter that allows a tradeoff between the regularization term and the data fitting term.
The recent leap in the computing power of desktop computers led to the application deep neural networks (DNN) for image restoration [10]–[16]. The main argument that supports the use of DNN is that, while regularization methods impose ad hoc prior beliefs on the image to be restored, a trained DNN encompasses a more natural knowledge resulting from training data. However, a recent work by Hansen et al. [17] shows that such learned maps can be unstable. Further, the need for a large amount of training data limits the applicability of DNN based methods. In this paper, we limit our focus to regularization based methods.

Design of regularization functional $R(q)$ is a long-studied problem in signal and image processing [1]. One of the classic regularization techniques is Tikhonov regularization [18]. Tikhonov regularization was originally employed for solving integral equations, but it proved to be successful in imaging inverse problems as well [19]. The earliest form of Tikhonov regularization was constructed using sum-of-squares of the candidate image/signal [18], and then the later forms were constructed using the pixel-wise sum of squares of $l_2$ norm of gradients. When the image formation model is represented by blurring, reconstruction using Tikhonov regularization can be obtained in a single step using a simple formula expressed in the Fourier domain, which makes Tikhonov regularization attractive. However, Tikhonov regularization leads to oversmooth solutions. Nevertheless, Tikhonov regularization is still widely used, especially in large scale problems such as 3D deconvolution [20].

Later non-quadratic forms of regularization came into the picture owing to their better ability to preserve the resolution in the reconstructed images. Earliest forms of non-quadratic regularization were based on $l_1$ norm of the wavelet transform of the candidate image. Representative methods in this category include ISTA [21]–[23], FISTA [24] and TwiIST [25]. These methods are primarily based on the fact that wavelet transform of typical images have low $l_1$ norm. The basis used in the wavelet transform can be adapted to data to give better performance in image restoration problems [26]. It should be emphasized that the factor that makes wavelet regularization better than the Tikhonov is that the wavelet transform has inbuilt derivatives and hence wavelet regularization in some sense becomes equivalent to $l_1$ minimization image derivatives. This leads to better preservation of structures than Tikhonov regularization which smooths out edges.

It was then recognized that minimizing non-quadratic measures of image derivative directly (instead of using the wavelet transform) gave better results, and this led to the era of total variation (TV) regularization in solving imaging inverse problems [27]–[36]. TV regularization was constructed using the pixel-wise sum of $l_2$-norm of gradients [27] which was found to yield better reconstructions. TV can better retain edges [27] in the reconstruction as compared to Tikhonov regularization [31], and in particular, it can recover sharp jumps in the reconstruction even in the presence large amount of noise and/or undersampling. At the same time, it has a disadvantage that, in the presence of a large amount of noise and/or undersampling, it approximates smooth intensity variations in terms of piece-wise constant segments, which is known as staircase effect [37]. Higher-order extensions of TV [37] have been proposed to avoid the staircase effect and they deliver better restoration. Second-order TV (TV-2) [38]–[40] was constructed as the pixel-wise sum of Frobenius norm of image Hessians. TV-2 recovers linear intensity variations in the presence large amount of noise and/or under-sampling; however, it loses the ability to reproduce sharp intensity jumps that TV-1 can recover. More recently TV-2 was combined with a modified form of TV-1 regularization involving local averaging of image gradients to obtain improved image restoration [41]. A similar form was also applied for image inpainting problem in [42]. Another form of regularization that combines TV-1 and TV-2 in a spatially adaptive manner was proposed in [43] for improved image restoration.

A generalization of TV-2, known as Hessian-Schatten norm (HSN) regularization is obtained by replacing the Frobenius norm of the Hessian with the Schatten norm of the Hessian. Schatten norm is the $l_p$ norm of the vector of eigenvalues of the Hessian [44], and when $p = 2$, this regularization becomes identical to TV-2. HSN regularization is better than TV-2 in the sense that setting $p$ to be less than 2 typically yields improved results. HSN regularization has been applied for fluorescence microscopy [45], [46] and CT [47] imaging modalities. Image restoration with Hessian Schatten-norm can be solved with wide variety of assumptions on the noise model, e.g. Poisson [46], Gaussian [44] and mixed Poisson-Gaussian [48].

A generalization of total variation to higher-order terms, named total generalized variation (TGV) has been proposed [49]. It is generalized in two ways: it is formulated for any general derivative order; for any given order, it is generalized in the way how the derivatives are penalized. The second form of generalization is obtained by expressing the standard total variation regularization in dual form as a maximization, and then by imposing spatial smoothing constraints in the maximization problem. The second aspect of generalization has a more significant impact from a practical point of view. In fact, the version of TGV regularization that has been applied for non-trivial inverse problems (problems other than denoising) obtained by restricting the maximum order to be two (TGV-2) [50]; compared to the most widely used TV-2 regularization, it differs only by the second aspect of generalization. TGV-2 allows combining the best of TV-1 and TV-2: it allows retrieving sharp jumps as TV-1 does; at the same time, it gives reconstructions free of staircase artefacts as TV-2 does.

In this paper, we develop a novel type of regularization by generalizing the Hessian-Schatten norm regularization in the same way that TGV-2 regularization generalizes the TV-2 regularization. The resulting form of regularization includes TV-2, TGV-2, and Hessian-Schatten norm regularization as special cases. We call this regularization the generalized...
Hessian-Schatten norm regularization (GHSN), and we develop a novel optimization method for image reconstruction using the GHSN. Our main contribution can be summarized as follows:

- We generalize the Hessian-Schatten norm regularization in the same way the second-order TV regularizer [49] generalizes second-order TV regularization, which we call the generalized Hessian-Schatten norm regularization (GHSN). [38]–[40].
- We propose a novel variable splitting scheme involving novel proximal operators for minimization resulting cost function using ADMM framework [51], [52], and develop formulas for these proximal operators. The resulting reconstruction method gives results that are better than the method proposed in [53] even if GHSN is restricted to be identical to the form used in [53]. This confirms the numerical advantage of the proposed minimization method.

We demonstrate the effectiveness of GHSN regularization using numerical experiments involving reconstructions from sparse Fourier samples and sparse spatial samples.

NOTATIONS AND MATHEMATICAL PRELIMINARIES

1) Vectors are represented by lower-case bold faced letters with the elements represented by the same letter with a subscripted index. For example, \( \mathbf{v} \) denotes a vector and its \( i \)th element is denoted by \( v_i \). For a vector \( \mathbf{v} \), \( \| \mathbf{v} \|_p \) denotes the \( l_p \) norm given by \( \| \mathbf{v} \|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^p)^{1/p} \). It can be shown that \( \| \mathbf{v} \|_p \) with \( p \to \infty \) converges to the component of \( \mathbf{v} \) that has the largest magnitude, and hence we write \( \| \mathbf{v} \|_{\infty} = \max_{i} |v_i| : i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \).

2) We will deal with vector images; vector images are discrete 2D arrays where each pixel location has a vector quantity. It is denoted by lower-case bold-faced letter with a bold-faced lower-case letter as an argument. For example, \( \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \) is a vector image with \( \mathbf{r} = [x \ y]^T \) representing a 2D pixel location. Depending on the context, the symbol denoting the pixel location may be omitted.

3) For a vector image, \( \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \), \( \| \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \|_2 \) denotes \( \| \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \|_2 = \sum_{\mathbf{r}} \| \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \|_2 \). It is the sum of pixel-wise \( l_2 \) norms, where \( \sum_{\mathbf{r}} \) denotes the sum across pixel indices. Throughout the paper, we do not specify the bounds of summation as it is always the same and ranges from the first to last pixels. The norm \( \| \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \|_{1,2} \) is a composition of norms, and is called the mixed-norm.

4) Matrices are represented by upper case bold faced letters. For a matrix \( \mathbf{M} \), \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_F \) denotes the Frobenius norm, which equal to the square root of sum of squares of its elements; it can be written as \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_F = \sqrt{Tr(\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{M})} \), where \( Tr(\cdot) \) denotes the summing of diagonal elements. Next \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{s(p)} \) denotes the Schatten \( p \)-norm of the matrix, which is the \( l_p \) norm of the vector of singular values of the matrix \( \mathbf{M} \). For a symmetric matrix, it is also the same as the \( l_p \) norm of the eigenvalues. In other words, if \( \mathbf{E} \) denotes the operator that returns the vector of eigenvalues of a matrix, then \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{s(p)} = \| \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{M}) \|_p \).

5) We will also deal with matrix images; matrix images are discrete 2D arrays where each pixel location has a matrix quantity. It is denoted by upper-case bold-faced letter with a bold-faced lower-case letter as an argument. For example, \( \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \) is a matrix image with \( \mathbf{r} \) representing a 2D pixel location. Depending on the context, the symbol denoting the pixel location may be omitted. For a vector image, \( \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) \), its \( j \)th scalar image is given by \( v_j(\mathbf{r}) \). For a matrix image, \( \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \), its \((i,j)\)th scalar image is given by \( m_{ij}(\mathbf{r}) \).

6) For an matrix image, \( \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \), let \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{1,S(p)} \) denote the \( l_1 \) norm of the pixel-wise Schatten \( p \)-norms. In other words, we have \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{1,S(p)} = \sum_{\mathbf{r}} \| \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \|_{s(p)} \). Further, let \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{\infty,S(p)} \) denote the \( l_{\infty} \) norm of the pixel-wise Schatten \( p \)-norms. In other words, we have \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{\infty,S(p)} = \max_{\mathbf{r}} \| \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \|_{s(p)} \). Note that the norms \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{1,S(p)} \) and \( \| \mathbf{M} \|_{\infty,S(p)} \) are mixed-norm.

