

# Shattering the Rings: Reproducibility and Vulnerability Analysis of the ZoDiac Watermarking Framework

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## Abstract

This paper presents a reproducibility study and robustness evaluation of the paper ‘Attack-Resilient Image Watermarking Using Stable Diffusion’ by Zhang et al. (2024), which proposes ZoDiac, a Stable Diffusion-based framework for attack-resilient image watermarking. While successfully replicating the original method’s core claims—achieving  $>90\%$  watermark detection rate (WDR) against diffusion-based regeneration attacks and across MS-COCO, DiffusionDB, and WikiArt datasets—we identify critical vulnerabilities under adversarial and geometrically asymmetric attack paradigms. Our extended analysis demonstrates that gradient-based adversarial perturbations reduce ZoDiac’s WDR, a threat model absent in prior evaluations. We also investigate rotationally asymmetric attacks achieving WDR below  $65\%$ . Additionally, we explore a new loss function to mitigate these limitations. Despite these enhancements, composite attacks combining adversarial noise with other methods reduce WDR to near-zero, exposing vulnerabilities through multi-stage offensive pipelines. Our implementation can be found on Anonymous Github<sup>1</sup>.

## 1 Introduction

The rapid advancement of generative AI has heightened the need for robust image watermarking techniques to verify content authenticity and counter AI-generated forgeries Craver et al. (1998); Tirkel et al. (1994); Cox et al. (2007). Traditional watermarking methods, such as frequency-domain embeddings like the Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)(Bors & Pitas, 1996; Barni et al., 1998) and Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT) (Hsu & Wu, 1998), or spatial-domain techniques like Least-Significant-Bit (LSB)(Wolfgang & Delp, 1996) manipulation, were designed to withstand standard distortions such as JPEG compression and Gaussian noise. However, these classical approaches struggle against modern diffusion-based regeneration attacks, which leverage latent-space purification to effectively erase embedded watermarks.

Early neural network-based approaches, including RivaGAN(Zhang et al., 2018) and StegaStamp(Tancik et al., 2020), improved resilience through adversarial training and the use of spatial transformer networks. Yet, because their embeddings operate in the pixel space, they remain vulnerable to pipeline-aware attacks that exploit the iterative denoising process of diffusion models to remove the watermark. This fundamental weakness stems from their operation in pixel space, which makes the embedded marks susceptible to latent-space purification. Recent diffusion-based techniques aim to address this vulnerability. Tree-Ring(Wen et al., 2023) encodes concentric ring patterns into the initial noise vectors of synthetic images, leveraging the deterministic inversion property of diffusion models to recover the watermark from generated outputs. While this method achieves rotational invariance and resists individual attacks by embedding patterns in the Fourier domain, it is only applicable to synthetically generated images, leaving real-world content unprotected. Furthermore, its reliance on isotropic ring patterns creates vulnerabilities to asymmetric transformations, and its static design lacks defenses against composite attacks. Other methods like StableSignature(Fernandez et al., 2023) fine-tune diffusion decoders to embed watermarks but require extensive training on large datasets, making them resource-intensive and impractical for many applications.

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<sup>1</sup>Link to Anonymous Github

ZoDiac(Zhang et al., 2024) addresses these gaps with a novel framework that integrates a pre-trained Stable Diffusion model with DDIM inversion to embed imperceptible watermarks in existing images. The method capitalizes on the bidirectional nature of diffusion models: it maps an input image into a latent vector via inversion, injects a ring-shaped watermark into the Fourier domain of this latent space, and reconstructs the image while preserving high fidelity. Unlike pixel-space methods, ZoDiac operates in the latent space, where the iterative denoising process of diffusion models can reinforce the watermark’s persistence, making it inherently resistant to purification attacks. ZoDiac also explicitly aligns the injected watermark with its retrieved version in the Fourier space, a mechanism that counters latent-space distortions caused by pixel-space augmentations and distinguishes it from the static, synthetic-only embeddings of Tree-Ring.

Our choice to analyze the ZoDiac paper is based on its claims of achieving superior results compared to previous state-of-the-art frameworks without the significant computational overhead required by methods like Stable Signature(Fernandez et al., 2023). Through this paper, we aim to reproduce the core claims of the original work and extend its evaluation with new attack paradigms. We introduce adversarial and geometric attack scenarios, including directional blurring and chromatic distortions, to test the ZoDiac framework’s resilience beyond its original evaluation scope. Additionally, we explore an augmented loss function incorporating  $L_1$  constraints in an attempt to enhance watermark detection under diverse attack conditions. Our experiments reveal critical vulnerabilities in the watermarking approach, particularly when facing composite attacks that combine adversarial noise with geometric transformations.

## 2 Related Works

The field of digital image watermarking has evolved through a continuous arms race between embedding techniques and adversarial attacks, progressing from simple spatial-domain manipulations to the sophisticated use of generative models’ latent spaces. Early research in the 1990s established a foundational trade-off between three competing objectives: imperceptibility, robustness, and capacity. Initial methods operated in the spatial domain, with techniques like Least Significant Bit (LSB)(Wolfgang & Delp, 1996) substitution offering high capacity at the cost of extreme fragility, rendering them vulnerable to nearly any image processing operation. A significant leap in robustness was achieved with the introduction of spread spectrum watermarking(Cox et al., 1997), which argued that a resilient watermark must be embedded within the most perceptually significant components of the host signal. This approach treated the watermark as a wideband, noise-like signal embedded across the image’s most critical spectral coefficients, providing strong resistance to compression and noise. The limitations of these early methods, particularly their vulnerability to geometric desynchronization, were systematically exposed by research like the StirMark benchmark (Kutter & Petitcolas, 1999), an attack tool that applied minor, random geometric distortions to defeat most contemporary watermarking schemes. This challenge catalyzed a shift toward transform-domain techniques that leverage properties of the Human Visual System (HVS). Methods based on the Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) offered inherent resilience to JPEG compression(Bors & Pitas, 1996; Barni et al., 1998), while those using the Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT) (Hsu & Wu, 1998) provided excellent spatio-frequency localization. The Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) proved particularly effective against the geometric attacks posed by StirMark due to its natural invariance to rotation, scaling, and translation.

