

DiffVax: Optimization-Free Image Immunization Against Diffusion-Based Editing

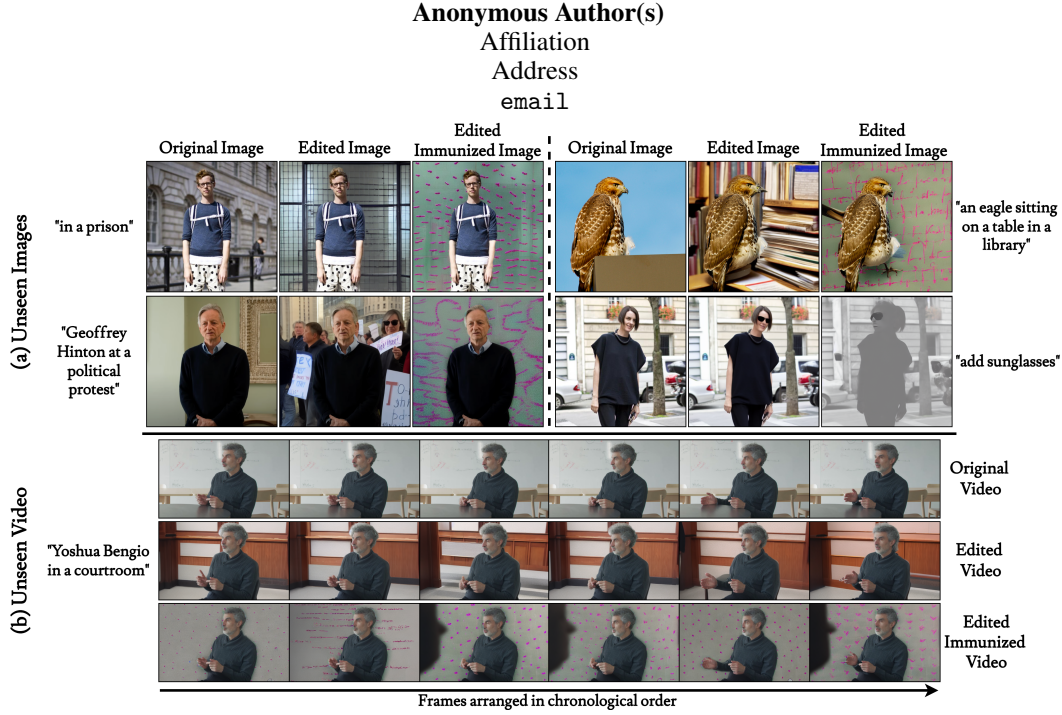


Figure 1: DiffVax is an optimization-free image immunization approach designed to protect images and videos from diffusion-based editing. DiffVax demonstrates robustness across diverse content, providing protection for both in-the-wild (a) *unseen images* and (b) *unseen video* content while effectively preventing edits across various editing methods, including *inpainting* (illustrated with a *human* in the left column and a *non-human foreground object* in the right column) and *instruction-based edits* (right column) with InstructPix2Pix (Brooks et al., 2023).

Abstract

Current image immunization defense techniques against diffusion-based editing embed imperceptible noise into target images to disrupt editing models. However, these methods face scalability challenges, as they require time-consuming optimization for each image separately, taking hours for small batches. To address these challenges, we introduce DiffVax, a scalable, lightweight, and optimization-free framework for image immunization, specifically designed to prevent diffusion-based editing. Our approach enables effective generalization to unseen content, reducing computational costs and cutting immunization time from days to milliseconds, achieving a speedup of 250,000 $\times$. This is achieved through a loss term that ensures the failure of editing attempts and the imperceptibility of the perturbations. Extensive qualitative and quantitative results demonstrate that our model is scalable, optimization-free, adaptable to various diffusion-based editing tools, robust against counter-attacks, and, for the first time, effectively protects video content from editing. Our code and qualitative results are provided in the supplementary.

1 Introduction

Recent advancements in generative models, particularly diffusion models (Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2020; Rombach et al., 2022), have enabled realistic content synthesis, which can be used for various applications, such as image generation (Saharia et al., 2022; Ruiz et al., 2023; Chefer et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023b; Li et al., 2023a; Mou et al., 2024b; Bansal et al., 2023) and editing (Brooks et al., 2023; Couairon et al., 2023a; Hertz et al., 2023b; Meng et al., 2022). However, the widespread availability and accessibility of these models introduce significant risks, as malicious actors exploit them to produce deceptive, realistic content known as deepfakes (Pei et al., 2024). Deepfakes pose severe threats across multiple domains, from political manipulation (Appel and Prietzel, 2022) and blackmail (Blancaflor et al., 2024) to biometric fraud (Wojewidka, 2020) and compromising trust in legal processes (Delfino, 2022). Furthermore, they have become tools for sexual harassment through the creation of non-consensual explicit content, victimizing many women day by day (Jean Mackenzie, 2024; Davies and McDermott, 2022; Cole, 2018). Given the widespread accessibility of diffusion models, the scale of these threats continues to grow, underscoring the urgent need for robust defense mechanisms to protect individuals, institutions, and public trust from such misuse.

