CoMoGaussian: Continuous Motion-Aware Gaussian Splatting from Motion-Blurred Images

Supplementary Material

1. Implementation Details

CoMoGaussian is trained for 40k iterations based on Mip-Splatting [12]. We set the number of poses N that constitute the continuous camera trajectory to 9, which indicates that M is 5. The embedding function of Sec. 4.2 is implemented by nn.Embedding of PyTorch, and the embedded features have the sizes of hidden state of 64. The sizes of hidden state of the single-layer encoders \mathcal{E}_r , \mathcal{E}_c , and the singlelayer decoders \mathcal{D}_r , \mathcal{D}_c are also 64. \mathcal{D}_r consists of three head MLPs that extract the screw axis parameters ω and v, along with θ , while \mathcal{D}_c comprises two head MLPs that extract A_c and t_c as described in Sec. 4.3. The neural derivative function f consists of two parallel single MLP layers, where one is designated for the rotation component and the other for the translation component, where f and g share the learnable parameters. To ensure nonlinearity in the camera motion within the latent space, we apply the ReLU activation function to each layer. The CNN $\mathcal F$ consists of two convolutional layers with 32 channels with kernel size of 5×5 for the first layer and 3×3 for the rest one. The pixel-wise weights are obtained by applying a pointwise convolutional layer to the output of \mathcal{F} , and the scalar mask \mathcal{M} is obtained by applying another pointwise convolution to the output of \mathcal{F} . For first 1k iterations, Gaussian primitives are roughly trained without rigid body transformation and CMR transformation. After 1k iterations, those transformations start to be trained without the pixel-wise weight and the scalar mask to allow the initial camera motion path to be sufficiently optimized. After 3k iterations, the pixel-wise weight and the scalar mask start training. We set λ_c , λ_o , and $\lambda_{\mathcal{M}}$ to 0.3, 10^{-4} , and 10^{-3} respectively for the objective function. All experiments are conducted on a single NVIDIA RTX 4090 GPU.

2. Additional Ablation Study

Number of Poses on Camera Motion. We conduct an ablation study on the number of camera poses used to model continuous camera motion, with the results presented in Tab. 1. To validate the effectiveness of the CMR transformation, we perform two separate experiments: one using only the rigid body transformation described in Sec. 4.2, and the other incorporating both the rigid body transformation and the CMR transformation discussed in Sec. 4.3. The trends in the three evaluation metrics with respect to different values of N in Tab. 1 are visualized in Fig. 1.

When using only the rigid body transformation, perfor-

Table 1. Experimental results based on the number of poses N along the camera motion trajectory.

# Cam.	Rigid	Only (Sec	2. 4.2)	Rigid (Se	c. 4.2) + Cl	MR (Sec. 4.3)
	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS(↓)
5	26.60	0.8101	0.1217	26.90	0.8245	0.1073
6	26.94	0.8187	0.1101	27.40	0.8345	0.0996
7	27.08	0.8218	0.1059	27.52	0.8377	0.0925
8	27.08	0.8241	0.1025	27.67	0.8399	0.0865
9	27.19	0.8249	0.1005	27.85	0.8435	0.0822
10	27.29	0.8267	0.0972	27.89	0.8442	0.0814
11	27.36	0.8295	0.0933	27.79	0.8423	0.0833
12	27.43	0.8312	0.0906	27.86	0.8399	0.0826
13	27.57	0.8341	0.0879	27.81	0.8406	0.0813

mance improves almost linearly as N increases across all metrics. Since a motion-blurred image is fundamentally the result of integrating sharp images over time, increasing N allows for a finer discretization of the continuous camera trajectory, leading to better performance. However, numerical integration is inherently discrete, even when the camera motion itself is continuous, which explains why a larger N results in improved accuracy.

Nevertheless, increasing N also leads to a significant rise in computational complexity during training, as each motion-blurred image requires rendering N sharp images. This creates a trade-off: smaller values of N suffer from discretization artifacts, while larger values of N lead to increased computational costs due to multiple renderings. To address this, we introduce the CMR transformation, which adds a small degree of flexibility to the transformation matrix, effectively compensating for the limitations of discretized integration at smaller N.

As shown in Tab. 1 and Fig. 1, when CMR is applied alongside the rigid body transformation, performance saturates at N=9 across all metrics, even surpassing the performance of the rigid body transformation alone at N=13. This demonstrates that the CMR transformation mitigates the limitations of rigid body transformations at lower N and justifies its inclusion in our framework.

