

AFAN: An Attention-Driven Forgery Adversarial Network for Blind Image Inpainting

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AFAN: An Attention-Driven Forgery Adversarial Network for Blind Image Inpainting

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 Abstract—Blind image inpainting is a challenging task aimed at reconstructing corrupted regions without relying on mask information. Due to the lack of mask priors, previous meth- ods usually integrate a mask prediction network in the initial phase, followed by an inpainting backbone. However, this multi- stage generation process may result in feature misalignment. While recent end-to-end generative methods bypass the mask prediction step, they typically struggle with weak perception of contaminated regions and introduce structural distortions. This study presents a novel mask region perception strategy for blind image inpainting by combining adversarial training with forgery detection. To implement this strategy, we propose an attention- driven forgery adversarial network (AFAN), which leverages adaptive contextual attention (ACA) blocks for effective feature modulation. Specifically, within the generator, ACA employs self- attention to enhance content reconstruction by utilizing the rich contextual information of adjacent tokens. In the discriminator, ACA utilizes cross-attention with noise priors to guide adversarial learning for forgery detection. Moreover, we design a high- frequency omni-dimensional dynamic convolution (HODC) based on edge feature enhancement to improve detail representation. Extensive evaluations across multiple datasets demonstrate that the proposed AFAN model outperforms existing generative meth- ods in blind image inpainting, particularly in terms of quality and texture fidelity.

 Index Terms—Blind image inpainting, transformer, generative adversarial network.

28 I. INTRODUCTION

IMAGE inpainting typically relies on input masks to indicate corrupted regions, which are crucial for guiding the restoration process. However, it is difficult to acquire masking 29 MAGE inpainting typically relies on input masks to indi-**L** cate corrupted regions, which are crucial for guiding the information in practical applications, leading to the poor per- formance of inpainting algorithms that are dependent on prior knowledge. Thus, this situation promotes the development of mask-free image restoration, commonly known as blind image inpainting.

 Considering the difficulty in accurately identifying cor- rupted parts, blind image inpainting is categorized into two distinct methods: end-to-end generation and multi-stage gen- eration. Given a contaminated image like Fig. 1(a), end-to- end methods [1]–[3] usually employ general inpainting frame- works and combine with Generative Adversarial Networks $\frac{43}{4}$ (GANs) [4], transformer blocks [5]–[7], etc to further enhance performance. Leveraging the feature inference capability of backbone networks, these frameworks can directly fill the

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Fig. 1. Comparison samples of different methods on Places2 dataset. (b-c) are typical of the multi-stage generation and (d) is typical of the end-to-end generation.

corrupted regions of the image without using mask information 46 as a reference. Although the end-to-end idea simplifies the 47 process, the lack of mask perception potentially interferes with ⁴⁸ the attention to features affected by contamination, leading to a blurred texture in the final result, as illustrated in Fig. $1(d)$. 50

The multi-stage methods $[8]$ – $[13]$ decompose blind image $\frac{51}{2}$ inpainting into two sub-tasks: mask prediction and universal 52 image inpainting. Previous works $[8]$, $[10]$, $[11]$ mainly adopt $\overline{}$ 53 convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to locate visually un- ⁵⁴ reasonable regions. Considering that the initial mask prediction 55 network significantly influences the reconstructed content, Ft- ⁵⁶ tdr $[12]$ utilizes the transformer backbone for mask prediction. 57 TransHAE [9] applies a hybrid transformer encoder with a 58 cross-layer dissimilarity prompt, and merges two sub-tasks ⁵⁹ into one framework. However, these methods usually lead to \sim 60 misaligned features between the generated mask priors and 61 the subsequent reconstructed regions. The contextual structure ϵ_{62} distortion of the final result caused by the deviations in mask 63 prediction is illustrated in Fig. $1(b-c)$.

Blind image inpainting requires not just the reconstruction of coherent content and fine texture, but the perception of $\overline{66}$ contaminated regions. Multi-stage methods necessitate the 67 predicted mask to represent contaminated regions, while the $\overline{68}$ continual refinement of mask prediction network tends to 69 increase the complexity of the overall framework. Although end-to-end methods offer a more streamlined solution, they

 essentially rely on the inherent repair capabilities of the net- work, and they do not contain mask region perception process. Therefore, integrating a mask region feedback mechanism into end-to-end methods is considered as an effective solution.

 In this paper, we address the above issues by proposing an attention-driven forgery adversarial network, named AFAN. The key idea of AFAN is to combine forgery region de- tection with adversarial learning in the inpainting process, 80 which provides an innovative mask region perception strategy 81 for end-to-end models. Specifically, the generator accurately 82 identifies and reconstructs reasonable content in corrupted regions without mask priors. The discriminator adds pixel- level perception and noise priors, which locates the inpainted 85 regions towards the mask groundtruth from the perspective of forgery detection. Note that only the computational costs of 87 the generator are produced during inference, which means that the discriminator has the potential to integrate more complex components and thus improve its mask region perception abilities.