7) For square matrices of same dimension, \( \mathbf{M} \), \( \mathbf{N} \), let \( \langle \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N} \rangle = Tr(\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{N}) \). For a square matrix \( \mathbf{N} \) let \( \overline{\mathbf{N}} = \frac{\mathbf{N}^T + \mathbf{N}}{2} \). Then the following holds for any pair of square matrices: \( \langle \mathbf{M}, \overline{\mathbf{N}} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{M} \rangle, \mathbf{N} \rangle \).

8) If \( \mathbf{M} \) and \( \mathbf{N} \) denote matrix images such that for each pixel index \( \mathbf{r} \), \( \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \), and \( \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{r}) \) denotes square matrices of the same dimensions, then, \( \langle \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{r}), \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \rangle \) denotes \( Tr(\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{r})^T \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r})) \). On the other hand, \( \langle \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{r}), \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \rangle \) denotes \( \sum_{\mathbf{r}} Tr(\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{r})^T \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r})) \).

9) For a matrix image \( \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \), the norm \( \| \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \|_{1,S(p)} \) can be expressed as a maximization of inner product of the form \( \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \). Specifically we can write

\[
\| \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}) \|_{1,S(p)} = \max_{\| \mathbf{N} \|_{(\infty,S(q))} \leq 1} \langle \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}), \mathbf{N} \rangle , \tag{2}
\]

where \( q \) is the real positive number satisfying \( 1/p + 1/q = 1 \). The notation \( \max_{\| \mathbf{N} \|_{(\infty,S(q))} \leq 1} \) denote maximization within the set of matrix images with the value of mixed norm \( \| \mathbf{N} \|_{\infty,S(q)} \) upper-bounded by 1.

10) In this paper, * denotes the 2-D convolution operation, i.e. \( (\mathbf{x} \ast \mathbf{y})(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{r}) \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}) \). We extend notion of convolution to matrix images by using the rules of matrix multiplication. To be more specific, let \( \mathbf{X} \) be an image of \( m \times l \) matrices and let \( \mathbf{Y} \) be image of \( n \times m \) matrices. Then, \( (\mathbf{X} \ast \mathbf{Y})_{i,j}(r) = \sum_{p=1}^l \left(x_{i,p} \ast y_{p,j}\right)(r) \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \). As an example, let both \( \mathbf{X} \) and \( \mathbf{Y} \) be \( 2 \times 2 \) matrix images. Then the elements of \( \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X} \ast \mathbf{Y} \), can be written as

\[
\begin{align*}
z_{1,1}(\mathbf{r}) &= (x_{1,1} \ast y_{1,1})(\mathbf{r}) + (x_{1,2} \ast y_{2,1})(\mathbf{r}), \\
z_{1,2}(\mathbf{r}) &= (x_{1,1} \ast y_{1,2})(\mathbf{r}) + (x_{1,2} \ast y_{2,2})(\mathbf{r}), \\
z_{2,1}(\mathbf{r}) &= (x_{2,1} \ast y_{1,1})(\mathbf{r}) + (x_{2,2} \ast y_{2,1})(\mathbf{r}), \\
z_{2,2}(\mathbf{r}) &= (x_{2,1} \ast y_{1,2})(\mathbf{r}) + (x_{2,2} \ast y_{2,2})(\mathbf{r}).
\end{align*}
\]
For a scalar image $g$ and an image of $m \times l$ matrices, $M$, $M \ast g$ is defined as $(M \ast g)_{ij}(r) = (m_{ij} \ast g)(r)$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$ and any location $r$.

For an image of $m \times l$ matrices, $M$, we can define a new matrix image $N = M^t$ by extending the idea of transpose of a matrix to the case of matrix images. The $(i,j)$ entry of $N$ can be defined as $n_{ij}(r) = m_{ji}(r)$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$ and any location $r$.

For scalar images $u$ and $v$, and a scalar filter $h$, the convolved inner product $(u, h \ast v)$ satisfies the relation $(u, h \ast v) = (h \ast u, v)$, where $h$ denotes the flipped filter, i.e., $h$ satisfies $h(r) = h(-r)$. This relation can be easily verified by writing the inner product in Fourier domain.

We will extend the notion of flipping for vector filter in a straightforward way. In other words, for a vector filter $h$, $h$ denotes the vector filter obtained by flipping each of its constituent scalar filters. For a vector image $u$ and a vector filter $h$, and a scalar image of appropriate size, $v$, we have $(u, h \ast v) = (h^t \ast u, v)$. The operation $h^t \ast (\cdot)$ is the adjoint of the operation $h \ast (\cdot)$.

Let $N$ be an $m \times m$ matrix image, and let $u$ and $v$ be $m \times 1$ vector filters. Then using the ideas of the previous point, we can show that $(u, N \ast v) = (u \ast v^t, N)$. By a trivial extension of this relation, we can also show that $(N, u \ast v^t \ast g) = (N \ast v^t, u \ast g)$ for any scalar image $g$.

Let $d(r) = [d_x(r) \quad d_y(r)]^t$ where $d_x(r)$ and $d_y(r)$ denote discrete filters implementing the derivative operators $\partial/\partial x$ and $\partial/\partial y$. Then for a scalar image, $g$, $d \ast g$ is the discrete gradient of $g$. Its adjoint, $d^t \ast (\cdot)$, which is defined for image of $2 \times 1$ vectors, is called the discrete divergence. For a $2 \times 1$ vector image $v$, we write $div v = d^t \ast v$.

The extension of the notion of gradient for vector images is called the Jacobian. For a vector image, $v(r)$, the Jacobian is given by $(v \ast d^t)(r)$. For a $2 \times 1$ vector image, $v(r)$, and $2 \times 2$ matrix image, $U(r)$, the inner product $(d \ast v^t, U)$ satisfies $(d \ast v^t, U) = (v^t, u)$ where $u$ is the row vector image obtained by applying the adjoint of the operation $d \ast (\cdot)$ on $U$. $u$ is given by $div U = [div u_1 \quad div u_2]$.

II. GENERALIZED HESSIAN-SCHATTEN NORM REGULARIZATION

Let $g(r)$ be the discrete candidate image, where $r = [x \ y]^t$ is the discrete pixel index. Let $H(r) = \begin{bmatrix} d_{xx}(r) & d_{xy}(r) \\ d_{yx}(r) & d_{yy}(r) \end{bmatrix}$ where $d_{xx}(r), d_{yy}(r)$, and $d_{xy}(r)$ are discrete filters implementing second order derivatives $\partial^2/\partial x^2$ and $\partial^2/\partial y^2$ respectively. Note that $H(r)$ is discrete Hessian operator. Convolution of this operator with $g(r)$ (denoted by $(H \ast g)(r)$) is the discretized Hessian of the candidate image. We regard $M(r) = (H \ast g)(r)$ as an image of $2 \times 2$ matrices; in other words, for each pixel index, $r$, $M(r)$ is a $2 \times 2$ matrix. Using this formulation, the well-known second-order total variation regularization can be expressed as $RTV^2(g) = \sum_{r \in F} \|(H \ast g)(r)\|_F$. Similarly, Hessian-Schatten norm regularization of order $p$ applied on the candidate image $g$ can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s) = \alpha_s \langle H \ast g \rangle_{\|\cdot\|_S(p)} = \alpha_s \sum_{r \in G} \|(H \ast g)(r)\|_S(p).$$

(3)

To develop the novel regularization by extending Hessian-Schatten norm, we use the dual form of the Schatten norm. Specifically, we write Hessian-Schatten norm on $g$ as

$$\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s) = \max \langle N, H \ast g \rangle, \quad \|N\|_{\|\cdot\|_{S(q)} \leq \alpha_s}.$$

(4)

where $q$ is the real number satisfying $1/p + 1/q = 1$. Note that the above maximization is within the space of $2 \times 2$ matrix images. As shown by Lefkimmiatis et al. [55], the maximizer will be a symmetric matrix image, because the Hessian, $H \ast g$, is symmetric. Hence, $\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s)$ will also be equal to the result of maximization within the space of $2 \times 2$ symmetric matrix images. This is again equivalent to writing

$$\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s) = \max \langle \tilde{N}, H \ast g \rangle, \quad \|\tilde{N}\|_{\|\cdot\|_{S(q)} \leq \alpha_s}.$$  

(5)

To formulate the generalization, we write the above expression in expanded form given below:

$$\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s) = \max \sum_{r \in G} \langle N(r), (H \ast g)(r) \rangle, \quad \|N\|_{\|\cdot\|_{S(q)} \leq \alpha_s}.$$ 

(6)

From the above form, it is clear that the maximization is carried out for each $r$ independently. Suppose $B_S(g)$ denotes the set of $2 \times 2$ symmetric matrices such that, for each $A \in B_S(g)$ we have $\|A\|_{S(q)} \leq 1$. Then the above minimization is carried out within a set that has a size that is $L^2$ times the size of $B_S(g)$, where $L \times L$ is the size of $g(r)$. We propose to generalize $\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s)$ by restricting the maximization space in the same way the second order TGV generalizes the second order total variation regularization (TV-2) [49]. To this end, let $\tilde{N}(r)$ be of the form $\tilde{N}(r) = \begin{bmatrix} n_{xx}(r) & n_{xy}(r) \\ n_{xy}(r) & n_{yy}(r) \end{bmatrix}$, and let $div (\cdot)$ for a matrix image be as defined in the previous section. Note that $(div \tilde{N}(r))$ is a vector image. With this, we express the generalization as given below:

$$\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max \langle \tilde{N}, H \ast g \rangle, \quad \|\tilde{N}\|_{\|\cdot\|_{S(q)} \leq \alpha_s}.$$  

(7)

By using the fact that $(div \tilde{N}) = d^t \ast \tilde{N}$ and transposition does not affect norm, we can write $\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f)$ as given below:

$$\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max \langle \tilde{N}, H \ast g \rangle, \quad \|\tilde{N}\|_{\|\cdot\|_{\infty} \leq \alpha_f}.$$  

(8)

Note that $\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f)$ is a generalization in the sense that $\mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s)$ is special case of $\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f)$, i.e., $\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \mathcal{HS}_p(g, \alpha_s)$. The above form is not usable as a regularization for image recovery as it involves symmetrization operation. Interestingly, the above form can be translated into a form that appears very close to the form...
The following proposition gives this expression.