Orthogonal Regularization. We conduct a qualitative ablation study on the regularization loss for the orthogonality condition introduced in Sec. 4.3 of the main paper. Although the impact of this loss may appear minor in Tab. 3 of the main paper, a qualitative comparison reveals a noticeable difference.

As shown in Fig. 2, including this regularization results in significantly improved visual quality compared to when

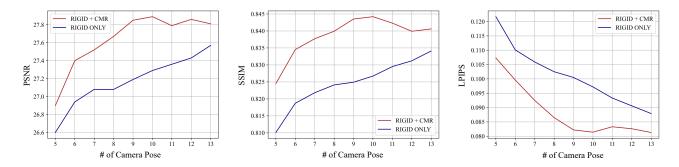
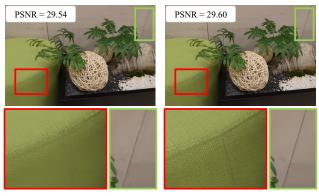


Figure 1. Performance variation based on the number of poses N used to construct the camera motion trajectory.



w/o Orthogonal Regularization

w/ Orthogonal Regularization

Figure 2. Qualitative comparison of results with and without orthogonal regularization. Despite similar PSNR values, the results with regularization capture more fine details.

it is omitted. Without regularization, the 3×3 linear transformation matrix is learned without constraints on shearing and scaling, which leads to unintended distortions. When such unconstrained affine transformations are included, the overall scene structure may still be well captured, but finer details tend to be lost.

By enforcing the orthogonality condition, we restrict the transformation matrix to allow only minimal deviations, preventing excessive distortions. As demonstrated in Fig. 2, while the quantitative performance remains similar, the model captures finer details more effectively, highlighting the importance of this regularization.

3. Difference from SMURF [6]

In this section, we compare our approach with SMURF, a methodology for handling the continuous dynamics of camera motion blur. SMURF utilizes neural ODEs to warp a given input ray into continuous rays that simulate camera motion. However, its continuous dynamics are applied only in the 2D pixel space, lacking the inclusion of higher-dimensional camera motion in 3D space. Additionally, as

SMURF is implemented on Tensorial Radiance Fields (TensoRF) [1], a ray tracing-based method, it exhibits relatively slower training and rendering speeds.

In contrast, our model uses neural ODE to obtain the 3D camera poses which constitue the camera motion trajectory. Our approach incorporates higher-dimensional information compared to SMURF by operating directly in 3D space rather than the 2D pixel space. Furthermore, as our method is implemented on Mip-Splatting [12], a rasterization-based method, it ensures faster training and rendering speeds than SMURF.

4. Camera Pose Visualization

Visualization for Other Estimators. To provide a qualitative evaluation of the camera motion estimators in Tab. 4 of our main paper, we visualize the camera poses generated by the MLP-based and GRU-based estimators in Fig. 3.

Since the MLP estimator does not account for the sequential nature of camera motion, it inherently lacks continuity, resulting in a trajectory that appears discontinuous and inconsistent. While the GRU estimator produces trajectories that seem more continuous, it separately implements GRU cells for forward and backward propagation, causing discontinuities between camera poses along the trajectory.

In contrast, our neural ODE-based estimator ensures a fully continuous camera motion over time, achieving both visually smooth trajectories and superior quantitative performance compared to the MLP and GRU estimators.

Visualization for Sharp Images. We visualize the camera poses to examine how CoMoGaussian's camera trajectory modeling operates on the NeRF-LLFF dataset [9, 10], which consists of sharp images. As shown in Fig. 4, the camera motion trajectory for sharp images remains nearly stationary, demonstrating the generalization capability of our proposed method.

Additional Visualization We visualize the camera motion trajectories for input blurry images predicted by Co-

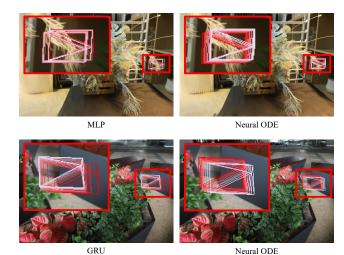


Figure 3. Comparison between the Neural ODE-based estimator and other estimators. Only the Neural ODE-based estimator exhibits a continuous camera trajectory.

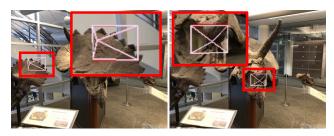


Figure 4. Visualization of camera motion trajectories for sharp images.

