FastForensics: Efficient Two-Stream Design for Real-Time Image Manipulation Detection

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Abstract

With the rise in popularity of portable devices, the spread of falsified media on social platforms has become rampant. This necessitates the timely identification of authentic content. However, most advanced detection methods are computationally heavy, hindering their real-time application. In this paper, we describe an efficient two-stream architecture for real-time image manipulation detection. Our method consists of two-stream branches targeting the cognitive and inspective perspectives. In the cognitive branch, we propose efficient wavelet-guided Transformer blocks to capture the global manipulation traces related to frequency. This block contains an interactive wavelet-guided self-attention module that integrates wavelet transformation with efficient attention design, interacting with the knowledge from the inspective branch. The inspective branch consists of simple convolutions that capture fine-grained traces and interact bidirectionally with Transformer blocks to provide mutual support. Our method is lightweight (~ 8M) but achieves competitive performance compared to many other counterparts, demonstrating its efficacy in image manipulation detection and its potential for portable integration.

1 Introduction

The rapid advancement of multimedia tools has greatly enhanced image manipulation techniques, making them more imperceptible and effortless. The abuse of these techniques can create plenty of misinformation and fabrication, raising serious concerns for social trustfulness, such as fake news, economic fraud, and blackmail [53]. In recent years, notable efforts have been made to detect image manipulations, *i.e.*, localizing the manipulated regions [10, 13, 13, 14]. These methods are commonly developed based on strong base models such as advanced Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Transformers, due to their powerful learning ability demonstrated on various tasks. These methods have shown promising detection performance on many datasets, aligning with the current focus of the field on pursuing detection accuracy. However, as image manipulation techniques become more popular and social apps become more prevalent, accuracy alone is no longer the only criterion for detection methods. In practical scenarios where tremendous fabricated media is daily spread over social platforms (*e.g.*, FaceBook, TikTok, etc), it is essential to timely inform users about the authenticity of the media. Existing methods are unlikely to achieve this goal due to their heavy computational requirements, hindering their potential for efficient execution on portable devices.

In this paper, we propose a new efficient two-stream design for real-time image manipulation detection, dubbed as Fast-Forensics, which strikes a better trade-off between performance and efficiency (see Fig. 1). Our method is motivated by the detection process of human brains, which first understands the context and roughly spots the manipulated regions (cognitive view), then looks into the details of manipulated regions (inspective view). To imitate this process, we design two-stream branches corresponding to these two views (see Fig. 2). In the cognitive branch, we propose Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Blocks (EWTB) to capture the global relationships. Compared to the conventional

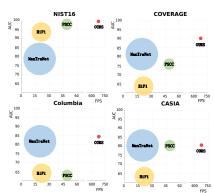


Figure 1: AUC (%), FLOPs (circle area), FPS of different methods. Our method (red circle) strikes a good balance between performance and efficiency.

Transformer block, the proposed block is greatly simplified using feature splitting and shared query and value features (see Fig. 3). Inspired by the effect of frequency in exposing manipulation traces [21, 25], we develop a new Interactive Wavelet-guided Self-Attention (IWSA) module to concentrate more on manipulation traces. This module integrates wavelet transformation into Transformer blocks, with the interaction with the knowledge from the inspective branch (see Fig. 4). The inspective branch is constructed using several depth-wise convolution layers. Due to the local receptive field in convolutions, this branch naturally focuses more on the fine-grained manipulation traces. To mutually boost these two branches, we integrate the intermediate features from the cognitive branch to the inspective branch, to provide more global instruction. Furthermore, the fine-grained knowledge from the inspective branch is then employed to instruct the learning of ETWB, enhancing the self-attention performance in the cognitive branch. Our method is validated on several public datasets and compared to various state-of-the-art counterparts, showing the efficacy and efficiency of our method in detecting image manipulations.

