# DEEP DENOISING PRIOR: YOU ONLY NEED A DEEP GAUSSIAN DENOISER

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#### ABSTRACT

Gaussian denoising often serves as the initiation of research in the field of image denoising, owing to its prevalence and intriguing properties. However, deep Gaussian denoiser typically generalizes poorly to other types of noises, such as Poisson noise and real-world noise. In this paper, we reveal that deep Gaussian denoisers have an underlying ability to handle other noises with only ten iterations of self-supervised learning, which is referred to as *deep denoiser prior*. Specifically, we first pre-train a Gaussian denoising model in a self-supervised manner. Then, for each test image, we construct a pixel bank based on the self-similarity and randomly sample pseudo-instance examples from it to perform test-time adaptation. Finally, we fine-tune the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser using the randomly sampled pseudo-instances. Extensive experiments demonstrate that our test-time adaptation method helps the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser rapidly improve performance in removing both in-distribution and out-of-distribution noise, achieving superior performance compared to existing single-image denoising methods while also significantly reducing computational time.

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

Image denoising is a crucial task in the field of computer vision, aimed at restoring the clean image from noisy input. Most previous denoising methods (Liang et al., 2021; Lehtinen et al., 2018; Ryou et al., 2024; Ai et al., 2024) assume that noisy images follow a specific noise distribution. However, in real-world noisy images (Xu et al., 2018; Abdelhamed et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019), the type



Figure 1: Through the proposed test-time adaptation strategy, we enable the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser to rapidly adjust to the unknown noise characteristics of the test images, allowing for more accurate denoising across varying noise distributions. NB2NB is trained on Gaussian noise with  $\sigma = 25$  and tested on Gaussian noise with  $\sigma = 25$  and 50, Poisson noise with  $\lambda = 25$ , and realworld noise. On the right, from top to bottom, are the performances of different dataset-free image denoising methods on Gaussian noise, Poisson noise, and real-world noise against test time.

and level of noise are unknown and often differ from those in the training images, thereby limiting
the effectiveness of pre-trained denoising models. To alleviate this issue, several denoising methods
(Jin et al., 2020; Park et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2022; Pan et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2023; Vaksman &
Elad, 2023) targeting real-world noisy images have been proposed, improving the performance of
denoisers on real-world noise. However, they also require training on large datasets of real-world
noisy images with the same noise distribution, which greatly limits their practicality.

060 Recently, single-image denoising methods (Ulyanov et al., 2018; Quan et al., 2020; Mansour & 061 Heckel, 2023; Chihaoui & Favaro, 2024) have improved practicality by training an image-specific 062 denoising model for each test image, eliminating the dependence on specific training data. The 063 Self2Self network (Quan et al., 2020) performs dropout training on Bernoulli-sampled instances 064 of the input image, effectively preventing overfitting and achieving good denoising performance. Noise2Fast (Lequyer et al., 2022) introduces checkerboard downsampling, generating four low-065 resolution images and training a smaller network with eight convolutional layers to increase speed 066 at the expense of accuracy. ZS-N2N (Mansour & Heckel, 2023) trains a two-layer network on two 067 downsampled images to further improve the speed of algorithm. Clearly, the trend in existing single-068 image denoising methods is to enhance speed by reducing the network size; however, this reduction 069 inevitably limits the performance of the algorithm, and ZS-N2N has already minimized the network to two layers, making further reductions impractical. Moreover, these methods only leverage prior 071 information from a single noisy image, which restricts the performance of the denoiser. 072

Test-time adaptation (TTA) has recently shown considerable success in various fields, including 073 sentiment analysis and machine translation in natural language processing (Shu et al., 2022; He 074 et al., 2021), as well as object detection and image classification in computer vision (Hsu et al., 075 2020; Wang et al., 2021). TTA allows the model to be fine-tuned during the inference phase, enabling 076 rapid adaptation to the distribution of new input data, thereby improving accuracy and robustness. 077 SS-TTA (Fahim & Boutellier, 2023), for the first time, applies test-time adaptation to the image denoising task, enhancing the performance of self-supervised denoising methods. However, SS-079 TTA requires the noise type of the test images to match the noise type used in the training images for the pre-trained denoising model, such as both being Gaussian noise. When the noise type of 081 the test image is unknown, SS-TTA may fail to learn how to remove the unknown noise from the test image. Therefore, designing a test-time adaptation denoising method that is independent of the noise distribution in the test images remains an open problem. 083