**Proposition 1:** The generalized Hessian-Schatten norm \( \mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) \) can be expressed by

\[
\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \min_{\mathbf{u}} \; \alpha_f \| \mathbf{d} * g - \mathbf{u} \|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \| 0.5(\mathbf{u} * \mathbf{d}^t + \mathbf{d} * \mathbf{u}^t) \|_{1,S(p)}. \quad (9)
\]

Note that, in terms of pixel-wise summations, the above form of regularization can be written as

\[
\mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \min_{\mathbf{u}} \; \alpha_f \sum_r \| (\mathbf{d} * g)(r) - \mathbf{u}(r) \|_2 + \alpha_s \sum_r \| 0.5((\mathbf{u} * \mathbf{d}^t)(r) + (\mathbf{d} * \mathbf{u}^t)(r)) \|_{S(p)}. \quad (10)
\]

It can be verified that this form resembles with TGV-2 given in [49], [50], except the fact that \( \| \cdot \|_p \) is replaced by \( \| \cdot \|_{S(p)} \). By noting the fact that \( \| \cdot \|_{S(p)} \) with \( p = 2 \) becomes the same as \( \| \cdot \|_F \), we conclude that the proposed regularization includes TGV-2 as a special case. Further note that \( \mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) \) becomes the Hessian-Schatten norm regularization as \( \alpha_f \to \infty \). Moreover, it becomes the TV-2 regularization with \( p = 2 \) as \( \alpha_f \to \infty \). Because of the minimization with respect to the auxiliary image \( \mathbf{u}(r) \), \( \mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) \) gains spatial adaptability. Near edges, \( \mathbf{u}(r) \) can become zero leading to TV-1-like behaviour which allows sharp jumps in the edges. On the other hand, in smoother regions, \( \mathbf{u}(r) \) can approach \( \mathbf{d} * g(r) \) leading to the structure-preserving ability of Hessian-Schatten norm.

### III. IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION USING GHSN REGULARIZATION

#### A. THE COST FUNCTION

In our development, we will use an image measurement model that is a composition of convolution followed by a spatial sampling operation. Let \( h(r) \) denote the impulse response of the imaging system and suppose that the noise is Gaussian. We allow the possibility that \( h(r) \) can be complex, and hence the measurement can have complex values. Let \( \mathcal{T}_s \) denote the spatial sampling operator that samples an image from a predefined set of points and returns the vector of samples. With this, we consider the following form of data-fitting functional,

\[
G(h, \mathbf{m}, \mathcal{T}_s) = \| \mathcal{T}_s(h * g) - \mathbf{m} \|^2_2, \quad (11)
\]

where \( \mathbf{m} \) denotes the vector of measurements. By introducing the notation \( G(c, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) = \| \mathcal{T}_s(c) - \mathbf{m} \|^2_2 \), we can write \( G(h, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) = G(h * g, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) \). For the ease of implementation, we restrict the sample locations of \( \mathcal{T}_s \) to be a subset of the regular cartesian grid. Specifically, let the elements of \( \mathbf{m} \), denoted by \( \{ m_i, i = 1, \ldots, N \} \), be the samples from locations \( \{ r_i, i = 1, \ldots, N \} \) that forms a subset of the regular cartesian grid. Then the above cost can be expressed as

\[
G(h * g, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \| (h * g)(r_i) - m_i \|^2 \quad (12)
\]

The above summation over \( N \) samples can be equivalently expressed as summation over all pixel of the \( L \times L \) image as given below,

\[
G(h * g, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) = \sum_r W(r)((h * g)(r) - m(r))^2 \quad (13)
\]

where \( m(r) \) represents the image obtained by embedding the measured spatial samples \( \{ m_i, i = 1, \ldots, N \} \) in an array of zeros, and \( W(r) \) a binary image in which ones represents the points at which measurements were taken. Note that this model is more general than the simple blurring model in the sense that, if the whole blurred image is measured, then \( \mathcal{T}_s(c) \) will simply denote the operation of lexicographically scanning the pixels of the image \( c \) into a vector form. It is also equivalent to say that, in this case, \( W(r) \) becomes an image of all ones. With this, GHS regularized image reconstruction can be expressed as

\[
g_{\text{opt}} = \arg\min_{g} G(h * g, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) + \mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f). \quad (14)
\]

By accounting for the fact that \( \mathcal{GHS}_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) \) itself is expressed via a minimization, we can also write the above problem as,

\[
(g_{\text{opt}}, u_{\text{opt}}) = \arg\min_{g,u} G(h * g, \mathcal{T}_s, \mathbf{m}) + \mathcal{PGHS}_p(g, u, \alpha_s, \alpha_f),
\]

where

\[
\mathcal{PGHS}_p(g, u, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \alpha_f \| \mathbf{d} * g - u \|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \| 0.5(u * \mathbf{d}^t + \mathbf{d} * u^t) \|_{1,S(p)}. \quad (15)
\]

For notational convenience in developing the minimization algorithm, we re-express the cost in terms of the combined variable \( v(r) = [g(r) \; u^t(r)]^t \). To this end, we define the following:

\[
h(r) = [h(r) \; 0 \; 0]^t, \quad (17)
\]

\[
\mathbf{T}_f(r) = \begin{bmatrix} d_x(r) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_y(r) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (18)
\]

\[
\mathbf{T}_s(r) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & d_x(r) & 0 \\ 0 & d_y(r) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_x(r) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (19)
\]

\[
\mathbf{A}_f = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (20)
\]

We will overload the notation \( \| \cdot \|_{S(p)} \), such that when used with a \( 4 \times 1 \) vector \( \mathbf{y} = [y_1 \; y_2 \; y_3 \; y_4]^t \) as the argument, it represent the following:

\[
\| \mathbf{y} \|_{S(p)} = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{bmatrix} \right\|_{S(p)}.
\]
Let $K$ be the matrix such that $Ky = [y_1 \ 0.5(y_2 + y_3) \ 0.5(y_2 + y_3) \ y_4]^T$. With these, the overall cost to be minimized can be expressed as

\[
J(v, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) = G(h * v, T_s, m) + \alpha_f \sqrt{2} \|A_f(T_f * v)\|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \|K(T_s * v)\|_{1,S(p)},
\]

(21)

Note that definition of $A_f$ creates an additional scale factor of $\sqrt{2}$ in the middle term in [21]. But, this does not create any difference in the formulation as $\alpha_f$ is an independent parameter, which is tuned for optimum reconstruction quality. Hence we absorb the scaling $\sqrt{2}$ into the parameter $\alpha_f$. Henceforth, the weight parameter in the middle term will be $\alpha_f$ instead of $\alpha_f \sqrt{2}$.

Note that $J(v, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p)$ with $p = 2$ is the well-known TGV-2 regularization. Guo et al. [53] developed an algorithm for image reconstruction using TGV-2 and shearlet regularization. With the shearlet part removed, their algorithm corresponds to the following constrained formulation of the reconstruction problem,

\[
(v^*, w^*, w^*_f) = \arg\min_{v, w, w_f} G(h * v, T_s, m) + \alpha_f \|w_f\|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \|w_s\|_{1,S(2)}
\]

(22)

subject to $w_s = K(T_s * v)$, $w_f = A_f(T_f * v)$,

(23)

except the fact that $T_s$ will simply pick all the pixels of the image. The main advantage of this form is that the ADMM algorithm can be constructed using well known proximal operators. However, the algorithm can be badly conditioned in some cases as we will demonstrate in the experiment section.

### B. PROPOSED ADMM METHOD

Before specifying the variable splitting scheme for the proposed ADMM algorithm, we first rewrite the cost of the equation [21] as

\[
J(v, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) = G(h * v, T_s, m) + \alpha_f \|A_f(T_f * v)\|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \|K(T_s * v)\|_{1,S(p)} + B(e^f * v),
\]

(24)

where

\[
B(g) = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } LB \leq g_i \leq UB \ \forall i \\
\infty & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

enforces pixelwise lowerbound (LB) and upperbound (UB). Also, $e_i^f(r) = [\delta(r_0) \ 0 \ 0]$ with $\delta$ denoting Kronecker delta, and hence $e^f * v = v_1 = g$. We propose to build ADMM algorithm by means of the following constrained formulation:

\[
(v^*, w^*, w^*_f, w^*_b, w^*_m) = \arg\min_{v, w, w_f, w_b, w_m} G(w_m, T_s, m) + \alpha_f \|A_f w_f\|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \|Kw_s\|_{1,S(p)} + B(w_b)
\]

(25)

subject to $w_s = T_s * v$, $w_f = T_f * v$, $e^f * v = w_b$, $h * v = w_m$.