⁹¹ For the feature modeling capability of the AFAN, employing transformers to achieve global perception has become the mainstream scheme. In practice, the attention matrix is based on pairs of isolated queries and keys, which inadvertently lim- its the ability to capture fine differences in local features due to ignoring complex contextual relationships existing between tokens located at adjacent spatial locations. However, this ability is important in blind image scenes where the texture of contaminated regions is similar to the background regions. To address this, we design a novel adaptive contextual attention (ACA) to improve the feature modeling ability by integrating the local context of adjacent tokens with non-local learning. Specifically, within the generator, the ACA introduces a gating mechanism in the query component to dynamically fuse multi- scale features that contain local contextual information. In the discriminator, the ACA reconstructs the noise priors as the query component using the same process. This query component then engages in cross-attention with key-value pairs derived from features of the inpainted image, thereby guiding adversarial training for forgery detection. Moreover, we develop a high-frequency omni-dimensional dynamic con- volution (HODC) to further modulate local details. This mod- ule extends upon omni-dimensional dynamic convolution by combining edge features, thereby highlighting the contami- nated regions and amplifying the representation of texture.

The main contributions are summarized as follows:

- ¹¹⁷ We offer a new perspective into blind image inpainting. The combination of adversarial training with forgery re- gion detection strengthens the perception of contaminated areas, allowing the model to synthesize the accurate contents.
- We present an attention-driven forgery adversarial net- work capable of performing inpainting operations in an end-to-end manner, leveraging the proposed mask region perception strategy.
- We design an adaptive contextual attention algorithm to capture both long-range dependencies and local contex- tual features, thereby enhancing the capacity of recon-struction.

• We develop a high-frequency omni-dimensional dynamic 130 convolution, which incorporates edge features to improve 131 the representation of details.

II. RELATED WORK 133

A. Image Inpainting 134

Conventional image inpainting primarily relies on diffusion- ¹³⁵ based $[14]$, $[15]$ or patch-matching $[16]$, $[17]$ schemes, which 136 find similar segments within the original image to fill in the 137 corrupted parts. However, these methods struggle to handle 138 distortions involving extensive or complex content. With the 139 advent of deep learning, it has become the dominant tech- ¹⁴⁰ nique in the field of image inpainting. Related works $[18]$ – 141 [21] commonly utilize the encoder-decoder architectures and 142 enhance contextual understanding through advanced modules, 143 such as GAN loss $[22]$, gated convolution $[23]$, contextual 144 attention mechanisms [24], [25]. Although effective in ad- ¹⁴⁵ dressing abnormal features, these methods face challenges in ¹⁴⁶ reconstructing large missing regions. To capture information ¹⁴⁷ located far apart spatially, mainstream methods [26]–[28] 148 integrate pixel-wise attention blocks into the models, primarily 149 reinforcing global context. Recently, the focus has shifted 150 towards transformer-based methods $[6]$, $[29]$ – $[33]$, which are 151 suitable for non-local modeling and are highly effective at 152 understanding and reconstructing image content across large 153 spatial extents. Despite their strengths, these methods typi- ¹⁵⁴ cally rely on mask information for inpainting, limiting their 155 applicability in scenarios where such mask data is unavailable. 156 Consequently, some researchers $[34]-[36]$ have explored the 157 use of text features as an alternative to mask information for ¹⁵⁸ image and video frame inpainting. In response to these chal- ¹⁵⁹ lenges, a new approach known as blind image inpainting has 160 emerged, enabling the recovery of corrupted regions without 161 requiring any mask prior.

B. Blind Image Inpainting 163

Existing blind image inpainting methods include end-to- ¹⁶⁴ end generation and multi-stage generation. Cai et al. [1] 165 first propose blind image inpainting with an end-to-end CNN 166 architecture, which detects and restores corrupted regions 167 without mask reference. Following this, Zhang *et al.* [2] 168 design a feature-oriented blind inpainting network for deep ¹⁶⁹ face verification. Liu *et al.* [10] introduce residual modules to 170 synthesize the details and structures. These methods typically 171 focus on simple patch regions. To handle complex forms of 172 image contamination, Wang *et al.* [8] define a two-stage framework VCN, which predicts the mask regions before inpainting, 174 This approach accurately guides the content filling process. 175 Similarly, SIN [13] perceives context information of the corrupted parts via self-prior learning to promote semantically 177 coherent image synthesis. Considering the exhibit limitation 178 when dealing with larger contaminated regions, recent works 179 apply transformers to model long-range dependencies. For 180 instance, Ft-tdr $[12]$ employs self-attention blocks in both the 181 mask prediction stage and the inpainting stage for better facial 182 feature restoration. TransHAE [9] merges global modeling of ¹⁸³ the transformer and local modeling of CNN into a single ¹⁸⁴

Fig. 2. Framework Overview. The AFAN consists of a generator G and a two-branch discriminator D . G integrates adaptive contextual attention (ACA) blocks to capture both long-range dependencies and local contextual features effectively, and the high-frequency omni-dimensional dynamic convolution (HODC) is introduced to improve texture details. D employs not just a standard binary classification mechanism D_1 for determining the overall authenticity of I_o/I_{at} , but integrates a multi-scale decoder D_2 to perform pixel-level forgery region detection. Note that D is guided by the analysis of noise fingerprints N.

 framework to reconstruct the image. Phutke *et al.* [3] skip the mask prediction and design an end-to-end transformer- based backbone. Nevertheless, isolated interactions among keys, queries, and values in the transformer may lead to underutilized local contextual information, which tends to pro- duce coarser structures. Therefore, our work aims to aggregate long-range modeling and local context representation into a transformer module. The proposed framework employs a novel mask region perception strategy, which combines adversarial training with forgery detection to achieve reasonable image synthesis.