MoGaussian in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. Fig. 5 illustrates camera motions for images with significant blur, where the predicted trajectories are continuous over time and align precisely with the input images. Fig. 6 depicts camera motions for images with relatively less blur, where the predicted trajectories show minimal movement, yet still match the input images accurately. These results demonstrate that our blurring kernel effectively models precise continuous camera motion.

Table 2. Comparison of training and rendering speeds across various 3DGS-based methods. * indicates that the speed is identical to that of the corresponding model.

Methods	Training Time (hours)	Rendering Speed
BAD-Gaussians [13]	0.37	*3DGS [2]
Deblurring 3DGS [3]	0.20	*3DGS [2]
BAGS [11]	0.83	*Mip-Splatting [12]
CoMoGaussian	1.33	*Mip-Splatting [12]

5. Training and Rendering Speed

In this section, we compare the training time and rendering speed of our method with recent 3DGS-based approaches. As shown in Tab. 2, CoMoGaussian requires a longer training time compared to other methods. However, given the quantitative results in Tabs. 3 to 5, as well as the qualitative comparisons in our *supplementary videos*, our contributions remain significant. We believe that addressing the limitations discussed in the main paper will enable faster training in the future.

Additionally, since sharp rendering is performed solely using 3DGS [2] or Mip-Splatting [12] without additional modules, our method achieves fast rendering speeds comparable to those of other approaches.

6. Derivation of Rigid Body Motion [7]

In this section, we explain the derivation process for Eq. (9) and Eq. (10) from the main paper. This derivation aims to expand and simplify the process described in Modern Robotics [7] for better clarity and accessibility.

The components of a given screw axis include the unit rotation axis $\hat{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and the translation component $v \in \mathbb{R}^3$. The unit rotation axis consists of the angular velocity ω and the rotation angle θ :

$$\hat{\omega} = \frac{\omega}{\theta}, \quad where \quad ||\hat{\omega}|| = 1.$$
 (1)

We combine the rotation axis $\hat{\omega}$ and the rotation angle θ to represent an element of the Lie Algebra, $\mathfrak{so}(3)$, which serves as the linear approximation of the rotation matrix. Before proceeding, $\hat{\omega}$ is converted into a 3×3 skew-symmetric matrix $[\hat{\omega}]$ to compactly express the cross-product operation as a matrix multiplication:

$$[\hat{\omega}] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\hat{\omega}_z & \hat{\omega}_y \\ \hat{\omega}_z & 0 & -\hat{\omega}_x \\ -\hat{\omega}_y & \hat{\omega}_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathfrak{so}(3), where [\hat{\omega}]^3 = -[\hat{\omega}].$$
(2)

Using the skew-symmetric matrix $[\hat{\omega}]$ and the translation component v, the screw axis [S] is expressed. By multiplying this screw axis with θ , we incorporate the magnitude of the rotation and translation along the screw axis:

$$[\mathcal{S}]\theta = \begin{bmatrix} [\hat{\omega}]\theta & v\theta \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathfrak{se}(3), \tag{3}$$

where $\mathfrak{se}(3)$ represents the Lie Algebra, which corresponds to the infinitesimal changes of the Lie Group SE(3). To map this infinitesimal change to the SE(3) transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}=e^{[\mathcal{S}]\theta}$, we use the Taylor expansion, following these steps:

$$e^{[S]\theta} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [S]^n \frac{\theta^n}{n!}$$
 (4)

$$= I + [S]\theta + [S]^2 \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \cdots$$
 (5)

$$= \begin{bmatrix} I + [\hat{\omega}]\theta + [\hat{\omega}]^2 \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \cdots & \left(I\theta + [\hat{\omega}] \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \cdots\right)v \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^{[\hat{\omega}]\theta} & G(\theta)v \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in SE(3) \tag{7}$$

$$: [S]^n = \begin{bmatrix} [\hat{\omega}]^n & [\hat{\omega}]^{n-1}v \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (8)

For the rotation matrix $e^{[\hat{\omega}]}\theta$, we simplify it using the Taylor expansion and Eq. (2), resulting in:

$$e^{[\hat{\omega}]\theta} = I + [\hat{\omega}]\theta + [\hat{\omega}]^2 \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + [\hat{\omega}]^3 \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + + [\hat{\omega}]^4 \frac{\theta^4}{4!} \cdots$$

$$= I + \left(\theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \cdots\right) [\hat{\omega}] + \left(\frac{\theta^2}{2!} - \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + \cdots\right) [\hat{\omega}]^2$$
(10)

$$= I + \sin \theta [\hat{\omega}] + (1 - \cos \theta) [\hat{\omega}]^2 \in SO(3)$$
(11)

