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# 物理模型与生成式先验驱动的压缩光谱 成像重建技术综述

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**摘要:** 高光谱图像因其丰富的空间和光谱信息, 在遥感探测、地质勘探和医疗诊断等领域具有广泛应用前景。但传统高光谱图像主要通过摆扫式、推扫式扫描和凝视型成像等方式获取, 在设备体积、采集时间和时空分辨率等方面难以应用于动态场景和运动平台。以编码孔径快照光谱成像为代表的压缩光谱成像技术, 通过单次曝光获取三维数据的压缩测量, 为突破这一瓶颈提供了新范式, 其核心在于从压缩测量中精确重建原始高光谱图像。本文系统梳理了压缩光谱成像计算重建领域的研究进展。首先, 从物理成像模型出发, 深入分析了光谱数据的空-谱退化过程与数学模型, 阐明了重建问题的高度欠定性本质。继而, 以先验正则化为贯穿性视角, 将现有重建方法归纳为4个主要研究模式: 1) 基于手工先验的模型驱动方法; 2) 基于数据学习的端到端驱动方法; 3) 融合物理模型与深度网络的联合驱动方法; 4) 基于扩散模型等生成式先验的新兴方法。本文深入剖析了各方法体系的核心建模思想、设计范式与内在联系, 揭示了从“人为定义”到“数据学习”再到“模型-数据协同”的先验知识表达演进脉络。在此基础上, 在多个公开数据集上对12种代表性算法进行定量与定性对比分析, 客观评估了不同技术路径的性能差异。最后, 讨论了当前面临的关键挑战, 如空-谱结构协同表征困难、重建结果光谱保真度不足以及编码优化与重建任务相互割裂等问题, 并对未来融合成像先验与生成式人工智能的研究方向进行了展望, 以期为该领域的进一步发展提供参考。本文实验涉及的算法、数据集和评价指标等汇总至 <https://doi.org/10.57760/sciencedb.j00240.00063> 和 <https://github.com/DDXNJJUST/Computational-Imaging/>。

**关键词:** 压缩光谱成像; 计算重建; 成像模型; 深度学习; 模型和数据驱动

## Overview of compressive spectral imaging reconstruction driven by physical model and generative prior

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**Abstract:** A hyperspectral image (HSI) contains rich spatial-spectral information. It exhibits high discriminative capability and wide applications, such as in remote sensing, geologic examination, and medical diagnosis. Traditional spectral imaging technologies include whisk broom, push broom, and staring imaging. They suffer from large volume of equipment, long period of collection, and limited spatiotemporal resolution, hindering their usage in dynamic scenes and motional plat-

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forms. Compressive spectral imaging has recently garnered research interests. Coded aperture snapshot spectral imaging (CASSI) can take the compressed measurement of a 3D HSI within a single exposure, and its high efficiency makes it a hot-spot in computational imaging. One key technology in CASSI is HSI reconstruction, which aims to restore the latent HSI with high quality from the compressed measurement. In the last decades, several HSI reconstruction algorithms have been proposed. In this overview, we comprehensively review recent advancements in spectral imaging and reconstruction methods. First, we analyze the physical process of compressive spectral imaging and formulate a spatial-spectral degradation model. Then, we model CASSI reconstruction as an ill-posed reverse problem that requires priors for regularization to reduce the solution space. Taking the prior as a view angle, we divide the current HSI reconstruction technologies into four categories: 1) model-driven methods based on handcrafted priors, 2) data-driven methods based on deep learning networks, 3) model-data joint driven methods based on deep priors, and 4) the recently proposed generative diffusion prior. Through such a structured analysis, this overview aims to offer valuable insights into the core idea, design paradigm, and evolution of different methods; highlight persistent challenges; and provide an outlook for future development trends. Model-driven methods rely on handcrafted priors, and various priors, such as total variation and sparsity, have been proposed as regularization in the HSI reconstruction problem. They are mathematically interpretable and can be generalized to different imaging systems as long as the degradation model is accurate. However, handcrafted priors may be simplistic and may fail to capture fully the complex spatial-spectral characteristic of HSI. The iterative optimization process of the HSI reconstruction model is computationally expensive for real-time applications. Tuning the hyper-parameter in the HSI reconstruction model is also difficult. Data-driven methods use deep learning networks to learn mapping between measurements and HSIs. Different networks (e. g. , convolutional networks and Transformers) have been designed to utilize spatial-spectral features for HSI reconstruction. In general, high-fidelity HSI can be inferred efficiently after learning complex data-driven features. However, such networks are black boxes with limited interpretability. Moreover, deep learning networks may fail catastrophically when spatial-spectral degradation is unknown or even unseen during inference. Model-data joint driven methods combine the strengths of model-driven and data-driven methods. It originates from the traditional HSI reconstruction model but replaces the handcrafted prior with an implicit deep prior. Classic optimization algorithms are used to minimize the HSI reconstruction model. The iterative solutions are unrolled into a deep network. Each iterative solution becomes an unfolding stage in the network. The handcrafted prior is replaced with a learnable denoiser as the deep proximal operator. The unrolled network is trained in an end-to-end manner. The network is designed under the guidance of imaging physics; hence, it has higher interpretability and robustness in varying degradation cases compared with data-driven methods. By learning the deep prior, it exhibits higher quality than handcrafted priors. However, these networks can be regarded as discriminative models learned by regression losses. They tend to produce deterministic results that are actually the “averaged” distributions of potential ground truth, leading to blurry output and hindering the reconstruction of fine-grained and detailed image structures. The diffusion model can generate diverse and highly realistic contents, leveraging that the generative diffusion prior may address the limitation and has demonstrated potential in HSI reconstruction. Furthermore, we select 12 mainstream HSI reconstruction methods in the overview and compare their performance on widely used datasets. Finally, we discuss the shortcomings of existing work and propose future work trends on the basis of the experimental results. Problem points include those that represent complex spatial-spectral features, limited generative capability and content distortion, and the disjointed relationship among compressive imaging, HSI reconstruction, and downstream tasks. The objective of this review is to provide a comprehensive introduction of spectral imaging and reconstruction, and present valuable insights for future advancement. The experimental code and data can be found at: <https://doi.org/10.57760/sciencedb.j00240.00063> and <https://github.com/DDXNJUST/Computational-Imaging>.

**Key words:** compressive spectral imaging; computational reconstruction; imaging model; deep learning; model and data driven

## 0 引言

高光谱成像(hyperspectral imaging, HSI)可以获取场景每个像素的光谱信息和材质属性,相比于彩色(red-green-blue, RGB)和全色(panchromatic, PAN)成像,辨识性更高。由于高光谱图像在对地遥感探测、矿产资源勘查等应用中具有极高价值(Gu等, 2021;钟燕飞等, 2023;何明一等, 2025),欧盟在《面向未来的100项重大创新突破》报告中,将其列为影响全球经济的颠覆性技术之一(Warnke等, 2019)。传统光谱成像主要有摆扫式、推扫式扫描和凝视型成像,这些成像方式能够直接获取高光谱图像,但设备体积大、采集时间长、时间分辨率低,难以应用于动态场景和运动平台。

近年来,低空遥感等新型探测平台和应用场景对光谱成像的实时性和小型化提出更高要求,迫切需要探索全新的光谱成像体制与光谱重建方法,解决传统光谱成像空间分辨率、光谱分辨率、时间分辨率、信噪比间的矛盾。压缩光谱成像(compressive spectral imaging)是基于压缩感知(compressive sensing)理论的新型成像模式,代表性方法是编码孔径快照光谱成像(coded aperture snapshot spectral imaging, CASSI),通过对高光谱图像编码压缩,将其投影到低维空间,单次快照曝光即可获取高光谱图像的压缩测量,极大提高了成像效率,成为新型计算成像的研究热点(Arce等, 2014)。

以CASSI为核心的编码孔径快照光谱成像原理如图1所示,其关键之一是光谱重建,即如何从压缩测量重建高质量的高光谱图像。从压缩测量重建高光谱图像属于欠定性多通道重建反问题,这激发了学者们的研究兴趣,成为计算成像、计算机视觉等领域研究热点(Yuan等, 2021;Zhang等, 2023a)。近十年来学者们提出了大量的光谱重建方法,本文将这些重建方法归结为:1)基于手工先验的模型驱动方法;2)基于数据学习的端到端驱动方法;3)融合物理模型与深度网络的联合驱动方法;4)基于扩散模型等生成式先验的新兴方法。

早期的光谱重建方法依赖于手工先验,通过设计各种解析先验,如稀疏先验(Wright等, 2010)和低秩先验(Zhou等, 2014)等来正则化光谱重建问题。这些方法通常需要较长的迭代过程,并且手工先验

描述复杂高光谱图像空—谱特性的能力有限。深度学习通过端到端学习,表示压缩测量和高光谱图像间的映射关系,可以重建高光谱图像。相比于模型驱动方法,深度网络表示能力更强,能够取得较好的重建性能。但深度网络一般视为黑盒模型,其可解释性有限,并且压缩光谱成像模型在网络设计中往往被忽略,限制了重建性能的进一步提升(Monga等, 2021)。基于深度展开(deep unfolding)的模型和数据联合驱动方法则结合了模型和数据的优势,该方法依据压缩光谱成像物理过程,建立高光谱图像重建模型,对模型的优化过程深度展开,用网络参数隐式表示成像退化参数,用邻近算子学习深度先验,具有更高的适应性和灵活性。不同的网络架构,如卷积神经网络(convolutional neural network, CNN)、注意力机制和Transformer网络,均可设计为深度先验邻近算子,重建高光谱图像。

与其他计算机视觉任务相比,压缩光谱成像计算重建的历史相对较短,文献综述相对较少。Yuan等人(2021)对快照压缩成像的物理原理和重建算法进行了系统性回顾,对2021年之前提出的5种光谱重建算法进行了性能验证和分析。Monga等人(2021)和Zhang等人(2023a)围绕深度展开思想,对自然图像压缩感知重建算法进行了回顾,但主要聚焦于自然图像而非高光谱图像。马祥天等人(2024)梳理了2023年之前的光谱重建算法,将其归类为模型优化和深度学习两个流派。

本文对光谱重建的最新进展进行深入的总结。结合压缩光谱成像物理模型,从反问题正则的角度,描述手工先验、深度先验以及生成式先验正则的光谱重建,将光谱重建归类为基于手工先验的模型驱动方法、基于数据学习的端到端驱动方法、融合物理模型与深度网络的联合驱动方法,以及基于扩散模型等生成式先验的新兴方法。通过在多个数据上的对比和评价,为研究人员提供不同方法的参考,更好地促进计算成像和光谱重建技术的发展。本文主要贡献如下:

1)分类总结了不同光谱重建方法的发展历程,介绍各类方法的核心思想,对比不同方法优缺点,分析存在的问题及可能的解决方案;

2)整理了计算成像中光谱重建常用的数据集和评价指标,对比分析了最新的光谱重建算法;