To address these challenges, a line of research has focused on deepfake detection (Naitali et al., 2023; Passos et al., 2024) and verification methods (Hasan and Salah, 2019), which facilitate post-hoc identification. While effective for detection, these approaches do not proactively prevent malicious editing, as they only identify it after it happens. Another branch modifies the parameters of editing models (Li et al., 2024) to prevent unethical content synthesis (e.g. NSFW material); however, the widespread availability of unrestricted generative models limits its effectiveness. A more robust defense mechanism, known as image immunization (Salman et al., 2023; Lo et al., 2024; Yeh et al., 2021; Ruiz et al., 2020), safeguards images from malicious edits by embedding imperceptible adversarial perturbation. This approach ensures that any editing attempts lead to unintended or distorted results, proactively preventing malicious modifications rather than depending on post-hoc detection. The subtlety of this protection is particularly valuable for large-scale, publicly accessible content, such as social networks, where user data is especially vulnerable to malicious attacks. By uploading immunized images instead of original ones, users can reduce the risk of misuse by malicious actors, highlighting the practical potential of immunization-based methods for real-world applications.

However, current immunization approaches remain inadequate, as they do not simultaneously satisfy the key requirements of an effective defense: (i) scalability for large-scale content, (ii) memory and runtime efficiency, and (iii) robustness against counter-attacks. PhotoGuard (Salman et al., 2023) (PG) embeds adversarial perturbations into target images to disrupt components of the diffusion model by solving a constrained optimization problem via projected gradient descent (Madry et al., 2018a). Although PhotoGuard was the first immunization model targeting diffusion-based editing, it requires over 10 minutes of runtime per image and at least 15GB of memory, causing both computational and time inefficiency. To alleviate these demands, DAYN (Lo et al., 2024) proposes a semantic-based attack that disrupts the diffusion model’s attention mechanism during editing. While this approach reduces computational load, it remains time-inefficient like PhotoGuard, as it requires a separate optimization process for each image and cannot generalize to unseen content. Furthermore, both approaches are vulnerable to counter-attacks, such as denoising the added perturbation or applying JPEG compression (Sandoval-Segura et al., 2023) to the immunized image. Consequently, neither method is practical for large-scale applications, such as safeguarding the vast volume of image and video data uploaded daily on social media platforms.

To address these challenges, we introduce DiffVax, an end-to-end framework for training an “immunizer model” that learns how to generate imperceptible perturbations to immunize target images against diffusion-based editing (see Fig 2). This immunization process ensures that any attempt to edit the immunized image using a diffusion-based model fails. DiffVax is more effective than prior works in ensuring editing failure.

Our training process is guided by two objectives, expressed as separate terms in the loss function: (1) encouraging the model to generate an imperceptible perturbation, and (2) ensuring that any editing attempt on the immunized image fails. Our trained immunizer operates with a single forward pass, completed within milliseconds, eliminating the need for time-intensive per-image optimization. This efficiency enables scalability to high-volume content protection. Additionally, DiffVax enhances

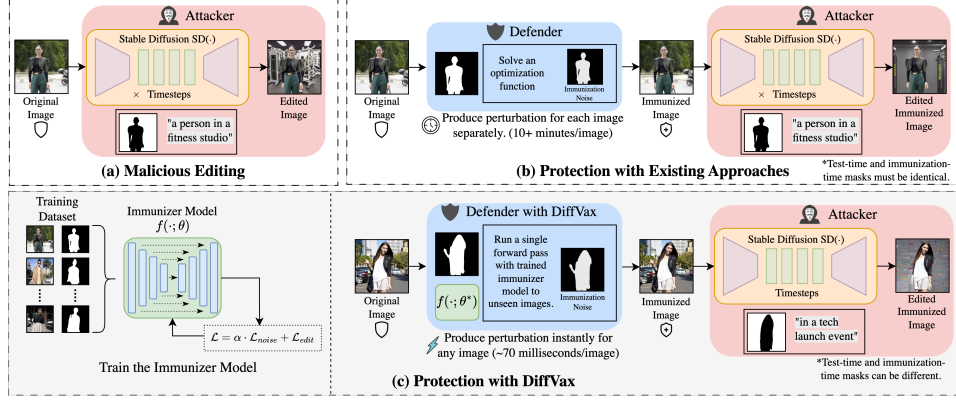


Figure 2: **Comparing *DiffVax* with existing approaches.** (a) An attacker performs malicious editing on an original image. (b) Existing defenses immunize images by solving a costly optimization problem for each image individually, taking over 10 minutes per image. (c) *DiffVax* enables scalable protection by first training an immunizer model (green box) on a diverse dataset. Once trained, the model can immunize unseen images with a single forward pass, producing effective perturbations in approximately 70 milliseconds per image.

memory efficiency by avoiding gradient computation during inference, setting it apart from prior methods. It also exhibits robustness against common counter-attacks, such as JPEG compression and image denoising (Sandoval-Segura et al., 2023). Crucially, our framework is compatible with any diffusion-based editing method, making it a universal defense tool (see Fig. 1 for examples on inpainting and instruction-based editing). Leveraging these strengths, we extend immunization to video content for the first time, achieving results previously unattainable due to the computational limitations of earlier approaches. As a result, *DiffVax* satisfies all key requirements for an effective defense.

