

Robust retrieval of material chemical states in X-ray microspectroscopy

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Abstract: X-ray microspectroscopic techniques are essential for studying morphological and chemical changes in materials, providing high-resolution structural and spectroscopic information. However, its practical data analysis for reliably retrieving the chemical states remains a major obstacle to accelerating the fundamental understanding of materials in many research fields. In this work, we propose a novel data formulation model for X-ray microspectroscopy and develop a dedicated unmixing framework to solve this problem, which is robust to noise and spectral variability. Moreover, this framework is not limited to analyzing two-state material chemistry, making it an effective alternative to conventional and widely used methods. In addition, an alternative directional multiplier method with explicit or implicit regularization is applied to obtain the solution efficiently. Our framework can accurately identify and characterize chemical states in complex and heterogeneous samples, even under challenging conditions such as low signal-to-noise ratios and overlapping spectral features. By testing six simulated datasets, our method improves the existing methods by up to 151.84% and 136.33% in terms of the peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR) and the structural similarity index (SSIM) for the chemical phase map. Extensive experimental results on simulated and real datasets demonstrate its effectiveness and reliability.

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1. Introduction

X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) is a scientific technique that utilizes X-rays to investigate materials' electronic and structural properties. However, the spatial resolution of XAS is typically limited to the micron or sub-micron scale, which poses a challenge when studying materials with complex or heterogeneous structures. In recent years, spectroscopic full-field transmission X-ray microscopy (TXM) has emerged as a novel tool for nanoscale chemical imaging, with great potential in various multidisciplinary fields [1, 2]. By imaging at energy points across the absorption edge of the element of interest, TXM offers both high spatial resolution and chemical-specific information. Sub-50-nm resolution X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectroscopy is routinely achieved with TXM-XANES, mainly operating in the hard X-ray regime (5 to 12 keV) [3–5]. Its application areas include materials science, physics, chemistry, and biology. For instance, it can be used for chemical mapping in battery studies [6, 7] and mesoscale degradation [8].

In TXM-XANES, the intensity change of each pixel is scrutinized to generate XANES spectra that are matched against reference compounds. Some common techniques, including the edge-50 or linear combination fitting (LCF) [1], are used to fit the spectra, then a two-dimensional colormap is constructed to display the chemical phase combination of each pixel. The XANES Edge-50 point (energy at 0.5 spectrum position), which measures the absorption spectra of materials within the energy range of 5 keV to 12 keV, is a widely-used method defining the

46 absorption edge energy. The utilization of the Edge-50 XANES technique has been progressively
47 examined for characterizing the chemical composition and structure of environmental material [9].
48 On the other hand, [10] proposed using LCF to determine the phase composition of a chemical
49 sample from normalized XANES spectra. The XANES image at each pixel represents a spectrum
50 at a particular location, which can be fitted with reference spectra to produce spatially resolved
51 chemical state information. This technique significantly simplifies the processing and analysis
52 of XANES spectra using LCF. These traditional methods have been extensively used in the
53 literature [11–14]. Notably, Xiao et al. [15] present a workflow software integrating a few
54 valuable tools for transmission X-ray microscopy data analysis, providing rich image visualization
55 and processing routines.

56 Although traditional methods are widely applicable, they rely on high-quality TXM-XANES
57 images. A relatively slow acquisition process is needed to achieve sufficient energy resolution,
58 recording hundreds or thousands of energy points and a long exposure time. Fast TXM-XANES
59 imaging is crucial for reliably solving morphological chemical phase transitions, as in 3D battery
60 material research. To increase the speed of TXM-XANES imaging, energy points are reduced,
61 or X-ray exposure time is minimized, which is more favorable for radiation-sensitive samples,
62 similar to low-dose medical X-ray imaging applications. However, excessively short exposure
63 times can result in measurements with strong noise [16]. Furthermore, when acquiring XANES
64 data, there are many variations in the X-ray exposure conditions and inherent material properties,
65 contributing to the variability of XANES spectra [17]. In the face of strong noise and spectral
66 variability, the Edge-50 and LCT methods fail to obtain a reasonable interpretation of elemental
67 and chemical information. Despite efforts to optimize microscope hardware, the physical
68 limitations of the TXM-XANES imaging system remain challenging to overcome. To address
69 this obstacle, computational algorithm development is inevitable for improving downstream
70 analysis through fitting results.

71 Spectral unmixing methods [18] have numerous applications in imaging science, including
72 remote sensing [19–21], optical microscopy [22], and X-ray imaging [23–25]. The unmixing
73 technique aims to decompose a spectrum of mixed pixels into a set of distinct spectral signatures,
74 known as endmembers, along with their corresponding fractional abundances [26, 27]. By
75 utilizing spectral unmixing in X-ray microspectroscopy, the chemical states of materials can be
76 directly obtained, bypassing the fitting process. Various regularizations have been developed in
77 spectral unmixing methods to utilize the prior information on the abundance map against noise.
78 In addition, in the face of spectral variability, many model formulations have been proposed
79 in the unmixing problems [28–32]. The principle underlying the LCF method is essentially
80 spectral unmixing [18], whereby the mixture is analyzed by determining the contribution of the
81 reference spectra. However, it is sensitive to noise and limited in handling problems with spectral
82 variability.