The translational component $G(\theta)$ is also derived using the Taylor expansion and Eq. (2):

$$G(\theta) = I\theta + [\hat{\omega}] \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + [\hat{\omega}]^2 \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + [\hat{\omega}]^3 \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + \cdots$$

$$= I\theta + \left(\frac{\theta^2}{2!} - \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + \cdots\right) [\hat{\omega}] + \left(\frac{\theta^3}{3!} - \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \cdots\right) [\hat{\omega}]^2$$
(13)

$$= I\theta + (1 - \cos\theta)[\hat{\omega}] + (\theta - \sin\theta)[\hat{\omega}]^2 \tag{14}$$

The term $G(\theta)$ physically represents the total translational motion caused by the rotational motion as the rigid body rotates by θ . In other words, $G(\theta)$ indicates how rotational motion contributes to translational motion, which can also be expressed as an integral of the rotation motion:

$$G(\theta) = \int_0^\theta e^{[\hat{\omega}]\theta} d\theta \tag{15}$$

$$= \int_0^\theta \left(I + \sin \theta [\hat{\omega}] + (1 - \cos \theta) [\hat{\omega}]^2 \right) d\theta \qquad (16)$$

$$= I\theta + (1 - \cos\theta)[\hat{\omega}] + (\theta - \sin\theta)[\hat{\omega}]^2 \qquad (17)$$

Through the above process, we derive Eq. (9) and Eq. (10) in the main paper, improving readability of the paper and providing a clear foundation for understanding the mathematical framework.

7. Per-Scene Quantitative Results

We show the per-scene quantitative performance on Deblur-NeRF real-world, synthetic, and ExbluRF real-world dataset in Tab. 3, Tab. 4, and Tab. 5. CoMoGaussian demonstrates superior quantitative performance on most scenes in the real-world dataset.

8. Additional Qualitative Results

We provide additional visualization results in Fig. 7, which demonstrate that our CoMoGaussian outperforms not only in quantitative metrics but also in qualitative performance. For comparative videos, please refer to *the supplementary materials*.

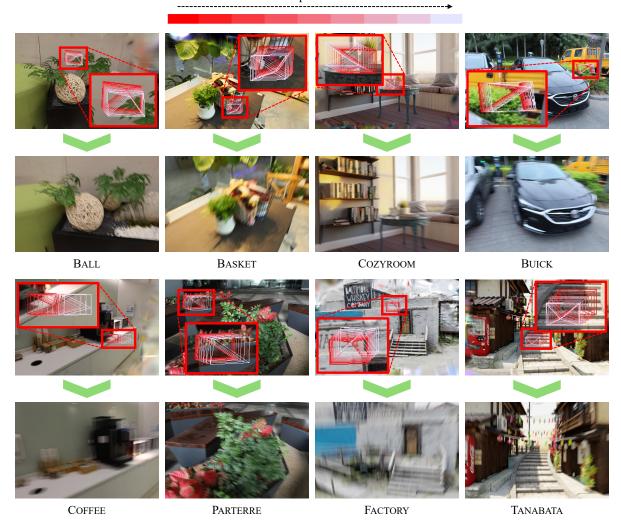


Figure 5. Camera motion trajectory predicted by CoMoGaussian for input images with significant blur.

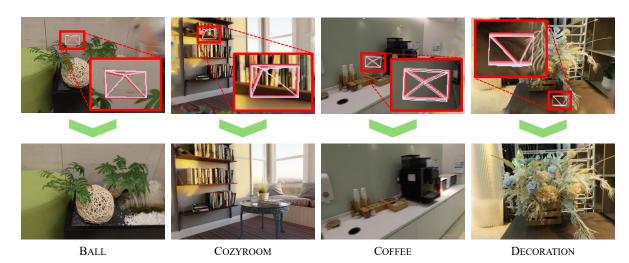


Figure 6. Camera motion trajectory predicted by CoMoGaussian for input images with moderate blur.

Table 3. Per-Scene Quantitative Performance on Deblur-NeRF Real-World Scenes.

