

DEBLURSDI: BLIND IMAGE DEBLURRING USING SELF-DIFFUSION

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ABSTRACT

Blind image deconvolution is a challenging ill-posed inverse problem, where both the latent sharp image and the blur kernel are unknown. Traditional methods often rely on handcrafted priors, while modern deep learning approaches typically require extensive pre-training on large external datasets, limiting their adaptability to real-world scenarios. In this work, we propose DeblurSDI, a zero-shot, self-supervised framework based on self-diffusion (SDI) that requires no prior training. DeblurSDI formulates blind deconvolution as an iterative reverse self-diffusion process that starts from pure noise and progressively refines the solution. At each step, two randomly-initialized neural networks are optimized continuously to refine the sharp image and the blur kernel. The optimization is guided by an objective function combining data consistency with a sparsity-promoting ℓ_1 -norm for the kernel. A key innovation is our noise scheduling mechanism, which stabilizes the optimization and provides remarkable robustness to variations in blur kernel size. These allow DeblurSDI to dynamically learn an instance-specific prior tailored to the input image. Extensive experiments demonstrate that DeblurSDI consistently achieves superior performance, recovering sharp images and accurate kernels even in highly degraded scenarios.

1 INTRODUCTION

Image deblurring is a fundamental task in computer vision, aiming to recover a sharp image from a blurred observation. The blur can arise from various sources, such as camera shake, object motion, or defocus, whose degradation model is typically formulated with the convolution between the latent sharp image and the blur kernel. In blind image deconvolution, both image and kernel are unknown and must be jointly estimated from a blurry image alone, which is a particularly challenging ill-posed inverse problem. Traditional blind deblurring methods rely on handcrafted priors, such as gradient sparsity (Fergus et al., 2006) or variational Bayesian frameworks (Levin et al., 2007), and are effective for simple blur scenarios but can be sensitive to complex blurs and noise. In contrast, modern deep learning approaches leverage large-scale datasets to learn complex mappings from blurred to sharp images (Nah et al., 2017; Kupyn et al., 2018; Laroche et al., 2024). However, these methods often require extensive pre-training, which limits their generalization to new blur types or real-world conditions with varying blurring conditions. More recently, a different line of research has emerged that applies the principles of Deep Image Prior (DIP) to this task (Ren et al., 2020). While these methods optimize a randomly-initialized network to fit a single observed image, leveraging its implicit structure as a regularizer without external training data, they are often sensitive to the joint optimization process and require careful adjustment of parameters, such as the kernel size, which poses a significant challenge for practical applications.

In this work, we introduce DeblurSDI, a novel framework that uniquely addresses the challenges of blind image deblurring. Our primary contribution is the reformulation of this ill-posed problem as a zero-shot, reverse self-diffusion process, which allows for dynamic, instance-specific optimization without reliance on large training datasets. To overcome the inherent instability of jointly estimating the image and blur kernel, we introduce a novel noise scheduler for both the image and kernel prior networks. This design is central to our method’s success, providing exceptional robustness to variations in blur kernel size—a significant limitation of prior methods. Through extensive experiments, we demonstrate that DeblurSDI consistently recovers sharp images and accurate kernels.

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2 RELATED WORK

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 056 Blind image deblurring has been extensively studied under probabilistic frameworks, with Variational Bayes (VB) methods being a prominent approach (Fergus et al., 2006). VB-based techniques
 057 model both the latent sharp image and the blur kernel as random variables and estimate their pos-
 058 terior distributions, often incorporating priors for image gradients. A drawback is that they can be
 059 more sensitive to initialization and may converge to local minima, limiting their performance in
 060 challenging scenario. Deep Image Prior (DIP) methods have also been explored, where a randomly-
 061 initialized convolutional network is optimized to fit the blurred image, using the network’s implicit
 062 structure as a regularizer (Ulyanov et al., 2018). These methods can be prone to overfitting to noise
 063 and artifacts if not properly regularized or early-stopped.

064 In recent years, deep learning techniques have emerged as powerful alternatives to traditional VB
 065 and MAP-based blind deblurring methods. Unlike classical approaches that rely on hand-crafted pri-
 066 ors, deep networks are capable of learning complex image statistics and blur distributions directly
 067 from large-scale datasets. Early works, such as multi-scale convolutional networks proposed by
 068 Nah et al. (2017), aim to directly restore sharp images from blurry inputs in an end-to-end fashion,
 069 bypassing explicit kernel estimation. These methods leverage hierarchical features to handle spa-
 070 tially varying blur and have demonstrated significant improvements over conventional approaches in
 071 both qualitative and quantitative evaluations. Another line of research focuses on explicitly predict-
 072 ing the blur kernel using neural networks. Sun et al. (2015) proposed a patch-wise kernel prediction
 073 strategy, where the network estimates local blur kernels that are subsequently used for non-blind
 074 deconvolution. More recent works explore unsupervised or self-supervised learning schemes, incor-
 075 porating cycle-consistency or reconstruction losses to mitigate domain gaps between synthetic and
 076 real-world data Kupyn et al. (2018); Tao et al. (2018).
 077

