
Unraveling Metameric Dilemma for Spectral Reconstruction: A High-Fidelity Approach via Semi-Supervised Learning

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Abstract

Spectral reconstruction from RGB images often suffers from a metamerism dilemma, where distinct spectral distributions map to nearly identical RGB values, making them indistinguishable to current models and leading to unreliable reconstructions. In this paper, we present Diff-Spectra that integrates supervised physics-aware spectral estimation and unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization for HSI reconstruction. We first introduce an Adaptive Illuminance Chrominance Decoupling (AICD) module to decouple illumination and chrominance information, which learns intrinsic and distinctive feature distributions, thereby mitigating the metamerism issue. Then, we incorporate the AICD into a learnable spectral response function (SRF) guided hyperspectral initial estimation mechanism to mimic the physical image formation and thus inject physics-aware reasoning into neural networks, turning an ill-posed problem into a constrained, interpretable task. We also introduce a metamerism spectra augmentation method to synthesize comprehensive hyperspectral data to pre-train a Spectral Diffusion Module (SDM), which internalizes the statistical properties of real-world HSI data, enforcing unsupervised high-fidelity regularization on the spectral transitions via inner-loop optimization during inference. Extensive experimental evaluations demonstrate that our Diff-Spectra achieves competitive performance on both Spectral reconstruction and downstream HSI classification.

1 Introduction

Hyperspectral imaging captures hundreds of spectral bands, allowing for precise identification of materials and illumination conditions that are often indistinguishable from RGB imaging. It has been widely applied in remote sensing [1, 2], medical diagnosis [3, 4] and agriculture [5, 6].

Traditional hyperspectral imaging methods show limitations in time-consuming acquisition processes with limited spatial resolution. Recent advances in deep learning within the computer vision community have paved the way for hyperspectral image reconstruction from RGB inputs using data-driven methodologies [7, 8]. Early model-based methods, such as sparse coding [9] and low-rank

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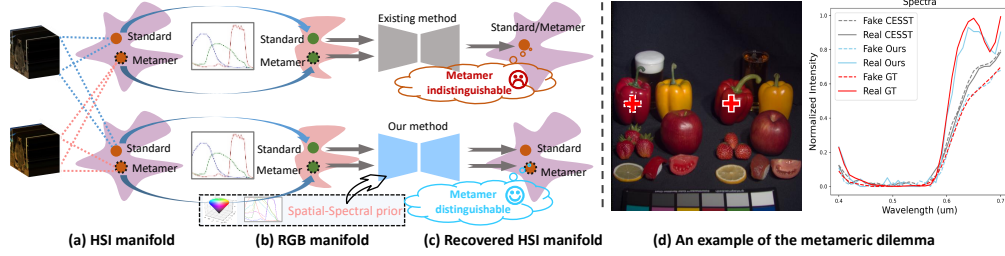


Figure 1: Motivation. (a) shows metamer and standard HSIs. In (b), standard and metamer RGB inputs are produced by the same SRF from corresponding HSIs. In (d), Left: the dashed and solid red highlighted points are two pixels from the fake and real peppers from the CAVE dataset [19], respectively; Right: Corresponding ground-truth spectral curves of the two pixels, and reconstructed spectral curves of CESST [8] (grey) and our method (blue). The fake and real peppers are in similar colors but have different spectra. Existing methods (*e.g.*, CESST) fail to distinguish either the two spectra from each other or from their true spectra, while our method can reconstruct faithfully.

representation [10], rely predominantly on manually crafted priors. In contrast, modern learning-based approaches [7, 11, 12, 13] leverage deep learning frameworks such as convolutional neural networks [14, 15, 16] and Vision Transformers [7, 8] to achieve superior reconstruction performance.

Limitations. However, we observe that most existing methods [7, 11, 12] suffer from a metamer dilemma [17, 18], where distinct spectral distributions map to nearly identical RGB values, making them indistinguishable to current models and leading to unreliable reconstructions, as shown in Fig.1. We argue that this stems from the direct nonlinear mapping from the sRGB input space to the hyperspectral output space, leading to three key limitations in terms of data, methodologies, and pipelines: (i) **Data Poverty**: Existing hyperspectral datasets lack diversity in rich metamer examples, forcing existing models to memorize a limited subset of spectra rather than internalizing the full spectral manifold; (ii) **Spectral Manifold Blindness**: Existing methods overlook the explicit modeling of the real-world spectral distribution, leading to hallucinated outputs that minimize pixel-wise losses (*e.g.*, MSE) but violate physical laws (*e.g.*, unnatural spectral intensity in Fig. 1); (iii) **Architecture Myopia**: Existing methods treat spectral radiance as a monolithic entity, conflating illumination and chrominance. It amplifies metamer failures that networks cannot distinguish whether RGB variations stem from lighting or material properties.

It raises a fundamental question: *Can we introduce auxiliary information to address the above-mentioned metamer dilemma, thus achieving high-fidelity Spectral reconstruction? If so, how?*

To this end, we propose *Diff-Spectra*, a semi-supervised model for HSI reconstruction that integrates supervised physics-aware spectral estimation and unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization. Specifically, to deal with architecture myopia, we first introduce an Adaptive IllumiChroma Decoupling (AICD) module by factorizing RGB inputs into independent illumination and chrominance subspace via orthogonal decoupling. Then, the AICD is incorporated into a SRF-guided HSI initial estimation (SRF-guided HIE) mechanism to estimate the target spectral signal in a supervised manner. This process mimics the physical image formation and thus injects physics-aware reasoning into neural networks, turning an ill-posed problem into a constrained, interpretable task. To deal with the data poverty, we introduce a metamer spectra augmentation method to synthesize a comprehensive HSI dataset with diverse metamer samples and spectral perturbations, transforming sparse spectral data into a rich prior that can guide reconstruction beyond RGB ambiguities. To deal with the spectral manifold blindness, we introduce a spectral diffusion module (SDM) that learns to denoise corrupted spectra during pre-training on the comprehensive HSI dataset, which internalizes the statistical properties of real-world hyperspectral data. During reconstruction, the pre-trained SDM serves as a spectral prior that regularizes the coarsely estimated HSI signal from the SRF-guided HIE mechanism with high-fidelity real-world spectral distributions via our proposed unsupervised inner loop optimization. The main contributions are given as follows:

- We propose a semi-supervised paradigm, *Diff-Spectra*, to deal with the metamer dilemma in spectral reconstruction. It integrates supervised physics-aware spectral estimation and unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization.