3)分析了光谱重建任务仍需解决的关键问题,

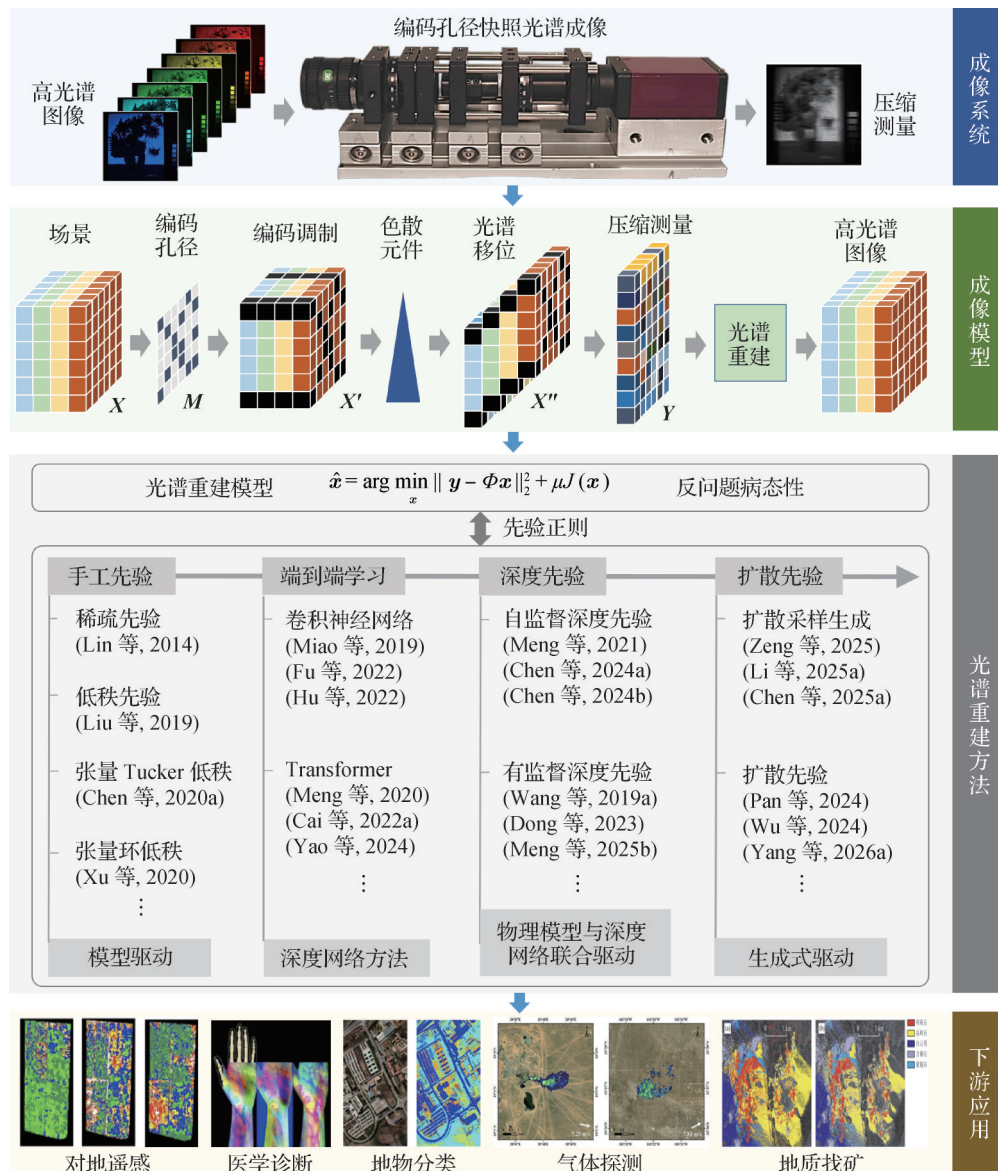


图1 编码孔径快照光谱成像与重建示意图

Fig. 1 The illustrate of CASSI and HSI reconstruction

对未来研究方向及发展趋势进行展望。

## 1 压缩光谱成像模型

编码孔径快照光谱成像的原理如图1所示(Arce等, 2014; Huang等, 2022), 对三维高光谱图像编码、压缩, 对传感器采集的二维测量进行光谱重建, 得到高光谱图像。成像系统主要包括编码孔径(coded aperture)和色散棱镜(dispersive prism)。编码孔径是一个掩膜, 能够对部分位置上的光路进行阻断, 减少图像的信息量。色散棱镜对光束沿着光谱方向进行移位。具体而言,  $X \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times W \times C}$  表示高光

谱图像,  $M \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times W}$  表示编码孔径掩膜,  $H, W, C$  分别是高光谱图像的高、宽以及波段数。首先, 高光谱图像经过编码孔径调制, 编码孔径在数学上是包含0和1的二值矩阵, 0代表阻断光路传播, 1代表允许光路传播。调制过程可表示为编码孔径掩膜  $M$  与高光谱图像  $X$  的点乘

$$X'(:, :, c) = X(:, :, c) \odot M \quad (1)$$

式中,  $X'$  表示调制后的图像, 经过色散棱镜沿光谱方向进行波段移位, 得到  $X'' \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times (W + d(C-1)) \times C}$

$$X''(u, v, c) = X'(x, y + d(\lambda_c - \lambda_r), c) \quad (2)$$

式中,  $d$  表示相邻波段间的移位距离,  $\lambda_c$  表示图像第  $c$  个波段的波长,  $\lambda_r$  表示参考波段的波长。最后, 探

测器得到压缩测量  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times (W + d(C-1))}$ , 探测器成像过程表示为对每个波段对应位置的像素进行累加, 得到压缩测量

$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{c=1}^C \mathbf{X}''(:, :, c) + \mathbf{N} \quad (3)$$

式中,  $\mathbf{N}$  表示测量噪声。将高光谱图像  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times W \times C}$  沿着光谱方向移位, 得到  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times (W + d(C-1)) \times C}$ , 并将编码孔径掩膜  $\mathbf{M}$  复制  $C$  次后, 沿着光谱维度分离, 得到与  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$  大小相同的退化张量  $\tilde{\mathbf{M}} \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times (W + d(C-1)) \times C}$ , 式(3)中的成像过程也可以用张量表示

$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{c=1}^C \tilde{\mathbf{X}}(:, :, c) \odot \tilde{\mathbf{M}}(:, :, c) + \mathbf{N} \quad (4)$$

为了简化, 可以将式(4)从张量形式表示为向量形式

$$\mathbf{y} = \Phi \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n} \quad (5)$$

式中,  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{R}^{\xi}$ ,  $\xi = H \times (W + d(C-1))$  表示  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$  和  $\mathbf{Y}$  的向量形式。  $\Phi = [\mathbf{J}_1, \mathbf{J}_2, \dots, \mathbf{J}_C] \in \mathbf{R}^{\xi \times \xi C}$  表示退化矩阵,  $\mathbf{J}_i = \text{diag}(\text{vec}(\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_i))$  是对角矩阵, 对角线元素由退化张量  $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}$  第  $i$  个通道的元素构成。压缩光谱成像主要涉及编码设计与计算重建等, 计算重建是关键, 其目标是从压缩测量  $\mathbf{y}$  复原高光谱图像  $\mathbf{x}$ 。

## 2 基于手工先验的模型驱动光谱重建

### 2.1 先验建模的正则化光谱重建

基于模型驱动的光谱重建是将成像过程以数学形式表示, 光谱重建实际上是逆问题过程的求解。一方面, 可以依据贝叶斯概率模型, 将高光谱图像的重建问题转换为求解最大后验概率问题; 另一方面, 为了在重建过程中保证图像质量, 通常需要引入先验知识作为正则化约束, 通过优化变分模型求解高光谱图像。根据成像模型, 高光谱图像的重建问题可表述为以下优化问题

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{y} - \Phi \mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + \mu J(\mathbf{x}) \quad (6)$$

式中,  $\|\cdot\|_2$  是范数, 为数据保真项, 度量压缩测量  $\mathbf{y}$  与从高光谱图像  $\mathbf{x}$  得到的退化  $\Phi \mathbf{x}$  间的误差。  $J(\cdot)$  是手工设计的先验正则项 (如稀疏性、光滑性等), 参数  $\mu$  平衡两项的权重。学者们设计了不同的手工先验, 用于光谱重建。经典方法依赖对高光谱图像的稀疏性假设, 如基或字典表示下的稀疏性 (Willett 等, 2014)、梯度稀疏性 (Lyu 等, 2025)。可用  $\ell_p$  范数 ( $0 <$

$p < 1$ ) 度量稀疏性。不失一般性,  $n$  维向量  $\mathbf{u}$  的  $\ell_p$  范数为

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbf{u}_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \quad (7)$$

求解式(6)的常用方法包括半二次分裂法 (half quadratic splitting, HQS) (Wang 等, 2008)、交替方向乘子法 (alternating direction method of multipliers, ADMM) (Figueiredo 和 Bioucas-Dias, 2010)、广义交替投影法 (generalized alternating projection, GAP) (Yuan, 2016)、两步迭代收缩阈值 (two-step iterative shrinkage/thresholding, TwIST) (Bioucas-Dias 和 Figueiredo, 2007) 等。一般将目标函数分解为数据保真项和先验正则项, 通过交替方向迭代求解, 使得目标函数收敛, 不断趋近最优解。

在稀疏性先验约束下, Lin 等人 (2014) 学习空一谱结构的字典, 用于压缩光谱成像的计算重建。进一步, Khan 等人 (2015) 利用联合稀疏作为光谱重建的正则项, 认为相似的图像块的稀疏编码应具有相同的支撑。Wang 等人 (2017) 认为相似的图像块在同一字典上应具有相似的稀疏编码, 因此稀疏先验可以与图像非局部自相似结合, 重建高光谱图像。全色图像包含高分辨率空间结构, 在全色图像上学习字典可以挖掘其空间信息, 用于 CASSI + PAN 双路压缩光谱成像的计算重建 (Wang 等, 2019b)。根据光谱混合模型, 端元子空间的维度更低 (汪顺清等, 2023), 可有效降低计算量。因此, Vargas 等人 (2019a) 在端元 (endmember) 子空间, 利用丰度的稀疏性约束光谱重建; Vargas 等人 (2019b) 进一步将稀疏性、光滑性和全变分约束结合, 重建高光谱图像。

除了稀疏性先验, 为了利用空间自相似性和光谱相关性, 低秩等约束也可以用于光谱重建模型的正则化 (Liu 等, 2019)。对高光谱图像的非局部图像块聚类, 由于图像中存在大量的相似结构,  $M$  个聚类图像块  $\mathbf{z}_i \in \mathbf{R}^d$  ( $d$  表示图像块向量化后的维度) 构成的矩阵  $\mathbf{Z}_i = \{\mathbf{z}_{i,1}, \mathbf{z}_{i,2}, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{i,M}\}$  应具有低秩性, 可以将其作为光谱重建的正则

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{y} - \Phi \mathbf{x}\|_F^2 + \mu \sum_i \|\mathbf{Z}_i\|_{w,*} \quad (8)$$