83 The TXM-XANES unmixing task involving spectral variability can be formulated as an
84 optimization model. After extracting the scale factors from spectral variability in each pixel, the
85 chemical map corresponding to different chemical states can be seen as a sequence of images.
86 This allows us to utilize prior information and enhance the robustness of our model. In this study,
87 we employ two regularization techniques to achieve this goal. Firstly, the explicit regularizer
88 is applied to the reconstructed image to incorporate spatial and spectral information through
89 pixel connections in the unmixing process [33, 34], an explicit regularizer pertains to prior
90 information that is pre-defined in model-based methods. On the other hand, the Plug and Play
91 (PnP) technique utilizes state-of-the-art denoisers to tackle linear inverse problems in various
92 hyperspectral image processing tasks [35–41]. In contrast to traditional model-based methods,
93 which require explicit and manually designed image priors, PnP can implicitly establish the prior
94 information through the use of denoisers. Therefore, in the subsequent sections, we refer to PnP
95 as an implicit regularizer. The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

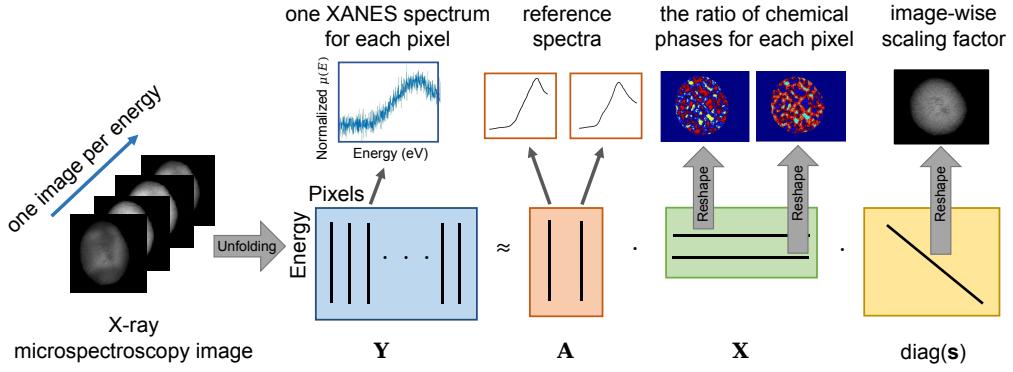


Fig. 1. Framework of the proposed model for material chemical states retrieval in the form of unmixing for X-ray microspectroscopy. The normalized XANES spectra from each pixel are unmixed to create a chemical phase map \mathbf{X} , which also considers the image's scaling factor.

- We present a novel and robust framework for X-ray TXM-XANES imaging, which incorporates various realistic factors that affect the spectra, such as noise and spectral variability.
- Our proposed framework is evaluated extensively using both quantitative and qualitative methods on synthetic and experimental datasets. The results indicate that our proposed methods surpass the state-of-the-art. Our framework with an implicit regularization achieves the best performance.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we propose a novel data formulation model for the material chemical states retrieval in X-ray microspectroscopy and the corresponding algorithms to solve it. Section 3 presents the experimental results and subsequent discussions. Finally, Section 4 provides a summary and future perspectives.

2. Proposed Robust Unmixing Framework

2.1. Model Formulation

Here the observed XANES image is represented by $\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_N] \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times N}$, where each column vector is obtained by lexicographically ordering the TXM image with size $N = M \times K$, and T is the number of energy points. The LCF model generates the noisy measurements \mathbf{Y} from the chemical phase map $\mathbf{M} = [\mathbf{m}_1, \mathbf{m}_2, \dots, \mathbf{m}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times N}$, pixel-wisely.

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{m}_k + \mathbf{r}_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, N, \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times L}$ is the dictionary, representing spectra of the reference materials in the XANES images, L is the number of materials, and the noise \mathbf{r}_k is assumed to follow Gaussian distribution.

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times L}$, LCF is to solve a least square problem. However, this is an inverse problem which is sensitive to the noise. In addition, the chemical phase map \mathbf{m}_k is a vector with non-negative values but does not sum up to one. This is because of the illumination conditions and uncertainty in the chemical process. As a result, some critical prior information contained in \mathbf{m}_k as an image is lost, and it becomes difficult to apply certain regularization techniques.

Here, we introduce the scaling factor s_k for this pixel-wise spectral variability such that this process can be effectively modeled by approximating the chemical phase map of each pixel with

the scaled version of the reference spectra. We split the \mathbf{m}_k into two variables

$$\mathbf{m}_k = s_k \mathbf{x}_k,$$

120 where s_k is a scalar in the k -the pixel and \mathbf{x}_k is the normalized chemical phase map which has
121 the sum-to-one property. Then the forward model (1) can be rewritten as

$$\mathbf{y}_k = s_k \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{r}_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, N, \quad (2)$$

122 In other words, we get the matrix form of (2) as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \text{diag}(\mathbf{s}) + \mathbf{R}, \quad (3)$$

123 where $\text{diag}(\mathbf{s})$ represents a diagonal matrix with its diagonal values $\mathbf{s} = [s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N]^T$ and
124 $s_i \geq 0, \forall i \in 1, \dots, N$. The noise term is $\mathbf{R} = [\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N]$. Fig. 1 gives the macro diagram
125 of spectral unmixing for the XANES imaging. With (3), we get an optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{s}} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \text{diag}(\mathbf{s})\|_F^2 \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{s} \geq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{1}, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

126 where $\|\cdot\|_F$ is the Frobenius norm, i.e., $\|\mathbf{Z}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum z_{ij}^2}$ for any \mathbf{Z} . Note that combining \mathbf{X}
127 and \mathbf{s} into a nonnegative least squares problem would lose some prior information on \mathbf{X} itself,
128 especially when \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{s} are independent. In the following, we will utilize the prior information
129 and propose a robust optimization framework under a low exposure time measurement.