The contribution of this paper is summarised as follows:

- 1. Given the significance of timely detection in the task of image manipulation, we describe a novel method called *FastForensics*, for striking a better trade-off between performance and efficiency. To the best of our method, this field remains largely unexplored, making our method a pioneering contribution in this field.
- 2. We propose a new Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Block (EWTB) that can integrate the wavelet transformation with an efficient and interactive design to highlight the manipulation traces.
- 3. Our method is validated on standard datasets and compared with many state-of-the-

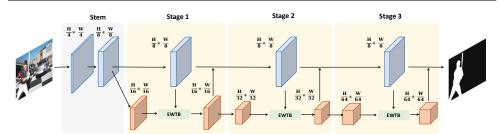


Figure 2: Overview of the architecture of our method. The blue and orange cuboids represent the features from the inspective branch and the cognitive branch. EWTB is denoted as an Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Block.

art counterparts, showing its efficacy and efficiency performance. We also thoroughly study the effect of each module, filling the gap of limited experimental experience in this field.

2 Related Works

Image Manipulation Detection has become increasingly challenging with the advancement of image editing tools and emerging AI-based techniques. To better detect the manipulations, current methods mainly employ sophisticated deep neural networks to learn and extract the traces of manipulation. These methods employ various backbone architectures, ranging from convolutional neural networks [13, 27, 57] to more recent Transformers [23]. For instance, PSCCNet [13] extracts hierarchical features with a top-down path using HRNet and detects whether the input image has been manipulated using a bottom-up path. However, the intermediate process involves high-dimensional feature vectors, introducing more FLOPS. Objectformer [23] combines RGB and frequency features to identify the tampering artifacts based on a Transformer architecture. Although it performs well in accuracy, the Transformer architecture has high computational complexity and resource consumption. Such high computational cost associated with these sophisticated models hinders their deployment on portable devices. Therefore, there is a pressing need to explore the efficiency of image manipulation detection methods.

Efficient Image Semantic Segmentation is a task that aims to efficiently segment regions with different semantic categories, *i.e.*, assigning semantic labels (such as cat, dog, etc) to each pixel $[\square, \square, \square, \square, \square, \square, \square, \square, \square, \square$. This task is similar to our task, as it also assigns labels to pixels, but the difference is that the image manipulation detection task focuses on identifying whether a pixel is authentic or not. Thus both these tasks belong to pixel-wise classification tasks. While it shares similarities with ours in terms of pixel-wise classification, these methods are not directly applicable to our task. This is because they are designed to capture the semantic differences (*e.g.*, cat, dog), whereas our task focuses on extracting subtle manipulation traces that are independent of semantic information. The experiments in Sec. 4 have verified the limitations of directly applying the image semantic segmentation methods to our task. Therefore, in this paper, we propose a dedicated model with an efficient design specifically tailored for image manipulation detection.

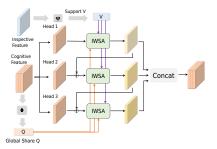


Figure 3: Overview of efficient wavelet-guided Transformer block (EWTB).

Figure 4: Overview of interactive wavelet-guided self-attention (IWSA).

3 Method

3.1 Two-Stream Design

Our method incorporates two branches: the cognitive branch and the inspective branch. The cognitive branch aims to comprehend the context at a glance and determine where the manipulated regions exist. To achieve this, we design Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Blocks (EWTB) that can efficiently capture global frequency-related relationships in manipulations. On the other hand, the inspective branch is composed of simple convolution layers that focus on local detail and extract the specific shape of the manipulated regions. To enhance this branch, we leverage the knowledge extracted from the cognitive branch as priors, which are fused with the inspective features. Similarly, we improve the cognitive branch by incorporating knowledge from the inspective branch, guiding the learning of value features from our proposed Transformer blocks. Then we employ various loss terms to supervise the training process. The overview of our method is shown in Fig. 2.

3.2 Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Block

Motivated by the effectiveness of self-attention [\square] in capturing global information, we adopt the principles of Transformer blocks in the cognitive branch. However, the conventional Transformer block requires large computational resources due to the $O(n^2)$ complexity of self-attention operations, which restricts its direct application to our task. Moreover, the conventional Transformer blocks are designed for traditional vision tasks, prioritizing the extraction of semantic features rather than the subtle manipulation traces. Hence, we propose a new Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Block (EWTB) dedicated to image manipulation detection (see Fig. 3).