- We introduce an Adaptive IllumiChroma Decoupling (AICD) module based on orthogonal decoupling to effectively factorize illumination and chrominance information, serving as an IllumiChroma prior. It learns distinctive image features, alleviating the metamerism dilemma.
- We design a lightweight, learnable SRF-guided HIE mechanism to obtain an initial HSI estimation, which formulates the reconstruction model with physical constraints and enhances the interpretability.
- We introduce a metamerism spectra augmentation method to synthesize a comprehensive HSI dataset to pre-train a Spectral Diffusion Module (SDM) to capture the real-world spectral distribution, serving as a spectral prior to improve spectral fidelity.
- Extensive experiments on both spectral reconstruction and HSI classification demonstrate that our Diff-Spectra framework significantly outperforms SOTA methods.

2 Related Work

2.1 Hyperspectral Image Reconstruction

Early efforts [9, 16] utilized model-based approaches that incorporated fidelity terms and physical priors to constrain the target solutions. For example, Arad et al. [9] improved this interpolation challenge using hyperspectral priors to forge a sparse dictionary of HSIs alongside their RGB counterparts. Despite their contributions, these model-based strategies depend on manually tailored priors, constricting their representational capability. Learning-based methods [11, 12, 20, 21], shifted the focus to data-driven approaches, learning implicit mappings from RGB to hyperspectral domains using specifically designed architectures. Notably, the HSCNN model [14] revolutionizes the field by mapping the input RGB image into hyperspectral feature space via a convolutional layer and harnessing deep residual convolutional blocks to approximate the enriched HSI. Cai et al. [7] proposed a transformer-based approach to capture the long-range channel-wise correlations that compute the self-attention map along the channel dimension, tailored for HSI reconstruction. Wang et al. [22] introduced an intrinsic image decomposition (IID) framework to decompose input images into reflectance and shading features and then reconstruct them in the spectral domain separately. However, all existing learning-based methods directly learn mappings between sRGB and HSI feature spaces, neglecting the intrinsic spectral distribution of HSIs and lacking physical constraints, thus encountering the challenges posed by the metamerism dilemma.

2.2 Diffusion-based HSI Image Reconstruction

Diffusion models [23, 24] have witnessed an explosion of continuously growing capability and capacity architectures. In the context of HSI image reconstruction, Pang et al. [25] proposed HIR-Diff that leverages a powerful pre-trained diffusion prior and a product-of-experts guidance scheme to remove degradations and recover clean hyperspectral images in an unsupervised manner, demonstrating strong generalization across scenes and noise types. Wu et al. [26] proposed a conditional denoising transformer to fuse high-resolution multi-spectral images and low-resolution hyperspectral images to generate target high-resolution HSI images. Liu et al. [27] proposed incorporating the deep generative prior of diffusion models to constrain the high-resolution multi-spectral image and low-resolution hyperspectral image fusion process. While these works focus on restoration and reconstruction, diffusion’s representational advantages have also benefited HSI classification, suggesting transferable priors for reconstruction. Chen et al. [28] proposed a spatial-spectral diffusion module to generate high-dimensional HSI signals for HSI classification, indicating the great potential of diffusion-based generative models in spectral distribution modeling. Beyond natural HSI classification, Sigger et al. [29] proposed a multistage unsupervised diffusion framework to extract complementary high- and low-level spectral features for challenging biomedical HSI classification, underscoring diffusion’s capacity to model fine-grained spectral structure. However, applying diffusion models for practical HSI systems still faces trade-offs among cost, complexity, and acquisition speed. Moreover, directly reconstructing full hyperspectral cubes from RGB inputs with diffusion remains comparatively under-explored, presenting an opportunity to combine diffusion priors with cross-modal spectral constraints and measurement-aware conditioning for faithful RGB-to-HSI recovery grounded in both spectral accuracy and spatial details.

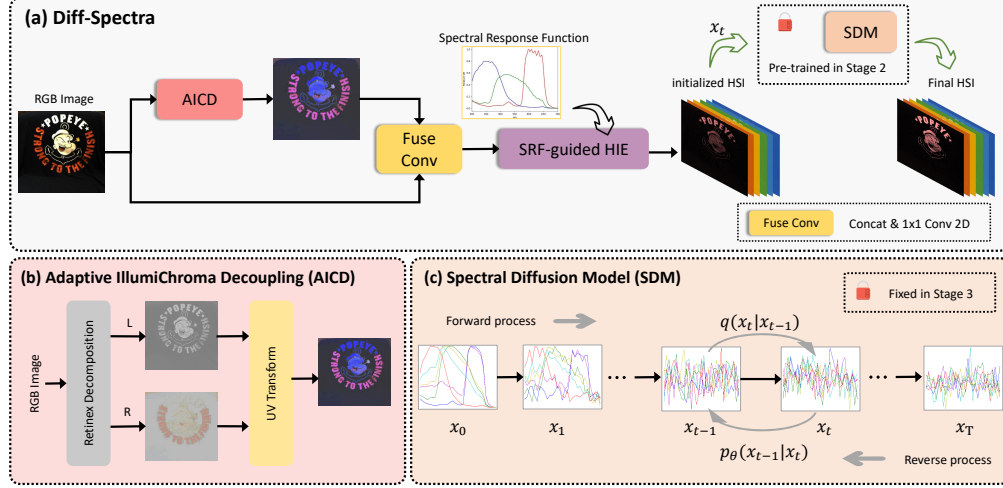


Figure 2: Overall framework of **Diff-Spectra**. Our model has three training stages. In Stage 1, the SRF-guided HIE and AICD are pre-trained using Eq. 10 to initialize a coarse-level HSI signal while freezing the SDM. In Stage 2, the SDM is pre-trained using Eq.13 to learn the spectral distribution of HSI signals while freezing the SRF-guided HIE and AICD. In Stage 3, we fine-tune the SRF-guided HIE and AICD using the objective function Eq. 14, which regularizes the initialized HSI signal in Stage 1 with the spectral prior of SDM in Stage 2. During inference, we further introduce an inner loop optimization as a test-time adaptation with Eq. 13 to generate refined HSI signals by following the spectral reverse generative sequence of SDM.