The advent of deep learning introduced a paradigm shift, moving from handcrafted features to end-to-end learned watermarking strategies. The predominant encoder-decoder framework trains a neural network to learn an optimal, non-linear transformation for embedding a watermark, guided by a composite loss function that balances imperceptibility and robustness. During training, a non-trainable "attack layer" simulates various distortions, forcing the network to learn a resilient embedding. Architectural innovations, including the use of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) (Tavakoli et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2018a), Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) (Ong et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2018) for enhanced imperceptibility, and attention mechanisms (e.g., DARI-Mark(Zhao et al., 2023b)) for content-aware embedding, have further advanced the state of the art. However, this paradigm also introduced a new attack surface. Deep learning-based systems are vulnerable to adversarial attacks(Choubassi & Moulin, 2005; Comesaña et al., 2006) that craft imperceptible perturbations to cause extraction failure, as well as model-based attacks like fine-tuning or overwriting that can remove or replace the embedded watermark.

Most recently, the proliferation of high-fidelity diffusion models has again reshaped the landscape. These models present a formidable threat through "regeneration attacks", where a watermarked image is denoised and reconstructed, effectively treating the watermark as noise and purging it from the regenerated output. Concurrently, these models offer a powerful new medium for embedding. Instead of modifying pixels, the watermark can be integrated into the generative process itself, making it intrinsic to the image's semantic structure. Tree-Ring Watermarking (Wen et al., 2023), is designed to fingerprint the output of diffusion models during generation. It operates by embedding a predefined pattern into the Fourier space of the initial noise vector before the denoising process begins. The final image is a clean output from the model, yet it carries an indelible, private fingerprint that can be detected only by the model owner, who can invert the diffusion process to inspect the initial noise vector. Addressing the challenge of watermarking existing images, Zodiac (Zhang et al., 2024) leverages a pre-trained stable diffusion model. Its core principle is to inject a watermark not into the image pixels, but into a trainable latent space.

## 2.1 Scope of Reproducibility

In this reproducibility study, we rigorously validate the fundamental claims of the ZoDiac framework while subjecting it to comprehensive stress tests across a range of attack paradigms. Our efforts are primarily directed toward verifying the four central claims outlined in the original work.:

- **Claim 1 :** ZoDiac demonstrates a watermark detection rate (WDR) exceeding 98 and a false positive rate (FPR) below 6.4 across MS-COCO, DiffusionDB, and WikiArt datasets, outperforming state-of-the-art watermarking methods.
- **Claim 2 :** ZoDiac remains resilient to diverse attack categories, including traditional attacks (such as JPEG compression and Gaussian blurring), Stable Diffusion-based regeneration attacks, where most other methods fail and rotational attacks to some extent.
- **Claim 3 :** Unlike prior methods like Tree-Ring or Stable Signature, ZoDiac can watermark both real-world and synthetic images without requiring retraining of the stable diffusion model, making it highly practical for diverse applications and real world deployment.
- **Claim 4 :** ZoDiac achieves imperceptible watermarks with image quality metrics such as SSIM  $\geq 0.92$ , ensuring minimal visual degradation while maintaining robustness against attacks. ZoDiac ensures a fair tradeoff between watermark detection and maintaining image quality.

## 3 Methodology

### 3.1 Description of Methods

The ZoDiac framework methodology comprises three key components: (1) latent-space vector initialization via DDIM inversion, (2) Fourier-domain watermark embedding for geometric resilience, and (3) adaptive image enhancement to balance detectability and visual fidelity. Below, we detail each component as described in the original paper.

#### 3.1.1 Latent Vector Initialization via DDIM Inversion

The process begins by mapping an input image  $x_0$  to a latent vector  $\mathbf{Z}_T$  using **DDIM inversion**:

$$\mathbf{Z}_T = \mathcal{G}'(x_0), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathcal{G}'$  denotes the inversion of the pre-trained Stable Diffusion model. The inversion adheres to the forward diffusion process:

$$\mathbf{Z}_{t-1} = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_{t-1}} \left( \frac{\mathbf{Z}_t - \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{Z}_t, t)}{\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}} \right) + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_{t-1}} \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{Z}_t, t), \quad (2)$$

where  $\bar{\alpha}_t$  controls the noise schedule and  $\epsilon_\theta$  is the pre-trained denoiser. Initializing  $\mathbf{Z}_T$  via inversion ensures faster convergence and preserves the structural integrity of the original image during watermark injection.

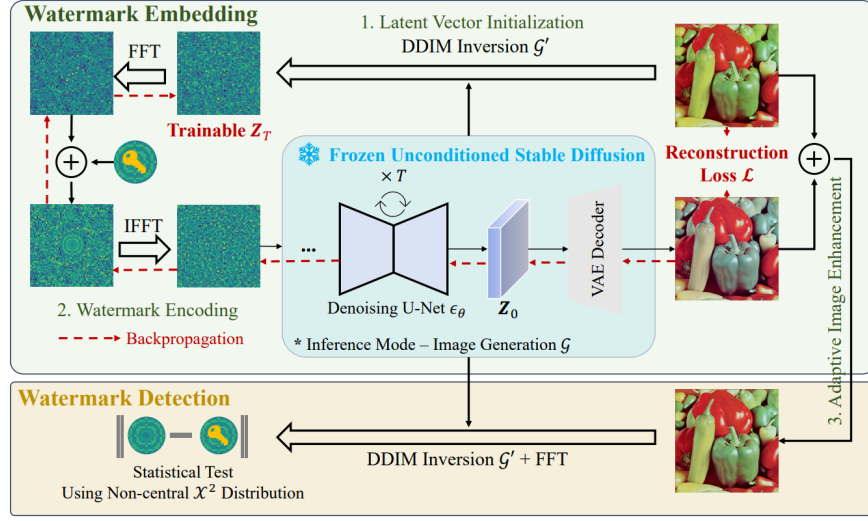


Figure 1: Overview of the ZoDiac framework, illustrating the watermark embedding and detection pipelines. Image taken from the original paper Zhang et al. (2024)

### 3.1.2 Fourier-Domain Watermark Encoding

ZoDiac injects a ring-shaped watermark  $\mathbf{W}$  into the Fourier transform of  $\mathbf{Z}_T$  to exploit rotational symmetry and frequency-domain resilience:

**Watermark Generation:**  $\mathbf{W}$  is sampled from  $\mathcal{CN}(0, 1)$  (complex Gaussian distribution), with elements equidistant from the center of latent vector being assigned identical values. A binary mask  $\mathbf{M}$  localizes the watermark to low/mid frequencies:

$$\mathbf{M}_p = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } d(p, c) \leq d^* \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (3)$$

where  $d(p, c)$  is the Euclidean distance from coordinate  $p$  to the latent center  $c$ , and  $d^*$  is the mask radius.