Feature Decomposition. In vanilla self-attention [\square], the major computational cost derives from the heavy linear transformations for query, key, and value features. Denote the input feature as *X*, the attention map *X'* can be obtained by

$$H_i = \operatorname{Attn}(XW_i^Q, XW_i^K, XW_i^V), X' = \operatorname{Concat}(H_1, \dots, H_n)W^Q,$$
(1)

where W_i^Q, W_i^K, W_i^V are learnable parameters. To save the computation cost, simplifying the attention calculation is critical. Following [**1**, **1**, **4**], we decompose the input features into different pieces and perform self-attention only on the respective piece, as

$$H_i = \operatorname{Attn}(x_i W_i^Q, x_i W_i^K, x_i W_i^V), \qquad (2)$$

where $X = [x_1, ..., x_n]$ and x_i corresponds to the *i*-th feature piece for calculating the attention within *i*-th head. This decomposition can greatly reduce the computation cost.

Interactive Wavelet-guided Self-Attention. We then describe an Interactive Wavelet-guided Self-Attention (IWSA) module to capture the correlations in manipulation (see Fig. 4).

- Shared Global Oueries. While feature decomposition can greatly save computation costs, the different pieces are fully split, breaking their connections with each other. Thus the attention calculated on each piece can only consider the relationship inside, limiting their ability for global modeling. Considering that queries are important features that can provide sufficient indexing information, we formulate a shared global query for all heads, to better utilize the global information while further reducing the computation costs. Specifically, we generate the queries from the features before feature decomposition. This operation can be formulated as

$$Q = \phi(X), H_i = \text{Attn}(Q, x_i W_i^K, x_i W_i^V), X' = \text{Concat}(H_1, ..., H_n) W^O,$$
(3)

where $\phi(\cdot)$ denotes a convolution operation to transform the input feature into queries. To further improve the capacity, we use cascade connections [11] between adjacent heads to refine the attention maps as $x_{i+1} \leftarrow x_{i+1} + H_i$.

- Wavelet-guided Self-Attention. Previous methods [23, 53] have utilized the frequency domain to uncover manipulation traces. However, these methods lack an in-depth analysis of whether manipulation traces can be reflected in the frequency domain. To verify this, we perform frequency analysis for real and fake images using two manipulation types of splicing and object removal in PSCC [13] dataset. Using these two types is because we can find the image pairs of real and fake. This analysis is performed on the manipulated region using its tight bounding box (red box in the top row) and the corresponding region in the real image. Fig. 5 shows the frequency difference exists between real and manipulated regions.

Note that Fourier Transforms such as DCT operations are widely used to extract frequency information. However, these operations have two main limitations: 1) they focus on the global frequency while neglecting local frequency details; 2) they fail to retain the position information in the transformed frequency domain, which is crucial in the context of attention modeling [1] In contrast, wavelet transformation can analyze the local variation of different subspaces in the frequency domain while retaining the spatial structure of images $[\square]$. Inspired by this, we integrate Wavelet transformation into self-attention

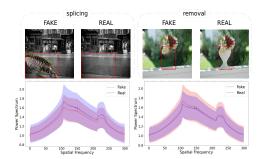


Figure 5: Frequency statistics for real and fake images using splicing and object removal.

to highlight the importance of manipulation traces.

Specifically, the input feature can be transformed by Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT) into four sub-band features, which are the arbitrary combinations of low-pass (L) and highpass (H) filters. Thus we can denote the filtered features as LL, LH, HL, and HH respectively. Each feature focuses on a specific combination of low and high-frequency information. Then we concatenate these sub-band features as the input feature for self-attention. To compensate for the spatial information, we build a skip connection before and after the self-attention. In this connection, we first perform convolutions to further refine the frequency features and utilize the Inverse Discrete Wavelet Transform (IDWT) to recover the spatial information. Then the recovered spatial information is fused with the features after self-attention. This process can be defined as

$$x'_{i} = \text{DWT}(x_{i}), H_{i} = \text{Attn}(Q, x'_{i}W_{i}^{K}, x'_{i}W_{i}^{V}), H'_{i} = H_{i} + \text{IDWT}(\sigma(x'_{i})),$$
(4)

where $\sigma(\cdot)$ denotes a convolution layer. To increase the efficiency, we reduce the dimension of query and key features to half of the value features.