To summarize, our contributions are as follows:

- We are the first to introduce a training framework in which the model learns to effectively immunize a given image against diffusion-based editing, drastically reducing inference time from days to milliseconds and enabling real-time protection.
- Thanks to its computational efficiency, our model shows promising potential as a foundational step toward immunizing video content.
- Unlike prior methods that require per-image optimization and therefore cannot generalize to unseen data, our approach enables generalization to new content through a learned “image immunizer”.
- *DiffVax* achieves superior results with substantial degradation of the editing operation, and minimal memory requirement, demonstrating resistance to counter-attacks, making it the fastest, most cost-effective, and robust method available.

2 Related Work

Adversarial attacks Adversarial attacks exploit model vulnerabilities by introducing perturbations that induce misclassification. Early gradient-based methods efficiently generated such examples via gradient manipulation (Goodfellow et al., 2015; Madry et al., 2018b), later refined to minimize perceptual distortion (Carlini and Wagner, 2017; Moosavi-Dezfooli et al., 2016). Generative approaches advanced these attacks by synthesizing realistic adversarial inputs (Xiao et al., 2018). Subsequent work improved transferability and query efficiency using momentum and random search (Dong et al., 2018; Andriushchenko et al., 2020), while ensemble-based methods strengthened robustness evaluation (Croce and Hein, 2020). Universal perturbations (Moosavi-Dezfooli et al., 2017; Hayes and Danezis, 2018) and generative perturbation networks (Poursaeed et al., 2018) further generalized attacks across data and models. Building on these advances, our work focuses on immunizing against diffusion-based editing, addressing its unique characteristics.

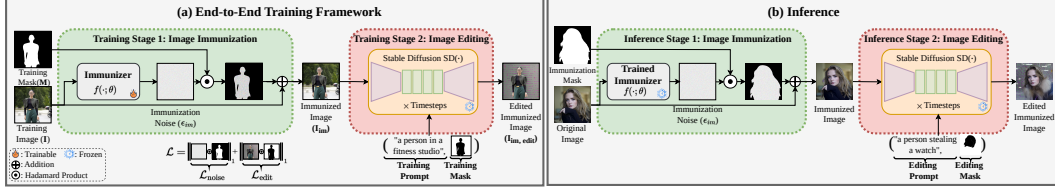


Figure 3: **Overview of *DiffVax***. Our end-to-end training framework is illustrated in (a). The training process consists of two stages. In Stage 1, immunization is applied to the training image $\mathbf{I}$. In Stage 2, the immunized image $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}$ is edited using a stable diffusion model $\text{SD}(\cdot)$ with the specified text prompt and mask, during which the $\mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{edit}}$ are computed. During inference (b), the trained immunizer model generates immunization noise (see Inference Stage 1 in (b)) applied to the original (target) image using an immunization mask. When a malicious user attempts to attack these immunized images with an editing mask, the editing tool (see Inference Stage 2 in (b)) is unable to produce the intended edited content.

Preventing image editing The proliferation of Latent Diffusion Models (LDMs) has underscored the demand for robust immunization strategies against unauthorized image manipulation. Initial efforts focused on Generative Adversarial Network (GAN)-based models, employing adversarial perturbations to inhibit edits (Yeh et al., 2021; Aneja et al., 2022). PhotoGuard (Salman et al., 2023) extended this line of work to diffusion models via encoder- and model-level perturbations but incurred substantial computational overhead due to backpropagation across multiple timesteps. To alleviate this, Lo et al. (2024)¹ proposed an attention-disruption strategy that bypasses full gradient computation, though its reliance on fixed prompts limits robustness. DiffusionGuard (Choi et al., 2025) enhances PhotoGuard by optimizing over augmented masks, yet remains computationally intensive. Other approaches, including Mist (Liang and Wu, 2023), AdvDM (Liang et al., 2023), SDS (Xue et al., 2024), and Glaze (Shan et al., 2023), target text-to-image diffusion or fine-tuned models, but exhibit high computational demands and limited resilience to adaptive attacks. In contrast, *DiffVax* introduces a model-agnostic immunizer that generalizes to unseen data via a single forward pass. Furthermore, we present, for the first time, promising results in the direction of video immunization.