130 2.2. Explicit and Implicit Regularizations

131 Regularization is a widely-used technique in image processing to promote sparsity in terms of
132 certain transformations on the image [42, 43]. Here the normalized chemical phase map can be
133 regarded as a group of images and has a piece-wise spatial correlation. Hence, we first adapt
134 a regularization into (4) in a unified framework, and the proposed model can be expressed as
135 follows:

$$\min_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{s}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \text{diag}(\mathbf{s})\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^L \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j) + I_{\Omega_1}(\mathbf{X}) + I_{\Omega_2}(\mathbf{s}), \quad (5)$$

136 where $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ represents a regularization term enforcing prior knowledge of \mathbf{x} . The regularization
137 parameter is represented as λ . Here \mathbf{x}_j is the j -th row in the chemical map \mathbf{X} , and I_{Ω} is the
138 indicator function for the nonnegative value, i.e.,

$$I_{\Omega}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

139 In addition, $\Omega_1 = \{\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{1}\}$ and $\Omega_2 = \{\mathbf{s} | \mathbf{s} \geq \mathbf{0}\}$. Since the sparsity emerges in
140 terms of certain transformations, we define $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_1 \circ \phi_2(\mathbf{x}) := \phi_1(\phi_2(\mathbf{x}))$ where ϕ_1 is the
141 sparse term and ϕ_2 is certain transformations. After splitting the variables, the problem in (6)
142 with auxiliary variables can be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{s}} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{M}\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^L \phi_1(\mathbf{u}_j) + I_{\Omega_1}(\mathbf{W}) + I_{\Omega_2}(\mathbf{t}) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{M} = \mathbf{X} \text{diag}(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{u}_j = \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_j), \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{s}. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

143 and the augmented Lagrangian is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{W}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{F}) = & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{AM}\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^L \phi_1(\mathbf{u}_j) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{X}\text{diag}(\mathbf{s}) - \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{C}\|_F^2 - \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{C}\|_F^2 \\ & + \frac{\rho}{2} \sum_{j=1}^L \|\phi_2(\mathbf{x}_j) - \mathbf{u}_j + \mathbf{d}_j\|_2^2 - \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{d}_j\|_2^2 + \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{E}\|_F^2 - \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{E}\|_F^2 \\ & + \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{t} + \mathbf{g}\|_2^2 - \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{g}\|_2^2, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

144 where $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D} = [\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2, \dots, \mathbf{d}_L], \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{g}$ are dual variables and λ, ρ are positive parameters. Denote
145 $\mathbf{F} = [\mathbf{C}; \mathbf{D}; \mathbf{E}; \text{diag}(\mathbf{g})]$. It's worth noting that λ regulates the influence of the regularization term
146 and significantly affects the unmixing results, whereas ρ is a penalty parameter in the augmented
147 Lagrangian function and only affects the convergence speed. Now, we present two types of
148 regularizations for this unified framework (5).

149 **Explicit Regularization.** We first adapt some explicit regularization in the model (5). In order
150 to promote sparsity prior to the XANES images, $\phi_1(\cdot)$ is denoted by $\|\cdot\|_1$. Here we consider
151 the linear transformations ϕ_2 to project the image into another domain. Note that $\|\phi_2(\mathbf{x}_j)\|_1$
152 becomes total variation [44] if we choose $\phi_2(\cdot)$ as a discrete gradient operator. We apply
153 the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) [45] to solve this model. All these
154 variables are updated alternatively, and the sub-problems' derivation has been included in the
155 Supplement Material. Algorithm 1 summarizes the whole process for solving model (8) with
156 explicit regularization. Moreover, we further the sequence generated by Algorithm 1, which has
157 at least one accumulation point satisfying the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions [46] of (8)
158 with explicit regularization. The proof can be found in Supplementary Material.

159 **Implicit Regularization.** Designing an explicit regularizer can be challenging, as complex
160 regularizers often complicate optimization problems, making the entire process more difficult.
161 Rather than using a handcrafted regularizer, we aim to implicitly leverage prior knowledge about
162 the spectral characteristics of materials in the scene to achieve better regularized unmixing results.
163 In the implicit regularization, $\phi_1(\cdot)$ enforces prior knowledge of \mathbf{X} , while $\phi_2(\cdot)$ represents identity
164 transformation, i.e. $\phi_2(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$. All these variables are updated sequentially, and the solution to
165 the subproblem involving the variables \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{U} , which differs from the explicit regularization,
166 is thoroughly elucidated in the Supplementary Material. In the case of the subproblem \mathbf{u}_j , the
167 \mathbf{u}_j -subproblem is to solve a proximal operator as follows:

$$\mathbf{u}_j^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{u}} \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{u}_j - \mathbf{x}_j^{k+1} - \mathbf{d}_j^k\|_F^2 + \lambda \phi_1(\mathbf{u}_j). \quad (9)$$

168 We define $\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda/\rho}$, it is not difficult to show that (9) is

$$\mathbf{u}_j^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{u}} \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\mathbf{u}_j - \mathbf{x}_j^{k+1} - \mathbf{d}_j^k\|_F^2 + \phi_1(\mathbf{u}_j). \quad (10)$$

169 Treating as $\mathbf{x}_j^{k+1} + \mathbf{d}_j^k$ as the “noisy” image, (10) minimizes the residue between $\mathbf{x}_j^{k+1} + \mathbf{d}_j^k$ and the
170 “clean” image \mathbf{u}_j using the prior $\phi_1(\mathbf{u}_j)$, so (10) can be viewed as a standard image-denoising
171 problem. We employ established and effective denoising operators in the PnP framework
172 iterations, such as the conventional BM3D [47] or DnCNN [48], which utilizes deep learning.
173 To adapt to the variation in noise during each iteration process. we increase $\rho^{k+1} = \gamma_k \rho^k$ for
174 $\gamma_k \geq 1$, it has been used in various problem [49, 50]. Incorporating it into the (9), and define
175 $\sigma^k = \sqrt{\lambda/\rho^k}$ is a parameter controlling the strength of the denoiser. After acquiring the necessary

176 denoising operators, we update the primal and dual variables in the ADMM process, following
 177 Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1: The Framework for TXM-XANES Image Unmixing with Explicit Regularizer and Implicit Regularizer (denoted as RUM_{ex} and RUM_{im}, respectively).