078 Recently, diffusion models have emerged as powerful generative priors for solving blind image de-
 079 blurring. (Murata et al., 2023) proposed GibbsDDRM, a partially collapsed Gibbs sampler that
 080 alternates between diffusion-based image restoration and analytical updates of the degradation pa-
 081 rameters. (Whang et al., 2022) introduced a stochastic refinement strategy that leverages diffusion
 082 sampling to iteratively improve deblurring quality. (Ren et al., 2023) further extended this line of
 083 work with a multiscale, structure-guided diffusion model that improves convergence and preserves
 084 fine details. More recently, (Laroche et al., 2024) combined diffusion models with an Expectation-
 085 Maximization framework, where the E-step samples the latent sharp image distribution using a
 086 diffusion prior and the M-step updates the blur kernel via a MAP estimation. Overall, deep learn-
 087 ing approaches have demonstrated remarkable performance in blind image deblurring by learning
 088 flexible priors for both latent images and blur kernels. However, their performance can still degrade
 089 when faced with severe blur, unseen motion patterns, or domain shifts between training and test
 090 data.

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3 BLIND DEBLURRING VIA SELF-DIFFUSION

092 This work addresses blind image deblurring by extending the **self-diffusion** framework, a general,
 093 zero-shot approach for solving inverse problems Luo & Huang (2025). The original self-diffusion
 094 method was designed for non-blind problems where the degradation operator is known. Our key
 095 contribution is to adapt this powerful framework to the more challenging blind deconvolution setting,
 096 where the degradation operator—specifically the blur kernel—is also unknown. To achieve this, we
 097 introduce a novel process that jointly recovers the clean image and the blur kernel by optimizing two
 098 coupled, untrained neural networks within a self-contained reverse diffusion process.
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3.1 SELF-DIFFUSION

101 Self-diffusion is a training-free paradigm designed to solve general linear inverse problems of the
 102 form $\mathcal{A}\mathbf{x}_{\text{true}} = \mathbf{y}$, where \mathcal{A} is a known forward operator, \mathbf{x}_{true} is the unknown solution, and \mathbf{y} is
 103 the observation. It operates via an iterative reverse diffusion process that starts from pure Gaussian
 104 noise. At each step t , a noisy version of the current estimate \mathbf{x}_t is created with
 105

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t = \mathbf{x}_t + \sigma_t \cdot \epsilon_t .$$

108 A single, randomly initialized network at the first time step—the denoiser D_θ —is then optimized
 109 continuously by minimizing a data fidelity loss with respect to the original observation \mathbf{y} for each
 110 time step t ,

$$\mathcal{L}_t(\theta) = \|\mathcal{A}D_{\theta,t}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t) - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2.$$

113 The effectiveness of this process stems from a principle known as noise-regulated spectral bias. The
 114 noise schedule σ_t implicitly regularizes the optimization, forcing the network to first learn low-
 115 frequency components and progressively refine high-frequency details in a multi-scale manner.

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117 3.2 JOINT IMAGE AND KERNEL ESTIMATION

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119 The forward model for blind image deblurring is given by

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$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{true}} \circledast \mathbf{k} + n,$$

122 where the sharp image $\mathbf{x}_{\text{true}} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ and the blur kernel $\mathbf{k} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$ are both unknown. To
 123 adapt the self-diffusion framework to this blind setting, we must estimate both variables simulta-
 124 neously. We achieve this by employing two dedicated, randomly initialized networks: an image
 125 denoiser D_θ to restore \mathbf{x}_{true} , and a kernel generator G_ϕ to produce \mathbf{k} . Our method simulates a re-
 126 verse diffusion process over T discrete time steps, starting with random noise for both the image
 127 estimate, \mathbf{x}_T , and the kernel estimate, \mathbf{z}_T . At each time step $t \in \{T, T-1, \dots, 1\}$, the current
 128 estimates are perturbed with scheduled noise,

129

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t = \mathbf{x}_t + \sigma_t \cdot \epsilon_x, \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}}_t = \mathbf{z}_t + \sigma'_t \cdot \epsilon_z,$$

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131 where $\epsilon_x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ and $\epsilon_z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. The noise schedule is $\sigma_t = \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}$, where $\bar{\alpha}_t = \prod_{i=0}^t (1 -$
 132 $\beta_i)$ and $\beta_t = \beta_{\text{end}} + \frac{t}{T-1}(\beta_{\text{start}} - \beta_{\text{end}})$, and $\sigma'_t = \mu \sigma_t$, $\mu = 0.15$. While the standard self-diffusion
 133 loss relies solely on data fidelity, the joint estimation of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{k} is a severely ill-posed problem that
 134 requires additional constraints. Therefore, we augment the loss with an ℓ_1 term for the kernel. The
 135 networks are jointly optimized within an inner loop by minimizing the following objective:

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$$\mathcal{L}_t(\theta, \phi) = \|(D_\theta(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t) \circledast G_\phi(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_t)) - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda_k R(G_\phi(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_t))$$

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140 After the inner optimization loop, the improved networks produce cleaner estimates for the next time
 141 step, $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} = D_\theta(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t)$ and $\mathbf{z}_{t-1} = G_\phi(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_t)$, continuing the coarse-to-fine reconstruction inherent to
 142 the self-diffusion process. The detailed algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1.