**Watermark Injection:** The watermark is applied to the Fourier-transformed latent vector:

$$\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{Z}_T)[ic, :, :] = (1 - \mathbf{M}) \odot \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{Z}_T)[ic, :, :] + \mathbf{M} \odot \mathbf{W}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{Z}_T) \in \mathbb{C}^{h \times w \times h}$  is the Fourier transform of latent vector,  $ic$  is the target watermark injection channel and  $\odot$  represents element wise product. We denote the latent vector after watermarking as  $\mathbf{Z}_T \oplus \mathbf{W}$ .

**Latent Optimization:** The watermarked latent  $\mathbf{Z}_T \oplus \mathbf{W}$  is optimized via gradient descent to minimize a multi-term reconstruction loss:

$$\mathcal{L} = \underbrace{\|\hat{x}_0 - x_0\|_2}_{L2} + \lambda_s \mathcal{L}_{\text{SSIM}} + \lambda_p \mathcal{L}_{\text{Watson-VGG}}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SSIM}}$  is SSIM loss (Zhao et al., 2017) which preserves structural similarity, and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Watson-VGG}}$  corresponds to the Watson-VGG perceptual loss (Czolbe et al., 2021) enforcing perceptual fidelity using features extracted by pre-trained VGG network.

### 3.1.3 Adaptive Image Enhancement

To preserve visual quality while maintaining watermark robustness, ZoDiac employs an adaptive blending mechanism between the watermarked image  $\hat{x}_0$  and original  $x_0$  through the parameterized operation:

$$\bar{x}_0 = \hat{x}_0 + \gamma(x_0 - \hat{x}_0), \quad (6)$$

where the blending coefficient  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$  is optimized via binary search to satisfy structural fidelity constraints:

$$\min \gamma \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \text{SSIM}(\bar{x}_0, x_0) \geq s^*. \quad (7)$$

This formulation explicitly negotiates the trade-off between imperceptibility and watermark detectability (measured via WDR). The dynamic adaptation mechanism enables automatic quality control across diverse image characteristics - a critical improvement over rigid approaches like StegaStamp and RivaGAN, which exhibit quality degradation under latent-space perturbations. By construction, the blending process preserves high-frequency watermark components while suppressing low-frequency artifacts, ensuring both visual fidelity and attack resilience.

### 3.1.4 Watermark Detection via Statistical Testing

Watermark detection involves performing a null hypothesis test on the presence of  $\mathbf{W}$  in binary mask  $\mathbf{y}$  of reconstructed image latent  $\mathbf{Z}_T$ :

1. **DDIM Inversion:** Reconstruct the latent  $\mathbf{Z}'_T = \mathcal{G}'(x'_0)$  from the (potentially attacked) image  $x'_0$ .
2. **Fourier Extraction:** Compute the watermark binary mask  $\mathbf{y} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{Z}'_T)[-1, :, :]$ .
3. **Non-Central Chi-Squared Test:**
  - (a) Null hypothesis  $H_0 : \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$ .
  - (b) Test statistic:  $\eta = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum (\mathbf{M} \odot \mathbf{W} - \mathbf{M} \odot \mathbf{y})^2$ . Under  $H_0$ ,  $\eta$  follows a non-central chi-squared distribution (Patnaik, 1949)
  - (c) Reject  $H_0$  if  $(1 - p) > p^*$ , where  $p$  is obtained from the  $\chi^2$  CDF with  $\sum \mathbf{M}$  degrees of freedom. Here,  $(1 - p)$  represents the likelihood of watermark presence and  $p^*$  is the set threshold; hence, an image is deemed watermarked if  $(1 - p) > p^*$ .

## 3.2 Evaluation Metrics

To comprehensively assess ZoDiac’s performance, we use four quantitative metrics spanning detection robustness, image quality and attack resilience. These metrics align with established benchmarks in the field.

**Detection Robustness:** The **Watermark Detection Rate (WDR)** is calculated as  $\text{WDR} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$ , measuring the proportion of watermarked images correctly identified under attack. The **False Positive Rate (FPR)** is given by  $\text{FPR} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{FP} + \text{TN}}$ .

**Image Quality Preservation:** This is measured by evaluating

- **Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR):** Defined as

$$\text{PSNR}(x, \bar{x}) = -10 \log_{10}(\text{MSE}(x, \bar{x}))$$

- **Structural Similarity Index (SSIM):** (Zhao et al., 2017) Enforced as  $\text{SSIM} \geq 0.92$  through adaptive blending.

## 3.3 Experimental Setup

We obtained the code from the Github<sup>2</sup> repository provided by the original authors and greatly appreciate that their well-structured code was easy to understand and modify. While the original codebase contained the core functionality, though somewhat helpful, it was primarily structured as a demonstration notebook rather than a comprehensive framework for experimental validation. Consequently, one of our key contributions was modifying the original repository to include well-organized and generalizable scripts for all the experiments presented in our paper, as well as for practical applications. All of our code is available here: Anonymous Github<sup>3</sup>.

<sup>2</sup>Link to original paper’s GitHub

<sup>3</sup>Link to Anonymous Github

### 3.4 Datasets

**Datasets:** ZoDiac is evaluated across three domains to assess generalizability: **MS-COCO**(Lin et al., 2015) (Real-world photographs, 80,000+ images) to test robustness on natural scenes with complex textures and lighting. A subset of 500 images is randomly sampled from the validation set. **DiffusionDB**(Wang et al., 2023) (AI-generated images, 1.6M+ images) Using a subset of 500 images generated with diverse text prompts. **WikiArt**(Phillips & Mackintosh, 2011) (Artistic works, 250,000+ paintings across 195 styles) validates performance on non-photographic content with unique color palettes and brushstrokes, with a subset of 500 images.

We use an equal number of randomly sampled images from each dataset for all our experiments unless specified otherwise. We use the same datasets as the original paper as we deem the relevance and diversity brought on by these datasets in terms of real and ai-generated images, artistic styles and variety of lighting and textures sufficient for all practical purposes.

### 3.5 Computational Requirements

We evaluated ZoDiac’s demands on consumer-grade GPUs for reproducibility. The watermarking pipeline (latent vector initialization and adaptive enhancement) was run on an NVIDIA P100 (16GB VRAM), taking about 295–320 seconds per image (50 denoising steps, 100 optimization iterations). Adversarial attacks (PGD, 50 steps) were executed on an NVIDIA A6000 (48GB VRAM), requiring 820–950 seconds per image due to increased memory needs; these attacks are also feasible on 16GB GPUs at reduced speed. Overall, robustness testing (including DDIM inversion and statistical test) averaged 2 minutes per image on the P100.