式中

$$\|\mathbf{Z}_i\|_{w,*} = \sum_{k=1}^{\min\{d,M\}} w_k \sigma_k \quad (9)$$

表示加权核范数,  $\sigma_k$  是第  $k$  个奇异值, 可度量矩阵的

低秩性。在张量框架下重建高光谱图像,可以保持其空一谱结构。Zhang 等人(2019)和 Wang 等人(2021)对高光谱图像的相似块聚类,构成非局部张量聚类,以其低秩性作为正则,分别在不同维度方向上约束其低秩性。类似地,Xue 等人(2019a)挖掘图像的光滑先验,结合空间梯度的  $p$ -范数和低秩约束,设计正则项用于光谱重建。Liu 等人(2023)同时利用图像的平滑性和低秩性,在梯度域基于奇异值分解设计核范数度量,实现光谱重建。

除了上述正则化方法,He 等人(2021)也提出非迭代端元子空间优化方法,基于分块(patch)思想在最小二乘意义下分别从压缩测量和 RGB 图像估计光谱基和空间系数,也可用于 RGB + CASSI 融合光谱重建。目前,基于先验正则的光谱重建着眼于设计不同的手工先验。由于图像不同的纹理、边缘结构分量以及光谱相关性,单一手工先验难以全面、高效表征图像结构。学者们往往考虑不同手工先验的复合正则化,以提升压缩光谱成像的重建质量,其中手工先验和深度先验的复合是重要方向(详见 4.1 节)。

## 2.2 张量分解模型的光谱重建

由于高光谱图像具有空一谱联合的高维多线性结构,而张量(tensor)分解能够描述高维数据结构的子空间内在相关性,因此可以在张量分解子空间设计不同的正则化形式(Wang 等, 2023; Sidiropoulos 等, 2017)。通常,高光谱图像可建模为三阶张量  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ ,利用不同张量分解模型,可以表征高光谱图像的内在空一谱相关性。张量 Tucker 分解模型将张量分解为核张量与不同维度上矩阵的模态乘积

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{C} \times_1 \boldsymbol{\Psi}_1 \times_2 \boldsymbol{\Psi}_2 \times_3 \boldsymbol{\Psi}_3 \quad (10)$$

式中,  $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times J \times K}$  是核张量,  $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_1 \in \mathbf{R}^{H \times I}$ 、 $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_2 \in \mathbf{R}^{W \times J}$  和  $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_3 \in \mathbf{R}^{C \times K}$  是不同维度的因子矩阵,  $\times_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ) 表示模态乘积。因子矩阵反映了不同维度的主成分,核张量表示不同维度间的相关性(Yang 等, 2024)。在张量模型下压缩光谱成像可描述为

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X} \times_1 \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1 \times_2 \boldsymbol{\Phi}_2 \times_3 \boldsymbol{\Phi}_3 \quad (11)$$

式中,  $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_i$  表示不同维度的成像退化。Yang 等人(2015)假设核张量是稀疏的,结合式(10)(11),求解核张量和因子矩阵,重建高光谱图像

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_{\mathbf{C}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{C} \times_1 (\boldsymbol{\Phi}_1 \boldsymbol{\Psi}_1) \times_2 (\boldsymbol{\Phi}_2 \boldsymbol{\Psi}_2) \times_3 (\boldsymbol{\Phi}_3 \boldsymbol{\Psi}_3)\|_{\text{F}}^2 \\ \text{s.t. } \|\text{vec}(\mathbf{C})\|_0 \leq S \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

式中,  $\|\cdot\|_0$  是  $\ell_0$  范数,度量核张量的稀疏性,表示只有少量非零元素(不超过  $S$  个)。Xue 等人(2019b)在 Tucker 分解下,以核张量的稀疏性和高光谱图像的低秩性作为约束,提高光谱重建能力。Chen 等人(2020a)在 Tucker 分解中引入组稀疏(group sparsity)约束,以更好地挖掘图像的空间域正则性,提升图像结构的重建性能。在张量 Tucker 分解中还可以结合图像的自相似性,Chang 等人(2020)认为相似图像块在 Tucker 分解中应具有相同的因子矩阵,并用加权 1-范数约束核张量的稀疏性。类似地,Xu 等人(2021)在光谱重建中,将非局部相似图像块聚类,构成四阶张量,并提出 Tucker 协同分解模型,挖掘高光谱图像的自相关性。

张量环(tensor ring)分解是另一个常见框架。给定  $n$  阶张量  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I_1 \times I_2 \times \dots \times I_n}$ ,可以将其分解为  $n$  个三阶因子张量的乘积  $\mathbf{G} = \{\mathbf{G}^{(1)}, \mathbf{G}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{G}^{(n)}\}$ ,式中  $\mathbf{G}^{(k)} \in \mathbf{R}^{r_k \times I_k \times r_{k+1}}$ ,具体为

$$\mathbf{T}(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{G}^{(1)}(i_1)\mathbf{G}^{(2)}(i_2)\cdots\mathbf{G}^{(n)}(i_n)) \quad (13)$$

式中,  $\text{tr}(\cdot)$  表示迹,  $\mathbf{G}^{(k)}(i_k)$  表示张量  $\mathbf{G}^{(k)}$  的第  $k$  个侧向切片矩阵。在张量环分解框架下,张量秩可以定义为  $\text{TRrank}(\mathbf{T}) = [r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n]$ 。Chen 等人(2020b)在端元子空间对丰度的相似块聚类,将其张量环低秩作为光谱重建的正则。Xu 等人(2020)提出耦合张量环分解模型,结合光谱流形约束,在高阶张量空间分解高光谱和多光谱图像的因子张量,融合重建高分辨率高光谱图像。还可以用张量环分解的因子张量核范数之和度量低秩性,进而设计张量低秩正则项,以提高重建性能(Wan 等, 2024)。

与张量环分解类似,张量链(tensor train)模型将  $n$  阶张量  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I_1 \times I_2 \times \dots \times I_n}$  分解为两个二阶矩阵和  $n - 2$  个三阶因子张量,具体为

$$\mathbf{T}(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) = \mathbf{G}^{(1)}(i_1)\mathbf{G}^{(2)}(i_2)\cdots\mathbf{G}^{(n)}(i_n) \quad (14)$$

式中,  $\mathbf{G}^{(k)} \in \mathbf{R}^{r_k \times I_k \times r_{k+1}}$ ,  $\mathbf{G}^{(k)}(i_k)$  表示张量  $\mathbf{G}^{(k)}$  的第  $k$  个侧向切片矩阵。与张量环模型不同的是,张量链模型中  $r_0 = r_n = 1$ ,因此  $\mathbf{G}^{(1)}$  和  $\mathbf{G}^{(n)}$  实际是二阶矩阵。在张量链表示框架下,张量的秩也可以定义为  $\text{TTrank}(\mathbf{T}) = [r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n]$ ,但由于张量链秩具有不唯一性,在实际中以其下确界近似

$$\text{TTrank}(\mathbf{T}) \approx \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \text{rank}(\mathbf{T}_{(k)}) \quad (15)$$

式中,  $\mathbf{T}_{(k)}$  表示张量  $\mathbf{T}$  在第  $k$  个维度的矩阵展开。Dian 等人(2019)在高光谱一多光谱图像融合增强

中,以张量链低秩先验为正则项,重建高分辨率的高光谱图像。类似地,Wang等人(2022)以张量链低秩和加权全变差先验为正则,用于压缩光谱计算重建。Zhang等人(2024d)进一步提出全维度张量链分解,以在高光谱图像重建中充分挖掘空一谱相关性。

除了上述张量表示框架,典范/平行分解(candecomp/parafac,CP)也是常见的张量分解模型,在此框架下,高阶张量能够表示为一系列秩-1张量的和,秩-1张量的个数可以认为是张量的秩,如图2所示。Yin等人(2024)利用典范/平行分解的低秩,对非局部聚类图像块的张量进行约束,结合全变分正则,实现CASSI计算重建。

总体而言,模型驱动的光谱重建方法数学意义明确,具有严格的数学原理和推导,能开展收敛性和稳定性方面的理论分析,但是表达能力不足,在刻画高维多通道图像的几何、纹理和空一谱结构上较为简单,同时超参数(如张量的秩、正则化参数等)求取困难,模型优化迭代时间长。

### 3 基于数据学习的端到端光谱重建

模型驱动的光谱重建实际上是手工设计先验,正则化重建反问题。深度神经网络可以表示压缩测量与高光谱图像间的映射关系,进而重建高光谱图像。数据驱动的光谱重建是通过端到端神经网络,从大量数据学习测量与高光谱图像样本对的一般规律,视其为一种可学习的先验。如图3所示,其框架一般为深度神经网络,函数 $f(\cdot)$ 表示神经网络的映射,光谱重建结果则为 $\hat{X} = f(Y, M; \theta)$ ,表示编码孔径掩膜为 $M$ 时,从压缩测量 $Y$ 重建高光谱图像 $\hat{X}$ , $\theta$ 为深度神经网络的参数。一般根据压缩光谱成像模型,模拟大量的样本对 $(Y_n, X_n)$ ,学习网络参数 $\theta$ ,网络训练的损失函数为

$$loss = \sum_n \|X_n - \hat{X}_n\| \quad (16)$$

式中,损失函数的常见范数 $\|\cdot\|$ 有 $\ell_2$ 范数和 $\ell_1$ 范数。网络通过梯度反向传播,最小化损失函数,学习参数 $\theta$ 。根据网络结构,代表性方法包括端到端卷积神经网络和Transformer网络,下面分别阐述。

#### 3.1 端到端卷积神经网络的光谱重建

在深度学习中,卷积神经网络是一种天然适配图像处理的网络架构。通过在图像空间域进行卷积

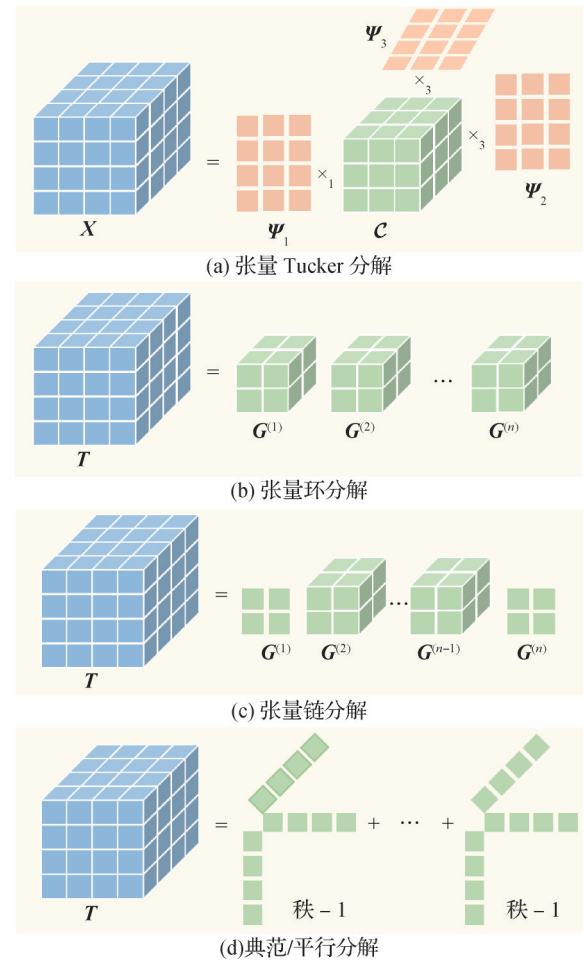


图2 不同张量分解模型示意

Fig. 2 The illustrations of different tensor decomposition models ((a) tensor Tucker decomposition; (b) tensor ring decomposition; (c) tensor train decomposition; (d) tensor CP decomposition)