084 In this study, we address the challenge of balancing speed and performance in single-image denois-085 ing from a novel perspective. We focus on Gaussian denoising models in the era of deep learning. Due to the significant distribution difference between training data and test data, denoising mod-087 els trained on a specific Gaussian noise distribution perform poorly when faced with other types 880 of noise, lacking generalization within the same distribution and transferability across distributions. It is important to note that purely Gaussian denoising models may still hold some efficacy in mit-089 igating out-of-distribution noise, even if they are not specifically designed for such scenarios. In 090 traditional image denoising, the introduction of variable splitting techniques allowed Gaussian mod-091 els to act as plug-and-play denoisers in iterative algorithms designed to handle various types of 092 noise (Venkatakrishnan et al., 2013). This concept has also been considered in the deep learning era 093 (Ryu et al., 2019). In this paper, we refrain from considering models trained on large-scale image 094 data solely as denoisers; rather, we interpret them as models that encapsulate rich image priors, given 095 their extensive exposure to diverse images. We find that while deep learning models are significantly 096 affected when the noise in the input differs from the training data, with appropriate fine-tuning, the 097 denoisers can quickly adapt to test images with different noise distributions.

098 To this end, we propose a test-time adaptive denoising model. First, we pre-train a denoiser in a self-099 supervised manner under a predefined Gaussian noise distribution. Then, based on self-similarity, 100 we adapt the network by constructing a *pixel bank* from samples of the test image, allowing rapid 101 adaptation to the target domain. Specifically, we leverage the non-local self-similarity of the im-102 age, searching for similar pixels within a sufficiently large window to build the pixel bank. At the 103 same time, we generate pseudo-instances using a tailored pixel-wise random sampling strategy to adapt the denoising network. This strategy facilitates swift convergence, allowing the network to 104 achieve high-quality denoising in just a few iterations (e.g., 10 iterations), whereas existing zero-105 shot denoising methods often require thousands of iterations. Experimental results demonstrate 106 that the proposed method improves the denoising performance of the pre-trained model for both 107 in-distribution and out-of-distribution noise. Compared to existing single-image denoising methods,

our approach exhibits significant advantages in both denoising performance and runtime efficiency (as shown in Figure 1). Our main contributions are summarized as follows:

- We propose a test-time adaptive denoising framework, which adapts the pre-trained denoising model to different target domains during testing. Without accessing any real clean images, the proposed TTA denoising framework can be applied in a self-supervised manner to real-world scenarios with unknown noise distributions.
  - We construct a pixel bank based on the self-similarity prior of the test image and sample pseudo-instances from it to perform adaptive fine-tuning of the network. Our approach can quickly adapt to different noise distributions.
- We demonstrate that Gaussian denoisers pre-trained on natural images possess a deep denoising prior, which can be quickly adapted through fine-tuning to remove other types of noise. The proposed method outperforms existing single-image denoising approaches in terms of both denoising performance and runtime efficiency.
- <sup>123</sup> 2 PRELIMINARIES

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The modeling of image corruption can be described using a simple probabilistic framework: Given a clean image x, the observed noisy image y can be regarded as drawn from the noise model p(y|x). For example, additive Gaussian white noise can be represented as  $p(y|x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}}e^{-\frac{\|y-x\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ . Existing denoiser training approaches mainly fall into two categories: training networks with noisy-clean image pairs and training networks with noisy-noisy image pairs.

Noise2Clean training. Noise2Clean paradigm has access to both noisy and clean images, which aims at end-to-end training of a denoising model  $f(\cdot)^1$  with noisy-clean image pairs. With a large number of pairs (x, y), we usually minimize the empirical risk to train the model f, and the corresponding expected risk  $R_L(f)$  is defined as

$$R_L(f) = \mathbb{E}_{x,y} L(f(y), x), \tag{1}$$

where L denotes the loss function.

**Noise2Noise training.** In many real-world scenarios, the ground-truth clean images are physically unavailable. Noise2Noise (Lehtinen et al., 2018) proposes to leverage noisy-noisy image pairs from the same scene in place of noisy-clean pairs, which can remarkably attain performance nearly equivalent to the latter. With pairs of noisy images (y, z), the Noise2Noise training learns a denoiser by minimizing the expected risk defined as follows (Zhou et al., 2023):

$$R'_{L}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{y,z}L(f(y),z) = \mathbb{E}_{y}\mathbb{E}_{x|y}\mathbb{E}_{z|x}L(f(y),z) = \mathbb{E}_{x,y}\left[\mathbb{E}_{z|x}L(f(y),z)\right],$$
(2)

where the second equality is based on the fact that  $p(z|y) = \int p(z|x)p(x|y)dx$ , and p(z|x) denotes the probability of corrupting the clean image x into the noisy image z. Eq. 2 shows that as long as z and the loss function L possess certain properties (e.g., z has zero-mean noise and L is an  $\ell_2$  loss), the minimization of noise2noise training risk is equivalent to minimizing noise2clean training risk.