Script	Time (in hours)	Kgs of $CO_2$
Basic Watermarking	13.6	2.38
All Attacks (except adv)	5.3	0.92
Adversarial Attacks	15.8	2.77

Table 1: GPU usage for a batch of 50 images on two different scripts for 50 denoising steps, 100 training iterations, and 50 steps of PGD on a single P100. Quantity of  $CO_2$  estimated using the Machine Learning Impact calculator(Lacoste et al., 2019).

## 4 Experiments

We present our results in two subsections, first reproducing the results from the original paper and then presenting the extended results from experiments beyond the original paper.

### 4.1 Experiments From the Original Paper

#### 4.1.1 Verifying Claim 1: Claimed WDR

We evaluated WDR/FPR on 500-image subset from each dataset. We tested with different detection thresholds present our findings in Table 2. As claimed by the original paper, ZoDiac demonstrates superior robustness across diverse datasets (MS-COCO, DiffusionDB, WikiArt) and attack scenarios: adjustments in brightness or contrast, JPEG compression, Image rotation, Gaussian noise, Gaussian blur, BM3D denoising(Dabov et al., 2007), Bmshj(Ballé et al., 2018), Cheng(Cheng et al., 2020), Zhao(Zhao et al., 2023a); achieving >98% Watermark Detection Rate (WDR). Minor discrepancies (<5%) fall within acceptable bounds, reinforcing the original claims’ validity. Thus, this claim is verified and there is no further discussion or reason to suggest otherwise.

Detection Threshold	FPR ↓	Watermark Detection Rate (WDR) ↑											
		Pre	Bright.	Cont.	JPEG	G-Noise	G-Blur	BM3D	Bmshj	Cheng	Zhao	Rot.	All
MS-COCO													
0.90	0.058	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.992	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.960	0.980	0.516	0.080
0.95	0.014	1.000	0.996	1.000	0.988	0.998	1.000	1.000	0.920	0.958	0.974	0.316	0.080
0.99	0.004	0.996	0.960	0.960	0.952	0.984	0.960	0.952	0.910	0.930	0.938	0.106	0.000
DiffusionDB													
0.90	0.052	1.000	0.998	0.998	0.988	0.978	0.984	0.960	0.980	0.990	0.956	0.530	0.070
0.95	0.012	1.000	0.996	0.996	0.980	0.974	0.976	0.956	0.972	0.980	0.906	0.316	0.000
0.99	0.002	0.996	0.974	0.960	0.964	0.950	0.960	0.950	0.950	0.964	0.860	0.080	0.000
WikiArt													
0.90	0.058	1.000	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	1.000	0.980	0.976	0.960	0.980	0.428	0.040
0.95	0.018	1.000	0.980	0.980	0.984	0.980	1.000	0.980	0.964	0.960	0.960	0.290	0.020
0.99	0.002	1.000	0.974	0.964	0.972	0.944	0.966	0.960	0.958	0.942	0.912	0.080	0.000

Table 2: Effects of varying detection thresholds  $p^* \in \{0.90, 0.95, 0.99\}$  on watermark detection rate (WDR) and false positive rate (FPR) for all attacks. WDR measured on watermarked images with SSIM threshold  $s^* = 0.92$ .

#### 4.1.2 Verifying Claim 2: Attack Resilience

As demonstrated in our experiments, we successfully reproduced the performance of ZoDiac on all metrics explored in the original paper. However, after identifying limitations inherent to the SSIM metric, we devised novel attack classes designed to exploit these weaknesses. While the authors’ claims regarding robustness against the originally evaluated attacks are confirmed as shown in Table 2, our findings highlight that the general robustness of ZoDiac can be compromised under extended attack scenarios as discussed in 4.2.

#### 4.1.3 Verifying Claim 3: Deployment Practicality

Watermark injection required 295–320 seconds/image on an NVIDIA P100 GPU (16GB VRAM), aligning with the original paper’s reported 255.9s/image on an RTX8000, with minor latency variations attributable to GPU architecture differences. While this per-image latency poses challenges for real-time deployment, ZoDiac’s elimination of upfront training costs starkly contrasts with alternatives like Stable Signature, which requires >100 GPU hours to fine-tune the diffusion decoder on a 100K-image dataset.

While ZoDiac’s per-image latency exceeds traditional methods like DwtDct(Bloom et al., 1999) (<10s/image), its robustness justifies the trade-off in non-real-time scenarios (e.g., archival systems). Batch processing 100 images parallelized across 4×P100 GPUs reduces effective latency to <2 hours, comparable to Stable Signature’s training duration for a single model iteration.

ZoDiac’s zero-shot design, provides a viable solution for watermarking existing content without costly re-training. Despite higher per-image latency than non-diffusion methods, its elimination of upfront training (unlike Stable Signature) and dual real/synthetic compatibility (unlike Tree-Ring) make it practical for enterprise-scale deployment. Hence, this claim is also justified.

#### 4.1.4 Verifying Claim 4: Image Quality

Our experiments corroborate ZoDiac’s ability to preserve visual fidelity while embedding watermarks, achieving SSIM > 0.91 across all evaluated datasets (MS-COCO, DiffusionDB, WikiArt). These results closely align with the original paper’s reported values, with minor variations attributable to stochastic initialization during latent optimization. The inclusion of SSIM and perceptual losses in ZoDiac’s training objective inherently enforces fidelity, ensuring watermarked images remain visually indistinguishable from originals.

While ZoDiac prioritizes imperceptibility, ablation studies reveal a predictable trade-off: stricter SSIM thresholds (e.g., SSIM > 0.95) reduce watermark robustness by nearly 80% WDR under composite attacks. However, the original paper’s recommended threshold (SSIM = 0.92) balances this trade-off effectively, as reproduced in our study.

The reproduced results validate the claim, confirming ZoDiac’s capacity to embed watermarks imperceptibly while preserving image quality. Thus this claim is also verified.