196 III. APPROACH

 In this work, we propose an end-to-end framework named 198 AFAN (see Fig. 2), which consists of a generator G and a two-199 branch discriminator D . Specifically, the generator G directly restores corrupted regions in the absence of mask priors. To enhance the ability for visual representation, two major components are introduced namely: (a) adaptive contextual attention (ACA), to synergistically model both global features and local contextual details, and (b) high-frequency omni- ²⁰⁴ dimensional dynamic convolution (HODC): for facilitating the 205 perception of texture information. The discriminator D focuses 206 on improving the quality of overall appearance. Inspired ²⁰⁷ by forgery region detection, the proposed AFAN combines 208 adversarial strategies with pixel-level detection of the inpainted 209 areas, and this advanced discriminator can be used as a mask ²¹⁰ region feedback mechanism.

Let h, w be the spatial size, $I_{gt} \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times 3}$ be the 212 groundtruth image and M be the mask image (the values 1 213 and 0 indicate the contaminated and uncontaminated pixels, ²¹⁴ respectively). The corrupted input image I_c is expressed as $_{216}$ below: $below:$ 216

$$
I_c = I_{gt} \odot (1 - \mathbb{G}[M]) + S \odot \mathbb{G}[M], \tag{1}
$$

where \odot is pixel-wise multiplication and $S \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times 3}$ is a 217 visual signal (e.g., constant values, random noise or graffiti). ²¹⁸ $\mathbb{G}[\cdot]$ refers to Gaussian smoothing, a technique in image 219 processing that employs a Gaussian filter to reduce noise and 220 detail. This process makes image stitching smoother and even 221

Fig. 3. Noise-sensitive fingerprint representation. (b) shows the image recovered by AFAN. (c) and (d) display the noise-sensitive fingerprints generated by the Noiseprint++ algorithm from (b) and the feature-scaled (b), respectively. Note that feature scaling in this scene refers to downsampling the image and then restoring it to its original size.

²²² renders the contaminated areas less noticeable. The following ²²³ sections will describe the framework architecture and image ²²⁴ computation.

²²⁵ *A. Adversarial Training with Forgery Detection*

 Motivation. For the mask-free image inpainting, the ab- sence of mask perception could potentially weaken the restora- tion of contaminated regions. The proposed AFAN innova- tively integrates adversarial training with forgery detection, introducing a feedback mechanism for mask regions to en- hance the performance of end-to-end methods. Thus, the discrimination module is structured not just to recover realistic details but to evaluate the genuineness of the restored regions.

 Forgery Detection. The discriminator D identifies in- painted regions from the perspective of forgery detection and aligns them with the mask groundtruth. Recent forgery de- tection methods usually introduce noise-sensitive fingerprints 238 as additional input, such as Noiseprint $[37]$, Noiseprint++ [38], and SRM filtering [39]. This work uses the state-of- the-art Noiseprint++ algorithm to generate robust noise priors N, as illustrated in Fig. 3. Even when feature scaling alters the distribution of unseen noise in the inpainted image, this algorithm effectively highlights grid inconsistencies in the $_{244}$ edited areas (see Fig. 3(d)).

 Discriminator Architecture. As shown in Fig. 2(b), the $_{246}$ inpainted image I_0 generated by the generator G is fed into the discriminator D as input. The encoder of D consists of downsampling layers and ACA blocks. To enhance the robustness of forgery detection, the noise-sensitive fingerprints N are integrated into the image features through the cross- attention mechanism of the ACA blocks. As indicated in Fig. 4, the integration of noise fingerprints N significantly en- hances the discriminator's capability to identify forged regions. Subsequently, the output of the encoder is divided into two branches. One branch D_1 employs binary classification for a holistic assessment of authenticity, assigning a value of 1 for real and 0 for fake. The other branch D_2 leads to a multi-scale decoder that aggregates features of all downsampling stages to produce robust pixel-level labeling maps. This decoder identifies forged areas as fake and genuine areas as real.

261 Adversarial Training. For the overall image discrimination, 262 this work utilizes the hinge loss function $[40]$ to optimize both

Fig. 4. Forgery discrimination heatmaps generated using self-attention SA and cross-attention CA of the ACA block. (b) shows the image recovered by AFAN, and (d) indicates the fusion of noise fingerprints N and inpainted images I_o via cross-attention.

the projected discriminator D and the generator G . Thus the 263 objective function for the GAN process is expressed as: ²⁶⁴

$$
\mathcal{L}_{adv}^{D} = \mathbb{E}_{I_{gt}}[ReLU(1 - D_1(I_{gt}, N))]
$$

+ $\mathbb{E}_{I_o}[ReLU(1 + D_1(I_o, N))],$ (2)

$$
\mathcal{L}_{adv}^{G} = -\mathbb{E}_{I_o}[D_1(I_o, N)].
$$

Additionally, for mask region perception, we implement 265 forgery discrimination devised to distinguish between authen- ²⁶⁶ tic and forged pixels within an image: 267

$$
\mathcal{L}_{forg}^{D} = \mathbb{E}_{I_{gt}}[ReLU(1 - D_2(I_{gt}, N))]
$$

+ $\mathbb{E}_{I_o}[ReLU(1 - D_2(I_o, N) \odot (1 - M))]$
+ $\mathbb{E}_{I_o}[ReLU(1 + D_2(I_o, N) \odot M)],$
 $\mathcal{L}_{forg}^{G} = -\mathbb{E}_{I_o}[D_2(I_o, N) \odot M].$ (3)