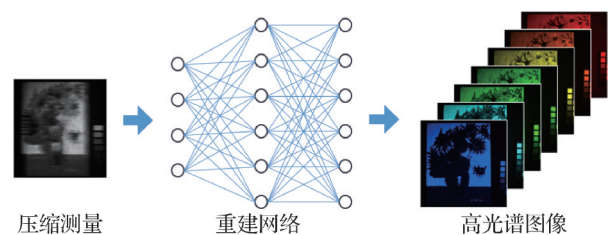


图3 数据驱动光谱重建示意图

Fig. 3 Schematic diagram of data-driven HSI reconstruction

计算,方便提取和表示图像特征。Dong等人(2016)首先将深度卷积神经网络用于图像超分辨率重建,表明了其在图像重建等任务中的潜力。随后,学者们提出各种卷积神经网络,用于高光谱图像重建。Gedalin等人(2019)利用3D卷积设计U-Net网络,挖掘空一谱深度特征。Miao等人(2019)在卷积神经网络中,学习光谱自注意力,并结合对抗学习,重建

高光谱图像。Hu 等人(2022)进一步学习空间注意力和光谱注意力,并设计频率域损失,提高网络对重要空一谱特征的聚焦能力和高频细节的重建能力。类似地,Fu 等人(2022)设计密集卷积神经网络,用于 PAN + CASSI 融合重建。Cheng 等人(2023)利用卷积神经网络设计双向递归网络,结合注意力和对抗学习,能够逐波段重建高光谱图像。为扩大感受野,Xu 等人(2024b)在卷积神经网络中结合傅里叶变换,在频域进行空间增强,有效挖掘了空间全局相关性。为了实际部署,Cai 等人(2023)提出二值化卷积网络,降低了参数量,提高了光谱重建效率。

在端到端网络下,可以直接学习从压缩测量到场景物体类别的映射,利用 3D 卷积神经网络学习空一谱深度特征,可以实现压缩光谱成像的场景分类(Yu 等,2019;Zhang 等,2021a)。总体上,卷积神经网络结构相对简单、实时性好,性能通常优于模型驱动的重建方法。但卷积神经网络的感受野是局部的,难以学习高光谱图像长程依赖关系,限制了重建性能。

### 3.2 端到端 Transformer 网络的光谱重建

Transformer 网络基于自注意力(self-attention)机制,其核心思想是通过全局建模捕捉序列中元素间的长程依赖关系,无需依赖卷积或循环结构,它通过多头注意力机制并行计算输入数据中各部分之间的相关性,从而对长程依赖关系高效建模。Transformer 最初在自然语言处理中取得突破,随后应用至计算机视觉。ViT(vision Transformer)将图像分割为图像块序列,捕获图像块间的长程依赖,证明了在分类等视觉任务中的潜力(Dosovitskiy 等,2021)。此后,各类视觉 Transformer 网络不断涌现,用于目标检测、分割、复原和重建等视觉任务(Khan 等,2022; Han 等,2023)。

Transformer 具有全局感受野,在光谱重建中能够捕获整幅图像中的长程依赖关系和上下文信息,有助于重建高光谱图像。例如,Meng 等人(2020)利用 Transformer 构成 U-Net,分别在空间维和光谱维学习自注意力,进而重建高光谱图像。光谱 Transformer 还可以结合卷积网络,学习空间局部相关性。进一步,引入掩膜注意力,学习掩膜引导的 Transformer,可以在光谱重建中利用编码孔径退化信息,重建被编码掩膜遮蔽的像素(Cai 等,2022a)。Yao

等人(2024)提出空一谱累积 Transformer,结合空间注意力、掩膜注意力和光谱注意力,增强光谱重建能力。Li 等人(2024)提出级联空一谱交叉 Transformer,并通过 U-Net 架构在多尺度空间融合空一谱特征,实现 RGB + CASSI 融合重建。Wang 等人(2025)则根据编码孔径,设计掩膜损失函数,聚焦被编码掩膜遮蔽像素的重建保真度,提出 Transformer 并行结构,融合空间和光谱自注意力。在 Transformer 中结合照度引导,还可以降低光子噪声,实现低光照下的光谱重建(Hu 等,2025b)。

自注意力计算复杂度高,并且空间维存在非相关结构,Cai 等人(2022b)提出稀疏 Transformer,通过稀疏学习、区域聚类 and 哈希编码等,计算相关结构的自注意力,排除非相关结构,提高了 Transformer 对相关结构的聚焦能力。类似地,由于光谱相关性,使得波段间的自表示也存在稀疏性,Xu 等人(2025)提出光谱稀疏 Transformer,仅学习相关波段的依赖关系,提高了网络对重要波段的聚焦能力和光谱重建性能。

为了降低全局自注意力的计算量,可以在局部窗口计算光谱自注意力(Zhang 等,2024b)。借鉴分治思想,Luo 等人(2025)学习双窗口的多尺度局部注意力,对图像空间划分不同尺度非重叠区域,在区域内和区域间学习自注意力,用于光谱重建。类似地,Li 等人(2026)提出可分离光谱 Transformer,在光谱维对波段划分非重叠区域,计算区域内和区域间的自注意力,实现轻量化光谱重建。Yin 等人(2025)在区域和局部粒度上学习空一谱自注意力,减少了 Transformer 的计算复杂度。Liu 等人(2025b)则在高光谱图像的端元子空间,从丰度和端元分别学习空间和光谱自注意力,降低计算量。

总体而言,Transformer 网络比卷积神经网络具有更大的全局感受野,能够在更大范围内挖掘长程依赖关系,重建高光谱图像。但数据驱动光谱重建的不足在于,重建性能依赖网络模块的堆砌,导致网络的参数量过大,而网络本身的可解释性相对不足,难以充分利用光谱成像的退化模型。

## 4 物理与深度网络联合驱动光谱重建

模型和数据联合驱动的光谱重建能够结合传统模型驱动方法和数据驱动深度学习方法的优势,在

继承深度学习重建性能和实时性的同时,提高网络的可解释性,并利用压缩光谱成像过程的退化模型。核心思想是模型启发式网络设计,根据成像退化模型和先验正则,设计光谱重建模型,将其优化求解过程通过深度网络展开实现,从而避免网络的简单模块堆砌、增强网络的可解释性(Monga等,2021;Yang等,2022;Zhang等,2023a)。本节围绕先验正则,进一步细分为自监督学习深度先验、有监督学习深度先验和生成式先验等,分析其优缺点。

#### 4.1 自监督学习的深度先验

深度图像先验(deep image prior)可以作为光谱重建的正则,该先验是一种自监督模型,表示任一图像均可以由随机初始化的深度网络近似表示,也就是说,以当前图像为单一样本,自监督训练任意深度网络,都能够从随机噪声生成该图像(Lempitsky等,2018)。深度图像先验的思想非常巧妙,它认为深度神经网络的结构本身实际上就是一种很好的图像隐式先验。Meng等人(2021)提出自监督深度先验正则的光谱重建,在式(6)的光谱重建模型中引入深度图像先验,则

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}, \theta} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \Phi \mathbf{x} \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \mu J(\mathbf{x}) \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} = T_{\theta}(\epsilon) \quad (17)$$

式中,  $\mathbf{x} = T_{\theta}(\epsilon)$  表示自监督图像深度先验,认为高光谱图像能够由参数为  $\theta$  的网络  $T(\cdot)$  从随机噪声  $\epsilon$  生成。将式(17)转为无约束形式

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}, \theta} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \Phi \mathbf{x} \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \rho \left\| \mathbf{x} - T_{\theta}(\epsilon) \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \mu J(\mathbf{x}) + \lambda \left\| \mathbf{y} - \Phi T_{\theta}(\epsilon) \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 \quad (18)$$

用交替优化方法求解,并引入辅助变量  $\mathbf{v}$ ,将其分解为不同子问题,第  $k+1$  步迭代为

$$\hat{\theta}^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\theta} \rho \left\| \mathbf{x}^k - T_{\theta}(\epsilon) \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \lambda \left\| \mathbf{y} - \Phi T_{\theta}(\epsilon) \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 \quad (19)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \Phi \mathbf{x} \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \rho \left\| \mathbf{x} - T_{\theta}(\epsilon) \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \eta \left\| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{v}^k \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 \quad (20)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{v}} \mu J(\mathbf{v}) + \eta \left\| \mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{v} \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 \quad (21)$$

$\theta$ -子问题是在深度图像先验的隐式正则下,以当前图像为样本训练深度网络,使得网络输出逼近高光谱图像,并且退化后逼近压缩测量。 $\mathbf{x}$ -子问题具有闭式解。 $\mathbf{v}$ -子问题是以先验  $J(\cdot)$  正则的去噪器,可以根据即插即用(plug and play)思想,用预训练去噪器求解式(21)。迭代求解上述子问题,可收

敛至重建的高光谱图像。

在自监督深度先验框架下,可以结合其他先验,联合正则光谱重建。例如,Chen等人(2024b)在线性光谱混合模型下利用光谱低秩性,自监督学习深度先验来重建丰度,与端元结合重建高光谱图像。类似地,自监督深度先验还可以与预训练的去噪器先验联合正则丰度,实现光谱重建(Chen等,2024a)。考虑到高光谱图像在张量Tucker表示模型下的低秩性,自监督深度先验可以与Tucker低秩约束结合,联合正则光谱重建问题(Chen等,2025c)。Gelvez-Barrera等人(2024)则认为自监督深度先验网络的输入  $\epsilon$  具有Tucker低秩性,以其Tucker低秩先验和自监督深度先验驱动光谱重建。类似地,Chen等人(2025b)认为自监督深度先验网络的输入  $\epsilon$  应具有稀疏性,以稀疏先验和深度先验联合正则光谱重建,并用轻量化卷积稀疏编码网络学习深度先验,以确保稀疏性。

由于深度图像先验以自监督方式学习,可能导致过拟合。Mei等人(2024)在自监督深度先验的正则下,渐进式学习空间编码网络和光谱聚类网络,重建高光谱图像,并在自监督学习中引入噪声注入,降低过拟合风险。Liu等人(2026a)提出互正则的双深度先验,自监督学习两个网络生成高光谱图像,并设计迭代终止条件,减少过拟合。Dai等人(2026)则在自监督损失函数中引入几何变换,减少对光谱成像噪声的过拟合。