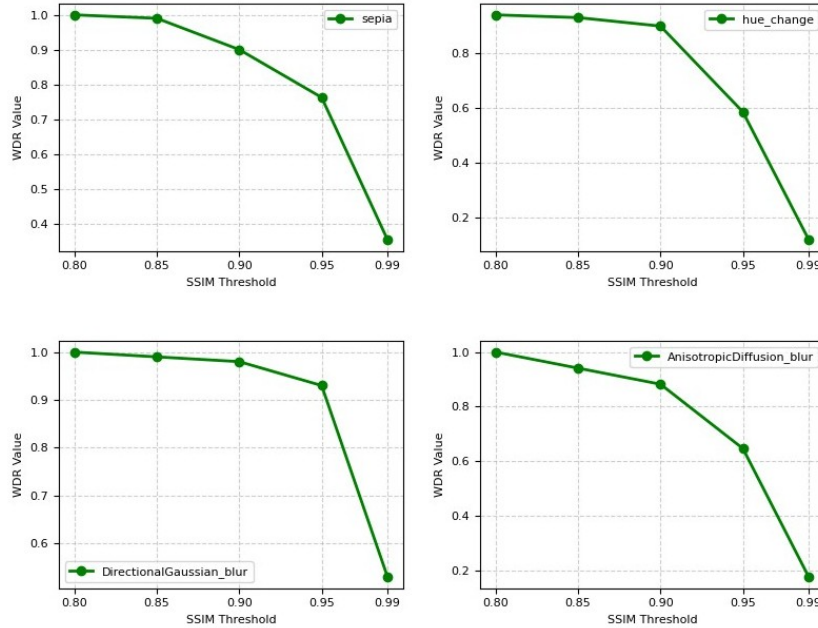


Figure 2: Variation of WDR at  $p^* = 0.9$  with different SSIM thresholds for Sepia, Huechange, DirectionalGaussianBlur, AnisotropicDiffusionBur attackers.

## 4.2 Experiments Beyond the Original Paper

Our extended evaluation reveals that while ZoDiac maintains robustness against its originally tested threat models, the framework is fragile when subjected to more sophisticated attack paradigms, particularly in the hands of a knowledgeable adversary. We found the scheme to be highly susceptible to a range of targeted distortions, including gradient-based adversarial perturbations and geometrically asymmetric manipulations—threat vectors not considered in the initial evaluations. Unlike naturally occurring distortions or standard benchmark attacks, these manipulations are specifically crafted to compromise the watermark’s integrity while preserving the perceptual quality of the subject image.

To probe the nature of this fragility, we implemented an augmented loss function incorporating L1 constraints, designed to enhance watermark persistence. However, this modification yielded only marginal improvements, failing to meaningfully counter the multi-stage offensive pipelines. This outcome strongly suggests the vulnerabilities are not superficial but are inherent to the ZoDiac framework itself, exposing a fundamental weakness in its defense against complex and previously unexplored attack scenarios.

### 4.2.1 Directional Blurring Attacks

The original paper evaluated robustness against isotropic Gaussian blurs but did not address directional blurring attacks—geometrically asymmetric perturbations that exploit rotational dependencies in Fourier-domain watermark embeddings. Our experiments extend ZoDiac’s evaluation to directional blurring kernels, revealing latent-space vulnerabilities tied to circular symmetry assumptions of the framework.

ZoDiac’s radial Fourier mask  $M$  assumes invariance under rotational transformations. Directional blurs violate this assumption, perturbing latent vectors  $Z_T$  via:

$$\mathcal{F}(Z_T)_{rot} = R_\theta(\mathcal{F}(Z_T)) \quad (8)$$



where  $R_\theta$  denotes rotation by  $\theta$ . This disrupts the consistency of the DDIM inversion, as transformed latents map to distinct  $x_0$  reconstructions. Therefore, we hypothesize that attacking through directional blurring schemes will produce significant change in the WDR of the framework.

The implementation of this experiment considers WDR with baseline blurring (Gaussian Blurring) and two directinal blurring techniques- Anisotropic Blurring and Motion Blurring, with the following parameter settings:

Attack Type	Description	WDR
Baseline	Isotropic Gaussian blur ( $\sigma = 3$ ) as used in the original study.	0.994
Motion Blur	Linear kernels (length = 15px) at 30° angles, simulating camera motion.	0.769
Anisotropic Blur	45°-aligned Gaussian kernels ( $\sigma = 3$ ) applied along non-radial axes.	0.646

Table 3: Descriptions of Blur Attacks and Baseline

Table 4 displays some of the results obtained while the complete lists is given in A.1.

#### 4.2.2 Changing Color Hue

While ZoDiac demonstrates robustness against diffusion and noise-based attacks, its reliance on SSIM for quality control introduces vulnerabilities to chromatic distortions. Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) emphasizes luminance and structural fidelity but exhibits limited sensitivity to hue shifts—a critical gap given real-world attack vectors like selective color grading or adversarial hue perturbations. Our experiments evaluate ZoDiac under systematic hue perturbations, revealing SSIM’s failure to capture perceptually significant color distortions that degrade watermark alignment.

Continuing work along these lines , we analyze two more methods - Color Quantization and Sepia filter. Analyzing the attached graphic, Color Quantization and Sepia tone application can be effective at disrupting the ZoDiac watermark. Color Quantization reduces the number of distinct colors in an image, consolidating similar hues into a limited palette. This process compromises high-frequency details and fine gradients, creating block-like artifacts especially notable in smoother regions. Sepia toning, conversely, is a form of color palette reduction that maps original colors to shades of brown, creating a monochromatic aesthetic. While SSIM aims to capture structural similarity across images, it remains relatively insensitive to broad color palette modifications. For ZoDiac, these attacks can induce misregistrations by distorting relationships between chromatic channels, leading to phase corruptions in the embedded Fourier domain and disrupting the DDIM inversion process during watermark detection; furthermore both techniques can introduce signal loss with can increase false negative scores. These vulnerabilities highlight that ZoDiac requires additional strategies for watermarking under perceptually relevant color space manipulations.

	Gaussian	Anisotropic	Sepia Filter	Color Quantization	Hue Change
<b>WDR</b>	0.994	0.646	0.902	0.807	0.773

Table 4: Watermark Detection Rate (WDR) for various attack types: blurring kernels and color filters.