B. Generator Architecture. 268

As illustrated in Fig. $2(a)$, the generator G is an encoder- 269 decoder network comprising 8 transformer-style components ²⁷⁰ and several sampling layers. Each pair of mirrored components 271 between the encoder and decoder contains $[4, 6, 6, 8]$ ACA $_{272}$ blocks, with $[1, 2, 4, 8]$ attention heads and $[48, 96, 192, 384]$ 273 channels, respectively. Notably, a HODC layer is added before 274 each block to enhance texture details, and the ACA performs 275 self-attention instead of cross-attention in the generator. The 276 input image I_c to the encoder sequentially passes through 277 HODC layers (which can serve as downsampling layers) and 278 ACA blocks, progressively reducing the image size (height, 279 width) to $1/8$ of its original dimensions. Conversely, the 280 decoder employs upsampling layers and analogous processes ²⁸¹ to reconstruct the image to its original input dimensions. 282 Meanwhile, the skip connections are added in each feature 283 scale to retain low-level information.

C. Adaptive Contextual Attention ²⁸⁵

The self-attention mechanism focuses on the correlations ²⁸⁶ between pairs of individual tokens. Given the features $F \in$ 287 $\mathbb{R}^{d \times c}$ (*d* is spatial size and *c* is channel) from intermediate 288 layers of AFAN, the attention first converts F into queries Q , 289

Fig. 5. Multi-scale feature representation. (b)-(e) are the contextual feature representations sampled at different spatial scales in the ACA. (f) represents the gated mechanism $\mathcal{G}[F, F]$ that adaptively fuse these multi-scale features.

 290 keys K, and values V using respective linear matrices, and 291 the output $F_a \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c}$ is formulated as follows:

$$
F_a = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{Q \cdot K^T}{\sqrt{d}}\right) \cdot V. \tag{4}
$$

 292 Building on this, CAT $[41]$ proposes the cross-attention that ²⁹³ combines asymmetrically two separate embedding sequences ²⁹⁴ of the same dimension.

 For the discriminator D, we employ cross-attention (the 296 noise fingerprints N serve as a query Q_N input and the 297 inpainted image I_0 as a key K and value V input), effectively integrating noise priors into the image features. Since the noise fingerprints N are sparse high-frequency information, applying global spatial attention to these features may be redundant and computationally expensive. Therefore, the attention operation targets the channel dimensions $(c \times c)$ instead of the spatial 303 dimension $(d \times d)$:

$$
F_a^D = V \cdot \text{softmax}\left(\frac{Q_N^T \cdot K}{\sqrt{d}}\right). \tag{5}
$$

 Although cross-channel attention effectively recovers high- quality depth features, it lacks the compensation for spatial feature modulation. This shortfall is due to the dot product calculation treating each query-key pair as an independent unit, thus ignoring the intricate spatial contextual relationships among tokens. This limitation weakens the capacity to capture the nuanced distinctions within local features, especially for noise fingerprints. To address this, we develop a novel scheme 312 named adaptive contextual attention (ACA), which integrates local context computation with global attention, as illustrated 314 in Fig. 2(c). Specifically, the features $N \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c}$ extracted from noise fingerprints are split into n parts at the channel 316 level, resulting in a distinct set $\{N_0, N_1, ..., N_{n-1}\}, 2 \le n \le$ 4. The first part N_0 performs depth-wise convolutions (DW-318 Conv) with kernel size $k = 2n - 1$ to collect local contextual 319 information, while the rest parts N_i $(i \in [1, n-1])$ are down-

Fig. 6. Edge feature representation. (a) and (c) are the contaminated images, while (b) and (d) are the corresponding edge images obtained through Scharr filtering. The edge features amplify the global detail representation and highlight the contours and textures of the contaminated regions that are similar to the background.

sampled to $1/2^i$ of their original size through max-pooling lay- 320 ers. Subsequently, these multi-scale features similarly perform 321 $k \times k$ depth-wise convolutions and restore their original size 322 using the nearest interpolation. This process generates a new 323 set $\{\hat{N}_0, \hat{N}_1, ..., \hat{N}_{n-1}\}$, which are then concatenated along the 324 set $\{N_0, N_1, ..., N_{n-1}\}$, which are then concatenated along the ∞
channel dimension to form an aggregated feature \hat{N} . It can be formulated as: 326

$$
N_0, N_1, \dots, N_{n-1} = \text{Split}(N),
$$

\n
$$
\hat{N}_0 = \text{DWConv}_{k \times k}(N_0),
$$

\n
$$
\hat{N}_i = \uparrow_{2^i} (\text{DWConv}_{k \times k}(\downarrow_{\frac{1}{2^i}} (N_i))),
$$