The main difference from the previous formulation [53] is that the matrices $A_f$ and $K$ are not a part of the constraints but, are left as a part of the cost to be minimized. This leads to some numerical advantages, which we will clarify after completing the development of the algorithm. On the other hand, this splitting scheme requires constructing new proximal operators for implementing the ADMM algorithm. We do this in the next section, which is one of the important contributions of the paper. In the remainder of this section, we complete specifying the ADMM iteration for the splitting scheme specified above. In order to facilitate developing the algorithm in terms of compact expressions, we need to simplify the notations further. To this end, let

\[
w = [w_b \ w_f^* \ w_f^T \ w_m]^T
\]

(26)

\[
T(r) = \begin{bmatrix} e^f(r) \\ T_s(r) \\ T_f(r) \\ h(r) \end{bmatrix}.
\]

(27)

With this, the above problem can be expressed as

\[
(v^*, w^*) = \arg\min_{v, w} R(w, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p)
\]

subject to $w = T * v$,

(28)

where

\[
R(w, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) = \alpha_f \|A_f w_f\|_{1,2} + \alpha_s \|Kw_s\|_{1,S(p)} + B(w_b) + G(w_m, T_s, m)
\]

(29)

The next step towards developing the ADMM algorithm is to write the augmented Lagrangian of the above constrained optimization problem. The augmented Lagrangian is given by

\[
L(v, w, \lambda, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) = R(w, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) + \beta \|T * v - w\|^2 + \lambda \|T * v - w\|
\]

(30)

where $\lambda$ is vector image of Lagrange’s multiplier with its dimension equal to that of $w$. Also, $\beta$ is a fixed positive real number. The ADMM becomes series of minimizations with respect to $v$ and $w$ and updates on $\lambda$. Given the current set of iterates, $\{v(k), w(k), \lambda(k)\}$ the ADMM methods proceeds as follows:

\[
w^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_w L(v^{(k)}, w, \lambda^{(k)}, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p),
\]

(31)

\[
v^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_v L(v, w^{(k+1)}, \lambda^{(k)}, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p),
\]

(32)

and $\lambda^{(k+1)} = \lambda^{(k)} + \beta (T * v^{(k+1)} - w^{(k+1)})$.

### IV. SOLVING THE SUB-PROBLEMS OF ADMM

#### A. THE $w$-PROBLEM

1) Expressing the pixel-wise sub-problems

Note that the solution to the minimization problem of equation [31], $w^{(k+1)}$, is also the minimum of the following cost:

\[
L_{w,k}(w, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) = R(w, \alpha_s, \alpha_f, p) + \frac{\beta}{2} \|w - x^{(k)}\|^2,
\]

(34)
where, 
\[ \hat{x}^{(k)} = T \ast v^{(k)} + \frac{1}{\beta} \lambda^{(k)}. \]  
(35)

For notational convenience, let \( x = \hat{x}^{(k)} \) and let \( \hat{w} = w^{(k+1)} \). Note that the cost \( L_{w,k}(w, \alpha, \alpha_f, p) \) is separable across the subvectors of the variable, \( w \); in other words, it is separable across the subvectors \( w_b, w_m, w_s, \) and \( w_f \), and we introduced the collective variable, \( w \) only for notational convenience in expressing the ADMM loop of equations \( \{\text{21}, \text{22}, \text{33}\} \). As we are focused on this specific subproblem, we will now separate the constituent problems. To this end, let \( x_b, x_m, x_s, \) and \( x_f \) denote the sub-vectors of \( x \) conferring to the partitioning given in the equation \( \{\text{26}\} \). Similarly, let \( \hat{w}_b, \hat{w}_m, \hat{w}_s, \) and \( \hat{w}_f \) be the subvectors of \( w \). With this the solution to the \( w \)-problem can be expressed as

\[ w_{m}\text{-prob.}: \hat{w}_m = \arg\min_{w_m} \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_m - w_m\|_2^2 + G(w_m, T_s, m) \]
(36)

\[ w_{b}\text{-prob.}: \hat{w}_b = \arg\min_{w_b} \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_b - w_b\|_2^2 + B(w_b) \]
(37)

\[ w_{s}\text{-prob.}: \hat{w}_s = \arg\min_{w_s} \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_s - w_s\|_2^2 + \alpha_s \|Kw_s\|_1.S(p) \]
(38)

\[ w_{f}\text{-prob.}: \hat{w}_f = \arg\min_{w_f} \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_f - w_f\|_2^2 + \alpha_s \|A_f w_f\|_1.2 \]
(39)

Note that the functions \( \tilde{L}_b(w_b, x_b) \), \( \tilde{L}_s(w_s, x_s, \alpha_s) \), and \( \tilde{L}_f(w_f, x_f, \alpha_f) \) are separable across pixel indices since they are constructed as mixed norms composed elementary pixel-wise norms. Hence, they can be expressed as a sum of pixel-wise elementary functions. The form of these elementary functions can be clearly deduced from the form of the functions \( L_b(w_b, x_b) \), \( L_s(w_s, x_s, \alpha_s) \), and \( L_f(w_f, x_f, \alpha_f) \). We can express these functions as

\[ \tilde{L}_b(w_b, x_b) = \sum_r \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_b(r) - w_b(r)\|^2 + B(w_b(r)) \]
(40)

\[ \tilde{L}_s(w_s, x_s, \alpha_s) = \sum_r \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_s(r) - w_s(r)\|^2 + \alpha_s \|Kw_s(r)\|_S(p) \]
(41)

and \( \tilde{L}_f(w_f, x_f, \alpha_f) \)

\[ = \sum_r \frac{\beta}{2} \|x_f(r) - w_f(r)\|^2 + \alpha_f \|A_f w_f(r)\|_2 \]
(42)

Now we consider the \( w_m \)-problem. First we rewrite the cost:

\[ \tilde{L}_m(w_m, x_m) = \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x_m - w_m \right\|_2^2 + G(w_m, T_s, m) \]
(43)

\[ = \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x_m - w_m \right\|_2^2 + \left\| T_s(w_m) - m \right\|_2^2 \]  
(44)

As mentioned before, we will consider a restricted case where \( T_s \) picks samples from locations that constitute a subset of a regular grid. In this case, \( \left\| T_s(w_m) - m \right\|_2^2 \) can be written as

\[ \left\| T_s(w_m) - m \right\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_r W(r)(w_m(r) - m(r))^2, \]

where \( W(r) \) is the image that has ones at pixels locations from where \( T_s \) picks samples, and zeros at other location. Further, \( m(r) \) is the image obtained by embedding measured samples \( m \) into an image of zeros. Further, we note that we can express \( \left\| x_m - w_m \right\|_2^2 \) can be written as

\[ \left\| x_m - w_m \right\|_2^2 = \sum_r (x_m(r) - w_m(r))^2. \]

Hence, the cost \( \tilde{L}_m(w_m, x_m) \) can be written as given below:

\[ \tilde{L}_m(w_m, x_m) = \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_r (x_m(r) - w_m(r))^2 + \sum_r W(r)(w_m(r) - m(r))^2 \]  
(45)

From the above equation, it is clear that the minimization problem is separable across pixels. We denote the pixel-wise cost by \( L_m(\cdot, \cdot) \) and write \( \tilde{L}_m(w_m, x_m) = \sum_r L_m(w_m(r), x_m(r)) \) where

\[ L_m(w_m(r), x_m(r)) = \frac{\beta}{2} (x_m(r) - w_m(r))^2 + W(r)(w_m(r) - m(r))^2. \]

We have shown so far that all the sub-problems are separable across pixels. Hence the solution to the minimization problems of equations \( \{\text{36}, \text{37}, \text{38}, \text{39}\} \) can be expressed as:

\[ \hat{w}_m(r) = \arg\min_{z \in \mathbb{R}} L_m(z, x_m(r)), \]
(46)

\[ \hat{w}_b(r) = \arg\min_{z \in \mathbb{R}} L_b(z, x_b(r)), \]
(47)

\[ \hat{w}_s(r) = \arg\min_{z \in \mathbb{R}} L_s(z, x_s(r), \alpha_s), \]
(48)

\[ \hat{w}_f(r) = \arg\min_{z \in \mathbb{R}} L_f(z, x_f(r), \alpha_f). \]
(49)

2) Solution to the pixel-wise sub-problems
The solution to the \( w_m \)-problem very simple. The solution \( \hat{w}_m(r) \) can be expressed as

\[ \hat{w}_m(r) = \frac{\beta x_m(r) + W(r)m(r)}{\beta + W(r)}. \]
The solution to the \( w_b \)-problem is also simple, and it is the clipping of the pixels by bound that defines \( B(w_b) \) [56]. We express the solution as given below:

\[
\hat{w}_b(r) = P_b(x_b(r)),
\]

(50)

where \( P_b(\cdot) \) denotes the operation of clipping the pixel values within the specified bounds. Next, we consider expressing the solution for the \( w_f \)-problem. Note that, in the absence of the matrix \( A_f \), the solution will be the well-known shrinkage operation on the \( l_2 \) norm of \( x_f(r) \) [56]. Because of the presence of the matrix, \( x_f(r) \), the shrinkage operation is not directly applicable. The following proposition gives the solution to the \( w(r) \) problem.

**Proposition 2:** The minimum of \( L_f(z, a, \alpha_f) = \frac{\beta}{2} \| z - a \|_2^2 + \alpha_f \| A_f z \|_2^2 \) with respect to \( z \) is given by \( P(a, t) = a - \min(\|A_f a\|_2^2, t) A_f^T A_f a \), where \( t = \alpha f/\beta \). Now, considering the \( w_s \)-problem, i.e., considering the minimization of \( \frac{\beta}{2} \| z - a \|_2^2 + \alpha_s \| K z \|_S(p) \), the presence of \( K \) makes the problem more complex. Otherwise, the solution to the problem in the absence of \( K \) is well-known [55]. The following proposition gives expression for solution to this problem.

**Proposition 3:** The minimum of \( L_s(z, a, \alpha_s) = \frac{1}{2} \| z - a \|_2^2 + t \| K z \|_S(p) \) with respect to \( z \) is given by \( P_s(a, t) = L a + P_s(K a, t) \) where \( P_s(b, t) \) represents the minimum of \( \frac{1}{2} \| z - b \|_2^2 + t \| z \|_S(p) \) with respect to \( z \), and \( L \) is the matrix such that its operations on \( a = [a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4]^T \) is defined as \( L a = [0.5(a_2 - a_3) 0.5(a_3 - a_2) 0] \). Note that \( P_s(\cdot, t) \) is the well-known proximal operator of Schatten norm (for details see [55]), and the above proposition expresses the required proximal operator—proximal operator for the modified Schatten norm, \( P_s(\cdot, t) \)—as a simple modification of \( P_s(\cdot, t) \). Note that we just need set \( t = \alpha_s/\beta \) for applying the above proposition for the problem of equation [45]. Although \( P_s(\cdot, t) \) is well known, in Algorithm 3, we provide detailed description of \( P_s(\cdot, t) \) to the level required for implementation along with a self-contained description of the overall algorithm. Note that, we have non-iterative exact formula for \( P_s(\cdot, t) \) only for \( p = 1, 2 \). Hence, in the experimental demonstration, we only consider these two values for \( p \).