**Domain shift between training and testing.** Existing dataset-based image denoising methods 149 (Zhang et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2024) typically construct paired noisy-clean 150 training images by synthesizing noisy images from clean ones using predefined noise distributions 151 (e.g., Gaussian distribution) or using real-world noisy images collected from actual environments to 152 train denoisers. However, due to the diversity of camera sensors and unknown processing on the in-153 ternet, the noise distribution of real-world test images may differ from that of the training images—a 154 phenomenon known as domain shift (Koh et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022a). In these cases, denoising 155 models often fail to produce satisfactory clean images. 156

#### 3 Method

<sup>159</sup> In this section, we demonstrate that noise-agnostic image denoising can be greatly improved with *test-time adaptation* in the following three steps:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In deep learning, f is usually a neural network parameterized by  $\theta$ .



Figure 2: Overview of the proposed Test-Time Adaptive Denoising framework. Pre-training: Self-supervised training using synthetic Gaussian noisy images. Adaptation: Constructing pseudo-182 instances from test noisy images to fine-tune the network. Before each iteration, we sample two 183 pseudo instances through the SSPC. Inference: Inference using the fine-tuned denoising network 184 and the original noisy image.

#### 185 Step 1. Preparing a pre-trained Gaussian denoising model

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187 From traditional approaches to modern deep learning methods, Gaussian denoising has long been 188 a starting point in image denoising research due to its particularly favorable mathematical properties. In this work, we focus on Gaussian denoising models in the deep learning era, which can 189 typically leverage large amounts of training data through cost-effective methods. However, a model 190 trained exclusively on Gaussian noise performs poorly on other types of noise, due to significant 191 distributional differences between training and testing data, lacking both in-distribution generaliza-192 tion and cross-distribution transferability. Therefore, it is necessary to construct noisy-noisy image 193 pairs from the test images to fine-tune the model. While deep learning models are often highly 194 susceptible to noise contamination from unfamiliar sources, they can be steered away from this in-195 terference through simple methods, leading to significant improvements in denoising performance 196 for out-of-distribution noise. 197

#### Step 2. Building noisy-noisy image pairs from the noisy image to be denoised 198

199 To achieve test-time adaptation when clean reference images are unavailable, it is essential to con-200 struct training data using the noisy test image. High-quality training data is critical for fine-tuning 201 the network, especially in single-image denoising tasks. Carefully constructed noise-noise image pairs can accurately capture the noise characteristics of the target image, enabling the pre-trained 202 Gaussian denoising model to adapt more effectively to new noise distributions during fine-tuning. 203 This not only improves the model's performance in removing specific noise types but also enhances 204 its generalization across various noise conditions. Most existing methods generate training data 205 pairs through downsampling, which presents several drawbacks, such as overfitting due to the lim-206 ited amount of training data and a significant similarity gap in the clean content of the noisy training 207 images. We believe that self-supervised image denoising relies on a crucial implicit assumption (or 208 prior): the pervasive presence of self-similarity in images. Therefore, we construct training data 209 based on the inherent self-similarity of images. 210

Step 3. Fine-tuning the pre-trained Gaussian denoising model with the Noise2Noise framework 211

212 After preparing the noise-noise image pairs, we fine-tune the pre-trained Gaussian denoising model 213 using the Noise2Noise framework. This approach leverages the insight that the model can learn to recover the underlying clean signal by mapping between different noise instances within the same 214 image. As a result, the model quickly adapts to the noise distribution of the test image, enabling the 215 recovery of high-quality images.



236 Figure 3: Overview of the proposed Self-Similarity Based Pseudo-Instance Construction framework. Top: Non-Local Similar Pixel Search. For each pixel in the noisy image, we crop 237 a local patch of size  $k \times k$  centered at that pixel, then search for m non-local patches and sort them 238 according to similarity. Rearrange the pixels of each non-local patch into a column and assemble 239 the m non-local patches into a matrix. Search for the p rows that are most similar to the middle 240 row of the matrix, sort them, and extract the first pixel from each row. Bottom: Generating Pseudo-241 Instances Using Searched Pixels. Arrange all the pixels found on the left into a pixel library tensor. 242 During network training, randomly sample two pseudo-instances per pixel from this tensor in each 243 iteration to form the input and output of the network. 244

Next, we will provide a detailed explanation of the specific methods and implementation details of
 these three steps.