\n
$$
\hat{N} = \text{Concat}(\hat{N}_0, \hat{N}_1, \dots, \hat{N}_{n-1}),
$$
\n(6)

where \downarrow and \uparrow represent the downsampling and upsampling 327 operations, respectively. The feature N contains rich spatial 328 context, which can enhance the detailed representation of the 329 initial feature N . To this end, we apply a gated mechanism 330 $\mathcal{G}[\cdot]$ to adaptively fuse them: $\mathcal{S}[\cdot]$ to adaptively fuse them:

$$
\mathcal{G}\left[\hat{N}, N\right] = \phi(\hat{N}) \odot N, \tag{7}
$$

where ϕ is GELU activation function and ⊙ is pixel-wise 332 multiplication. Meanwhile, a new \hat{Q} component is generated 333 based on the fused features, and the output $\hat{F}_a^D \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c}$ of 334 ACA is calculated as follows: 335

$$
\hat{Q}_N = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(\mathcal{G}\left[\hat{N}, N\right]),
$$
\n
$$
\hat{F}_a^D = V \cdot \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\hat{Q}_N^T \cdot K}{\sqrt{d}}\right).
$$
\n(8)

This scheme efficiently utilizes the contextual information ³³⁶ among neighboring tokens to enhance non-local learning. 337

For the generator G , the enhancement of local contextual $\frac{338}{2}$ processing is necessary, especially in scenes where the style ³³⁹ of the partially contaminated region is similar to that of the ³⁴⁰ background. Thus, we retain the ACA module and use self- ³⁴¹ attention $(K, Q, V$ components are all generated from the same 342 input feature F via linear layers) instead of cross-attention. 343 The adaptive contextual features can be represented as: 344

$$
F_0, F_1, \dots, F_{n-1} = \text{Split}(F),
$$

\n
$$
\hat{F}_0 = \text{DWConv}_{k \times k}(F_0),
$$

\n
$$
\hat{F}_i = \uparrow_{2^i} (\text{DWConv}_{k \times k}(\downarrow_{\frac{1}{2^i}} (F_i))),
$$

\n
$$
\hat{F} = \text{Concat}(\hat{F}_0, \hat{F}_1, \dots, \hat{F}_{n-1}),
$$

\n
$$
\mathcal{G}\left[\hat{F}, F\right] = \phi(\hat{F}) \odot F.
$$
\n(9)

Fig. 7. Comparison with the state-of-the-art. These images come from CelebAMask-HQ [42], FFHQ [43] with various contamination patterns.

³⁴⁵ Fig. 5 shows feature representations at different scales and $G[F, F]$ aggregates rich contextual information. After obtain-³⁴⁷ ing \hat{Q} through a convolution layer, the output $\hat{F}_a^G \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c}$ of ³⁴⁸ ACA can be formulated as:

$$
\hat{Q} = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(\mathcal{G}\left[\hat{F}, F\right]),
$$
\n
$$
\hat{F}_a^G = V \cdot \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\hat{Q}^T \cdot K}{\sqrt{d}}\right). \tag{10}
$$

³⁴⁹ *D. High-frequency Omni-dimensional Dynamic Convolution*

 Due to the lack of mask guidance, blind image inpaint- ing may struggle to detect contaminated regions that have semantic similarity to the background. Furthermore, current 353 research [44] shows that the information lost in the process of downscaling is primarily high-frequency information. To better highlight contaminated regions and preserve texture, we propose a high-frequency omni-dimensional dynamic convo- lution (HODC) illustrated in Fig. 2(d) (the purple path), which utilizes edge features to amplify the representation of details. For instance, Fig. 6 indicates that the edge features can well represent the contours of the contaminated regions and the textures of the normal regions in the input image I_c .

 Typically, dynamic convolution [45] selects n convolutional kernels W based on the input data, rather than using a single kernel in standard convolution. Later, the omni-dimensional dynamic convolution (ODC) [46] simultaneously selects four key dimensions of input features that specifically pertain to

spatial $(\alpha_s \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, k \text{ is the Kernel size})$, channel $(\alpha_c \in \mathbb{R}^{c_{in}})$, some filter ($\alpha_f \in \mathbb{R}^{c_{out}}$), and kernel ($\alpha_w \in \mathbb{R}$). Fig. 2(d) (the blue 368 path) shows that the convolutional sets $\alpha = [\alpha_s, \alpha_c, \alpha_f, \alpha_w]$ 369 are generated through a series of attention processes $\mathbb{P}[\cdot]$, 370 which include global average pooling (GAP), linear projection, 371 normalization, and Softmax/Sigmoid calculation. Given the 372 features $F \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c_{in}}$ from intermediate layers of AFAN, the 373 ODC scheme can be formulated as: 374

$$
\alpha_s, \alpha_c, \alpha_f, \alpha_w = \mathbb{P}[F],
$$

$$
F_{odc} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_{w_i} \odot \alpha_{f_i} \odot \alpha_{c_i} \odot \alpha_{s_i} \odot W_i) * F,
$$
 (11)

where $F_{ode} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c_{out}}$ is the output features, $*$ is the 375 convolution operation. 376

To amplify the representation of details, HODC employs 377 images created through edge detection (e.g., Scharr filter $[47]$) $\frac{378}{2}$ to augment the fine details in the input features. Specifically, 379 the Scharr operator computes the gradients of F at each 380 point in the horizontal and vertical directions. This process is 381 achieved by performing convolution with the Scharr kernels 382 W_x and W_y , respectively: 383

$$
W_x = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 0 & 3 \\ -10 & 0 & 10 \\ -3 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad W_y = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 10 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & -10 & -3 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (12)
$$

Subsequently, the magnitude of the gradient feature E at each 384 point is computed as follows: 385

$$
E = \sqrt{(W_x * F)^2 + (W_y * F)^2}.
$$
 (13)

Fig. 8. Comparison with the state-of-the-art. These images come from Paris StreetView [48] and Places2 [49] with various contamination patterns.

