

A Deep Discriminative Model for Detecting Recolored Images

Mugada.Sri Lakshmi Vani¹; Dasari Leela Bhavani²; NalabothulaVamsiPriya³; AttuluriSai Harshini⁴ and Mekala Sirisha⁵

¹Assistant Professor Department of Information Technology, Andhra Loyola Institute of Engineering and Technology, Vijayawada, AP, INDIA

^{2,3,4,5}UG Students, Department of Information Technology, Andhra Loyola Institute of Engineering and Technology, Vijayawada, AP, INDIA





INTRODUCTION

Every day, millions of pictures are created by a variety of equipment and disseminated by newspapers, television stations, and websites. Several legal and governmentalDigital pictures are used as evidence by government agencies and scientific groups.to make important choices based on particular circumstances Unfortunately, With the advent of low-cost, high-resolution digital cameras, as well as powerful picture editing software, it is now possible to capture moments in time. Image alterations are easy to execute, and detection is straightforward. It is considerably more difficult to detect counterfeit pictures using human eye. This puts digital pictures and photographs at jeopardy.as though they were real-life occurrences As a result, picture forensic methods are used. Detection of falsified pictures is required.

One of the most frequent picture processes in photo editing is image recoloring, often known as colour transferring [1]. In most cases, satisfactory colour algorithms transfer [1]–[3] apply the colour characteristic of a target picture to a source image and provide a recolored output that is indistinguishable to humans. Figure 1 depicts one such case. Figure 1(a) depicts an original picture, whereas Figure 1(b) depicts a recolored image produced using the recoloring technique [4]. With (a), the recolored picture in Figure 1(b) contains three distinct regions: the sky, the sea, and the bridge. In the human visual system, however, both the light blue sky in Figure 1(a) and the deep blue sky in Figure 1(b) are equally genuine. Although well recolored pictures may leave no visible cues, as illustrated in Figure 1(b), they may change the image consistency. Several techniques for picture forensics have been suggested, including splicing [5], copymove [6], and augmentation [7]. Even though changing the colour of an image is one of the most frequent jobs in image processing [1,] there are no forensics techniques specifically developed for colour transference to our knowledge. As a result, methods for detecting recoloring must be developed. We use two consistencies, as well as the original input picture, to determine if an image has been recolored in this study.



Fig. 1. Can you identify which one is recolored? (a) presents an authentic image while (b) is a recolored image generated by [4]. Three different regions in (a) are recolored: the sky region, the sea area and the bridge. Note it is hardly to tell which one is recolored though human vision system.

Network. These resulting inter-channel pictures and illumination map were chosen as inputs because they have the ability to identify forgeries [11], [13]. As a result, in addition to the original input, these derived inputs may offer extra information. To automatically create our training dataset for our proposed network, we utilize three colour transfer techniques [1]–[3]. In addition, we provide a dataset of recolored pictures produced using a range of colour transfer techniques [1]–[4], [14]–[16] and a hand recolored image dataset to test our proposed model.

Previous methods to detecting counterfeit pictures [8–11] have relied on statistical correlations between hand-crafted appearance characteristics in the original and altered images. Stamm et al. [10], for example, demonstrate that pixel value mappings leave artifacts and that enhancement may be detected by looking at the inherent fingerprints in the pixel value histogram. However, hand-designed priors or heuristic cues, which may be less successful for certain pictures, restrict these state-of-the-art techniques. For example, if the pixel value histogram after tampering remains smooth, the technique described in [10] is unlikely to identify manipulated pictures.

We present an end-to-end deep discriminative neural network for distinguishing natural pictures from recolored images, which captures more extensive characteristics, in this article. Inter-channel pictures and illumination maps [12], as well as the input image, are used as inputs in our proposed network.

The following is a summary of the major contributions.

• We're the first to try to tell the difference between recolored and natural pictures.

• For natural pictures that may not hold after the colour transfer process, we examine inter-channel correlation and lighting consistency. We present a deep discriminative model for recoloring detection based on these two characteristics.