3 Methodology

3.1 Problem Definition

The RGB imaging process can be formulated as a sub-sampling process of the target HSI signal:

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{A} + \epsilon, \quad \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times c}, \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times c}$ denotes the observed RGB image, with H , W and c representing height, width, and channel ($c \ll C$) of \mathbf{X} , respectively. $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ and $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times c}$ are the target HSI signal and the spectral response function (SRF) of the RGB sensor, respectively. ϵ is the noise or residual terms that arise in the image processing pipeline. The HSI reconstruction task can be formulated as a maximum a posteriori problem: $\max_{\mathbf{Y}} p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A})$. Applying Bayes' theorem, the posterior can be further reformulated as:

$$p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{Y})p(\mathbf{Y})}{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A})}, \quad (2)$$

Taking the negative logarithm and discarding irrelevant terms \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} , we obtain the objective function:

$$\min_{\mathbf{Y}} \{-\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{Y}) - \log p(\mathbf{Y})\}, \quad (3)$$

where $\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{Y})$ is the log-likelihood that depicts the degradation processes of RGB sampling from the HSI signal, and \mathbf{Y} is the spectral prior that will contribute to the restoration of \mathbf{Y} .

3.2 Motivation and Solution

Existing HSI reconstruction methods [7, 8] only consider the first term in Eq. 3 (i.e., $\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{Y})$) and directly map RGB inputs to hyperspectral feature space, overlooking subtle variations in RGB feature distributions, thereby leading to the *metameric dilemma*, as shown in Fig. 1 and further demonstrated by the experimental results in Section 4.3.

In this paper, we would like to consider this challenging spectral reconstruction problem as supervised physics-aware spectral estimation and unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization. Thus, in terms of supervised physics-aware spectral estimation, which corresponds to to optimize the first

term $-\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{Y})$ in Eq. (3), we introduce an Adaptive IllumiChroma Decoupling (AICD) module by factorizing RGB inputs into independent illumination (\mathbf{U}) and chrominance (\mathbf{V}) subspace via orthogonal decoupling to explore intrinsic clues and distinguish image features, which effectively eliminates redundancy and enhances distinctive patterns among metameric hyperspectral data. Then, the AICD is incorporated into the SRF-guided HSI Initial Estimation (SRF-guided HIE) module to estimate the target spectral signal in a supervised manner. This process mimics the physical image formation and thus injects physics-aware reasoning into neural networks, turning an ill-posed problem into a constrained, interpretable task. Now, we express the first term $-\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{Y})$ as the following according to Eq. (1):

$$\mathcal{L}_Y(\mathbf{Y}) = \|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V} - \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{A} - \epsilon\|^2. \quad (4)$$

Then, we assume the second prior term, *i.e.*, $\log p(\mathbf{Y})$, as unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization for the estimated spectra, which further constrains the estimation via transferring distribution prior knowledge from a pre-trained model leveraging our metameric spectra dataset.

3.3 Supervised Physics-Aware Spectral Estimation

3.3.1 Adaptive IllumiChroma Decoupling

A spectral radiance $\mathbf{Y}(\lambda)$ can be represented as $\mathbf{Y}(\lambda) = \mathbf{E}(\lambda)\mathbf{S}(\lambda)$, where, $\lambda, \mathbf{E}(\lambda), \mathbf{S}(\lambda)$ represents the spectral entity, illumination and surface chrominance, respectively. Existing deep learning methods treat $\mathbf{Y}(\lambda)$ as a monolithic entity, failing to disentangle illumination and chrominance. This conflation amplifies metameric ambiguities, as networks struggle to distinguish whether RGB variations stem from lighting changes $\mathbf{E}(\lambda)$ or material properties $\mathbf{S}(\lambda)$. This dilemma is the same with RGB inputs. As such, we introduce AICD that aims to extract intrinsic and distinctive image features that are robust against different light variations. However, as shown in Fig. 3, we find that merely relying on reflectance \mathbf{R} and illumination \mathbf{L} decomposition based on the Retinex theory [30] cannot distinguish between metameric examples.

Considering that HSIs capturing often exhibit low-light characteristics that lead to potential information loss, we first customize an illumination sensitivity parameter S_k , which enables image-specific adjustment as: $\mathbf{S}_k = \sqrt[k]{\sin(\frac{\pi \mathbf{L}'}{2})} + \tau$, where $k \in \mathbb{Q}^+$, $\tau = 1 \times 10^{-8}$. In specific, different from existing decomposition methods [31, 32, 33] that decompose images in a deterministic manner, which may not appropriately capture the diverse and complex imaging and lighting conditions that are specific to downstream tasks, we introduce trainable parameters to enable adaptive learning of intrinsic image features in an end-to-end manner, thereby enhancing compatibility with downstream tasks. Specifically, we employ convolutional layers to obtain embedded features: $\mathbf{R}' = \text{Conv}(\mathbf{R}), \mathbf{L}' = \text{Conv}(\mathbf{L})$.

Orthogonal Decoupling. As discussed, decomposed reflectance and illumination components cannot well distinguish metamer data. Inspired by the orthogonal decoupling method in [34, 35], which effectively eliminates redundancy and enhances distinctive patterns among visual features, we further deployed orthogonal UV transform to extract more distinctive features. We define the horizontal (\mathbf{U}) and vertical (\mathbf{V}) plane as:

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{S}_k \odot \mathbf{R}' \odot h, \quad \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{S}_k \odot \mathbf{R}' \odot v, \quad (5)$$

where \odot denotes Hadamard production. Note that we orthogonalize the UV-planes using the two intermediate variables $h = \cos(2\pi \mathbf{R}')$ and $v = \sin(2\pi \mathbf{R}')$. Finally, the decomposed features (\mathbf{U} , and \mathbf{V}) will serve as the illumichroma prior for SRF-guided HIE.

3.3.2 SRF-guided HSI Initial Estimation

Note that the SRF matrix \mathbf{A} in Eq. 1 that projects the HSI to an RGB frame has a row-full rank, enabling a right-inverse solution based on the matrix inversion rule. Thus, there exists a transpose

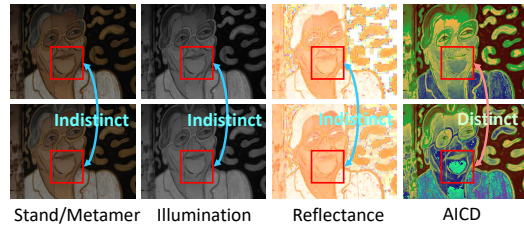


Figure 3: Difference between the decomposition methods of Retinex and AICD. The top row is based on standard data, while the bottom row is based on metamer data. AICD can transform metamer counterparts into more discriminative features than reflectance and illumination maps.

matrix \mathbf{A}^T of \mathbf{A} such that the following equation obtained from Eq. 1 holds