Input: A TXM-XANES image \mathbf{Y} , Dictionary \mathbf{A} .
Output: Phase map \mathbf{X} , Scaling factor \mathbf{s} .

- 1: Initialize: \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{s} and choose parameter ρ , λ and γ .
- 2: **while** not converged or iterations are not reached **do**
- 3: \mathbf{X} is updated by

$$\begin{cases} ((\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{C})\text{diag}(\mathbf{s}) + \sum_{j=1}^L \phi_2^T(\mathbf{u}_j - \mathbf{d}_j) + \mathbf{W} - \mathbf{E})(\text{diag}(\mathbf{s})^2 - \Delta + \mathbf{I})^{-1} & \text{for RUM}_{\text{ex}}, \\ ((\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{C})\text{diag}(\mathbf{s}) + \sum_{j=1}^L (\mathbf{u}_j - \mathbf{d}_j) + \mathbf{W} - \mathbf{E})(\text{diag}(\mathbf{s})^2 + 2\mathbf{I})^{-1} & \text{for RUM}_{\text{im}}, \end{cases}$$
- 4: Normalize \mathbf{X} such that $\mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{1}$,
- 5: $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{I})^{-1}(\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{C}) + \mathbf{t} - \mathbf{g})$,
- 6: $\mathbf{M} \leftarrow (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \rho \mathbf{I})^{-1}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y} + \rho \mathbf{X}\text{diag}(\mathbf{s}) + \rho \mathbf{C})$,
- 7: $\mathbf{U} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \text{shrink}(\phi_2(\mathbf{x}_j) + \mathbf{d}_j, \frac{\lambda}{\rho}), & \text{for RUM}_{\text{ex}} \\ \text{Denoiser}(\mathbf{x}_j + \mathbf{d}_j, \frac{\lambda}{\rho}), & \text{for RUM}_{\text{im}} \end{cases}$
- 8: $\rho \leftarrow \gamma\rho$ for RUM_{im}
- 9: $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \max(\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{0})$,
- 10: $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \max(\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{0})$,
- 11: $\mathbf{C} \leftarrow \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{X}\text{diag}(\mathbf{s}) - \mathbf{M}$,
- 12: $\mathbf{d}_j \leftarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{d}_j + \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_j) - \mathbf{u}_j, & \text{for RUM}_{\text{ex}} \\ \mathbf{d}_j + \mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{u}_j, & \text{for RUM}_{\text{im}} \end{cases}$
- 13: $\mathbf{E} \leftarrow \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{W}$,
- 14: $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \mathbf{g} + \mathbf{s} - \mathbf{t}$.
- 15: **end while**

179 **Remark 1** *Dictionary selection:* The proposed algorithm can quickly and accurately extract
 180 the spectral signal from the XANES imaging data. However, the reference spectra are a critical
 181 component for achieving optimal performance. When the reference spectra are unknown, we
 182 use the conventional spectra extraction method, which is the vertex component analysis (VCA)
 183 [51] as a baseline for dictionary identification. In the real data analysis in Section 3.3, we
 184 demonstrate that using VCA with denoising results in more accurate reference spectra extraction,
 185 particularly in strong-noise environments.

186 3. Experiments and Results

187 In this section, we will evaluate the performance of the proposed methods quantitatively and
 188 visually on both synthetic and actual datasets. Regarding the comparison with different priors,
 189 our methods are divided into two groups: the explicit regularization (RUM_{ex} denoted as total
 190 variation) and implicit regularization (RUM_{im} denotes as PnP with BM3D [47]). More results on
 191 different regularizers and the algorithm behaviors can be found in the Supplementary Material.
 192 These proposed methods will be assessed compared to the traditional methods, namely Edge-50
 193 and LCF.

194 3.1. Experimental Settings and Evaluation Metrics

195 **Data Description.** The dataset presented in Fig. 2 comprises three X-ray projection images
 196 (Particles, Polymer, and Round) and three reconstructed slices (Wedge, Electrode, and Brine),

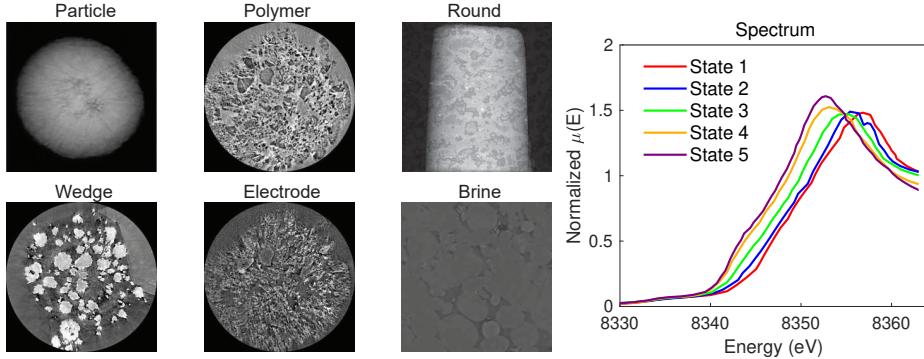


Fig. 2. Left: Typical examples of the test datasets: projections and reconstructed slices; Right: Normalized spectra under different Ni valence states of X-ray XANES in a battery cathode. State 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 represent Ni's different valence states.

which are utilized to create a simulation of 2D and 3D TXM-XANES imaging scenarios. To generate simulated movie data, as shown in Fig. 2, the reference spectra of different Ni valence states are randomly assigned to pixels in the images for various phase maps. The sample is assumed to contain various valence states of Ni elements, and the proportion of Ni elements satisfies the sum-to-one constraint. We describe the state using number $(1, 2, 3, \dots, L)$.