#### 4.2.3 Rotational and Geometric Attacks

In this section, we examine rotation-based and lateral inversion attacks that exploit the geometric dependencies inherent to ZoDiac’s Fourier-domain watermark embeddings. ZoDiac embeds watermarks as concentric rings in Fourier space, relying on their radial symmetry to withstand common distortions. However, rotation-based attacks where the image is rotated by arbitrary angles disrupt this symmetry by misaligning the Fourier mask relative to the original watermark pattern. This misalignment introduces phase shifts that degrade the statistical detection test, resulting in significant drops in the watermark detection rate (WDR), as demonstrated by the marked fluctuations observed with varying rotation angles.(Figure 3)

Similarly, lateral inversion (i.e., horizontal flipping) alters the spatial configuration of the watermark in a manner not anticipated by ZoDiac’s detection framework. This inversion modifies the orientation of the latent-space representation, further exacerbating misalignment during DDIM inversion and Fourier-based detection. Both rotation and inversion attacks leverage the absence of inherent geometric invariance in ZoDiac’s watermarking scheme, rendering it vulnerable to transformations that change spatial relationships without causing perceptible image quality loss. (Results depicted in Table 7)

These observations underscore a key limitation of ZoDiac’s design—its exclusive reliance on circularly symmetric Fourier embeddings without additional mechanisms for geometric correction. To mitigate these vulnerabilities, future work could explore the integration of rotation-invariant embeddings or automated realignment techniques. Notably, the combination of rotation and inversion attacks can reduce the WDR to nearly zero, effectively evading watermark detection while preserving image fidelity. Detailed results are displayed in Appendix A.1

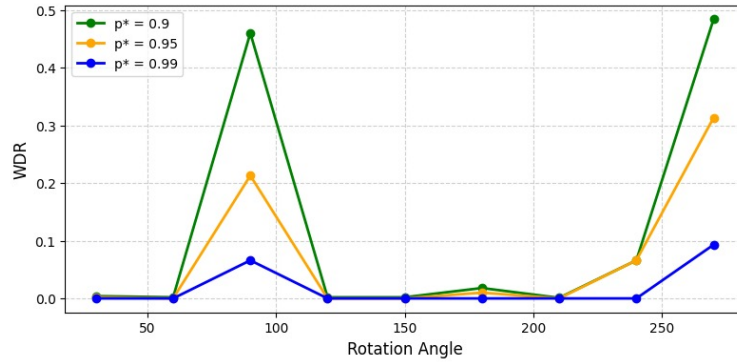


Figure 3: Variation of WDR with change in Rotation Angle at different Detection Threshold ( $p^*$ )

#### 4.2.4 Augmenting the Loss Function

The original ZoDiac framework employs the reconstruction loss:

$$L = \|\hat{x}_0 - x_0\|^2 + \lambda_s L_{SSIM} + \lambda_p L_{\text{Watson-VGG}} \quad (9)$$

to preserve image fidelity while optimizing latent vectors. While effective in basic reconstruction scenarios, this formulation lacks explicit constraints on watermark alignment between injected  $\mathbf{W}$  and reconstructed  $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$  patterns, potentially allowing latent-space misregistrations under complex attack scenarios.

Following established principles in the watermarking domain, we integrate direct watermark fidelity into the loss function by incorporating an  $L_1$  distance term. This methodology aligns with conventional watermarking techniques that leverage a combination of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  constraints to concurrently uphold perceptual quality and enhance watermark robustness (Zhu et al., 2018b; Volpi & Tuia, 2018; Wan et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019).

#### Mechanistic Analysis

The  $L_1$  term directly minimizes the Manhattan distance between  $W$  and  $\hat{W}$  in the complex Fourier domain:

$$\|W - \hat{W}\|_1 = \sum_p \left| \text{Re}(W_p - \hat{W}_p) \right| + \left| \text{Im}(W_p - \hat{W}_p) \right| \quad (10)$$

This enforces phase consistency in concentric rings, reducing misalignment under attack-induced perturbations. Our augmented loss thus becomes:

$$L = \underbrace{\|\hat{x}_0 - x_0\|^2}_{L_2} + \lambda_s L_{\text{SSIM}} + \lambda_p L_{\text{Watson-VGG}} + \lambda_{L1} \|W - \hat{W}\|_1 \quad (11)$$

where  $\lambda_{L1} = 0.1$  balances watermark alignment and visual fidelity.

Empirical evaluation demonstrates that this approach introduces complex trade-offs between different attack resilience mechanisms, highlighting the fundamental challenge in watermarking systems that simultaneously optimize for multiple conflicting objectives, i.e., imperceptibility, robustness, and capacity. The  $L_1$  constraint notably increased resilience to most attack methods, particularly enhancing detection rates for color manipulation attacks (Sepia filters and Color Quantization showing 5.0% and 9.3% improvements respectively). However, some minor performance variations were observed across different attack vectors, with some showing practically no change in WDR, and some infact achieving better attack success. The complete analysis of performance changes resulting from our loss function adjustment is provided in Appendix B.

	Gaussian	Anisotropic	Sepia Filter	Color Quantization
<b>WDR</b>	0.975	0.675	0.950	0.900

Table 5: Watermark Detection Rate (WDR) for various attack types with loss changed: blurring kernels and color filters.

#### 4.2.5 Adversarial Attack by a knowledgeable adversary

ZoDiac’s original robustness claims focus on purification and conventional attacks but omit adversarial perturbations. We extend its threat model to include white-box gradient-based attacks where adversaries perturb the watermarked image to degrade watermark detection. The attacker’s objective is to maximize the deviation between the adversarial latent’s Fourier components and the original watermark region, constrained by an  $\ell_\infty$ -norm bound ( $\epsilon = 0.05$ ). This targets the statistical detection mechanism in ZoDiac’s Fourier space.

#### Attack Methodology

We formulate the adversarial optimization using Projected Gradient Descent (PGD)(Madry et al., 2019) over 50 iterations:

$$Z_T^{adv} = \text{proj}_\epsilon (Z_T^{adv} + \alpha \cdot \text{sign}(\nabla_{Z_T} L_{adv})) , \quad (12)$$

where the adversarial loss function is defined as:

$$L_{adv} = \|M \odot (\mathcal{F}(Z_T^{adv}) - \mathcal{F}(Z_T))\|_1 . \quad (13)$$

By perturbing the latent vector’s Fourier components within this region, the attack disrupts the chi-squared statistical test’s assumptions, reducing detection confidence. Under standalone adversarial attacks ( $\epsilon = 0.05$ ), ZoDiac’s watermark detection rate (WDR) drops to 75.74%, (Table 6).

Furthermore combining adversarial noise with or geometric attacks amplifies robustness degradation. The synergy arises because adversarial perturbations destabilize the latent vector’s Fourier structure, while subsequent attacks exploit residual vulnerabilities. Some of these results are tabulated in Table 6 while a complete list is provided in Appendix C.

#### Infeasibility of Adversarial Training

Adversarial training—fine-tuning ZoDiac on adversarially perturbed latents—is computationally prohibitive. Each PGD iteration requires 820–950 seconds/image on an NVIDIA A6000 GPU. A standard 10-iteration training protocol would demand over 14 hours per image, translating to more than 21,000 GPU hours for a 1,500-image evaluation set. This stems from backpropagation through the full denoising process during latent optimization, which cannot be parallelized due to DDIM’s sequential nature.