143

144 **Algorithm 1** Blind Deblurring using self-diffusion (DeblurSDI)

145 **Require:** Blurry image \mathbf{y} , total steps T , inner iterations S , learning rate η , ℓ_1 weights λ_k

146 1: **Initialize:**

147 2: Image estimate $\mathbf{x}_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$; D_θ with random weights θ

148 3: Kernel estimate $\mathbf{z}_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$; G_ϕ with random weights ϕ

149 4: Adam optimizer for (θ, ϕ)

150 5: Noise schedule σ_t for $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$

151 6: **for** $t = T, T-1, \dots, 1$ **do**

152 7: Sample noise $\epsilon_x, \epsilon_z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$

153 8: Create noisy inputs: $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_t + \sigma_t \cdot \epsilon_x$, and $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_t \leftarrow \mathbf{z}_t + \sigma'_t \cdot \epsilon_z$

154 9: **for** $s = 1, \dots, S$ **do**

155 10: Generate kernel: $\mathbf{k} \leftarrow G_\phi(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_t)$

156 11: Compute denoised image: $\mathbf{x}_t \leftarrow D_\theta(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t)$

157 12: Calculate loss: $\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi) \leftarrow \|\mathbf{x}_t \circledast \mathbf{k} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda_k R(\mathbf{k})$

158 13: Update parameters via gradient descent: $(\theta, \phi) \leftarrow (\theta, \phi) - \eta \nabla_{(\theta, \phi)} \mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi)$

159 14: **end for**

160 15: Update image estimate: $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \leftarrow D_\theta(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t)$

161 16: Update kernel latent code: $\mathbf{z}_{t-1} \leftarrow G_\phi(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_t)$

17: **end for**

18: **return** Reconstructed image $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_0$ and final blur kernel $\mathbf{k} \leftarrow \mathbf{k}_0$

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4 IMPLEMENTATION AND ANALYSIS

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4.1 NETWORK ARCHITECTURE AND TRAINING

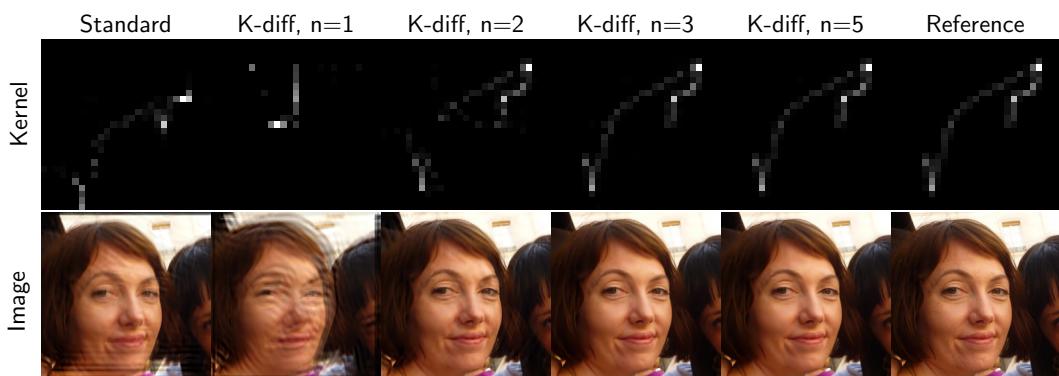
164 Due to the low-dimensional nature of the blur kernel, we employ a fully-connected network (FCN)
 165 to implement the kernel generator, G_ϕ . To ensure the output corresponds to a physical blur kernel,
 166 a softmax activation is applied to the final layer, enforcing non-negativity and a sum-to-one con-
 167 straint. The 1D output of G_ϕ is subsequently reshaped into a 2D blur kernel. Besides, we introduced
 168 standard mode for ablation study where the latent vector z is sampled from a normal distribution
 169 and kept fixed during training, and diffusion mode where the z_t evolves through the self-diffusion
 170 process. K is the kernel size, n is the number of hidden layers and H_d is the hidden dimension size.
 171 Figure 1 shows how the architecture of G_ϕ affects the performance of DeblurSDI. For the image
 172

173 Table 1: The architecture of the kernel generator G_ϕ

174 Mode	175 Layer	176 Specification
177 Standard	Input	$z \in \mathbb{R}^{200} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$
	Hidden layer	Linear(200, 2000); ReLU6
	Output layer	Linear(2000, $K \times K$); Softmax
180 Diffusion	Input	$z_t \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$
	Hidden layer 1	Linear($K \times K$, H_d); ReLU
	Hidden layer 2	Linear(H_d , H_d); ReLU

	Hidden layer n	Linear(H_d , H_d); ReLU
	Output layer	Linear(H_d , $K \times K$); Softmax

186 denoiser D_θ , we employ an encoder-decoder network with skip connections, following a U-Net-like
 187 structure. The network consists of five hierarchical levels. Each level in the encoder path consists
 188 of two convolutional blocks and a stride-2 convolution for downsampling. Correspondingly, the de-
 189 coder path uses bilinear upsampling. Skip connections concatenate features from each encoder level
 190 to the corresponding decoder level. Non-Local Blocks are integrated into the deeper encoder levels
 191 (levels 3, 4, and 5) to capture long-range dependencies. The architecture is detailed in Appendix B.