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T - \epsilon\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T, \quad (6)$$

$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ is a square matrix, and there exists an inverse matrix of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ such that the following equation holds:

$$\gamma\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} - \epsilon\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}, \quad (7)$$

We can rewrite Eq. 7 as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} - \epsilon\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}, \quad (8)$$

Direct inversion of RGB images into spectral space via SRFs may be suboptimal due to variations in SRFs across different spectral cameras and disturbances arising from factors such as RGB format compression and noise, and can not distinguish metamers. To address these challenges, we incorporate the AICD into a spectral response function (SRF) guided HSI initial estimation (SRF-guided HIE) mechanism to estimate the target spectral signal in a supervised manner. This process mimics the physical image formation and thus injects physics-aware reasoning into neural networks, turning an ill-posed problem into a constrained, interpretable task. Specifically, we incorporate the decomposed illumichroma prior from the AICD module and then estimate the coarse HSI signal via the SRF-guided HIE function:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}), \quad (9)$$

where \mathcal{F} denotes a neural network mapping function (a standard UNet-based network [7]), \mathcal{H} denotes a fusion operator (via concatenation and convolution) and $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ denotes the SRF-guided HIE output. Now, Eq. (4) is implemented as:

$$\mathcal{L}_Y(\mathbf{Y}) = \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1})\|^2, \quad (10)$$

3.4 Unsupervised High-Fidelity Spectral Regularization

We introduce spectral diffusion models (SDMs) [27, 36] as spectral priors to refine the initial HSI estimated by the SRF-guided HIE and achieve accurate reconstruction. However, three key challenges must be addressed: (i) SDMs struggle to capture metamer feature distributions, limiting their ability to model subtle spectral variations. (ii) Directly modeling the spatial-spectral distribution of 3D hyperspectral data incurs a significant computational burden due to the high dimensionality of the data. (iii) A notable domain discrepancy exists between SRF-guided HIE results and real hyperspectral images (HSIs), suggesting that directly applying SDMs may result in suboptimal performance. To address these challenges, we introduce three key improvements for effectively integrating SDMs into spectral reconstruction: (1) metamer spectral augmentation, which creates comprehensive training data to enhance feature representation, (2) a lightweight spectral diffusion architecture to reduce computational complexity, and (3) gradient-based inner loop optimization to bridge the domain gap and improve reconstruction accuracy.

Metameric spectra augmentation. Metameric augmentation leverages an orthogonal subspace decomposition [37] of a spectrum \mathbf{S} into a component that lies in the sensor-response range subspace and a residual in the null space, enabling different spectra to produce the same RGB response under a given spectral sensitivity [38]. With a spectral response matrix \mathbf{A} , a new metameric spectrum \mathbf{S}^\dagger can be synthesized following the concept of metameric black [39]:

$$\mathbf{S}^\dagger = \mathcal{J} + \beta\mathcal{J}^\dagger, \quad (11)$$

where we project \mathbf{S} onto the range space as $\mathcal{J} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{S}$ and define the residual null space as $\mathcal{J}^\dagger = \mathbf{S} - \mathcal{J}$. New metamer spectra are then synthesized by varying the scalar β . Because \mathcal{J}^\dagger lies in the null space of the response, changing β does not alter the RGB tristimulus, so \mathbf{S} and \mathbf{S}^\dagger are colorimetric matches while differing spectrally. This property reflects the broader fact that rich spectra are reduced to three sensor channels in trichromatic systems, making metamers common and exploitable for augmentation.

We adopt this as a spectral-wise augmentation (rather than spatial flips or crops) to expand the diversity of training spectra while preserving color consistency seen by RGB sensors. Such augmentation can enhance robustness in spectral reconstruction pipelines, a concept established in color science as a way to explore spectra that map to the same color. Practically, we generate metamer data by sampling β uniformly from $[0, 1)$; note that setting $\beta = 1$ recovers the original spectrum, while other

values yield alternative metamers that share the same RGB under \mathbf{A} . We produce metamers at a 1 : 1 ratio with standard spectra, doubling the dataset and providing both the original and augmented hyperspectral inputs for pre-training.

Lightweight spectral diffusion architecture. HSI signals exhibit significant spatial sparsity [40, 41], suggesting that direct modeling of 3-D data cubes might be suboptimal. As such, we introduce a 1-D spectral diffusion model to capture the spectral distribution of HSI signals to address the second term in Eq. (3). Our SDM employs two iterative processes, following the standard DDPM [42], a forward diffusion process, and a reverse denoising process, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Unlike existing diffusion-based variations [33, 28], we adopt a 1-D MLP-based UNet denoising network to ensure that the diffusion model is compatible with 1-D spectral data. While it is feasible to capture the spectral distribution of HSI signals via our proposed SDM, the key question is: *how can the trained SDM be incorporated to solve the second prior term $-\log p(\mathbf{Y})$ of Eq. (3)?*

In our work, we assume that any spectral vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^C$ of the target HSI \mathbf{Y} are i.i.d. (independently identically distributed), *i.e.*, $-\log p(\mathbf{Y}) = -\sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{Y}} \log p(\mathbf{y})$, and each spectrum sample follows the spectral distribution learned by our proposed SDM, the deep generative prior, *i.e.*, $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{y}_0)$. Consequently, the optimization problem Eq. (3) can be rewritten as:

$$\min_{\mathbf{Y}} \mathcal{L}_Y(\mathbf{Y}) + \lambda \sum_{t, \mathbf{y}} \mathcal{L}_{kl}(q(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}|\mathbf{y}_t, \mathbf{y}) || p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}|\mathbf{y}_t)), \quad (12)$$

where λ and \mathcal{L}_{kl} denote a balance hyperparameter and the KL divergence, respectively. Subsequently, we can use the parameterization trick to rewrite the second term in Eq. (3) as

$$(13)$$

With the above derivation, the final objective function of the proposed Diff-Spectra can be formulated as

$$\min_{\mathbf{Y}} \mathcal{L}_Y(\mathbf{Y}) + \lambda \sum_{t, \mathbf{y}} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}, t). \quad (14)$$

Note that this objective function is adopted during the fine-tuning process in Stage 3, where λ is set to 0.1 empirically.

Inner loop optimization. It is impractical to optimize Eq. (14) simultaneously for all time steps. *This is because an inherent domain gap exists between the spectral distribution learned by the SDM and the spectral distribution of the coarse-level HSI learned by the SRF-guided HIE network.* Simply assuming these two spectral distributions are consistent without further adaptation can lead to suboptimal results. As such, we propose an inner loop optimization during each time step in the inference phase that performs gradient descent K times for each t , which serves as the test-time adaptation.