Diffusion-based image editing Diffusion models have emerged as powerful tools for image editing tasks such as inpainting (Wang et al., 2023; Lugmayr et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023a), style transfer (Wang et al., 2023; Mou et al., 2024a; Yang et al., 2023; Hertz et al., 2023a), and text-guided transformations (Brooks et al., 2023; Lin et al., 2024; Ravi et al., 2023), by conditioning on prompts or image regions. Edits are guided through attention manipulation (Parmar et al., 2023) and multi-step noise prediction. Approaches include both training-based (Couairon et al., 2023b; Kim et al., 2022) and training-free methods (Mokady et al., 2023; Miyake et al., 2023) requiring minimal fine-tuning. We use stable diffusion inpainting as our primary editing model and include results with InstructPix2Pix (Brooks et al., 2023) to show model-agnostic performance.

3 Methodology

3.1 Preliminaries

Image immunization Adversarial attacks exploit the vulnerabilities of machine learning models by introducing small, imperceptible perturbations to input data, causing the model to produce incorrect or unintended outputs (Szegedy et al., 2014; Biggio et al., 2013). In the context of diffusion models, such perturbations can be crafted to disrupt the editing process, ensuring that attempts to modify an adversarially perturbed image fail to achieve intended outcomes. Given an image $\mathbf{I}$, the goal is to transform it into an adversarially immunized version, $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}$, by introducing a perturbation ϵ_{im} :

$$\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}} = \mathbf{I} + \epsilon_{\text{im}}, \quad \text{subject to: } \|\epsilon_{\text{im}}\|_p < \kappa, \quad (1)$$

where κ is the perturbation budget that constrains the norm of the perturbation to ensure that it remains imperceptible. The norm p could be chosen as 1, 2, or ∞ , depending on the application.

¹Code unavailable despite request.

Latent diffusion models LDMs (Rombach et al., 2022) perform the generative process in a lower-dimensional latent space rather than pixel space, achieving computational efficiency while maintaining high-quality outputs. This design is ideal for large-scale tasks like image editing and inpainting. Training an LDM starts by encoding the input image $\mathbf{I}_0$ into a latent representation $z_0 = \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{I}_0)$ using encoder $\mathcal{E}(\cdot)$. The diffusion process operates in this latent space, adding noise over T steps to generate a sequence $z_1, \dots, z_T$, with $z_{t+1} = \sqrt{1 - \beta_t} z_t + \sqrt{\beta_t} \epsilon_t$, $\epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$, where β_t is the noise schedule at step t . The training aims to learn a denoising network ϵ_θ that predicts the added noise ϵ_t by minimizing $\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t, z_0, \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})} [\|\epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(z_t, t)\|_2^2]$. In the reverse process, a noisy latent vector $z_T \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ is iteratively denoised via the trained denoising network to recover z_0 , which is decoded into the final image $\tilde{\mathbf{I}} = \mathcal{D}(z_0)$ with decoder $\mathcal{D}(\cdot)$.

3.2 Problem Formulation

Let $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ represent an image with height H , width W , and C color channels. A malicious user using a diffusion-based editing tool, $\text{SD}(\cdot)$, attempts to maliciously edit the image based on a prompt $\mathcal{P}$ and a binary mask $\mathbf{M} \in \{0, 1\}^{H \times W \times C}$, which defines the target area for editing, with a value of 1 indicating the region of interest and 0 denotes the background or irrelevant areas. Ideally, this target region can represent any meaningful part of the image, such as a human body or a face. Our objective is to immunize the original (target) image $\mathbf{I}$ by carefully producing a noise ϵ_{im} that satisfies two key criteria: (a) ϵ_{im} remains imperceptible to the user, and (b) the edited immunized image $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im,edit}}$ fails to accurately reflect the prompt $\mathcal{P}$ applied by the malicious users. In other words, the immunized image disrupts the editing model $\text{SD}(\cdot)$ such that any attempt to edit the image results in unsuccessful or unintended modifications. While our approach is broadly applicable to any diffusion-based editing tool, such as inpainting models and InstructPix2Pix (Brooks et al., 2023), this study follows previous work (Salman et al., 2023; Lo et al., 2024) by using inpainting as the primary editing tool for problem formulation and quantitative experiments. We focus on scenarios where the sensitive regions such as human body or face remains constant, with other areas considered editable, reflecting real-world malicious editing scenarios. Additional results for other objects and tools (e.g. InstructPix2Pix) are provided in Fig. 1, Fig. 4, and in our Supplementary.

3.3 Our Approach

End-to-end training framework To overcome the speed limitations of previous methods, which require solving an optimization problem independently for each image, we propose an end-to-end training framework. This framework enables an immunizer model $f(\cdot; \theta)$ to instantly generate immunization noise for a given input image. Our training algorithm (see Section *Model Algorithm and Implementation Details* in Supplementary, and Fig. 3 (a)) consists of two stages. In the first stage, we employ a UNet++ (Zhou et al., 2018) architecture for the “immunizer” model $f(\cdot; \theta)$, which takes an input image $\mathbf{I}$ and generates the corresponding immunization noise ϵ_{im} . Subsequently, ϵ_{im} is multiplied by the immunization mask $\mathbf{M}$, which targets the region of interest (e.g. a person’s face). The resulting masked noise is then added to the training image to produce the immunized image, computed as $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}} = \mathbf{I} + \epsilon_{\text{im}} \odot \mathbf{M}$. Finally, the image is clamped to the $[0, 1]$ range. To ensure the noise remains imperceptible to the human eye, we introduce the following loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}} = \frac{1}{\text{sum}(\mathbf{M})} \|(\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}} - \mathbf{I}) \odot \mathbf{M}\|_p \quad (2)$$