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3.1 PRE-TRAIN GAUSSIAN DENOISING MODEL

We pre-train a Gaussian denoiser in a self-supervised manner, as illustrated in Figure 2. Since network design is not the focus of this work, we adopt the same architecture and training methods as those used in Neighbor2Neighbor (Huang et al., 2021). We then treat the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser as a model with sufficient image priors, aiming to quickly adapt it to both in-distribution and out-of-distribution (OOD) noise using a straightforward approach.

254 We attempt to use the data construction method from the existing single-image denoising approach, 255 ZS-N2N, to generate noisy image pairs and fine-tune the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser. The results, 256 shown in Table 1, are based on a Gaussian denoiser pre-trained on Gaussian noise with a noise 257 level of  $\sigma = 25$ . In the following experiments, we use the same pre-trained model. Fine-tuning 258 and testing are conducted on Gaussian noise with  $\sigma = 25,50$  and Poisson noise with  $\lambda = 10,25$ . 259 When fine-tuning with the pre-trained model, we perform 10 iterations, whereas, without it, the 260 network requires 2000 iterations. As shown in the table, using the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser 261 as the initialization model not only significantly accelerates the convergence speed of ZS-N2N but also improves its performance for both in-distribution and out-of-distribution (OOD) noise. This 262 demonstrates that the Gaussian denoising model, trained on large datasets, possesses priors-what 263 we refer to as the "deep denoising prior". 264

To further investigate the impact of different data construction methods on the performance of pretrained denoising models, we used the data construction approaches from existing self-supervised denoising methods, NB2NB and ZS-N2N, to generate noisy image pairs for fine-tuning the pretrained Gaussian denoiser. The results, presented in Table 2, in most cases, the network's denoising performance improved after fine-tuning. However, for ZS-N2N at  $\sigma = 25$  (in-distribution noise), fine-tuning resulted in a decline in performance. Furthermore, the two fine-tuning methods exhibTable 1: The average PSNR scores and runtime of ZS-N2N with and without test-time adaptation for Gaussian and Poisson denoising on Kodak24 dataset.
 Gaussian Poisson Line (All States)

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Mathad	Gaus	ssian	Pois	time a (a)	
Method	$\sigma$ =25	$\sigma = 50$	$\lambda = 25$	$\lambda = 10$	time (s)
ZS-N2N (w/o)	29.07	24.81	27.49	24.92	9.04
ZS-N2N (w)	29.33	26.07	28.65	25.86	0.07

Table 2: The pre-trained Gaussian denoiser
employs different downsampling data meth-
ods for test-time adaptation.

Mathad	Gau	ssian	Poisson		
Method	σ=25	$\sigma$ =50	$\lambda = 25$	$\lambda$ =10	
Pre-trained	29.70	20.94	24.28	19.94	
NB2NB	30.35	25.07	28.69	25.86	
ZS-N2N	29.33	26.07	28.65	25.86	

ited different strengths across various noise distributions. This suggests that the method used for constructing fine-tuning data significantly influences the network's denoising performance, and selecting an inappropriate method can lead to performance degradation. Therefore, to fully leverage the deep denoising prior of the pre-trained Gaussian denoiser, an effective training data generation method based on the test image must be designed.

#### 3.2 BUILDING NOISE2NOISE PAIRS VIA PIXEL SEARCH

284 Given a noisy image  $y \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$ , we need to construct Noise2Noise training data pairs from it. 285 A key point here is the similarity of the clean content in the training data pairs. When the clean 286 content similarity is high, minimizing the Noise2Noise training loss becomes approximately equiv-287 alent to minimizing the Noise2Clean training loss; otherwise, significant errors may be introduced. Previous methods primarily employed various downsampling techniques to create training data, re-288 sulting in size inconsistencies between the training and test data. Moreover, each method has its 289 own limitations. For instance, Neighbor2Neighbor (Huang et al., 2021) and Blind2Unblind (Wang 290 et al., 2022b) sample similar pixels within a  $2 \times 2$  region, but in regions of the image where the 291 content changes significantly (such as corners and lines), there may not be similar pixels in such a 292 small region. Noise2Fast (Lequyer et al., 2022) and ZS-N2N (Mansour & Heckel, 2023) generate 293 only four and two low-resolution images, respectively. To avoid overfitting, they can only train very small networks, which limits the overall performance. 295

To generate training data with higher clean content similarity for fine-tuning the pre-trained Gaussian denoising model, we leverage the self-similarity widely present in natural images to search for similar pixels and construct data to fine-tune. Next, we introduce a simple and effective method that fully utilizes self-similarity prior of the test image. The overall process of this method is illustrated in Figure 3. For simplicity in description and illustration, we omit the channel dimension c when describing images. For example, we represent  $k^2 \times c \times M$  as a matrix and  $1 \times 1 \times c \times p$  as a vector.