• We construct a benchmark dataset consisting of 100 expertly recolored pictures and the matching 100 original photographs for testing, as well as a large-scale and high-quality training dataset for training the proposed network.

The remainder of the paper is laid out as follows. In Section II, we take a quick look at the related work in a few key areas. Section III-C provides an overview of our deep discriminative model, as well as our study of the employed interchannel correlation and illumination consistency. In Sections IV and VI, extensive experimental findings are given. Conclusions are drawn in Section VI.

RELATED WORK

The goal is to train a deep discriminative network to identify color transfer. As a result, in this part, we go through the most important algorithms, such as counterfeit detection techniques and color transfer procedures.

A. Forgery Detection Methods

Active authentication [17]–[22] and passive authentication [10], [11], are two types of forgery detection techniques that aim to validate the validity of pictures.[23].

Data concealing methods are used in active authentication mechanisms. When certain codes are included in the pictures, they are used. Throughout the process of creation These codes are used to double-check everything.to confirm the image's authenticity Authentication that is activeMethods are further divided into two categories: digital watermarking and signatures embedding a watermark, watermarks into pictures during the collection processSome secondary information is included in digital signatures. From the pictures at the conclusion of the acquisition process to the images a lot ofBoth digital watermarking [17] and digital watermarking [18] have been suggested.[19], as well as electronic signatures

[20]–[22]. Two images, for example [19] propose authentication methods for embedding an authentication token. Picture digest based on the half toning method for error diffusioninto the picture in the domain of the Integer Wavelet Transform and respectively, the Discrete Cosine Transform domain. Lu et alet al. [20] use image processing to create a structural digital signature. Content information in the domain of the wavelet transform forimage verification The major disadvantage of these methods is that They must be added at the time of recording, though. As a result, these methods are limited to specifically equipped digital devices. Cameras. Furthermore, previous knowledge is required for an analysis. Procedure for authentication.

Passive authentication, often known as image forensics, is a technique thatThere is no need for previous knowledge. Forensics of digital imagesare predicated on the premise that tampering will change the outcome. Underlying data and determining an image's validityby spotting these discrepancies the majority of algorithms start by dividing. The supplied picture into a series of overlapping blocks of varied sizesform, and then each block's features are extracted. Place. The features are then used to sort the data. Lastly, to identify the faked documents, certain morphological procedures are used. Region. Forgery has been detected using a variety of methods.DWT [24], DCT [25], SVD [26], SIFT [27], and LLE [28] are other examples.as well as HGOM [29]. Techniques that are passive may be further categorized.[5], [6], [30], as well as forgery independent techniques [31]. Methods that are unaffected by forgery are used to detect it.forgeries, regardless of the kind of fake, or may cope with a variety of forgeriesa variety of forgeries For example, consider a uniform framework forChen et al. [31] propose a method for assessing picture fidelity. Utilizingphoto responsenon-uniformity noise, а stochastic fingerprint of imaging sensors Forgery-dependent forgeries, the other on hand, Methods are created to identify a certain kind of forgery. Splicing and copy-move are two examples. Rao et al. [5] have discovered thedue to motion irregularities, the existence of splicingblur. Due to the fact that forgery-dependent techniques are focused on exploiting the these techniques typically are

one-of-a-kind for a particular job.to perform better on a particular counterfeit detection job we suggest a forgery-dependent technique in this paper, intended to detect recoloring

B. Color Transfer Approaches

New and beneficial applications have been made available by recent advancements in digital image processing and enhancement methods. Color modification, for example, puts digital picture dependability to the test by producing high-quality composite recolored images.