where p is empirically chosen to be 1. $\mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}}$ penalizes deviations within the masked region, ensuring that the change between the immunized image and the training image is imperceptible. In the second stage, after generating the immunized image $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}$, we apply diffusion-based editing using the editing tool $\text{SD}(\cdot)$. This model takes the immunized image $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}$, the training mask $\mathbf{M}$, and the training prompt $\mathcal{P}$ as input, performing edits in the regions specified by the mask. To ensure that the edited image is effectively distorted, we define the loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{edit}} = \frac{1}{\text{sum}(\sim \mathbf{M})} \|\text{SD}(\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}, \sim \mathbf{M}, \mathcal{P}) \odot (\sim \mathbf{M})\|_1, \quad (3)$$

where $\sim \mathbf{M}$ represents the complement of the masked area and $\text{SD}(\cdot)$ is the stable diffusion inpainting model that modifies the region $\sim \mathbf{M}$ in $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}$ according to the prompt $\mathcal{P}$. This loss function is the key to our method, as it ensures that the immunization noise disrupts the editing process by forcing the

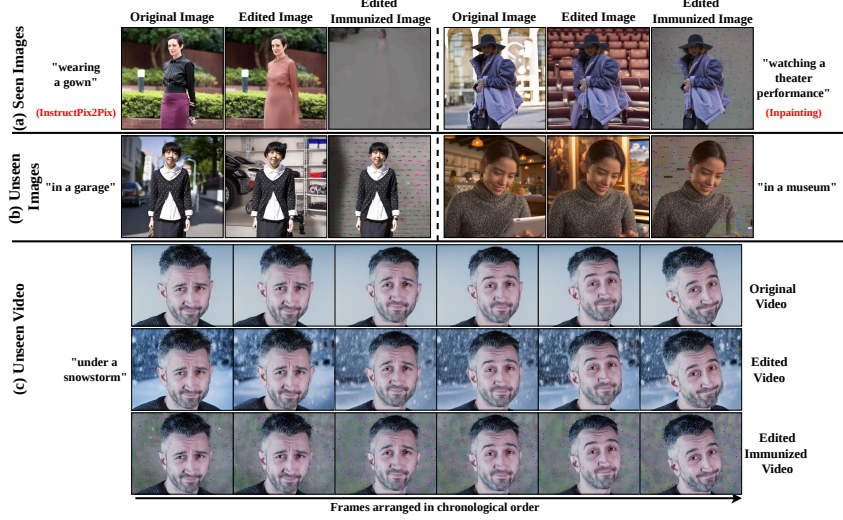


Figure 4: *Qualitative results with DiffVax*. Our method effectively immunizes (a) seen images and generalizes to (b) unseen images with diverse text prompts. Additionally, it extends to (c) unseen human videos, demonstrating its adaptability to new content. Furthermore, it supports various poses and perspectives, from full-body shots (a) to close-up face shots (c).

unmasked regions to be filled with 0s. Note that for editing models that do not rely on masks, we exclude masks from the loss calculations.

To enable training, we curate a dataset of image, mask, and prompt tuples, represented as $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{I}^k, \mathbf{M}^k, \mathcal{P}^k)\}_{k=1}^N$. Specifically, we collect 1000 images of individuals from the CCP (Yang et al., 2014) dataset and use the Segment Anything Model (SAM) (Kirillov et al., 2023) to generate masks corresponding to the foreground objects in these images. To ensure diverse text descriptions for the editing tasks, we utilize ChatGPT OpenAI (2024) (see Section *Dataset Setup* in Supplementary). At each training step, a sample is selected from the dataset and initially processed by the immunizer model $f(\cdot; \theta)$ to generate immunization noise ϵ_{im}^n , which is added to the masked region of the training image and then clamped. The resulting immunized image $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im}}^n$ is then passed through the editing model $\text{SD}(\cdot)$ to produce the edited immunized image $\mathbf{I}_{\text{im,edit}}^n$. The final loss function, $\mathcal{L} = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{edit}}$, is used for backpropagation with respect to the immunizer model’s parameters. Backpropagating through the stable diffusion stages allows the immunizer to learn the interaction between the perturbation and the generated pixels. Through this iterative process, the immunizer model learns to generate perturbations that disrupt the editing model. Following the insights from PhotoGuard’s encoder attack, we do not condition the immunizer model on text prompts, as the noise is empirically shown to be prompt-agnostic (see Section *Prompt-Agnostic Immunization Experiment* in Supplementary).