Evaluation Metrics. Each synthetic dataset frame is further corrupted with additive Gaussian noise with varying noise levels, with the standard deviation $\sigma \in [1, 7]$. For the performance assessment of the algorithms, we utilize two commonly used criteria to measure the accuracy of the phase map: the peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR) and the structural similarity index (SSIM). PSNR is defined as follows:

$$\text{PSNR} = 20 \times \log_{10} (\text{MAX}/\text{RMSE}), \quad (11)$$

where MAX is the maximum pixel value of the estimated image $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ across all pixels, and RMSE is the root mean square error between $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ and the ground truth \mathbf{X} . The RMSE is defined as:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1 n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{l=1}^{n_2} \|\hat{x}(i, l) - x(i, l)\|^2}, \quad (12)$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the number of rows and columns in the image \mathbf{X} . We use the estimated phase map $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ and the ground truth \mathbf{X} to calculate PSNR. Then PSNR is calculated by the average of the PSNR of each chemical phase map.

SSIM is a metric that quantifies the similarity between two images, which is calculated by the average of the SSIM of each chemical phase map. The SSIM formula is expressed as follows:

$$\text{SSIM}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}, \mathbf{X}) = \frac{[(2\mu_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}}\mu_{\mathbf{X}} + c_1) * (2\sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{X}} + c_2)]}{[(\mu_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}}^2 + \mu_{\mathbf{X}}^2 + c_1) * (\sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}}^2 + \sigma_{\mathbf{X}}^2 + c_2)]}, \quad (13)$$

where $\mu_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}}$ and $\mu_{\mathbf{X}}$ represent the means of $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ and \mathbf{X} , respectively. $\sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}}$ and $\sigma_{\mathbf{X}}$ denote the standard deviations of $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ and \mathbf{X} , respectively. $\sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{X}}$ is the covariance of $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ and \mathbf{X} , while c_1 and c_2 are small constants added to prevent division by zero errors and stabilize the formula.

3.2. Results of Synthetic Datasets

Different Noise Levels. In this simulation scenario, we assume that each of the six simulated movie image datasets exclusively contains two Ni elements, namely, state 1 and state 2 under

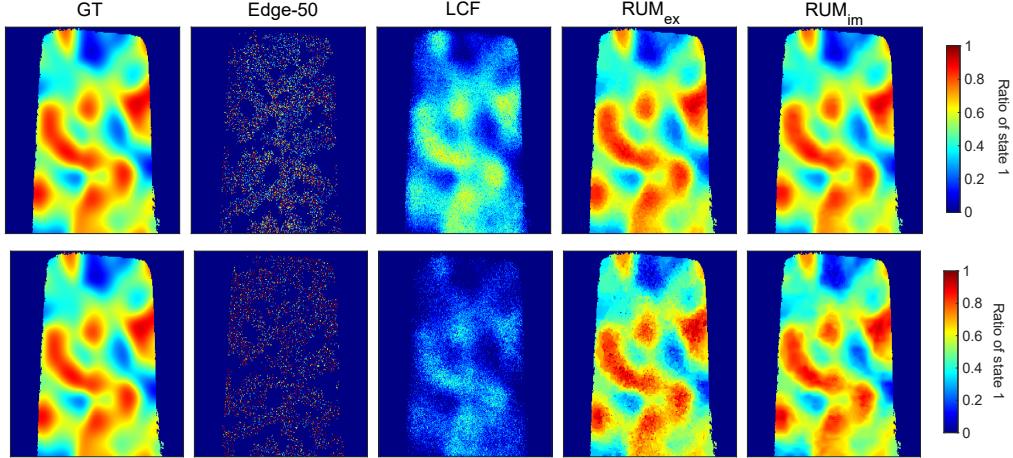


Fig. 3. A visual comparison of the chemical phase map for various methods on the Round data under different noise levels ($\sigma = 3$ on the top and $\sigma = 7$ on the bottom). Note that the other chemical map is the reverse since $L = 2$.

Table 1. Comparison of PSNR (dB) and SSIM in for six simulated datasets using different approaches and noise levels (σ is from 1 to 7).