Example-based recoloring, which is based on the statistics of colour distribution in pictures, is a popular technique for transferring colour. Reinhard et al. offer a colour transfer technique based on global colour transfer in [1. They use a basic statistical technique to superimpose the colour qualities of one picture onto the colour characteristics of another in the Lab colour space. Color transferring may provide a convincing result in a short amount of time. [14] uses a modified probabilistic model to further enhance this approach. Pitie et al. [3] use aNdimensional probability density function and a postprocessing method to preserve the gradient field of the original picture while performing nonlinear colour changes. Beigpour et al. propose a physical model of picture creation in [2], which they apply to colour transferring, resulting in more realistic results. All of the techniques above need an example picture as input, which we refer to as example-based recoloring.

Another kind of recoloring technique is edit propagation, which involves creating scribbles on various areas and automatically propagating these changes to pixels. First, [32] introduces this method for propagating user modifications. By correctly estimating the affinities between all pixels, An and Pellacini [16] expand this approach. For speeding and conserving memory, Chen et al. [33] propose a sparsity-based edit propagation utilising sparse dictionary learning. Recently, palette-based recoloring techniques have been suggested. Lin et al. [34] created a probabilistic factor graph model to learn the characteristics of sample patterns for colouring 2D patterns. Chang et al. recently published [4], in which they utilise clustering to extract an image's colour palette and develop a helpful tool for recoloring by changing a colour palette.

Although these recoloring techniques may leave no visible traces, they may change the image's fundamental

consistency. In this paper, we use two consistency measures to determine if a picture has been recolored.

OUR PROPOSED METHOD

In this section, we first present an overview including the reason we utilize the neural network and the derived inputs (the Difference Images (DIs) and the Illuminant Map (IM)), followed by the introduction and analysis of two related properties in Section III-B. Then the network architecture and details of our proposed deep discriminative model are given in Section III-C

C. Overview

To integrate the information gathered by evidence estimators, existing forgery detection systems use various description approaches. Every description method, on the other hand, has its own set of restrictions and disadvantages. CNNs have recently gained a lot of traction in picture classification [35], [36] and other computer vision problems [37], [38]. The original image in RGB channels is used as the input in traditional neural networks since it includes information about the picture such as colour and structural characteristics.

In this work, we discover forgery-relevant features using three feature extractors and a feature fusion module. Figure 2 depicts the flowchart of our suggested strategy. Similarly to conventional neural networks, we use the original picture as one of the input branches. We also derive DIs and IM as two pieces of evidence for image recolored detection, based on the fact that pictures may lose inter-channel correlation or illuminant consistency after recoloring. Along with the original picture, these two pieces of evidence are used as two extra input branches. In Section III-C, you'll find network architecture. the Because the learnt characteristics are based on a data-driven method, they may explain the inherent aspects of forgery creation and aid in determining an image's validity. We utilize a feature fusion network to refine forgery-relevant features and output the likelihood of forgery.



Fig. 2. Overview of our proposed approach. Given an image to be judged, the difference images (DIs) and the illuminant map (IM) are calculated firstly. Then the DIs and IM together with the input image in RGB channels are served as the inputs of our deep neural network. The network backbone is based on the VGG network and outputs a two-dimensional vector for distinguishing the input is recolored or not. Detailed configurations are outlined in Table I

authenticity. We test the suggested algorithm on faked pictures produced by different colour transfer techniques as well as photographs gathered from the Internet based on this assumption.

D. Inter-Channel Correlation of Derived Evidences

The colour information of each pixel is acquired via a CFA in most commercial digital cameras, which are equipped with an image sensor, charge-coupled device (CCD), or complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor (CMOS) [39]. The most often used CFA, the Bayer array [40], for example, has four channels: red, blue, and two green channels. The red and blue pixels are sampled on rectilinear lattices, whereas the green pixels are sampled on a quincunx lattice. As a consequence, such cameras' recorded pictures include particular correlations that are likely to be lost after modification. We concentrate on the general correlations across a variety of CFA algorithms rather than studying the characteristic of a single unique CFA pattern. High-frequency components across picture colour channels are highly linked and comparable, according to Gunturk et al. [41]. The correlation coefficients for most pictures vary from