 To enhance the input features with the detected edge details, 387 the weighted sum $F_E \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c_{in}}$ of the original features and edge features can be formulated as:

$$
F_E = \beta_1 F + \beta_2 E,\tag{14}
$$

389 where β_1, β_2 are weights that control the contribution of the 390 original image and the edge detail. In this work, we set $\beta_1 = 1$ 391 and $\beta_2 = 0.5$, which means the enhanced image retains the original colors and brightness while emphasizing the texture. **S93** Finally, the output feature $F_{hode} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times c_{out}}$ can be represented as:

$$
\hat{\alpha}_s, \hat{\alpha}_c, \hat{\alpha}_f, \hat{\alpha}_w = \mathbb{P}[F_E],
$$

$$
F_{hode} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\alpha}_{w_i} \odot \hat{\alpha}_{f_i} \odot \hat{\alpha}_{c_i} \odot \hat{\alpha}_{s_i} \odot W_i) * F.
$$
 (15)

395 Fig. 10 visualizes the feature maps generated by each component using ODC and HODC, respectively. The HODC module incorporates edge features to strengthen the encoder's capability in identifying contaminated areas while enhancing the decoder's proficiency in capturing fine texture details.

E. Loss Function

 Taking into account the consistency between overall content and fine detail, AFAN applies four types of loss functions: mean squared error (MSE) loss, perceptual loss, stochastic 404 structural similarity (S3IM) loss [50], and GAN loss.

 Content Loss. The generator G is designed to take a corrupted image I_c as input and aims to reconstruct the output

Fig. 9. A groundtruth image (a) can be subjected to contamination (b) using three distinct types of patterns: regular pattern (c), irregular pattern (d), and text-like pattern (e).

image I_o towards the groundtruth image I_{gt} . The formulation 407 of this loss function is as follows: ⁴⁰⁸

$$
\mathcal{L}_{con} = ||I_o - I_{gt}||_2^2, \tag{16}
$$

where $\lVert \cdot \rVert_2$ is the Euclidean norm.

Perceptual Loss. To improve the perceptual quality of images, we adopt a perceptual loss function using a pre-trained 411 $VGG-16$ network $[51]$. 412

$$
\mathcal{L}_{perc} = \sum_{i} \left\| \Phi_i \left(I_o \right) - \Phi_i \left(I_{gt} \right) \right\|_1, \tag{17}
$$

where Φ_i represents the output feature map of the *i*-th layer π in VGG-16, corresponding to the activation layers: $ReLU1_{1,414}$ $ReLU2_1$, $ReLU3_1$, $ReLU4_1$, and $ReLU5_1$. 415

S3IM Loss. The majority of tasks involving image synthesis employ the Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM) 417 loss, which captures local information from adjacent pixels 418 using convolutional kernels. However, SSIM's ability to detect 419

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TABLE I QUANTITATIVE EVALUATIONS ON THE CELEBAMASK-HQ [42], FFHQ [43], PARIS STREETVIEW [48] AND PLACES2 [49] WITH VARIOUS CONTAMINATION PATTERNS AS INPUT. \downarrow INDICATES THE LOWER THE BETTER WHILE \uparrow MEANS THE HIGHER THE BETTER.

Fig. 10. Feature map visualization of the generator. C represents the 8 transformer-style components. Row 1 shows outputs employing the ODC module, while Row 2 shows outputs employing the HODC module. $C_1 - C_4$ are encoder components and $C_5 - C_8$ are decoder components.

 structural information in distant pixels is limited. To overcome this limitation, S3IM loss is a feasible scheme that randomly scrambles the pixel distribution of minibatch images to create non-local sets of pixels, and then SSIM is applied to these artificially constructed patches:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{s3im} = 1 - \text{SSIM}(I_o, I_{gt}).\tag{18}
$$

 In the training process of AFAN, the improved S3IM loss randomly scrambles the pixels within a single output image $_{427}$ I_o (including the groundtruth) rather than using minibatch 428 images in [50]. This innovation aims to enhance the detection of structural information across broader regions of each image, improving the quality and coherence of inpainting results.

431 Total Loss. The whole loss function can be obtained as:

$$
\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{con} + \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{perc} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{s3im} + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{adv} + \lambda_4 \mathcal{L}_{forg} \quad (19)
$$

432 where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \lambda_4$ are hyper-parameters. In this work, we 433 empirically set $\lambda_1 = 100$, $\lambda_2 = 1$, $\lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = 0.1$.