Real-World Scene		BALL			BASKET			BUICK			Coffee		Dı	ECORATIO	ON
	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓
Naive NeRF [10] Mip-Splatting [12]	24.08 23.22	0.6237 0.6190	0.3992 0.3400	23.72 23.24	0.7086 0.6880	0.3223 0.2880	21.59 21.46	0.6325	0.3502 0.2660	26.48 24.73	0.8064 0.7490	0.2896 0.2880	22.39 20.55	0.6609 0.6410	0.3633 0.2990
Deblur-NeRF [8] DP-NeRF [4]	27.36 27.20	0.7656 0.7652	0.2230 0.2088	27.67 27.74	0.8449 0.8455	0.1481 0.1294	24.77 25.70	0.7700 0.7922	0.1752 0.1405	30.93	0.8981 0.9049	0.1244 0.1002	24.19 24.31	0.7707 0.7811	0.1862 0.1639
BAD-Gaussians [13] Deblurring 3DGS [3] BAGS [11]	22.28 28.27 27.68	0.6032 0.8233 0.7990	0.2054 0.1413 0.1500	22.02 28.42 29.54	0.7004 0.8713 0.9000	0.1197 0.1155 0.0680	19.95 25.95 26.18	0.6127 0.8367 0.8440	0.1103 0.0954 0.0880	25.58 32.84 31.59	0.7965 0.9312 0.9080	0.0932 0.0676 0.0960	21.11 25.87 26.09	0.6651 0.8540 0.8580	0.1185 0.0933 0.0830
CoMoGaussian	29.60	0.8422	0.1115	30.78	0.9041	0.0761	27.23	0.8502	0.0742	33.04	0.9247	0.0578	26.44	0.8601	0.0891
Real-World Scene		GIRL			HERON			Parterr	Е		PUPPET			STAIR	
Real-World Scene	 PSNR↑		LPIPS↓	 PSNR↑		LPIPS↓	1			 PSNR↑		LPIPS↓	 PSNR↑	STAIR SSIM↑	LPIPS↓
Real-World Scene Naive NeRF [10] Mip-Splatting [12]	PSNR↑ 20.07 19.87		LPIPS↓ 0.3196 0.2780	PSNR↑ 20.50 19.43		LPIPS↓ 0.4129 0.3320	1			PSNR↑ 22.09 22.05		LPIPS↓ 0.3389 0.2670	PSNR↑ 22.87 21.91		LPIPS↓ 0.4868 0.3870
Naive NeRF [10]	20.07	SSIM↑	0.3196	20.50	SSIM↑	0.4129	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	22.09	SSIM↑	0.3389	22.87	SSIM↑	0.4868
Naive NeRF [10] Mip-Splatting [12] Deblur-NeRF [8]	20.07 19.87 22.27 23.33 19.16	SSIM↑ 0.7075 0.7140 0.7976	0.3196 0.2780 0.1687	20.50 19.43 22.63	SSIM↑ 0.5217 0.5050 0.6874	0.4129 0.3320 0.2099	PSNR↑ 23.14 22.28 25.82	SSIM↑ 0.6201 0.5900 0.7597	LPIPS↓ 0.4046 0.3210 0.2161	22.09 22.05 25.24	SSIM↑ 0.6093 0.6310 0.7510	0.3389 0.2670 0.1577	22.87 21.91 25.39	SSIM↑ 0.4561 0.4740 0.6296	0.4868 0.3870 0.2102

Table 4. Per-Scene Quantitative Performance on Deblur-NeRF Synthetic Scenes.

Synthetic Scene		FACTOR	Y	(CozyRoom			Pool			TANABATA			TROLLEY		
	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	
Naive NeRF [10] Mip-Splatting [12]	19.32 18.21	0.4563 0.4234	0.5304 0.4769	25.66 25.25	0.7941 0.7968	0.2288	30.45 30.57	0.8354 0.8483	0.1932 0.1456	22.22 21.54	0.6807	0.3653 0.3075	21.25 20.82	0.6370 0.6388	0.3633 0.3165	
Deblur-NeRF [8] DP-NeRF [4]	25.60 25.91	0.7750 0.7787	0.2687 0.2494	32.08 32.65	0.9261 0.9317	0.0477 0.0355	31.61 31.96	0.8682 0.8768	0.1246 0.0908	27.11 27.61	0.8640 0.8748	0.1228 0.1033	27.45 28.03	0.8632 0.8752	0.1363 0.1129	
BAD-Gaussians [13] Deblurring 3DGS [3 BAGS [11]	. 11	0.3892 0.7333 0.6639	0.1440 0.2326 0.2277	23.50 31.45 32.21	0.7396 0.9222 0.9359	0.0616 0.0367 0.0245	26.90 31.87 28.72	0.7296 0.8829 0.8404	0.1127 0.0751 0.0804	20.54 27.01 26.79	0.6379 0.8807 0.8735	0.0860 0.0785 0.1099	21.26 26.88 26.61	0.6921 0.8710 0.8627	0.0963 0.1028 0.1156	
CoMoGaussian	29.32	0.8971	0.0563	33.34	0.9427	0.0239	32.45	0.8924	0.0705	29.53	0.9273	0.0408	30.45	0.9240	0.0546	