4 Experiments and Analysis

4.1 Implementation Details and Datasets

We implemented Diff-Spectra using Pytorch. In **Stage 1**, we pre-train the SRF-guided HIE and AICD on the training dataset for 300 epochs with the Adam optimizer following [7]. Empirically, we set the learning rate to 4×10^{-4} and the batch size is 20. In **Stage 2**, we pre-train the SDM on our generated metamer dataset for 300 epochs with the Adam optimizer. The learning rate is set to 1×10^{-2} . The batch size is 1024, and the total diffusion steps T is 5000. In **Stage 3**, we fine-tune the SRF-guided HIE and AICD, while freezing the SDM for 100 epochs with the Adam optimizer. Empirically, we set the learning rate to 1×10^{-4} and the batch size is 20. During inference, we input RGB images from the testing dataset and load the pre-trained SRF-guided HIE and AICD to obtain coarse-level HSIs. We then treat the coarse-level HSIs as learnable parameters and load the pre-trained SDM to update the parameters and generate refined HSIs, using a learning rate of 1×10^{-4} with diffusion steps of $S = 50$ and inner loop $K = 5$. To evaluate the generalization and fidelity of our method, we use two HSI reconstruction datasets (ARAD-1K [43] and ICVL [9]) and two classification datasets (Indian Pines [1] and Pavia University [44]). Further details for implementation and dataset descriptions are provided in the Appendix A.2.

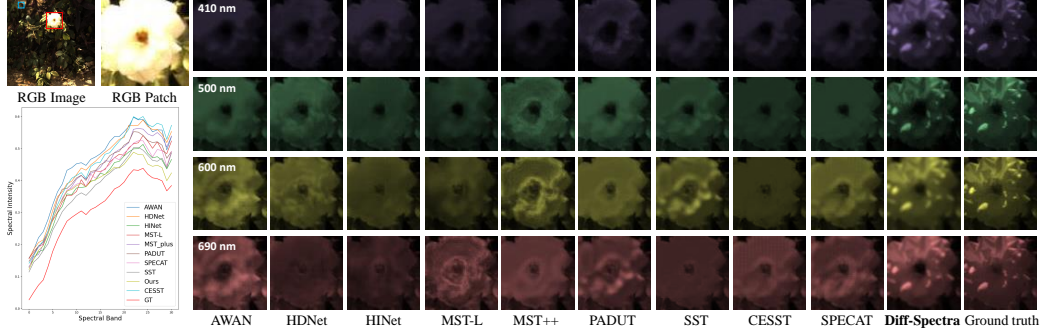


Figure 4: Visual comparisons on a randomly selected scene from the validation set of the ARAD-1K dataset with 4 spectral channels. The spectral curves (bottom-left) correspond to the selected blue Box of the RGB image. Please zoom in for a better comparison.

Table 1: Comparison with SOTA methods on ARAD-1K [43] and ICVL [9] datasets. The best and second are shown in **red** and **blue**, respectively. Our method achieves the best performance on most metrics with relatively fewer parameters.

Method	Venue	Params (M)	ARAD-1K Dataset				ICVL Dataset			
			ERGAS (\downarrow)	SAM (\downarrow)	SSIM (\uparrow)	PSNR (\uparrow)	ERGAS (\downarrow)	SAM (\downarrow)	SSIM (\uparrow)	PSNR (\uparrow)
AWAN [45]	CVPRW'20	4.04	17.45	9.83	0.909	31.22	8.32	4.59	0.918	31.92
HDNet [46]	CVPR'22	2.66	14.16	10.24	0.913	32.13	7.58	4.17	0.924	31.85
HINet [47]	CVPR'21	5.21	15.16	8.18	0.916	32.51	7.93	4.19	0.928	32.01
MST-L [48]	CVPR'22	2.45	12.53	7.47	0.922	33.90	5.44	3.51	0.935	32.87
MST++ [7]	CVPRW'22	1.62	9.18	6.05	0.928	34.32	4.82	3.04	0.941	32.44
PADUT [49]	ICCV'23	6.38	7.39	5.53	0.946	34.51	4.15	3.11	0.948	33.07
SST [50]	IJCVIS'24	12.74	8.29	6.01	0.933	33.95	4.67	3.71	0.935	32.71
CESST [8]	AAAI'24	1.54	7.85	5.88	0.931	34.74	4.09	3.27	0.939	32.96
SPECAT [51]	CVPR'24	0.37	8.62	6.10	0.930	33.48	4.92	3.81	0.944	32.54
Diff-Spectral (<i>ours</i>)	—	2.49	4.63	3.96	0.940	35.47	2.84	2.39	0.941	34.71

4.2 Hyperspectral Image Reconstruction

We present quantitative and qualitative comparisons with 9 state-of-the-art methods including AWAN [45], HINet [47], HDNet [46], MST-L [48], MST++ [7], SST [50], PADUT [49], CESST [8] and SPECAT [51].

Qualitative Comparison. Visual Comparisons are given in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5. Fig. 4 compares the reconstructed HSIs with four randomly selected spectral channels using nine SOTA methods and our Diff-Spectra on the validation set of the ARAD-1K dataset. Fig. 5 shows the MSE error map between generated and ground-truth HSIs, calculating along the spectral dimension. It is observed that existing HSI reconstruction methods struggle with spectral intensity estimation and detail recovery, particularly in regions with high-frequency details such as the sky. In contrast, our approach excels at restoring intricate textures and achieving superior pixel-level smoothness. This improvement is attributed to the novel illumiChroma prior learned by the AICD module and the spectral prior learned by the SDM. The AICD module facilitates intrinsic image decomposition, such as illuminance and color information, guiding the initial estimation of the HSI signal with perceptually pleasing spatial features, while the SDM captures spectral distributions that refine the coarse-level HSI generated by the SRF-guided HIE, ensuring spectral consistency.

Quantitative Comparison. We evaluate the performance using metrics including ERGAS, SAM, SSIM, and PSNR. The first two metrics assess spectral quality, while the latter two evaluate spatial quality. Lower ERGAS and SAM values indicate better spectral quality, while higher SSIM and PSNR values signify better spatial quality. As shown in Table 1, our method achieves the best performance over most metrics on both the ARAD-1K dataset and the ICVL dataset. Our approach, Diff-Spectra, outperforms state-of-the-art methods by delivering the highest PSNR and lowest ERGAS (best spectral and spatial reconstruction quality) with significantly lower computational complexity.