- Inspective Knowledge In. The two branches in our method are highly related, and we believe the knowledge from the inspective branch can provide fine-grained information support for our proposed self-attention module. Considering that the value features in each head represent the content information. We extract the intermediate features from the inspective branch to generate *support value* features, which guides the learning of value features. Denote the corresponding output feature from the inspective branch as Y. The value features in *i*-th head can be updated as $x_i W_i^V \Psi(Y)$, where $\Psi(\cdot)$ denotes operations containing convolution and global average pooling. Thus, the self-attention can be finally expressed as $H_i = \text{Attn}(Q, x'_i W_i^K, x'_i W_i^V \Psi(Y))$

Overall operations. Let the block index be ℓ . Given the input feature X^{ℓ} at ℓ -th block. The operations inside this block can be written as

$$\tilde{X}^{\ell-1} = X^{\ell-1} + \text{EWSA}(\text{LN}(X^{\ell-1})), \ \tilde{X}^{\ell} = \tilde{X}^{\ell-1} + \text{FFN}(\text{LN}(\tilde{X}^{\ell-1})),$$
(5)

where EWSA denotes the proposed efficient wavelet-guided self-attention, LN and FFN correspond to the LayerNorm [1] and the feed-forward network as in [28, 54].

Cognitive Knowledge Out. To promote the learning of fine-grained information, we further fuse the output of this block with intermediate features from the inspective branch, to provide global information priors.

3.3 Network Architecture

Stem Network. We develop a lightweight stem network for extracting task-related features, and these features are then sent to respective branches. In the stem, two convolution layers are first employed. These convolution layers have a kernel size of 3×3 with stride 2, which downsample the input image to a size of 1/4. Then we employ three simple basic residual blocks [**B**]. Each block contains two convolutional layers with a skip connection. The layers in the first blocks have a kernel size of 3×3 with stride 1. For the rest two blocks, the layers have the same kernel size with stride 2 in the first layer. Thus the size of these features after each block becomes $\{1/4, 1/8, 1/16\}$. The corresponding channel number is $\{64, 128, 128\}$ **Cognitive Branch.** This branch consists of three Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer blocks. After each block, we perform a convolution to downsample the features. These features are then upsampled and fused with corresponding features from the inspective branch. The size of features after each block is $\{1/16, 1/32, 1/64\}$, and corresponding channel number is $\{128, 256, 384\}$.

Inspective Branch. This branch contains three residual blocks as used in the stem without downsampling. The input feature of this branch is from the second block in the stem. The size of features after each block is $\{1/8, 1/8, 1/8\}$, and the corresponding channel number is $\{128, 128, 128\}$. The output of each block is subjected to convolution layers to generate support value for the cognitive branch.

Detection Head. To maintain the efficiency of our method, we employ a simple detection head, which only contains two convolution layers with a kernel size of 3×3 and 1×1 .

3.4 Losses

Our method considers three loss terms, a pixel-wise crossentropy loss L_{ce} , a boundary loss L_{bry} , and a position loss L_{pos} (See Fig. 6). The pixel-wise cross-entropy loss L_{ce} is generally employed in this task [\square , \square , \square], aiming to penalize the deviation of each pixel to the ground truth mask. This loss is performed after detection head. The boundary loss L_{bry} and position loss L_{pos} are auxiliary losses to emphasize the importance of the manipulated boundary and position.

input image L_{brv}

Figure 6: Illustration of each loss term.

To calculate the boundary loss L_{bry} , we utilize the Canny filter [3] on the ground truth mask to extract the boundaries and dilate them with kernel size of 4. Then

we design a boundary detection head and employ cross-entropy loss to measure the errors between predicted boundaries and the ground truth boundaries.

The position loss L_{pos} aims to predict the offset of each manipulated pixel to the center of the manipulated region. Denote (x, y) as the coordinates of pixels in a manipulated region, and (cx, cy) denote the center of this manipulated region. The position loss can be formulated as $L_{pos} = \ell_1(x', (x - cx)) + \ell_1(y', (y - cy))$, where x', y' are predicted offset and employ a ℓ_1 loss to measure the offset errors between prediction and ground truth.