This feature is used to differentiate recolored pictures from DIs. The DIs are officially defined as $I_{c1} - I_{c2}$ where $c1, c2 \in \{R, G, B\}$ and the c2 channel usually employs the green (G) color channel. Take the inter-channel correlation into consideration, the DIs can be given by

$$I_{c1} - I_{c2} = I_{c1}^{l} + I_{c1}^{h} - I_{c2}^{l} - I_{c2}^{h} \approx I_{c1}^{l} - I_{c2}^{l} \approx f_{LPF} \left(I_{c1} - I_{c2} \right)$$
(1)

After going through a low-pass filter, a difference image (DI) from natural pictures is roughly equal to itself, as shown in Equ. (1). As a result of the absence of borders or features, the DIs are smoother than the original colour channels.

Illuminant Consistency.

Over the last decade, illumination consistency has been extensively utilized in forgery detection, particularly for splicing. Geometry-based and color-based techniques are the two major types of illumination-based methodologies.

Inconsistencies in light source locations are sought by geometry-based techniques [45]–[47], whereas inconsistencies in estimated light colour are sought by color-based methods [48]–[50].

In [51], a CNN-based method for estimating the hue of the illuminant in RAW pictures was created.

It may be difficult to maintain illuminant consistency since the changes in pixels in one picture are not precisely equal throughout the colour transfer procedure. As a result, we use illuminant consistency as additional feature in our model.

Our model of discrimination Riess and Angelopoulou et al. suggest an estimate method in which the picture is first segmented into super-pixels of comparable colour, and then an illuminant colour estimator is used for local estimation at each super pixel, as described in [52]. In this paper, we use the same technique to create a new picture named IM.

The input picture's illuminant colour is represented by IM, which is the same size as the original RGB image. The matching estimated illuminant colour at this location is represented by the values at each pixel. Because of the illuminant consistency, the illuminant hues in a neighborhood should be similar. Image recoloring, on the other hand, is unable to preserve illuminant consistency since pixel modifications are not equal.

The illuminant colour estimator in this work is the Generalized Grayworld Estimates (GGE) developed by van de Weijer et al. [12]. The technique is based on the Grey-Edge hypothesis, which states that in a scene, the average edge difference is achromatic.

Let $f(x) = (R(x), G(x), B(x))^T$ denote the RGB value of a pixel at location x For a Lambertian surface, the image values are dependent on the light source.

$$f(x) = \int_{\infty} e(\lambda, x) s(\lambda, x) c(\lambda) d\lambda \qquad (2$$

Van de Weijer et al. proposed to estimate the illuminant color as

$$ke^{n,p,\sigma} = \left(\int \left| \frac{\partial^n \mathbf{f}^{\sigma}(x)}{\partial x^n} \right| dx \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
(3)

It's worth noting that Equation (3) calculates e individually for each colour channel. It is more stable than the grey world algorithm described in [53]. Furthermore, the Minkowski norm favours bigger measurements over smaller ones, resulting in greater specular edge use. Rather of utilising image description methods like Carvalho et al. [11], such as SASI [54], LAS [55], ACC [56], and so on, we use a deep CNNs-based approach to exploit illuminant mismatches among the objects in the picture in this study.

C. Algorithmic Details Network Architecture

The recolored pictures have distinct representations in DIs and IM, as stated in Section III-B.These two characteristics may be used to tell whether a picture has been recolored. As illustrated in Figure 2, given a picture to be evaluated, we compute the DIs and IM for the input using [12]. The original picture in RGB channels, as well as the DIs and IM, are then used as inputs in our network.

The backbone is based on VGGnet [57], a 16-layer model that was published recently. Smaller 3 3 filters are used in the convolutional layers, which outperform bigger filters [57]. Figure 2 depicts the three stages of our

network: feature extraction, fusion, and the final classification process. Using the first three convolutional layers of the VGGnet, we extract the features of each input during the feature extraction phase. This phase is comparable to conventional approaches' description techniques. Distinct inputs have different parameters, which are not shared.