相比于数据驱动方法,基于自监督深度先验的光谱重建无需额外训练数据,仅需压缩测量即可重建高光谱图像。但是,过拟合是其挑战,在自监督学习中重建性能先升后降,需要设计迭代早停策略。此外,每次重建需要重新训练,导致相对耗时。

#### 4.2 有监督学习的深度先验

深度先验也可以通过网络从大量样本中学习有监督的学习。如图4所示。将光谱重建模型的优化过程展开为深度网络,从大量训练样本端到端的有监督学习深度先验,往往具有更好的光谱重建性能。假设式(6)以有监督深度先验作为正则项  $J(\cdot)$ ,该模型即为深度先验正则的光谱重建模型。用半二次分裂算法求解,并引入辅助变量  $\mathbf{v}$  分离数据项和正则项,得到

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \Phi \mathbf{x} \right\|_{\mathbb{F}}^2 + \mu J(\mathbf{v}) \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} \quad (22)$$

将式(22)转为无约束形式

$$\hat{x} = \arg \min_{x,v} \|y - \Phi x\|_F^2 + \mu J(v) + \eta \|x - v\|_F^2 \quad (23)$$

式中,  $\eta$  表示惩罚项权重。通过交替迭代优化求解式(23), 将其分解为两个子问题

$$x^{k+1} = \arg \min_x \|y - \Phi x\|_F^2 + \eta \|x - v^k\|_F^2 \quad (24)$$

$$v^{k+1} = \arg \min_v \eta \|v - x^{k+1}\|_F^2 + \mu J(v) \quad (25)$$

$x$ -子问题主要与数据项相关, 可以在光谱重建中利用压缩测量  $y$  和成像退化矩阵  $\Phi$ , 其闭式解为

$$x^{k+1} = (\Phi^T \Phi + \eta I)^{-1} (\Phi^T y + \eta v^k) \quad (26)$$

由于矩阵  $\Phi^T \Phi + \eta I$  尺寸大, 矩阵逆难以直接求解, 式(26)也可用梯度下降法近似求解, 其迭代解为

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \tau [\Phi^T (\Phi x^k - y) + \eta (x^k - v^k)] \quad (27)$$

式中,  $\tau$  是梯度下降步长。 $v$ -子问题主要与先验项相关, 由于深度先验没有数学显式表达, 可以认为该先验是网络从数据中学习的, 用深度先验邻近算子 (proximal operator) 隐式表示

$$v^{k+1} = \text{prox}(x^{k+1}) \quad (28)$$

深度先验邻近算子用去噪器实现, 通过端到端方式, 学习大量样本的先验, 从“含噪声” $x^{k+1}$  中恢复“无噪声” $v^{k+1}$ 。近年来, 学者们挖掘高光谱图像的各种空-谱结构, 设计了不同去噪器当做深度先验邻近算子。Wang 等人(2019a)设计卷积神经网络去噪器作为邻近算子, 实现光谱重建。在此基础上挖

掘非局部相似性, 引入自注意力网络作为邻近算子, 提升重建性能(Wang 等, 2020)。Zhang 等人(2021b)结合低秩约束, 认为邻近算子特征张量可分解为向量的直积, 减少了网络参数量。Ying 等人(2024)引入非局部和低秩两个正则项, 设计卷积神经网络和低秩网络分别作为其邻近算子, 用于光谱重建。Wang 等人(2024)设计交叉 Transformer 作为邻近算子, 挖掘高光谱和全色图像的相关性, 用于 CASSI + PAN 融合重建。类似地, Dong 等人(2025)提出交叉光谱 Transformer 作为邻近算子, 实现 CASSI + PAN 融合重建。Liu 等人(2025a)则将深度先验项  $J(\cdot)$  解耦为空间先验和光谱先验, 分别设计空间窗口和光谱窗口的 Transformer 作为邻近算子, 重建高光谱图像。也可以将深度先验  $J(\cdot)$  解耦成反射分量先验和照度分量先验, 分别设计 Transformer 邻近算子, 在低光照下重建高光谱图像(Liu 等, 2026b)。

相比于 Transformer 模型, 以 Mamba 为代表的状态空间模型 (state space model, SSM) 具有高效建模能力, 引起广大学者关注。Mamba 核心思想是沿不同方向扫描图像, 递归计算特征序列的相关性。由于能够以线性复杂度捕获长程关系, Mamba 模型也被用做深度先验邻近算子。例如, Dong 等人(2024a)构建多尺度 Mamba 作为邻近算子, 沿左上到右下、右下到左上、右上到左下、左下到右上四个方向扫描图像, 捕获长程关系。Zhang 等人(2024c)

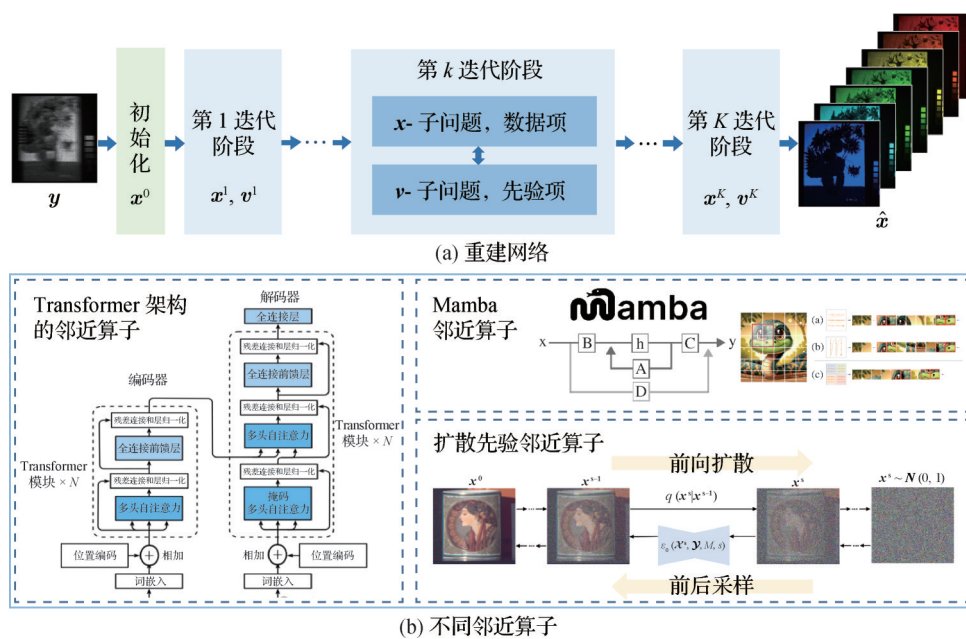


图4 有监督深度先验学习的光谱重建

Fig. 4 Supervised deep prior learning for HSI reconstruction ( (a) reconstruction architecture; (b) different proximal operators)

在 Mamba 邻近算子中进行特征重排,使得每个特征都包含空一谱信息,再进行4个方向的序列化扫描。Tian 等人(2024)提出局部和非局部 Mamba 邻近算子,扫描空间维的局部和非局部窗口以及光谱维的局部窗口,挖掘相关性,重建高光谱图像。在此基础上,Meng 等人(2025b)借助傅里叶变换,在特征频域进行序列化扫描,进一步捕获长短期依赖关系。Qin 等人(2025)则将 Mamba 和 Transformer 组合用做邻近算子,其中 Mamba 在特征张量的3个维度上序列化扫描。除了特征张量的3个维度,Feng 等人(2026)进一步将特征细分成不同尺度,扫描不同尺度的相关性。此外,还可以设计跨模态 Mamba 作为邻近算子,描述高光谱和全色图像间的相关性,用于 CASSI + PAN 融合重建(Meng 等,2025a)。

除了半二次分裂优化方法, Ma 等人(2019)用交替方向乘子法优化张量核范数约束的重建模型,并通过深度网络展开,重建快照视频。阈值收缩法也可以用于求解式(22),并设计层级特征交互卷积网络和跨深度 Transformer 作为邻近算子,重建高光谱图像(Zhang 等,2022; Hu 等,2024)。Meng 等人(2023)采用广义交替投影法优化式(22),以自编码器、残差卷积网络等不同结构作为邻近算子,实现压缩光谱成像和快照视频成像的重建。

在实际成像中,为了克服光学畸变、相位误差和噪声等导致的实际退化模型与理想退化模型间的鸿沟,学者们提出在深度展开网络中学习退化先验。例如,Cai 等人(2022a)提出退化感知的深度展开网络,设计退化超参数网络,从压缩测量和编码掩膜中隐式学习退化信息,并设计多尺度 Transformer 作为邻近算子。Li 等人(2023)设计像素自适应的退化估计网络,学习逐像素退化信息,引导深度展开网络的光谱重建。Dong 等人(2023)设计退化模型估计网络,学习真实与理想退化矩阵的残差,用于校正退化模型,以引导光谱重建,并设计光谱 Transformer 和空间感知混合网络作为邻近算子;在此基础上,将深度展开网络设计成递归结构,可以减少网络参数(Dong 等,2024b)。Yang 等人(2023)和 Xu 等人(2024a)提出退化感知深度先验,在深度展开网络中显式学习退化模型和高光谱图像的先验,从而联合估计退化模型和高光谱图像。此外,也可以将光谱重建问题建模为高光谱图像和残差分量的联合估计问题,分别设计 Transformer 和卷积神经网络作为

高光谱图像和残差分量的邻近算子(Zhang 等,2024a)。

总体而言,现有深度展开网络主要学习高光谱图像的深度学习先验,相比于模型驱动方法的手工先验,其表达能力更强;相比于数据驱动的深度神经网络,其可解释性更高,因此,深度展开网络也是当前光谱重建的主流方法。但是,深度学习先验是通过重建误差等回归损失训练,学习的是全体训练样本潜在平均分布(Zhang 等,2023b; Moser 等,2025),容易产生空间模糊、光谱畸变等问题。结合扩散模型在图像结构和内容生成上的优势,学习扩散先验,研究扩散生成式先验驱动的光谱重建模型,是值得探索的重要方向。

### 4.3 生成式扩散先验

扩散生成模型具有良好的分布学习和先验表示能力,可生成丰富多样、自然逼真的图像,在图像复原、重建等反问题上极具潜力(Li 等,2025b; Hu 等,2025a),是计算机视觉、机器学习的前沿。

目前,代表性扩散模型包括去噪扩散概率模型(denoising diffusion probabilistic model, DDPM)和基于分数(score)的生成模型等。DDPM 定义马尔可夫链,前向扩散过程向原始数据  $\mathbf{x}^0$  逐步加入高斯噪声,第  $s$  步扩散可表示为(Ho 等,2020)

$$q(\mathbf{x}^s | \mathbf{x}^{s-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^s; \sqrt{1 - \beta_s} \mathbf{x}^{s-1}, \beta_s \mathbf{I}) \quad (29)$$

式中,  $\beta_s$  为噪声权重,  $\mathcal{N}(\cdot)$  表示高斯分布。根据重参数化策略,式(29)也可以写为

$$\mathbf{x}^s = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_s} \mathbf{x}^0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_s} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (30)$$