For each pixel  $y_{i,j}$  in y ( $i \in [1,h], j \in [1,w]$ ), we need to identify similar pixels. The most 302 straightforward approach is to calculate the Euclidean distance between this pixel and others in the 303 image. However, this method is highly susceptible to noise, often leading to incorrect matches. To 304 mitigate this, we first employ the concept of non-local self-similarity by extracting a local patch 305  $p_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k \times c}$  centered on y, and search for M non-local patches  $p_m m = 1^M$  that are very similar 306 to  $p_1$  within a window of appropriate size  $W \times W$ , and rank them based on similarity. Euclidean 307 distance is used to measure the similarity between patches. This allows us to assume that pixels at 308 corresponding spatial locations in different non-local patches are similar to some extent. Next, we 309 reshape all non-local patches into column vectors and concatenate them into a matrix of dimensions  $k^2 \times c \times M$ . At this point, we can consider that the pixels in each row of the matrix are similar. 310 Then, row-by-row, we calculate the sum of the similarities between all pixels in each row and all 311 pixels in the center row. Compared to directly calculating the similarity between pixel  $y_i$ , j and 312 other pixels, this approach is more robust against noise interference. We extract the p most similar 313 rows to the center row and sort them by similarity. This results in a matrix of size  $p \times c \times M$ , and 314 we take all the pixels in the first column of the matrix to form a vector of size  $1 \times 1 \times c \times p$ , which 315 represents the p pixels most similar to  $y_{i,j}$  (including  $y_{i,j}$ ). By repeating this process for all pixels in the noisy image, we ultimately obtain a "pixel bank" tensor of size  $h \times w \times c \times p$ . Once the pixel 316 317 bank is constructed, we can use a pixel-wise random sampling strategy to sample a large number of 318 instances (a total of  $p^{hw}$ ), which we refer to as "pseudo-instances". 319

3.3 FINE-TUNING THE PRE-TRAINED GAUSSIAN DENOISING MODEL WITH THE NOISE2NOISE FRAMEWORK
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In each training iteration, the network randomly samples a pair  $({C_p^2})^{hw}$  pairs in total, for each spatial location, we ensure that the pixels sampled twice are different) for training. As shown in Figure 2, during each fine-tuning iteration, the network randomly samples a pair of pseudo-instances (a 324 total of  $C_p^{2hw}$  pairs. Existing methods, such as Noise2Fast (Lequyer et al., 2022) and ZS-N2N (Man-325 sour & Heckel, 2023) are limited to generating four or two predefined sub-images, which can easily 326 lead to overfitting. In contrast, our method aims to generate a large number of training samples, 327 each exhibiting approximately random perturbations in sampling differences, thus enhancing the 328 model's robustness against overfitting. Neighbor2Neighbor (Huang et al., 2021) and Blind2Unblind (Wang et al., 2022b) randomly sample sub-images within a  $2 \times 2$  range, but in areas rich in fine 329 details and textures, the pixels in such a small area may not be similar, introducing significant er-330 ror. Our method leverages the self-similarity of the image to search for similar pixels over a larger 331 area, thereby increasing the similarity of clean content between training pseudo-instances. Table 3 332 presents the performance of the network fine-tuned with data constructed using Neighbor2Neighbor, 333 ZS-N2N, and our proposed data construction method at different iterations. It can be observed that 334 our method demonstrates the strongest resistance to overfitting, and its performance also surpasses 335 that of Neighbor2Neighbor. This is because the gap between the clean content in the training data 336 constructed by our method is smaller. 337

Table 3: Using different fine-tuning data construction methods to fine-tune the pre-trained network,
 we calculate the average PSNR score of the network outputs at different iterations. We mark the first
 occurrence of the optimal result in **bold**.