In the fusion phase, we use a concatenate layer to link the features retrieved in the front phase. The next two stages of the VGGnet are then applied to the linked features, followed by two completely connected 4096-dimension layers. This phase is used to replace the feature selection or integration portion of conventional approaches. Finally, a completely integrated system

TABLE I

SPECIFICATIONS OF THE PROPOSED NEURAL NETWORK. EACH CONVOLUTIONAL LAYER IS FOLLOWED BY A RELU LAYER. THE CONVOLUTIONAL LAYER PARAMETERS ARE DENOTED AS "CONV-< Filter Size >-<The Number

| of | channels> |
|----|-----------|
|----|-----------|

| ConvNet Configuration | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|-----------|--|
| DIs | Original image | IM | |
| (224*224) | (224*224 RGB) | (224*224) | |
| conv3-64 | conv3-64 | conv3-64 | |
| conv3-64 | conv3-64 | conv3-64 | |
| maxpool | maxpool | maxpool | |
| conv3-128 | conv3-128 | conv3-128 | |
| conv3-128 | conv3-128 | conv3-128 | |
| maxpool | maxpool | maxpool | |
| conv3-256 | conv3-256 | conv3-256 | |
| conv3-256 | conv3-256 | conv3-256 | |
| conv3-256 | conv3-256 | conv3-256 | |
| maxpool | maxpool | maxpool | |
| concat | | | |
| conv3-512 | | | |
| conv3-512 | | | |
| conv3-512 | | | |
| maxpool | | | |
| conv3-512 | | | |
| conv3-512 | | | |
| conv3-512 | | | |
| FC-4096 | | | |
| FC-4096 | | | |
| FC-2 | | | |
| Soft-max | | | |

The classification phase consists of a two-dimensional vector output layer and a soft-max layer. In Section IV, we'll go through the efficiency of our suggested method in depth. In addition, Table I shows the planned network's particular configurations. The parameters of

37

the convolutional layer are indicated as "conv-<filter size>-<the number of channels>" inTable I. For example, the kernel size and output channels ofconv3-64 are 3 × 3 and 64, respectively

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Training Data. The training set is an essential component of the network.

The target picture and the source image are chosen at random from the VOC PASCAL 2012 dataset using a colour transference method. Three distinct colours are used in this project.

To produce training, the transferring techniques [1]–[3] are used.data. Some examples of recolored pictures are shown in Figure 3. These techniques provide results. As far as our recoloring detection is concerned, we require a balance between the two in a binary classification job. In training data, there are both positive and negative instances. In this project, given an original picture, we choose one at random. To create the recolored picture, use the recoloring technique. Therefore, the ratio of good to negative instances is one. Which of the following is the most suitable for binary classification? The neural network is an artificial intelligence system.

```
In [27]: from PIL import Image
from scipy.ndimage import filters
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import ds
import glob
import numpy as np
from keras.preprocessing import image
```

Found 54 images belonging to 2 classes. Found 54 images belonging to 2 classes.



(b)Recolored Image of (a)

FIG. 3. Training sample. First, there is an interior picture. Then, there are three recolored pictures produced using techniques [1]-[3], respectively. The images may be difficult to discern if no annotations are present.Despiteutilizing 224 224 patches, × our technique is capable of tackling a full-frame picture. In order to get the whole picture, we start by cropping an image to obtain 224×224 overlapping sections.We will evaluate the clipped 224 × 224 segments separately. The picture is deemed recolored if one of the clipped sections is determined to be recolored by our network.

CONCLUSION

In this work, we present a novel deep learning approach for recolored image detection. Both the inter-channel correlation and the illumination consistency are employed to help the feature extraction. We elaborate design principle of our RecDeNet and the systematically validate the rationality by running a number of experiments. Furthermore, two recolored datasets with different sources are created and the high performance of our RecDeNet demonstrates the effectiveness of the model. We hope our simple yet effective RecDeNet will serve as a solid baseline and help future research in recolored images detection. Our future work will focus on designing a more effective network architecture and searching for somehigh-level cues for better distinguishing.