4.3 Metameric Dilemma Evaluation

To demonstrate that existing methods suffer from the metamer dilemma and to validate the effectiveness of our proposed Diff-Spectra in mitigating this issue, we generate metamer HSI data from

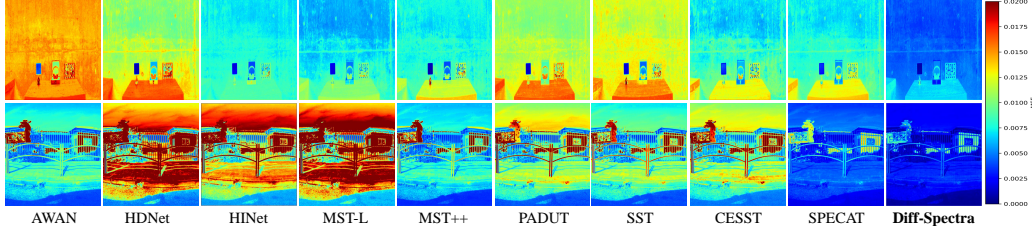


Figure 5: The MSE error maps obtained from the validation subset of the ICVL dataset, which are calculated along the spectral direction, showcasing the discrepancies between the reconstructed HSIs and the corresponding ground truths.

Table 2: Metameric dilemma Evaluation and HSI classification comparison.

Method	Data	ERGAS ↓	SAM ↓	SSIM ↑	PSNR ↑	Class No.	AWAN [45]	MST++ [7]	PADUT [49]	MST-L [48]	Ours
MST++ [7]	std	9.18	6.05	0.928	34.32	1	82.71	81.45	87.49	90.47	92.72
	meta	84.77	50.92	0.8696	27.14	2	59.36	84.27	92.35	86.56	91.45
PADUT [49]	std	7.39	5.53	0.946	34.51	3	73.65	60.33	62.54	88.47	89.97
	meta	80.07	47.91	0.872	27.90	4	80.04	95.14	91.87	89.58	89.71
SST [50]	std	8.29	6.01	0.933	33.95	5	99.46	99.17	100.00	99.47	100.00
	meta	70.11	52.38	0.884	27.88	6	95.19	90.62	84.28	47.59	90.68
CESST [8]	std	7.85	5.88	0.931	34.74	7	78.42	76.04	75.61	89.55	81.83
	meta	59.82	40.74	0.885	28.59	8	81.47	98.15	93.46	70.43	69.39
SPECAT [51]	std	8.62	6.10	0.930	33.48	9	94.83	90.52	94.88	82.64	98.44
	meta	48.90	63.59	0.8701	26.63	OA (%)	75.26	82.37	85.48	81.45	89.02
Diff-Spectral (ours)	std	4.63	3.96	0.940	35.47	AA (%)	83.35	85.19	86.93	82.97	88.15
	meta	21.98	24.11	0.906	31.61	κ	0.7124	0.7941	0.8039	0.7355	0.8349

(a) Comparison with SOTA methods on standard (std) (b) Quantitative comparison of different methods in terms of the accuracy for each class. and metamer (meta) data.

the original ARAD-1K dataset following [52] and use metamer HSI data to synthesize corresponding RGB images (*i.e.*, metamer). Next, we test several pre-trained models using both standard RGB images and metamer RGB images (Note that these models are pre-trained on standard data), including MST++ [7], CESST [8], PADUT [49], SST [50], SPECAT [51], and our proposed Diff-Spectra. The quantitative results are given in Table 2(a). As can be seen, all the existing methods experience catastrophic performance drops in terms of PSNR and SAM in the presence of metamers, which is also known as the metameric dilemma.

4.4 Evaluation on HSI Classification

To further evaluate the fidelity and verify the reliability of the hyperspectral images generated by our method, we conduct experiments on the hyperspectral image classification task based on a pre-trained HSI classification model, SpectralFormer [53]. We compare our approach with existing methods on two widely used HSI classification datasets: the Indian Pines dataset and the Pavia University dataset, conducting both quantitative and qualitative analyses. For our evaluation, we reconstruct HSI images using assorted pre-trained HSI reconstruction methods. Subsequently, these synthesized HSI images are employed as the input to a pre-trained HSI classification model, SpectralFormer [53], which serves as a benchmark for performance evaluation.

Evaluations. We evaluate the quantitative performance on the Pavia University dataset using three widely adopted metrics: Overall Accuracy (OA), Average Accuracy (AA), and the Kappa Coefficient (κ), as shown in Table 2(b). As can be seen, our method achieves the best OA (89.02%), AA (88.15%), and κ (0.8349). It ranks first in Classes 1, 3, and 9 and ties for first in Class 5, while remaining competitive in the remaining classes.

4.5 Ablation Study

Break-down Ablation. We perform bread-down ablation to investigate the effectiveness of each module in Table 3(a) and Figure 6. Comparing Variant 1 with SimDiff-Spectra (*i.e.*, a UNet-based HSI reconstruction network, which is similar to [7]), we find that the AICD primarily contributes to the spatial details recovery of the HSI signal, which aligns with our original design intention. Comparing Variant 1 with Variant 2, we observe that the SRF-guided HIE mechanism enhances

Table 3: Ablation studies of our proposed modules and inner loop mechanism.

Method	AICD	SRF	SDM	IP	PSNR	SAM	Setting	K	PSNR	SAM
SimDiff-Spectral					32.57	7.52	Diff-Spectral	1	34.19	5.84
Variant 1	✓				34.18	6.08	Diff-Spectral	4	35.41	4.07
Variant 2	✓	✓			34.95	5.41	Diff-Spectral	5	35.47	3.96
Variant 3	✓	✓	✓		34.19	5.84	Diff-Spectral	7	35.25	4.31
Diff-Spectral	✓	✓	✓	✓	35.47	3.96	Diff-Spectral	10	35.01	4.33

(a) Break-down ablations of our proposed Diff-Spectra, where IP de- (b) The right sub-table investigate the inner loop steps (**K**) in the SDM.

both spatial and spectral performance due to the incorporation of physical constraints. Notably, by comparing Variant 2 with Variant 3, we find that simply incorporating SDM causes a severe performance drop. Finally, comparing Variant 3 with the full Diff-Spectra model, we find that the inner loop facilitates effective integration of SDM and primarily contributes to spectral recovery via the learned spectral distribution regularization.