**B. THE \( v \)-PROBLEM**

Now we consider the minimization problem of equation (52). By taking the dependencies of the minimization variable \( v \), it can be deduced that, the solution to this problem is also the minimum of the following cost function:

\[
L_{v,k}(v) = \frac{1}{2} \| T v - y^{(k)} \|_2^2,
\]

(51)

where \( y^{(k)} = w^{(k+1)} - \frac{1}{\beta} \lambda^{(k)} \).

(52)

As done before for notational convenience, we let \( y = y^{(k)} \), and \( \hat{v} = v^{(k+1)} \). Let \( v(r) = [v_1(r) \ v_2(r) \ v_3(r)]^T \), \( \hat{v}(r) = [\hat{v}_1(r) \ \hat{v}_2(r) \ \hat{v}_3(r)]^T \). From the definition of \( T(r) \) given in the equation (27), and from the definition of \( h(r) \), it is clear that the cost \( L_{v,k}(v) \) is separable across the components of \( v(r) \), which are \( v_1(r) \), \( v_2(r) \), and \( v_3(r) \). By letting \( y(r) = [y_3(r) \ y_4(r) \ y_5(r) \ y_6(r) \ y_7(r) \ y_8(r)] \), the costs separated for \( v_1 \), \( v_2 \), and \( v_3 \) are given by

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{L}_1(v_1) &= \frac{1}{2} \| h_1 \hat{v}_1 - y_1 \|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| v_1 - y_2 \|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_1 - v_1 - y_3 \|_2^2, \\
\hat{L}_2(v_2) &= \frac{1}{2} \| y_4 - y_5 \|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_2 - v_2 - y_6 \|_2^2, \\
\hat{L}_3(v_3) &= \frac{1}{2} \| y_7 - y_8 \|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_3 - v_3 - y_9 \|_2^2.
\end{align*}
\]

(53)

These are quadratic functions involving simple discrete filtering operation. Hence, their minima can be expressed in terms of simple Fourier inversion. To this end, we write the expression for the gradients below:

\[
\nabla_{v_1} \hat{L}_1(v_1) = \frac{\text{Re}(\text{conj}(\hat{h}) \ast \hat{h}) \ast v_1 + (v_1 + \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_1 \ast v_1 + \hat{d}_y \hat{v}_1 \ast v_1)}{1} - \frac{\text{Re}(\text{conj}(\hat{h}) \ast y_m)}{1},
\]

(54)

\[
\nabla_{v_2} \hat{L}_2(v_2) = \frac{v_2 + \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_2 \ast v_2 + \hat{d}_y \hat{v}_2 \ast v_2}{1} - \frac{y_6 + \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_2 \ast y_6}{1},
\]

(55)

\[
\nabla_{v_3} \hat{L}_3(v_3) = \frac{v_3 + \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_3 \ast v_3 + \hat{d}_y \hat{v}_3 \ast v_3}{1} - \frac{y_9 + \hat{d}_x \hat{v}_3 \ast y_9}{1}.
\]

(56)

In the above equation, \( \text{conj}(\cdot) \) represents pointwise complex conjugate operation. Now, the minima \( \hat{v}_1(r) \), \( \hat{v}_2(r) \), and \( \hat{v}_3(r) \) can be obtained by solving \( \nabla_{v_1} \hat{L}_1(v_1) = 0 \), \( \nabla_{v_2} \hat{L}_2(v_2) = 0 \), and \( \nabla_{v_3} \hat{L}_3(v_3) = 0 \) in Fourier domain. This is the main advantage of the proposed variable splitting: we are able to solve for \( \hat{v}_1(r) \), \( \hat{v}_2(r) \), and \( \hat{v}_3(r) \) independently by simple Fourier division. On the other hand, the \( v \)-problem encountered in the splitting proposed in [53], the components \( v_1 \), \( v_2 \), and \( v_3 \) are coupled, and hence, it requires solving \( 3 \times 3 \) system of equations each of \( L \times L \) frequency values where \( L \times L \) is the size of the image to be reconstructed. Although the required inverses can be precomputed outside the ADMM loop, it turns out that overall numerical conditioning is worse than the splitting that we propose here, which we demonstrate experimentally in Section V. In Algorithm 1, we provide detailed expression of the solutions of \( \nabla_{v_1} \hat{L}_1(v_1) = 0 \), \( \nabla_{v_2} \hat{L}_2(v_2) = 0 \), and \( \nabla_{v_3} \hat{L}_3(v_3) = 0 \) to the level required for implementation. Algorithm 1 also serves as the self-contained specification of the overall proposed reconstruction method.
Algorithm 1: GHSN regularized Reconstruction: GHSN-RR ($m, h, \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \epsilon$)  

**Inputs:**  
$m$: $N \times N$ measured image  
h: Impulse response of imaging system  
$\alpha_f$: regularization weight for first order term  
$\alpha_s$: regularization weight for second order term  

**Niter:** Number of Iterations  

**Symbol definitions:** $d_x$ and $d_y$ are first derivative filters.  
$d_\bar{x}$ and $d_\bar{y}$ are flipped versions.  
$h$ is flipped version of $h$.  

**Initialization:**  
\[
\begin{align*}
  k &\leftarrow 0, \quad r_k \leftarrow 1 + \epsilon, \quad \mathbf{v}^{(k)} \leftarrow 0_{3 \times N \times N}, \\
  \lambda^y_{(k)} &\leftarrow 0_{N \times N}, \quad \lambda^m_{(k)} \leftarrow 0_{N \times N}, \\
  \lambda^x_{(k)} &\leftarrow 0_{4 \times N \times N}, \quad \lambda^m_{(k)} \leftarrow 0_{4 \times N \times N}, \\
  \bar{x}^y_{(k)} &\leftarrow 0_{N \times N}, \quad \bar{x}^m_{(k)} \leftarrow 0_{N \times N}, \\
  \bar{x}^x_{(k)} &\leftarrow 0_{4 \times N \times N}, \quad \bar{x}^m_{(k)} \leftarrow 0_{4 \times N \times N}, \\
  Q_d &\leftarrow \mathcal{F}\{\mathcal{R}\{h \ast \text{conj}(h)\}\}
\end{align*}
\]

**for** $1$ to **Niter**  
\[
\begin{align*}
  x^b_{(k+1)} &\leftarrow x^b_{(k)} + (1/\beta) \bar{x}^y_{(k)} + \bar{x}^m_{(k)} + (1/\beta) \lambda^m_{(k)} \\
  x^s_{(k+1)} &\leftarrow x^s_{(k)} + (1/\beta) \lambda^m_{(k)} \\
  z^b_{(k+1)} &\leftarrow \bar{x}^y_{(k)} + (1/\beta) \lambda^m_{(k)} \\
  z^s_{(k+1)} &\leftarrow x^s_{(k)} + (1/\beta) \lambda^m_{(k)} \\
  w^b_{(k+1)} &\leftarrow \mathcal{F}\{y^{(k+1)}\} + \epsilon \mathcal{F}\{w^{(k+1)}\} + W m / (\beta + W) \\
  w^m_{(k+1)} &\leftarrow (\beta m + W m) / (\beta + W) \\
  (w_f^{(k+1)}, w_s^{(k+1)}) &\leftarrow \text{Prox}(x_f^{(k)}, x_s^{(k)}, \alpha_f, \alpha_s) \quad \text{(Alg. 2)}
\end{align*}
\]

**for** $r \in [1, N]^2$  
\[
\begin{align*}
  d_1(r) &\leftarrow a_1(r) - a_3(r), \quad d_2(r) \leftarrow a_2(r) - a_4(r) \\
  n(r) &\leftarrow \sqrt{0.5(d_1^2(r) + d_2^2(r))} \\
  n(r) &\leftarrow 0.5 \min(1, \alpha_f / n(r)) \\
  d_1(r) &\leftarrow n(r) d_1(r), \quad d_2(r) \leftarrow n(r) d_2(r) \\
  \hat{a}(r) &\leftarrow [a_1(r) - d_1(r), a_3(r) + d_1(r), a_2(r) - d_2(r), a_4(r) + d_2(r)]^t \\
  (b_1(r), c(r), b_4(r)) &\leftarrow \text{ProxHS}(b_1(r), 0.5(b_2(r) + b_3(r)), b_4(r), \alpha_s, p) \\
  d(r) &\leftarrow 0.5(b_2(r) - b_3(r)) \\
  b(r) &\leftarrow [b_1(r) c(r) + d(r) c(r) - d(r) b_4(r)]^t
\end{align*}
\]

**end**  

**Return** $\hat{a}, \hat{b}$  

Algorithm 2: Proximal operations:  
\[
(a, \hat{c}) \leftarrow \text{ProxHS}(a, c, b, \alpha_s, p)
\]