Test set	σ	Edge-50		LCF		RUM _{ex}		RUM _{im}	
		PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM
Particle	1	8.98	0.10	16.11	0.57	38.22	0.94	42.65	0.98
	3	5.96	0.08	9.33	0.28	32.64	0.87	37.36	0.96
	5	5.73	0.07	6.80	0.22	29.59	0.76	34.39	0.93
	7	5.71	0.07	5.26	0.20	27.63	0.69	31.39	0.87
Electrode	1	9.19	0.23	17.37	0.51	42.39	0.95	46.79	0.99
	3	6.23	0.22	10.00	0.36	38.38	0.92	42.27	0.98
	5	6.01	0.22	7.29	0.35	33.65	0.83	37.97	0.95
	7	5.97	0.21	6.03	0.36	31.51	0.78	35.21	0.92
Polymer	1	11.20	0.23	19.94	0.59	42.36	0.95	47.10	0.99
	3	6.56	0.22	11.86	0.39	37.85	0.89	42.74	0.98
	5	6.07	0.21	8.94	0.35	32.44	0.75	38.53	0.94
	7	5.97	0.21	7.27	0.35	30.00	0.68	34.29	0.86
Wedge	1	10.04	0.23	19.23	0.56	47.26	0.99	51.01	1.00
	3	6.58	0.21	10.97	0.35	38.98	0.93	43.35	0.99
	5	6.23	0.21	8.15	0.34	33.65	0.83	38.14	0.95
	7	6.13	0.21	6.88	0.32	31.41	0.76	34.86	0.89
Round	1	7.06	0.04	12.17	0.50	35.28	0.92	39.58	0.97
	3	4.89	0.01	6.81	0.28	28.53	0.80	34.14	0.94
	5	4.66	0.01	5.06	0.22	26.35	0.70	30.78	0.88
	7	4.63	0.01	3.95	0.19	24.43	0.63	28.19	0.80
Brine	1	10.46	0.03	19.86	0.52	40.34	0.92	45.40	0.97
	3	4.96	0.01	10.54	0.24	35.59	0.83	39.85	0.94
	5	4.59	0.01	7.08	0.18	30.90	0.66	37.01	0.91
	7	4.55	0.01	5.17	0.17	28.52	0.56	33.00	0.80

220 different noise levels. This configuration results in a dictionary composed of two reference
 221 spectra. Consequently, the generated chemical maps illustrate the relative proportions of states
 222 1 and 2, within the chemical material. To enhance clarity, when presenting these phase maps,
 223 each map distinctly portrays the proportion of one Ni element. This approach aligns with the
 224 constraint that the Ni element proportions collectively sum to one. In the case where $L = 2$,
 225 the second phase map showcases the inverse proportions of the elements. Table 1 displays the
 226 performance of both traditional methods and our proposed unmixing methods incorporating
 227 explicit and implicit regularizers with two reference spectra. The optimal results are highlighted
 228 in bold font. Overall, both of our methods outperform traditional techniques across all datasets.
 229 We observed approximately two times improvement in terms of PSNR compared to Edge-50, and
 230 about one time improvement compared to LCF. Our models exhibit remarkable robustness to
 231 a wide range of noise levels, particularly when the noise is substantial, as the chemical map is
 232 still reconstructed effectively. RUM_{im} improves RUM_{ex} by up to 2 dB in terms of PSNR and 0.1
 233 in terms of SSIM under all noise conditions. However, the computational cost is much heavier
 234 than RUM_{ex}; See Supplementary Material. In Fig. 3, we compare the chemical phase maps
 235 of Round data obtained from various approaches under two kinds of noise levels. Except for
 236 Edge-50, we observe that the estimated phase maps are consistent with the ground truth (GT).
 237 However, under strong noise, our proposed methods yield less noisy phase maps closer to GT and
 238 preserve the image details. The Edge-50 and LCF methods are pixel-based and do not consider
 239 the spatial-spectral correlations in XANES images. Our proposed RUM_{ex} method employs fixed
 240 regularizers and lacks flexibility, while the PnP framework models priors using denoiser, thus
 eliminating the need for handcrafted regularizers.

Table 2. Comparison of PSNR (dB) and SSIM using different approaches with varying numbers of the reference spectra (the noise level σ is set as 3).

Test set	L	LCF		RUM _{ex}		RUM _{im}	
		PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM	PSNR	SSIM
Particle	3	13.46	0.52	22.56	0.80	22.64	0.92
	4	13.36	0.48	20.32	0.73	21.23	0.85
	5	13.72	0.48	21.31	0.76	19.45	0.89
Wedge	3	11.47	0.27	24.55	0.74	26.23	0.92
	4	10.66	0.24	18.05	0.61	19.34	0.75
	5	12.62	0.25	19.26	0.66	20.13	0.80

241
 242 **Number of Reference Spectra.** To evaluate the capability of unmixing multiple spectra for
 243 XANES data, we generated two datasets at reference spectra ($L = 3, 4, 5$) when $\sigma = 3$. Here,
 244 different reference spectra represent different valence states of Ni, the phase map represents the
 245 proportions of different Ni valence states within the chemical material. The results of PSNRs
 246 and SSIMs are presented in Table 2, demonstrating our proposed framework's robustness and
 247 superiority. Note that RUM_{im} outperforms RUM_{ex} in most of the cases but the gap becomes
 248 smaller when there are more reference spectra. Additionally, Fig. 4 displays the phase maps of
 249 three reference spectra (Ni valence state 1, 2, 3, respectively.) using Wedge data, the three-phase
 250 maps respectively represent the proportions of state 1, 2, 3 within the Wedge, indicating that our
 251 phase maps are closer to GT. Furthermore, Fig. 5 shows the result with the number of reference
 252 spectra being 5 (Ni valence state 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, respectively), the five-phase maps respectively
 253 represent the proportions of state 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 within the Particle. The phase maps with Particle
 254 data for Ni valence states 1, 2, and 5 obtained RUM method exhibit clearer structural details.