式中,  $\alpha_s = 1 - \beta_s$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_s = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_s$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  是标准高斯分布。当扩散步数  $s$  充分大时,数据趋向高斯分布。后向扩散采样学习逆向去噪过程,描述数据原始分布到高斯分布的演化。后向采样可表示为

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}^{s-1} | \mathbf{x}^s) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{s-1}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}^s, s), \boldsymbol{\sigma}_s^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (31)$$

式中,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_\theta(\mathbf{x}^s, s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_s}} \left( \mathbf{x}^s - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_s}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_\theta(\mathbf{x}^s, s, \mathbf{y}) \right) \quad (32)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_s^2 = \frac{1 - \bar{\alpha}_{s-1}}{1 - \bar{\alpha}_s} \beta_s \quad (33)$$

$\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^s = \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_\theta(\mathbf{x}^s, s, \mathbf{y})$  是扩散模型的噪声预测网络,以测量  $\mathbf{y}$  为条件,从  $\mathbf{x}^s$  中预测噪声  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^s$ ,恢复原始图像。根据去噪扩散隐式模型(denoising diffusion implicit model)(Song 等,2022a),后向采样可表示为

$$\mathbf{x}^{s-1} = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_{s-1}} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{x}^s - \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_s} \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^s}{\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_s}} \right] + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_{s-1}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^s \quad (34)$$

从大量图像预训练扩散模型,可以表示其原始分布,作为扩散先验。扩散先验具有良好的生成性能,在高光谱图像的复原、增强和重建(Pang等, 2024; Liu等, 2024a; Yang等, 2026b)等不同任务上得到关注。Li等人(2025a)提出子空间扩散增强的矩形Transformer,设计多形状矩阵窗口捕获空间维依赖关系,在光谱维则通过扩散模型生成低秩字典,在低秩子空间表示光谱特征,利用光谱低秩性,提升了高光谱图像复原和重建性能。Chen等人(2025a)提出可逆扩散模型,通过端到端的训练与可逆网络设计,提升了图像重建效率。Zeng等人(2025)在端元子空间,利用预训练扩散模型生成丰度的高频分量,进而重建高光谱图像。扩散模型的训练需要大量样本,Huang等人(2025)通过几何变换构成伪样本对,提出自监督单步扩散采样方法,通过单步采样校正光谱重建结果,以提升高频细节。

扩散先验用于光谱重建的另一思路是借鉴即插即用的思想(Zhu等, 2023),建立扩散先验正则的光谱重建模型。假设式(6)中的正则项 $J(\cdot)$ 为扩散先验,则其优化过程对应的 $v$ -子问题式(25)可称为扩散先验邻近算子。由于 $v$ -子问题是去噪过程,而扩散采样也是去噪,因此,Pan等人(2024)用预训练扩散模型单步采样求解 $v$ -子问题,并且设计波长匹配算法,从而利用RGB图像预训练扩散模型生成高光谱图像。Wu等人(2024)则在高光谱图像的低维子空间学习扩散先验,将扩散生成特征注入深度先验邻近算子,提升深度展开网络的光谱重建性能。类似地,Yang等人(2026a)建立扩散先验与深度先验联合正则的光谱重建模型,以预训练扩散模型表示扩散先验,用Mamba网络表示深度先验,重建高光谱图像。

总体而言,扩散模型能够生成逼真且细节丰富的图像,在光谱重建等反问题上已经取得一定进展。压缩光谱成像重建的关键是保真性,如何在扩散生成中结合成像模型,挖掘空一谱长程依赖关系,克服

扩散模型的随机性,实现空一谱内容的高保真生成,依然值得深入研究。此外,光谱重建还面临数据量大、扩散生成时间长等问题,如何加速扩散生成收敛、实现高效的生成重建,也有大量工作可做。

## 5 光谱重建性能评价

本文从不同流派光谱重建方法中选取部分常见算法,在模拟和实测数据上评价分析性能。

### 5.1 数据集和评价指标

模拟实验采用3个高光谱数据集:CAVE (Columbia imaging and vision laboratory)数据集<sup>①</sup>包含32个 $512 \times 512$ 像素的场景(Park等, 2007); KAIST (Korea Advanced Institute of Science & Technology)数据集<sup>②</sup>包含30个 $2704 \times 3376$ 像素的场景(Choi等, 2017); ICVL (interdisciplinary computational vision laboratory)数据集<sup>③</sup>包含201个 $1392 \times 1300$ 像素的场景(Arad和Ben-Shahar, 2016)。3个数据集的光谱波段数均为31,通过光谱插值将波段数减少至28个,波长范围是450~650 nm。实验在CAVE数据集上训练,从KAIST和ICVL数据集各挑选10个场景用于测试(如图5)。训练和测试图像的尺寸都为 $256 \times 256 \times 28$ 。使用 $256 \times 256$ 像素的掩膜对训练和测试数据编码调制,光谱移位步长 $d$ 设为2,生成CASSI模拟数据。

实测数据实验使用CASSI捕获的5个真实压缩测量(Meng等, 2020),如图5所示。压缩测量由 $660 \times 660$ 像素的真实掩膜调制,光谱移位步长为2。因此,每个场景压缩测量的尺寸是 $660 \times 714$ 像素。实验在KAIST数据集上训练,为了匹配压缩测量的大小,从KAIST数据集中随机裁剪 $660 \times 660$ 像素的图像块作为训练样本,并使用真实掩膜对其编码调制。

采用高光谱图像处理中的常见质量指标(Yan等, 2025):峰值信噪比(peak signal to noise ratio, PSNR)、结构相似度(structural similarity index metric, SSIM)、光谱角(spectral angle mapper, SAM)、均方根误差(root mean square error, RMSE)、空谱全局

①<https://cave.cs.columbia.edu/repository/Multispectral>

②<https://vclab.kaist.ac.kr/siggraphasia2017p1/kaistdataset.html>

③<https://icvl.cs.bgu.ac.il/hyperspectral/>

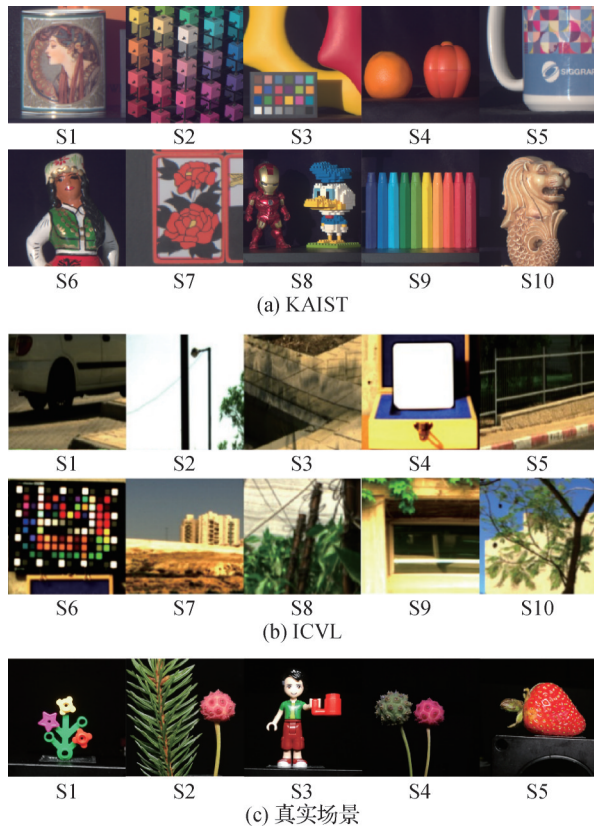


图5 不同数据测试场景

Fig 5 The testing scenes from different datasets ((a) KAIST; (b) ICVL; (c) real life datasets)

误差 (erreur relative globale adimensionnelle de synthèse, ERGAS) 和结构相关指数 (structural correlation coefficient, SCC), 并用参数量 (Params) 和浮点运算次数 (floating point operations, FLOPs) 评估其效率。

本文选择了12种常见光谱重建算法对比, 包括模型驱动方法: GAP-TV (GAP total variation)<sup>①</sup> (Yuan, 2016)、DeSCI (decompress snapshot compressive imaging)<sup>②</sup> (Liu 等, 2019); 数据驱动方法:  $\lambda$ -Net (Miao 等, 2019)<sup>③</sup>、MST (mask-guided spectral-wise Transformer)<sup>④</sup> (Cai 等, 2022a)、SPECAT (spatial-spectral cumulative-attention Transformer)<sup>⑤</sup> (Yao 等, 2024); 模型和数据联合驱动方法: DGSMP (deep

Gaussian scale mixture prior)<sup>⑥</sup> (Huang 等, 2021)、HerosNet (Zhang 等, 2022)<sup>⑦</sup>、DAUHST (degradation-aware unfolding half-shuffle Transformer)<sup>⑧</sup> (Cai 等, 2022c)、PADUT (pixel adaptive deep unfolding Transformer)<sup>⑨</sup> (Li 等, 2023)、RDLUF (residual degradation learning unfolding framework)<sup>⑩</sup> (Dong 等, 2023)、S2 (spatial-spectral) Transformer (S2Former)<sup>⑪</sup> (Wang 等, 2025) 和 LADE-DUN (latent diffusion prior enhanced deep unfolding network)<sup>⑫</sup> (Wu 等, 2024)。

## 5.2 重建结果与评价分析

1) 数值结果比较。表1和表2列出了不同方法在 KAIST 和 ICVL 数据集的10个测试场景上的指标, 最优结果用粗体标识。模型驱动算法 GAP-TV 和 DeSCI 方法需要花费大量时间进行迭代, 但仍然无法准确重建图像, 原因可能是其依赖手工先验, 但是手工先验难以准确刻画高光谱图像的结构。数据驱动方法, 如  $\lambda$ -Net 学习图像空间长程依赖关系, MST 在掩膜的指导下捕获光谱相关性。这些方法都局限于单一的光谱或空间依赖性, 对空-谱结构学习不够充分, 并且空间依赖关系的计算复杂度大, 在计算高分辨率图像时需要大量计算资源。DGSMP 和 HerosNet 相比于模型驱动方法取得更好的结果。SPECAT 方法能够减少重建网络参数量和计算量, 该方法的计算开销低, 但是重建结果也受到限制。模型和数据联合驱动方法在网络中结合成像物理, 利用深度网络的非线性建模能力学习先验, 相比于数据驱动方法, 有着显著的提升。DAUHST 方法将图像分块, 计算图像块内和块间的依赖关系, 同时捕获局部和全局的空间依赖关系, 避免了直接学习全局依赖关系导致计算开销过大的问题。RDLUF 采用残差学习机制学习退化过程, 通过卷积神经网络降低复杂度以学习空间相关性, 并在不同展开阶段共享可学习参数, 从而实现了更优的重建效果。值得指出的是, 基于扩散生成先验的光谱重建方法如 LADE-DUN, 在部分场景下取得了良好的成绩结果,