**Inputs:**  
$a = [a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4]^t$: $4 \times 1$ vector image corresponding to first order derivative  
b = $[b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4]^t$: $4 \times 1$ vector image corresponding to second order derivative  
$\alpha_f$: regularization weight for first order term  
$\alpha_s$: regularization weight for second order term

for $r \in [1, N]^2$  
\[
\begin{align*}
  d_1(r) &\leftarrow a_1(r) - a_3(r), \quad d_2(r) \leftarrow a_2(r) - a_4(r) \\
  n(r) &\leftarrow \sqrt{0.5(d_1^2(r) + d_2^2(r))} \\
  n(r) &\leftarrow 0.5 \min(1, \alpha_f / n(r)) \\
  d_1(r) &\leftarrow n(r) d_1(r), \quad d_2(r) \leftarrow n(r) d_2(r) \\
  \hat{a}(r) &\leftarrow [a_1(r) - d_1(r), a_3(r) + d_1(r), a_2(r) - d_2(r), a_4(r) + d_2(r)]^t \\
  (b_1(r), c(r), b_4(r)) &\leftarrow \text{ProxHS}(b_1(r), 0.5(b_2(r) + b_3(r)), b_4(r), \alpha_s, p) \\
  d(r) &\leftarrow 0.5(b_2(r) - b_3(r)) \\
  b(r) &\leftarrow [b_1(r) c(r) + d(r) c(r) - d(r) b_4(r)]^t
\end{align*}
\]

end

Algorithm 3: Proximal operator for Hessian-Schatten norm:  
\[
(a, \hat{c}) \leftarrow \text{ProxHS}(a, c, b, \alpha_s, p)
\]

**if** $p = 2$  
\[
\begin{align*}
  n &\leftarrow \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + 2c^2} \\
  n &\leftarrow \max(n - \alpha_s, 0) / n \\
  (\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}) &\leftarrow (na, nb, nc)
\end{align*}
\]

end

**else if** $p = 1$  
\[
\begin{align*}
  l_1 &\leftarrow (a + b) + \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + 4c} \\
  l_2 &\leftarrow (a + b) - \sqrt{(a - b)^2 + 4c} \\
  v_1 &\leftarrow [a - l_1 c]^t \\
  v_1 &\leftarrow v_1 / \|v_1\|_2 \\
  v_2 &\leftarrow [a - l_2 c]^t \\
  v_2 &\leftarrow v_2 / \|v_2\|_2 \\
  l_1 &\leftarrow \text{sign}(l_1) \max(\{a, b\} - \alpha_s, 0) \\
  l_2 &\leftarrow \text{sign}(l_2) \max(\{a, b\} - \alpha_s, 0) \\
  \hat{a} &\leftarrow v_1 l_1 + v_2 l_2 \\
  \hat{b} &\leftarrow v_1^t l_1 + v_2^t l_2 \\
  \hat{c} &\leftarrow v_1 v_1^t l_1 + v_2 v_2^t l_2
\end{align*}
\]

end

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V. EXPERIMENTS

Recall that we have two main contributions in this paper: (i) a generalization of Hessian-Schatten p-norm [44] with the resulting form that also generalizes second-order total generalized variation regularization (TGV-2) [49]; (ii) a novel ADMM based reconstruction algorithm with improved numerical behaviour owing to the novel variable splitting scheme. Implementing the algorithm with novel variable splitting is enabled by novel proximal operators derived in this paper. The goal of this section is to demonstrate the role of both of these contributions in improving the quality of reconstruction. To this end, we consider two types of measurement models:

- **Quasi-random Fourier sampling scheme for realization fast MRI imaging**
- **Blurring followed random spatial sampling as a scheme for speeding-up scanning electron microscopy**

For the first model, suppose \( T \) denotes the operation of obtaining the vector of Fourier samples from the quantized Fourier locations, and let \( m_f \) be the vector of complex Fourier samples. Since noise is Gaussian in MR imaging, for a candidate image \( g \), the cost \( \|Tg - m_f\|_2^2 \) is the negative log-likelihood. With this, we make a simplifying assumption that Fourier sample locations lie in a subset of the grid points corresponding to the DFT of the image so as to facilitate efficient implementation. In this case, the cost \( \|Tg - m_f\|_2^2 \) becomes identical to the cost of the equation (13) in the following way: (i) \( h \) is the inverse Fourier transform of the array having ones at sampling location of the operator \( T \) and zero at other locations; (ii) \( W(r) \) is the image of ones; (ii) \( m \) is the inverse Fourier transform of the image obtained by embedding the samples in \( m_f \) in an array of zeros. Note that \( h \) and \( m_f \) will typically be complex.

For the second model, random sampling is applied to the image resulting from blurring with the microscopes point-spread function. If \( r_i, i = 1, \ldots, N \) denote the sample locations and \( m_i, i = 1, \ldots, N \) denote the samples, the quadratic data fitting cost for a given candidate image \( g \) can be written as \( \sum_{i=1}^{N}((h \ast g)(r_i) - m_i)^2 \), where \( h \) is the point-spread function of the microscope. This cost is the negative log-likelihood for the noise encountered in microscopy, the mixed Poisson-Gaussian noise. However, this approximation of often used for ease of implementation. Now, in this case also, we assume that the spatial sample location's lie in a subset of the Cartesian grid. In this case, the cost \( \sum_{i=1}^{N}((h \ast g)(r_i) - m_i)^2 \) becomes identical to the cost of the equation (13) in the following way: \( m \) represents the image obtained by embedding the measured spatial samples \( m_i, i = 1, \ldots, N \) in an array of zeros, and \( W(r) \) a binary image in which ones represents the points at which measurements were taken.

A. EXPERIMENT 1

In this experiment, we consider the problem of reconstructing images from quasi-random Fourier samples. We use the images given in Figure 1 as the models. To obtain quasi-random Fourier samples, we use the trajectories generated by solving the travelling salesman problem as proposed by Chauffert et al [57]. We use the sampling scheme given in Figure 2, which has a sampling density of 18\% (TF1). We restrict \( p \) to be in \( \{1, 2\} \). As done by Chauffert et al [57], we quantize the sample locations generated from such trajectories by the grid corresponding to the DFT of the image. To demonstrate the relevance of our technical contributions, we consider three forms of reconstruction methods that differs from each other in terms of regularization and/or the minimization methods:

- **GHS-1:** Reconstruction using the Generalized Hessian Schatten norm with \( p = 1 \) and with proposed ADMM method for minimization
- **GHS-2:** Reconstruction using the Generalized Hessian Schatten norm with \( p = 2 \) and with proposed ADMM method for minimization
- **GHS-2(G):** Reconstruction using the Generalized Hessian Schatten norm with \( p = 2 \) with optimization method proposed by Guo et al [53]

Note that, in GHS-2, the regularization is the same as the TGV-2 [49]. This means GHS-2 has novelty only in terms of optimization used, whereas GHS-1 has novelty both in terms of the regularization and the optimization method. GHS-2(G) entirely corresponds to the method of Guo et al [53] with the part corresponding to the additional wavelet regularization removed. To evaluate these methods, The Fourier samples were corrupted by additive white Gaussian noise with variance 4. Table 1 compares the PSNR score of reconstruction obtained from all three methods with 500, 1500, and 10000 iterations. It is clear from the table that GHS-1 gives the best score with all three cases of the number of iterations for most cases of measured images, and GHS-2 comes next in PSNR. The PSNR score of GHS-2(G) is always the lowest. By considering the fact that GHS-2(G) differs from GHS-2 only by optimization, we conclude that the proposed ADMM method is more efficient than the optimization method proposed by Guo et al [53]. We further note that, beyond 1500 iterations, there is no further improvement in the reconstructed image, and there is always a difference between the reconstruction obtained by GHS-2 and GHS-2(G). This confirms that the proposed ADMM method is better conditioned numerically. Note that Table 1 confirms the following:

- **GHS-1** attains higher PSNR than GHS-2 within a specified time duration. Since GHS-2 is identical to the regularization used in [53], the form of GHS-1 is the result of our generalization, this demonstrates the advantage of the generalization.
- **GHS-2** attains higher PSNR than GHS-2(G) within a specified time duration. GHS-2(G) is identical to the published work [53], and GHS-2 differs from GHS-2(G) only by the improved minimization method proposed by us. This demonstrates that the novel optimization method is faster.

For the first measurement set of Table 1 we also record the time taken by each of the methods attain the PSNR of 32.52
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B. EXPERIMENT 2

In the second experiment, we demonstrate the importance of novel regularization and the novel optimization under varied input settings for the same forward model considered in the previous experiment. To this end, we simulate measurement data sets using both transfer functions given in the Figures 2a and 2b and add complex Gaussian noise on the Fourier samples with standard deviation values 5 and 7, which will be referred to as noise levels 1 and 2. This makes a total of 24 measurement sets. We evaluate all three methods listed in the previous experiment. We also evaluate with two additional methods: (i) HS-1: reconstruction using Hessian-Schatten 1-norm regularization with ADMM based minimization; (ii) HS-2: reconstruction using Hessian-Schatten 2-norm regularization with ADMM based minimization. Note that Hessian-Schatten 2-norm regularization is also the same as TV-2 regularization. We ran the algorithm for 2500 iterations in all these cases as this was found to be enough to obtain empirical residual convergence [58] for ADMM scheme. The results are displayed in Table 2. From the table, it is clear that GHS-1 is the best performing method. We also note that, among the three methods, GHS-1, GHS-2, GHS-2(G), we see the same pattern of relative performance as in the first experiment. Further, GHS-1 and GHS-2 are better than HS-1 and HS-2 in most cases. Moreover, while GHS-2 is consistently better than HS-2, GHS-2(G) is not always better than HS-2, although its regularization is the same as that of GHS-2. As GHS-2 differs from GHS-2(G) only by the optimization technique, this again confirms the importance of our novel optimization method. The images restored from the measurement simulated from image 1 using the transfer function TF1 with noise level 1 are displayed in Figure 3. We also display a zoomed-in region in each of the restored images. It is clear from the zoomed-in images that GHS-1 and GHS-2 schemes better recover the edges without any staircase effect. In Figure 4, we present scan lines from this image. As it is difficult to have clarity in the plot if several scan-lines are shown, we chose to show scan-line of reconstructions from three methods only along with the scan-lines from the original image; we chose the best performing variant from the proposed method, GHS-1, and the closest competitors from the literature, GHS-2(G) and HS-1. The scan-lines confirms that GHS-1 follows the ground truth better than other methods.