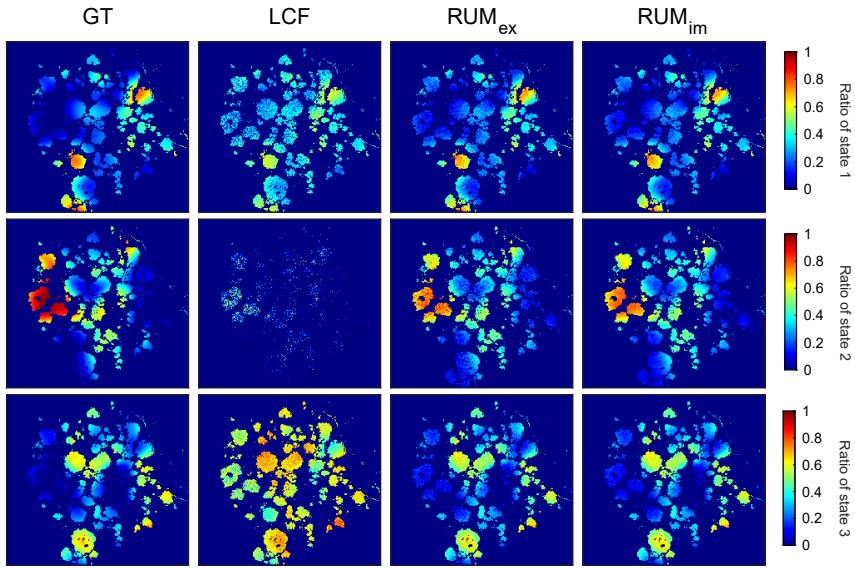


Fig. 4. The visual comparison for the chemical phase maps of the various methods on Wedge data under three reference spectra ($\sigma = 3$). From top to bottom: Ni valence state 1, 2, 3, respectively.

255 However, the structure of the phase map for Ni valence states 3 and 4 is unclear, suggesting a
 256 strong correlation between its reference spectra, and strongly correlated spectra may provide
 257 similar information, making it difficult to accurately distinguish between different components.
 258 Nevertheless, RUM_{im} still outperforms other methods in unmixing multiple spectra.

259 The algorithm 1 framework is based on ADMM which decouples the forward model and
 260 the prior model terms in the optimization procedure. Mathematically, implicit regularization
 261 is designed to impose smoothness in the solution by penalizing the rate of change. In contrast,
 262 explicit regularization directly constrains the solution space, potentially leading to a more
 263 restrictive optimization landscape and may not accommodate the complexities of real-world data
 264 as effectively.

265 3.3. Results of Real Dataset

266 We apply the proposed RUM_{ex} and RUM_{im} methods to unmix real TXM-XANES data. The
 267 data comprises an image of numerous Nickel-Cobalt-Manganese (NCM) particles on a charged
 268 cathode, as shown on the left in Fig. 6. NCM particles were collected from 8180 eV to 8562
 269 eV with varying energy intervals across the Ni K-edge, with spectral sampling of 0.5 eV in the
 270 immediate edge region. The zone plate was adjusted to maintain focus. NCM particles were
 271 recorded at each energy within 0.5 seconds of the sample image to account for changes in flux
 272 and small beam instabilities. The (fully automated) two-dimensional XANES measurement
 273 of a single field of view (FOV) can be accomplished within several minutes. Further time
 274 reduction can be achieved by limiting the number of energy points to the minimum necessary
 275 to discriminate different chemical phases, which, in turn, requires a priori knowledge of the
 276 chemical phases present in the sample. The two chemical phases present (different Ni states)
 277 were fit to XANES spectra of pure Ni.

278 The NCM particle data exhibits an extremely low signal-to-noise ratio, making it challenging
 279 to discern the reference spectra of Ni elements in the range of 8180 eV to 8562 eV under

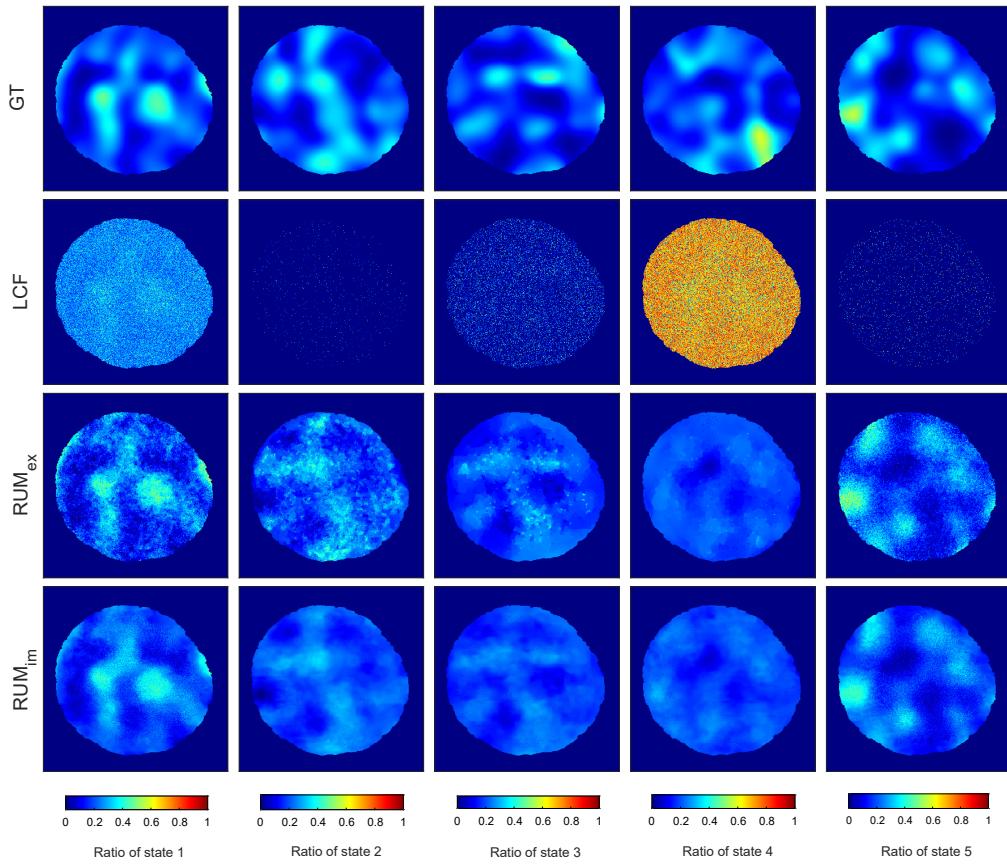


Fig. 5. The visual comparison for the chemical phase maps of the various methods on Particle data under five reference spectra ($\sigma = 3$). From left to right: Ni valence state 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, respectively.