The prediction head of L_{bry} and L_{pos} is the same as the detection head in L_{ce} . The overall objective can be expressed as $L_{\text{total}} = \lambda_1 L_{\text{ce}} + \lambda_2 L_{\text{bry}} + \lambda_3 L_{\text{pos}}$, where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ are weight factors for balancing each objective term.

4 Experiments

Datasets and Evaluation Metrics. Our method is validated using four widely used datasets, including CASIA [2], NIST16 [5], Columbia [19], and Coverage [26]. Following the protocols in previous methods [2], we pre-train the models on synthetic data and fine-tune the models on each dataset. The synthetic data used in our method is from [19], and we randomly select a subset of 100,000 images as the pre-train data for all experiments.

Following the widely accepted practices, we adopt pixel-level F1 score and Area Under the receiver operating characteristic Curve (AUC) as our evaluation metrics. F1 and AUC measure the binary classification accuracy for every pixel. Both metrics range in [0, 100] percentage, and higher scores indicate better performances.

Implementation Details. Our method is implemented by PyTorch 1.12 [22]. We follow the evaluation settings for the lightweight segmentation method [29, 52] and conduct tests using general GPUs with Nvidia RTX 3060. In the training phase, we adopt the AdamW optimizer [12] with a weight decay factor 0.025. The initial learning rate is set to 10^{-4} and decays to 10^{-5} by a factor of 10^{-3} . The image size is set to 224×224 . The batch size is set to 64. The total iterations is set to 90,000. The weight factors in the objective are set as $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2, \lambda_3 = 5$.

Results. To ensure the fairness of the experimental comparison, we uniformly use our synthetic data to retrain the methods. Specifically, we retrain two dedicated image manipulation detection methods, PSCC [13] and HiFi-Net [2], and adapt several efficient semantic segmentation methods into our task, including BiSeNetV1 [13], BeSiNetV2 [13], DDRNet [2], SegFormer [23], SegNext [3], EifficientViT [4] and PIDNet [23]. For adaptation, we modify their segmentation head into the manipulation detection head and then pre-trained these methods on our synthetic data. These methods are trained using the same setting as us. Note the methods of ObjectFormer [23], WSCL [16], SAFL-Net [21], and UEN [12] have not released their codes (marked by *). Thus we could not assess their performance in our setting. Instead, we cite their reported scores and assess the FOLPs, Params and FPS of their backbones as the minimum. Specifically, the backbones of these methods are ResNet50 [3], EfficientNetB7 [22], $2 \times$ EfficientB4 and HRNetv2 [24], respectively. ManTraNet [27] has only released its testing code, thus we directly use its pretrained model for evaluation (marked by *). We also include its original report for comparison (marked by *).

Table 1 shows the performance of FLOPs, Parameters, FPS, F1 score (%), and AUC (%) of different methods on four datasets. Note the [↑] denotes the larger value represents better performance and vice versa. From the results, we can see that our method outperforms the dedicated image manipulation methods by a large margin. For instance, compared to PSCC, we averagely improve 18.0% in the F1 score and 11.9% in the AUC score. Since ManTraNet does not provide the evaluation results in the F1 score, we can only compare us with it in the AUC score. It can also be seen that our method notably improves the AUC score by 7.6% on average. Despite PSCC and ManTraNet having fewer parameters than us, their FLOPs are significantly larger due to the sophisticated forward connects in HRNet and LSTM, leading to a slower inference speed. SAFL-Net, ObjectFormer, and UEN are more recent methods that utilize heavy architectures. Although they surpass ours in terms of F1 and AUC, their FLOPs and Params are significantly larger, leading to a much lower FPS than ours. WSCL, a weakly supervised method, exhibits limited performance despite a complex architecture being used. Compared to the adapted semantic segmentation methods, our method has competitive, even fewer parameters and FLOPs, resulting in a best 672 FPS. Moreover, our method surpasses others by 18.6% in F1 score and 6.6% AUC score on average, showing the good balance of our method between performance and efficiency.