Inference During inference, the trained immunizer model generates immunization noise for any original (target) image using the mask of the region intended for protection. This noise is then applied to create the immunized image, with the noise restricted to the masked region. The resulting immunized image can be safely shared publicly. When a malicious user inputs this immunized image along with an editing mask into a diffusion-based editing tool (the same tool used during training), the immunization noise disrupts the edited output (see Fig. 3 (b)). Unlike previous approaches that require the same mask to be used during both training and inference, our method decouples these phases. This separation allows the immunizer model to generalize to unseen content, addressing the limitation of previous methods where malicious users could exploit different masks during editing (e.g. using an immunization mask of full-body but applying an editing mask of face).

4 Experimentation

Baselines We compare DiffVax with several existing image immunization methods. As a naive baseline, we include **Random Noise**, which applies arbitrary noise to images. We also evaluate two variants of PhotoGuard (Salman et al., 2023): **PhotoGuard-E**, which embeds adversarial



Figure 5: *Qualitative comparison of edited images across immunization methods.* This figure shows the results of different immunization methods: Random Noise, PhotoGuard-E, PhotoGuard-D, DiffusionGuard, and our proposed method, DiffVax. Results for (a) seen and (b) unseen images are shown, with different prompts applied to each (right side). The first column contains the original images, while subsequent columns show the edited outputs under different settings, as depicted on the top. Note that DiffVax is *substantially more effective* than PhotoGuard-E, -D and DiffusionGuard in degrading the edit.

218 perturbations in the latent encoder, and **PhotoGuard-D**, which disrupts the entire generative process.
 219 Additionally, we compare against **DiffusionGuard** (Choi et al., 2025), an extension of PhotoGuard
 220 that augments masks during optimization. To evaluate robustness against counter-attacks, we develop
 221 three additional baselines where editing is applied after immunization: (i) passing the image through
 222 a convolutional neural network (CNN)-based denoiser (Li et al., 2023b), denoted as DiffVax w/ D;
 223 (ii) compressing the image as JPEG (Sandoval-Segura et al., 2023) with a 0.75 compression ratio,
 224 denoted as DiffVax w/ JPEG; and (iii) applying the IMPRESS defense (Cao et al., 2023), denoted
 225 as DiffVax w/ IMPRESS.

226 **Evaluation metrics and dataset** We focus on four key aspects in evaluation: (a) *the amount of*
 227 *editing failure*, where we follow previous approaches (Salman et al., 2023) and utilize SSIM (Wang
 228 et al., 2004), PSNR and FSIM (Zhang et al., 2011) metrics to measure the visual differences between
 229 the edited immunized image and the edited original image; (b) *imperceptibility*, where the amount
 230 of the immunization noise quantified by measuring the SSIM between the original image and the
 231 immunized image, denoted as SSIM (Noise); (c) *the degree of textual misalignment* evaluated using
 232 CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) by measuring the average similarity between the edited immunized image
 233 and the text prompt, denoted as CLIP-T; and (d) *scalability* by reporting the average runtime and
 234 GPU memory required to immunize a single image on average from the dataset. We curate a dataset
 235 of 875 human images from the CCP (Yang et al., 2014) dataset. Of these, 800 images are used for
 236 training (seen), and the remaining 75 seen images along with 75 unseen images are reserved for
 237 testing.

238 **Qualitative results** Fig. 1 and 4 illustrate the qualitative results achieved by our method, with
 239 Fig. 5 comparing our results to those of baseline methods. Our model effectively immunizes
 240 images against various editing techniques, including inpainting (as shown in the left column of
 241 Fig. 1) and InstructPix2Pix (Brooks et al., 2023) (right column of Fig. 1). It demonstrates a strong
 242 ability to generalize to previously unseen images and a wide range of prompts describing different
 243 edits, accommodating various human perspectives, including full-body and close-up shots (Fig. 4).
 244 Additionally, although trained primarily on human subjects, our model extends its robustness to
 245 non-human objects, such as the eagle depicted in the right column of Fig. 1. Compared to the baseline
 246 methods shown in Fig. 5, our approach qualitatively outperforms on both seen and unseen images,
 247 generating backgrounds that deviate significantly from the intended edits, thereby demonstrating
 248 robust results across a variety of text prompts. Notably, in many cases with our approach, it is
 249 impossible to infer the original prompt from the immunized image background, a stark contrast
 250 to PhotoGuard, which often retains discernible hints of the prompt. Please see Section *Additional*
 251 *Results* in Supplementary for more examples.

252 **DiffVax is more effective in corrupting edits** As shown in Table 1, DiffVax achieves the low-
 253 est SSIM, PSNR, and FSIM values overall, securing second place in the SSIM metric for unseen
 254 data, with a small margin behind PG-D, indicating that malicious edits on immunized images are

Table 1: *Performance comparisons on images*. The SSIM, PSNR, FSIM, SSIM (Noise), and CLIP-T metrics are reported separately for the *seen* and *unseen* splits of the test dataset. Runtime and GPU requirements are measured as the average time (in seconds) and memory usage (in MiB) needed to immunize a single image. “N/A” indicates that the corresponding value is unavailable. The symbols $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ indicate the direction toward better performance for each metric, respectively. **Bold** values indicate the best scores, while underlined values denote the second-best scores.