Method	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	200	300
NB2NB	25.08	26.07	26.14	26.23	26.31	26.33	26.36	26.36	26.34	26.34	25.78	24.61
ZS-N2N	26.12	26.40	26.36	26.13	25.90	25.46	24.82	24.36	23.57	22.75	18.36	16.42
Ours	26.39	26.65	26.84	26.90	26.94	27.01	27.04	27.06	27.08	27.11	27.14	27.04

#### 4 EXPERIMENTS

#### 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

Implementation details. We use the Neighbor2Neighbor (Huang et al., 2021) model as the pre-349 trained Gaussian denoiser, which contains only 1.26M parameters. The model is trained on Gaussian 350 noise with  $\sigma = 25$ . We train the network on 50K images from the ImageNet validation set (Deng 351 et al., 2009). Similar to (Huang et al., 2021), we only select clean images with sizes between 352  $256 \times 256$  and  $512 \times 512$  pixels and then randomly crop  $256 \times 256$  patches for training. In our 353 implementation, the window size W is 32, the patch size k is 7, and the number of non-local patches 354 M is 16. The number of similar pixels p found at each spatial location is 20. We use the Adam 355 Optimizer to train the network for 10 iterations. The learning rate is set to 0.0001 in synthetic noise 356 experiments and 0.00001 in real-world noise experiments. We implement and train our network 357 using the PyTorch framework on an NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPU.

358 **Compared methods.** The proposed method is evaluated on several denoising tasks: including Gaus-359 sian denoising, Poisson denoising, and real-world RGB image denoising. For Gaussian denoising 360 and Poisson denoising, we compare our method with several state-of-the-art methods including su-361 pervised denoising method, DnCNN (Zhang et al., 2017) self-supervised denoising method Neigh-362 bor2Neighbor (NB2NB) (Huang et al., 2021), and single image denoising methods, including BM3D 363 (Dabov et al., 2007), DIP (Ulyanov et al., 2018), Self2Self (S2S) (Quan et al., 2020), and ZS-N2N (Mansour & Heckel, 2023). The dataset-based methods (DnCNN, NB2NB) are trained using the 364 same data as our pre-trained Gaussian denoiser. Considering that our method does not require a 365 specific dataset or training the network under a specific noise distribution, we believe our method 366 can also be regarded as dataset-free. For real-world RGB image denoising, in addition to comparing 367 with the aforementioned representative single-image denoising methods, we also compare a single 368 image denoising method MASH (Chihaoui & Favaro, 2024) and three dataset-based self-supervised 369 methods, AP-BSN (Lee et al., 2022), LG-BPN (Wang et al., 2023), and SDAP (Pan et al., 2023), 370 specifically designed for real-world image denoising.

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#### 4.2 SYNTHETIC NOISE

All methods are tested on the Kodak24 <sup>2</sup> and McMaster18 (Zhang et al., 2011) natural image datasets, as well as the Kvasir (Smedsrud et al., 2021) medical endoscopic dataset. Since the computational cost of running S2S is high, we randomly choose 20 images from the Kvasir dataset to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>http://r0k.us/graphics/kodak/

Noise	Me	thod		Kodak24		N	/IcMaster1	8		KVASIR2	)
		$\sigma$ known?	$\sigma = 10$	$\sigma = 25$	$\sigma = 50$	$\sigma = 10$	$\sigma = 25$	$\sigma = 50$	$\sigma = 10$	$\sigma = 25$	$\sigma = 50$
	DnCNN	yes	36.26	31.53	28.16	36.30	31.85	28.44	37.19	33.11	30.91
	DnCNN	no	31.88	31.53	17.95	32.47	30.36	18.73	32.61	33.11	17.74
Gaussian	NB2NB	yes	35.81	29.70	28.45	36.06	30.36	28.97	36.98	31.77	31.32
Gaussian	NB2NB	no	32.66	29.70	20.94	33.19	30.36	21.29	33.69	31.77	21.23
	BM3D	yes	<u>33.74</u>	29.02	25.51	<u>34.51</u>	<u>29.21</u>	24.51	36.13	31.96	28.58
	DIP	no	32.28	27.38	23.95	33.07	27.61	23.03	33.88	29.94	23.82
	S2S	no	29.54	28.39	<u>26.22</u>	30.78	28.71	<u>25.03</u>	<u>36.25</u>	<u>32.52</u>	<u>29.45</u>
	ZS-N2N	no	33.69	<u>29.07</u>	24.81	34.21	28.80	24.02	35.46	31.46	28.05
	Ours	no	34.63	30.75	27.11	34.49	31.05	27.77	37.09	33.37	29.78
		$\lambda$ known?	$\lambda = 50$	$\lambda = 25$	$\lambda = 10$	$\lambda = 50$	$\lambda = 25$	$\lambda = 10$	$\lambda = 50$	$\lambda = 25$	$\lambda = 10$
	DnCNN	yes	31.85	30.13	27.89	32.65	30.97	28.63	33.32	32.07	30.56
	DnCNN	no	30.86	25.24	17.28	31.49	26.37	18.91	31.80	23.84	16.17
Deisson	NB2NB	yes	31.87	30.28	28.30	32.87	31.33	29.30	33.48	32.50	31.12
POISSOII	NB2NB	no	29.62	24.82	19.94	30.42	25.81	20.69	31.01	23.26	18.66
	BM3D	no	28.36	26.58	24.20	27.33	24.77	21.59	28.12	25.34	22.88
	DIP	no	27.51	25.84	23.81	28.73	27.37	24.67	29.21	26.35	25.47
	S2S	no	28.89	28.31	27.29	30.11	<u>29.40</u>	27.71	<u>32.52</u>	<u>30.50</u>	<u>29.19</u>
	ZS-N2N	no	<u>29.45</u>	27.49	24.92	<u>30.36</u>	28.41	25.75	31.59	30.05	27.90
	Ours	no	30.51	28.89	26.64	31.32	29.96	27.66	33.21	31.38	29.25