Fig. 7 shows more detection results of our method on more challenging images. It can be seen that when the manipulation is imperceptive and semantically harmonious, our method

Method	FLOPs ↓	Params ↓	$\text{FPS} \uparrow$	CASIA		Columbia		NIST16		COVERAGE		Average	
Method	1 201 3 4	i uiuns ↓		$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑								
ManTraNet* [191.07G	3.80M	16	_	81.7	_	82.4	_	79.5	_	81.9	_	81.4
ManTraNet† [🗖]	191.07G	3.80M	16	10.5	77.2	19.1	73.3	7.1	76.3	5.4	73.7	10.5	75.1
PSCC [20.38G	2.75M	48	44.5	80.5	16.4	52.9	68.7	98.2	33.7	76.7	40.8	77.1
HiFi-Net []	82.3G	10.2M	20	17.9	63.7	42.1	62.1	24.6	94.3	23.6	60.2	-	-
WSCL* [>4.12G	>25.6M	$<\!240$	15.3	-	36.2	-	9.9	-	20.1	-	20.4	-
SAFL-Net* [>5.35G	>66M	$<\!\!80$	74.0	90.8	-	96.9	87.9	99.7	80.3	97.0	80.7	96.1
ObjectFormer* [>3.16G	>38M	<120	57.9	88.2	-	95.5	82.4	99.6	75.8	95.7	72.0	94.7
UEN* [>34.6G	>45.2M	$<\!\!48$	62.9	87.7	-	-	93.2	99.6	-	-	78.0	93.6
BeSiNetV1 [2.84G	13.27M	728	33.1	77.9	37.4	89.5	83.1	98.4	37.2	83.3	47.7	87.3
BeSiNetV2 [2.36G	3.34M	600	31.9	75.9	28.4	81.8	82.1	98.0	32.9	77.3	43.8	83.3
PIDNET [🛄]	4.29G	28.53M	432	35.4	75.4	9.1	67.6	87.9	98.4	36.3	77.8	42.2	79.8
SegNeXt [3]	2.93G	13.89M	248	9.4	68.0	33.1	82.7	62.9	94.9	25.2	74.7	32.7	80.1
EfficientViT [1.73G	15.27M	384	35.6	76.0	34.5	83.0	87.0	98.8	39.7	85.5	49.2	85.8
Segformer [🔼]	3.43G	24.72M	208	7.5	72.6	52.7	90.9	59.6	96.4	18.1	81.2	34.5	85.3
DDRNet 🖪	3.57G	20.30M	536	18.6	74.6	41.6	85.9	28.8	82.3	32.5	82.1	30.4	81.2
Ours	2.16G	8.36M	672	44.6	81.9	49.3	84.7	86.5	98.9	54.7	90.6	58.8	89.0

Table 1: Performance of FLOPs, Parameters, FPS, F1 score (%), and AUC (%).

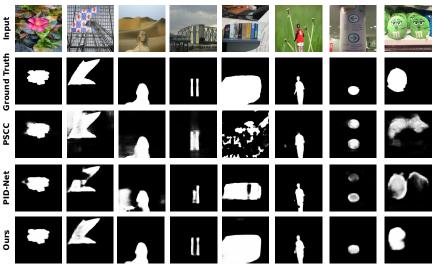


Figure 7: More challenging visual examples.

Table 2: Effect of components.								Table 3: Effect of loss terms.													
WI CO C			SV CASIA		NIST16		COVERAGE $F_1 \uparrow AUC \uparrow$		Average		1	I I.		CASIA		NIST16		COVERAGE $F_1 \uparrow AUC \uparrow$		Average	
WL	зŲ	31	$F_1\uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	L _{ce}	Lbry	Lpos	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑
-	-	-	36.4	78.1	82.8	98.7	39.0	83.2	52.7	86.6	\checkmark	-	-	37.4	79.7	86.4	98.9	38.8	84.1	54.2	87.6
\checkmark	-	-	36.2	80.4	85.4	98.6	38.8	83.0	53.5	87.3	\checkmark	\checkmark	-	41.1	80.7	85.5	98.7	47.8	87.6	58.1	89.0
\checkmark	\checkmark	-	37.6	78.1	81.4	98.7	43.4	86.0	54.1	87.6	\checkmark	-	\checkmark	39.6	81.2	81.3	98.9	42.6	82.8	54.5	87.6
\checkmark	√	\checkmark	44.6	81.9	86.5	98.9	54.7	90.6	61.9	90.4	✓	√	√	44.6	81.9	86.5	98.9	54.7	90.6	61.9	90.4