① [https://github.com/mq0829/DL-CACTI/tree/master/PnP\\_algorithm](https://github.com/mq0829/DL-CACTI/tree/master/PnP_algorithm)

② <https://github.com/liuyang12/DeSCI>

③ <https://github.com/caiyuanhao1998/MST>

④ <https://github.com/caiyuanhao1998/MST>

⑤ <https://github.com/THU-luvison/SPECAT>

⑥ <https://github.com/TaoHuang95/DGSMP>

⑦ <https://github.com/jianzhangcs/HerosNet>

⑧ <https://github.com/caiyuanhao1998/MST>

⑨ <https://github.com/MyuLi/PADUT>

⑩ [https://github.com/ShawnDong98/RDLUF\\_MixS2](https://github.com/ShawnDong98/RDLUF_MixS2)

⑪ <https://github.com/Jiamian-Wang/S2-transformer-HSI>

⑫ <https://github.com/Zongliang-Wu/LADE-DUN>

表1 KAIST数据集10个测试场景上的光谱重建性能对比

Table 1 The PSNR/SSIM of HSI reconstruction on the 10 testing scenes on the KAIST dataset

方法	指标	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	均值
GAP-TV	PSNR/dB	27.15	26.00	26.91	35.40	24.65	23.72	24.69	23.24	25.49	24.70	26.20
	SSIM	0.767	0.691	0.799	0.910	0.737	0.693	0.717	0.663	0.746	0.621	0.734
DeSCI	PSNR/dB	27.85	26.30	28.43	38.09	25.30	24.07	25.43	23.42	26.52	24.74	27.05
	SSIM	0.794	0.699	0.858	0.949	0.773	0.750	0.772	0.735	0.797	0.663	0.779
$\lambda$ -Net	PSNR/dB	32.55	31.66	34.25	41.01	30.07	30.74	30.73	29.56	32.48	28.80	32.19
	SSIM	0.895	0.861	0.934	0.967	0.896	0.900	0.885	0.889	0.896	0.845	0.897
DGSMP	PSNR/dB	33.85	33.44	33.94	39.22	30.71	33.29	32.16	31.57	31.74	31.71	33.16
	SSIM	0.930	0.926	0.941	0.969	0.932	0.941	0.913	0.937	0.926	0.939	0.935
HerosNet	PSNR/dB	35.12	34.27	34.75	40.77	32.34	34.51	33.69	32.61	34.17	32.28	34.45
	SSIM	0.936	0.924	0.923	0.964	0.933	0.947	0.923	0.937	0.927	0.931	0.934
MST	PSNR/dB	35.23	35.71	36.66	42.94	32.41	34.67	33.43	32.99	35.12	32.50	35.17
	SSIM	0.944	0.946	0.956	0.979	0.948	0.957	0.927	0.956	0.949	0.947	0.951
SPECAT	PSNR/dB	34.36	34.54	34.73	41.23	32.02	34.01	32.89	32.68	34.21	31.85	34.25
	SSIM	0.924	0.916	0.931	0.959	0.925	0.942	0.912	0.936	0.926	0.926	0.930
DAUHST	PSNR/dB	33.07	36.13	36.96	37.95	<b>44.45</b>	34.18	<b>36.02</b>	<b>35.00</b>	34.03	<b>36.91</b>	36.47
	SSIM	0.947	0.949	0.952	0.960	<b>0.980</b>	0.959	<b>0.965</b>	0.942	<b>0.959</b>	<b>0.957</b>	0.957
PADUT	PSNR/dB	35.63	36.97	37.92	43.28	33.63	35.37	34.55	33.11	36.33	32.87	35.97
	SSIM	0.947	0.956	0.963	0.980	0.959	0.964	0.939	0.960	0.955	0.949	0.957
RDLUF	PSNR/dB	<b>35.83</b>	<b>37.36</b>	<b>38.74</b>	<b>44.40</b>	33.90	<b>35.78</b>	35.15	33.94	<b>36.87</b>	33.23	<b>36.52</b>
	SSIM	<b>0.951</b>	<b>0.959</b>	<b>0.967</b>	<b>0.984</b>	0.959	<b>0.966</b>	0.946	<b>0.965</b>	0.958	0.951	<b>0.961</b>
S2Former	PSNR/dB	33.08	33.34	33.81	39.67	31.05	33.36	33.38	31.09	33.02	31.35	33.22
	SSIM	0.918	0.911	0.928	0.953	0.919	0.928	0.916	0.908	0.924	0.915	0.922
LADE-DUN	PSNR/dB	32.84	32.07	33.70	39.88	30.23	31.58	31.50	28.79	32.50	29.11	32.22
	SSIM	0.909	0.890	0.939	0.972	0.916	0.927	0.900	0.897	0.920	0.869	0.914

注:加粗数值为每一列不同指标的最优结果。

表明了生成式先验在光谱重建中的潜力。表3和表4给出了SAM、ERGAS、SCC、Params和FLOPs指标在测试数据上的均值,“-”表示GAP-TV和DeSCI无Params和FLOPs指标。表3和表4的指标与表1和表2的PSNR和SSIM总体一致,DAUHST和RDLUF等方法取得较好重建结果。

2)可视化结果比较。图6和图7展示了KAIST和ICVL数据集上模拟光谱重建的结果。从高光谱图像选择4个波段比较。从可视化结果发现,基于深度学习的重建图像通常优于模型驱动方法,重建图像更接近参考图像,可以恢复更丰富的纹理和更清晰的边缘。

图8给出实测压缩测量的重建结果。传统模型驱动方法GAP-TV和DeSCI难以高精度重建真实场景。深度学习方法总体展现出更优的重建性能, $\lambda$ -

Net和HerosNet方法易导致高光谱图像过度平滑,DGSMP、SPECAT等方法难以有效恢复精细结构。相比之下,基于预训练扩散模型的生成能力,LADE-DUN能够重建出更清晰、模糊更少的高光谱图像。

为了验证重建图像的光谱保真度,本实验在图6和图7中画出了重建图像的光谱密度曲线,其与参考图像的光谱曲线越接近,表示光谱保真度越高。同时,为了能够更加直观地看出光谱一致程度,使用光谱相关系数指标定量分析,光谱相关系数的值越大表示光谱一致性程度越高。高光谱图像重建较好时,其光谱密度曲线与参考图像更接近,光谱相关系数数值更高,表明重建图像具有较高的光谱保真度。

表2 ICVL数据集10个测试场景上的光谱重建性能对比

Table 2 The PSNR/SSIM of HSI reconstruction on the 10 testing scenes of ICVL dataset

方法	指标	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	均值
GAP-TV	PSNR/dB	29.62	20.08	25.13	24.54	28.13	22.20	28.46	23.62	31.28	22.47	25.55
	SSIM	0.833	0.726	0.770	0.803	0.758	0.642	0.843	0.670	0.909	0.623	0.758
DeSCI	PSNR/dB	31.67	20.75	25.71	26.24	29.36	23.02	29.81	23.97	33.16	22.83	26.65
	SSIM	0.892	0.751	0.774	0.854	0.795	0.719	0.870	0.670	0.946	0.625	0.790
$\lambda$ -Net	PSNR/dB	33.63	29.72	33.42	30.61	31.91	28.90	33.34	30.24	32.06	26.20	31.01
	SSIM	0.854	0.913	0.902	0.891	0.805	0.830	0.919	0.846	0.812	0.773	0.854
DGSMP	PSNR/dB	35.00	30.02	34.04	29.57	33.81	28.87	34.48	31.28	33.44	28.04	31.86
	SSIM	0.895	0.929	0.917	0.890	0.853	0.845	0.932	0.870	0.859	0.829	0.882
HerosNet	PSNR/dB	37.03	31.52	35.53	30.45	35.09	28.87	35.95	32.84	33.56	27.95	32.88
	SSIM	0.916	0.921	0.938	0.876	0.865	0.842	0.938	0.889	0.869	0.819	0.887
MST	PSNR/dB	35.66	31.69	35.07	33.01	33.77	30.66	35.17	32.04	33.25	28.03	32.83
	SSIM	0.904	0.933	0.926	0.908	0.845	0.864	0.940	0.880	0.850	0.822	0.887
SPECAT	PSNR/dB	34.51	28.68	33.24	29.90	32.98	28.25	33.49	30.26	32.66	26.17	31.01
	SSIM	0.889	0.875	0.903	0.855	0.841	0.819	0.922	0.845	0.847	0.758	0.855
DAUHST	PSNR/dB	<b>39.55</b>	34.07	38.22	<b>37.12</b>	<b>38.16</b>	32.63	38.93	34.44	<b>37.39</b>	30.55	36.11
	SSIM	<b>0.948</b>	0.955	0.950	<b>0.953</b>	<b>0.928</b>	0.900	0.965	0.916	<b>0.930</b>	0.880	<b>0.933</b>
PADUT	PSNR/dB	36.50	34.71	35.98	34.62	34.59	31.98	36.35	33.30	34.02	29.36	34.14
	SSIM	0.913	0.930	0.936	0.928	0.862	0.876	0.947	0.900	0.862	0.863	0.905
RDLUF	PSNR/dB	29.08	21.20	30.31	24.69	29.87	26.54	31.01	25.72	30.40	22.91	27.17
	SSIM	0.831	0.819	0.873	0.822	0.778	0.786	0.900	0.760	0.810	0.673	0.805
S2Former	PSNR/dB	35.27	25.54	31.79	25.96	33.47	<b>36.58</b>	32.30	28.26	31.76	23.93	29.49
	SSIM	0.916	0.879	0.903	0.850	0.855	0.807	0.919	0.824	0.877	0.717	0.855
LADE-DUN	PSNR/dB	37.53	<b>38.43</b>	<b>40.49</b>	36.17	37.36	34.43	<b>39.27</b>	<b>36.92</b>	33.92	<b>32.55</b>	<b>36.75</b>
	SSIM	0.881	<b>0.976</b>	<b>0.984</b>	<b>0.953</b>	0.903	<b>0.917</b>	<b>0.974</b>	<b>0.953</b>	0.830	<b>0.936</b>	0.931

注:加粗数值为每一列不同指标的最优结果。

## 6 结语、挑战与展望

光谱重建是计算光谱成像的核心,旨在从成像测量重建出高光谱图像。本文以编码孔径快照光谱成像为切入点,综述其光谱重建技术。首先介绍了编码孔径快照光谱成像的原理和成像退化模型;其次,将现有的光谱重建方法归纳为模型驱动方法、数据驱动方法和模型与数据联合驱动方法,分别阐述不同方法的核心思想与特点。接着,在公开高光谱数据集上对比了主流方法的光谱重建性能,并讨论了存在的问题和研究趋势。