206 Figure 1: Ablation study on the network for blur kernel estimation. This figure compares the per-
 207 formance of the “Standard” mode against the “Diffusion” mode architecture with a varying number of
 208 hidden layers ($n = 1$ to $n = 5$). The results clearly indicate that increasing the depth of the kernel
 209 generator network leads to a more accurate kernel estimation

210 We use a single Adam optimizer to jointly update the parameters of both the image denoiser, D_θ , and
 211 the kernel generator, G_ϕ . The initial learning rate for the image denoiser D_θ is set to 1×10^{-3} . The
 212 kernel generator G_ϕ uses a lower learning rate, typically 25% of the denoiser’s rate (i.e., 2.5×10^{-4}),
 213 as the small change in the kernel can make a bigger impact on the image. The smaller learning
 214 rate helps stable convergence of the kernel estimate. Furthermore, we employ an optional adaptive
 215 learning rate schedule for the kernel generator. The learning rate is decayed by a factor of 0.95 at

216 the end of each outer time step t , down to a minimum threshold of 1×10^{-5} . The L1 regularization
 217 weight for the kernel prior is set to $\lambda_k = 2 \times 10^{-3}$. The noise level σ_t for the image perturbation
 218 at each step t is determined by a pre-defined variance schedule. Following common practice in
 219 diffusion models, we use a linear schedule where the variance β_t interpolates from $\beta_{\text{start}} = 1 \times 10^{-4}$
 220 to $\beta_{\text{end}} = 2 \times 10^{-2}$ over T steps. The noise level σ_t is then derived from the cumulative product of
 221 these variances.

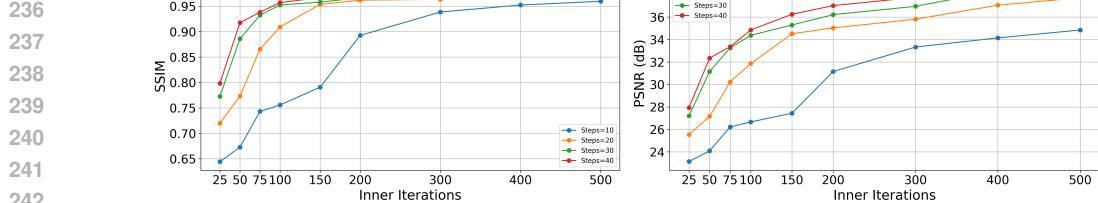
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223 4.2 HYPERPARAMETERS SENSITIVITY

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225 The number of outer diffusion steps T and inner optimization iterations S are two critical hyper-
 226 parameters that directly impact both the reconstruction quality and computational cost. Intuitively,
 227 more diffusion steps allow for a finer coarse-to-fine reconstruction, while more inner iterations en-
 228 able better convergence of the networks at each step. However, increasing either parameter also
 229 leads to longer runtimes. To evaluate the sensitivity of our method to these parameters, we conduct
 230 experiments varying T from 10 to 40 and S from 25 to 500. As shown in Figure 2, performance
 231 improves with higher values of T and S . The most significant gains occur when increasing T from
 232 10 to 30. However, the improvements tend to saturate beyond certain thresholds (e.g., $T = 30$,
 233 $S = 400$), with the performance curve for $T = 40$ closely tracking that of $T = 30$. This indicates
 234 that our approach can achieve strong deblurring performance without requiring excessively high
 235 iteration counts.

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236 Figure 2: Sensitivity of noise steps, T , and inner iterations, S . The graphs show the SSIM (left)
 237 and PSNR (right) scores for different numbers of outer diffusion steps ($T \in \{10, 20, 30, 40\}$) and inner
 238 optimization iterations ($S \in \{25, \dots, 500\}$).

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241 4.3 DEBLURRING PROCESS

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243 Figure 3 shows the evolution of estimates of image and kernel through the deblurring process. The
 244 left and right subfigures shows the SSIM and PSNR between the original image and the reconstruc-
 245 tion over noise steps. The estimates of images and kernels at noise steps 5, 10, 15, 20, 30 are shown
 246 on the top. Unlike traditional optimization processes where evaluation metrics typically increase
 247 monotonically, our curves exhibit an up-down-up behavior (especially for PSNR curve), which is
 248 attributed to the noise scheduling strategy. By injecting noise into intermediate reconstruction re-
 249 sults, we effectively enlarge the search space of the inverse solution. The initial reconstructions
 250 are smooth and lack fine detail, while later steps recover sharper features. This aligns with the
 251 coarse-to-fine nature of self-diffusion.

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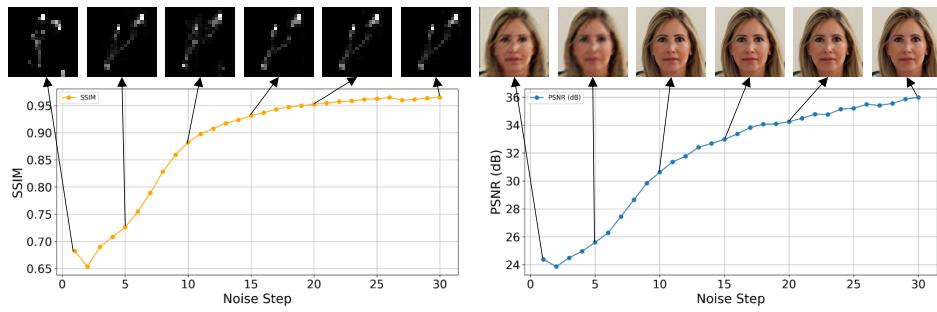
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269 Figure 3: Evolution of image and kernel estimates during DeblurSDI's reverse diffusion process.

