Diffusion Probabilistic Models for Super Resolution Microscopy

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Abstract

Single-molecule localization microscopy (SMLM) techniques are a mainstay of fluorescence microscopy and can be used to produce a pointillist representation of living cells at diffraction-unlimited precision. Classical SMLM approaches leverage the deactivation of fluorescent tags, followed by spontaneous or photoinduced reactivation, which can be used to estimate of the density of a tagged biomolecule in cellular compartments. Standard SMLM localization algorithms based on maximum likelihood estimators or least squares optimization require tight control of activation and reactivation to maintain sparse emitters, presenting a tradeoff between imaging speed and labeling density. Deep models have generalized SMLM to densely labeled structures, yet uncertainty quantification is still lacking. Recently, denoising diffusion probabilistic models (DDPMs) have been adapted conditional super resolution tasks, demonstrating promising results in detail reconstruction, while directly providing uncertainties in model predictions. Here, we adapt DDPM to the task of single molecule localization, and demonstrate that DDPM approaches the Cramer-Rao lower bound on localization uncertainty over a wide range of experimental conditions.

1 Introduction

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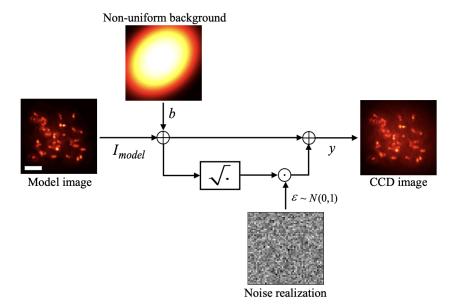
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Single molecule localization microscopy (SMLM) relies on the temporal resolution of fluorophores whose spatially overlapping point spread functions would otherwise render them unresolvable at the 19 detector. Common strategies for the temporal separation of molecules involve transient intramolecular 20 rearrangements to switch from dark to fluorescent states or the exploitation of non-emitting molecular 21 radicals. Estimation of molecular coordinates in SMLM is acheived by modeling the optical impulse 22 response of the imaging system. However, dense localization suffers from the curse of dimensionality 23 - the parameter space volume grows exponentially with the number of molecules, which is often 24 unknown a priori. Exploration of this high dimensional parameter space in dense SMLM is often 25 intractable. 26

Previous approaches to this issue has been to predict super-resolution images from a sparse set of 27 localizations with conditional generative adversarial networks (Ouyang 2018) or direct prediction of 28 coordinates using deep neural networks (Nehme 2020; Speiser 2021). However, diffusion models are an appealing alternative because they infer a distribution of deconvolved images that are compatible 30 with an observation. Although conditional VAEs and conditional GANs can provide a distribution of 31 deconvolved images, both are known to suffer from mode collapse and produce insufficient diversity in their outputs. Diffusion models are a recently developed alternative to VAEs and GANs that excel at producing diverse samples and have been successfully applied to solve inverse problems. Here, 34 we present a novel diffusion model for deconvolution in single molecule localization microscopy. 35 The first stage of our algorithm performs interpolation by computing second order coherence of pixel



- pairs. Subsequent stages cast localization as a conditional image refinement task, realized by a U-Net 37 model trained on denoising at various noise levels.
- This is followed by coordinate refinement by a gradient-based Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) 39
- scheme, known as Langevin dynamics.

Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Model for SMLM

- We consider datasets $(\theta_i, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)_{i=1}^N$ of observed images \mathbf{x}_i and kernel density estimate (KDE) images \mathbf{y}_i , given an underlying set of object coordinates θ_i . Observations \mathbf{x}_i are generated from $\theta_i = (r_1, ..., r_N)$ under an image degradation model F. We aim to develop a framework for

- sampling from $p(\mathbf{y}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$ and inference of θ_i , while fulfilling a resolution criterion under the condition
- $|r_i r_j| \ge \epsilon; \forall (i, j).$

2.1 Degradation Model

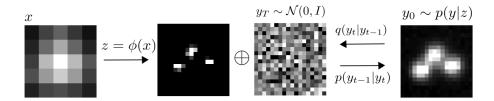
- The central objective of single molecule localization microscopy is to infer a set of molecular
- coordinates θ from noisy, low resolution images x. We define an abstract image stochastic degradation
- function F such that $\mathbf{x} = F(\theta)$. In the following paragraphs, we define such a function F. 50
- In fluorescence microscopy, each pixel follows Poisson statistics, with expected value

$$\omega = i_0 \int O(u) du \int O(v) dv \tag{1}$$

- where $i_0 = \eta N_0 \Delta$. The optical impulse response O(u, v) is often approximated as a 2D isotropic
- Gaussian with standard deviation σ (Zhang 2007). The parameter η is the photon detection probability 53
- of the sensor and Δ is the exposure time. N_0 represents the number of photons emitted.
- For a fluorescent emitter located at $\theta = (u_0, v_0)$, we have that

$$\int O(u)du = \frac{1}{2} \left(\operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{u_k + \frac{1}{2} - u_0}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \right) - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{u_k - \frac{1}{2} - u_0}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \right) \right) \tag{2}$$

- where we have used the common definition $\operatorname{erf}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^t e^{-t^2} dt$. For the sake of generality, the
- number of photoelectrons at a pixel k, s_k , is multiplied by a gain factor g_k [ADU/ e^-], which is often



unity. The readout noise per pixel ζ_k can be Gaussian with some pixel-specific offset o_k and variance σ_k^2 . Ultimately, we have a Poisson component of the signal, which scales with N_0 and may have Gaussian component, which does not. Therefore, in a single exposure, we measure:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{s}_t + \zeta \tag{3}$$