Table 4: Average PSNR for Gaussian and Poisson denoising on Kodak24, McMaster18, and KVASIR20. The best and second results are in **bold** and underlined.

Table 5: Deno	oising PSNR	in dB on	real-world	camera noise.
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Dataset	Dataset-free						Dataset-based		
Method	BM3D	DIP	S2S	ZS-N2N	MASH	Ours	AP-BSN	LG-BPN	SDAP
PolyU	34.66	34.75	35.97	35.17	31.97	36.71	36.49	35.76	34.15
SIDD	32.98	33.44	33.11	29.90	33.18	35.29	-	-	-

test. The test images are uniformly center-cropped to generate  $256 \times 256$  patches. We consider fixed noise levels of Gaussian noise with  $\sigma = 10, 25, 50$  and Poisson noise with  $\lambda = 50, 25, 10$ .

In Table 4, we present the denoising performance of different methods. It is worth noting that BM3D 403 requires a specific noise level as input. For Gaussian noise, we directly input the actual noise level, 404 while for Poisson noise, we use the estimated noise level based on (Chen et al., 2015). For dataset-405 based methods, DnCNN and NB2NB, " $\sigma$  known" and " $\lambda$  known" indicate that the training noise 406 distribution matches the testing noise distribution. " $\sigma$  unknown" and " $\lambda$  unknown" indicate that the 407 models trained on Gaussian noise level  $\sigma = 25$  are tested on images with noise from other distri-408 butions. As shown in the table, dataset-based methods perform better when the training and testing 409 noise distributions are consistent, compared to dataset-free methods. For dataset-free methods, the traditional BM3D method performs well under known noise levels (Gaussian) but its performance 410 decreases when the noise level is unknown (Poisson). Among deep learning-based methods, DIP 411 lags far behind other methods, while S2S performs well at higher noise levels, although its success 412 is largely due to its ensembling strategy, which often results in overly smooth images. ZS-N2N 413 performs well at lower noise levels but its performance degrades significantly at higher noise levels, 414 which is a result of the noise level differences between the training and testing images caused by its 415 downsampling strategy. Our method not only improves model performance in handling OOD noise 416 but also significantly enhances model performance in handling in-distribution noise (e.g., Gaussian 417 noise,  $\sigma = 25$ , Kodak24, +1.05 dB; McMaster18, +0.84 dB; KVASIR20, +1.41 dB). Moreover, 418 our method consistently achieves the best or near-best performance in most cases, making it the 419 most robust choice. Please refer to the supplementary materials for visualized results.

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4.3 REAL-WORLD NOISE

423 We test all comparison methods on the PolyU dataset (Xu et al., 2018) and the SIDD-Small dataset 424 (Abdelhamed et al., 2018). The SIDD-Medium, PolyU, and SIDD-Small datasets contain 320, 40, 425 and 160 images, respectively. We extract a  $256 \times 256 \times 3$  patch from the center of the images in 426 the PolyU and SIDD-Small datasets for testing. The denoising performance of different methods on 427 real camera noise is summarized in Table 5. Since the SIDD-Small dataset is a subset of the SIDD-428 Medium dataset and the dataset-based methods are trained on SIDD-Medium, we do not present their performance on the SIDD-Small dataset. Unlike synthetic noise, DIP performs exceptionally 429 well when handling real camera noise. Among the data-free methods, our approach achieves the 430 best performance on both datasets, even surpassing the dataset-based methods. Please refer to the 431 supplementary materials for visualized results.