Immunization Method	Amount of Editing Failure						Imperceptibility		Text Misalignment		Scalability	
	SSIM $\downarrow$		PSNR $\downarrow$		FSIM $\downarrow$		SSIM (Noise) $\uparrow$		CLIP-T $\downarrow$		Runtime (s) $\downarrow$ (Immunization)	GPU Req. (MiB) $\downarrow$ (Immunization)
	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>		
Random Noise	0.586	0.585	16.09	16.40	0.460	0.458	0.902	0.903	31.68	31.62	N/A	N/A
PhotoGuard-E	0.558	0.565	15.29	15.63	0.413	0.408	0.956	0.956	31.69	30.88	207.00	9,548
PhotoGuard-D	<u>0.531</u>	0.523	14.70	14.92	<u>0.386</u>	<u>0.379</u>	<u>0.978</u>	<u>0.979</u>	29.61	29.27	911.60	15,114
DiffusionGuard	0.551	0.556	<u>14.37</u>	<u>14.71</u>	0.389	0.386	0.965	0.966	<u>26.98</u>	<u>27.10</u>	<u>131.10</u>	<u>6,750</u>
DiffVax (Ours)	0.510	<u>0.526</u>	13.96	14.32	0.353	0.362	0.989	0.989	23.13	24.17	0.07	5,648

significantly distorted, even on previously unseen data, whereas baseline methods, which require optimization to be re-run for each image, do not differentiate between seen and unseen data. Additionally, CLIP-T results, which measure textual misalignment, further verify these findings by measuring the misalignment semantically in the edited immunized images. DiffVax outperforms the baselines by maintaining the highest SSIM (Noise) values for both seen and unseen data, highlighting its effectiveness in corrupting malicious edits while keeping the immunized image imperceptible. Thus, *training an immunizer model enables it to learn how to strategically place immunization noise to effectively disrupt diffusion-based editing*.

DiffVax is more scalable In addition to its strong qualitative performance, DiffVax offers significant advantages in speed and memory efficiency. It completes the immunization process in just 0.07 seconds per image on average, compared to 207.0 seconds for PhotoGuard-E, 911.6 seconds for PhotoGuard-D, and 131.1 seconds for DiffusionGuard. In terms of GPU memory usage, DiffVax requires only 5,648 MiB, much lower than PhotoGuard-E (9,548 MiB), PhotoGuard-D (15,114 MiB), and DiffusionGuard (6,750 MiB). This makes *DiffVax a practical and scalable solution for large-scale applications*.

DiffVax is more robust to counter-attacks Table 2 reports PSNR, SSIM, SSIM (Noise), and CLIP-T metrics for immunized images subjected to common counter-attacks, including CNN-based denoising, JPEG compression, and IMPRESS (Cao et al., 2023). DiffVax consistently outperforms PhotoGuard-D across all these scenarios, as evidenced by the results of DiffVax w/ D., DiffVax w/ JPEG, and DiffVax w/ IMPRESS. This robustness arises from DiffVax’s ability to learn spatially targeted perturbations, primarily applied to low-frequency regions. JPEG compression, which discards high-frequency content, is less effective against such perturbations. Similarly, denoisers and IMPRESS, which are typically trained to suppress uniformly distributed or high-frequency noise, fail to fully neutralize DiffVax’s learned immunization signals. In contrast, existing approaches, which produce more uniform-type noise, are more susceptible to these counter-attacks. Please see Section *Additional Robustness Evaluation* in Supplementary for additional results.

User study results We also conduct a user study with 67 participants on Prolific (2024), in which participants compare the “unrealisticness” level of baselines, and the edited image across 20 randomly selected image pairs, including both seen and unseen samples. For each model, we report the average rank, with our model achieving the top position with an average rank of 1.64, demonstrating clear superiority over prior methods (see Section *User Study* in Supplementary), followed by PhotoGuard-D with a rank of 2.63.

Ablation study To assess the contribution of each component in our framework, we conduct an ablation study by individually removing $\mathcal{L}_{\text{edit}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}}$. As shown in Table 3, when $\mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}}$ is removed, the model achieves slightly better performance on unseen data in terms of failed immunized editing (measured by SSIM, PSNR, FSIM and CLIP-T). However, the immunization noise is no longer imperceptible, as indicated by the change in the SSIM (Noise) metric. Conversely, when $\mathcal{L}_{\text{edit}}$ is removed, the SSIM (Noise) metric reaches its highest value, indicating minimal noise, but the model fails to prevent malicious editing, as reflected in the SSIM, PSNR, FSIM and CLIP-T metrics. Thus, *combining both terms in the final loss function is crucial for balancing imperceptibility and robustness in the training process* (see Section *Loss Weight Selection* in Supplementary).

Table 2: **Performance comparisons on edits with counter-attacks.** We report the SSIM, SSIM (Noise) and CLIP-T metrics for the denoiser (D.), JPEG (compression ratio of 0.75) counter-attacks separately for the *seen* and *unseen* splits of the test dataset.