What we are after is the likelihood $p(\mathbf{x}_t|\theta)$ where θ are the molecular coordinates. Fundamental probability theory states that the distribution of \mathbf{x}_k is the convolution of the distributions of \mathbf{s}_k and ζ_k ,

$$p(\mathbf{x}_t|\theta) = A \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{q!} e^{-\omega_k} \omega_k^q \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_k} e^{-\frac{(\mathbf{x}_k - g_k q - \sigma_k)}{2\sigma_k^2}}$$
(4)

where $P(\zeta_k) = \mathcal{N}(o_k, \sigma_k^2)$ and $P(S_k) = \operatorname{Poisson}(g_k \omega_k)$, A is some normalization constant. In practice, (4) is difficult to work with, so we look for an approximation. We will use a Poisson-Normal approximation for simplification. Consider,

$$\zeta_k - o_k + \sigma_k^2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\sigma_k^2, \sigma_k^2) \approx \text{Poisson}(\sigma_k^2)$$
 (5)

Since $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{s}_k + \zeta_k$, we transform $\mathbf{x}_k' = \mathbf{x}_k - o_k + \sigma_k^2$, which is distributed according to

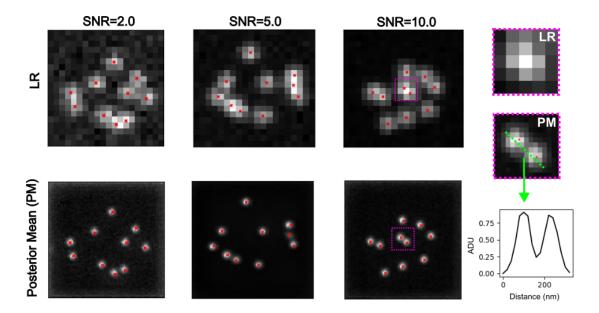
$$\mathbf{x}_k' \sim \text{Poisson}(\omega_k')$$
 (6)

where $\omega_k' = g_k \omega_k + \sigma_k^2$. This result can be seen from the fact the the convolution of two Poisson distributions is also Poisson. The quality of this approximation will degrade with decreasing signal level, since the Poisson distribution does not retain its Gaussian shape at low expected counts. Nevertheless, the quality of the approximation can be predicted by the Komogonov distance between the convolution distribution (4).

72 **2.2** The Information Bottleneck for Localization

Inversion of the degradation function F is generally intractable, particularly when fluorescent 73 molecules are dense within the field of view. This difficulty arises because the parameter θ is typically of large and unknown dimension, rendering maximum likelihood estimation or Markov 75 Chain Monte Carlo sampling computationally difficult. Previous solutions to this problem leverage 76 77 convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to infer coordinates directly by learning a deterministic image transformation F^{-1} , which we refer to as a "localization map" (Nehme 2021). Such methods 78 faithfully capture the information content in degraded images; however, such methods apply arbitrary 79 thresholding to the CNN localization map, potentially creating erroneous localizations, and do not 80 permit sampling. 81

We seek a generative approach, which casts localization as an image restoration problem, where a high resolution kernel density estimate ${\bf y}$ is reconstructed from a low resolution image ${\bf x}$. Building on previous efforts, we utilize a CNN learns a representation which compresses ${\bf x}$ while preserving the relevant information to the prediction of ${\bf y}$. We use the Fisher information as the information theoretic criteria (Chao 2016). The generative model (6) is also convenient for computing the Fisher information matrix (Smith 2010) and thus the Cramer-Rao lower bound, which bounds the variance of a statistical estimator of θ , from below. The Fisher information is



$$\mathcal{I}_{ij}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_j}\right) = \sum_k \frac{1}{\omega_k'} \frac{\partial \omega_k'}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial \omega_k'}{\partial \theta_j}$$
(7)

where the log-likelihood is $\ell(\mathbf{x}_t|\theta)$.

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90 2.3 Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Model

Denoising diffusion probabilistic models (DDPM) have emerged as powerful generative models, exceeding GANs and VAEs in a variety of generative modeling tasks. Nevertheless, learning diffusion models directly in data space can limit expressivity of the model (Vahdat 2021). Therefore, we build on previous approaches by using a CNN to compute a latent representation \mathbf{z}_i . A denoising diffusion probabilistic model (DDPM) is then used to model the distribution $P_{\Phi}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{z})$.

Let $\mathbf{y}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_n(\sigma)$ be a density estimate of the molecular distribution. The *forward* process is the joint distribution $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_{0:T})$, which is Markovian.

$$q(\mathbf{y}_t|\mathbf{y}_0) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} q(\mathbf{y}_t|\mathbf{y}_{t-1}) \quad q(\mathbf{y}_t|\mathbf{y}_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}, \sqrt{\alpha_t}\mathbf{y}_{t-1}, (1-\alpha_t)I\right)$$
(8)

We optimize a denoising model f_{θ} which takes as input an interpolated low-resolution input \mathbf{y} and a noisy input \mathbf{y}_T .

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_{0:T}) = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_T) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}|\mathbf{y}_t) \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}|\mathbf{y}_t) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}, \mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_t, \gamma_t), \sigma_t^2 I\right)$$
(9)

where $\gamma_t = \prod_{i=1}^t \alpha_t$. Note that the model θ is not a function of t. The mean of the transition density reads

$$\mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t}, \mathbf{y}, \gamma_{t}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{t}}} \left(\mathbf{y}_{t} - \frac{1 - \alpha_{t}}{\sqrt{1 - \gamma_{t}}} f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t}, \gamma_{t}) \right)$$
(10)

2 3 Experiments