4.4 ROBUSTNESS TO KERNEL SIZE

The joint estimation of the image denoiser and the blur kernel often collapses to trivial solutions, such as Dirac kernels or reproducing the blurred image itself, especially when the chosen kernel size is incompatible with the image content. Larger kernels are harder to be recovered accurately, while smaller kernels may fail to capture long-range motion. For this reason, SelfDeblur (Ren et al., 2020) carefully selects the kernel size for each image. In contrast, our method exhibits much greater robustness. As shown in Figure 4, we evaluate ten different kernel sizes from 15 to 33, and compare the performance of several approaches. Our method not only achieves consistently superior performance across all kernel sizes but also demonstrates remarkable stability.

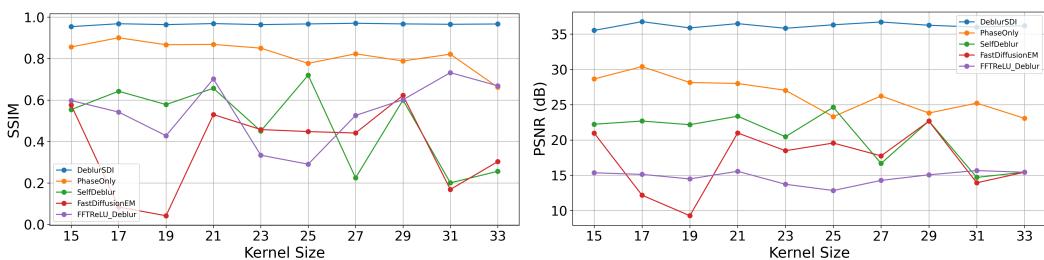


Figure 4: Performance and stability comparison across different kernel sizes. The graphs show the SSIM (left) and PSNR (right) scores for five deblurring methods evaluated on kernel sizes ranging from 15 to 33. Our method, DeblurSDI (blue), consistently achieves the highest scores and demonstrates remarkable stability, with its performance remaining largely unaffected by changes in kernel size. In contrast, other methods exhibit significant volatility, underscoring the superior robustness of our approach.

5 EVALUATION

5.1 DATASET

To systematically evaluate the performance of our method, we collected four datasets including Levin (Levin et al., 2007), Cho (Cho & Lee, 2009), Kohler (Köhler et al., 2012), and FFHQ (Karras et al., 2019). The first three datasets are widely used benchmarks for blind image deblurring, containing various synthetic blur kernels applied to natural images. The FFHQ dataset consists of 20 random selected human face images and 4 blur kernels from Cho (Cho & Lee, 2009). For our experiments, we use $T = 30$ outer reverse diffusion steps. At each step, we run $S = 200$ inner optimization iterations. For each dataset, we use the provided blur kernels and generate blurred images by convolving the sharp images with these kernels to simulate real-world conditions. Each blur kernel is applied to every image in the dataset. The details of our comprehensive datasets are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Details of datasets for evaluation

	Image size	Kernel Size	Pairs
Levin ¹	255×255	(19, 17, 15, 27, 13, 21, 23, 23)	32
Cho ²	622×463, 780×580, 1006×665, 1002×661	(27, 23, 19, 21)	16
Kohler ³	800×800	(16, 14, 9, 13, 29, 17, 19, 98, 102, 62, 40, 29)	36
FFHQ ⁴	256×256	(27, 23, 19, 21)	80
Total	-	-	128

¹(Levin et al., 2007) ²(Cho & Lee, 2009) ³(Köhler et al., 2012) ⁴(Karras et al., 2019)

5.2 COMPARISON WITH OTHER METHODS

We compare our DeblurSDI method with several other blind deblurring approaches, including Phase-Only (Pan et al., 2019), FFT-ReLU Deblur (Al Radi et al., 2025), SelfDeblur (Ren et al., 2020), and FastDiffusionEM (Laroche et al., 2024). We evaluate the performance of each method