REFERENCES

[1] E. Reinhard, M. Ashikhmin, B. Gooch, and P. Shirley, "Color transferbetween images," IEEE Computer Graphics Applications, vol. 21, no. 5, pp. 34–41, 2001.

[2] S. Beigpour and J. van de Weijer, "Object recoloring based on intrinsicimage estimation," ICCV, 2010.

[3] F. Pitie, A. C. Kokaram, and R. Dahyot, "Automated colour gradingusing colour distribution transfer," Comput Vis Image Underst, pp. 123–137, 2007.

[4] H. Chang, O. Fried, Y. Liu, S. DiVerdi, and A. Finkelstein, "Palettebased photo recoloring," ACM Transactions on Graphics (Proc. SIGGRAPH), vol. 34, no. 4, 2015.

[5] M. P. Rao, A. N. Rajagopalan, and G. Seetharaman, "Harnessing motionblur to unveil splicing," IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security, vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 583–595, 2014.

[6] G. Muhammad, M. Hussain, and G. Bebis, "Passive copy move imageforgery detection using undecimated dyadic wavelet transform," DigitalInvestigation, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 49–57, 2012.

[7] G. Cao, Y. Zhao, R. Ni, and X. Li, "Contrast enhancement-basedforensics in digital images," IEEE

Transactions on Information Forensicsand Security, vol. 9, no. 3, pp. 515–525, 2014.

[8] X. Pan and S. Lyu, "Region duplication detection using image featurematching," IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security,vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 857–867, 2010.

[9] X. Zhao, J. Li, S. Li, and S. Wang, "Detecting digital image splicingin chroma spaces," in Digital Watermarking - International Workshop=,2010, pp. 12–22.

[10] M. C. Stamm and K. J. R. Liu, "Forensic detection of image manipulation using statistical intrinsic fingerprints," IEEE Transactions onInformation Forensics and Security, vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 492–506, 2010.

[11] T. J. de Carvalho, F. A. Faria, H. Pedrini, R. da S. Torres, and A. Rocha, "Illuminant-based transformed spaces for image forensics," IEEE Transactions Inf. Forensics Security, vol. 11, no. 4, 2016.

[12] J. van de Weijer, T. Gevers, and A. Gijsenij, "Edge-based color constancy," IEEE Transactions Image Process, 2007.

[13] J. S. Ho, O. C. Au, J. Zhou, and Y. Guo, "Inter-channel demosaickingtraces for digital image forensics," in IEEE International Conference on

Multimedia and Expo, 2010, pp. 1475–1480.

[14] F. Pitie and A. C. Kokaram, "The linear monge-kantorovitch linearcolour mapping for example-based colour transfer," IETCVMP, pp. 1–9,

2007.

[15] M. Grogan, M. Prasad, and R. Dahyot, "L2 registration for colourtransfer," European Signal Processing Conference, 2015.
[16] X. An andF.Pellacini, "Appprop: all-pairs appearance-space edit propagation," ACM Transactions on Graphics, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 15–19,2008.

[17] R. Chamlawi, A. Khan, and I. Usman, "Authentication and recovery ofimages using multiple watermarks," Computers and Electrical Engineering, vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 578–584, 2010.

[18] G. S. Spagnolo and M. D. Santis, "Holographic watermarking forauthentication of cut images," Optics and Lasers in Engineering, vol. 49, no. 12, pp. 1447–1455, 2011.

[19] L. Rosales-Roldan, M. Cedillo-Hernandez, M. Nakano-Miyatake, H. Perez-Meana, and B. Kurkoski, "Watermarking-based image authentication with recovery capability using halftoning technique," Signal

Processing Image Communication, vol. 28, no. 1, p. 6983, 2013. [20] C. S. Lu and H. Y. M. Liao, "Structural digital signature for imageauthentication: an incidental distortion resistant scheme," IEEE Transactions on Multimedia, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 161–173, 2003.