Although defenses like randomized thresholds or Fourier-space noise injection could mitigate attacks but might also inadvertently damage watermark detection. Iterative adversarial training remains impractical. ZoDiac’s reliance on pre-trained stable diffusion exacerbates this limitation, as retraining the backbone model would negate its zero-shot advantage.

### Implications

ZoDiac’s latent-space watermarking, while robust to purification, is vulnerable to coordinated adversarial-geometric attacks. Future work should explore lightweight defenses, such as Fourier-domain noise augmentation during watermark injection, to disrupt gradient-based exploits without retraining.

Attack Type	WDR
Adversarial ( $\epsilon = 0.05$ )	0.755
Adversarial + DiffAttacker60	0.491
Adversarial + Rotation(180)	0.018

Table 6: WDR under standalone adversarial attack and composition of adversarial attack with other attacks.

## 5 Discussion

Our analysis is subject to certain limitations and challenges that pave the way for future research. One primary limitation is the nature of our adversarial attack analysis, which assumed a white-box setting. While our focus was on demonstrating the feasibility of incorporating adversarial attacks into the evaluation framework rather than conducting an exhaustive study of partial-knowledge scenarios, we acknowledge that higher PGD budgets can introduce visible artifacts in the generated images. The adaptation of these attacks for settings with incomplete information remains a potential area for exploration but was outside our current scope. Another significant challenge is the computational overhead. The latent optimization process, requiring approximately 300 seconds per image, along with the adversarial attack computation, presents deployment challenges, particularly for large-scale applications. Although these computational requirements are reasonable compared to alternative methods, they may constrain practical implementation when processing numerous images.

Future research efforts should focus on implementing auto-correction defense mechanisms which maybe crucial for defending against rotation- and lateral-inversion-based attacks. This approach can help recover WDR while maintaining a low false positive rate (FPR) through comprehensive training, fine-tuning, and parameter selection. Finally, researchers may consider integrating a more effective reconstruction loss term alongside the extracted watermark within the loss function. This enhancement may lead to consistent improvements in WDR across various benchmarks, offering a potential advantage over conventional  $L_1$  loss methodologies.

## 6 Conclusion

Our reproducibility study validates ZoDiac’s core premise of latent-space watermarking via a pre-trained Stable Diffusion model, achieving robust detection rates (WDR > 98%) and high perceptual quality (SSIM > 0.91) under conventional attack scenarios. Nonetheless, extended evaluations reveal significant vulnerabilities when subjected to directional blurring, adversarial, rotational and composite adversarial-geometric attacks, which severely undermine detection efficacy. The incorporation of an augmented loss function with an  $L_1$  fidelity term yields partial improvements, particularly against chromatic distortions, yet it introduces trade-offs that affect performance across diverse attack vectors. These results underscore the need for further research into rotation-invariant embeddings and efficient adversarial defenses that can harmonize imperceptibility, robustness, and computational practicality.

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## A Extended Attack Results

### A.1 Comprehensive Attack Performance and Configurations

Here is the list of configurations of all the attacks we used in this paper. Attacks missing from this list either did not have any hyperparameters or the settings were self explanatory.

#### Hyperparameter Selections

- **DiffWM Attack:** Noise step = 60
- **Cheng2020-Anchor Compression:** Quality = 3
- **BMSHJ2018-Factorized Compression:** Quality = 3
- **JPEG Compression:** Quality = 1
- **Rotation Attack:** Degree = 30
- **Brightness Attack:** Brightness = 0.5
- **Contrast Attack:** Contrast = 0.5
- **Vibrancy Attack:** Vibrancy = 1.25
- **Gaussian Noise Attack:** Standard Deviation = 0.05
- **Gaussian Blur Attack:** Kernel Size = 5,  $\sigma = 1$
- **Anisotropic Diffusion Blur Attack:** Num Iter = 15,  $\delta_t = 0.14, \kappa = 50$
- **Directional Gaussian Blur Attack:** Kernel Size = 15,  $\sigma = 5$ , Angle = 45
- **Sharpening Attack:** Factor = 2.0
- **Salt and Pepper Noise Attack:** Amount = 0.1
- **Hue Change Attack:** Factor = 0.1
- **Elastic Deformation Attack:**  $\alpha = 1000, \sigma = 50$
- **RGB to HSV Attack:** H-Shift = 0.1, S-Scale = 1.2, V-Scale = 1.1
- **Color Balance Attack:** R-Scale = 1.2, G-Scale = 1.0, B-Scale = 0.8
- **Gamma Correction Attack:**  $\gamma = 1.5$
- **Log Transform Attack:**  $c = 1$
- **Color Jitter Attack:** Brightness = 0.2, Contrast = 0.2, Saturation = 0.2, Hue = 0.1
- **Color Quantization Attack:** Number of Colors = 32
- **Posterization Attack:** Levels = 4

#### Results:

Note: Adversarial attack configurations discussed separately in Section C. Composite attacks ('all', 'all\_norot') use parameter unions from above.

Attacker	30°	60°	90°	120°	150°	180°	210°	240°	270°	Lat. Rot.	Lat. Inversion
WDR	0.004	0.002	0.460	0.002	0.002	0.018	0.001	0.002	0.484	0.007	0.837

Table 7: Variation of WDR with the rotation angle and lateral inversion or a combination (Lat. Rot. means Lateral Inversion + Rotation by 180°)

Attacker Name	WDR at 0.9	WDR at 0.95	WDR at 0.99
DiffWM Attacker	0.933	0.873	0.727
Black and White Attack	0.913	0.853	0.787
Lateral Inversion Attack	0.960	0.940	0.853
Sharpening Attack	0.987	0.987	0.960
Salt and Pepper Noise Attack	0.833	0.673	0.427
Hue Change Attack (0.3)	0.773	0.673	0.500
Elastic Deformation Attack	0.967	0.967	0.927
RGB to HSV Attack	0.980	0.953	0.920
Color Balance Attack	0.993	0.973	0.940
Gamma Correction Attack	0.987	0.980	0.947
Histogram Equalization Attack	0.993	0.973	0.933
Log Transform Attack	1.000	1.000	0.940
Color Jitter Attack	0.960	0.933	0.887
Color Quantization Attack	0.807	0.726	0.600
Sepia Attack	0.900	0.840	0.773
Posterization Attack	0.960	0.940	0.907
Directional Gaussian Blur Attack	0.947	0.933	0.853

Table 8: WDR of all the attacks other than the Rotation based attacks at different  $p^*$  values.