Inner Loop Analysis. We analyze the impact of the inner loop step parameter **K** of the SDM in Table 3(b). The results indicate that performance improves significantly when **K** is greater than 1 as compared to when **K** = 1. Note that when **K** = 1, the performance is even worse than Variant 2. This is because a domain gap exists between the spectral distribution learned by the SDM and the spectral distribution of the coarse-level HSI learned by the SRF-guided HIE network. Assuming these two spectral distributions are consistent without further adaptation can lead to suboptimal results. Directly assuming these two spectral distributions are consistent will introduce an inferior influence.

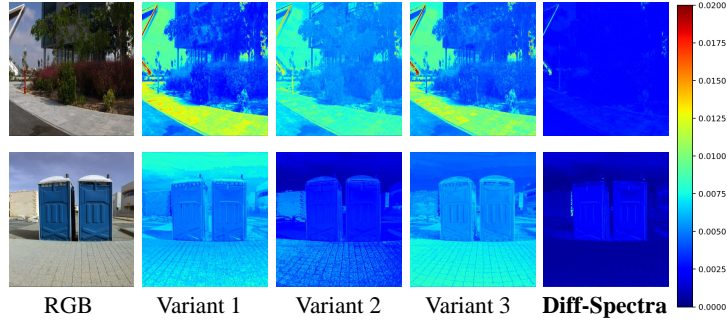


Figure 6: Break-down ablation study. The reconstruction MSE error map evaluation on the validation set of the ICVL dataset.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose Diff-Spectra, which integrates supervised physics-aware spectral estimation and unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization for spectral reconstruction. Especially, the supervised physics-aware spectral estimation consists of an adaptive illumichroma decoupling (AICD) and a learnable SRF-guided HIE mechanism, mimicking the physical image formation, and thus injecting physics-aware reasoning into neural networks, turning an ill-posed problem into a constrained, interpretable task. We further introduce an unsupervised high-fidelity spectral regularization by incorporating a pre-trained spectral diffusion model (SDM) to regularize the coarsely estimated HSI signal from the SRF-guided HIE mechanism with high-fidelity real-world spectral distributions. Extensive experiments on both spectral reconstruction and HSI classification demonstrate that Diff-Spectra significantly outperforms SOTA methods. Future work will focus on the investigation of the spectral distribution gap between the HSI estimated by the SRF-guided HIE and the distribution learned by the SDM, such as quantizing each distribution into a dictionary and calculating their distance.

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A Implementation Details and Datasets.

A.1 Implementation Details

Three-stage Training Scheme. We implement our proposed Diff-Spectra in the PyTorch framework. Specifically, our proposed Diff-Spectra adopts a three-stage training strategy:

- **Stage 1**, we follow [7] that utilizes RGB-HSI pairs from the training dataset to pre-train the SRF-guided HIE network $\mathcal{F}(\cdot)$, fuse-and-conv operation $\mathcal{H}(\cdot)$, and AICD module $\mathcal{G}(\cdot)$ jointly, optimized with the corresponding loss (*i.e.*, Eq. 10 in the main content), while freezing the parameters of the SDM;
- **Stage 2**, we follow the standard diffusion model DDPM [42] that utilizes HSI from the training dataset to pre-train the SDM, optimized with the loss Eq. 13, while freezing the parameters of the SRF-guided HIE;
- **Stage 3**, to align the distribution gap between the estimated HSI from the SRF-guided HIE network and the learned spectral prior from SDM, we use Eq. 14 in the main content to fine-tune the SRF-guided HIE network and AICD module for 100 epochs, while freezing the SDM. Note that the SDM is treated as a regularizer in this stage. Empirically, we set the learning rate to 1×10^{-4} and the batch size is 20.

Test-time Adaptation. The pre-trained SRF-guided HIE is applied to RGB images from the testing dataset to generate an initial coarse-level HSI signal $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$. Next, we treat $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ as trainable parameters, and a spectrum $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$ is sampled from $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$. We assume each sampled spectrum satisfies the spectral distribution learned by the SDM, *i.e.*, $\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y}_s \sim q(\mathbf{y}_0)$, where $s \in (0, T)$ and T is the time step trained in **Stage 2**. Now, we can use Eq. 13 (in the main content) to refine the coarse-level HSI signal $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ during the sampling process of SDM. However, it is impractical to optimize Eq. 13 for all t due to the inherent distribution difference between the HSI signal generated by SRF-guided HIE and the spectral distribution learned by SDM. Thus, we perform the gradient update \mathbf{K} times in each time step t , which we named as the inner loop optimization.

A.2 Datasets.

ARAD-1K Dataset [43]. The ARAD-1K dataset includes 950 RGB-HSI pairs, with 900 for training and 50 for validation, at a 482×512 resolution across 31 spectral channels (400–700nm). This dataset not only stands as the largest collection available for HSI reconstruction tasks but also integrates content from preceding compilations, notably the NTIRE 2020 HSI dataset [54]. Each HSI in this collection is captured with a spatial resolution of 482×512 , spanning 31 spectral channels ranging from 400nm to 700nm.

ICVL Dataset [9]. The ICVL dataset contains 201 HSIs with a resolution of 1300×1392 . As it lacks the provision of aligned RGB images, we use the spectral sampling method proposed by Magnusson et al. [55] to generate the corresponding RGB images. Given that 18 of these images have different resolutions, we leverage the remaining 183 image pairs that maintain resolution consistency, allocating 147 pairs for training and 36 for testing.

Indian Pine Dataset [1]. The Indian Pine dataset records the landscape over an area in North-Western Indiana, USA, using the Airborne Visible/Infrared Imaging Spectrometer (AVIRIS) sensor. It comprises 145×145 pixels, each with a ground sampling distance (GSD) of 20 meters, and encompasses 220 spectral bands that span the wavelength range from 400 nanometers to 2500 nanometers, achieving a spectral resolution of 10 meters. Following the elimination of 20 bands characterized by noise and water absorption, 200 spectral bands were kept, specifically bands 1-103, 109-149, and 164-219. The scene under investigation features 16 primary categories, including corn, oats, buildings, etc.

Pavia University Dataset [44]. It is collected by the Reflective Optics System Imaging Spectrometer (ROSIS) sensor, which surveyed the area surrounding Pavia University in Pavia, Italy. Capable of capturing 103 spectral bands that range from 430 nanometers to 860 nanometers, the resulting image is composed of 610×340 pixels, each with a ground sampling distance (GSD) of 1.3 meters. This particular scene encompasses 9 distinct land cover classes, including asphalt, grass, trees, etc.