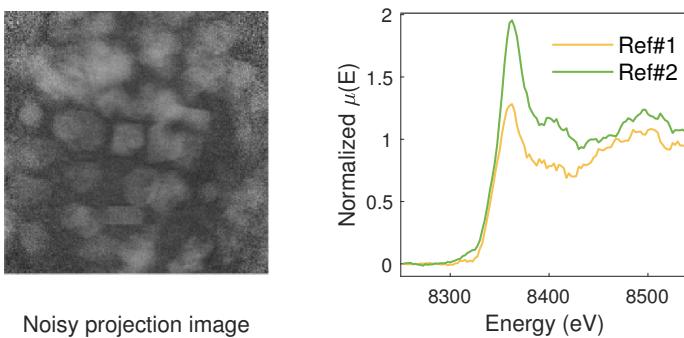


Fig. 6. Low SNR projection image of TXM-XANES recording (left) and the reference spectra dictionary (right).

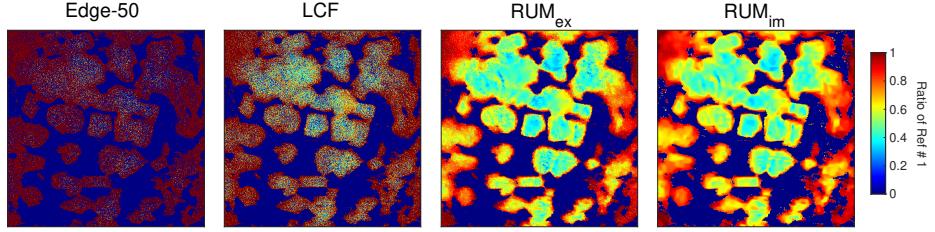


Fig. 7. The visual comparison for the chemical phase map of the various methods on NCM particle under two reference spectra (Ref#1 and Ref#2).

practical conditions. Consequently, we can only determine that it contains Ni at different internal states, similar to the blind unmixing. In order to tackle this challenge, we applied a denoising algorithm [16] to improve the projection images' signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). Following that, we employed the VCA algorithm [51] for dictionary extraction. Figure 6 on the right-hand side illustrates the two reference spectra for the two Ni states extracted by VCA [51] within the range of 8180 eV to 8562 eV. Despite the presence of noise in these extracted reference spectra, our method showcases resilience when working with noisy data. These techniques allowed us to overcome the low SNR and extract valuable information from the NCM particle data.

As shown in Fig. 7, the presented RUM algorithm adeptly discerns the relative proportions of the two Ni elements within the NCM particle structure. In real-world applications, it is customary to employ a linear transformation on the chemical maps that depict the proportions of these Ni elements. This transformation is guided by the absorption edge energies linked to the two reference spectra. The detailed chemical phase map is available in the Supplementary Material. Note that RUM_{ex} has some theoretical guarantee on the convergence while the RUM_{im} shows better unmixing results in the synthetic experiments. On the other hand, due to the high noise levels in each projection image of NCM particles, the chemical phase map obtained using Edge-50 and LCF fails to provide any meaningful information. Our methods simultaneously unmix and denoise the chemical imaging data, avoiding the accumulated error if we split these two processes. Additionally, the chemical phase map of NCM particles indicates an uneven reaction of the battery electrode, with some particles exhibiting a higher Ni valence state and others showing a lower Ni valence state. A major reason is that during the charge and discharge cycles of the battery, nickel ions undergo redox reactions and change between different Ni valence states [52, 53]. The utilization of the RUM unmixing method opens up avenues for enhanced understanding of spatiotemporally electrochemical reactions, enabling more profound insights and facilitating the optimization of composite electrode designs.

4. Conclusion

This paper introduced a robust spectra unmixing framework to extract the chemical phase map signal for the widely-used X-ray imaging technique. Our proposed framework considered variance in spectra and maximized the use of spatial-spectral priors in X-ray microspectroscopy. It outperforms traditional methods significantly when dealing with strong noise and spectral variability. Experimental results showcase substantial improvements when compared to traditional methods, with enhancements of up to 151.84% in PSNR and 136.33% in SSIM in simulated datasets. Additionally, the framework exhibits favorable convergence properties for the explicit regularization, while the implicit regularization performs better. Our future research involves extending the applicability of our model to scenarios with Poisson noise and practical applications where there is a strong correlation among reference spectral signatures. Another direction for our future work is to develop deep learning approaches by adapting the techniques in the 3D

317 chemical imaging reconstruction [54, 55]. Moreover, the denoising operator utilized in our
318 proposed method is not limited to DnCNN. We have the flexibility to leverage more advanced
319 denoising neural networks, including FFDNet [56] and Swin-transformer [57], to further elevate
320 the unmixing performance for X-ray microspectroscopy.

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325 **Data Availability.** Data underlying the results presented in this paper are not publicly available at this
326 time but may be obtained from the authors upon reasonable request.

327 **Supplemental document.** See Supplement 1 for supporting content.

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