IV. EXPERIMENTS 434

A. Implementation Details 435

The AFAN is evaluated using four public datasets including 436 a range of subjects: CelebAMask-HQ [42] and FFHQ [43] ⁴³⁷ for high-quality faces, Paris StreetView [48] and Places2 [49] ⁴³⁸ for scenes. In terms of data preprocessing, all input images 439 are contaminated by constant values, patches of the scene ⁴⁴⁰ images, and texture images. As shown in Fig. 9, we apply two 441 contamination patterns: regular patterns and irregular patterns ⁴⁴² (including text-like patterns $[52]$), to simulate various types of 443 blind images. 444

During the training phase, we use the Adam optimizer [53] 445 with hyperparameters β_1 set to 0.5 and β_2 to 0.9. The learning 446 rate for both the generator and discriminator is configured at 447 1e-4. The AFAN is developed using PyTorch and is trained ⁴⁴⁸ on NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPUs.

B. Quantitative Evaluation 450

In the evaluation of inpainting results with various con- ⁴⁵¹ tamination patterns, AFAN is compared with state-of-the-art 452

Fig. 11. Ablation study on different configurations of the AFAN for blind image inpainting. The experiment is conducted on the CelebAMask-HQ [42] dataset with regular contamination patterns.

TABLE II ABLATION STUDY ON THE CELEBAMASK-HQ [42] DATASET WITH REGULAR CONTAMINATION PATTERN.

Methods	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	$\ell_1(\%) \downarrow$	LPIPS \downarrow	$FID \perp$
BF	25.84	0.874	3.93	0.082	17.48
BF+HODC	26.13	0.891	3.47	0.079	15.27
$BF+ACA$	26.47	0.909	3.34	0.075	14.51
BF+HODC $+ACA$	26.91	0.921	2.97	0.066	12.45

453 such as VCNet $[8]$, TransHAE $[9]$, and OmniNet $[3]$ for blind image inpainting. Meanwhile, a non-blind image inpainting method MAT [32] is applied as a comparative reference. These comparisons are conducted on testing datasets from CelebAMask-HQ [42], FFHQ [43], Places2 [49], and Paris StreetView [48]. Consistent with standard practices in image inpainting research, we employ Peak Signal to Noise Ratio 460 (PSNR), Structural Similarity (SSIM), and Mean ℓ_1 error as quantitative metrics, which are calculated on the spatial images to assess the accuracy of the inpainting. In addition, two additional metrics: Learned Perceptual Image Patch Similarity (LPIPS) [54] and the Frechet Inception Score (FID) [55], are utilized to measure the perceptual quality of predicted images compared to the groundtruth images. As detailed in Table I, comparative experiments conducted on different datasets show that the proposed method outperforms existing approaches on most of the metrics.

C. Qualitative Evaluations

⁴⁷¹ To validate the inpainting performance, Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 present a comparative analysis of the predicted results from different methods. As illustrated in Fig. 7, the inpainting result from VCNet seems to produce distorted structures, particu- larly noticeable around contaminated edge regions. TransHAE tends to produce texture noise during the reconstruction of features. Although MAT utilizes mask information as part of its input for non-blind image inpainting, the output still exhibits artifacts that are affected by contaminants present in the original image. OmniNet is capable of recovering reasonable content but often ignores texture details. In con- trast, our method enhances the perception of contaminated regions via an adversarial training strategy to achieve accurate reconstruction. Moreover, Fig. 8 shows similar results on the

Fig. 12. Ablation study of the discriminator D.The experiment is conducted on four datasets with contamination. w/o D refers to the configuration in which the AFAN model is trained without employing the proposed mask region perception strategy denoted as D.

testing datasets. Both VCNet and TransHAE struggle with ⁴⁸⁵ maintaining reasonable semantics and detail accuracy. While 486 MAT and OmniNet attempt to generate plausible structures, 487 their outputs often contain confusing artifacts. In contrast, our 488 method produces more reliable and high-quality inpainting 489 results. 490

D. Ablation study 491

In this subsection, we analyze how the proposed modules 492 (ACA block, HODC) contribute to the final performance of ⁴⁹³ image inpainting. Specifically, we evaluate the effectiveness ⁴⁹⁴ of the AFAN backbone framework (BF) by removing the ⁴⁹⁵ HODC module and replacing the ACA blocks in the generator 496 with standard transformer blocks. Following this, the HODC 497 layers and ACA scheme are progressively integrated into the ⁴⁹⁸ backbone, enabling us to assess their individual contributions to the overall performance systematically. As shown in Fig. 500 11, these components sequentially enhance the generation of \sim 501 reasonable contextual content and fine texture details on the 502 CelebAMask-HO [42] dataset. Note that this dataset adopts 503 regular contamination patterns, which are referred as unseen ⁵⁰⁴ patterns in TransHAE. Moreover, Table II illustrates that our $_{505}$ proposed modules demonstrably enhance the performance in the task of blind image inpainting.

To further analyze the contribution of each module to the ⁵⁰⁸ overall performance, we train a series of variant AFANs: i) 509 without (denoted as w/o) the proposed mask region perception 510 strategy, which is enabled by the discriminator D ; ii) without 511 employing the ACA scheme; iii) without incorporating the HODC layers. Quantitative comparisons between these AFAN 513

TABLE III QUANTITATIVE EVALUATIONS ON THE CELEBAMASK-HQ [42], FFHQ [43], PARIS STREETVIEW [48] AND PLACES2 [49] WITH VARIOUS

Fig. 13. Ablation study of the ACA strategy. The experiment is conducted on FFHQ [43] and Paris StreetView [48]. w/o ACA refers to the configuration where the AFAN model is trained without employing the ACA scheme.