[21] X. Wang, J. Xue, Z. Zheng, Z. Liu, and N. Li, "Image forensic signature for content authenticity analysis," Journal of Visual Communication and Image Representation, vol. 23, no. 5, pp. 782–797, 2012.

[22] M. Sengupta and J. Mandal, "Authentication through hough transformation generated signature on g-let d3 domain," Procedia Technology,vol. 10, pp. 121–130, 2013.

[23] Z. P. Zhou and X. X. Zhang, "Image splicing detection based onimage quality and analysis of variance," in International Conferenceon Education Technology and Computer, 2010, pp. 242–246.

[24] C.-M. Pun, X.-C.Yuan, and X.-L. Bi, "Image forgery detection usingadaptive oversegmentation and feature point

matching," IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security, vol. 10, no. 8, pp. 1705–1716, 2015.

[25] Y. Cao, T. Gao, L. Fan, and Q. Yang, "A robust detection algorithm forcopy-move forgery in digital images," Forensic science international,vol. 214, no. 1, pp. 33–43, 2012of variance," in International Conference on Education Technology and Computer, 2010, pp. 242–246.

[26] J. Zhao and J. Guo, "Passive forensics for copy-move image forgeryusing a method based on dct and svd," Forensic science international,vol. 233, no. 1, pp. 158–166, 2013.

[27] L. Jing and C. Shao, "Image copy-move forgery detecting based on localinvariant feature." Journal of Multimedia, vol. 7, no. 1, 2012.

[28] Z. Junhong, "Detection of copy-move forgery based on one improvedlle method," in 2nd International Conference on Advanced ComputerControl, vol. 4, 2010, pp. 547–550.

[29] C.-M. Hsu, J.-C.Lee, and W.-K. Chen, "An efficient detection algorithmfor copy-move forgery," in 10th Asia Joint Conference on InformationSecurity, 2015, pp. 33–36.

[30] Y. Guo, X. Cao, W. Zhang, and R. Wang, "Fake colorized imagedetection," IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security,vol. 13, no. 8, pp. 1932–1944, 2018.

[31] M. Chen, J. Fridrich, M. Goljan, and J. Lukas, "Determining image origin and integrity using sensor noise."IEEE Transactions on InformationForensics and Security, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 74–90, 2008.

[32] A. Levin, D. Lischinski, and Y. Weiss, "Colorization using optimization," in ACM transactions on graphics, vol. 23, no. 3, 2004, pp. 689–694.

[33] X. Chen, D. Zou, J. Li, and X. Cao, "Sparse dictionary learning foredit propagation of high-resolution images," in IEEE Conference onComputer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2014, pp. 2854–2861.

[34] S. Lin, D. Ritchie, M. Fisher, and P. Hanrahan, "Probabilistic color-bynumbers: Suggesting pattern colorizations using factor graphs," ACMTransactions on Graphics, vol. 32, no. 4, p. 37, 2013.

[35] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton, "Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks," in International Conferenceon Neural Information Processing Systems, 2012, pp. 1097–1105.

[36] C. Szegedy, W. Liu, Y. Jia, P. Sermanet, S. Reed, D. Anguelov, D. Erhan,V. Vanhoucke, and A. Rabinovich, "Going deeper with convolutions," in Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and patternrecognition, 2015, pp. 1–9.

[37] W. Ren, S. Liu, H. Zhang, J. Pan, X. Cao, and M.-H. Yang, "Singleimage dehazing via multi-scale convolutional neural networks," inEuropean Conference on Computer Vision, 2016, pp. 154–169.

[38] W. Ren, L. Ma, J. Zhang, J. Pan, X. Cao, W. Liu, and M.-H. Yang, "Gated fusion network for single image dehazing," in

IEEE Conferenceon Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2018.