近年来国内外学者提出了大量光谱重建算法,在实验中也取得不错的性能。然而,现有工作仍有不足,在重构质量等方面面临下述挑战。

1) 高光谱图像复杂空—谱特征难以高效表示与学习。高光谱图像是“空谱合一”的立体数据,包括图像空间维的低频内容、高频边缘和纹理,且不同维度之间存在复杂相关性。充分描述空—谱内在相关性结构、建立其先验表示模型,是光谱重建的前提。现有手工先验难以刻画复杂非线性特征,算法迭代时间长,参数调节困难;深度学习在非线性特征表达上具有优势,但需大量样本训练,完全依赖数据驱动,其可解释性不足。如何有机结合人工先验和深度先验,建立不同先验的联合学习机制,提高空—谱特征表达和先验学习能力,依然是今后重要探索方向。

2) 光谱重建模型的生成能力不足和内容失真。当前主流的深度学习光谱重建模型可视为是由重建误差等回归损失训练的“判别式”模型,网络表示的

表3 KAIST数据集光谱重建的其他指标  
Table 3 Other metrics of HSI reconstruction on KAIST dataset

	Params/M	FLOPs/G	SAM	RMSE	ERGAS	SCC
GAP-TV	-	-	0.292	0.052	67.60	0.877
DeSCI	-	-	0.245	0.049	62.31	0.893
$\lambda$ -Net	32.73	32.17	0.207	0.026	34.55	0.967
DGSMP	3.76	647.79	0.149	0.023	32.68	0.976
HerosNet	11.82	447.55	0.179	0.020	27.37	0.981
MST	2.02	27.48	0.127	0.019	24.42	0.984
SPECAT	<b>0.29</b>	<b>13.04</b>	0.180	0.020	27.19	0.980
DAUHST	2.08	26.52	0.122	<b>0.016</b>	<b>21.08</b>	<b>0.988</b>
PADUT	1.35	23.64	0.098	0.017	21.08	0.986
RDLUF	1.89	40.78	<b>0.094</b>	<b>0.016</b>	21.16	<b>0.988</b>
S2Former	2.84	188.33	0.159	0.023	31.73	0.977
LADE-DUN	3.99	35.27	0.132	0.026	34.64	0.971

注:加粗数值为每一列最优结果。

表4 ICVL数据集光谱重建的其他指标  
Table 4 Other metrics of HSI reconstruction on ICVL dataset

	Params/M	FLOPs/G	SAM	RMSE	ERGAS	SCC
GAP-TV	-	-	0.121	0.058	56.41	0.883
DeSCI	-	-	0.105	0.053	45.06	0.894
$\lambda$ -Net	32.73	32.17	0.169	0.030	46.39	0.976
DGSMP	3.76	647.79	0.147	0.027	47.11	0.983
HerosNet	11.82	447.55	0.139	0.025	43.40	0.978
MST	2.02	27.48	0.148	0.024	43.94	0.971
SPECAT	<b>0.29</b>	<b>13.04</b>	0.142	0.030	40.90	0.969
DAUHST	2.08	26.52	<b>0.076</b>	0.017	<b>22.06</b>	<b>0.987</b>
PADUT	1.35	23.64	0.128	0.024	38.72	0.983
RDLUF	1.89	40.78	0.206	0.048	67.72	0.955
S2Former	2.84	188.33	0.148	0.026	38.56	0.965
LADE-DUN	3.99	35.27	0.148	<b>0.016</b>	33.86	0.984

注:加粗数值为每一列最优结果。

是压缩测量与高光谱图像间的确定性映射,学习的是全体样本的潜在平均分布(Fei等,2023;Zhang等,2023b),导致重建结果易出现空间模糊、光谱畸变等问题,并且成像模型变化时网络需要重建训练。扩散模型学习数据分布,生成精细结构和多样内容,有助于重建压缩光谱成像的退化内容,其生成性和泛化性更强,在自然图像和视频的生成、复原等反问题

上表现优异(Li等,2025b;Moser等,2025)。但是,将扩散模型直接应用于光谱重建时,面临虚假内容和光谱失真,以及收敛困难、生成时间长、随机性强等问题。如何减少扩散生成的虚假内容,实现图像结构和光谱物理属性高保真、高可控的稳定重建,需要深入研究。

3)成像系统编码采样、重建与下游任务割裂。

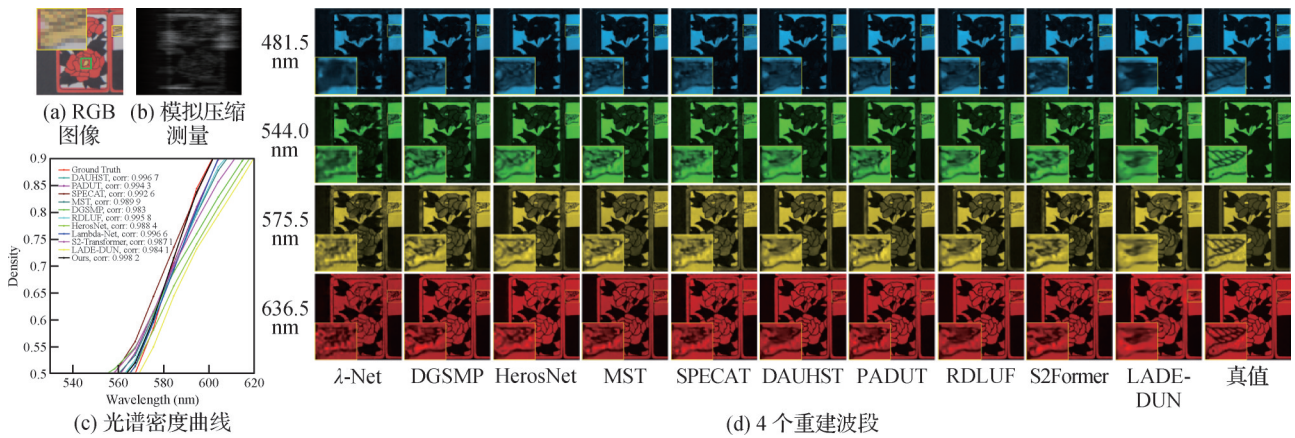


图 6 KAIST数据集S7场景的重建图像

Fig. 6 HSI reconstruction on S7 scene of KAIST dataset((a) the RGB image; (b) the simulated compressed measurement; (c) the spectral density curves; (d) the four reconstructed spectral bands)

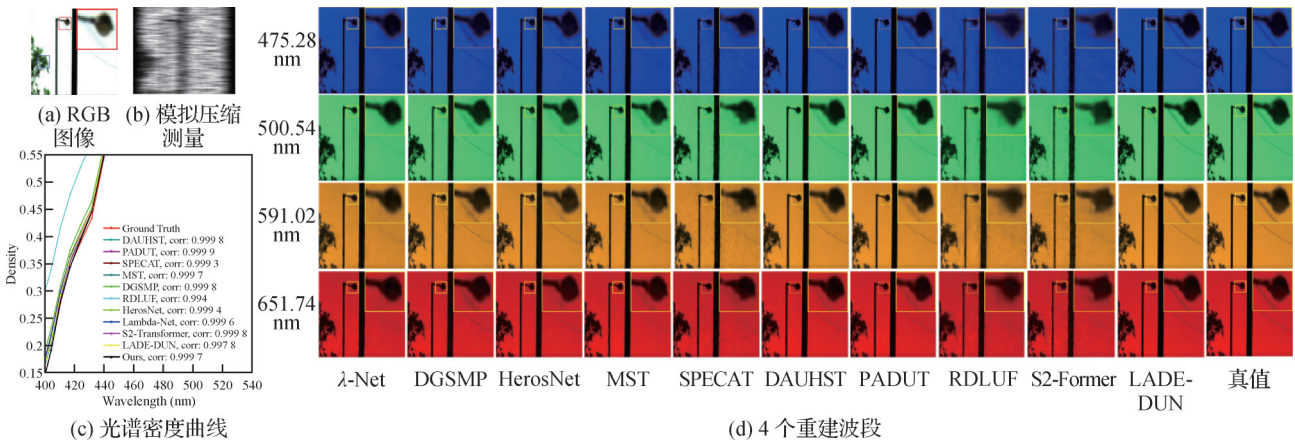


图 7 ICVL数据集S2场景的重建图像

Fig. 7 HSI reconstruction on S2 scene of ICVL dataset( (a) the RGB image; (b) the simulated compressed measurement; (c) the spectral density curves; (d) the four reconstructed spectral bands)

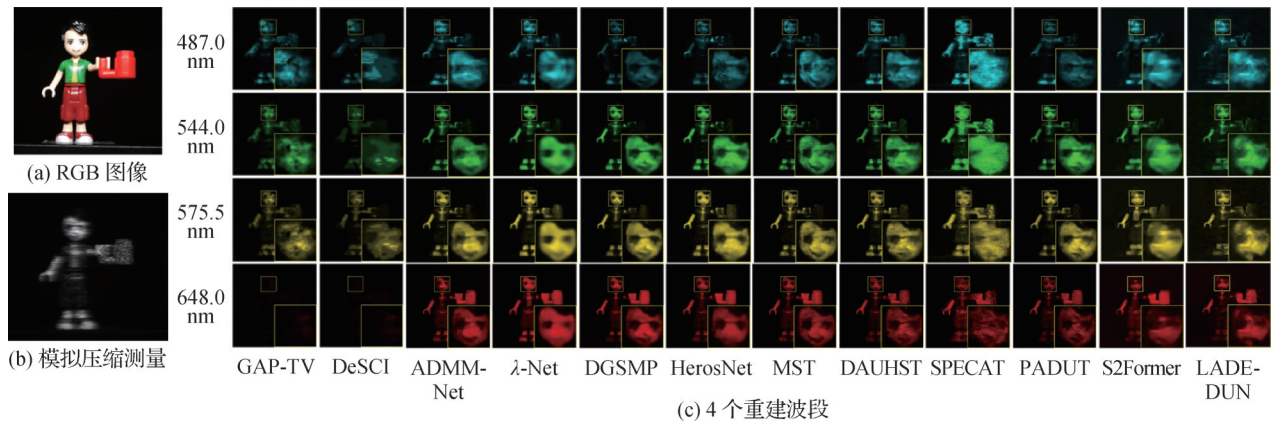


图 8 真实 CASSI 量测数据集 S3 场景的重建图像

Fig. 8 HSI reconstruction on S3 scene of real-life CASSI measurements ((a) the RGB image; (b) the simulated compressed measurement; (c) the four reconstructed spectral bands)

光谱压缩快照系统通过编码耦合对高光谱图像降维采集,再利用解码重构将压缩测量升维重建。采样

方式决定了编码耦合的信息有效性,重建模型决定了解码重建的信息保真性。编码采样、解码重建和

下游任务应是有机整体(Wang等, 2019c; Song等, 2022b), 现有分离流程忽略了计算光谱成像与应用的系统属性, 使得上下游任务割裂, 限制了光谱快照成像的应用。针对编码采样、光谱重建和下游任务的割裂问题, 在优化过程兼顾编码模式、重建方法和下游分析的任务属性, 构建高光谱快照成像系统的一体化模型(Liu等, 2024b; Zhang等, 2025), 以应对编码、重建与分析割裂问题, 保障系统设计的全局性, 将是今后重点方向。

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