Table 4: Quantitative comparison of different methods in terms of the accuracy for each class, as well as the overall performance using metrics - Overall Accuracy (OA), Average Accuracy (AA), and Kappa coefficient (κ) on the Indian Pines dataset. The best one is shown in bold.

Class No.	AWAN [45]	HDNet [46]	HINet [47]	SPECAT [51]	MST-L [48]	MST++ [7]	PADUT [49]	Diff-Spectra (Ours)
1	54.16	55.69	72.74	61.71	66.48	68.32	70.15	67.41
2	40.21	57.38	71.47	74.24	72.34	74.35	75.18	78.72
3	73.82	82.14	91.74	91.38	95.54	90.16	94.27	96.46
4	85.68	84.17	90.67	90.05	96.24	85.48	83.74	96.72
5	81.11	78.63	93.45	83.48	85.21	91.52	92.45	94.01
6	96.75	96.03	98.42	94.17	96.72	95.92	97.22	94.94
7	66.31	76.54	72.81	73.88	76.18	77.51	80.92	73.48
8	48.38	59.44	65.59	64.02	59.18	60.17	62.30	67.44
9	44.69	63.19	71.32	72.42	80.03	68.27	65.27	70.02
10	96.70	95.88	100.00	95.32	100.00	100.00	100.00	98.87
11	73.14	89.57	85.11	90.54	91.26	84.58	85.52	85.77
12	17.25	55.42	82.47	89.27	89.81	85.92	84.88	90.25
13	90.44	98.31	100.00	98.93	94.42	100.00	100.00	100.00
14	32.27	57.45	40.25	87.34	76.54	62.51	67.24	91.91
15	81.82	81.82	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
16	40.00	100.00	80.00	100.00	100.00	80.00	100.00	100.00
OA (%)	58.26	70.41	73.02	77.32	76.36	74.15	75.85	78.14
AA (%)	63.92	76.98	82.25	85.42	86.25	82.79	84.95	87.88
κ	0.5161	0.5918	0.6844	0.7088	0.7304	0.7008	0.7344	0.7571

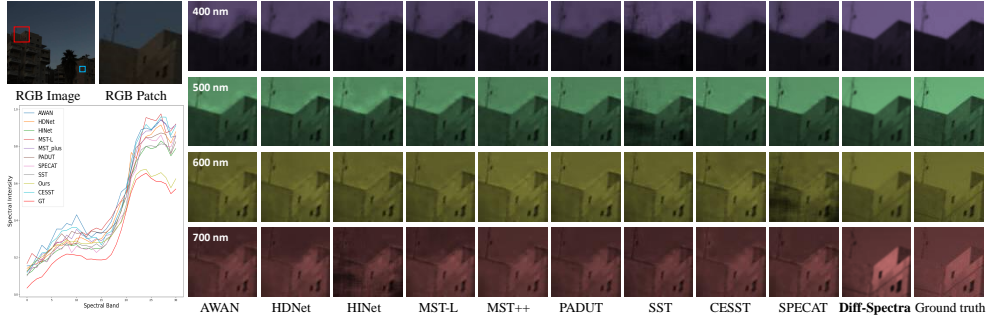


Figure 7: Visual comparisons on a randomly selected scene from the validation set of the ARAD-1K dataset with 4 spectral channels. The RGB patch corresponds to the selected red box of the RGB image. The spectral curves (bottom-left) correspond to the selected blue Box of the RGB image. Please zoom in for a better comparison.

B Additional Experiment Results

Hyperspectral Image Classification. We further provide more quantitative comparisons on the Indian Pines dataset in Table 4. In this table, we further add three methods for more generalized comparisons, including HDNet [46], HINet [47], and SPECAT [51]. As can be seen, our method outperforms existing methods on most classes, and enjoys the best performance over the three metrics: Overall Accuracy (OA), Average Accuracy (AA), and Kappa coefficient (κ).

Hyperspectral Image Reconstruction. We provide more visual comparisons in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8. Specifically, Fig. 7 illustrates the false color results on four spectrum bands, 400nm, 500nm, 600nm and 700nm, respectively, which is the “ARAD-1K-0901” image chosen from the validation set of ARAD-1K dataset. In the top-left corner of Fig. 7, the RGB patch corresponds to the selected red box of the RGB image. The spectral curves (bottom left) correspond to the selected blue Box of the RGB image. Please zoom in for a better comparison. Fig. 8 illustrates the false color images on four spectrum bands, 440nm, 500nm, 600nm and 700nm, respectively, which is the “nachal-0823-1147” image chosen from the testing set of ICVL dataset. In the top-left corner of Fig. 8, the RGB patch corresponds to the selected red box of the RGB image. The spectral curves (bottom left) correspond to the selected blue Box of the RGB image. Please zoom in for a better comparison. As can be seen, our method can recover more precise texture information and better pixel-level smoothness over other SOTA methods. In addition, both spectral intensity curves in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 show that our method can recover more precise spectral values and the spectral distribution of our method is closer to the ground truth compared with existing methods, especially in the long-wavelength spectrum (e.g., from

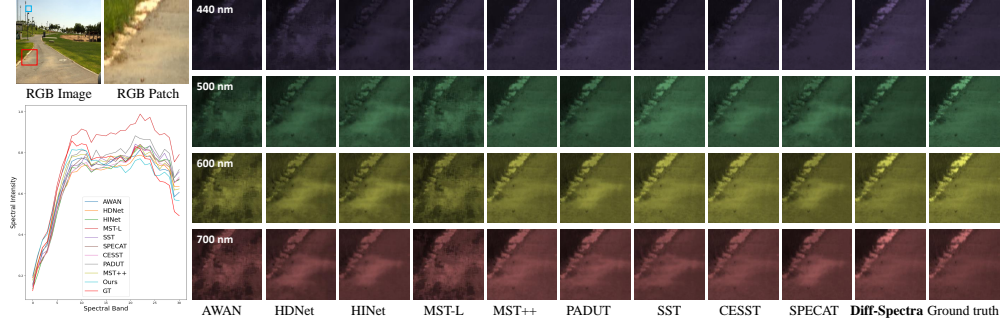


Figure 8: Visual comparisons on a randomly selected scene from the validation set of the ICVL HSI dataset with 4 spectral channels. The RGB patch corresponds to the selected red box of the RGB image. The spectral curves (bottom left) correspond to the selected blue Box of the RGB image. Please zoom in for a better comparison.

$600nm - 700nm$), which is benefited by both image-level prior and spectral-level prior introduced in our model.