[39] G. K. Birajdar and V. H. Mankar, "Digital image forgery detection usingpassive techniques: A survey," Digital Investigation, vol. 10, no. 3, pp226–245, 2013.

[40] B. E. Bayer, "Color imaging array," 1976, uS Patent 3,971,065.

[41] B. K. Gunturk, Y. Altunbasak, and R. M. Mersereau, "Color planeinterpolation using alternating projections," IEEE Transactions on ImageProcessing, vol. 11, no. 9, pp. 997–1013, 2002.

[42] J. E. Adams and J. F. Hamilton, "Adaptive color plane interpolation insingle sensor color electronic camera," 1997, uS Patent 5,629,734.

[43] X. Wu and N. Zhang, "Primary-consistent soft-decision color demosaicking for digital cameras," IEEE Transactions Image Process, vol. 13,no. 9, pp. 1263–1274, 2004.

[44] D. D. Muresan and T. W. Parks, "Demosaicing using optimal recovery,"IEEE Transactions Image Process, vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 267–278, 2005.

[45] M. K. Johnson and H. Farid, "Exposing digital forgeries by detecting inconsistencies in lighting," in The Workshop on Multimedia and Security, New York, Ny, Usa, 2005, pp. 1–10.
[46] --, "Exposing digital forgeries through specular highlights on theeye," in International Conference on Information Hiding, 2007, pp. 311–325.

[47] W. Fan, K. Wang, F. Cayre, and Z. Xiong, "3d lighting-based imageforgery detection using shape-from-shading," in Signal Processing Conference, 2012, pp. 1777–1781.

[48] S. Gholap and P. K. Bora, "Illuminant colour based image forensics," in TENCON 2008 - 2008 IEEE Region 10 Conference, 2008, pp. 1–5.

[49] C. Riess and E. Angelopoulou, "Scene illumination as an indicatorof image manipulation," in International Conference on InformationHiding, 2010, pp. 66–80.

[50] X. Wu and Z. Fang, "Image splicing detection using illuminant colorinconsistency," in Third International Conference on Multimedia Information NETWORKING and Security, 2011, pp. 600–603.

[51] S. Bianco, C. Cusano, and R. Schettini, "Single and multiple illuminantestimation using convolutional neural networks," IEEE Transactions onImage Processing, 2017.

[52] C. Riess and E. Angelopoulou, "Scene illumination as an indicator of image manipulation," Proc. Inf. Hiding Workshop, vol. 6387, pp. 66–80,2010.

[53] G. Buchsbaum, "A spatial processor model for object colour perception," Journal of the Franklin Institute, vol. 310, no. 1, pp. 1–26, 1980.

[54] A. arkacolu and F. Yarman-Vural, "Sasi: a generic texture descriptorfor image retrieval," Pattern Recognition, vol. 36, no. 11, p. 26152633,2003.

[55] B. Tao and B. W. Dickinson, "Texture recognition and image retrievalusing gradient indexing," Journal of Visual Communication and ImageRepresentation, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 327–342, 2000.

[56] J. Huang, S. R. Kumar, M. Mitra, W. J. Zhu, and R. Zabih, "Imageindexing using color correlograms," in IEEE Conference on ComputerVision and Pattern Recognition, 1997, pp. 762–768.

[57] K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman, "Very deep convolutional networks forlarge-scale image recognition," Computer Science, 2014.

[58] A. Gijsenij, T. Gevers, and J. Van De Weijer, "Improving color constancyby photometric edge weighting," IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysisand Machine Intelligence, vol. 34, no. 5, pp. 918–929, 2012.

[59] B. Bayar and M. C. Stamm, "A generic approach towards imagemanipulation parameter estimation using convolutional neural networks," in Proceedings of the 5th ACM Workshop on Information Hiding andMultimedia Security, 2017, pp. 147–157.

[60] M. Goljan, J. Fridrich, and R. Cogranne, "Rich model for steganalysisof color images," in Information Forensics and Security, 2014, pp. 185–190.

asuais2 nt.