### 432 5 RELATED WORK

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Supervised denoising methods mainly rely on paired noise-clean or noise-noise (without clean targets) images for training by convolutional neural networks (CNNs) (Zhang et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019; Jia et al., 2019; Lefkimmiatis, 2018) or Transformer networks (Liang et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2024). They have achieved state-of-the-art performance, but the cost of collecting datasets is high. Although using noise-noise image pairs for training networks relaxes the requirements for training data compared to using noise-clean pairs (Lehtinen et al., 2018), gathering a large number of noise-noise image pairs remains a very challenging task, and sometimes even impossible.

442 Self-supervised image denoising methods use the noisy image itself as its own label, and vari-443 ous constraints or transformations are applied to create a denoised or different noisy version that 444 the model aims to predict. The representative work is blind-spot network based, which includes 445 Noise2Void (Krull et al., 2019), Noise2Self (Batson & Royer, 2019), Laine's (Laine et al., 2019), 446 DBSN (Wu et al., 2020), Blind2Unblind (Wang et al., 2022b), and LG-BPN (Wang et al., 2023). Noisy-as-clean (Xu et al., 2020) and Noisier2Noise (Moran et al., 2020) train the denoising network 447 by adding noise to noisy images. However, they require knowledge of noise distribution. To gener-448 ate more reasonable training pairs, Recorrupted-to-Recorrupted (Pang et al., 2021) introduces noise 449 with known levels to noisy images, while Neighbor2Neighbor (Huang et al., 2021) obtains training 450 image pairs by downsampling the noisy image. Since these methods rely on the internal knowledge 451 of the training samples, this may lead to decreased effectiveness when faced with noise distributions 452 that differ from the training data distribution. 453

Single image denoising methods rely solely on the to-be-tested noisy image. To date, there have 454 been few methods of this kind, suggesting a significant potential for further exploration. The earliest 455 work is DIP (Ulyanov et al., 2018), which demonstrates the powerful capabilities of neural network 456 architectures, as an image prior for diverse image restoration tasks. Self2Self (Quan et al., 2020) 457 trains with dropout on Bernoulli sampling instances of the input image. In order to efficiently acquire 458 pairs of noisy images, Noise2Fast (Lequyer et al., 2022) introduces the checkerboard downsampling 459 to generate training image pairs. Inspired by Noise2Fast, ZS-N2N (Mansour & Heckel, 2023) pro-460 poses a new image downsampling technique to obtain training image pairs. These single-image 461 denoising methods do not require prior training under specific noise conditions, offering greater 462 flexibility and versatility in handling various types of unseen noise. MASH (Chihaoui & Favaro, 463 2024) introduces a shuffling technique to weaken the local correlation of noise, which in turn yields an additional denoising performance improvement. 464

465 **Test-time adaptation.** In recent years, test-time adaptation (TTA) methods (Liang et al., 2024; 466 Chen et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021) have been introduced to mitigate domain shift by updating pre-467 trained models online using test data. EATA (Niu et al., 2022) proposes an active sample selection 468 criterion to identify reliable and non-redundant samples in order to minimize entropy loss during 469 test-time adaptation. MEMO (Zhang et al., 2022) proposes a probabilistic and adaptive testing setup that can be used for any model. LAME (Boudiaf et al., 2022) proposes using a Laplace-adjusted 470 maximum likelihood estimation objective to address the problem that previous methods sometimes 471 fail catastrophically when their hyperparameters are not chosen for the test scenario. SRTTA (Deng 472 et al., 2023) focuses on the image super-resolution task and addresses the degradation shift issue. 473 SS-TTA (Fahim & Boutellier, 2023) synthesizes additional Gaussian noise training images at test 474 time to refine the result from the pre-trained denoised model. The adaptation capability of the pre-475 trained model improves in the case of Gaussian noise but fails to generalize to other types of noise, 476 such as Poisson noise.

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#### 6 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a test-time adaptation framework for image denoising to quickly mitigate the domain shift problem in image denoising. We first train a Gaussian denoiser with deep denoising prior by using a self-supervised approach. Then, we propose a self-similarity-based method to construct a pixel pool for each test image, from which pseudo-instances are sampled for fine-tuning, reducing the gap between the clean contents of training sample pairs. Extensive experiments on both in-distribution synthetic noise, out-of-distribution noise, and real-world noise demonstrate that our method can quickly adapt the denoising model for each image and recover high-quality images.

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