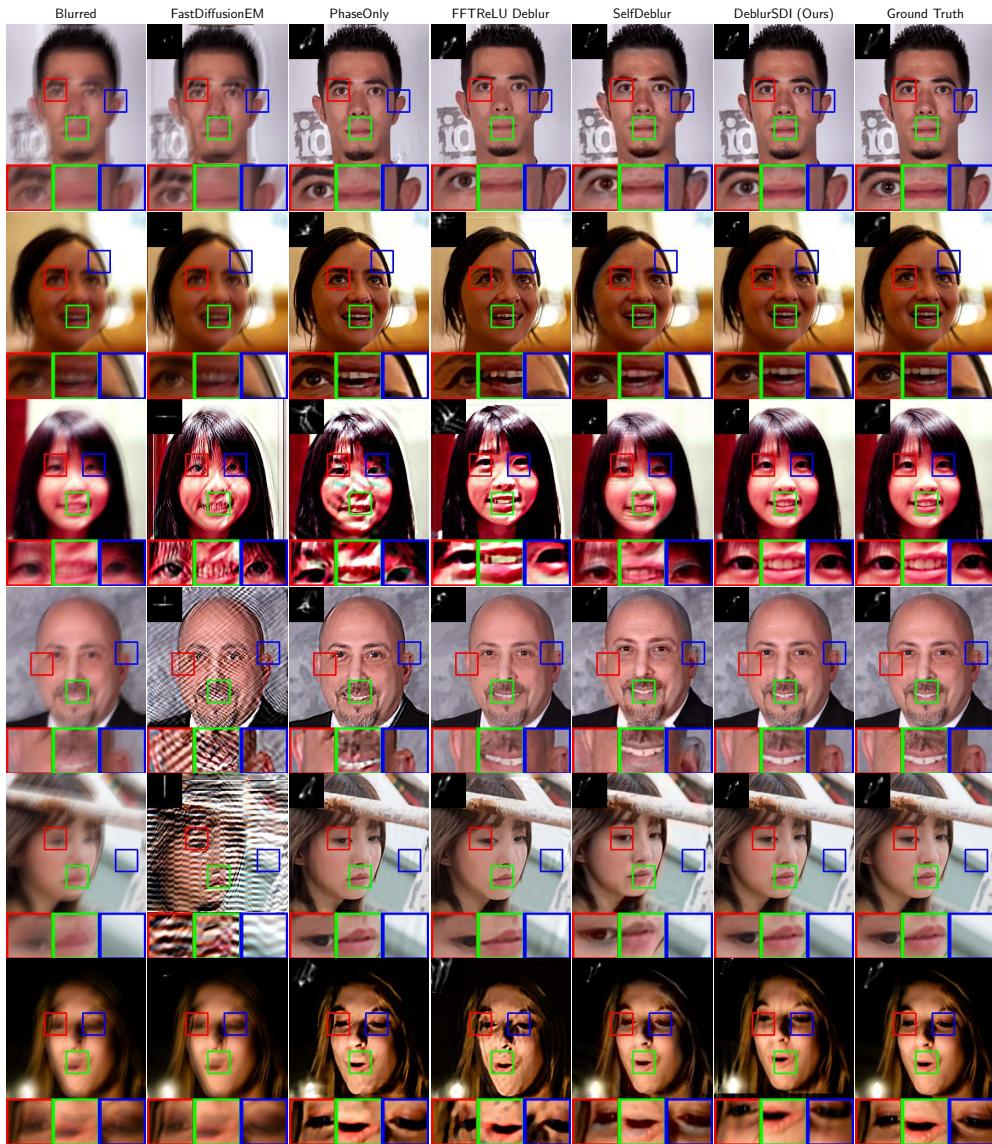
324 using Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) and Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM) on the
 325 four datasets mentioned above. The quantitative results are summarized in Table 3. Rather than
 326 setting specific kernel size for each image (Ren et al., 2020), we set a fixed kernel size for each
 327 dataset, i.e., 27 for Levin, 33 for Cho, Kohler and FFHQ. As shown in the table, our DeblurSDI
 328 consistently outperforms all compared methods across all datasets, achieving significant improvements
 329 in both PSNR and SSIM metrics. This demonstrates the effectiveness and generalizability of our
 330 self-diffusion approach in recovering sharp images and accurate blur kernels.

331 Table 3: Quantitative results of blind deblurring performance (PSNR/SSIM) on four datasets.

	Phase-Only ¹	FFT-ReLU Deblur ²	SelfDeblur ³	FastDiffusionEM ⁴	DeblurSDI (Ours)
Levin ^a	20.68/0.6061	15.56/0.3845	25.06/0.7301	16.55/0.4005	31.85/0.7911
Cho ^b	19.89/0.6746	18.73/0.6546	20.37/0.6844	15.39/0.4687	28.73/0.8859
Kohler ^c	28.23/0.8092	25.33/0.7140	21.97/0.5995	18.85/0.4813	29.17/0.7653
FFHQ ^d	25.80/0.7904	21.71/0.6579	19.82/0.5563	15.59/0.3592	33.90/0.9064

¹ (Pan et al., 2019), ² (Al Radi et al., 2025), ³ (Ren et al., 2020), ⁴ (Laroche et al., 2024)

^a (Levin et al., 2007), ^b (Cho & Lee, 2009), ^c (Köhler et al., 2012), ^d (Karras et al., 2019)



377 Figure 5: Deblurring results on the FFHQ dataset (Karras et al., 2019).

378 Figure 5 shows deblurring results of different methods on the FFHQ dataset (Karras et al., 2019).
 379 For each estimated image, the recovered kernel is displayed at the top-left corner, and three zoomed-
 380 in regions highlight fine details. As observed, FastDiffusionEM (Laroche et al., 2024) performs the
 381 worst. Despite being pre-trained on the FFHQ dataset, its performance remains poor: the estimated
 382 kernels degenerate into trivial point- or line-like structures. Without reliable kernel estimation,
 383 even a strong image prior cannot yield satisfactory deblurring. In contrast, other four optimization-
 384 based methods produce visibly superior results. PhaseOnly (Pan et al., 2019) and FFTReLU Deblur
 385 (Al Radi et al., 2025) provide good results in some cases, but lack of robustness when facing various
 386 blur kernels. SelfDeblur (Ren et al., 2020) shows the most promising performance out of previous
 387 methods, yet still suffers from poor generalizability, reconstruction shifting and color distortion.
 388 The proposed self-diffusion-based DeblurSDI method consistently outperforms all compared
 389 methods, achieving significant improvements in the long-standing shifting and robustness issues
 390 of blind deblurring techniques. Moreover, DeblurSDI is also able to recover accurate blur kernels,
 391 which guarantees the performance of the method. More results of other three datasets can be found
 392 in Appendix C.