C. EXPERIMENT 3

In the third experiment, we compare the performance of our algorithm against a method belonging to the class of plug and play methods. In this class of methods, a splitting based image reconstruction algorithm that is typically used for regularized reconstruction is modified by replacing the proximal operator corresponding to the regularization with a denoiser. For this experiment, we implemented a plug
FIGURE 3: Comparison of restored images corresponding to image 1, TF1 and noise level 1. Images on the right are the zoomed-in portions from the images on the left. Location of the zoom-in portion is shown as box in the top left image.

FIGURE 4: Scan lines from the results of Figure 3. The scan line location is shown in Figure 3.

and play method with ADMM based splitting [59] and the well-known BM3D method as the denoiser. We denote this method by the abbreviation PnP-BM3D. We compare PnP-BM3D with two variants of the proposed method namely
TABLE 2: Comparison of reconstruction PSNR for experiment 2

| Name   | TF1  | Noise | Im 1 | HSS-1 | TF2  | Noise | Im 2 | HSS-1 |
|--------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|
|        |      |       |      |       |      |       |      |       |
|        | 1    | 31.41 | 31.80 | 31.37 | 31.88 | 31.27 | 31.27 |      |
|        | 2    | 50.75 | 51.10 | 30.76 | 31.17 | 30.66 | 30.66 |      |
|        | 1    | 26.22 | 26.66 | 26.22 | 26.68 | 26.10 | 26.10 |      |
|        |      | 28.00 | 28.36 | 26.00 | 26.44 | 25.88 | 25.88 |      |
|        | 1    | 33.55 | 33.69 | 33.53 | 33.70 | 33.43 | 33.43 |      |
|        | 2    | 28.41 | 28.57 | 28.45 | 28.58 | 28.51 | 28.51 |      |
|        | 1    | 29.20 | 29.37 | 29.15 | 29.30 | 29.08 | 29.08 |      |
|        | 2    | 28.72 | 28.83 | 28.68 | 28.83 | 28.60 | 28.60 |      |
|        | 1    | 34.27 | 34.38 | 34.23 | 34.38 | 34.15 | 34.15 |      |
|        | 2    | 33.63 | 33.72 | 33.59 | 33.72 | 33.52 | 33.52 |      |
|        | 1    | 28.19 | 28.30 | 28.15 | 28.34 | 28.11 | 28.11 |      |
|        | 2    | 28.09 | 28.12 | 27.96 | 28.10 | 27.92 | 27.92 |      |
|        | 1    | 31.44 | 31.65 | 31.48 | 31.74 | 31.40 | 31.40 |      |
|        | 2    | 30.82 | 30.97 | 30.87 | 31.09 | 30.79 | 30.79 |      |
|        | 1    | 26.01 | 26.24 | 26.43 | 26.47 | 26.35 | 26.35 |      |
|        | 2    | 25.91 | 26.07 | 26.21 | 26.22 | 26.13 | 26.13 |      |
|        | 1    | 28.81 | 29.19 | 28.93 | 29.23 | 28.93 | 28.93 |      |
|        | 2    | 28.43 | 28.78 | 28.41 | 28.81 | 28.34 | 28.34 |      |
|        | 1    | 22.98 | 23.23 | 23.10 | 23.22 | 23.06 | 23.06 |      |
|        | 2    | 22.85 | 23.12 | 22.96 | 23.16 | 22.92 | 22.92 |      |
|        | 1    | 33.74 | 33.92 | 34.22 | 34.21 | 34.22 | 34.22 |      |
|        | 2    | 32.50 | 32.68 | 32.77 | 32.76 | 32.77 | 32.77 |      |
|        | 1    | 28.82 | 28.97 | 29.31 | 29.30 | 29.29 | 29.29 |      |
|        | 2    | 28.47 | 28.66 | 28.83 | 28.63 | 28.62 | 28.62 |      |

GHS-1 and GHS-2, which are defined in experiment I. We use all six images in experiment I together with four additional images given in Figure 5. To simulate Fourier sampling, we use two transfer functions given in Figure 5 (labelled TF3 and TF4). TF3 covers 10% of Fourier samples and TF4 covers 20% of Fourier samples. We consider two levels of noise for each of the transfer functions. For TF4, we considered noise levels corresponding to standard deviations 0.025 and 0.0125, and for TF3, we considered noise levels corresponding to standard deviations 0.05 and 0.025. The results are presented in Table 3. The table confirms that GHS-1 algorithm produces a superior restoration in majority of the cases.

D. EXPERIMENT 4: RECONSTRUCTION FROM SIMULATED SEM SAMPLES

In this experiment, we consider the second forward model introduced at the beginning of Section VI, namely blurring followed by random spatial sampling. Note that this forward model matches with the full generality of the data-fitting cost of the equation (13). For simulating the measurements, we use the images given in Figure 5 as model images ([40]–[63]). For blurring, we choose a Gaussian kernel with a standard deviation of 3; for spatial sampling, we used two random masks with uniform sampling densities of 10% and 20%. The Fourier modulus of this kernel and the masks are given in Figure 7. We also add 5% Gaussian noise. For comparison, we picked ADMM based plug-and-play method with BM3D denoiser [59]. The plug and play method was found to be in need of a good initialization. Therefore, for a fair comparison, we initialized the method via the median of the available sample within a 12 × 12 window. The results of the comparison are shown in Table 4. The table clearly shows that GHS-1 performs better than PnP-BM3D in all cases for this experiment. In Figure 8 we display the images reconstructed from samples obtained by applying the blurring and Mask-2 on model image (a). Further in Figure 2 we display the images reconstructed from samples obtained by applying the blurring and Mask-1 on model image (c). The displayed images clearly demonstrate the superiority of the proposed method. In particular, GHS-1 reconstructions are much sharper and more detailed than the reconstructions obtained by using PnP-BM3D method. In Figure 10 we have displayed zoomed-in regions from Figure 8 which again confirms the superiority of the proposed method.

VI. CONCLUSION

We proposed a new form of regularization named Generalized Hessian-Schatten Norm (GHSN) regularization. GHSN generalizes all existing forms of second-order derivative-based regularization. We also developed a novel ADMM optimization method for image reconstruction using GHSN. We demonstrated the advantage of generality in GHSN experimentally. We also demonstrated the effectiveness of the novel optimization method. In particular, even when parameters of GHSN is restricted such that it becomes the well-known form, called second-order total generalized (TGV-2) variation, our optimization method yields superior reconstructions compared to the optimization method proposed for TGV-2 in the literature. In this work, our focus has been to demonstrate the advantage of adaptability arising from the generalization involved in GHSN. To make this advantage useful in a practical scenario, we need to develop a method to determine the parameters αs and αf from the measured data that undergoes reconstruction. This will be an important future research direction.

APPENDIX A: PROOF OF PROPOSITIONS

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 1

First we reproduce Eq. 1:

\[ GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max_{N, \|d\|_2 \leq \alpha_f} \langle \tilde{N}, H \ast g \rangle. \]  

Next, we denote the set \( \{N\|\|N\|_{\infty,S(q)} \leq \alpha_s\} \) as \( B_S \) and, \( \{z\|z\|_\infty \leq \alpha_f\} \) as \( B_2 \). This gives

\[ GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max_{(N, N=S) \in B_S \times B_2} \langle \tilde{N}, H \ast g \rangle. \]

Next, we note that \( d_{xx} = d_x \ast d_x, d_y = d_y \ast d_y \), and \( d_{xy} = d_x \ast d_y \). This means that we have \( H \ast g = g \ast d \ast d^T \). Substituting this gives

\[ GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max_{(N, N=S) \in B_S \times B_2} \langle \tilde{N}, g \ast d \ast d^T \rangle. \]

By the property inner products with convolution, we can replace the operation \( (\cdot) \ast d^T \) applied on the second argument with:

\[ \langle \tilde{N}, g \ast d \ast d^T \rangle = \langle \tilde{N}, (g \ast d) \ast d \rangle = \langle \tilde{N}, g \ast (d \ast d^T) \rangle. \]
FIGURE 5: Additional images and MRI transfer functions for experiment 3.

| Image | TF4, $\sigma = 0.025$ | TF4, $\sigma = 0.06$ | TF5, $\sigma = 0.0125$ | TF5, $\sigma = 0.025$ |
|-------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|       | GHS1 | GHS2 | BM3D | GHS1 | GHS2 | BM3D | GHS1 | GHS2 | BM3D |
| Image 1 | 0.886 | 0.879 | 0.875 | 0.868 | 0.871 | 0.884 | 0.878 | 0.891 | 0.879 | 0.872 | 0.889 |
| Image 2 | 0.949 | 0.934 | 0.930 | 0.928 | 0.889 | 0.941 | 0.939 | 0.942 | 0.929 | 0.926 | 0.936 |
| Image 3 | 0.890 | 0.887 | 0.873 | 0.871 | 0.858 | 0.888 | 0.886 | 0.878 | 0.883 | 0.881 | 0.879 |
| Image 4 | 0.842 | 0.840 | 0.849 | 0.840 | 0.842 | 0.841 | 0.840 | 0.836 | 0.835 | 0.832 | 0.834 |
| Image 5 | 0.939 | 0.918 | 0.899 | 0.902 | 0.867 | 0.916 | 0.910 | 0.909 | 0.909 | 0.908 | 0.908 |
| Image 6 | 0.872 | 0.872 | 0.822 | 0.864 | 0.863 | 0.821 | 0.855 | 0.855 | 0.867 | 0.881 | 0.882 |
| Image 7 | 0.965 | 0.965 | 0.959 | 0.945 | 0.955 | 0.963 | 0.963 | 0.947 | 0.950 | 0.950 | 0.945 |
| Image 8 | 0.856 | 0.845 | 0.816 | 0.842 | 0.833 | 0.814 | 0.844 | 0.836 | 0.844 | 0.831 | 0.843 |
| Image 9 | 0.952 | 0.952 | 0.907 | 0.928 | 0.928 | 0.906 | 0.947 | 0.947 | 0.926 | 0.932 | 0.925 |
| Image 10 | 0.929 | 0.928 | 0.892 | 0.912 | 0.899 | 0.892 | 0.930 | 0.928 | 0.927 | 0.920 | 0.919 |

TABLE 3: Comparison of proposed method with PnP-BM3D for reconstruction from Fourier samples

FIGURE 6: Scanning electron microscopic (SEM) model images

FIGURE 7: Blurring kernel and sampling mask used for SEM experiment

TABLE 4: Comparison of proposed method with PnP-BM3D for reconstruction from simulated SEM samples

FIGURE 8: Comparison of reconstructions for model image (a) of Figure 6

FIGURE 9: Comparison of reconstructions for model image (c) of Figure 6

FIGURE 10: Zoom-in region from Figure 8
Now, we can replace the maximization by the minimization of the negated function and obtain

\[
GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = - \min_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} -\langle \bar{N} \ast \bar{d}, d \ast g \rangle.
\] (63)

The above minimization problem can be posed as constrained optimization problem as given below:

\[
GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = - \min_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} -\langle p, d \ast g \rangle
\]
subject to \( \bar{N} \ast \bar{d} = p \).