Tal	ole 4: Effec	ct of EWTB.	
CASIA	NIST16	COVERAGE	

Method	$\overline{F_1 \uparrow \text{AUC}\uparrow}$		1415110		001	LIGIOL	FI OPc	Darame
withiti	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	$F_1 \uparrow$	AUC↑	I LOI 3	1 al allis
Vanilla	31.6	75.4	72.2	97.9	37.5	81.6	6.23G	24.21M
EDTB	40.1	79.8	82.8	98.5	40.8	83.6	2.16G	8.36M
EWTB	44.6	81.9	86.5	98.9	54.7	90.6	2.16G	8.36M

Table 5: Various number of stages.											
				Params							
	2	80.7	98.5	3.85M 8.37M 10.71M	1.86G						
	3	86.5	98.9	8.37M	2.16G						
	4	81.3	98.5	10.71M	2.43G						

can perform better than others to identify these ambiguous regions.

Effect of Each Component. Table 2 shows the performance of our methods using different components. Denote "SQ" as shared global Q, and "SV" as support V from the inspective branch. WL denotes the Wavelet module used in IWSA. By adding WL, the performance is improved by 0.8% (F1) and 0.7% in (AUC). The performance is further improved by 0.6% (F1) and 0.3% (AUC) after adding SQ. By using all components, the performance is notably improved by 9.2% (F1) and 3.8% (AUC) on average.

Effect of Loss Terms. Table 3 studies the effect of each loss term, showing that without using the boundary and position loss terms, the performance is highly degraded by 7.7% (F1) and 2.8% (AUC) on average. Similarly, without using either boundary loss or position loss can both introduce a performance drop by by 7.4% (F1) and 2.8% (AUC), and 3.8% (F1) and 1.4% (AUC) on average. These results demonstrate the importance of predicting the manipulation boundaries and positions.

Effect of EWTB. To better validate the effectiveness of EWTB, we adapt vanilla Transformer blocks (output channel dimension is 768) and DCT into our architecture. Table 4 shows the compared results. It can be seen that our method outperforms the vanilla version

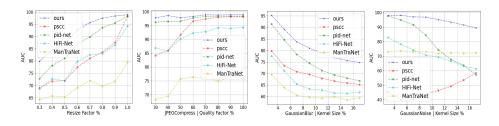


Figure 8: Robustness analysis of different methods.

by a large margin while having fewer FLOPs and Params. Compared to integrating DCT, our method shows better performance, demonstrating the efficacy of using Wavelet transformation.

Various Numbers of Stages. This part studies the effect of stage numbers from 2 to 4. The results in table 5 show that extending or reducing the number of stages can slightly affect the performance. This is likely because the stage number is highly related to the role of the cognitive and inspective branches. When the stage is increased, the model may overfit to a certain distribution. On the other hand, models with fewer stages may not adequately learn the key features required to identify manipulation traces.

Robustness Analysis. To study the robustness, we perform various preprocessing operations on the images, including applying GaussianBlur, performing JPEG compression (JPEGCompress), adding GaussianNoise, and resizing the images (Resize). As can be seen from Fig. 8, our method performs better than others, showing a certain robustness ability against these operations. When confronting the operations of GaussianBlur and GaussianNoise, our method drops notably compared to JPEGCompress and Resize. We conjecture that the manipulation traces are highly reflected around boundaries, and these two operations may largely disturb the image structural information, thus affecting the final results.

5 Conclusion

This paper describes an efficient two-stream design dedicated to real-time image manipulation detection. The architecture comprises a cognitive branch and an inspective branch, designed to capture global and local traces. In the cognitive branch, we introduce the Efficient Wavelet-guided Transformer Block (EWTB) to extract manipulation traces related to frequency from a global view. This block interacts with the inspective branch, aiming to mutually enhance both streams. Experimental results demonstrate the efficacy and efficiency of our method in detecting image manipulations.

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