393 6 CONCLUSION

394 This paper presents a novel self-diffusion-based approach for blind image deblurring, which we call
 395 DeblurSDI. Our method leverages the self-diffusion principle to recover accurate blur kernels and
 396 sharp images in a single framework. Experimental results on four benchmark datasets show that De-
 397 blurSDI consistently outperforms other blind deblurring methods on various datasets, demonstrating
 398 its effectiveness and generalizability in recovering sharp images and accurate blur kernels.

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A LLM USAGE STATEMENT

We used a large language models only to refine grammar and improve the clarity of language in this manuscript. No part of the research ideation, experiment design, or analysis was performed by an LLM.

B ARCHITECTURE OF THE IMAGE DENOISER (D_θ)

Table 4: The architecture of the image denoiser D_θ , consisting of five encoder units (e_i) and five decoder units (d_i). The form is Conv(input channels, output channels, kernel size).

Layer	Specification
Input	Noisy image $\hat{x}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H \times W}$
Output	Denoised image $x_{t-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H \times W}$
Encoder unit 1	$e_1(\cdot, 128, 3)$
Encoder unit 2	$e_2(128, 128, 3)$
Encoder unit 3	$e_3(128, 128, 3)$
Encoder unit 4	$e_4(128, 128, 3)$
Encoder unit 5	$e_5(128, 128, 3)$
Decoder unit 5	$d_5(128, 128, 3)$
Decoder unit 4	$d_4(128, 128, 3)$
Decoder unit 3	$d_3(128, 128, 3)$
Decoder unit 2	$d_2(128, 128, 3)$
Decoder unit 1	$d_1(128, 128, 3)$
Output layer	Conv(128, C, 1); Sigmoid

C MORE RESULTS

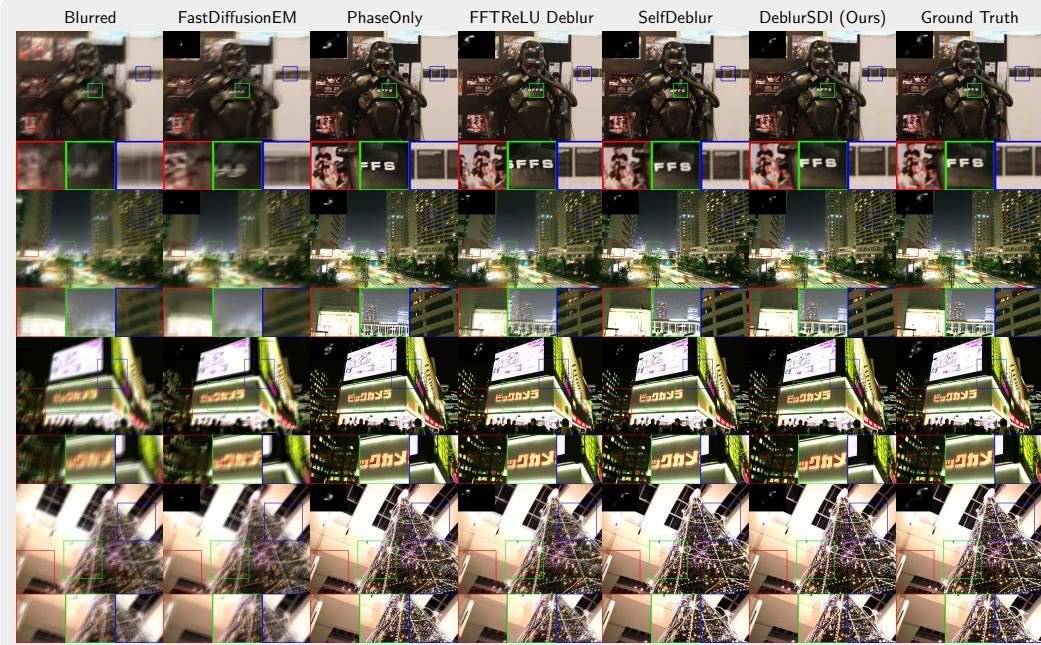


Figure 6: Deblurring results on the Cho dataset (Cho & Lee, 2009).