Since the above problem is a convex optimization problem, \( GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) \) can be determined using duality theory. To this end, we construct the Lagrange dual cost function of the minimization problem as given below:

\[
q(u) = \min_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} -\langle p, d \ast g \rangle + \langle u, p - \bar{N} \ast \bar{d} \rangle.
\] (65)

The above problem can be rearranged as given below by separating the terms for \( p \) and \( N \):

\[
q(u) = \min_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} -\langle p, d \ast g - u \rangle + \langle u, -\bar{N} \ast \bar{d} \rangle.
\] (66)

Next, we note that \( \langle u, -\bar{N} \ast \bar{d} \rangle = \langle u \ast \bar{d}^T, -\bar{N} \rangle = \langle u \ast \bar{d}^T, -\bar{N} \rangle \). This gives

\[
q(u) = \min_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} -\langle p, d \ast g - u \rangle + \langle u \ast \bar{d}^T, -\bar{N} \rangle.
\] (67)

By duality theory, since strong duality holds ([64], Proposition 6.4.2), we have \( GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max_u q(u) \). Hence, the cost \( GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) \) can be expressed as

\[
GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \max_u \min_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} -\langle p, d \ast g - u \rangle + \langle u \ast \bar{d}^T, -\bar{N} \rangle.
\] (68)

Next, we rewrite the maximization with respect to \( u \) as the minimization:

\[
GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \min_u \max_{(N, p) \in B_2 \times B_2} \langle p, d \ast g - u \rangle + \langle u \ast \bar{d}^T, \bar{N} \rangle.
\] (69)

As the part of the cost function with respect to \( N \) and \( p \) are separable, we can rewrite the respective maximizations independently as given below:

\[
GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \min_u \max_{N \in B_2} \langle u \ast \bar{d}^T, \bar{N} \rangle + \max_{p \in B_2} \langle p, d \ast g - u \rangle.
\] (70)

Now we apply the definition of conjugate norm. By noting the fact that the conjugate (dual) norm for the norm \( \| \cdot \|_{\infty, S(p)} \) is \( \| \cdot \|_{1,S(p)} \) with \( \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \) [65] and for \( \| \cdot \|_{\infty} \) is \( \| \cdot \|_{1,2} \). Substituting this gives

\[
GHS_p(g, \alpha_s, \alpha_f) = \min_u \alpha_s \| u \ast \bar{d}^T \|_{1,S(p)} + \alpha_f \| d \ast g - u \|_{1,2},
\]
which completes the proof.

**PROOF OF PROPOSITION 2**

First we note that \( A_f A_f^T = I \), and let \( B_f \) be matrix such that the augmented matrix \( M = [A_f \quad B_f] \) satisfies \( M^T M = I \).

Further, let \( \tilde{z} = Mz \), and \( \tilde{a} = Ma \), and let \( \tilde{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{z}_1 \\ \tilde{z}_2 \end{bmatrix} \)
and \( \tilde{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{a}_1 \\ \tilde{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} \), where \( \tilde{z}_1 \) and \( \tilde{z}_2 \) are sub-vectors of \( z \) of size \( 2 \times 1 \), and similarly \( \tilde{a}_1 \) and \( \tilde{a}_2 \) sub-vectors of \( a \) of size \( 2 \times 1 \). Then the form of cost function that is easy to minimize can be obtained by substituting \( z = M \tilde{z} \), \( a = M \tilde{a} \), and \( \tilde{z}_1 = A_f \tilde{z} \) in \( L_f(z, a, \alpha_f) \). By doing this, we obtain the transformed function as given below:

\[
\tilde{L}(\tilde{z}_1, \tilde{z}_2) = L_f(M \tilde{z}, M \tilde{a}, \alpha_f) = \frac{\beta}{2} \| \tilde{z}_1 - \tilde{a}_1 \|_2^2 + \alpha_f \| \tilde{z}_1 \|_2 + \beta \| \tilde{z}_2 - \tilde{a}_2 \|_2^2.
\] (71)

Let \( (\tilde{z}_1^*, \tilde{z}_2^*) \) denote the minimum of \( \tilde{L}(\cdot, \cdot) \). Clearly, \( \tilde{z}_2^* = \tilde{a}_2 \). Next, \( \tilde{z}_1^* \) is the well-known proximal solution of \( l_2 \) norm [56], and it is given by \( \tilde{z}_1^* = \frac{\max(|\tilde{a}_1|, |t|) - |t|}{|\tilde{a}_1|^2} \tilde{a}_1 \), where \( t = \alpha_f \beta \). From these, the minimum of \( \tilde{L}(z, a, \alpha_f) \), denoted by \( z^* \) can be expressed as \( z^* = M^T \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{z}_1^* \\ \tilde{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} \). By replacing \( \tilde{z}_1^* \) by \( \tilde{a}_1 - (\tilde{a}_1 - \tilde{z}_1^*) \), we get \( z^* = M^T \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{a}_1 \\ \tilde{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} - A_f^T (\tilde{a}_1 - \tilde{z}_1^*) \). Next, from the expression for \( \tilde{z}_1^* \), we can deduce the following on the difference \( (\tilde{a}_1 - \tilde{z}_1^*) \):

\[
(\tilde{a}_1 - \tilde{z}_1^*) = \tilde{a}_1 - \frac{\max(|\tilde{a}_1|, |t|) - |t|}{|\tilde{a}_1|^2} \tilde{a}_1 = \frac{1}{|\tilde{a}_1|^2} \tilde{a}_1 (|\tilde{a}_1| - \max(|\tilde{a}_1|, |t| - |t|))
\]

By using the above relation and by using the fact that \( M^T \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{a}_1 \\ \tilde{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} = a \), we get

\[
z^* = a - \frac{1}{|\tilde{a}_1|^2} \min(|\tilde{a}_1|^2, t) A_f^T \tilde{a}_1.
\]

Substituting \( \tilde{a}_1 = A_f a \) in the above expressing gives the final expression.

**PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3**

From the definitions of \( K \) and \( L \), we first note that they can be expressed as

\[
K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & -0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\] (72)

From the form given above, we observe that \( K^T = K, \quad L^T = L \), and \( KL = KL = 0 \). Hence, \( \frac{1}{2} \| z - a \|_2^2 \) can be written as
Hence the above minimization problems can be written as

\[ z^* = \text{argmin}_{z \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \|Kz - Ka\|^2 \|Lz - La\|^2. \]

As a result, the minimization problem becomes

\[ z^* = \text{argmin}_{z \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \|Kz - Ka\|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|Lz - La\|^2. \]

As an additional property, we also observe that \( K + L = I \). Hence, we have \( \mathcal{R}(K) \oplus \mathcal{R}(L) = \mathbb{R}^d \). This means that the minimum of \( L_a(z, a, \alpha_a) \), denoted by \( z^* \), can be written as

\[ z^* = z_k^* + z_l^*, \]

where

\[ (z_k^*, z_l^*) = \text{argmin}_{z_k \in \mathcal{R}(K), z_l \in \mathcal{R}(L)} \frac{1}{2} \|K(z_k + z_l) - Ka\|^2 \]

\[ + \frac{1}{2} \|L(z_k + z_l) - La\|^2 + tL\|K(z_k + z_l)\|S(p). \]

Next, because of the relation \( KL = KL = 0 \), we have \( Kz_l = Lz_k = 0 \). This means that the minimization sub-problem can be separated as

\[ z_k^* = \text{argmin}_{z_k \in \mathcal{R}(K)} \frac{1}{2} \|Kz_k - Ka\|^2 + t\|Kz_k\|S(p) \]

\[ z_l^* = \text{argmin}_{z_l \in \mathcal{R}(L)} \frac{1}{2} \|Lz_l - La\|^2 \]

From the above forms of minimization sub-problems, it is clear that \( z_l^* = La \). We claim that \( z_k^* = P_s(Ka, t) \) where \( P_s(Ka, t) \) is the proximal of the Schatten-Norm applied on \( Ka \) with threshold \( t \). This is because \( P_s(Ka, t) \) is the global unconstrained minimizer of the cost \( \frac{1}{2} \|z_k - Ka\|^2 + t\|z_k\|S(p) \), also by definition of \( P_s(Ka, t) \) (section III,E), it can be seen that \( P_s(Ka, t) \in \mathcal{R}(K) \). From the above two statements it can be concluded that \( P_s(Ka, t) \) is the required minimizer. Hence the required solution becomes \( z^* = La + P_s(Ka, t) \).

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