## A.2 Hyperparameter Sensitivity Analysis for Chromatic Distortion Attacks

We extend the original paper’s brightness ( $\delta_{bright}$ ) and contrast ( $\gamma$ ) parameter analysis with additional hue variation studies ( $\Delta h$ ). The attack transformations are:

- **Brightness:**  $\mathcal{I}' = \text{clip}(\mathcal{I} \cdot \delta_{bright})$  for  $\delta_{bright} \in \{0.2, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.8, 1.25, 1.5\}$
- **Contrast:**  $\mathcal{I}' = \mu + \gamma(\mathcal{I} - \mu)$  for  $\gamma \in \{0.2, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.8, 1.25, 1.5\}$
- **Hue(Our Extension):**  $\mathcal{I}'_{HSV} = \mathcal{I}_{HSV} + \Delta h$  for  $\Delta h \in \{0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7\}$  in HSV space

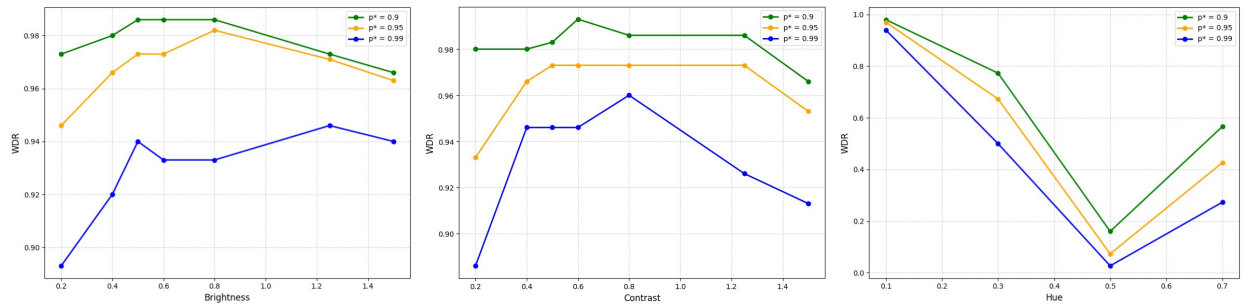


Figure 4: Variation of attack success rates for brightness, contrast (original paper’s parameters) and hue variations (our extension) with change in their respective parameters ( $\delta_{bright}$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\Delta h$ ).



## B Impact of Reconstruction Loss Term

We analyze the effects of modifying loss function as described in Section on our complete attack set.

Attacker	30°	60°	90°	120°	150°	180°	210°	240°	270°	Lat. Rot.	Lat. Inversion
Original	0.004	0.002	0.460	0.002	0.002	0.018	0.001	0.002	0.484	0.007	0.837
Modified	0.004	0.002	0.550	0.002	0.000	0.020	0.000	0.001	0.500	0.006	0.950

Table 9: Rotation-Based Attacks with original and modified loss for comparison

Excluded Attacker Names	Original	Modified
Brightness 0.5	0.987	0.975
Contrast 0.5	0.973	0.975
JPEG Compression	0.687	0.775
Gaussian Noise Attack	0.993	0.975
Gaussian Blur Attack	0.993	0.975
BM3D Attack	0.993	1.000
BMSHJ2018-Factorized Compression	0.960	0.950
Cheng2020-Anchor Compression	0.973	0.975

Table 10: Original Attacks with original and modified loss for comparison

Attacker Name	Original	Modified
DiffWM Attacker	0.933	0.900
Black and White Attack	0.913	0.975
Lateral Inversion Attack	0.960	0.950
Sharpening Attack	0.987	0.975
Salt and Pepper Noise Attack	0.833	0.775
Hue Change Attack (0.3)	0.773	0.775
Elastic Deformation Attack	0.967	0.950
RGB to HSV Attack	0.980	0.950
Color Balance Attack	0.993	1.000
Gamma Correction Attack	0.987	0.975
Histogram Equalization Attack	0.993	1.000
Log Transform Attack	1.000	1.000
Color Jitter Attack	0.960	0.950
Color Quantization Attack	0.807	0.900
Sepia Attack	0.900	0.950
Posterization Attack	0.960	0.975
Anisotropic Diffusion Blur Attack	0.646	0.675
Directional Gaussian Blur Attack	0.947	0.950

Table 11: Attacks proposed in our work with original and modified loss for comparison

Although the introduction of Reconstruction Loss did mitigate some of the attacks, it also diminished performance in some other attacks. Overall, this loss function can be improved further by calibrating the weights assigned to each loss better or even introducing a new loss term other than L1 loss we have shown.

## C Adversarial Attack Analysis

### C.1 Composite Attack Results

Here we show the results for combinations of most successful attacks with adversarial attacks. All attacks are performed in standard configurations mentioned in Section A.1, an adversarial attack is carried out with a budget of 0.05 and 50 PGD steps.

Attack Name	WDR Score
Base	0.7547
diff_attacker_60	0.4906
jpeg_attacker_50	0.7736
brightness_0.5	0.7736
Motion_blur	0.5094
contrast_0.5	0.7358
vibrancy_1.25	0.7925
black_white	0.3962
lateral_inversion	0.6038
Gaussian_blur	0.7925
AnisotropicDiffusion_blur	0.3774
DirectionalGaussian_blur	0.4906
sharpening	0.7358
salt_pepper_noise	0.4151
hue_change_0.5	0.0755
posterization	0.6981
sepia	0.4151
rotate_90	0.0943
rotate_180	0.0189
rotate_270	0.1887
lateral_rotate	0.0189
bm3d	0.7736
all	0.0566

Table 12: WDR Scores for Various Attack Composition with Adversarial Attack

## C.2 Attack Budget and Step Count Analysis

We analyze the interaction between perturbation budgets  $\epsilon \in \{0.05, 0.1\}$  and PGD step counts  $k \in \{5, 10, 20, 50\}$ .

Budget	Number of Steps			
	5	10	20	50
<b>0.05</b>	0.8302	0.8278	0.8112	0.7546
<b>0.1</b>	0.6102	0.6032	0.5894	0.5206

Table 13: WDR with different combinations of perturbation budgets and number of PGD optimization steps.

Although WDR did go down for higher budgets as expected, due to variations specifically in fourier space, the image quality suffers due to artifaction in the images. Thus the budget should be regulated closely as per the goals of the adversary. The variation of WDR in composite attacks is also almost in proportion to changes in the base case.