

Multimedia Data and Security

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The detection of manipulation of multimedia data can be categorized as active and passive approaches.¹ The active approaches use source information, such as watermarks and digital signatures. For instance, Bahirat et al.² proposed a watermarking-based framework for authentication and localization of tampering in red, green, blue (RGB) and the 3-D point cloud. The watermarking methods, which are computationally expensive, cannot be applied on raw unprocessed data. Passive approaches, or blind forensics,³ are intended for testing multimedia data where the original or source information is not available. Deep-learning-based tampering detection avoids the need to perform various forensic tests to detect whether multimedia data have been manipulated or not.⁴ However, deep-learning-based methodologies need to balance false positives and negatives, as pointed out by Bayar and Stamm.⁴ Apart from the need for detecting manipulations in multimedia data, there is also a need for localizing (i.e., identifying the region) where the manipulation occurred.

In this context, several deep learning architectures have been proposed: some requiring extensive feature engineering,⁵ some with new layers for better feature learning,⁴ a triple network with conditional random fields,⁶ and autoencoder-based feature extraction and labeling.⁷ Various training methods for these deep learning network architectures have been the topic of research as well: transfer learning; feature extraction using deep networks followed by traditional machine learning for classification; and patch-based learning, especially when the dataset is small. These methods have been demonstrated to be successful in detecting multimedia data manipulations, but they cannot localize the manipulated area.

In terms of localizing the manipulated area of an image, multiple research works hold promise: a mask region-based convolutional neural network (R-CNN) and Sobel edge detection filter were incorporated by Wang et al.⁸ to focus on manipulated boundaries, and Salloum et al.⁹ used multiple convolution branches and

merged them. Some of the localization approaches work only for specific compression methodologies. For instance, the two-stream R-CNN network in Zhou et al.¹⁰ focuses only on JPEG images, with one stream for processing RGB data and the other one working with a steganalysis rich model filter that finds the noise inconsistency between pristine and doctored areas. This helps to find the area of interest by identifying different compression levels within an image. Here, it should be observed that any one particular methodology for compression and decompression is not specified in the JPEG standard. Instead, the standard leaves room for innovation to be incorporated by different implementations. Beneš et al.¹¹ systematically analyzed JPEG versions since 1998, providing an exhaustive comparison of the outputs of compression and decompression operations for a range of parameter settings.

Addressing the need for content authentication, Fang et al.¹² describe a perceptual image hashing-based technique to extract the features of the image and map them to a hash sequence with a fixed length. Building on this, Xing et al.¹³ integrate transformer-based multilayer constraints with a novel perceptual robust image hashing scheme for authenticating the contents of an image. These methods only authenticate the content without identifying the region of multimedia data that has been manipulated. With increasing sophistication in the approaches used for attacking and manipulating multimedia content, the need for advancing the techniques to authenticate, detect, and localize multimedia data manipulations is stronger.

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