Table 5. Per-Scene Quantitative Performance on the ExbluRF Real-World Scenes.

ExbluRF		BENCH			Camelli.	A		DRAGON	ſ		JARS	
	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓									
Mip-Splatting [12]	24.58	0.5671	0.6190	23.28	0.5151	0.5886	28.65	0.5403	0.7002	24.08	0.5335	0.6094
ExbluRF [5]	24.75	0.5783	0.3003	23.14	0.4925	0.3630	24.26	0.4042	0.5641	22.21	0.4591	0.4213
BAD-Gaussians [13] Deblurring 3DGS [3] BAGS [11]	28.27 30.44 25.40	0.7125 0.7708 0.6142	0.2266 0.2587 0.4962	23.39 26.26 23.29	0.5102 0.6401 0.5177	0.3034 0.3964 0.5450	30.24 30.87 29.06	0.6383 0.6643 0.5577	0.4374 0.5561 0.6738	28.41 27.56 24.00	0.7041 0.6559 0.5402	0.3347 0.4431 0.5534
CoMoGaussian	31.82	0.8011	0.2170	28.53	0.7004	0.2846	31.95	0.7166	0.4476	29.63	0.7351	0.3474
ExbluRF		JARS2			Роѕтвох	[STO	NE LANT	ERN	Sı	JNFLOWE	RS
ExbluRF	 PSNR↑		LPIPS↓	 PSNR↑		LPIPS↓			TERN LPIPS↓	1	JNFLOWE	RS LPIPS↓
			LPIPS↓ 0.5817	 PSNR↑ 23.19						1		
		SSIM↑	0.5817	'	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓
Mip-Splatting [12]	22.10	SSIM↑ 0.5682	0.5817	23.19	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑ 0.6775	LPIPS↓ 0.5020

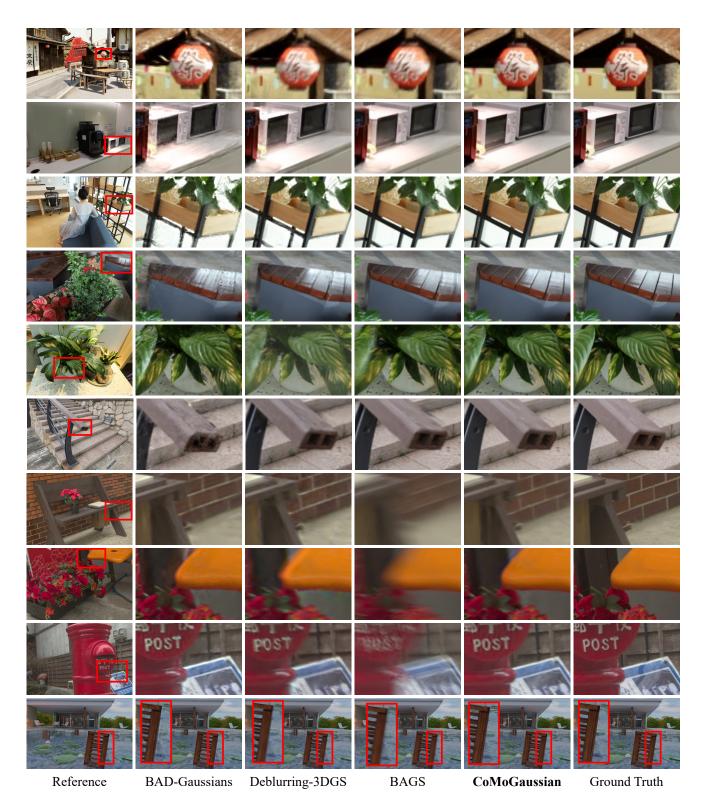


Figure 7. Additional Qualitative Comparison on the Synthetic and Real-World Scenes.

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