Method	SSIM ↓		PSNR ↓		FSIM ↓		SSIM (Noise) ↑		CLIP-T ↓	
	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>	<i>seen</i>	<i>unseen</i>
PG-D w/ D.	0.702	0.709	18.27	18.43	0.528	0.528	0.966	0.965	31.48	31.20
DiffusionGuard w/ D.	0.708	0.719	18.26	18.69	0.530	0.531	0.964	0.964	31.08	30.99
DiffVax w/ D.	0.552	0.565	14.48	14.91	0.388	0.392	0.960	0.960	27.32	27.74
PG-D w/ JPEG	0.664	0.674	17.32	17.68	0.495	0.501	0.956	0.956	32.15	32.48
DiffusionGuard w/ JPEG	0.680	0.684	17.45	17.83	0.505	0.503	0.951	0.951	31.52	31.53
DiffVax w/ JPEG	0.522	0.538	14.17	14.61	0.374	0.382	0.959	0.959	26.04	26.05
PG-D w/ IMPRESS	0.578	0.563	15.89	16.07	0.436	0.426	0.640	0.634	31.35	31.26
DiffusionGuard w/ IMPRESS	0.604	0.595	15.89	16.09	0.453	0.442	0.636	0.630	30.88	30.50
DiffVax w/ IMPRESS	0.488	0.500	14.04	14.38	0.355	0.359	0.644	0.637	24.88	25.27

Table 3: **Ablation study.** We report the SSIM and SSIM (Noise) metrics for each loss term ablation, with results presented individually for the seen and unseen splits of the dataset.

Method	SSIM ↓		PSNR ↓		FSIM ↓		SSIM (Noise) ↑		CLIP-T ↓	
	<i>s</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>u</i>
DiffVax w/o $\mathcal{L}_{\text{noise}}$	0.508	0.520	13.57	13.82	0.335	0.344	0.785	0.786	24.34	25.78
DiffVax w/o $\mathcal{L}_{\text{edit}}$	0.944	0.932	31.36	31.05	0.821	0.806	0.999	0.999	32.01	32.27
DiffVax	0.510	0.526	13.96	14.32	0.353	0.362	0.989	0.989	23.13	24.17

5 Conclusion and Discussion

In this work, we present DiffVax, an optimization-free image immunization framework that protects against diffusion-based editing. Central to our approach is a trained “image immunizer” model that generates imperceptible perturbations to disrupt the editing process. At inference, DiffVax requires only a single forward pass, enabling scalability to large-scale deployments. Leveraging this efficiency, we extend our framework to video, demonstrating promising results for the first time (see Section *Video Evaluation* in Supplementary). Moreover, DiffVax is compatible with any diffusion-based editing tool and demonstrates strong robustness against counter-attacks. Overall, it establishes a new benchmark for scalable, real-time, and effective content protection.

Test-time mask variability All SOTA methods use the same masks during both training and editing. This is somewhat defensible, as inpainting-based deepfakes often rely on standardized masks, transferring either the entire body or the head. We further conduct an additional experiment to assess the impact of mask variation during test time. Our approach outperforms PhotoGuard (PG) by generating a more distinct image than PG relative to the “original edited image” while also disrupting the background edit. Future work can improve further by enhancing dataset diversity, as it includes “human body” pairs but does not contain masks that are misaligned with object boundaries. Moreover, while our model is the first to enable flexibility in defining separate immunization mask (for the immunization region) and editing mask (used by malicious users), unlike previous methods, its effectiveness diminishes when the editing mask deviates significantly from the immunization mask (see Section *Discussion on Test-time Mask Variability* in Supplementary). It is important to note that none of the previous methods can generalize to different editing masks during inference.

Inpainting-based vs. instruction-based editing models Following prior SOTA, our main evaluations are conducted using inpainting-based editing methods. However, we emphasize that our framework is model-agnostic and can be applied to various editing tools. To demonstrate this, we include additional results using the instruction-based model InstructPix2Pix (IP2P) (Brooks et al., 2023) (see Sections *Additional Results With Instruction-Based Model* and *Additional Results With Non-ROI Editing* in Supplementary). We find that IP2P is particularly well suited for complex or localized editing tasks, such as background modifications, stylistic changes, or edits outside sensitive regions, where inpainting-based approaches may fall short. Specifically, inpainting methods can introduce unintended alterations in sensitive areas like faces when the provided mask only partially covers the target region. This can conflict with the intent of a malicious user, whose goal is often to preserve identity while making selective edits.

Transferability of immunization noise While DiffVax offers optimization-free protection against diffusion-based editing, its current design operates on a per-editing-tool basis, requiring separate training for each tool, which limits its ability to generalize across multiple editing tools simultaneously. Future work will aim to develop a more universal immunization strategy to enhance scalability across diverse models (see Section *Transferability of Immunization Noise* in Supplementary for preliminary results). Moreover, In addition, we plan to extend this work by integrating it with a range of video editing tools.

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