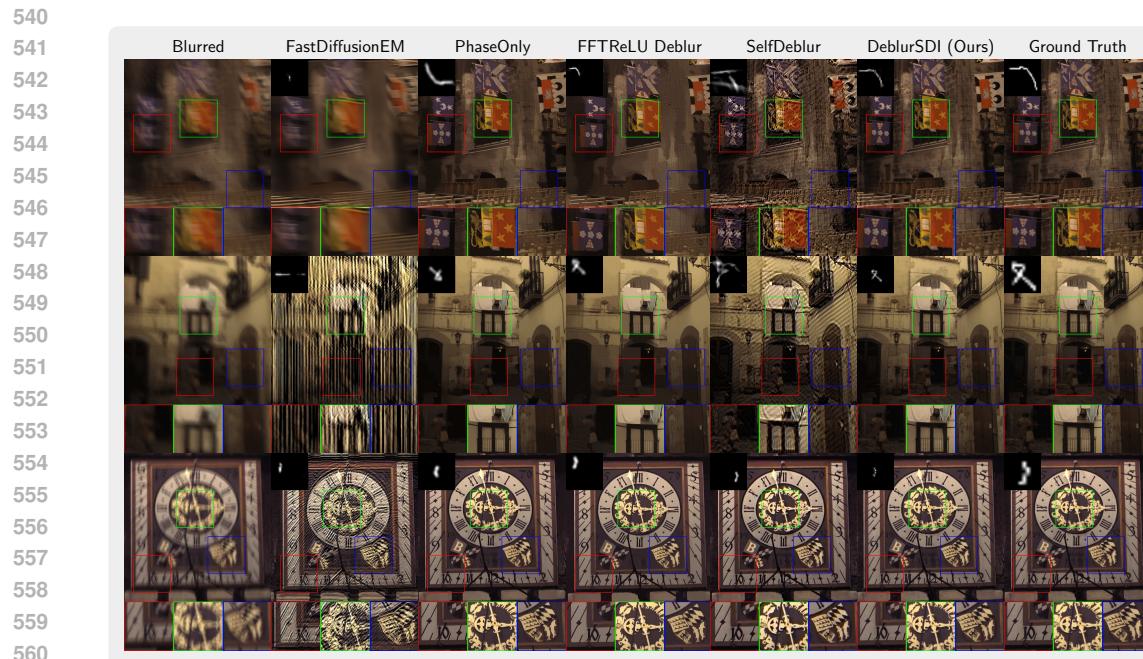


Figure 7: Deblurring results on the Kohler dataset (Köhler et al., 2012).

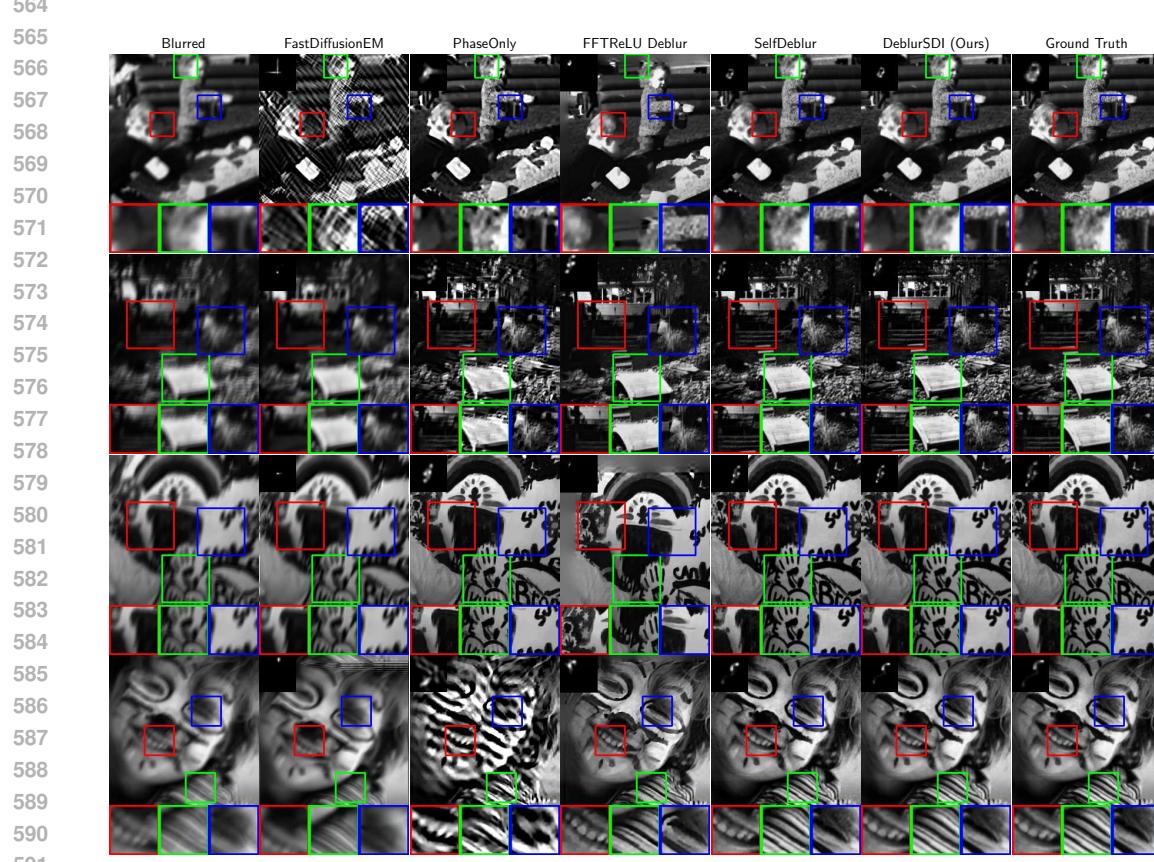


Figure 8: Deblurring results on the Levin dataset (Levin et al., 2007).