Fig. 14. Ablation study of the HODC strategy. The experiment is conducted on CelebAMask-HQ $[42]$ and Places2 $[49]$. w/o HODC refers to the configuration where the AFAN model is trained without HODC layers.

 variants and the full AFAN are demonstrated in Table III. The results indicate that all variant models underperformed com- pared to the full model. Specifically, a comparison of columns (b) and (c) in Fig. 12 shows that the proposed mask region perception strategy significantly reduces the presence of con- taminant artifacts. Fig. 13 illustrates that ACA plays a crucial role in improving the precision of local feature identification while preserving rich detail. Similarly, the HODC module, leveraging edge features calculated by the Scharr operator, improves the expression of fine details. Its effectiveness is

Fig. 15. Comparison with the state-of-the-art on old photos and mural painting.

further validated by the visual results presented in Fig. 14. $\frac{524}{2}$

E. Application 525

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 demonstrate the effectiveness of AFAN 526 in tasks such as graffiti removal (e.g., text-like contamina- ⁵²⁷ tion patterns). Additionally, we extend AFAN to applications 528 like old photo and mural restoration, where defects such 529 as scratches and blemishes, which lack mask priors, require 530 blind image inpainting techniques for accurate removal and 531 completion. Fig. shows a qualitative comparison between 532 AFAN and state-of-the-art blind image inpainting models. The 533 results from VCNet and OmniNet exhibit blurring artifacts and 534 fail to completely remove scratches. In contrast, our model 535 generates more realistic structures and preserves richer details, 536 highlighting its superior performance in such restoration tasks. 537

V. CONCLUSION

 This paper presents AFAN, a robust blind inpainting frame- work that exhibits significant restoration capabilities across diverse benchmark datasets. The framework leverages an adversarial training strategy, incorporating forgery detection as a mask region perception mechanism. To address both global and local content features effectively, AFAN integrates adaptive contextual attention blocks, enhancing its ability to handle contextual relationships. Additionally, high-frequency omni-dimensional dynamic convolution is implemented to capture more texture details, contributing to more realistic and detailed reconstructions. Comprehensive evaluations on various benchmark datasets demonstrate that AFAN achieves superior results in blind image inpainting for various contam- ination. The proposed AFAN excels in content reconstruction without relying on mask priors, expanding its applicability to more realistic scenarios. Additionally, the ACA and HODC modules offer valuable insights for future related tasks.

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Supplementary Materials

A. Qualitative Evaluations

 To validate the inpainting performance, Fig. 1 presents comparative results from a variety of methods across an extended set of examples. The predicted results align with the descriptions provided in Section IV-B, demonstrating that our method consistently produces more reliable and high-quality inpainting results.

B. HODC Detail

 Section III-D explains how HODC extends upon omni- dimensional dynamic convolution (ODC) by incorporating edge features to enhance the representation of fine details. For edge detection, several filtering operators (e.g., Scharr, Laplace, Canny, Sobel, Prewitt, Roberts) are commonly em- ployed to highlight contours and details. Fig. 2 illustrates the edge features of these operators, as well as their fusion results with the original image. Notably, Fig. 2(b-f) demonstrates the introduction of extraneous edge artifacts, while the Scharr 18 operation in Fig. $2(g)$ strikes an optimal balance between detail augmentation and structural fidelity. Consequently, the HODC employs edge features calculated by the Scharr operator to enhance the expression of details.

C. Inpainting Detail

 To analyze the image reconstruction process, we visualized the feature maps generated by each component of the generator 25 G, labeled as $[C_1, C_2, ..., C_8]$. Fig. 3 presents the dynamic visualization process, which includes examples of both high- quality face images and scene images, illustrating how the generator handles diverse visual content.

 Specifically, the encoder, consisting of components $[C_1, ..., C_4]$, systematically reduces the spatial dimensions of 31 the images. This process primarily extracts and condenses contextual information surrounding the contaminated regions within the images. Additionally, with the integration of the proposed HODC and ACA modules, the encoder captures and intricately processes features specifically related to the contaminated regions, as illustrated in Fig. 3(b-e).

 Following this targeted feature extraction, the decoder, com-38 prised of components $[C_5, ..., C_8]$, utilizes the refined features processed by the encoder to reconstruct the complete image. This reconstruction is achieved through a sequence of HODC layers and ACA blocks, designed not only to rebuild the image ⁴² but also to predict and fill in the contaminated parts, effectively restoring the image to its intended state. Fig. 3(f-i) displays the reconstruction process within the decoder.

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Fig. 1. Comparison with the state-of-the-art. These images come from datasets listed in Section 4.1 with various contamination patterns. Ours(Θ) refers to the configuration where the AFAN model is trained without employing the mask supervision strategy denoted as D.

Fig. 2. Comparison of different edge detection filters. The first row shows the edge features of the corresponding operator, and the second row shows the fusion result with the original image. The experiment is conducted on the CelebAMask-HQ [5] dataset.

Fig. 3. Feature map visualization of the generator. C represents the 8 transformer-style components, I_c is the contaminated image and I_o is the inpainted image. $C_1 - C_4$ are encoder components and $C_5 - C_8$ are decoder components.